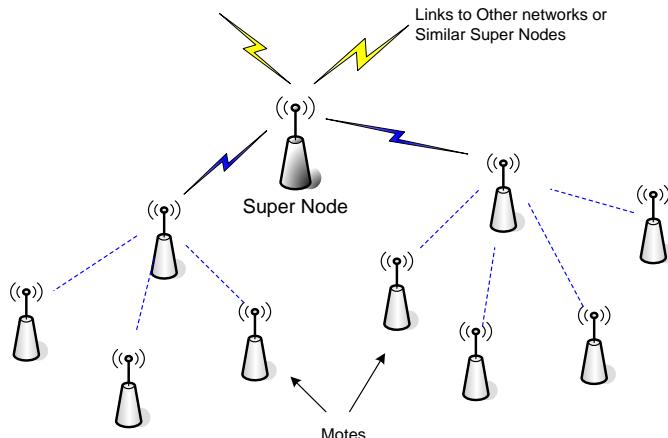




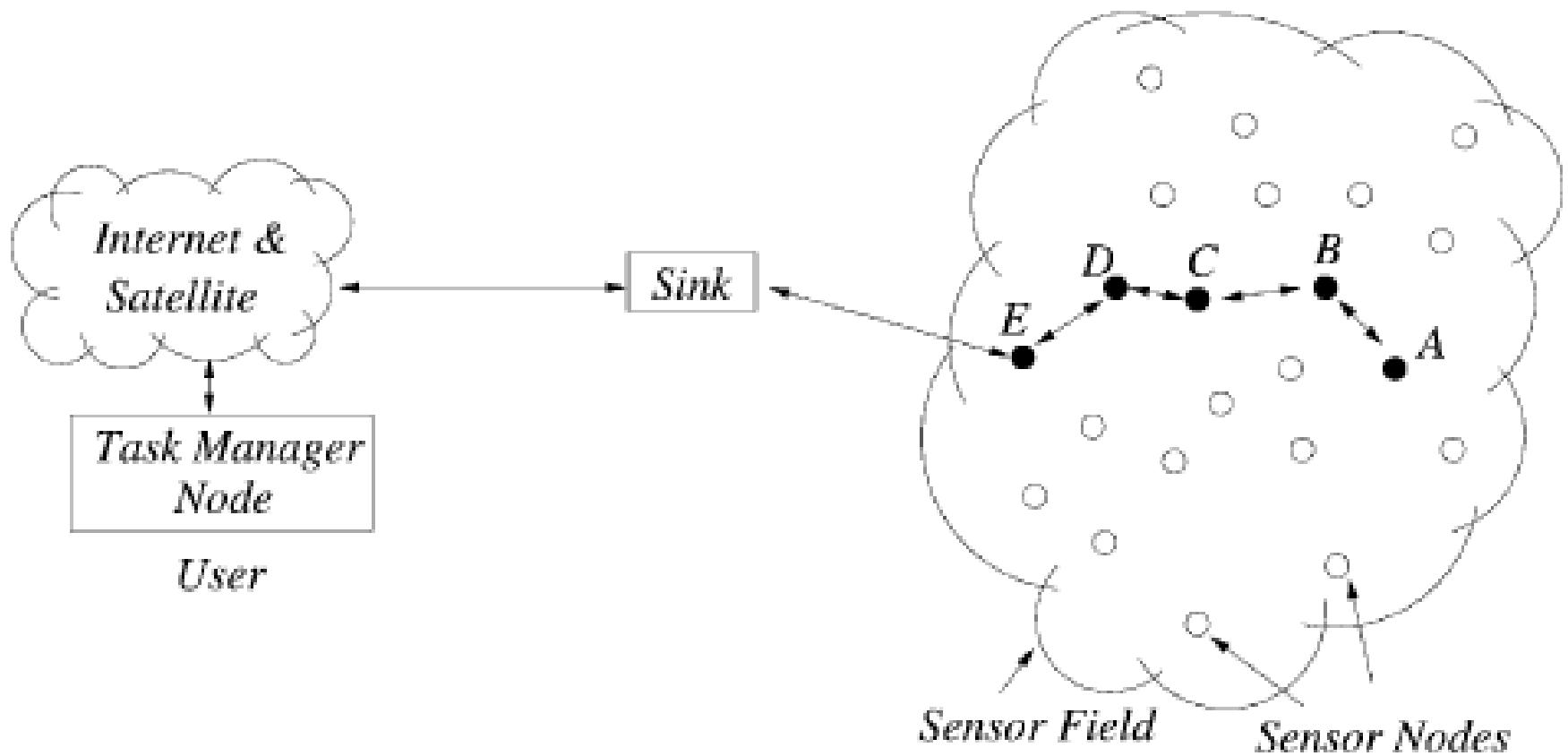
Wireless sensor networks: Introduction

Wireless sensor networks

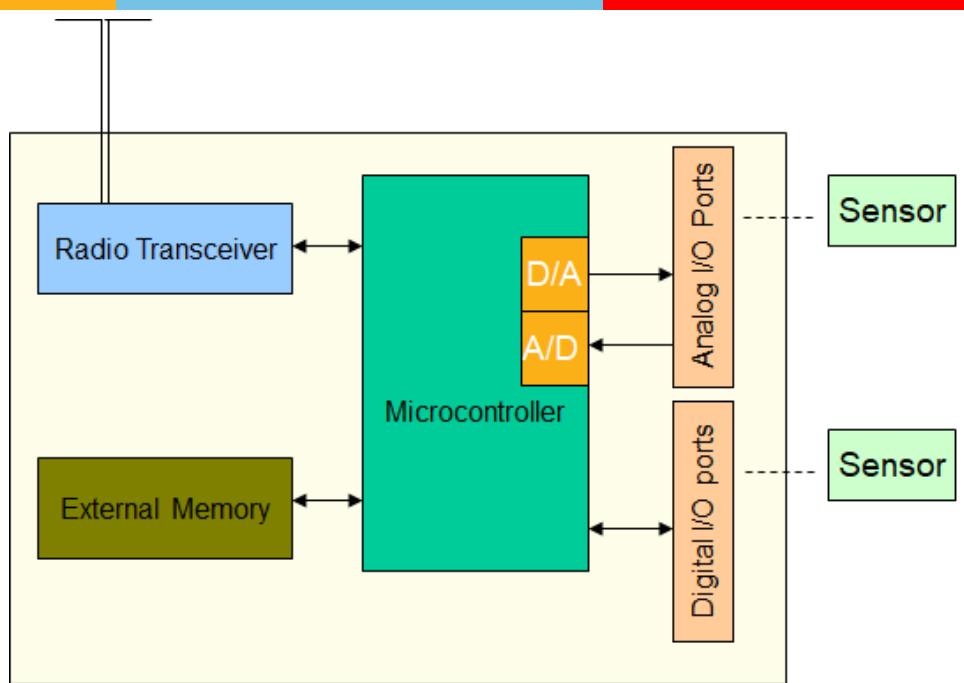
- A **wireless sensor network (WSN)** is a **wireless network consisting of spatially distributed autonomous devices using sensors to cooperatively monitor physical or environmental conditions**, such as temperature, sound, vibration, pressure, motion or pollutants, at different locations
- Formed by hundreds or thousands of motes that communicate with each other and pass data along from one to another



IOT context



Motes: the building blocks of WSN

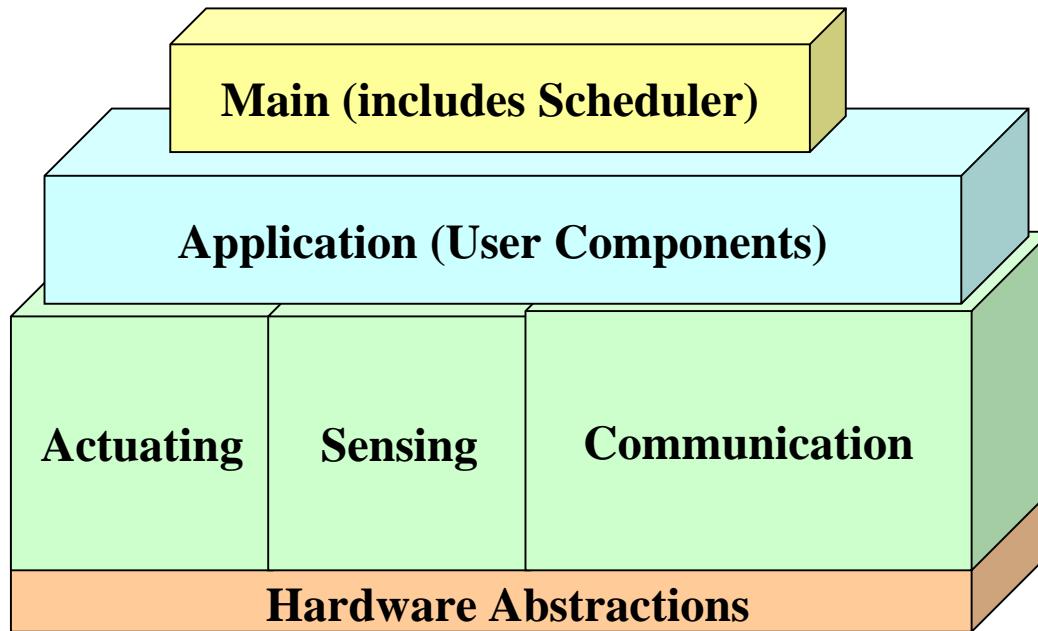


- A very low cost low power computer
- Monitors one or more sensors
- A Radio Link to the outside world
- Are the building blocks of Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN)

Example of motes

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
| mica | mica2 | mica2dot | micaz |
|  |  |  |  |
| telos | telosb | rene2 | pc |
|  |  |  |  |

- Event-driven programming model instead of multithreading
- TinyOS and its programs written in nesC

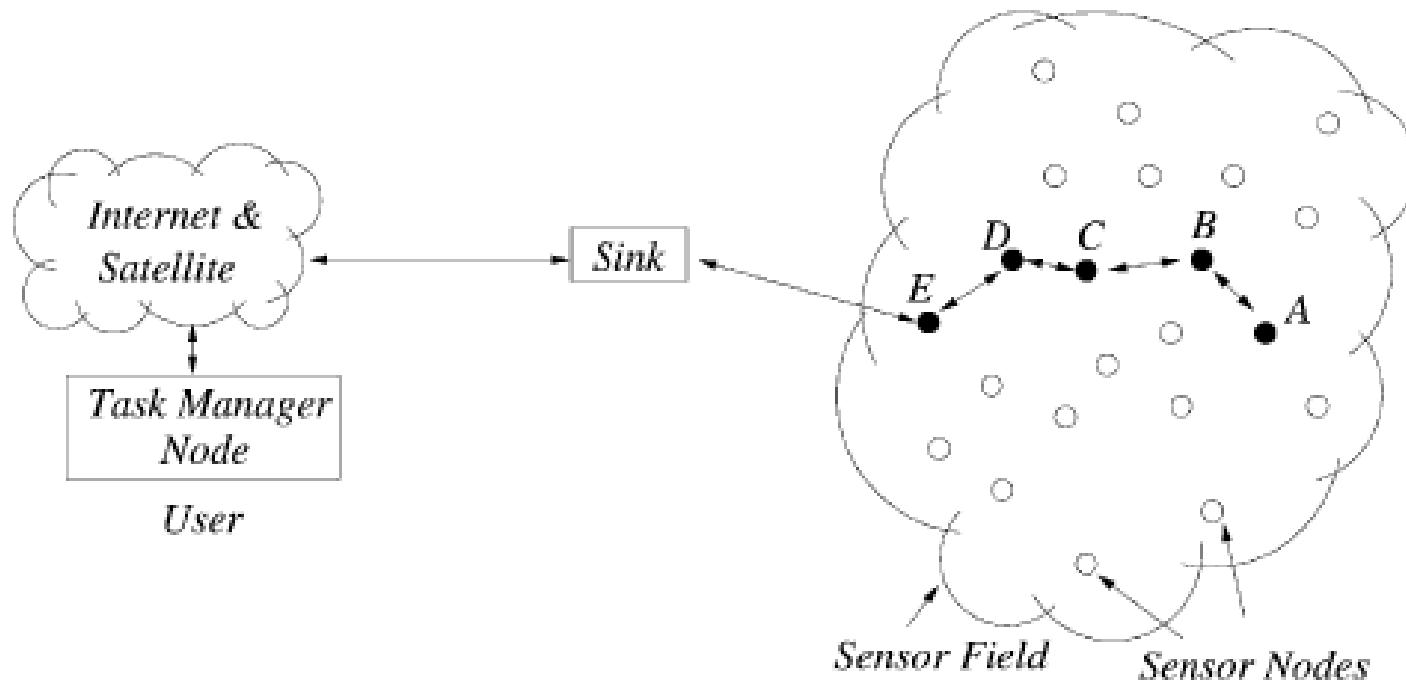


Characteristics of TinyOS

- Small memory footprint
 - non-preemptable FIFO task scheduling
- Power Efficient
 - Puts microcontroller to sleep
 - Puts radio to sleep
- Concurrency-Intensive Operations
 - Event-driven architecture
 - Efficient Interrupts and event handling
- No Real-time guarantees

WSN Broad Applications

- Monitoring Space
- Monitoring Objects
- Monitoring Interactions of Objects & Space



Monitoring Space

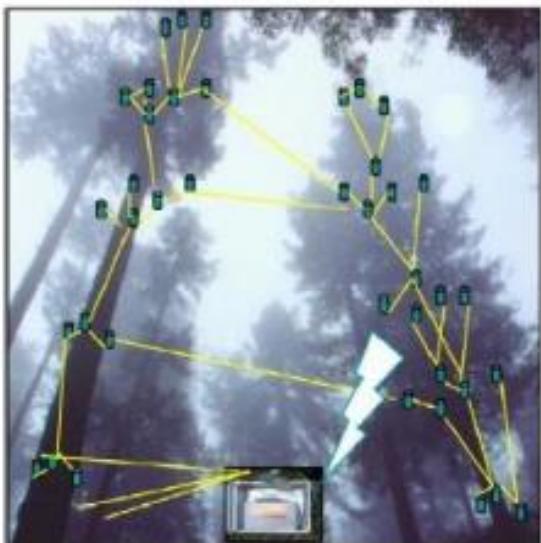
- Environmental and Habitat Monitoring
- Precision Agriculture
- Indoor Climate Control
- Military Surveillance
- Intelligent Alarms

Monitoring objects

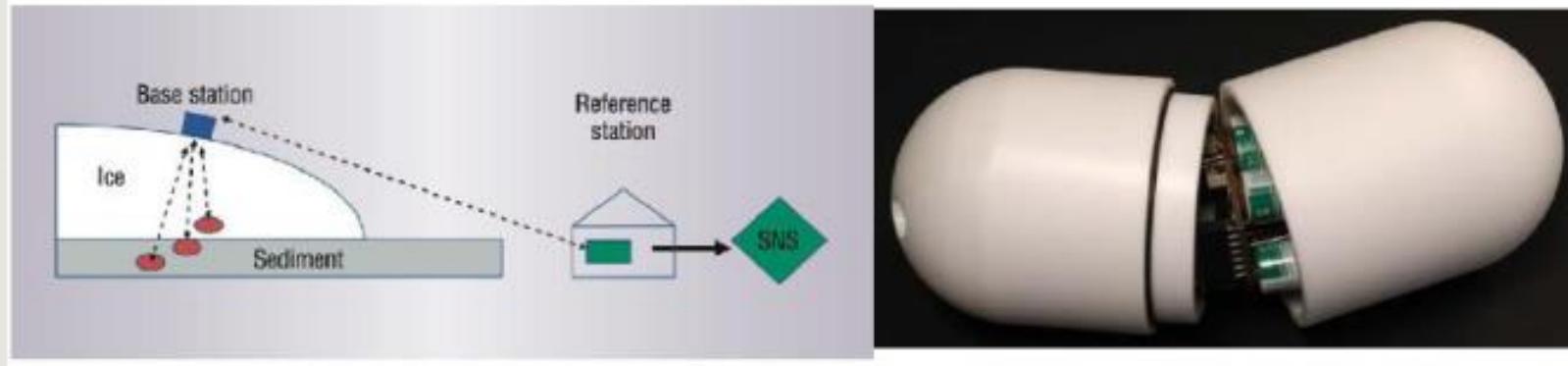
- Structural Monitoring
- Condition-based Maintenance
- Medical Diagnostics
- Urban terrain mapping

Monitoring Interactions of objects and space

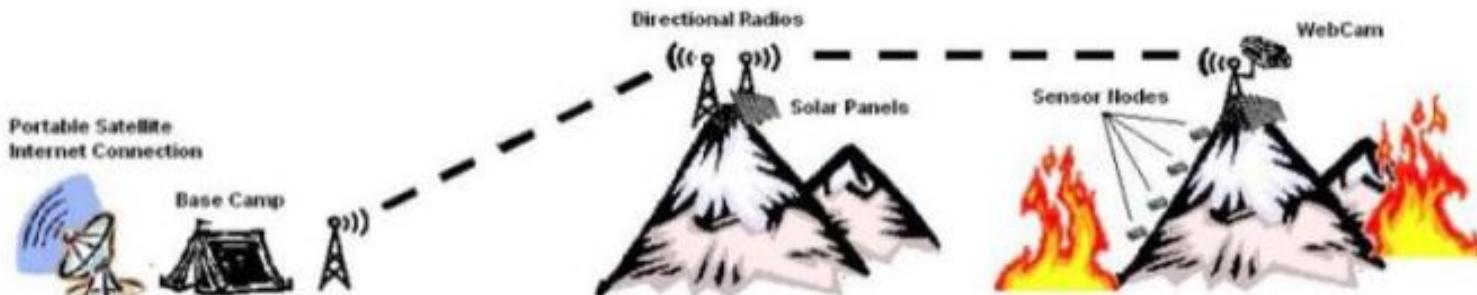
- Wildlife Habitats
- Disaster Management
- Emergency Response
- Asset Tracking
- Health Care
- Manufacturing Process Flows



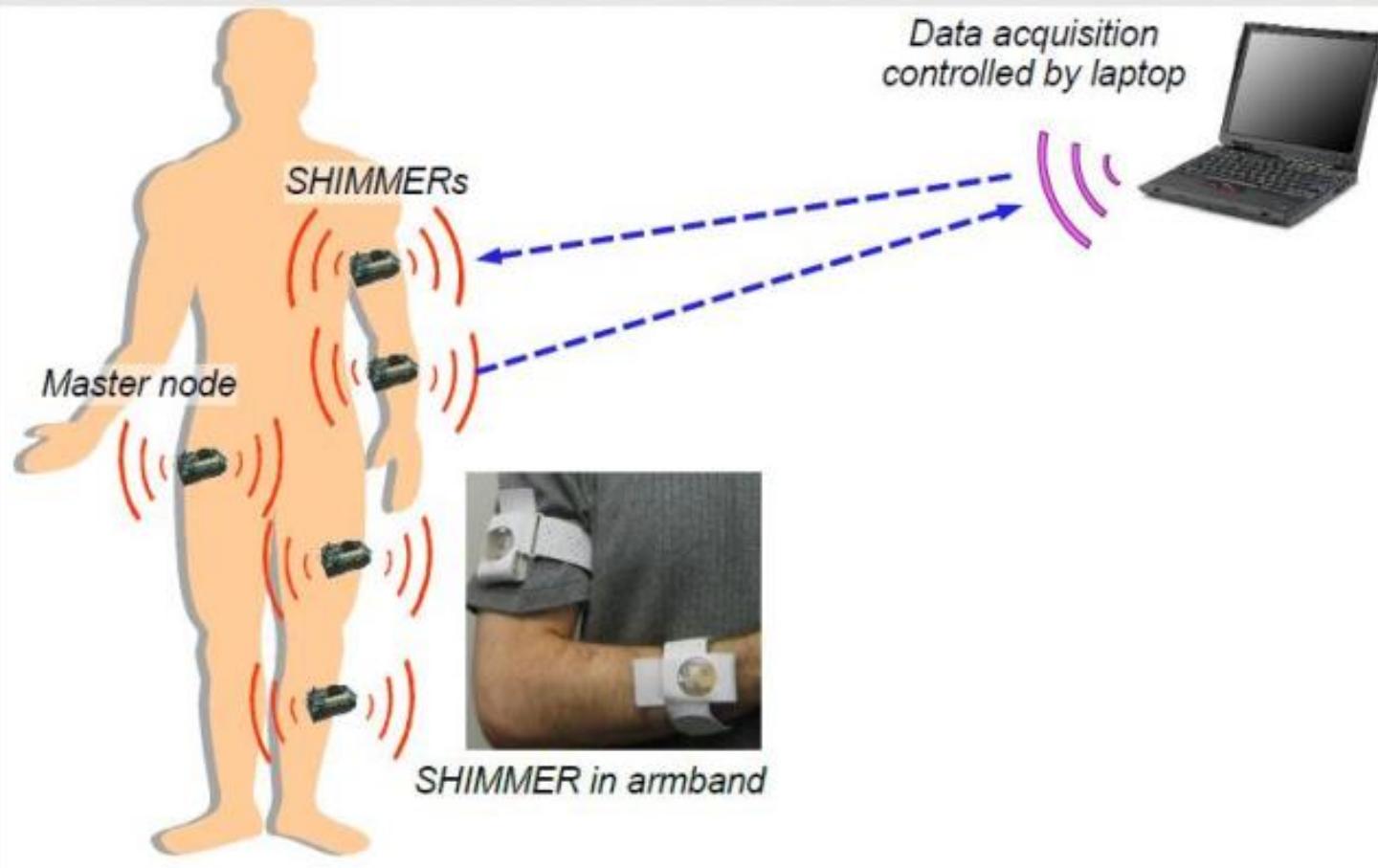
Environmental Monitoring



Glacier Monitoring



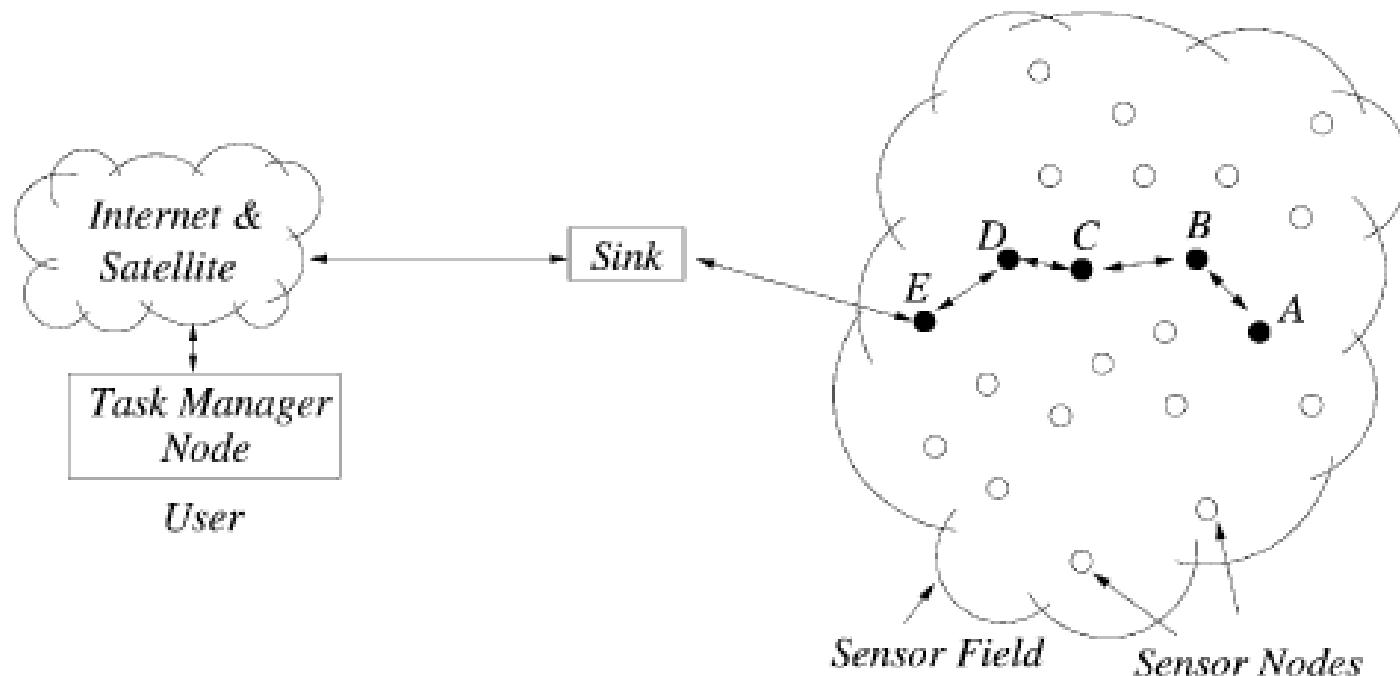
Forest Fire Monitoring



Nueromotor Disease Monitoring

Requirements for WSN

- Long Life
- Small Sized nodes
- Less cost



Constraints on locally available resources

- Limited Energy
- Limited Processing power
- Limited Memory
- Limited Bandwidth

Diversity of WSN nodes and dynamics

- Motes
- Sensors
- Nodes Deployed Randomly – Mobile
- Motes are subject to energy budget
- Motes may die
- Wireless Communication Media – dynamic

Characteristic features

- The large density of nodes - sensors that are **cheap to manufacture and ready to deploy**
- The **application diversity**, which requires different kinds of **application specific sensor** devices
- The **tight limitations in energy, processing power and memory**, which call for highly optimized and lightweight protocols
- The **collaborative objective** for which all the sensor nodes cooperate with one another

Challenges

- Sensor networks are prone to **frequent topology changes** due to several reason hardware failure
- **depleted batteries**
- intermittent **radio interference**
- **environmental factors**
- addition of sensor nodes
- applications require a degree of inherent **fault tolerance** and the ability to reconfigure themselves as the network topology evolves

Advantages

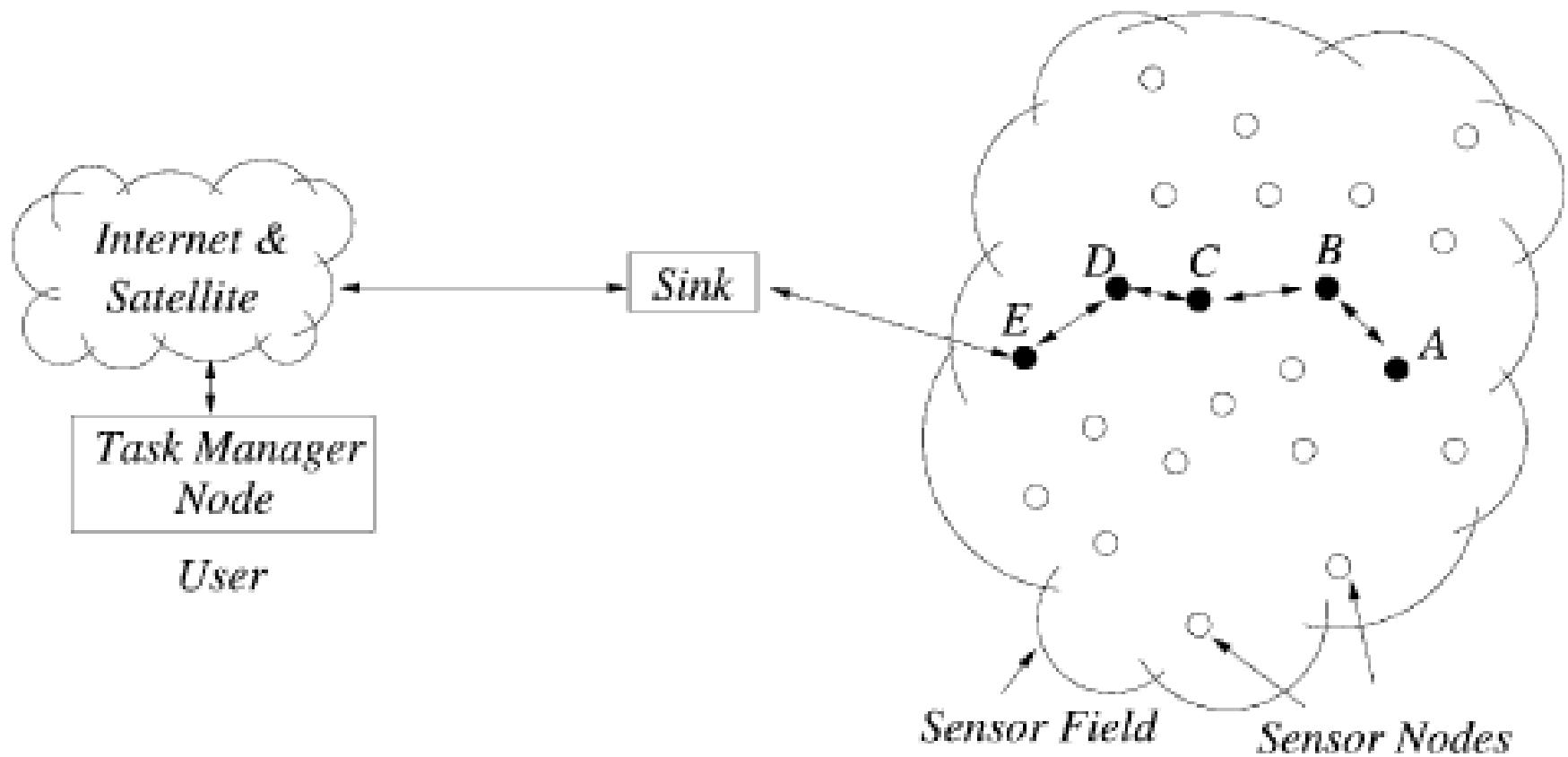
- Due to the dense deployment of a greater number of nodes - higher level of **fault tolerance** is achievable in WSN
- **Coverage of a large area is possible** through the union of coverage of several small sensors
- Coverage of a particular area and terrain shaped as needed to overcome any potential barriers or holes in the area under observation
- It is **possible to incrementally extend coverage** of the observed area & density by deploying additional sensor nodes within the region of interest

Advantages/ Considerations

- An improvement in sensing quality is achieved by combining multiple, independent sensor readings.
- **Local collaboration** between nearby sensor nodes achieves a higher level of confidence in observed phenomena.
- Since **nodes are deployed in close proximity to the sensed event**- this overcomes any ambient environmental factors that might otherwise interfere with observation of the desired phenomenon

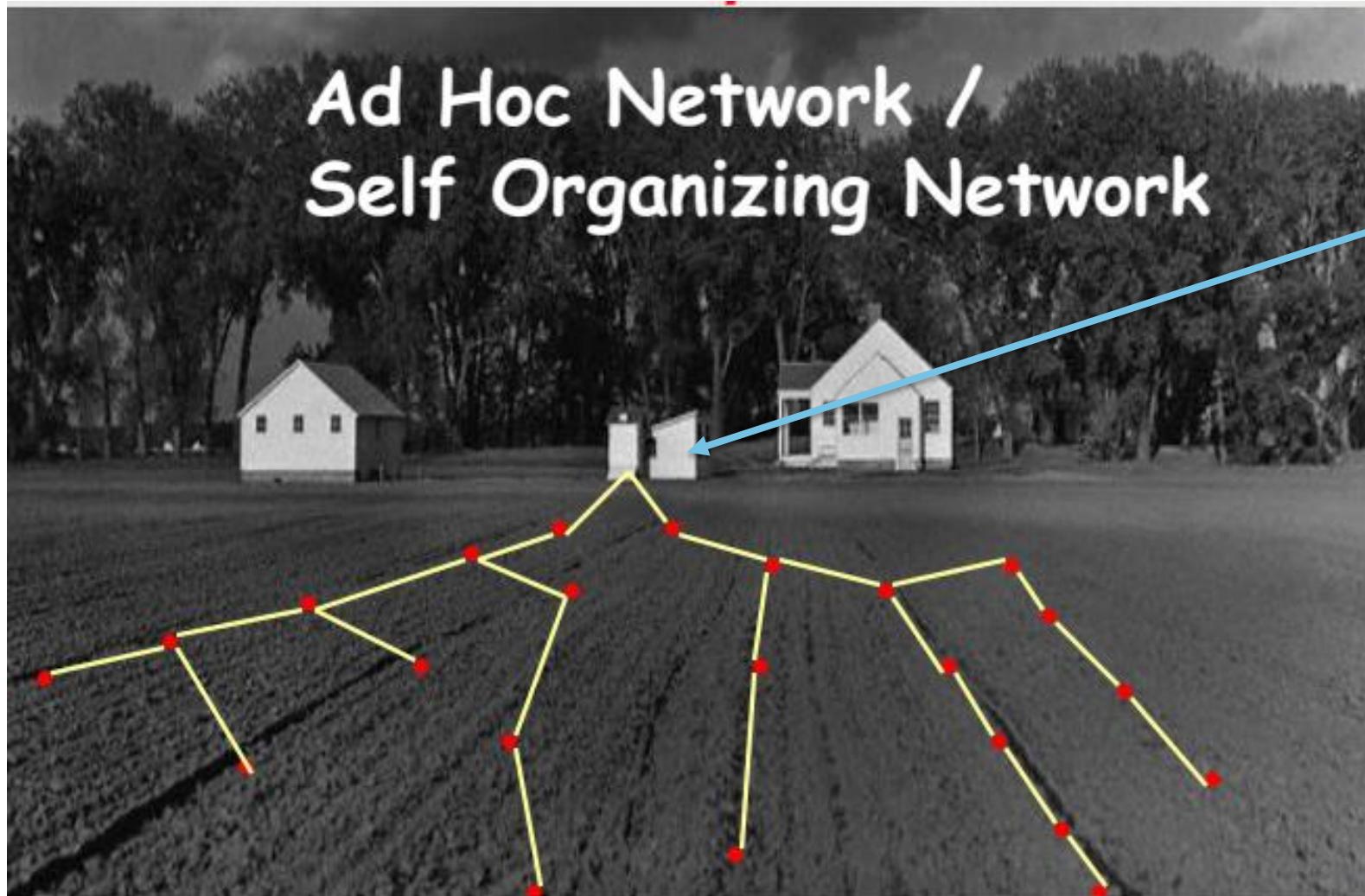
Network architectures in WSN

- How are the sensor nodes teamed up



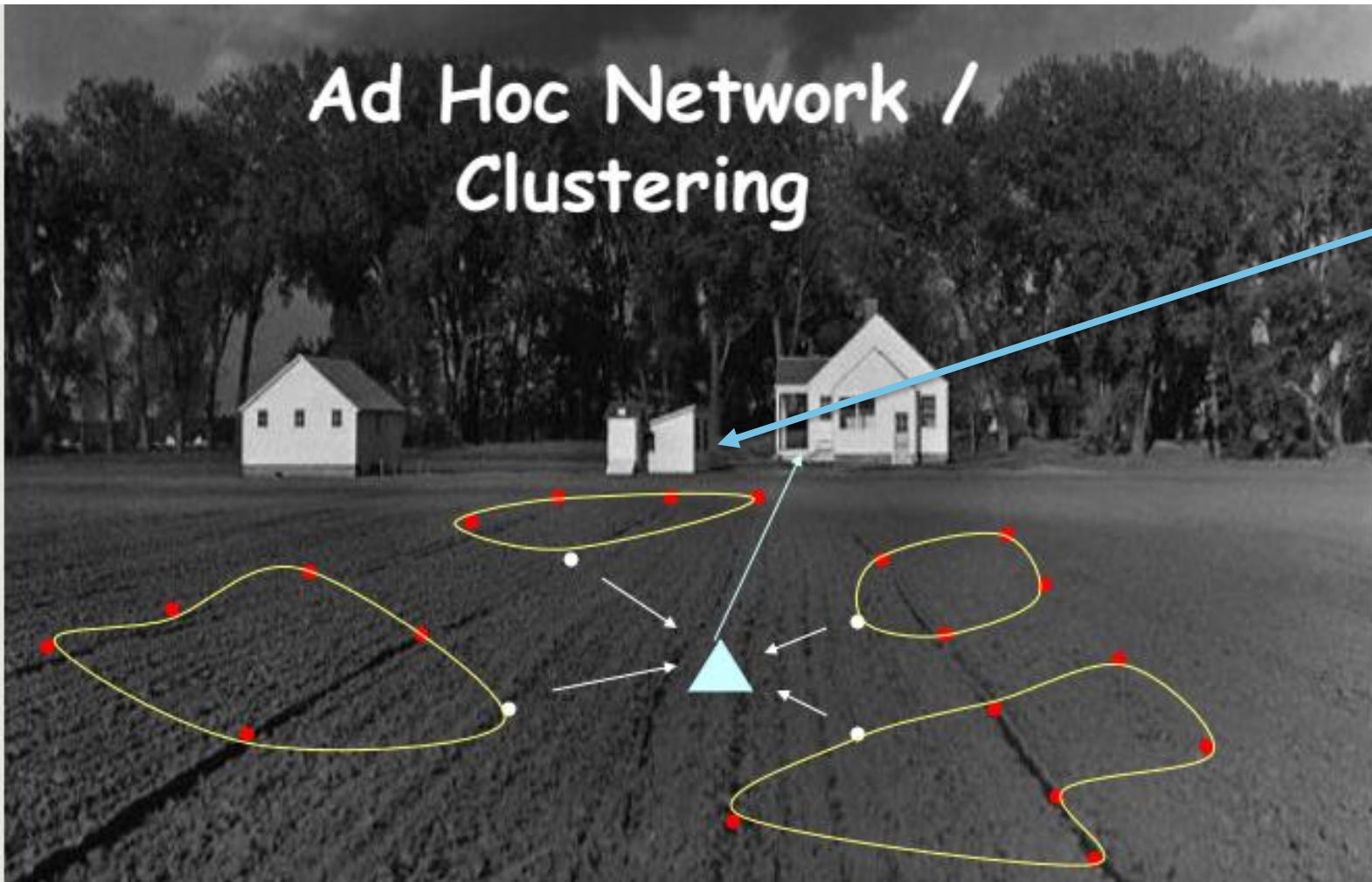
Ad Hoc Network / Self Organizing Network

**SINK/
Base
station/
Gateway**



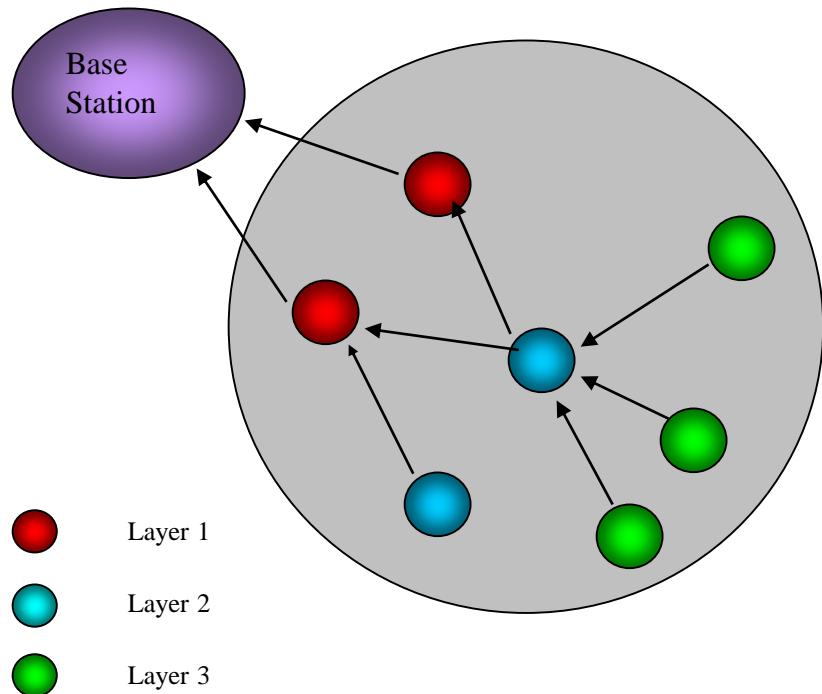
Ad Hoc Network / Clustering

SINK

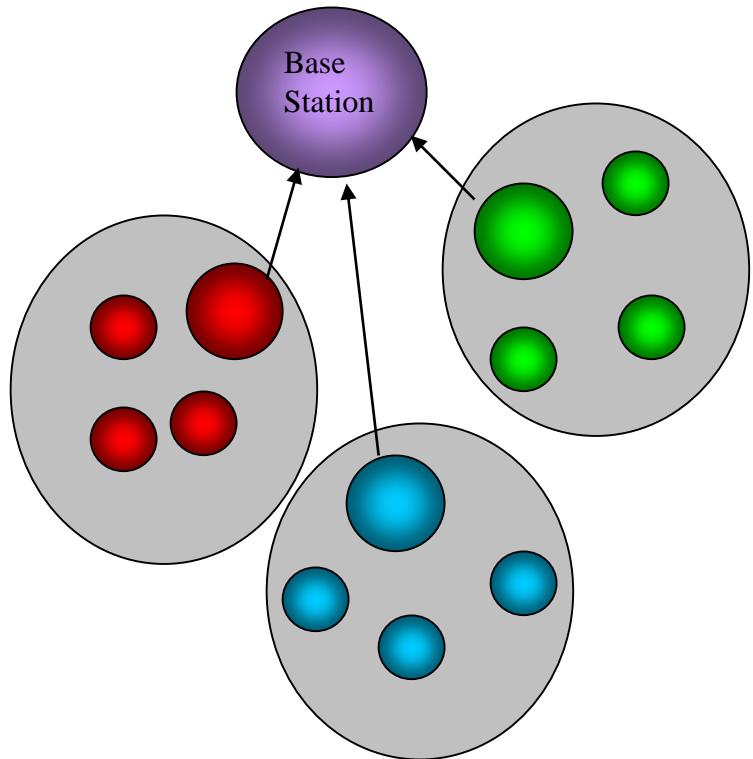


Network Architectures: Layered vs Clustered

Layered Architecture



Clustered Architecture



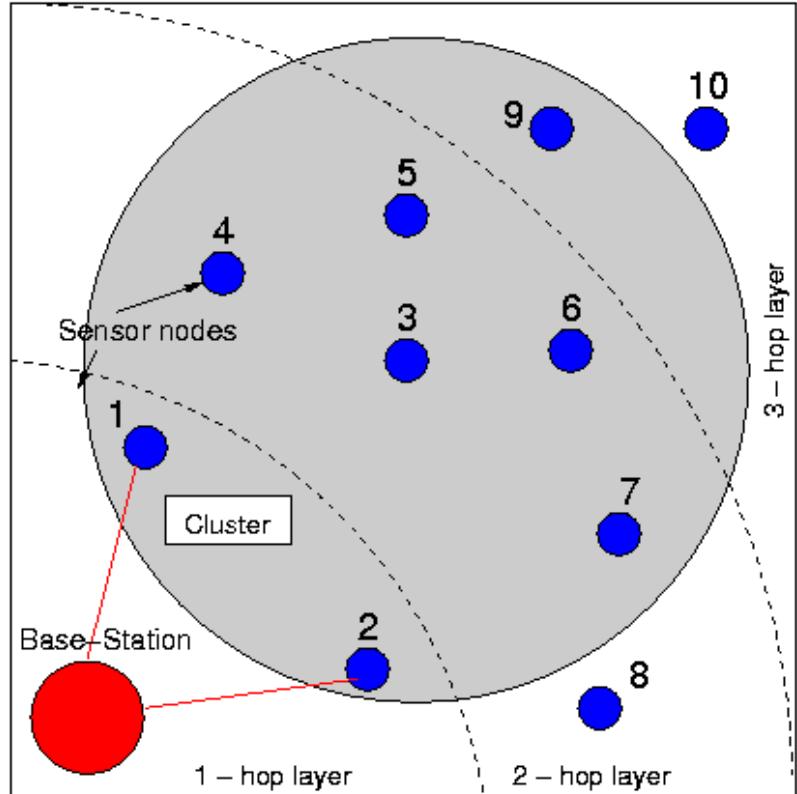
Larger Nodes denote Cluster Heads

Layered network architecture

A few hundred sensor nodes
(half/full duplex)

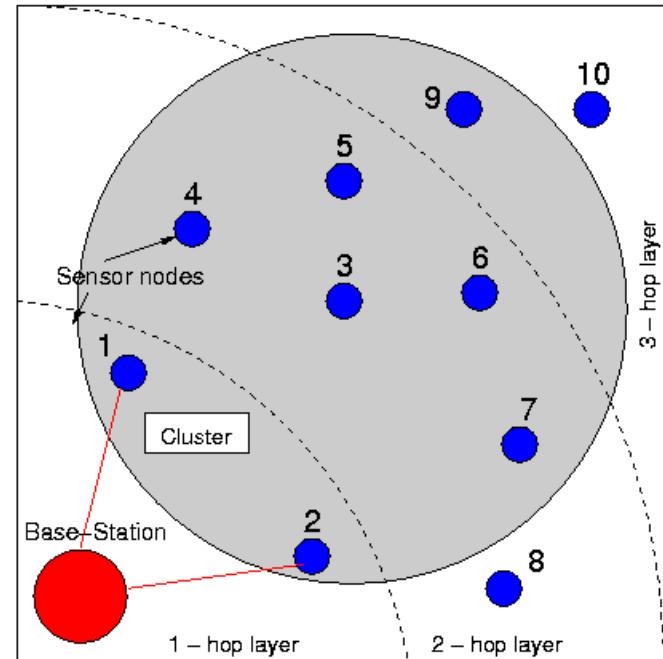
A single powerful base-station
Network nodes are organized into
concentric **Layers**

Layer: Set of nodes that have the
same hop-count to the base-station



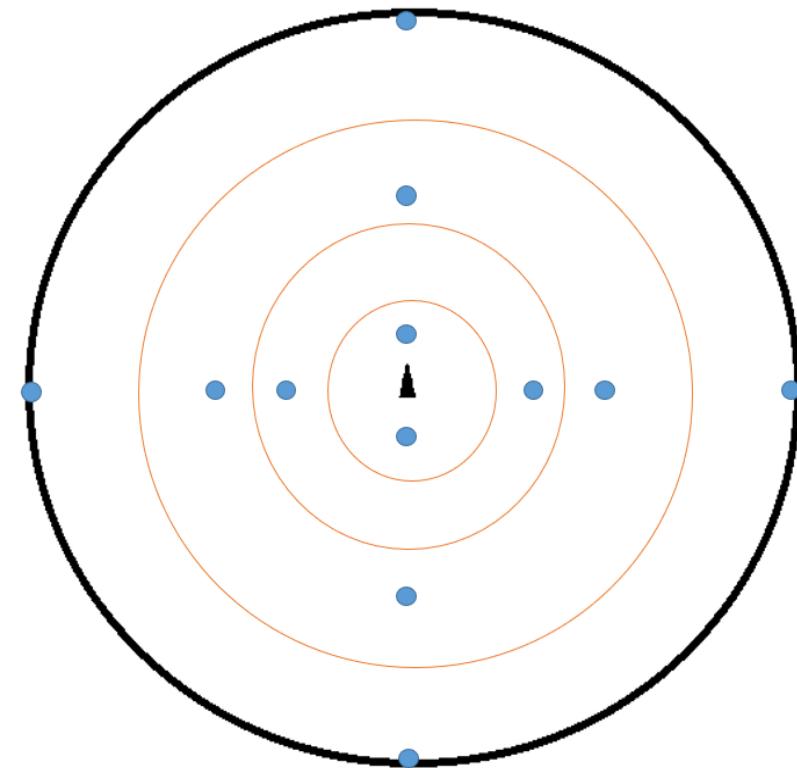
Layered network architecture (cont.)

- Set of wireless sensor nodes create an infrastructure – provide sensing and data forwarding functionality
- BS is data gathering, processing entity and communication link to larger network
- Shorter-range, low-power transmissions preferred to conserve power



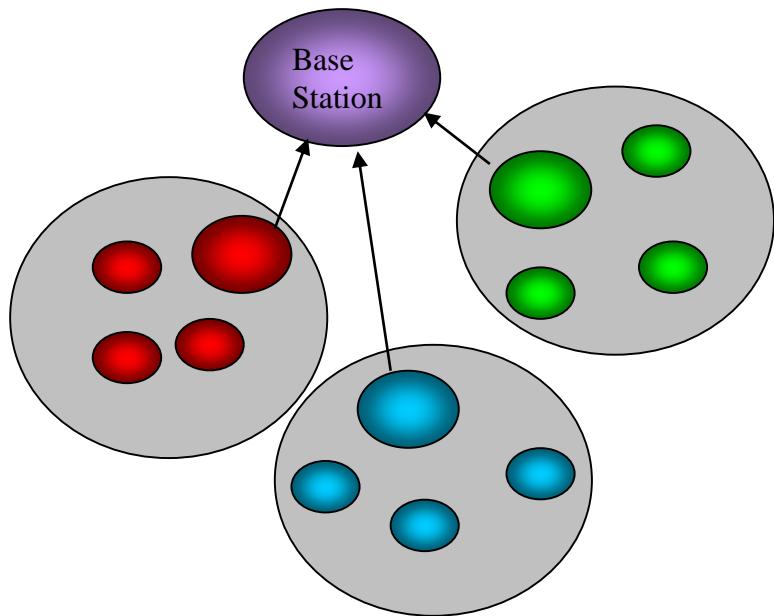
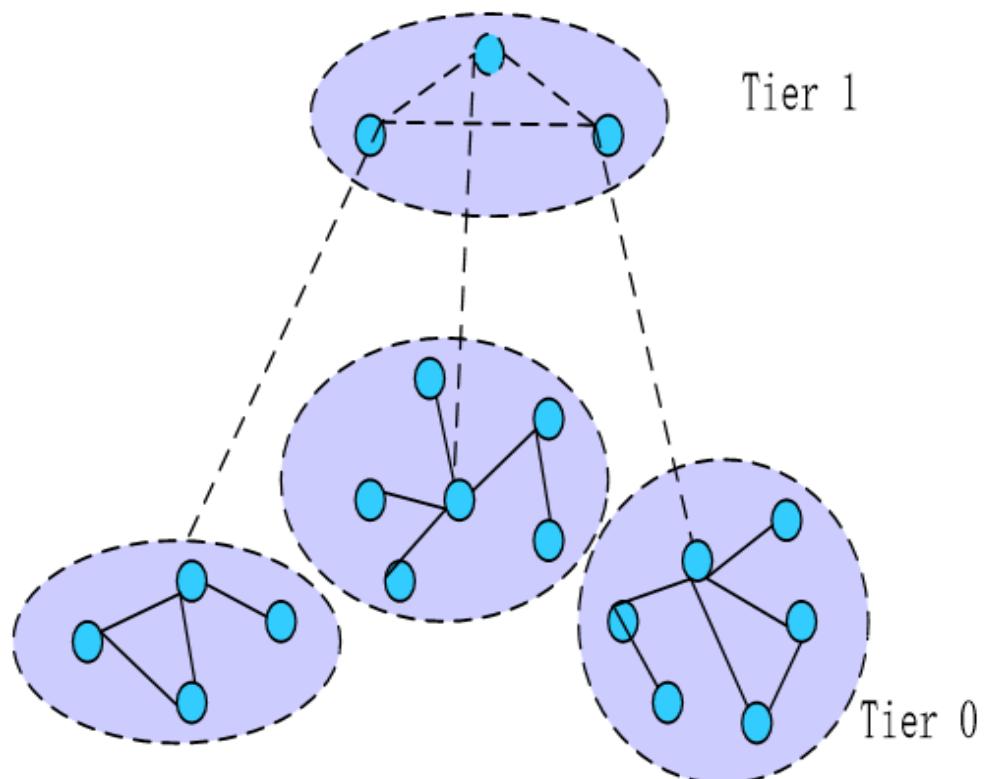
Case scenario

Assume that in the network shown below the transmission range of a mote is 2m. How many layers are there in the network given that the base station is in the center of the network and each consecutive red concentric circle is 1m apart from each other (thus leading to the outermost circle)



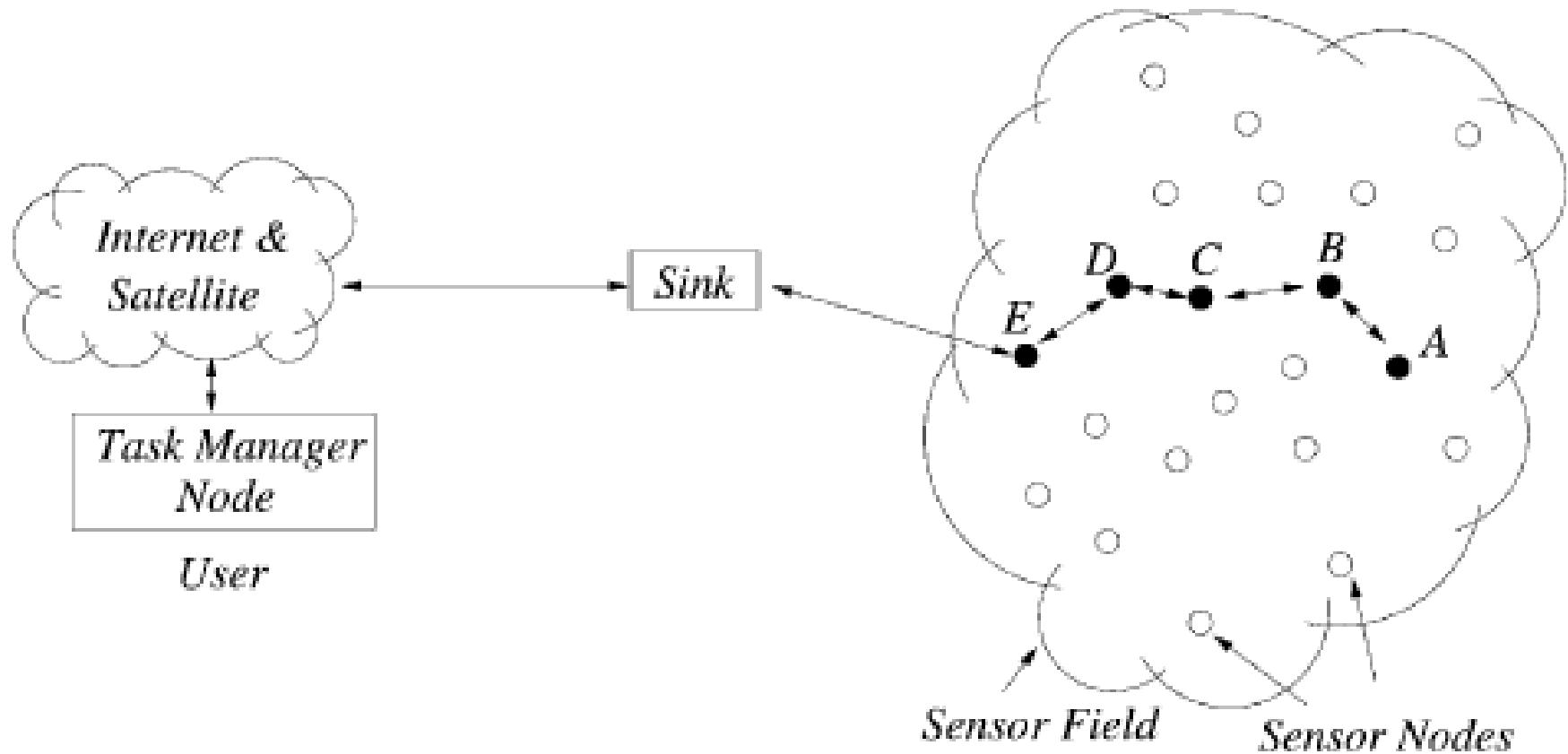
Clustered Network architecture

- Sensor nodes autonomously form a group called **clusters**.
- The clustering process is applied recursively to form a hierarchy of clusters



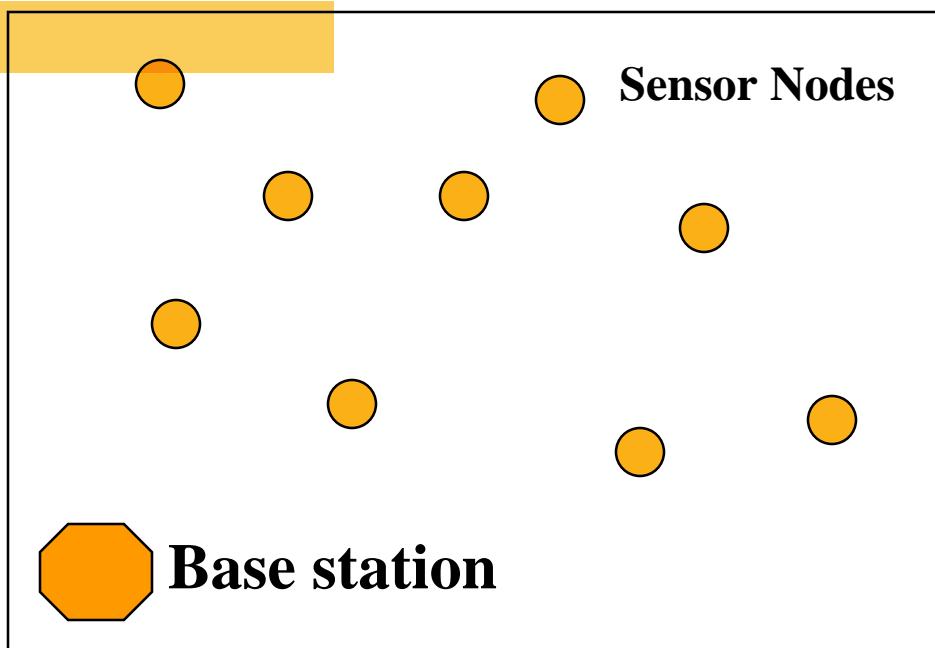
WSN Routing

- Deals with details of : How does A send data to sink/user



Routing

- **Objective:** Transmit sensed data from each sensor node to a base station
 - One round = BS collecting data from all nodes
- Goal is to **maximize the number of rounds of communication** before nodes die and network is inoperable
- Minimize energy AND reduce delay
 - Conflicting requirements

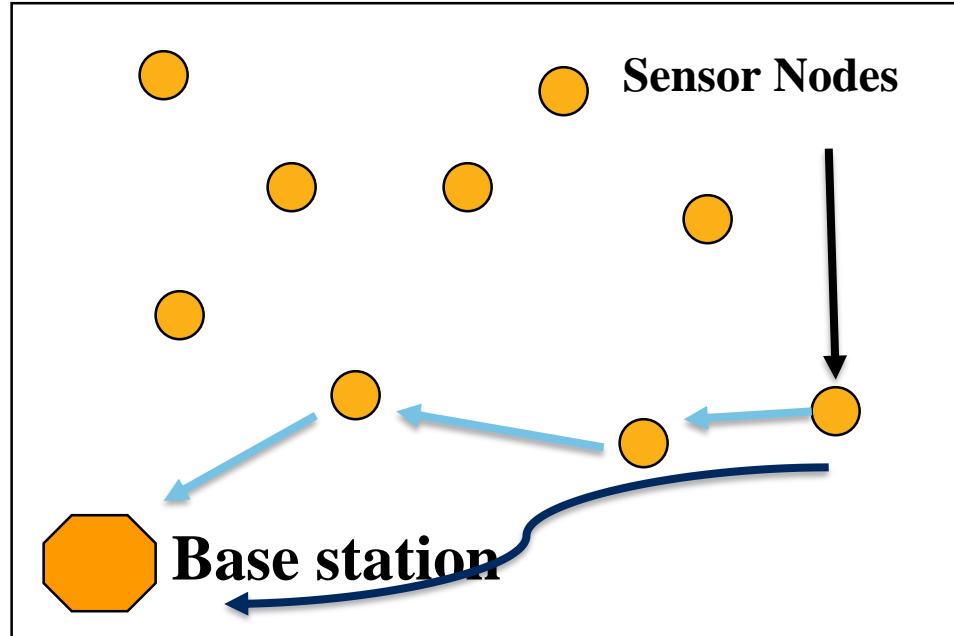


Energy * Delay metric

- Why **energy * delay** metric?

- Find optimal balance to gather data quickly but in an energy efficient manner
- Energy = Energy consumed per round
- Delay = Delay per round (I.e. for all nodes to send packet to BS)

- Why is this metric important?
 - Time and energy critical applications



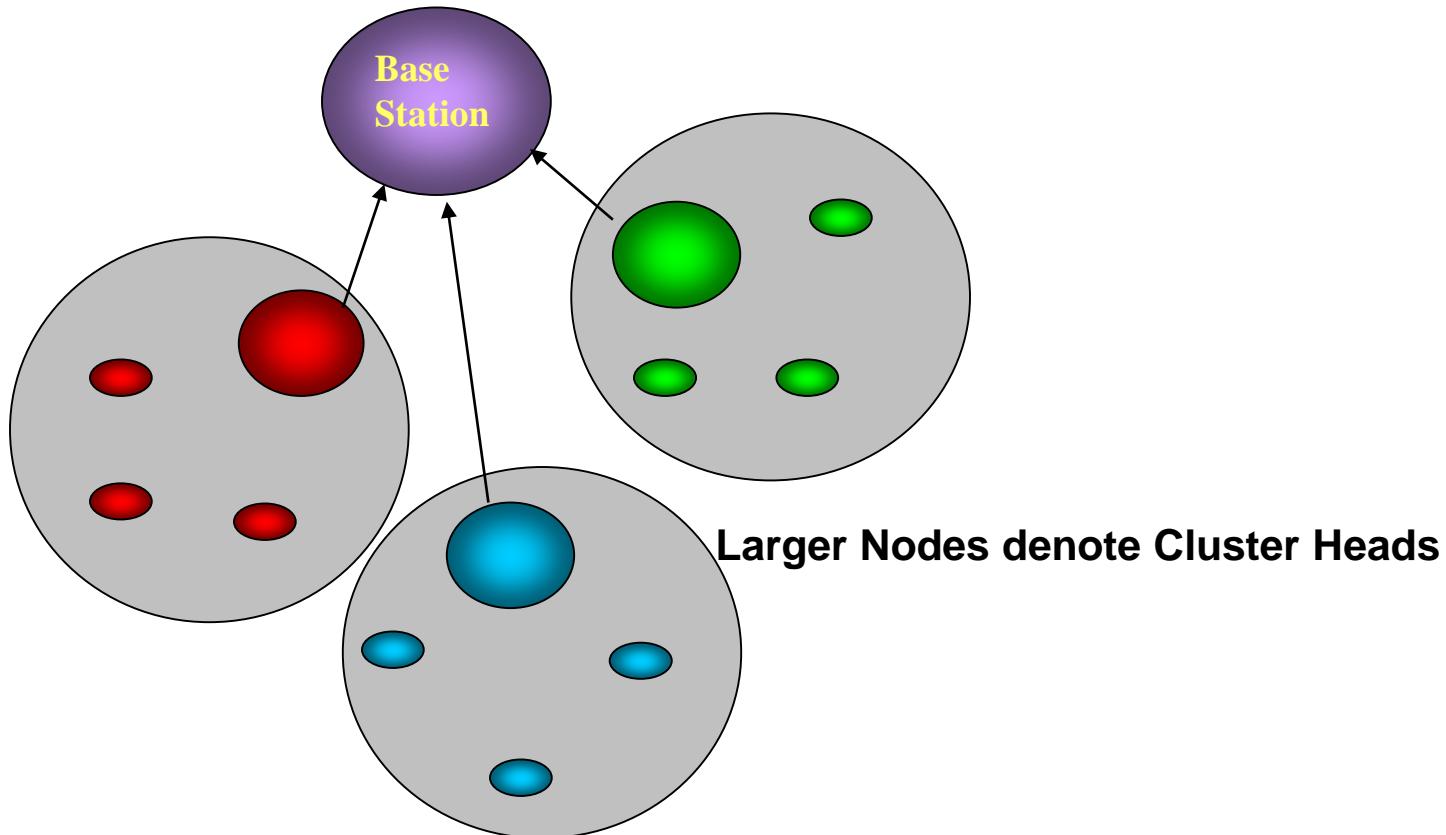
Direct transmission

- All nodes transmit to the base station (BS)
- Very expensive since BS may be located very far away and **nodes need more energy to transmit over longer distances**
- Farther the distance, greater the **propagation losses**, and hence higher the transmission power
- All **nodes must take turns** transmitting to the BS so delay is high (N units for a N -node network)
- Better scheme is to have fewer nodes transmit this far distance to lower energy costs and more simultaneous transmissions to lower delay

Routing protocols

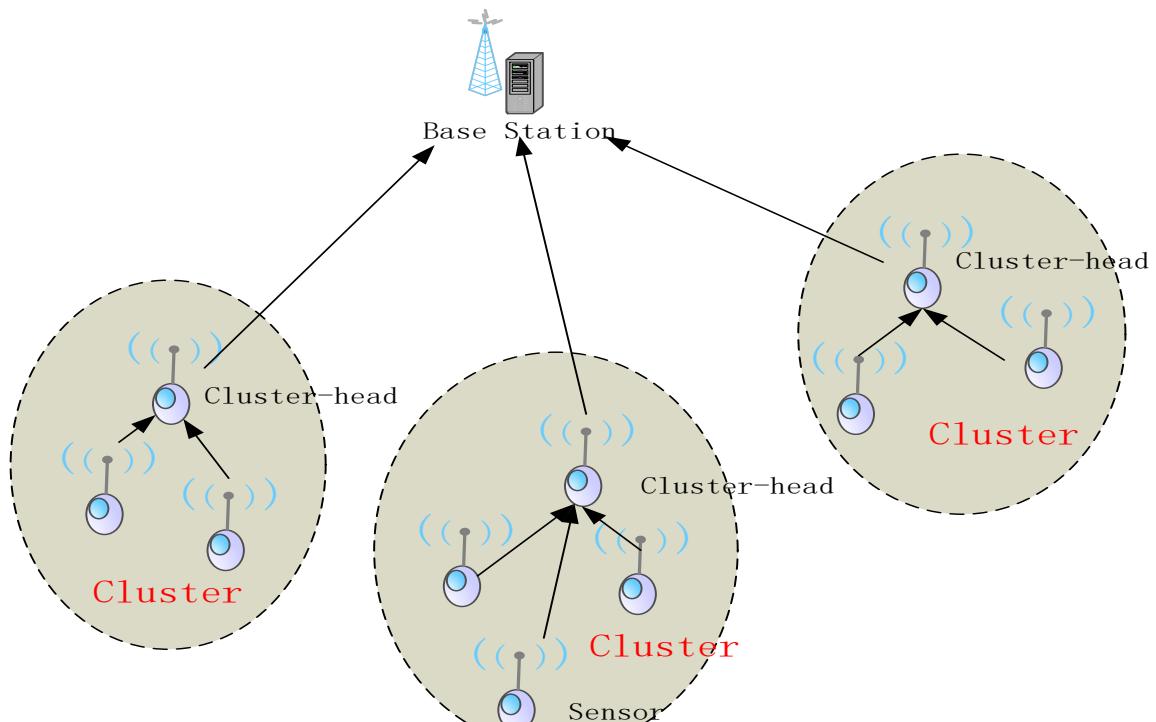
- LEACH
- PEGASIS
- Directed Diffusion
- TEEN
- APTEEN
- Etc...
- **Considerations:**
- Energy, network lifetime, accuracy, query response time etc.

- Low Energy Adaptive Clustering Hierarchy
 - Two-level hierarchy



Leach protocol

- It uses distributed algorithm to organize the sensor nodes into clusters.
- The cluster-head nodes create TDMA schedules.
- Nodes transmit data during their assigned slots.
- The energy efficiency of the LEACH is mainly due to data fusion.



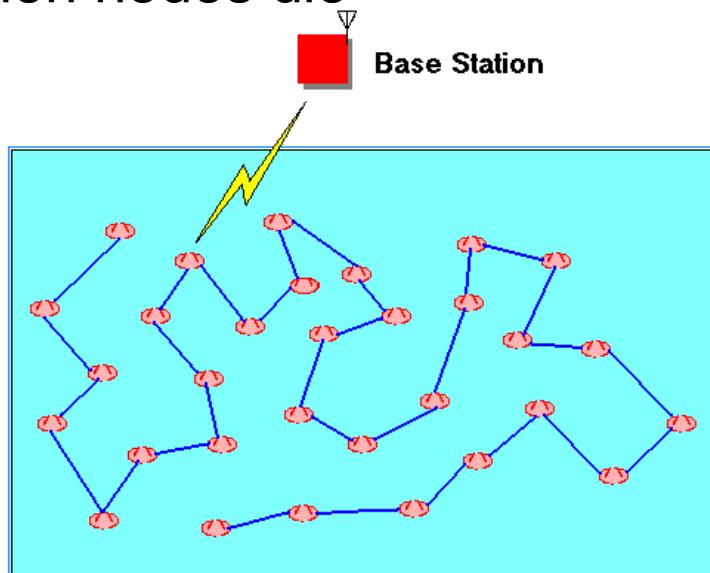
Scheme: PEGASIS

- Goals of PEGASIS (Power-Efficient GAthering for Sensor Information Systems)
 - Minimize distant nodes transmitting directly
 - Minimize number of leaders that transmit to BS
 - Minimize broadcasting overhead
 - Minimize number of messages leader needs to receive
 - Distribute work more equally among all nodes

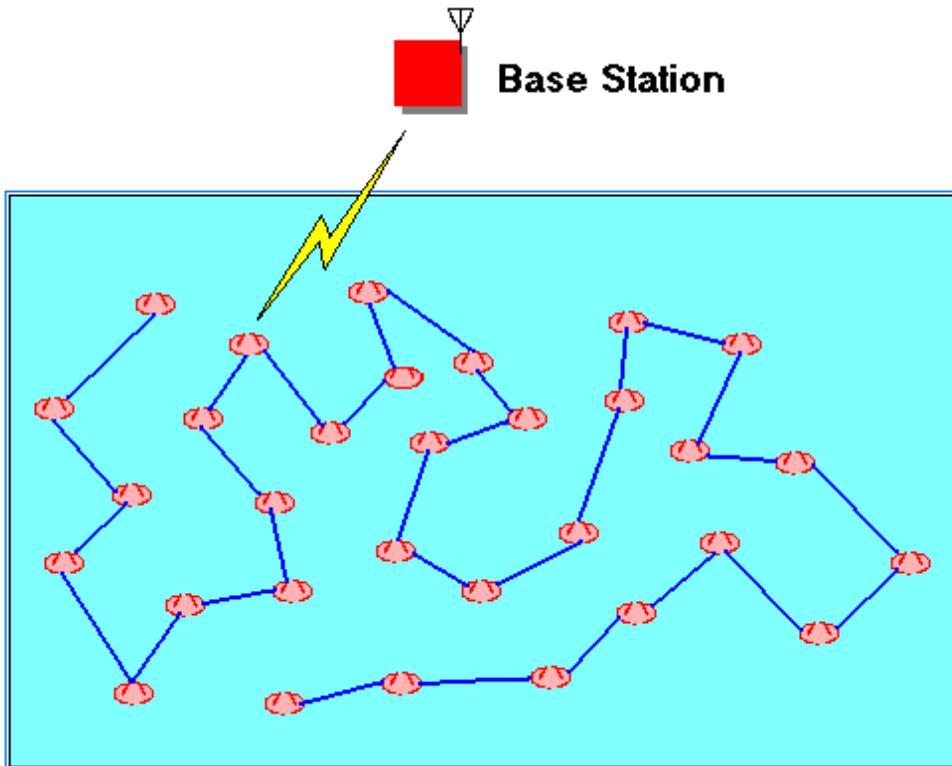
PEGASIS (cont.)

- Greedy Chain Algorithm

- Start with node furthest away from BS
- Add to chain closest neighbor to this node that has not been visited
- Repeat until all nodes have been added to chain
- Constructed before 1st round of communication and then reconstructed when nodes die



- Data fusion at each node (except end nodes)
 - Only one message is passed at every node
- Delay calculation: N units for an N-node network
 - Sequential transmission is assumed



- **Leader Selection**

- Nodes become leaders in sequential order
- Allows random deaths
- Nodes will not become leader if the distance between neighbors is higher than a certain threshold
- Token is passed so that all nodes will know who is leader and which direction to pass message



WSN Protocol stack

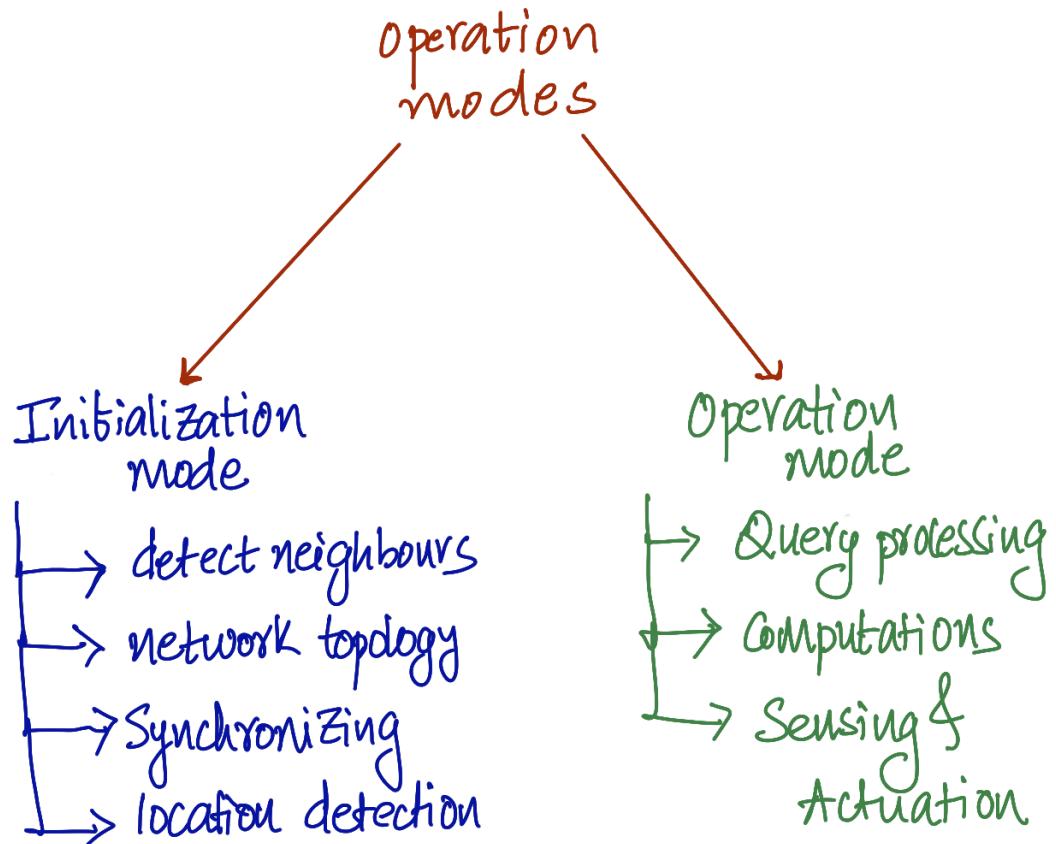
Protocol Stack - Issues

- Dynamic environment
- Power control - Longevity
- Protocol place in the sensor node architecture
- Protocol availability

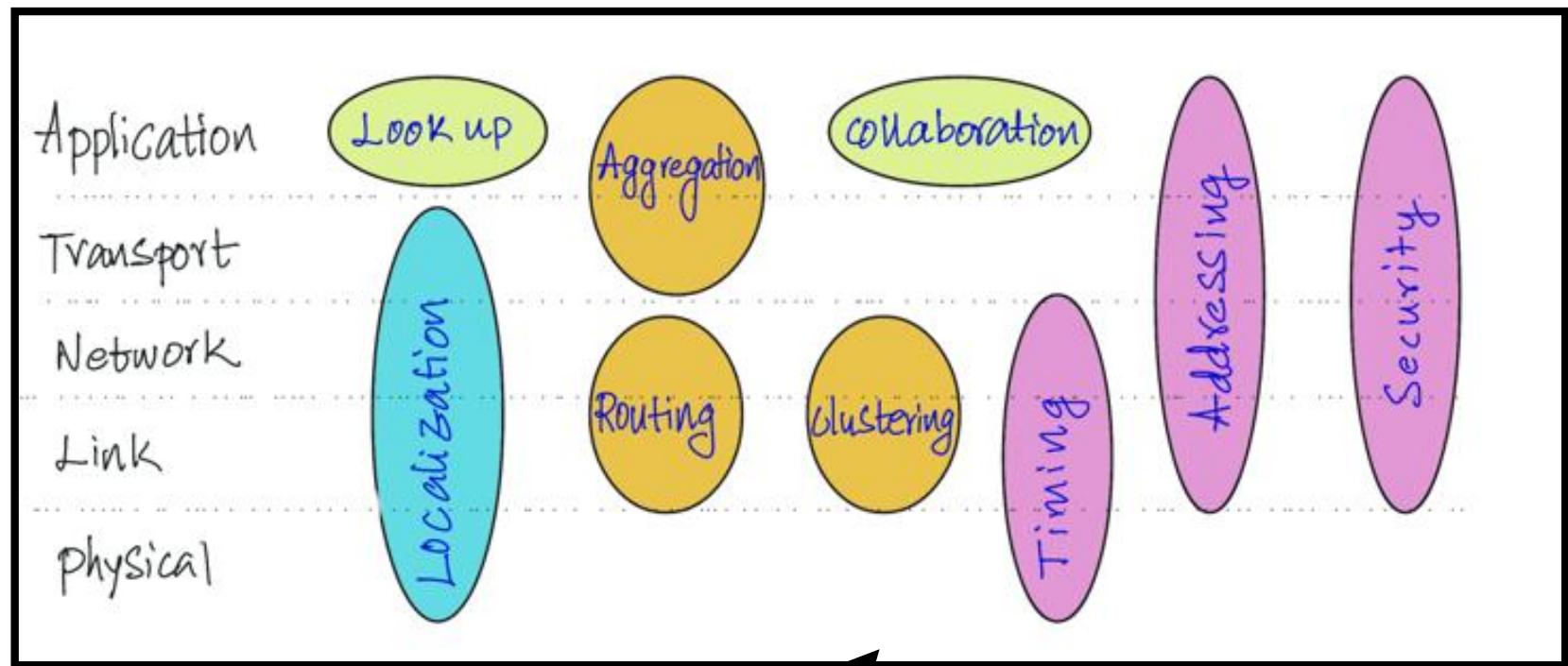
Dynamic Environment

- Sensor nodes address a dynamic environment
 - Nodes have to reconfigure themselves –
 - to adapt to the changes.
- resources are very limited
- Network - adapts its functionality to a new situation
 - lower the use of the scarce energy & memory -
 - maintain the integrity of its operation

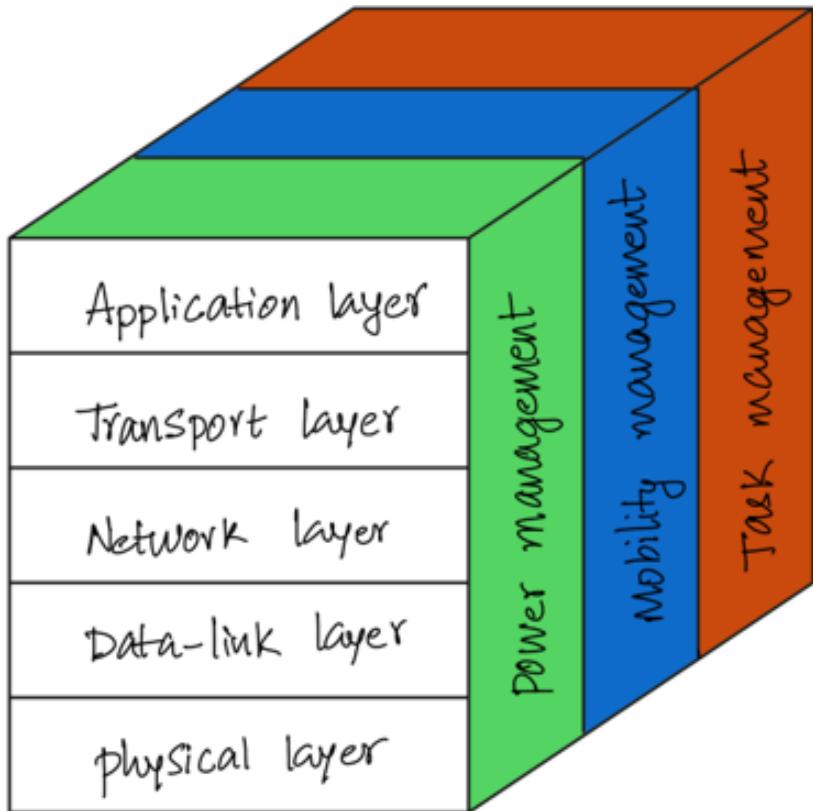
WSN



WSN – Protocol stack approach



WSN – Protocol stack approach



WSN – Protocol stack approach



Physical layer

- Operating frequency
 - * ISM vs. Licensed
- Modulation type
 - * complex vs. simple
- Hardware/software interfaces etc.



WSN – Protocol stack approach

Data Link layer

-- MAC

- * accommodating sleeping nodes
- * avoiding message collisions, overhearing and idle listening
- * ARQ and Forward error correction
- * creating & maintaining a list of neighboring nodes
- * Overlapping channels



WSN – Protocol stack approach

Network Layer

- Routing packets
- Data centric routing
 - \$ Interest dissemination
 - * Request broadcast
 - * Information publication
 - Data aggregation techniques

WSN – Protocol stack approach



Transport layer

- ✓ -- Connecting WSN to external network
- ✓ -- Gateways with superior resources



Power Control

- Traditionally done only at the physical layer,
- Energy consumption- is a major design constraint found in all

Error Control

- Normally resides in all protocol layers – worst case scenarios are handled
- WSN this redundancy- too expensive
- Adopting a central view on how error control is performed and cross-layer design reduces the resources spent for error control



Multi-sensor Fusion: Introduction

Multi-sensor Fusion- Introduction

- Process of combining data or information from various sensors to provide a robust and complete description of an process of interest

Goal:

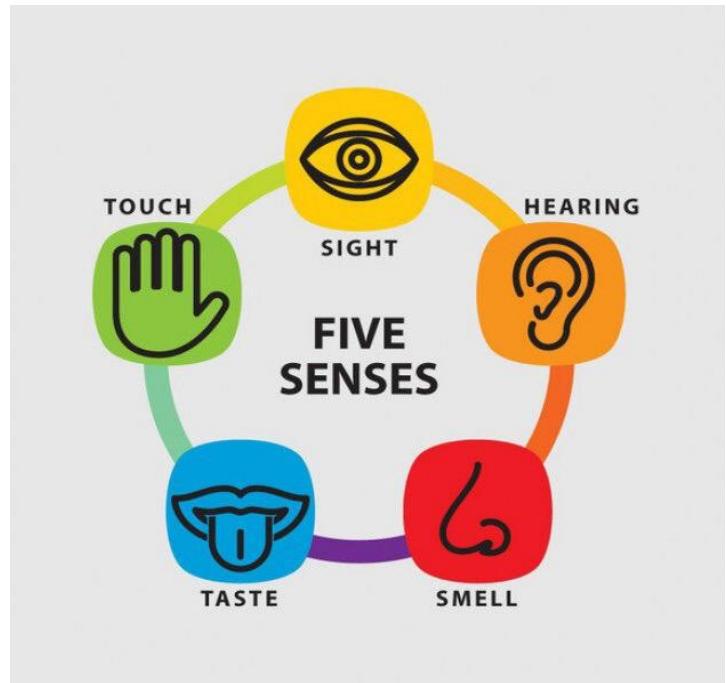
- To obtain a better understanding of some phenomenon introduce or enhance intelligence and system control functions



Human brain: Multi-sensor fusion



Sight
Smell
Touch
Hearing
Taste



Advantages of Multi-sensor fusion

MDF provides following advantages over a single sensor :

- Improves accuracy
- Improves availability
- Reduces uncertainty
- Supports effective decision making
- Reduces transmission energy requirement as less data to be transmitted (thus increasing network battery lifetime).

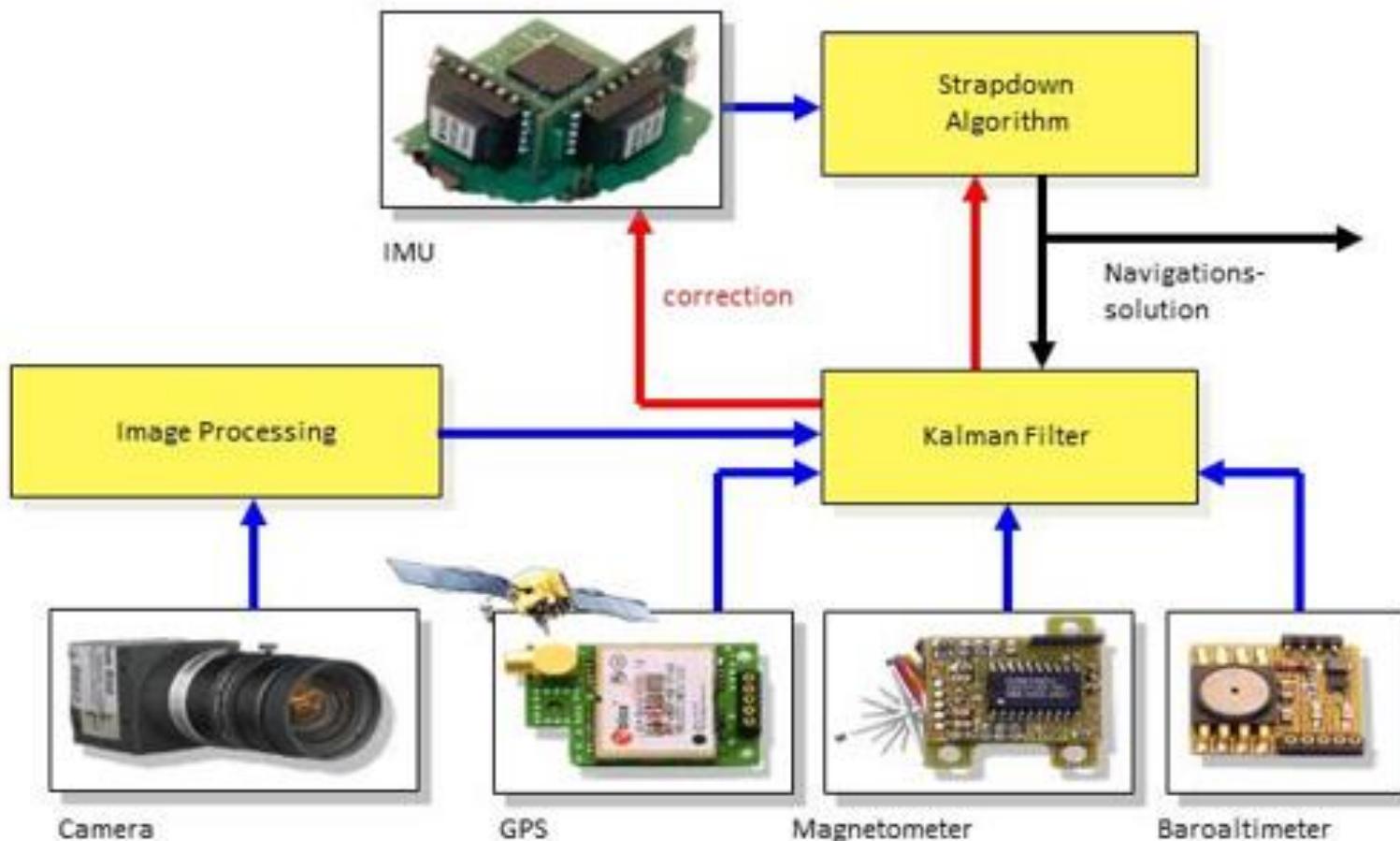
Example 1: Military applications

- Detection, location , tracking and identification of military entities.
- **Sensors:** radar, sonar, infrared, synthetic aperture radar (SAR), electro-optic imaging sensors etc.
- Complex problem
- Large number and types of sensors and targets
- Size of the surveillance volume
- Real-time operational requirements
- Signal propagation difficulties



Example 2: Navigation

- Smart Auto navigation of vehicle (based on sensor fusion on sensor data from camera, gps etc.)



Case Study: Navigation

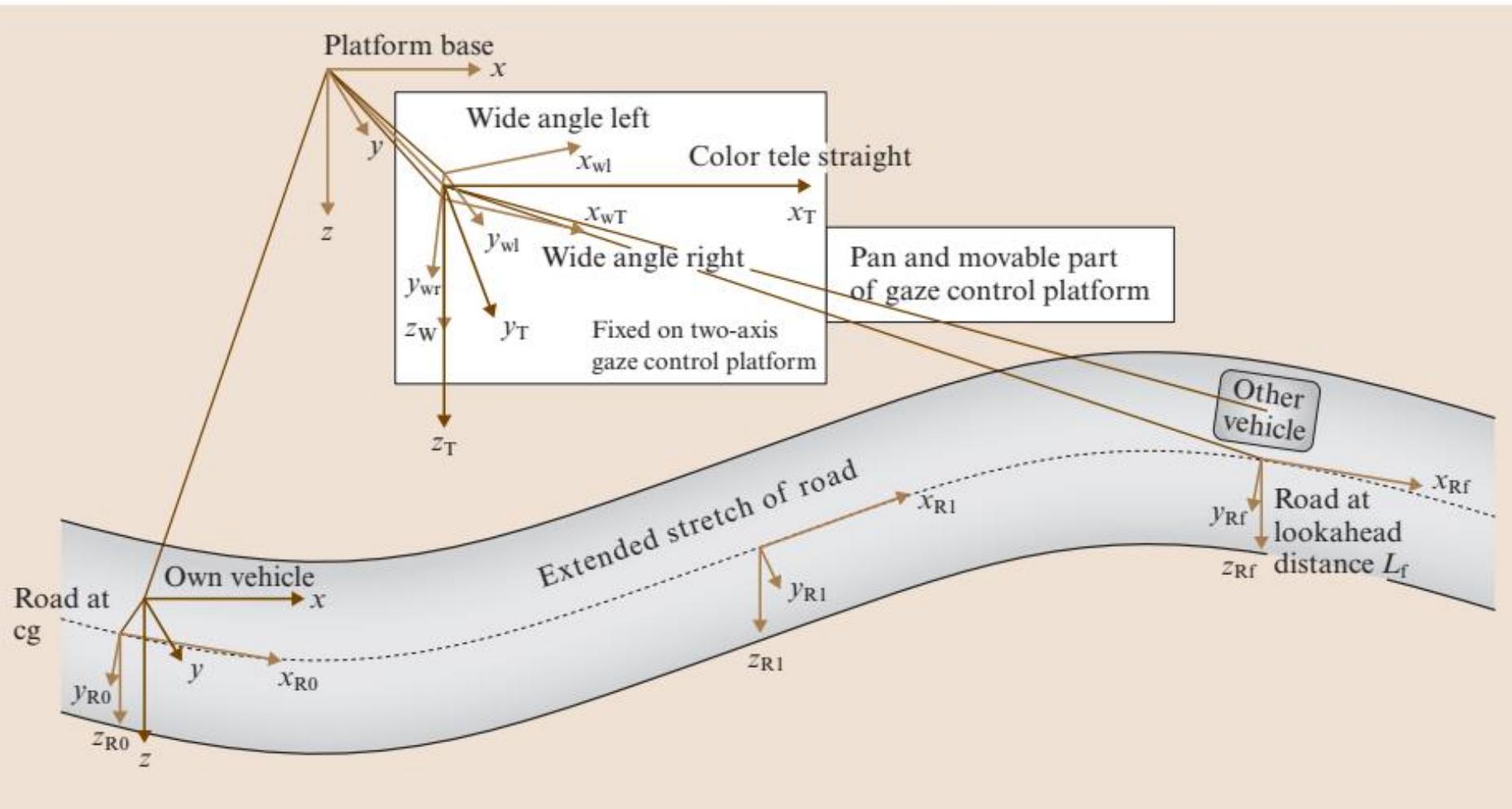


First fully autonomous vehicle on German autobahn

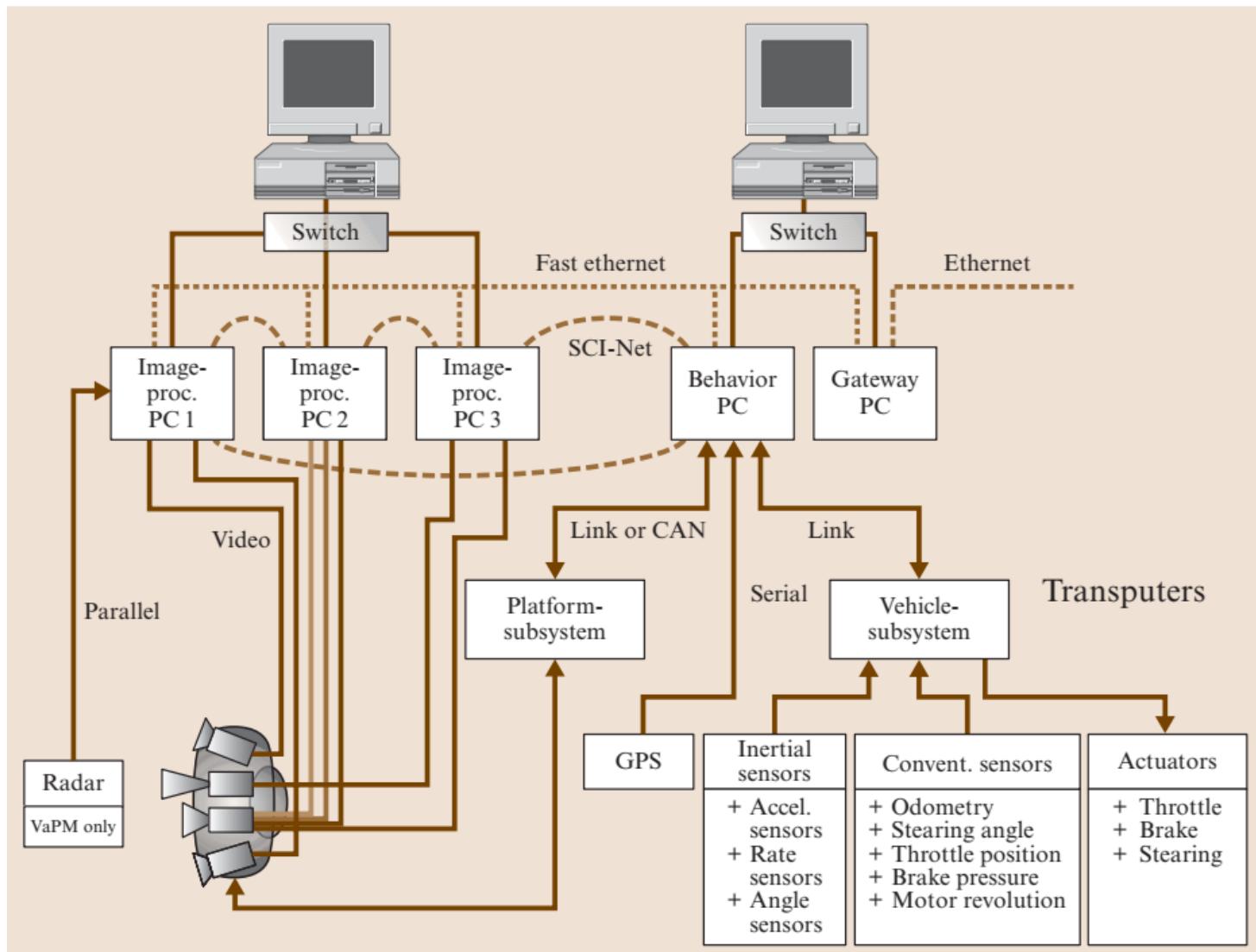
The first vehicle to drive fully autonomously on the German autobahn for 20 km and at speeds up to 96 km/h

Vehicle road scene

- Information from inertial and vision sensors is combined to produce a road scene



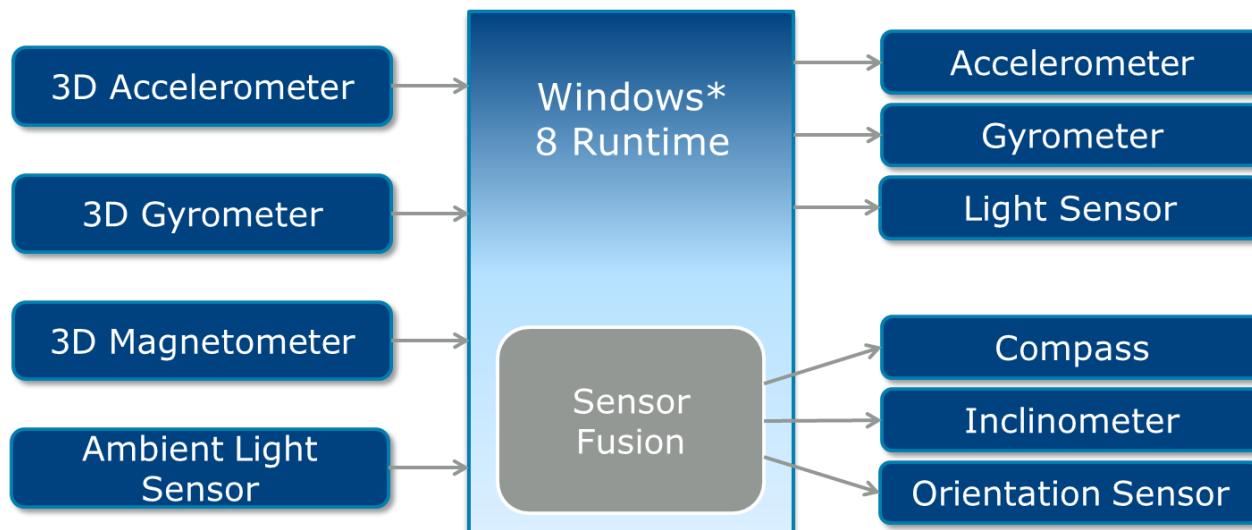
Vehicle sensing hardware



Example 3: Motion application

Applications:

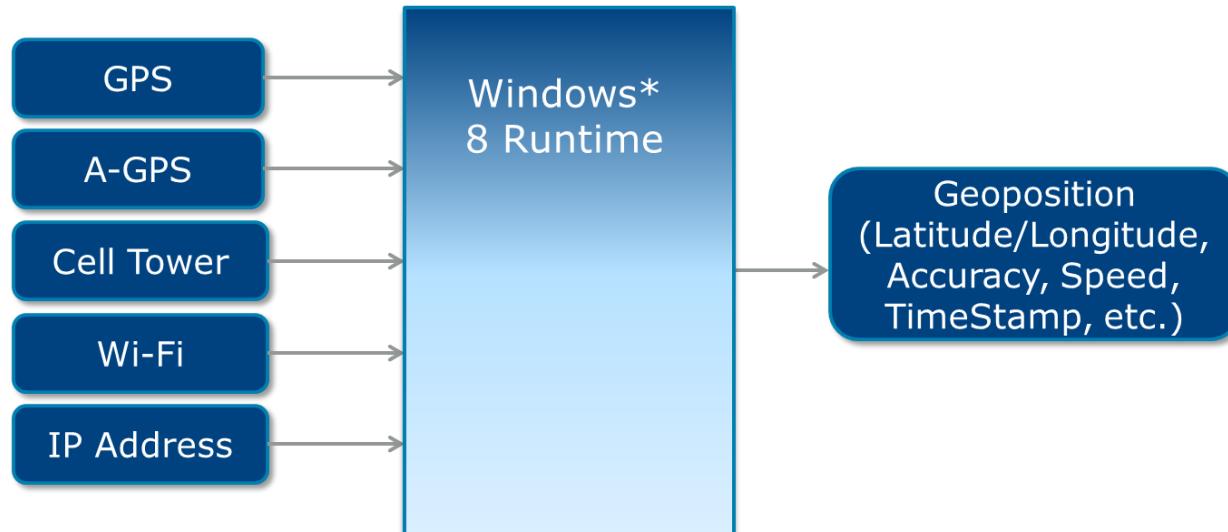
- Augmented Reality
- Games
- Orientation
- Pedometer
- Navigation
- Remotely-controlled Devices
- Biofeedback



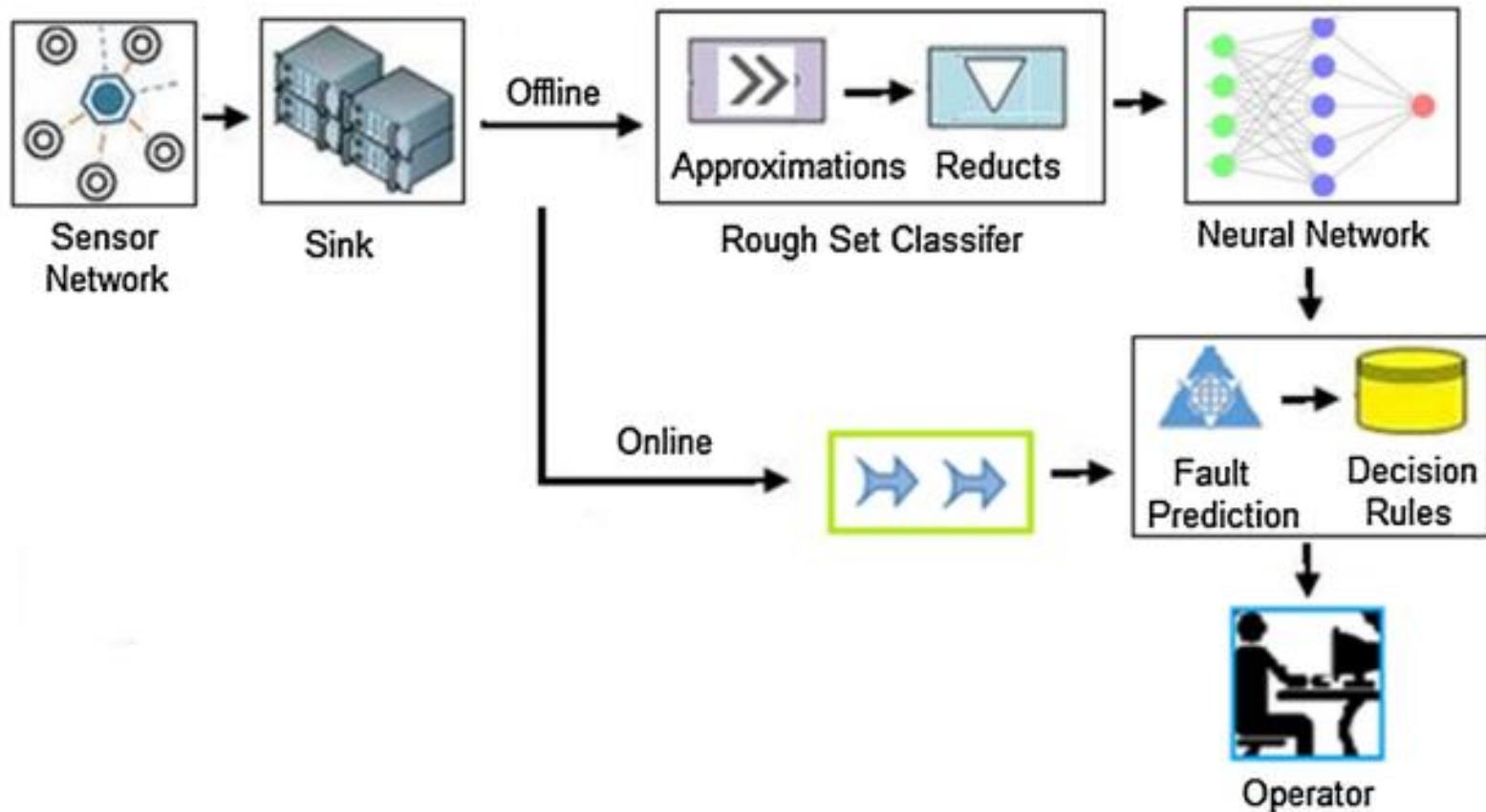
Example 4: Location detection

Applications:

- Search for Points of Interest (POIs)
- Geotagging ? adding location information to files such photos
- Games ? Geocaching
- Outdoors and fitness
- Pedestrian or vehicle navigation



Example 5: Water pollution monitoring



Sarvesh Rawat a,* , Surabhi Rawat “Multi-sensor data fusion by a hybrid methodology – comparative study” Elsevier Computers in Industry 75 (2016) 27–34

Challenges in MDF (Multi sensor data fusion)

Many challenges primarily arising from :

- sensor **data** to be fused
- **Imperfections** in sensor data
- **diversity** of the sensor technologies
- nature of the **application** environment

Challenges in MDF (Multi sensor data fusion)

Data imperfection:

Some **inaccuracy** in the sensor data from one of the inputs can produce completely different result

Outliers and spurious data:

One needs to accommodate/ identify outliers and check if they are right values or due to sensor fault

Static vs. dynamic phenomena:

- the phenomenon under observation may be time-invariant or varying with time. In the latter case, it **may be necessary for the data fusion algorithm to incorporate a recent history of measurements into the fusion process.**

Challenges in MDF (Multi sensor data fusion)

Conflicting data:

- At times different sensors may give inputs indicating different conclusion

Data modality:

- The data may be coming from **different kind of sensors like audio, visual etc.**, fusing which is a challenge.

Data alignment

- One needs to account/ be careful of the **calibration error** induced by individual sensor nodes.

Challenges in MDF (Multi sensor data fusion)

Processing framework:

- data fusion processing can be performed in a **centralized or decentralized manner**.

Operational timing:

- the area covered by sensors may span a vast environment composed of different aspects varying in different rates. Also, in the case of homogeneous sensors, the operation frequency of the sensors may be different. A well-designed data fusion **method should incorporate multiple time scales** in order to deal with such timing variations in data. In distributed fusion settings, different parts of the data may **traverse different routes** before reaching the fusion center, which may cause **out of-sequence arrival of data**. This issue needs to be handled properly, especially in real-time applications, to avoid potential performance degradation.

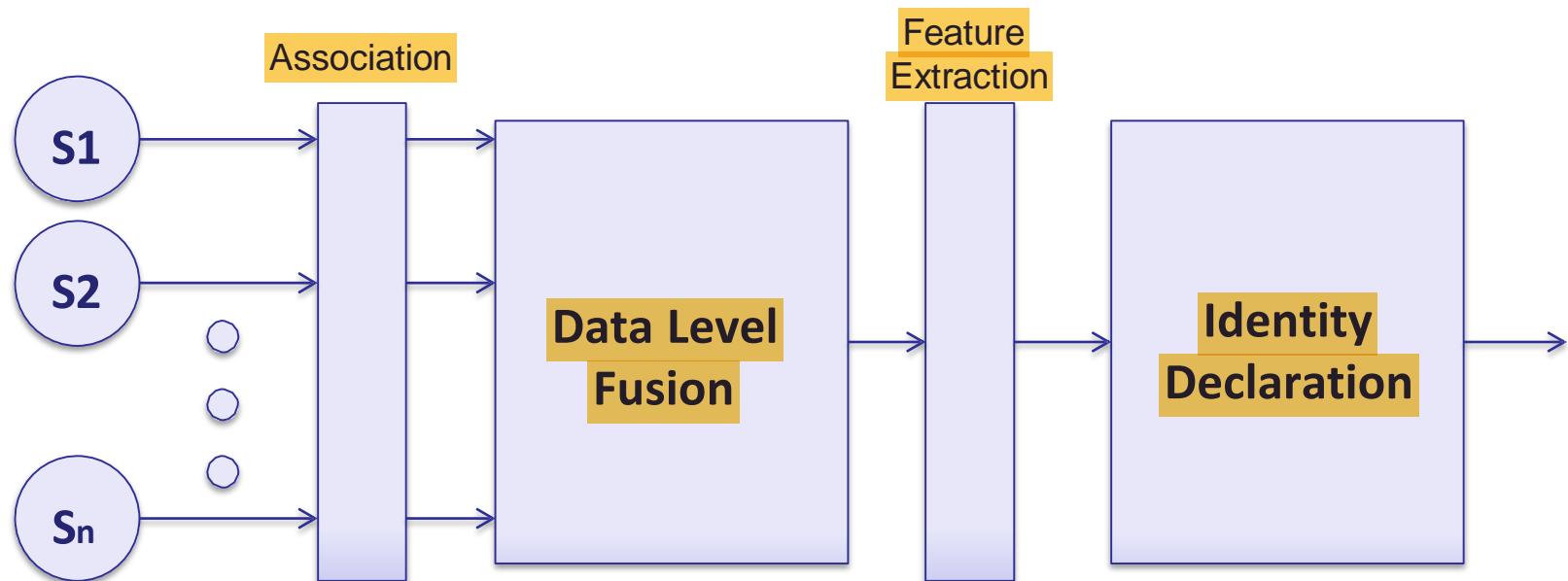
Fusion architectures

Data fusion can be categorized into **3 main classes** based on the level of data abstraction used for fusion :

- Measurement Fusion (Sensor data Fusion)
- Feature-level Fusion
- Decision-level Fusion (High-level data Fusion)

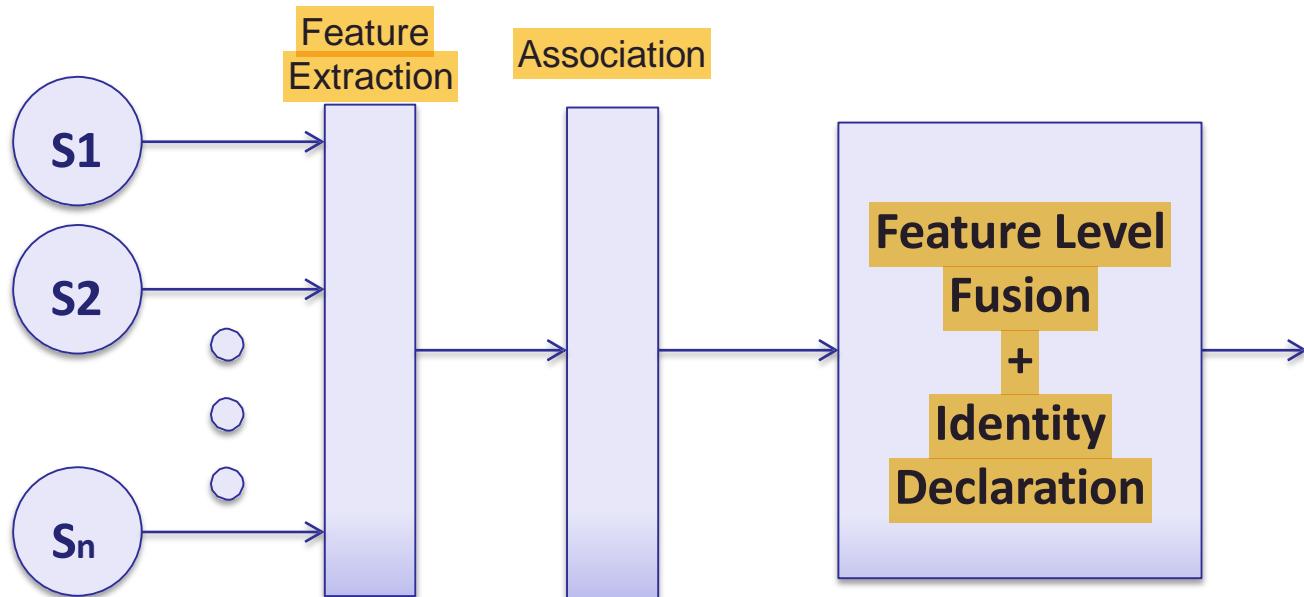
Measurement Fusion

- Direct fusion of sensor data
- The sensors measuring the **same physical phenomena** are required.



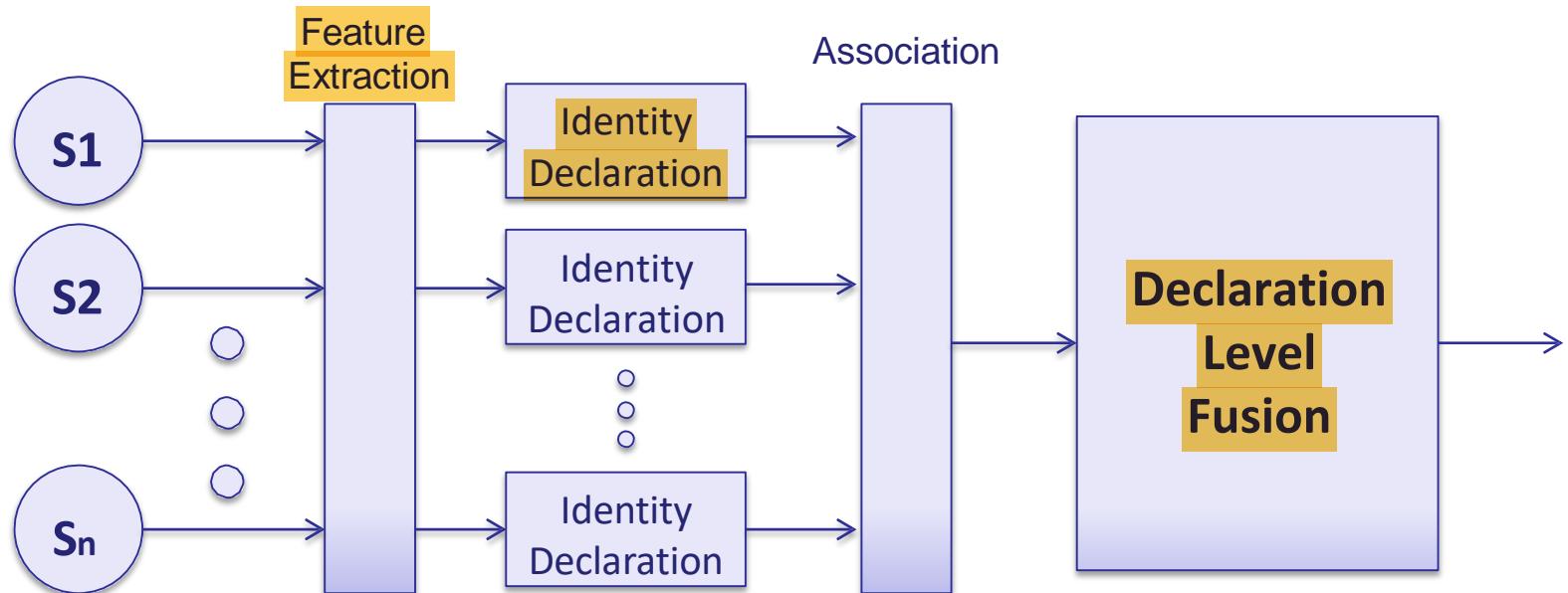
Feature level Fusion

- Involves the extraction of representative features from sensor data
- Features are combined into a single concatenated feature vector that is an input to a fusion node



Decision-level Fusion

- Each sensor has made a preliminary determination of an entity's location, attributes and identity before combining





Wireless Sensor Network – Deployment

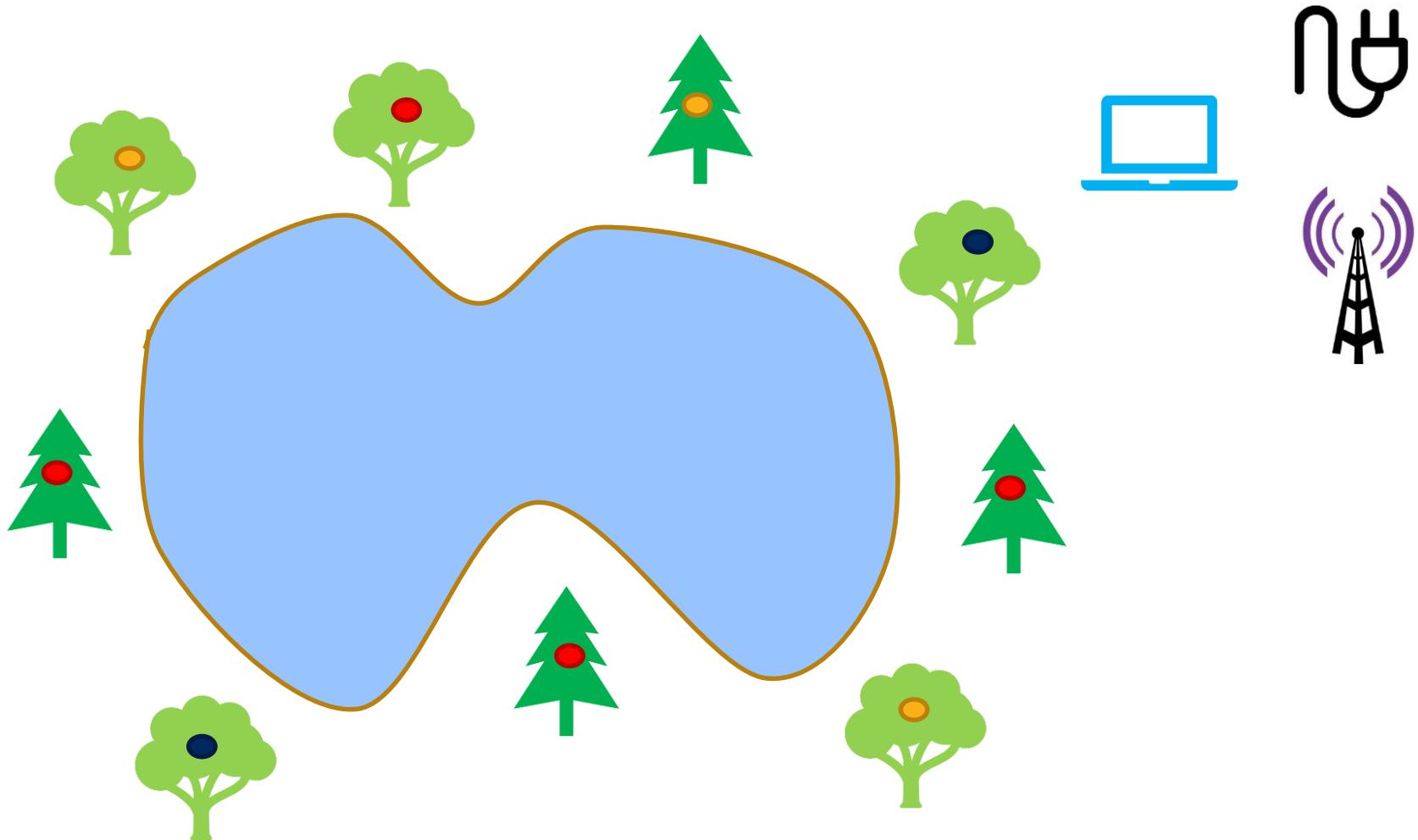
Deployment Objectives

- Coverage
- Connectivity
- Topology

Deployment - Issues

- Structured Vs Random Deployment
- Over Deployment Vs Incremental Deployment
- Network Topology
- Homogeneous Vs Heterogeneous Deployment

Ideal Deployment



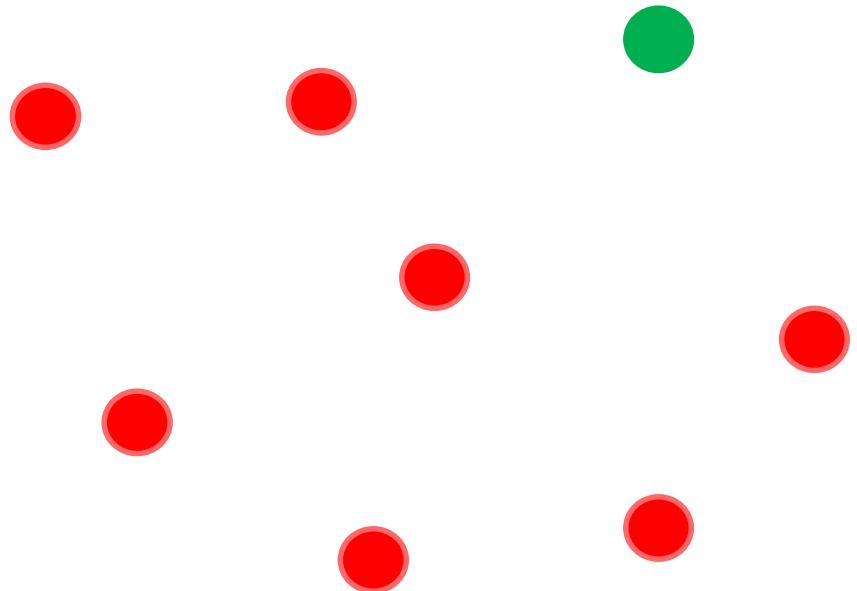
Random Deployment



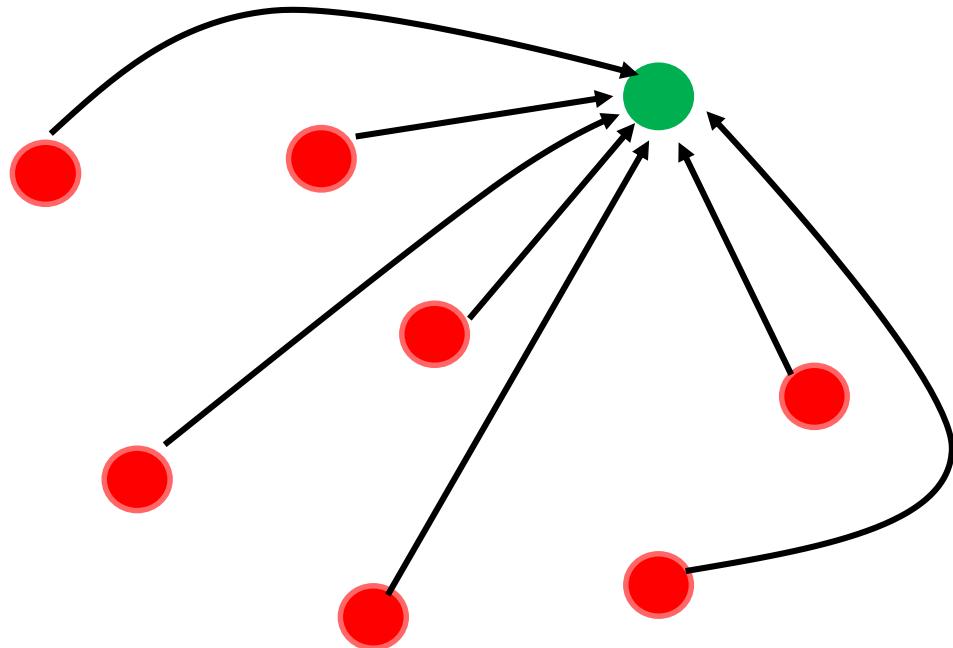


Wireless Sensor Network – Deployment Pattern

Deployment Patterns

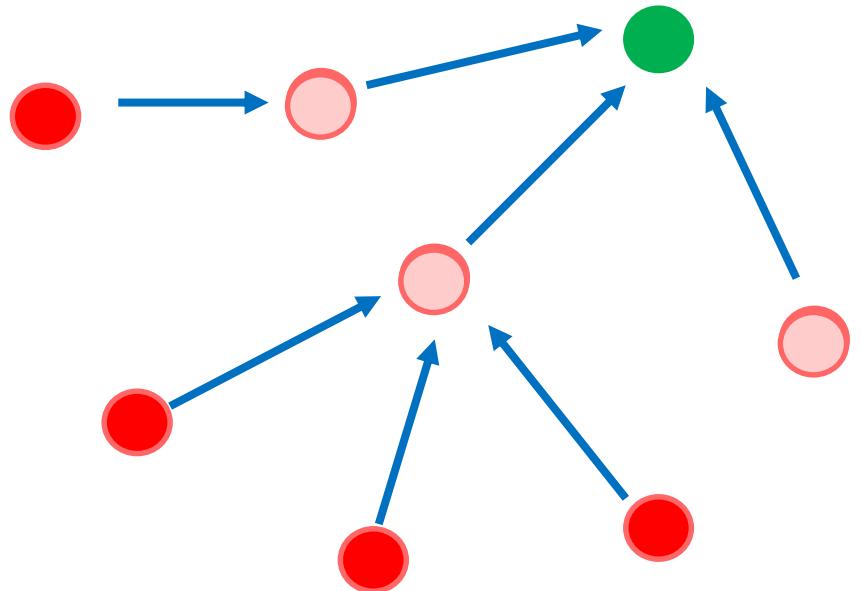


Deployment Patterns - Star

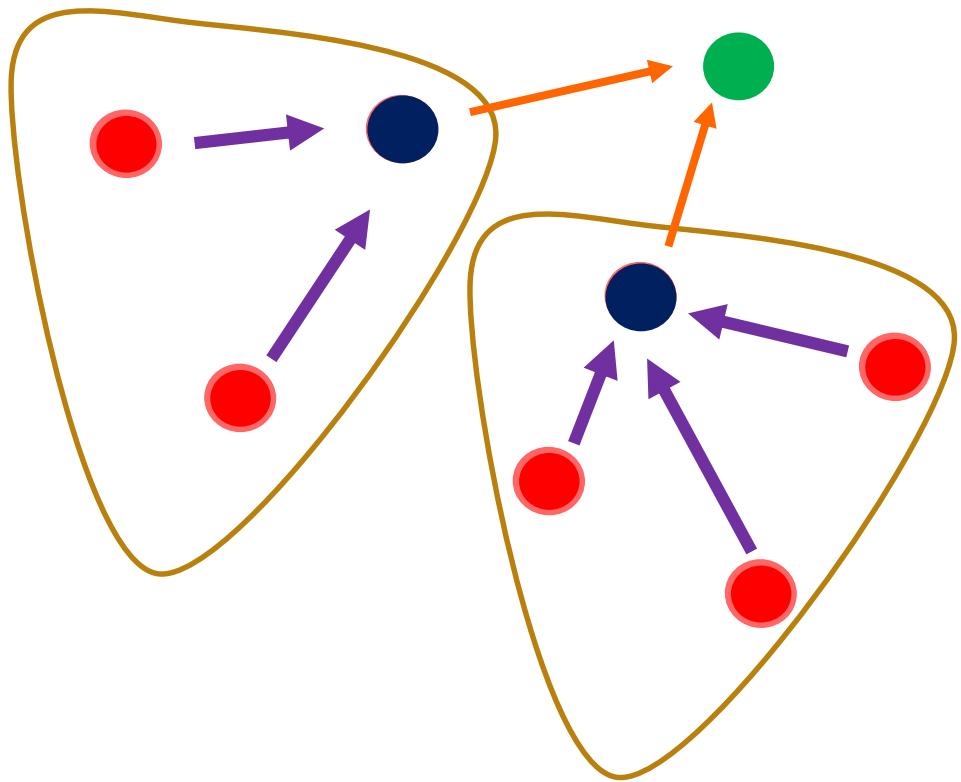


Energy Consumption

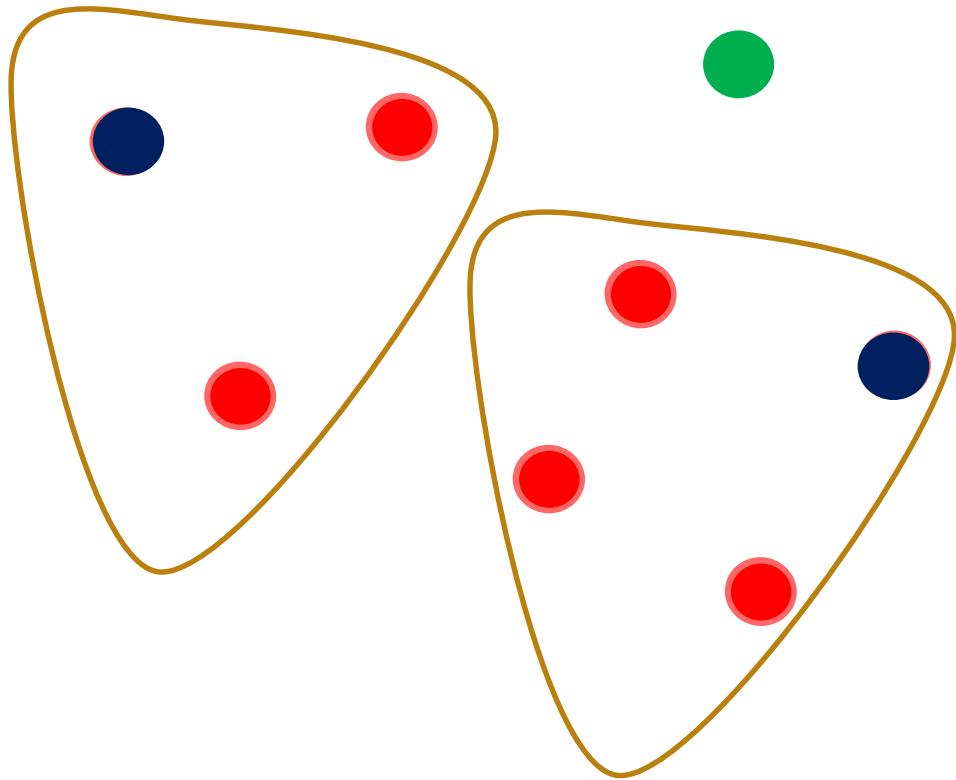
Deployment Patterns – Multi Hop



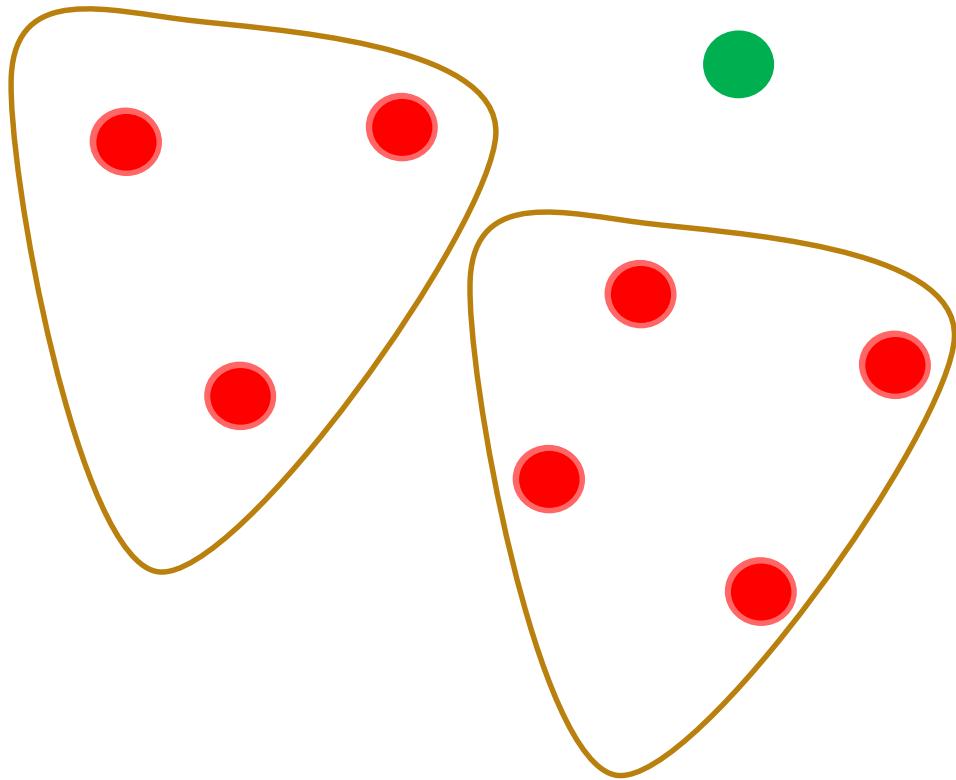
Deployment Patterns - Cluster



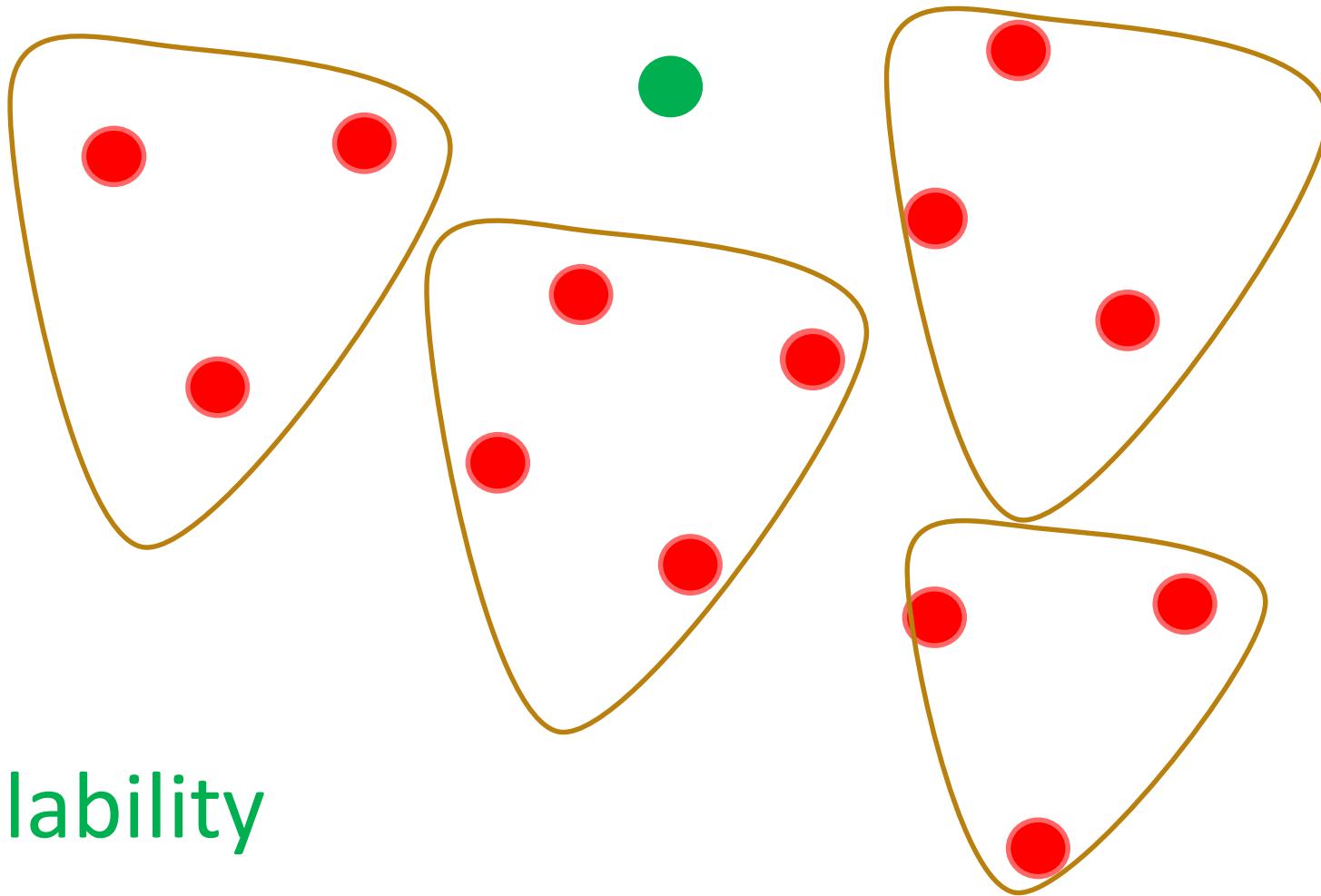
Deployment Patterns - Cluster



Deployment Patterns - Cluster

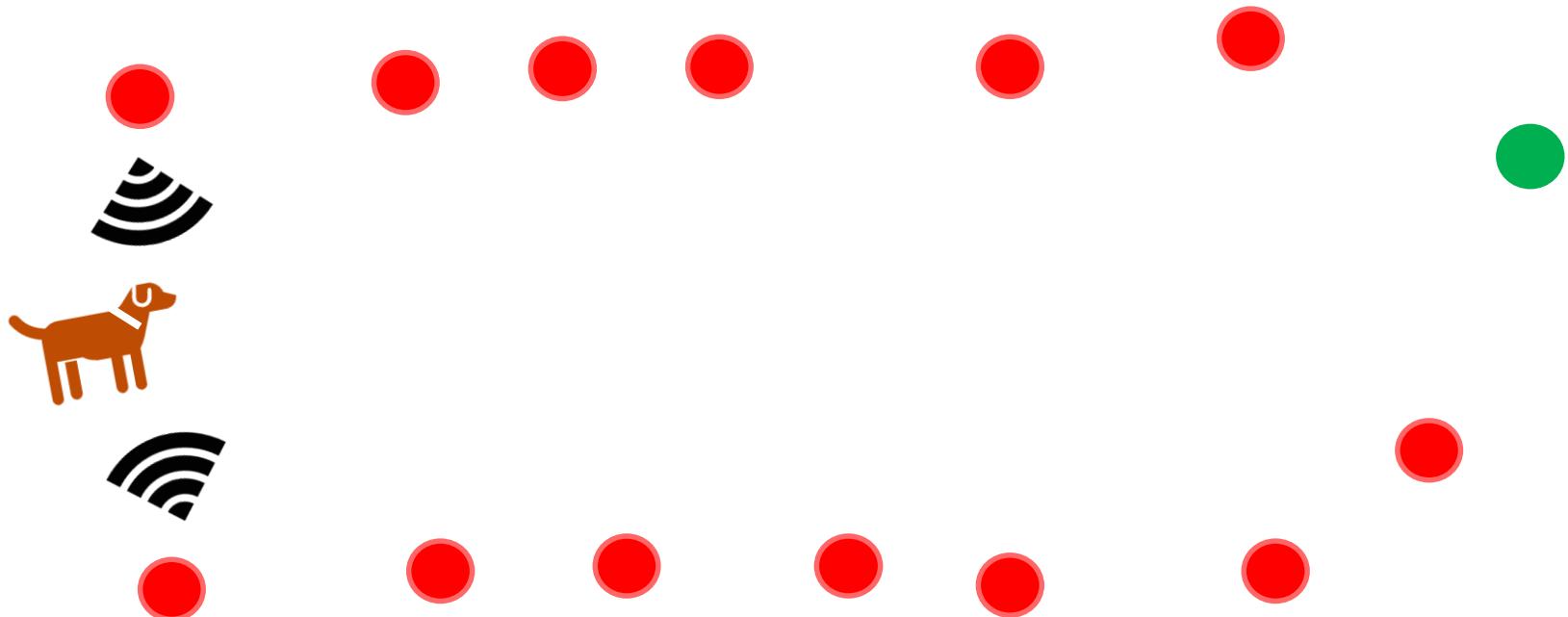


Deployment Patterns - Cluster

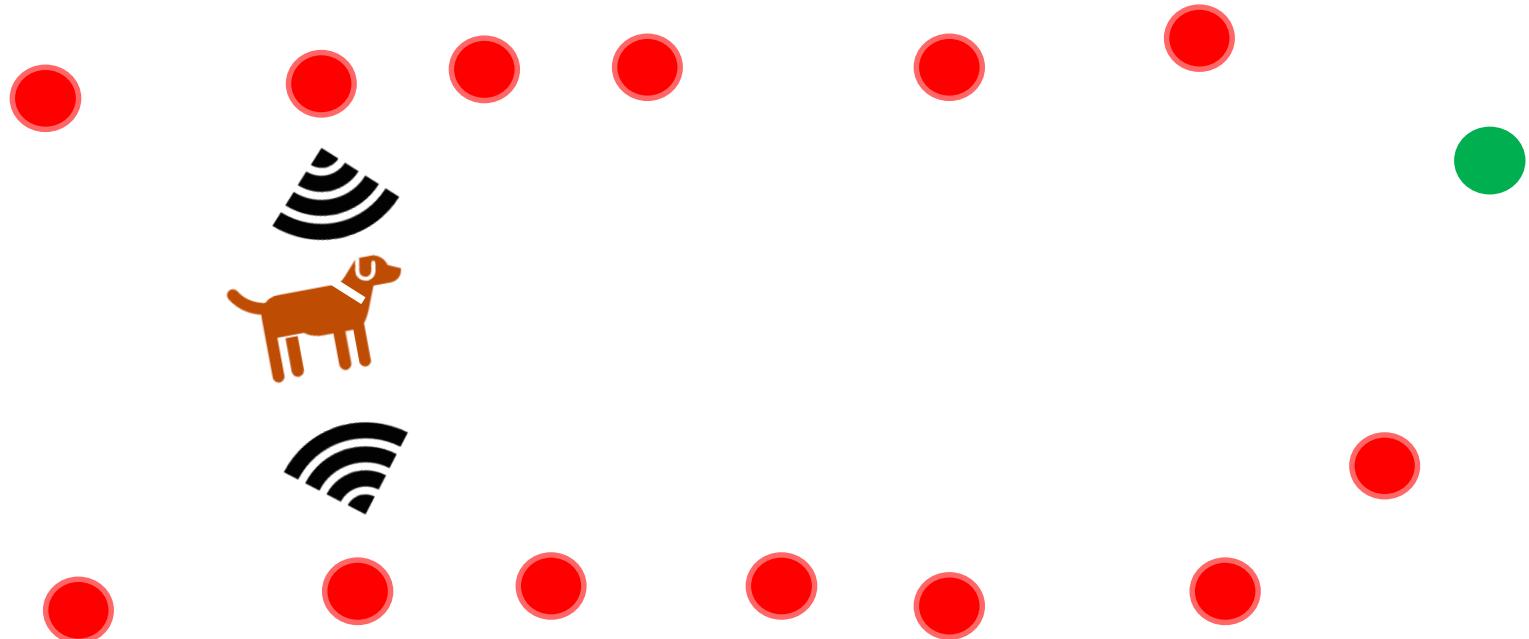


Scalability

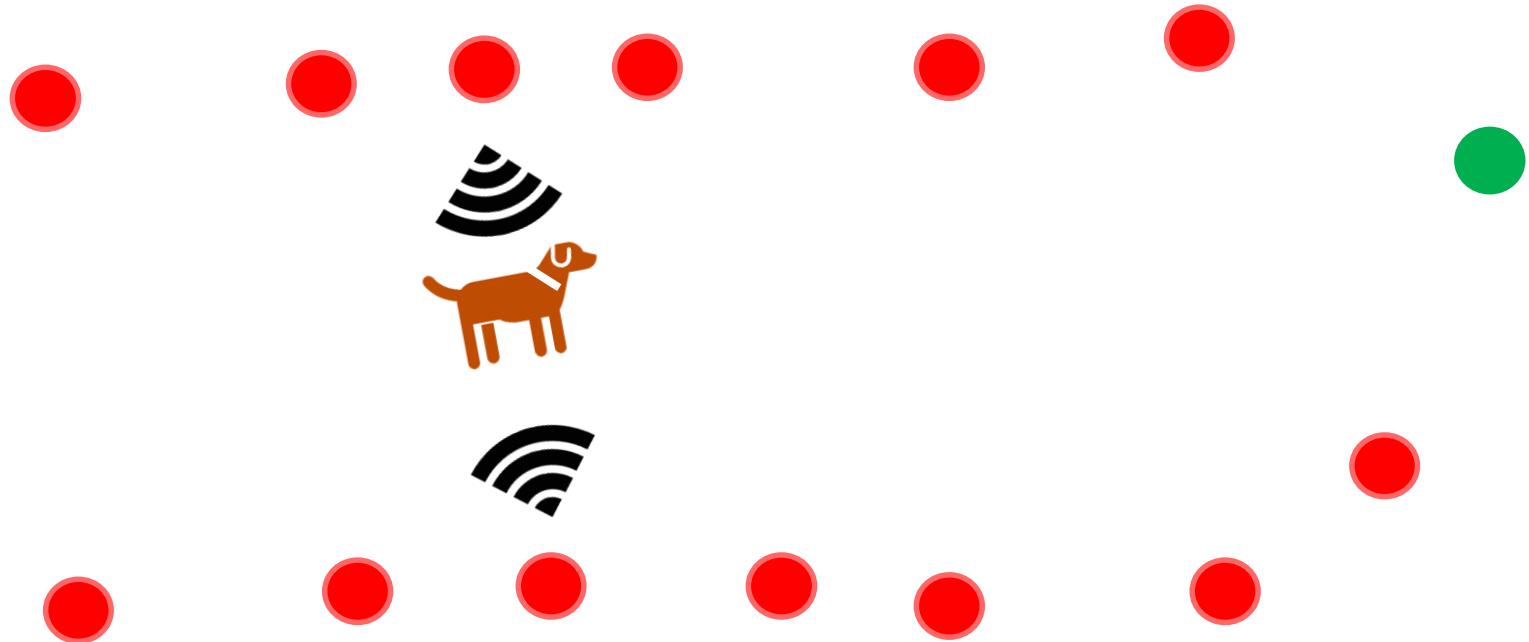
Deployment Patterns – Data Mule



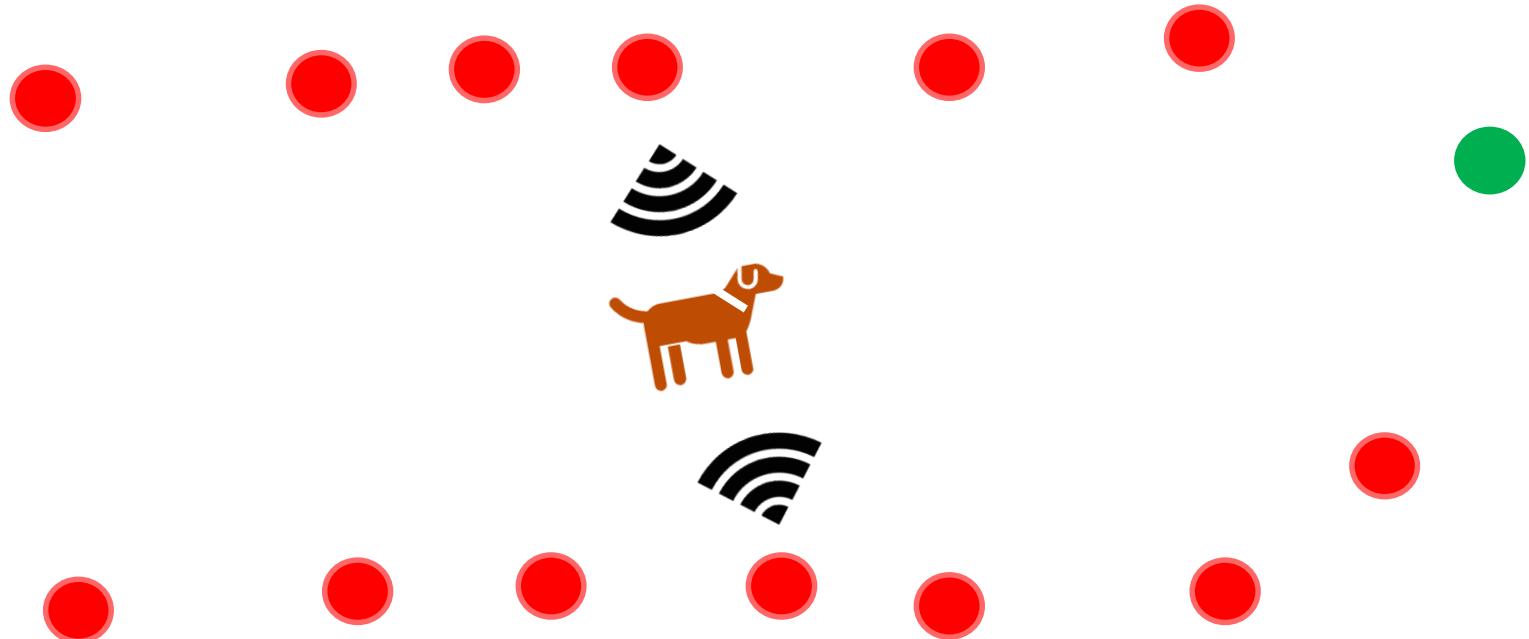
Deployment Patterns – Data Mule



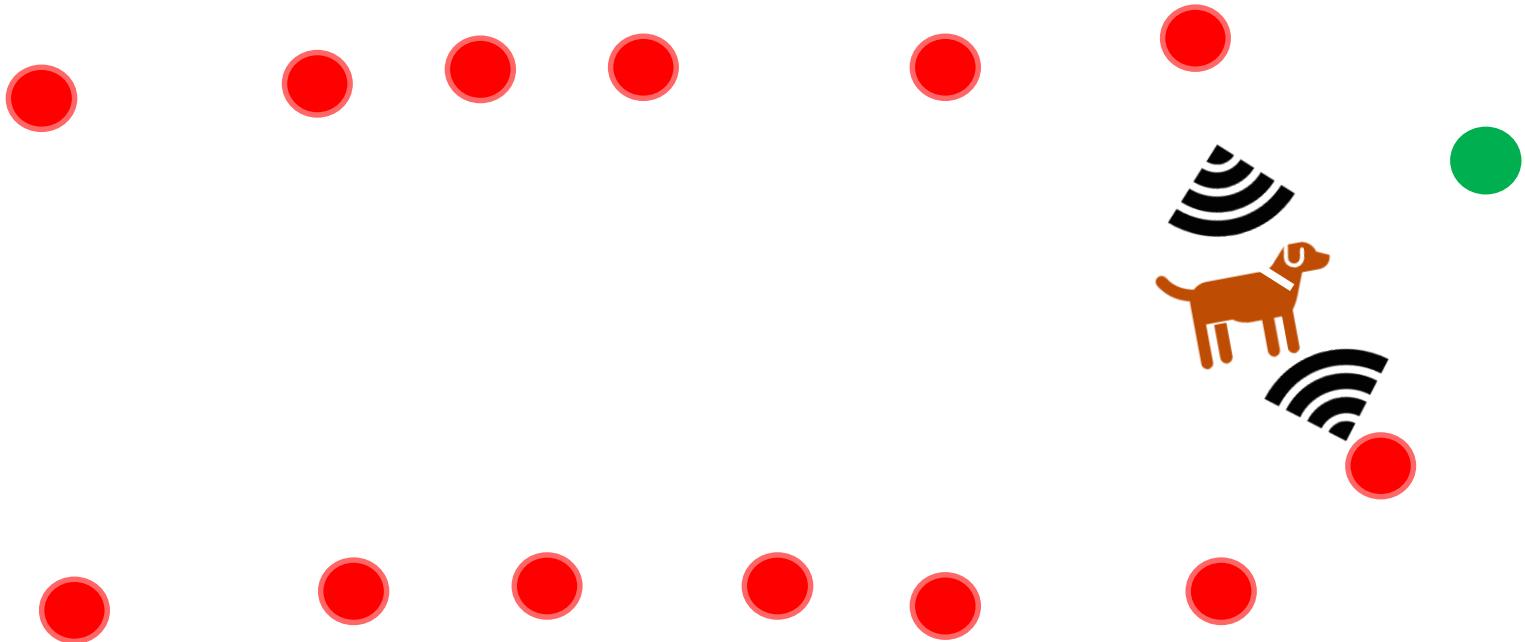
Deployment Patterns – Data Mule



Deployment Patterns – Data Mule



Deployment Patterns – Data Mule





Wireless sensor networks: Time Synchronization

Time Sync ??

- All nodes in the network have a common view of time

Why Time Sync ??

- Target Tracking
- Speed estimation
- Event Detection
- Voice & Video Sync
- Security
- MAC-TDMA
- Local Clocks with crystal instability tend to drift

Specific examples

➤ **Link to the physical world!**

- When does an event take place?

➤ **Key basic service of sensor networks**

- Fundamental to data fusion.

➤ **Crucial to the efficient working of other basic services**

- Localization, Calibration, In-network processing etc.

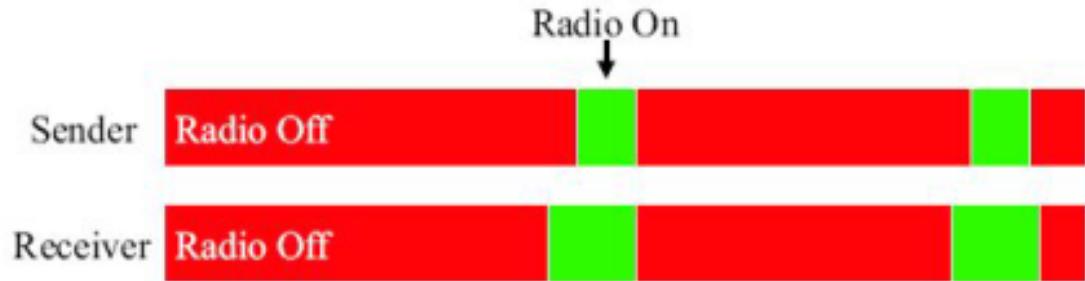
➤ **Several protocols require time synchronization**

- Cryptography, MAC, Topology management

Case study...

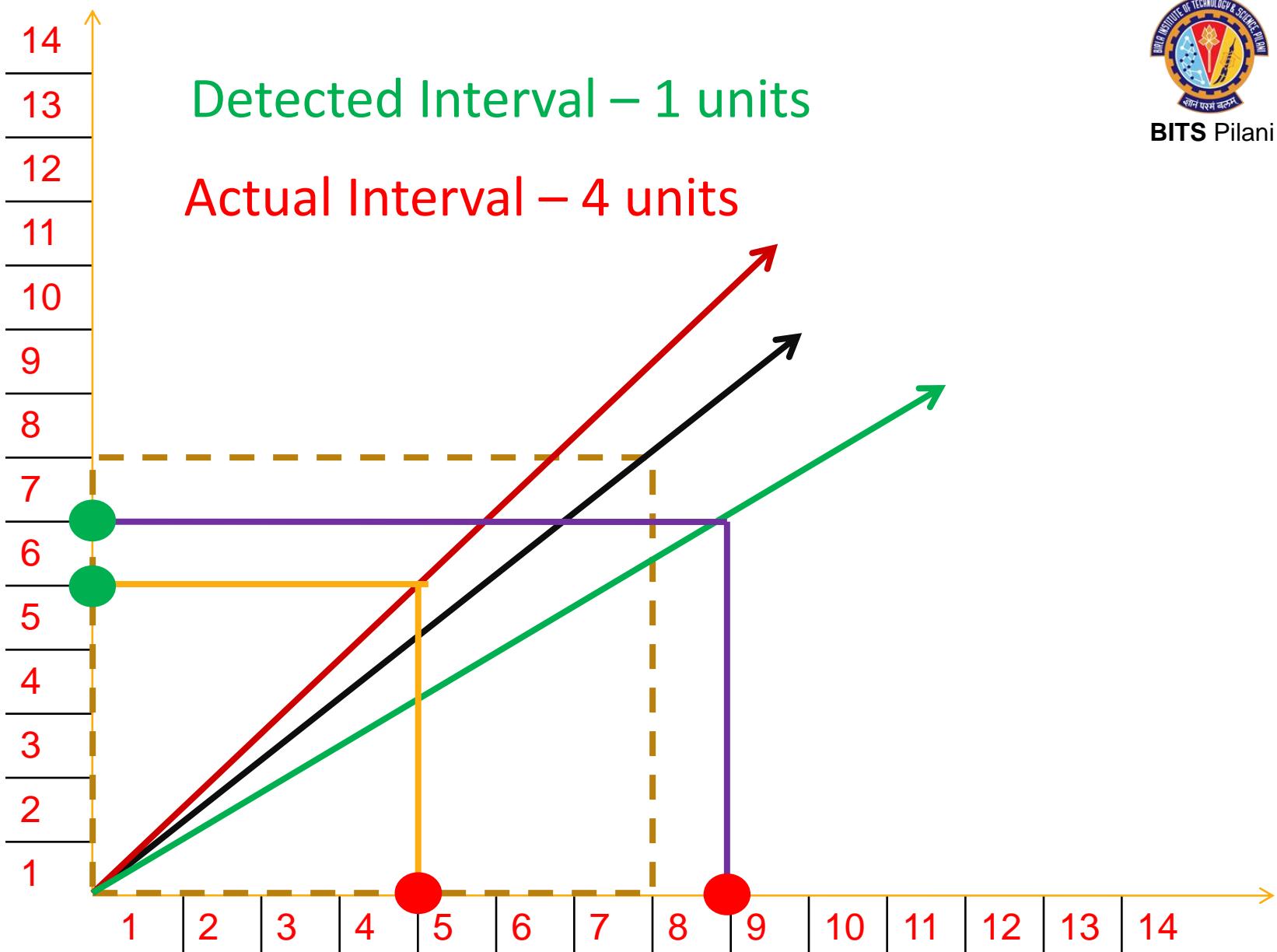
➤ Energy-efficient Radio Scheduling

- TDMA, Guard band



Reasons for drift

- Temperature – few ppm in PC
- Frequency noise (10^{-4} - 10^{-6})
- Phase Noise
- Asymmetric Delay



Time Sync Protocol - Requirements

- Robust
- Precision
- Energy Aware
- Server-Less
- Light Weight
- Tunable
- Immediacy

Performance Metrics and Fundamental Structure

Precision:

maximum synchronization error for deterministic algorithms, mean error /stddev /quantiles for stochastic ones

Energy costs,

e.g. # of exchanged packets, computational costs

Memory requirements

Fault tolerance:

what happens when nodes die?

Why not GPS ?

BITS Pilani

➤ Cost

- 300\$ (achieve < 20ns phase error to UTC)

➤ Practical Limitations

- Cannot be used under special environment where is no free line of sight to the GPS satellites
 - ✓ e.g. dense foliage or inside buildings

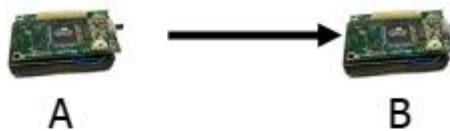
➤ Policy Limitations

- Military Applications

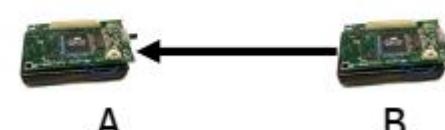
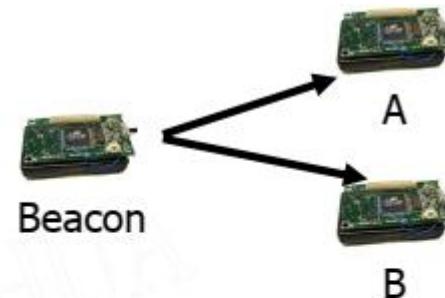
Wireless Sensor Network – Time Sync Protocols

Time Sync Types

- Sender – Receiver synchronization
- Receiver – Receiver synchronization



S – R



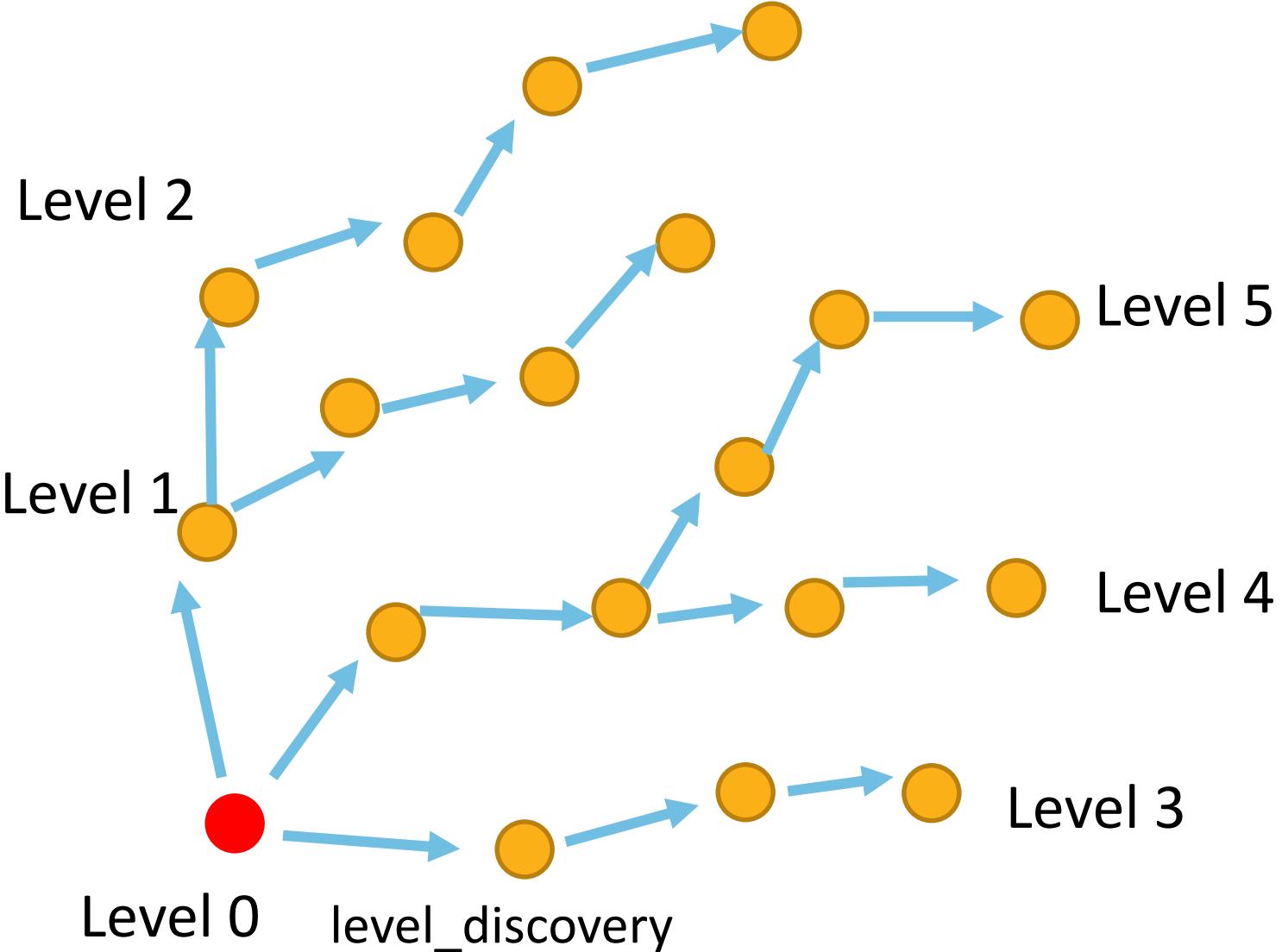
R – R

Sender – Receiver Synch

Time Sync Protocol for Sensor Networks (TPSN)

- Level Discovery
- Sync

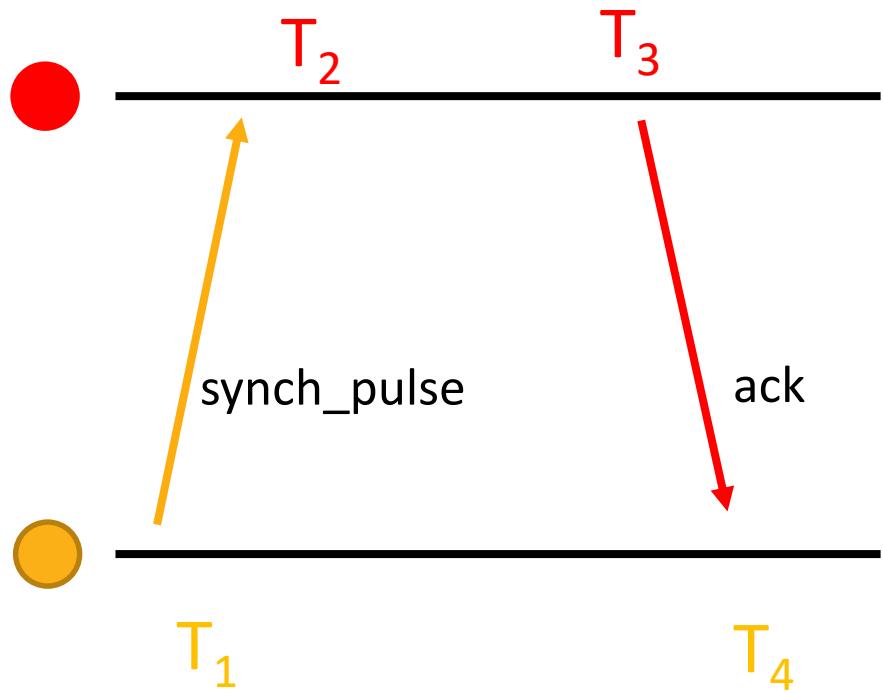
TPSN – Level discovery



TPSN - Sync

- Root node initiates – time sync
- Level 1 nodes – each wait for random time
 - Reduce probability of collision at MAC

TPSN – Sync



$$T_2 = T_1 + \Delta + d$$

Δ - clock drift

d – propagation delay

$$\Delta = \frac{(T_2 - T_1) - (T_4 - T_3)}{2}$$

$$d = \frac{(T_2 - T_1) + (T_4 - T_3)}{2}$$

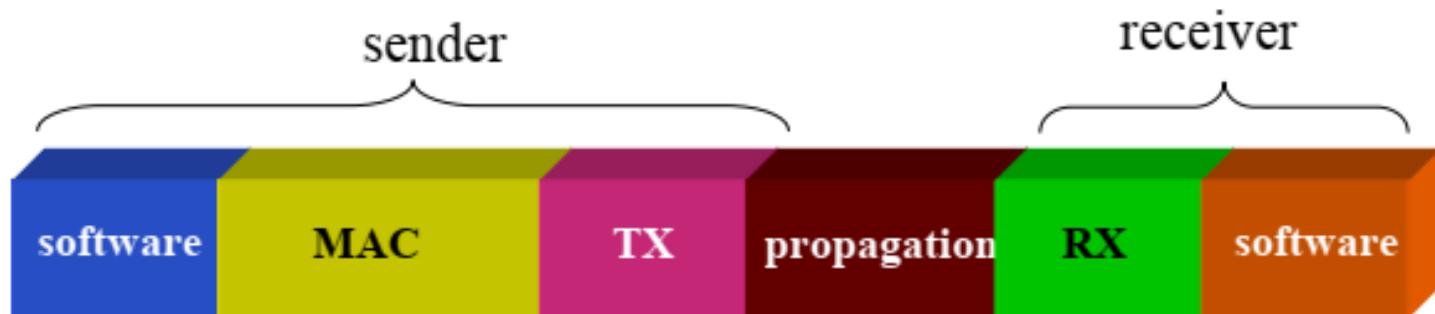
TPSN - Sync

- Nodes at Level 2 will be able to hear sync pulses of nodes at Level 1
- Wait for a random time
- Attempt to sync with nodes at Level1

TPSN - Issues

- Unable to hear level_discovery from higher level nodes – then wait and send level request
- Hear from different nodes – different levels – pick smallest level
- No response to sync pulse as node at higher level dead – send level request at higher energy levels

Sources of error



ALL DELAYS ARE VARIABLE !

Sources of error

➤ Send time

- Kernel processing
- Context switches
- Interrupt Processing

Common denominator:

- (1) non-determinism
- (2) difficult to estimate
Send, access, receive

➤ Access time

- Specific to MAC protocol
 - ✓ E.g. in Ethernet, sender must wait for clear channel

➤ Transmission Time

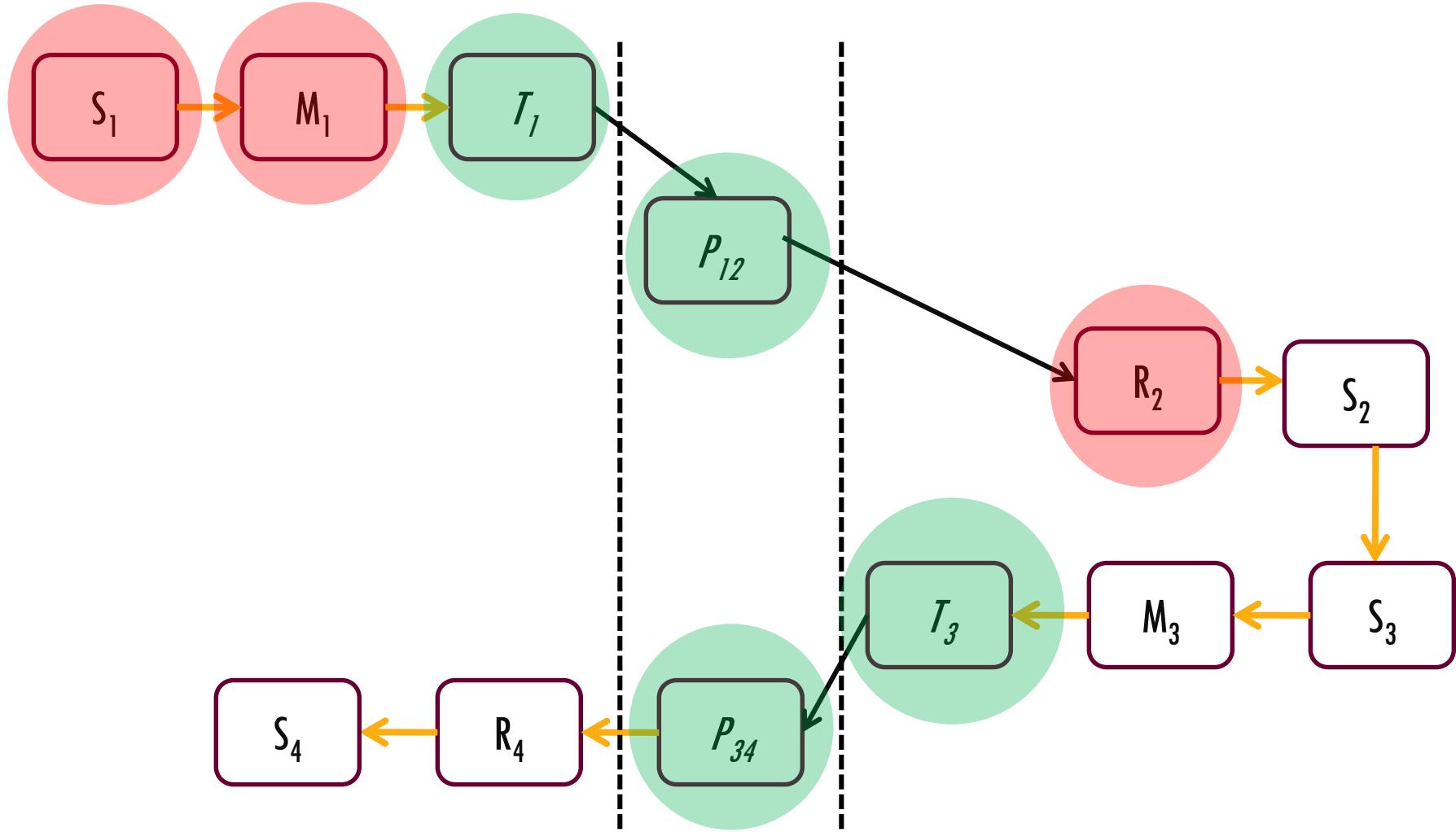
➤ Propagation time

- Very small in WSNs, can be omitted

➤ Reception time

➤ Receive time

TPSN - Inaccuracies



Flooding Time Synchronization Protocol (FTSP)

- Introduction

- Solves one of the problems of TPSN

- Linear regression is used in FTSP to compensate for clock drift

Flooding Time Synchronization Protocol (FTSP)

Network Model

- Every node in the network has a unique ID
- Each synchronization message contains three fields:

TimeStamp

RootID

SeqNum

- The node with the smallest ID will be only one root in the whole network

Flooding Time Synchronization Protocol (FTSP)

- The root election phase
FTSP utilizes a simple election process based on unique node IDs
- Synchronization phase

Flooding Time Synchronization Protocol (FTSP)

The root election phase

When a node does not receive new time synchronization messages for a number of message broadcast periods

The node declares itself to be the root

Whenever a node receives a message, the node with higher IDs give up being root

Eventually there will be only one root

Flooding Time Synchronization Protocol (FTSP)

Synchronization phase

Root and synchronized node broadcast synchronization message

Nodes receive synchronization message from root or synchronized node

When a node collects enough synchronization message, it estimates the offset and becomes synchronized node

Flooding Time Synchronization Protocol (FTSP)



BITS Pilani



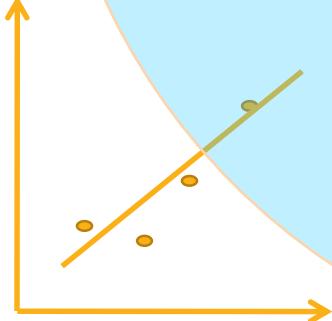
Root



A

B

C



Synchronized
Node

Unsynchronized
node

Wireless Sensor Network – Time Sync Protocols

Time Sync Types

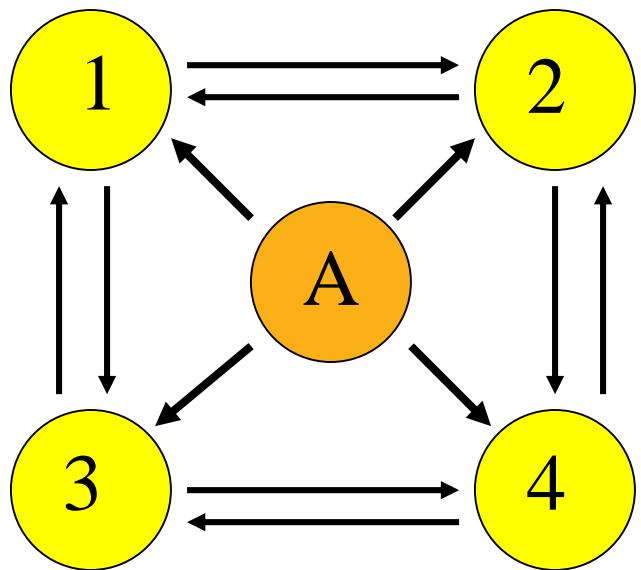
- Sender – Receiver synchronization
- Receiver – Receiver synchronization

Receiver – Receiver Synch

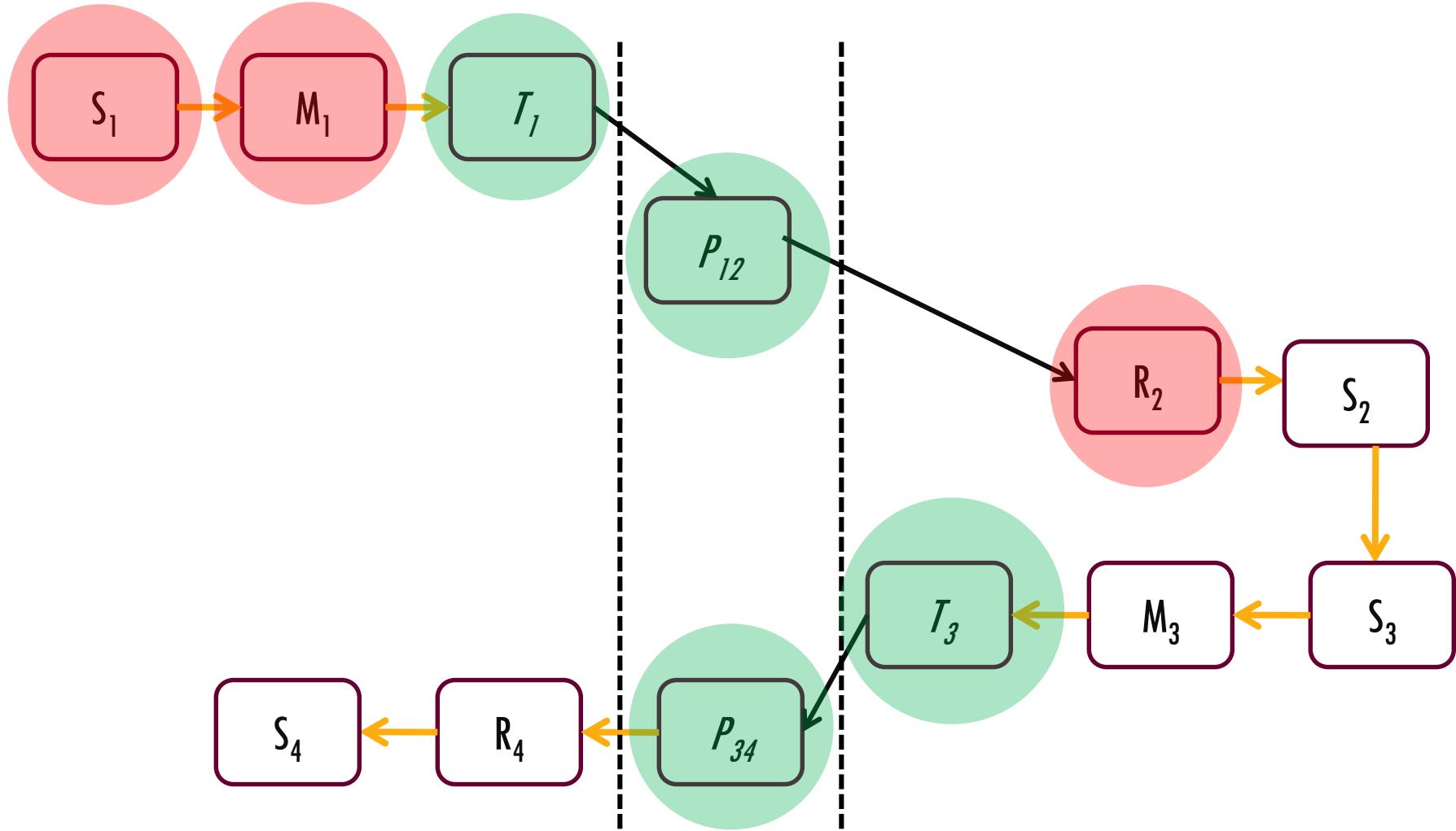
Receiver Broadcasting Service (RBS)

- Three stages
- Transmitter broadcasts clock time
- Each rx records the time that the ref was rxed-local clock
- Receivers exchange observations

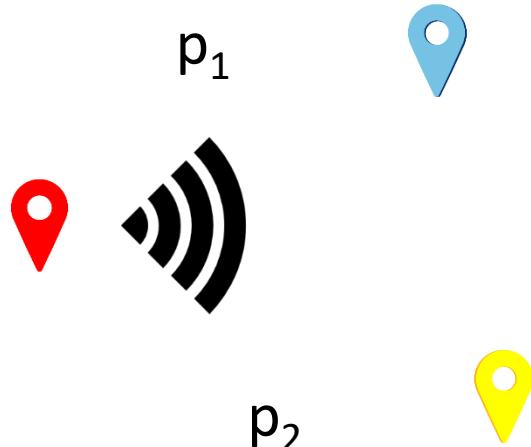
RBS



TPSN - Inaccuracies



Inaccuracies Removed ??



$$r_1 = T + p_1$$

$$r_2 = T + p_2$$

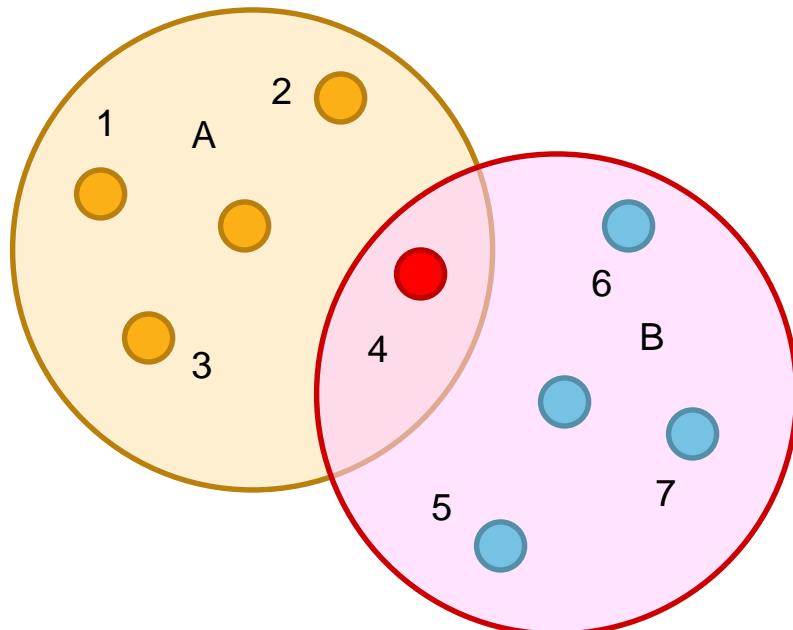
Propagation delay - negligible

$$T_2 = T_1 + \Delta + \text{orange circle}$$

Is RBS extremely accurate ?

- No as both skew and offset contribute to lack of sync
- Offset – as each node may start at different time
- Works well in single – hop
- Requires Time Translation in case of multi-hop

Time Translation



P_A sent

E_1 occurs 2 units later

E_2 occurs

P_B sent 4 units later

P_B sent 10 units before P_A

$$E_1 = P_A + 2$$

$$E_2 = P_B - 4$$

$$P_A = P_B + 10$$

$$E_1 - E_2 = P_B + 10 + 2 - P_B + 4$$

$$E_1 - E_2 = 16$$

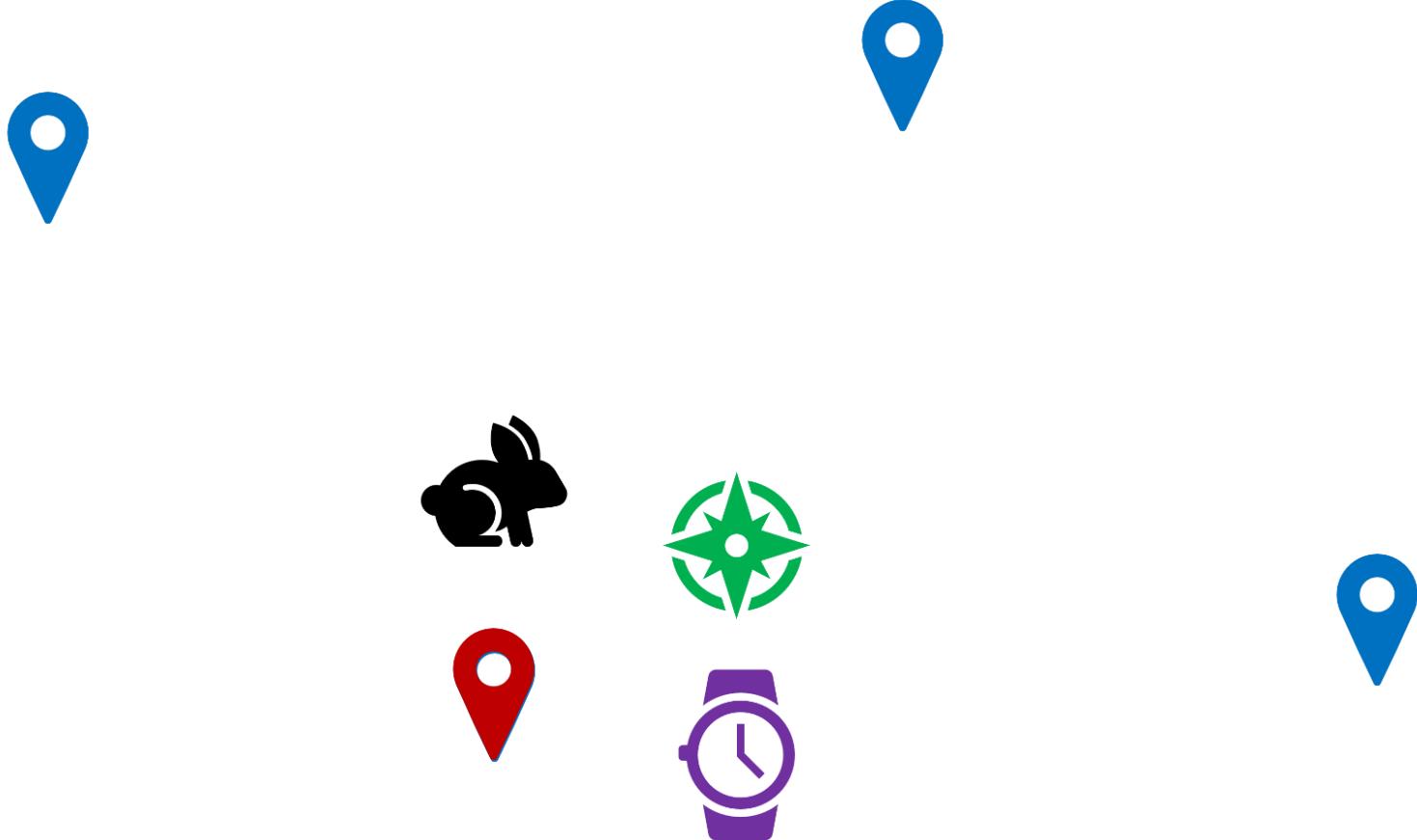
Time Sync Protocols

- Type1 : Time servers
- Type2 : Translate time thro' ntk
- Type3 : Self-organize to sync clock



Wireless Sensor Network - Localization

Habitat Monitoring



Localization??

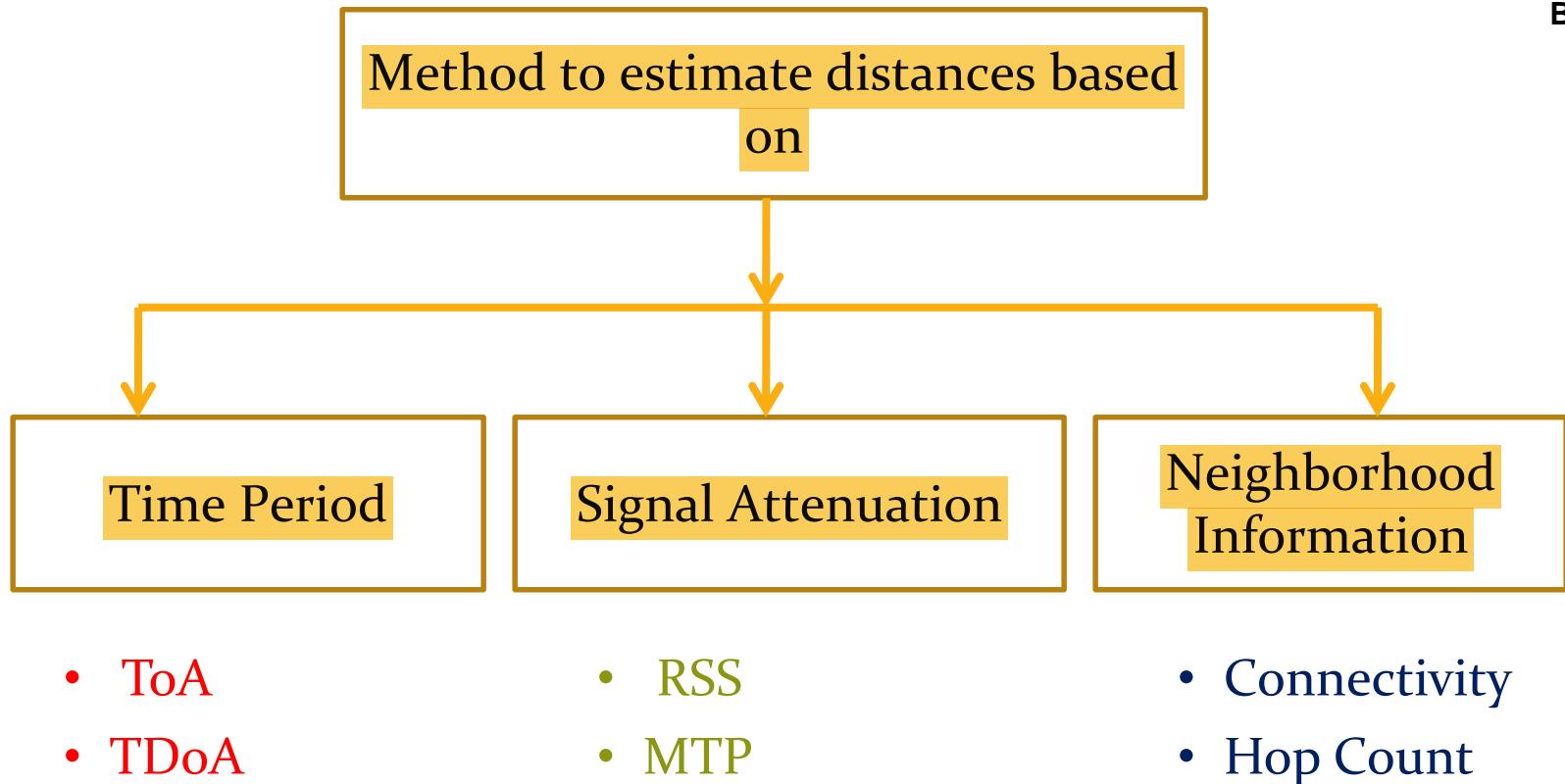
- All nodes in the network have an idea about their absolute/relative position

Localization

- Dynamic environment
- Hundreds of sensors are placed randomly – over a large area
- Initial location of the nodes may been unknown
- Estimation of a nodes position used
 - Measurement without position is useless
 - Allows energy efficient geographic routing
 - Self-organization and Self- healing is easier
 - Obstacles can be found and by-passed
 - Tracking – Measurement itself

Position Estimation

- Not possible to equip every node with GPS
- Anchors, beacons, landmark nodes
 - Triangulation
 - Tri-Lateration
 - Multi-Lateration



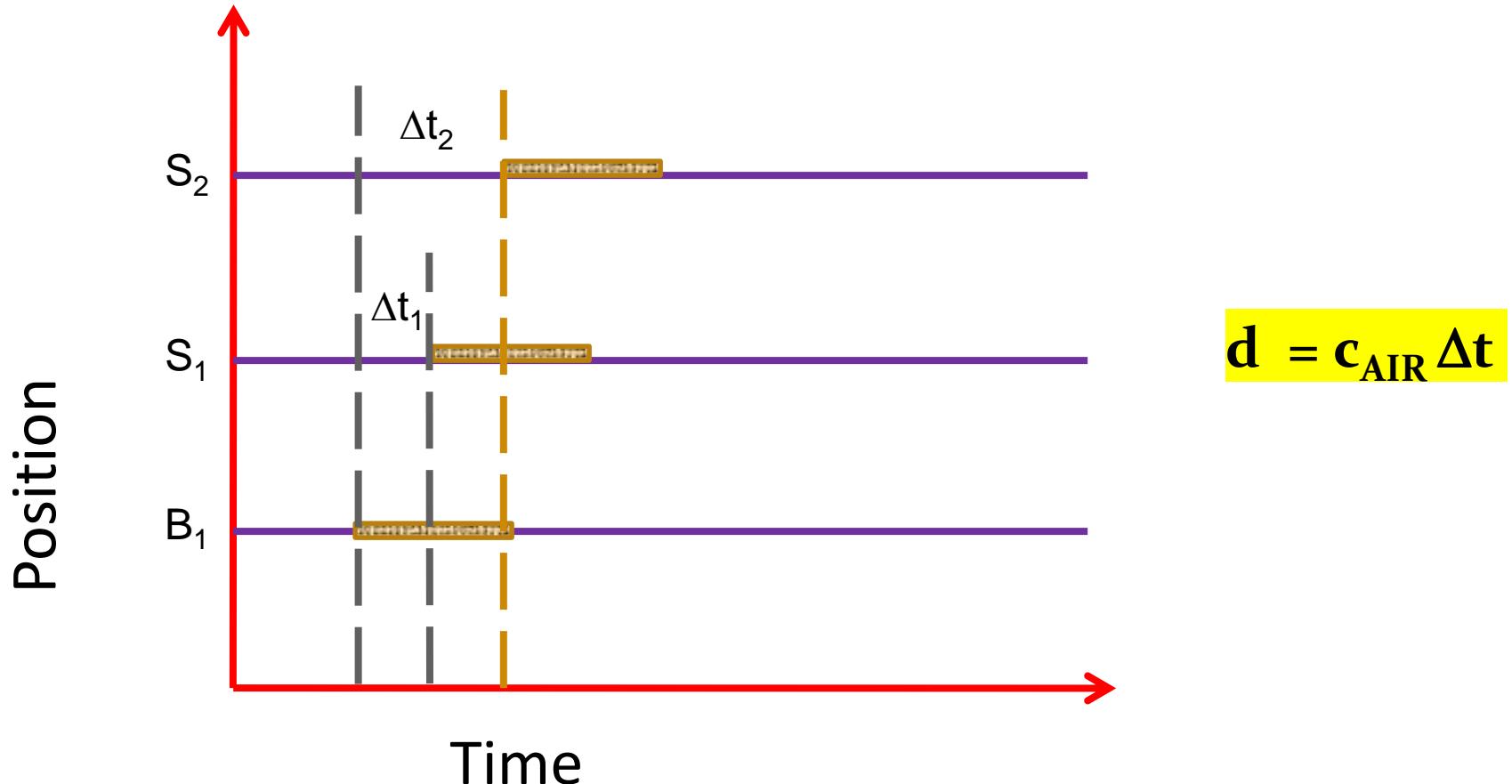
Localization– Modes of Operation

- Initialization
- Post – Deployment Operation - Mobile



Wireless Sensor Network - Localization – Distance Estimation

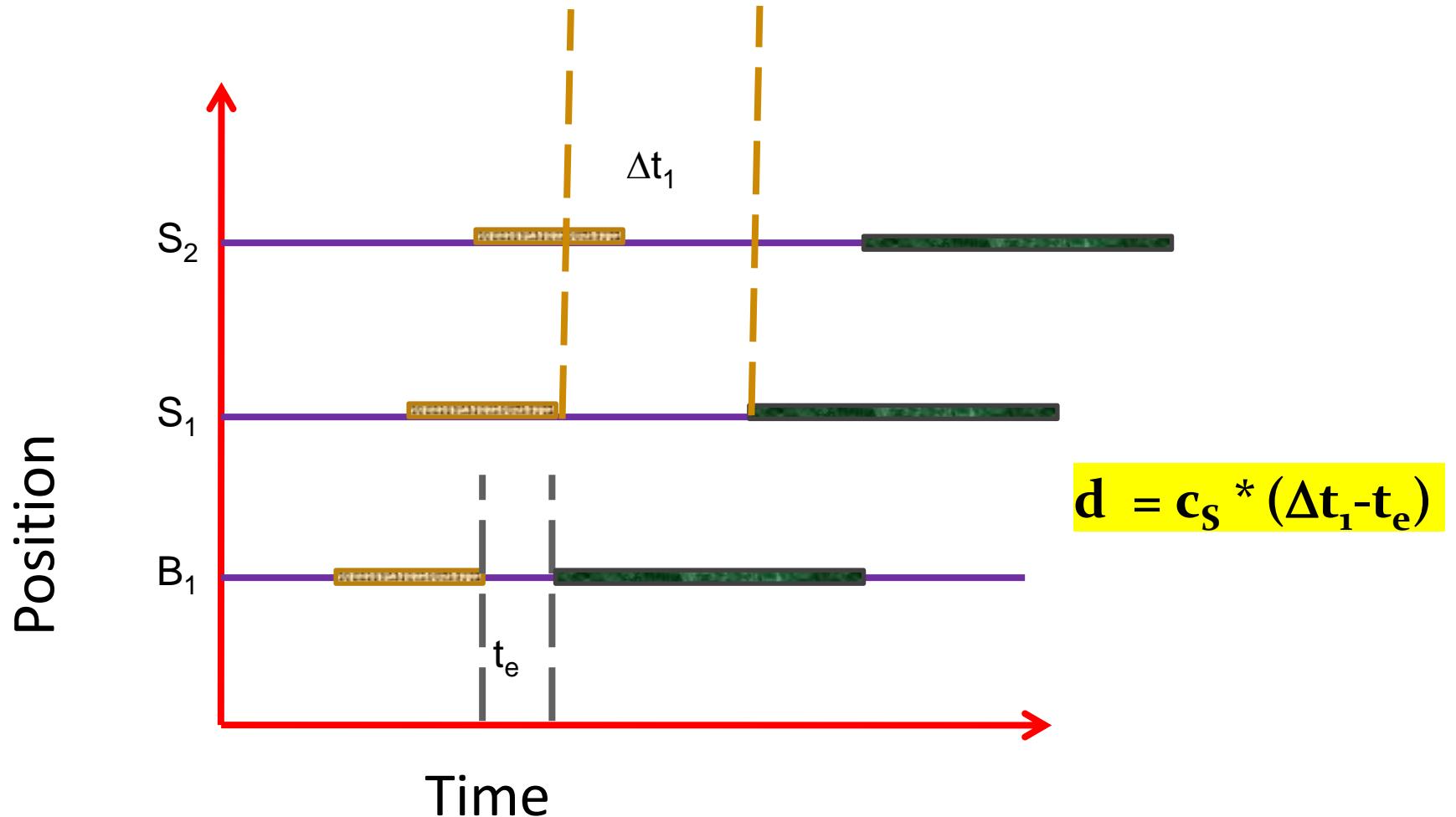
Time of Arrival (ToA)



Issues with ToA??

- C_{AIR} - 297,702 km/s $\approx 3 \times 10^6$ m/s
- $d = 30\text{cm}$ btwn B1 & S1
- $\Delta t = 1\text{ns}$

Time of Arrival (ToA)



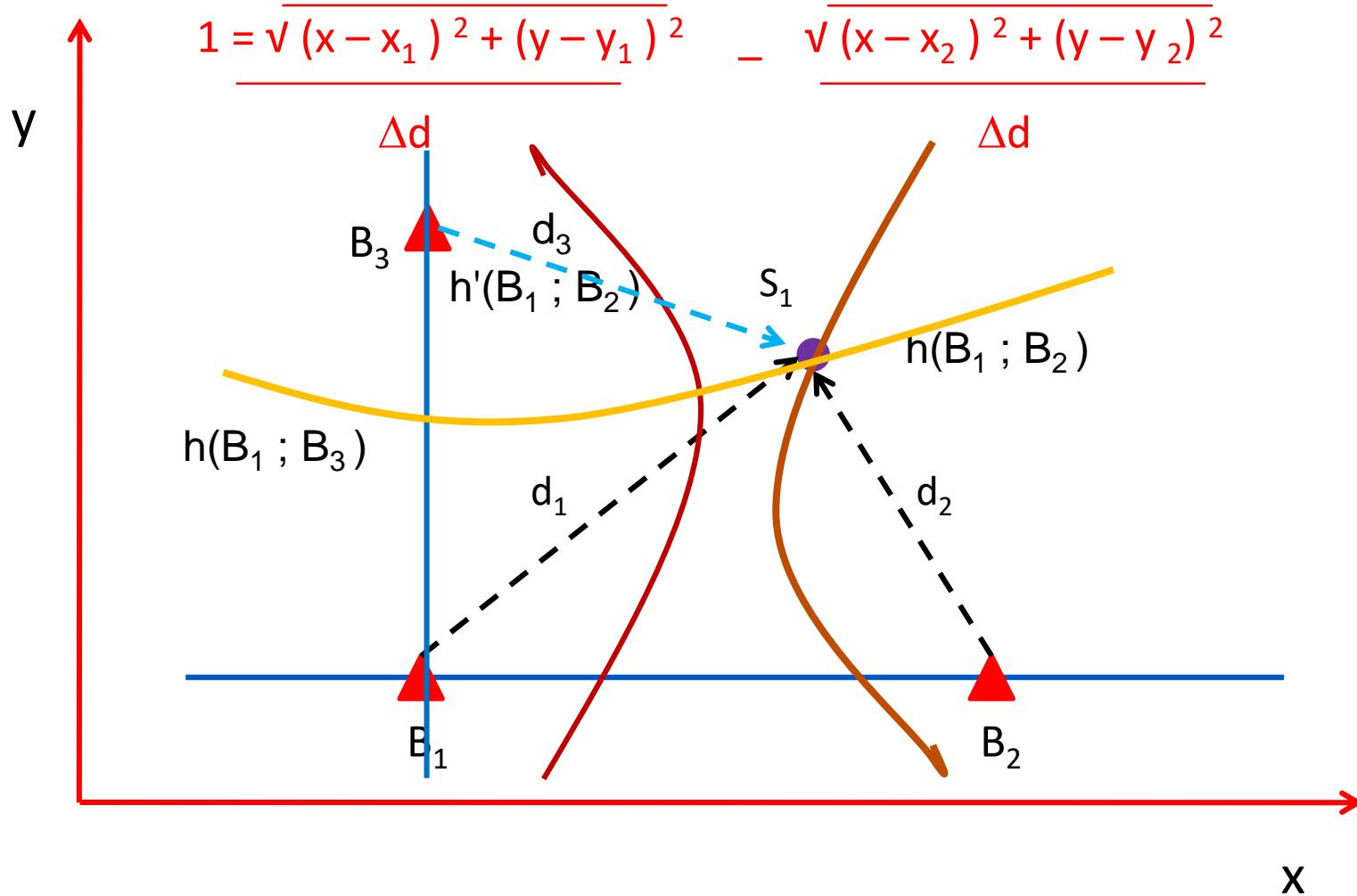
Improvement??

- C_s - 340 m/s
- All time measurements will not be affected by lack of time sync
- Sound unpredictable medium
- Additional hardware



Wireless Sensor Network - Localization – Distance Estimation

Time Difference of Arrival (TDoA)



$$d_1 - d_2 = \Delta t \cdot c = \Delta d$$

$$\Delta t = t_{\text{end}} - t_{\text{start}}$$

Issues with TDoA??

- No. of Beacons required
- Localized nodes can act as beacons themselves



Wireless Sensor Network - Localization – Distance Estimation

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)



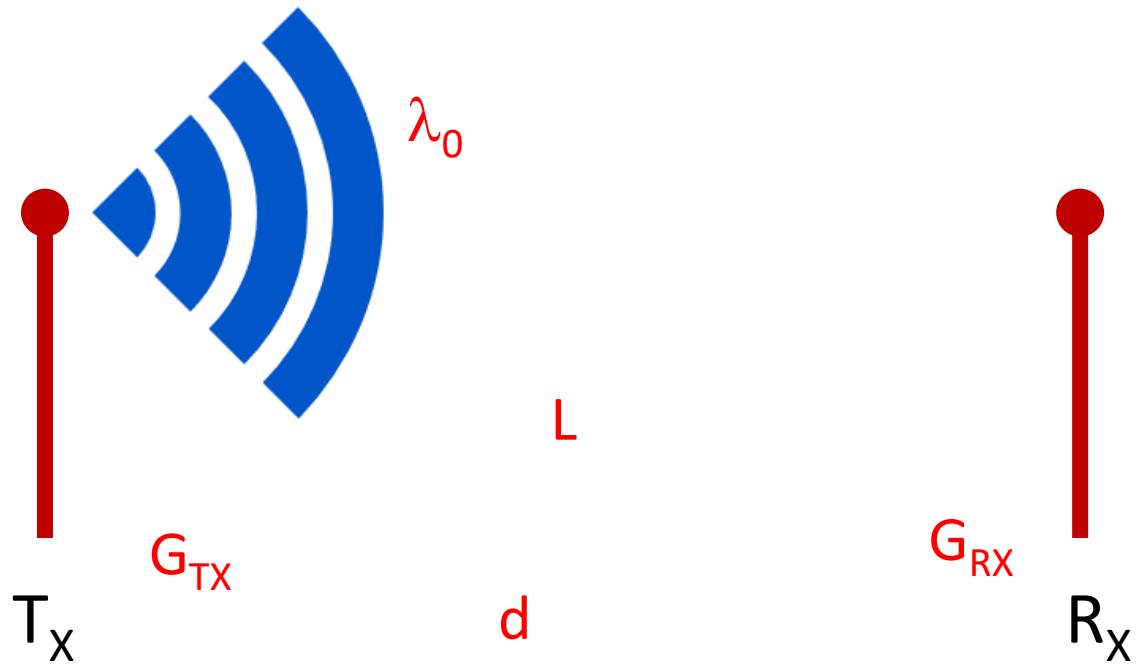
T_x



R_x

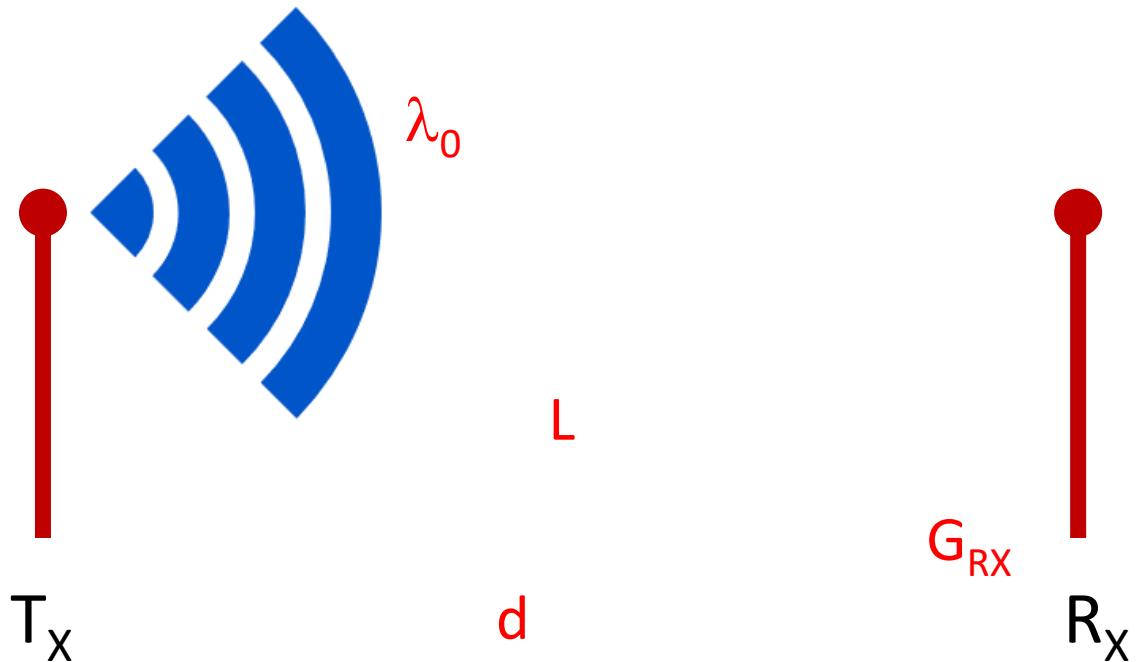
$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} =$$

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)



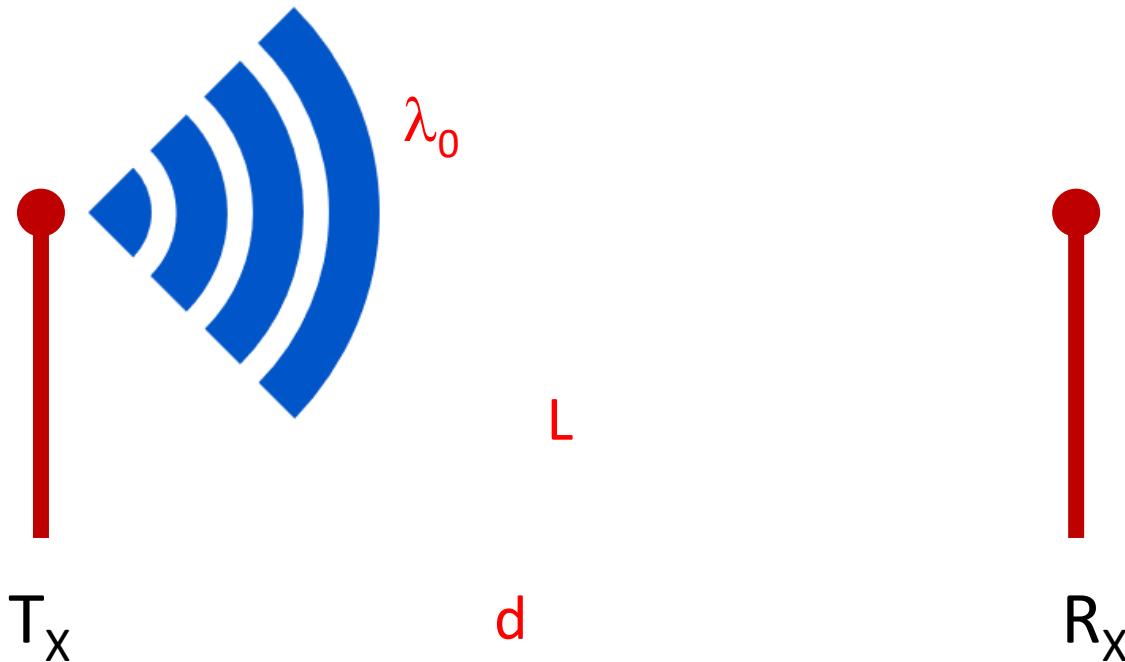
$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} =$$

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)



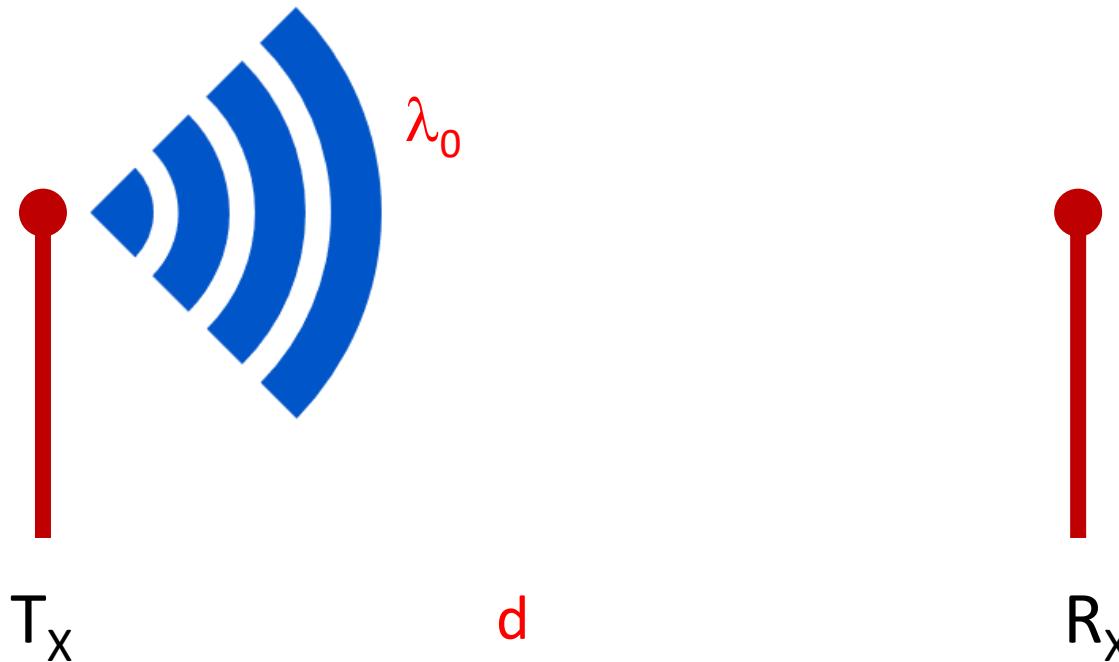
$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} = G_{TX}$$

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)



$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} = G_{TX} G_{RX}$$

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)



$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} = \frac{G_{TX} G_{RX}}{L}$$

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)



$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} = \frac{G_{TX} G_{RX}}{L} \lambda_0$$

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)



$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} = \frac{G_{TX} G_{RX}}{L} \frac{\lambda_0}{d}$$

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)



$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} = \frac{G_{TX} G_{RX}}{L} \left[\frac{\lambda_0}{4\pi d} \right]^2$$

Received Signal Strength (RSSI)

$$\frac{P_{RX}}{P_{TX}} = \frac{G_{TX} G_{RX}}{L} \left\{ \frac{\lambda_0}{4\pi d} \right\}^2 \quad \text{Friis Equation}$$

$$PL = 10 \log \frac{G_{TX} G_{RX}}{L} \left\{ \frac{\lambda_0}{4\pi d} \right\}^2$$

$$d_{max} = \frac{\lambda_0}{4\pi 10^{-PLmax/20}}$$

Issues with RSSI??

- Ideal Gain & No Loss Assumption
- Loss is unpredictable
- Need for measurement technique

Minimum Transmission Power (MTP)



- Motes allow multiple power levels



Wireless Sensor Network - Localization – Algorithms

Issues ??

- Resource Constraints
- Node Density
- Non-Convex Topology – Border Node Problems
- Environmental Obstacles & Terrain Irregularities

Requirements of LA

- High Precision
- Minimal cost
- Fully distributed – robust & reliable
- Adaptive to environmental changes
- Mobility must be accommodated
- Resource- Efficient

Types

- Approximate Vs Precise
- Central Vs Distributed
- Range based Vs Range Free
- Relative Vs Absolute
- Indoor Vs Outdoor
- Beacon-Free Vs Beacon based

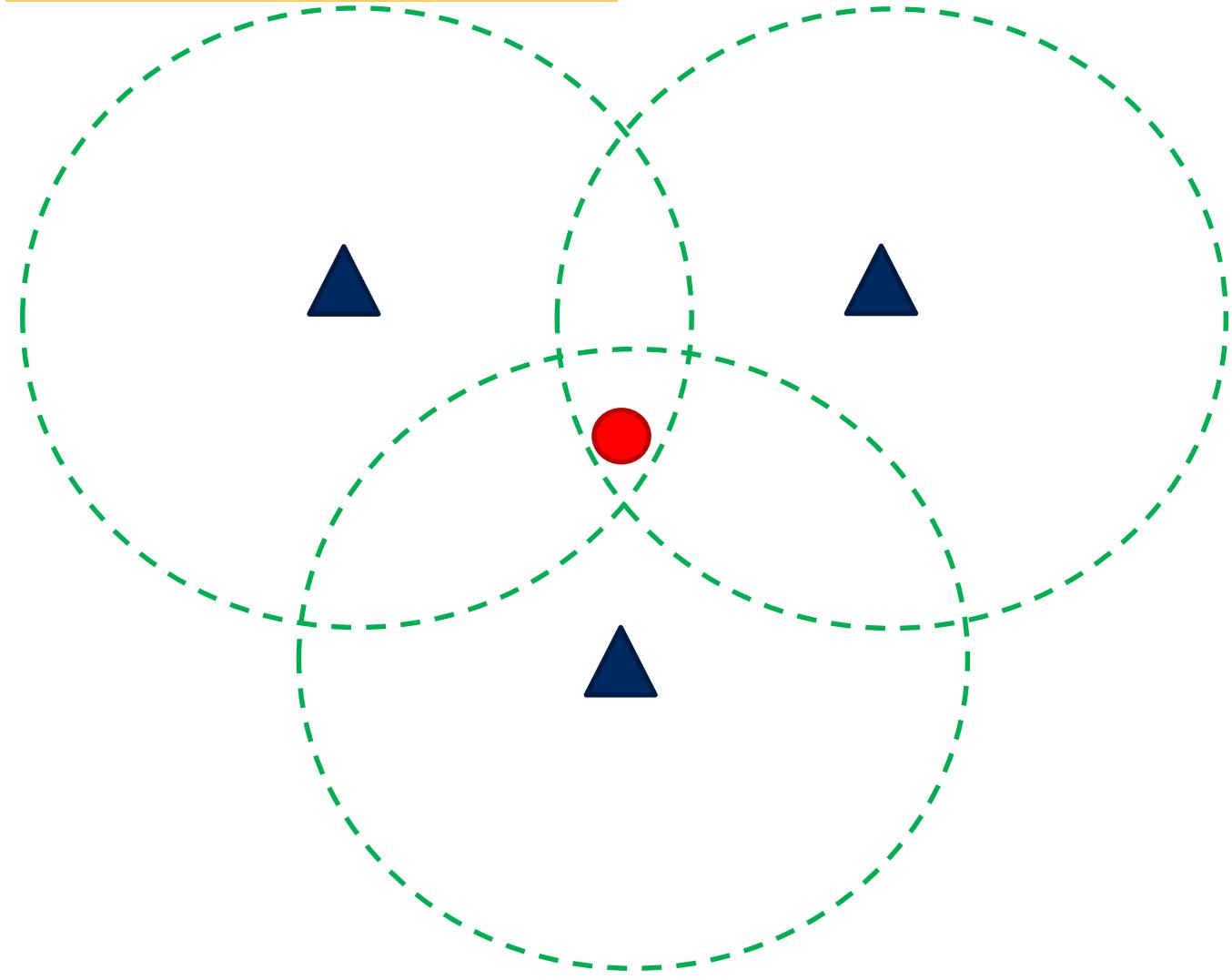


Wireless Sensor Network - Localization – Algorithms

Centroid Localization

- Based on the concept of Trilateration
- Extended to Multilateration

Trilateration

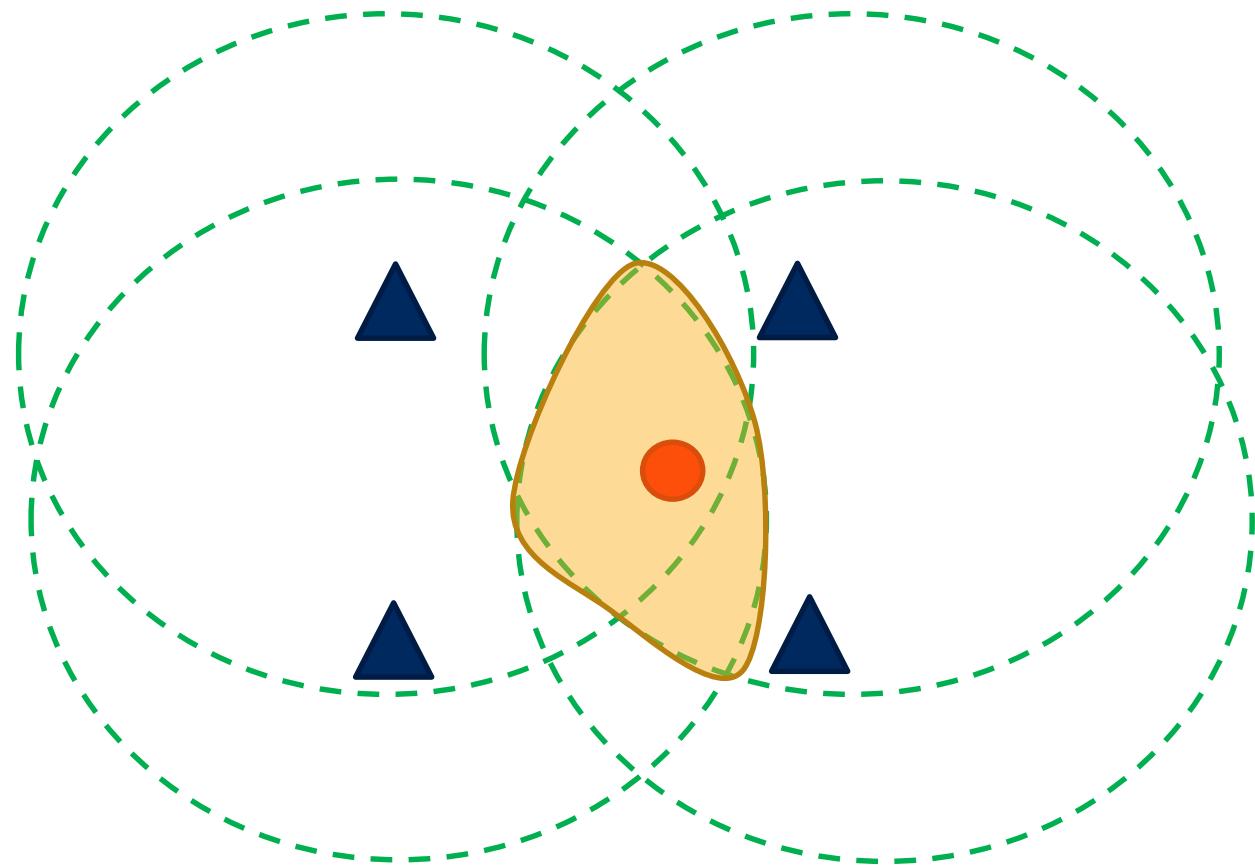


$$(B_i S)^2 = (B_i(x_i) - S(x))^2 + (B_i(y_i) - S(y))^2$$

Assumptions

- Perfect Spherical Radio Propagation
- Identical Tx range for all radios
- The neighbouring signal points can be sync so that they do not overlap in time

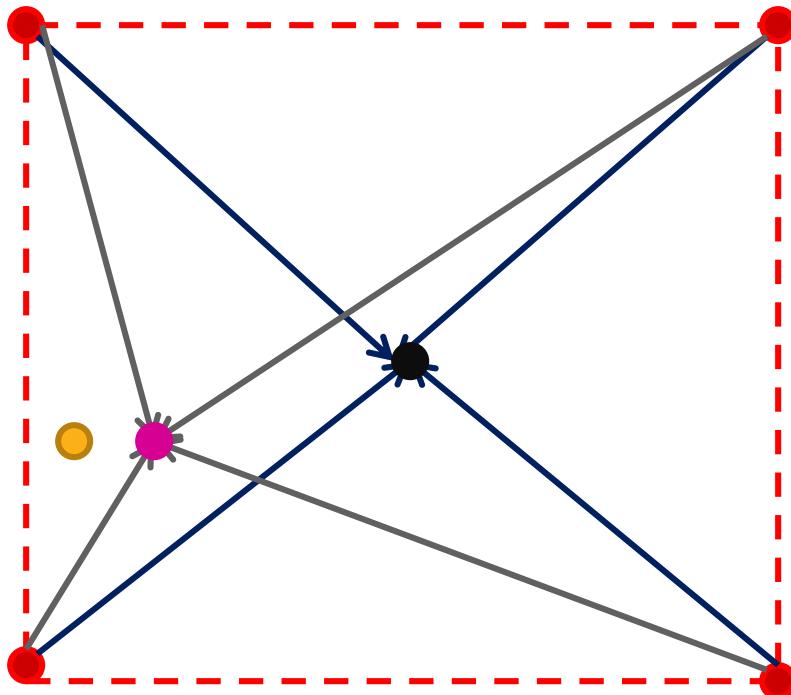
Multi-Lateration



Position Estimation

$$S(x,y) = 1/n \sum_n B(x_i, y_i)$$

Issues with Centroid



Assign Weights

Weighted Centroid

- Weights
- RSSI
- ToA



H-SATS- Simple Hierarchical Time Synchronization Algorithm for WSNs

Outline

1. Motivation
2. Existing synchronization schemes
3. H-SATS
4. Experimental Setup
5. Results
6. Discussion

Motivation

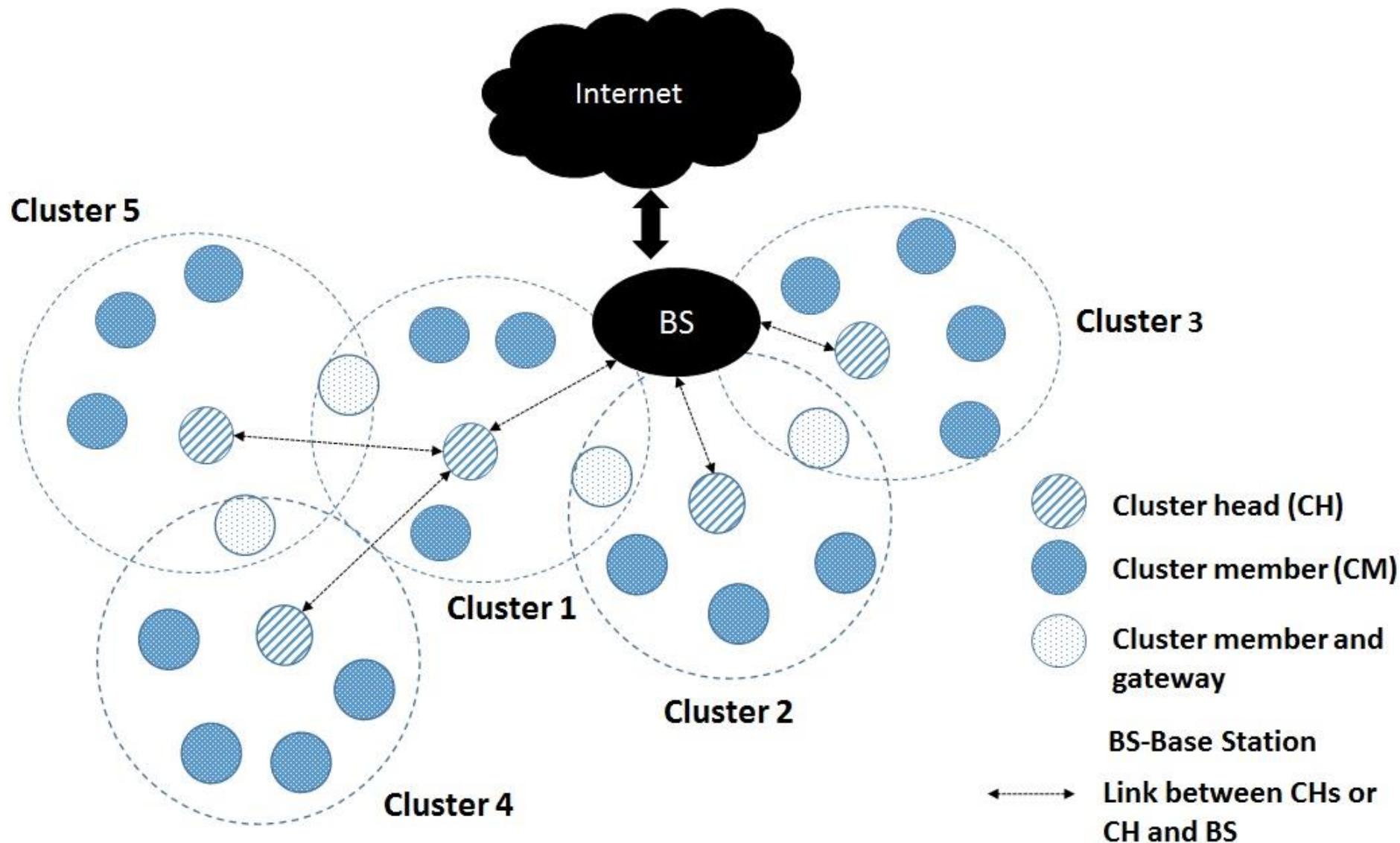
1. Time Synchronization Protocols (TSPs) give a common reference of time for a distributed network like WSN
2. Essential for data-fusion, TDMA based communication, power management protocols
3. Different levels of Time-synchronization
4. Cannot do it using GPS or standard protocols like NTP used for traditional networks

Motivation...

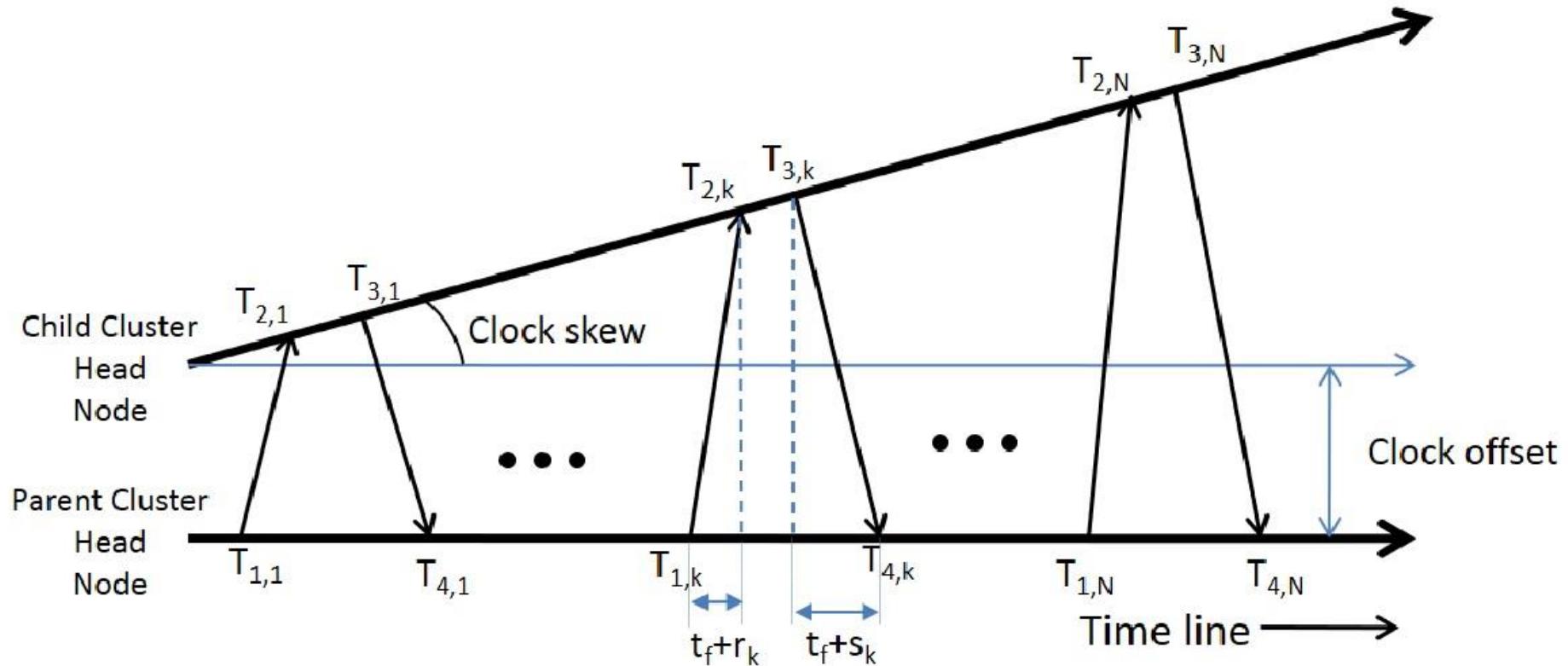
1. Clustering technique is an important and energy-efficient technique especially for data-gathering, fusion, etc.
2. Most of the TSPs are simulation based works
3. Effectiveness for practical WSNs questionable
4. cannot give a complete picture
5. make many assumptions at a high level of abstraction, do not consider packet loss and its effect on synchronization accuracy
6. Also do not state the Line-of-Sight (LOS) conditions in which the experiments are performed
7. LOS conditions can have significant effect on the performance of TSP

Existing schemes for clustered WSN...

1. SLTP, L-Synch- Regression based schemes
low accuracy, simulation based works, do not account for deterministic and non-deterministic delays
2. PC-Avg-takes average
poor synchronization accuracy
3. CCTS, CMTS- high accuracy, but high overhead



H-SATS



Mathematical Basis

1. Clock Model

$$C_i(t) = \alpha_i t + \beta_i,$$

offset

skew

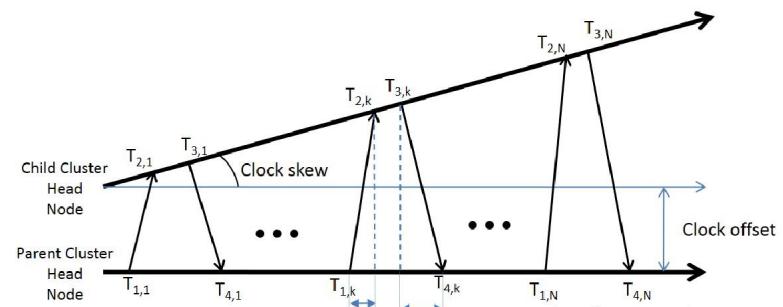
$$C_{ih}(t) = \alpha_{ih} C_h + \beta_{ih},$$

2. For a two-way exchange we can write

$$T_{2,k} = \alpha_{ih}(T_{1,k} + t_f + r_k) + \beta_{ih}$$

Det Delay

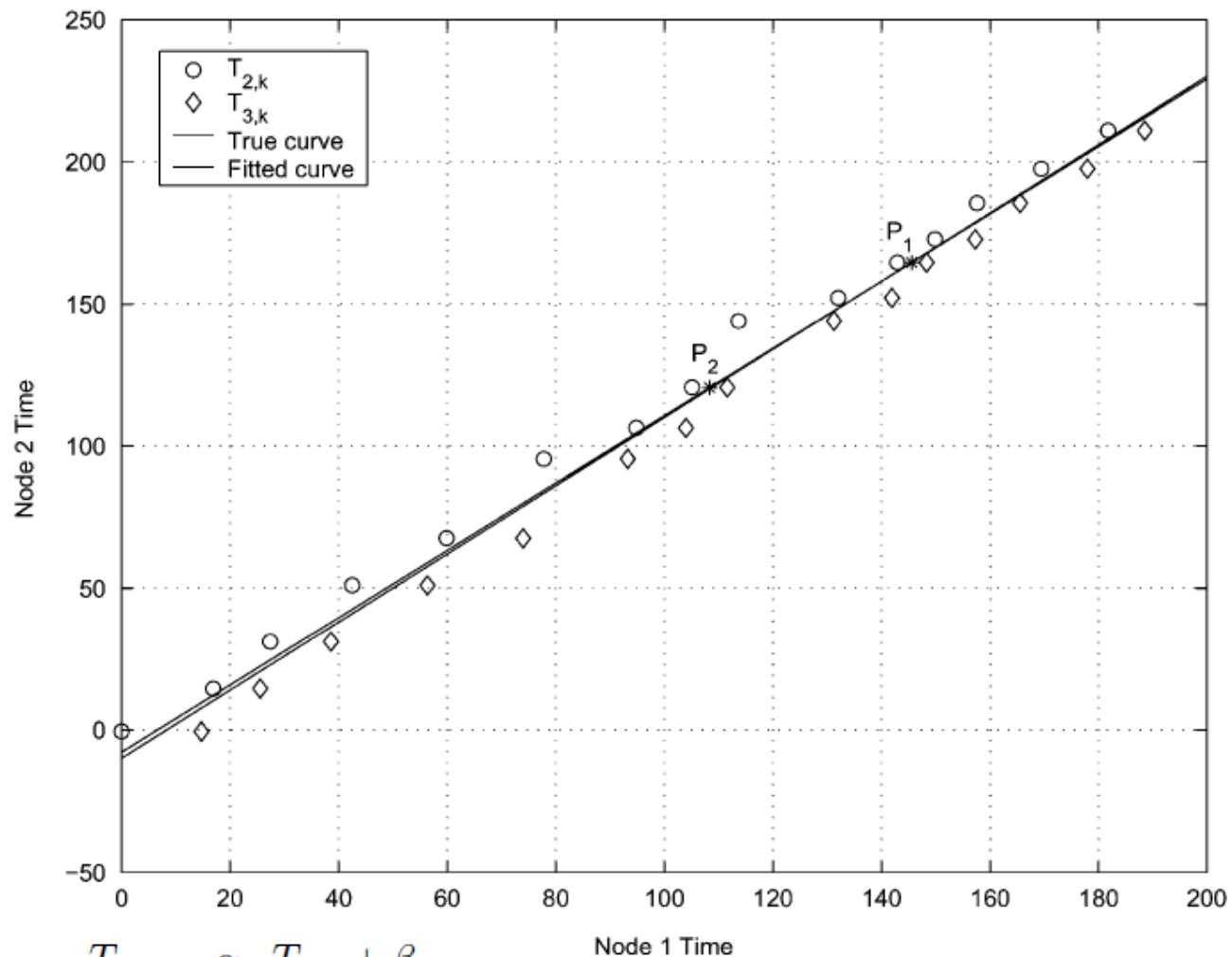
$$T_{3,k} = \alpha_{ih}(T_{4,k} - t_f - s_k) + \beta_{ih},$$



Non-deterministic delay

$$T_{2,k} = \alpha_{ih}T_{1,k} + \beta_{ih} + \alpha_{ih}(t_f + r_k)$$

$$T_{3,k} = \alpha_{ih}T_{4,k} + \beta_{ih} - \alpha_{ih}(t_f + s_k).$$



$$T_{2,k} = \alpha_{ih} T_{1,k} + \beta_{ih}$$

Node 1 Time

$$T_{3,k} = \alpha_{ih} T_{4,k} + \beta_{ih}$$

H-SATS vs regression method

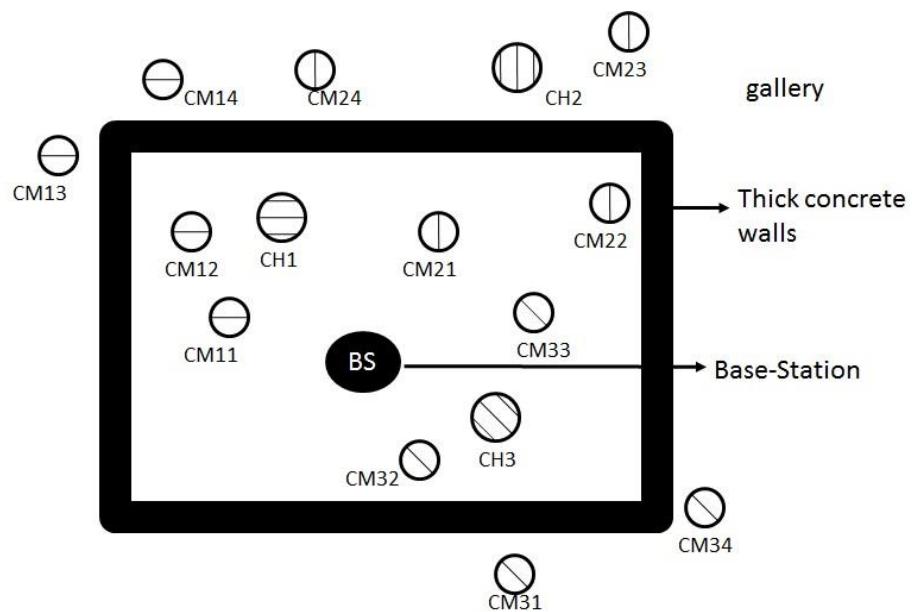
Algorithm Complexity for additions and multiplications

| Algorithm | Additions | Multiplications |
|-------------------|-----------|-----------------|
| Regression method | $O(N)$ | $O(N)$ |
| SATS | $O(N)$ | 1 |

Experimental Setup



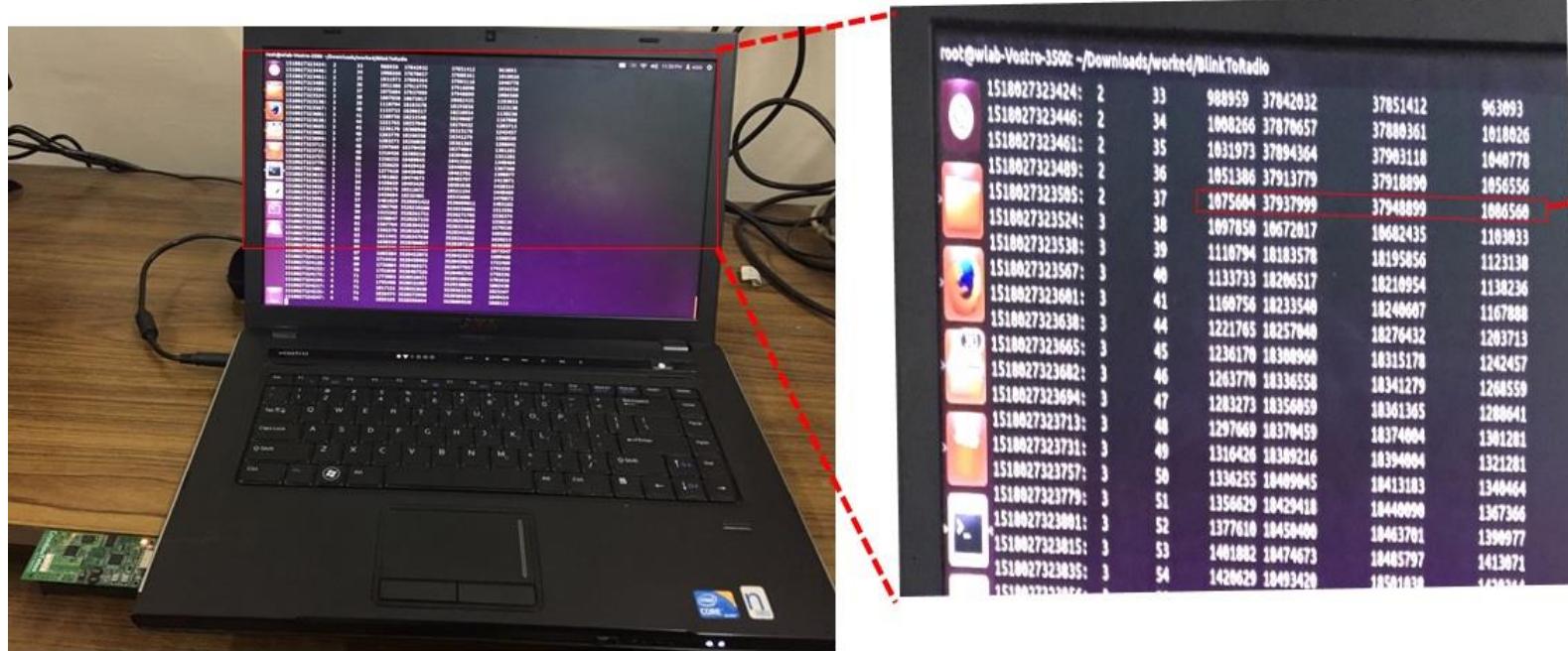
Experimental Setup



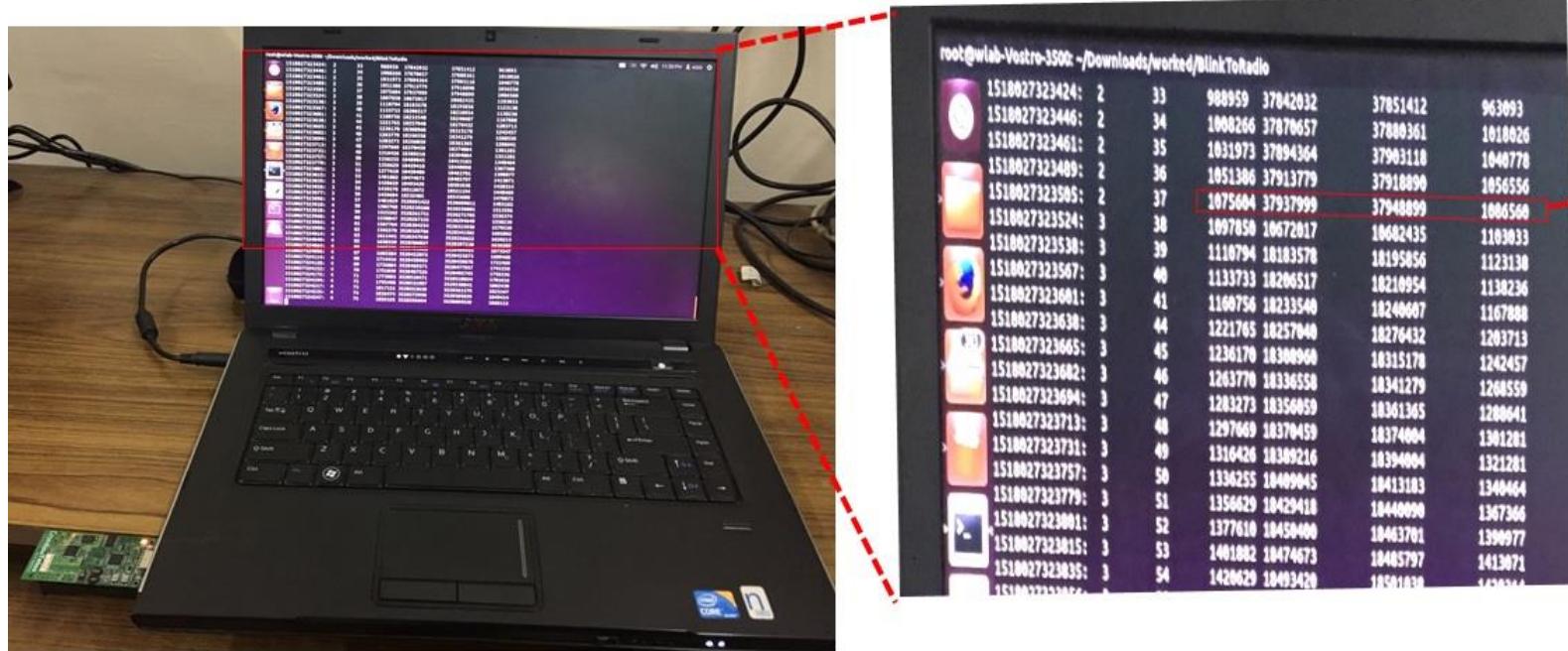
- | | | | |
|--|----------------|--|-------------------|
|  | Cluster Head 1 |  | Cluster Member 1i |
|  | Cluster Head 2 |  | Cluster Member 2i |
|  | Cluster Head 3 |  | Cluster Member 3i |



Base Station collecting the data

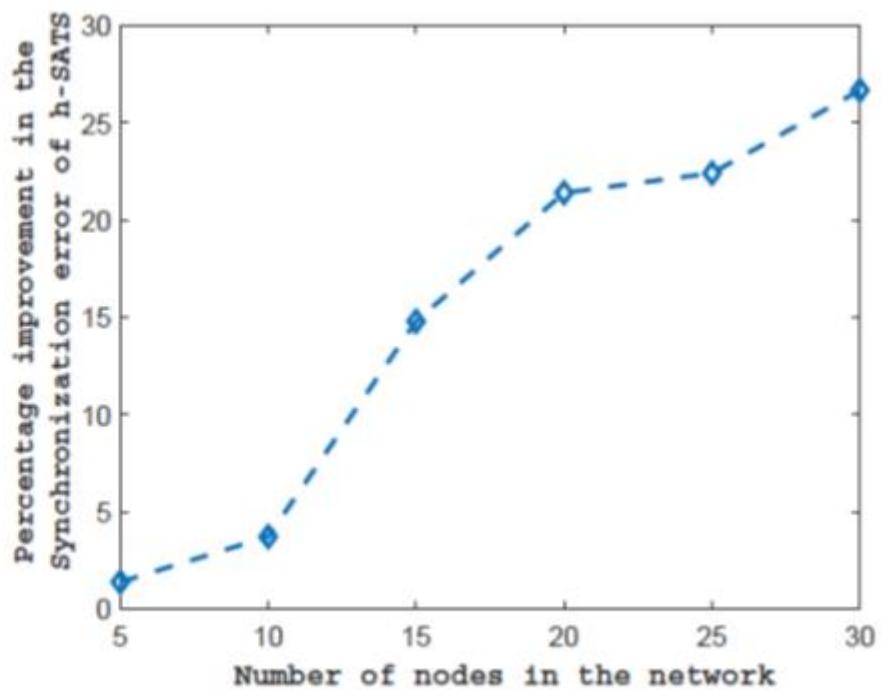
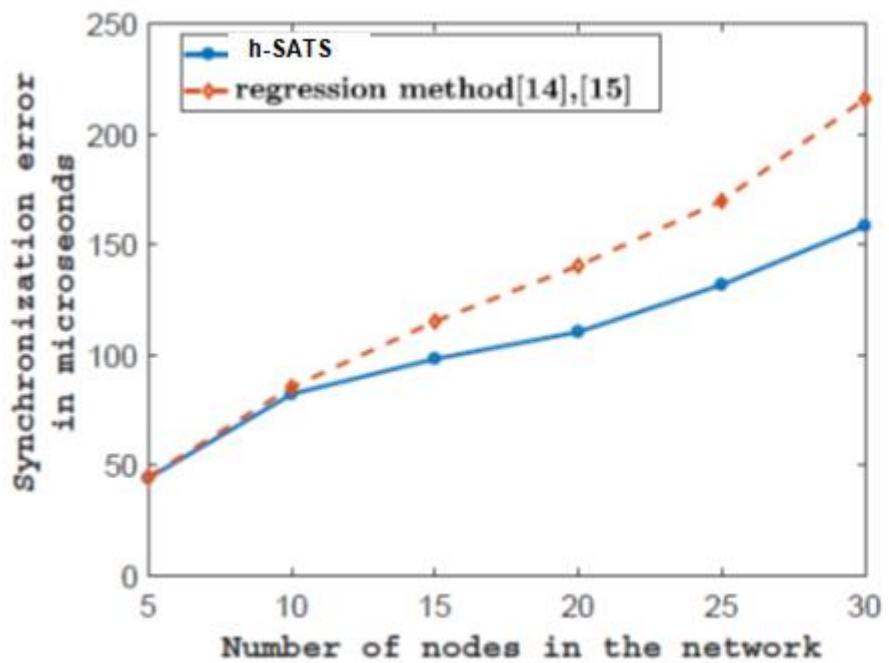


Base Station collecting the data

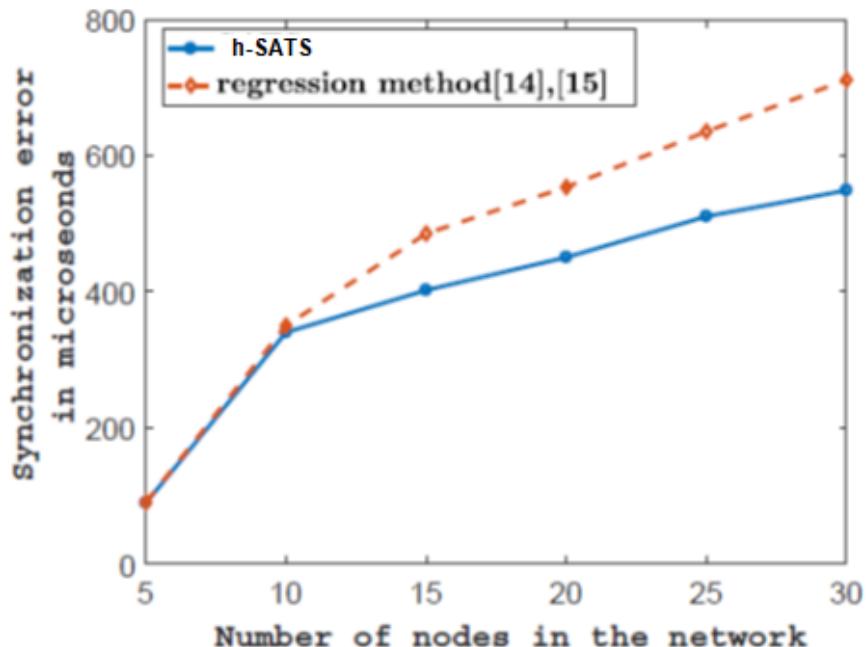


4 time
stamps of a
two-way
exchange

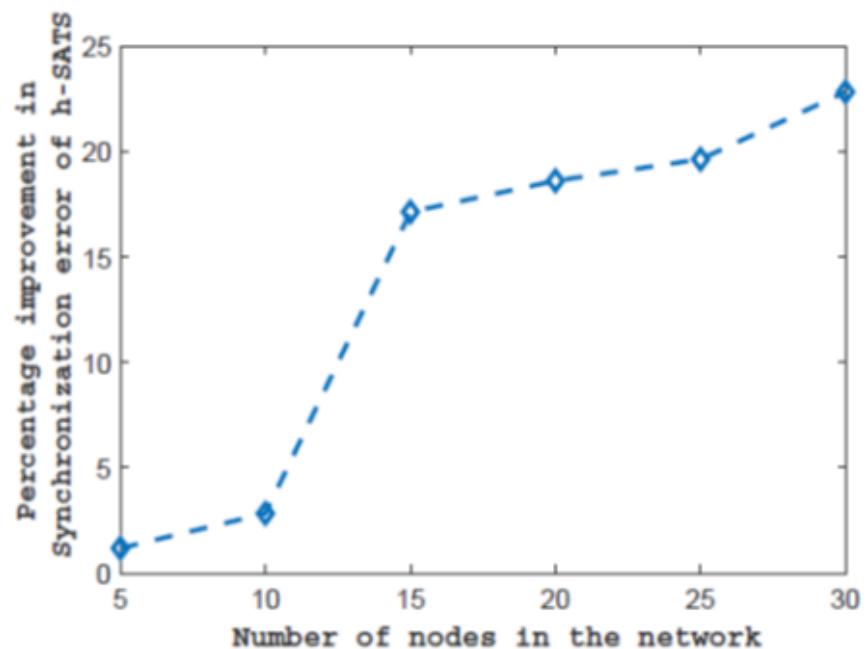
Results-LOS



Results-mixed-LOS



(a)



(b)

References

Chalapathi, G.S.S., Manekar, R., Chamola, V., Anupama, K.R. and Gurunarayanan, S., 2016, November. Hardware validated efficient and simple Time Synchronization protocol for clustered WSN. In *Region 10 Conference (TENCON), 2016 IEEE* (pp. 2162-2166). IEEE.

Other works are submitted to Journals for publication

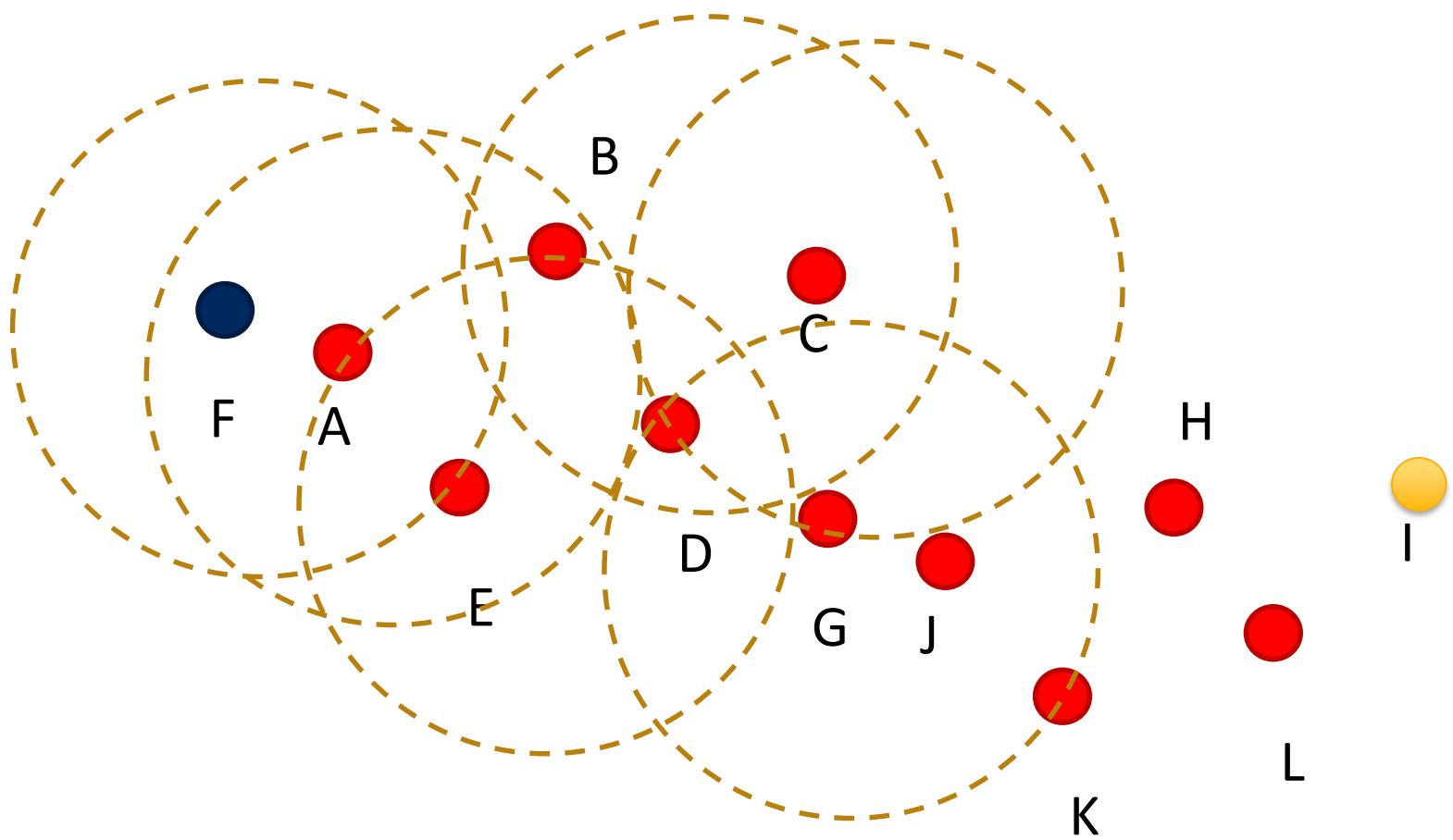


Wireless Sensor Network - Routing

Routing

- Flooding
- Gossiping

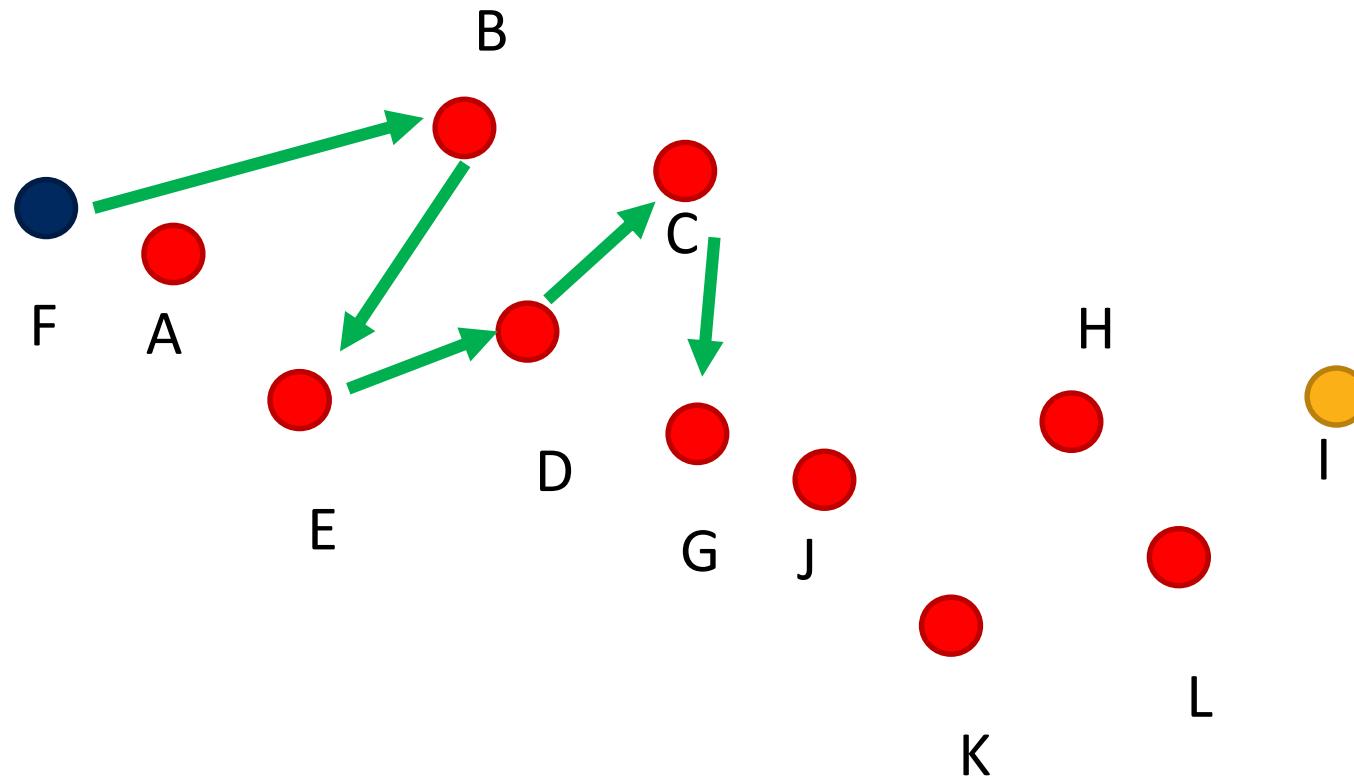
Flooding



Flooding - Issues

- Broadcast Storms

Gossiping



Gossiping - Issues

- No Control over Route Length

Routing - Types

- Proactive
- Reactive
- Multi-hop
- Direct
- Push
- Pull

Routing – Performance Criteria

- Hit-Miss Ratio
- Average Energy Consumption
- Network Life Time

Routing Algorithms

- Optimization-based
- Data-centric
- Cluster-based
- Location-based
- QoS Enabled



Wireless Sensor Network - Clustering

Routing - Clustering

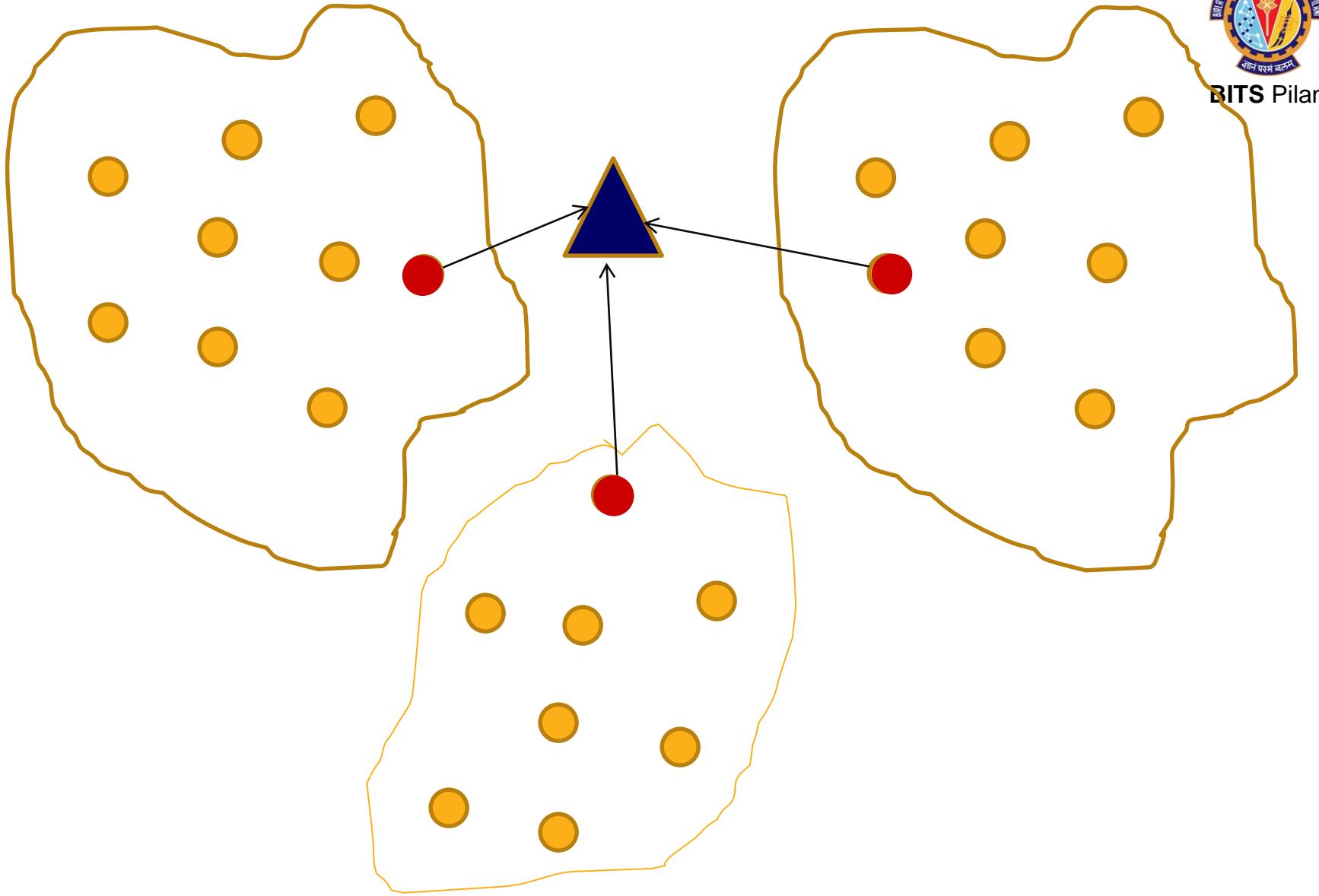
- Low Energy Adaptive Cluster Hierarchy protocol
(LEACH)

LEACH - Model

- Base Station is fixed and far away from all sensor nodes
- All nodes - energy constrained & homogeneous
- Localized Clustering
- Local Data fusion
- Rotation of Cluster Heads
- Adaptive and Rotating Clustering Algorithm



BITS Pilani



LEACH - Advertisement Phase

- P = Desired % of cluster heads
- r = current round
- G – Nodes not yet cluster head in n rounds

LEACH - Cluster Selection Phase

Each node informs the cluster-head node that it will be a member

Each node transmits this information back to the cluster-head again using a CSMA MAC protocol

All cluster-head nodes must keep their receivers on

Schedule Creation Phase

Slot for Node 1

Slot for Node 2



LEACH

Energy Consumption evenly distributed

Data Aggregation – done at CH

In-built MAC

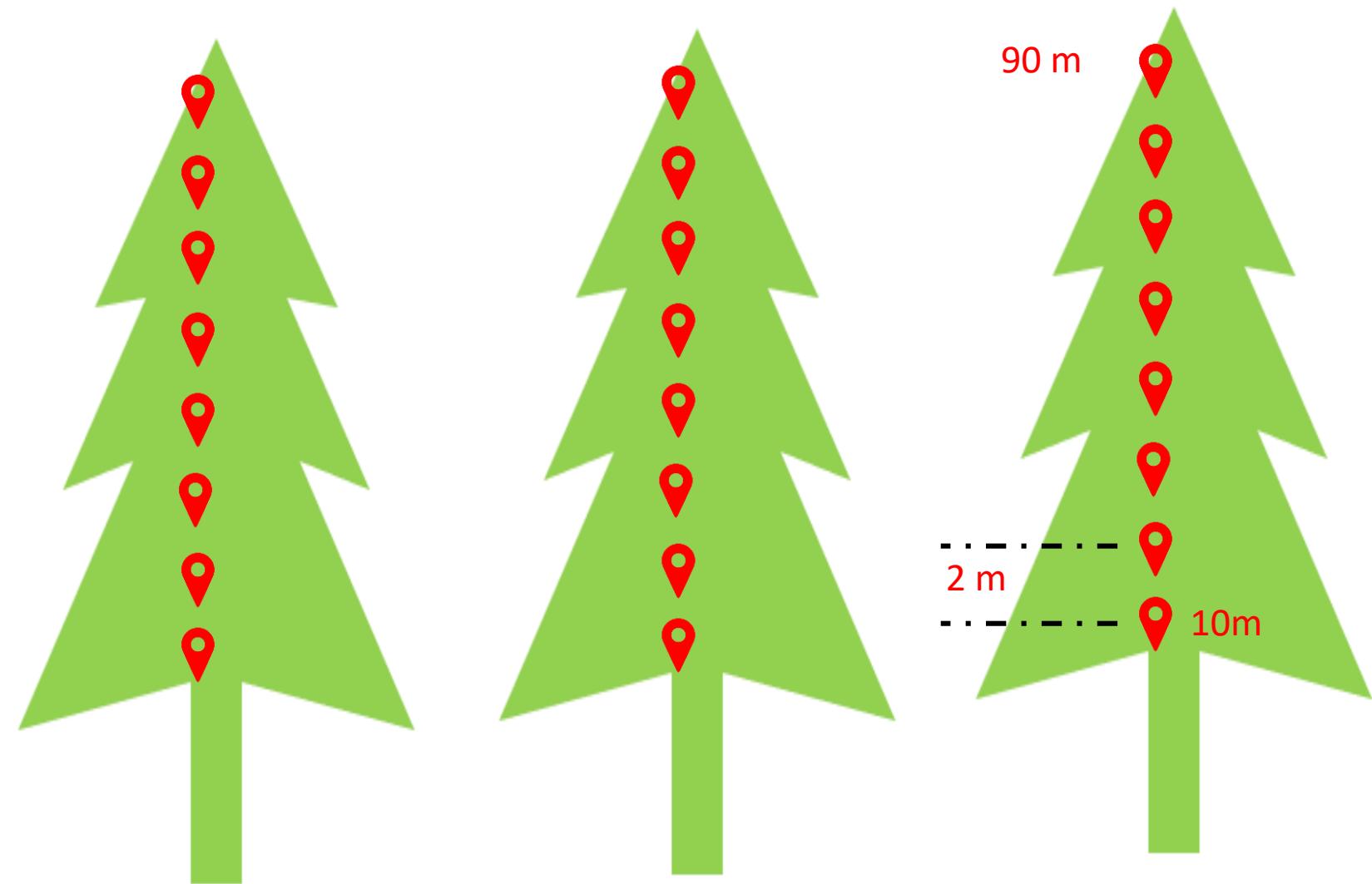


Wireless Sensor Network – case study

Redwood Climate Monitoring



Redwood Climate Monitoring

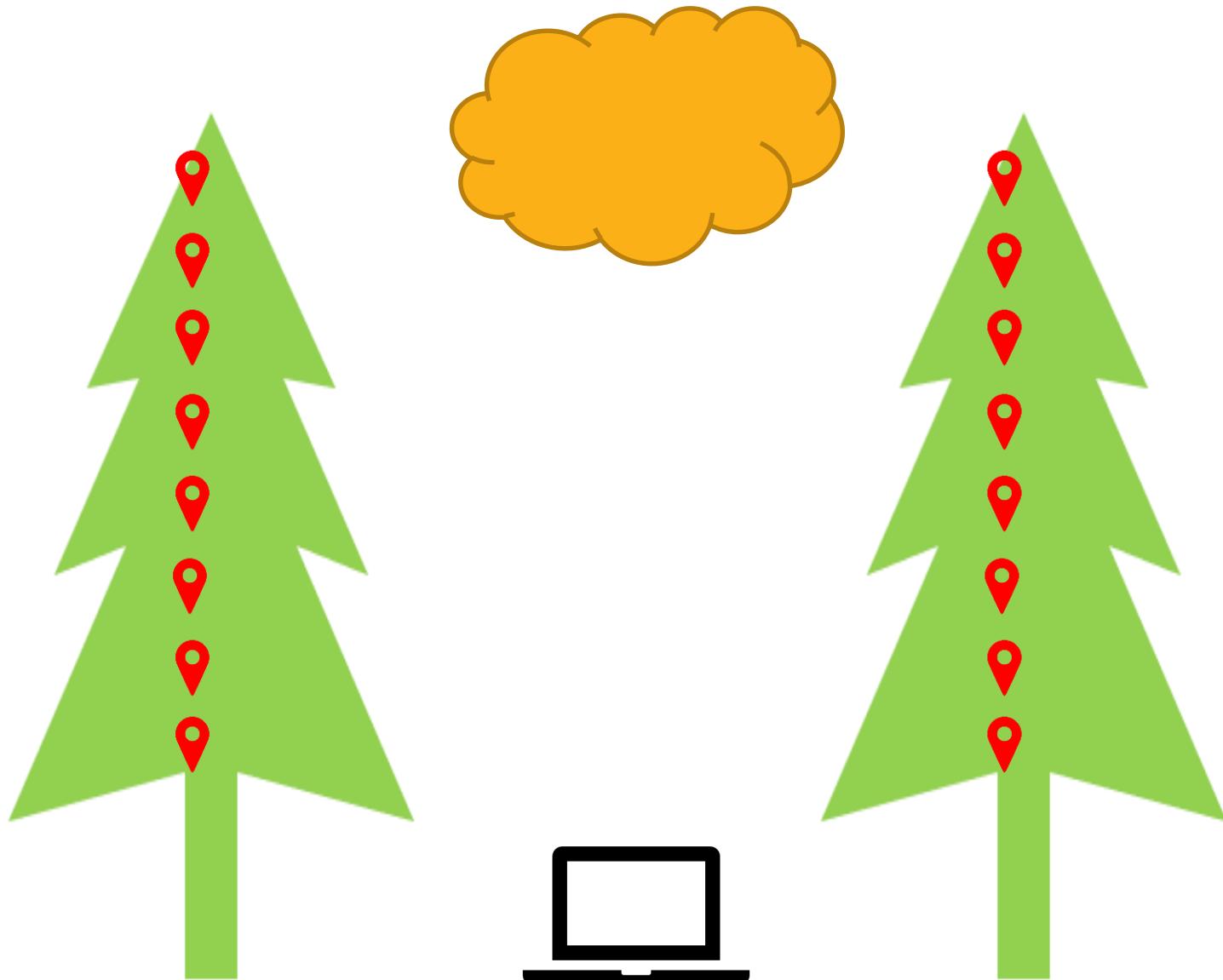


Parameters Monitored

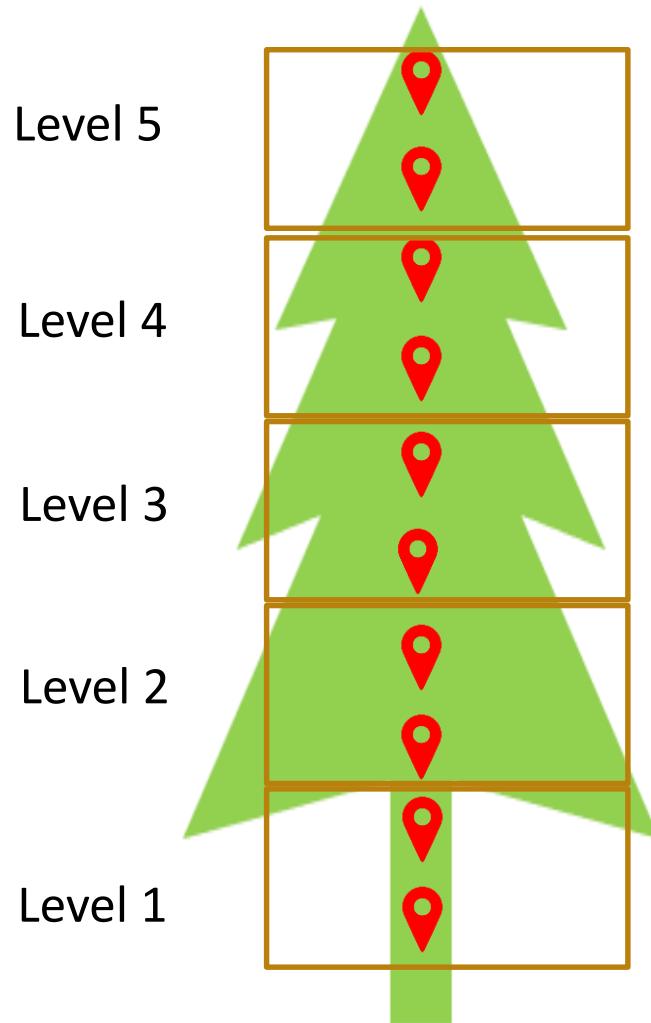
- Temperature
- Humidity
- Solar Radiation
- Light Levels
- Photosynthetically active radiation



Ever 5 Minutes



Redwood Climate Monitoring – Deployment Pattern



- Redwood Pine – Tallest Tree
- Grows to height of 90 M
- On a single tree 40 motes

Per Level - 8 nodes

Level - Cluster Level 1 – CL1

Redwood Climate Monitoring – Deployment Pattern

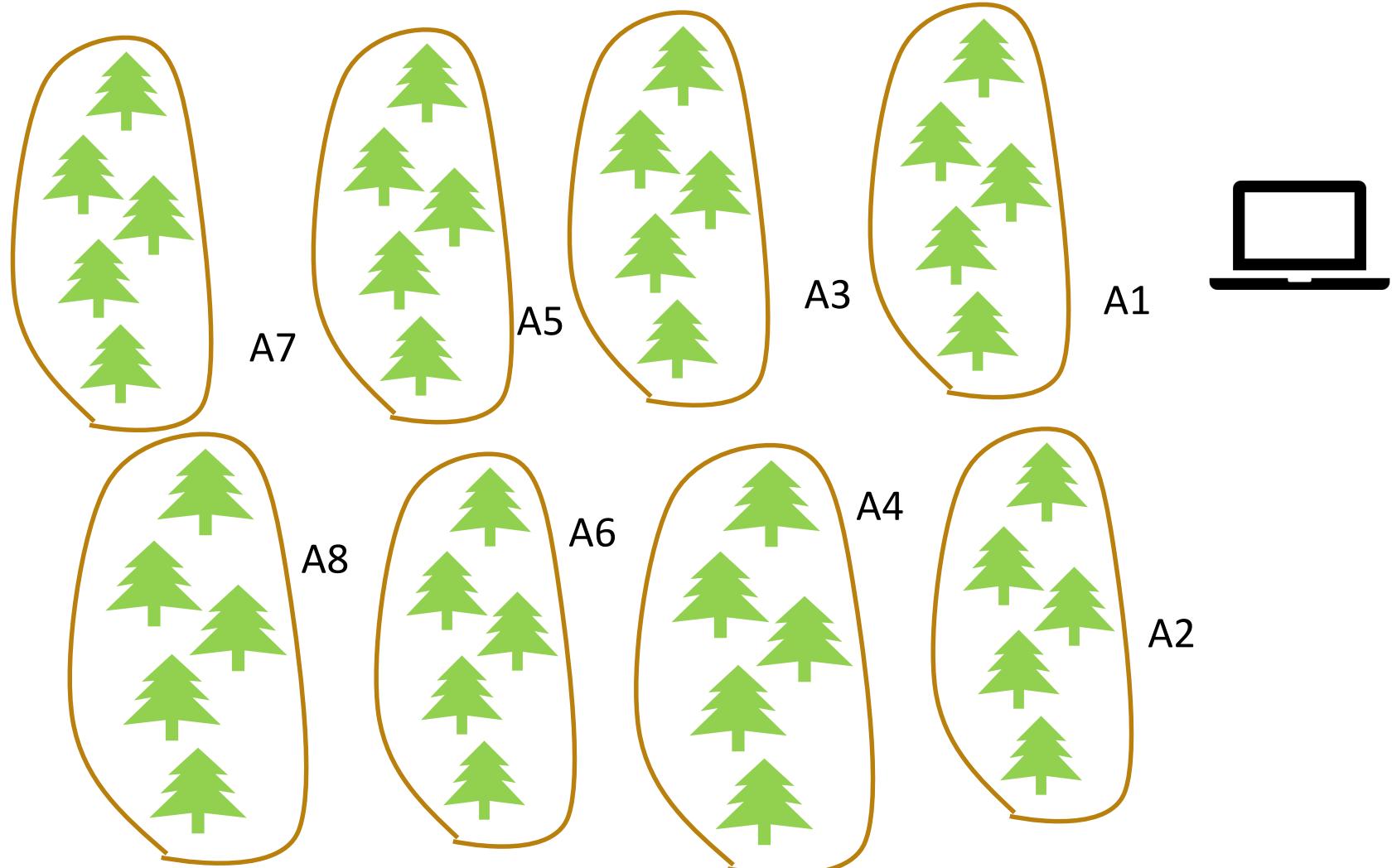
- Every cluster in CL1 will have a Cluster head dynamically elected using **LEACH**
- Nodes in L5 will send data to CH of L5 – aggregates data and send data to node to CH of L4
- Nodes in L4 will send data to CH of L4 that aggregates the data along with data of L5 and send to CH of L3
- And so on..
- L1 CH – try to connect and send data to BS

Redwood Climate Monitoring – Deployment Pattern



Cluster Level 2

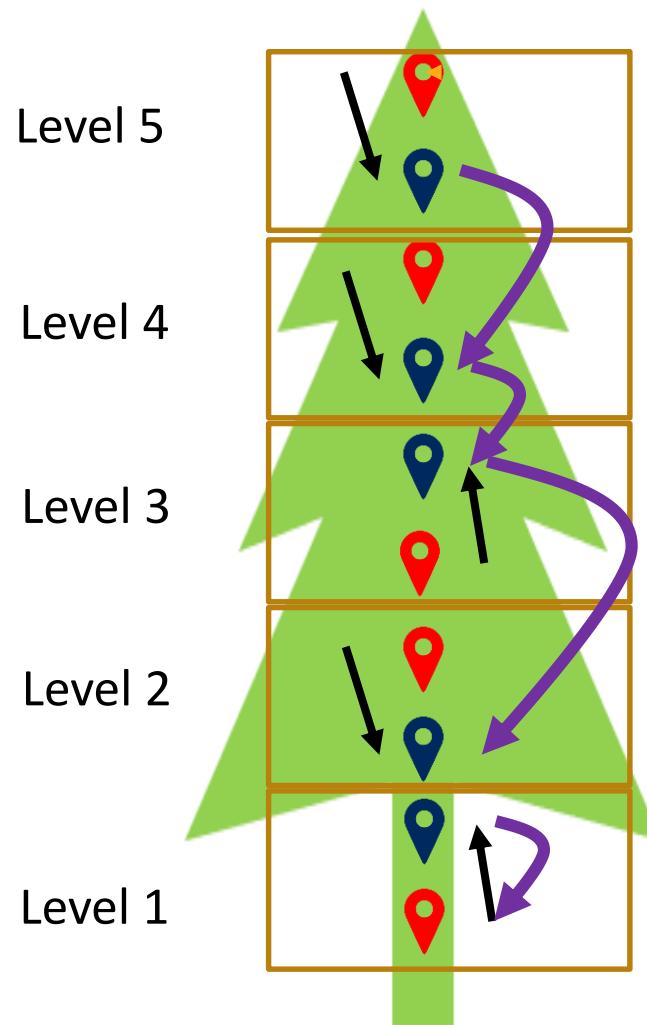
Redwood Climate Monitoring – Deployment Pattern



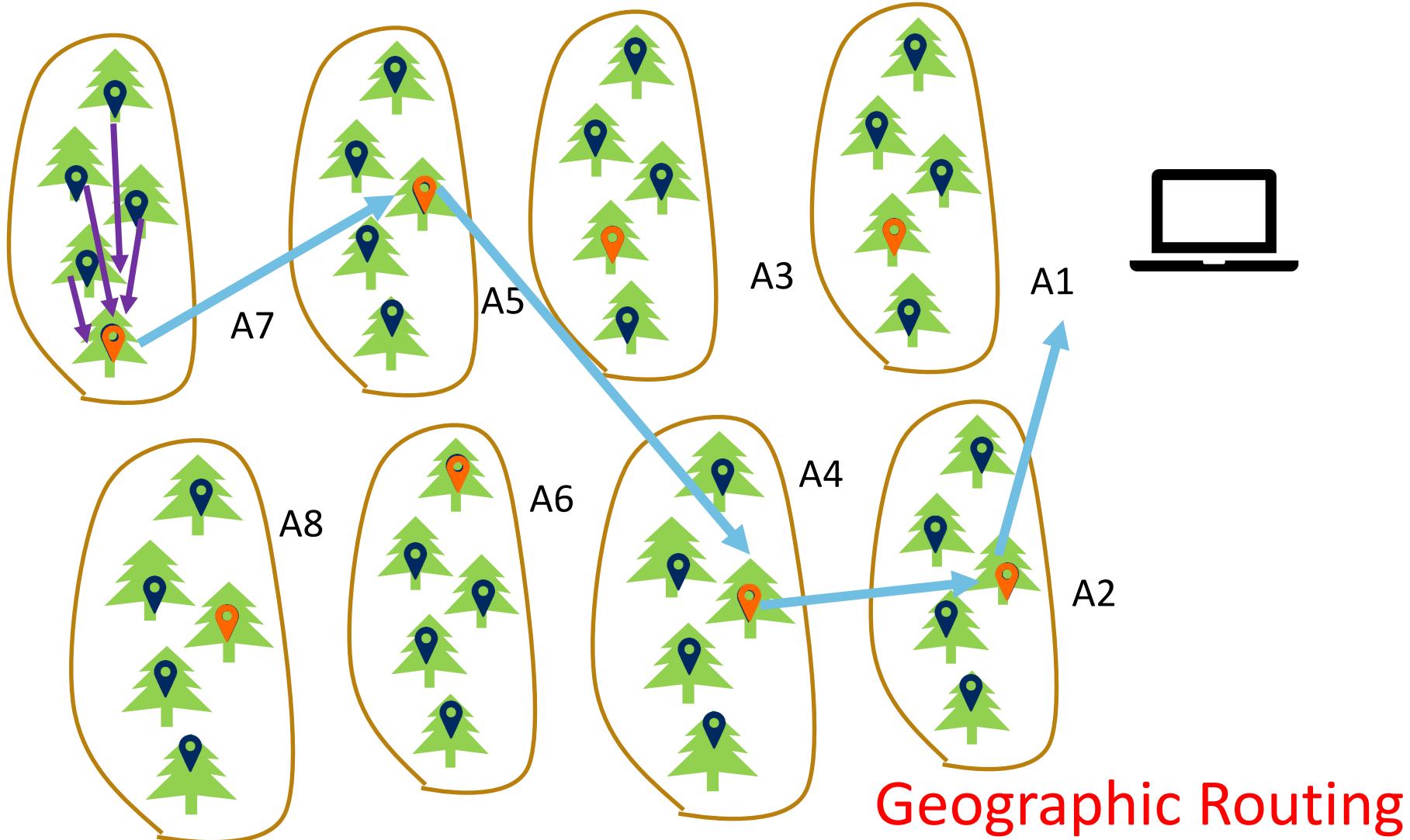
Redwood Climate Monitoring – Deployment Pattern

- CH of L1 of all trees within an area (say A7) will be the members of the cluster
- Every cluster in CL2 will have a Cluster head dynamically elected using **LEACH**
- All member of A7 will send data to CH of A7 – that aggregates the data
- CH of A7/A8 will send data to CH of A5/A6
- And so on..
- Thus data is geographically routed towards BS

Redwood Climate Monitoring – Deployment Pattern



Redwood Climate Monitoring – Deployment Pattern



Addressing

- Area: Tree: Level: ID
- Geographic Addressing

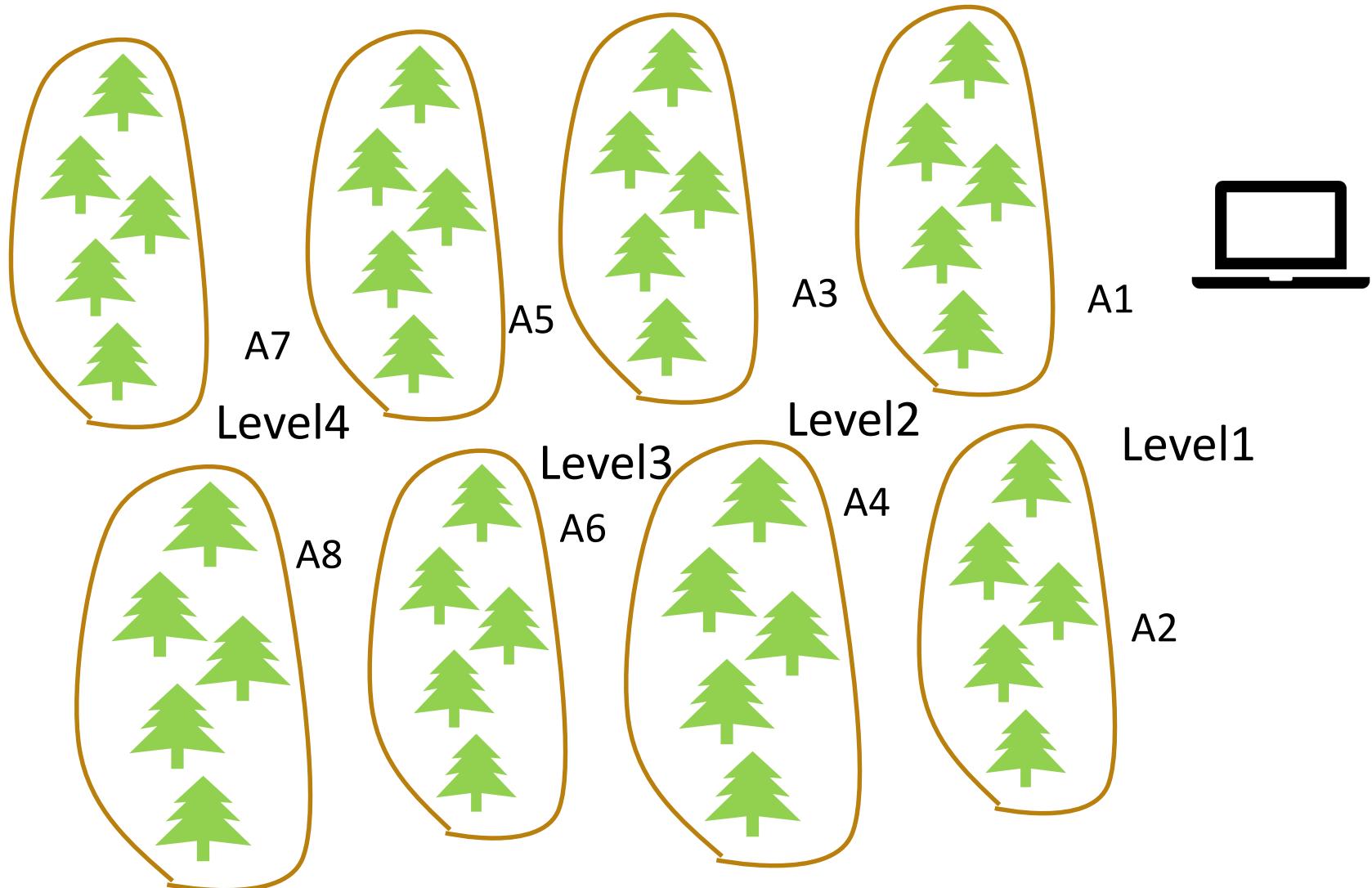
Network Protocols

- Addressing Scheme
- Routing & Clustering - Proactive
- Topology Control
- MAC & PHY
- Time Sync
- Localization

Network Protocols – Time Sync

- TPSN variant
- Levels already there
- BS – Level 0

Redwood Climate Monitoring – TPSN



Network Protocols – Time Sync

- Process repeated within Cluster Level2
- CH at bottom of tree– Level 0
- CH at next height – Level1

Network Protocols – Time Sync

- Process repeated within Cluster Level1
- CH – Level 0
- Other Members – Level1

Localization

- Not Required
- Nodes Placed in preplanned position

Topology Control

- Once only every 5 minutes data communicated
- The whole process may take less than a minute
- All nodes sleep for 4 minutes and are awake for 1 minute
- Duty Cycle – 25%
- All nodes sleep wake at the same time

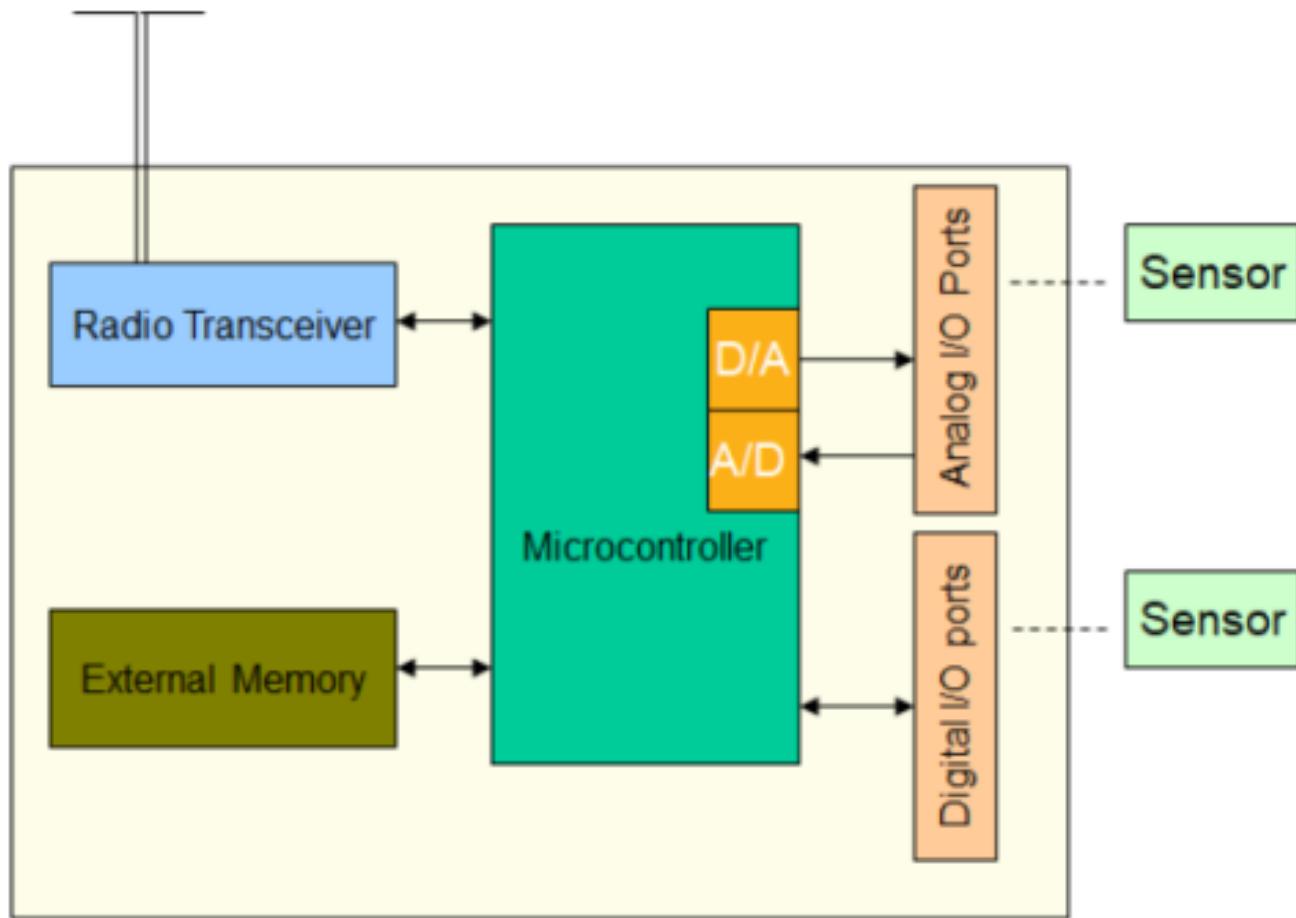
MAC & PHY

- CC 2xxx Radio on motes
- MAC within clusters – TDMA
- Between clusters variant of CSMA – such as
SMAC/ DMAC

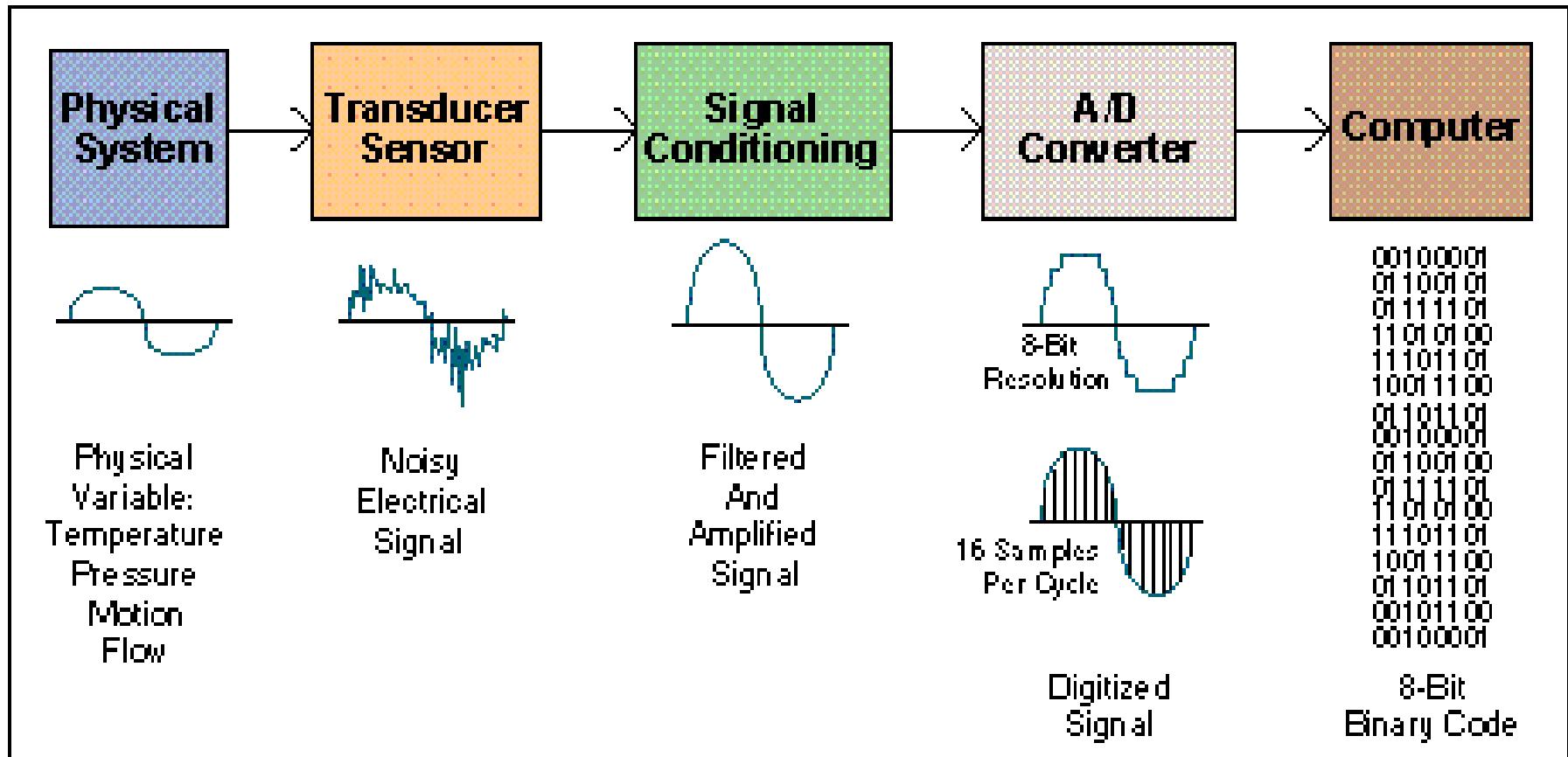


Data acquisition, signal conditioning and Analog to Digital

WSN mote

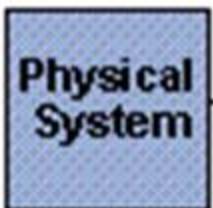


Data acquisition by mote- steps involved



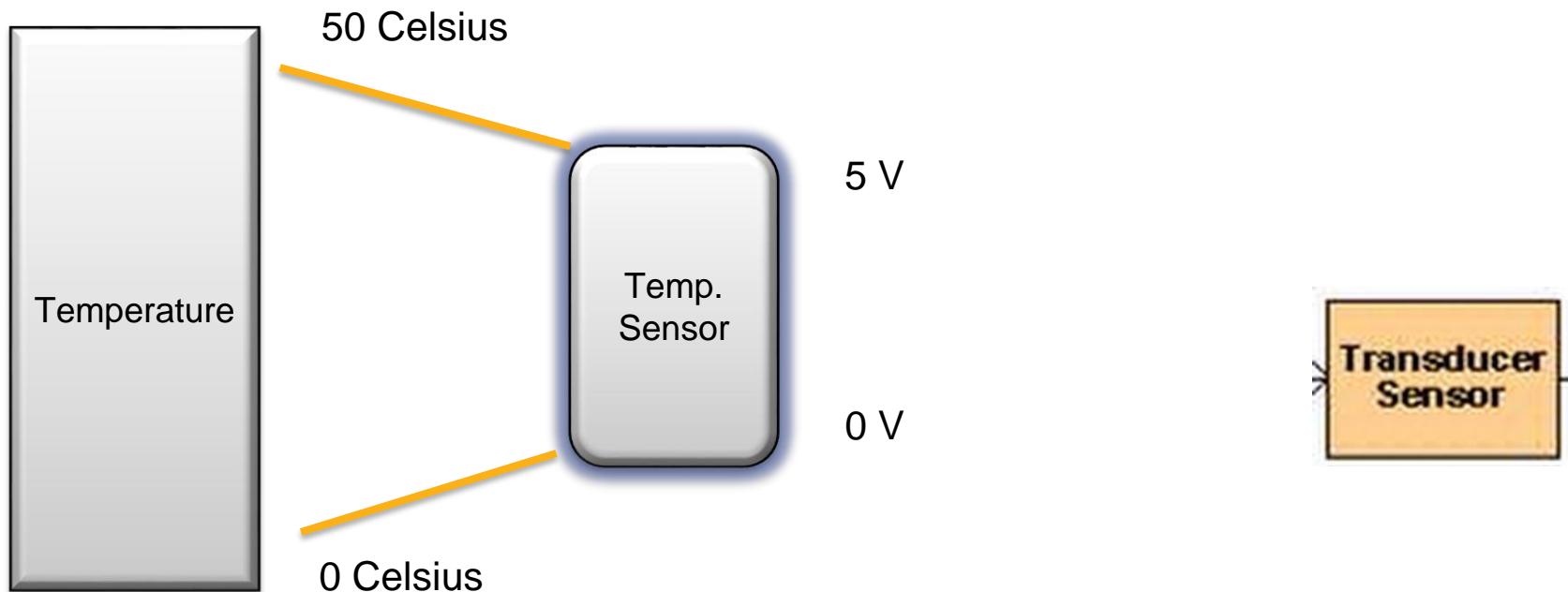
Physical System

- The **physical system** gives input to the DAQ System for monitoring different system parameters like:
 - Pressure
 - Force
 - Light
 - Temperature
 - Displacement
 - ON/OFF state
 - Level
 - Electrical signals
 - Acceleration



Transducers / Sensors

- A transducer **converts** temperature, pressure, level, length, position, etc. into voltage, current, frequency, pulses or other signals.
- A transducer thus converts the physical conditions in electrical waveform for easy signal processing



Common Sensors and parameters measured

| Sensor used for DAQ | Physical parameter measured |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Resistive temperature device (RTD) | Temperature |
| Gauge | Pressure |
| Microphone | Pressure |
| Accelerometer | Acceleration |
| Thermocouple | Temperature |
| Strain gauge | Force |
| Light sensor | Illuminance |
| Humidity sensor | Humidity |

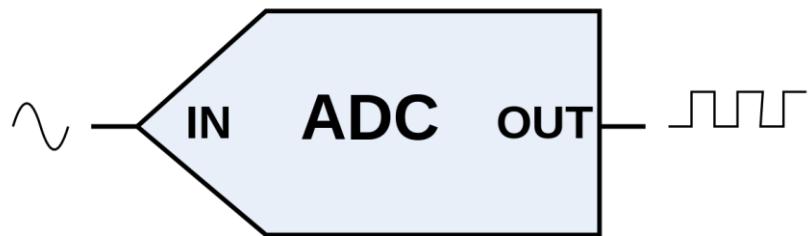
Signal Conditioning

- Signal conditioning circuits **improve the quality of signals** generated by transducers before they are converted into digital signals by the PC's data- acquisition hardware.
- Most common signal conditioning functions are amplification, linearization, cold-junction compensation, filtering, attenuation, excitation, common-mode rejection, and so on.



Analog to Digital convertor

- Analog to digital (A/D) conversion **changes analog voltage or current levels into digital information**. The conversion is necessary to enable the microcontroller to process or store the signals.



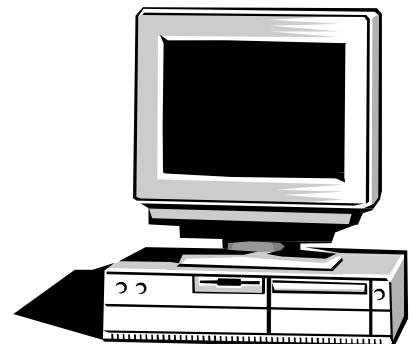
Microcontroller in Mote

- This processes the digital signal.

Base station (PC)

- Can install Data Acquisition Software
- Data Acquisition Software can be the most critical factor in obtaining reliable, high performance operation
- Different alternatives:
 - Programmable software.
 - Data acquisition software packages

Base station



Programmable Software

- Involves the use of a programming language, such as:
 - C++
 - Visual C++
 - BASIC,
 - Visual Basic + Add-on tools (such as VisuaLab with VTX)
- **Advantage:** flexibility
- **Disadvantages:** complexity and steep learning curve

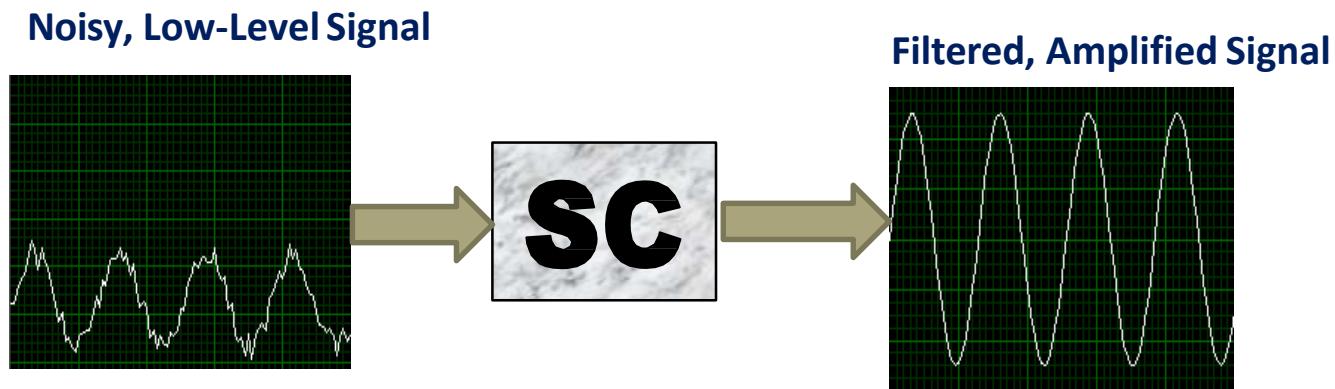
Data Acquisition Software Packages

- These do not require programming.
- They enable the developers to design the custom instrument best suited to their application.
- Examples: TestPoint, SnapMaster, LabView, MatLab, DADISP, DASYLAB, etc.

Signal conditioning

- To **remove noise** from the measured sensor data or to improve it for usage
- Common types of signal conditioning include amplification, linearization etc.
- Sensor signals are often incompatible with data acquisition hardware. To overcome this incompatibility, the sensor signal must be conditioned.

Why conditioning



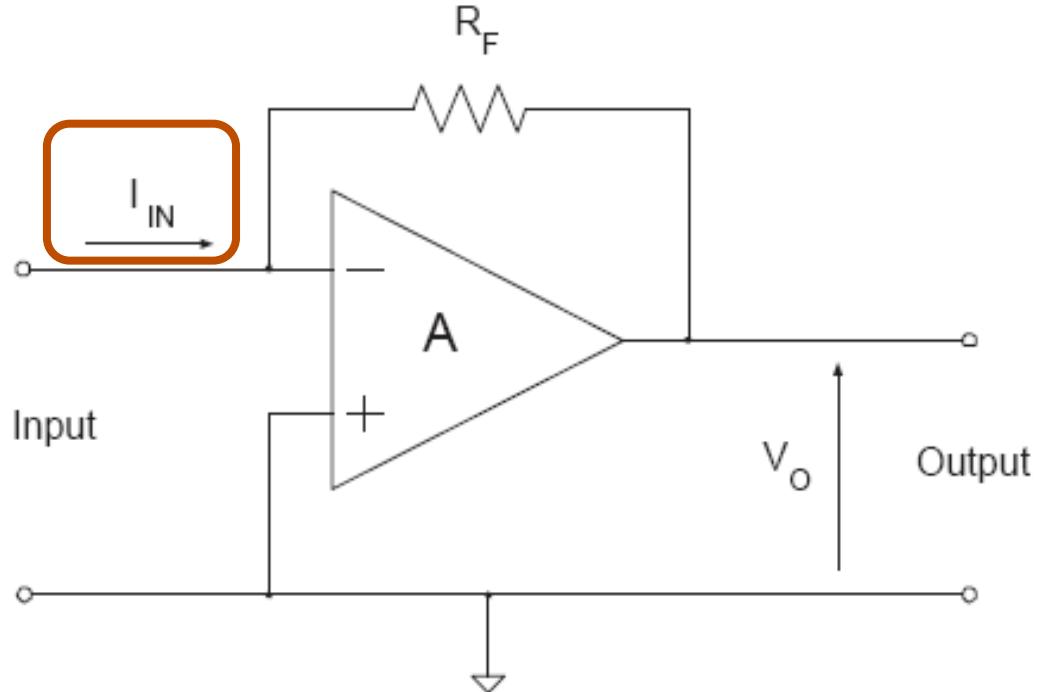
Improving the quality of signals
(e.g. by Amplification Filtering Isolation)

Common ways to condition signals include

- Signal Conversion
- Amplification
- Attenuation
- Filtering
- Electrical isolation
- Multiplexing
- Excitation source

Signal Conversion: Ex: Current-to-voltage converter

- Transimpedance amplifier (Feedback Ammeter)
- Recommended connection for **small currents**
- Sensitivity determined by R_F



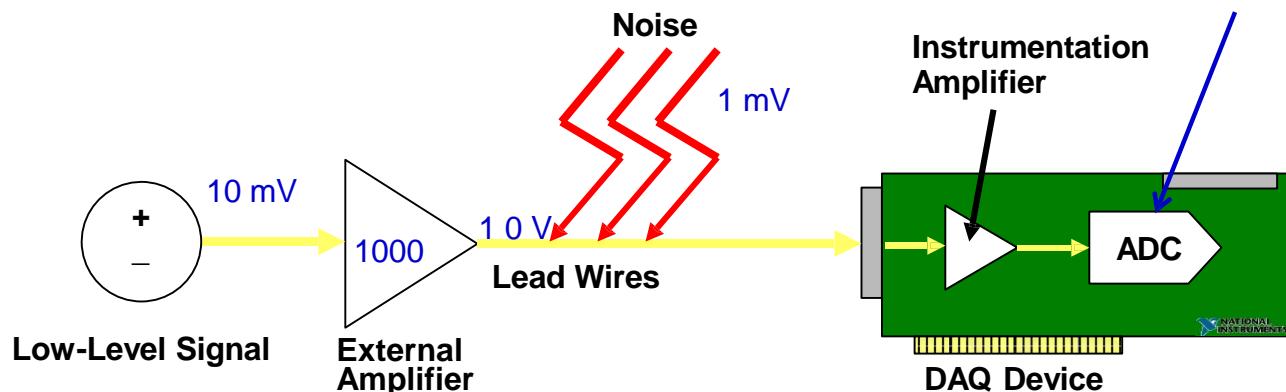
$$V_O = -I_{IN} R_F$$

Amplification

- When the input signal is as small as microvolts, electrical noise can drown out the signal itself, leading to meaningless data.
- For reducing the effects of noise on your signal is to amplify the signal as close to the source as possible. This increases Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR)
- e.g. A J-type thermocouple outputs a very low-level voltage signal that varies by about $50 \mu\text{V}/^\circ\text{C}$.

Amplification

- Used on low-level signals (less than around 100 mV)
- Maximizes use of Analog-to-Digital Converter (ADC) range and increases accuracy
- Increases Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR)



$$SNR = V_{signal}/V_{noise} =$$

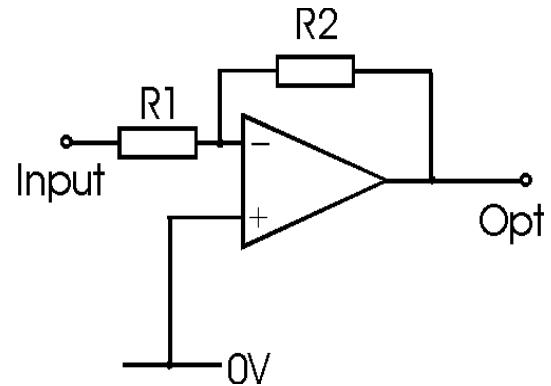
$$(10 \text{ mV} * 1000) / 1 \text{ mV} = 10 \text{ 000}$$

$$SNR = 20 \log \left(\frac{V_{signal}}{V_{noise}} \right)$$

Example of amplifier: Operational amplifier (Op-amp)

- Inverting op-amp amplifier

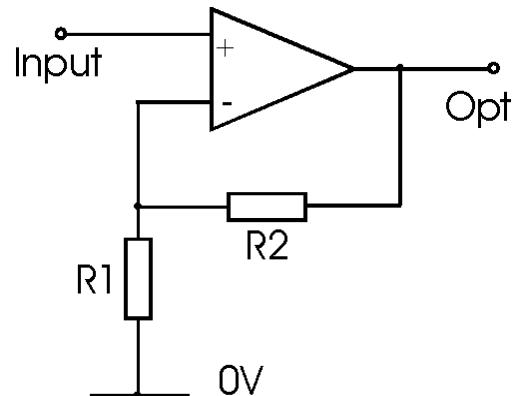
$$\Rightarrow V_o = -R_2/R_1 * V_i$$



Inverting Amplifier

- Non-inverting op-amp amplifier

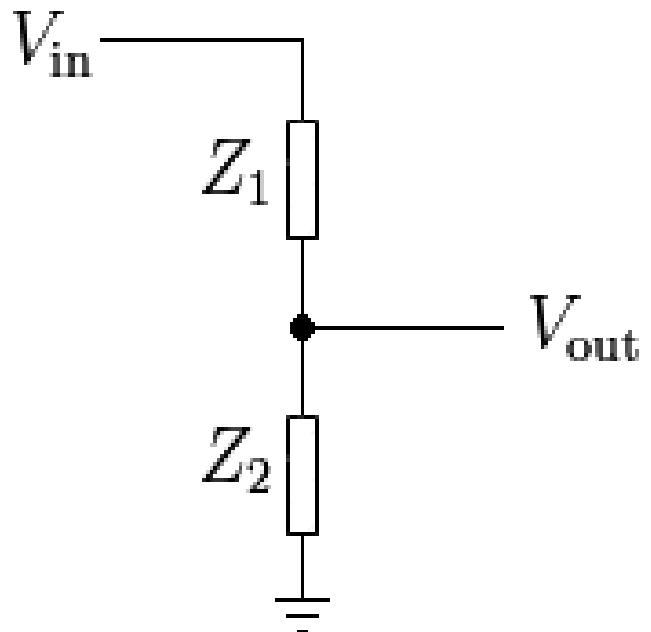
$$\Rightarrow V_o = (1+R_2/R_1) * V_i$$



Non-Inverting Amplifier

Attenuation

- Voltage divider: A circuit that produces an output voltage (V_{out}) that is a fraction of its input voltage (V_{in})
- Can be needed to get a high-level signal down to the acceptable DAQ-card range



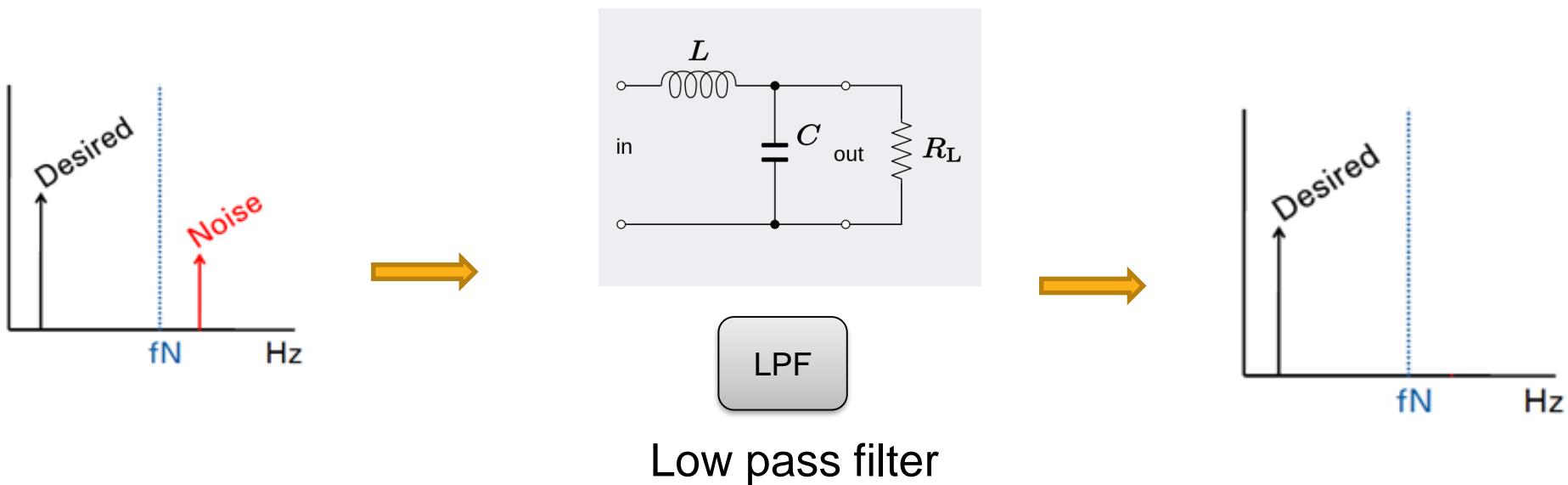
A simple attenuation circuit

Filtering

- To reject unwanted noise within a certain frequency range.
- Many systems will exhibit periodic noise from sources such as power supplies or machinery.
- Examples of filters:
 - Butterworth Filter
 - Bessel Filter
 - Chebyshev Filter
 - Simple RC Filter
 - Passive & Active Filters

Hardware Filtering

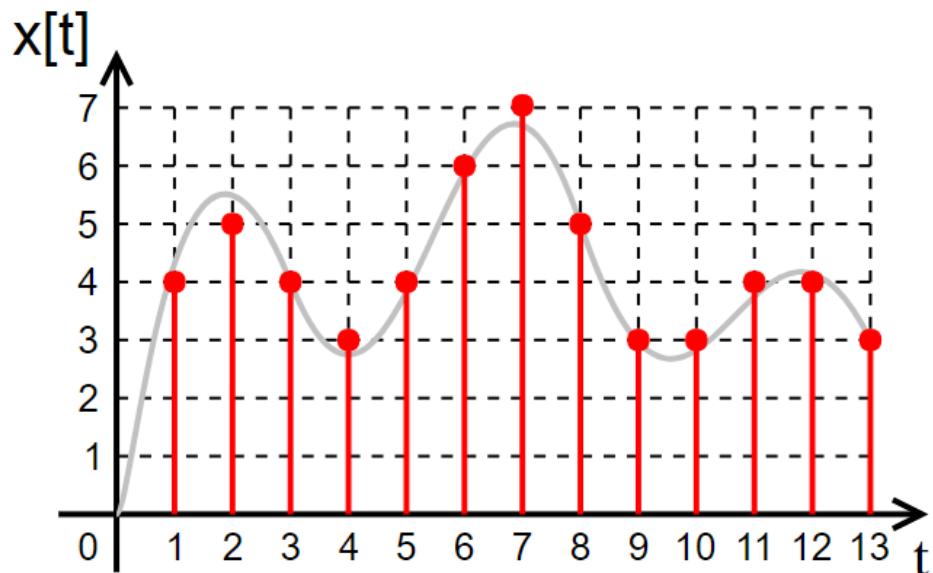
- Purpose:
 - To remove unwanted signals from the signal that you are trying to measure



Low pass filter

A/D conversion

- Digital data is more convenient to process/store by the microcontroller as compared to the analog signal.
- Resort to Analog to Digital conversion



A/D conversion

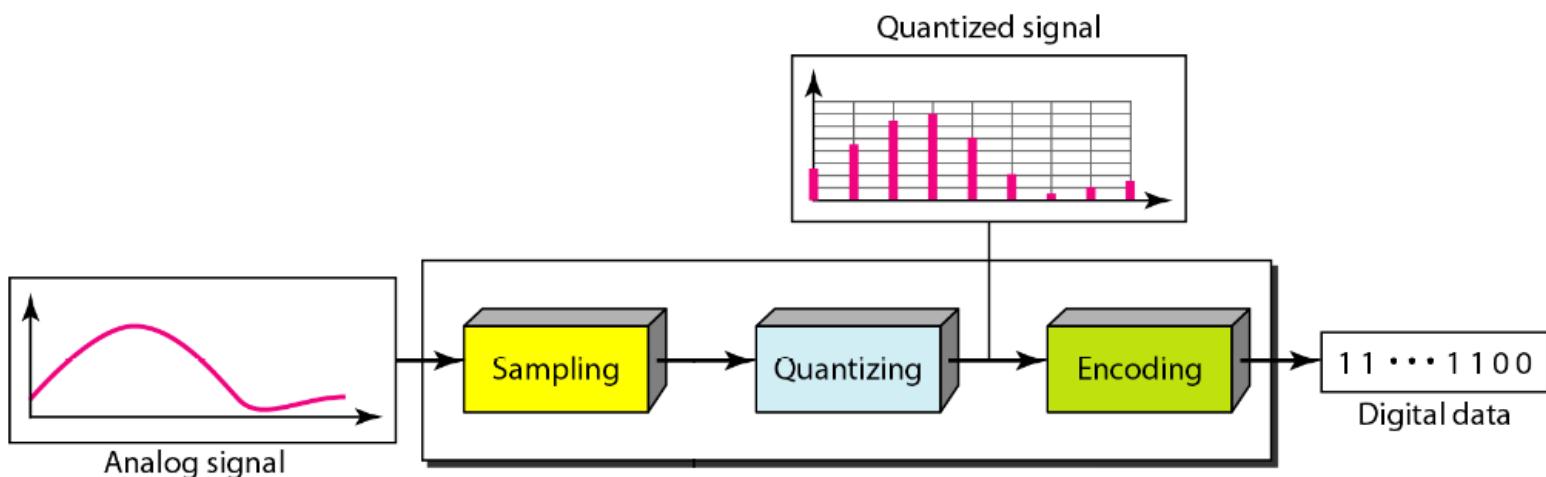
- After the signal conditioning, the signal from the sensor is passed to the analog to digital (A/D) board.
- The **A/D board converts the conditioned analog voltage or current signal into a digital format** which is readable by the microcontroller.
- A/D conversion is a **ratio operation**, where the input signal is compared to a reference and converted into a fraction which is then represented as a coded digital number.

A/D conversion

- To optimize measurement accuracy, **there is a minimum and maximum number of data points that need to be acquired.**
- One of the most critical factors when selecting an A/D board is **sampling rate** (speed).
- The sampling rate is a measure of **how rapidly the A/D board can scan the input channel** and identify the discrete value of the signal present with respect to a reference signal.

A/D steps

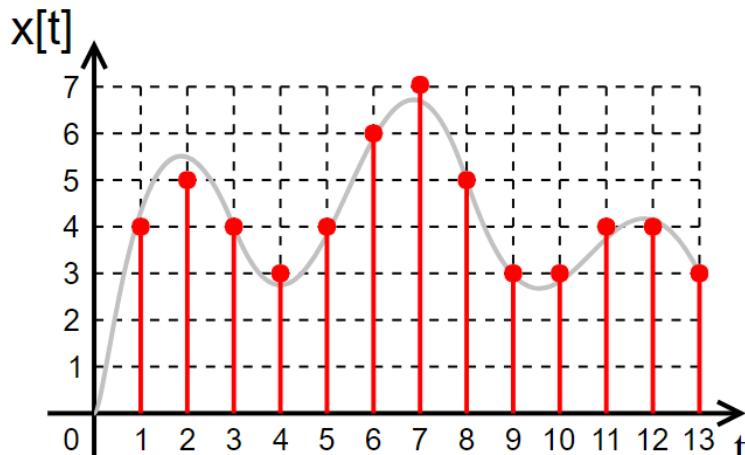
- Sampling
- Quantization
- Encoding



<https://sipdtdesigners.files.wordpress.com/2013/11/quantization.png>

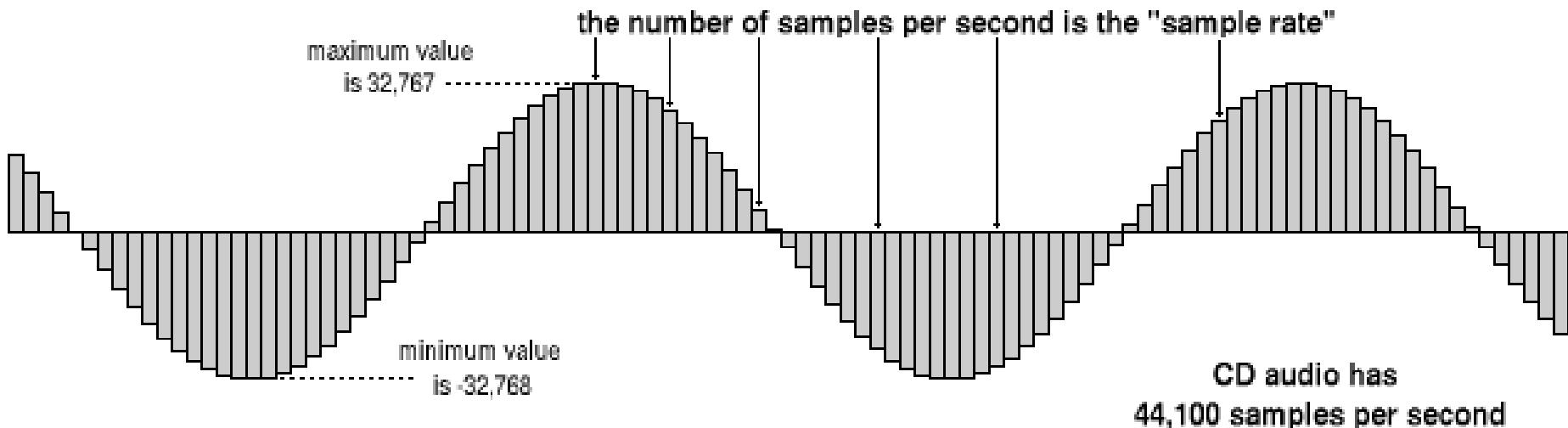
Sampling Considerations

- An analog signal is continuous.
- A sampled signal is a series of discrete samples acquired at a specified sampling rate.
- The faster we sample the more our sampled signal will look like our actual signal
- If not sampled fast enough a problem known as aliasing will occur



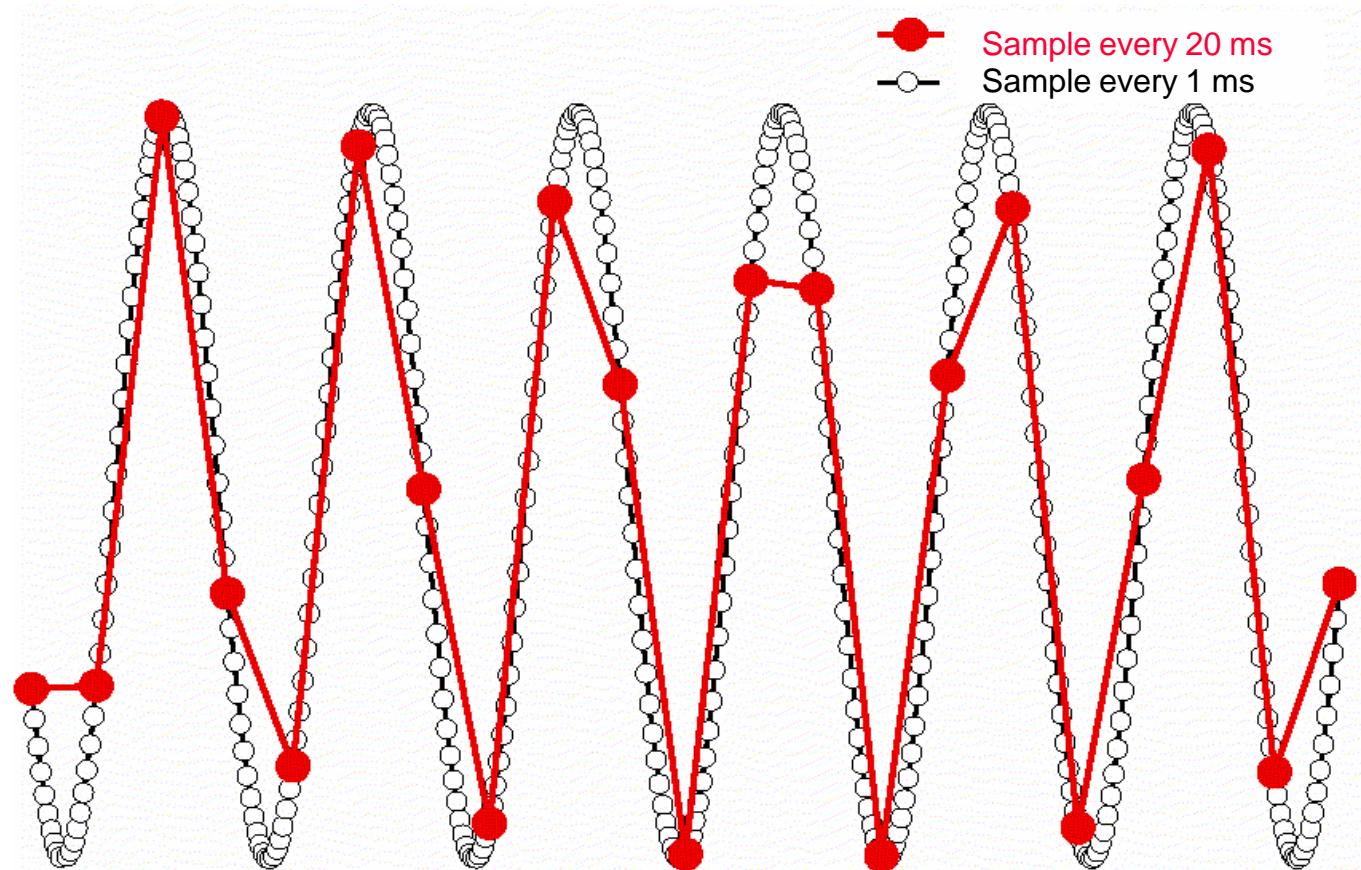
Sampling rate

- Sampling an analog signal occurs at discrete time intervals.
- The rate at which the signal is sampled is known as the **sampling frequency**.



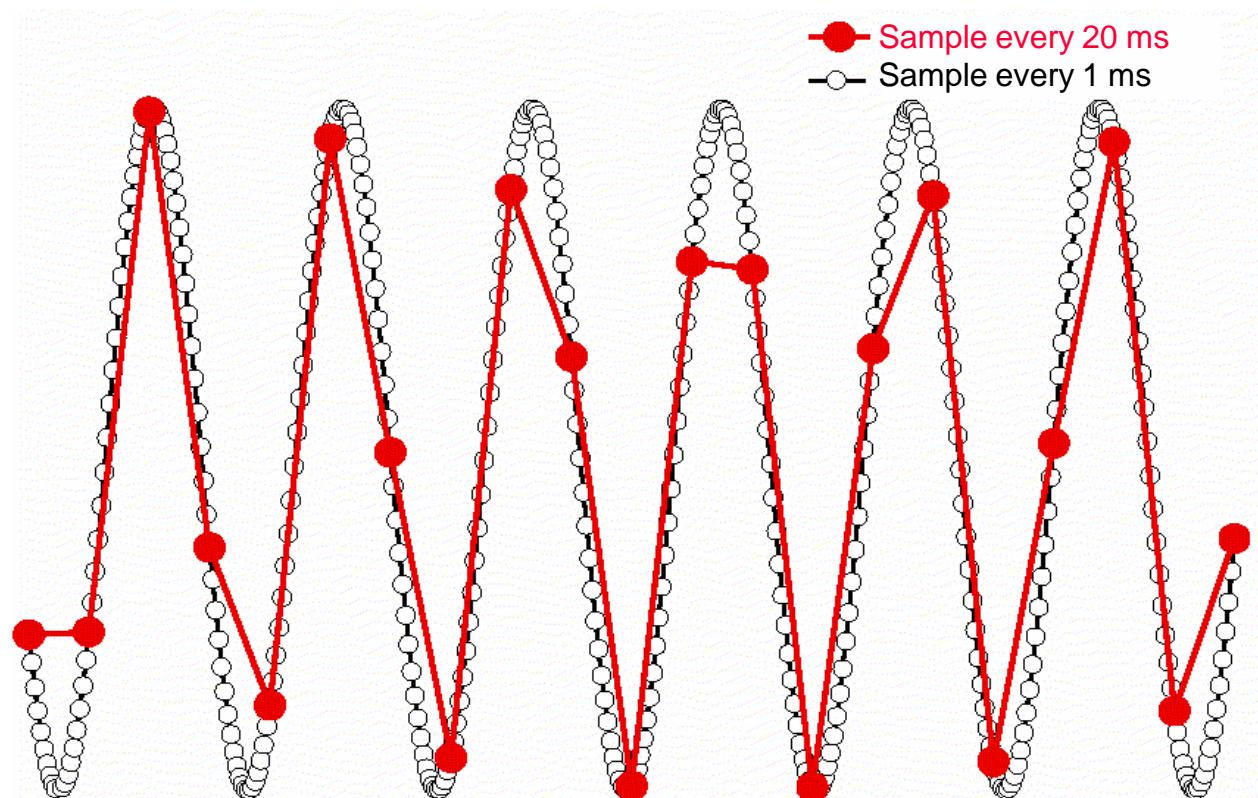
http://wiki.hydrogenaudio.io/images/3/37/Digital_wave.png

Effect on sampling rate on information captured/lost



Aliasing

- If the sampling rate is too slow, then a completely different waveform of a lower frequency is constructed from the data acquired. This effect is called aliasing.



Aliasing

- It has the effect of increasing the variance in the recorded signal, i.e. it **adds noise to the signal**, basically by missing the peaks and troughs of the rapidly changing signal.
- So, even if the signal has the same peak all the time, the board will catch the rising and falling phase but miss the peak giving the appearance that the peak (i.e. the maximum value recorded in each cycle) is changing.

How to avoid aliasing

- To avoid aliasing, it is necessary that the sample rate be at least twice the highest expected frequency input.

Nyquist Sampling Theorem

- *Nyquist sampling theorem tells us that we must sample the signal at more than twice the rate of the maximum frequency component in the analog input signal to accurately represent the frequency of your signal.*
- According to the Nyquist Theorem, the sampling rate
- must be at least $2f_{\max}$, where , highest frequency component = f_{\max}

Choosing the sampling rate

- Application specific
- Eg. Recording the ambient temperature during the day manually at intervals of 30 minutes.

| Time | Temperature | Time | Temperature |
|-------|-------------|-------|-------------|
| 6.00 | 10 | 10.30 | 15 |
| 6.30 | 11 | 11.00 | 15 |
| 7.00 | 11 | 11.30 | 17 |
| 7.30 | 12 | 12.00 | 18 |
| 8.00 | 13 | 12.30 | 19 |
| 8.30 | 13 | 13.00 | 19 |
| 9.00 | 14 | 13.30 | 18 |
| 9.30 | 14 | 14 | 17 |
| 10.00 | 15 | 14.30 | 16 |

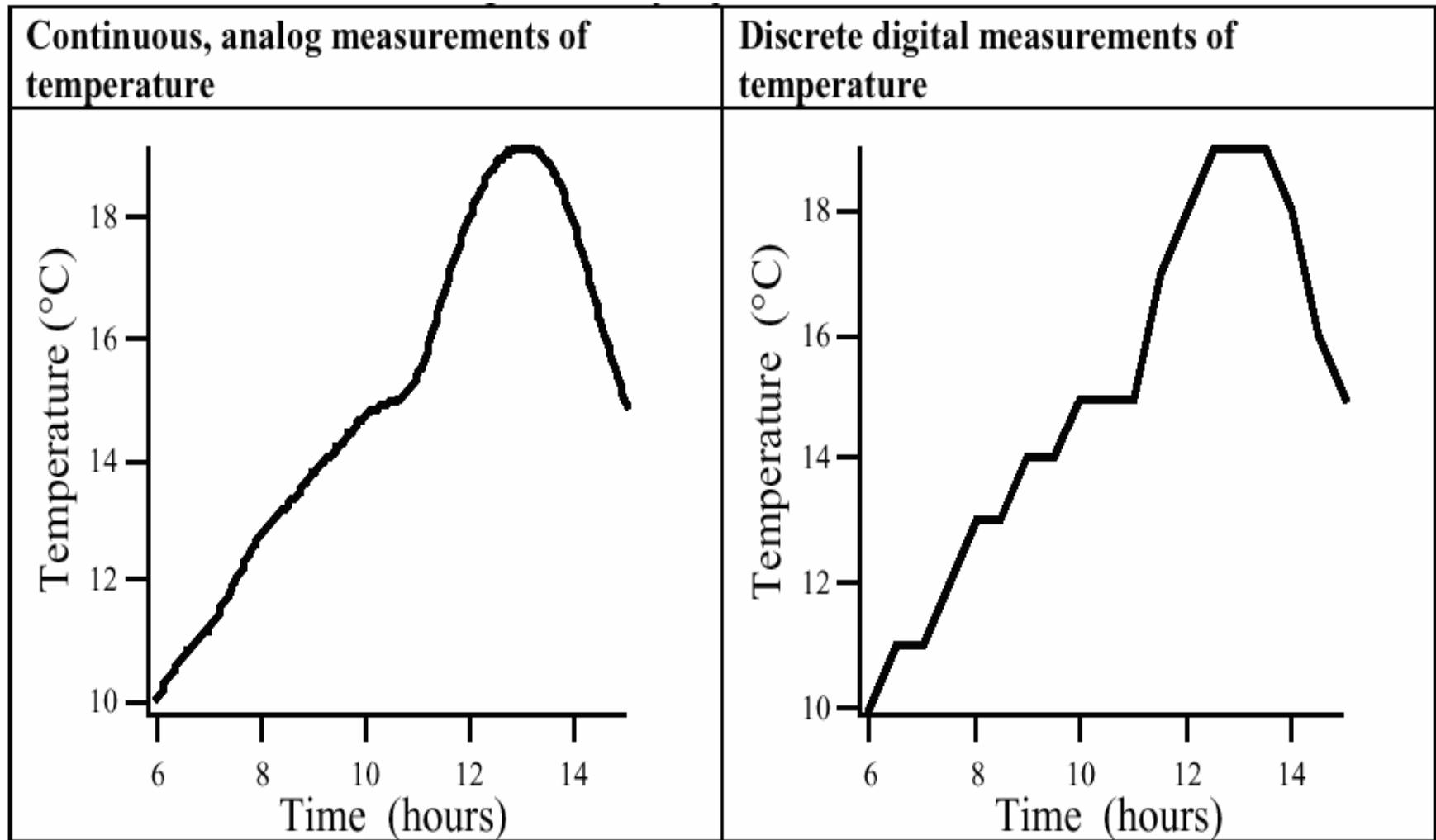
Example: Temperature measurement

- A platinum resistance thermometer can be used as the transducer which is a temperature-dependent resistor, and by using an appropriate circuit, a continuous measurement of the actual temperature in the form of a proportional voltage is obtained.

Example: Temperature measurement (cont.)

- The data acquisition software converts the analog voltage corresponding to the temperature into binary numbers (digital format) in every 30 minutes.
- Assume that the A/D board rounds off all numbers within its operating range to the nearest 1°C. That is although the ambient temperature changes continuously, the A/D board only indicates a change in it when a difference greater than 1°C is observed. The data thus changes in 1°C steps.

Temperature record



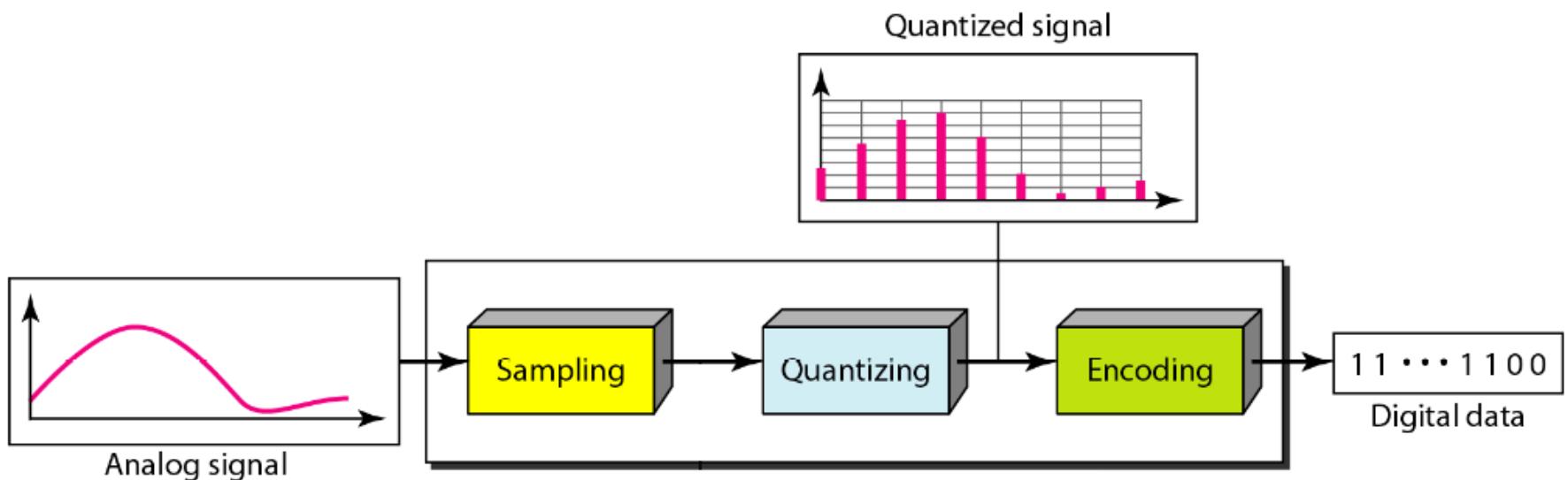
Applications with high sampling rate requirement

- You can't have this high a sampling period when you are having a system which is giving real time images of the patient's heart for a doctor doing a crucial surgery.



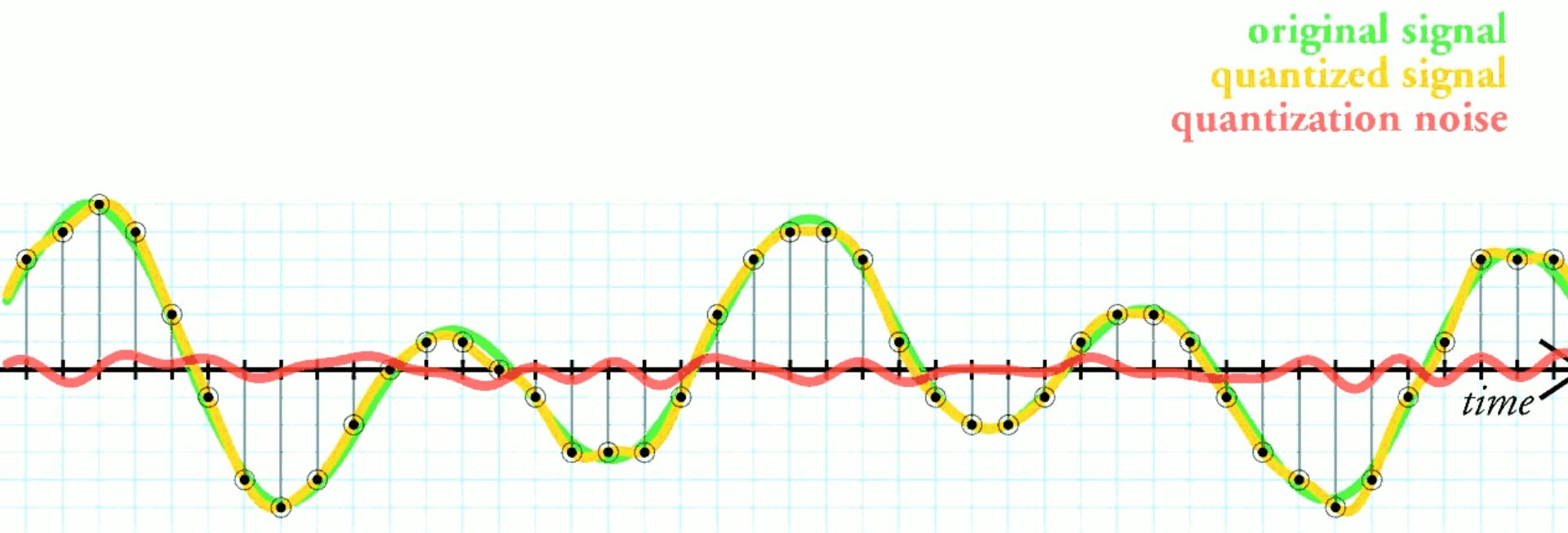
A/D steps

- Sampling
- Quantization
- Encoding



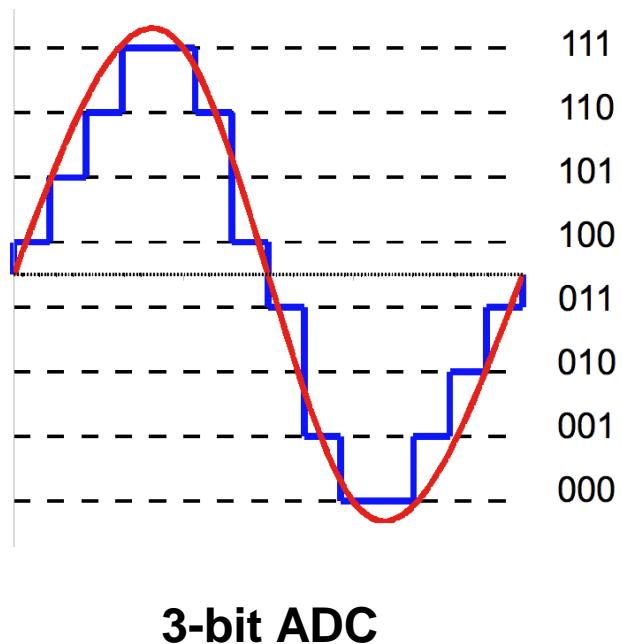
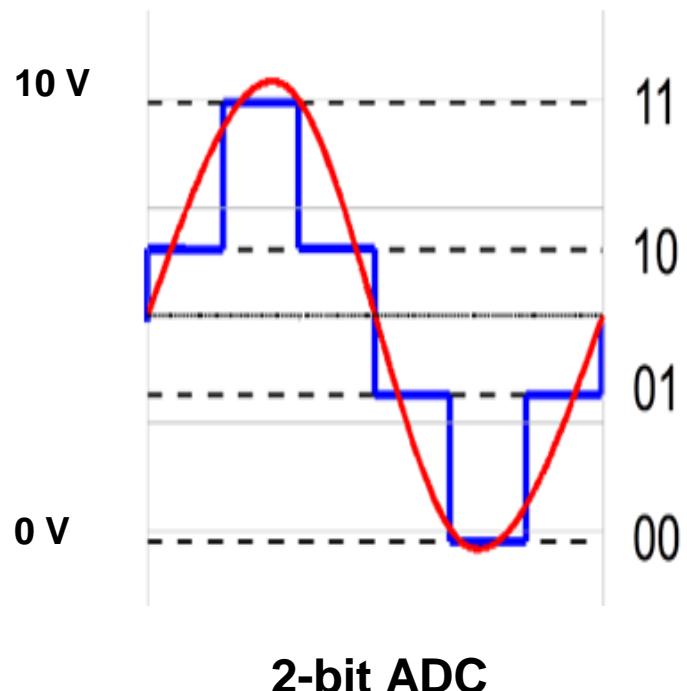
<https://sipdtdesigners.files.wordpress.com/2013/11/quantization.png>

Quantization- Introduction



Resolution

- Precision of the analog to digital conversion process is dependent upon the number (n) of bits the ADC of the DAQ uses.
- More the bits used for ADC, more is the number of divisions the voltage range is broken into (2^n), and thus more is the accuracy.
- An 2 bit ADC gives 4 levels (2^2) compared to a 3 bit ADC that has 8 levels (2^3).



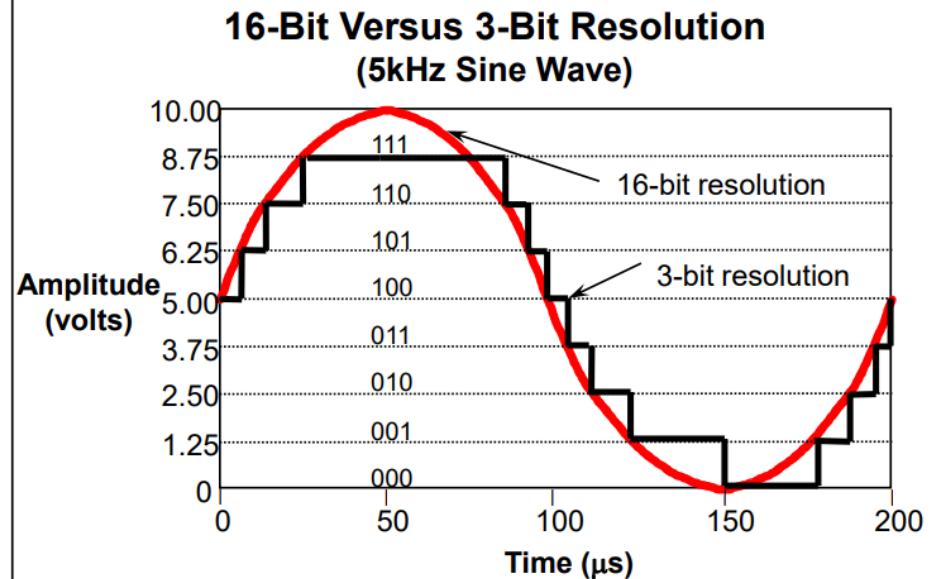
Resolution

- The number of bits used to represent an analog signal determines the resolution of the ADC
- Larger resolution = more precise representation of your signal**
- The resolution determines the **smallest detectable change in the input signal, referred to as code width or LSB (least significant bit)**

$$\text{code width} = \frac{\text{device range}}{2^{\text{resolution}}}$$

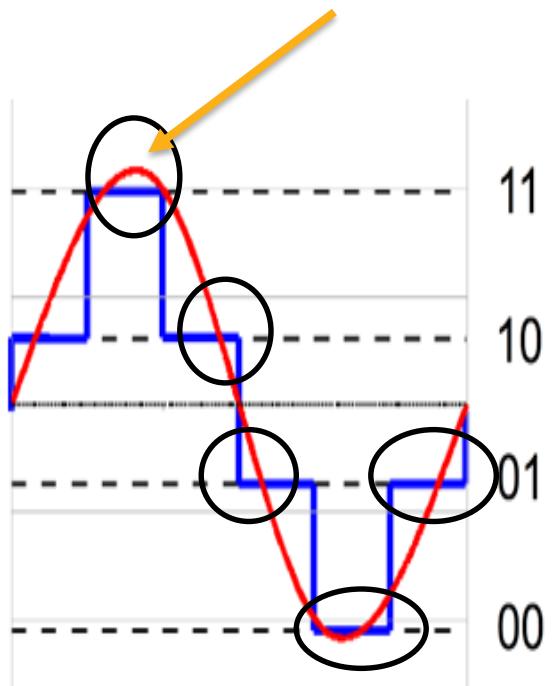
Example:

$$\frac{\text{device range}}{2^{\text{resolution}}} = \frac{10}{2^{16}} = .15 \text{ mV}$$



Quantization error

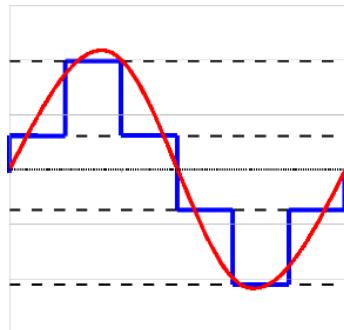
- Error incurred during the process of quantization



2-bit ADC

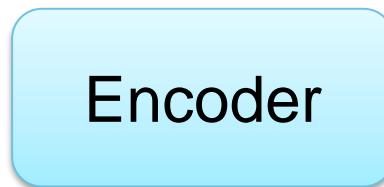
Encoding

- Encoding is based on sampling and quantization.
- A simple encoding scheme is shown below.



2-bit ADC

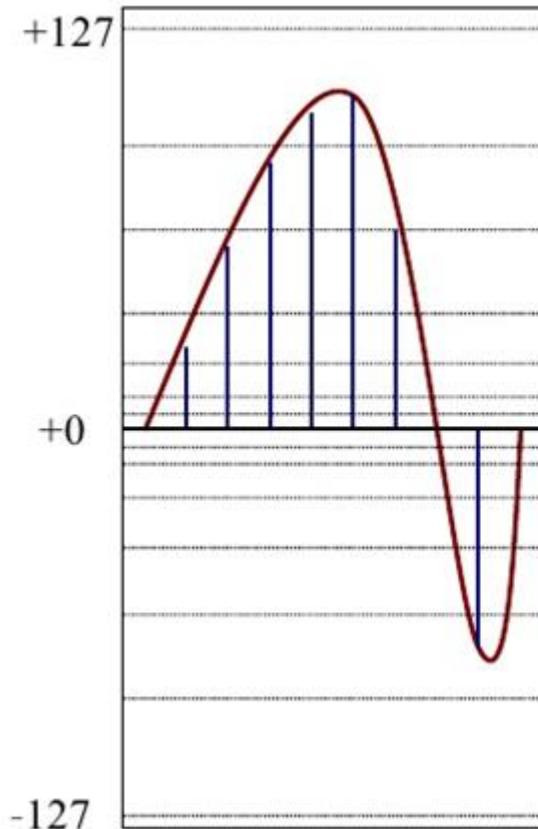
11
10
01
00



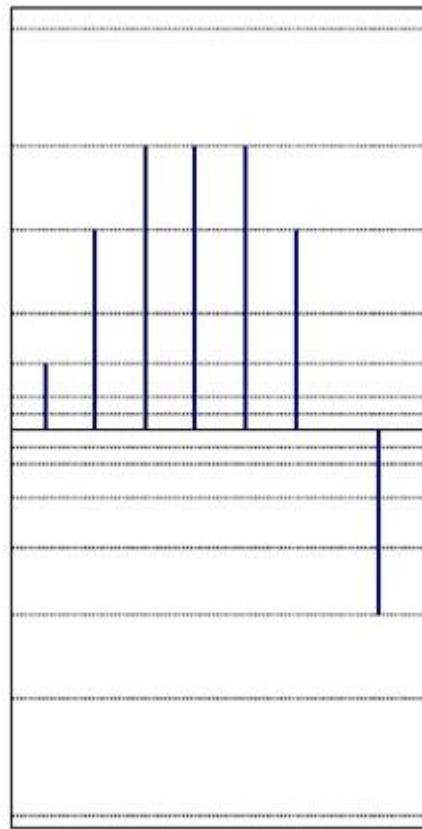
10 11 10 01 00 01

Sampling – Quantization - Encoding

Sampling



Quantization



Encoding

10101111...01101101