UNIT - 3 IOT Notes - R1

UNIT 3: Wireless Medium Access Issues and MAC Protocols

1. Introduction to Wireless Medium Access in IoT

- **Definition:** Refers to the methods and protocols used to manage how multiple IoT devices communicate over shared wireless communication channels. (Notes Page 1)
- Importance of Efficient MAC: Critical in IoT networks for:
 - Ensuring reliable data transmission.
 - Minimizing collisions and interference.
 - Optimizing the use of limited wireless spectrum. (Notes Page 1)

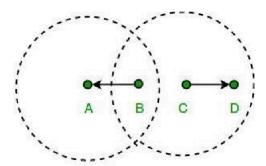
• Challenges:

- Dense and heterogeneous nature of IoT environments.
- Interference from other present wireless communication technologies. (Notes Page 1)
- Wireless Communication: Involves message transfer without physical medium (wires). (Notes Page 1)

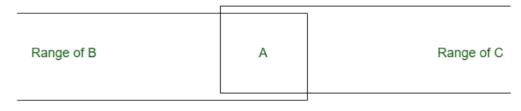
2. Issues in MAC Design for Wireless Networks

- Compared to wired networks, MAC design for wireless is more difficult due to unique challenges. (Notes Page 1)
 - a. Half Duplex Operation: (Notes Page 1)
 - Sender and receiver can share data, but only one at a time.
 - Difficult to receive data when the transmitter is sending due to significant signal energy leakage during broadcasting.
 - Magnitude of transferred and received signal differs greatly.
 - Collision detection by the sender is often not possible because the intensity of the transferred signal is much larger than the received one (if any).
 - Leads to collision problems; prime focus is to minimize collisions.
 - **b. Time-Varying Channel:** (Notes Page 2)
 - Radio signal propagation is affected by three mechanisms:
 - **Reflection:** Occurs when a propagating wave (carrying information) intrudes on an object with dimensions much larger than the wave's wavelength.
 - **Diffraction:** Occurs when the radio path between transmitter and receiver is obstructed by a surface with sharp edges, causing the wave to bend around the obstacle.

- **Scattering:** Occurs when the medium through which the wave travels contains objects with dimensions smaller than the wave's wavelength.
- c. Exposed Terminal Problem: (Notes Page 2)
 - **Definition:** A wireless node is prevented from transmitting data because another node (outside its communication range) is sending data to a third node that *i*s within the first node's communication range.
 - Scenario:



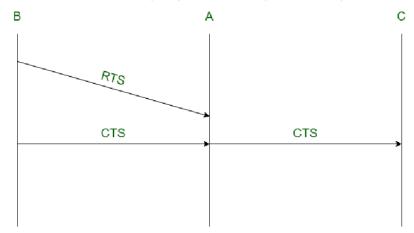
- Four stations: A, B, C, D.
- B transmits to A. C wants to transmit to D.
- B and C can hear each other. A and D cannot hear each other.
- C hears B's transmission and mistakenly assumes its own transmission to D would interfere, so C refrains from sending.
- However, C's transmission to D would not have interfered with B's reception at A (as A is
 out of C's range, and D is out of B's range for interference).
- **Consequence:** Reduced throughput and network performance.
- o d. Hidden Station Problem (HSP) / Hidden Terminal Problem: (Notes Page 3)
 - **Definition:** Two stations are "hidden" from each other (not in each other's range) but are both in the range of a third station. If they transmit simultaneously to the third station, a collision occurs at that third station.
 - Scenario:



Hidden Station Problem

- Stations B and C are hidden from each other.
- Station A is within range of both B and C.
- How HSP is created: (Notes Page 4)
 - B sends data to A.

- C, unaware of B's transmission (because B is out of C's range), also decides to send data to A, assuming A is free.
- Collision occurs at station A.
- Consequence: Reduces network capacity due to collisions.
- How to prevent HSP: (Notes Page 4)
 - Using handshake frames like RTS (Request to Send) and CTS (Clear to Send).



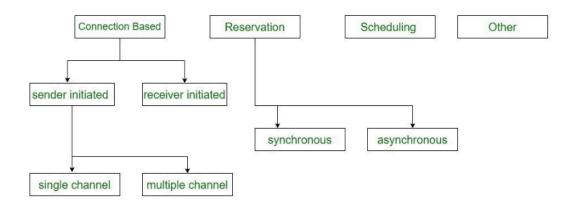
Use of handshaking to prevent hidden station problem

Mechanism:

- Node B sends RTS to A.
- Node A replies with CTS. This CTS is heard by C.
- CTS message contains the duration of B's upcoming data transmission.
- Node C, upon hearing the CTS, knows the medium will be busy for that duration and refrains from transmitting, thus avoiding collision.

3. Classification of MAC Protocols (Notes Page 4)

• MAC protocols can be broadly classified based on how nodes access the medium.



• [FIG] (Diagram on Notes Page 4 showing main categories: Connection Based, Reservation, Scheduling, Other. Further breakdown on Notes Page 5: sender/receiver initiated, synchronous/asynchronous, single/multiple channel).

- **4. MAC (Medium Access Control) Layer** [PYQ Q7a (Dec 2024), PYQ Q5a (June 2024 Data-link layer protocols)] (Notes Page 5)
 - **Definition:** A sublayer of the Data Link Layer (Layer 2) in the OSI reference model.

• Responsibilities:

- Flow control.
- Multiplexing for the transmission medium.
- Controls transmission of data packets via remotely shared channels.
- Controlling how devices on a shared network gain access to and utilize the communication medium.
- o Coordinating access to the shared medium.
- Preventing collisions to enable multiple devices to share network bandwidth effectively.

5. Contention-Based Protocols

- a. Contention-Based Protocols Without Reservation/Scheduling: (Notes Page 5)
- **Mechanism:** Multiple devices attempt to access the channel simultaneously without explicit coordination.
 - When collisions occur, devices back off and try again.
 - Devices transmit when they have data, relying on techniques like carrier sensing or random backoffs to reduce collisions.

Characteristics:

- Simple to implement.
- Adaptive to changing network conditions.

Key Points:

- Bandwidth is not reserved.
- No guarantees of successful transmission on first attempt.
- Sub-types: (Notes Page 6)
 - **Sender-initiated protocols:** Transmission of packets is initiated by the sender node.
 - Single-channel sender initiated.
 - Multiple-channel sender initiated protocols.
 - **Receiver-initiated protocols:** The connection is initiated by the receiver node.
- b. Contention-Based Protocols With Reservation Mechanisms: (Notes Page 6)
- **Mechanism:** A central controller periodically polls devices to grant them exclusive access to the channel, ensuring each gets a turn. A master/base station queries each device, and only the polled device is allowed to transmit.

Key Points:

- Bandwidth is reserved for transmission.
- Guarantees (e.g., for timely delivery) can be given.

Types based on timing:

- Synchronous protocols: Data is sent in continuous streams or blocks without start/stop bits for each character. Sender and receiver must be synchronized with a common clock signal. More complex to implement.
- Asynchronous protocols: Data is sent character-by-character, with start and stop bits added for synchronization. Easier and less expensive to implement. Less efficient due to overhead of start/stop bits. Relative time information is used for effective reservations.
- c. Contention-Based Protocols with Scheduling Mechanisms: (Notes Page 7)
- Mechanism: The network allocates specific time/frequency/code resources to each device, so transmissions do not overlap. Each station is assigned a unique time slot, frequency band, or spreading code.

Characteristics:

- Ensures non-interfering transmissions.
- Provides deterministic access.
- Predictable Quality of Service (QoS).
- Efficient utilization under steady traffic conditions.

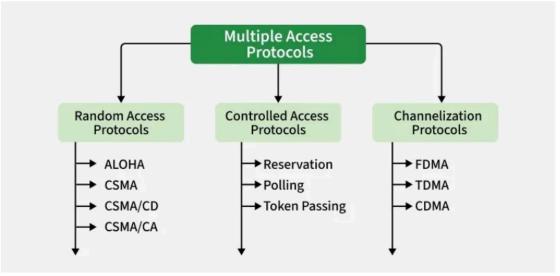
• Examples:

- Polling schemes in Bluetooth piconets (master polls slaves).
- Industrial networks using a central controller.
- **Ideal for:** Networks needing strict timing guarantees (e.g., industrial control systems, sensor networks requiring reliable data collection).
- **Also used in:** Cellular networks, satellite communications where guaranteed bandwidth and predictable latency are critical.
- **d. Other Hybrid Protocols:** (Notes Page 7)
- Mechanism: Combine features of contention-based and scheduled approaches (or other methods) to balance flexibility, efficiency, and reliability.
 - Part of the bandwidth or time is allocated deterministically (scheduled slots), while the remainder is accessed using contention or polling.

Characteristics:

- Adaptable to varying traffic conditions.
- Can provide QoS guarantees.
- Can handle heavy traffic efficiently.

6. Subdivisions of Multiple Access Protocols (Notes Page 7)



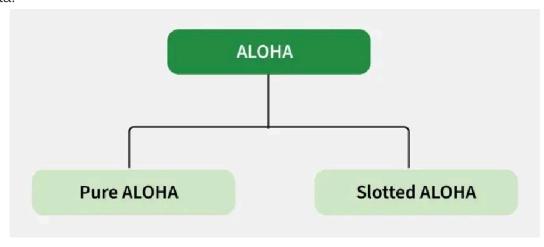
- * 1. Random Access Protocols
- * 2. Controlled Access Protocols
- * 3. Channelization Protocols
 - 6.1. Random Access Protocols: [PYQ Q5a (June 2024 Data-link layer protocols)] (Notes Page 8)
 - **Principle:** All stations have the same priority. Any station can send data depending on the medium's state (idle or busy).

• Features:

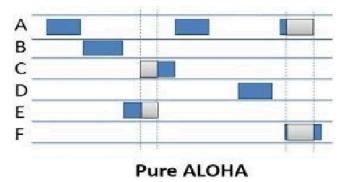
- No fixed time for sending data.
- No fixed sequence of stations sending data.

• Types:

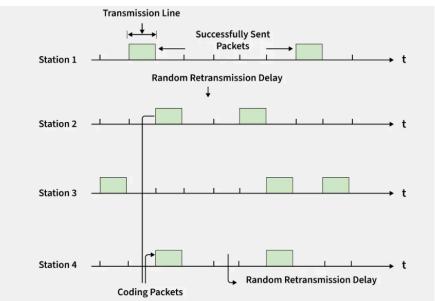
- **A. ALOHA:** (Notes Page 8)
 - Originally designed for wireless LANs, also applicable for shared medium.
 - Multiple stations can transmit data at the same time, leading to collisions and garbled data.



Pure ALOHA:



- Station sends data and waits for an acknowledgement.
- If no ACK within allotted time, station waits for a random back-off time (Tb) and resends.
- Different back-off times for different stations reduce probability of further collision.
- Slotted ALOHA: (Notes Page 9)
 - Time is divided into discrete slots.
 - Data transmission is allowed only at the beginning of a time slot.
 - If a station misses the allowed time, it must wait for the next slot.
 - Reduces the probability of collision compared to Pure ALOHA (vulnerable period is halved).



- B. CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access): (Notes Page 10)
 - Principle: Station first senses the medium (carrier) before transmitting.
 - If idle, sends data. If busy, waits until the channel becomes idle.
 - Collision Possibility: Collisions can still occur due to propagation delay.
 - Example: Station A senses medium as idle and starts sending. Before A's signal reaches B, B might also sense the medium as idle and start sending, leading to a collision.
- C. CSMA/CD (Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Detection): (Notes Page 10)

- Principle: Stations can detect collisions while transmitting.
- If a collision is detected, stations terminate their transmission, wait a random back-off period, and try again.
- Commonly used in wired Ethernet (e.g., IEEE 802.3).
- D. CSMA/CA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Avoidance): (Notes Page 11)
 - Principle: Used in networks where collision detection is difficult or unreliable (e.g., wireless networks like IEEE 802.11).
 - Aims to *avoid* collisions rather than just detect them.
 - Collision detection in wireless involves sender receiving acknowledgement signals. One signal (its own reflected) might imply success if strong enough, but if two signals (its own + another's) are mixed, it means collision. Collision must have a significant impact on received signal to be detectable, which is not always true in wireless.

Mechanisms to Avoid Collision:

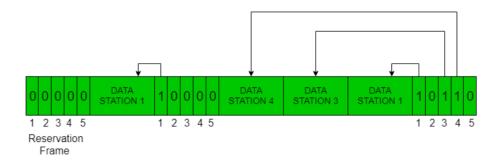
- Interframe Space (IFS): Station waits for a specific period (IFS) after the medium becomes idle before attempting to transmit. IFS duration can depend on the priority of the station/traffic.
- Contention Window: An amount of time divided into slots. If ready to send, sender chooses a random number of slots as a wait time. This window size (number of slots) typically doubles each time the medium is found busy or a collision occurs (Exponential Backoff). The timer pauses if the medium becomes busy and resumes when idle again.
- Acknowledgement (ACK): The sender re-transmits data if an ACK is not received from the receiver before a timeout.
- **6.2. Controlled Access Protocols:** [PYQ Q5a (June 2024 Data-link layer protocols)] (Notes Page 11)
- **Principle:** Stations seek permission or are granted turns to send data. Only one node is typically allowed to send at a time on a shared medium, avoiding collisions.

• Methods:

- A. Reservation: (Notes Page 12)
 - Mechanism: A station needs to make a reservation before sending data.
 - Timeline: Consists of:
 - Reservation interval: Fixed time length, divided into mini-slots (e.g., M mini-slots for M stations). Each station has one mini-slot to signal its intent to send.
 - Data transmission period: Variable length, where stations that made reservations transmit their data in order.

Process:

- During its mini-slot in the reservation interval, a station with data transmits a bit.
- After all mini-slots, every station knows which stations wish to transmit.
- Stations transmit their frames in the agreed-upon order.
- A new reservation interval begins after the data transmission period.
- Advantage: No collisions during data transmission as the order is pre-determined.



B. Polling: (Notes Page 13)

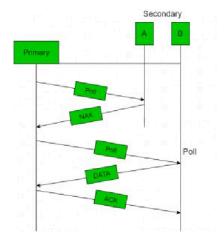
 Mechanism: A central controller (primary station) polls each secondary station in turn, granting them permission to transmit.

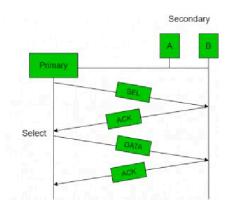
Process:

- Primary station sends a poll message to a secondary station (message contains the address of the selected node).
- All data exchanges must go through or be authorized by the controller.
- The addressed secondary station responds by sending its data (if any) or a negative acknowledgment (NAK/poll reject) if it has no data.

Problems:

- High overhead due to polling messages.
- High dependence on the reliability of the controller.





 [FIG] (Diagrams illustrating polling with NAK and polling with data transmission on Notes Page 14)

• C. Token Passing: (Notes Page 14)

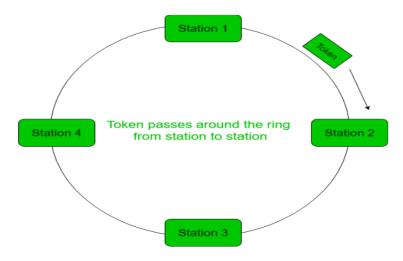
- Mechanism: Stations are connected logically (e.g., in a ring or bus topology). A special control frame called a "token" circulates among the stations in a predefined order.
- **Token:** Represents permission to send. A special bit pattern or small message.

Process:

- A station wanting to transmit must wait until it receives the token.
- Upon receiving the token, if the station has data, it seizes the token, sends its data frame(s), and then releases/passes the token to the next station in the logical sequence.
- If a station receives the token but has no data, it passes the token immediately.
 (Notes Page 15)
- After sending a frame, a station must wait for the token to circulate through all N stations (including itself) and potentially for other N-1 stations to send a frame before it can send again.

■ Topologies:

- **Token Ring:** Token passed to the adjacent station in a physical or logical ring.
- **Token Bus:** Token passed to the next station in a logical sequence over a shared bus.
- Problems: Token duplication, token loss, insertion/removal of new stations require careful management.



- 6.3. Channelization Protocols (Channel Partitioning): [PYQ Q5a (June 2024 Data-link layer protocols)] (Notes Page 15)
- **Principle:** The available bandwidth of the link is shared in time, frequency, or code among multiple stations to allow simultaneous access.

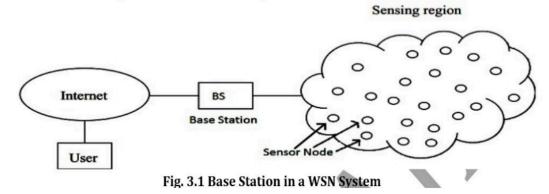
• Types:

- A. Frequency Division Multiple Access (FDMA): (Notes Page 16)
 - Available bandwidth is divided into equal, non-overlapping frequency bands.
 - Each station is allocated its own band.
 - Guard bands (unused frequency strips) are used between allocated bands to prevent crosstalk and noise.
- B. Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA): (Notes Page 16)
 - Bandwidth is shared by dividing access time into slots.
 - Each station is allotted specific time slots to transmit data.
 - **Overhead:** Synchronization bits are needed in each slot so stations know their turn.
 - **Issue:** Propagation delay; resolved by adding guard times between slots.
- C. Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA): (Mentioned in diagram on Notes Page 8, but not detailed in text)
 - Allows multiple users to share the entire frequency spectrum at the same time.
 - Users are separated by unique codes.
- 7. Wireless Sensor Network (WSN) [PYQ Q5a (June 2024), PYQ Q5b (June 2024)] (Notes Page 16)
 - **Definition:** An infrastructure-less wireless network deployed with a large number of wireless sensors in an ad-hoc manner. Used to monitor the system, physical, or environmental conditions.

Sensor Nodes:

- Equipped with an onboard processor.
- Manage and monitor the environment in a particular area.
- Connected to a Base Station, which acts as a processing unit.

• Base Station: Connected through the Internet to share data.



- **7.1. Components of WSN:** (Notes Page 17)
 - 1. Sensors: Capture environmental variables for data acquisition; convert sensor signals into electrical signals.
 - 2. Radio Nodes: Receive data produced by sensors and send it to the WLAN access point.
 Consist of a microcontroller, transceiver, external memory, and power source.
 - 3. WLAN Access Point: Receives data sent by Radio nodes wirelessly, generally through the internet.
 - 4. Evaluation Software: Processes data received by the WLAN Access Point. Presents reports to users for further processing, analysis, storage, and mining of data.
- **7.2. Applications of WSN:** (Notes Page 17)
 - Internet of Things (IoT)
 - Surveillance and Monitoring (for security, threat detection)
 - Environmental monitoring (temperature, humidity, air pressure)
 - Noise Level monitoring of surroundings
 - Medical applications (e.g., patient monitoring)
 - Agriculture
 - Landslide Detection
- **7.3. Modern Wireless Sensor Network (WSN) Challenges:** [PYQ Q5a (June 2024 security aspects), PYQ Q5b (June 2024 node behaviours influenced by these)] (Notes Page 17-18)
 - **a)** Limited power and energy: Typically battery-powered sensors with finite energy. Challenging to ensure long network lifetime without frequent battery replacements.
 - b) Limited processing and storage capabilities: Sensor nodes are usually small, restricting complex tasks or large data storage.
 - c) Heterogeneity: Networks often consist of various sensor types and nodes with different capabilities. Ensuring effective and efficient network function is a challenge.
 - d) Security: [PYQ Q5a (June 2024)] WSNs are vulnerable to attacks like eavesdropping, jamming, and spoofing. Ensuring network and data security is crucial.
 - e) Scalability: Often need to support a large number of sensor nodes and handle large data volumes. Scaling to meet demands is a significant challenge.

- f) Interference: Often deployed in environments with interference from other wireless devices, making reliable communication difficult.
- **g) Reliability:** Used in critical applications (e.g., environmental monitoring, industrial processes). Ensuring reliable function in all conditions is a major challenge.
- 7.4. Advantages of Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN): (Notes Page 18)
 - **a)** Low cost: Small, low-cost sensors are easy to deploy, making WSNs cost-effective.
 - b) Wireless communication: Eliminates need for wired connections (costly, difficult to install). Enables flexible deployment and reconfiguration.
 - c) Energy efficiency: Use low-power devices and protocols to conserve energy, enabling long-term operation.
 - d) Scalability: Can be easily scaled up or down by adding/removing sensors, suitable for various applications/environments.
 - e) Real-time monitoring: Enable real-time monitoring of physical phenomena, providing timely information for decision-making and control.
- 7.5. Disadvantages of Wireless Sensor Networks (WSN): (Notes Page 19)
 - a) Limited range: Wireless communication range is limited, a challenge for large-scale deployments or obstructed environments.
 - b) Limited processing power: Low-power devices may have limited processing/memory, hindering complex computations or advanced applications.
 - c) Data security: Vulnerable to security threats, compromising data confidentiality, integrity, and availability.
 - **d) Interference:** Susceptible to interference from other wireless devices/signals, degrading data transmission quality.
 - e) Deployment challenges: Proper sensor placement, power management, and network configuration can be complex and require significant time/resources.
- 8. Routing in WSNs [PYQ Q5a (June 2024 Network layer protocols)]
 - Survey routing protocols: (Notes Page 19)
 - * **Definition:** Process to select a suitable path for data to travel from source to destination.
 - * **Influencing factors:** Network type, channel characteristics, performance metrics.
 - * **Data flow in WSN:** Sensed data -> Base Station -> Other networks (e.g., Internet) for collection, analysis, action.
 - **8.1. Routing challenges in WSNs:** (Notes Page 19)
 - * **Universal Identifiers:** Difficult to allocate for a large quantity of sensor nodes; thus, WSN motes often cannot use classical IP-based protocols.
 - * **Data Flow Pattern:** Predominantly from multiple sources (sensor nodes) to a specific base station (sink).
 - * **Data Redundancy:** Multiple sensing nodes may generate similar data. Routing protocols should exploit this redundancy for bandwidth and energy efficiency. (Notes Page 20)

 8.2. Classification of routing protocols (based on information update mechanism for Ad hoc): (Notes Page 20)

■ A. Proactive or Table-Driven Routing Protocols:

- Each node maintains network topology information (routing tables).
- Routing information is exchanged periodically and typically flooded throughout the network.
- When a path is needed, node runs a pathfinding algorithm on its stored topology information.

■ B. Reactive or On-Demand Routing Protocols:

- Nodes do not maintain network topology information continuously.
- A path is discovered only when it is required, typically by initiating a connection establishment process (route discovery).

C. Hybrid Routing Protocols:

- Combine features of proactive and reactive protocols.
- Nodes within a certain distance or "routing zone" use a table-driven approach.
- For nodes beyond this zone, an on-demand approach is used.

• 8.3. Specific Types of WSN Routing Protocols: [PYQ Q5a (June 2024)]

- A. Hierarchical Routing Protocols: (Notes Page 21)
 - Description: Nodes are organized into groups (clusters) or hierarchies. Some nodes (e.g., cluster heads, gateways) perform more complex routing tasks, while others act as simple sensors.
 - **Purpose:** Facilitates efficient data aggregation and routing.
 - Example: LEACH (Low Energy Adaptive Clustering Hierarchy):
 - Nodes are divided into clusters.
 - Cluster heads aggregate data from nodes in their cluster.
 - Cluster heads communicate with the sink or base station.

■ B. Geographical Routing Protocols: (Notes Page 21)

- Description: Use the physical location of nodes (often from GPS) to make routing decisions.
- Purpose: Reduces overhead associated with maintaining a global network topology.

Example: Greedy Routing:

 Nodes forward data packets to the neighbor that is geographically closest to the destination.

■ C. Dynamic Routing: (Notes Page 21)

- Description: Adapts routing paths based on real-time network conditions like traffic load or topology changes.
- **Example:** Protocols that dynamically adjust routes to avoid congested or unreliable links.
- **D. Flat Routing Protocols:** (Notes Page 22)
 - Description: All nodes are treated equally, and each node may participate in routing decisions.
 - Example: Flooding:
 - A simple technique where each node broadcasts a received packet to all its neighbors.
 - Can cause redundancy and network congestion.
- E. Other Notable Protocols (often from ad-hoc networks, applicable to WSNs): (Notes Page 22)
 - AODV (Ad-hoc On-Demand Distance Vector): Reactive routing protocol used in mobile ad-hoc networks.
 - **DSR (Dynamic Source Routing):** Another reactive protocol that uses source routing to find paths in mobile ad-hoc networks.
 - EPR (Energy-Aware Peering Routing): Designed to reduce network traffic and energy consumption in wireless body sensor networks.

9. Sensor Deployment & Node Discovery in WSN

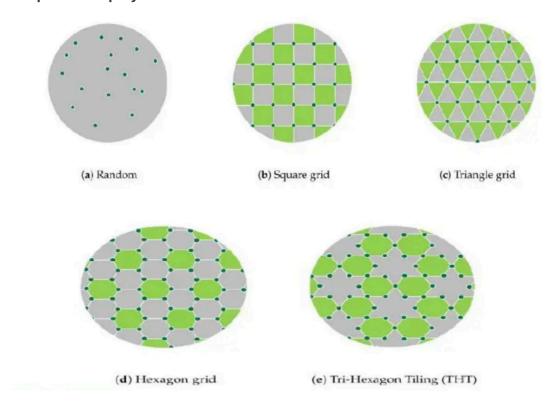
9.1. Sensor Deployment in WSN:

Sensor deployment methods vary based on application requirements and environmental conditions. Deployment can be broadly categorized into two main methods:

1. Deterministic Deployment:

- Characteristics:
 - Suitable when the environment's conditions are well-understood.
 - Sensor nodes are fixed in pre-selected areas following a defined pattern.

• Examples of Deployment Patterns:



Square Grid:

- Area is divided into small squares.
- Nodes are positioned at the grid intersections.
- Reference: Fig (b) on Notes Page 25.

• Triangle Grid:

- Area is divided into small triangles.
- Sensors are placed at the vertices of the triangles.
- Reference: Fig (c) on Notes Page 25.

Hexagon Grid:

- Area is divided into hexagonal cells.
- Sensors are positioned at the vertices of the hexagons.
- Reference: Fig (d) on Notes Page 25.

• Tri-Hexagon Tiling (THT):

- Combines triangles and hexagons for coverage.
- Sensors are placed in a star-like pattern, maximizing area coverage without gaps or overlap.
- Reference: Fig (e) on Notes Page 25.

Advantages:

- Geometric structures, such as hexagons, ensure high coverage, low energy consumption, and a minimum number of sensors.
- THT offers good energy performance by combining triangle and hexagon benefits.

• Use Case: Non-harsh and small-to-moderate scale regions.

2. Random Deployment:

Characteristics:

- Sensors are scattered randomly across the region of interest.
- Typically used in environments where precise placement is challenging.

• Examples of Deployment Patterns:

• Uniform Random Deployment:

- Sensors are deployed randomly without known exact positions.
- Often dropped using UAVs or aircraft.
- Reference: Fig (a) on Notes Page 25.

Advantages:

• Simple and economical, especially for harsh environments like disaster zones or battlefields.

• Challenges:

- Coverage may be uneven, leading to weak connectivity.
- Networks are less robust to sensor failures.
- Requires additional nodes for full coverage in large-scale deployments.

9.2. IoT Sensor Deployment Challenges:

Challenge #1: Variety of Sensors and Chipsets

- IoT applications require diverse cellular technologies (e.g., NB-IoT, Cat-M1, LoRa).
- No single chipset offers a cost-effective solution for all scenarios.

Challenge #2: Optimal Sensor Location

- Difficulties in identifying suitable deployment spots due to varying environmental factors and connectivity.
- Operators rely on statistical models, which can result in sub-optimal placement.

Challenge #3: Remediating Sensor Performance Issues

- Sensors are often deployed in hard-to-access locations.
- Network performance issues can lack real-time visibility, requiring costly remediation efforts.

Challenge #4: Network SLA Validation

- Ensuring service level agreements is challenging without post-deployment network health data.
- Deployment assumptions based on RF/RAN models can fail under real-world conditions.

9.3. Node Discovery in WSN:

Definition:

The process of identifying and integrating new devices into an IoT network.

Importance:

- Ensures seamless addition of new devices.
- Maintains network scalability and flexibility.

Sensor Node Functionality Related to Discovery/Operation:

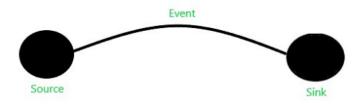
- Sensing Unit: Monitors environmental conditions such as temperature and pressure.
- **Processing Unit:** Processes data gathered by the sensing unit.
- **Communication Unit:** Facilitates the exchange of processed information among neighboring nodes.

This document outlines the foundational concepts and challenges of sensor deployment and node discovery, providing references and diagrams for further study.

10. Data Dissemination in WSNs [PYQ Q5b (June 2024 - node behaviours)]

- **Definition:** Procedure where a server (or source node) initiates and manages the transfer of data as well as updates. Helps in maintaining data consistency and cache management. (Notes Page 27)
- Can be thought of as "Pushing data to mobile devices from a server or some other computer."
- Traffic Models in WSN (vs. Ad-hoc's peer-to-peer): (Notes Page 27)
 - **Data Collection Model:** Source sends data to a collection point periodically or on demand.
 - Data Diffusion Model: A sensor node generates data based on its sensing mechanism's observation and diffuses it.
- Entities in Data Dissemination: (Notes Page 27-28)
 - Source: Node generating data.
 - **Event:** Something that needs to be reported (e.g., abnormal activity in target detection).
 - **Sink:** A node (often a base station or gateway) randomly located in the field, interested in events, and seeks such information.

Process Overview:



- Information (event) needs to be reported.
- Sink expresses interest; source receives interest; event (data) is transferred from source to sink.
- Two-step process:

- 1. Interested node (sink) broadcasts its interests periodically to neighbors. Interests propagate through the network.
- 2. Nodes that have requested data (or possess relevant data) send it back after receiving/matching an interest. Intermediate nodes can cache received interests and data to satisfy future requests or aggregate data. (Notes Page 28)

• 10.1. Data Dissemination Methods:

- **A. Flooding:** (Notes Page 28)
 - Simplest design.
 - Each node receiving data repeats it by broadcasting the data to every neighbor (unless a maximum hop lifetime for the data has been reached).
 - Can lead to "implosion" (many copies of same data) and "overlap" (nodes receive redundant data).
- **B. Gossiping:** (Notes Page 29)
 - Enhancement of Flooding.
 - When a node receives data, it randomly chooses one neighbor and sends the data to it.
 - Reduces duplicate packets compared to flooding.
 - Can contribute to network latency.
 - Advantages:
 - Easily scalable.
 - Eliminates some shortcomings of Flooding.
 - Sends data in an autonomous and decentralized manner.

Disadvantages:

- Random destination selection might lead to starvation for some nodes (not selected to receive data) or longer paths.
- C. SPIN (Sensor Protocols for Information via Negotiation): (Notes Page 29)
 - Aims to overcome shortcomings of flooding (like implosion and overlap) by using negotiation.
 - Nodes advertise data availability before sending. Data is sent only if requested.
 - SPIN Messages (3 types):
 - ADV (Advertise): Used by a sensor to signal it has data to send and describes the data (metadata).
 - **REQ (Request):** Used by a node when it is ready (and interested) to receive data advertised by a neighbor.
 - **DATA:** The actual information/data to be sent.

Advantages:

 More efficient than flooding because negotiation reduces implosion (unnecessary data copies) and overlap (redundant data).

11. Data Aggregation in WSNs/IoT [PYQ Q5b (June 2024 - node behaviours, e.g. cluster head)]

• **Definition:** The process of collecting and aggregating useful data. (Notes Page 30)

• In WSNs:

- Technique to solve implosion and overlap problems in data-centric routing.
- Data coming from multiple sensor nodes regarding the same phenomenon attribute can be aggregated (e.g., averaged, min/max found) at an intermediate routing node on the way to the sink.
- Widely used technique.
- Security Issues: Data confidentiality and integrity in aggregation become vital if the WSN is deployed in a hostile environment.
- Process: Sensor data is aggregated using approaches/algorithms like centralized approach,
 LEACH (cluster-based aggregation), TAG (Tiny Aggregation). Aggregated data is then
 transferred to the sink via an efficient path.
- In IoT (General): (Notes Page 30)
 - Involves combining and summarizing data from multiple sensors or devices into a more concise and meaningful form.

Primary Goals:

- Reduce the volume of transmitted data.
- Minimize communication overhead.
- Improve the efficiency of data transfer within an IoT network.
- Aggregated data is often more manageable for storage, analysis, and transmission compared to raw data from individual sensors.