

Using Local and Global Knowledge in Wireless Sensor Networks

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Contents

1	Introduction	1
1.1	The Local Knowledge Problem	2
1.2	Motivation	3
1.3	Research Contributions	4
1.4	Thesis Structure	4
2	Background	6
2.1	Wireless Sensor Network Issues	6
2.1.1	Fault Tolerance	7
2.1.2	Hardware Constraints	7
2.1.3	Energy Constraints	8
2.1.4	Transmission Medium	8
2.1.5	Environment	9
2.2	Routing Protocols	9
2.2.1	Flat	10
2.2.2	Data-centric	10
2.2.3	Hierarchical	12
2.2.4	Location-based	14
2.3	Sensor Middleware	15
2.3.1	Issues	15
2.3.2	Existing Middlewares	17
2.4	Biodiversity Sensor Networks	22
2.5	Local and Global Knowledge	24
2.6	Relevant Existing Networks	25

2.6.1	Context-Awareness	25
2.6.2	Harsh Environments	27
2.7	Summary	28
3	Technical	30
3.1	Danau Girang	30
3.2	Hardware	32
3.2.1	Pandaboard	33
3.2.2	IGEP v2	33
3.2.3	Waspnote	34
3.3	Transmission Medium	34
3.3.1	Wi-Fi	34
3.3.2	Digimesh	37
3.3.3	Adapting for Harsh Environments	38
3.3.4	Commercial Solution	38
3.4	Software	39
3.4.1	Triton	39
3.4.2	ODACH	39
3.5	Summary	39
4	Architecture	41
4.1	K-HAS	42
4.1.1	Data Collection	42
4.1.2	Data Processing	43
4.1.3	Data Aggregation	44
4.2	Technological Components	46
4.2.1	Data Standard	46
4.2.2	Middleware	50
4.3	Walkthrough	51
4.3.1	Scenario	51
4.3.2	Data Collection	51
4.3.3	Data Processing	52
4.3.4	Data Aggregation	55

4.4	Rules	56
4.4.1	Data Collection	56
4.4.2	Data Processing and Data Aggregation	57
4.5	Conclusion	60
5	Ontology	61
5.1	Background	61
5.1.1	Observation-Centric Ontologies	62
5.1.2	Sensor-Centric Ontologies	71
5.2	Method	74
5.2.1	Identify Purpose	74
5.2.2	Build the Ontology	74
5.2.3	Evaluation	76
5.2.4	Documentation	76
5.3	Results	76
5.3.1	Identify Purpose	76
5.3.2	Build the Ontology - Capture	77
5.3.3	Build the Ontology - Code	78
5.3.4	Build the Ontology - Integrate Existing Ontologies	80
5.3.5	Ontology	81
5.4	Evaluation	81
5.4.1	Using the Ontology in an Application	82
5.4.2	Competency Questions	83
5.4.3	Comparing the Ontology with a Collection of Documents	83
5.5	Conclusion	84
6	LORIS	88
6.1	Architecture	89
6.1.1	Data Collection	90
6.1.2	Data Processing and Aggregation	90
6.2	Deployment	92
6.2.1	Direct Connection	92
6.2.2	1-Hop Network	93

6.3	Results	94
6.4	Conclusion	94

List of Figures

2.1	FACTS Architecture	20
2.2	GSN Architecture	20
3.1	Signal-to-Noise Ratio for Wi-Fi in UK Woodland	35
3.2	Signal-to-Noise Ratio for Wi-Fi in Malaysian Rainforest	36
3.3	Pelican Waterproof Case	39
4.1	Clouded Leopard Image Capture	52
4.2	Processed Image of Clouded Leopard	54
5.1	The Core of an OBOE Observation	63
5.2	The OGC O&M Ontology	65
5.3	A Darwin Core Star Archive	70
5.4	Darwin-SW	71
5.5	SSN Ontology	73
5.6	K-HAS Base Ontology	78
5.7	K-HAS Ontology	82
6.1	LORIS Web Interface	91
6.2	Camera Locations Around Danau Girang	92

List of Tables

5.1	Competency Questions	77
5.2	K-HAS Concepts	79
5.3	Competency Questions	86
5.4	Evaluation of K-HAS against Darwin Core Occurrence Terms	87

Abstract

To Write...

Chapter 1

Introduction

A wireless sensor network (WSN) consists of a collection of heterogeneous nodes with sensing and, typically, wireless capabilities. These sensing nodes can be extremely complex and powerful devices with the ability to sense multiple phenomena simultaneously, or they can be simple nodes that have limited processing power and are tasked with sensing one thing in their environment.

Upon deployment, these nodes use their wireless capabilities to form links with their neighbours, where a neighbour is any node that is within transmission range. The way that nodes discover, and communicate with, their neighbours is defined by their routing protocol. Routing protocols vary based on the purpose of the WSN, the requirements of data transmission as well as the characteristics of the nodes. Communication between nodes is expensive and drains the available power faster than any other action that a node performs. For example, if a WSN is deployed in a building with consistent power available, then the routing protocol does not need to be adapted to ensure the nodes maximise their battery life by transmitting as little as possible. However, not every WSN has unlimited resources at their disposal and these protocols, as well as the underlying structure of the network, are used to ensure the network is able to perform well for as long as possible.

Each WSN is different and each will have different constraints, a WSN that monitors traffic along a busy road may experience memory limitations,

whereas a WSN that is deployed in the middle of a desert may experience power issues. Typically, however, all WSNs do the same thing: sense one or more characteristics of their environment and forward that data on to a specified endpoint.

1.1 The Local Knowledge Problem

The majority of WSNs do not know what data they are sensing, or have any knowledge of their environment. This means that, unless fixed by a routing protocol or human that deployed the network, data is delivered on a chronological basis and is then filtered at the base station, usually manually. Some WSNs store all of the data on the node and users of the network must use a 'pull' model to query for data from nodes, but this requires some technical knowledge and, while it does increase the battery life of the nodes, it is a manual process again.

The environment that a WSN is deployed is usually rich and the data sensed often contains patterns that can be used to improve the performance of the network. For example, if a node knows that it has only been triggering between the hours of 6pm and 5am for the past few weeks, it can enter a deep sleep outside of those hours or use that time to transmit data it has been storing while it knows it will be inactive. Alternatively, this knowledge can be used to prioritise data throughout the network so that the most important data is received first, instead of the most recent. An example of this could be two camera nodes deployed facing the entry and exit of a building, tasked with looking for intruders between 5pm and 8am. If the camera facing the exit is triggered at 5:01pm and the camera on the entrance is triggered at 5:05pm, then the knowledge that the security guard leaves through the exit between 5:01pm and 5:08 pm will allow the entrance camera to prioritise its capture as more important, as it is an irregular occurrence.

This knowledge can be categorised into *local* and *global*. Local knowledge (LK) is the knowledge of an area that has been gained through experience or experimentation and global knowledge (GK) is knowledge that is generally available to everybody. An example of this is someone who has been tasked

with deploying a WSN in the Amazon rainforest would use readily available sources, such as the Internet or prior research, to determine the humidity and weather patterns in order to use a node that could withstand such conditions. This would be classed as GK. However, a native to the Amazon may know that three of the locations that the nodes are to be deployed in are flooded for two weeks of the year, rendering their readings useless for that time period and increasing their risk of failure. This is LK, as it cannot be gained without experiencing the flooding in that area, or experimenting with water levels.

We believe that the use of this knowledge can increase the efficiency of the network, as well as prioritise sensed data by its value instead of the time it was recorded. To show this, we have developed a network architecture for WSNs that utilises knowledge from the data it senses, as well as its deployed environment. It is called the Knowledge-based Hierarchical Architecture for Sensing (K-HAS) and this thesis will show how K-HAS addresses the problem of delivering the most important data first and improving the overall efficiency of the network.

1.2 Motivation

Throughout this thesis, we focus on a scenario motivated by our collaboration with Cardiff University School of Biosciences, who run a research centre in the Malaysian rainforest, in Sabah, known as Danau Girang (DG) . Located on the banks of the Kinabatangan river, DG has been running for more than six years and holds Masters, PhD and Undergraduate students from around the world, studying the ecology and biodiversity of the unique region.

The reason that the rainforest that DG is set in is so unique is that the area was heavily logged until the late 1970s and now serves as a corridor, between large Palm Oil plantations, connecting two separate rainforest lots. The area is now secondary rainforest (rainforest that has grown since being destroyed) and is experiencing a large variety of wildlife using the area as a habitat, or as a path. Some of this wildlife is unique to this area of the world and DG has had sightings of animals that have not been seen in many years.

There is a variety of research projects currently underway in the field

centre, looking into fish population, crocodile attacks, hornbill habitats or the movement patterns of small mammals. One project that has been running almost since DG opened, is the *corridor monitoring programme*, a programme that consists of dozens of wildlife cameras deployed in various areas around DG and triggered whenever an animal triggers a break in their infrared (IR) sensor.

The Kinabatangan is a very humid place, with thick forest, making it very difficult to walk through and even more difficult for hardware to survive the conditions. Cameras are placed along the river and up to 1km into the forest, recording triggers onto SD cards. These SD cards are collected and stored at the field centre, where the images are manually collated and processed. The cameras are designed to have a battery life of three months but, due to the humidity, a battery life of 3 weeks is more realistic. In 2010, twenty cameras were deployed and half of them were inspected every two weeks, on a rotating basis. In that time, each cameras can record more than a thousand pictures and the dynamic nature of the rainforest, such as the sun through leaves, falling trees and reflections in the water can cause the camera to trigger when an animal has not walked past; we call these *false triggers*. False triggers can make up to 70

We have used this scenario to test our hypothesis and implement a WSN that automates the collection, transmission, processing and storage of images, using LK to classify the data and prioritise the flow of information through the network, making more efficient use of the limited power and bandwidth available.

1.3 Research Contributions

1.4 Thesis Structure

The rest of this thesis is structured as follows. Chapter 2 provides some background on wireless sensor networks and the use of knowledge. Chapter 3 explains some technical decisions we made and the findings when running

experiments in the Malaysian rainforest. Chapter 4 introduces the K-HAS architecture we have developed and explains the purpose of each tier. Chapter 5 details the ontology we have developed to support K-HAS and shows how current ontologies do not sufficiently cover all of the concepts involved with a *scientific observation*. Chapter 6 shows how we use rules to determine how valuable a piece of sensed data is and to explain how K-HAS is able to use these rules, and human feedback, in order to inform future classifications. Chapter 7 highlights the technical limitations of implementing K-HAS today and shows our simulations of it running as it was designed. Chapter 8 then concludes this thesis and summarises our contributions and findings, as well as highlighting work that could be undertaken to take this project further.

Chapter 2

Background

Using knowledge in a WSN is related to existing research into sensor networks that utilise context-awareness in order to improve their efficiency or adapt their sampling rate.

This chapter is split into the following sections. Section 2.1 outlines the issues surrounding WSN design and deployment. Section 2.2 details relevant existing routing protocols for sensor networks. Section 2.3 highlights popular sensor middleware in use today. Section 2.4 shows some examples of existing WSNs that are related to our motivating scenario. Section 2.5 introduces research into local and global knowledge and Section 2.6 shows some related work into WSNs that utilise knowledge or context to prioritise data and/or improve efficiency.

2.1 Wireless Sensor Network Issues

WSNs have been used in a number of domains, for a range of different purposes, from habitat monitoring [59] to military purposes [48] and healthcare [47]. While these applications are vastly different, the technology behind each is very similar. Each requires the use of nodes with sensors attached and each node requires a power source and storage devices.

According to [6], there are eight factors that affect the design of sensor networks, but we focus on a subset that are the most relevant to our research

problem. The following points must be considered when designing a WSN:

2.1.1 Fault Tolerance

WSNs typically contain a large number of nodes and each can fail for various reasons, from a lack of power, filling its storage capacity, to factors of the environment causing the hardware to fail. While the sensor nodes that are used in WSNs typically consist of the same platform, the variation between each deployment means that the device itself must be adapted to its environment, [41] used a custom protective casing for their nodes so that they were able to survive being in the open while ensuring that the transmission range was not affected.

2.1.2 Hardware Constraints

A sensor node typically consists of: a platform that contains the memory and processing power, a sensor (or sensors) and a transceiver that uses a wireless standard, such as Wi-Fi or Zigbee. Cost and size are the most common barriers to entry when designing a WSN. [31] mentions that the expectation of a sensor node is a matchbox-sized form factor. While the research is over ten years old, the original focus on sensor node was *smart dust* [36], small, inexpensive, disposable nodes that can transmit until their power reserve is depleted, [7] mentions that it is a requirement for the nodes to cost less than USD10. In [18], it is noted that, a decade on from the first WSN papers, smart dust has not been realised and the focus has instead been on larger, more powerful nodes that have reduced in cost and grown in power.

The Gartner Hype Cycle for 2013 [?] shows that smart dust is still in early innovation stages and may not be fully commercialised for another ten years. To counter this, research has been focussed on using software solutions to maximise the battery life in these more powerful, more expensive nodes, accompanied with the use of renewable energy sources.

2.1.3 Energy Constraints

The majority of sensor nodes do not have access to a constant power supply and must run on a battery that is, generally, a similar size to the node itself; or smaller. This means that the nodes must be as efficient as possible, knowing when to transmit data and when to sleep. The lifetime of a sensor network is extremely dependent on the battery life of each node and, unlike other mobile devices, they cannot typically be recharged [6]. Much work has been done on power efficient routing protocols, as well as the control of which attached devices are active [55, 29, 54].

The limited resources on the nodes mean that the sensing devices, and transceivers, attached must consume as little power as possible. Some routing protocols implement turning off wireless radios and scheduling a wakeup across the network [63], but the cost of turning off a device can waste just as much energy as leaving it on and sampling at a lower rate; if not more [22].

The use of energy in a node is dependent on how active the sensor(s) are, how much it transmits and receives, the transmission medium used as well as the environment it is in.

2.1.4 Transmission Medium

Common transmission media, such as Wi-Fi, are viable solutions in WSNs when a high data rate is required and power is readily available. However, research has shown that Wi-Fi is extremely power-hungry and [38] shows that Wi-Fi consumes almost 9 times more energy, while transmitting, than other standards, such as Zigbee. Bluetooth is a more power efficient standard that is becoming increasingly popular for sensing devices that are part of the *Quantified Self* movement [58], with wearable devices that report measurements, such as heart rate, steps taken and calories burned. With the advent of the new low-power Bluetooth 4.0, also known as Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE), this standard is supposed to allow months of continuous use on a coin-cell battery [?]. However, the range is limited to 100m and, using the same frequency, as Wi-Fi (2.4GHz) means that it is as susceptible to path loss and reduced transfer rates. [75] shows that a 2.4GHz Wi-Fi antenna is

capable of transmitting up to 350m, while a considerably lower frequency of 41MHz was able to achieve links of 10km. The use of 2.4GHz frequencies in wet conditions have been shown to reduce the performance by up to 28%. New low-power, low-frequency standards have emerged in recent years and allow for a considerably longer range and increased battery life, at the cost of transmission speeds. Digmish is an example of this and, while it can achieve 250kb/s using 2.4GHz, it has much slower speeds of 125kbps when using the 900MHz spectrum. However, it does offer a range of, up to, 64Km [9].

2.1.5 Environment

The environment that a node is deployed in can have a great impact on almost all aspects of a WSN, such as range and battery life. Harsh environments that are not easily accessible make it difficult to place nodes and protected environments may limit where nodes can be placed. In [43], nodes were deployed within glaciers and had to survive extreme temperatures, lasting without human intervention, for months at a time. [35] attached collars to Zebras that had to withstand high speed movement, dust and high temperatures. The deployment of any node requires extensive research as to the environment that it will be deployed in and adjustments must be made to ensure it is able to survive for extended periods without continued maintenance. Section 2.1.4 also shows that environment does not simply affect the hardware, but humidity can reduce the transmission range significantly, as well as moisture collecting on wireless antenna can reduce the range for days at a time.

2.2 Routing Protocols

Routing protocols specify how nodes in a WSN are organised, as well as how they transmit data throughout the network. In [5], the more popular routing protocols are surveyed and split into three of the main identified categories: data-centric, hierarchical and location-based. We use the aforementioned categories, as well as flat, to highlight some of the key protocols that are

relevant to our work. The protocols have the task of ensuring that a network is performing at its best, providing the best lifetime and ensuring reliable and consistent delivery of data. This must reduce *flooding*, where nodes send every message to every link, aside from themselves, effectively flooding the network with unnecessary messages, and find a way to deliver data to the endpoint using the most efficient path possible.

2.2.1 Flat

Initially, this was the most common structure for a WSN, dozens of nodes spread out over a geographical area, with one or more neighbours, sending observations to a single endpoint.

MCFA

The Minimum Cost Forwarding Algorithm (MCFA) is an flat routing protocol that works by assigning costs to each node, based on how many hops they are from the base station [14].

Each node has a path-estimate of the cost of transmission from itself to the base station. The base station sends out a broadcast message and it is received by all nodes in range. The message contains a cost from the base station (initially zero) while every node has their cost set to infinity. If the cost in the message, plus the link it was received, is less than the current cost. If yes, the estimate is update on both the node and the message; the message is then passed on to other nodes in range.

This approach allows for dynamic reconfiguration of the network, as well as a reduced overhead due to not having to maintain a global routing table on each node. The assumption with MCFA, however, is that the direction of routing is always towards a fixed endpoint.

2.2.2 Data-centric

Data-centric routing protocols are not like traditional WSNs where nodes are given addresses; they use a method that involves the advertising, or querying,

of the data that has been sensed and those with the relevant data can respond to the request.

SPIN

Sensor Protocols for Information via Negotiation is one of the first data-centric protocols and attempts to address the issue of flooding the network whenever new data is sensed by addressing the data through metadata [28]. SPIN works on three messages passed between nodes:

1. ADV - A message sent by a node when it has sensed new data, advertising what it has recorded.
2. REQ - Sent by nodes that received an ADV to request the data.
3. DATA - Message containing the sensed data.

When a node has sensed data, it sends an ADV message to all nodes within range. If any of those nodes are interested in the data, then they respond with a REQ message, at which point the DATA message is sent to nodes that responded.

SPIN eliminates the need for a global view of the network topology, as nodes only need to know their single hop neighbours. However, SPIN does not guarantee equal diffusion of data throughout the network as a node may be interested in the data sensed at the other edge of the network, with only nodes that are not interested in between. This would mean that those nodes would not request the data or pass it on.

SPIN-IT

An extension to SPIN, SPIN-IT uses a slightly different approach to receiving data and is developed solely for the transfer of images [70].

Nodes use the existing message structure of SPIN, but REQ messages are used as queries, sent to all nodes in transmission range. The receiving nodes keep these requests and generate a new REQ message, thus allowing nodes to store temporal paths. When a REQ reaches a node that has the

desired data, it responds with a ROUTE-REPLY message. This message is used because images are large and resource-constrained WSNs would have a much shorter lifetime if a lot of unnecessary transmissions were made. The ROUTE-REPLY is used in case multiple nodes, in range of the requesting node, have the data it has requested and it can then choose the optimal route. As each node keeps a history of REQ messages, these can be used to trace the requested data back through the network, to the originating node, without the overhead of maintaining a global routing table.

COUGAR

A slightly different data-centric approach is the proposed COUGAR protocol, viewing the network as a distributed database. While similar to SPIN due to the fact that it does not forward data as soon as it is sensed, COUGAR uses a query language that abstracts the underlying network structure and uses that query to generate a plan that utilises in-network processing to provide an answer [72].

Within the network, a *leader* is selected and this node is used to aggregate the data from nodes that were able to fulfil all, or some, of the query. At risk of failure, each query should result in a *leader* being dynamically selected and it must have sufficient resources to be able to satisfy the request. This protocol was only proposed, and much of the technical detail has yet to be completed, but the concept of treating the network as a distributed database is a novel idea and this is one of the first protocols to suggest the use of a query language that could be used by people without specific domain knowledge.

2.2.3 Hierarchical

Hierarchical networks are WSNs that contain nodes of different classes; nodes at the end of the network are typically clustered into groups and served by a gateway node. This gateway could be in charge of aggregating the data, processing the data, or simply forwarding it to an endpoint. Clusters of nodes allow the network to be spread out over a wider geographical area and gateway nodes can use a different transmission method to provide long

distance links to the base station. Gateway nodes serving a cluster of nodes means that the network can scale easily as well, simply by adding a new cluster to the network.

TEEN

The Threshold sensitive Energy Efficient sensor Network (TEEN) protocol is designed for reactive sensor networks, networks that require instant reactions to changes sensed in their environment. TEEN recognises that transmission is the most power hungry action for a node so each node is coded with a hard and soft threshold. The hard threshold is a value that makes nodes transmit the reading to their cluster head. Similarly, the soft threshold is a small change in the value of the sensed attribute that causes further transmissions.

During the initialisation of the network, the base station sends information about the thresholds and sensing attributes to all cluster heads in the network; the cluster heads then forward this on to all nodes in their cluster. When a node senses data over the hard threshold, it transmits to the cluster and only transmits again when new sensed values are greater than the hard threshold and the difference between the current sensed value and the previous is greater than the soft threshold [42].

Clusters are assigned for a period of time and then new clusters are selected by the base station, at which point new attributes and thresholds are broadcast to all nodes. This kind of protocol allows the network to be dynamic after deployment and allows user input based on the data that has been sensed in the previous cluster times.

For example, a network could be tasked with sensing humidity in a rainforest but the thresholds have been set such that nodes are transmitting readings that are not of interest. A user can change these thresholds and they will be pushed out to the nodes at the time that the next clusters are chosen, without any need to visit the node or configure them individually.

2.2.4 Location-based

Instead of using the physical addresses of nodes, or the data they store, location-based protocols are based on the region that nodes are deployed in.

****FLESH OUT****

Span

Span is a protocol where nodes are selected as *coordinators* based on their positions. A node can decide to be a coordinator based on the amount of energy it has and the number of neighbouring nodes it would benefit if they were able to use it as a bridge [15].

An example of this would be node B placed between node A and C. C and A are unable to communicate directly so, when node B wakes up, it decides whether it should become a coordinator. It knows that it has sufficient energy levels and it can provide connectivity for a previously disconnected area of the network, so it chooses to become a coordinator, staying awake and routing sensed data to other coordinators, which form the backbone of the network.

Results showed that using Span, in a system that transmits using 802.11, provides an network lifetime increase of more than a factor of 2 over networks that just use the 802.11 protocol.

GEAR

The Geographic Energy-Aware Routing protocol (GEAR) is similar to SPAN in that it makes routing choices based on both energy-awareness and location. Each node maintains an *estimated cost* and a *learning cost* of forwarding a packet through its neighbours. The estimated cost is calculated using the distance to the packet destination and the energy remaining on the node whereas the learning cost is the estimated cost that takes holes in the network into consideration [73].

GEAR is designed to perform in two phases: forwarding a packet towards a region and disseminating a packet within a region. When sending a packet towards a destination, GEAR either sends a packet on to the node in range

that is closest to the destination or, if such a node does not exist, then a hole is identified. If a hole is identified then the node that minimises a cost is selected.

To disseminate a packet within a geographic area, uses algorithms based on the density of the network. Recursive geographic forwarding is typically used but this can result in an endless loop if the density of the network means that the region is unable to contact the destination. In that case, restrictive flooding is used.

Provide a concluding section for routing protocols here?

2.3 Sensor Middleware

Acting as a bridge between the hardware and the user, sensor middleware is software that abstracts the underlying network from the user and provides a means of accessing sensed data and administrating how the network performs. These middlewares must not be specific to a single network and provide support for as many different sensor nodes as possible. In [74], a middleware is said to provide standardised services to many applications and perform operations that make effective use of limited system resource.

In [65], a middleware should include four major components: programming abstraction, system services, runtime support and Quality of Service (QoS) mechanisms. In this section, we will discuss the challenges surrounding middlewares for WSNs and highlight some existing middleware that are particularly relevant to our research problem and/or motivating scenario.

2.3.1 Issues

WSNs present a range of new challenges to existing middleware, due to their resource constraints, deployment environments and more. However, there has been research into the key issues that must be addressed in order for middleware to be considered suitable. While there have been a number of surveys into these challenges [27, 50, 74], we will detail those that we believe to be most relevant to our work.

Resource Constraints

It is rare that nodes in a WSN would have a constant power source, unlimited memory and a casing that can survive a harsh environment without decaying. In order to ensure that the lifetime of nodes is maximised, middleware needs to offer a power scheduling system that makes efficient use of the hardware on the node, typically turning off the radio at particular times.

Ideally, a middleware will be able to coordinate nodes through wireless communication, making efficient use of transmissions and dynamically modifying sleep schedules based on the power remaining.

Heterogeneity

Not every node in a network will have the same capabilities, manufacturer or hardware. WSN middleware needs to provide a standard interface to add data, regardless of the format it is recorded in. Some middlewares have been built for a specific set of hardware, however this homogeneity can provide increase the performance and efficiency of the network by only supporting one device.

Real-world Integration

WSNs are often tasked with recording phenomena that are time-crucial, so a sensor middleware should provide a real-time interface to the data that it has sensed. Ideally this data would be available outside of the network, though the use of an API.

Quality of Service

This issue is perhaps the most complex as QoS could apply to almost all aspects of the networks, such as efficiently using bandwidth, 100% uptime for nodes, guaranteed packet delivery or access to data stores. Some of these requirements are managed by the implementation of the routing protocol, the middleware should be able to monitor deployed nodes and report on their current status, as well as identify failures.

2.3.2 Existing Middlewares

In this section, we identify existing middlewares, explain how they address the issues highlighted in Section 2.3.1 and highlight how they relate to our research. While there are a lot of existing middlewares, our research did not show any that directly utilised the environment to make informed classifications. We did, however, find some applications that utilise context and rules to administrate the network.

FACTS

One such example is the FACTS middleware, an approach that uses a fact repository to coordinate nodes. Rules can then be implemented to process sensed data and fired when certain conditions are met [61]. More traditional sensor middlewares control the network and manage sensed data, this rule based approach allows for more flexibility, where rules can control the transmissions and process the data upon receipt.

Figure 2.1 shows the FACTS architecture, with the middleware holding the rulesets and a distributed fact repository. Data within the network is stored as facts, providing a standard data format throughout the network and hardware abstraction. When new facts are received, usually because of new sensing data, the rule engine checks to determine whether any rules should be fired. The ruleset definition language (RDL) is introduced here and each ruleset contains a group of relevant rules. Each rule is given a priority so that, if more than one rule is triggered by a fact, then the higher priority rules are fired first.

While FACTS itself does not utilise any local knowledge, the repository is used as a source for all previously sensed data and would prove as an excellent source of knowledge to assist with the classification of future readings. Also, the ability to add new rulesets, without technical knowledge of the hardware of each node, means that users of the network have the ability to add knowledge in the form of rules as they learn it.

ITA Sensor Fabric

The ITA Sensor Fabric is collaboration project between IBM, the US Army and the UK MoD. Sensor Fabric, or Fabric, is a two-way messaging bus and set of middleware services connecting network assets to each other and users [71].

The core difference between the Fabric middleware and others is that not every node is sensing all of the time, sensor nodes are tasked when there is a requirement and they stop as soon as that task has been fulfilled. Similar to sinks in a traditional WSN, Fabric utilises Fabric nodes, which run the following three pieces of software:

1. Message Broker - Provides the communication infrastructure.
2. Fabric Registry - Holds information about the current deployment, such as all nodes deployed, all assets, routing information and tasks. Deployed in the form of a database.
3. Fabric Manager - The main service on the node to track the status of connected sensors, establish communication channels, provide a container for processing, plug-ins and to extends the capabilities of the Fabric.

Fabric runs on a Publish/Subscribe model, a sensing requirement is sent to a messaging broker as a subscription and this is distributed through all Fabric nodes and, thus, all sensor nodes. Sensor nodes then publish their data and the relevant data is sent to all applications that have subscribed to the data.

The plugin structure of Fabric makes it stand out from existing middlewares, allowing its functionality to be extended through web interfaces.

Because Fabric has been developed for military purposes that cross countries, policy enforcement has been implemented to restrict access to the granularity of sensed data but these access levels do not simply apply to a military context. Using our motivating scenario, researchers and professors should see animal images whereas the Sabah Wildlife Department should see images of hunters and people in the forest.

GSN

The Global Sensor Networks (GSN) is a middleware that has been developed to manage heterogeneous sensor networks and be suitable for those without any technical knowledge [2].

GSN provides hardware abstraction through the use of *virtual sensors*, a data stream that abstracts implementation details from the actual sensed data. A virtual sensor can be comprised of many streams and it can even consist of many virtual sensors.

Virtual sensors are described using XML, with tags that consist of meta-data for the sensor, the structure of the incoming data stream, SQL queries for processing the incoming data and querying times. What makes GSN stand out is that virtual sensors do not have to be sensors deployed within your network, or even sensors at all, some examples of GSN show virtual sensors being added that read in data from the weather websites. This also means that the underlying structure of the network is irrelevant to GSN, as well as the physical locations of the nodes. Unlike some middlewares that have an expectation of how data will be routed, GSN is decoupled from the routing protocol, allowing them to act independently.

GSN is completely open source and, while it does not provide the plug-in architecture that is available in Fabric, the Java code can be modified to suit a specific deployment.

Figure 2.2 outlines the architecture of GSN, showing that the virtual sensors are stored on a central node and their inputs are managed and stored. GSN also comes bundled with a web interface to show all active sensors and their most recent recordings, as well as the implementation of web services to access the data outside of the interface.

Data from virtual sensors pass through the virtual sensor manager to the storage layer. Once the data has been stored, the query manager is invoked and queries are loaded from the repository and executed by the manager. The results of the queries are then handled by the notification manager and also made available to the web interface. Notifications can be extended to support many different forms of communication, such as SMS, email or web

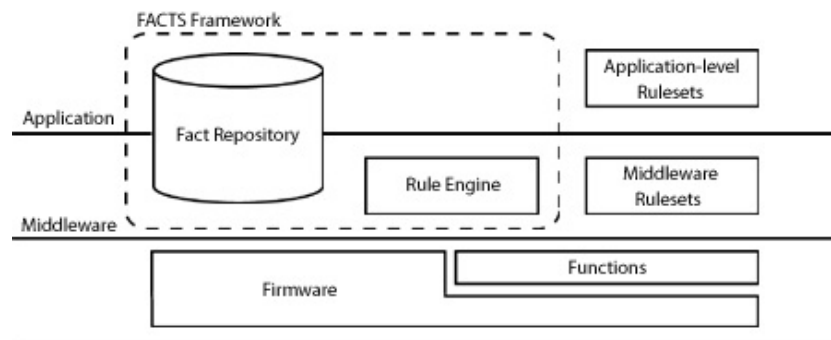


Figure 2.1: FACTS Architecture

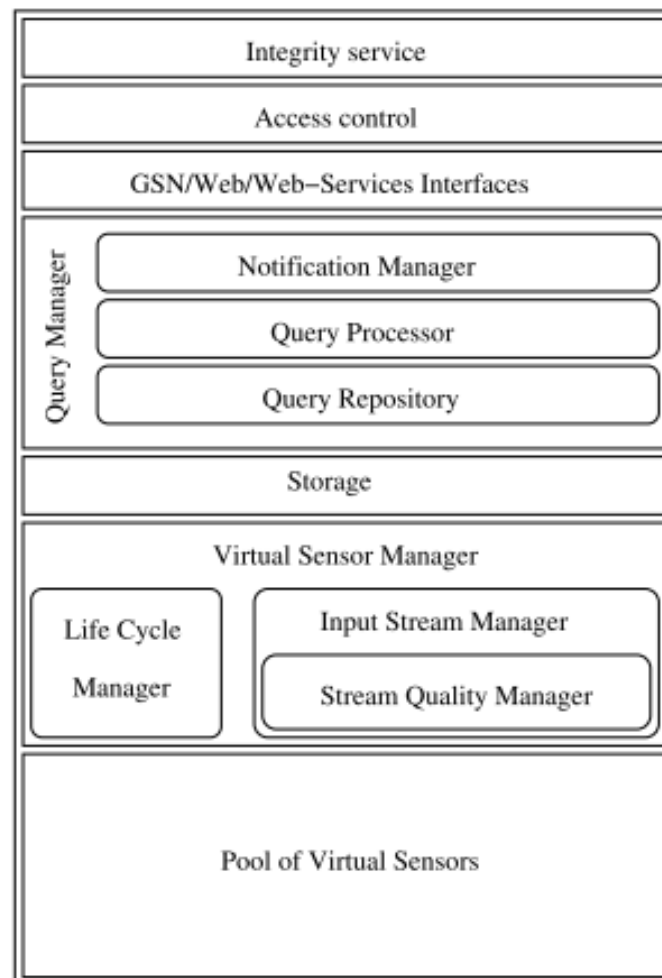


Figure 2.2: GSN Architecture

services.

Virtual sensors do not natively support all hardware, although new virtual sensors can be described using XML, and there may be a need to implement an entirely new virtual sensor. In this case, technical knowledge is required, and new sensors can be implemented through use of the Java programming language. This provides more control over the use of XML and allows users to specify how sensed data is stored in a database, use external libraries to receive proprietary data, specify processing workflows before the data is stored or implement new notification methods for the users of the network.

To show the simplicity of a basic virtual sensor, [1] describes a temperature sensor that we reproduce here in Listing ???. The file is human-readable and has a shallower learning curve than programming languages, with tags that explain what data they contain. In this example, the output structure shows that only a temperature reading is received and that the data should be stored permanently. The stream source specifies the content of the stream and the query details the standard query that should be used to extract data from GSN.

```
<life-cycle pool-size="10" />
<output-structure>
    <field name="TEMPERATURE" type="integer"/>
</output-structure>
<storage permanent-storage="true" size="10s" />
<input-stream name="dummy" rate="100" >
<stream-source alias="src1" sampling-rate="1" storage-
    size="1h">
<address wrapper="remote"> <predicate key="type" val="
    temperature" /> <predicate key="location" val="bc143
    " /> </address>
<query>select avg(temperature) from WRAPPER</query>
</stream-source>
<query>select * from src1</query>
</input-stream>
\caption{Virtual Temperature Sensor}
```

The modularity and flexibility of GSN makes it different to existing middlewares as it has not been designed for any specific hardware and modules of the middleware can be replaced, such as the database.

2.4 Biodiversity Sensor Networks

In this section we will cover existing WSNs that are related to our motivating scenario or, more specifically, biodiversity focussed WSNs that have been deployed to monitor wildlife and/or the environment. WSNs for habitat, and wildlife, monitoring are especially important because these are areas that often need to be untouched by humans. Areas with high human disturbance can influence the abundance of species and some habitats, i.e. underground burrows, may be impossible to monitor without destruction.

One of the most well known WSNs to monitor habitat is the network deployed on Great Duck Island (GDI), an island off the coast of Maine, USA. A network consisting of 32 nodes was deployed to monitor a bird, known as the Leachs Storm Petrel [41]. This network used a clustering approach for groups of nodes to send data to a gateway, which would then route it back to the base station. The base station, located a few kilometres away on the island, has internet access and uploads the data to allow users to browse and process the data.

A multihop approach was used here as they found that, for sufficient coverage, single hop connectivity would not cover all of the island. Acrylic enclosures were developed to ensure the nodes were weatherproofed for the conditions of the island, while maintaining the functionality of each sensor and not impeding transmission range. While the nodes, their casing and their sensors have been designed specifically for the deployment on GDI, the success of the network, running for 123 days in the early stages of WSN research [60], shows that this approach can be used elsewhere with similar effects; allowing hard to monitor and/or inaccessible areas to be continuously monitored.

On a smaller scale, INternet-Sensor InteGration for HabitaT monitoring (INSIGHT) is a single-hop WSN that allows remote access for data and re-configuring of nodes [19]. While this network does use commercial hardware, their findings do show that their nodes could survive for 160 days on a single battery, supporting their claim that a single hop network allows for a longer network lifetime.

The key feature of this network is the ability for humans to remotely set reporting thresholds for sensor nodes. This means a user can prolong the lifetime of nodes by limiting the threshold they report on, as well as the fact that these thresholds are a way for users to add knowledge, albeit primitive, into a network.

While there is research on cameras used to monitor animals [37, 3], these networks are generally cameras deployed with their memory cards manually retrieved and processed. In recent years, however, the use of wireless technologies and image-based WSNs has increased, [25] uses wireless cameras to monitor the movement of animals between roads. Using commercial hardware and controlled sleep scheduling, this solution employs the use of nodes to detect movement and wake up more power-hungry camera nodes. While the nodes are wireless, the distance of the network from civilisation means that the data does still need to be collected manually and uploaded to a computer.

Due to the advent of smartphones and tablets, as well as the improvements in 3G technology, projects taking advantage of more modern technologies have grown in popularity. Using 3G enabled cameras, [76] have deployed a number of devices in locations all over the world, such as: Kenya, Indonesia and the USA. The images captured are transmitted to a server and a website allows the general public to not only see the images in near real-time, but to classify the images as well. This crowdsourcing of collective knowledge lets people, that may not have domain knowledge, vote on an image and those votes are used to make classification easier.

Over the past fifteen years, WSNs have grown from a concept to a real solution for monitoring the habitats, movements and eating habits of wildlife all over the world. Whether it is using GPS collars to monitor the movement

of cattle [35], monitoring animal habitats on a remote island or using cameras to capture the animals themselves, the popularity of these networks has grown considerably and advances in technology have allowed these networks to be deployed in places that humans cannot.

2.5 Local and Global Knowledge

The environment of a sensor network is rich and varied and we believe that patterns in the data sensed can be used to inform the network on decisions surrounding the transmission and processing of newly sensed data. As our research began, we simply called this knowledge but, as our work continued, it became apparent that it could be split further.

While we believe that we are the first to use the concept of local and global knowledge within the wireless sensor network domain, the terms have been around for many years. In 1999, a book that referred to local knowledge as *indigenous knowledge* defined local knowledge as systematic information that remains in the informal sector, usually unwritten and preserved in oral traditions rather than text [56].

Over the past twenty years, local knowledge has been used in various contexts, from researching lending and the credit market [57] to extracting local knowledge from natives to improve farming techniques [20]. This research, as well as work that will be covered later, showed us that there are two kinds of knowledge: global and local.

It was from agriculture research that we were able to refine our definition of local knowledge, [34] defines local knowledge as knowledge that farmers have derived locally through experience and experimentation. They also say that indigenous knowledge is different in that it is culturally specific. From this definition, as well as our work with our motivating scenario, we were able to generalise the definition and expand upon it.

We now define local knowledge as *knowledge of an area, held by a domain expert, that has been gained through experience or experimentation*. This then means that global knowledge is *knowledge of an area that can be accessed by anyone, without the need to visit the area directly*. The weather of a region is

global knowledge because it can be found through a variety of media, whereas the level of a rain for a field within that region would be local knowledge, as it would require experimentation.

Using these definitions, we believe that encoding local and/or global knowledge onto sensors will inform routing decisions to make better use of the bandwidth in resource-constrained WSNs by sending data that it believes to be important first, rather than just chronologically. Patterns in the data, and knowledge of the environment surrounding a node, will allow a node to infer what the data may be classified as, automate the classification process, learn from previously sensed data and utilise global knowledge of ongoing projects within the network to determine what data is thought to be of a higher priority.

2.6 Relevant Existing Networks

In this section, we discuss existing networks that have done work relating to our research question and/or our motivating scenario. While most of the existing networks relevant to Danau Girang have already been covered in Section 2.4, there are some WSNs that are not directly related to biodiversity but have been deployed in harsh conditions or involve interdisciplinary collaboration.

2.6.1 Context-Awareness

While standard WSNs have been prevalent for many decades, new research on the Internet of Things [8] has brought about interest in context-aware sensing, in some cases this is for small wearable devices to track fitness but the applications are much broader. Here we will look at WSNs that use context to make informed routing decisions, save power, or prioritise the transmission of data.

Health

Health monitoring is one of the more obvious choices for context awareness as classifying readings can often help determine the health of someone, rather than their self-reports. AlarmNet is a WSN that uses context to provide long-term health monitoring for people in assisted-living environments.

AlarmNet employs context-awareness to learn about the activity levels of the patient and uses that knowledge to determine when changes in the readings may mean that the patient is at risk. Once the AlarmNet system has completed its learning period, deviations, from what it has recorded as the normal activities for the patient, are sent to nurses and doctors, with the idea that this information can assist with a diagnosis.

As some nodes in the system will be battery powered, AlarmNet also employs a subsystem, called the Context-Aware Power Management System (CAPM), to control the power consumption of a device based on the recorded activities of the patient. The system uses policies, based on the context, to save power for all nodes in the system. For example, the system could put mains-powered nodes into a low-power state and disable all nodes outside of the bedroom when it detects that the patient has gone to sleep.

This use of context has not only shown that it can assist with the lifetime of a network, but it can also provide valuable insight into sensed data to provide data enriched with semantics.

Wearable Devices

As wearable devices, such as the Fitbit and the Pebble smartwatch, are increasing in popularity, context-awareness is a useful tool to differentiate between the many activities that a person can undertake. The MOBILE PErsonal Trainer system (MOPET) is a wearable fitness devices that uses context to record data on jogging and fitness exercises [13].

While the project is five years old now, it is one of the earliest proof-of-concept devices created and shows how simple rules applied to sensor readings can be used to apply context. For example, the device consists of a GPS sensor and, when active, it is constantly recording positions. Using

pairs of points, it is able to calculate the speed and, if the speed is consistent with jogging, then it records a running exercise.

Fitness is not the only purpose for wearable computing, the eWatch is an early design for a *smartwatch* that uses a microphone and light sensor to record the locations that the user visits, storing previous recordings in flash memory and matching them with current recordings [44].

UNETS

*UNETS is tiered and context aware

2.6.2 Harsh Environments

There are a number of situations where we may want to record data in an environment that is not safe for humans, such as a volcano [67], or that may be difficult for electronics to survive. In these cases, special considerations must be made during the design and deployment of the WSN, in order to ensure maximum network lifetime with reliable readings.

GLACSWEB

Glacsweb is a sensor network to monitor the rate that which glaciers are melting. Deployed in Norway, specially designed sensors have been drilled into glaciers to monitor pressure, temperature, orientation and strain. Due to the high pressure and exposure to moisture, a polyester casing was used so that, once bonded, the node inside would not be recoverable.

Reventador

Volcano Reventador is in northern Ecuador and a WSN has been deployed on there to monitor eruptions. Similar to Glacsweb, weatherproof enclosures were used to prevent ash and moisture from breaking the sensors and long-range external antenna mounted to a pole was used to achieve communications over large distances when wireless communications have proven to be difficult [67].

Rainforest

There have been many studies on how the rainforest affects the range and quality of wireless links [24, 66, 4]. In [24], the humidity was shown to reduce 802.11 range by up to 78% and [66] explains that periods of rainfall reduce the link quality up to 100% in some cases, resulting in the loss of a hop and this could prevent data from reaching the endpoint.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter we have explored the components that make a WSN, as well as some existing deployments that are relevant to our motivating scenario. Sensor middlewares have come a long way in the past decade and increased capabilities for sensor nodes have allowed for more intense processing to be carried out before any data is seen by a human. Context is now used on sensor nodes to infer the activity it is undertaking or even to determine when it should wake to sample.

Local knowledge is not a new concept and it has been used for many years to extract information from indigenous people and in industry to adapt their processes to a local area, such as farming. However, we believe that our work is the first to apply local knowledge in the context of WSNs, but context-aware sensor networks support our hypothesis that knowledge of its surroundings, or of the data it has sensed, can improve network performance.

The two primary components of a WSN that could be injected with local knowledge is the middleware and the routing protocol, each providing different benefits. Existing work has shown middleware that uses context-awareness can use that to make global changes to the network, such as power management, whereas routing protocols affect the data that is sampled and sent to the endpoint(s) of the network, such as adaptive thresholds.

One issue in proving this hypothesis is the deployment of a network that utilises local knowledge. The deployment environment of our motivating scenario is not only interdisciplinary, it is in a region that is humid, dynamic and dense. Existing research has shown that the deployment of a WSN in

these considerations means that range will be greatly reduced and changes in humidity can prevent communication altogether, as well as moisture affecting the hardware itself. To deploy a network, hardware must be adapted and the right medium must be chosen in order to maximise link quality and minimise dropped connections.

In Chapter 2, we show how we used this research, as well as our own findings, to choose suitable hardware and experiments, that were informed by previous rainforest range tests in the literature, supported our choice for transmission medium.

Chapter 3

Technical

In this chapter, we explain our motivating scenario in more detail, explore the sensor hardware that we researched and outline the results of experiments we undertook in the Malaysian rainforest. As highlighted in Section 1.2, we have been working with Cardiff University School of Bioscience to design and deploy a WSN that utilises local knowledge, using an area of rainforest in Malaysia owned by the Sabah Wildlife Department, called Danau Girang.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. Section ?? explains what we aimed to deploy in Danau Girang and what our considerations were. Section ?? introduces sensor hardware that is in use today and details the choices we made. Section ?? details the transmission medium choices we tried and also shows the results of experiments performed in both the UK and Malaysia. Finally, Section ?? summarises our findings and explains the choices we made for the sensor nodes we used in DG.

3.1 Danau Girang

Based in Sabah, Malaysia, Danau Girang is a field centre located in Lot 6 of the Lower Kinabatangan Wildlife Sanctuary (LKWS), surrounded by secondary rainforest that had been logged up until the 1970s. Experiencing typical wet and dry seasons, the LKWS can receive more than 500mm of rainfall during the rainy season, dropping to lows of around 150mm during

the dry seasons [64], and up to 100% humidity all year round.

Danau Girang is uniquely situated in a rainforest corridor that joins two areas of rainforest together, with the corridor surrounded by palm oil fields on each side. Because of this, animals use the corridor to move between the rainforest regions and some use it to enter the palm oil plantation for new feeding grounds. This gives Danau Girang insight into the movement patterns of these animals in the corridor as well as in the rainforest itself, with a wide variety of species that are not commonly seen in other tropical regions of the world. Due to the remote nature of the centre, power is provided by a set of diesel generators which, typically, provide power from 10 am to 1 pm and 5pm to 11pm daily. Wireless Internet access is provided by satellite with speeds comparable to that of 56k, although the upload speeds are considerably faster than downloads.

As outlined in Section 1.2, the corridor monitoring programme is a scheme that has been in place for more than five years to use wildlife cameras to track the movement of animals through the corridor and to capture species that are rare or unique to South-East Asia, such as the Bornean Clouded Leopard or Sun Bear. Currently, the use of Reconyx Hyperfire HC500 cameras are being used [51]. These are standalone cameras that store a pre-defined set of images to an SD card on each trigger, which is triggered by an infrared (IR) motion sensor when the beam is broken.

Images must be collected manually every two weeks from the cameras and the batteries are changed at that point as well, although a typical charge should last three months. The cameras are equipped with watertight casing but, due to the humidity and the opening of the cameras every 2 weeks, silica gel is used to prevent moisture inside the camera. We believe that humidity also reduces the battery life, as the charge drops from three months to around three weeks within the first few months of usage. However, the lack of constant power availability could also negatively impact the charge cycles of the batteries when at the field centre, reducing their capacity. Each unit is secured to a tree and more dangerous sites, such as known elephant paths, have protective cases as well.

In 2010, twenty cameras were deployed for six month periods and then

relocated based on the needs of the projects at that time. As of 2013, there are now ninety with a view to expand and dozens of projects within the field centre use the images gathered from these cameras. Initially, it was the job of visiting research students to collect the images but, since the number of deployed cameras has grown, full-time staff have been taken on to maintain them.

Our belief is that we can use the LKWS, and the locations of the existing cameras, to deploy a WSN that uses local knowledge gained from the researchers at DG to automate the collection of images, improve the battery life by not exposing the internals of the camera to the elements so often and, most important, prioritise the flow of data through the network by in-network processing.

Annual visits, lasting three weeks, have been made to DG to test out hardware, software and wireless choices, in an effort to optimise the network. These visits have also been used to extract local knowledge from the area and researchers, by semi-structured interviews and watching them work.

3.2 Hardware

Before any visits were made to DG, meetings with staff members of the field centre were held in order to gain a better understanding of the environment and the project. This is where we were alerted to the humidity of the region and the fact that the failure rate of the Reconyx cameras has been as high as thirty per cent.

Reconyx cameras have no external interface support and the only way to access the images is through the removable SD card, because of this there is no way of attaching external sensor hardware to the existing cameras. In-network processing is an important requirement for our WSN and this did limit our choices to nodes that are computationally capable than more common sensors, such as the IMote 2 [46].

In this section, we detail our research into suitable sensor hardware that met the following requirements:

1. Able to perform processing of images and metadata
2. Common interface availability (Serial, USB)
3. Wireless enabled
4. Battery-powered
5. Expandable memory

This section also details the modifications we made to the devices in order to ensure they would survive in a humid environment.

3.2.1 Pandaboard

Texas Instruments supported the development of a reference Single Board Computer (SBC) that had specs similar to that of a modern smartphone and was capable of running desktop Linux, known as the Pandaboard [30]. A dual core 1GhZ ARM processor with 1GB of RAM, support for external storage, expansion ports, USB, Wi-Fi and Bluetooth in a board the size of two credit cards can be a powerful addition to a data heavy WSN, especially one that deals with images.

There is no mention of Pandaboards in the literature being used in WSNs but, the low power of the system and advanced capabilities, make it suitable for processing and transmitting data simultaneously.

3.2.2 IGEP v2

The IGEP v2 is another ARM based SBC that uses a 1GhZ single core processor with 512MB RAM and similar connectivity features to the Pandaboard, but around half the size. This does result in a reduced power draw and the device is still capable of running desktop Linux.

Due to the smaller size, and easier commercial availability, the IGEP has been used as a sensor node to record, process and send readings from multiple devices, such as air temperature, GPS and oxygen saturation as part of environmental monitoring [52]. In their research, they found that the

IGEP achieved 9.1 hours of uptime using a 4000mAH battery, a capacity used in many modern smartphones.

3.2.3 Waspnote

The Waspnote is a general purpose sensing board that is designed to allow plug-and-play connectivity for multiple sensor modules. The node can be programmed with C++, using the prepackaged SDK. The processing power is not comparable to the more powerful SBCs, but the 600mAh battery is reported to be three months and the size is much smaller [39].

One of the benefits of the Waspnote is that they are commercially available with an actively maintained programming environment.

3.3 Transmission Medium

In this section, we explain the experiments we carried out to test the performance of different transmission media in the UK as well as the Malaysian rainforest. While range is the most important feature, a data rate that can handle hundreds of large readings in a day is a requirement. Our motivating scenario is focussed on the transmission of sets of 3 images for every trigger; where a sensor can trigger hundreds of times in a day.

3.3.1 Wi-Fi

Wi-Fi was already available on our initial test platforms and the high data rate made it suitable for sending a large volume of images in a short period. We knew that current cameras deployed in DG were up to 1km apart and we did not expect to cover that range completely, but we did anticipate that coverage with intermediate nodes.

Research, outlined in Section 2.1.4, showed us that the rainforest could reduce the range by up to 78% and the ideal maximum range of 2.4GhZ Wi-Fi is 100m [21].

We tested Wi-Fi range using two IGEP boards, powered by 4 D Cell batteries and running a lightweight Linux operating system. The IGEP nodes

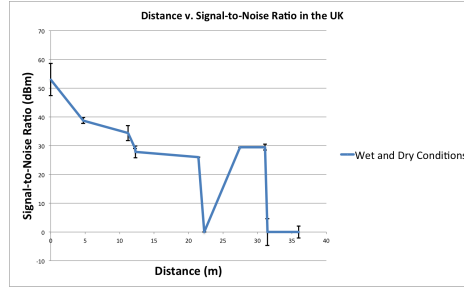


Figure 3.1: Signal-to-Noise Ratio for Wi-Fi in UK Woodland

we used did not have any additional hardware and the nodes were tested without the use of an external antenna. A Java application was written to periodically scan for available networks and store those results in a text file. One IGEP board was set as the base station and attached to a tree, at the same height it would be if it was attached to a camera, and another was walked to specified points around the base station at defined locations. These locations were chosen to include as many distances as possible and as many different forms of obstacle between the searching node and the base station, such as: line of sight (LOS), medium vegetation or thick trees.

This experiment was run in a wooded area in the UK and in the rainforest at DG. The specified maximum range of 802.11g is 120m. When considering attenuation and obstacles we were expecting the signal to be reduced by up to 50% in the UK. However, we found that we received a maximum range of 30m, with LOS. Figure 3.1 shows the results we experienced, while testing in Cardiff, some of the drops in signal can be attributed to dense foliage and readings that were not LOS, but a maximum range of 31m, with an SNR of 29.5 dBm, is less than we expected, as the UK does not experience high humidity often.

The graph does show a drop at 22m, this was due to the dense foliage that restricted the LOS between the base station and the receiving node, with five runs of this test we observed the same results. The primary aim of this experiment was to prove the viability of Wi-Fi and to ensure our application functioned as intended, which it did. Further experiments could have been run to remove the anomaly but the results of the experiments in

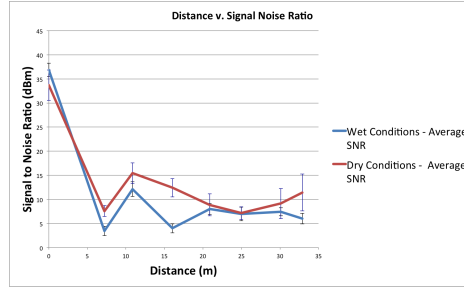


Figure 3.2: Signal-to-Noise Ratio for Wi-Fi in Malaysian Rainforest

Danau Girang were the focus.

Despite the poor range from the tests in the UK, it was consistent with other studies reporting signal degradation of up to 78% in areas with moderate foliage. We visited Danau Girang in 2011 to gather the requirements of the network and ensure the hardware is able to survive the humidity. Range experiments were run in the rainforest to see if a more humid environment impacts range any further, Figure 3.2 shows this.

Comparing figures 3.1 and 3.2 shows that the maximum distance to receive a signal is approximately the same in Malaysia as it is in the UK. There are more signal drops but this seems to be due to denser foliage blocking the line of sight. However, it does suggest that the humid environment of the rainforest does not have a significant impact on the received signal. It is clear that the denser rainforest does impact the signal-to-noise ratio in a much shorter distance from the base station but a link is still made, allowing for a successful transmission of data.

Due to the poor results of these experiments we researched alternative methods to increase the range without impacting the environment the network is to be deployed in. We considered using intermediate nodes, not attached to cameras, to account for the lack of range but, because some cameras can be up to 1km apart, we would need more than 30 nodes to create a connection between two locations.

We also researched wireless technologies that are more common in sensor networks. This does mean that the data rate is not as high as Wi-Fi and error correction in packet streams is not always as robust, but it is more

suitable to sensor networks, using less power and providing longer range.

Finally, we considered using the researchers or animals at Danau Girang, as ‘data mules’, creating temporary links between nodes while they are in the forest. However, the trip to Danau Girang yielded the information that researchers generally do not cover those distances in the forest and data delivery would be sporadic.

Although the range of Wi-Fi is poor, for our requirements, in both Malaysia and the UK, it did show that the results we experience in the UK are very similar to the results in Malaysia. This means that tests run in the UK should be indicative of what we can expect in Danau Girang.

3.3.2 Digimesh

Due to the poor range results of Wi-Fi, we created a second prototype of the network, using Digimesh. Digimesh is a proprietary wireless protocol, based on the 802.15.4 standard and designed for devices with limited power. Using the same frequency as Wi-Fi, Digimesh has been reported to provide 7km of range, with a data rate of 250kbps.

In our prototype implementation, we are using Wasp mote sensor boards [?], a general purpose node that is capable of transmitting through various communication mediums. Our Wasp motes are provided with Digimesh modules and a 2GB SD card to store sensed data.

When testing the range of the Wasp motes, we followed a similar method to that which is outlined in Section ???. One board is in a fixed location and running a C++ application to poll for nodes in the network, once a node is found it sends a message to the node every 10 seconds. The second board is set to scan the network and receive packets as soon as a base node is found, this node is then moved to different locations.

The receiving node prints out variables related to the received packet, such as: RSSI, source MAC address and packet ID. However, not all packets are received so the RSSI can display 0 if there are errors reading or if packet collision occurs. We found this to affect the results and have just used the two nodes to identify the maximum distance they can be apart, while maintaining

a stable connection.

Initial experiments were run in a moderately vegetated area in the UK which yielded 497m of range. Limitations with buildings preventing us from testing any further but the signal strength still proved to be strong.

The initial results for the range tests proved positive and Digimesh does seem to be a viable solution to account for the lack of range when using Wi-Fi. As the frequency is the same as 802.11g, thus licensing it for worldwide use, we expected similar results in Danau Girang..

Experiments were run in 2 areas of the rainforest around Danau Girang and the results yielded were not the same as we experienced in the UK, and thick vegetation proved to have a significant impact on the range, reducing it by almost 50%.

In more open areas of the rainforest, we achieved 199m on average, more dense regions of the forest reduced this to 102m on average. While these results are not as high as we achieved in the UK, they are still suitable to use Digimesh in the deployment of a WSN. This could be because we were using low-gain antennas and little configuration had been made on the Digimesh radio.

3.3.3 Adapting for Harsh Environments

All of the hardware that we used for experiments had their components exposed and would have become compromised if moisture came in contact with them. To protect them from this, we used waterproof cases with a protective foam inside, known as Pelican cases, to keep the nodes watertight, but still allowing airflow, shown in Figure 3.3. External antenna can be fed through the lip of the case, using thin cable, ensuring that the range of the transmissions is not affected by the case.

3.3.4 Commercial Solution

Using commercial hardware, either bespoke for sensing or more general-purpose, our experiments showed that the range experienced in practice is much less than what is expected. Due to the lack of available interfaces



Figure 3.3: Pelican Waterproof Case

available on the Reconyx cameras in use at Danau Girang, any sensor node would have to be connected to an external camera. Because of these factors, we began to look into commercial solutions that combined wildlife cameras with wireless transmission capabilities. -

3.4 Software

3.4.1 Triton

3.4.2 ODACH

3.5 Summary

In this chapter, we have shown the current hardware choices available for more computationally capable sensors and detailed our experimental results on how rainforest environments impact wireless transmissions. Although technologies, such as Wi-Fi, provide a high data rate, their range is limited and not suitable for sparse sensor networks; especially in a humid environment. Newer technologies, designed for long-range communication in sensor networks, are becoming increasingly more viable and, while they do have lower data rates and less robust protocols, they are more suitable for a resource constrained WSN that requires minimal power draw when transmitting. Using general-purpose hardware also means that there is no protection

against water, humidity and animal or human intervention. We have adapted existing waterproof cases to suit our needs and two week deployments have shown that they are able to prevent any moisture from entering the case.

Chapter 4

Architecture

In this chapter, we explain our proposed network architecture that uses local and global knowledge to make informed routing decisions and to classify sensed data within the network. Our approach, K-HAS, uses a three tiered approach with each subsequent tier providing increased knowledge processing capabilities.

We believe that sensors capable of processing knowledge will provide a more efficient network and be able to prioritise data delivery that it believes to be important, rather than chronologically. We also believe that human input is a valuable learning process for such a network and feedback, from humans, on data that has been classified can be used to inform future classifications. To prove this, we have developed an architecture that uses different levels of knowledge processing throughout the network, the Knowledge-based Hierarchical Architecture for Sensing (K-HAS).

The rest of this chapter is structured as follows. Section 1 outlines the main aims of K-HAS and what it is capable of that typical sensor networks are not. Section 2 introduces an example, from our motivating scenario, that will be used to better explain each tier of the architecture. Section 3 explains the data collection tier. Section 4 explains the data processing tier. Section 5 explains the data aggregation tier. Section 6 concludes the chapter and summarises the key features of K-HAS.

4.1 K-HAS

K-HAS has been designed as an architecture for WSNs that is able to handle changes in the data sensed, as well as the structure of the network. By pushing knowledge bases out to the edge of the network, all nodes in the network have some awareness of the data they are sensing, as well as how important it is, based on the current projects that the network is involved in. This is achieved by using rules with different levels of granularity based on the knowledge processing capabilities of that tier.

4.1.1 Data Collection

The data collection (DC) tier is a very similar to standard nodes in a typical WSN, using hardware that has similar capabilities. These DC nodes are deployed at the edge of the network and tasked with sensing their environment, pre-processing the sensed data and using each other to relay data to the next tier.

DC nodes are capable of performing processing on data, such as the time it was recorded and its size, but their limited knowledge processing capabilities allow them to have an increased battery life and reduced size, making them suitable for a variety of deployments.

Knowledge Base

Reduced knowledge processing capabilities and low memory restrict the knowledge that these nodes can hold and they are limited to a static knowledge base that is encoded at the time of deployment. DC nodes only perform simple operations on the properties and content of the data that they sense, such as the time it was recorded, the location and its size. For more complex data, such as images and video, DC nodes do not possess the computational power required to process them and instead use the metadata associated. Unlike modern rule engines, these static rules do not use forward chaining and the outcome of one rule does not cause the rules to be fired again. Listing ?? shows an example of some of the rules in the knowledge base.

Listing 4.1: Example DC Node Rules

```
if (reading.dateCreated.month == J U N E AND reading.  
    timeCreated.between(17:00, 19:00)  
    data.write( P o t e n t i a l O t t e r s i g h t i n g )  
  
if (reading.temp == 37 AND reading.timeCreated.between  
    (01:00, 05:00)  
    data.write( P o t e n t i a l L e o p a r d s i g h t i n g )  
    data.write( P R I O R I T Y = H I G H )
```

When the data is recorded by the DC node, the knowledge base is fired and inferences are made about the contents of the data. Each DC node has a different knowledge base encoded based on the local knowledge of the area that it is deployed in. For example, a node deployed on the bank of a river would have a different knowledge base to a node deployed in the fields of a plantation.

Once a trigger has been processed, the data is packaged and then sent on to the Data Processing (DP) node.

4.1.2 Data Processing

DP nodes act as cluster heads of the network, serving a subset of all deployed DC nodes. When data is sensed, it is forwarded through all DC nodes to the DP node that is tasked with serving the originating DC node. These nodes have more knowledge-processing capabilities than a DC node and do not typically do any direct sensing.

Due to the greater capabilities, DP nodes have a much shorter battery life and a network typically consists of fewer DP nodes. This also allows DP nodes to run a complete rule engine and process complex data. When a DP node receives data, it processes everything associated, this includes metadata, the data itself and the inferences made by the DC node. If the DC node infers that the data is of a higher priority, then this data is processed first.

In our current implementation, DP nodes use two different radios, a Zig-bee radio to allow long range communication from DC nodes and a Wi-Fi radio that provides short range communication that allows for higher data rates.

Knowledge Base

In our motivating scenario the network is image-based, this means that the DP node would perform image processing, as well as processing the image metadata. The increased knowledge processing capabilities allow DP nodes to run rules dynamically, learning from the sensed data and providing classifications that change based on changes in the environment. For example, if a DP node has not seen an elephant before, and it is not aware of the object in the image, then it will await a human classification. The node will then record the time period that it receives elephant pictures, i.e. June to July, and become more alert the following year. Similarly, the node will know not to look for pictures of nocturnal animals during the day. This local knowledge allows processing power to be saved and, thus, time; this ensures that the processing of sensed data is optimised as much as possible in order to reduce the time it spends in the network.

The rule engine used in our current implementation is Drools, a Java based rule engine that allows for rules to be defined in *.drl* files and these can be loaded dynamically into a knowledge base. This flexibility allows to be changed on the fly without the need to restart the device, or even require human access, as all of this can be achieved through network communication.

Upon receiving sensed data from a DC node, the rule base is fired on the metadata of each file received. If the rules determine that the data is of interest or, in the best case scenario, provides a classification, then the data is packaged and sent on to the Data Aggregation (DA) node.

4.1.3 Data Aggregation

Placed at the edge of the network, these are nodes with high knowledge-processing capabilities and would be accessible by users of the network. When

DA nodes receive sensed data, it is unpacked and stored in a folder that represents the node that it originated from.

Any information added by the DP node is parsed and classifications are extracted. If a classification is found, it is stored and the DA node checks for any active projects that contain the classification. If a match is found then all users involved in the project are informed via their preferred method of communication. Using the motivating scenario as an example, the people involved with projects could be researchers and professors and they may be looking for images of leopards, requesting to be informed via Twitter.

All sensed data received, regardless of whether it has been classified, is accessible through a web interface hosted by each DA node. The interface shows all of the sensed data from each deployment, along with the associated classification. More importantly, it allows users to classify the data using a voting system. Users have roles which give them different privileges within the system. Normal users are able to vote and the majority vote is seen to be the current classification.

However, privileged users are able to confirm a classification and prevent any further votes. Once a classification has been confirmed, it is then sent back to the DP node it originated from. If the classification made by a user is different to the one inferred by the node, then it updates its knowledge base and acknowledges receipt.

Knowledge Base

DA nodes do not typically experience the resource constraints that DC and DP nodes must compensate for. Because of this, they hold a global knowledge that contains a history of all observations made by all nodes, as well as the location and deployment times of all nodes in the network.

While DC do not store any of the observations they capture, and DP nodes only store part of the observation that can be used in future classifications, DA nodes store the complete observation made by every DC node, as well as any extra data that is added by users upon receiving the sensed data.

As well as this, DA nodes provide administrative operations on the network, such as the recording of node locations, time of deployment and viewing all active nodes. This allows the DA node to monitor active nodes and alert users if a node has not sent any data in a while.

4.2 Technological Components

In this section, we describe the technologies used in every layer of K-HAS and how they integrate in order to use local knowledge based on their respective knowledge processing capabilities. The majority of components, both hardware and software, used in K-HAS are used so they are applicable for any WSN, but some choices have been made to remain in line with our motivating scenario and, thus, are more specifically suited for the capture of scientific observations.

4.2.1 Data Standard

To pass sensed data through the network, we first had to choose a standard format that would allow us to encode the sensed data, as well as enrich it with inferences made through processing. Darwin Core (DwC) is a body of standards with predefined terms that allows for the sharing of biodiversity occurrences through the means of XML and CSV data files [68].

The Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF) indexes more than 300 million Darwin Core records published by organisations all over the web, allowing datasets that were previously siloed from the public to be accessed by both human and machine. The main of Darwin Core is to provide a common language for sharing biodiversity data that reuses standards from other domains [69].

DwC follows a star record structure, where a record can contain many occurrences, which is the recording of a species in nature or in a dataset. In an occurrence, there is an *event*, a recording of a species in space and time, enriched with other terms such as *identification* and *location*. The core files in a Darwin Core archive are:

1. Meta.xml
2. EML.xml
3. Data files

Ecological Metadata Language (EML) is a metadata used by ecologists and the language is used to describe projects and those involved. This file acts as a form of certificate and descriptor as to what the data is related to and who owns it. The XML file, shown in Listing 5.2, outlines a sample project and users involved in the project.

Listing 4.2: Darwin Core: EML.xml

```
<?xml version='1.0' encoding='utf-8'?>
<eml:eml xmlns:eml="eml://ecoinformatics.org/eml-2.1.1"
  xmlns:md="eml://ecoinformatics.org/methods-2.1.1"
  xmlns:proj="eml://ecoinformatics.org/project-2.1.1"
  xmlns:d="eml://ecoinformatics.org/dataset-2.1.1"
  xmlns:res="eml://ecoinformatics.org/resource-2.1.1"
  xmlns:xsi="http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema-
    instance"
  xmlns:dc="http://purl.org/dc/terms/"
  packageId="e71fda1c-dcb9-4eae-81a9-183114978e44/eml
    -1.xml" system="GBIF-IPT" scope="system">
<dataset>
  <alternateIdentifier>e71fda1c-dcb9-4eae-81a9
    -183114978e44</alternateIdentifier>
  <title>Images from Danau Girang during the PTY
    Project 2011-12</title>
  <creator>
    <individualName>
      <givenName>Christopher</givenName>
      <surName>Gwilliams</surName>
    </individualName>
```

```

<organizationName>Cardiff University</
organizationName>
<positionName>PhD</positionName>
<address>
<city>Cardiff</city>

```

The core file, *meta.xml*, shown in Listing 5.3 lists the files that contains the actual sensed data, as well as the terms used to describe it. Examples include: date, time, location, type of data, filename and species contained.

Listing 4.3: Darwin Core: meta.xml

```

<?xml version="1.0" encoding='utf-8'?>
<archive xmlns="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/text/" metadata=
  "eml.xml">
  <core encoding="UTF-8" linesTerminatedBy="\n"
    fieldsTerminatedBy="," fieldsEnclosedBy="'"
    ignoreHeaderLines="1" rowType="http://rs.
    tdwg.org/dwc/terms/Occurrence">
    <files>
      <location>set.csv</location>
    </files>
    <id index="0"/>
    <field index="0" term="http://rs.tdwg.
      org/dwc/terms/occurrenceID"/>
    <field index="1" term="http://rs.tdwg.
      org/dwc/terms/basisOfRecord"/>
    <field index="2" term="http://rs.tdwg.
      org/dwc/terms/recordedBy"/>
    <field index="3" term="http://rs.tdwg.
      org/dwc/terms/associatedMedia"/>
    <field index="4" term="http://rs.tdwg.
      org/dwc/terms/eventDate"/>
    <field index="5" term="http://rs.tdwg.
      org/dwc/terms/eventTime"/>
  </core>
</archive>

```



```

        <field index="6" term="http://rs.tdwg.
            org/dwc/terms/locationID"/>
        <field index="7" term="http://rs.tdwg.
            org/dwc/terms/scientificName"/>
        <field index="8" term="http://rs.tdwg.
            org/dwc/terms/identifiedBy"/>
        <field index="9" term="http://rs.tdwg.
            org/dwc/terms/dateIdentified"/>
    </core>
    <extension encoding="UTF-8" linesTerminatedBy="
        \n" fieldsTerminatedBy="," fieldsEnclosedBy="
        ' ' ignoreHeaderLines="1" rowType="http://rs.
        gbif.org/terms/1.0/Image">
        <files>
            <location>images.csv</location>
        </files>
        <coreid index="0"/>
        <field index="1" term="http://purl.org/
            dc/terms/identifier"/>
    </extension>
</archive>

```

Data files contain the actual sensed data, based on how it is supported, and these files are linked in *meta.xml*. For example, temperature readings or direct human sightings would be stored in a CSV file and linked, however, images or video would require the metadata to be store in a CSV file and a filepath would be referenced in the XML. The structure of the CSV file contains a header line that matches the terms in the meta file and each line would be an observation. The terms are linked to the Darwin Core glossary so the archive can be validated and processed by a DwC archive reader.

All of these files are then archived and sent as a ZIP folder throughout the network. If the sensed data is media based, then the media is included as well. DwC archive processing libraries are included on both DP and DA

nodes.

Darwin Core is suited to K-HAS because its use in scientific observations matches our motivating scenario and the archive can be easily created by a DC node, as it does not require any heavy processing and all of the files are common formats.

4.2.2 Middleware

The knowledge-processing capabilities of DA and DP nodes are the same and this is part of what makes K-HAS different from most other WSNs; both types of node run the sensor middleware, but each for different purposes. DA nodes use the middleware for administrating the network, receiving and archiving sensed data and allowing users to provide classifications. DP nodes use it for the receiving, sending and controlling the flow of processing of sensed data before it is passed on.

Existing suitable middlewares have been detailed in Section 2.3.2 and our requirements for K-HAS were partially determined by the expertise of the users in our motivating scenario. Below is a list of our three core requirements:

Portability Heterogeneous WSNs utilise nodes with different architectures and capabilities, if middleware is to be used on the nodes it must be able to run on these varied devices.

Usability Users of K-HAS should not be expected to have knowledge of computer science or the underlying architecture, this network should be usable by almost anyone. The same must be said for the middleware as well.

Extensibility A closed-source middleware can be used, but it must then support all sensor nodes and data types, as well as receive regular updates. Open-source, or extensible, middleware can be used to add support for newer nodes.

GSN is a Java-based open-source middleware. New generic sensors can be added through XML files, while more complex sensors can be added through

custom Java classes. GSN is covered in more detail in Section 2.3.2. Because GSN can run on any architecture that supports the Java Virtual Machine (JVM) then it meets our portability requirements and the web interface to provide administrative functionality makes it usable by those without any domain knowledge. Finally, the ability to add new sensors through XML means that it can be extended by almost any user of the network with very little guidance.

4.3 Walkthrough

In this section we will explain the steps involved in the capture, and processing, of an observation when using the K-HAS architecture. Each tier is responsible for performing different actions upon the observation to ensure it is received by the DA node with an inference as to what it may contain.

4.3.1 Scenario

This walkthrough will use our motivating scenario and the type of sensed data will be images of animals in the Malaysian rainforest. In this example, we have a collection of wildlife cameras, with nodes attached to them, deployed in the forest. Projects for the rare Clouded leopard and Sun bear are currently active at Danau Girang. The Clouded leopard is a nocturnal carnivore that uses existing paths and hill trails to travel through the rainforest and the Sun bear is the smallest bear in the world and sightings are rare. It is also nocturnal and claw marks can be seen on trees that they have climbed. All of this information has been encoded onto the DP nodes and DC nodes know that images taken at night will be of a higher priority, as well as to prioritise further images at night from DC nodes that are deployed on ridges or existing trails.

4.3.2 Data Collection

A DC node is deployed along a ridge in the rainforest and consists of a wildlife camera with a wireless node attached. At 0200, the infra-red sensor detects



Figure 4.1: Clouded Leopard Image Capture

movement and the camera triggers a set of 3 images to be captured. The DC node creates the DwC archive for the observation. Terms in the observation, such as time, date, species identified and location, are added to the meta.xml file and links to CSV files that contain the data for each term. A separate CSV file is created that holds the filename of each image that was taken. The image is shown below in Figure 4.2.

The DC node runs its rules on the metadata of the images and infers that the image may contain a Clouded leopard, this is because the image was taken in the early hours of the morning and the camera is deployed on a ridge.

The inference is included in the archive and is compressed. The node then sends it through every DC node between the originating node and the DP node assigned. To achieve the long range communications in the forest, Digimesh is used; the low transfer rate does mean that an archive takes several minutes to send but it allows a distance of up to 1km.

4.3.3 Data Processing

The DP node receives the observation and it is unzipped and processed by the Darwin Core library. The images are read from the filenames provided in the CSV and processed using two methods. The EXIF tags in the image are extracted and the images themselves are processed using the Open Computer Vision (OpenCV) library. A unique feature of the DP node is that it uses two radios to allow links to both DA and DC nodes. DC nodes send archives using Digimesh, to achieve long range communication, and DA nodes use Wi-Fi, to

provide a faster transfer rate than Digimesh and a more standard method that allows other devices to connect, such as mobile phones or laptops.

EXiF

EXIF (Exchangeable Image Format) tags are written to images at the time of capture. Examples of these tags can be time, date or camera serial no. The capabilities of the camera do affect how detailed the EXIF is, for example, a camera with GPS capabilities will enrich the image with the location.

Wildlife cameras have more functionality than common digital cameras, with details like moon phase, temperature or GPS location. Some devices even include the saturation, brightness and hue of each image. These capabilities allow the EXIF to be extremely detailed and this metadata can be used to find patterns in pictures that, when accompanied by local knowledge, assist with the classification of sensed data.

In this example, the knowledge base on the DP node is aware that Clouded leopards and Sun bears are nocturnal, but Clouded leopards have previously only been seen when the temperature is between 30 to 35°C and only when the moon is not full. However, data on Sun bear is not as complete and the knowledge base only shows that the bear is nocturnal and can be seen at any time of night in any area of the rainforest. The DP node identifies that the moon phase is not full and that the temperature is 32°C, from this it determines that the image could contain either animal and it cannot make a final conclusion.

OpenCV

OpenCV is a C++ library that allows popular image processing functions to be performed on one or more images. A program, called Triton, that utilises OpenCV, is run on the set of three images. These images are converted to black and white and combined to build a background model for the complete set. The detected background is then removed and the final image is then searched for objects, where objects in the foreground will be shown with white pixels. The largest object is then found in the image and extracted to

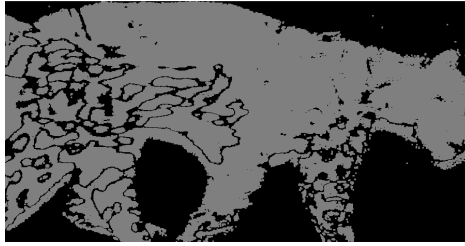


Figure 4.2: Processed Image of Clouded Leopard

create a template, shown in Figure ??.

Processed images of previously sensed images are stored on the DP node and associated with the confirmed classification, confirmed by a human or a node. Although the memory available on a DP node is typically around 32GB, this could easily fill in a matter of months if 3 full HD images were stored for every observation. Storing a single black and white template that contains a portion of the image is much more efficient and can still easily be associated with the classification made. The extracted image is then compared with the existing images, using the knowledge base to prioritise templates for comparison. In this example, nocturnal animals are prioritised and especially nocturnal animals with active projects associated. If the DP node has received an observation from the same DC node recently, then it will check for a classification on that and check for a match there first.

This observation is the first trigger from the DC node in the past few hours, so there are no recent classifications. However, processing of the metadata showed that the image was taken at night, so the DP node uses its knowledge base to match the images to templates of nocturnal animals first. Triton then finds a match to an existing template of a Clouded leopard and completes its classification.

Classification

The metadata processing of the image shows that it could be any nocturnal animal that is known to come out when the moon is not full and the temperature is 32°C. This is not a complete classification but the image processing has found a match. These findings are written into the DwC archive, us-

ing the ID of the DP node as the person that identified the image and the Clouded leopard as the species identified in the image. The archive is then zipped and sent on to the DA node.

4.3.4 Data Aggregation

Upon receiving a DwC archive, it is unarchived and processed by Darwin Core libraries, called by the middleware running on the node. The resulting archive is then inserted into a MySQL database and the files themselves are stored in a directory that maps to the DC node that captured the original observation. At the field centre, three users of the system have subscribed to updates for observations of Clouded leopards.

As the archive is processed by the library, the species is extracted and this triggers a rule to notify the subscribers. The rule then queries the database and finds their preferred method of communication. In this case, one is a lecturer and wants to be emailed while the two remaining are students and want to be notified via Twitter, a social networking website. An email is drafted that contains the time, location and content of the observation, with the images attached, and sent on to the lecturer. The students are sent a short tweet that tells them a Clouded leopard has been spotted and a link to the middle image in the sequence is provided; the middle image is used because this local knowledge has shown that it is the most likely to contain the full subject in the image.

The middleware on the node supports a web interface to allow users to perform administrative functions on the network, such as deploy a new node, on top of this there is a custom made website that shows all observations for every DC node. This allows users to log on and classify the images. In this case, the lecturer receives the email notification, reviews the attached images and clicks on the link to access the website to inform the DP node that the classification was correct. Due to the administrator position the lecturer has on the system, he is able to stop any users voting on the image and to simply confirm the classification.

If there was no classification, then users would be able to vote on the

contents and use the classification with the highest vote, or the classification made by an administrator. Once a classification has been made, it is stored in the database and written to the archive. This triggers the DA node to send that classification on to the DP node that sent the original archive. In this case, the DA node informed the DP node that it has been confirmed as a Clouded leopard and the DP node then stores the extracted image in the directory of Clouded leopard templates, to assist with future classifications.

4.4 Rules

This section explains the rules used in K-HAS in more detail, to highlight how classifications are made as well as how nodes in the network are monitored. Any examples made here relate to our motivating scenario. The rules on each node are a vital way of encoding local knowledge and a practical use to show how local knowledge, from users or previously sensed data, can be used classify newly sensed data.

In K-HAS, we use the Drools rule engine, a Java based rule management system that uses forward chaining based inference. Forward chaining starts with some data, in our case a set of images, and uses inferences rules to extract more data. We use this method to make meaningful inferences from properties of the sensed data. For example, an image taken at 8pm could be put through Drools and an inference rule will tell the system to start by looking for nocturnal animals.

4.4.1 Data Collection

As explained in Section 4.1.1, DC nodes are unable to run the Drools engine and instead utilise static rules that are encoded at the time of deployment. Instead of utilising forward chaining to draw a single conclusion, these rules are executed one by one and the outcome of one does not affect the outcome of another. An example of such rules could be a rule to determine the time of day that an image was captured (such as morning, afternoon, evening or night) or a rule to determine what animals it is more likely to be based on the

temperature and location of the node, shown in Listing 4.4. No rule engine is used by the DC node and the rules are executed in the code before the observation is archived and sent on.

Listing 4.4: Encoded Data Collection Rule

```
if img.temp > 32 && img.temp < 38 then
classification.potentialAnimals = [clouded_leopard ,
    malay_civet , sun_bear ]
if img.time > 1800 && img.time < 0500 then
classification.animalBehaviour = nocturnal
```

4.4.2 Data Processing and Data Aggregation

The increased knowledge-processing capabilities allow DP nodes to run a complete implementation of Drools, this means that forward chaining can be used and the knowledge base is dynamic, i.e. it can be updated whilst the network is deployed.

Rules are written in *drl* files that are loaded into a knowledge session. Sessions, as well as the firing of rules, are handled by the Java code. The benefit of using Drools with a Java based middleware, such as GSN, allows the simple integration of the two technologies, allowing a sensor class in GSN to insert an archive into the session and run the rules. When sensed data is received from a DC node, it is unarchived and Drools is run on the DwC files describing the original observation, the metadata, the originating DC node and the knowledge base of the DP node.

Listing 4.5 shows an example of some more simple rules that would be contained within the knowledge base. In this file, the rules use existing local knowledge with the properties of the observation to infer the contents and then update the DwC archive, or return suggestions as to what the contents may be. For example, the *Clouded Leopard Ridgeline* rule uses the location ID of the camera to match with a human description and uses local knowledge of the area and global knowledge of the time to infer that the image may contain a Clouded leopard.

Listing 4.5: Drools Rule File

```
rule "Otter River"
    when
        $dwc: DarwinCore()
        DarwinCore(DBTools.
            getLocationDescription($dwc.getOcc()
                .getLocationID()) contains "River")
        eval(TimeTools.checkTimePeriod($dwc.
            getOcc().getEventTime()) == "
            Afternoon")
    then
        System.out.println("Otter");
        int id = $dwc.getOcc().getEventID();
        Date d = new Date();
        Identification ident = new
            Identification(id, 1, d, 1);
        $dwc.setId(ident);
        System.out.println($dwc.getId());
    end

rule "Plantation Night"
    when
        $dwc: DarwinCore()
        DarwinCore(DBTools.
            getLocationDescription($dwc.getOcc()
                .getLocationID()) contains "
            Plantation")
        eval(TimeTools.checkTimePeriod($dwc.
            getOcc().getEventTime()) == "Night")
    then
        System.out.println("Sun Bear or Civet")
        ;
```

```

        end

rule "Clouded Leopard Ridgeline"
    when
        $dwc: DarwinCore()
        DarwinCore(DBTools.
            getLocationDescription($dwc.getOcc()
                .getLocationID()) contains "Ridge
                Line")
        eval(TimeTools.checkTimePeriod($dwc.
            getOcc().getEventTime()) == "Night")
    then
        System.out.println("Clouded Leopard –
            Most likely male");
    end

rule "Location Description"
    when
        $dwc: DarwinCore()
        eval($dwc.getOcc().getLocationID() == 1)
    then
        System.out.println("Occurrence in site
            1, animals here are: Clouded Leopard
            , Malay Civets and Small Mammals");
    end
end

```

These rules are very simple and only scrape the surface of the local knowledge that can be utilised, as well as how DwC archives can be effectively used to carry the data of these inferences, but it does show that Drools is a powerful rule engine and that these rules can be extended further to make full use of the knowledge base.

DA nodes use the same rule engine as DP nodes but rules are used for the post-processing of Darwin Core archives. For example, when a classified

archive is received from a DP node, Drools is run to check if the classification matches an existing project. If it does, then it searches for those that are subscribed to the project and notifies them via their selected medium. Drools can also be used to monitor the nodes deployed in the network and check their status. Rules are run to check for archives from DC nodes and, if a node has not sent an archive in a set number of days, then administrators are informed that it may have run out of battery.

More importantly, rules are vital for the exchange of knowledge between nodes in the network. If a user classifies an archive on a DA node, then rules are fired that identify the DP node that sent it and update its knowledge base so that the template it uses matches the updated classification.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter we have explained the architecture we have developed to allow knowledge to be encoded and utilised within a wireless sensor network. Using tiers of nodes, with varying levels of knowledge-processing capabilities, we can process observations within the network and deliver data that has, where possible, already been classified. Working as more of a subscribe-push method, users do not have to check a base station for new data, instead it is sent to them if it has been found to be part of a project they are subscribed to. If not, then the data is accessible to all users of the network through a web interface.

One of the key features of K-HAS is that it is not a static deployment. The knowledge that the network holds at the time of deployment will rarely be the same as the knowledge held after a few months. Humans enrich the existing knowledge base and the nodes are able to make inferences about the data they are sensing, improving their classifications the longer they are deployed.

We believe that K-HAS is an architecture that can be suited to many different applications of WSNs and its general design allows it to be adapted to new scenarios with ease.

Chapter 5

Ontology

In this chapter, we explain the ontology that we developed to formally define the structure of K-HAS, as well as the format of the sensed data that is passed through the network.

This ontology provides those wanting to use K-HAS with a representation that is easy to reuse and deploy in a number of different scenarios, or even to select parts of the ontology that meet their requirements and implement those.

5.1 Background

K-HAS was developed in order to provide a generic architecture for wireless sensor networks to utilise the local knowledge contained within their environment to process sensed data and, therefore, make more efficient use of the network bandwidth by prioritising sensed data that is deemed to be more valuable [1]. We have defined local knowledge as knowledge of an area that has been gained through experience, or experimentation.

Before we were able to implement K-HAS, we needed to model the flow of knowledge within the network. Developing an ontology for K-HAS means that we can do this, as well as provide a computer-readable model for all of the classes and components used by K-HAS, and the relationships between them.

During the development of the K-HAS ontology, we researched existing ontologies that were popular in the domains that K-HAS covered. These included scientific observations and sensor hardware.

Looking into existing ontologies, we found that there had been many surveys on representing sensors in the semantic web [17], [32], outlines the existing work. These surveys clearly highlighted that these ontologies had been split into two branches; observation-centric and sensor-centric.

Observation-centric ontologies focus on the data that is sensed, and its content; whereas sensor-centric ontologies detail the components that make up a sensor, and the operations they perform to turn sensed data into an output.

We found few ontologies that linked these concepts together to show the flow of data within the network and the role that each sensor plays in delivering this data. Because of this, we developed an aligning ontology that reuses existing ontologies, where possible, and introduces new classes that allows these ontologies to interlink.

K-HAS has been developed to be used with any sensors and is not specific to wildlife cameras, therefore we also looked into sensor-based ontologies that concentrate on the hardware and the individual capabilities of each device within the network.

From this we have categorised relevant existing ontologies into Observation-Centric and Sensor-Centric ontologies.

5.1.1 Observation-Centric Ontologies

OBOE

The Extensible Observation Ontology (known in reverse as OBOE) is a popular suite of ontologies used to represent scientific observations. Initially starting as base ontology for ecological observations, it has now grown into a suite of extensions that make it suited for chemistry, bioinformatics, anatomy and others. OBOE is represented by OWL-DL [45] and allows the characteristics of a generic scientific observation to be linked to domain specific characteristics.

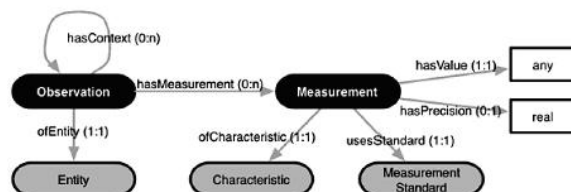


Figure 5.1: The Core of an OBOE Observation

OBOE focuses on the concept of an *observation*, which is made up of an entity, a measurement and a characteristic [40]. An example of an observation could be a researcher observing an animal (the entity) and recording the gender (the measurement) as male (the characteristic). A single observation could then consist of multiple observations within it, such as gender, location, species and the number of species observed.

Figure 5.1 shows the basic structure of a core OBOE observation, outlining the five key classes that are linked by seven properties. While this is the core structure of OBOE, domain specific extensions have been implemented by utilising ‘extension points’ that are part of OBOE’s core. It is clear to see that OBOE follows the O&M Standard (below) very closely, providing extensions to the core classes that allows more information about each to be encoded, adding context and enhancing the value of an observation.

The primary benefits of OBOE are that it is generic enough to cover almost all types of scientification observation and domain extensions allow for more specific details to be stored.

O&M

The OpenGIS Consortium (OGC) Observations and Measurements Standard aims to provide a framework suitable for recording any observation made by a sensor, regardless of the domain [10].

The key difference to note with O&M is that *observation* and *measurement* are not just classes. They also denote an action. An observation is an action that causes a result, yielding a value and a measurement is a set of operations that provide some result(s).

O&M provides a conceptual model, as well as XML encoding for observations and measurements. The listing 5.1 shows an observation of a vehicle in a given time and place. Similar to the encoding of a measurement with the standard and protocol used in OBOE, O&M provides support for the recording of the procedure used to gain the measurement for the observation.

Listing 5.1: An Observation of a Vehicle encoded in O&M

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding="windows-1250"?>
<om:GeometryObservation gml:id="geom1610"
  xmlns:om="http://www.opengis.net/om/1.0"
  xmlns:xsi="http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema-instance"
  xmlns:xlink="http://www.w3.org/1999/xlink"
  xmlns:gml="http://www.opengis.net/gml"
  xsi:schemaLocation=".. Specialization_override.xsd">
  <om:samplingTime>
    <gml:TimeInstant>
      <gml:timePosition>2009-09-16T17:22:25.00</
        gml:timePosition>
      </gml:TimeInstant>
    </om:samplingTime>
    <om:procedure xlink:href="
      urn:ogc:object:procedure:ifgi:GPS"/>
    <om:observedProperty xlink:href="
      urn:ogc:def:phenomenon:OGC:Shape"/>
    <om:featureOfInterest xlink:href="
      urn:ogc:object:feature:vehicle"/>
    <om:result>
      <gml:Point srsName="urn:ogc:crs:epsg:4326">
        <gml:pos>40.7833 -73.9667</gml:pos>
      </gml:Point>
    </om:result>
  </om:GeometryObservation>
```

The listing shows that an observation centres around a *feature of interest*

that can be a physical object and the measurement is the detection of the vehicle at the recorded location. Figure 5.2 shows a basic diagram of the ontology. While the event of a feature is linked, it is clear that the main focus is on the observation and the measurement associated with it.

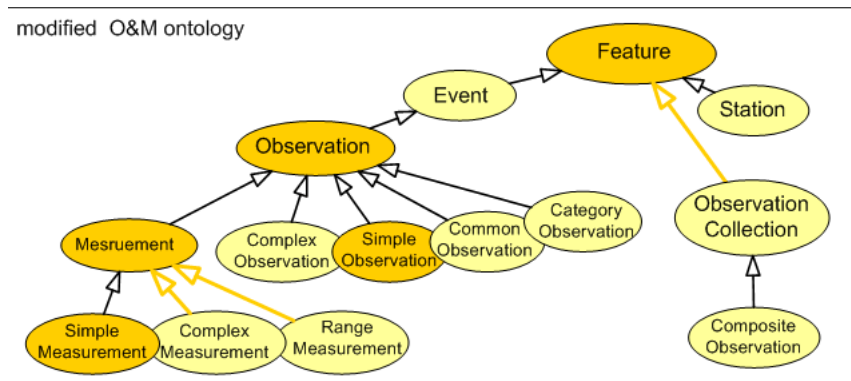


Figure 5.2: The OGC O&M Ontology

The structure of an observation within O&M is focussed on the action and the result, this makes it suited for sensor networks across many domains that perform a wide range of observations. Because the users of the O&M standard are spread across many domains, each with their own terms and definitions, the creation of an ontology for the standard aimed to remain as generic as other observation-centric ontologies.

Darwin Core SW

Darwin Core (DwC) is an approach to storing ecological observations, made by a sensor or a human, in a star record format. While it does not have the extensions available to OBOE, Darwin Core is extremely concise for recording observations within the biological diversity domain and aims to be a standard reference for sharing these observations.

The standard structure of a Darwin Core Observation is a star record; an archive of files with a core metadata file that describes the content of all other files within the archive.

The record shown in figure 5.3 represents a DwC archive that conforms to the star schema. The ecological metadata language document contains

all of the details about the project, such as who is involved, the institution code, contact details and the project(s) related to the observation, shown in Listing 5.2.

Listing 5.2: Darwin Core Ecological Metadata File

```
<?xml version='1.0' encoding='utf-8'?>
<eml:eml xmlns:eml="eml://ecoinformatics.org/eml-2.1.1"
xmlns:md="eml://ecoinformatics.org/methods-2.1.1"
xmlns:proj="eml://ecoinformatics.org/project-2.1.1"
xmlns:d="eml://ecoinformatics.org/dataset-2.1.1"
xmlns:res="eml://ecoinformatics.org/resource-2.1.1"
xmlns:xsi="http://www.w3.org/2001/XMLSchema-instance"
xmlns:dc="http://purl.org/dc/terms/"
packageId="e71fda1c-dcb9-4eae-81a9-183114978e44/eml-1.
xml" system="GBIF-IPT" scope="system">
<dataset>
<alternateIdentifier>e71fda1c-dcb9-4eae-81a9-183114978
e44</alternateIdentifier>
<title>Images from Danau Girang during the PTY Project
2011-12</title>
<creator>
<individualName>
<givenName>Christopher</givenName>
<surName>Gwilliams</surName>
</individualName>
<organizationName>Cardiff University</organizationName>
<positionName>PhD</positionName>
<address>
<city>Cardiff</city>
<administrativeArea>Cardiff</administrativeArea>
<postalCode>CF24 3AA</postalCode>
<country>Wales</country>
</address>
```

```

<phone></phone>
<electronicMailAddress>C.Gwilliams@cs.cf.ac.uk</
    electronicMailAddress>
<onlineUrl>christopher-gwilliams.com</onlineUrl>
</creator>
<pubDate>2012-07-26</pubDate>
<language>en</language>
<abstract>
<para></para>
</abstract>
<keywordSet>
<keyword>Danau Girang</keyword>
<keyword>Darwin Core</keyword>
</keywordSet>
<intellectualRights>
<para></para>
</intellectualRights>
<coverage>
<geographicCoverage>
<geographicDescription></geographicDescription>
<boundingCoordinates>
<westBoundingCoordinate>-180</westBoundingCoordinate>
<eastBoundingCoordinate>180</eastBoundingCoordinate>
<northBoundingCoordinate>90</northBoundingCoordinate>
<southBoundingCoordinate>-90</southBoundingCoordinate>
</boundingCoordinates>
</geographicCoverage>
<taxonomicCoverage>
<generalTaxonomicCoverage></generalTaxonomicCoverage>
<taxonomicClassification>
<taxonRankName></taxonRankName>
<taxonRankValue></taxonRankValue>
<commonName></commonName>

```

```

</taxonomicClassification>
</taxonomicCoverage>
</coverage>
<contact>
<individualName>
<surName>Gwilliams</surName>
</individualName>
<electronicMailAddress>c.gwilliams@cs.cf.ac.uk</
    electronicMailAddress>
</contact>
<methods>
</methods>
<project>
<title>Using Local and Global Knowledge in Wireless
    Sensor Networks</title>
</project>
</dataset>
<additionalMetadata>
</additionalMetadata>
</eml:eml>

```

The descriptor file is an xml document that contains the column headers in the attached files and the mappings of those headers to DwC terms, an example file is shown in Listing 5.3. This file shows that this is an archive containing the sighting of an individual, and that the sighting has been split into two files. The largest benefit of Darwin Core is its modularity. Extension files can be added to enrich the data for each occurrence. In this example the extension file is named as *images.csv* and contains image-based evidence to support the observation.

Listing 5.3: Darwin Core Descriptor File

```
<?xml version="1.0" encoding='utf-8'?>
<archive xmlns="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/text/" metadata=
  "eml.xml">
<core encoding="UTF-8" linesTerminatedBy="\n"
  fieldsTerminatedBy="," fieldsEnclosedBy=' '
  ignoreHeaderLines="1" rowType="http://rs.tdwg.org/
  dwc/terms/Occurrence">
<files>
<location>set.csv</location>
</files>
<id index="0" />
<field index="0" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  occurrenceID" />
<field index="1" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  basisOfRecord" />
<field index="2" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  recordedBy" />
<field index="3" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  associatedMedia" />
<field index="4" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  eventDate" />
<field index="5" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  eventTime" />
<field index="6" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  locationID" />
<field index="7" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  scientificName" />
<field index="8" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  identifiedBy" />
<field index="9" term="http://rs.tdwg.org/dwc/terms/
  dateIdentified" />
</core>
<extension encoding="UTF-8" linesTerminatedBy="\n"
  fieldsTerminatedBy="," fieldsEnclosedBy=' '
  ignoreHeaderLines="1" rowType="http://rs.gbif.org/
  terms/1.0/Image">
<files>
<location>images.csv</location>
```

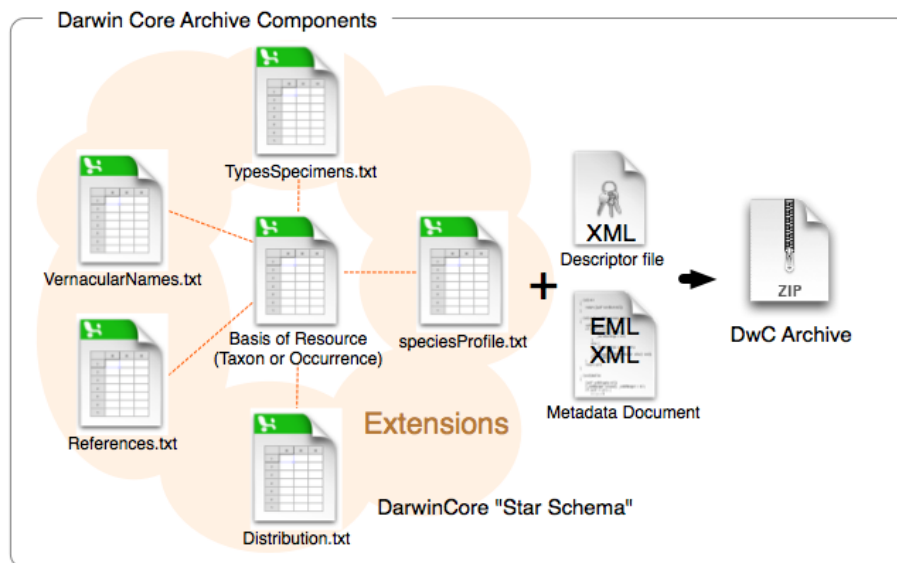


Figure 5.3: A Darwin Core Star Archive

Listing 5.4 shows the comma-separated central file (Basis of Resource) containing the core details of the observation, i.e. the animal observed, and the column headings map to the descriptor file. Other linked files are typically linked by the unique ID of the observation, containing information that extends the observation and provides further context.

Listing 5.4: Darwin Core Occurrence Data

```
eventID , basisOfRecord , recordedBy , eventDate , eventTime ,
    locationID , scientificName , identifiedBy ,
    dateIdentified
3 , MovingImage , 1 , 2010 - 12 - 22 , 16:14:35 , 1 , , ,
```

In order to represent DwC occurrences in an ontological format, work has been done to represent Darwin Core terms, as an ontology, in OWL. Darwin-Semantic Web (Darwin-SW) [?] is the project that aims to do this and many of the core terms associated with an occurrence have already been formalised.

While Darwin-SW does not represent all of the classes within the DwC namespace, it contains the core classes required to record an occurrence, to a

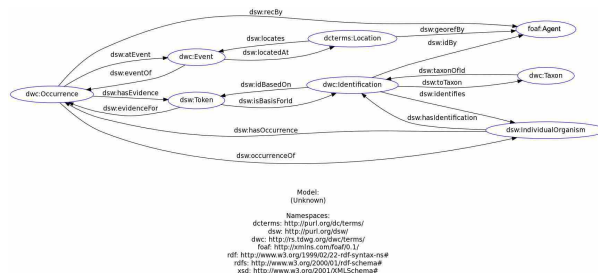


Figure 5.4: Darwin-SW

more-detailed level than OBOE. The downside of this is that the specificity of the terms limits DwC to ecological observations, making it far less generic than OBOE and other alternatives. There are positive aspects that, for those that need to record ecological observations, DwC allows for a greater level of detail and can be mapped to OBOE with ease.

5.1.2 Sensor-Centric Ontologies

Sensor-centric ontologies are more focussed on the structure of the sensor, the network and the sensing processes involved.

SensorML

The Sensor Markup Language (SensorML) Standard has been developed by the OGC, and complements the O&M Standard, to enable the discovery and tasking of internet-connected sensors [10].

SensorML provides an XML schema for describing a sensor, its capabilities and the processes available. At the core, SensorML comprises of:

1. Component - A physical process that transforms information from one form to another.
2. System - Model of a group of components.
3. Process Model - Atomic processing block used within a Process Chain.
4. Process Chain - Composite block of Process Models.

5. Process Method - Definition of the behaviour of a Process Model.
6. Detector - Atomic part of a Measurement System.
7. System - Array of components, relates a Process Chain to the real world.
8. Measurement System - Specific type of System, mainly consisting of sampling devices and detectors.
9. Sensor - Specific type of System that represents a complete Sensor.

These definitions outline the core concepts of SensorML, a *system* that performs one (or more) process(es) and is comprised of a group of *components* [53]. A SensorML document allow for a general, formal specification of a *sensor* and its capabilities. The document describes a *component*, outlining what data it reads in and the output once it has been processed. Several of these *components* can the be used to create a *system* and the primary goal of SensorML is to describe the process of how an observation came to be, focussing on the technical featuresof the node.

SSN

The Semantic Sensor Network (SSN) Ontology is the most fitting ontology for our requirements, as it covers systems processes and observations. Developed by the W3C after an extensive review of existing ontologies [?], the SSN ontology is designed to allow focus on a variety of perspectives, such as the sensor within the network or the data that has been observed.

Figure 5.5 shows the model for the SSN ontology, displaying the relationships that connect each class, as well as their associated properties. It also highlights the modular approach that has been taken, separating the system from the process and the observation.

The observation pattern of SSN is centred around 'Stimuli-Sensor-Observation', which can be simply described by an event causing a sensor to trigger and create an encompassing observation to store details about the event, as well as the device that recorded the event. While SSN is focussed on sensors,

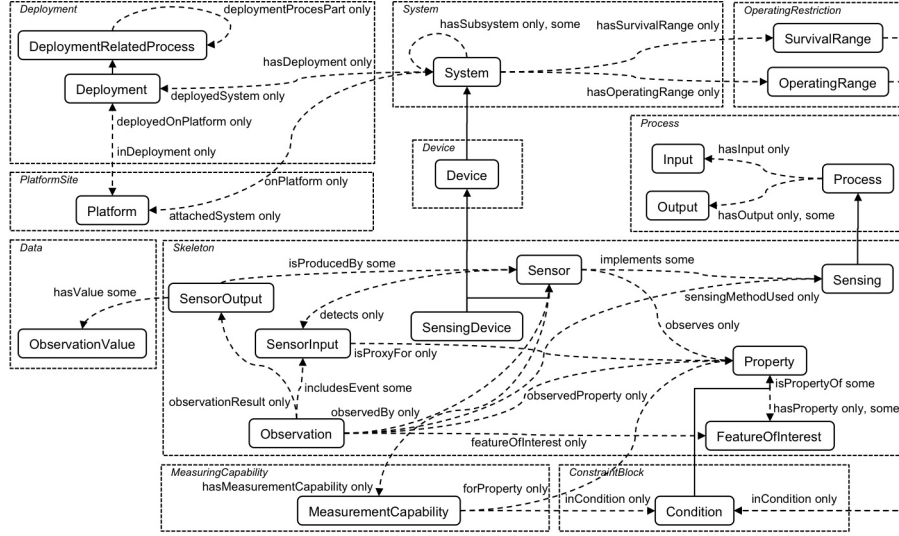


Figure 5.5: SSN Ontology

capturing the measurement capabilities of each sensing device that makes up a system and specifics on its lifespan, the development of the ontology arose from the review of sensor-centric ontologies as well, recording data about observations is a structure very similar to O&M.

Findings

There are many ontologies that are suited for sensor-based scientific observations and ontologies that allow for the description of sensor hardware are very complete. However, in our research, we were unable to find a complete ontology that allowed for a sensor to be described as well as specifics of the observation. SSN was the closest that we found for this, but it was still very hardware focussed and aimed at a technical audience.

We found that many of these ontologies satisfied many subsections of K-HAS completely, meaning that it would be unnecessary to reproduce these concepts. From these findings we have looked to develop an alignment ontology that connects ontologies across multiple domains to allow for a complete implementation of K-HAS, creating an ontology that is both sensor-centric and observation-centric.

5.2 Method

Before we began development, we researched existing methods that have been used to develop current ontologies. From this, we found three well-documented methodologies; the methodology used to develop the Toronto Virtual Enterprise (TOVE) ontology, the Methontology and the methodology used to develop the Enterprise Model ontology.

The methodology by Uschold and King [62], used to develop the Enterprise ontology, is a four step method that was most suited to the processes we expected to follow. The steps are not covered in great detail in the original paper but, research since provides greater detail for each step.

5.2.1 Identify Purpose

The aim of this step is to identify why the ontology is being built and what requirements it is supposed to fulfil. This includes considerations, such as the audience, the intended purpose and the specificity of the ontology.

Other methodologies have used more structured methods to informally identify the requirements of the ontology. Gruninger and Fox [26] propose competency questions; these are questions that are used to identify the problems that the developed ontology is developed to solve. These questions can act as a benchmark, showing that an ontology is sufficient if it can solve the questions raised here.

5.2.2 Build the Ontology

Building the ontology can be broken down further into 3 smaller steps: capture, code and integrate existing ontologies.

Capture

The capture stage involves defining the concepts and terms that the ontology will model, as well as how they map to the real world. This can be done in one of three ways:

1. Top Down - Starting with the core concepts, create the more specialised classes until you have identified all subclasses.
2. Bottom Up - This process begins with the more specialised classes and grouping them into the more general classes towards the top of the hierarchy.
3. Middle Out - A combination of the two, this process involves specialising, and generalising, the classes identified in the middle layer of the hierarchy.

As for the capture of the knowledge used to identify the classes needed, this is an area that has been documented, but primarily provides recommendations. [23] suggests interviews with domain experts, iteratively brainstorming with a group actively involved in the development of the ontology. This stage has often been referred to as the knowledge-acquisition stage.

Code

This step involves coding the terms identified in the previous step into a formal language, such as the Web Ontology Language (OWL).

Integrate Existing Ontologies

Some of the literature (REFERENCE) recommends that this step is carried out at the same time as the two steps prior, so that the ontology is developed with existing ontologies in mind. This also allows overlap to be identified, and incorporated, early. Being aware of popular ontologies within the domain, before development begins, is a more logical approach and does avoid the need to create new terms for existing concepts.

Existing ontologies can be integrated by importing them and linking the existing terms to the terms identified in the ontology that is being developed. However, there is also the method of developing the ontology completely, so that it is consistent without the need to rely on existing ontologies and creating 'sameAs' relationships between the terms identified and only the required terms in the existing ontologies.

In [33], it is recommended that, when importing external ontologies, the whole ontology is not used. Rather, one should aim to extract only the required fragments from the external ontology that are relevant to the concepts in the developed ontology.

5.2.3 Evaluation

For the evaluation, Uschold and King adopt the definition of [?]: to make a technical judgement of the ontologies, their associated software environment, and documentation with respect to a frame of reference ... The frame of reference may be requirements specifications, competency questions, and/or the real world.

There are some well documented methods for evaluating ontologies in the literature, [?] proposes using the competency questions, used in the first step, to ensure that they can all be fully answered by the finished ontology.

5.2.4 Documentation

Although this step is listed at the end of the development cycle, it seems more fitting to document all major aspects of the ontology as it is being developed. Documentation of the ontology should include: any assumptions, all concepts introduced, all ontologies that have been incorporated (by whatever means) and any primitives used for the definitions of concepts.

5.3 Results

This section details our results when using the Uschold and King methodology, accompanied by more recent research for particular steps, to develop the K-HAS ontology.

5.3.1 Identify Purpose

The need to create the K-HAS ontology was partly due to the reasons outlined by Gruninger and Fox [26], we had identified a problem as we were developing

Table 5.1: Competency Questions

Competency Questions
Find all Occurrences of an Individual
Find all Occurrences of an Individual at a Location
Find all Occurrence within a specified Date and Time range
Find all Sensors that have recorded an Occurrence of an Individual
Find all Locations of an Individual
Find the storage location of a Project
Find all Projects containing an Individual
Find all People involved in a Project
Find all the Evidence that supports an Occurrence
Find all the Types of evidence that supports an Occurrence

a sensing architecture that utilised local knowledge: how could we formally represent the flow of knowledge and sensed data throughout a wireless sensor network?

To determine the scope that K-HAS should cover, we identified a set of competency questions that represent what we expect K-HAS to cover within the domain. In order to present this, we used an approach similar to that of [16], which can be seen in Table 5.1.

These questions allow us to identify the core concepts that the ontology needs to represent, as well as serving as a tool to evaluate the completed ontology.

5.3.2 Build the Ontology - Capture

This part of the development cycle is the identification of the concepts and their implementation. The first step is capture the knowledge that will be used to identify the core concepts within the ontology.

To capture the knowledge for the ontology, we used a combinatorial approach of those outlined in the literature. We interviewed domain experts, as well as overseeing a basic implementation of a system, and we iteratively

brainstormed the concepts throughout the development cycle.

Over the course of eighteen months, which involved 2 field visits and several brainstorming meetings, we identified the core concepts that the ontology would need to contain, as well as the properties that would link them. From this, it would seem that we followed the *Top-Down* approach, but the first visit with domain experts also allowed us to identify some of the more specialist classes early on in the development cycle. Thus, it seems that the *Middle-Out* suits our methodology more closely.

Table 5.2 outlines the core concepts we have identified for K-HAS to be complete, as well as the definitions we have used for the architecture. When integrating existing ontologies, the definitions of similar terms would need to match with our definitions or we would not deem them the same as the K-HAS concepts.

Mapping these concepts, a diagram of the base K-HAS ontology is shown in Figure 5.6. The next step is to create the ontology and map the concepts identified to existing ontologies within the same domain space(s).

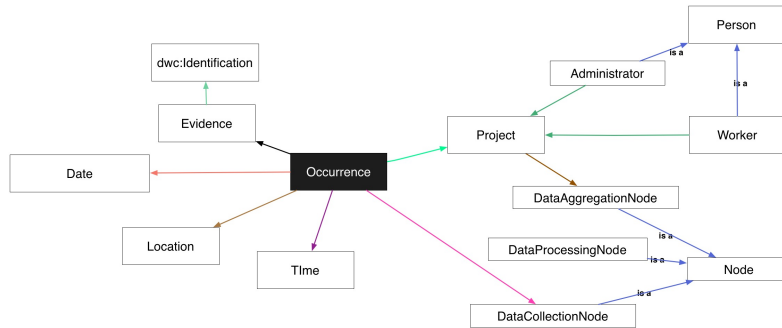


Figure 5.6: K-HAS Base Ontology

5.3.3 Build the Ontology - Code

Once the concepts had been identified (and agreed upon), the ontology must be coded. We used Protege 4.2.2 [?] and implemented K-HAS in the Web Ontology Language (OWL), creating a core file that could be expanded; should we need to import existing ontologies.

Table 5.2: K-HAS Concepts

Concept	Subclass Of	Definition
Occurrence	-	
Identification	-	A text-based recording of the content of an Occurrence
Evidence	-	Media to support the Identification, such as a photo or recording.
Location	-	The location of the Occurrence.
Date	-	The date of the Occurrence.
Time	-	The time of the Occurrence.
Project	-	Project(s) that can contain many Occurrences
Node	-	A device with sensing capabilities.
Data Collection (DC) Node	Node	Node with limited knowledge-processing capabilities charged with sensing a feature (or features) of its environment.
Data Processing (DP) Node	Node	Node with knowledge-processing capabilities charged with serving a subset of DC Nodes and processing their sensed data.
Data Aggregation (DA) Node	Node	Node with knowledge-processing capabilities that stores all knowledge and sensed data for the whole network.
Person	-	
Administrator	Person	Person in charge of a project (or projects).
Worker	Person	Person involved with a project.

5.3.4 Build the Ontology - Integrate Existing Ontologies

Our implementation of K-HAS is focussed on scientific observations. Because of this, the focal point of our existing ontology research is of ontologies that are centred around scientific observations, this allows us to create a more generic ontology that is still able to capture all of the semantic details associated with a wildlife observation.

As explained in Section 5.1, our research of existing ontologies covered two categories: observation-centric and sensor-centric. We identified ontologies, within multiple domains, that satisfied many of K-HAS' requirements, but not all. Using the core concepts outlined in Section 5.3.2, we created a minimal ontology and used the results of our research to map K-HAS concepts to those that had already been identified.

During this process we found that we had determined concepts that mapped to existing ontologies, but may not share identical structures, or even the same name. For example, the OBOE ontology describes the concept of an occurrence, which is very similar to our occurrence and the occurrence in the Darwin Core ontology. When we found these mappings, we used *sameAs* relationship to form a link that allows data stored according to these existing ontologies to map directly to K-HAS. However, the structure of an OBOE observation is, as outlined in Section 5.1.1, is more generic for all types of scientific observation and depicts the observation of an entity, containing a measurement of a particular characteristic. Whereas the structure of a Darwin Core observation is more limited to scientific observations of taxa which allows it to have more predefined terms, such as location, species name and the evidence for the recorded individual. Because of this, it was difficult to create a structure that encapsulated both OBOE and Darwin Core.

Research showed that Darwin Core maps to K-HAS' requirements more completely, as well as the fact that there has been work to represent Darwin Core Observations in OBOE [?], K-HAS occurrences map directly to Darwin Core and elements that are similar to OBOE have been linked by the *sameAs* relationship. This does mean that OBOE observations cannot map directly,

but K-HAS, and Darwin Core, occurrences can be converted, if necessary.

For the sensor hardware of K-HAS, we found that the SensorML ontology maps directly to our concepts and we also realised that we did not need to recreate concepts that may already exist in popular ontologies outside of the domain spaces we researched. For example, the Friend of a Friend (FOAF) ontology [?] is an ontology designed to create machine-readable pages that describe people, so it is more logical that K-HAS reuses existing terms from popular ontologies to allow pre-existing data to be mapped with ease.

INCLUDE TABLE TO MATCH TERMS TO EXISTING ONTOLOGIES??

5.3.5 Ontology

Whilst researching popular ontologies, we became aware that some of classes identified for K-HAS were not satisfied by what is currently available. The final step for creating the ontology was to add these concepts to the linked ontologies, we call these *extension concepts*, concepts unique to K-HAS which do not exist in any other ontology. Much of these terms were linked to the unique layered architecture of K-HAS and we defined them within a new K-HAS namespace, changing our ontology from an alignment of existing ontologies to an extension of these.

The final ontology is shown in Figure 5.7 and shows how each concept maps to existing ontologies. The figure shows that there were only five extension concepts unique to K-HAS that can be subclassed from the *person* concept in the FOAF ontology and *node* in the SensorML ontology.

5.4 Evaluation

Uschold and King’s ontology development method does not explain how to evaluate the created ontology and much of the literature describes a number of methods that can be employed, [11] outlines a number of different evaluation techniques and separates them into categories. These categories are listed below:

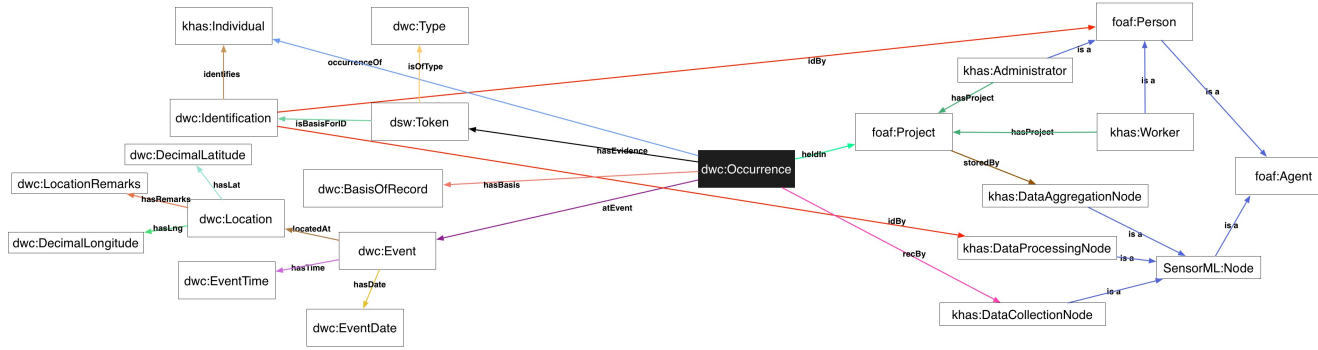


Figure 5.7: K-HAS Ontology

1. Comparing the ontology to a 'golden standard'.
2. Using the ontology in an application and evaluating the results.
3. Comparing the ontology with a collection of documents from the domain to be covered.
4. Manual evaluation by humans to test if the ontology meets a set of predefined criteria.

The last category mentioned is similar to the method in Section 5.2.3 that uses the competency questions to determine the effectiveness of the ontology. Because there is no agreed method, we have evaluated K-HAS by testing it in the application it was developed in (Protege), mapping it to existing documents within the intended domain and ensuring that it can satisfy all of the competency questions we outlined in Table 5.1.

5.4.1 Using the Ontology in an Application

We developed the K-HAS ontology in Protege, a Java based ontology editor, that also provides the functionality to reason over the ontology and check for inconsistencies. Using the Hermit reasoner that is built into Protege, the ontology was determined to be logically consistent.

To confirm the validation provided by Protege, we also used a web-based ontology validation tool, called the Ontology Pitfall Scanner (OOPS), that

scans an ontology for common errors, such as defining incorrect inverse relationships or using recursive definitions, that can occur during the development phase [49]. The results of this tool showed that no pitfalls had been detected.

We have a customised build of K-HAS running that receives data from a variety of sources and stores it in a MySQL database that allows users to classify through a web site. The schema of the database maps to our ontology, scientific observations are received, unzipped and stored in the relevant fields in the database. Using real sensed data, we have successfully stored over two hundred occurrences and mapped existing DwC occurrence to K-HAS.

5.4.2 Competency Questions

In Table 5.1 we have identified some basic competency questions that we expected K-HAS to be able to satisfy with the concepts we had identified, Table 5.3 shows how the original questions are satisfied by K-HAS. We have mapped the terms we originally used to the terms used in K-HAS (and the linked ontologies) and shown the concepts involved with each question, as well as the relationships linking them.

The table shows that all of the competency questions outlined in Section 5.3.1 have been satisfied by the final ontology and each concept used maps quite easily with little to no change.

5.4.3 Comparing the Ontology with a Collection of Documents

Within the domain of scientific observations, Darwin Core is a popular choice for observations of wildlife and plants, it was because of this that we chose to use many of the pre-existing concepts from Darwin Core in K-HAS.

In the data driven approach suggested by [12], a corpus of documents, related to the domain that the ontology covers, and the keyword content is matched with the terms used in the ontology. Because Darwin Core observations are structured into archives of files, explained in Section 5.1.1, we

evaluated the K-HAS ontology by combining the approach of comparing a corpus of documents related to the domain with human evaluation of ensuring an ontology met a set of requirements to create a method that ensured existing scientific sensed observations could be mapped to K-HAS with little to no modification.

As we have previously explained, an archive of Darwin Core files consists of a minimum of 3 files: a metadata file that contains information about the creator of the archive and the project it relates to (eml.xml), a metadata file that describes all of the files that contain the occurrence and the fields within them (meta.xml) and a csv file that contains the data relating to the occurrence itself. Within the archive, the core files that need to be mapped to K-HAS are the meta.xml and eml.xml files as this allows us to store what and who.

We used the example files from the archive in Section 5.1.1 to extract the terms associated with an occurrence and we mapped these terms to K-HAS concepts, the results can be seen in Table 5.4.

Each term within a Darwin Core observation maps to K-HAS with only a few changes to the terms, while the definitions do not change. As K-HAS is an alignment ontology, there are extra concepts that do not map to Darwin Core, but can encapsulate each occurrence. For example, a project in K-HAS can contain many occurrences. As previously mentioned, [?] shows how a DWC archive can be represented in OBOE, which means that it would not be too complex to map an OBOE observation in K-HAS.

5.5 Conclusion

In this paper we have explained our need for an ontological representation of our WSN architecture, K-HAS, and presented an early version. We have described our methodology for development and shown how existing ontologies are not complete enough. The K-HAS ontology we present is an alignment of ontologies that are spread across multiple domains and provides a complete solution for a sensor network that deals with scientific observations and we believe this is the first alignment ontology that combines sensor-centric and

observation-centric ontologies. We have also extended this alignment to include concepts that model the unique features of K-HAS, but this ontology should be suitable for any sensor network that deals with observations.

Our evaluation has shown that the ontology is logically consistent and that existing scientific observations, in other formats, can be mapped across to K-HAS with few changes. The competency questions we identified during the design phase of the ontology can all be satisfied by the resulting ontology and our K-HAS network currently stores data with a schema that follows the design of this ontology.

In the future we plan to fully implement a K-HAS network, with each node utilising the ontological structure to send knowledge and occurrences around the network. We would also like to modify the ontology so that it is less reliant on the Darwin Core structure because, while it is currently suitable for our requirements, this does limit the uptake of this ontology outside of the ecology domain. Ideally, work would be done to make the Darwin Core terms more modular and users will then be able to 'plug in' their occurrence structure of choice.

Table 5.3: Competency Questions

Competency Questions	Concepts	Relationships
Find all Occurrences of an Individual	Occurrence; Individual	Occurrence occurrenceOf Individual
Find all Occurrences of an Individual at a Location	Occurrence, Token, Individual, Location, Identification	Occurrence hasEvidence Token; Token isBasisForID Identification; Identification identifies Individual
Find all Occurrences within a specified Date and Time range	Occurrence; Event; Date; Time	Occurrence atEvent Event; Event hasTime Time; Event hasDate; Date
Find all Data-Collection Nodes that have recorded an Occurrence of an Individual	DCNode; Individual; Occurrence	Occurrence recordedBy DCNode; Occurrence occurrenceOf Individual
Find all Locations of an Individual	Occurrence; Individual; Event; Location	Occurrence occurrenceOf Individual; Occurrence hasEvent Event; Event locatedAt Location
Find the storage location of a Project	Project, Data Aggregation Node	Project storedBy DataAggregationNode
Find all Projects containing an Individual	Individual, Project; Occurrence	Individual occurredIn Occurrence; Occurrence heldIn Project
Find all Persons involved in a Project	Person; Administrator; Worker; Project	Administrator hasProject Project; Worker hasProject Project
Find all the Evidence that supports an Occurrence	Occurrence; Token	Occurrence hasEvidence Evidence
Find all the Types of evidence that supports an Occurrence	Occurrence; Token; Type	Occurrence hasEvidence Token; Token isOfType Type

Table 5.4: Evaluation of K-HAS against Darwin Core Occurrence Terms

Darwin Core Term	K-HAS Concept
occurrenceID	Occurrence
basisOfRecord	Basis of Record
recordedBy	Person/Node
associatedMedia	Token
eventDate	Event Date
eventTime	Event Time
locationId	Location
scientificName	Individual
identifiedBy	Person
dateIdentified	Identification

Chapter 6

LORIS

In this chapter, we detail the design and deployment of K-HAS in the Malaysian rainforest. We also highlight the issues we experienced deploying the architecture in a humid, dense rainforest for use by those without domain knowledge of WSNs.

Experiments, carried out in the rainforest, had already shown that the range of wireless communications could be reduced by up to 80% and we expected that the lifetime of nodes in such conditions would be affected.

Yearly visits were made to the Danau Girang Field Centre (DGFC) to test different nodes, gather knowledge and trial iterations of K-HAS. The first visit showed us just how much the rainforest affected communications, but also allowed us to gather knowledge from researchers and cameras that had previously been deployed. Subsequent visits were then used to test our own nodes and software, based on the knowledge we had gained from the first visit. We developed K-HAS with a view to deploying it in Malaysia, however, it soon became clear that our design was beyond what was currently available, as well as the time constraints.

Developing a camera with both wireless and processing capabilities, as well as being waterproof, proved to be an extremely difficult task, while wireless wildlife cameras were already commercially available with range far beyond what we had experienced. Before realising this, we attempted to use various node types connected to a camera, such as the Raspberry Pi and

Waspnote nodes, both yielded problems with mounting an SD card that was readable by both camera and node. At the time, we were unable to create a camera combined with a node that could be left untouched for months at a time in a rainforest.

However, we still needed to implement a network to prove our hypothesis and we developed a modification to the K-HAS that utilised the latest commercially available hardware to provide an architecture that provides similar capabilities. Because these changes were made due to issues with deployment in Danau Girang, we chose to name it after a famous animal in Malaysia: LORIS. This stands for Local-knowledge Ontology-based Remote-sensing Informatics System.

LORIS has been developed specifically for the Malaysian rainforest, our motivating scenario, and, as such, much of the hardware and software has been implemented to reflect this. However, the same approach could be used for other WSNs focussing on scientific observations with minor changes required. Using the same ontology and underlying software as K-HAS.

The rest of this chapter is structured as follows. Section 6.1 highlights the changes we had to make from K-HAS and explains the hardware used at each tier. Section 6.2 explains how we planned and deployed the network and Section 6.3 details the results from the deployment in Malaysia.

6.1 Architecture

The aim of LORIS was to keep as much of the architecture of K-HAS as possible and reuse the ontology without the need for modification; serving as a form of validation. In order to do this, we identified the tiers of the network that were feasible and the areas that needed to be addressed. Regular power and cheap computers with good knowledge-processing capabilities meant that DA nodes were simple to deploy and, with the growth of powerful microcomputers like the Raspberry Pi, DP nodes were also in abundance. However, finding a reliable camera that could integrate with a node capable of processing observations that was also reliable enough to withstand the humid rainforest proved to be difficult.

6.1.1 Data Collection

Experiments were run yearly in Malaysia to test the performance of variations of hardware. As covered in Section , the first year involved testing the range of Wi-Fi with an IGEP board. The limited range of 30m meant that, despite the high transfer rate, it was not possible. Wi-Fi was not designed for use in resource-constrained sensors, so the power consumption of the radio meant that it limited the lifetime of the node.

The following year, we used the Digimesh protocol, explained in Section , which provided a longer range and was developed for use in sensor networks. While the range was suitable for the rainforest, it was not as much as we had anticipated and finding a method to mount an SD card on both the existing wildlife cameras and the Waspote nodes.

From these experiments, we began to look into commercial alternatives that combined both the node and the camera. The most usable solution we found was the Raspberry Pi coupled with a camera attachment [?], but it was not ready for use in the Malaysian rainforest or to be used for an extended unsupervised period. Existing wildlife manufacturers were then looked into and we found that wireless cameras had been manufactured, but they had no local processing capabilities and had not been used much in research. Based on these findings, we used Buckeye X7R cameras [?]. Using the same Digimesh protocol as the Waspote, they had a tested range of 1 mile and had been developed to withstand harsh environments.

We expected to achieve around 800m of range and these proved to be suitable DC node replacements, despite the fact that we had to forgo local processing or the storage of any local knowledge.

6.1.2 Data Processing and Aggregation

Due to the lack of processing available on the DC nodes, and limited power availability, we combined the DP and DA nodes into one machine stored at DGFC, that contained both a Digimesh radio and an Internet connection. The benefit of using commercial grade hardware was the software that accompanied it; remote management and configuration software allowed users

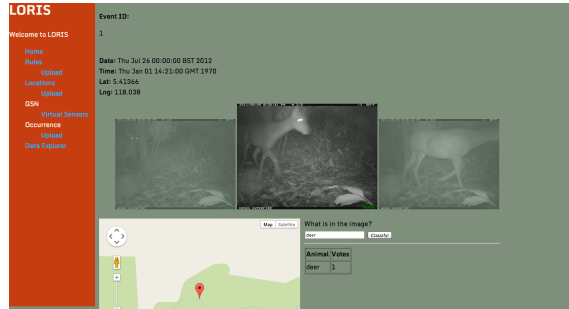


Figure 6.1: LORIS Web Interface

to modify the settings on each camera, as well as handling the retrieval of images from every node deployed. EXIF tags written to images could be modified, as well as how many images were captured for each observation. The software had been created to be used by those without any specialist knowledge and was easily used by researchers in the field centre.

Each observation was saved into a directory that matched the ID of the camera it originated from and this meant that the existing software used in K-HAS could be used without modification. Sensor middleware, such as GSN, is running on the same machine and virtual sensors listen for changes in each directory; where each virtual sensor represents a deployed camera.

When new observations are detected, Drools runs on the images to start metadata and EXiF processing. Some rules had already been extracted from the processing of 120,000 images collected from our yearly visits to DGFC; other rules had to be added by users of the WSN. When an observation had been processed, rules were run once again to determine if a match could be made to existing projects and, if so, who should be notified.

The web interface for classifying and viewing all observations was accessible by those within DGFC, as well as uploading rule files and new locations. Using this interface proved to be easier for those without a WSN background and the GSN interface had a steeper learning curve. Figure 6.1 shows the basic metadata of an observation, outlining where it was captured and when; as well as the images themselves.



Figure 6.2: Camera Locations Around Danau Girang

6.2 Deployment

In June of 2013, a three week visit was made to Danau Gurang, with three Buckeye cameras and the software required to deploy LORIS. The network was first tested within the field centre and one of the Buckeye cameras had been broken during transport, giving us only two cameras. Due to the protected nature of the forest, we were unable to nail any cables to trees to use the high gain antenna and it was no possible to use the cables without first securing them; because animals tampering with cameras was a common occurrence.

For the initial week of the deployment, we wanted to test the robustness of the network before focussing on the data. This meant placing the cameras in locations where they would be triggered often and in an area where they would be affected by rainfall and humidity. Figure ?? shows the locations of the cameras during both of the weeks that it was deployed. Buckeye 1 was deployed for the first week along the main path leading to the field centre from the river, this experienced the most traffic due to the number of researchers present at the time.

6.2.1 Direct Connection

For six days, we tested two Buckeye cameras that were near enough to the field centre to maintain an active connection to the base station. This meant that no hopping was involved and cameras were not reliant on each other

to transmit images. Camera 1 was placed on a main path that guaranteed human foot traffic and Camera 3 was placed on a trail in the forest that, while experiencing minimal foot traffic, was expected to yield small mammals and birds.

For the duration of the six days, the cameras did not report a drop in battery levels and a total of 1076 images were sent. Camera 1 was in a more open environment, despite being further away, and average speeds of 4KB/s were achieved.

Transmissions from Camera 3 were significantly hampered by the dense forest that it was surrounded by, as well as the fact that a low-gain antenna was used, so as to minimise the impact to the forest. We also speculate that the field centre itself acted as a barrier to the signal, as the base station was located on the opposite end. Because of this, we experienced an average speed of 1.2KB/s, taking around three minutes to receive an image. This is consistent with experiments conducted in previous years where dense, humid forest has led to a decreased range of, up to, 78%. Lower frequencies do experience a longer range, but the data rate is significantly impacted.

6.2.2 1-Hop Network

For a further five days, Camera 1 was moved deeper into the forest and Camera 3 was set up as a routing camera that forwarded images onto the base station.

The location of the moved camera is also shown in Figure 6.2. As was expected, the traffic of the network reduced significantly when the cameras were moved from the main path, with almost all 63 pictures being of animals. Due to animals moving a lot faster than humans, the number of pictures taken per trigger was increased to two, this would ensure network traffic was not overwhelming while increasing the chance of capturing the subject.

Surprisingly, the speed of transmission from Camera 1 was faster than Camera 3, despite being routed through it; average speeds of 1.8KB/s.

6.3 Results

6.4 Conclusion

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