A Robust Encounter Registration Protocol for Mapping the Social Networks of Wild Animals

Abstract—Encounters are common interactions of wild animals. Several real encounter-registration systems have been implemented to help record the encounter process. In these systems, wild animals are attached with energy-restricted radio devices called tags, to transmit packets periodically and record the encounter process with others. However, these is no effective protocol for the encounter registration due to a paradox between minimizing the power consumption of tags and reducing the encounter latency. Our insight is that it is reasonable for a tag to increase the working frequency of its radio when encounter happensand otherwise keeps the radio in a low-power mode. The key is to design a mechanism to identify the existence of an encounter in real-time.

In this paper, we propose a robust encounter registration protocol that with high probability accomplishes the encounter registration in $O(k)$ slots time, assuming k is the number of encounter tags. Our protocol consists of two process: detect other tags with low energy consumption; and make connections with the detected tags to record each other's ID. We analyze the performance of this protocol under a formulated radio model and carry out a number of experiments to validate this radio model. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first practical protocol for a real encounter-registration system.

I. INTRODUCTION

Collecting detailed information about wild animals remains a significant technical challenge that limits the ability of Ecologists to study them, the interactions between them, and the interactions between wild animals and their environment. One tools that has emerged a little over a decade ago and has been gaining significance is *encounter detection and logging*.

Encounter detection systems consist of radio devices called *tags* that are attached to wild animals (and sometimes also to fixed positions and to livestock). The radios transmit identification packets periodically, usually once every few seconds. The radios also listen to such packets, not necessarily continuously, and record data about received packets in persistent memory on the tag. The radios are typically configured for short-range communication by using low transmit power and by using high data-rates (both limit the signal-to-noise ratio at the receiver). Because the radios are configured for short-range communication, receiving a packet implies that the transmitting tag is in close proximity to the receiving tag. Recent systems record with each packet a received signal strentgh indication (RSSI), which helps to estimate the distance between the transmitter and receiver. This is the main goal of these systems: to log close-proximity events between two or more animals. The logs are downloaded either by physically retrieving the tags, or remote download to base-stations placed in locations that the animals are known to frequent.

Such systems have gained popularity among Ecologists because the tags are relatively inexpensive and can be very small, because deployment does not require much infrastructure in the field, and because close-proximity encounters are key aspects of many significant events in the life of animals: mating, predation, transmission of infectious diseases, and so on. We comment on some of these applications in Section II.

Encounter-registration systems pose challenging protocol-ralated problems. One problem is to minimize the power used for listening to other tags. All of the systems developed so far have used low-power integrated UHF transceivers, and the power consumed by these while receiving is comparable to the power that they use to transmit. The dominant strategy to address this issue appears to be duty-cycling the receiver, so that it is off most of the time. Synchronizing the timing of the activity periods of all tags can minimize total receive energy while maximizing that transmissions will be received. If tags do not synchronize their activity periods, many transmissions at close proximity may go unnoticed; this is not an unreasonable solution if encounters are long. Another emerging approach to the receive-power problem is based on so-called *wake-up receivers*, specialized nano-power sub-receivers whose only job is to wake up the main receiver when a strong packet is received. These have not been used in Ecology research so we exclude them from most of the discussion; we do comment on them in Section II.

The other protocol-related problem is interference. If many tags transmit simultaneously, receiving tags may fail to reconstruct valid packets. Paradoxically, highly-efficient systems with good time synchronization and short activity periods suffer more from this problem than less efficient systems in which the clocks of tags are not synchronized tightly enough to transmit simultaneously. This is not a theoretical problem; many species of animals, including many species of birds and bats, roost together, so encounters of tens or hundreds of individuals are not necessarily rare.

Our fundamental observation is that it is a waste of energy if an animal is not encountering with others while still keeps the tag working frequently. Thus it is reasonable for a tag to increase the working frequency of its radio when encounter happens; otherwise it keeps the radio in a low-power mode. The key is to design a mechanism to identify the existence of an encounter in real-time.

In this paper, we propose an effective protocol for encounter registration, addressing these two problems systematically and methodically. In our protocol, we design two stages for the tags, namely detecting stage and connecting

stage. In the detecting stage, a tag works a fraction of time in order to save energy, and transmits a beacon periodically to detect whether an encounter is happening at the moment. When detected an acknowledgement, the tag switches to the connecting stage and increases the transmission frequency in order to establish links with other tags. To deal with interference caused by In the connecting stage, a tag adaptively adjusts its transmission probability: it increases the probability when the channel is detected idle and reduces the probability when interference is detected.

We present concrete analysis of the protocol under our radio model and carry out a number of experiments to validate this model. We prove that our protocol accomplishes the encounter registration of k tags in $O(k)$ slots time.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. The next section highlights the related works. Section III presents the system model and basic definitions. We present the concrete protocol design in Section IV. We analyze the performance of our protocol in Section V. We validate the radio model by real experiments in Section VI, and the paper is concluded in Section VII.

II. RELATED WORK

A. Encounter-registration system

The first encounter-registration system has been developed by a company called Sirtrack over a decade ago [**?**]. The tags were placed on collars that were attached to wild mammals. The tags are fairly heavy, weighing 45–450g, depending on the size of battery. Tags transmit every 1.5 s, and are able to record encounters of 15 s or longer. The system is commercial has has been used extensively, for example, to study the possibility of disease transmission between cattle and wild badgers [1].

The next major advance was a system called *Enounternet* [2], [3], which has been available commercially for a few years but is no longer available. The key innovation in Encounternet was weight: tags used a tiny printed-circuit board and could be powered by miniature batteries, allowing tags weighing 1.3g and up to be manufactured. Clearly, the small batteries restrict the life-span of tags and increase the importance of effective protocols, especially with respect to low-power operation. The small size of encounternet tags has enabled the study of interaction of small species, including small birds [4] and freshwater fish [5], to cite just a few. Another innovation of the Encounternet system has been the recording of RSSI with every reception report, allowing researchers to estimate the distance of each encounter.

Interestingly, none of the papers that describe these systems and ecological research carried out with them gives any details on the MAC-layer protocol that was used, nor on how the receiver is duty cycled. In particular, it appears that many of these protocols are not particularly efficient. For example, switching an Encounternet tag with a particular battery from transmit-only mode (intended to record its proximity to base stations) to encounter-registration mode reduces the lifespan of the tag from 7.5 days to less than a day, indicating that the receiver is active a significant fraction of the time.

On the positive side, most of these papers do include validation and calibration studies intended to quantify the distances at which encounters are recorded. We report below on a similar study carried out by us.

More recently, prototype Encounternet-like tags have been developed and tested on bats [6], [7]. These tags include a wake-up receiver, which enables nano-power listening without maintenance of inter-tag synchronized clocks. These tags do not appear to have been commercialized or widely-used otherwise.

B. Protocol for encounter registration

Although there has been no analysis of the protocols studying on the encounter registration problem, several similar problems are well-studied in the wireless network literature, such as neighbor discovery problem [8], [9], minimum dominating set problem [10], and information exchange problem [11], [12].

Minimum dominating set problem [10] is studied to deal with interference challenges for the wireless multi-hop networks. This problem focus on the communication models, such as unit disk graph model [13] (UDG), graph-based model [14] and Signal to Interference plus Noise Ratio model [15] (SINR). Neighbor discovery problem is well studied in the wireless sensor networks. Many algorithms [8], [9] are designed for two nodes to discover each other and are applied directly to the multi-node scenario. Information exchange problem [11], [12] is studied on the information propagation in a single-hop network. In the network, there are active nodes with packets to transmit and inactive nodes waiting to receive. A common solution to these problems is to control the transmission probability of the node in the network, making it optimal to transmit successfully. Some deterministic methods, such as quorum system [16] and prime number, are also adopted to help synchronization in the protocol design.

The major difference between the problems above and the encounter registration problem in this paper is the dynamics of the wild animals. It makes the problem complicated that whether an encounter is happening at the moment is unknown. Besides the encounter behavior varies from individual to individual. Some animals are eager to keep company with peers while others stay alone most of the time. Since animals are attached with energy-restrained tags, the energy-efficiency should also be taken into consideration. All these factors make the problem challenging.

III. SYSTEM MODEL

In this paper, we study the encounter problem in a wildlife tracing system. We call individual animals as *agents*, and *peers* are referred as other agents that distinguish from a specific one. The definition of the *encounter process* is formulated as follows.

Definition 1: Encounter is defined as the process that an agent detects and records other peer(s) if they keep a period of close proximity $\Delta \leq D$ in the wildlife tracking system.

In the following, we describe the system model for theoretical analysis in this paper.

A. Radio Communication Model

In the wildlife tracing system *Encounternet*, the encounter behavior is a common biological phenomenon and happens when more than one agents gather closely, constituting a single clique of size k ($k \geq 2$). Note that, k is not known to each agent and the whole clique composes a sing-hop network for communication due to the proximity.

Each agent is equipped with a radio tag. An agent that has its radio on can choose to be in the $transmit$ state or the $listen$ state:

- **Transmit state:** an agent transmits (broadcasts) a message containing its ID on the channel;
- **Listen state:** an agent listens on the channel to receive messages from peers.

We also call an agent keeps in the *listen* state for a period of consecutive slots as *quiet* state.

Suppose time is divided into synchronized slots of equal length $2\hat{t_0}$ [17], [18] , where $\hat{t_0}$ is assumed to be sufficient to finish a complete communication process (one agent transmits a message including its ID and a peer receives the message).

An agent transmits successfully in a time slot if and only if it is the only one transmitting and all the other peer(s) will receive its message and record its ID in this single-hop network. Otherwise the channel is detected as *idle* if there is no transmission and *busy* if there are simultaneous messages incurring collisions on the channel.

In the wildlife tracing system *Encounternet*, on the one hand, each agent is equipped with an energy-restricted tag; on the other hand, encounter process happens occasionally, and thus it is a waste of battery energy if an agent turns on the radio while it does not encounter with any peer(s) at the moment. Therefore, in order to keep a balance between the energy consumption and the efficiency of the encounter process, we introduce the duty cycle mechanism [19].

Duty cycle mechanism. An agent has the capability to turn off the radio to save energy for most of the time, and may only be active (transmitting or receiving) during a fraction θ of the time.

Incorporating the duty cycle mechanism into the Mac layer of the radio tag, in each time slot an agent u_i is able to adopt an action as:

$$s_i^t = \begin{cases} Sleep & sleep\ with\ probability\ (1-\theta_i) \\ Transmit & transmit\ with\ probability\ \theta_i p \\ Listen & listen\ with\ probability\ \theta_i(1-p) \end{cases}$$

Duty cycle is defined as the fraction of time an agent turns its radio on, which is formulated as:

$$\theta_i = \frac{|\{t : 0 \leq t < t_0, s_i(t) \in \{Transimit, Listen\}\}|}{t_0}.$$

Next, we introduce another efficient technique called collision detection mechanism. This technique is carried out by the physical carrier sensing [20], which is part of the 802.11 standard, and provided by a Clear Channel Assessment (CCS) circuit.

Collision detection mechanism. A listening agent can distinguish whether the channel is *idle* or *busy*, apart from successfully receiving a message.

B. Problem formulation

We formulate the problem in this paper as follows.

Problem 1: Consider $\hat{T}$ slots which is a small enough period in reality. We define an encounter problem as to design a protocol to guarantee all the agents in the clique can receive message from each other at least once if they encounter for at least $\hat{T}$ time slots and record the encounter process.

We look into the problem and find the key challenge is the uncertainty of dynamic movements of agents. Despite the dynamicity in this real system, when $\hat{T}$ is short enough relative to the time required for an agent to move a short distance in reality (e.g., less than 1 second), we can make a reasonable assumption that the communication connectivity of the agents is stable during each $\hat{T}$ time slots.

IV. ADAPTIVE WILDLIFE ENCOUNTER PROTOCOL

In this section, we present our Adaptive Wildlife Encounter (AWE) protocol. The pseudo-code of the protocol is given in Algorithm 2 and Algorithm 3.

AWE consists of two stages: detecting stage and connecting stage.

- **Stage 1: detecting stage.** In this stage, an agent attempts to detect whether there are nearby peers, regardless of who they are.
- **Stage 2: connecting stage** In this stage, an agent attempts to identify the nearby peer(s) and record their IDs to its log.

Initially, each agent starts from the detecting stage. In the detecting stage, an agent turns its radio to the *sleep* state most of the time, and switches to $transmit$ state or $listen$ state at intervals. In the connecting stage, agents only switch between $transmit$ state and $listen$ state.

The key idea of AWE is that, any single agent keeps in detecting stage to reduce ineffective energy consumption. When encounter happens, it detects the existence of nearby peers and turns to the connecting stage to identify those peers (or a peer) as fast as possible and record the encounter process to its log. when the encounter process is determined to be finished in the connecting stage, the agent turns back to the detecting stage.

Remark 1: In the AWE protocol, there is no need to synchronize the stage between agents and AWE still works when encounter peers are in different stage, e.g., an agent in detecting stage bursts into a stable clique in connecting stage. The proof of correctness will be presented in section V.

In the following, we describe the operations of these two stages in detail.

A. Detecting stage

In the detecting stage, energy efficiency is achieved by the duty cycle mechanism, e.g., denote the predefined duty cycle for all the agents is θ, the tag radio of each agent will work θT_0 slots in every period of T_0 slots.

However, it is very ineffective when two agents encounter and one is in $sleep$ state while the other is transmitting or listening. To technically achieve synchronizing the time that agents turn on the radio without extra cost, we introduce the technique of Relax Difference Set (RDS) [21]. We use the RDS technique to guarantee that every encounter pair of agents turn on the radio in the same slot at least once in each round T_0.

RDS is an efficient tool to construct cyclic quorum systems [16]. The definition is:

Definition 2: A set $R = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_k\} \subseteq Z_T$ (the set of all non-negative integers less than T) is called a RDS if for every $d \neq 0 \pmod{T}$, there exists at least one ordered pair (a_i, a_j) such that $a_i - a_j \equiv d \pmod{T}$, where $a_i, a_j \in D$.
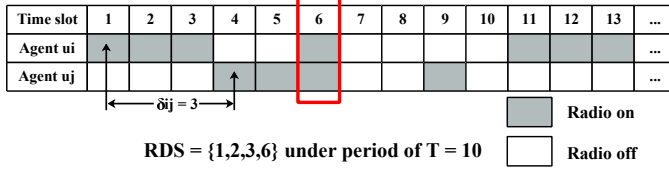

Fig. 1. A example of how RDS works to help synchronization. Consider a period of ten slots and the time drift between two agents u_i and u_j is 3. There exists an ordered pair $(6, 3)$ in the constructed RDS such that $6 - 3 \equiv 3 \pmod{10}$. Thus they will determinately turn on the radio at the same slot in every period T, which is the 6th slot in a period of u_i and the 3th slot in that of u_j respectively.

We now give an example to explain how RDS works to help synchronization. Suppose the duty cycle is set as 0.4, i.e., there are 4 active slots in every 10 slots. It is easy to show that $R = \{1, 2, 3, 6\}$ is a RDS under Z_{10}:

$$2 - 1 = 1, \quad 3 - 1 = 2, \quad 6 - 3 = 3, \quad 6 - 2 = 4,$$
$$6 - 1 = 5, \quad 2 - 6 = 6 \ (mod \ 10), \quad \ldots, \quad \ldots,$$

In every period of ten slots, for any $i = \{0, 1, ..., 9\}$, if $i \in R$, then the agent turns on its radio in the ith slot in this period; otherwise it turns off the radio to the $sleep$ state. An example is depicted in Figure 1.

Algorithm 1 RDS Construction Algorithm

1: $R := \emptyset$; $\lambda := \lceil \sqrt{N} \rceil$, $\mu := \lceil \frac{\lceil \sqrt{N} \rceil}{2} \rceil$;
2: **for** $i = 1 : \lambda$ **do**
3: $\quad R := R \cup i$;
4: **end for**
5: **for** $j = 1 : \mu$ **do**
6: $\quad R := R \cup (1 + j * \lambda)$;
7: **end for**

It has been proved that any RDS must have cardinality $|R| \geq \sqrt{N}$ [21]. We present a linear algorithm to construct a RDS with cardinality $\lceil \frac{3\sqrt{T_0}}{2} \rceil$ under Z_{T_0} in Alg. 2.

We show the correctness of the construction formally.

Lemma 1: Set $R = \{r_0, r_1, ..., r_{\lambda+\mu-1}\}$ constructed in Alg. 2 is a RDS, where $|R| = \lambda + \mu = \lceil \sqrt{T_0} \rceil + \lceil \frac{\lceil \sqrt{T_0} \rceil}{2} \rceil \approx \lceil \frac{3\sqrt{T_0}}{2} \rceil$.

Proof: Obviously, if there exists one ordered pair (a_i, a_j) satisfying $a_i - a_j \equiv d \pmod{T_0}$, an opposing pair (a_j, a_i) exists such that $a_j - a_i \equiv (T_0 - d) \pmod{T_0}$. Thus we only need to find at least one ordered pair (a_i, a_j) for each $d \in [1, \lfloor T_0/2 \rfloor]$.

In the construction, λ in Line 1 is the smallest integer satisfying $\lambda^2 \geq T_0$. Every d in range $[1, \lfloor T_0/2 \rfloor]$ can be represented as: $d = 1 + j \times \lambda - i$, where $1 \leq j \leq \mu, 1 \leq i \leq \lambda$. Thus, there exists $a_j = 1 + j \times \lambda$ from Line. 3 and $a_i = i$ from Line. 6 satisfying $a_j - a_i \equiv d$. Then, the lemma can be derived. ∎

Algorithm 2 Detecting Algorithm

1: $T_0 := \lceil \frac{9}{4\theta^2} \rceil$; $\omega_0 := \frac{1}{2}$; $t := 0$;
2: Invoke Alg. 2 to construct $R = \{r_0, r_1, ..., r_{\lceil \frac{3\sqrt{T_0}}{2} \rceil}\}$ under Z_{T_0};
3: **while** $True$ **do**
4: $\quad$ **if** $(t+1) \in R$ **then**
5: $\quad\quad$ *In the first sub-slot:*
6: $\quad\quad$ Transmit a beacon with probability ω_0 and listen with probability $1 - \omega_0$;
7: $\quad\quad$ *In the second sub-slot:*
8: $\quad\quad$ **if** the agent is in $listen$ state in the first sub-slot **then**
9: $\quad\quad\quad$ **if** detects energy (a beacon or a collision by multiple beacons) in the first sub-slot **then**
10: $\quad\quad\quad\quad$ Transmit a beacon and turn to the **connecting stage**;
11: $\quad\quad\quad$ **end if**
12: $\quad\quad$ **else if** detects energy (a beacon or a collision by multiple beacons) in this sub-slot **then**
13: $\quad\quad\quad$ Turn to the **connecting stage**;
14: $\quad\quad$ **end if**
15: $\quad$ **else**
16: $\quad\quad$ $Sleep$ in the whole slot;
17: $\quad$ **end if**
18: $\quad$ $t := (t+1)\%T_0$;
19: **end while**

Based on the RDS, we present the operations in the detecting stage as Alg. 2. Each slot is divided into two sub-slots. Agents turn on and off the radio according to the RDS sequence, Consider a slot the radio is on. In the first sub-slot an agent transmits a beacon with probability ω_0 and listens with probability $(1 - \omega_0)$. In the second sub-slot:

1) The agent is in $listen$ state in the first sub-slot:
   – if the agent detects a beacon (or beacons) in the first sub-slot, it transmits a beacon (a bit is OK) as an acknowledgement on the channel in the second sub-slot and turn to the connecting stage; otherwise it does nothing.

2) The agent is in *transmit* state in the first sub-slot:
   - if the agent detects a beacon (or beacons) in this sub-slot, it turns to the connecting stage; otherwise it does nothing.

As discussed before, the aim of this stage is to detect nearby peer(s) as fast as possible (if exists), and either successful transmission or detecting busy on the channel activates the agent to switch to the connecting stage. Hence we fix the transmitting probability as $\omega_0 = \frac{1}{2}$.

B. Connecting stage

In the connecting stage, agents attempt to identify the nearby peers and record the encounter to its log. A successful identification happens only if the agent is listening and exactly one peer is transmitting.

Algorithm 3 Connecting Algorithm

1: $t := 0$; $\omega_t := \zeta$;
2: **while** $True$ **do**
3:    ***In the first sub-slot:***
4:    Transmit a message containing ID with probability ω_t and listen with probability $1 - \omega_t$;
5:    ***In the second sub-slot:***
6:    **if** the agent is in $listen$ state in the first sub-slot **then**
7:      **if** reveive a message successfully **then**
8:        Record the source ID and transmit a beacon;
9:        Set $\omega_{t+1} := \frac{\omega_t}{(1+\epsilon)}$;
10:     **else if** channel is idle **then**
11:       Set $\omega_{t+1} := min\{(1+\epsilon) \cdot \omega_t, \zeta\}$;
12:     **else**
13:       Set $\omega_{t+1} := \frac{\omega_t}{(1+\epsilon)}$; \\ the channel is busy
14:     **end if**
15:    **else**
16:      **if** detect beacons in this sub-slot **then**
17:        $\omega_{t+1} := 0$;
18:      **else**
19:        Set $\omega_{t+1} := \frac{\omega_t}{(1+\epsilon)}$;
20:      **end if**
21:    **end if**
22:    $t := (t+1)$;
23:    **if** $t == \hat{T}$ **then**
24:      **if** no peer is found in this round **then**
25:        Turn to the **detecting stage**;
26:      **else**
27:        $t := 0$; $\omega_t := \zeta$;
28:      **end if**
29:    **end if**
30: **end while**

The collision detection (CD) mechanism is incorporated in this stage to increase of efficiency. This mechanism enables the listening agent to notify the transmitting peers of the transmission outcomes, and thus they take measures to reduce the collisions if not successful.

In this stage, every $\hat{T}$ slots consists of a round. Each agent repeats the operations in Alg. 3 round by round and it turns to the connecting stage when it cannot find any peer in a complete round, as the operation in Line 25.

As discussed in section III, $\hat{T}$ is relatively short in real world, thus the communication connectivity stays stable in a round. However, due to the dynamic movements of agents, the communication connectivity may change from round to round, so all the parameters will be initialized at the beginning of each round and adaptively adjusted later according to the transmission outcome.

Each slot is divided into two sub-slots. Agents execute transmission or reception in the first sub-slot, and in the second sub-slot take actions responding to the outcome of the previous sub-slot (success/fail to transmit/receive a message).

Since the number of the nearby peers is unknown to each agent, the transmitting probability is initially set as ζ, which is a pre-defined constant.

In the first sub-slot of each slot t, an agent transmits a message containing ID with probability ω_t and listen with probability $(1 - \omega_t)$. In the second sub-slot:

1) The agent is in $listen$ state in the first sub-slot:
   - if the agent receives a message successfully, it decodes and records the source ID in the message, and transmits a beacon (a bit is OK) as an acknowledgement on the channel in the second sub-slot.
   - if the channel is idle, this means there is a chance to transmit successfully and it multiplies its transmitting probability by a factor $(1 + \epsilon)$ (no larger than the pre-defined constant ζ).
   - if the agent detects collisions, it divides its transmission probability by a factor $(1 + \epsilon)$.
2) The agent is in $transmit$ state in the first sub-slot:
   - if the agent detects beacons in this sub-slot, this means its previous message has been successfully received by its nearby peers, and it keeps listening in all the rest first sub-slots of this round, which is called *quiet* state.
   - if the agent detects nothing in this sub-slot, it means its previous message failed to propagate due to simultaneous transmissions. Thus it divides its transmission probability by a factor $(1 + \epsilon)$.

Factor $(1 + \epsilon)$ is a pre-defined constant to adjust the transmission probability adaptively. For simplify, we set $(1 + \epsilon) := 2$ for analysis in the next section. In the end of a complete round, if there is no peer detected in this whole round, which indicates the encounter process is finished, the agent turns to the detecting stage .

V. ANALYSIS OF THE AWE PROTOCOL

In this section, we prove that with a clique of k agents, AWE protocol guarantees each agent can record all the peers in $O(k)$ slots with high probability. Note that, k is not known in the execution of the protocol but just for analysis in this section. Formally, this result is derived from the following theorem.

Theorem 1: Consider an encounter process of k agents (k is a integer $k \geq 2$) :

(1) An agent in detecting stage will switch to the connecting stage in $O(\theta^{-2})$ slots with high probability. Recall that θ is the pre-defined duty cycle and can be seen as a constant.

(2) When all the agents are in the connecting stage, all of them will transmit successfully in a first sub-slot and turn to the *quiet* state in $O(k)$ slots with high probability.

We prove these two conclusions in Theorem 1 in Section V-A, and Section V-B respectively. Based on this theorem, we can estimate a duration of the encounter process between any pair of agents u_i and u_j, by checking the records in their local logs. If there are z consecutive records of the other peer, it indicates a duration of $2z\hat{T}t_0$. Recall that $2t_0$ is the real time of a slot and $\hat{T}$ is the number of slots of a round in the connecting stage, which is sufficiently large to satisfy the bound of the AWE protocol while still short enough relative to the time required for an agent to move a short distance.

A. Time bound for detecting stage

When an encounter happens, an agent in detecting stage will switch to connecting stage very soon. We derive this conclusion from the following three lemmas.

Lemma 2: Consider any two agents u_i and u_j in detecting stage. In each period T_0, they will turn on the radio in the same slot at least once.

Proof: Assume the time drift between u_i and u_j is δ_{ij} (mod T_0). In the RDS constructed under T_0, there exists at least one ordered pair (a_i, a_j) such that $a_i - a_j \equiv \delta_{ij}$ (mod T_0). Thus the a_i^{th} slot in a period of u_i is exactly the a_j^{th} slot in a period of a_j^{th} and both of them turn on the radio in this slot according to Alg. 2 Line 4, which completes the proof. ∎

Lemma 3: Consider k agents all in the detecting stage at the beginning, an agent in detecting stage will turn to the connecting stage in $O(\theta^{-2})$ slots with high probability.

Proof: By Lemma 2, an agent can turn on the radio in the same slot with any other peer at least once during a period of T_0. The probability it detects a peer in a period of T_0 is at least $Pr \geq 1 - \frac{1}{2^{k-1}}$. Hence given a small enough constant η, it holds with high probability that an agent will turn to connecting stage in $\frac{\ln \eta}{\ln \frac{1}{2^{k-1}}}$ periods, which is $\frac{\ln \eta}{\ln \frac{1}{2^{k-1}}} \lceil \frac{9}{4\theta^2} \rceil$ slots in total. ∎

Lemma 4: An agent turns to the connecting stage will increase the probability that other peers in the detecting stage to detect peers.

Proof: An agent in the detecting stage will transmit or listen in every first sub-slot which can help peers to detect it, while it only turns on the radio a fraction of time in the detecting stage. ∎

According to Lemma 3 and 4, every agent will turn to the connecting stage in $O(\theta^{-2})$ slots with high probability.

B. Time bound for connecting stage

Consider the k agents all in the connecting stage. We analyze the upper bound for all the agents in the clique to transmit successfully. Note that, an agent transmitting successfully will be recorded by all the other peers in the clique, and then it switches to the *quiet* state.

Denote S_t as the set of agents which have not switched to the *quiet* state in slot t, and $|S_t|$ is the cardinality. Thus the upper bound of the protocol is the maximum slots for a clique to turn to $|S_t| = 0$.

In the following, we first show the upper bound of slots it takes from the beginning to $|S_t| \leq \log k$ in Lemma 5. Then we show the upper bound it takes to $|S_t| = 1$ in Lemma 15. Finally we present that it takes for all agents to successfully transmit (i.e, $|S_t| = 0$.) in $O(k)$ in Lemma 16.

Lemma 5: There exists $T_2 = O(k)$ it holds with high probability that $|S_{T_2}| \leq \log k$.

To prove this lemma, we need to introduce and prove some small lemmas at first. We review two useful lemmas as follows.

Lemma 6: Consider a set of l agents, $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_l$. For an agent u_i, it transmits with probability $0 < \omega(u_i) < \frac{1}{2}$. Let p_0 denote the probability that the channel is idle in a slot; and p_1 denote the probability that there is exactly one transmission in a slot. Then $p_0 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{l} \omega(u_i) \leq p_1 \leq 2 \cdot p_0 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{l} \omega(u_i)$

Lemma 7: With $a_i \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$ for $i = 0, 1, \ldots,$ it holds that

$$4^{-\sum_i a_i} \leq \prod_i (1 - a_i) \leq e^{-\sum_i a_i}. \tag{1}$$

The proof of Lemma 6 can be referred to [22] and the proof of Lemma 7 can be referred to [23]. Based on these two lemmas, we get the following conclusion.

Lemma 8: For a slot $T > 0$ with $|S_t| \geq \log k$, if there exist constants $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \geq 1$ such that $\alpha_1 \leq \sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \leq \alpha_2$, then with constant probability there is one active node switching to the *quiet* state in each slot.

Proof: By Lemma 7 and 8 in each slot, the channel is idle with probability at least $4^{-2\alpha_2}$, and there is exactly one transmission on the channel with probability at least $\alpha_1 \cdot 4^{-2\alpha_2}$. Thus, it holds that with constant probability (given α_1 and α_2), there are one agent switch to the quiet state in each slot. ∎

Next we show that after all the agents turn to the connecting stage, the summation of the total agents' transmission probabilities will go between α_1 and α_2 soon, where α_1 and α_2 are constants defined in Lemma 8.

Lemma 9: For a slot with $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) = \alpha$, it holds that $Pr[\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_{t+1}(u) \leq \alpha \cdot \frac{3}{4}] \geq \frac{7}{8}$ for large enough α.

Proof: The probability that there are more than one agents transmit in slot t is at least $1 - exp\{-\alpha\}$ according to Equation (1). All the agents will halve their transmission probabilities if the channel is not idle in slot t. Denote X as the random variable that indicates the value of $\sum_{u \in S_{t+1}} \omega_{t+1}(u)$. We get,

$$Pr[X = \sum_{u \in S_t} \frac{\omega_t(u)}{2}] \geq 1 - exp\{-\alpha\}$$

which is at least 7/8 when α is large enough. Hence,

$$X \leq \frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \alpha + \frac{1}{8} \cdot 2\alpha < \frac{3}{4} \cdot \alpha.$$

Therefore, it holds with high probability that for large α, $Pr[\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_{t+1}(u) \leq \alpha \cdot \frac{3}{4}] \geq \frac{7}{8}$. Note that, we did not consider the effect when an agent turns to the *quiet* state, which only makes the summation decrease and hence is not harmful. $\blacksquare$

Lemma 10: There exists a constant $\hat{\alpha}_2 > 1$, such that among $\gamma \log k$ slots (not necessarily consecutive) with $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \geq \hat{\alpha}_2$ and sufficiently large $\gamma > 0$, there are at least $\frac{3}{4}\gamma \log k$ slots with $\sum_{u \in S_{t+1}} \omega_{t+1}(u) < \frac{3}{4}\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u)$, with probability $1 - O(k^{-1})$.

Proof: Let $T := \gamma \log k$, and X_t be the random variable that indicates the value of $\sum_{u \in S_{t+1}} \omega_{t+1}(u)/\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u)$. Then by Lemma 9, it holds that $Pr[X_t \leq \frac{3}{4}] \geq \frac{7}{8}$. Let Y_t be the binary random variable that takes value 1 if $X_t \leq \frac{3}{4}$. Note that given $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \geq \hat{\alpha}_2$, $E[Y_t] \geq \frac{7}{8}$ always hold. Hence, $E[\sum_{t=1}^{T} Y_t] \geq T \cdot \frac{7}{8}$, and it holds that $Pr[\sum_{t=1}^{T} Y_t \leq T \cdot \frac{3}{4}]$ by the Chernoff bound. That is with probability $1 - O(k^{-1})$, there are at least $T \cdot \frac{3}{4}$ slots t with $\sum_{u \in S_{t+1}} \omega_{t+1}(u)/\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \leq 3/4$, which completes the proof. $\blacksquare$

Lemma 11: There exists a constant $\hat{\alpha}_2 > 1$, such that during any period of $\gamma \log k$ slots with sufficiently large $\gamma > 0$, the probability that within the considered period there is a slot t with $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \leq \hat{\alpha}_2$ is $1 - O(k^{-1})$.

Proof: Denote $T := \gamma \log k$ and the period of T starts from slot t_0. By Lemma 10, with probability at least $1 - On^{-1}$, it holds that

$$\sum_{u \in S_{t_0+T}} \omega_{t_0+T}(u) \geq \sum_{u \in S_{t_0}} \omega_{t_0}(u) \cdot (\frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot 2)^{\frac{T}{4}}$$
$$= \sum_{u \in S_{t_0}} \omega_{t_0}(u) \cdot (\frac{27}{32})^{\frac{T}{4}}.$$

Since $\sum_{u \in S_{t_0+T}} \omega_{t_0+T}(u) < k$ and $T = \gamma \log k$, we know that $\sum_{u \in S_{t_0+T}} \omega_{t_0+T}(u)$ is at most $\hat{\alpha}_2$ for large enough γ. $\blacksquare$

Lemma 12: There exists a constant $\hat{\alpha} \geq 0.01$ such that for any time t with $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) = \hat{\alpha}$, it holds that

$$Pr[\sum_{u \in S_{t+1}} \omega_{t+1}(u) \geq \hat{\alpha} \cdot \frac{4}{3}] \geq \frac{7}{8}. \qquad (2)$$

Proof: Denote X as the random variable that indicates the value of $\sum_{u \in S_{t+1}} \omega_{t+1}(u)$. The probability that there are no transmissions in slot t is at least $4^{-\hat{\alpha}}$. Hence,

$$Pr[X = \sum_{u \in S_t} 2 \cdot \omega_t(u)] \geq 1 - 4^{-\hat{\alpha}}$$

which is at least 7/8 when $\hat{\alpha}$ is close to 0.01. Hence,

$$X \geq \frac{7}{8} \cdot 2 \cdot \hat{\alpha} + \frac{1}{8} \cdot \frac{1}{2}\hat{\alpha} > \frac{4}{3} \cdot \hat{\alpha}.$$

Therefore, it holds with high probability that for small $\hat{\alpha}$ close to 0.01, $Pr[\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_{t+1}(u) \leq \hat{\alpha} \cdot \frac{4}{3}] \geq \frac{7}{8}$. $\blacksquare$

Lemma 13: There exists a constant $\hat{\alpha}_1 > 0$, such that among $\gamma \log k$ slots (not necessarily consecutive) with $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \leq \hat{\alpha}_1$ and sufficiently large $\gamma > 0$, there are at least $\frac{3}{4}\gamma \log k$ slots with $\sum_{u \in S_{t+1}} \omega_{t+1}(u) \geq \frac{4}{3}\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u)$, with probability $1 - O(k^{-1})$.

Proof: Denote $T := \gamma \log k$, X_t as the random variable that indicates the value of $\sum_{u \in S_{t+1}} \omega_{t+1}(u)/\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u)$, and Y_t to be the binary random variable that takes value 1 if $X_t \leq \frac{4}{3}$. Note that given $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \geq \hat{\alpha}_1$, $E[Y_t] \geq \frac{7}{8}$ always hold. Hence, $E[\sum_{t=1}^{T} Y_t] \geq T \cdot \frac{7}{8}$, and it holds that $Pr[\sum_{t=1}^{T} Y_t \leq T \cdot \frac{3}{4}]$ by the Chernoff bound. That is with probability $1 - O(k^{-1})$, there are at least $T \cdot \frac{4}{3}$ slots t with $\blacksquare$

Lemma 14: Let t_0 be the first slot in which $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u)$ drops below $\hat{\alpha}_2$. in the subsequent $T := \tau \cdot \log k$ slots where $\tau > 0$ and k is large enough, the following hold:

(1) there are at least $\frac{3}{4} \cdot T$ slots t with $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \leq \alpha_2$, where $\alpha_2 > \hat{\alpha}_2$ is a constant.
(2) there are at least $\frac{3}{4} \cdot T$ slots t with $\sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t(u) \geq \alpha_1 \cdot k$, where $\alpha_1 < \hat{\alpha}_1$ is a constant.

With Lemma 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13 and 14, we now prove Lemma 5.

Then we show that when the number of agents not switching to the *quiet* state is less than $\log k$, the process accelerates to only one agent not in *quiet* state with high probability. This is formulated as the following lemma.

Lemma 15: At time $T_3 := T_2 + \gamma_2 \cdot \log k = O(k)$ it holds with high probability that $|S_{T_3}| = 1$.

Proof: After T_2 slots, it holds with high probability that $|S_{T_2}| \leq \log k$. Then it takes at most $\gamma_2 \cdot \log k$ slots to keep $\beta_1 \leq \sum_{u \in S_t} \omega_t^u \leq \beta_2$, where β_1 and β_2 are two constants. Afterwards, there is a slot $T_3 := T_2 + \gamma_2 \cdot \log k$ such that $|S_{T_3}| = 1$, where $\gamma_2 > 0$ is a large enough constant. Otherwise during the period from T_2 to T_3, with high probability there are more than $\log k$ agents switching to the *quiet* state. $\blacksquare$

Finally we need to prove the following lemma.

Lemma 16: For time T_3 when there is only one agent not switching to *quiet* state, at time $T_4 := 2 \cdot T_3 + O(1) = O(k)$ it holds with high probability that this agent successes to transmit.

Proof: Since at time T_3 there is only one agent still attempting to transmit, the transmission probability will get to ζ at time $2 \cdot T_3$ if it keeps listening. Note that if agent u transmit with probability ζ for $\log k$ slots, where d then with high probability there exist one slot in which agent u successes to transmit. $\blacksquare$

According to the Lemma 5, 15 and 16, we get the upper bound $O(k)$ of the AWE protocol with respect to the clique size k. Note that, since the round of each agent may not be synchronized, AWE requires an overlap of at least T_4 time slots in a complete round between each agent. This can be easily solved as we set $\hat{T} := 2 \cdot T_4$ in Algorithm 3.

VI. EVALUATION

We carried out a number of experiments in order to validate the radio model. All the experiments were carried using LAUNCHXL-CC1350-4 evaluation boards with CC1350 RF microcontrollers by Texas Instruments. We used a quiet frequency in the 434 MHz band, for which the boards are designed, and we used the built-in helix antenna printed on the boards. This antenna is fairly inefficient, resulting in about 4x to 8x degradation in communication range [**?**]. We used it because the shorter ranges make testing easier and also because antennas on small wildlife tags also tend to be inefficient due to the tiny ground plane. The chips that we tested are widely-used in miniature wildlife tags, and they essentially represent a modern version of the chips that were used on the original Encounternet tags.

In all tests we configured the radios for GFSK modulation, 500 kb/s, ±250 kHz deviation, 1243 kHz receive bandwidth, and 10 dBm transmit power. We used a Windows program called SmartRF Studio version 7 to drive the boards during the tests and to log received packets. In all tests one board transmitted one 1.87 packets per second (intevals of 500 ms between packets). Packets consisted of a 4-byte preamble, 4-byte sync workd, a length byte, 30-byte payload that includes a sequence number, and a 2-byte checksum. The fast transmission rate reduces power consumption (per byte and per packet) and leads to short communication ranges, which are consistent with the goal of registering close encounters.

In a preliminary test, we configured one board to transmit packets, one board to receive them, and a third to transmit a CW carrier at the same frequency. The three boards were at distances of 0.4 m from each other. When the CW transmitter was off, virtually all packets were received correctly. When the CW transmitter was on, virtually no packets were received. This verifies that interference indeed blocks the receiver and may prevent packets from being received.
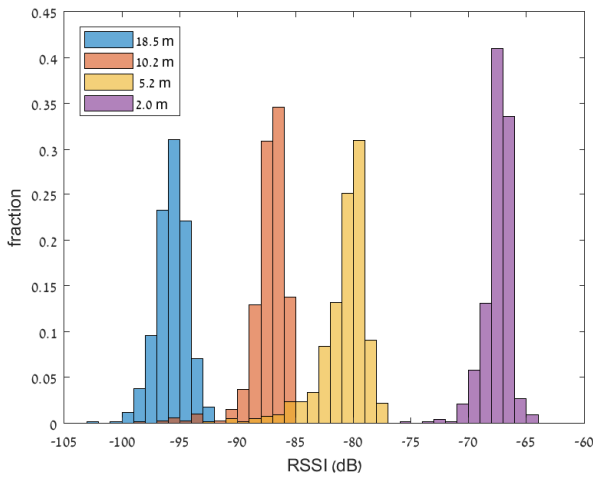

Fig. 2. Histograms of the RSSI of received packets at different distances between the transmitter and the receiver.
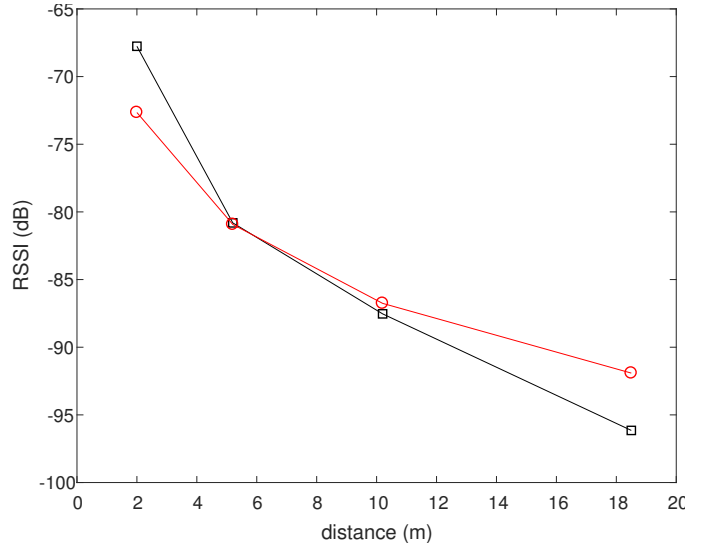

Fig. 3. Mean RSSI (after removal of outliers) at different distances, in black. The red curve is a least-square fitting of the data to a 6 dB attenuation when the distance doubles.

In the main test, we placed the transmitter board at a fixed position, about 1.4 m above ground, and measured receive performance at various distances between 2 and 78 m in an outdoor area with some human activity (but not much). We maintained each test position for at least 5 minutes. The receiver board was also placed about 1.4 m above ground. In all the tests shown in graphs the transmit and receive antennas were pointed at each other. We also performed a few tests with the receive antenna rotated 90 degrees; RSSI values were about 1–2 dB lower but the overall results were similar; this is consistent with the characterization of the antenna, which indicates that it is fairly onmidirectional [**?**]. The main results are shown in Figure 2. At each distance we measured the fraction of correctly-received packets and the RSSI of each packet. At the four distances reported in the figure, virtually all transmitted packets were received correctly. We can see a clear statistical correlation between distance and RSSI. Figure 3 shows that the RSSI values roughly follow the theoretical rule that stipulates a 6 dB attenuation when the distance doubles. The means shown in this figure are of the center 50% of the packets; the extreme 50% were filtered to remove outliers.

We also tested performance at distances of 53 m and 78 m. At these distances, results were inconsistent. In one test at 78 m, 84% of the packets with mean RSSI of -98 dB. But in another test two hours later, only 2% of the packets were correctly received. At 53 m, no packets were received correctly for over 5 minutes. This location was in a depression, about 3 m lower than both the transmitter and from the 78 m position; this may have contributed to the worse performance. The main conclusion from these long-distance experiments (long given the bit rate) is that packets can sometimes be received at fairly long distances and with RSSI values that typically characterize much shorter

distances.

However, the results also indicate that by dropping packets with low RSSI, say below -90 dB for these settings, we can effectively limit the communication range to 20 m or so.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we study the encounter problem in a single-hop networks of k agents. We propose a protocol consisting of two stages, namely detecting stage and connecting stage. Our protocol guarantee that, when encounter happens, an agent in detecting stage will switch to the connecting stage soon. After all the agents are in the connecting stage, each of them can record all the peers in $O(k)$ slots with high probability. We present concrete analysis of the protocol under the radio model and validate the model by real-world experiments.

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