

A Generic Framework for Context-Aware Routing and its Implementation in Wireless Sensor Networks

Bernd-Ludwig Wenning, Andreas Timm-Giel, Carmelita Görg
Communication Networks, University of Bremen, Germany

Abstract

As networks become more dynamic, the awareness of the network members' current context is of growing importance. This can be said especially for communication networks, but also for other types of networks, e.g. logistic networks. Context-aware routing takes this context information into account when selecting routes in such networks. This paper introduces a novel generic framework for context-aware routing, including the message flow as well as the route decision method. The framework is not limited to a single application domain, but it is a generalized approach that can be adapted and specialized for various application domains. As an example, a wireless sensor network scenario is presented where this routing framework is applied.

1 Introduction

Routing in dynamically changing networks needs to react to the dynamics to achieve efficient and reliable network usage. All sources of dynamics in these networks can be considered as context for the route selection. Therefore, a routing that considers the dynamics for the route selection can be named context-aware routing.

Context-aware routing generally implies that there are multiple context criteria which influence the route decision process. Some context-aware routing approaches for communication networks are known from current literature, but they are usually tailored to a specific use case. The most general formulations are described in [1] and [3]. Both of them are using additive utility functions to combine the multiple criteria into one decision metric.

CAR (Context-Aware Routing, [1]) is a routing protocol designed for ad hoc networks. It uses context information such as a node's connectivity and battery status to determine a delivery probability that denotes whether the node is a reliable next hop towards the destination. For wireless sensor networks, SCAR (Sensor Context-Aware Routing, [2]) has been derived from CAR as an adaptation. Both CAR and SCAR are proactive routing methods where each node evaluates its own delivery probability and periodically sends the result to its neighbors.

In [3], a Normalized Weighted Additive Utility Function (NWAUF) is defined for multi-criteria routing in wireless ad hoc networks. In the provided example, energy, latency and bit error rate are used as criteria. The NWAUF is evaluated by each node in the network and may be used either with global or with local network status knowledge.

Both the NWAUF and the decision utility in CAR are very similar. They utilize an additive utility for local decisions at the individual nodes. All nodes proactively maintain routing tables.

The goal of the work presented here is to create a generic framework for context-aware routing that provides more flexibility than the aforementioned approaches.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 introduces the messages that are defined for this framework, as well as the flow of these messages. The decision system that is used in the framework is described in section 3. After this generic framework description, Reactive Environmental Monitoring Aware routing (Reactive EMA) is described as an implementation for Wireless Sensor Networks in section 4. A simulation scenario and simulation results are shown and discussed in section 5. The paper concludes with a summary and outlook in section 6.

2 Generic context-aware routing framework

The context information that is present in a network is usually distributed among the network nodes. To utilize this context information for route decisions, either the decisions have to be done distributed among the participating nodes, or the relevant context information has to be collected at the node that decides.

Routing protocols for mobile ad-hoc networks (MANETs) already have methods of collecting or exchanging information that is relevant for routing, either proactive, e.g. OLSR (Optimized Link State Routing, [4]) or reactive, e.g. DSR (Dynamic Source Routing, [5]), AODV (Ad Hoc On-Demand Distance Vector, [6]). These methods can be borrowed and extended for context-aware routing.

The context-aware routing method introduced in this work is supposed to provide high flexibility. A sending node should be able to individually decide which context information to consider and how to prioritize among the context criteria. This flexibility means that for each route decision, the decision function may

contain an individual set of context criteria. Achieving this through a proactive routing approach would require that the values of all known context criteria would have to be disseminated in the network periodically, so that each node can always decide which of those criteria to use and how to combine them. In a reactive approach, the sending node has to specify during a route discovery phase which context information is currently of interest. This means that not all of the context criteria have to be kept up to date in the entire network all the time, but they can be collected on demand.

For the routing framework presented in this paper, a reactive source routing approach is chosen to gather the context information from the network. This context information has to include:

- Specification which context criteria are used
- Parameterized rules to combine the context criteria values
- The criteria values themselves.

The nodes in the network need to know how to interpret the context information, i.e. when they get a set of parameters for combining the criteria values, they need to have knowledge about what these parameters mean. Also, they have to be able to interpret the information about which criteria are used. Therefore, each node must have a local knowledge base for this, and that knowledge base must be the same for all nodes. If this is fulfilled, numeric identifiers can be used for the selected criteria and for the combination rules.

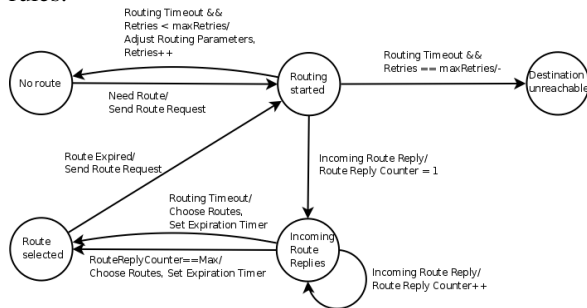


Figure 1: State diagram for route discovery (sender)

The route discovery generally works similar as in conventional source routing approaches. When a node needs to send something and has no route to the destination, it broadcasts a route request and changes into a waiting state (“Routing started” in Figure 1). At the same time, it initiates a timeout to restrict the waiting time for route replies.

The route request itself has some differences compared to conventional source routing: Not only source, destination and a sequence number are important here, but the context information that is mentioned above also has to be included in a route request. Each node that receives a route request has to update this context information by including local context knowledge to it and eventually forwards the request or creates a route reply (see Figure 2).

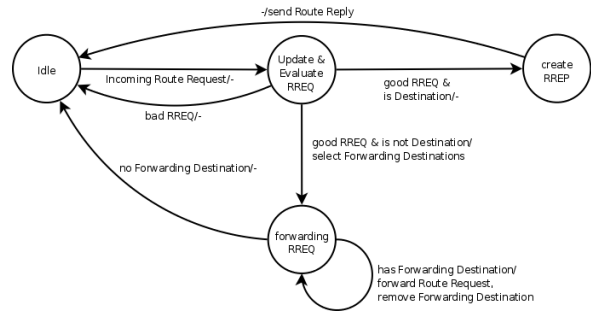


Figure 2: State diagram for route request receiver

The forwarding implies another difference to a conventional source routing: As the propagation delay is not the only decision criterion, the first incoming route request does not generally belong to the best routes. Instead, there can be later requests which refer to a better route. This means that these requests have to be forwarded as well. A forwarding of all requests would create problematic floods in the network, so the nodes need to restrict the flooding by the use of forwarding based on the selected context criteria which also have to be specified in the route request. So the minimum set of information that is required in the route request is

- Source address
- Destination address
- Sequence number
- Hop list
- Context information field containing:
 - Criteria selection
 - Parameterized criteria combination rule
 - Forwarding restriction rule
 - Criteria values

When the destination receives a route request, it creates a route reply message that is sent back to the source. Provided that the source remembers what it specified in the route request, which is a reasonable assumption, the context field in the route reply can be reduced so that it only contains the criteria values. As the destination will likely receive multiple route requests from a route discovery, the forwarding restriction rules may also be applied to the sending of route replies so that an unnecessarily high volume of route reply traffic can be avoided.

The source waits for incoming route replies until either the aforementioned timeout expires or a sufficient amount of replies is received. Then it decides, based on the received route replies, which route to choose. In case that there was no route reply before the timeout occurred, it may restart the route discovery with less strict forwarding restrictions (see also Figure 1).

The data packets that are sent by the source after route selection contain the list of hops for that route, as in a conventional source routing approach.

3 Route decision system

For the route decision as well as for the route request forwarding decision, the context criteria have to be combined in a decision function.

The decision utilities used in the approaches in [1] and [3] are based on a weighted additive combination. Such additive utilities have one significant drawback: Even if one criterion in this utility has a very bad value which should make the route option unacceptable, this may be compensated by good values of the other criteria as long as the bad value is set to plus or minus infinity. A multiplicative utility is better suited for such cases as an unacceptable value can simply be mapped to 0, and the utility immediately becomes 0 as well, independent of what values the other criteria have. Therefore, a multiplicative decision function is used in this route decision system. This decision function, named MCCD (Multi Criteria Context-based Decision) function, is defined for N context criteria as:

$$U = \prod_{i=1}^N (f_{s,i}(c_i))^{w_i}$$

In this function, c_i represents the value of the i -th context criterion. The function $f_{s,i}$ is a scaling function that maps the value range of the i -th criterion to the interval $[0, 1]$, which is set to be a common, bounded value range for all scaled criteria. Consequently, the result U also lies in the $[0, 1]$ interval. The scaling function can be any kind of function that projects the criterion value range into the $[0, 1]$ interval. Especially, it does not need to be a linear scaling.

The weight w_i is used to prioritize criteria within the MCCD function. A term with a high weight has more influence on the decision than a term with a low weight.

In the route decision process, the resulting utility is directly used as route selection metric. For the decision whether to forward a route request at an intermediate node, it is compared against a threshold, and the request is only forwarded if the utility is better than the threshold. Additionally, thresholds can be given for individual context criteria so that these can also be used to control the route request forwarding.

As the MCCD function is the default function used in this generic context-aware routing framework, its general form is supposed to be part of the nodes' common knowledge and does not need to be specified in the route discovery. What has to be specified, however, are the scaling functions and the weights that are used. For the route request contents that were described in section 2, this means the contents of the context information field can be further refined. The

criteria combination rules are consisting of three components:

- Identifiers for generic scaling function shapes for each criterion
- Parameters that are refining the function shapes to the actual functions in use
- Weights for each criterion

Furthermore, the forwarding restriction rules in the context field are the threshold values for each context criterion and for the MCCD function outcome.

4 Reactive EMA

As a sensor network example of the context-aware routing protocol, the Reactive Environmental Monitoring Aware routing (Reactive EMA) is presented for wireless sensor networks. The general idea behind EMA routing is that the environmental conditions influence the route decisions: A sensor network is deployed in a potentially hostile area where sensor node failures occur that are caused by the environment in which the sensors are placed and which they can sense. Herein, the environmental conditions become part of the context that is relevant for routing. Sensors that are threatened by the sensed phenomena have to be avoided as relay nodes in order to prevent route failures.

The route request and route reply messages in Reactive EMA follow the definitions of these messages for the general context-aware protocol with only minor modifications: They additionally contain a frame type field which helps identifying the frame whether it is a route request, a route reply or a data transmission. Due to the special nature of wireless sensor networks, where data has to be transmitted from multiple sources to one or few sinks, the destination address (i.e. the sink address) is not contained in the route request. This assumes that all sinks are providing the same service to the sensor network and are therefore redundant, so that any of the sinks can respond to an incoming route request.

In order to reduce the route request traffic in the network, two restrictions are used in addition to the thresholds described above:

- Intermediate nodes, which have to calculate the MCCD function anyway to enforce the forwarding thresholds, memorize its outcome for recent route requests. If another route request comes, which has the same source address and sequence number of a recently seen request, it is only forwarded if the MCCD function creates a better result.
- If a node that receives a route request already has a valid route towards a sink, it does not rebroadcast the route request, but the request is unicast towards the sink.

Routes in Reactive EMA have a limited lifetime, so that the dynamic changes of context in the network

can be handled by new route discoveries when the route lifetime expires.

The Reactive EMA implementation used for the simulations in the following chapter uses three context criteria:

- The *node health* is a value between 0 (no health) and 100 (full health). It depends on the temperature that the node measures. If the temperature is below 30°C, the node has full health, if it is above 130°C, the health is 0 and the node is facing destruction. The lowest health value along a route is the value that is used in the MCCD function. As the node health has fixed upper and lower limits, the applied scaling function can be a linear downscaling to the [0 1] interval.
- The *RSSI*, given in dBW, indicates the signal strength with which a signal is received and is therefore a measure for the link quality between nodes. Similar to the node health, the lowest RSSI value is the relevant one. As there is an upper limit (the transmission power), but no lower limit, the scaling function ideally should have a shape where it is 1 for the upper limit, and approaches 0 for minus infinity. An exponential function fulfills these requirements.
- The *hop count* of a route is related to the energy consumption on that route. The higher the hop count, the more energy is spent if the nodes are not applying any power control. For the scaling, this means that a monotonically decreasing function should be used. In the simulations, the applied scaling function for the hop count is a negative exponential function.

5 Simulation

To evaluate the Reactive EMA protocol, simulations were done using OPNET Modeler [7] as the simulation environment.

5.1 Scenario

For the sensor network simulation, a scenario was used which represents a case where the environment can threaten the sensor nodes. Therefore, this scenario is a good use case for an Environmental Monitoring-Aware (EMA) routing protocol. It is a forestfire scenario where 20 sensor nodes are randomly distributed over a forest area of 10x10 km as depicted in Figure 3, with one sink at a corner of the area (the node labeled “sink_0”). This sink is receiving the sensor measurements. All other nodes are identical in that they each have the same sensing, computation and

communication capabilities, one of which is temperature sensing.

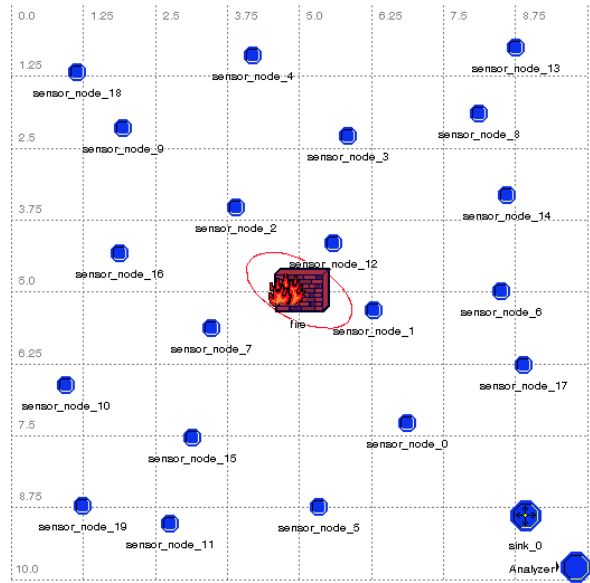


Figure 3: Forestfire scenario topology

It is simulated that a fire breaks out in the area 20 minutes after the start of the simulation, which means in these 20 minutes, there is enough time for the network to reach a static state. The fire outbreak is on one hand a phenomenon that the sensors should detect and on the other hand threatens the sensors to be destroyed. The fire spreads over the area in an elliptic fashion according to the ellipse shown in the figure, with a spreading speed of 1 m/s on the minor axis and 2 m/s on major axis of the ellipse.

The applied temperature model is simple: As long as a node is not exposed to fire, its temperature values are normally distributed with a mean of 20 degrees Celsius and a variance of one degree Celsius. When the node becomes exposed to the fire, a linearly growing offset is added to the node's temperature value. Figure 4 shows the temperature curve at sensor node 1, a node that is located close to the fire breakout location. It can be clearly seen that in the applied temperature model, the temperature increases quickly when the fire reaches the node, which in the illustrated case happens at ca. 1900 seconds of model time. Within a short time, the maximum temperature threshold is reached and the node is destroyed.

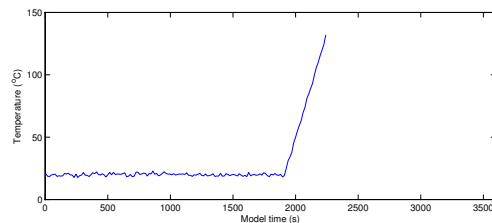


Figure 4: Temperature at sensor_node_1

The nodes measure the temperature every 15 seconds and transmit the obtained values to the base station as input into a forest fire detection algorithm and fire fighter alerting. Each node has an individual starting time for its first measurement to avoid effects caused by synchronous transmissions of all nodes. Assuming that the temperature is not the only data that a node is sending, the measured values are part of a data packet of 1 kBit size. This means each node is transmitting 1 kBit every 15 seconds, resulting in an overall rate of generated data at all nodes of 1.33 kBit/s or 1.33 packets/s.

The transmission power, which is equal for all nodes in the scenario, is chosen to be 1 mW (=0 dBm) so that multiple hops are required to reach the sink. Only the four nodes that are closest to the sink are in direct communication range with it. It has to be noted that in this scenario, the receiver sensitivity is not set, so that signal strength levels below a usual receiver sensitivity (which e.g. is -95 dBm for a Texas Instruments/Chipcon CC2420 [10]) are also possible.

5.2 Node model

The sensor nodes in the simulation scenario are modeled as IEEE 802.15.4 nodes as depicted in Figure 5. The MAC (Medium Access Control) and PHY (Physical) layers in the node model are based on the Open-ZB [8] implementation (version 1.0) of the IEEE 802.15.4 stack. Different from the original Open-ZB model, the MAC layer was modified to support an ad-hoc mode with unslotted CSMA/CA instead of the original PAN-coordinated mode. This modified MAC layer was first used in work reported in [9].

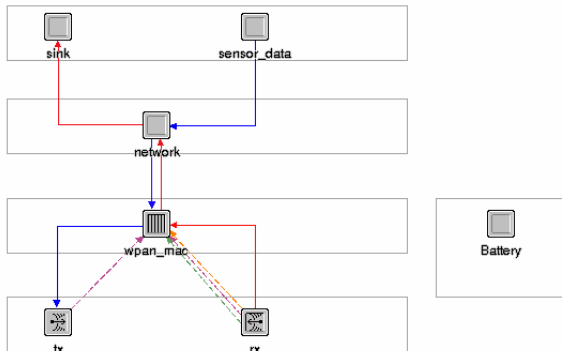


Figure 5: Reactive EMA node model

The network layer contains the proposed Reactive EMA routing algorithm. It handles the routing for the node's own data, which come from the sensor_data module, as well as incoming route requests, route replies and data transmissions from other nodes. The sink module is only used at the sink of the sensor network. It creates statistics on successfully completed data transmissions.

The battery module, which also originates from the Open-ZB model, records the transceiver's power consumption, i.e. the power consumed for sending and receiving. The power model corresponds to MICAz motes. The energy that is consumed on higher layers such as the network layer for computational efforts is not recorded in the battery module.

5.3 Comparison to AODV

For comparison, the same wireless sensor network scenario was simulated with a reactive, but not context-aware protocol. A well-known reactive protocol is AODV. It has its origins in mobile ad hoc networks, but there are also existing sensor network implementations such as TinyAODV [11]. Both the Reactive EMA and the AODV node model use the same MAC and PHY layers and the same battery model. For the AODV nodes, the upper layers of the existing Opnet implementation of AODV for IEEE 802.11 networks was put on top of the IEEE 802.15.4 lower layers.

5.4 Results

Both the Reactive EMA protocol and the AODV protocol were simulated in the same scenario. The Reactive EMA route lifetime was set to 30 seconds, in AODV, the route lifetime was set similar by defining the hello interval to be 15 seconds and the allowed hello loss to be 2 messages. Figure 6 shows the generated versus the received data for both protocols. The generation rate goes down after 2000 seconds of model time when the sensor nodes start to fail because of the fire. It can be seen that even when the network is stable, AODV shows a significant loss of traffic. This is mainly caused by links with low RSSI: Since AODV does not take the link quality into account when selecting a route, some of the routes contain low quality links, which lead to frequent transmission errors. Reactive EMA, on the other hand, uses the RSSI as one of its context criteria and can thereby select more reliable routes.

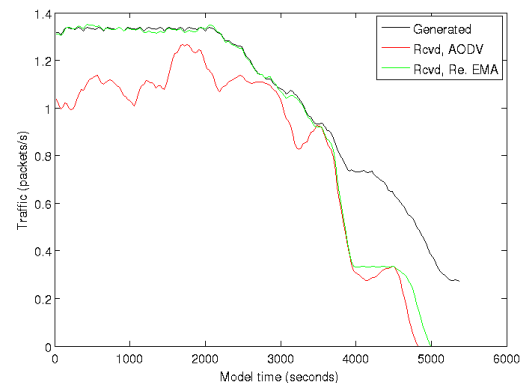


Figure 6: Successfully delivered traffic

The two significant drops of the delivery rate are caused by the failure of important relay nodes. The first drop around $t=3800s$ is the almost simultaneous failure of sensor_node_6 and sensor_node_17, after which the nodes in the upper right part of the area cannot reach the sink any more. The second drop is the failure of sensor_node_5, which was the last node that provided connectivity to the sink.

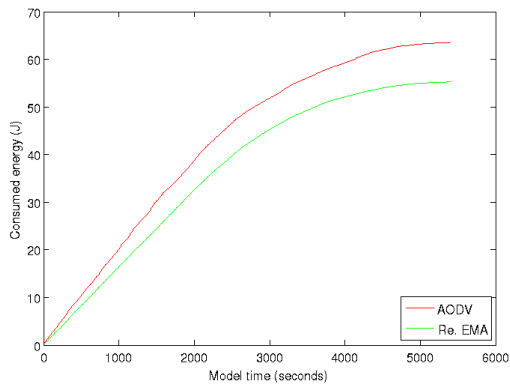


Figure 7: Comparison of consumed energy (total energy consumed in the network over the simulated time)

Even though it may have been expected that Reactive EMA consumes more energy than AODV because there can be more route request transmissions during a route discovery, the results shown in Figure 7 show the opposite: Reactive EMA even consumes less energy. Due to the already mentioned transmission errors in AODV, there are more retransmission attempts as well that cause a higher energy consumption. Further, it can be deduced from the results that the route request forwarding restrictions in Reactive EMA are working efficiently without creating a negative impact on the success of the data transmissions.

6 Summary and Outlook

This paper introduces a generic framework for context-aware reactive routing. The framework consists of the messaging scheme that uses route request and route reply messages, and the Multi-Criteria Context-based Decision function (MCCD) is introduced as a function that facilitates the route decisions as well as the route discovery flood limitation.

The Reactive EMA protocol is presented as a sensor network specific variant of the generic routing framework. Simulation results show that this Reactive EMA outperforms the conventional reactive routing protocol AODV in the given scenario.

Further work in this area will be done concerning the application of this generic framework to other context-based routing scenarios, not only in wireless sensor networks, but also in other kinds of dynamic networks.

7 Acknowledgement

This research was supported by the German Research Foundation (DFG) as part of the Collaborative Research Centre 637 “Autonomous Cooperating Logistic Processes”.

8 References

- [1] Musolesi, M., Hailes, S., Mascolo, C.: Adaptive Routing for Intermittently Connected Mobile Ad Hoc Networks. Proc. 6th IEEE International Symposium on a World of Wireless Mobile and Multimedia Networks (WoWMoM), 2005, pp. 183-189.
- [2] Mascolo, C., Musolesi, M.: SCAR: Context-Aware Adaptive Routing in Delay Tolerant Mobile Sensor Networks. Proc. 2006 International Conference on Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing, 2006, pp. 533-538.
- [3] Malakooti, B., Thomas, I., Tanguturi, S.K., Gajurel, S., Kim, H., Bhasin, K.: Multiple Criteria Network Routing with Simulation Results. Proc. 15th Industrial Engineering Research Conference (IERC), 2006.
- [4] Clausen, T., Jacquet, P.: Optimized Link State Routing Protocol (OLSR). IETF RFC 3626, 2003.
- [5] Johnson, D., Maltz, D.: Dynamic Source Routing in Ad Hoc Wireless Networks. Mobile Computing, 1996, pp. 153-181.
- [6] Perkins, C., Belding-Royer, E., Das, S.: Ad Hoc On-Demand Distance Vector (AODV) Routing. IETF RFC 3561, 2003.
- [7] OPNET Modeler. http://opnet.com/solutions/network_rd/modeler.html
- [8] Open-Source Toolset for IEEE 802.15.4 and ZigBee. <http://open-zb.net>
- [9] Wenning, B.-L., Lukosius, A., Timm-Giel, A., Görg, C., Tomic, S.: Opportunistic Distance-aware Routing in Multi-Sink Mobile Wireless Sensor Networks. Proc. ICT MobileSummit 2008, 8 pages.
- [10] Texas Instruments: CC2420 2.4 GHz IEEE 802.15.4/ZigBee-ready RF transceiver (Rev. B), 2007.
- [11] TinyAODV implementation. TinyOS source code repository address: <http://tinycvs.sourceforge.net/viewvc/tinycvs/tinycvs-1.x/contrib/hsn/>.