

Data harvesting with mobile elements in wireless sensor networks

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Abstract: In Wireless Sensor Networks, mobile elements (MEs) as powered carriers to convey data has been shown to be an actual way of persisting sensor network life time and transmitting information in segregated networks. As the data generation amounts of sensors may vary, some sensors need to be visited more recurrently than others. In this paper, a partitioning-based algorithm is presented that schedules the activities of MEs in a sensor network such that there is no data loss due to buffer excess. Simulation results show that the proposed Partitioning-Based Scheduling (PBS) algorithm performs well in terms of dipping the minimum required ME speed to prevent data loss, providing high predictability in inter-visit durations, and minimizing the data loss rate for the cases when the ME is controlled to move slower than the minimum required ME speed.

Key word: Mobile Element, wireless sensor network, Scheduling, Data collection, Base station.

I. Introduction

A typical Wireless Sensor Network (WSN) consists of spatially distributed autonomous sensors to cooperatively monitor physical or environmental conditions, such as temperature, sound, vibration, pressure, motion, at different locations. The development of WSNs was motivated by military applications. However, WSNs are now used in civilian applications, including environment, traffic and habitat monitoring, healthcare and home automation. The use of wireless sensor networks (WSNs) have been proposed for critical applications such as battlefield surveillance, habitat monitoring, traffic monitoring, and nuclear, chemical and biological attack detection. Habitat and environmental monitoring represent a class of sensor network applications with enormous potential benefits for scientific communities and society as a whole. Instrumenting natural spaces with numerous networked micro sensors can enable long-term data collection at scales and resolutions that are difficult, if not impossible, to obtain otherwise. The intimate connection with its immediate physical environment allows each sensor to provide localized measurements and detailed information that is hard to obtain through traditional instrumentation. The integration of local processing and storage allows sensor nodes to perform complex filtering and triggering functions, as well as to apply application-specific or sensor-specific data compression algorithms. The ability to communicate not only allows information and control to be communicated across the network of nodes, but nodes to cooperate in performing more complex tasks, like statistical sampling, data aggregation, and system health and status monitoring. Increased power efficiency gives applications flexibility in resolving fundamental design tradeoffs, e.g. between sampling rates and battery lifetimes. Low-power radios with well-designed protocol stacks allow generalized communications among network nodes, rather than point-to-point telemetry. The computing and networking capabilities allow sensor networks to be reprogrammed or re-tasked after deployment in the field.

1.1 RELATED WORK:

The use of mobile essentials to harvest data has newly been considered in the nonfiction. Data MULES focuses on exploitation of mobile elements (called MULEs) in sparse sensor networks. The MULEs move randomly and collect data unscrupulously from sensor nodes. The movements of data gathering elements are not precise in this framework. In the message ferrying (MF) approach, message ferries are used to path data from one node to another in a sparse ad hoc network. Based on a given traffic matrix, the aim of message ferrying approach is to find the best route of a ferry so that the average delay from source to destination is minimized while meeting the bandwidth obligation of flows. Associated to the MES problem are the Orienteering Problem (OP), the Prize Accumulating Traveling Salesman Problem (PC-TSP), as well as the original TSP. These problems deal with routing a vehicle to visit each city at most once. However in our problematic, a node may need to be stayed more than once before all other nodes are stayed because of the difference in buffer excess deadlines. In OP and Prize Collecting TSP, each city has an associated non-negative prize and the vehicle aims to collect the maximum total prize.

Though the mobile part in the MES problem also collects data that can be considered as prize, the value of the prize is forceful and depends on the time of the visit. The Vehicle Routing Problem (VRP) is defined as result a route for a vehicle that diminishes the total travel cost to deliver cargo between a siding and customers. Unlike TSP, VRP considers more than one vehicle and nodes can be visited more than once. Among

many variants of VRP, VRP with deadline and Intermittent VRP(PVRP) are relevant to the MES problem. The aim of VRP with Deadline is to program a vehicle to visit as many nodes as possible by their deadlines. Diverse from our problem, each node in Target VRP is visited at most once. Furthermore, the target of the visit to a node in Deadline VRP is static, whereas the deadline of a node changes enthusiastically in our case. Periodic VRP is the problem of conniving routes for delivery vehicles for a given T-day retro where not all customers require transfer on every day in the period. Customers are linked with a set of feasible schedules that are some amalgamations of days they can be visited.

In PVRP, the realistic solution set consists of a finite number of potentials. However, in MES, the feasible solution set consists of an unlimited number of possibilities such that the time difference between any two successive visits planned to the same node is smaller than the associated buffer excess time. Moreover, in the MES problematic, the vehicle does not need to go back to ascertain node at the termination of every cycle whereas the vehicles in PVRP go back to the garage every day. Although the MES problem can be discretized in the time territory, the resulting size of the practicable solution set does not scale well with the range of data cohort rates. The MES problem in wireless sensor networks is verified to be NP-complete and three empirical algorithms are presented in. The first one is the Earliest Deadline First (EDF) algorithm, where the node with the neighboring target is visited first. To improve EDF, the second algorithm, EDF with k-lookahead, is proposed. Instead of staying at a node whose limit is the earliest, this algorithm considers the k! Permutations of the nodes with least deadlines, and chooses the next node which indicates the earliest finish time. Accordingly, the EDF with k-lookahead algorithm achieves better than pure EDF. The third algorithm is the Minimum Weight Sum First (MWSF) algorithm, which accounts for the weights of deadlines as well as detachments between nodes in defining the visiting schedule. The MWSF algorithm achieves the best among the three projected algorithms. Even though the MWSF solution considers both deadlines as well as distances, “back-and-forth” movement between far absent nodes occurs regularly. In our proposed PBS algorithm, we consider the target and distances of all nodes instantaneously and utilize a two-layer scheduling approach to diminish the back-and-forth movement behavior. This is achieved by separating the set of all nodes rendering to deadlines as well as their geographic locations. The resulting agendas and paths are usually shorter, which diminishes the minimum required speed of the ME to avoid buffer excess.

1.2 PARTITIONING-BASED SCHEDULING ALGORITHM

Partitioning-Based Scheduling (PBS) algorithm is intended to resolve the MES problem, and aims to schedule the visits of the mobile element to each sensor to avoid data loss due to sensor buffer overflow. With the PBS algorithm, we first screen all nodes into several groups, called bins, such that nodes in the same bin have similar targets. Then each bin is extra divided into sub-bins with respect to physical locations of the nodes. To decide the ME path within a single sub-bin, we solve the Traveling Salesman Problem, which figures a minimum cost tour that stays each node exactly once. Finally, the agendas for individual groups are concatenated to form the entire schedule. While calculating the schedules, the data transfer time between the sensor nodes and the ME is also considered. We first plan our system and problem formulation and then present a detailed explanation of our solution to the MES problem. Problem formulation and notation and then present a detailed explanation of our solution to the MES problem in the remainder of this section.

1.3 PROBLEM FORMULATION AND NOTATION

Wireless sensor networks poised of standardized sensor nodes are considered. The nodes are fortified with wireless communication borders with limited ranges. Sensor nodes capture the events in their surrounds and record them to their buffers. The following conventions are also made regarding the sensor nodes and the mobile element.

- The somatic sizes of sensor nodes and the mobile element are insignificant.
- The mobile element can move in any direction without any dormancy of making any turns.
- Data transmission time between sensor nodes and the mobile element is not insignificant compared to the delay due

to ME movement. Data transmission rate is denoted by r_{tr} .

- All sensors have the same finite buffer size, and at time $t=0$, all sensor node buffers start in an vacant state. The mobile element has suitably large data storage and it does not suffer from the buffer excess problem. We denote the number of nodes in the network by N and the set of nodes by $\{n_i\}$, where $i=1, \dots, N$. Let W_{ij} denote the distance amid nodes n_i and n_j . The buffer excess time and data generation rate of each node are meant by o_i and r_g^i , respectively. For a buffer of size b $o_i = \frac{b}{r_g^i}$. We assume that the data generation rate is directly related to event incidence rate. The MES problem $(\{W_{ij}\}, \{O_i\})$ is to find a sequence of visits to nodes $\{n_i\}$, for $i, j=1, \dots, N$, and calculate the minimum speed V_{\min} of the ME so that no node buffer excess occurs. We attack the problem by

first overlooking the broadcast time between the sensor nodes and the mobile element, then including it appropriately into our calculations.

II. Proposed Method

2.1 THE PROPOSED MODIFIED PBS ALGORITHM

Let $B_j, j=1, \dots, M$, denote bin j , where M is the whole number of bins. In PBS, nodes are first segregated into bins in such a way that excess times of the nodes in bin B_i is smaller than those in $B_j, \text{for } j > i > 0$. Moreover, the variety of excess times for nodes in B_{i+j} is twice that of B_i . This allows the nodes in B_i to be visited twice more frequently than the nodes in B_{i+1} during generation of the visit schedules. Then, each bin further is divided into sub-bins so that nodes in the same sub-bin are physical close to each other. This two-level dividing results in clusters of nodes with alike limits and positions. Therefore, in each subbin, node visit schedule of the ME can be computed using a TSP solution. Finally, timetables for discrete sub-bins are concatenated to form the entire schedule that guarantees all deadline constraints are satisfied. In the following, we designate the details of the PBS algorithm outlined in Algorithm 1.

2.2 Modified Bin partitioning according to overflow times

Minimum and maximum excess times in the network are defined as $O_{min} = \min_i \{O_i\}$ and $O_{max} = \max_i \{O_i\}$, respectively, for $i=1, 2, \dots, N$. Then nodes are assigned to bins according to the following equation:

$$n_i \in B_j, \begin{cases} \text{if } 2^{j-1} o_{min} \leq o_i < 2^j o_{min}, j = 1, \dots, M - 1; \\ \text{if } 2^{j-1} o_{min} \leq o_i \leq o_{max}, j = M. \end{cases}$$

It shows an example of segregating nodes into three bins. The overflow times of nodes in B_1 range from O_{min} to $2O_{min}$, the overflow times of nodes in B_2 range from $2O_{min}$ into $4O_{min}$, and the excess times of nodes in B_3 range from $4O_{min}$ to o_{max} . As far as PBS algorithm is concerned, there is no discrepancy between nodes in the same bin in terms of their excess times. Therefore, all nodes in a bin B_j are considered as if they are allotted an excess time of $2^{j-1} 1O_{min}$. Every bin is then visited at dissimilar occurrences: all nodes in B_1 are visited every cycle, nodes in B_2 are visited every other cycle, and nodes in B_3 are visited every four cycles, where we define a cycle as a closed path among a set of nodes, such that no node is encompassed more than once in the same cycle. We also define a supercycle as a closed path composed of concatenated cycles such that every node is comprised at least once in a supercycle. In our algorithm, the duration it takes for the ME to complete a supercycle is defined as the period of the ME schedule. The notions of cycle and super cycle in this context will be enlightened further in the following sections.

Algorithm 2. [2D-tree(S, cutonx, depth, d)]

```

1: if d=depth then
2:   return
3: endif
4: if cutonx then
5:    $S_1 = \{n_i | x_i \leq \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{n_j \in S} x_j\}$ 
6: else
7:    $S_1 = \{n_i | y_i \leq \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{n_j \in S} y_j\}$ 
8: endif
9:  $S_2 = S - S_1$ 
10: cutonx ← !cutonx
11: KD-tree(S1, cutonx, depth, d + 1)
12: KD-tree(S2, cutonx, depth, d + 1)

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2.3 Sub-bin partitioning according to locations

Each bin obtained is then segregated into sub-bins according to the node locations such that the nodes in the same sub-bin are geographically close to each other.

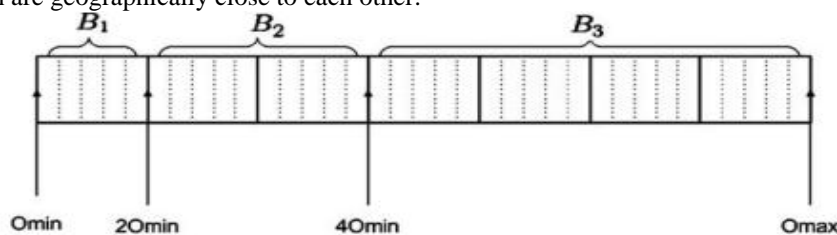


Fig1: The diagram of step 1: Partition according to overflow times

The number of sub-bins of a bin B_j is calculated based on the index j . As an example, the nodes in B_2 need to be visited only half as recurrently as the nodes in B_1 . Hence, B_2 is segregated into two sub-bins: B_2^1 and B_2^2 , where B_2^1 is visited every even cycle, and B_2^2 is visited every odd cycle. Following the same rule, B_3 is subdivided into four sub-bins: $B_3^1; B_3^2; B_3^3$ and B_3^4 , and in general, bin B_i is subdivided into $B^{2^{i-1}}$ sub-bins: $B_i^1; \dots; B_i^{2^{i-1}}$. In our case, we use the 2D-tree where the two proportions are the length and width of the sensor deployed field.

In each procedure call, the nodes are subdivided into two, based on the cut criteria decided by cut on x . Then, cut on x flag is negated and the route is called recursively on resulting panels until the desired 2D-tree depth is reached.

An example of 2D-tree dividing for 16 randomly deployed nodes in the given region. As shown in the figure, the nodes are first geometrically divided into two composed parts by the cut A with respect to their x -coordinates. Then the nodes having x -coordinates smaller than the average of the x -coordinates is assigned to one part and rest to the other. As the cut A partitions the region vertically, cuts B and C flatten the ensuing two parts since they y -coordinates of the nodes. This process is recurring alternately until the desired number of barriers is obtained. The number of screens, which is also the number of sub-bins in forming a TSP explanation on each sub-bin. The two-level separating results in clusters of nodes with similar targets and locations. Therefore, the ME arrangement problem is reduced to

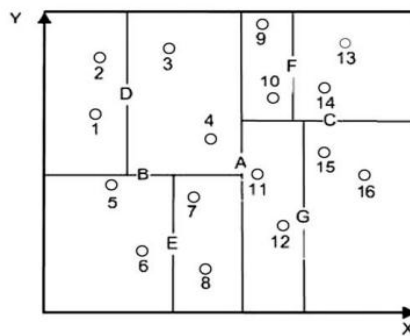


Fig. 2: Nodes in a 2 dimension space cut by KD-tree.

The Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP) for each subbin. In the fiction, several algorithms to calculate TSP paths are projected such as the nearest neighbor, LKH, and Prim's algorithm. In our solution, we adopt Prim's process to calculate the TSP path. While any TSP algorithm can be merged into PBS, we adopted Prim's algorithm for its satisfactory TSP path length performance at the reasonable time complexity of $O(N^2)$. In PBS, the path of the ME is slightly different from the computed TSP path such that the ME does not return back to the first visited node after staying the last node in the sub-bin. In its place, the ME visits the first node of the next sub-bin. Then, it follows the computed ME path in that sub-bin and proceeds to the following sub-bin. As a special case, in B_1 , the node with the smallest overflow time is taken as the start node.

2.4 Forming the super cycle:

After the ME paths within the sub-bins are deliberate, the visit order of the sub-bins should be decided to form the comprehensive ME path. At the end of partitioning, there are $B^{2^{i-1}}$ sub-bins of bin B_i , each collected of nodes with deadlines at least twice the goals of the nodes in sub-bins of B_{i-1} , $i=1, \dots, M$. Therefore, in a rational ME schedule, sub-bins in the same bin should be visited with the same occurrence and a sub-bin in B_{i-1} should be visited twice more regularly than a sub-bin of bin B_i . This heuristic choice results in a sub-bin of B_i to be visited $2MI$ times for each visit to a sub-bin of bin BM . Remembrance that in a super cycle each sub-bin, hence each node, is stayed at least once. In other words, each sub-bin in the least commonly visited bin BM is stayed at least once. Without loss of simplification, let the ME visit each sub-bin in BM exactly once in a super cycle. Then, a sub-bin of bin B_i should be stayed exactly $2MI$ times in a super cycle according to our heuristic choice. Let $I_{i,j}$ be defined as the supreme period between two consecutive visits to a node in sub B_j . Then, the sufficient illness to avoid buffer excess for all nodes of B_j can be stated as $I_{i,j} \geq \frac{2MI}{v} L_{i,j}$. Let $L_{i,j}$ denote the longest ME path between two repeated visits to a node of sub-bin B_j , i.e., $L_{i,j} = I_{i,j} \cdot v$, where v is the speed of the ME. Hence, to evade buffer overflow in B_j , $v \geq \frac{2MI}{L_{i,j}}$ should be satisfied. This can be achieved by either swelling the ME speed or decreasing $L_{i,j}$.

Our objective of diminishing the ME speed for a lossless schedule can be realized by minimizing $L_{i,j}$ for each sub-bin and setting v to the largest compulsory value to satisfy Inequality (3) for every sub-bin. Since all sub-bins are fashioned according to environmental proximity as well as excess aims, the TSP tours of sub-bins B_{j_i} of bin B_i of similar dimensions. In order to have a probable visiting schedule of sub-bins, we form cycles such that only one sub-bin from each bin is contained in a cycle. Furthermore, all cycles preserve the order of bins B_i from

which sub-bins are selected. In particular, sub-bins are visited starting from B_1 in increasing bin number order and a sub-bin in B_i is always stayed after the same sub-bin in B_{i-1} . This guarantees that in every cycle that a sub-bin B_j is visited, the protruberances in B_j are visited at precisely the same time as they were stayed in the earlier cycle qualified to the start times of the cycles. The foundation behind this choice will be debated in more detail in. There are two times more sub-bins in bin B_i than B_{i-1} and each sub-bin in B_i is always visited after the same sub-bin in B_{i-1} . For each sub-bin of B_{i-1} , we greedily timetable the closest two sub-bins from B_i to follow it. Note that more intricate concatenation algorithms can be used to further minimize the distances between consecutively visited sub-bins. a visiting classification example of sub-bin in a super cycle is given for $M=3$. The supercycle in this case consists of four cycles and the visit calendars of the sub-bins are as follows: B_1 is visited every cycle, B_{12} is visited in cycles 1 and 3, and B_{22} is visited in cycles 2 and 4 and the sub-bins of the last bin, B_3 , are visited in cycles 1, 2, 3, and 4, one at a time

2.5 Data transfer time considerations:

Let f_i denote the smallest visit incidence for node n_i to avoid sensor buffer excess. Without considering the data program time and assuming a lossless schedule, the supreme duration between two consecutive visits to n_i is O_i . Thus, $f_i \leq 1/4 O_i$. Considering the broadcast bandwidth, f_i is determined by n_i 's data cohort rate r_i , transmission rate r_{tr} and buffer size b .

$$t_{tr}^i = \frac{\beta b + t_{tr}^i r_g^i}{r_{tr}}, \tag{4}$$

$$t_{tr}^i = \frac{\beta b}{r_{tr} - r_g^i}, \tag{5}$$

$$= \frac{\beta b o_i}{o_i r_{tr} - b}, \tag{6}$$

Then where b ($b \leq 1$) is the proportion fill level of the buffer of the sensor. The maximum duration between

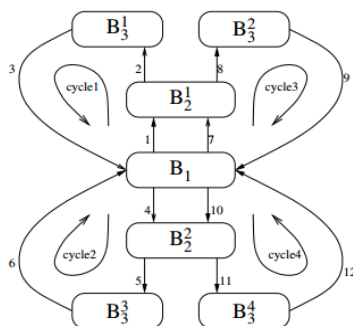


Fig. 3: An example of the visiting sequence of sub-bins in a 'super cycle'

Two repeated visits is $o_i + t_{tr}$. Therefore, using $o_i + t_{tr}$ as the new excess time in PBS step 1 (bin partitioning) will generate a schedule for MES with communication time attention. Note that b is node precise and is not known before. The case of $b=1$ refers to completely full buffers and the transmission time is the maximum. Therefore, a b value of 1 is chosen in our process as we are involved in the lowest ME speed which can promise a lossless schedule.

2.6 Discussion of minimum required speed:

To minimize the power drinking of the ME, any solution to the MES problem should abate the ME speed. In this paper, we calculate a lowerbound for the PBS results on the ME speed, denoted as v_{min} , such that no buffer excess befalls in the network nodes. Considering an arbitrary node n_i in bin B_j , let $L_{i,k}$ and $C_{i,k}$ denote the path that ME has voyaged and the set of nodes ME has stayed between the k^{th} visit and $(k+1)^{th}$ visit to n_i , respectively. The broadcast time at node n_i is denoted by t_{tr} . To avoid buffer overflow at node n_i , the following condition should be pleased:

$$2^j o_{min} \geq o_i \geq \frac{L_{i,k}}{v} + \sum_{n_s \in C_{i,k}} t_{tr,s}, \tag{7}$$

Where $L_{i,k}$ is the time ME spends on roaming between nodes and $\sum_{n_s \in C_{i,k}} t_{tr,s}$ is the total data communication time. To security no data loss at n_i , the sum of these two terms should be less than or equal to the excess time of n_i . According to Eq. (1), we have $o_i \geq 2^j o_{min}$. Note that it is hard to find the data broadcast time for each node, but we can easily find the upper bound, which is the program time for a full buffer by setting $b=1$ in Eq. (6)

$$w_i \leq \frac{bo_i}{o_i r_{tr} - b}. \tag{8}$$

With Eqs. (7) and (8), we have

$$v \geq v_{min}^j = \frac{L_{i,k}}{2^j o_{min} - \sum_{n_s \in C_{i,k}} \frac{bo_i}{o_i r_{tr} - b}}, \tag{9}$$

$$v_{min} = \max_{\forall n_i} v_{min}^j. \tag{10}$$

As stated in, the PBS procedure produces a periodic schedule. Therefore, there is no need to keep track of all visits to the nodes. For a node in bin B_j , if there is no excess during 2^{j-1} repeated visits, which occur during a single supercycle, no surfeit condition is definite.

In general, $L_{i,k}$, $i=1,2,\dots,N$, $k=1,2,\dots,2^{j-1}$, cannot be approached easily except for positive special distributions of sensor nodes. Once an ME calendar is generated by the PBS algorithm, L_R and v_{min} , therefore V_{min} , can be added numerically. If the ME is controlled to move at a smaller speed than V_{min} , there may be data losses due to buffer overflow. Although not discussed in this paper, further optimizations can be done for the later detached by trading off performance of the former one. In the performance study section, we also present the presentation of our PBS algorithm as a function of the ME speed.

III. Time Complexity Analysis

Let N and M denote the amount of sensor nodes and number of bins, individually. Then, the complexity of PBS algorithm steps (Algorithm 1) are as follows:

- Step 1: Segregating with respect to excess times can be reached by relating the overflow time of each node with the bin restrictions resulting in complexity of $O(NM)$.
- Step 2: In the topographical separating phase, the number of times a node in bin B_i is processed and assigned to a sub-partition is upper bounded by $i-1$. Since project is done by simply linking the entreated coordinate of the node with the average, it is $O(1)$. In the worst case, all nodes except the one with the smallest overflow time are in bin B_M , therefore the intricacy of the 2D-tree algorithm is $O(NM)$.
- Step 3: The complexity of manipulative TSP path by Prim's algorithm for N nodes is $O(N^2)$. Assume that each sub-bin is assigned a single identity from the set $U = \{1, 2, \dots, 2^M\}$. Recall that $2^M - 1$ is the total number of subbins. Let K_i denote the quantity of nodes in the sub-bin with identity $i \in U$.

$$K_1^2 + K_2^2 + \dots + K_{2^M-1}^2 \leq (K_1 + K_2 + \dots + K_{2^M-1})^2 \tag{11}$$

$$= N^2 \tag{12}$$

Step 4: In concatenation step, first the epicenter of gravity for each sub-bin is considered in $O(N)$ time. For each sub-bin B_j^i , two sub-bins in B^{i+1} with epicenter of gravities closest to that of B_j^i are particular to be visited after B_j^i . If a selected sub bin is already decided to be visited after another sub-bin in B_i , the next closest sub-bin to B_j^i is measured. Since there are 2^{i-1} sub-bins in B_i , it takes $2^{i-1} \cdot 2^i = 2^{2i-1}$ comparisons for each bin. Therefore, the time intricacy of the concatenation step is $O(N+4M)$. Accordingly, the PBS algorithm has a general time complexity of $O(N^2+4M)$.

3.1 Performance evaluation:

To evaluate the presentation of our projected PBS algorithm considering transmission time, we have run an extensive set of imitations. In this simulation study, the following scenarios are measured for performance evaluation.

- Simulation I: We observe the data injury rate as a function of the mobile division speed.
- Simulation II: We observe the consequence of the node density on the smallest required ME speed to prevent data loss in the PBS algorithm.
- Simulation III: The consequence of number of bins on the presentation of PBS algorithm is evaluated for different network sizes and properties.
- Simulation IV: We perceive the impact of sensor buffer size in sensor nodes on the routine of the PBS algorithm.
- Simulation V: The effect of wireless communication rate between sensor nodes and ME on the data loss rates is analyzed.
- Simulation VI: Sensor visit obviousness is investigated as a function of extra time and node density through inspection of the standard unconventionality of inter-visit times. All reproductions except for Simulation III are also run for the MWSF algorithm to compare the presentation of the procedures. The details of this simulation setup as well as the comprehensive discussion of the results are presented in the following sections.

3.2 Metrics and methodology:

We observe the following metrics to evaluate the representation of the PBS algorithm. Data loss occurrence rates defined as the ratio of the number of sensors absent their deadlines to the total number of nodes visited. It presents the result in terms of the number of sensors absent their deadlines rather than the amount of data lost.

- Data damage rates defined as the ratio of the data lost due to buffer excess to the total amount of data generated.
- Minimum compulsory speeds defined as the minimum speed of the mobile element to thwart any buffer overflow.
- Certainty is defined as the standard eccentricity of the inter-visit duration which is the duration between two visits of the ME to the same node.

The simulator is developed in C++ language. A graph generator forms the accidental sensor network topology and regulates the sensor data generation rates and excess times according to the scenario at hand. Then, we pretend the visits of the ME to each sensor node in a distinct manner by keeping track of the time. After each visit, the existing time is incremented by the time that ME spends wandering from the previous node to the current node. If the time between two succeeding visits of the ME to the same node exceeds the node's deadline, then data loss occurs. In such a case, the loss is recorded in the simulation. In our simulations, we use the following default settings unless specified otherwise. Each simulation is run on a network with 200 sensor nodes randomly placed following the uniform distribution on a 200 m · 200 m area. Each sensor node is armed with same size buffers (10 Mb). Data broadcast rates between sensor nodes and the ME is 500 kb/s. To pretend this, we assume that events are powerful at certain locations, which we call Eyes. The nodes in the eye meridians have the highest data cohort rates, which drops radially outward. Four topologies, 1A, B, C, and D, are considered in our imitations. Topologies A, B, and C have one, four, and nine eyes, correspondingly. Topology D corresponds to regularly distributed data cohort rates over the sensor network. It can also be considered as having infinite number of eyes. The radius of each concentric circle is denoted by $R_1, R_2, R_3, \dots, R_n$, where $R_1 = 20$ m. The value of each range is calculated as $R_i = R_1 \cdot i^{1/4}, i = 1, \dots, n$.

The nodes in the deepest region are assigned the minimum overflow time, which is called the base_time, and excess times for nodes in regions radially superficial are calculated as:

$$\text{Overflow Time } i = \text{base_time} + (i-1) \cdot \Delta \text{ step}, i = 1, \dots, n,$$

Where excess Time i is the overflow time allotted to nodes in Region i and $\Delta \text{ step}$ is the size of the increments. In our simulations, we take base_time as 500 s and 500 s for $\Delta \text{ step}$. Similarly, we consider the grids with four eyes and nine eyes as shown. We shoulder the data size is 16 bits. Therefore, for a node with specimen frequency of 100 Hz, the data cohort rate is 1.6 kb/s and the corresponding buffer overflow time is 6250 s. We have run the experiments for both PBS and MWSF algorithms on all four topologies to make the assessments. The MWSF procedure is run with weight $\alpha = 0.1$, where α is the weight of deadline, and λ is the weight of coldness. According to the experimental effects in [17], MWSF algorithm yields the best result when the value of α is around 0.1. We measured PBS with the default bin number $M = 3$ unless specified otherwise.

3.3 Impact of the ME speed on data loss:

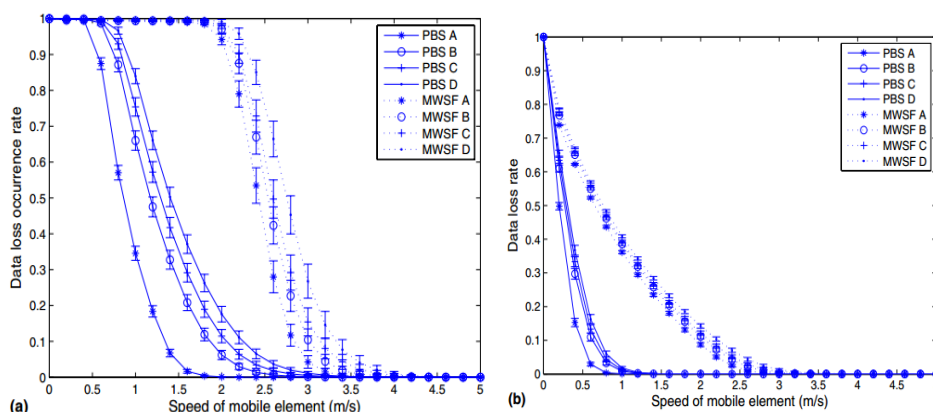


Fig.4:

It shows data loss incidence rates and data loss rates for reproductions run with both PBS and MWSF procedures on topologies A, B, C, and D. We have composed experimental results for different speeds of the mobile component ranging from 0 m/s to 5 m/s. Loss rates range from 0 to 1, which resemble to the no loss and complete loss cases, respectively. In both figures, loss rates decrease with the increased speed. Compared to MWSF, the loss rate of PBS procedure decreases at a higher rate as the speed increases. Therefore, we conclude that the PBS procedure is more effective in terms of plummeting the loss rate.

3.4 Impact of node density on minimum required ME speed:

In this section, the impression of the node compactness is appraised to observe the scalability of the PBS algorithm. In this reproduction the number of nodes deployed on a 1 km² area is varied between 150 and 200. With the increasing node density, we amount the smallest required speed of the ME to evade buffer excess. Figure shows the results of running this simulation on four topologies.

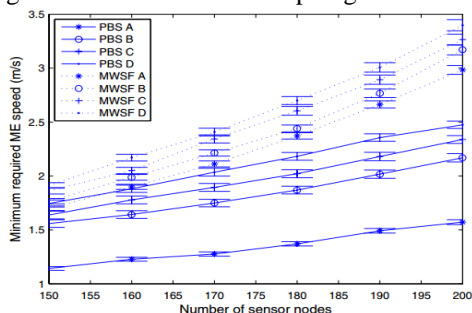


Fig 5:

As expected, the least required speed upsurges with the increasing node compactness. When the node compactness increases, the path length in a super cycle upsurges, as well. This leads to a higher ME speed. The least required speed by the PBS procedure is in general inferior than the MWSF procedure on the same topology. The minimum required speed for Topology A is lower than B, which is lower than C. The minimum required speed for Topology D is the maximum. The path that ME covers in a super cycle is longer when the number of eyes is larger.

3.5 Impact of number of bins on data loss:

In this section, we study how the number of bins M disturbs the presentation of the PBS algorithm. $M = 1$ resembles to the case where all the nodes are delimited in one bin and are visited every cycle. No physical segregating is used in this case. When $M > 1$, nodes are first partitioned according to overflow times and then separated geographically. When $M = 1$, the super cycle is corresponding to the TSP solution overall nodes. On the other hand, if $M > 1$, the super cycle consists of TSP responses in each sub-bin, and the tracks presented due to concatenation step.

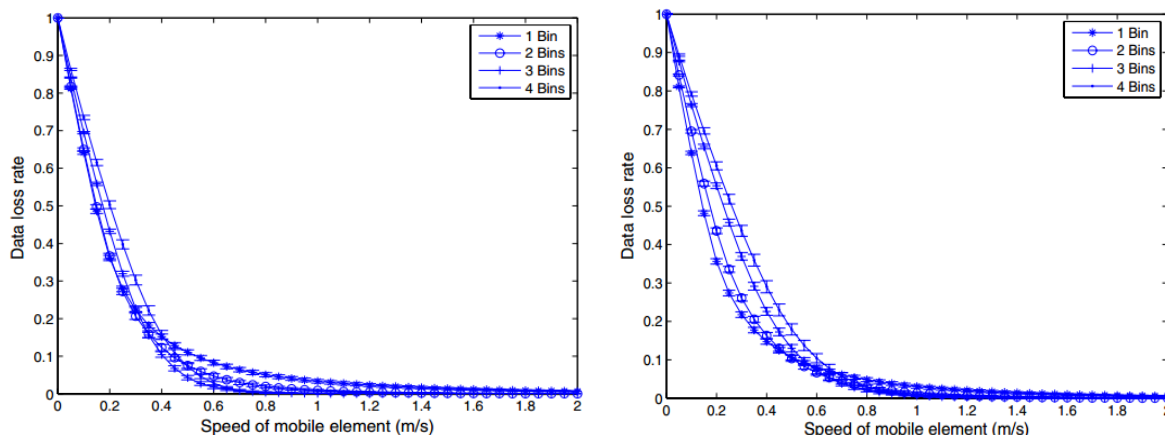


Fig 6:

Therefore, it is predictable that with $M = 1$, the ME visits a larger amount of nodes within a given time period compared to $M > 1$. If the ME hurry is very small, almost every node buffer will be full at the time the ME visits them. Hence, by staying a larger amount of nodes in a given time period, data loss rate is smaller with $M = 1$. As the ME speed gets larger, visiting nodes with high excess times as regularly as those with low overflow times will announce redundancy for $M = 1$ case. It can also be observed that a large number of bins provides much smaller minimum speed to avoid buffer overflow. As an example, when the data loss rate for $M = 4$ case drops to zero, the curve for $M = 1$ case still asymptotically approaches x-axis. Scheduling with small number of bins sacrifices performance on nodes with low overflow times severely. Therefore, although the presentation of scheduling with one bin scheme has smaller data loss when movable element moves at lower speeds, its advantage disappears for moderate and high hurries.

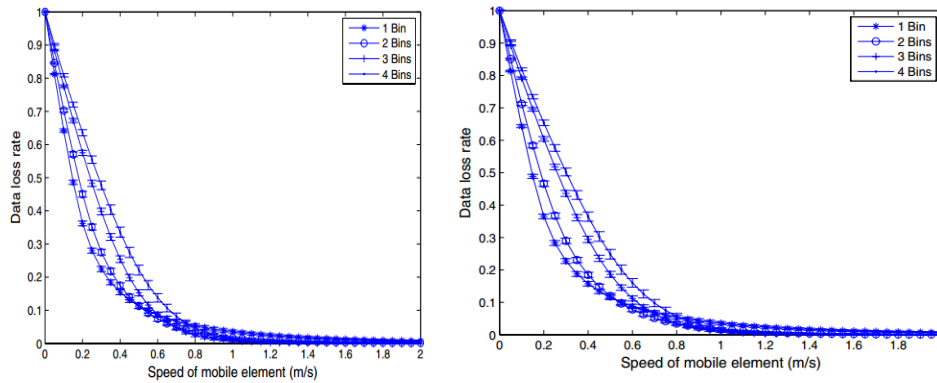


Fig 7:

3.6 Impact of buffer size:

Figure the influence of buffer size on data damage rate for both PBS and MWSF on different topologies. The buffer size varieties from 1 Mb to 80 Mb. The ME is running at a speed of 1 m/s. We observe figure that the data loss rates of both PBS and MWSF drop as buffer size surges. With the larger buffer but the same data cohort rate, all sensors have more volume to carry data and have larger overflow time. When the ME is running at the same rapidity as before, it can gather more data. Thus the data loss rate decreases with swelling buffer size. We also notice that the routine of PBS is much better than MWSF except when the buffer size is awfully low. When the buffer size goes to infinity, there should not be any data loss in the ideal case. Therefore, all curves converge to zero.

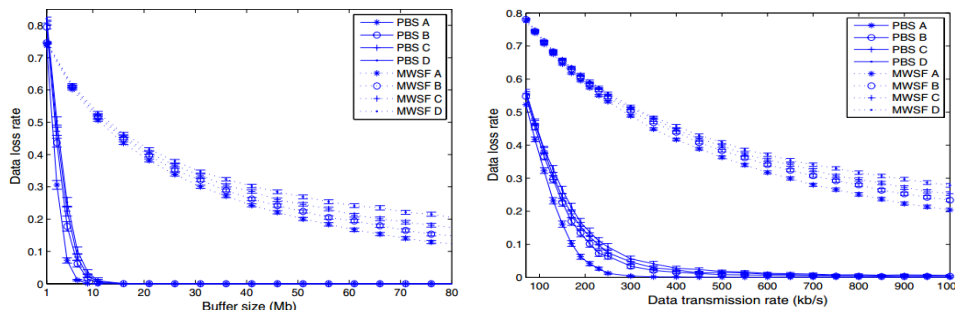


Fig 8:

3.7 Impact of transmission rate:

The wireless transmitter on the sensor nodes also has impact on the trade-off between cost and performance. The transmission rate affects the power consumption at each sensor node, which is the current major bottleneck of WSNs. Shows the impact of transmission rate on the performance of PBS and MWSF on four topologies. Transmission rate ranges between 0.1 Mb/s and 1 Mb/s. The speed of the ME is chosen as 1 m/s. For both PBS and MWSF, the data loss rate is decreasing with the increasing transmission rate. When the transmission rates are the same, performance of PBS in Topology A is better than Topology B. Performance in Topology B is better than Topology C, which is better than Topology D. On same topology, data loss rate for PBS is less than MWSF. Larger transmission rates lead to smaller transmission times. Spending smaller portion of time on data transmission, the ME visits more nodes before their buffers overflow. Thus, the data damage rate decreases as transmission rate surges. When the data transmission rate goes to infinity, the ME actually visits one sensor node, then moves to the next node immediately without stopping. Hence, all curves in Fig. 12 are expected to converge to non-negative values.

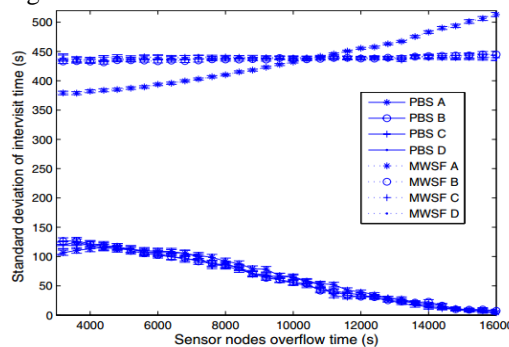


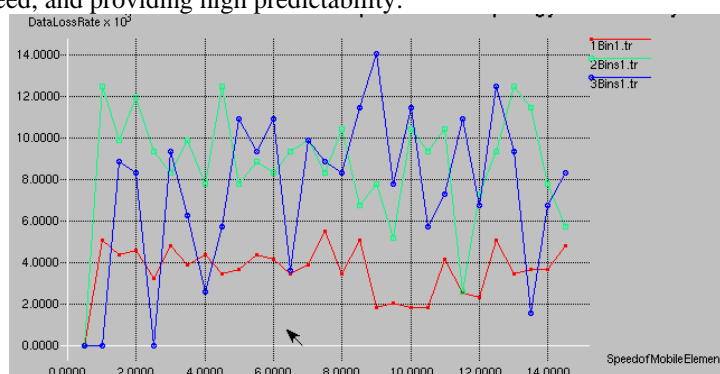
Fig 9:

3.8 Sensor visit predictability:

We claim that our PBS procedure delivers periodic supercycle scheduling. While this is correct, the inter-visit times for a given sensor in a supercycle are not essentially equally spaced. In this section, we analyze the difference between inter-visit times of the ME to a given sensor node for dissimilar sensor excess times. The standard deviation of inter-visit periods is used to amount the certainty of visits to sensor nodes, which shows the periodical feature of our arrangement scheme. We observe the predictability of sensor node visit times as a function of different data generation rates. We focus on the standard deviations of inter-visit periods and group the fallouts according to runoff times. The results of running PBS and MWSF procedures on Topologies A, B, C and D. To pledge the sureness interval, each result is the average value of 5000 independent runs. We choose 1 m/s as the speed of the mobile element, where buffer overflows still occur. As expected, the ordinary nonconformity of inter-visit times for PBS is much smaller than MWSF for all excess time values. Likened with the MWSF algorithm, PBS provides higher predictability for the visits to sensor nodes due to higher periodicity. Furthermore, note that the ordinary aberration of inter-visit times of PBS decreases as the excess time of sensor nodes grows in general. Especially for nodes with high excess times, the standard eccentricity is nearly zero. Therefore, the PBS procedure favors nodes with high excess times with high predictability. This is due to the statistic that the nodes with high excess times are visited less frequently and more periodically. Especially the nodes of the past bin are visited once every supercycle. The length of the supercycle is always the similar. But due to dissimilar length of cycles the broadcast times for nodes are not always the same. Therefore, the period of supercycles are almost the same with some small differences. The standard nonconformity of inter appointment times for these nodes is close to zero. Notice that for MWSF in Topology A, the standard eccentricity of inter-visit period increases as overflow time increases, while Topology B, C and D do not reflect such behavior. Exploratory the MWSF scheme with topology A, since nodes in the central region have smaller excess times, mobile component would visit this region more normally. This leads the ME to visit nodes with small excess times with more unsurprisingly. Because of the long distance between the authority areas and the center of the eye in topology A, the mobile element's visit is more volatile for the nodes in the edge area. However, in topology B with four eyes and topology C with nine eyes, nodes with high staying incidences is more binging over the entire region and the expectedness is more composed for all nodes.

IV. Simulation Result:

We assume that UMs are generated infrequently, and therefore, multi-hop transmission of UMs does not have significant impact on the network lifetime. Even if multi-hop transmission is allowed, network partitioning and increased transmission delay to reach farther nodes may prohibit some UMs to be delivered before their deadlines. In such cases, MRME selects a set of nodes to reduce their overflow times before scheduling the ME path using PBS. Although such reductions guarantee the worst case delay to be below a threshold, it also results in an increased ME speed for lossless schedule since selected nodes will be visited more frequently than before. Therefore, MRME aims to minimize the ME speed while reducing overflow times to meet the specified UM delay. We compare our algorithm with Minimum Weighted Sum First algorithm and showed that our PBS algorithm provides higher performance in terms of decreasing loss rate, reducing the minimum required speed, and providing high predictability.



V. Conclusion

The sensor nodes may have unlike data cohort rates, which pointers to the Mobile Portion Scheduling Problem. In this paper, we proposed a Partitioning-Based Scheduling (PBS) procedure to report this problem. We compared our procedure with Least Weighted Sum First algorithm and showed that our PBS algorithm provides higher performance in terms of decreasing loss rate, dipping the least compulsory speed, and providing

high predictability. Our future work includes investigation of methods to utilize more than one mobile element for data collection and to cater to the needs of vital real-time announcement events.

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