

## **DHS: A Data Handover Scheme for Lifetime Enhancement of Wireless Sensor Networks**

**Abhishek Bhattacharyya, Anand Seetharam, Mrinal K. Naskar**

*Advanced Digital and Embedded Systems Lab*

*Department of Electronics and Telecommunications Engineering*

*Jadavpur University*

*Kolkata 700032, West Bengal, India.*

*e-mail: abhishek.bhattacharyya@gmail.com, anandsthrm@yahoo.co.in,  
mrinalnaskar@yahoo.co.in*

**Abstract.** *Wireless sensor nodes must function in an energy-efficient manner in order to enhance network lifetime. In this paper we propose a Data Handover Scheme (DHS) which enhances the performance of several hierarchical routing protocols in terms of network lifetime. The base station being located at variable distances from the individual nodes, in spite of randomization and chain formation, each node actually dissipates a different amount of energy during its turn of transmission to the base station. DHS eliminates this energy difference by data handover in specific cycles through suitable node pairing and partner swapping. Extensive simulations show that LEACH with DHS performs 16.66% better than LEACH alone, PEGASIS with DHS shows 12.93% improvement over PEGASIS alone and binary model with DHS performs 15% better than the binary model alone considering network lifetime. A generalized mean transfer scheme is devised for large scale networks with significant (0.2–16%) lifetime increment. Furthermore PEGASIS with DHS shows that it attains almost a near optimal solution for the number of cycles endured by the network. As far as our knowledge goes, we are the first ones to address the problem of variable node distances from the Base Station and variable internodal distances.*

### **1. Introduction**

Recent advancements in the field of digital signal processors, short range radio electronics, MEMS based sensor technology and low power RF design have enabled the development of inexpensive low power sensors with significant computational capability [1-3]. Applications of sensor networks vary widely

from climatic data gathering, seismic and acoustic underwater monitoring to surveillance and national security, military and health care. The sensor networks are required to transmit gathered data to the base station (BS) or sink. It is often undesirable or infeasible to replace or recharge sensors. Network lifetime thus becomes an important parameter for sensor network design and efficiency.

In case of wireless sensor networks (WSNs), the definition of network lifetime is application specific [4]. It may be taken as the time from inception to the time when the network becomes non-functional. A network may become non-functional when a single node dies or when a particular percentage of nodes perishes. However, it is universally acknowledged that equal energy dissipation for equalizing the residual energy of the nodes is one of the keys for prolonging the lifetime of the network [4]. In this paper, we consider any random deployment of nodes in a playfield with the death of the first node determining the network lifetime.

Sensor nodes are constrained by limited battery power. Each node is provided with transmit power control and omni-directional antenna and therefore can vary the area of its coverage [2,5]. Since communication requires significant amount of energy as compared to computations [1], sensor nodes must collaborate in an energy-efficient manner for transmitting and receiving data so that lifetime enhancement is achieved.

In this paper, we consider a wireless sensor network where the base station is fixed and located far off from the sensed area. Furthermore all the nodes are static, homogenous and energy constrained and capable of communicating with the BS. Communication between the nodes and the base station is expensive and the network being homogenous, no high energy node is available for data bypassing [1]. Moreover all nodes have information about their respective distances from the BS in the static environment as stated in [2]. Often, the sensor network is burdened with too much redundant data during the process of systematic data gathering from the field. One of the means to avoid energy loss by transmitting unreliable data to the distant base station is to accomplish data fusion [1] which packs the data into meaningful sets of information. Individual nodes thus take rounds in transmitting to the base station which also distributes the dissipated energy more or less uniformly amongst the nodes.

The LEACH protocol [1] presents an elegant solution to this energy utilization problem where nodes are randomly selected to collaborate to form small number of clusters and the cluster heads take turn in transmitting to the base station during a data gathering cycle. It improves energy cost per round by a factor of 4 for a 100 node network as compared to a direct approach where individual nodes transmit directly to the base station. Other hierarchical protocols like TEEN and APTEEN [6,7] are based on hierarchical clustering philosophy and show better performance than LEACH.

The PEGASIS protocol [2] is a further improvement upon the LEACH protocol where a chain of nodes is formed which take rounds in transmitting data to the base station. A further improvement is the binary hierarchical model proposed in [5] which reduces the energy\*delay metric compared to all other protocols and thus is one of the most high performing protocols in the field. In case of chain based CDMA enabled nodes it performs 10 times better than PEGASIS in terms of energy\*delay metric. In this scheme, once a node is elected to transmit the fused data packet to the base station during a round, all nodes self organize into clusters of two. In each cluster a node transmits its data packet and the receiving node moves up hierarchical structure. The nodes in the upper block of the pyramid now cluster in groups of two for data delivery as before until the node elected initially is singled out for transmission to the base station.

Developments like SPAN [9] depend on selective awakening of neighbors and try to put more nodes to sleep to attain lifetime increment. DHS radically differs from SPAN in the sense that SPAN operates between the MAC and routing layers while DHS entirely operates over and above the routing layer. On a similar note, HEED [10] tries to attain lifetime enhancement by periodically selecting cluster heads according to a hybrid factor consisting of the node residual energy and a secondary parameter, such as node proximity to its neighbours or node degree. Other attempts like [13], [16] also suggest similar methods for enhanced energy utilisation.

DHS actually attacks an issue which has not been addressed in any of the protocols so far – the variable distance of the transmitting nodes from the base station and also the energy discrepancy that creeps in due to variable internodal separations. In spite of randomization and chain formation, every node will actually dissipate a different amount of energy during its turn of transmission to the BS thus violating the equal energy dissipation requirement for lifetime enhancement. This energy difference becomes significant as the BS is located far off from the play field and increases quadratically with distance from the BS and linearly with packet length and cycles elapsed. DHS eliminates this discrepancy by data handover of the low energy nodes which skips its turn of transmission to the BS to a suitable high energy partner which transmits the data packet to the BS on its behalf at the end of a specific cycle. This balances the energy of the two interacting nodes and partner swapping at the end of a specific number of cycles tend to bring all the nodes in the network on a uniform level in terms of energy dissipated. Three solution schemes are proposed for partner swapping. Two schemes are aimed at small-scale sensor networks with limited number of nodes in each cluster while the third scheme presents a solution for large scale networks. All the schemes provide significant performance improvements over existing hierarchical routing protocols.

The paper is arranged as follows: in section 2, we detail the energy dissipation model used in the scheme. Section 3 analyzes the factors responsible for non –uniform energy dissipation. Section 4 illustrates the proposed data handover scheme and section 5 details the handover table. In section 6, we present the simulation results and in section 7 we take variable internodal spacing into account. Section 8 deals with the cost of lifetime enhancement. Finally in section 9, we conclude delineating the scopes for future improvements.

## **2. ENERGY DISSIPATION MODEL**

We consider the first order radio model as discussed in [1,2,5] with identical parameter values. The amount of energy spent in transmitting has a fixed cost depending on the electronic circuitry and a variable cost depending on the distance of transmission. The energy per bit spent in transmission is given by

$$e_{tx}(d) = e_t + e_d * d^n \quad (1)$$

where  $e_t$  is the energy dissipated per bit in the transmitter circuitry and  $e_d * d^n$  is the energy dissipated for transmission of a single bit over a distance  $d$ ,  $n$  being the path loss exponent (usually  $2.0 \leq n \leq 4.0$ ). For a first order model we assume  $n=2$  for simulation purposes. However as channel non-linearities increase and the value of  $n$  enhances, our model would then gain even greater relevance as BS transmission would then require greater energy dissemination. Thus the total energy dissipated for transmitting a  $k$ -bit packet is

$$e_{tx}(k,d) = (e_t + e_d * d^2) * k \quad (2)$$

If  $e_r$  be the energy required per bit for successful reception then the energy dissipated for receiving a  $k$ -bit packet is

$$e_{rx}(k) = e_r * k \quad (3)$$

In our simulations we take  $e_t = 50$  nj/bit,  $e_d = 100$  pj/bit/m<sup>2</sup> and  $e_r = e_t$  as mentioned in [1,2,5] with  $k = 2000$  bits. It is assumed that the channel is symmetric so that the energy spent in transmitting from node  $i$  to  $j$  is the same as that of transmitting from node  $j$  to  $i$ .

## **3. FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR NON-UNIFORM ENERGY DISSIPATION**

The Data Handover Scheme attempts to reduce the energy difference of the nodes acquired during BS transmission. All the protocols such as LEACH, PEGASIS and binary hierarchical scheme might have been used to demonstrate this common drawback of the previous protocols. However, a simplistic network

consisting of 4 nodes  $C_0, C_1, C_2, C_3$  deployed in a  $50m \times 50m$  playfield with the BS at  $(25m, 150m)$  employing the binary model for CDMA enabled nodes is considered here for the sake of illustration as shown in Fig. 1. This is the exact situation which has been considered for simulation in the previous protocols.

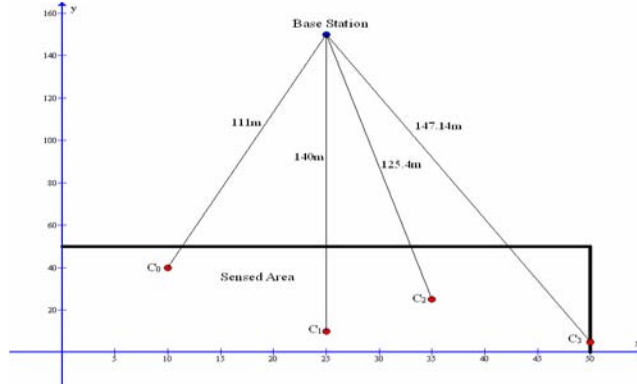


Fig. 1. 4 nodes placed in a playfield of  $50m \times 50m$  with the BS at  $(25m, 150m)$

According to the previous protocols each node will take turns in transmitting to the BS. Here we define a cycle of transmission to be completed when a particular node transmits to the BS for a second successive time i.e. After each node has taken rounds in BS transmission. Thus in cycle 1 there will be 4 rounds of BS transmission by each of  $C_0, C_1, C_2, C_3$  in the sample network.

### 3.1. Energy profile of the nodes during a cycle

In the first round of transmission when  $C_0$  transmits to the BS following the binary scheme, the order of transmission is

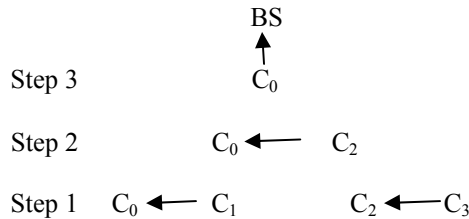


Fig. 2. Binary Hierarchical Scheme for illustrative network in Round 1

Let  $d_{ij}$  denote the separation between the  $i^{th}$  and the  $j^{th}$  node and  $d_{Bi}$  denote the distance of the  $i^{th}$  node from the BS. Then considering unity bit packet i.e.  $K=1$ , the energies dissipated by the various nodes in round 1 is illustrated in the following table

**Table 1.**Energy dissipated by various nodes in Round 1

Energy dissipated in	$C_0$	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$
Step 1	$e_r$	$e_t+e_d*d_{01}^2$	$e_r$	$e_t+e_d*d_{23}^2$
Step 2	$e_r$	0	$e_t+e_d*d_{02}^2$	0
Step 3	$e_t+e_d*d_{B0}^2$	0	0	0
Total energy dissipated in ROUND 1	$2e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{B0}^2$	$e_t+e_d*d_{01}^2$	$e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{02}^2$	$e_t+e_d*d_{23}^2$

The total energy dissipated by all the nodes in a cycle is illustrated in the following table.

**Table 2.**Energy dissipated by various nodes in a Cycle

Energy dissipated in	$C_0$	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$
Round 1	$2e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{B0}^2$	$e_t+e_d*d_{01}^2$	$e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{02}^2$	$e_t+e_d*d_{23}^2$
Round 2	$e_t+e_d*d_{01}^2$	$2e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{B1}^2$	$e_t+e_d*d_{23}^2$	$e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{13}^2$
Round 3	$e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{02}^2$	$e_t+e_d*d_{01}^2$	$2e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{B2}^2$	$e_t+e_d*d_{23}^2$
Round 4	$e_t+e_d*d_{01}^2$	$e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{13}^2$	$e_t+e_d*d_{23}^2$	$2e_r$ + $e_t+e_d*d_{B3}^2$
Total energy dissipated in CYCLE 1	$3e_r$ + $4e_t$ + $e_d*(2d_{01}^2+d_{02}^2+d_{B0}^2)$	$3e_r$ + $4e_t$ + $e_d*(2d_{01}^2+d_{13}^2+d_{B1}^2)$	$3e_r$ + $4e_t$ + $e_d*(2d_{23}^2+d_{02}^2+d_{B2}^2)$	$3e_r$ + $4e_t$ + $e_d*(2d_{23}^2+d_{13}^2+d_{B3}^2)$

It is thus observed that over any cycle, the amount of energy dissipated a node in the network is variable only in terms of the internodal distance  $d_{ij}$  and the BS distance  $d_{Bi}$  but the energy spent in terms of fixed transmitter and receiver electronic costs is the same for every node. Again since for a wireless microsensor network  $d_{Bi} \gg d_{ij}$ , the main contributor to the energy difference is the BS distance  $d_{Bi}$ . For a  $K$  bit packet this energy difference per cycle is proportional to  $K * e_d * d_{Bi}^2$ . Thus neglecting internodal distances, a node located further away from the BS drains away faster than a node located closer resulting in a decreased network lifetime.

Contributions in this energy difference due to variable internodal distances will also come into play with an increasing node number. It will however be manifold times less than energy difference due to variable BS location. This has

been accounted for in the simulations performed in section 7 and shows some increase in network lifetime compared to scenarios where it has been ignored.

## 4. The Proposed Data Handover Scheme

The Data Handover Scheme (DHS) is now introduced which nullifies this energy difference amongst the nodes due to variable locations from the BS. This technique demands that the energy difference between two nodes aggregated during (N-1) cycles is nullified in the N<sup>th</sup> cycle by data handover between compatible nodes and appropriate grouping. Thus after (N-1) cycles, a lower energy (LE) node finds a suitable higher energy (HE) partner to whom it transmits its data during its round in the N<sup>th</sup> cycle and the HE node now transmits to the BS on behalf of the LE node. The partner selection criterion is such that after the N<sup>th</sup> cycle, the HE-LE pair attains almost the same energy level. Let the i<sup>th</sup> node be located further off from the BS compared to the j<sup>th</sup> node and E<sub>i</sub> and E<sub>j</sub> denote the energies dissipated by the i<sup>th</sup> and j<sup>th</sup> nodes respectively after (N-1) cycles. If E<sub>i</sub>' and E<sub>j</sub>' denote the initial energies of the nodes, then at the outset E<sub>i</sub>' = E<sub>j</sub>' = E<sub>0</sub>. As the i<sup>th</sup> node is located further off from the BS,

$$(E_j' - E_j) > (E_i' - E_i) \quad (4)$$

The difference in energy dissipated by the 2 nodes after (N-1) cycles is

$$D_{ij} = E_i - E_j \quad (5)$$

Again as argued in section 3,

$$D_{ij} = (N-1) * e_d * (d_{Bi}^2 - d_{Bj}^2) * K \quad (6)$$

DHS demands that in the N<sup>th</sup> cycle, the i<sup>th</sup> node hands over the data to the j<sup>th</sup> node during its round of BS transmission and the two nodes become equivalent in terms of energy. Thus

$$(E_j' - E_j) - (e_r * K + e_t * K + e_d * d_{Bj}^2 * K) = (E_i' - E_i) - (e_t * K + e_d * d_{ij}^2 * K) \quad (7)$$

$$\text{or,} \quad \Delta_{ij} + D_{ij} = \{ e_r + e_d * (d_{Bj}^2 - d_{ij}^2) \} * K \quad (8)$$

where  $\Delta_{ij} = E_j' - E_i'$  = difference in initial energies of the nodes.

Combining (6) and (8) we get

$$N = 1 + \frac{Ke_r + Ke_d(d_{Bj}^2 - d_{ij}^2) - \Delta_{ij}}{Ke_d(d_{Bi}^2 - d_{Bj}^2)} \quad (9)$$

At the outset  $\Delta_{ij} = 0$ , hence

$$N = 1 + \frac{e_r + e_d(d_{Bj}^2 - d_{ij}^2)}{e_d(d_{Bi}^2 - d_{Bj}^2)} \quad (10)$$

## 5. The Data Handover Table

Equations (9) and (10) form the basis of partner selection by an individual node. For this, in a network consisting of  $N'$  nodes, at the outset, the  $i^{\text{th}}$  node computes the value of  $N$  or the number of cycles after which it has to participate in data handover vide equation (10)  $\forall j = \{1,2,3,\dots,N'\}$  except  $j = i$ . The number of possible node pair combinations is given by

$$P(i, j) = (N' - 1)(N' - 3)(N' - 5) \dots \dots \quad (11)$$

while the number of handover periods is given by

$$\begin{aligned} H &= (N' - 1) + (N' - 2) + \dots \dots \dots + 1 \\ &= \frac{N'(N' - 1)}{2} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

Now, depending on the scenario two policies may be adopted. If the nodes are provided with significant computational capabilities as stated in [1,2] each node can construct its own data handover table using (9), (10), (11) and (12) or in the other case, for nodes with limited computational capabilities, the BS might construct the handover table for every node and transmit the final pairing information i.e. only the relevant entries in the table to the individual nodes in the network. The energies dissipated in either case will be negligible for, as mentioned in [1], computational energy is negligible in comparison to communication and as stated in [6], the energy required to transmit or receive information by a sensor node is a mere fraction of the energy for transmitting sensed data to the BS or to the other nodes. The  $i^{\text{th}}$  node now constructs its own  $N' \times N'$  data handover table with all the diagonal entries crossed out. The entries in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  row of the data handover table denotes the number of cycles after which data handover will establish energy equality of the node  $C_i$  with the node  $C_j$  for  $j \neq i$ .

The simplistic 4 node network, as mentioned in section 3, is used to illustrate



the handover table scheme. Thus for  $N'=4$ , by (11), the number of possible node pair combinations

$$P(i,j) = 3$$

namely  $(C_0-C_1$  and  $C_2-C_3)$ ,  $(C_0-C_2$  and  $C_1-C_3)$  and  $(C_0-C_3$  and  $C_1-C_2)$ .  
By (12), the number of handover periods

$$H = 6$$

namely  $N_0-N_5$  each of which is obtained by (10) rounded up to the nearest integer and denotes the number of cycles after which the LE node in the pair will handover its data to the HE node of the pair.

The handover table thus assumes the form provided in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Handover Table for illustrative simplistic network

	$C_0$	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$
$C_0$	×	$N_0$	$N_1$	$N_2$
$C_1$	$N_0$	×	$N_3$	$N_4$
$C_2$	$N_1$	$N_3$	×	$N_5$
$C_3$	$N_3$	$N_4$	$N_5$	×

Once the handover table has been constructed each node now selects its partner depending on the network requirements via the three schemes addressed next.

***Scheme A: Fixed Handover Table***

This scheme performs best for small scale WSNs with nodes having limited computational capabilities. According to this scheme, once the handover table has been constructed initially, it is followed by the nodes without updating the present status of the other nodes in the network.

*1. Partner Selection Criterion*

The partner selection criterion is based upon the minimum L.C.M. (Least Common Multiple) principle. According to this principle, out of the possible number of combinations of  $P(i,j)$ , that combination of nodes is selected which provides the minimum L.C.M. of the handover periods corresponding to that selection.

This criterion is illustrated through the simplistic 4 node network considering the handover table provided in Table 3. In this case, as stated earlier  $P(i,j) = 3$  giving rise to the combinations  $(C_0-C_1$  and  $C_2-C_3)$ ,  $(C_0-C_2$  and  $C_1-C_3)$  and  $(C_0-C_3$

and  $C_1-C_2$ ). From Table 3, the corresponding handover periods are  $(N_0, N_5)$ ,  $(N_1, N_4)$  and  $(N_3, N_2)$ . Now let

$$L.C.M. \{N_1, N_4\} < L.C.M. \{N_0, N_5\} < L.C.M. \{N_3, N_2\}$$

Then the partner selection criterion demands that the initial handover should occur between  $C_0-C_2$  and  $C_1-C_3$ . This provides the minimum time after which the nodes will again attain equality in terms of the residual energy in groups of two. In case of equality of L.C.M., to resolve conflict, that combination is selected for which the node number of the partner corresponding to  $C_0$  is minimum.

## 2. Partner Swapping

Data handover following Table 3 ensures that after the minimum L.C.M., the nodes become equivalent in terms of residual energy in groups of two. This means that while previously the network perished on the wake of the death of individual nodes, now the network will sustain till the first pair of nodes perish. This itself accounts for increased lifetime. However, lifetime may further be increased following the principle of partner swapping.

The principle of partner swapping demands that after each handover, all immediate previous partnerships will be invalid and the new partner selection will be based on the modified handover table following the principle of minimum L.C.M.

Partner swapping aims to eliminate the energy differences between the node-pairs after each handover and thereby attain a near uniform energy profile for the entire network after

$$\sum_{r=0}^{P(i,j)-1} L.C.M. \{N_r, N_{H-r-1}\}$$

cycles when all possible handovers have occurred and the initial handover table resurfaces.

To illustrate partner swapping we resort to the simplistic 4 node network where the initial handover takes place between  $C_0-C_2$  and  $C_1-C_3$  following the partner selection criterion. Thus after a time  $L.C.M. \{N_1, N_4\}$ , by the partner swapping criterion, the handover table is modified as illustrated in Table 4.

**Table 4.** Modified Handover Table for illustrative simplistic network

	$C_0$	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$
$C_0$	×	$N_0$	×	$N_2$
$C_1$	$N_0$	×	$N_3$	×
$C_2$	×	$N_2$	×	$N_5$
$C_3$	$N_3$	×	$N_5$	×

Now by the principle of minimum L.C.M., the next partners would be  $C_0$ - $C_1$  and  $C_2$ - $C_3$ . This handover occurs after L.C.M.  $\{N_0, N_3\}$  whereby the handover table is further modified to Table 5 and the only possible remaining node pair combination is resorted to. Thus after  $\sum_{r=0}^2 L.C.M. \{N_r, N_{6-r-1}\}$  cycles, Table 3 resurfaces and the sequence repeats.

**Table 5.** Modified Handover Table for illustrative simplistic network

	$C_0$	$C_1$	$C_2$	$C_3$
$C_0$	×	×	×	$N_2$
$C_1$	×	×	$N_3$	×
$C_2$	×	$N_2$	×	×
$C_3$	$N_3$	×	×	×

***Scheme B: Adaptive Handover Table***

The adaptive handover table accounts for an increased lifetime in comparison to the fixed handover table and is applicable for a small scale network consisting of nodes with significant computational capabilities. It may also be applied for a network with nodes having limited computational capacity, but in that case the modified table has to be constructed by the BS and the relevant information transmitted to the individual nodes.

*1. Partner Selection Criterion*

In this scheme, equation (9) is followed for handover table construction and hence the initial handover tables for both schemes A and B are the same. Partner selection takes place following the principle of minimum L.C.M. as before.

*2. Partner Swapping*

After each handover, following (9), the handover table is reconstructed based on the current energy profiles of the nodes and the principle of minimum L.C.M. is resorted to for partner selection. This may even allow immediate previous partners to pair up if permitted by their energy profiles. As a result, no sequence is maintained in data handover as in scheme A and no table ever resurfaces in the procedure. This accounts for even uniform energy dissipation.

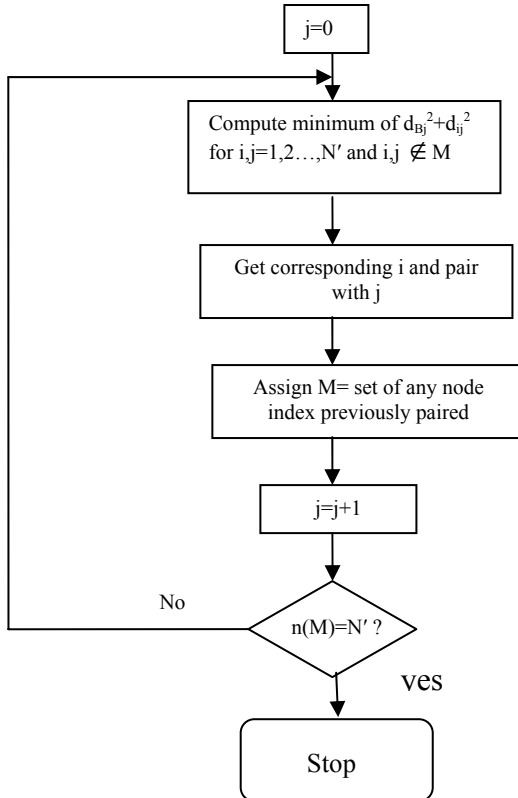
***Scheme C: Mean Handover Table***

The previous two schemes, though theoretically efficient, suffer from the practical drawback that for a reasonable number of nodes of the order of 20, the L.C.M. of 10 numbers to be calculated may be quite large and may, in the worst case, exceed the number of cycles sustained by the network. Hence no special benefit is obtained by data handover. Scheme C then serves as a generalized

formulation for application of DHS to a network consisting of any number of nodes. However for small scale networks, Schemes A and B are more efficient.

In the mean handover scheme, initially each node constructs the Data Handover Table (Table 3) as before using (9). However partner selection is based upon the flowchart 1 eliminating the principle of minimum L.C.M.

### 1. Partner Selection Criterion



Flowchart 1. Partner Selection

Here  $n(M)$  denotes the number of elements in  $M$ . When the first handover takes place after the mean number of periods as stated in (13), pairing takes place by altering the partner selection criterion to maximum of  $d_{Bj}^2 + d_{ij}^2$  in the preceding flowchart and this alternates after each  $N$  cycles.

Once partner selection has been performed, the nodes now engage in data handover at the mean period which is defined as

$$\bar{N} = 2 * (\sum_{j=0}^{N'/2-1} N_j) / N' \quad (13)$$

Here  $N_j$  denotes the handover period corresponding to the  $j^{\text{th}}$  pair obtained through flowchart 1. Now after  $\bar{N}$  (to nearest integer) cycles given by (13) the LE nodes hand over data to the HE nodes of the pair. Thereby all node pairs tend to lie on either side of a central energy value and gradually approach a central energy value as the number of handovers increase. After each handover following adaptive scheme, the handover table is reconstructed vide (9) and following it node pairing reorganizes.

## 6. Simulation Results

For simulation  $E_0$  (initial energy per node)=100 J is considered as in [2,5] with other parameters as stated in sections 2 and 3. Extensive simulations in OMNET++ and MATLAB confirm that Direct approach, LEACH, PEGASIS and binary scheme perform far better with DHS.

### *Scheme A: Fixed Handover Table*

**Table 6.**Lifetime Comparison for different schemes with  $N'=4$  following fixed handover Table

Protocol	Mean number of Cycles sustained
Direct	5838
Direct with DHS	6395
LEACH	13047
LEACH with DHS	16890
PEGASIS	19024
PEGASIS with DHS	20838
Binary Scheme	18489
Binary model + DHS	20588

Table 6 highlights that for the illustrative network, DHS outperforms other schemes.

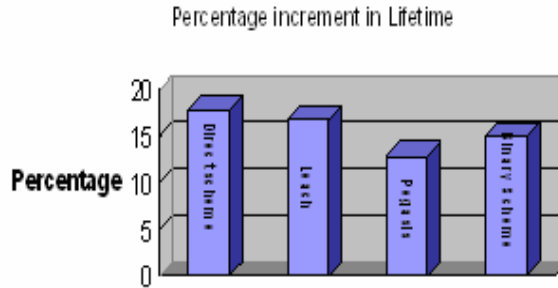


Fig. 2. Percentage increment in lifetime for different schemes with DHS following fixed handover table in illustrative network

**Table 7.**Lifetime comparison for different schemes with  $N'=6$  following fixed handover table

Protocol	Mean number of Cycles sustained
Direct	5637
Direct with DHS	6209
LEACH	12312
LEACH with DHS	15606
PEGASIS	17323
PEGASIS with DHS	18433
Binary Scheme	15858
Binary model with DHS	17540

**Scheme B. Adaptive Handover Table**

**Table 8.**Lifetime comparison for different schemes with  $N'=4$  following adaptive handover scheme

Protocol	Mean number of Cycles sustained
Direct	5838
Direct with DHS	6592
LEACH	13047
LEACH with DHS	17290
PEGASIS	19024
PEGASIS with DHS	21302
Binary Scheme	18489
Binary model + DHS	20970

It can be established following arguments laid down in [2] that for the illustrative network the optimal lifetime accounting absolutely equal energy dissipation is approximately 22700 cycles. PEGASIS with DHS results in about 21300 cycles which thus presents a near optimal solution.

However, as mentioned in section 4, these schemes function exceptionally only in case of small scale networks as evidenced from Fig. 3.

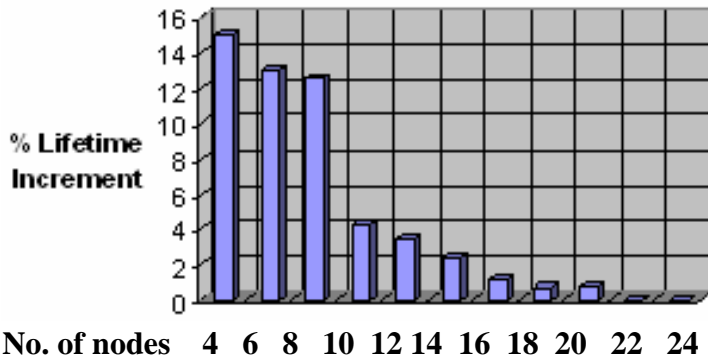


Fig. 3. Percentage increment in Lifetime with DHS following Binary Scheme with Adaptive Data Handover

Hence for  $N \leq 16$ , schemes A and B perform exceptionally.

**Scheme C. Mean Handover Table**

Scheme C overcomes this limitation of node number to a certain extent by sacrificing efficiency for small scale networks.

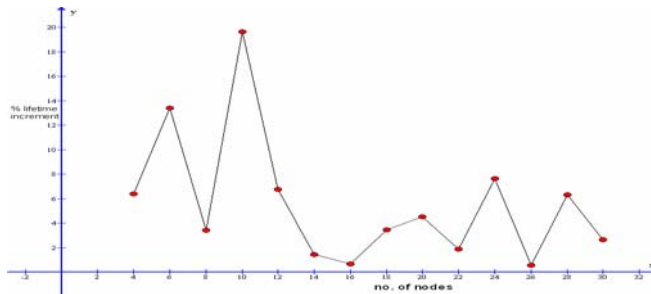


Fig.4. Percentage increment in lifetime with DHS following binary scheme with Mean Adaptive Transfer for random node deployment

In this case the percentage increase in lifetime does not follow any fixed pattern and is dependent on node placement. It is seen that even with 28 nodes, there is a 6.32% increment in lifetime. However the percentage increment fluctuates with each random deployment and is found to vary effectively from 0.16% in the minimum case to 11.2% in the maximum for a 50 node network in the 50x50 playfield with the mean around 5.3%.

**Table 9.**Lifetime comparison for different schemes with  $N'=50$  following mean handover table

Protocol	Mean number of Cycles sustained	Percentage increment
Direct	446	3.18
Direct with DHS	461	
LEACH	3325	2.9
LEACH with DHS	3421	
PEGASIS	6402	4.01
PEGASIS with DHS	6659	
Binary Scheme	4922	5.28
Binary model with DHS	5182	

The area of deployment is now varied to 100m×100m. with the BS at (50,250).

**Table 10.**Lifetime comparison for different schemes with  $N'=50$  following mean handover table

Protocol	Mean number of Cycles sustained	Percentage increment
Direct	126	8.73
Direct with DHS	137	
LEACH	1416	5.06
LEACH with DHS	1487	
PEGASIS	2708	4.11
PEGASIS with DHS	2820	
Binary Scheme	1688	4.39
Binary model with DHS	1762	

Thus although the mean transfer scheme does not guarantee an increment comparable to schemes using the minimum L.C.M. principle, yet it is strong enough to provide sufficient benefit in lifetime over existent schemes. A model presenting a better performance than the mean adaptive scheme may be found out for large scale sensor networks and presents a scope for further investigation.

## **7. Consideration for variable internodal spacing**

Sections 3-5 aimed to eliminate the energy difference between the nodes due to variable distance from the BS. We now analyze considering the same schemes applied to the network with internodal distance in consideration during energy calculations for data handover. Since it has already been established that PEGASIS with DHS performs most effectively considering lifetime of the network, the focus will be now to illustrate the scheme considering PEGASIS as the routing protocol.



The energy dissipated in a cycle by the  $i^{\text{th}}$  node following PEGASIS protocol is

$$E_{\text{idiss}} = e_r + N'e_t + e_d[(N'-1)d_{ii+1}^2 + d_{Bi}^2] \quad \text{for } i=0 \quad (14)$$

$$= e_r + N'e_t + e_d[(N'-1)d_{ii-1}^2 + d_{Bi}^2] \quad \text{for } i=N' \quad (15)$$

$$= (N'+1)e_r + N'e_t + e_d[(i-1)d_{ii-1}^2 + (N'-i)d_{ii+1}^2 + d_{Bi}^2] \quad \text{for } 0 < i < N' \quad (16)$$

The residual energy  $E_0 - E_{\text{idiss}}$  is now calculated and then a scheme A, B or C is followed for data handover depending on the number of nodes in the network. The result for PEGASIS in a  $50\text{m} \times 50\text{m}$  playfield is presented in Table 11.

**Table 11.** Lifetime comparison for PEGASIS scheme with internodal distance consideration

No. of nodes	Protocol	Mean number of cycles sustained	Percentage increment
4	PEGASIS	19024	12.93
	PEGASIS with DHS	21483	
10	PEGASIS	14667	6.45
	PEGASIS with DHS	15613	
16	PEGASIS	13735	5.11
	PEGASIS with DHS	14437	
26	PEGASIS	12075	4.61
	PEGASIS with DHS	12632	
50	PEGASIS	6402	4.15
	PEGASIS with DHS	6668	

## 8. Cost of Lifetime Enhancement

Lifetime enhancement always comes at some cost. LEACH [1] attains it over the direct scheme by overhead increment in terms of cluster formation and coordinator election. PEGASIS [2] achieves it through delay and overhead increment. SPAN [9] attains it through overhead increment. DHS also trades overhead for lifetime.

For a  $N'$  node network, implementing DHS over the binary hierarchical scheme will result in  $N'/2$  extra transmissions over each  $N'$  cycles as given by equation (13). Thus if the network survives for a lifetime  $L$ , there will be

$(LN')/(2\sqrt{N'})$  transmissions. It however needs to be noted that each of these transmissions are short distance in-field transmissions and hence consume little energy compared to the BS transmission. As a quantitative illustration for  $N' = 50$ , in a  $100m \times 100m$  playfield, there are approximately 75 extra transmissions with DHS running over PEGASIS. With the mean distance of transmission being taken as the average of the maximum ( $100\sqrt{2}m$ ) and minimum distances of transmission as 71m., with the first order radio model the extra amount of energy expended for overhead transmission in the entire network stands at 0.083 J which is less than a  $1000^{\text{th}}$  part of the initial energy of the nodes. Translating the overhead energy into the number of cycles, an approximate 6 cycles is lost compared to a situation where there is no overhead. This surely is too small a sacrifice compared to the 266 odd cycle gain which DHS achieves over PEGASIS.

## **9. Conclusion**

It is evident that DHS when run along with any other existing scheme outperforms all other schemes in terms of network lifetime.

- It performs 10-20% better than direct scheme for small scale networks. ( $N' \leq 16$ )
- It performs 8-17% better than LEACH for small scale networks.
- It performs 3-15% better than PEGASIS for small scale networks.
- It performs 3-19% better than binary hierarchical scheme for small scale networks.
- It performs 1-16% better than direct scheme for large scale networks.
- It performs 2-8% better than LEACH for large scale networks.
- It performs 0.2-13% better than PEGASIS for large scale networks.
- It performs 0.2-9% better than binary hierarchical scheme for large scale networks.
- Further the location of the BS or greater the packet length, better the performance obtained with DHS.
- Greater the path loss exponent (i.e. for realistic channels), greater the energy discrepancy due to packet transmission and hence better the result obtained with DHS.

As far as our knowledge goes, this is the first scheme which addresses variable BS distance in the network layer. From the extensive literature survey that we have conducted, this scheme provides the best field performance and network sustainability. PEGASIS along with DHS is a close approximation to the optimal solution for network lifetime. Three solution schemes have been proposed with two schemes highly efficient for small scale networks while the other one trades efficiency for large scale networks. The best scheme however

remains elusive and presents a scope for further investigation and research.

## References

- [1] Wendi Heinzelman, Anantha Chandrakasan and Hari Balakrishna, *Energy-Efficient Communication Protocol for Wireless Microsensor Networks*, In Proceedings of 33<sup>rd</sup> Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, Jan. 2000, pp. 1-10
- [2] S. Lindsey, C.S.Raghavendra, *PEGASIS: Power Efficient Gathering in Sensor Information Systems*, In *Proceedings of IEEE ICC 2001*, pp. 1125-1130, June 2001.
- [3] D.Estrin, R.Govindan, J.Hiedemann and Satish Kumar, *Next Century Challenges : Scalable Coordination in sensor networks*, In Proceedings of Mobicom '99, 1999
- [4] Yunxia Chen and Qing Zhao, *On the Lifetime of Wireless Sensor Networks*, *IEEE Communications Letters*, Vol. 9, No. 11, November 2005.
- [5] S.Lindsey, C.S.Raghavendra and K.Sivalingam, *Data Gathering in Sensor Networks using energy\*delay metric*, In Proceedings of the 15<sup>th</sup> International Parallel and Distributed Processing Symposium 2001, pp 188-200.
- [6] A. Manjeshwar and D.P.Agrawal, *TEEN: A Protocol for Enhanced Efficiency in Wireless Sensor Networks*, In Proceedings of the 2<sup>nd</sup> International Workshop on Parallel and Distributed Computing Issues in Wireless Networks and Mobile Computing, Ft. Lauderdale, FL, April 2002.
- [7] A. Manjeshwar and D.P.Agrawal, *APTEEN: A Hybrid Protocol for Efficient Routing and Comprehensive Information Retrieval in Wireless Sensor Networks*, In Proceedings of the 1<sup>st</sup> International Workshop on Parallel and Distributed Computing Issues in Wireless Networks and Mobile Computing, San Fransisco, CA, April 2001.
- [8] Wendi Heinzelman, J.Kulik and H.Balakrishna, *Adaptive Protocols for information dissemination in Wireless Sensor Networks*, In Proceedings of ACM MobiCom '99, pp.174-85
- [9] Chen, Benjie and Jamieson, Kyle and Balakrishnan, Hari and Morris, Robert (2002). *Span: An Energy-Efficient Coordination Algorithm for Topology Maintenance in Ad Hoc Wireless Networks*. ACM/Kluwer Wireless Networks (WINET) 8: 481-494
- [10] Younis, Ossama and Fahmy, Sonia (2004). *HEED: A Hybrid, Energy-Efficient, Distributed Clustering Approach for Ad-hoc Sensor Networks*. IEEE Transactions on Mobile Computing 3: 366-379
- [11] M. Dong, K. Yung, and W. Kaiser. *Low Power Signal Processing Architectures for Network Microsensors*. In Proceedings 1997 International Symposium on Low Power Electronics and Design, pages 173–177, Aug. 1997.
- [12] T. Shepard. *A Channel Access Scheme for Large Dense Packet Radio Networks*. In *Proc. ACM SIGCOMM*, pages 219–230, Aug. 1996.
- [13] S. Singh, M.Woo, and C. Raghavendra. *Power-Aware Routing in Mobile Ad Hoc Networks*. In Proceedings of the Fourth Annual ACM/IEEE International Conference on Mobile Computing and Networking (MobiCom '98), Oct. 1998.
- [14] T. S. Rappaport. *Wireless Communications*. Prentice-Hall, 1996.
- [15] R. Pichna and Q. Wang. Power Control. In *The Mobile Communications Handbook* . CRC Press, 1996, pp. 370-380.
- [16] K. M. Sivalingam, J. Chen, P. Agrawal and M. Srivastava, *Design and Analysis of Lowpower Access Protocols for Wireless and Mobile ATM Networks*, ACM/Baltzer Wireles Networks vol. 6, pp. 73-87, Feb. 2000.