

Hydrodynamic Adaptive Routing Algorithm for Unstable Sensor Networks with a Tsunami Model of Acute Events

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Abstract: An algorithm of adaptive multi-path routing in unstable sensor networks with frequent reconfigurations is presented. The model is based on the discrete imitation of water streams and water waves in the network of river-connected reservoirs. The hydrodynamic phenomena of water currents, riverbed erosion and sediments deposition are used as convenient models of different algorithmic features of the routing scheme. Acute network events (topology changes, node failures, gateway migrations etc) are treated by imitating of such natural phenomena as underwater seismic activities and surface tsunami waves.

1 INTRODUCTION

Nature-inspired heuristics such as directed diffusion (Intanagowiwat et al., 2000), gradient-based routing (Schurgers and Srivastava, 2001), thermal field routing (Baumann et al., 2008) and ant colony optimization (DiCaro and Dorigo, 1998) have shown to be a good technique for developing adaptive routing algorithms for sensor networks.

In (Aleksandrova and Bashkin, 2016) we described a novel approach, based on the discrete imitation of water flow in the network of water reservoirs (nodes), connected by rivers (links). The flow direction (data route direction) depends on the difference of absolute water level (queue length) in neighboring reservoirs. Some reservoirs may have additional underwater springs (data sources), some others are water drains (sinks, gateways). Different reservoirs may have different absolute bottom levels, drains are always the deepest in the network. Constant transit water flow deepens reservoirs that are located closer to drains than others - a physical phenomenon, called riverbed erosion (we use it as an adaptive preferred routing). On the other hand, constant absence of water outflow together with high water level imply deposition of sediments and hence the rise of the bottom level in the node (adaptive routing penalization).

The key features of our algorithm are its simple physical model and easy-to-understand multifac-

tor structure. It is possible to reconfigure a large set of “real-world” parameters: frame size (“water density”), link speed (“river width”), reconfiguration rates (“soil density” and “soil condensation rate”), buffer speed/volume effectiveness (“surface area of the reservoir”), etc. Moreover, the clear physical model can be easily enhanced with additional naturally-inspired phenomena, such as surface waves (data interference and multicast storms) and deepwater currents (control data flows). We believe that the proposed concept may be used as a general base for a wide range of proactive routing algorithms.

In this paper we present a modification of basic algorithm for unstable networks with more frequent acute events such as topology changes, node failures, gateway migrations etc. Intuitively, all these events require some abrupt changes in the routing scheme, that is based primarily on the “water surface level” in different nodes. Here we try to incorporate into our model the closest natural phenomenon – a tsunami.

A tsunami is a natural “procedure” that stabilizes water currents and waves after underwater seismic activities: quakes, landslides and volcanic eruptions. In our model we have an analogue of seabed relief – the map of bottom levels of all nodes. So there is a straightforward way to trigger the “tsunami” – it is sufficient to apply some appropriate changes to the bottom levels of nodes, adjacent to the node with an acute “catastrophic” events (to trigger an appropriate

“landslide” or “eruption”).

There may be different heuristics of seismic effects. In this paper we present a very simple concept: a node monitors the bottom levels of its neighbors and in the case of abrupt changes of the mean value adjusts its own bottom level. This can be interpreted as a certain flowability of a sea bottom soil. Surprisingly, such simple heuristic allows to adequately react to a wide range of target events. For example, after the shutdown of an important transit node (or a gateway) we can observe both a seismic wave on the seabed and a tsunami on the surface. The new model also allows to accelerate the global balancing. For example, after connection of two previously disconnected subnets we can observe both landslides on the bottom and waves on the surface, quickly reconfiguring the routing “map” of an entire network.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 the routing algorithm is presented. Informal examples are given. We also consider and evaluate some key properties of an algorithm. In Section 3 we briefly describe preliminary results of imitational modeling. Section 4 contains some conclusions.

2 ROUTING ALGORITHM

2.1 Informal Model – No Acute Events

In this subsection we describe the basic principles of our hydrodynamic model for unstable sensor networks, as it was given in (Aleksandrova and Bashkin, 2016). This concept is quite flexible and tuneable and can be applied to a wide range of situations. However, in our opinion, it is best suited for unstable networks with a relatively “smooth” dynamics of changes (relocating nodes, energy consumption, moving subject of surveillance, etc). The novel enhancement of this algorithm, better suited for nets with more frequent acute events will be given in a Subsection 2.2.

All hosts are synchronized, the global time is quantified in “rounds”. The frame size is fixed.

A network consists of a fixed finite set of n hosts $H = \{h_1, \dots, h_n\}$ and a variable finite set L of symmetric links. In any configuration (at any moment of time), if $L = \{l_1, \dots, l_m\}$ then for all $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ we have $l_i = (h, h')$ with $h, h' \in H$ and $h \neq h'$.

Each link l has its maximal transfer rate $Width(l)$ (“river width”), measured in “frames per round” (fpr).

Each host h has buffer effectiveness $Area(h)$, measured in frames (“surface area of the reservoir”). It also has four variable attributes: $Top(h)$ — the absolute “water surface level” (in frames), i.e. “Top

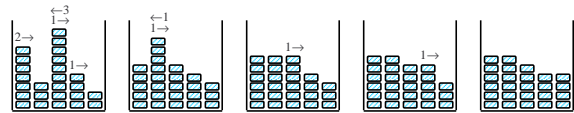


Figure 1: Balancing queue lengths (“water waves stabilization”).

level”; $Low(h)$ — the absolute “bottom surface level” (in frames), i.e. “Low level”; $In(h)$ — the incoming dataflow rate (in fpr , nonnegative); $Out(h)$ — the outgoing dataflow rate (in fpr , nonnegative). If $Out(h) > 0$ then h is a sink (a drain) and we set $Low(h) = -n$ (hence all sinks are the deepest sites).

For the sake of shortness we describe here the simplest variant of our model: all links have the same maximal transfer rate (3 fpr in the examples), all hosts have the same buffer effectiveness (1 frame in the following examples). Transfer rates and buffer sizes are constant and never change (in contrast to water surface level and bottom level, which are affected by wave propagation and riverbed erosion).

Algorithm is proactive: we define the behavior of a single node. The particular node h possesses all the information about its local configuration and also the top and low levels of all its neighboring nodes (nodes with direct links to h). For a node h we denote the set of its neighbors by $N(h)$. Hence, for any $h' \in N(h)$ the local node h knows values $Top(h')$ and $Low(h')$.

The model is based on several physical principles. The first law defines the way, in which the excessive frames (“extra water”) are distributed (“spread”) among adjacent nodes (“on the surface”). The informal rule is very simple: we let the water flow to the neighboring reservoirs with the lower water surface level (frame-by-frame, starting from the node with the lowest level, without exceeding the capacity of links and reservoirs), while there exists such reservoirs.

An example is given in Fig. 1. Here we depict a time sequence (from left to right) of 5 successive configurations (between time rounds) of a simple net. A net in the example is a chain of 5 nodes, without ingoing and outgoing external links (a chain of 5 reservoirs without springs and sinks). In the initial configuration the first (from the left) node has 7 dataframes (depicted by rounded rectangles), the second — 3, the third — 9, and so on. The bottom levels are the same, so the water surface levels are also 7–2–9–4–2. Each round includes a set of data movements, depicted by weighted arrows. For example, during the first round 2 frames moves from node #1 to node #2, 3 frames from #3 to #2, 1 frame from #3 to #4 and 1 from #4 to #5. The “water levels” are stabilized after 4 rounds – to the global configuration 6–6–5–4–4. Now “the water is calm”.

The next example (Fig. 2) illustrates the same

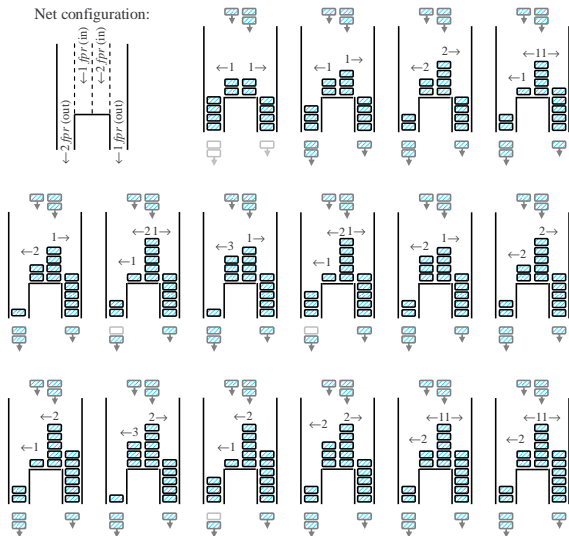


Figure 2: Balancing output (“water currents stabilization”).

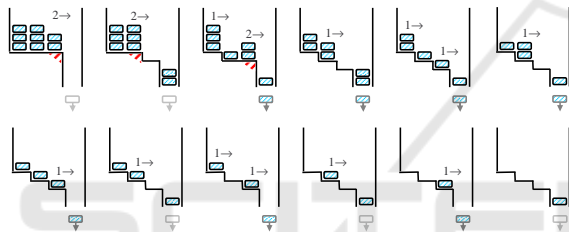


Figure 3: Adaptive routing I (“riverbed erosion”).

physical law, but in a more comprehensive situation: a net with incoming and outgoing data streams. Here nodes #1 and #4 are gateways with maximal outgoing transmission speed $2fpr$ and $1fpr$ respectively, nodes #2 and #3 are sensors (data generators) with incoming streams of $1fpr$ and $2fpr$. As it can be seen, the flow directions and rates stabilize after 14 rounds. The physical analogy is the formation of stable currents in the water system with constant inflow and outflow.

The other physical phenomenon is the erosion of the river bottom. The more stable and powerful stream produces the stronger soil erosion and hence the resulting channel becomes a “mainstream” for future transmissions. An example is given in Fig. 3. Here we can see a chain of four nodes with a single gateway (#4). The stream gradually cuts the bottom “edge”, forming the slopes. The basic rule is quite simple: the bottom level of current node is lowered if the accepting neighbor had surface level lower than current node’s bottom level (“water is sloping over”) and the corresponding flow is strong enough — i.e., the number of moving frames exceeds a specific *ErosionParameter* (we set it to 2 in the examples).

And the third key physical process is a deposition of sediments on the river bottom. If the flow

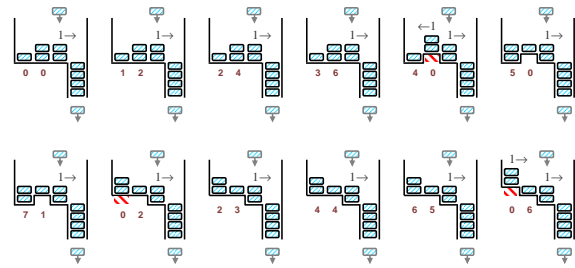


Figure 4: Adaptive routing II (“deposition of sediments”).

rate is low and the water column is high then the bottom level rises. In our model we simplify both these factors (time and volume) into a single “sediments counter” *Sediments(h)* that is incremented at each round by a number of dataframes that lay immobile in the node h . If any number of frames moves out of the node then the counter is reset. If the counter value exceeds a specific *SedimentsParameter* (we set it to 6 in the examples) then the bottom level is raised (and the counter is reset). An example is given in Fig. 4. Here the counter values are depicted under the corresponding nodes. With the lapse of time counters for nodes #1 and #2 are growing (the second one grows two times faster because of 2 dataframes located). So the bottom levels begin to rise and eventually the slopes are formed.

2.2 Informal Model of Acute Events

In this paper we want to show that the basic model can be transparently enhanced to better handle such acute events as node disconnection/reconnection and gateway start/shutdown. Note that the causes of these events may be of a different nature: fast moving nodes, battery discharge, signal obstacles etc.

In fact, the basic model already handles all these events quite successfully. For example, the switching-on of a new gateway will cause the creation of new riverbeds and (possibly) the silting of some old ones. However, the reaction time may be substantially improved by forced “deepening of the bottom” in some of neighboring nodes. The closest natural models for these events are quakes, landslides and other similar seismic processes occurring at the “ocean floor”.

The main new idea of the algorithm is to model a tsunami in the ocean. Tsunami often occurs as a result of a sharp rise or fall of the sea bottom (over a large area). In our model we have a bottom level — so “seismic” features can be easily implemented.

Let’s consider several types of “catastrophic” events in the sensor network and variants of their resolution under the new scheme (with “earthquakes” and “tsunami”). All situations are considered from the point of view of a particular node:

- The disappearance of a neighbor node whose bottom level was below our bottom level (i.e., this node in the recent past most likely was receiving packets from us rather than sending them to us). We believe that in the neighborhood a new “island” was formed (“an earthquake has raised the bottom”), so in our location the bottom level also should slightly rise (and so a tsunami is formed). How much to raise the bottom is determined by the heuristic (see below).
- The disappearance of a neighbor node, which transmitted packets to us (the level of its bottom was higher than ours). We believe that the place of the missing node has a “pit”, so we lower our local level of the bottom a bit. A kind of a “whirlpool” may be formed, making the node more attractive.
- The emergence of a neighbor node (consider both a lower and a higher bottom). It’s one thing if the node is completely new and just emerged from nowhere, then, in principle, it can simply be embedded into a network with an average bottom value in a given “region” (taking the arithmetic mean of the neighbors’ levels). Another thing is if the node is already participating in some other subnetwork with established levels (perhaps very different from ours). Consider only the second situation. We propose to speed up the process of leveling the bottom levels in subnets (raise if we had lower, or deepen if we had higher ones), so that the streams stabilize faster. In nature, this can be compared with the rapid destruction of a thin “dam” between two reservoirs with different levels of bottom and water: simultaneously there will be (1) a “waterfall” from a reservoir with a higher water level to another one and (2) the landslide in the area of the destroyed dam wall from the shallow reservoir to the deeper one.
- Gateway switching off. Even in the basic version of our algorithm there will be a fairly fast (for a few time rounds) increase in the water level at the former gateway node and all its neighbors (the water “pouring”), so a kind of a big wave will be formed. However, the bottom level will change very slowly, because initially the gateway was very deep. We propose to accelerate this process: to raise the water level substantially and rapidly by raising the bottom level to an average value among all neighbors. Tsunami then will be higher and more stable.
- Enabling the gateway role on the node. The bottom level at the gateway instantly becomes very low. For a few time rounds the water level will drop at the gateway and all its neighbors and there

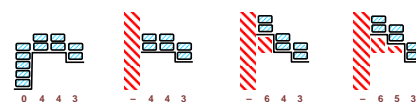


Figure 5: Acute event I — receiving node occlusion (“seismic wave” and subsequent “tsunami”).



Figure 6: Acute event II — sending node shutdown (“landslide” and subsequent “whirlpool”).

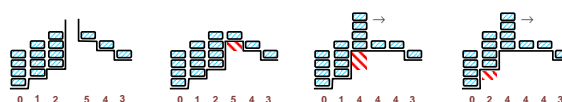


Figure 7: Acute event III — connecting two subnets with different levels (“landslide” and “waterfall”).

will be something like waves converging to a new sink (a “whirlpool”). We speed up the process by substantially deepening the bottom level at the neighbors (“landslides” from the slopes).

Thus, the benefits of the introduction of the “tsunami” are clearly visible. The problem is to come up with an appropriate heuristic. The difficulty here is that there can be several problematic neighbors. It is necessary to take into account the possibility of the emergence of various “catastrophic” changes for several neighbors at once. We propose a simple solution: to monitor the arithmetic mean of the bottom levels of all neighbors. If the change is substantial (exceeds some parameter) then we apply the same change to our bottom level. Surprisingly, this simple heuristics is adequate for all considered types of acute events.

Some examples are given below. We consider the same chain-like topology as in the previous subsection, with simplest transfer rates and buffer sizes. Moreover, for the sake of shortness we do not recalculate water streams – only the bottom level dynamics (“seismic activity”) is considered.

Consider Fig. 5. Here we depict a time sequence of a net with a disconnected sink node (#1). At the second round the node #2 finds out that the average bottom level is raised from 2 to 4 (i.e. the delta is +2), and hence at the third round it “lifts” its own bottom from 4 to 6. Now, the node #3 is also affected (+1 at the fourth round) – a fading seismic wave is formed.

At Fig. 6 we can see an opposite process – a landslide after the shutdown of an active sending node. Here the node #2 discovers a gap and crumbles itself.

Fig. 7 depicts the emergence of a neighbor node with a different bottom level.

2.3 Formal Definition

All nodes behave independently, the scheme is purely proactive. We define a behavior of a single node throughout a single time round. At the starting moment of the round the node h knows everything about itself ($Top(h), Low(h), In(h), Out(h)$ and $Sediments(h)$) and also knows levels and link bandwidth of all its neighbors: $Top(h'), Low(h')$ and $Width(h, h')$ for any $h' \in N(h)$.

An algorithm (in pseudocode) is given below. For simplicity we denote $N(h), In(h), Out(h)$ and $Sediments(h)$ by N, In, Out and $Sediments$.

Algorithm: 1 Behaviour of a single node h during a single time round.

Constants (tuning parameters):

$ErosionParam, SedimentsParam$: Nat
 $SeismicParam, IOFlowParam$: Nat

Persistent variables:

N : set of Node
 Top, Low : map of (Node \rightarrow Int)
 $Width$: map of ((Node * Node) \rightarrow Nat)
 $In, Out, Sediments$: Nat

Round (local) variables:

h' : Node
 $N', Receivers, Above$: set of Node
 $BufferTo$: map of (Node \rightarrow Nat)
 $BufferOut, LowAvg, LowAvgNew$: Nat
 $IOFlowDelta, LowAvgDelta$: Int

Step 1 /* Computations */

$N', Receivers, Above$:= \emptyset
 $BufferOut$:= 0
foreach $h' \in N$ **let** $BufferTo[h']$:= 0
 $BufferOut$:= $\min\{Out, Top[h] - Low[h]\}$
 $Top[h]$:= $Top[h] - BufferOut$

Iteration :

if $Top[h] = Low[h]$ **goto** Final
 $Above$:= $\{x \in N : Top[x] > Top[h] + 1\}$
 $N' := N \setminus Receivers \setminus Above$
if $N' = \emptyset$ **goto** Final
take h' **from** N' **s.t.** $Top[h'] = \min_{x \in N'} Top[x]$
 $BufferTo[h']$:= $\min\{ (Top[h] - Top[h']) \text{ div } 2,$
 $Top[h] - Low[h],$
 $Width[h, h'] \}$
 $Top[h]$:= $Top[h] - BufferTo[h']$
 $Receivers$:= $Receivers \cup \{h'\}$

Final :

if $Receivers \neq \emptyset$
begin
take h' **from** $Receivers$ **s.t.**
 $Low[h'] < Low[h]$ **and**
 $BufferTo[h'] \geq ErosionParam$
if $h' \neq NULL$
begin
 $Low[h]$:= $Low[h] - 1$
 $Top[h]$:= $Top[h] - 1$
end
 $Sediments$:= 0

end

else

begin

$Sediments$:= $Sediments + (Top[h] - Low[h])$
if $Sediments > SedimentsParam$

begin

$Low[h]$:= $Low[h] + 1$
 $Top[h]$:= $Top[h] + 1$
 $Sediments$:= 0

end

end

Step 2 /* Data communications */

- Try to **send** $BufferOut$ dataframes to the local gateway. In the case of failure increase $Top[h]$ accordingly.
- Try to **send** $BufferTo[h']$ dataframes to each neighbor h' . In the case of failure increase $Top[h]$ accordingly.
- **Receive** some dataframes from each neighbor, increase $Top[h]$ accordingly.
- **Receive** In dataframes from the local sensor, increase $Top[h]$ accordingly.

Step 3 /* Control communications */

- (a) **Estimate** the new values of incoming and outgoing flow (from the sensor and to the local gateway) $InNew$ and $OutNew$ for the next round.
 $IODelta$:= $(Out - In) - (OutNew - InNew)$
if $|IODelta| > IOFlowParam$
begin
 $Low[h]$:= $Low[h] + IODelta$
 $Top[h]$:= $Top[h] + IODelta$
end
 In := $InNew$; Out := $OutNew$
- (b) **Send** the new $Top[h]$ and $Low[h]$ to the neighbors.
- (c) $LowAvg$:= $(\sum_{h' \in N} Low[h']) / |N|$
- (d) **Receive** the new $Top[h'], Low[h']$ and $Width[h, h']$ from each neighbor h' , calculate the value of N for the next round.
- (e) $LowAvgNew$:= $(\sum_{h' \in N} Low[h']) / |N|$
 $LowDelta$:= $LowAvgNew - LowAvg$
 $LowAvg$:= $LowAvgNew$
if $|LowDelta| > SeismicParam$
begin
 $Low[h]$:= $Low[h] + LowDelta$
 $Top[h]$:= $Top[h] + LowDelta$
end

Note that substeps of Step 2 may be executed in any order (or in parallel). The same is not true for the substeps of Step 3 ((c), (d), (e) must follow one another sequentially). A substep 3(a) allows to react to the abrupt changes of the dataflows from the local sensor and to the outer network (through the local gateway). This includes sensor activation, gateway shutdown etc.

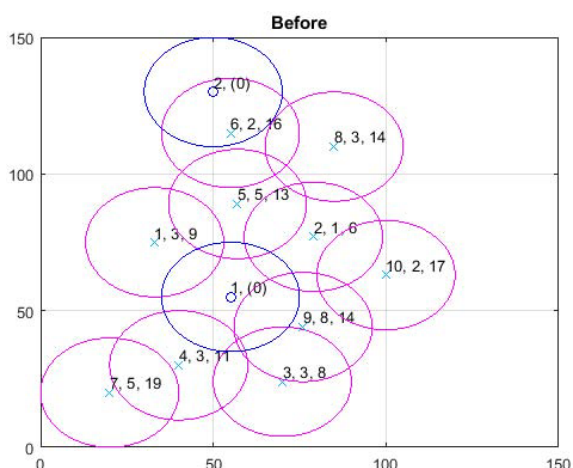


Figure 8: Initial configuration.

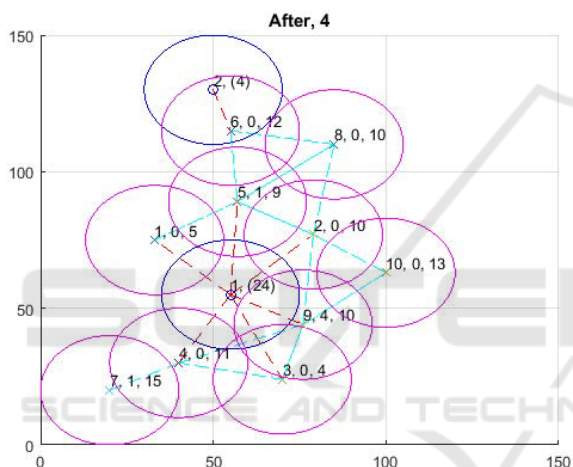


Figure 9: Configuration after 4 rounds.

2.4 Modeling

An example of routing scheme modeling is given in Fig. 8 and Fig. 9. Here a simple sensor network is modeled in MATLAB, consisting of eight sensors (denoted by X-crosses) and two gateways (denoted by small circles). Large circle denote the “transmitting power” of the node. Each ordinary node is labeled by a triple (node number, bottom level, surface level). Gateways in this model are simple and can only receive frames. They are labeled by (sink number, received frames). All frames will reach the gateways in 30 rounds.

The experiments were carried out in MATLAB for the random arrangement of a fixed number of nodes. Preliminary results show satisfactory routing and load balancing rates.

3 CONCLUSION

Many approaches have been proposed for multiple-path routing in sensor networks. Among them there are a number of gradient-based and physically/biologically inspired algorithms. For a short survey see (Aleksandrova and Bashkin, 2016). The proposed routing algorithm is adaptive and scalable. We also believe that it can be further improved by taking into consideration other important aspects such as energy consumption. The key feature of the model is its simple and natural interpretation, allowing to implement purely “physical” reasoning without any artificial heuristics.

We will explore the model in our future work. In particular, further research will be concentrated on the comparative study of our scheme with other known routing algorithms in different network configurations. Another direction is the implementation of new routing concepts in hardware and software wireless mesh network controllers (Sokolov et al., 2016).

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