

Multi-hop Wireless Networks

Infrastructure vs. multi-hop

❑ Infrastructure networks:

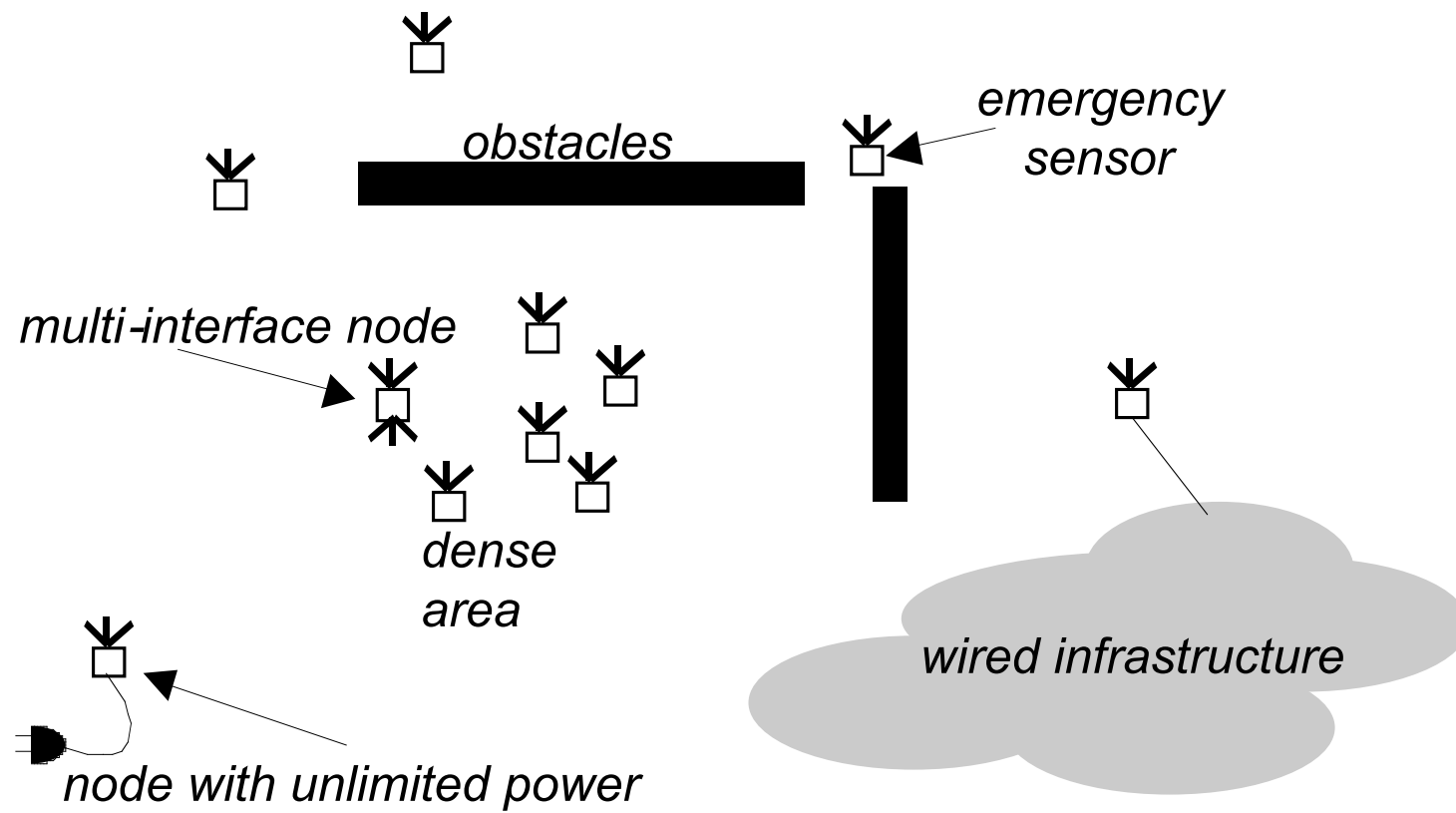
- o One or several Access-Points (AP) connected to the wired network
- o Mobile nodes communicate through the AP

❑ Ad hoc network:

- o Mobile nodes communicate directly with each other
- o Multi-hop ad hoc networks: all nodes can also act as routers

❑ Hybrid (nodes relay packets from AP):

- o Goal: increase capacity, reduce power consumption, and guarantee a minimum service



Constraints

- ❑ Limited radio spectrum
- ❑ Broadcast medium (collisions)
- ❑ Limited power available at the nodes
- ❑ Limited storage
- ❑ Connection requirements (e.g., delay, packet loss)
- ❑ Unreliable network connectivity (depends on the channel)
- ❑ Dynamic topology (i.e., mobility of nodes, nodes failing or temporarily unavailable)
- ❑ Need to provide a full coverage
- ❑ Need to enforce fairness

Approaches

- ❑ Physical layer:
 - o Coding/modulation schemes
 - o Smart antennas and MIMO systems
 - o Multiple RF interfaces (multiple IF characteristics)
- ❑ MAC layer:
 - o Controlling transmission power level
 - o Packet scheduling schemes
- ❑ Network layer:
 - o Packet fragmentation
 - o Reactive packet routing schemes
 - o Clustering and backbone formation
- ❑ Planning of the fixed nodes location
- ❑ Application-specific optimizations

Adaptivity and Cooperation

- ❑ Classical networking stacks have only minimum interaction between adjacent layers
- ❑ Multi-hop wireless ad hoc networks require more cooperation between layers because:
 - o Channel variation and network topology changes affect the application
 - o Routing in a multi-hop considerably affects the medium access control (MAC) performance
 - o Collisions and channel fading affect both the physical layer and the MAC
 - o Battery power has implications on all layers

Adaptive Coding

❑ Example:

- o 1/2 rate convolutional code versus uncoded communication
- o Channel with two states: $E_b/N_0 = 6.8 \text{ dB}$ or 11.3 dB (AWGN), $L=200$ Bytes

E_b/N_0	BER		FER		Nb_Transmit		Total_Tx_Bytes	
	UC	½ CC	UC	½ CC	UC	½ CC	UC	½ CC
6.8dB	10^{-3}	10^{-7}	0.8	$1.6 \cdot 10^{-4}$	5	~ 1	5*200	2*200
11.3dB	10^{-7}	~ 0	$1.6 \cdot 10^{-4}$	~ 0	~ 1	~ 1	200	2*200

- ❑ Need to estimate the channel and adapt to it
- ❑ Differentiate between congestion and a bad channel condition

Adaptive Fragmentation

❑ Example:

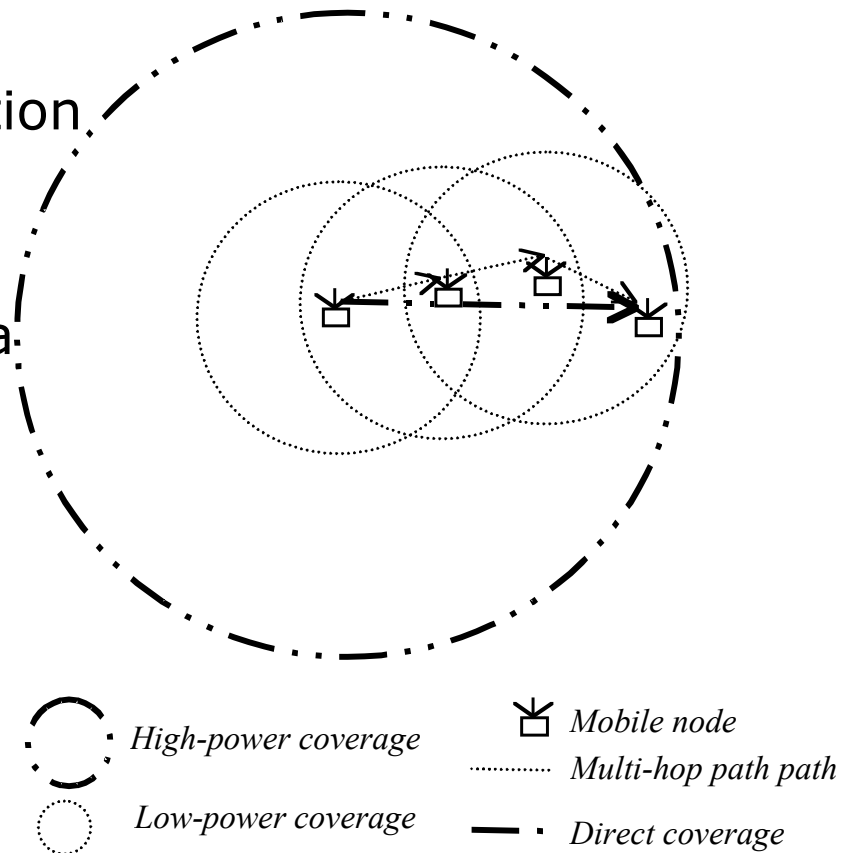
- o To transmit a frame of length 200 Bytes, we can fragment into 4 frames of length 50 Bytes (+ 10 Bytes overhead)

BER	FER		Nb_Transmit		Total_Tx_Bytes (incl. overhead)	
	L=60B	L=200B	L=60B	L=200B	L=60B	L=200B
10^{-3}	0.38	0.8	1.6	5	384	1000
10^{-7}	~ 0	~ 0	~ 1	~ 1	240	200

- ## ❑ Need to estimate the channel and adapt to it

Multiple Power Levels

- ❑ Using multi-hop transmission (h hops) and reducing the transmission power accordingly
 - o Increases capacity (factor of h)
 - o Reduces overall power consumption (by a factor of h)
- ❑ In asymmetric environments
 - o Low power node can encode data and transmit it at low power



Parameters of IEEE 802.11

- ❑ IEEE 802.11 has three mechanisms that can be used to improve performance under dynamic channels:
 - o Fragmentation (also used to avoid collision)
 - o Multiple coding/modulation schemes (8 schemes)
 - o 8 power levels
- ❑ Multiple coding/modulation schemes are available with 802.11a products over 5GHz
- ❑ Currently parameters are statically configured

Problems in Multi-Hop Routing

❑ Routing:

- o How to maintain up-to-date information on the network topology?
- o How to determine number of hops
- o How to estimate buffer size

❑ Higher delay

❑ Risk of congestion on nodes

Existing Unicast Routing Protocols

- ❑ Proactive Routing:
 - “*keep routing information current at all times*”
 - good for static networks
 - examples: distance vector (DSDV), link state (LS) algorithms
- ❑ Reactive Routing:
 - o “*find a route to the destination only after a request comes in*”
 - o good for more dynamic networks
 - o examples: AODV, dynamic source routing (DSR), TORA
- ❑ Hybrid Schemes:
 - “*keep some information current*”
 - example: Zone Routing Protocol (ZRP)
 - example: Use spanning trees for non-optimal routing
- ❑ Geometric routing:
 - o Assume location-awareness
 - o Take advantage of the geometry of plane
 - o Example: GPSR
- ❑ We will survey some of the popular and well-studied ad hoc network routing protocols:
 - o Some slides are based on a tutorial by Nitin Vaidya (UIUC)

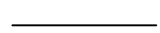
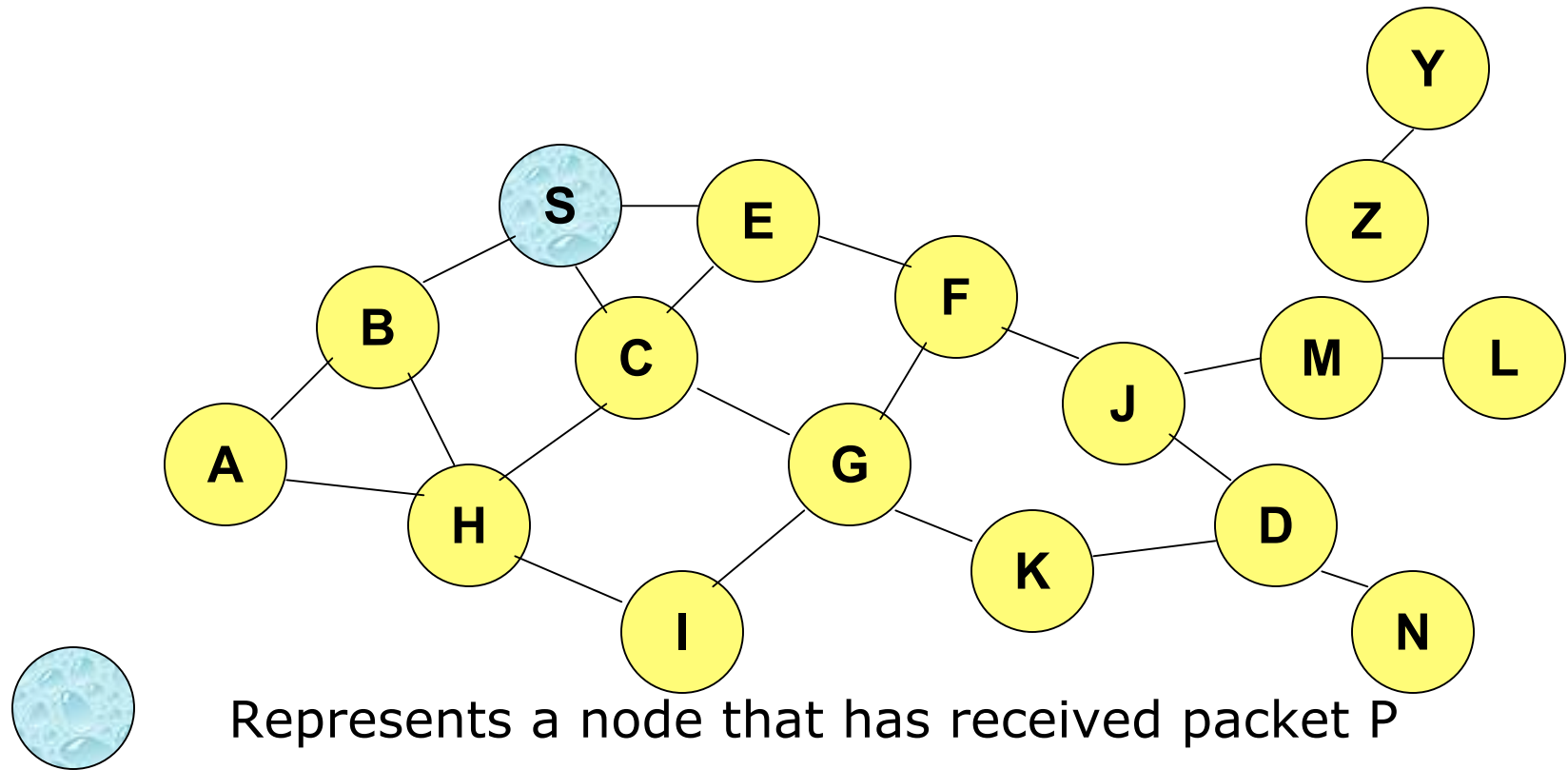
Proactive vs Reactive Routing

- ❑ Latency of route discovery
 - o Proactive protocols may have lower latency since routes are maintained at all times
 - o Reactive protocols may have higher latency because a route from X to Y will be found only when X attempts to send to Y
- ❑ Overhead of route discovery/maintenance
 - o Reactive protocols may have lower overhead since routes are determined only if needed
 - o Proactive protocols can (but not necessarily) result in higher overhead due to continuous route updating
- ❑ Which approach achieves a better trade-off depends on the traffic and mobility patterns

Flooding for Data Delivery

- ❑ Sender S broadcasts data packet P to all its neighbors
- ❑ Each node receiving P forwards P to its neighbors
- ❑ Sequence numbers used to avoid the possibility of forwarding the same packet more than once
- ❑ Packet P reaches destination D provided that D is reachable from sender S
- ❑ Node D does not forward the packet

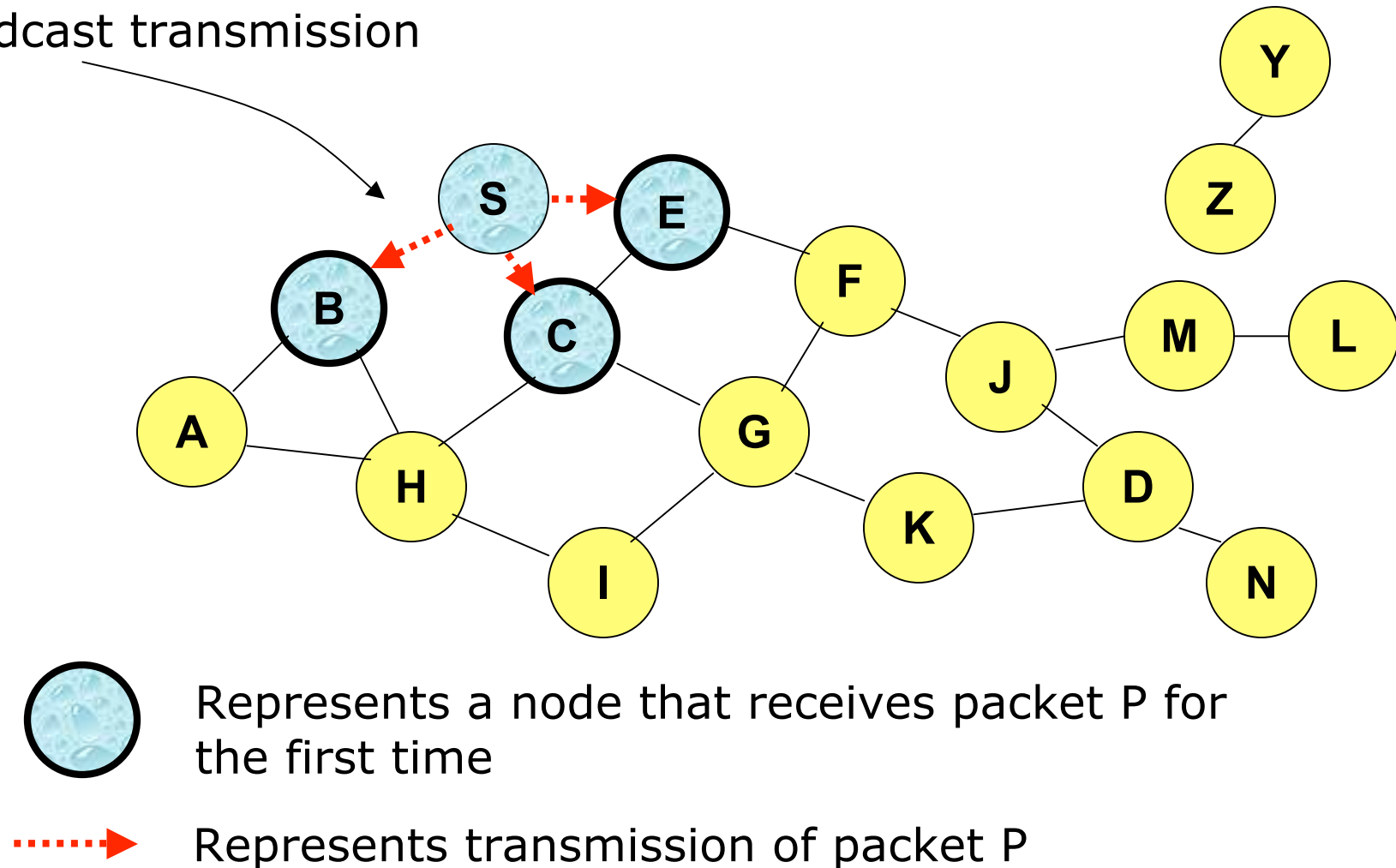
Flooding for Data Delivery



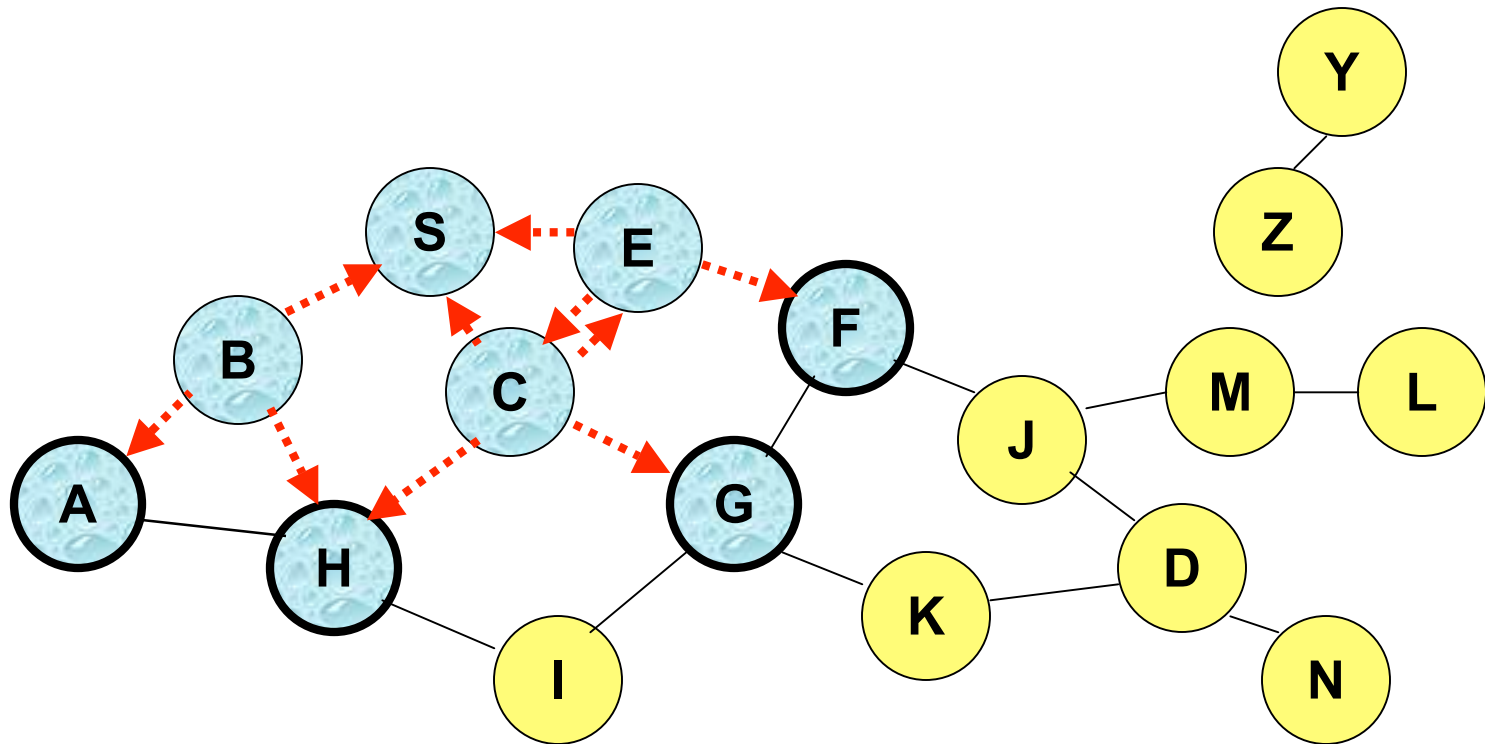
Represents that connected nodes are within each other's transmission range

Flooding for Data Delivery

Broadcast transmission

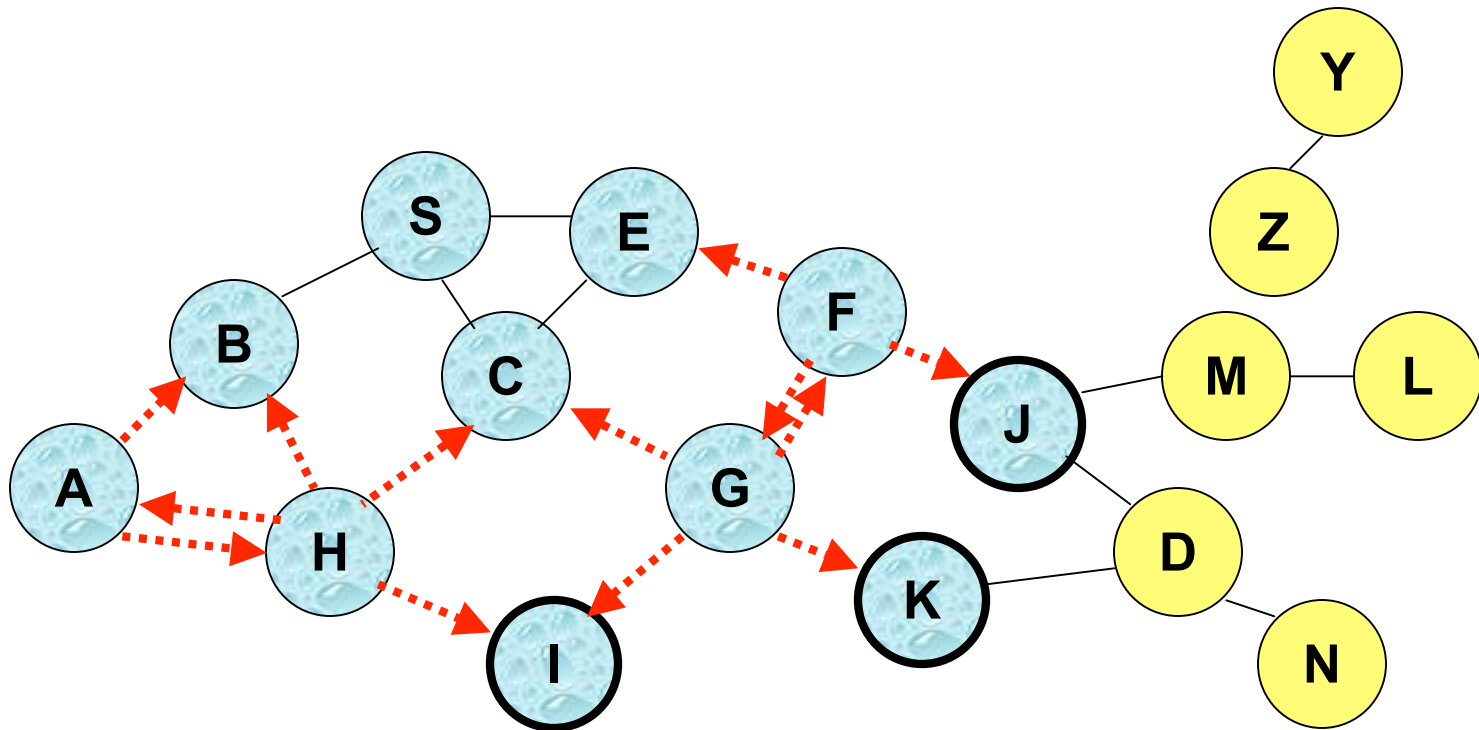


Flooding for Data Delivery



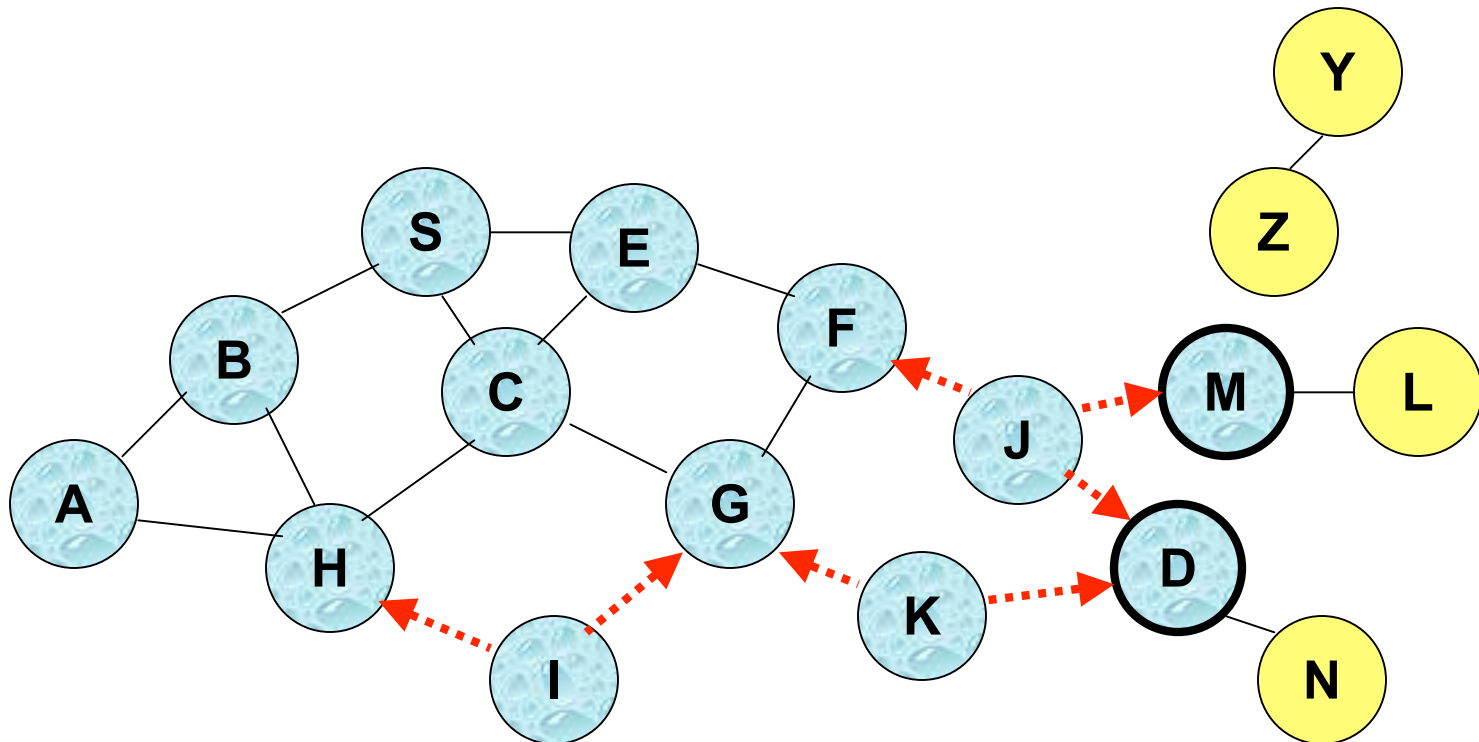
- Node H receives packet P from two neighbors:
potential for collision

Flooding for Data Delivery



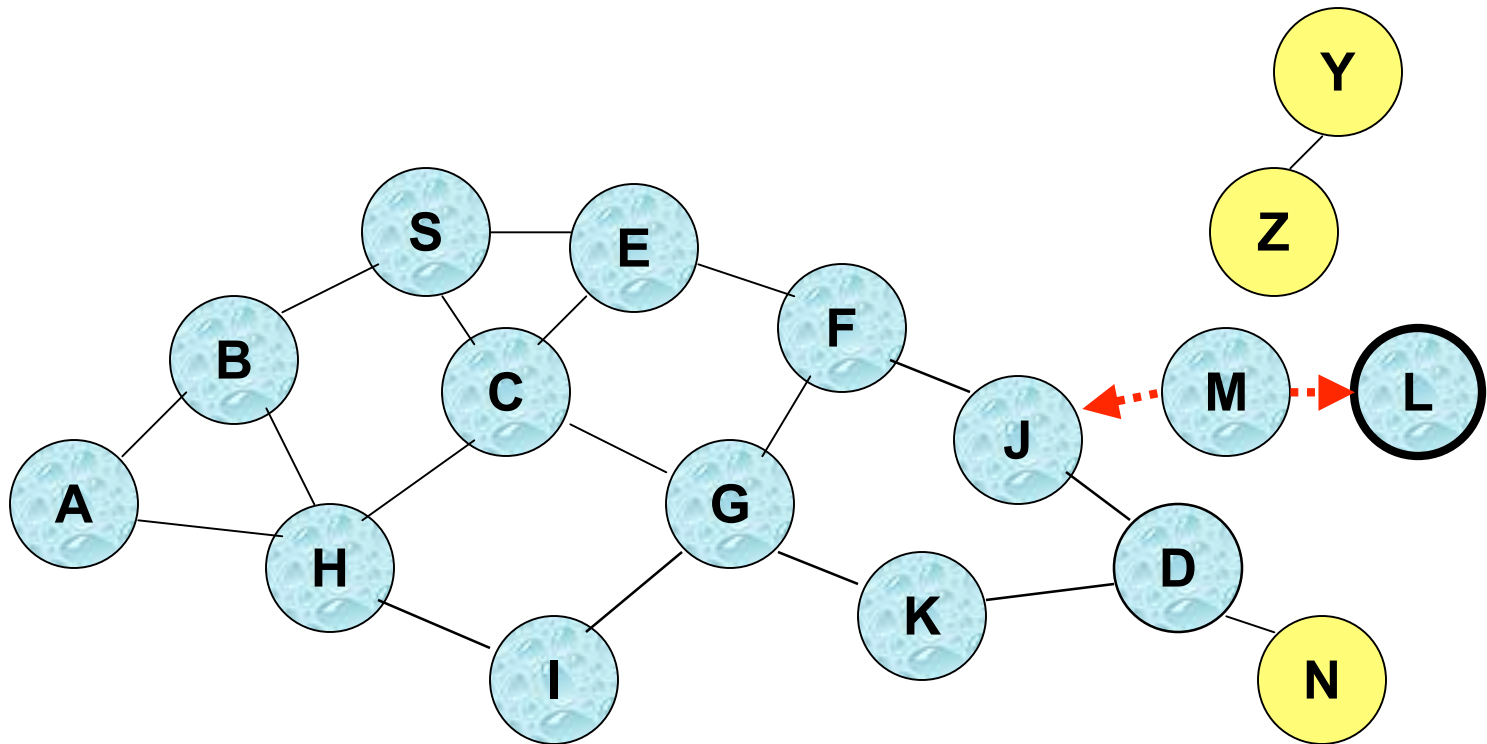
- Node C receives packet P from G and H, but does not forward it again, because node C has **already forwarded packet P** once

Flooding for Data Delivery



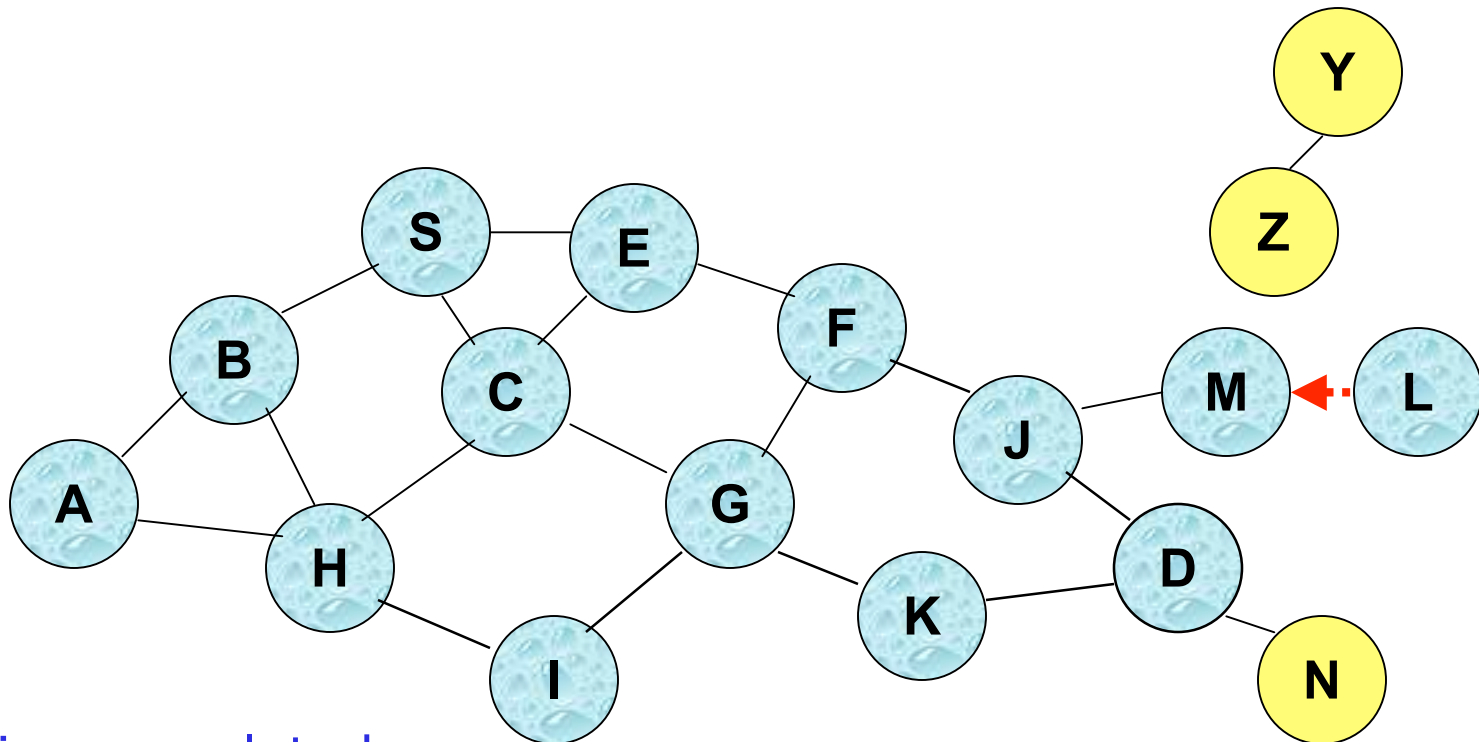
- Nodes J and K both broadcast packet P to node D
- Since nodes J and K are **hidden** from each other, their transmissions may collide
=> Packet P may not be delivered to node D at all

Flooding for Data Delivery



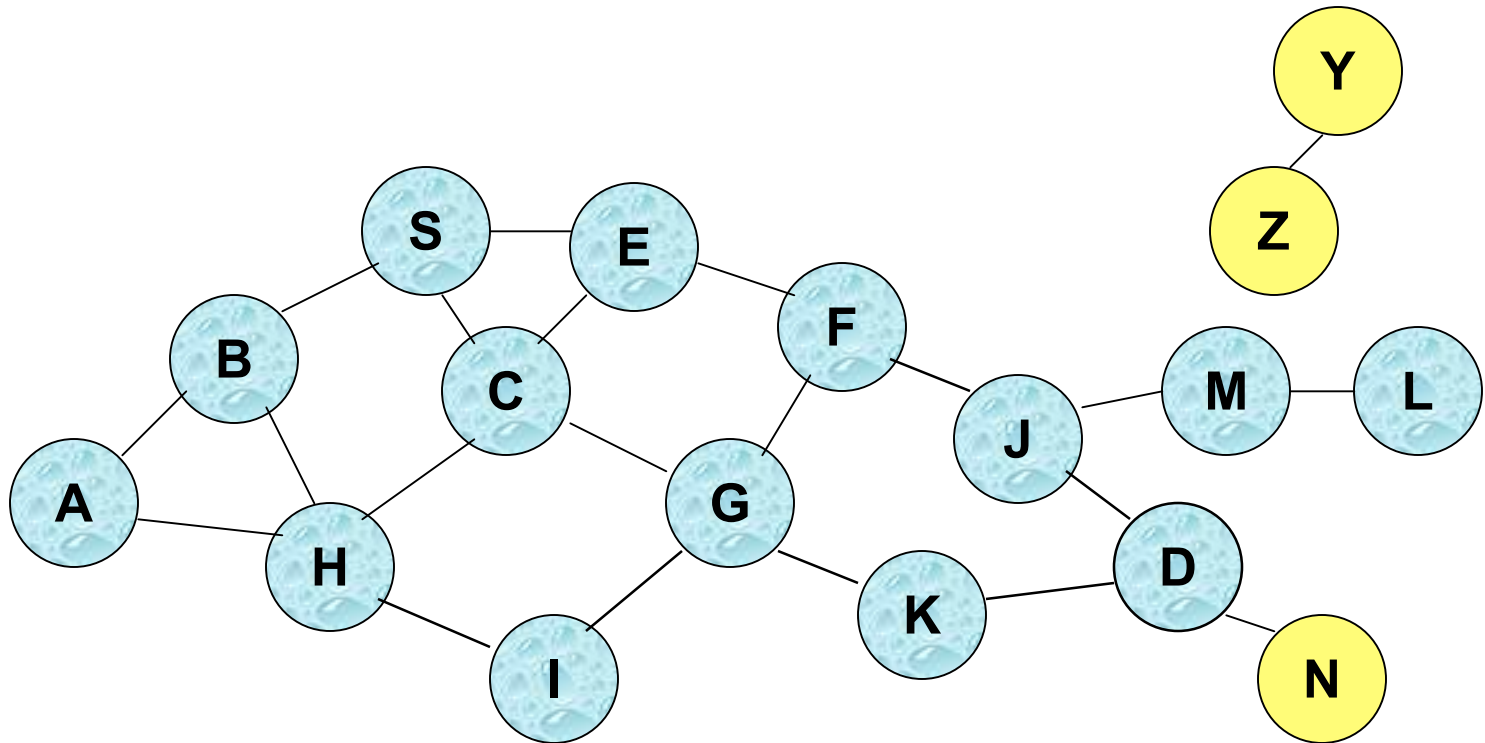
- Node D **does not forward** packet P, because node D is the **intended destination of packet P**

Flooding for Data Delivery



- Flooding completed
- Nodes **unreachable** from S do not receive packet P (e.g., node Z)
- Nodes for which all paths from S go through the destination D also do not receive packet P (example: node N)

Flooding for Data Delivery



- Flooding may deliver packets to too many nodes (in the **worst case**, all nodes reachable from sender may receive the packet)

Flooding: Advantages

- ❑ Simplicity
- ❑ May be more efficient than other protocols when rate of information transmission is low enough that the overhead of explicit route discovery/maintenance incurred by other protocols is relatively higher
 - o this scenario may occur, for instance, when nodes transmit small data packets relatively infrequently, and many topology changes occur between consecutive packet transmissions
- ❑ Potentially higher reliability of data delivery
 - o Because packets may be delivered to the destination on multiple paths

Flooding: Disadvantages

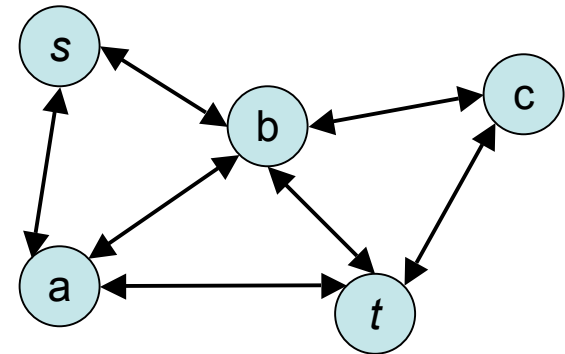
- ❑ Potentially, very high overhead
 - o Data packets may be delivered to too many nodes who do not need to receive them
- ❑ Potentially lower reliability of data delivery
 - o Flooding uses broadcasting -- hard to implement reliable broadcast delivery without significantly increasing overhead
 - Broadcasting in IEEE 802.11 MAC is unreliable
 - o In our example, nodes J and K may transmit to node D simultaneously, resulting in loss of the packet
 - In this case, destination would not receive the packet at all

Flooding of Control Packets

- ❑ Many protocols perform (potentially *limited*) flooding of control packets, instead of data packets
- ❑ The control packets are used to discover routes
- ❑ Discovered routes are subsequently used to send data packet(s)
- ❑ Overhead of control packet flooding is amortized over data packets transmitted between consecutive control packet floods

Proactive Routing: Link-State Routing Protocols

- ❑ Link-state routing protocols are a preferred iBGP method (within an autonomous system – think: service provider) in the Internet
- ❑ **Idea:** periodic notification of all nodes about the complete graph



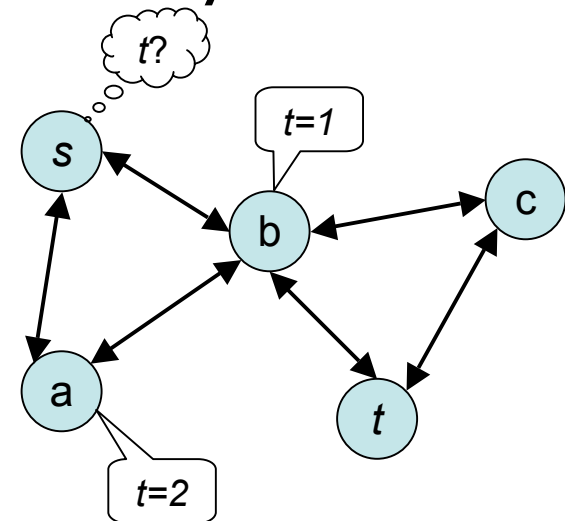
Link-State Routing Protocols

- Routers then forward a message along (for example) the shortest path in the graph
- + message follows shortest path
- every node needs to store whole graph, even links that are not on any path
- every node needs to send and receive messages that describe the whole graph regularly

Proactive Routing: Distance Vector Routing Protocols

- ❑ Often used in wired networks
- ❑ **Idea:** each node stores a routing table that has an entry to each destination (destination, distance, neighbor); each node maintains distance to every other node

Dest	Dir	Dst
<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	1
<i>b</i>	<i>b</i>	1
<i>c</i>	<i>b</i>	2
<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	2



Distance Vector Protocols

- ❑ If a router notices a change in its neighborhood or receives an update message from a neighbor, it updates its routing table accordingly and sends an update to all its neighbors
- + message follows shortest path
- + only send updates when topology changes
- most topology changes are irrelevant for a given source/destination pair
- Single edge/node failure may require most nodes to change most of their entries
- every node needs to store a big table
- temporary loops

Destination-Sequenced Distance Vector

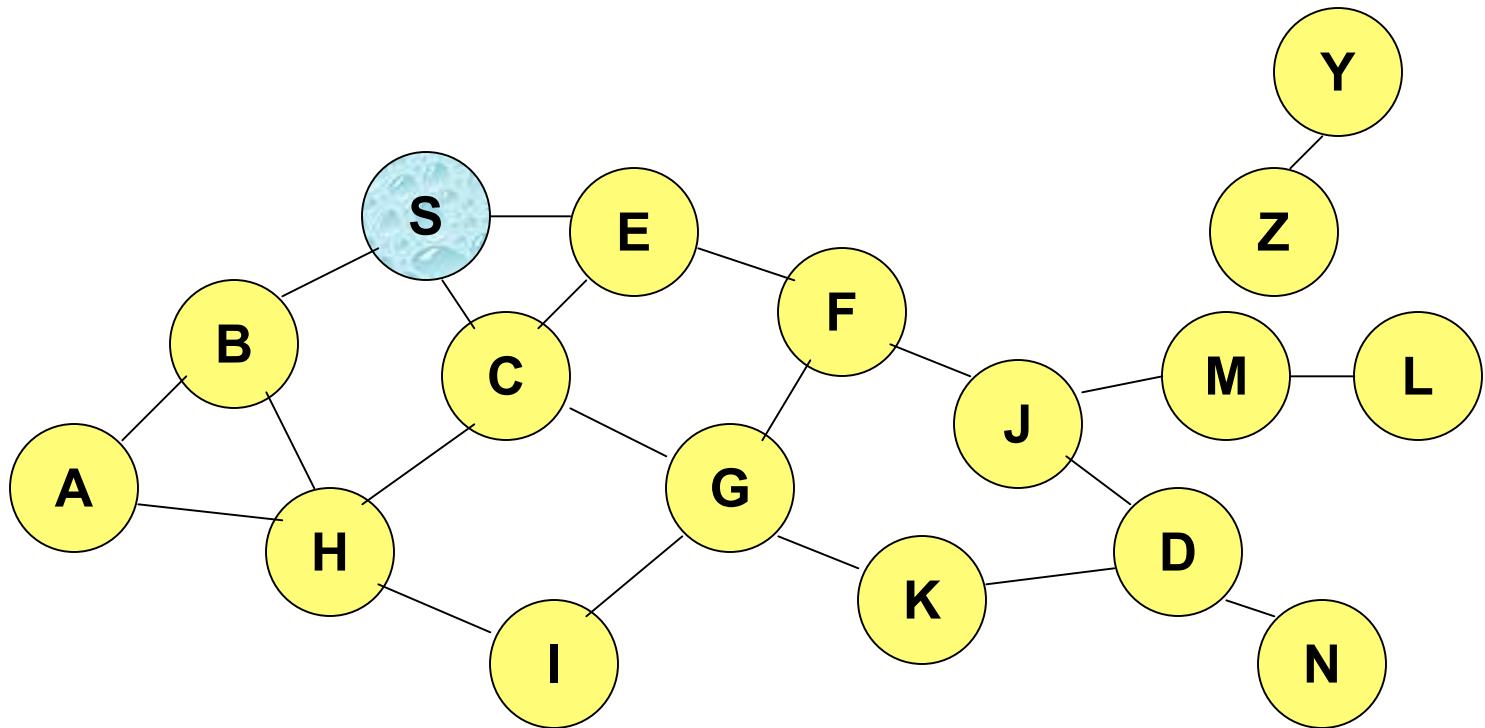
- [Perkins-Bhagwat 1996]
- Each entry in routing table (distance vector entry) has a sequence number
- Each node periodically advertizes its routing table entries
- Each node only needs to consider the entries with highest sequence number it has seen thus far
- Advantage: Quicker response time at time of routing
- Disadvantage: Too much control traffic when many changes in the network

Dynamic Source Routing (DSR)

[Johnson96]

- ❑ When node S wants to send a packet to node D, but does not know a route to D, node S initiates a route discovery
- ❑ Source node S floods Route Request (RREQ)
- ❑ Each node appends own identifier when forwarding RREQ

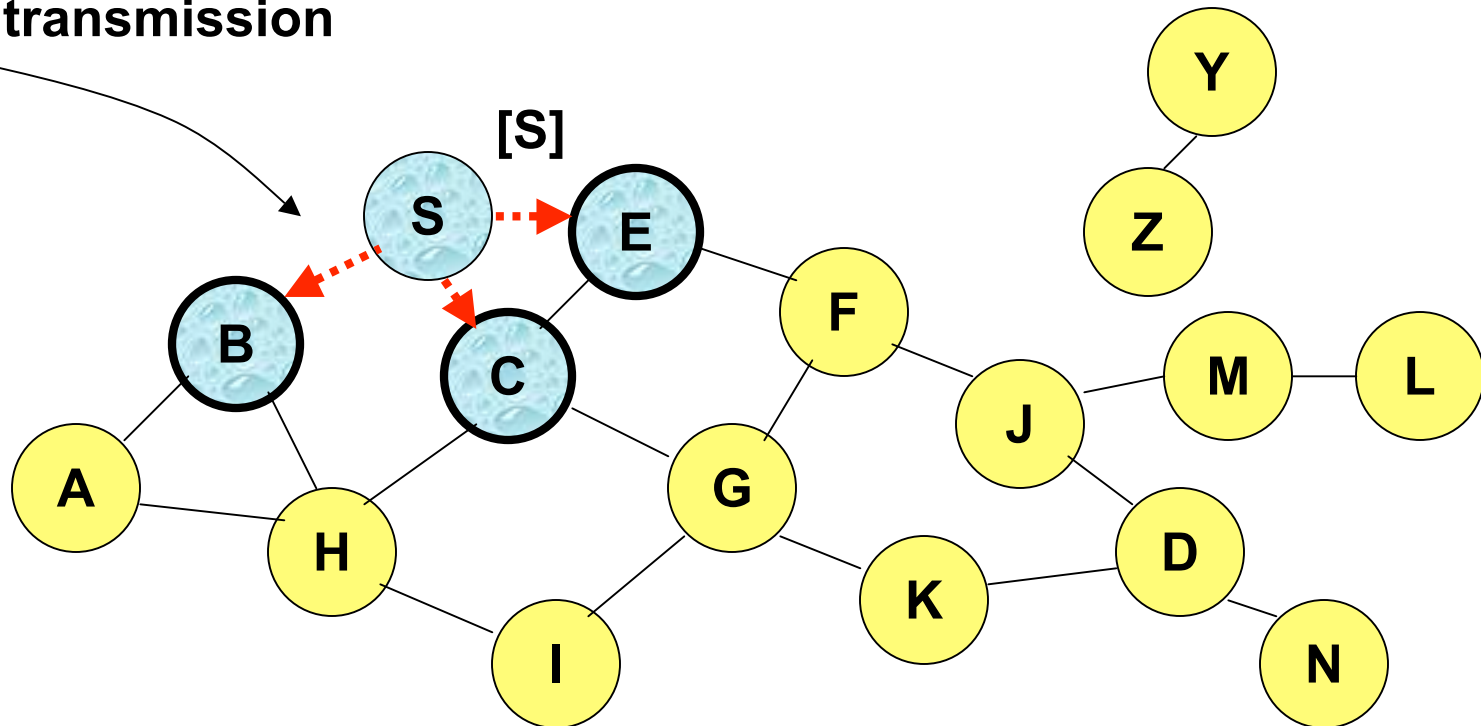
Route Discovery in DSR



Represents a node that has received RREQ for D from S

Route Discovery in DSR

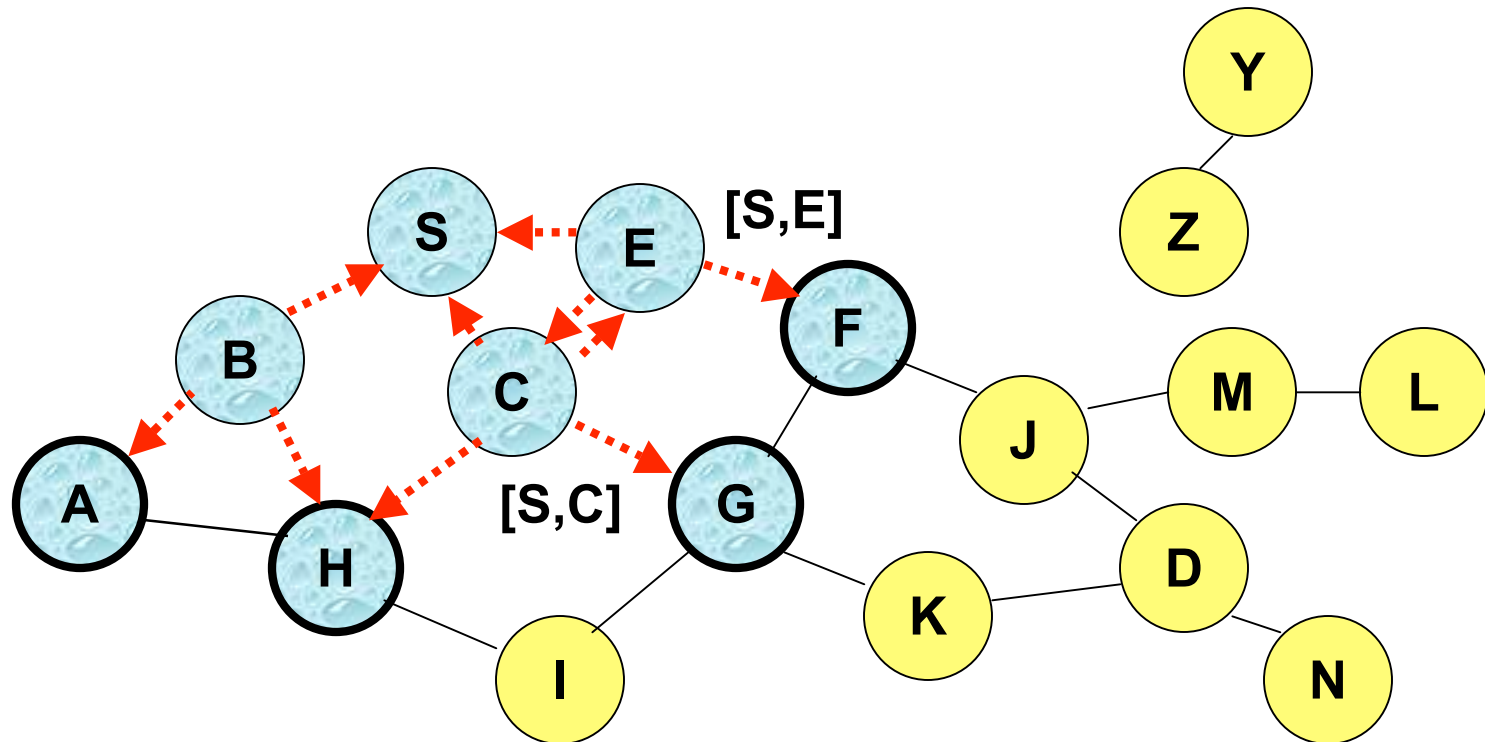
Broadcast transmission



.....➔ Represents transmission of RREQ

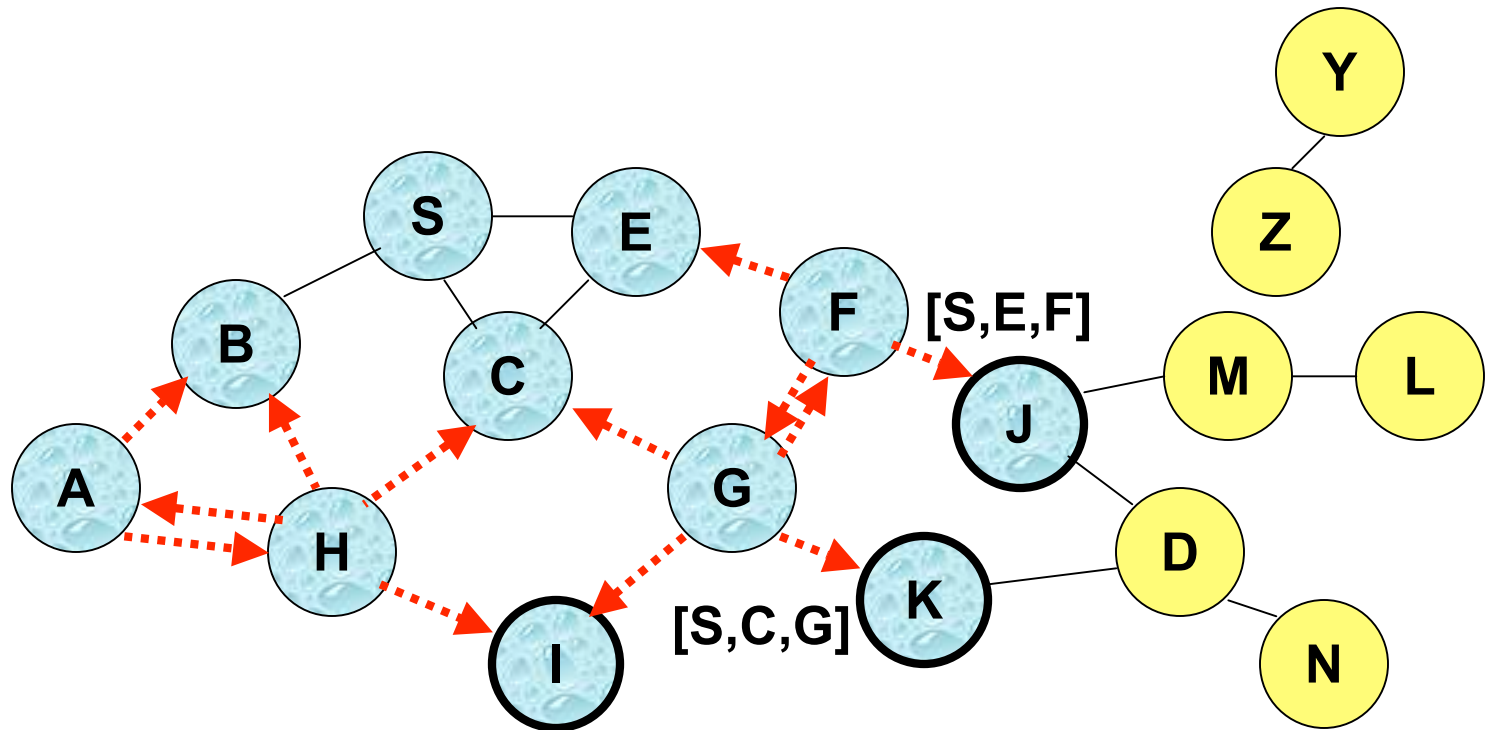
[X,Y] Represents list of identifiers appended to RREQ

Route Discovery in DSR



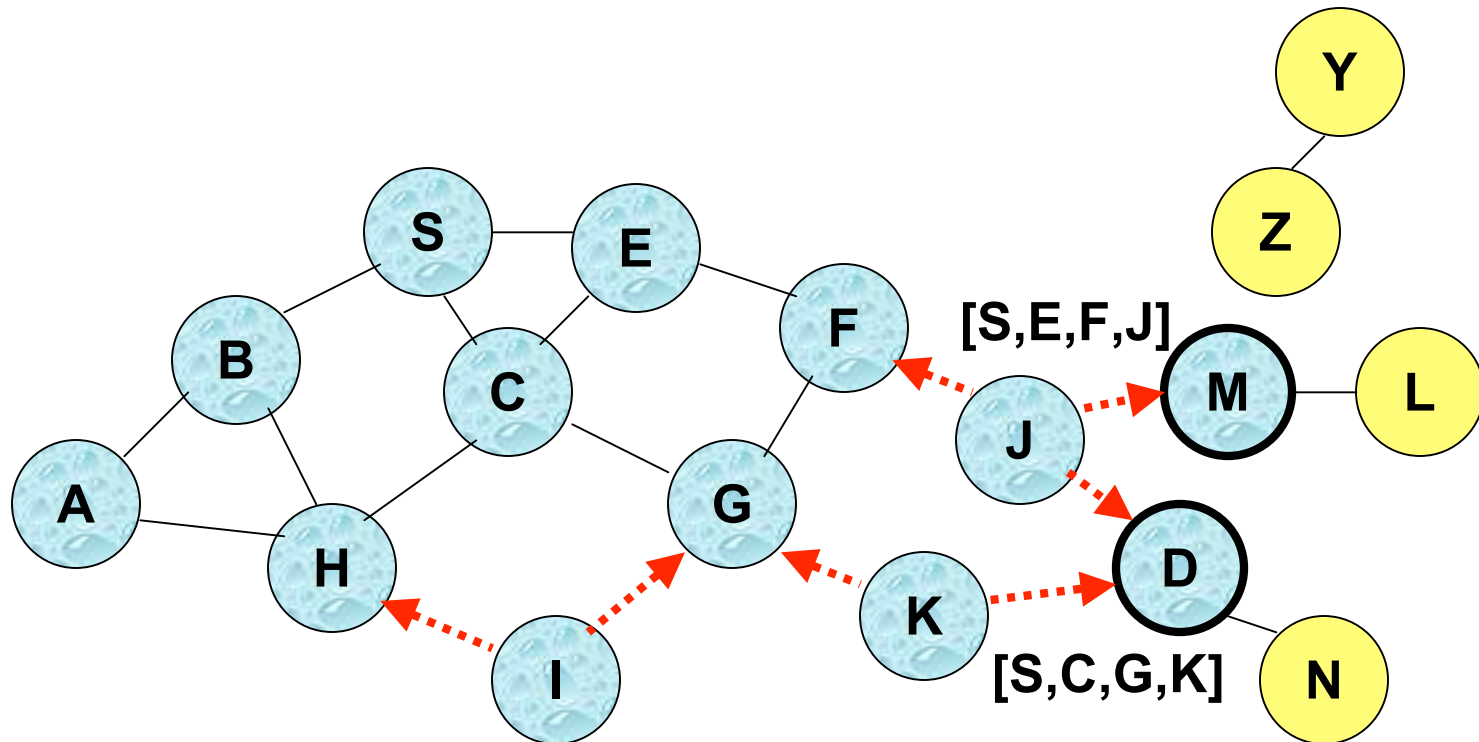
- Node H receives packet RREQ from two neighbors:
potential for collision

Route Discovery in DSR



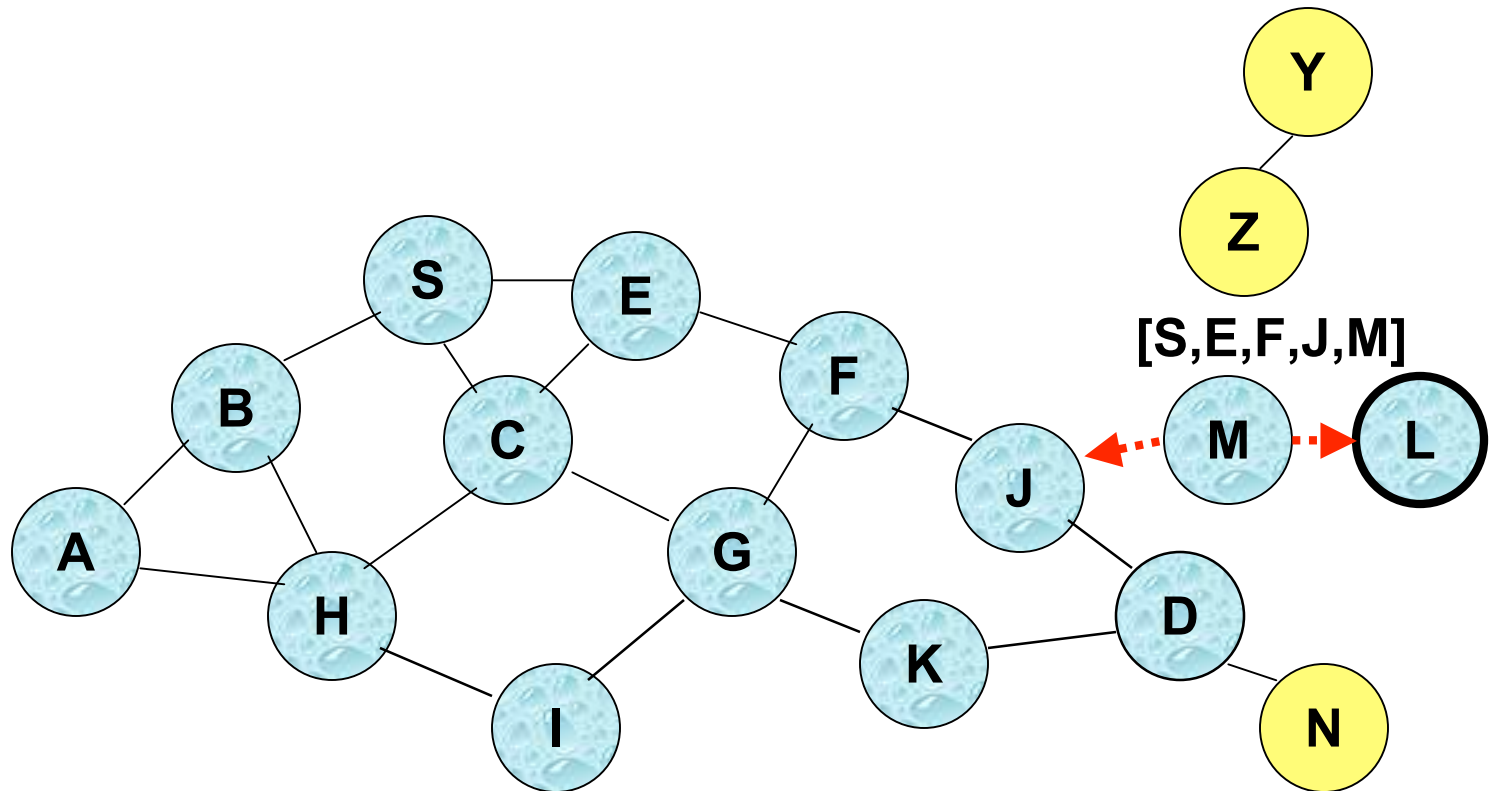
- Node C receives RREQ from G and H, but does not forward it again, because node C has **already forwarded RREQ** once

Route Discovery in DSR



- Nodes J and K both broadcast RREQ to node D
- Since nodes J and K are **hidden** from each other, their **transmissions may collide**

Route Discovery in DSR

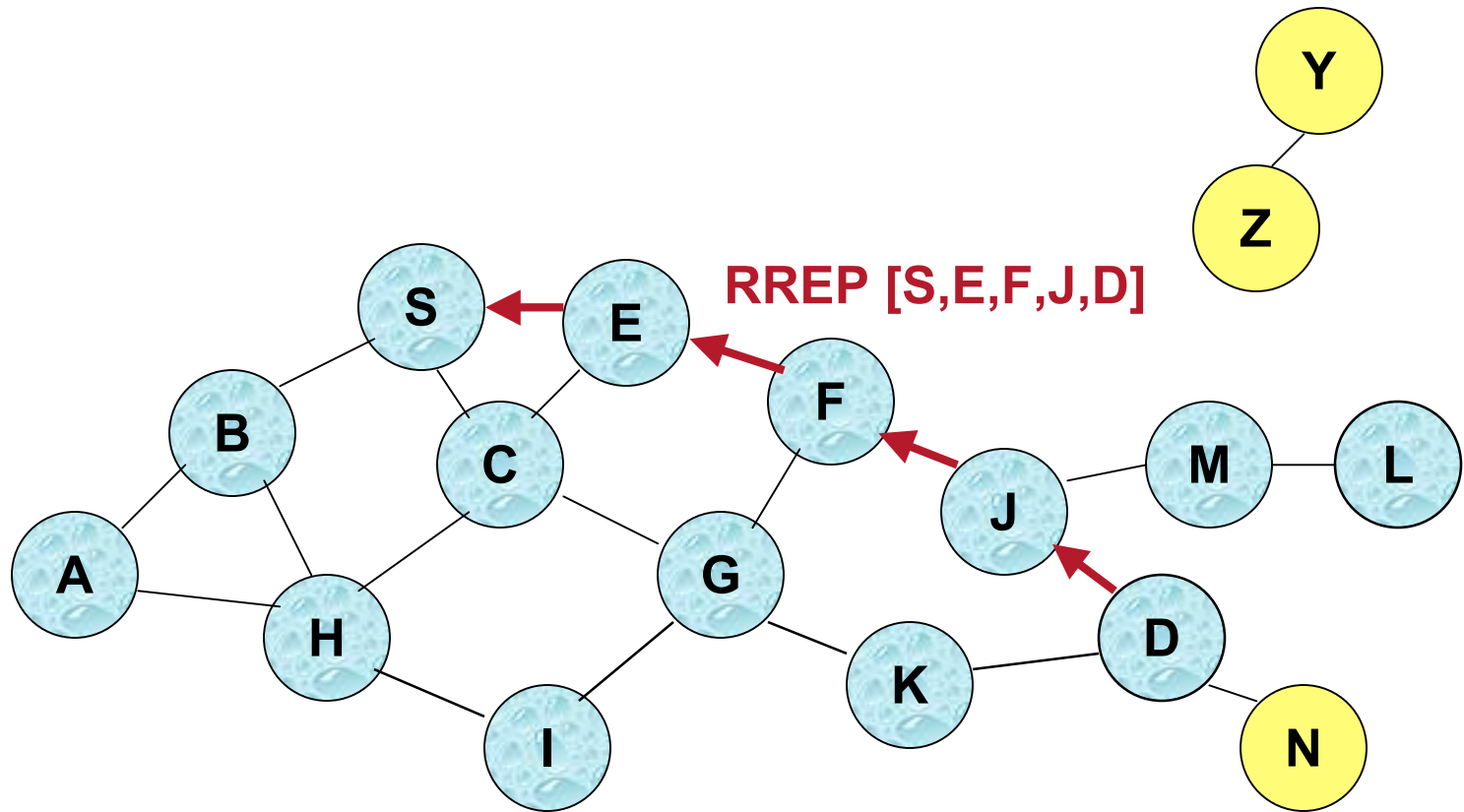


- Node D **does not forward** RREQ, because node D is the **intended target** of the route discovery

Route Discovery in DSR

- ❑ Destination D on receiving the first RREQ, sends a **Route Reply (RREP)**
- ❑ RREP is sent on a route obtained by **reversing** the route appended to received RREQ
- ❑ RREP **includes the route** from S to D on which RREQ was received by node D

Route Reply in DSR



← Represents RREP control message

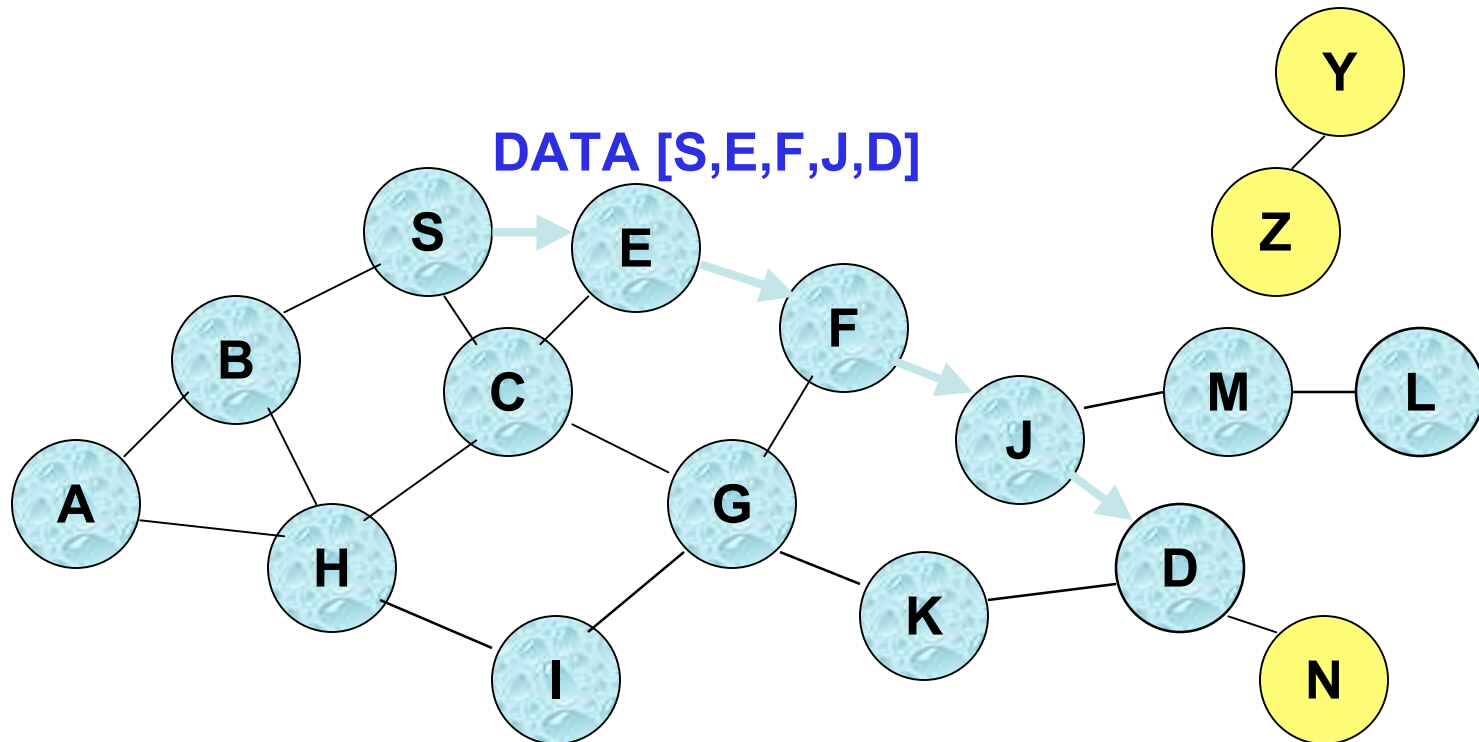
Route Reply in DSR

- ❑ Route Reply can be sent by reversing the route in Route Request (RREQ) only if links are guaranteed to be bi-directional
 - o To ensure this, RREQ should be forwarded only if it received on a link that is known to be bi-directional
- ❑ If unidirectional (asymmetric) links are allowed, then RREP may need a route discovery for S from node D
 - o Unless node D already knows a route to node S
 - o If a route discovery is initiated by D for a route to S, then the Route Reply is piggybacked on the Route Request from D.
- ❑ If IEEE 802.11 MAC is used to send data, then links have to be bi-directional (since Ack is used)

Dynamic Source Routing (DSR)

- ❑ Node S on receiving RREP, caches the route included in the RREP
- ❑ When node S sends a data packet to D, the entire route is included in the packet header
 - o hence the name **source routing**
- ❑ Intermediate nodes use the **source route** included in a packet to determine to whom a packet should be forwarded

Data Delivery in DSR



Packet header size grows with route length

When to Perform a Route Discovery

- ❑ When node S wants to send data to node D, but does not know a valid route node D

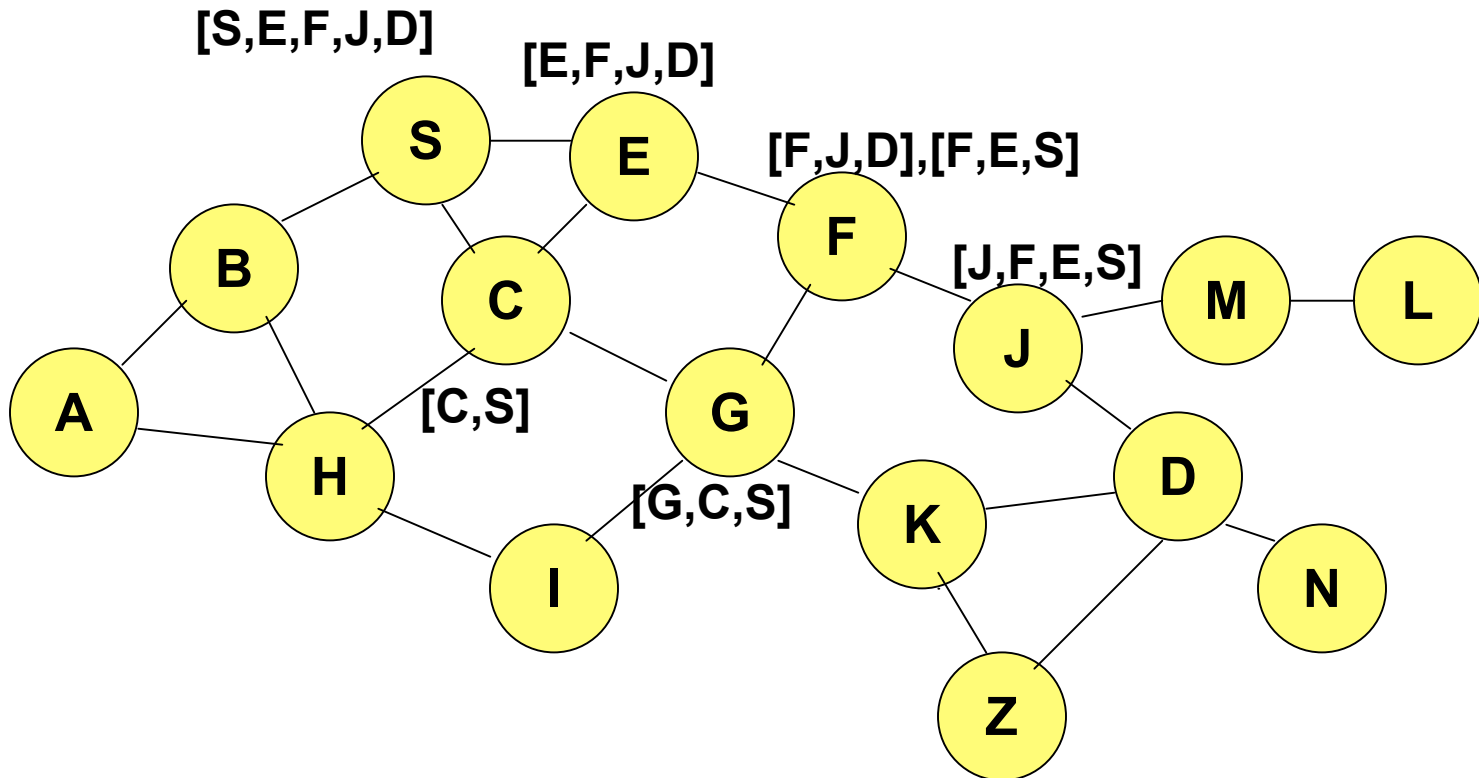
DSR Optimization: Route Caching

- ❑ Each node caches a new route it learns by *any means*
- ❑ When node S finds route [S,E,F,J,D] to node D, node S also learns route [S,E,F] to node F
- ❑ When node K receives Route Request [S,C,G] destined for node, node K learns route [K,G,C,S] to node S
- ❑ When node F forwards Route Reply RREP [S,E,F,J,D], node F learns route [F,J,D] to node D
- ❑ When node E forwards Data [S,E,F,J,D] it learns route [E,F,J,D] to node D
- ❑ A node may also learn a route when it overhears Data packets

Use of Route Caching

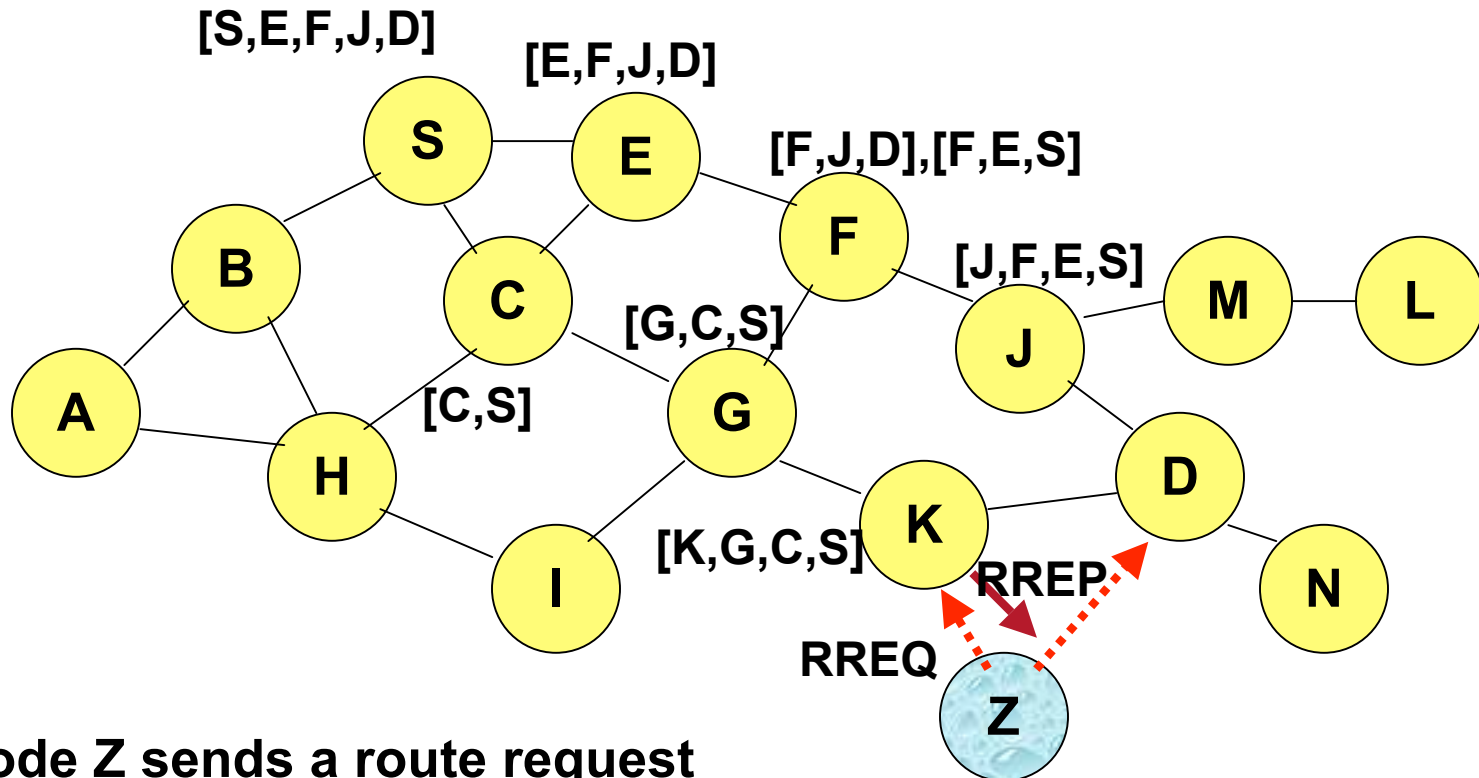
- ❑ When node S learns that a route to node D is broken, it uses another route from its local cache, if such a route to D exists in its cache. Otherwise, node S initiates route discovery by sending a route request
- ❑ Node X on receiving a Route Request for some node D can send a Route Reply if node X knows a route to node D
- ❑ Use of route cache
 - o can speed up route discovery
 - o can reduce propagation of route requests

Use of Route Caching



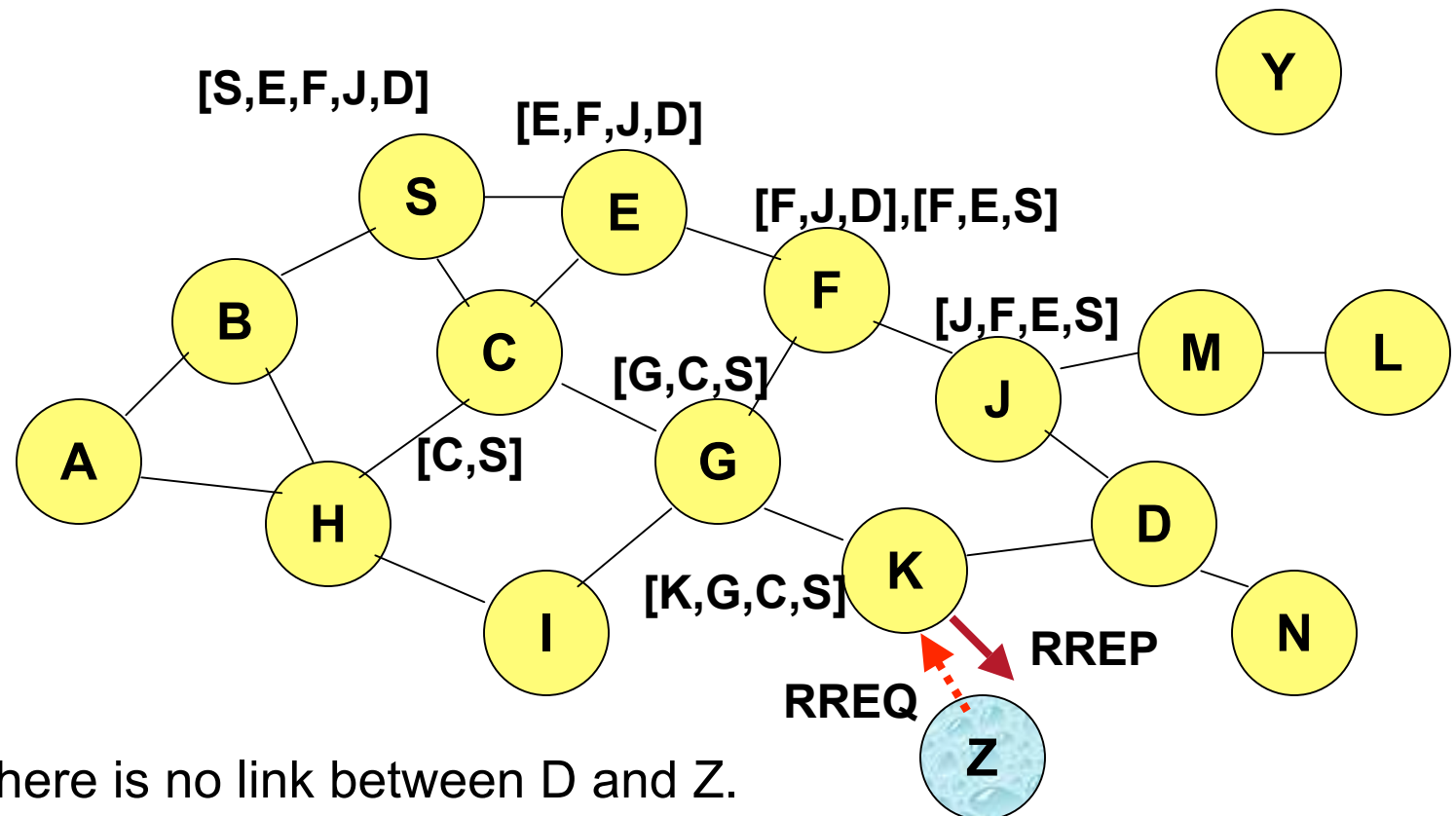
[P,Q,R] Represents cached route at a node
(DSR maintains the cached routes in a tree format)

Use of Route Caching: Can Speed up Route Discovery



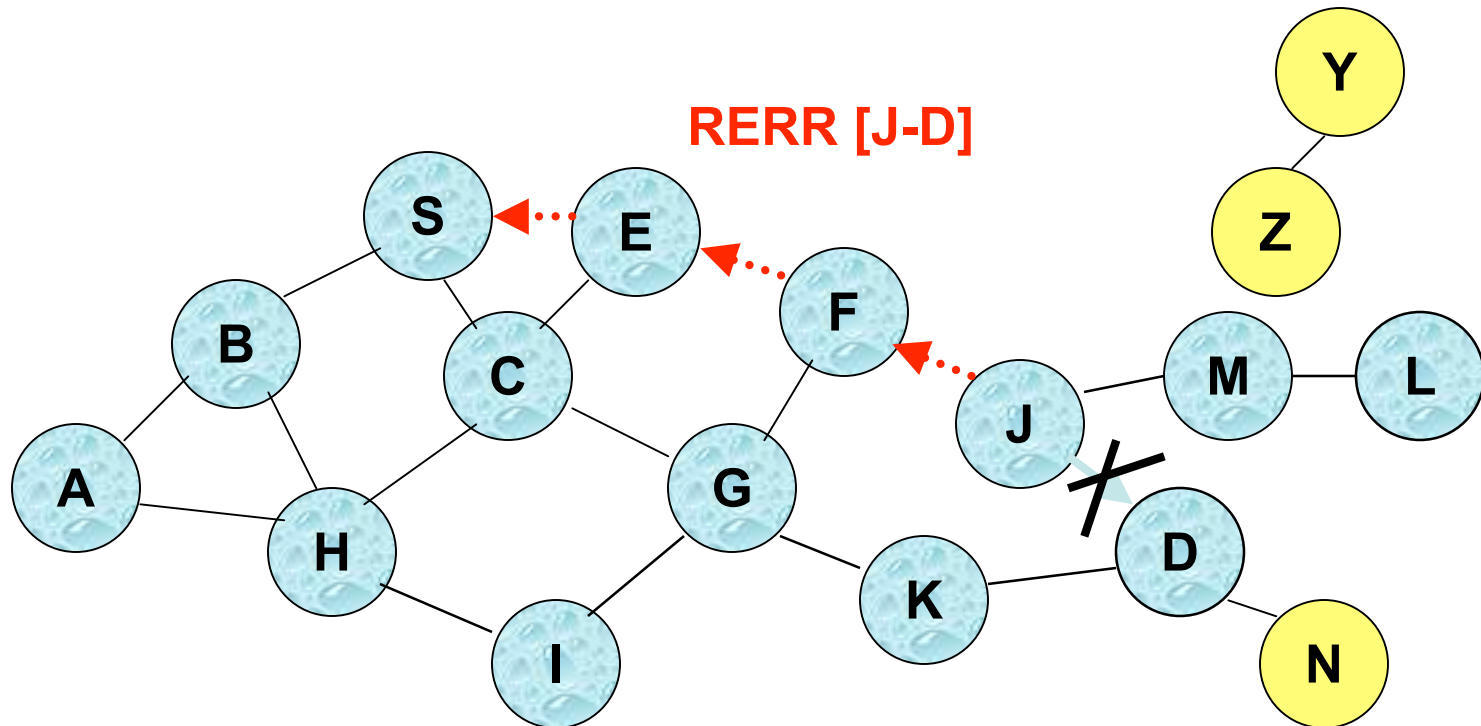
When node Z sends a route request for node C, node K sends back a route reply [Z,K,G,C] to node Z using a locally cached route

Use of Route Caching: Can Reduce Propagation of Route Requests



Assume that there is no link between D and Z.
Route Reply (RREP) from node K **limits flooding** of RREQ.
In general, the reduction may be less dramatic.

Route Error (RERR)



J sends a route error to S along route J-F-E-S when its attempt to forward the data packet S (with route SEFJD) on J-D fails

Nodes hearing RERR update their route cache to remove link J-D

Route Caching: Beware!

- ❑ Stale caches can adversely affect performance
- ❑ With passage of time and host mobility, cached routes may become invalid
- ❑ A sender host may try several stale routes (obtained from local cache, or replied from cache by other nodes), before finding a good route

DSR: Advantages

- ❑ Routes maintained only between nodes who need to communicate
 - o reduces overhead of route maintenance
- ❑ Route caching can further reduce route discovery overhead
- ❑ A single route discovery may yield many routes to the destination, due to intermediate nodes replying from local caches

DSR: Disadvantages

- ❑ Packet header size grows with route length due to source routing
- ❑ Flood of route requests may potentially reach all nodes in the network
- ❑ Care must be taken to avoid collisions between route requests propagated by neighboring nodes
 - o insertion of random delays before forwarding RREQ
- ❑ Increased contention if too many route replies come back due to nodes replying using their local cache
 - o Route Reply *Storm* problem
 - o Reply storm may be eased by preventing a node from sending RREP if it hears another RREP with a shorter route

DSR: Disadvantages

- ❑ An intermediate node may send Route Reply using a stale cached route, thus polluting other caches
- ❑ This problem can be eased if some mechanism to purge (potentially) invalid cached routes is incorporated.
 - o Static timeouts
 - o Adaptive timeouts based on link stability

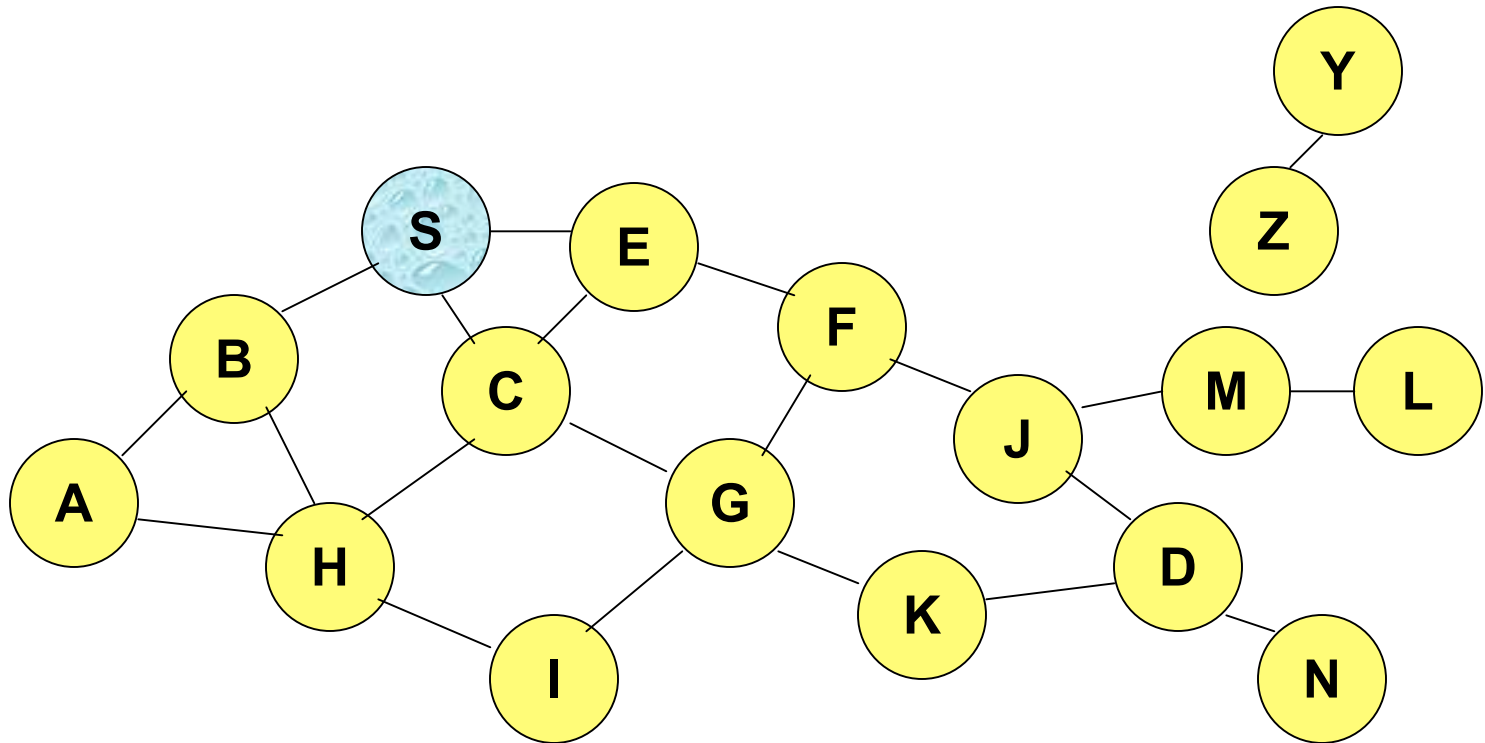
Ad Hoc On-Demand Distance Vector Routing (AODV) [Perkins99]

- ❑ DSR includes source routes in packet headers
- ❑ Resulting large headers can sometimes degrade performance
 - o particularly when data contents of a packet are small
- ❑ AODV attempts to improve on DSR by maintaining routing tables at the nodes, so that data packets do not have to contain routes
- ❑ AODV retains the desirable feature of DSR that routes are maintained only between nodes which need to communicate

AODV

- ❑ Route Requests (RREQ) are forwarded in a manner similar to DSR
- ❑ When a node re-broadcasts a Route Request, it sets up a reverse path pointing towards the source
 - AODV assumes symmetric (bi-directional) links
- ❑ When the intended destination receives a Route Request, it replies by sending a Route Reply
- ❑ Route Reply travels along the reverse path set-up when Route Request is forwarded

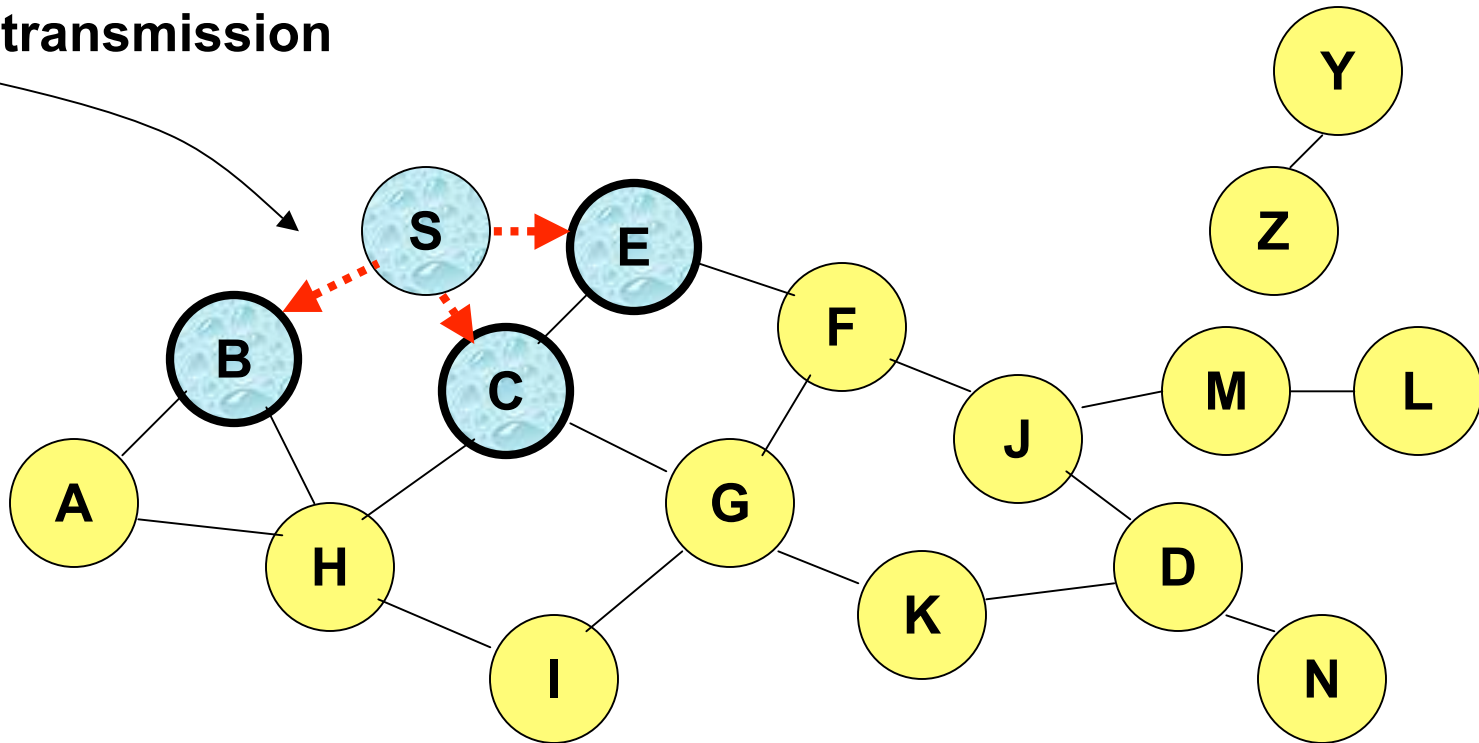
Route Requests in AODV



Represents a node that has received RREQ for D from S

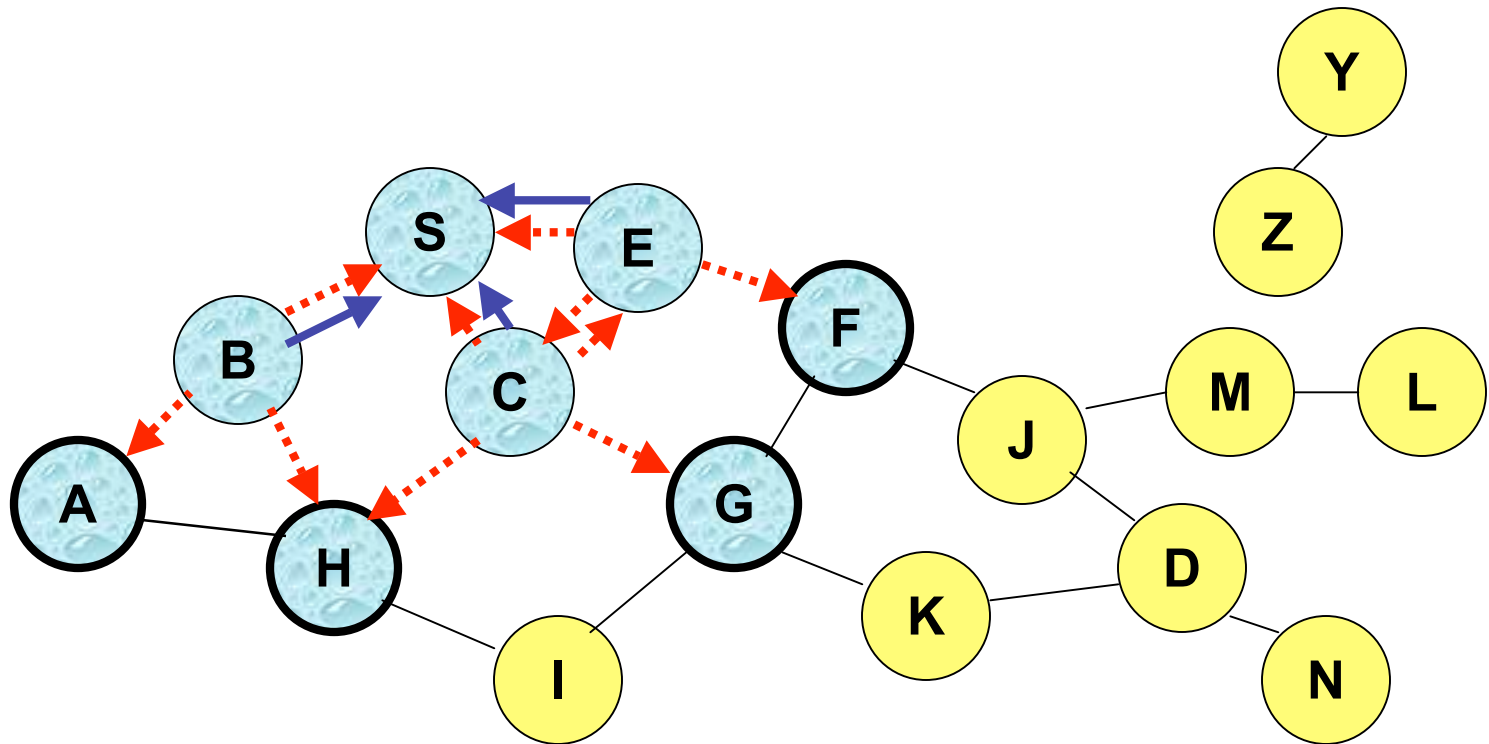
Route Requests in AODV

Broadcast transmission



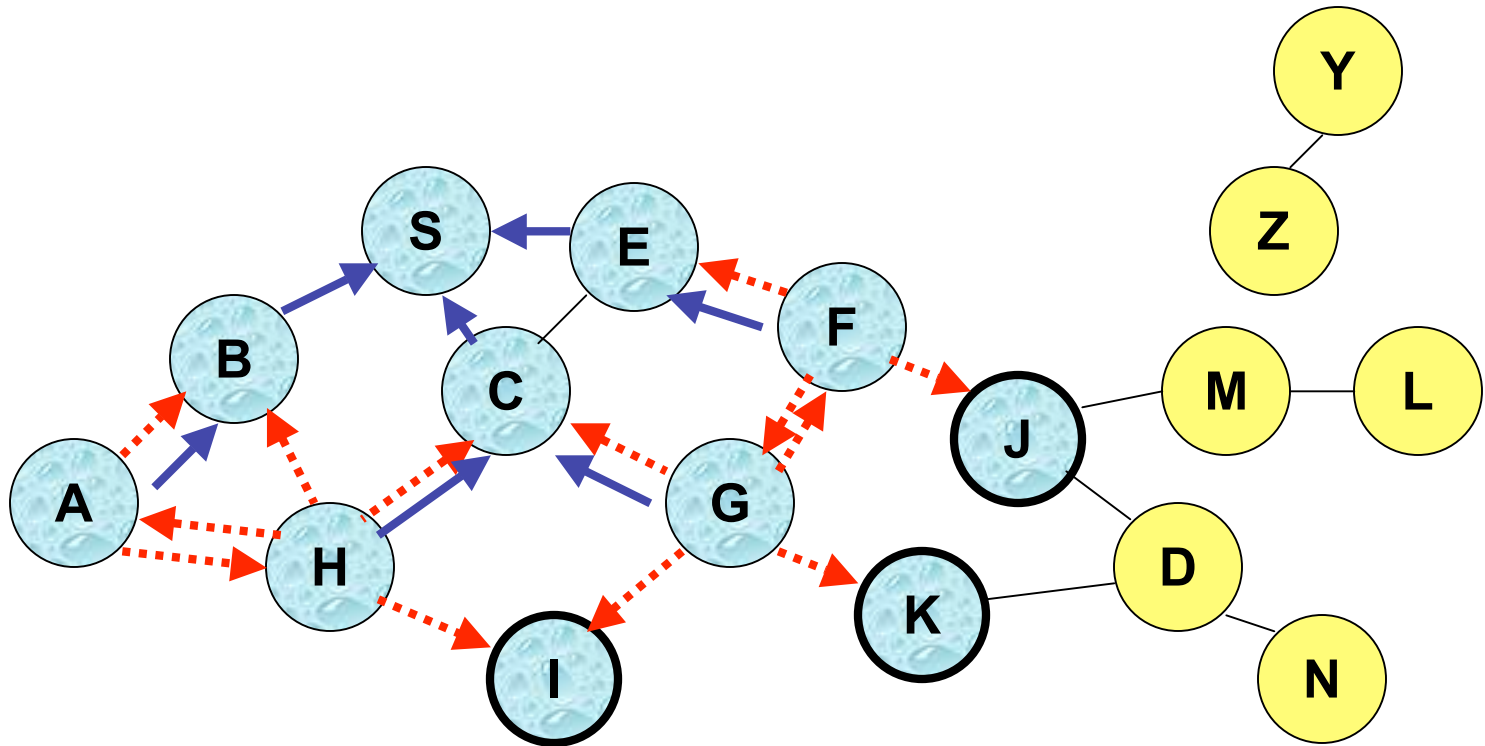
.....➔ Represents transmission of RREQ

Route Requests in AODV



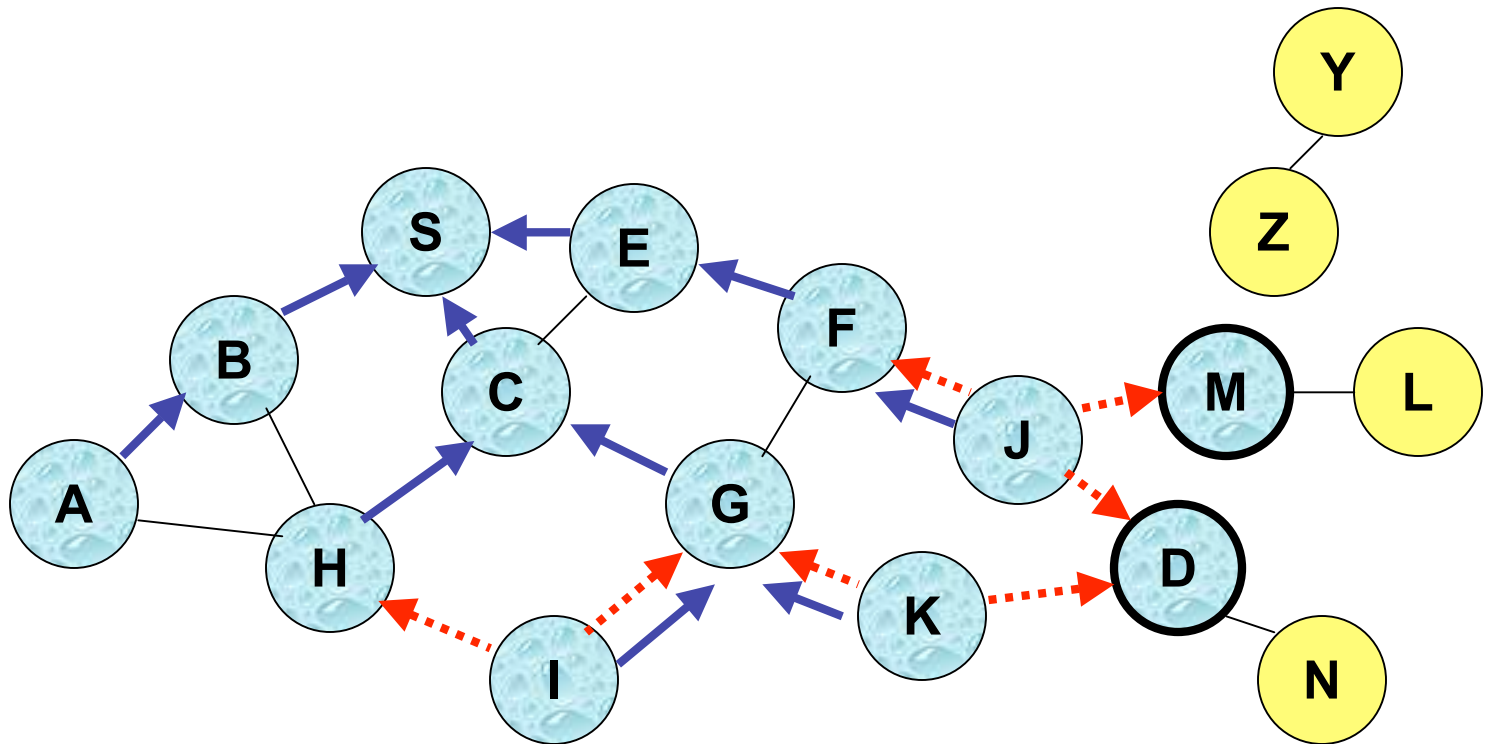
← Represents links on Reverse Path

Reverse Path Setup in AODV

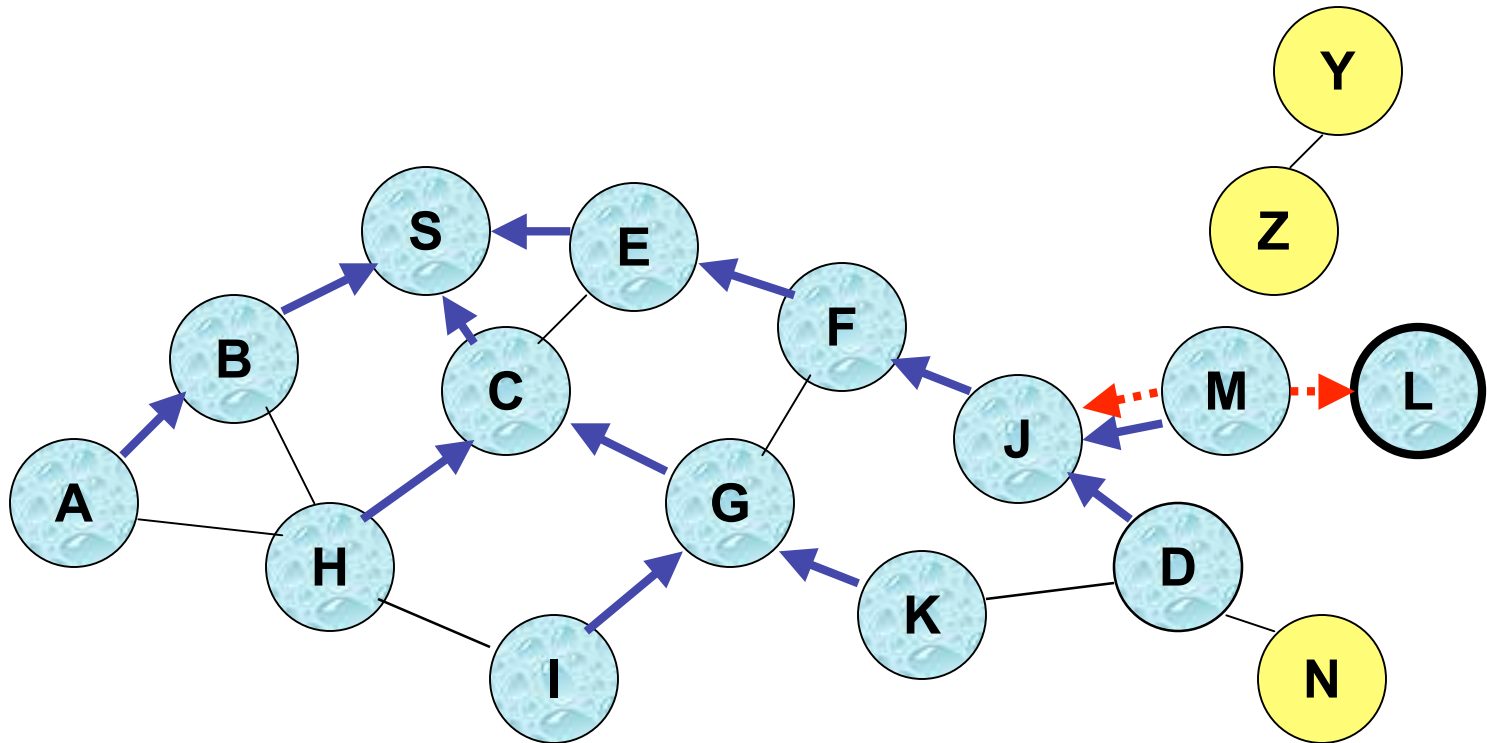


- Node C receives RREQ from G and H, but does not forward it again, because node C has **already forwarded RREQ** once

Reverse Path Setup in AODV

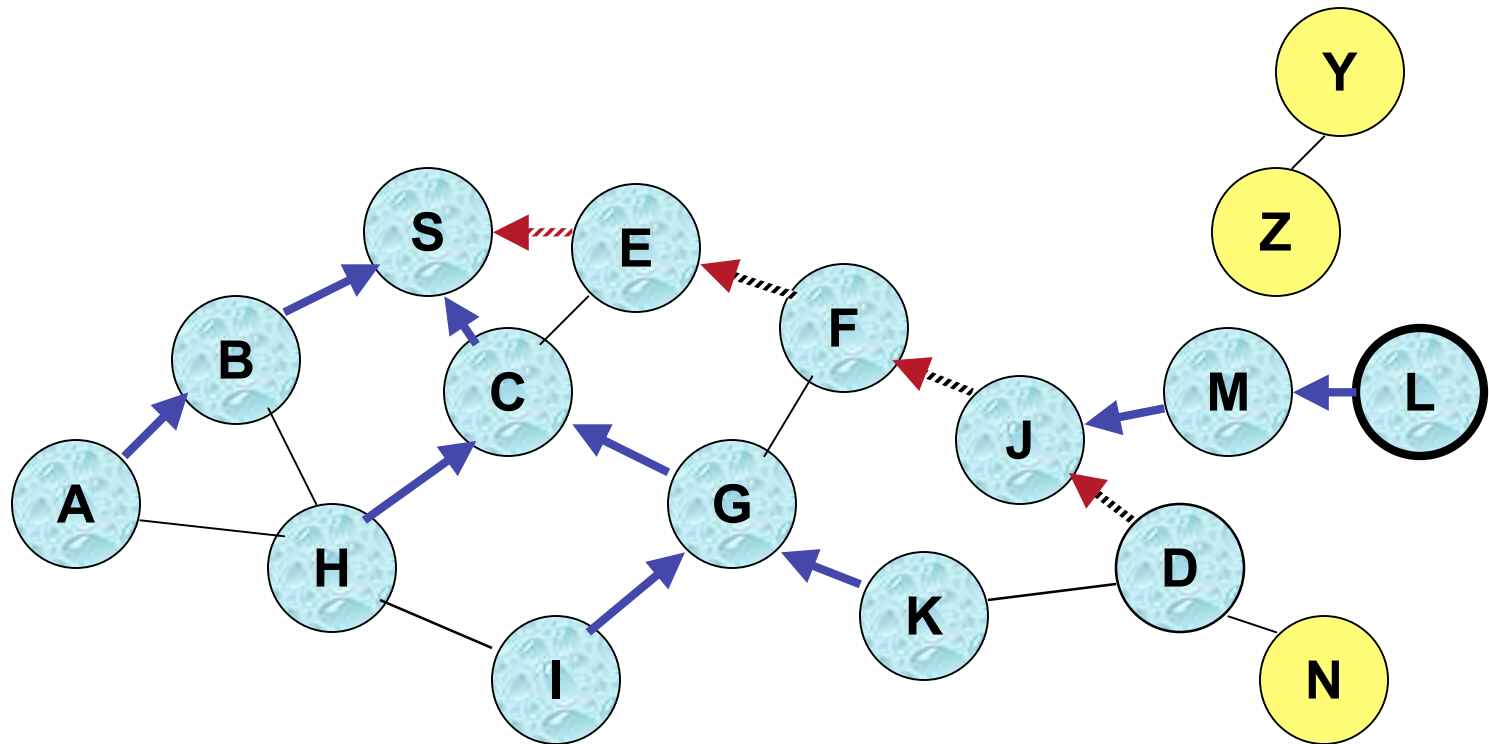


Reverse Path Setup in AODV



- Node D **does not forward** RREQ, because node D is the **intended target** of the RREQ

Route Reply in AODV

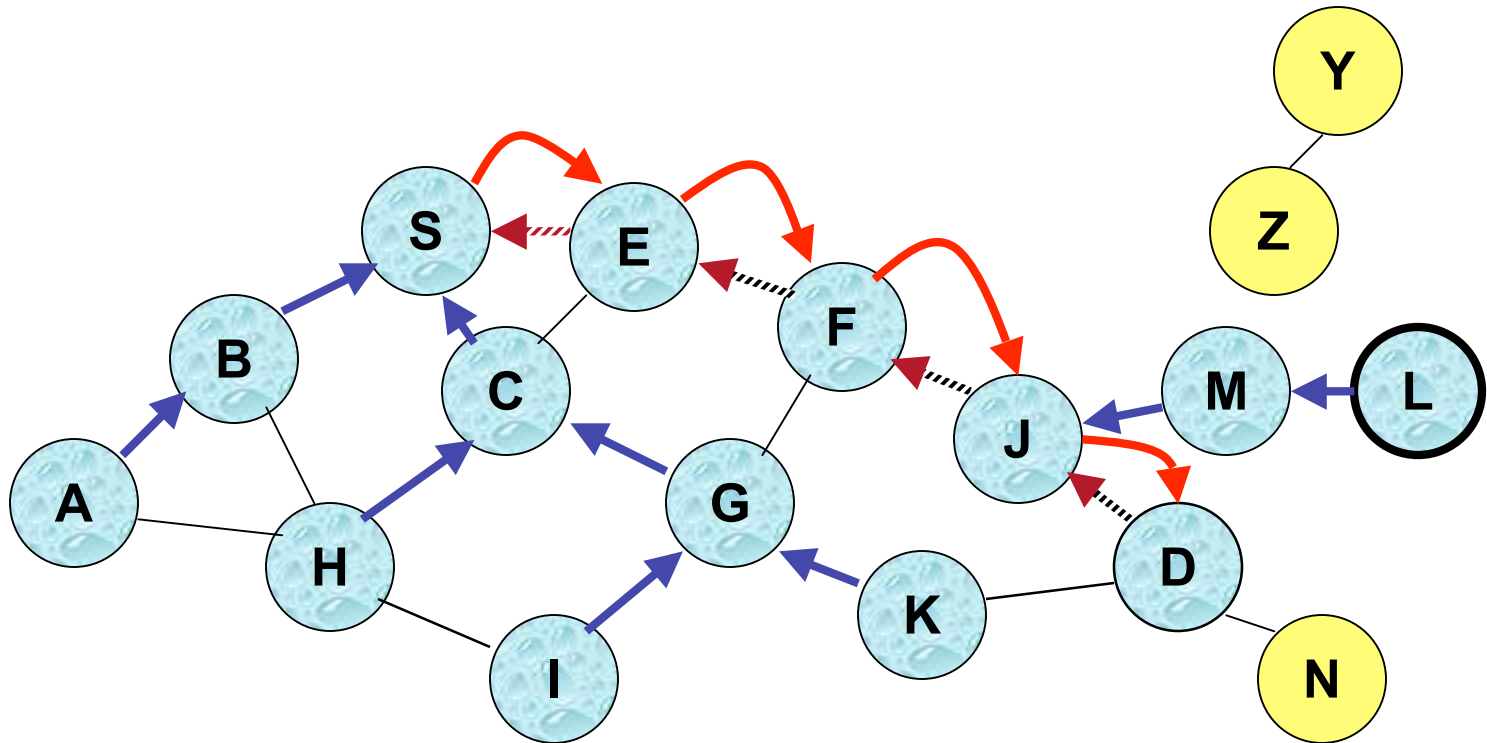


← Represents links on path taken by RREP

Route Reply in AODV

- ❑ An **intermediate node** (not the destination) may also send a **Route Reply (RREP)** provided that it knows a **more recent path** than the one previously known to sender S
- ❑ To determine whether the path known to an intermediate node is more recent, *destination sequence numbers* are used
- ❑ The likelihood that an intermediate node will send a Route Reply when using AODV not as high as DSR
 - o A new Route Request by node S for a destination is assigned a higher destination sequence number. An intermediate node which knows a route, but with a smaller sequence number, **cannot send** Route Reply

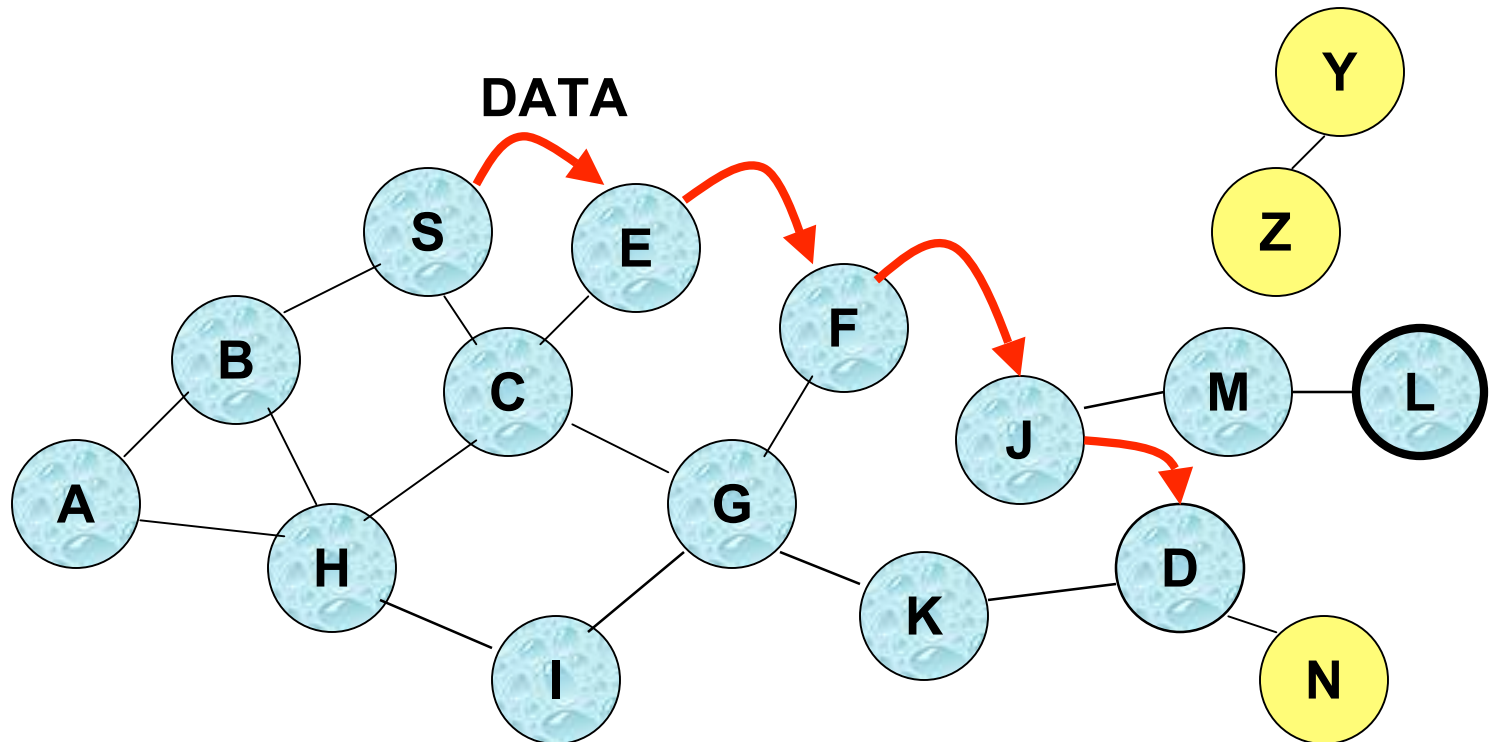
Forward Path Setup in AODV



Forward links are setup when RREP travels along the reverse path

 Represents a link on the forward path

Data Delivery in AODV



Routing table entries used to forward data packet.

Route is *not* included in packet header.

Timeouts

- ❑ A routing table entry maintaining a **reverse path** is purged after a timeout interval
 - o timeout should be long enough to allow RREP to come back
- ❑ A routing table entry maintaining a **forward path** is purged if *not used* for a *active_route_timeout* interval
 - o if no data being sent using a particular routing table entry, that entry will be deleted from the routing table (even if the route may actually still be valid)

Link Failure Reporting

- ❑ A neighbor of node X is considered **active** for a routing table entry if the neighbor sent a packet within *active_route_timeout* interval which was forwarded using that entry
- ❑ When the next hop link in a routing table entry breaks, all **active** neighbors are informed
- ❑ Link failures are propagated by means of Route Error messages, which also update destination sequence numbers

Route Error

- ❑ When node X is unable to forward packet P (from node S to node D) on link (X,Y) , it generates a RERR message
- ❑ Node X increments the destination sequence number for D cached at node X
- ❑ The incremented sequence number N is included in the RERR
- ❑ When node S receives the RERR, it initiates a new route discovery for D using destination sequence number at least as large as N

Destination Sequence Number

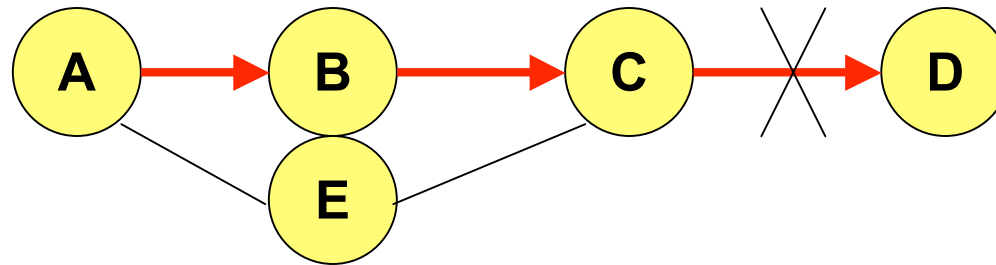
- ❑ Continuing from the previous slide ...
- ❑ When node D receives the route request with destination sequence number N , node D will set its sequence number to N , unless it is already larger than N

Link Failure Detection

- ❑ *Hello* messages: Neighboring nodes periodically exchange hello message
- ❑ Absence of hello message is used as an indication of link failure
- ❑ Alternatively, failure to receive several MAC-level acknowledgement may be used as an indication of link failure

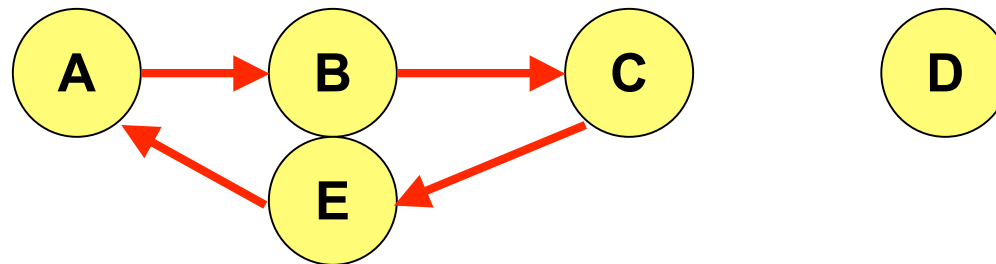
Why Sequence Numbers in AODV

- ❑ To avoid using old/broken routes
 - o To determine which route is newer
- ❑ To prevent formation of loops



- o Assume that A does not know about failure of link C-D because RERR sent by C is lost
- o Now C performs a route discovery for D. Node A receives the RREQ (say, via path C-E-A)
- o Node A will reply since A knows a route to D via node B
- o Results in a loop (for instance, C-E-A-B-C)

Why Sequence Numbers in AODV



o Loop C-E-A-B-C

Optimization: Expanding Ring Search

- ❑ Route Requests are initially sent with small Time-to-Live (TTL) field, to limit their propagation
 - o DSR also includes a similar optimization
- ❑ If no Route Reply is received, then larger TTL tried

Summary: AODV

- ❑ Routes need not be included in packet headers
- ❑ Nodes maintain routing tables containing entries only for routes that are in active use
- ❑ At most one next-hop per destination maintained at each node
 - o DSR may maintain several routes for a single destination
- ❑ Unused routes expire even if topology does not change

Other novel approaches to ad hoc network routing

❑ Link reversal

- o Aimed for highly dynamic networks
- o Goal: to identify some path, as opposed to the best path

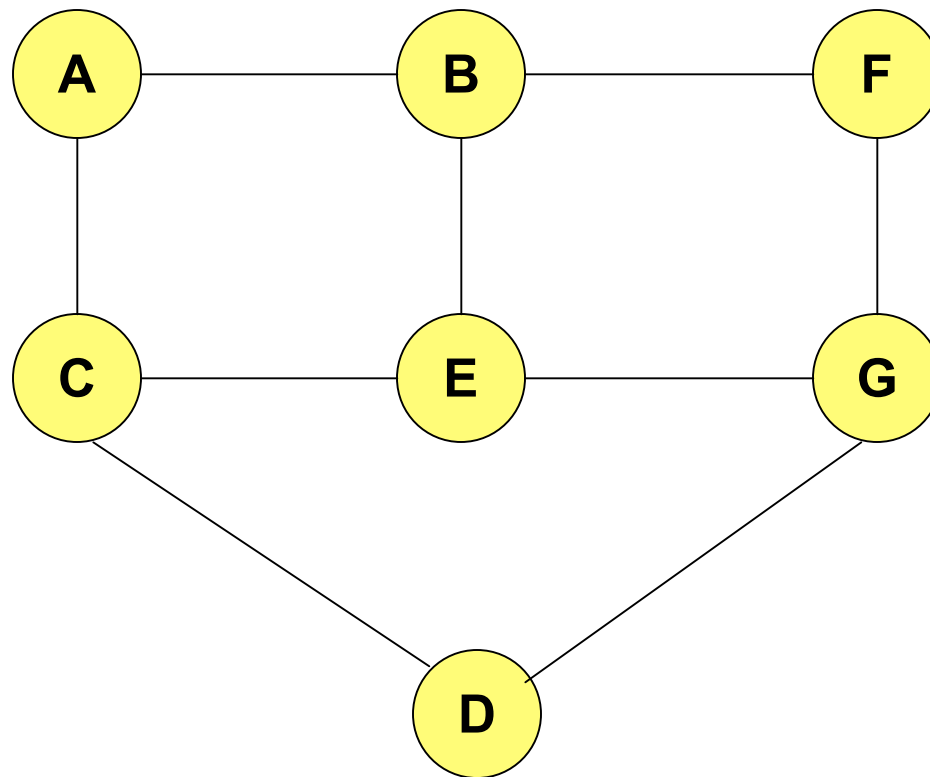
❑ Clustering

- o For transmission management
- o For routing

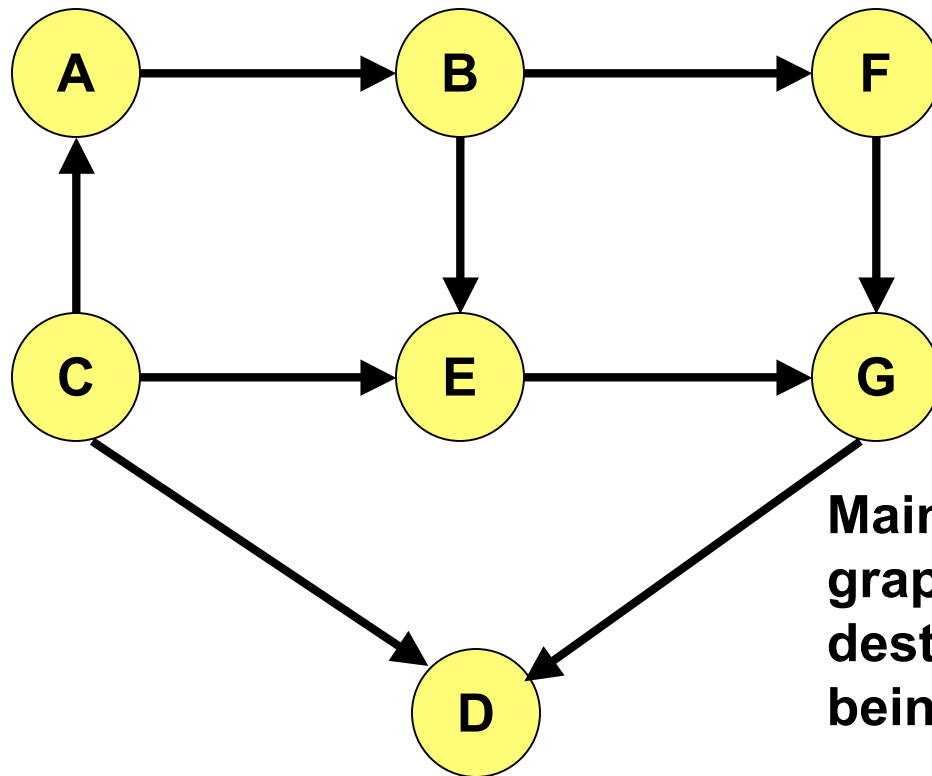
❑ Geometric routing

- o Take advantage of the underlying physical space
- o Assume that node locations are known
- o Route to a location (as opposed to a node)

Link Reversal Algorithm [Gafni81]



Link Reversal Algorithm



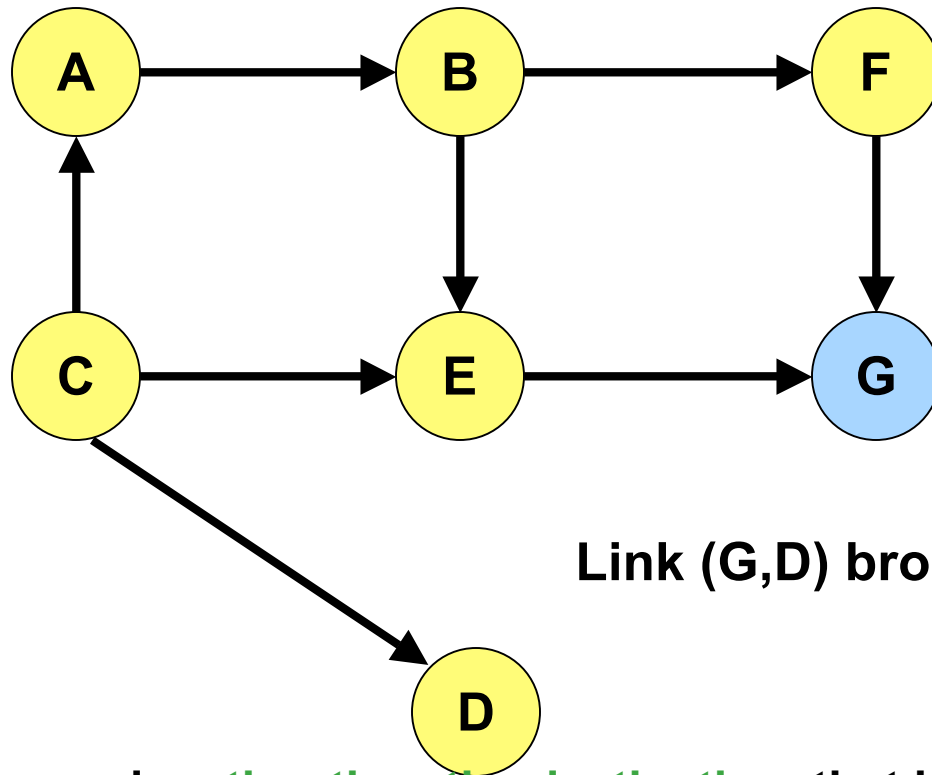
Links are bi-directional

But algorithm imposes
logical directions on them

Maintain a directed acyclic
graph (DAG) for each
destination, with the destination
being the *only sink*

This DAG is for *destination
node D*

Link Reversal Algorithm

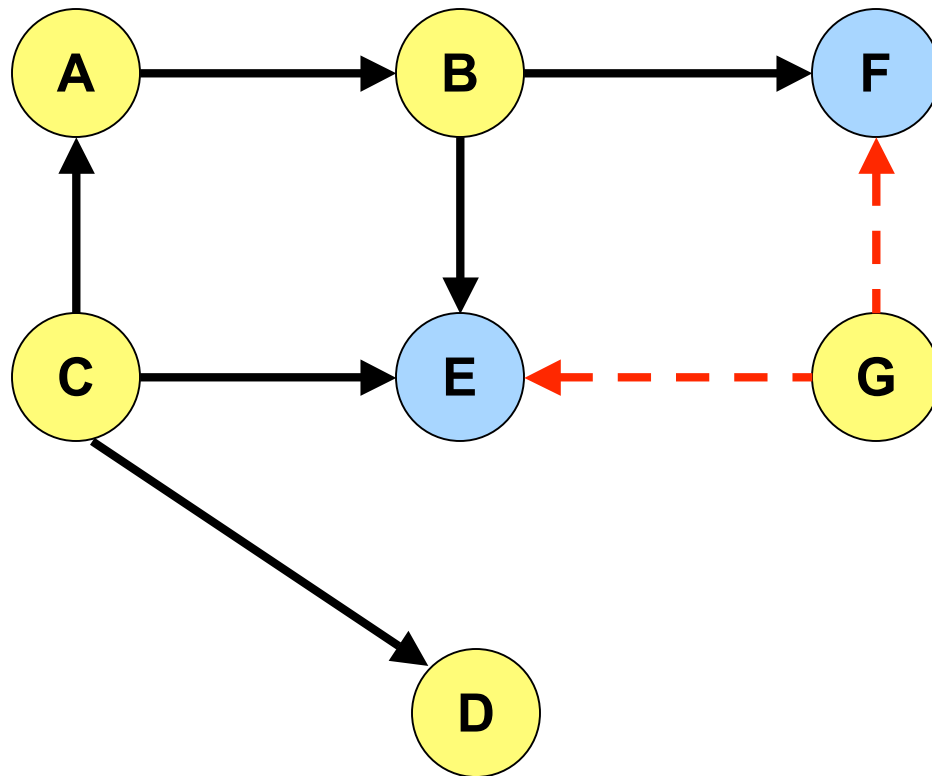


Link (G,D) broke

Any node, **other than the destination**, that has no outgoing links reverses all its incoming links.

Node G has no outgoing links

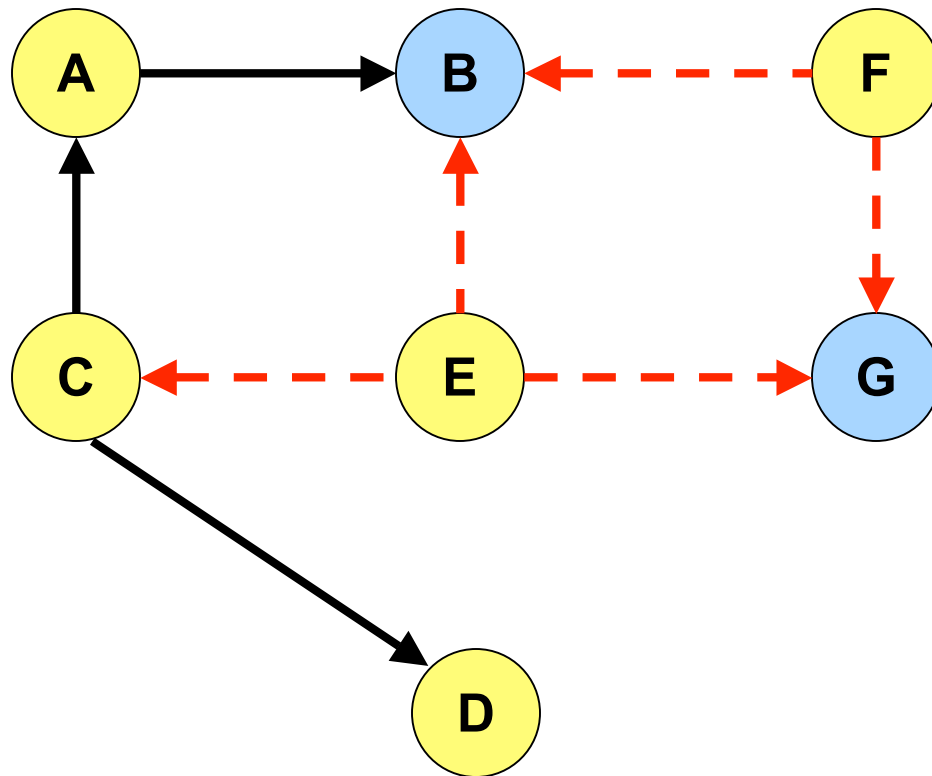
Link Reversal Algorithm



← -
Represents a
link that was
reversed recently

Now nodes E and F have no outgoing links

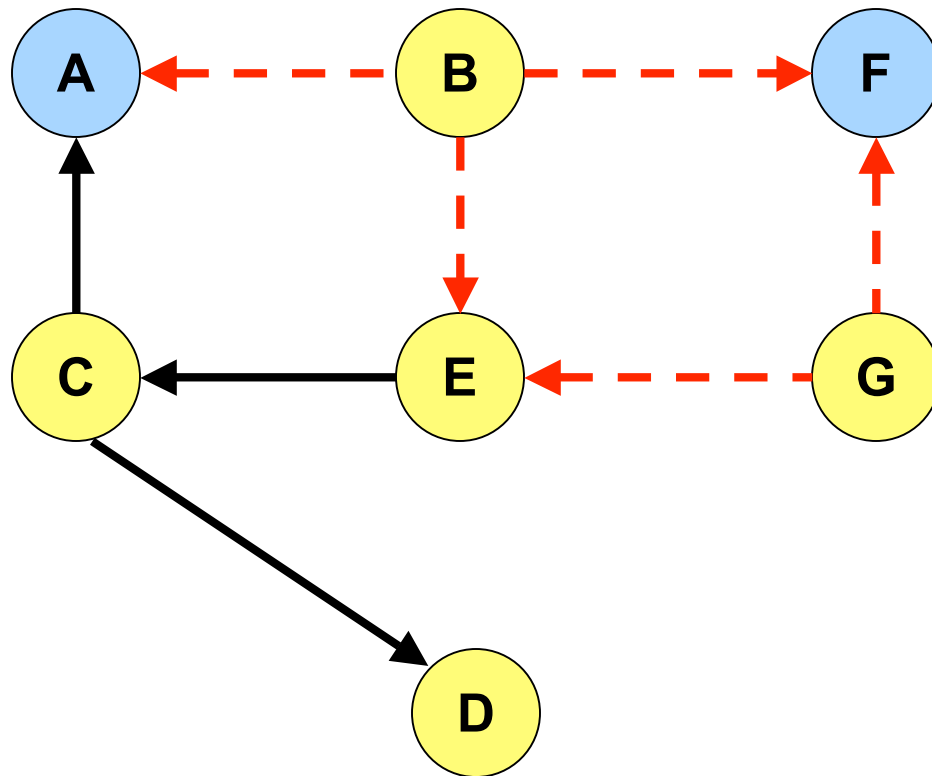
Link Reversal Algorithm



**Represents a
link that was
reversed recently**

Now nodes B and G have no outgoing links

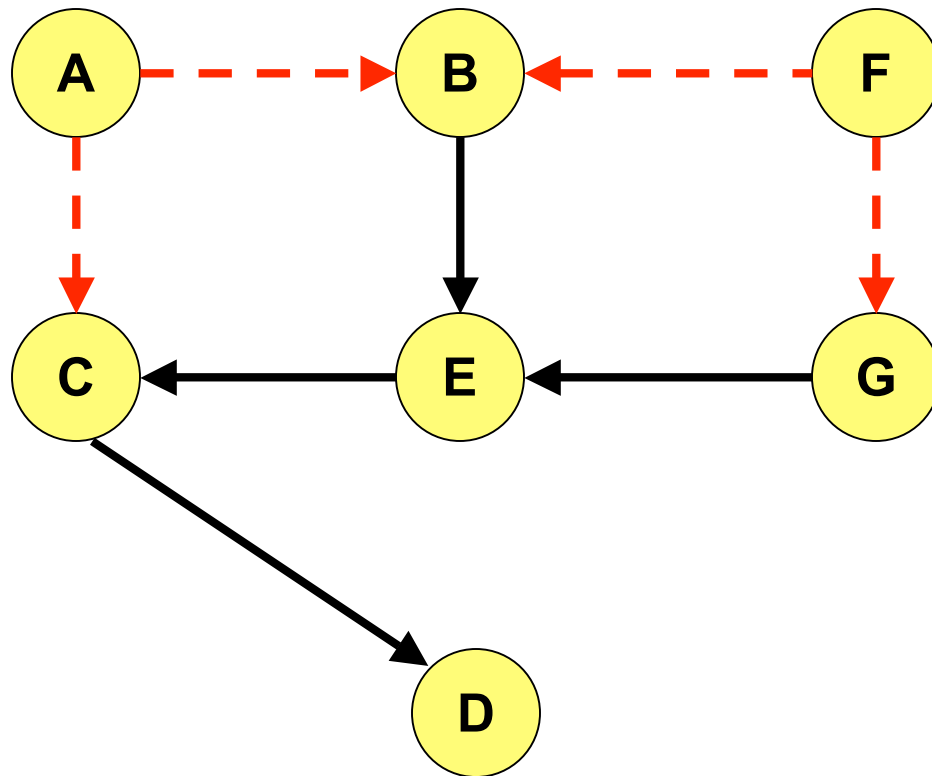
Link Reversal Algorithm



Represents a
link that was
reversed recently

Now nodes A and F have no outgoing links

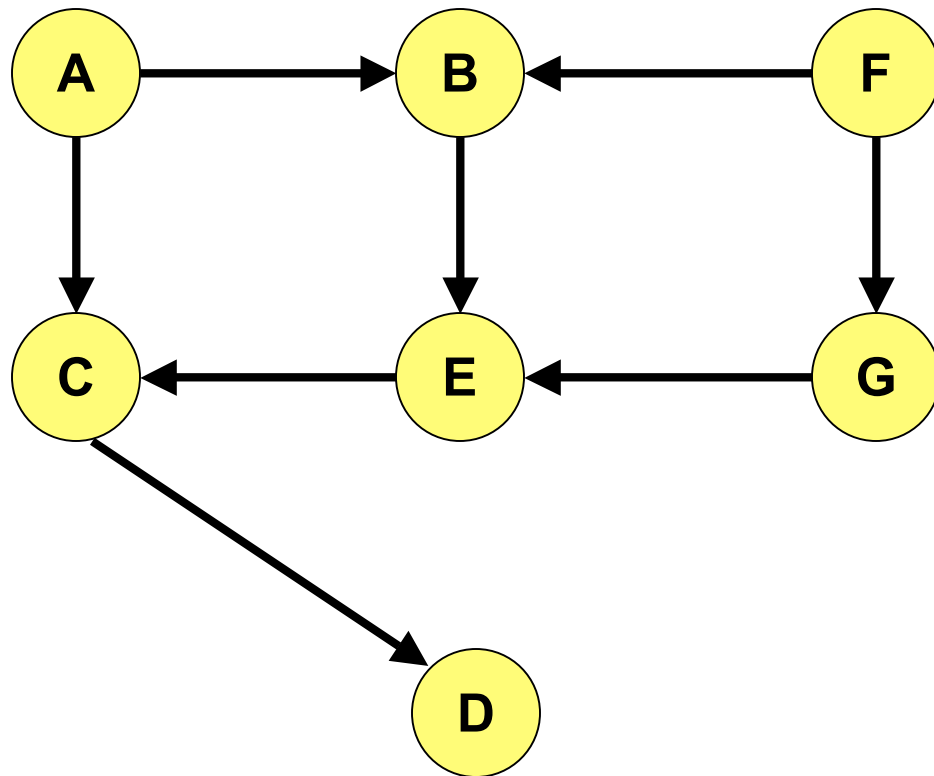
Link Reversal Algorithm



Represents a
link that was
reversed recently

Now all nodes (other than destination D) have an outgoing link

Link Reversal Algorithm



DAG has been restored with only the destination as a sink

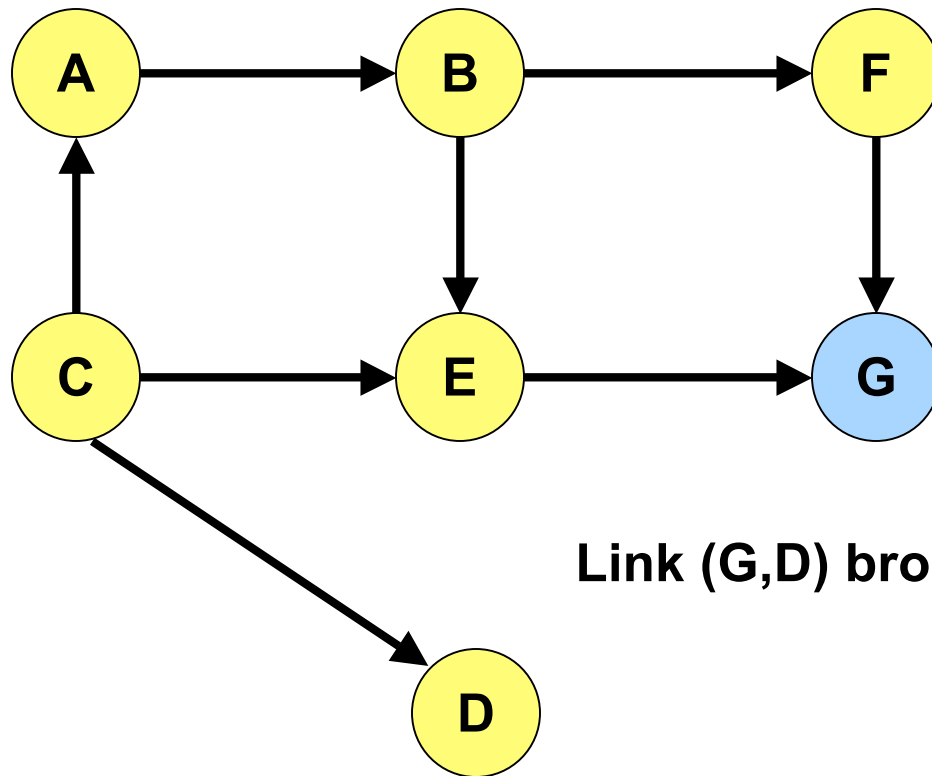
Link Reversal Algorithm

- ❑ Attempts to keep link reversals local to where the failure occurred
 - o But this is not guaranteed
- ❑ When the first packet is sent to a destination, the destination oriented DAG is constructed
- ❑ The initial construction does result in flooding of control packets

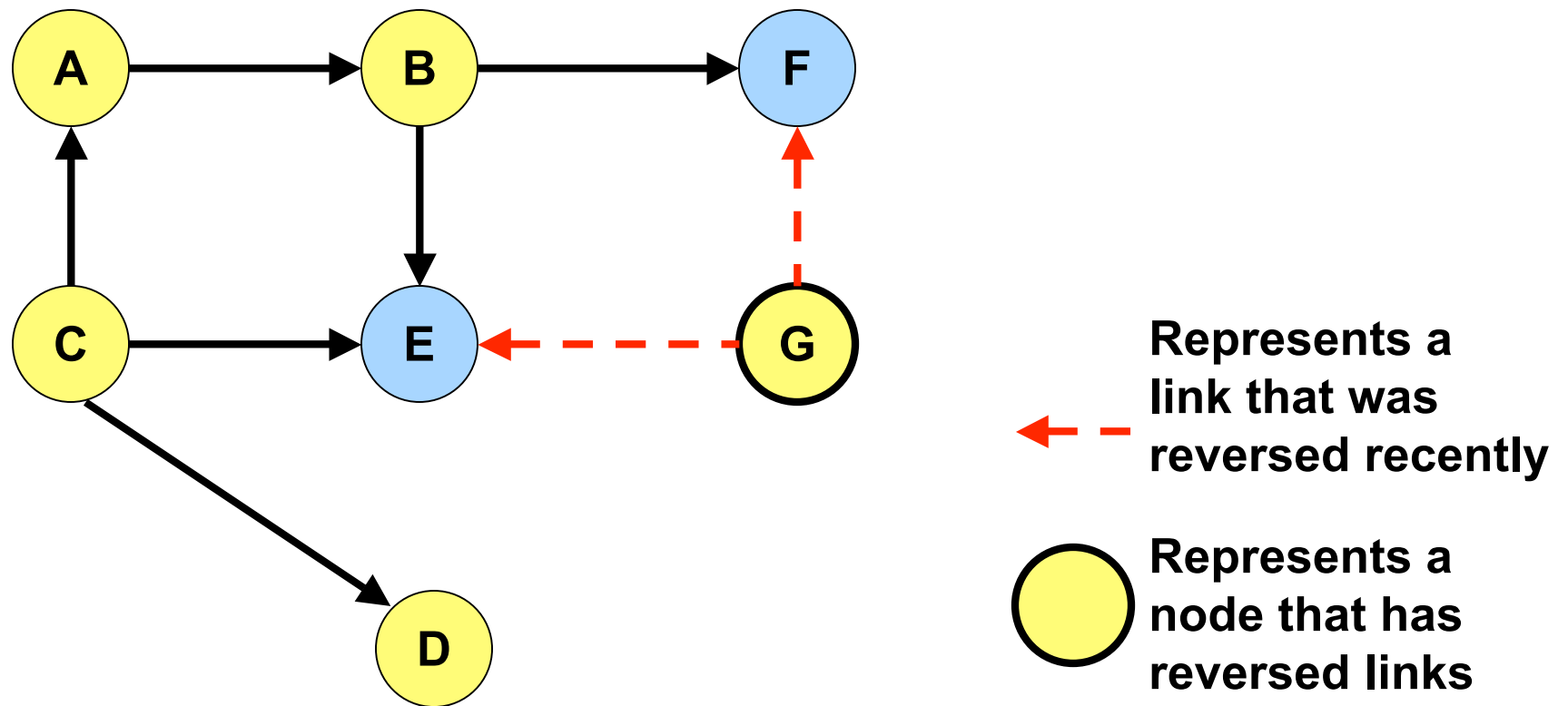
Link Reversal Algorithm

- ❑ The previous algorithm is called a **full reversal method** since when a node reverses links, it reverses *all* its incoming links
- ❑ **Partial reversal method [Gafni81]**: A node reverses incoming links from only those neighbors who have not themselves reversed links “previously”
 - o If all neighbors have reversed links, then the node reverses all its incoming links
 - o “Previously” at node X means *since the last link reversal done by node X*

Partial Reversal Method

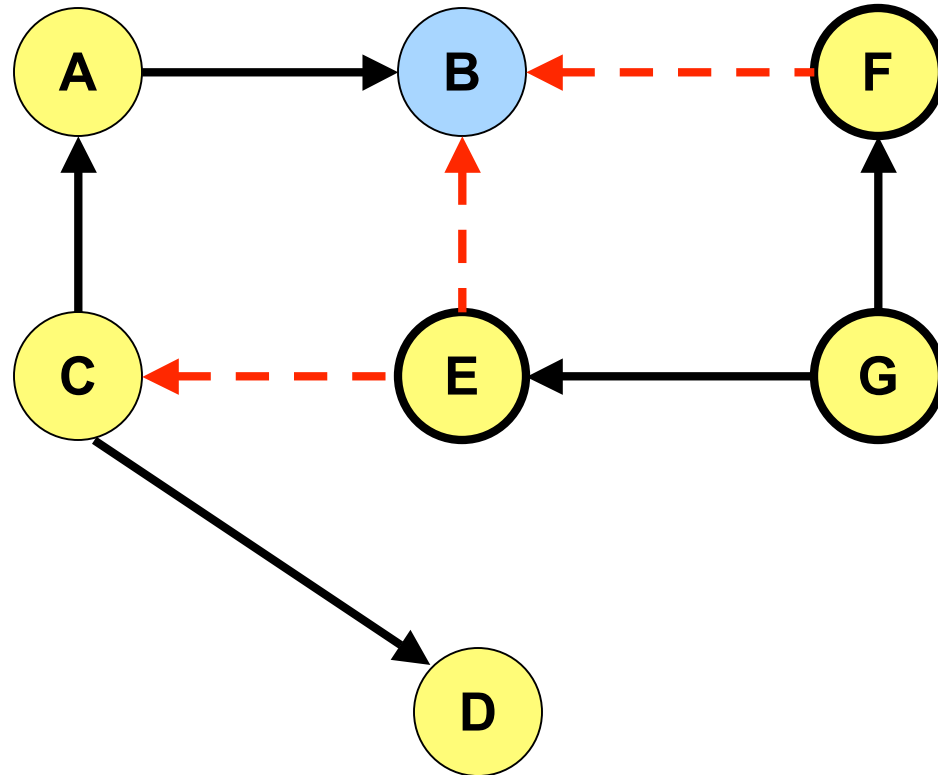


Partial Reversal Method



Now nodes E and F have no outgoing links

Partial Reversal Method

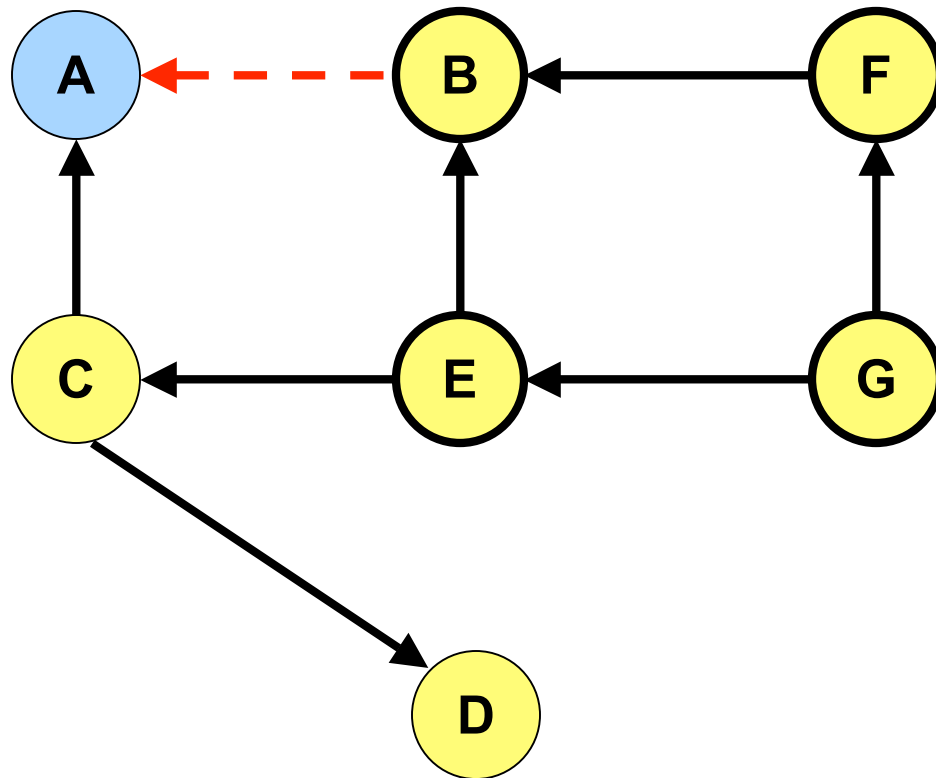


Represents a
link that was
reversed recently

Nodes E and F **do not** reverse links from node G

Now node B has no outgoing links

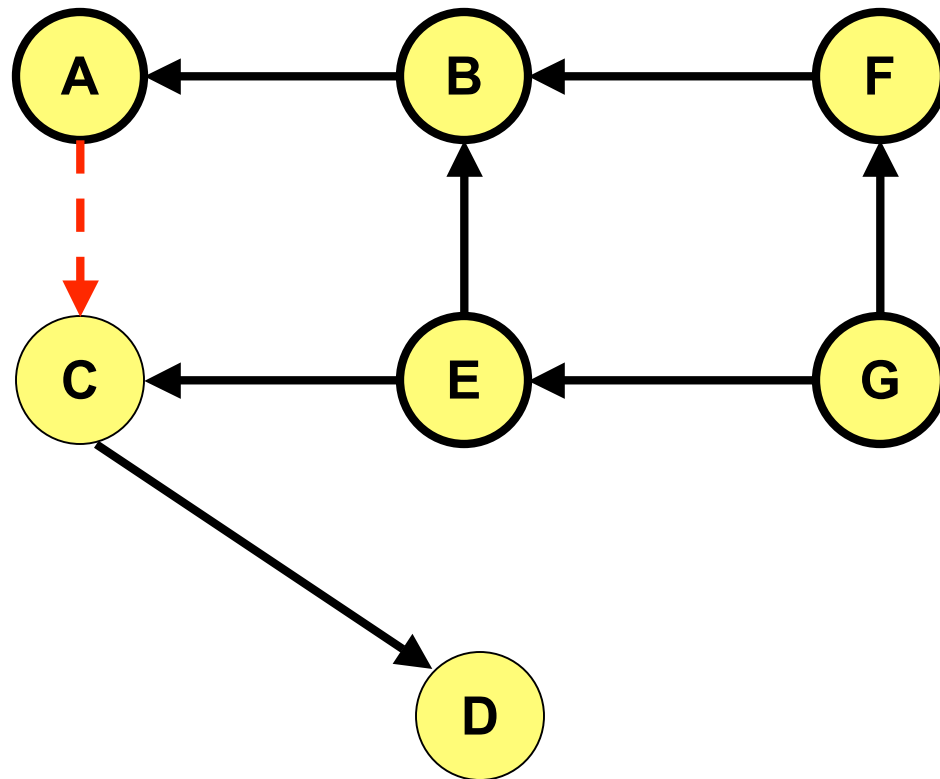
Partial Reversal Method



Represents a
link that was
reversed recently

Now node A has no outgoing links

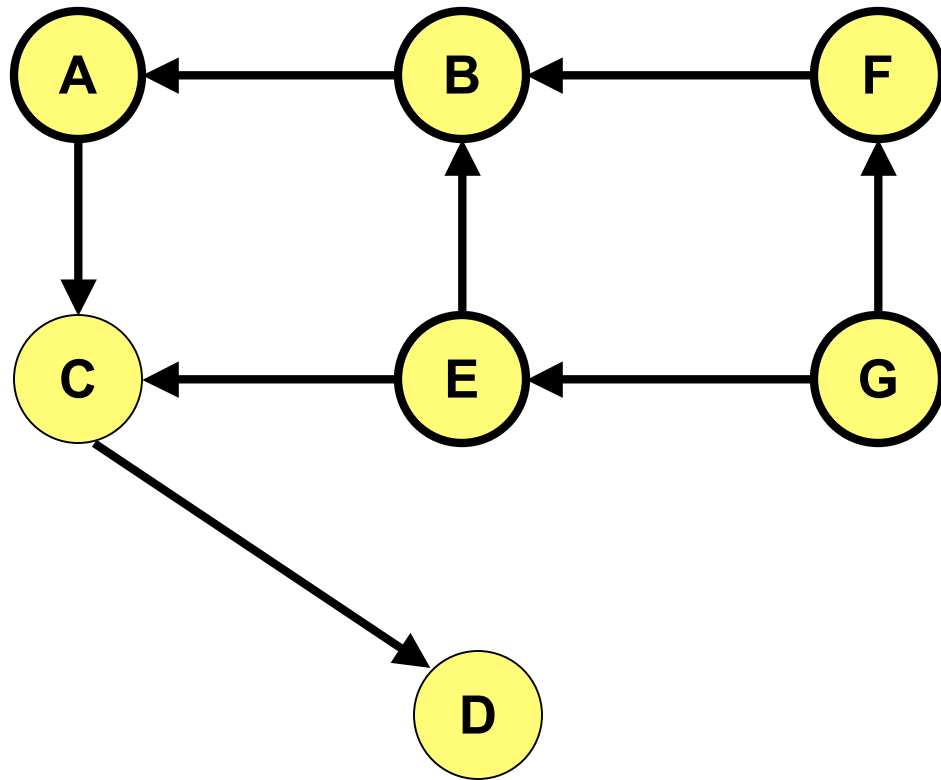
Partial Reversal Method



Represents a
link that was
reversed recently

Now all nodes (except destination D) have outgoing links

Partial Reversal Method



DAG has been restored with only the destination as a sink

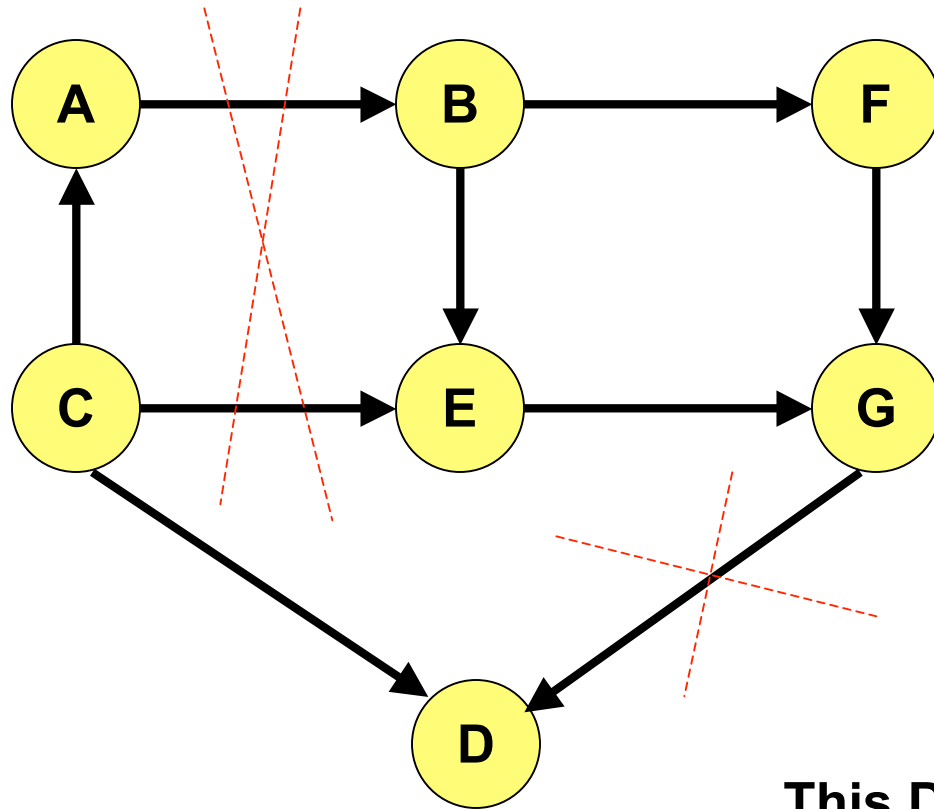
Link Reversal: Advantages

- ❑ Link reversal methods attempt to limit updates to routing tables at nodes in the vicinity of a broken link
 - o Partial reversal method tends to be better than full reversal method
 - o In the worst case, full reversal provably better than partial reversal [Busch-Tirthapura03]
- ❑ Each node may potentially have multiple routes to a destination

Link Reversal: Disadvantage

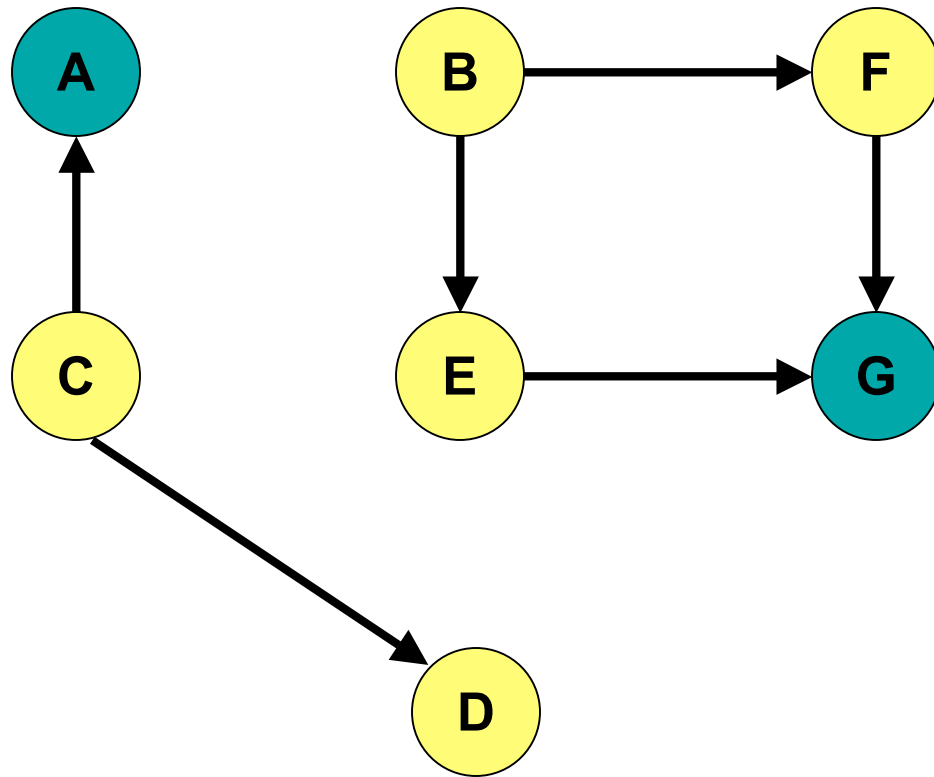
- ❑ Need a mechanism to detect link failure
 - o hello messages may be used
 - o but hello messages can add to contention
 - o this disadvantage also present in DSDV
- ❑ If network is partitioned, link reversals continue indefinitely

Link Reversal in a Partitioned Network



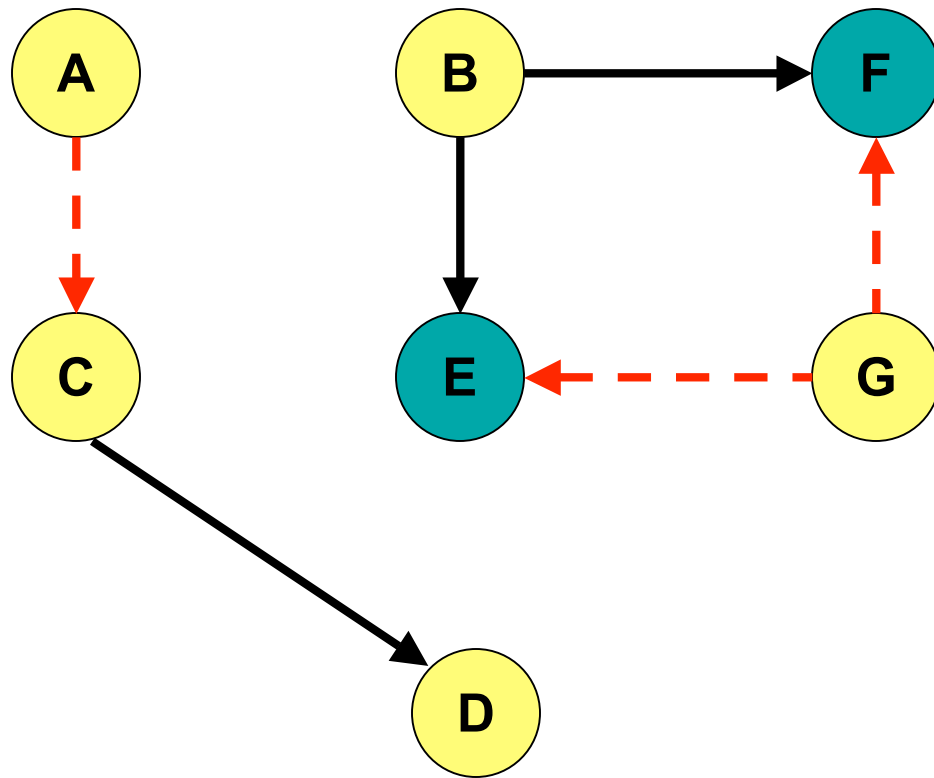
This DAG is for *destination node D*

Full Reversal in a Partitioned Network



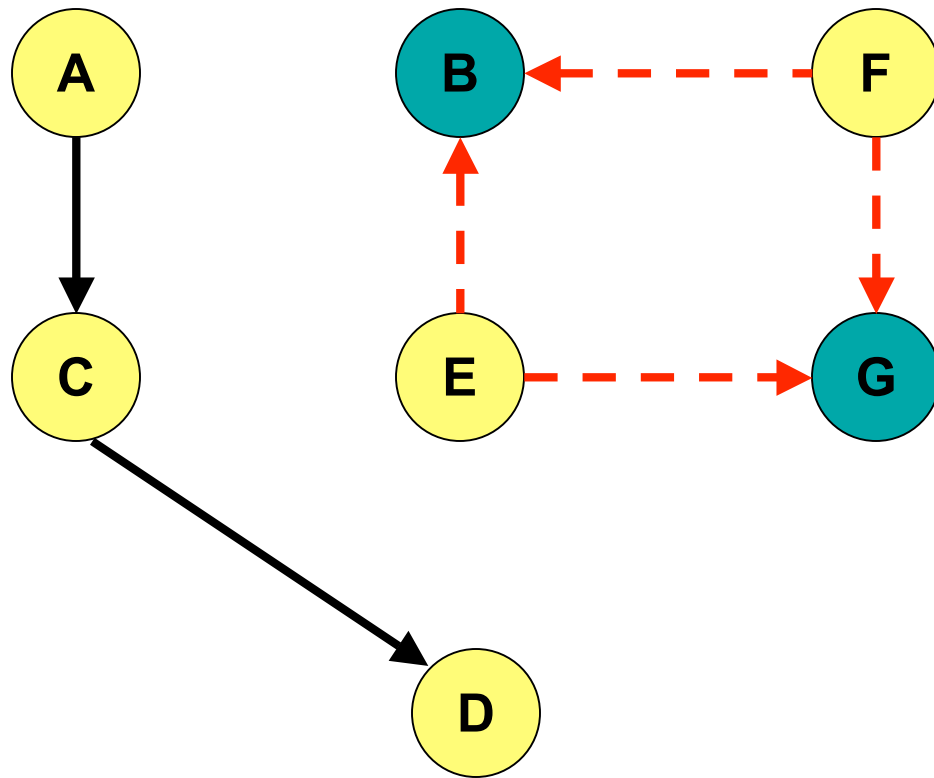
A and G do not have outgoing links

Full Reversal in a Partitioned Network



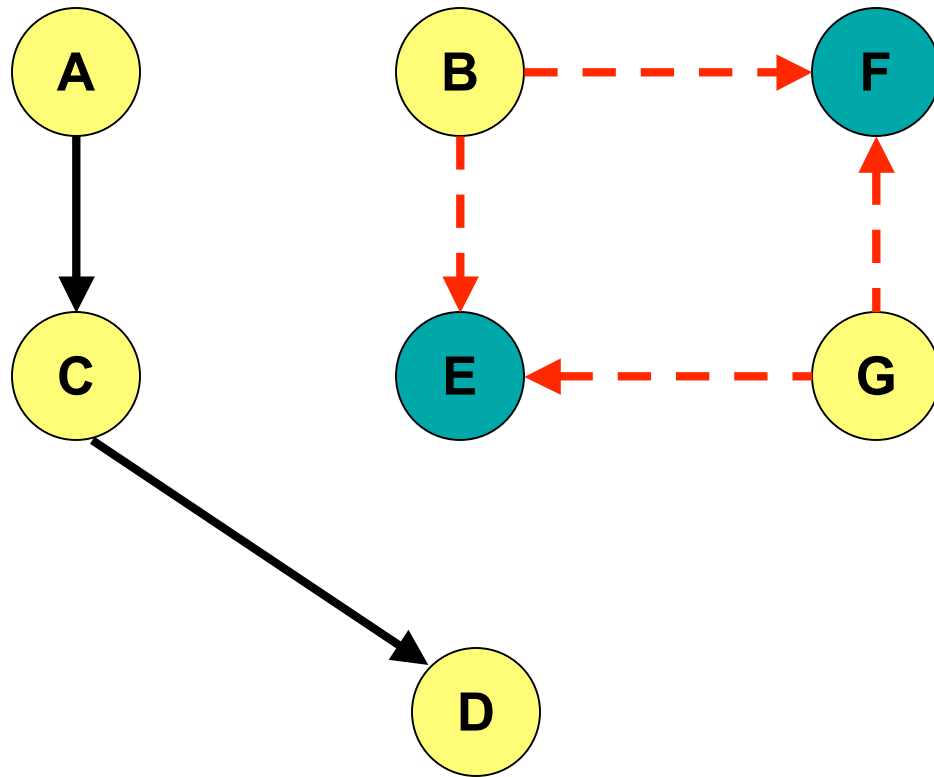
E and F do not have outgoing links

Full Reversal in a Partitioned Network



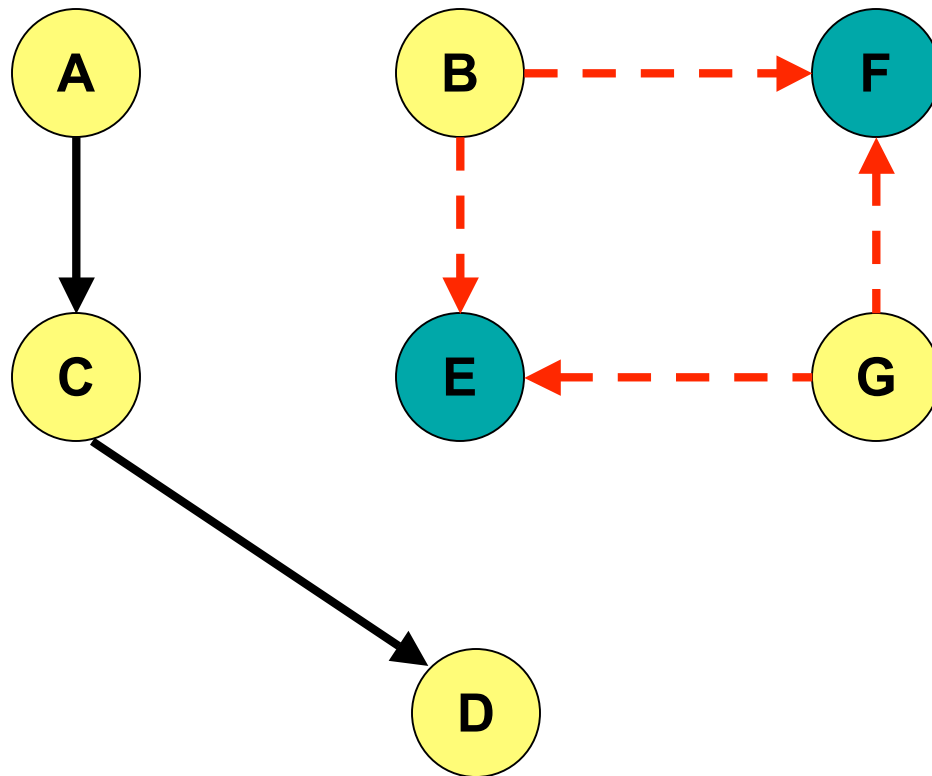
B and G do not have outgoing links

Full Reversal in a Partitioned Network



E and F do not have outgoing links

Full Reversal in a Partitioned Network



In the partition disconnected from destination D, link reversals continue, until the partitions merge

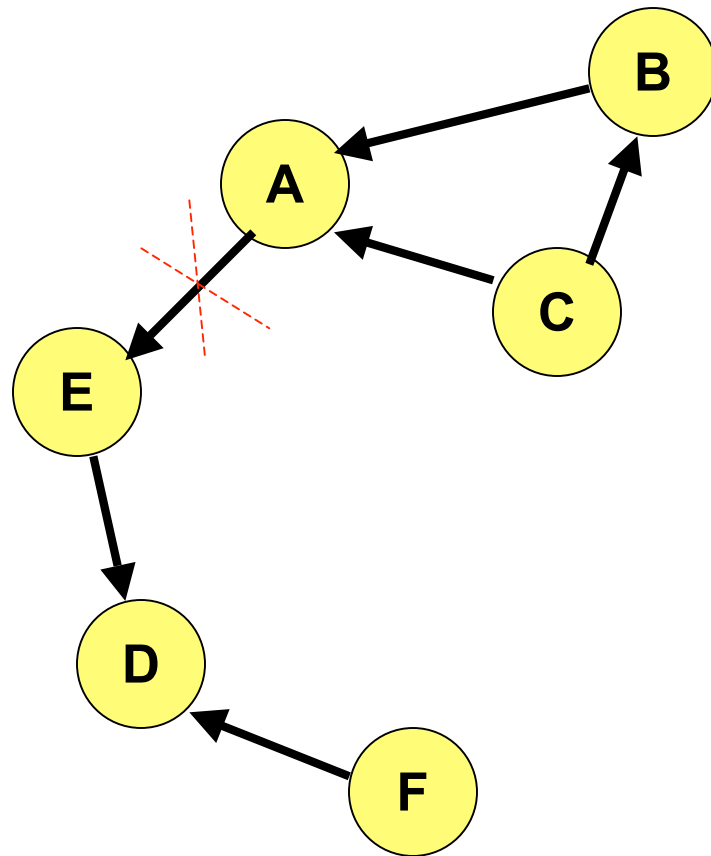
Need a mechanism to minimize this wasteful activity

Similar scenario can occur with partial reversal method too

Temporally-Ordered Routing Algorithm (TORA) [Park-Corson97]

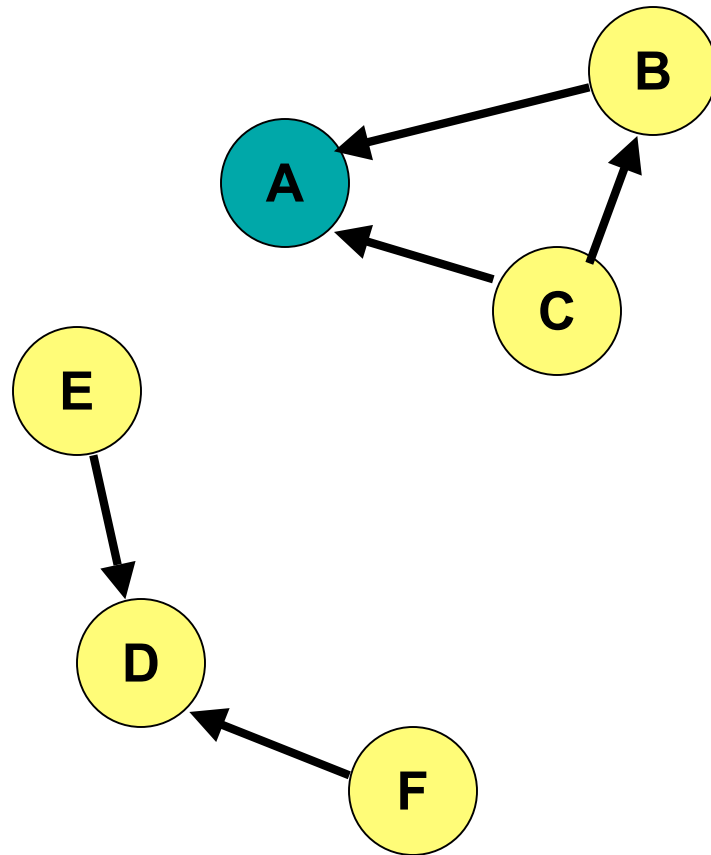
- ❑ TORA modifies the **partial** link reversal method to be able to **detect partitions**
- ❑ When a partition is detected, all nodes in the partition are informed, and **link reversals** in that partition **cease**

Partition Detection in TORA



**DAG for
destination D**

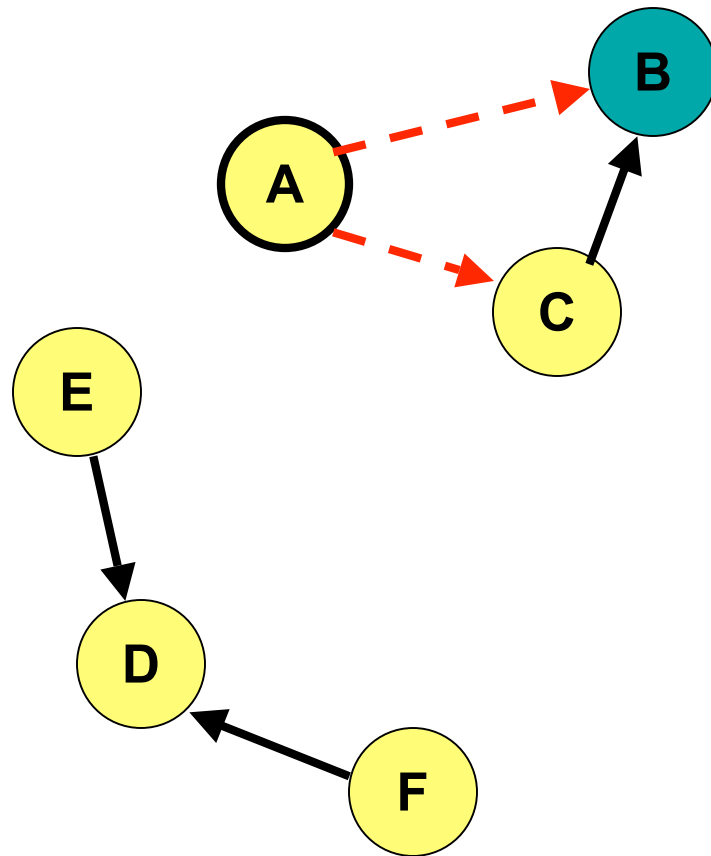
Partition Detection in TORA



Node A has no outgoing links

**TORA uses a
modified partial
reversal method**

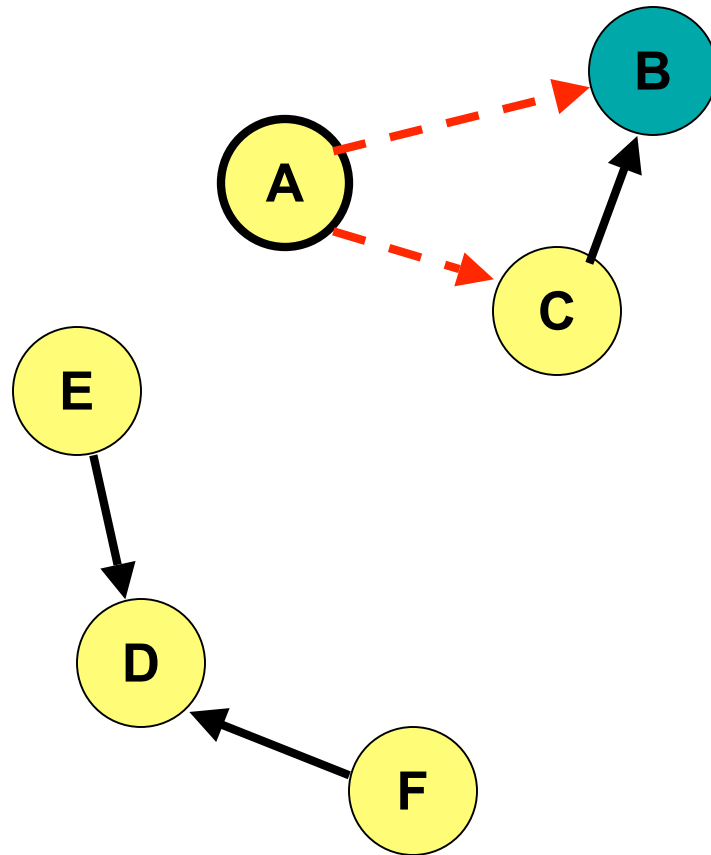
Partition Detection in TORA



Node B has no outgoing links

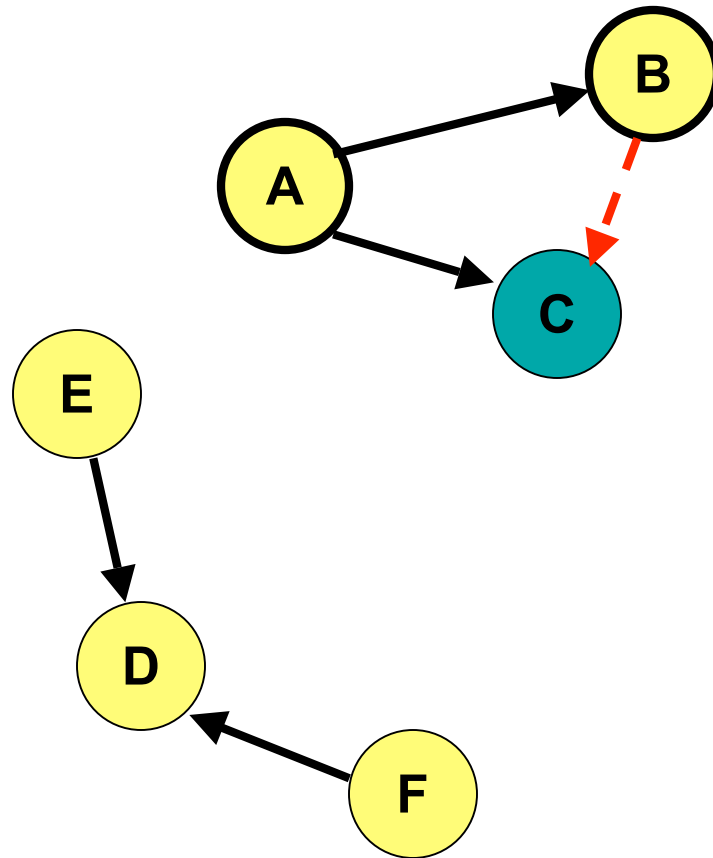
**TORA uses a
modified partial
reversal method**

Partition Detection in TORA



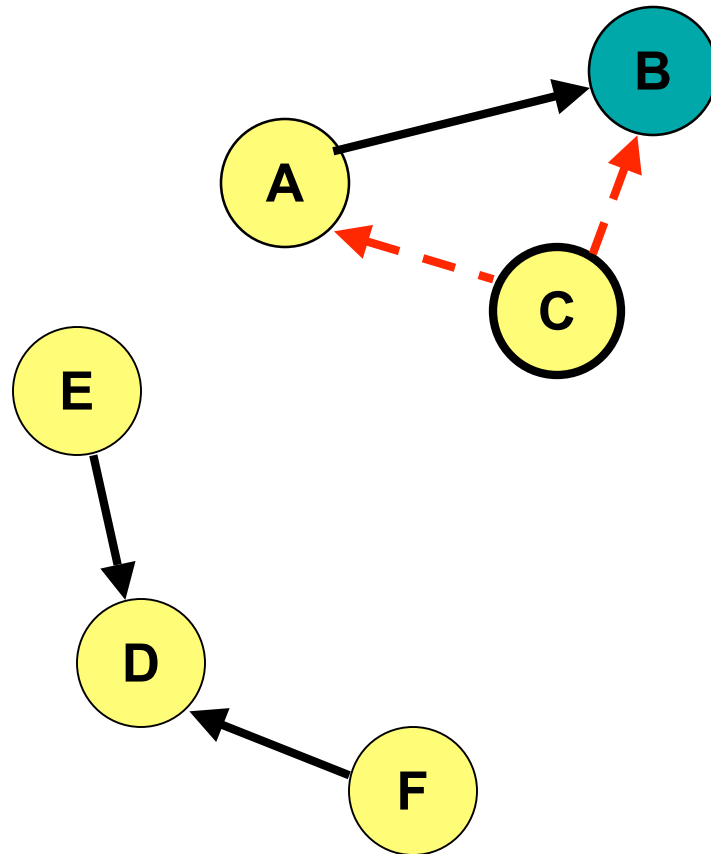
Node B has no outgoing links

Partition Detection in TORA



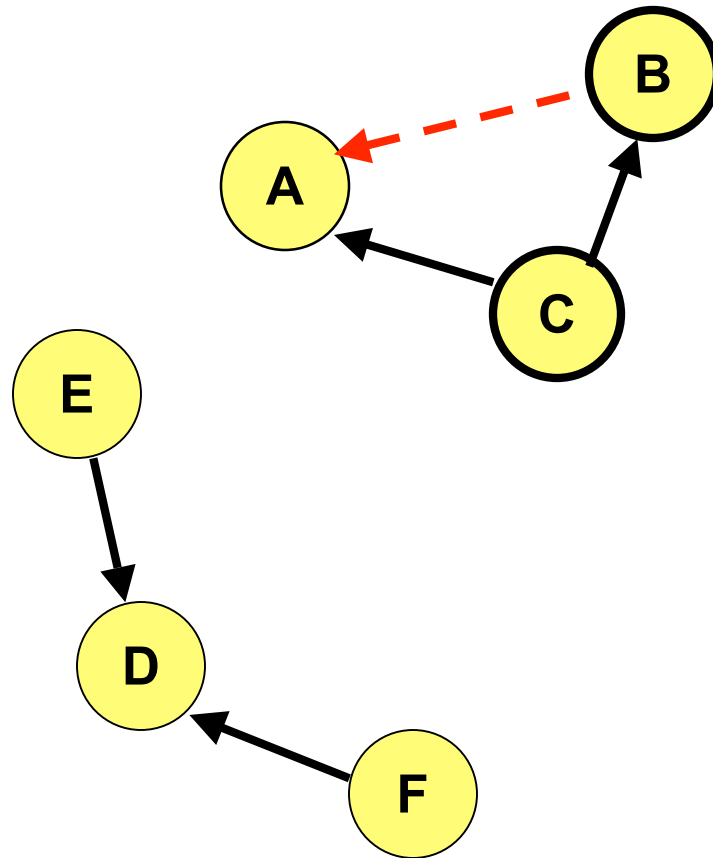
Node C has no outgoing links -- all its neighbor have reversed links previously.

Partition Detection in TORA



Nodes A and B receive the **reflection** from node C
Node B now has no outgoing link

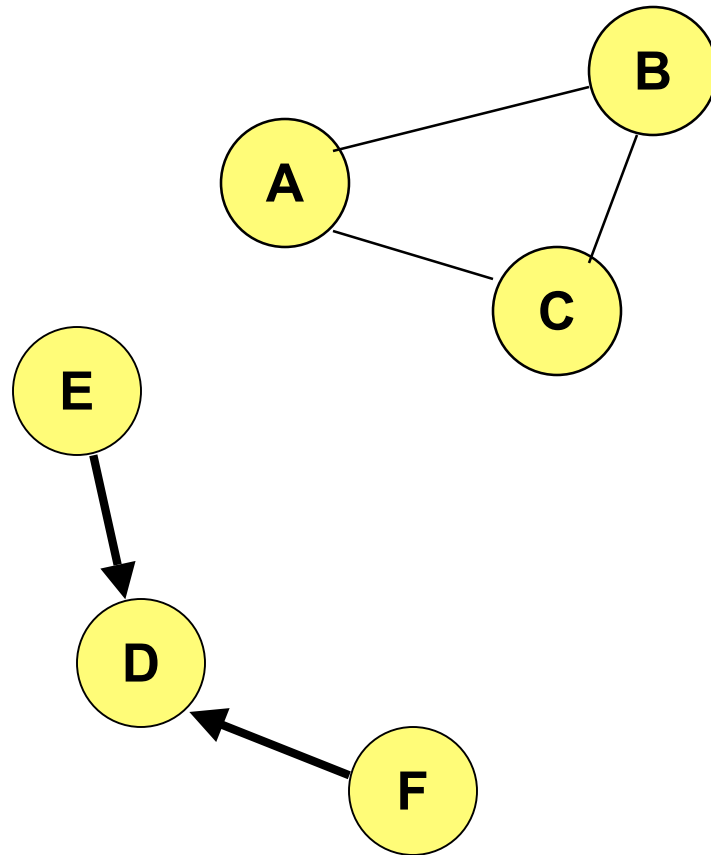
Partition Detection in TORA



Node B **propagates**
the **reflection** to node A

Node A has received the **reflection from all its neighbors**.
Node A determines that it is partitioned from destination D.

Partition Detection in TORA



On detecting a partition, node A sends a clear (CLR) message that purges all directed links in that partition

TORA

- ❑ Improves on the partial link reversal method in [Gafni81] by detecting partitions and stopping non-productive link reversals
- ❑ Paths may not be shortest
- ❑ The DAG provides many hosts the ability to send packets to a given destination
 - o Beneficial when many hosts want to communicate with a single destination

TORA Design Decision

- ❑ TORA performs link reversals as dictated by [Gafni81]
- ❑ However, when a link breaks, it loses its direction
- ❑ When a link is repaired, it may not be assigned a direction, unless some node has performed a route discovery after the link broke
 - o if no one wants to send packets to D anymore, eventually, the DAG for destination D may disappear
- ❑ TORA makes effort to maintain the DAG for D only if someone needs route to D
 - o Reactive behavior

TORA Design Decision

- ❑ One proposal for modifying TORA optionally allowed a more proactive behavior, such that a DAG would be maintained even if no node is attempting to transmit to the destination
- ❑ Moral of the story: The link reversal algorithm in [Gafni81] does not dictate a proactive or reactive response to link failure/repair
- ❑ Decision on reactive/proactive behavior should be made based on environment under consideration

Clustering Approaches To Multi-hop Ad Hoc Networks

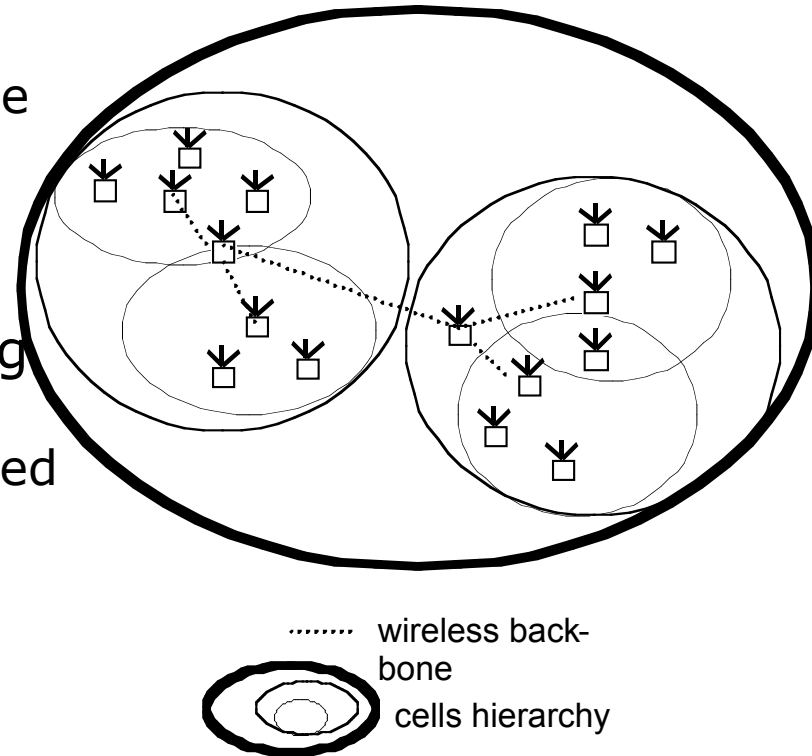
Clustering

❑ Goal:

- o Reduce channel contention
- o Form routing backbone to reduce network diameter
- o Abstract network state to reduce its quantity and its variability

❑ Various approaches to clustering

- o Started in the 70s with Packet Radio Network (PRNet) sponsored by DARPA



Clustering for Transmission Management

- ❑ Goal: reduce contention
- ❑ Cluster = clusterhead + gateways + ordinary nodes
- ❑ Roles:
 - o Clusterhead: schedules traffic, allocates resources (tokens, emits busy tone, etc.). Similar to the master in a Bluetooth piconet.
 - o Gateways: interconnect clusters
 - o Ordinary nodes are 1-hop away from a clusterhead and 2-hops away from other members in the cluster
- ❑ Tasks:
 - o Connectivity discovery
 - o Election of clusterheads
 - o Agree on Gateways

Clustering for Transmission Management (Cont)

❑ Clusterhead election:

- o Centralized/distributed algorithms
- o Node identifier/degree based
- o Principles:
 - Centralized: (1) elect the highest ID node and create a corresponding cluster, repeat step (1) with nodes not already members of a cluster
 - Distributed:
 - a node elects itself as cluster head if it has the highest ID among its neighbors
 - otherwise elect a neighbor that is not member of another cluster
- o Leads to disjoint clusters

❑ Gateways:

- o If connected to > 1 cluster $\Rightarrow$ gateway candidate
- o When multiple candidates to connect two clusters, choose GW with highest ID

Clustering for Transmission Management (Cont)

❑ Mobility:

- o When node finds it is not close to a clusterhead, it can initiate an election process
- o When two clusterheads become neighbors, they can merge clusters
 - This may trigger other clusterhead elections and/or mergers

❑ Routing:

- o To avoid clusterhead congestion and improve robustness, routing is done over the flat network

Clustering for Backbone Formation

- ❑ Wireless multihop networks have high end-to-end delay:
 - o link-layer ARQ, MAC delay, FEC/spreading, tx/rx switching time
- ❑ Clustering can reduce the end-to-end delay by allowing faster forwarding through the clusterheads backbone
- ❑ Approaches:
 - o Near-Term Digital Radio Network (NTDR) [Zavgren 1997]
 - o Virtual Subnet Architecture [Sharony 1996]

Overview of Geometric Routing

- ❑ Assumptions:
 - o Each node is aware of its physical location, e.g., using GPS
 - o Source knows the location of the destination node
- ❑ Use the underlying geometry to direct the packet to the desired destination
- ❑ Two components:
 - o Greedy routing: send packet to a neighbor that is closer to destination
 - o Face routing: route along a planar subgraph of the transmission graph
- ❑ [Bose et al 99] and GPSR [Karp-Kung 00]

Greedy Routing

- ❑ Send packet to neighbor that is closer to destination
- ❑ Greedily arrive closer and closer to destination
- ❑ If greedy routing persists, then eventually reach destination
- ❑ Problem:
 - o Greedy routing not always possible
 - o All the neighbors of a node may be farther from the destination

Face routing: Planar subgraph

- ❑ If greedy routing not possible, can route along a planar subgraph
- ❑ Gabriel graph: A planar graph in which any edge (u,v) satisfies

$$d(u,v)^2 \leq d(u,w)^2 + d(v,w)^2$$

- ❑ Given graph is connected iff the Gabriel subgraph is connected
- ❑ Can find Gabriel subgraph locally

Face routing in planar subgraph

- ❑ If the packet is at node v and destination is d , identify face adjacent to v that intersects line vd
- ❑ Route along the face using the **right-hand rule**, until a node is found that is closer to d than v is
- ❑ Combine face routing and greedy routing