Wireless Sensor Networks 14th Lecture 12.12.2006



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Overview

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- The time synchronization problem
- Protocols based on sender/receiver synchronization
- Protocols based on receiver/receiver synchronization
- ≻Summary

Clocks in WSN nodes

- > Often, a *hardware clock* is present:
 - Oscillator generates pulses at a fixed nominal frequency
 - A counter register is incremented after a fixed number of pulses
 - Only register content is available to software
 - Register change rate gives achievable time resolution
 - Node i's register value at real time t is $H_i(t)$
 - Convention: small letters (like t, t') denote real physical times, capital letters denote timestamps or anything else visible to nodes

> A (node-local) software clock is usually derived as follows:

$L_i(t) = \theta_i H_i(t) + \phi_i$

- (not considering overruns of the counter-register)
- θ_i is the (drift) rate, ϕ_i the phase shift
- Time synchronization algorithms modify θ_i and $\varphi_i,$ but not the counter register

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Synchronization accuracy / agreement

>External synchronization:

- synchronization with external real time scale like UTC
- Nodes i=1, ..., n are accurate at time t within bound δ when

 $|L_i(t) - t| < \delta$ for all i

• Hence, at least one node must have access to the external time scale

Internal synchronization

- No external timescale, nodes must agree on common time
- Nodes i=1, ..., n agree on time within bound δ when

 $|L_i(t) - L_j(t)| < \delta$ for all i,j



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LTS – Lightweight Time Synchronization

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- Jana van Greunen, Jan Rabaey, WSNA 2003
 Overall goal
 - synchronize the clocks of sensor nodes to one reference clock
 - e.g. equipped with GPS receiver

➢ It allows to synchronize

- the whole network,
- or parts of it
- also supports post-facto synchronization

It considers only phase shifts

- does not try to correct different drift rates

≻Two components:

- pairwise synchronization: based on sender/receiver technique
- networkwide synchronization: minimum spanning tree construction with reference node as root

LTS – Pairwise Synchronization

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>Assumptions:

no drift

same hardware, same OS, same software

Goal: compute

 $\Delta = L_i(t_1) - L_j(t_1)$

>Further assumptions

$$\Delta = L_i(t_k) - L_i(t_k)$$

$$L_j(t_5) - L_j(t_1) = L_i(t_5) - L_i(t_1)$$

$$\approx$$

$$L_i(t_8) - L_i(t_6) = L_j(t_8) - L_j(t_6)$$

>Solution: $\Delta = \frac{L_i(t_8) - L_j(t_6)}{2} - \frac{L_j(t_5) - L_i(t_1)}{2}$

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LTS – Network-wide Synchronization

All nodes synchronize to a given reference node R

- R's direct neighbors (level-1 neighbors) synchronize with R
- Two-hop (level-2) neighbors synchronize with level-1 neighbors
-
- Creates a spanning tree
- > Problem: Error amplification
 - Consider a node i with hop distance h_i to the root node
 - Assume that:
 - all synchronization errors are independent
 - all synch errors are identically normally distributed with zero mean and variance $4\sigma^2$
 - Then node i's synchronization error is a zero-mean normal random variable with variance $h_i 4 \sigma^2$
 - Hence, a tree with minimal depth minimizes synchronization errors

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➢ Reference node R

- triggers construction of a spanning tree
- it first synchronizes its neighbors
- then the first-level neighbors synchronize second-level neighbors
- and so on

Different distributed algorithms for construction of spanning tree can be used

- e.g. Distributed Depth First Search (DDFS), Echo algorithm

>Communication costs:

- Costs for construction of spanning tree
- Synchronizing two nodes costs 3 packets, synchronizing n nodes costs 3n packets



Echo

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var rec_u	: integer init 0;
fatheru	: neighbor init undef;
Algorithm	for the initiator:
forall v	$v \in Neigh_u$ do send <echo> to v;</echo>
while r	$ec_u < Neigh_u do$
begin	receive $\langle echo \rangle$; $rec_u := rec_u + 1$ end
Alconithm	for other nodes.
Algorium	for other nodes:
receive	$\langle echo \rangle$ from w; father _u := w; rec _u := 1;
forall v	$v \in Neigh_u \setminus \{w\}$ do send <echo> to v;</echo>
while r	$ec_u < Neigh_u $ do
begin	receive $\langle echo \rangle$; $rec_u := rec_u + 1$ end;
send <	$echo > to father_{u}$

Algorithm for tree exploration

≻Less efficient:

- O(nm) time
- n: nodes
- m: edges

>In practice:

- O(d) time
- d: depth of tree

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Distributed DFS

(Awerbuch 1985)

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Performs DFS with 4 m messages and in time 4n-2

- m: number edges
- n: time

BFS has higher complexity:

- algorithms known with
 - 10 n m^{1/2}
 - O(n^{1.6} + m)
- messages
- difficult to perform in a distributed manner

≻Hope:

 DDFS finds BFStree Start the algorithm at node u the initiator: visited_u := true ; for all x \epsilon Neigh_u do send <visit> to x; for all x \epsilon Neigh_u do receive <ack> from x; for some w \epsilon Neigh_u do send <dfs> to w; statusu[w] := cal end

Upon receipt of <**visit**> from *v*: statusu[v] := done ; send <**ack**> to v

```
Upon receipt of <dfs> from v:
if not visited<sub>u</sub> then
begin visited<sub>u</sub> := true; status<sub>u</sub>[v] := father;
begin forall x c Neigh<sub>u</sub> \{v} do send <visit> to x;
forall x c Neigh<sub>u</sub> \{v} do receive <ack> from x;
end;
if there is a w c Neigh<sub>u</sub> with status<sub>u</sub>[w] = unused
begin send <dfs> to w; status<sub>u</sub>[w] := cal
else if there is a w c Neigh<sub>u</sub> with status<sub>u</sub>[w] = father
begin send <dfs> to w end
```

else (* initiator *) stop



- No explicit construction of spanning tree needed, but each node knows identity of reference node(s) and routes to them
- When node 1 wants to synchronize with R, an appropriate request travels to R following this, 4 synchronizes to R, 3 synchronizes to 4, 2 synchronizes to 3, 1 synchronizes to 2
 - By-product: nodes 2, 3, and 4 are synchronized with R



- Small depth trees are constructed implicitly
 - node 1 should know shortest route to the closest reference node



Distributed Multihop LTS Variations

> When node 5 wants to synchronize with R, it can:

- issue its own synchronization request using route over 3, 4 and put additional synchronization burden on them
- ask in its local neighborhood whether someone is synchronized or has an ongoing synchronization request and benefit from that later on
- Enforce usage of path over 7, 8 (path diversification) to also synchronize these nodes





Distributed Multihop LTS Variations

Discussion:

- Simulation shows that distributed multihop LTS needs more packets (between 40% and 100%)
 - when <u>all</u> nodes have to be synchronized, even with optimizations
- Distributed multihop LTS allows to synchronize only the minimally required set of nodes
 - → post-facto synchronization



Figure 8: Average number of synchronizations as a function of node degree

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Other Sender-/Receiverbased Protocols

- > These protocols work similar to LTS, with some differences in:
 - Method of spanning tree construction
 - How and when to take timestamps
 - How to achieve post-facto synchronization
- One variant: TPSN (Timing-Sync Protocol for Sensor Networks)
 - Ganeriwal, Kumar, Srivastava [SenSys 2003]
 - Pairwise-protocol similar to LTS
 - but timestamping at node i happens immediately before first bit appears on the medium
 - timestamping at node j happens in interrupt routine
 - Spanning tree construction based on level-discovery protocol:
 - root issues level_discovery packet with level 0
 - neighbors assign themselves level 1 + level value from level_discovery
 - neighbors wait for some random time before they issue level_discovery packets indicating their own level
 - Nodes missing level_discovery packets for long time ask their neighborhood



TSync

>TSync combines:

- HRTS (Hierarchy Referencing Time Synchronization): a protocol to synchronize a broadcast domain to one of its members
- ITR (Individual-based Time Request): a sender-/receiver protocol similar to LTS/TPSN
- A networkwide synchronization protocol
- HRTS provides a technique to synchronize a group of nodes to a reference node with only three packets!



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HRTS - Discussion

> Node j is not involved in any packet exchange

 → by this scheme it is possible to synchronize an arbitrary number of nodes to R's clock with only three packets!!

> The synchronization uncertainty comes from:

- The error introduced by R when estimating O_{R,i}
- The error introduced by setting $t_2 = t_2$ '
 - This makes HRTS only feasible for geographically small broadcast domains

> Both kinds of uncertainty can again be reduced by:

- timestamping outgoing packets as lately as possible (relevant for t_1 and t_3)
- timestamping incoming packets as early as possible (relevant for t_2 , t_2 ', t_4

> The authors propose to use extra channels for synchronization traffic

- when late timestamping of outgoing packets is not an option
- Rationale: keep MAC delay small



TSync – Networkwide Synchronization

It is assumed that some reference nodes are present in the network, e.g. having a GPS receiver

➤Initialization:

- Reference nodes assign themselves a level of 0
- All other nodes assign themselves a level of ∞
- The reference node becomes a root node and synchronizes its neighbors

> Whenever any node receives a sync_begin packet with a smaller level x than its current level y:

- It synchronizes to the issuing node
- It assigns itself a level y := x+1
- It synchronizes its neighbors

This way a minimal spanning tree is constructed



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Protocols based on receiver/receiver synchronization

Receivers of packets synchronize among each other

- not with the transmitter of the packet
- RBS: Reference Broadcast Synchronization (Elson, Girod, Estrin, OSDI 2002)
 - Synchronize receivers within a single broadcast domain
 - A scheme for relating timestamps between nodes in different domains

≻RBS

- does not modify the local clocks of nodes
- but computes a table of conversion parameters for each peer in a broadcast domain
- allows for post-facto synchronization



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> The goal is to synchronize i's and j's clocks to each other

≻Timeline:

- Reference node R broadcasts at time t₀ some synchronization packet carrying its identification R and a sequence number s
- Receiver i receives the last bit at time $t_{1,i}$, gets the packet interrupt at time $t_{2,i}$ and timestamps it at time $t_{3,i}$
- Receiver j is doing the same
- At some later time node i transmits its observation ($L_i(t_{3,i})$, R, s) to node j
- At some later time node j transmits its observation ($L_j(t_{3,j})$, R, s) to node i
- The whole procedure is repeated periodically, the reference node transmits its synchronization packets with increasing sequence numbers
 - R could also use ordinary data packets as long as they have sequence numbers ...

Under the assumption t_{3,i} = t_{3,j} node j can figure out the offset O_{i,j} = L_j(t_{3,j}) - L_i(t_{3,i}) after receiving node i's final packet – of course, node i can do the same



> The synchronization error in this scheme can have two causes:

- There is a difference between $t_{3,i}$ and $t_{3,j}$
- Drift between $t_{3,i}$ and the time where node i transmits its observations to j

≻But:

- In small broadcast domains and when received packets are timestamped as early as possible the difference between $t_{3,i}$ and $t_{3,i}$ is very small
 - As compared to sender-/receiver based schemes the MAC delay and operating system delays experienced by the reference node play no role!!
- Drift can be neglected when observations are exchanged quickly after reference packets
- Drift can be estimated jointly with Offset O when a number of periodic observations of O_{i,i} have been collected
 - This amounts to a standard least-squares line regression problem



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≻Elson et al

- measured pairwise
 differences in timestamping
 times at a set of receivers
- when timestamping happens in the interrupt routine (Berkeley motes)
- This is just the distribution of the differences t_{3,i}-t_{3,j}





>Communication costs:

- Be m the number of nodes in the broadcast domain
- First scheme: reference node collects the observations of the nodes, computes the offsets and sends them back → 2 m packets
- Second scheme: reference node collects the observations of the nodes, computes the offsets and keeps them, but has responsibility for timestamp conversions and forwarder selection → m packets
- Third scheme: each node transmits its observation individually to the other members of the broadcast domain → m (m-1) packets
- Fourth scheme: each node broadcasts its observation → m packets, but unreliable delivery

➤ Collisions are a problem:

 The reference packets trigger all nodes simultaneously to tell the world about their observations

Computational costs: least-squares approximation is not cheap!



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RBS – Network Synchronization

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Suppose that:

- node 1 has detected an event at time $L_1(t)$
- the sink is connected to a GPS receiver and has UTC timescale
- node 1 wants to inform the sink about the event such that the sink receives a timestamp in UTC timescale
- Broadcast domains are indicated by "circles"

Timestamp conversion approach:

- Idea: do not synchronize all nodes to UTC time, but convert timestamps as packet is forwarded from node 1 to the sink → avoids global synch
- Node 1 picks node 3 as forwarder as they are both in the same broadcast domain, node 1 can convert the timestamp $L_1(t)$ into $L_3(t)$
- Node 3 picks node 5 in the same way
- Node 5 is member in two broadcast domains and knows also the conversion parameters for the next forwarder 9
- And so on \ldots
- Result: the sink receives a timestamp in UTC timescale!
- Nodes 5, 8 and 9 are gateway nodes!



RBS – Network Synchronization

Forwarding options:

- Let each node pick its forwarder directly and perform conversion, the reference nodes act as mere pulse senders
- Let each node transmit its packet with timestamp to reference node, which converts timestamp and picks forwarder
 - This way a broadcast domain is not required to be fully connected
- In either case the clock of the reference nodes is unimportant



How to create broadcast domains?

- In large domains (large m) more packets have to be exchanged
- In large domains fewer domain-changes have to be made end-to-end, which in turn reduces synchronization error
- This is essentially a clustering problem, forwarding paths and gateways have to be identified by routing mechanisms



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Time synchronization

- important for both WSN applications and protocols
- Using hardware like GPS receivers is typically not an option, so extra protocols are needed

Post-facto synchronization

- allows time-synchronization on demand
- otherwise clock drifts would require frequent re-synchronization
 - constant energy drain

Some of the presented protocols take significant advantage of WSN peculiarities like:

- small propagation delays
- the ability to influence the node firmware to timestamp outgoing packets late, incoming packets early

More schemes exist....

Thank you

(and thanks go also to Andreas Willig for providing slides)



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