# **Attribute Allocation and Retrieval Scheme for Large-Scale Sensor Networks**

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Wireless sensor network is an emerging technology that enables remote monitoring of large geographical regions. In this paper, we address the problem of distributing attributes over such a large-scale sensor network so that the cost of data retrieval is minimized. The proposed scheme is a data-centric storage scheme where the attributes are distributed over the network depending on the correlations between them. The problem addressed here is similar to the *Allocation Problem* of distributed databases. In this paper, we have defined the Allocation Problem in the context of sensor networks and have proposed a scheme for finding a good distribution of attributes to the sensor network. We also propose an architecture for query processing given such a distribution of attributes. We analytically determine the conditions under which the proposed architecture is beneficial and present simulation results to demonstrate the same. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first attempt to determine an allocation of attributes over a sensor network based on the correlations between attributes.

**KEY WORDS:** Data-centric storage; allocation problem; storage node; control node; correlation tree; aggregation tree; hard threshold; soft threshold; update epoch

# **1. INTRODUCTION**

Sensor networks are revolutionizing remote monitoring applications because of their ease of deployment, ad hoc connectivity and cost effectiveness. Such networks might be expected to serve multiple applications simultaneously. For example, given a geographical area, the user might want to deploy a sensor network that assists in ecosystem monitoring, weather monitoring, precision agriculture, etc. For each application the user would want the network to sense specific physical attributes (e.g. humidity, temperature, light, etc. for weather monitoring application; temperature, light, presence of chemicals etc. for precision agriculture application and so on.) and consequently would expect the sensor network to respond to some user-defined queries. Since such large-scale sensor networks would be expected to serve a substantial number of queries simultaneously for several applications, the number of attributes sensed by the network would also be substantial. Since a major resource constraint of sensor networks is the limited battery life of sensor nodes, protocols designed for sensor networks should minimize energy consumption of the network. At the node level, data communication is the dominant component of energy consumption, and hence sensor network protocols are geared towards reducing communication in the network [1].

The proposed Data-Centric Attribute Allocation and Retrieval (DCAAR) scheme is designed for minimizing the communication cost involved in data retrieval from large-scale sensor networks. The proposed scheme is a data-centric storage scheme where data is stored at a particular network location and queries for that data are directly routed to that location without flooding the network. As is true for all data-centric storage schemes [2], the proposed scheme is not always the method of choice, but is

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preferable under certain conditions. Thus, using both analysis and simulation studies, we have determined the conditions under which the DCAAR scheme should be preferred. Future sensor networks are expected to support several protocols, with middleware software allowing a user to select the preferred protocol as per his requirements.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 lists some related research in the area of data storage in sensor networks. Section 3 defines the problem that this paper addresses, while Section 4 presents the proposed architecture to demonstrate how a distribution of attributes can be used to facilitate query processing in sensor networks. The methodology for determining a good distribution of attributes is presented in Section 5. Section 6 determines analytically the conditions under which the DCAAR scheme should be preferred. The simulation results are discussed in Section 7, while Section 8 concludes the paper.

## 2. RELATED WORK

There have been different approaches for storing data in sensor networks. Earlier sensor network systems stored sensor data externally at a remote base station (external storage) or locally at the nodes which generated them (local storage). Recently there has been a paradigm shift so that a technique called data-centric storage (DCS) now allows events to be stored at specific rendezvous points within the network that queries can access directly. Shenker et al. [2] proposed the DCS scheme and have shown that DCS outperforms other approaches such as external storage (ES) and local storage (LS) under certain circumstances. However, data-centric storage brings forth the challenge of storing the sensed data in a manner that assists in its retrieval for query processing. Furthermore, a query processing architecture needs to be defined for retrieving the stored data. Also, the data stored at specific rendezvous points needs to be updated in response to environmental changes. Thus, an efficient update mechanism needs to be designed such that the application quality-ofservice requirements are maintained. Ratnasamy et al. [3] have proposed Geographic Hash Table (GHT) as a specific solution to achieve DCS in sensor networks. GHT hashes user-defined events (e.g. earthquakes, animal sightings) into geographic coordinates. GHT is inspired by Internet-scale Distributed Hash Table (DHT) systems such as Chord [4] and CAN [5]. Thus GHT hashes event names into geographic locations and stores the event at the sensor node closest to the hashed location. Greenstein et al. [6] have further extended the DCS architecture by designing DIFS, a spatially distributed index to efficiently support range queries (i.e. queries where only events with attributes in a certain range are desired). DIFS builds on top of GHT and constructs a multiply-rooted hierarchical index where nodes store event information for a particular range of values detected within a particular geographical region. Higher-level nodes cover smaller ranges detected within large geographic regions, while lower-level nodes cover wider range of values from within a smaller geographic region. In a similar work, Li et al. [7], have built a distributed index (DIM) for multidimensional data. DIM supports multi-dimensional range queries such as "List all events whose temperature lies between 50° and 60°, and whose light levels lie between 10 and 15". In another work, Ghose et al. [8] have proposed Resilient Data-Centric Storage (R-DCS) as a method to achieve scalability and resilience by replicating data at strategic locations in the sensor network.

In this paper, we also propose a data-centric storage scheme for distributing attributes over a sensor network depending on the correlations between attributes and hence translate the allocation problem of distributed databases to the context of sensor networks. The proposed approach differs from the existing data-centric approaches in that it attempts to distribute attributes instead of specific user-defined events. We reason as follows. If an attribute is included in many events, then the values for that attribute have to be replicated and stored at different places in the network for each individual event. In our proposed approach, the attribute need not be replicated at multiple places and hence saves communication cost involved in storing and replicating data. Instead every attribute is stored at a predefined location within the network such that attributes that are a part of the same query are stored near each other to facilitate data retrieval. Thus it is similar to the Allocation Problem of distributed databases where a set of attributes need to be distributed over a number of sites, such that, in serving a predefined set of queries the communication between sites is minimized. In a similar manner, in this paper we present a scheme for storing attributes in the sensor network such that the communication involved in serving a predefined set of user queries can be minimized. Since all values of a particular attribute are stored at one geographical location, the proposed architecture easily supports range queries. Also storing attributes belonging to the same query near each other, facilitates efficient querying of multidimensional data.

## **3. THE ALLOCATION PROBLEM**

Sensor networks can be envisioned as a large distributed database where the sensor nodes generate named data against user-specified queries. Hence, the Allocation Problem of distributed databases can be redefined in the context of sensor networks as follows. "Assume that there are a set of sensed attributes  $A = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m\}$  and a network S of sensor nodes which have to serve a set of queries  $Q = \{Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_q\}$ . The allocation problem involves in finding the optimal distribution of A to S." Here, the optimality can be defined with respect to minimal energy consumption and hence minimal communication required in serving the set of queries Q. This is similar to the Allocation Problem of distributed databases which can be stated as "Given a relation R (i.e. a set of attributes), a set of queries Q, and a set of sites S where queries in Q run, the allocation problem involves finding the optimal distribution of *R* to *S* that minimizes the cost of evaluating *Q*<sup>"</sup>. For databases, the Allocation Problem involves finding disjoint fragments (group of attributes which are accessed together) that are distributed at independent sites. On the other hand, for sensor networks all the attributes are distributed over the same two-dimensional geographical area, such that the communication involved in dissemination of query and retrieval of data for the set of queries Q is minimized.

As in the case of distributed databases, some statistics about query runs (e.g. query access frequency, attribute affinity) are required to solve the allocation problem. Thus, it is assumed that a set of priorities  $\{p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_q\}$  are available for the queries  $\{Q_1, Q_2, \ldots, Q_q\}$ . The priority  $p_i$  of a query  $Q_i$  could depict either the probability with which query  $Q_i$  is issued per unit time or the frequency of tuples generated for query  $Q_i$  per unit time or a combination of both. These values may be set by the system designer to specify the relative priorities of queries and are normalized such that  $\sum_{i=1}^{q} p_i = 1$ . Each query  $Q_i$  can be modeled by the set of attributes included in the query i.e.,  $Q_i = \{A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_k}\} (A_{i_p} \in$  $\{A_1, A_2, ..., A_m\}, p = 1, ..., k$ ). The sensor nodes are assumed to be uniformly deployed over a rectangular region. Thus, the objective is to distribute the m attributes  $\{A_1, A_2, ..., A_m\}$  over this rectangular field of sensor nodes. To do so, the rectangular area is split into a grid *G* of size  $|\sqrt{m}| \times |\sqrt{m}|$  and each attribute  $A_i$ is allocated to a particular grid cell. The allocation problem thus reduces to finding an optimal distribution of *m* attributes over a  $|\sqrt{m}| \times |\sqrt{m}|$  grid. Let  $f:A \to G$  be an optimal distribution function. Thus  $f(A_k) = (x_k, y_k), x_k \in \{1, ..., |\sqrt{m}|\}, y_k \in \{1, ..., |\sqrt{m}|\}$  implies that attribute  $A_k$  should be stored in grid cell  $(x_k, y_k)$  of the deployed rectangular sensor network. The function *f* then attempts to minimize the following two costs for each query  $Q_i, i = 1, ..., q$ :

- Query Evaluation Cost  $C_E^i$ : This is the cost of aggregating resultant tuples for all the attributes  $\{A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \ldots, A_{i_k}\}$  specified in the query  $Q_i$ . For minimizing this cost, attributes belonging to the same query should be placed near each other in the grid, i.e. the cost of the minimum spanning tree joining the grid cells  $\{(x_{i_1}, y_{i_1}), (x_{i_2}, y_{i_2}), \ldots, (x_{i_k}, y_{i_k})\}$  should be minimized.
- Query Access Cost  $C_A^i$ : This includes the cost of query dissemination from the sink and result delivery to the sink. In order to minimize this cost, the query attributes should be placed close to the sink.

Thus, the function f should minimize the total query evaluation cost  $C_E(\sum_{i=1}^q C_E^i)$  and the total query access cost  $C_A(\sum_{i=1}^q C_A^i)$  for the set of queries Q. This distribution f should be made available to all

This distribution f should be made available to all the nodes in the network so that every node is aware about where every attribute is stored in the network. The method of determining the function f is explained in Section 5. Since the proposed method for computing the function f is topology independent, each sensor node may compute f independently. However, to reduce the overhead involved in performing the same redundant computation all over the network, the function f may be computed at the sink and then sent to all the nodes in the network. For now, let us assume that such a function f is available to all the nodes in network and analyze how it facilitates query processing in a large sensor network.

# 4. PROPOSED ARCHITECTURE

As mentioned in Section 3, the entire network is divided into a  $|\sqrt{m}| \times |\sqrt{m}|$  grid. Each sensor node is

assumed to be location-aware [9,10] and hence can determine which grid-cell it belongs to. The number of sensor nodes in each grid cell depends on the density and distribution of nodes in the sensor network. Given the function f (as computed in Section 5), each attribute  $A_i$  is then assigned a grid cell  $f(A_i)$  of the network. The grid cell  $f(A_i)$  is responsible for storing values of the attribute  $A_i$ . Thus, even though the attribute  $A_i$  is sensed all over the network (assuming complete sensing coverage), the values of the attribute are stored in the grid cell  $f(A_i)$  and every node in the network knows in which grid cell each attribute is stored.

The grid cell  $f(A_i)$  responsible for storing attribute  $A_i$ , is referred to as the zone for attribute  $A_i$  and denoted by  $Z_i$ . Only some of the nodes in the zone  $Z_i$ actually store the values for the attribute  $A_i$ . These nodes are called the *storage nodes* for  $A_i$ . The number of storage nodes required for an attribute  $A_i$  depends on the amount of data values corresponding to attribute  $A_i$  and the storage capacity of each sensor node. To facilitate data retrieval from these storage nodes, one node in every zone is designated as the control node. The control node is responsible for fetching data from the storage nodes using specialized indexes that it maintains. Some of the remaining nodes in a zone may store redundant or summary information about attribute values to provide fault tolerance and are hence called the *replica nodes*. Figure 5 shows the proposed architecture where the control node is the node nearest to the center of each zone.

## 4.1. Processing of Queries

The steps involved in serving a query are as follows:

- Sink gets a query  $Q_i = \{A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_k}\}$  whose attributes are stored in the zones  $\{Z_{i_1}, Z_{i_2}, \dots, Z_{i_k}\}$ .
- The sink computes the optimal route for disseminating the query to the zones  $\{Z_{i_1}, Z_{i_2}, \ldots, Z_{i_k}\}$  storing the query attributes. The optimal route for retrieving the attributes  $\{A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \ldots, A_{i_k}\}$  would essentially be the minimum spanning tree joining sink with the zones  $\{Z_{i_1}, Z_{i_2}, \ldots, Z_{i_k}\}$ . The complexity involved in calculating this route is minimal (any minimum spanning tree algorithm may be used) since a query usually contains a limited number of attributes.
- The computed route is used for routing the query and routing the resultant data tuples

back to the sink. Suppose the sink sends the query to zone  $Z_{i_i}$ .

- The control node of zone  $Z_{i_j}$  uses its stored indexes to retrieve relevant values of  $A_{i_j}$  from the storage nodes.
- While routing the data to the sink, the control nodes of the respective storage zones use aggregation [11,12] and in-network processing mechanisms [13,14] to further reduce the amount of data transfer in the network.

# 4.2. Updating of Stored Data

The proposed architecture achieves efficiency in query processing at the cost of maintaining updated values of all the attributes in the zones where they are stored. To reduce the control overhead involved in this maintenance, a soft threshold and timer-based scheme may be used as follows:

- Suppose a sensor node in zone Z<sub>i</sub> senses an attribute A<sub>k</sub>. Suppose the soft threshold for attribute A<sub>k</sub> is φ<sub>k</sub>. If the difference between the previously sensed value and the current value of A<sub>k</sub> is more than φ<sub>k</sub>, the current value needs to be reported to the storage zone Z<sub>k</sub> housing A<sub>k</sub>. However, instead of sending update messages for every individual node fluctuation, the sensor node first sends an update message to the control node of its own zone Z<sub>i</sub>.
- The control node of Z<sub>i</sub> waits for a predefined time interval T<sub>k</sub>. All the update messages for A<sub>k</sub> that the control node receives from nodes in its own grid cell during time T<sub>k</sub> are then combined into aggregate update message(s) and sent to zone Z<sub>k</sub> housing A<sub>k</sub>. The duration T<sub>k</sub> is called the update epoch for attribute A<sub>k</sub>.

Increasing the soft threshold and the update epoch reduces the frequency with which the attributes are updated. Reducing the number the update messages in turn reduces the communication overhead involved in maintaining updated values of the attributes in their respective storage zones. However, increasing the soft threshold and update epoch also reduces the probability of the zone  $Z_k$  having updated values of  $A_k$ . This in turn, reduces the probability that queries accessing  $A_k$  would receive the current values for  $A_k$  as sensed by the network which might be a serious problem for critical data. Thus, depending on how critical an attribute is, a suitable soft threshold and update epoch may be chosen to balance the tradeoff between energy-efficiency and accuracy.

Note that all the messages (viz. query message, update message or resultant data tuple) can be routed in the network using geographic routing protocols like GPSR [15].

# 4.3. Advantages and Limitations

As with all data-centric storage schemes, the proposed DCAAR scheme obviates the need for flooding queries in the network. The user response time for queries is also minimized. Moreover, DCAAR minimizes both the query access cost and the query evaluation cost. In addition to these benefits, having all values of an attribute at one place provides helpful global context for evaluating local data. For example, sensed temperature values could be compared against the average temperature value of the network to detect fires or other local temperature spikes. Furthermore, user-defined parameters like soft threshold and update epoch allow the user to tune the performance of the system as per his requirements.

The DCAAR scheme works well as long as the overhead of sending update messages to storage zones does not supersede the advantage of minimizing the query cost. That is, if the attributes are such that they have very frequent fluctuations or fluctuations continually occur all over the network while the queries are not frequent enough, then more energy may be expended in proactively maintaining updated values in storage zones. However, since most real-life physical phenomena are localized, the fluctuations can be considered to be mostly local and not too many. Consequently, the DCAAR scheme should perform well in most real-life situations.

# 5. ATTRIBUTE ALLOCATION METHODOLOGY

Having discussed the benefits of distributing attributes over a sensor network and how it assists in efficient query processing, this section focuses on the methodology for determining a good distribution of attributes such that the total cost of serving a set of user-defined queries is minimized. The methodology has two phases. In the first phase, the query priorities are used to determine correlations between each pair of attributes. In the second phase the correlations are used to determine the distribution of attributes to the rectangular sensor network. To illustrate the proposed methodology, consider an example set of queries as listed in Table I.

## 5.1. Phase 1: Determining Correlations

Query priorities can be used to determine correlations between attributes. If a pair of attributes is a part of a high priority query, then the attributes may be considered to have a high correlation between them since they would be accessed together very frequently. Similarly, if a pair of attributes is never accessed together in the same query, the attributes may be considered to not have any correlation between them. The distribution function should then store attributes with higher correlations closer to each other. The correlations between all the attributes can be represented by a tree of attributes where the edge weights between a pair of attributes represent the correlation between them. Using this data structure and its represented correlations, the distribution of attributes can be determined. Also attributes that are accessed more frequently should be stored closer to the sink. The individual access probability  $P(A_i)$  of an attribute  $A_i$  can be computed as follows:

$$P(A_i) = \sum_{j=1}^{q} P(Q_j) P(A_i | Q_j), \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, m_i$$

where

$$P(Q_i) = p_j, \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, m \text{ and}$$
$$P(A_i | Q_j) = \begin{cases} 1, & A_i \in Q_j \\ 0, & A_i \notin Q_j \end{cases}$$
(1)

Table I. List of queries in ascending order of priorities

| $Q_i$    | $p_i$  | $A_i$                              | $Q_i$    | $p_i$  | $A_i$   |
|----------|--------|------------------------------------|----------|--------|---|
| $Q_{30}$ | 0.0001 | $A_6$                              | $Q_{10}$ | 0.0044 | $A_{20}$  |
| $Q_{29}$ | 0.0001 | $A_{12}, A_{19}$                   | $Q_6$    | 0.0052 | $A_7$   |
| $Q_{24}$ | 0.0001 | $A_{10}, A_{16}$                   | $Q_8$    | 0.0063 | $A_5, A_8, A_{11}$  |
| $Q_{27}$ | 0.0001 | $A_{12}, A_{18}$                   | $Q_{22}$ | 0.0117 | $A_1, A_6, A_{11}, A_{16}$  |
| $Q_{18}$ | 0.0001 | $A_4, A_8, A_{12}, A_{19}$         | $Q_{26}$ | 0.0136 | $A_{14}, A_{20}, A_6$   |
| $Q_{12}$ | 0.0001 | $A_{13}, A_{16}$                   | $Q_{14}$ | 0.0161 | $A_{3}, A_{7}$  |
| $Q_{23}$ | 0.0005 | $A_1, A_6, A_{11}$                 | $Q_4$    | 0.0185 | $A_{5}, A_{7}, A_{9}$   |
| $Q_{15}$ | 0.0005 | $A_{11}$                           | $Q_{16}$ | 0.0189 | $A_{15}$  |
| $Q_{17}$ | 0.0007 | $A_{19}, A_3, A_7, A_{11}, A_{15}$ | $Q_2$    | 0.0246 | A <sub>8</sub> ,A <sub>16</sub> ,A <sub>4</sub> ,A <sub>12</sub> ,A <sub>20</sub> |
| $Q_{28}$ | 0.0007 | $A_5$                              | $Q_{13}$ | 0.0510 | $A_{19}$  |
| $Q_{21}$ | 0.0008 | $A_{16}$                           | $Q_{25}$ | 0.1017 | $A_8$   |
| $Q_{20}$ | 0.0010 | $A_{8}, A_{13}$                    | $Q_{19}$ | 0.1179 | $A_{16}, A_{20}, A_4$   |
| $Q_3$    | 0.0011 | $A_{9}, A_{18}, A_{7}, A_{20}$     | $Q_5$    | 0.1185 | $A_{6}, A_{16}$   |
| $Q_{11}$ | 0.0015 | $A_4, A_7, A_{10}$                 | $Q_1$    | 0.1994 | $A_1, A_3, A_5, A_7, A_9$   |
| $Q_9$    | 0.0015 | $A_{14}, A_{17}$                   | $Q_7$    | 0.2833 | $A_2, A_{15}, A_{17}, A_{19}$   |

Table II. List of attributes with access probabilities

| $A_i$   | $P_i(A_i)$   | $A_i$  | $P_i(A_i)$   | $A_i$  | $P_i(A_i)$   |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| $\begin{array}{c} A_1 \\ A_2 \\ A_3 \\ A_4 \\ A_5 \\ A_6 \end{array}$ | 0.2116<br>0.2833<br>0.2162<br>0.1441<br>0.2249<br>0.1444 | $egin{array}{c} A_8 & \ A_9 & \ A_{10} & \ A_{11} & \ A_{12} & \ A_{13} & \ \end{array}$ | 0.1337<br>0.2190<br>0.0016<br>0.0197<br>0.0249<br>0.0011 | $A_{15} \\ A_{16} \\ A_{17} \\ A_{18} \\ A_{19} \\ A_{20}$ | 0.3029<br>0.2737<br>0.2848<br>0.0012<br>0.3352<br>0.1616 |

Table II gives the individual access probabilities for the attributes involved in the queries listed in Table I. To represent the relative ordering of attributes with respect to their individual access probabilities of attributes, attributes are represented in the form of a heap so that if attribute  $A_i$  is parent of  $A_j$  then  $P(A_i) \ge P(A_j)$ . This heap-like data structure is referred to as the *correlation tree* and it gives a synoptic view of all the correlations between attributes as also the relative ordering of attributes with respect to their individual access probabilities and thereby assists in determining a good distribution function f.

To create a correlation tree for a given set of queries, to start with each query is represented as a tree of depth 1 and then these individual query trees are combined to form a comprehensive correlation tree. Figure 1 shows the query tree corresponding to query  $Q_7$  listed in Table I. Since the correlation tree should have a heap-like structure, the attribute in the query having the highest access probability is made the root of the corresponding query tree (refer to access probabilities listed in Table II). Hence attribute  $A_{19}$  becomes the root for query tree for  $Q_7$ . Also as mentioned before, the edge weights depict the correlation between the attributes joined by the edge. For the initial query tree, the edge weights are simply the query priorities. Such a query tree is created for every given query. These query trees are combined to form the final correlation tree. This is done iteratively by selecting query trees in ascending order of their associated query priorities.

The process is illustrated using the set of queries listed in Table I. First the query tree corresponding to

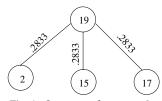


Fig. 1. Query tree for query  $Q_7$ .

 $Q_{30}$  is selected and set to be the initial partial correlation tree. Next the query tree corresponding to query  $Q_{29}$  is combined with the partial correlation tree. The process of combining query trees continues using usual tree union algorithms, reinforcing edge weights as required. However, special consideration is required when an attribute has different parents in the query tree to be added and the partial correlation tree, respectively. To illustrate this, consider the partial correlation tree after query tree for query  $Q_{23}$  has been added (Figure 2). While attempting to add query tree for  $Q_{17}$ , it is found that attribute  $A_{11}$ has attribute  $A_{19}$  as parent in the query tree but attribute  $A_1$  as parent in the partial correlation tree. Thus, it needs to be decided as to which attribute should be parent of  $A_{11}$  in the new correlation tree. The attribute with which  $A_{11}$  has higher correlation should be chosen, because the second stage of the methodology allocates attributes to grid cells such that attributes are stored closer to their parent attribute. Also, since every child attribute is stored near its parent, the sibling attributes also end up being stored fairly close to each other in the grid. Thus the other parent is made a sibling of the attribute as shown in Figure 3. A triplet of values (.0005,1,11) called the virtual weight is assigned to both attributes  $A_1$  and  $A_{11}$  to signify the correlation that attribute  $A_{11}$  has with attribute  $A_1$  even though they do not share a parent-child relationship in the tree. Also note that attribute  $A_{11}$  could be made a

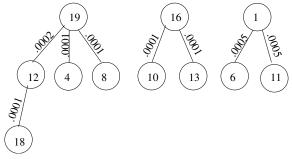


Fig. 2. Partial correlation tree after adding query  $Q_{23}$ .

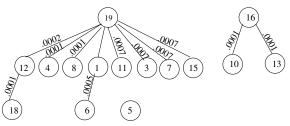


Fig. 3. Partial correlation tree after adding query  $Q_{17}$ .

child of attribute  $A_{19}$  because  $P(A_{11}) < P(A_{19})$ . If  $A_{19}$  had a higher individual probability, then the position of  $A_{11}$  in the tree had to be adjusted using usual heap creation algorithm.

If any edge has to be deleted in the process, a cost-benefit analysis is performed to ensure that the benefit  $> \cos t$ , where cost and benefit are defined as follows,

Cost = Sum of effective weights of deleted edges

Benefit = Sum of effective weights of new edges where effective weight  $w'_T(A_i, A_j)$  of an edge  $(A_i, A_j)$ is,

$$w'_T(A_i, A_j) = w_T(A_i, A_j) + \Sigma \{ \text{virtual weights of } A_j \}$$

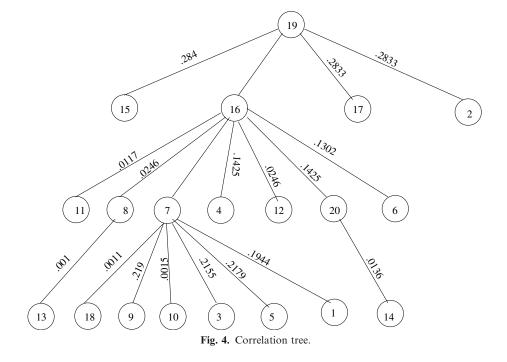
and value of a virtual weight  $(v, A_v, A_z)$  is,

$$(v, A_y, A_z) = \begin{cases} v & \text{if } A_y \text{ and } A_z \text{ are siblings} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The final correlation tree for the set of queries in Table I is shown in Figure 4. The virtual weights have not been shown to preserve clarity of the figure.

#### 5.2. Phase 2: Allocating Attributes

Once the correlation tree has been constructed, it can be used to determine the distribution of attributes to the grid such that the more frequently accessed attributes are closer to the sink and the attributes with higher correlations are stored closer to each other. The sink is assumed to be in any random location of the network. Hence, more frequently accessed attributes are stored as close to the centre of the grid since the centre is the position that is easily accessible from any random position in the region. The attribute having the maximum access probability is allocated to the central-most grid cell. Then, attributes are chosen iteratively in descending order of their access probabilities and grid cells for storing them are determined using the correlation tree. If the attribute does not have a parent in the correlation tree, it is allocated the grid cell nearest to the centre. However, there may be multiple available grid cells at the same distance from the centre. In that case, the optimal grid cell is the one for which adjacent already-allocated attributes have the least number of unassigned children. The justification for choosing such a cell is that, if a cell C is surrounded with attributes that have more number of unassigned children attributes, then it would be preferable to leave C for those unassigned children attributes when other options are available. Now consider the case where the correlation that an attribute has with its parent is the same as its own access probability. This implies that any query that accesses it also accesses its parent. In that case, the attribute should be stored close to its parent. However, there may be more than one cell at the same distance from its parent. In this case, the optimal grid cell is the one farthest from the



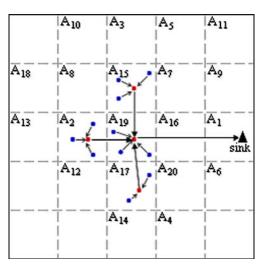


Fig. 5. Allocation of attributes to grid.

centre. This can be justified by the fact that the available cells near the centre are left for attributes that need to be stored close to the centre. Finally, consider the case where the attribute has correlations with multiple attributes. In such a situation, the DCAAR scheme attempts to allocate the attribute to an available grid cell, such that the distance between storage zones of attributes is inversely proportional to the respective correlation value.

Figure 5 shows the allocation of attributes to the grid with the assistance of the correlation tree of Figure 4. Note that attribute  $A_{19}$  has highest individual probability and hence is in the centre. Attributes  $A_{15}$ ,  $A_{17}$ ,  $A_2$  and  $A_{16}$  are then selected in descending order of probabilities and stored near  $A_{19}$ . Attribute  $A_7$  is then stored near its parent  $A_{16}$  while  $A_5$  is stored near its parent  $A_7$  and so on. Also note that query  $Q_7$  that has the highest priority has all its attributes  $A_{25}$ ,  $A_{15}$ ,  $A_{17}$  and  $A_{19}$  stored near the centre adjacent to each other. Some of the grid cells in Figure 5 are empty since the number of attributes in our example query set (Table I) is less than the number of grid cells. These empty unassigned grid cells can be used later for fault tolerance and load balancing.

#### 6. ANALYSIS

To analyze the performance of the DCAAR scheme, we study the energy consumed in querying the network and maintaining updated values in storage zones. As mentioned in Section 2, the existing data-centric storage schemes store user-defined events instead of individual attributes. Thus we compare the

energy consumption of DCAAR with that of TAG [12]. In TAG, individual attribute values are stored locally at nodes that generate them and an aggregation tree spanning all the sensor nodes is formed in a distributed manner to perform in-network aggregation while delivering query results to the sink. For both DCAAR and TAG, it is assumed that the query selection predicate specifies a hard threshold  $\Phi$  for a query attribute, and only those attribute readings greater than the hard threshold  $\Phi$  are reported to the sink. Furthermore, as mentioned in Section 4.2, update messages are sent in the DCAAR scheme only when the soft threshold  $\phi$  is crossed. The sink is assumed to be at the centre of the network as shown in Figure 6. It is also assumed that the communication between nodes of a grid cell and their respective control nodes, the sink and the control nodes, as well as nodes in different levels of the aggregation tree all pack available data in the fewest possible packets. The parameters used in the analysis are listed in Table III.

#### 6.1. Energy Cost of Aggregation Tree (AT)

The queries are propagated downwards till every leaf node in the AT is reached. The AT is rooted at the sink and thus spreads outwards from the center of the region. For best case performance, the AT is assumed to span the region uniformly. We divide the entire area into *n* concentric square regions, each of width *r* as shown in Figure 6a. The nodes present in the *i*th concentric region are assumed to be at a depth *i* in the AT. Thus *n* is the depth of the tree where 2nr = L.

Table III. Parameters used in analysis

| N <sub>total</sub> | Total number of nodes in the network         |
|--------------------|--|
| A(i)               | Area of sub-region at depth <i>i</i>         |
| r                  | Transmission radius                          |
| L                  | Length of a side of the deployed region      |
| $\Phi$             | Hard threshold                               |
| $\phi$             | Soft threshold                               |
| ξ                  | Ratio of information generated by a single   |
|                    | node to size of data packet                  |
| $P_{tx}$           | Transmission cost of a single packet         |
| d                  | Length of a side of the sub-region           |
| N                  | Nodes reporting a reading $> \Phi$           |
| N'                 | Nodes reporting a reading $> \phi$           |
| D(sk,stg)          | Distance between sink and storage region     |
| μ                  | Frequency of attribute value crossing $\Phi$ |
| μ′                 | Frequency of attribute value crossing $\phi$ |
| $f_Q$              | Query frequency                              |

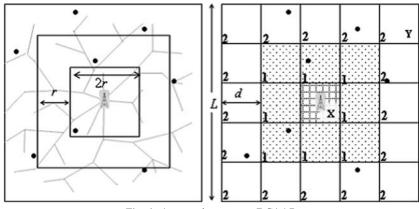


Fig. 6. Aggregation tree vs. DCAAR.

Area of region *i* is  $A(i) = 4(2i-1)r^2$ , i = 1, 2, 3, ..., n.

The probability that a node lies in region *i* is given by  $p(i) = \frac{A(i)}{L^2}$ . Thus, out of *N* nodes, the number of nodes in the *i*th region is given by Np(i). Consequently, the energy cost incurred at each level is  $E(i) = I(i) \times \xi \times P_{tx}$  and the total energy is given by  $E_{\text{Data}(\text{AT})} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E(i)$ . We now calculate I(i), the total number of packets transmitted at level *i* of the aggregation tree. This includes the total number of packets arriving at level *i* from level *i* + 1. Thus a recursive relation is obtained as follows as:

$$I(n) = 4N(2n-1)\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^{2},$$
  
$$I(n-1) = 4N(2n-3)\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^{2} + I(n), \dots$$

and

$$I(1) = 4N\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^2 + I(2)$$

Thus the total incurred communication cost,

$$E_{\text{Data}(\text{AT})} = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} I(n)\right] \times \xi \times P_{tx}$$

Through algebraic manipulation,

$$I(1) = 4N\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^2(n)^2, \quad I(2) = 4N\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^2[(n)^2 - 1], \dots,$$
$$I(i) = 4N\left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^2[(n)^2 - (i-1)^2],$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sum_{i=1}^{n} I(n) \end{bmatrix} \times \xi \times P_{tx}$$
$$= 4N \left(\frac{r}{L}\right)^2 \xi P_{tx} \left[ n^3 - \frac{n(n-1)(2n-1)}{6} \right] \qquad (2)$$

Since each node forwards the query exactly once, the initial cost of propagating the query down the tree is given by

$$E_{\text{Query}(\text{AT})} = N_{\text{total}} P_{tx} \tag{3}$$

For query-driven systems, information is sent to the sink only in response to a query. Hence, total cost of query dissemination and aggregation is,

$$E_{\text{Total}}(AT)_{P} = f_{Q} \left( E_{\text{Query}(AT)} + E_{\text{Data}(AT)} \right) \qquad (4)$$

The total cost incurred in event-driven systems is dependent on the number of reports generated by the system with  $E_{\text{Query}(AT)} = 0$ . In this case, the cost is,

$$E_{\text{Total}}(AT)_R = E_{\text{Data}(AT)}\mu$$

#### 6.2. Energy Cost of DCAAR Scheme

Let us assume that the storage region X in Figure 6b stores the values for the desired query attribute. The squares marked '1' represent the first tier of surrounding sub-regions, those marked '2' indicate the second tier and so on. We approximate the distance from any node of the *i*th tier to the center of X as *id* and this distance is traversed in *id/r* hops. Thus the probability of a node lying in regions marked 1, 2, is,  $p(1) = \frac{8d^2}{L^2}$ ,  $p(2) = \frac{16d^2}{L^2}$ ... up to  $\lfloor L/2d \rfloor$  tiers.

Hence,  $p(i) = \frac{8id^2}{L^2}$  where  $i = 1, 2, ..., \lfloor L/2d \rfloor$ N' number of nodes report update messages to

N' number of nodes report update messages to control nodes of their own grid cell. In the worst case scenario, the reporting nodes are furthest away from the control node at a distance of d/r hops. Thus energy spent in this update is,

$$E_{\text{Update}} = N' \left(\frac{d}{r}\right) P_{tx}$$

The number of nodes reporting update of attribute values in tier *i* is N'p(i). Energy cost associated with all control nodes in tier *i* reporting aggregated update message to region X is,

$$E(i) = \frac{8iN'd^2}{L^2} \left(\frac{di}{r}\right) \xi P_{tx}$$
(5)

Thus, in one reporting event, total energy spent by all control nodes in reporting data to the storage region hosting that attribute is given by

$$E_{\text{Data}(\text{DS})} = \sum_{i=1}^{L/2d} E(i) = \frac{8N'd^3}{rL^2} \xi P_{tx} \sum_{i=1}^{L/2d} i^2$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{L/2d} E(i) = \frac{2N'd^3}{3rL^2} \xi P_{tx}$$
$$[(L/d)(L/2d+1)(L/d+1)]$$
(6)

The storage region receives queries from the sink with a frequency  $f_Q$  and incurs a query cost of  $E_{\text{Query(DS)}} = \frac{D(\text{sk,stg})}{r} P_{tx}$ . The consequent reply from the storage region to the sink incurs a cost of  $E_{\text{Reply(DS)}} = \frac{D(\text{sk,stg})}{r} N\xi P_{tx}$ The total energy expended in our scheme is given

The total energy expended in our scheme is given by

$$E_{\text{Total}}(DS) = f_Q \left( E_{\text{Query}(DS)} + E_{\text{Reply}(DS)} \right) + \left( E_{\text{Data}(DS)} + E_{\text{Update}} \right) \mu'$$
(7)

Thus, the DCAAR scheme should be preferred only when  $E_{\text{Total}} (DS) \le E_{\text{Total}} (AT)$  i.e.

$$f_{Q}(E_{\text{Query}(\text{DS})} + E_{Reply(DS)}) + (E_{\text{Data}(\text{DS})} + E_{\text{Update}})\mu'$$

$$<\begin{cases} f_{Q}(E_{\text{Query}(\text{AT})} + E_{\text{Data}(\text{AT})}) \text{ (Query - driven)} \\ E_{\text{Data}(\text{AT})}\mu \text{ (Event - driven)} \end{cases}$$
(8)

To validate our models of the aggregation tree and DCAAR scheme, we simulated a testbed of 1030 nodes distributed randomly in an area of  $630 \times 630$  square units. A node at (x,y) is given an initial attribute value calculated by the function  $Z = 20(1 + \sin(R)/R)$ , where  $R = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} + 0.5$ . We allow 15 possible fluctuations in the sensed

Table IV. Energy cost analysis (mJ)

| DCAAR      |            | Aggregation tr | ee         |
|------------|------------|----------------|------------|
| Simulation | Calculated | Simulation     | Calculated |
| 19.7311    | 19.5864    | 26.351         | 21.073     |

attribute, but the decision to undergo a change was taken locally at each node with probability 0.3. The magnitude of change is  $\pm 1.8$  and is a function of a uniformly distributed random variable. At the end of the simulation we obtained an average of 340 nodes crossing  $\varphi = 0.7$  at each fluctuation and those that are over  $\Phi = 22$  averaged at 380. The other constant simulation parameters are as described in Section 7. The calculated and observed values are summarized in Table IV and are in good agreement thereby validating our model. As predicted by Eq. 8, DCAAR has lower energy cost under these conditions and is the preferred choice.

# 7. SIMULATION RESULTS

Using Simjava [16], a general discrete event simulator, we have conducted extensive simulations to compare the performance of the proposed DCAAR scheme with that of the aggregation tree (AT) algorithm of TAG [12].

## 7.1. Simulation Environment

For simulation studies, 1030 nodes have been randomly dispersed in a square area of  $630 \times 630$ units, each node having a transmission range of 40 units. Each packet of 30 bytes is transmitted over a 20 kbps channel, incurring a cost of 0.81 and 0.3 mW for transmission and reception, respectively. To investigate the performance of the DCAAR scheme, we split the area into 49 subregions, each of side 90 units. It is assumed that the communication between nodes of a grid cell and their respective control nodes, the sink and the control nodes, as well as nodes in different levels of the aggregation tree, pack available data in the fewest possible packets. We assume that the sink is at the centre of the network. To evaluate the best case performance of the proposed DCAAR scheme, the attribute queried is assumed to be stored in the central grid cell (i.e. nearest to the sink). To measure the worst case performance, the sink queries an attribute that is stored in a grid cell further away from the centre of the network. Energy consumption has been used as the metric to compare the DCAAR scheme with the aggregation tree (AT) algorithm of TAG. For both the schemes, only those readings greater than the hard threshold are reported to the sink. Furthermore, for the proposed DCAAR scheme, the update messages are sent only when the soft threshold is breached. Experiments have been conducted for computing energy consumption against varying query rate and attribute fluctuation frequency as described in the following sections.

## 7.2. Effect of Query Rate on Performance

First the rate of fluctuations is kept constant and the query rate is varied (Figure 7a, b). The DCAAR scheme shows marginal performance degradation at lower query rates. As the sink injects progressively greater number of queries per unit time, the DCAAR scheme performs increasingly better than the AT algorithm. The reason is as follows. The cost of flooding the query down to the leaf level of the AT and then retrieving the information essentially requires O(n) transmissions. In the proposed DCAAR scheme (and more so for the considered topology), this is accomplished in a single transmission between the control node in the storage region and the sink, as is evident from the minimal DCAAR-Query cost. However, there is a constant overhead of updating the storage region for the nodes which show a variation in the sensed attribute. This is reflected in the almost constant DCAAR-Update cost. Figure 7b shows results for the scenario where the attribute stored at a subregion far from the sink is accessed by a periodic query. Here the break-even point is reached when the query rate is 22 (unlike eight in the best case), after which DCAAR performs much better than AT.

# 7.3. Effect of Fluctuation Rate on Performance

In this experiment (Figure 7c, d), the rate of fluctuations has been varied, while maintaining a steady query rate of 20 queries/simulation time. It can be observed that with an increase in the number of fluctuations, the DCAAR scheme is no longer preferable to the AT scheme after the break-even point. The AT performs at a steady energy cost as nodes, while sensing the changed attribute values, see no need of reporting it unless a query message is received. The minor increase in energy cost of AT

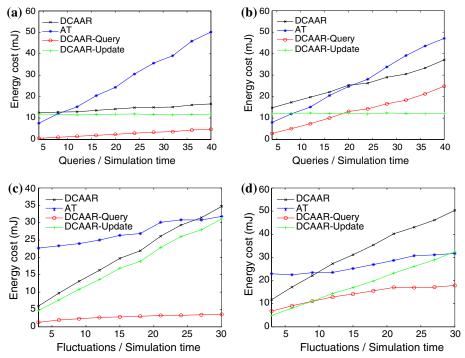


Fig. 7 (a) Effect of query rate (best case). (b) Effect of query rate (attribute far from sink). (c) Effect of fluctuation rate (best case). (d) Effect of fluctuation rate (attribute far from sink).

happens because, with increasing rate of fluctuations, the number of attribute values more than the hard threshold increase and hence more number of nodes report data to the sink. On the other hand, the rapid fluctuation and its associated cost in maintaining updated information in the storage region strains the DCAAR scheme, which explains the steady increase in DCAAR-Update cost and hence DCAAR-total cost. Even then, in the best case scenario (Figure 7c), the DCAAR scheme performs better than AT till the fluctuation rate reaches a considerable value of 26 fluctuations/simulation time.

## 8. CONCLUSIONS

The proposed DCAAR scheme is a data-centric storage scheme for allocating attributes to a largescale sensor network depending on the correlations between them. In order to define the optimization criteria involved in selecting appropriate rendezvous locations for sensed data, the problem has been formulated in a manner similar to the allocation problem of distributed databases. Each user-defined query is assumed to have an associated priority, which in turn defines correlations between the sensed attributes. These correlations and priorities have been used to determine storage locations of individual attributes within the network. Also mechanisms have been developed for efficiently retrieving and processing the stored data in response to user queries. Furthermore, a soft threshold and timer-based update mechanism has been proposed to increase the energy efficiency of the system and to better cater to user requirements. Finally, using both analysis and extensive simulations, the preferable conditions for the protocol has been determined. As a part of future work, we plan to develop detailed protocols for query dissemination, data update and data retrieval. We also need to ensure that these protocols are faulttolerant and perform load balancing.

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