Reliable Sensor Networks for Planet Exploration

Tony Sun, Ling-Jyh Chen, Chih-Chieh Han, Mario Gerla
Department of Computer Science, University of California at Los Angeles
Los Angeles, CA, 90095, USA
{tonysun, cclljj, simonhan, gerla}@cs.ucla.edu

Abstract—Wireless sensor networks will play a critical role in space and planet exploration, allowing remote monitoring of non-easily accessible areas in preparation of human or robotic missions. Sensors, however, are fragile and can fail, reporting erroneous measurements, for example. Decisions derived from flawed sensor measurements can adversely impact the correctness of the overall sensor network findings and may jeopardize the success of the mission. Unfortunately, failed sensors in space cannot be easily diagnosed and replaced. To improve the reliability of decisions and minimize the impact of faulty sensor measurements, the preferred approach is to exploit data redundancy. In this paper, we present Confidence Weighted Voting (CWV), a distributed technique that can greatly improve the data reliability and fault tolerance of sensor network applications. We evaluate CWV against traditional approaches (e.g., Majority Voting (MV) and Distance Weighted Voting (D WV)), in the presence of flawed sensors. The results show that CWV consistently outperforms the other schemes by providing as much as 49% more resiliency.

Index Terms—Reliable decision from Sensor Network, data redundancy, distributed voting, space and planet exploration

I. INTRODUCTION

The advent of Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs) will play a critical role in space and planet exploration. With its ability to remotely monitor non-easily accessible areas, wireless sensor networks can be used to ensure the soundness and the safety of actual human or robotic missions. However, sensor are fragile and can fail, for sensor deployed in inhospitable conditions, decision derived from damaged sensors can adversely affect the correctness of the overall sensor network finding and may jeopardize the success of the mission. Since failed sensors cannot be easily diagnosed and replaced in space, it is important to provide the most reliable sensor network findings to the mission planners as well as to the crews executing the mission.

Particularly, this applies to exploratory missions that are to be executed on hostile and alien terrain (i.e. a potentially volcanic area). With mission crews and wireless sensor network deployed around the mission site, it is vital to reliably notify the mission crews at the earliest hint of possible danger (e.g. potential volcanic eruption, excess corrosive vapor in the air, etc). Furthermore, this notification task must be accomplished in the possible presence of flawed sensor measurements.

Realizing that multiple sensors monitoring the same location at the same time can ensure higher monitoring quality [4][15], and the fact that data from neighboring nodes can be used to distinguish the correctness of local data. It's clear that redundant information can be utilized to improve the underlying reliability of local data. These highly localized results can be aggregated by methods such as [2][14] to provide higher data reliability to requesting applications such as event/target detection [1]-[3][9].

Minimizing the impact of faulty sensor measurements is related to the Byzantine problem [8]. Previous research used classification techniques such as neural networks or Bayesian classifier [9] to accomplish better results. Other solutions such as [1][2] rely on higher level data collaboration schemes that aimed to accomplish better reliability without using redundant information from the network. However, these solutions often require excessive amount of states, memory, message overhead, or computational cost, and are consider unfitting for sensor network purposes.

Since reliability is of the outermost concern for space related missions. It is a priority for space systems to encompass great resiliency against possible mishaps, accidents, and compensate for the risk of equipment failures. In this paper, we present Confidence Weighted Voting (CWV), a simple distributed technique that improves the reliability of underlying data by exploiting redundant information. Since CWV uses neighboring data to discern the correctness of local data, it is capable of improving the baseline reliability of many applications such as [2][9][12]. We examined CWV against the classical Majority Voting (MV) [7] and Distance Weighted Voting (D WV) [7] techniques, and contrasted the level of data reliability of each approach in the prevalent presence of flawed sensor measurements. We simulated the basic behaviors of CWV on top of k-cover deployment strategy (which guarantee redundancy when k>2), we also used an analytical model to prove the effectiveness of CWV over the other two schemes. Finally, we showed that CWV can outperform the other
distributed voting schemes by providing as much as 49% more resiliency to sensor errors.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we present the system model, the metrics used to evaluate our algorithms, and the k-coverage placement strategies used in our experiments. Section 3 elaborates on the details of Confidence Weighted Voting algorithm, and briefly describes the baselines algorithms to which we compare our work. Section 4 present simulation results and related analysis. We conclude the paper in Section 5.

II. SYSTEM MODEL

In this section, we introduce the model of sensor network used in section 2.1. We then discuss the metrics used to evaluate the system performance in section 2.2. Lastly, we described the k-coverage placement strategy used in our experiments in section 2.3.

A. Sensor Network Model

First, we assume that the sensor node knows its own location [5] and nodes are stationary. The nodes can also obtain their own location through location process described in [13]. For simplicity, we refer to the sensing area of a node as a circle with a nominal radius \( r \) centered at the location of the node itself. With a set of sensors deployed in a region instructed to provide reliable discrete data, we are also assuming that an event can be detected by multiple sensors nodes due to our k-coverage sensor placement scheme described in section 2.3. The sensor reports event when the physical phenomenon exceeds pre-established thresholds. A lower threshold is presumed and quality of detection is not influenced by the distance. We deploy the sensor nodes in a two-dimensional Euclidean plane. However, the technique can be extended to a three-dimensional space without much difficulty. Lastly, we assume that the nodes can directly communicate with the neighboring nodes within a radius larger than 2r (r is nominal sensing radius). All the above are common assumptions for many sensor network applications.

B. Performance Metrics

The performance of the algorithms can be measured in terms of data reliability against varying level of faulty sensors. Each node is given a failure probability, which defines how likely the sensor will report an incorrect value. The behavior of these faulty sensors is assumed to be arbitrary. Error occurrences are assumed to be uniformly distributed. Reliability of the network is then measured by how likely we can achieve the correct representation of the environment given our deployment strategy, algorithm, and sensor failure rate. We used an event/target scenario to test our algorithm [2]. Since sensors need to combine their sensed values to reach a representative decision for the region in question, and results computed based on these incorrect measurements can radically impact the correctness of sensor network findings. The network will likely contain some faulty sensors, while we need to arrive at a correct decision regardless of the distortion from the flawed sensors.

C. K-coverage Placement Strategy

Several coverage models [6][10][11] have been proposed for different application scenarios. In this paper, we assume that a point \( p \) is monitored if their Euclidian distance to a sensor is less than the sensing range of \( r \). The coverage configuration problem bares close resemblance to the Art Gallery Problem, which deals with determining the number of observers necessary to cover an art gallery room such that every point in the art gallery in monitored by at least one observer. This problem is optimally solved in a 2D plane, but in shown to be NP-hard when extended to a 3D space. Based on the coverage model, an area is having a coverage degree of \( k \) (i.e., being k-covered) if every location inside \( A \) is covered by at least \( k \) nodes. Practically speaking, a network with higher degree of coverage can achieve higher sensing accuracy and be more robust against sensing failures.

![Fig. 1. Number of Required Sensors as a function of area](image)

In this paper, we used a close approximation of the k-coverage scheme. The details of our implementation are summarized in Table 1. Fig. 1 shows the number of sensors required to achieve the various k-coverage schemes as a function of both sensors sensing radius and the deployment area. Since random deployment and k>3 scenarios can be roughly approximately by a combination of basic k-coverage cases, we only used three basic k-coverage cases to reveal the fundamental properties of our algorithms.

III. DISTRIBUTED VOTING ALGORITHMS

In this section, we present the algorithm for MV in section 3.1, DWV in section 3.2, and CWV in section 3.3. All three distributed algorithms shares the same characteristics in their simplicity, speed, scalability, and low message overhead.

![Fig. 2. Venn diagram of sensor coverage](image)
A. Majority Voting Algorithm

To realize a distributed Majority Voting (MV) scheme, sensor readings are first gathered from neighboring sensor nodes, and local decisions are achieved based on the majority opinion of the collected data. For instance, the decision for area A in Fig. 2 is reached through majority voting on result gathered from sensor 1, 2, and 3 (Since A is covered by 3 sensors). Similarly, the decision reached in area B came from majority voting on result reported by sensor 1 and 3. Whenever a tie for majority occurs, the final decision is randomly chosen.

Suppose the number of deployed sensors in the investigating area is \( m \) and the possible report value of each sensor is an integer from 1 to \( n \), the Majority Voting scheme can be formulized by the following equations:

\[
MV(x, y) = \max \sum_{i=1}^{n} \delta_{j} \cdot C_{j}(x, y) \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n
\]

\[
\delta_{j} = \begin{cases} 
0; & \text{the report value from sensor } j \text{ is not } i \\
1; & \text{the report value from sensor } j \text{ is } i
\end{cases}
\]

\[
C_{j}(x, y) = \begin{cases} 
0; & \text{point } (x, y) \text{ is not covered by sensor } j \\
1; & \text{point } (x, y) \text{ is covered by sensor } j
\end{cases}
\]

B. Distance Weighted Voting Algorithm

Distance Weighted Voting (DWV) is a weighted variant of MV. DWV is motivated by the assumption that the sensor nearest to the point in question has the most accurate data. Therefore, data closes to the point in question bares more weight in terms of decision making. Suppose \( d_{j}(x, y) \) is the distance from point \((x, y)\) to sensor \( j \), the number of deployed sensors is \( m \), and the possible report value from each sensor is an integer from 1 to \( n \). DWV can be formulized by the following equation:

\[
DWV(x, y) = \max \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{d_{j}(x, y)} \delta_{j} \cdot C_{j}(x, y) \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n
\]

where \( \delta_{j} \) and \( C_{j}(x, y) \) shares the same definition as in MV.

C. Confidence Weighted Voting Algorithm

Like DWV, Confidence Weighted Voting (CWV) is another weighted variant of MV. Yet, instead of granting the nearest sensors higher weights, CWV gives higher weights to those sensors that are more likely to be correct (i.e. with higher confidence of correctness). The confidence value of each sensor can be determined in a distributed manner by comparing its sensing results with its sensing neighbors that share overlapping coverage area. The confidence value of sensor \( i \), \( \text{conf}(i) \) is then defined as:

\[
\text{conf}(i) = \frac{\sum_{j} \delta_{j} \cdot A_{i,j}}{\sum_{j} A_{i,j}}
\]

\[
\delta_{j} = \begin{cases} 
0; & \text{if sensor } i \text{ and } j \text{ report different results} \\
1; & \text{if sensor } i \text{ and } j \text{ report the same result}
\end{cases}
\]

\[
A_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 
0; & \text{if the coverage of sensor } i \text{ and } j \text{ is not overlapped} \\
1; & \text{if the coverage of sensor } i \text{ and } j \text{ is overlapped}
\end{cases}
\]

\[
CWV(x, y) = \max \sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{conf}(j) \cdot \delta_{j} \cdot C_{j}(x, y) \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n
\]

where \( \delta_{j} \) and \( C_{j}(x, y) \) shares the same definition as in MV.

IV. SIMULATION RESULTS

In this section, we evaluated the reliability of the three distributed voting algorithms described in section 3 according to the metrics presented in section 2.2. The robustness of the algorithms is assessed against varying degree of sensor failure rate and \( k \)-cover strategy. We used Monte Carlo simulations in section 4.1 to contrast the reliability of the three schemes, and we used an analytical model to prove the effectiveness of CWV against MV in section 4.2.

A. Reliability of Different Voting Algorithms

Fig. 3 illustrates the reliabilities of different distributed voting algorithms under different degree of coverage and sensor error rate. The reliability of the three schemes clearly decreases as the sensor error rate increases, and reliability increases as the degree of sensor coverage increases. It is obvious that reliability increases with data redundancy. In particularly, when the sensor error rate is at 40%, MV
improved 7% in reliability when degree of coverage increased from 1 to 2, additionally, when the degree of coverage increased from 2 to 3, MV experience another 17% in improvement. For CWV, it gained 33% in improvement in reliability when degree of coverage increased from 1 to 2, it also experience another 10% in improvement when degree of coverage increase from 2 to 3. This indicates that CWV can better utilize the added redundancy and achieved higher reliability. On the other hand, DWV scheme improves very little from the increase in degree of coverage. This is partly due to the fact that DWV rely heavily on the nearest neighbor’s result; therefore it is more likely to be biased when its nearest neighbor’s data is incorrect.

In general, regardless of the degree of coverage and the sensor error rate, CWV can consistently outperform MV, and MV outperforms DWV. In particular, when error rate is at 40%, CWV outperforms MV by 7%, 34%, and 28% when the degree of coverage is 1, 2, and 3 respectively.

From the simulation results, it is clear that higher degree of coverage can achieve better data reliability. However, since high degree of coverage usually requires more sensor nodes and deployment cost. The design tradeoff between reliability and degree of coverage should be considered when deploying such a technique. From a communication overhead perspective, CWV algorithm incurs roughly twice the amount of overhead as would MV; therefore, reliability trade-off with communication overhead should also be considered when a distributed voting algorithm is to be used.

Notice that when majority of the sensors are reporting incorrect values (sensor error rate greater than 0.5), none of the schemes are expected to provide acceptable reliability in those scenarios. Therefore, discussion on those cases is not very meaningful.

B. Analysis

In this section, we present an analytical mode for the Majority Voting scheme, and used the modeling result to discuss the reliability issue associated with different degrees of coverage and sensor error rates. For simplicity, we use a 1-cover placement strategy discussed in section 2.3, and the knowledge that k-cover can be roughly achieved by overlapping k 1-cover placements on the investigating rectangle area.

![Fig. 4. Analysis of 1-coverage placement](image)

The analytical model of 1-cover placement can be derived by dividing the investigating rectangular area into several smaller equilateral triangles with side length equals to r, which is the same r as the a sensor’s sensing radius, this is also illustrated in Fig. 4. Furthermore, in each equilateral triangle, the gray-color area is covered by exactly one sensor, and the white-color area is covered by two sensors. The overall system reliability can then be approximated by modeling the reliability of one equilateral triangle area; this is assuming that the width and length of the investigating area is much greater than sensors’ sensing range.

Suppose that 1-covered area within the equilateral triangle (gray-color area) is $A_1$, the 2-covered area within the equilateral triangle (white-color area) is $A_2$, and let the sensor error rate to be $e$. The system reliability $R_i$ (reliability of 1-covered area) can be modeled as:

$$R_i = 1 - e^{A_1} - e^{A_2}$$

where $A_1 = \left(\frac{\sqrt{3} \cdot \pi}{6}\right)^2$ and $A_2 = \left(\frac{\pi}{6} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}\right)^2$.

In order to model $k=n$, $n$ 1-covered placements are overlapped on the same investigating rectangle area. Error is reported in this model when either 1) the majority of the covered sensors are erroneous, or 2) half of the sensors are faulty and the random decision outputs the incorrect information. Therefore, the overall system reliability can be modeled with two cases:

**Case 1:** when $n$ is odd

$$R_s = 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \left(\frac{n}{2}\right) \left(1-R_s\right)^j \left(R_s\right)^{n-j}$$

**Case 2:** when $n$ is even

$$R_s = 1 - \sum_{j=0}^{n/2} \left(\frac{n}{2}\right) \left(1-R_s\right)^j \left(R_s\right)^{n-j}$$

Based the analytical model above, Fig. 5 depicts, the relation of reliability against different sensor error rates. From the graph, we observed decreasing marginal gain in reliability as degree of sensor coverage increases. This is further evidence that placement strategy and reliability requirement is a design tradeoff that need to be considered before deployment.

![Fig. 5. Reliability of MV with different coverage degrees](image)

Note that the analytical mode in this section is based on the simplified assumption that allows modeling k-cover placement by overlapping k 1-covered placements. If a better placement technique is used (e.g. through combination of 2-cover and 3-cover placement method discussed in section 2.3), it is
In this paper, we present Confidence Weighted Voting (CWV), a simple distributed technique that improves the reliability of many mission critical applications. We examined CWV against the MV and DWV techniques, and contrasted the level of data reliability of each approach in the prevalent presence of flawed sensors. We simulated the basic behaviors of CWV via Monte Carlo simulations, and created an analytical model to prove the effectiveness of CWV over the other two schemes. Our results showed that CWV can consistently outperform the other distributed voting schemes by providing as much as 49% more resiliency to sensor errors.

Fig. 6 illustrates the relationship between of system reliability and different degree of coverage at 0.3 and 0.4 sensor error rate respectively. To achieve a 90% reliability with 0.3 sensor error rate, the degree of coverage must be at least 9 using MV; whereas to provide 80% reliability with 0.4 sensor error rate, the coverage degree must be larger than 17 if MV is used. From this figure, it is obvious that sensor deployment cost can easily reach unacceptable level if MV scheme is used.

However, recalling the simulation results depicted in Fig. 2, CWV can easily achieve 95% reliability with 3-covered placement at 0.4 sensor error rates. It is evident that although redundancy in coverage can improve data reliability for MV scheme, a well-designed voting strategy (e.g. CWV) can achieve even better reliability at a much lower cost. As a result, CWV indeed outperforms MV in terms of effectiveness.

V. CONCLUSION

Wireless sensor networks will play a pivotal role in space and planet explorations. With mission crews and wireless sensor network deployed around a hazardous mission site, it is vital for the sensor network to reliably notify the mission crews at the earliest hint of danger. Furthermore, this notification task must be done in the possible presence of flawed sensors. In this paper, we present Confidence Weighted Voting (CWV), a simple distributed technique that improves the reliability of underlying data by exploiting redundant information. Since CWV uses neighboring data to discern the correctness of local data, it is capable of improving the baseline reliability of many mission critical applications. We examined CWV against the MV and DWV techniques, and contrasted the level of data reliability of each approach in the prevalent presence of flawed sensors. We simulated the basic behaviors of CWV via Monte Carlo simulations, and created an analytical model to prove the effectiveness of CWV over the other two schemes. Our results showed that CWV can consistently outperform the other distributed voting schemes by providing as much as 49% more resiliency to sensor errors.

REFERENCES

Table 1: Details on $k$-Coverage placement strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1-coverage</th>
<th>2-coverage</th>
<th>3-coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coordinate System</td>
<td><img src="image1" alt="Diagram" /></td>
<td><img src="image2" alt="Diagram" /></td>
<td><img src="image3" alt="Diagram" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of rows</td>
<td>(\left\lceil \frac{2l}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil + 1)</td>
<td>(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{3r}{2}}{3r} \right\rceil, \left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{2r}{3}}{3r} \right\rceil, \left\lceil \frac{l - r}{3r} \right\rceil)</td>
<td>(\left\lceil \frac{2l}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil + 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Number of columns| odd: \(\left\lceil \frac{w - r}{3r} \right\rceil\)  
                | even: \(\left\lceil \frac{w - \frac{5r}{2}}{3r} \right\rceil + 1\) | odd: \(\frac{w}{r} + 1\)  
                | even: \(\frac{w}{r} + 2\) |
| Total number of sensors | \(\left\lceil \frac{2l}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil \times \left\lceil \frac{w - r}{3r} \right\rceil\)  
                       | \(\left\lceil \frac{2l}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil \times \left\lceil \frac{w - \frac{5r}{2}}{3r} \right\rceil + 1\) | \(\left\lceil \frac{2l}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil \times \left\lceil \frac{w}{r} + 1\right\rceil\)  
                       | \(\left\lceil \frac{2l}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil \times \left\lceil \frac{w}{r} + 2\right\rceil\) |
| Sensor Coordinate | odd: \((-\frac{r + 3mr, \sqrt{3}r}{2} + \sqrt{3nr}); \ m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{2r}{3}}{3r} \right\rceil - 1; n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{w}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil - 1\)  
|                  | even: \((-\frac{\sqrt{3nr}, 2r + 3mr}{2} + \sqrt{3nr}); \ m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{r}{2}}{3r} \right\rceil - 1; n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{w}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil - 1\)  
|                  | \((-\frac{r + 3mr, \sqrt{3}r}{2} + \sqrt{3nr}); \ m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{2r}{3}}{3r} \right\rceil - 1; n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{w}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil - 1\)  
|                  | even: \((-\frac{\sqrt{3nr}, 2r + 3mr}{2} + \sqrt{3nr}); \ m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{r}{2}}{3r} \right\rceil - 1; n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{w}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil - 1\)  
|                  | \((-\frac{r + 3mr, \sqrt{3}r}{2} + \sqrt{3nr}); \ m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{2r}{3}}{3r} \right\rceil - 1; n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{w}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil - 1\)  
|                  | even: \((-\frac{\sqrt{3nr}, 2r + 3mr}{2} + \sqrt{3nr}); \ m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{r}{2}}{3r} \right\rceil - 1; n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{w}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil - 1\)  
|                  | \((-\frac{r + 3mr, \sqrt{3}r}{2} + \sqrt{3nr}); \ m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{2r}{3}}{3r} \right\rceil - 1; n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{w}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil - 1\)  
|                  | even: \((-\frac{\sqrt{3nr}, 2r + 3mr}{2} + \sqrt{3nr}); \ m = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{l + \frac{r}{2}}{3r} \right\rceil - 1; n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots\) \(\left\lceil \frac{w}{\sqrt{3r}} \right\rceil - 1\)  