Routing

Detection 000000000000



Sensors networks Introduction & detection

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Index

- Introduction 1 Overview
- 2 Structure/Topology Types
- 3 Routing
 - Djikstra
- 4
 - Detection
 - Local tests
 - Global test
 - Example
 - Neyman-Pearson

Index



- Overview
- Structure/TopologyTypes
- 3 Routing
 - Djikstra
- 4 Detection
 - Local tests
 - Global test
 - Example
 - Neyman-Pearson

Detection 000000000000

Sensors networks



- WSN (wireless sensor network): collection of sensor nodes deployed in a certain area of interest to monitor a physical phenomenon.
- Sensor/Node: device with sensing, processing, data storing and communication capabilities.
- Skills: cooperation, adaptability, self-organization, robustness.
- Fusion center: device which integrates the data produced by the sensor nodes.

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Applications

- Military: command, control, communications, surveillance, exploration, detection/tracking of targets
- Health/medicine: monitorization, diagnosis, assistance, e.g.,
 - CodeBlue and Vital Dust, devices that monitor heart beat, oxygen levels, electrocardiogram, and send them to a smartphone
- Civil engineering, e.g.,
 - Smart Buildings
 - Smart Cities.
- Environmental monitoring, e.g.,
 - Princeton's Zebranet Project
 - meteorological sensors network deployed in Big Island, Hawaii.
 - sensors network monitoring infrasonic waves in Tungurahua volcano, Ecuador.
- Agriculture, e.g.,
 - Intel's Wireless Vineyard.

Routing

Detection 000000000000

Index

Introduction Overview

2 Structure/Topology

- Types
- 3 Routing
 - Djikstra

4 Detection

- Local tests
- Global test
- Example
- Neyman-Pearson

Detection 00000000000

Star topology



- Communications: broadcast and multicast.
- Control commands from the FC to the sensors. Data from the sensors to the FC.

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Hierarchical structure



Point-to-point communications between FCs.

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Structure in series



- S_i ≡ i-th sensor, d_i ≡ data/measure from the i-th sensor, L_i ≡ output from local processor in the i-th sensor, G ≡ global output
- Recursive processing: $L_i = \phi(L_{i-1}, d_i)$

Routing

Detection 000000000000

Mesh structure

Multi-hop communication



Point-to-point communications and routing techniques.

Index

Overview

2 Structure/Topology Types



3 Routing

Djikstra



- Local tests
- Global test
- Example
- Neyman-Pearson

Finding the optimal path

- In an <u>ad-hoc</u> network, the path that is going to be used to communicate any couple of nodes must be known beforehand.
- Due to energy constraints, nodes A and B should communicate with each other following the least costly route.
- Problem with combinatorial complexity.
- Djikstra algorithm.

 Detection 000000000000

Djikstra algorithm

 We start with a fully connected graph in which every edge has a certain cost.



• The cost of connecting A and B is given by the sum of the costs of all connections in the path that joins them.

Djikstra algorithm

- Three kinds of nodes: the current node (CN), the inspected nodes, and the non-inspected nodes.
- Initialization:
 - the starting node, A, is set as the current node (CN), and its *accumulated* cost is 0
 - every other node is marked as non-inspected, and the overall cost of reaching it is ∞ (not indicated explicitly, but left blank to avoid clutter)
- Repeat:
 - we compute the distance from the CN to every one of its neighbors that is non-inspected; if for a certain node the computed distance is smaller than the current accumulated distance (overall cost of reaching it), the latter is replaced.
 - we mark the current node as inspected
 - the new CN is that node among the non-inspected ones with the smallest cost.

while B has not been marked as inspected.

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Detection 000000000000

Example



• The goal is to find the smallest-cost route between A (sensor S_1) and B (sensor S_7).

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Example



Initialization

- We designate the starting node S_1 as current node (CN).
- $\bullet\,$ The overall cost of reaching any other node is $\infty.$

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Detection 000000000000

Example



• We compute the distances to its neighbors.

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- We mark S_1 as inspected.
- Among the non-inspected nodes, *S*₄ is the one with smallest cost: it is the next CN.

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- We compute the accumulated distances up to S_2 (3 + 1 = 4), S_6 (3 + 2 = 5) and S_7 (3 + 8 = 11).
- Since the new distance to S_2 is smaller than the one previously obtained (the path $S_1 \rightarrow S_4 \rightarrow S_2$ has a lower cost than $S_1 \rightarrow S_2$), the latter is *overwritten*.

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- Nodes S₂ and S₃ are the ones with the smaller cost among the non-inspected.
- We choose either one of them as the next CN, S_2 for instance.

Detection 000000000000

Example



• We compute the distance up to S₅, which is the only non-inspected neighbor of S₂.

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Example



• We set S_3 as CN and compute the distance accumulated up to S_6 . Since the resulting cost is larger than the one previoulsy obtained, we ignore it.

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Example



• We update the distance up to S₇, which is smaller than the one previously obtained.

Routing

Detection 00000000000



- We set S_5 as CN.
- The distance up to S_7 is no smaller than the previous one.

Routing

Detection 000000000000



- In the following step, node S_7 would be marked as inspected, and the algorithm ends here.
- The path with the smallest cost is $S_1 o S_4 o S_6 o S_7$.

Index

Introduction Overview

- Structure/TopologyTypes
- 3 Routing
 - Djikstra



Detection

- Local tests
- Global test
- Example
- Neyman-Pearson

Routing

Detection •••••••••

Centralized detection network



Basic diagram for a wireless sensors network.

Structure of a network with N sensors (i = 1, ..., N)

- $S_i \equiv i$ -th sensor
- *d_i* ≡ observation in the *i*-th sensor
- $u_i \in \{0, 1\} \equiv$ decision in the *i*-th sensor
- $u_0 \in \{0,1\} \equiv$ decision in the FC.

Local processing

- Sensor S_i , $i \in \{1, ..., N\}$, records observation d_i and must decide between the hypothesis
 - H_0 : the phenomenom of interest is *not* present
 - H1: the phenomenom of interest is indeed present

 $u_i = x \Leftrightarrow S_i$ "believes" H_x is the correct hypothesis

- H_0 is the "null hypothesis", H_1 is the "alternative hypothesis"
- From d_i, statistic t_i(d_i) is computed to make a decision.
 Observation d_i is random, whereas t_i is a deterministic function of d_i.
- The output of the **binary** test is $u_i \in \{0, 1\}$:

$$u_i = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } t_i(d_i) < \beta_i \\ 1, & \text{if } t_i(d_i) > \beta_i \end{cases}$$

where β_i is the threshold of the test. If $t_i(d_i) \in \mathbb{R}$, then the probability of $t_i(d_i) = \beta_i$ is 0.

Routing ୦୦୦୦୦୦୦୦୦୦୦୦୦୦

Local processing: parameters of interest

The parameters of interest for the *i*-th test (in the corresponding sensor) are:

• the probability of false alarm

$$\alpha_i = \mathbb{P}\{u_i = 1 | H_0\} = \mathbb{P}\{t_i(d_i) > \beta_i | H_0\},\$$

• the probability of detection

$$\gamma_i = \mathbb{P}\{u_i = 1 | H_1\} = \mathbb{P}\{t_i(d_i) > \beta_i | H_1\},\$$

• the probability of missing

$$\varepsilon_i = \mathbb{P}\{u_i = 0 | H_1\} = \mathbb{P}\{t_i(d_i) < \beta_i | H_1\}.$$

Data fusion I

• Sensors transmit their local decisions to the fusion center (FC) in the network. In the FC, the "observation" is the vector

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_N \end{bmatrix} \in \{0,1\}^N.$$

Detection

- The FC processes vector \mathbf{u} to obtain a global output $u_0 \in \{0, 1\}$.
- Let P{H_k|u} be the probability of hypothesis H_k (k ∈ {0,1}) being true given the decision vector u. The optimal Bayesian test is:

$$\mathbb{P}\{H_0|\mathbf{u}\} \underset{u_0=1}{\overset{u_0=0}{\gtrless}} \mathbb{P}\{H_1|\mathbf{u}\}$$

or, equivalently,

$$u_0 = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \mathbb{P}\{H_0|\mathbf{u}\}/\mathbb{P}\{H_1|\mathbf{u}\} > 1\\ 1 & \text{if } \mathbb{P}\{H_0|\mathbf{u}\}/\mathbb{P}\{H_1|\mathbf{u}\} < 1 \end{cases}$$

Detection

Data fusion II

 Using Bayes theorem, we can write the posterior probability of hypothesis H_k as

$$\mathbb{P}\{H_k|\mathbf{u}\} = \frac{\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_k\}\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{H}_k\}}{\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}\}},$$

where $\mathbb{P}{H_k}$ is the posterior probability of hypothesis H_k .

• If we define the threshold β_0 as the ratio of prior probabilities

 $\beta_0 = \mathbb{P}\{H_0\}/\mathbb{P}\{H_1\},$

and statistic $T(\mathbf{u})$ as the ratio of likelihoods

 $T(\mathbf{u}) = \mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_1\}/\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_0\}$

then we can rewrite the optimal Bayesian test as

$$u_0 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } T(\mathbf{u}) > \beta_0 \\ 0 & \text{if } T(\mathbf{u}) < \beta_0 \end{cases}$$

Detection

Data fusion III

In summary, in order to make the global decision we need

- a global threshold, β_0 , which depends on:
 - the (prior) probability of H_0 , $\mathbb{P}{H_0}$
 - the (prior) probability of H_1 , $\mathbb{P}{H_1}$

(notice they are complementary, i.e., $\mathbb{P}{H_0} + \mathbb{P}{H_1} = 1$)

- the statistic $T(\mathbf{u})$, which depends on
 - the likelihood of H_0 , $\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_0\}$
 - the likelihood of H_1 , $\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_1\}$

If the local decisions are (conditionally) independent, then the statistic $T(\mathbf{u})$ can be written in terms of the parameters of the local tests

$$T(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_1\}}{\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_0\}} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}\{u_i|H_1\}}{\prod_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}\{u_i|H_0\}}$$

Routing

Data fusion: parameters of interest

- The parameters of the test are
 - $\alpha_0 = \mathbb{P}\{u_0 = 1 | H_0\} \equiv \text{ probability of false alarm}$
 - $\gamma_0 = \mathbb{P}\{u_0 = 1 | H_1\} \equiv \text{ probability of detection}$
 - $\varepsilon_0 = \mathbb{P}\{u_0 = 0 | H_1\} \equiv \text{ probability of missing }$

Routing

Detection





- All the sensors are identical and hence have the same probability of false alarm, $\alpha_i = \alpha = 10^{-3}$.
- Sensors at different distances from the target, and hence $\gamma_1 = 0.9$, $\gamma_2 = 0.7$, $\gamma_3 = 0.5$ and $\gamma_4 = 0.3$.
- Let us assume $\mathbb{P}{H_1} = 10^{-3}$.

Detection

Example I

• Threshold is given by

$$eta_0 = \mathbb{P}\{H_0\}/\mathbb{P}\{H_1\} = 0.999/0.001 pprox 10^3.$$

• Assuming $\mathbf{u} = [1, 0, 0, 1]^T$, let us determine the global decision u_0 ,

$$T(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_1\}}{\mathbb{P}\{\mathbf{u}|H_0\}} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^4 \mathbb{P}\{u_i|H_1\}}{\prod_{i=1}^4 \mathbb{P}\{u_i|H_0\}}$$
$$= \frac{\mathbb{P}\{u_1|H_1\}\mathbb{P}\{u_2|H_1\}\mathbb{P}\{u_3|H_1\}\mathbb{P}\{u_4|H_1\}}{\mathbb{P}\{u_1|H_0\}\mathbb{P}\{u_2|H_0\}\mathbb{P}\{u_3|H_0\}\mathbb{P}\{u_4|H_0\}}$$
$$= \frac{\gamma_1}{\alpha_1} \frac{\epsilon_2}{(1-\alpha_2)} \frac{\epsilon_3}{(1-\alpha_3)} \frac{\gamma_4}{\alpha_4}$$
$$= \frac{0.9}{10^{-3}} \frac{(1-0.7)}{0.999} \frac{(1-0.5)}{0.999} \frac{0.3}{10^{-3}}$$
$$= 4.05 \times 10^4 > \beta_0 \Rightarrow u_0 = 1.$$

Routing

Detection

Example II

• Assuming $\mathbf{u} = [0, 1, 0, 0]^{\top}$, let us determine the global decision u_0 ,

$$T(\mathbf{u}) = \frac{\epsilon_1}{(1-\alpha_1)} \frac{\gamma_2}{\alpha_2} \frac{\epsilon_3}{(1-\alpha_3)} \frac{\epsilon_4}{(1-\alpha_4)}$$
$$= \frac{0.1}{0.999} \frac{(0.7)}{10^{-3}} \frac{(1-0.5)}{0.999} \frac{(1-0.3)}{0.999}$$
$$= 24.57 < \beta_0 \to u_0 = 0.$$

Neyman-Pearson lemma

Lemma: Neyman-Pearson

Let us consider the problem of choosing between two hypothesis H_0 and H_1 using a collection of data D. The test evaluating the ratio of likelihoods

 $T(D) = \frac{\mathbb{P}\{D|H_1\}}{\mathbb{P}\{D|H_0\}},$

with constant probability of false alarm α (associated with a decision threshold β), maximizes the probability of detection γ .

- The optimal Bayesian test belongs to the Neyman-Pearson class, and hence it maximizes the probability of detection γ .
- For a fixed probability of false alarm α_i = α ∀i, the probability of global detection γ is maximized using optimal local test in every sensor.