

On Connected Multiple Point Coverage in Wireless Sensor Networks

Shuhui Yang,^{1,3} Fei Dai,² Mihaela Cardei,¹ Jie Wu,¹ and Floyd Patterson²

We consider a wireless sensor network consisting of a set of sensors deployed randomly. A point in the monitored area is covered if it is within the sensing range of a sensor. In some applications, when the network is sufficiently dense, area coverage can be approximated by guaranteeing point coverage. In this case, all the points of wireless devices could be used to represent the whole area, and the working sensors are supposed to cover all the sensors. Many applications related to security and reliability require guaranteed k -coverage of the area at all times. In this paper, we formalize the k -(Connected) Coverage Set (k -CCS/ k -CS) problems, develop a linear programming algorithm, and design two non-global solutions for them. Some theoretical analysis is also provided followed by simulation results.

KEY WORDS: Coverage problem; linear programming; localized algorithms; reliability; wireless sensor networks

1. INTRODUCTION

In wireless sensor networks (WSNs), one design challenge is to save limited energy resources to prolong the lifetime of the network. A duty cycle is therefore introduced to allow each sensor to switch between active and sleep modes to save energy. On the other hand, a certain amount of active nodes should be present to ensure a desired level of coverage at all times. The way to select active nodes is called *coverage* and the method to rotate the role of each sensor to meet certain objectives is called *scheduling*, where nodes alternate between active and sleeping modes.

In a WSN, a sensor covers a target if the target is in the sensing range of the sensor. There exist three coverage models depending on how targets are defined:

1. Targets form a contiguous region and the objective is to select a subset of sensors to cover the region [1]. Typical solutions involve geometry properties based on the positions of sensor nodes.
2. Targets form a contiguous region and the objective is to select a subset of sensors to cover the rest of sensors [2]. This model assumes the network is sufficiently dense so that point coverage can approximate area coverage. Typical solutions involve constructing dominating sets or connected dominating sets [3] based on traditional graph theory.
3. Targets are discrete points and the objective is to select a subset of sensors to cover all of the targets. Typical solutions [4] use the traditional set coverage or bipartite graph models.

The desired level of coverage can be defined as a multiple coverage for the purpose of reliability in case of failure or for other applications related to security (e.g., localized intrusion detection) or localization (e.g., triangulation-based positioning).

In this paper, we deal with the problem based on the second coverage model. We first formalize the (1-connection) k coverage set problems, or simply

¹ Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton, FL 33431, USA.

² Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering, North Dakota State University, Fargo, ND 58105, USA.

³ Tel: +1-561-2972804; Fax: +1-561-2972800; E-mail: syang1@fau.edu

k -(Connected) Coverage Set (k -CCS/ k -CS) problems, in terms of linear programming (LP), and an approximation algorithm based on integer programming is developed for the k -CS problem. We then propose two non-global k -coverage solutions. One is quasi-local cluster-based with a deterministic bound, the other is localized with a proven probabilistic bound. Two versions of each solution will be considered, one with connectivity for k -CCS and the other without connectivity for k -CS. Using a custom simulator, we compare the effectiveness of the proposed approaches with other local solutions to the same problem. Our contributions in this paper are the following:

1. Define and formalize the k -(Connected) Coverage Set problems (k -CCS/ k -CS).
2. Develop a global algorithm for the k -CS problem using LP.
3. Design two non-global solutions for k -CCS/ k -CS.
4. Conduct performance analysis, through analytical and simulation studies on all the proposed solutions.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews the related work in the field. Section 3 gives the problem definition of the k -CCS/ k -CS problems. Section 4 presents the LP algorithm for k -CS. Section 5 proposes the quasi-local solution and the local solution for the problems. The theoretical bounds of them are also given in this section. The performance study through simulation is conducted in Section 6. The paper concludes in Section 7.

2. RELATED WORK

Several local solutions exist to maintain 1-coverage in a wireless sensor network. Most of them rely on location information. A pruning method was proposed in [1], where a sensor can switch to sleep mode, if its sensing area is covered by the sensing areas of its neighbors. As the calculation of sensing area coverage becomes tedious, some simplifications have been used. One method is to use a grid system [5], where the sensing area is represented by the grid points within this area, and area coverage is approximated by point coverage. In another method [6], the deployment area is divided into small squares. After one sensor is elected to be active in each square, other nodes can switch to sleep mode. The following

probing-based solution [7] does not rely on location information. Basically, each sensor tries to detect activities of its neighbors. It switches to sleep mode if some active neighbors are detected; otherwise, it switches to active mode.

For k -coverage, a global method was proposed in [8] to construct k separate sets, each set achieving 1-coverage. Together, these sets provide k -coverage. A local solution was provided in [9] to solve the same problem.

When the objective is to cover individual targets, dominating set algorithms [4, 10] that achieve point coverage should be considered. The problems of double point coverage and k -point coverage in general have been studied in [11]. In [12], three heuristic algorithms are provided to achieve double point coverage. Localized 2-coverage algorithms were discussed in [13]. Dai and Wu [14] has proposed several local algorithms to construct a k -connected k -dominating set. In this paper, we propose to maintain 1-connectivity rather than k -connectivity, to reduce the size of the k -coverage set. Geometric disk cover [15, 16] is another related concept, where minimum number of disks, centered at a super node, are placed to cover all the points. The difference between disk cover and dominating set problems is that the locations of disks are not restricted to those of the points, and the radius of disks can be arbitrary.

To operate successfully, a sensor network must also provide satisfactory connectivity so that nodes can communicate for data fusion and reporting to base stations. A straightforward solution is to use a communication range (R) that is at least twice the sensing range (r), such that area coverage implies connectivity of active sensors [17]. This conclusion was generalized in [18]: When $R \geq 2r$, a sensor network that achieves k -coverage is k -connected. More analysis can be found in [19].

Jiang et al. [20] considered a local solution for k -coverage and extended point coverage to area coverage using a notion of *biggest vacant square territory* (BVST). We will discuss this scheme under the zero BVST, since the area coverage is not an issue here. The basic idea is to apply a local solution to put as many sensors to sleep as possible while ensuring a full 1-coverage assuming the sensor range r is the same as the transmission range R . Then, r is enlarged to ensure k -coverage. Specifically, to ensure k -coverage, r should be set to be at least $[\sqrt{2} + 1 + (\sqrt{2}/2 + 2)i]R$, where integer i is a minimum value satisfying $\sum_{j=1}^{j=i} 4j \geq k - 1$.

3. PROBLEM DEFINITIONS

We consider a WSN consisting of n homogeneous wireless devices (sensors) s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n . To reduce energy consumption while increasing security and reliability, we want to select a minimum subset of sensors with the property that each sensor is monitored by at least k sensors in the selected subset.

We model the network as an undirected graph $G=(V, E)$, with the set of vertices (or nodes) being the set of sensors. An edge exists between two nodes if the two corresponding sensors are each within the other's communication range. We assume that the network is sufficiently dense, such that the network is connected, and each node has at least k neighbors for a given constant k . Let us now introduce the problem definitions.

k-Coverage Set (k-CS) Problem: Given a constant $k > 0$ and an undirected graph $G=(V, E)$ find a subset of nodes $C \subseteq V$ such that (1) each node in V is dominated (covered) by at least k different nodes in C , and (2) the number of nodes in C is minimized.

k-Connected Coverage Set (k-CCS) Problem: Given a constant $k > 0$ and an undirected graph $G=(V, E)$ find a subset of nodes $C \subseteq V$ such that (1) each node in V is dominated (covered) by at least k different nodes in C , (2) the number of nodes in C is minimized, and (3) the nodes in C are connected.

k -CS and k -CCS are extensions of the Dominating Set (DS) and Connected Dominated Set (CDS) problems [3]. A set is dominating if every node in the network is either in the set or a neighbor of a node in the set. When a DS is connected, it is denoted as a CDS; that is, any two nodes in the DS can be connected through intermediate nodes from the DS. CDS as a connected virtual backbone has been widely used for broadcast process [21], searching in a reduced space, and point coverage in WSNs [2]. When $k=1$, k -CS (k -CCS) problem reduces to the DS (CDS) problem. Therefore, for $k=1$, both k -CS and k -CCS are NP-complete [22].

4. A GLOBAL SOLUTION FOR THE k -CS PROBLEM

In this section, we first formulate the k -CS problem using Integer Programming (IP) and then present the LP-based approximation algorithm.

Given:

- n nodes s_1, \dots, s_n
- a_{ij} , the coefficients showing the coverage relationship between nodes. These coefficients are defined as follows:

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if node } s_i \text{ is covered by node } s_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Variables: x_j , boolean variable, for $j=1, \dots, n$:

$$x_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if node } s_j \text{ is selected in the subset } C \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Integer Programming:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Minimize} && x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n \\ &\text{subject to} && \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \geq k && \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n \\ &&& x_j \in \{0, 1\} && \text{for } j = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The constraint $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \geq k$, for all $i=1, \dots, n$, guarantees that each node in V is covered by at least k nodes in C . Let us note with Δ the maximum node degree in G . We extend the results presented in [22, 23], to our problem and design a ρ -approximation algorithm, where $\rho = \Delta + 1$. Since IP is NP-hard, we first *relax* the IP to LP, solve the LP in linear time, and then *round* the solution in order to get a feasible solution for the IP.

Relaxed LP:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Minimize} && x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n \\ &\text{subject to} && \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j \geq k && \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n \\ &&& 0 \leq x_j \leq 1 && \text{for } j = 1, \dots, n \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Next, we present our ρ -approximation algorithm, where $\rho = \Delta + 1$. Based on the optimal solution x^* of the relaxed LP, we compute a solution \bar{x} for the IP. When the algorithm terminates, the set C contains the k -coverage set.

Algorithm 1 LP-based Algorithm (LPA)

1. $C = \phi$
2. Let x^* be an optimal solution of the Relaxed LP
3. For each $j=1, \dots, n$ do:
 - a. If $x_j^* \geq 1/\rho$, then $\bar{x}_j = 1$ and $C = C \cup \{s_j\}$
 - b. If $x_j^* < 1/\rho$, then $\bar{x}_j = 0$
4. Return C

The complexity of this algorithm is dominated by the LP solver. The best performance is $O(n^3)$ using Ye's algorithm [24], where n is the number of variables.

Theorem 1 The LP-based algorithm is an ρ -approximation algorithm for the k -CS problems, where $\rho = \Delta + 1$ and Δ is the maximum node degree in G

Proof We first note that $\rho = \Delta + 1 = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}$. Next, we show that our algorithm is an ρ -approximation of the optimal solution. Based on the way we set \bar{x} , it is clear that $\bar{x}_j \leq \rho \cdot x_j^*$, for any $j = 1, \dots, n$. Therefore, $\sum_{j=1}^n \bar{x}_j \leq \rho \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^*$.

Next, we claim that by rounding the fractional values of the variables x_j^* , we obtain \bar{x} , a feasible solution for the initial IP. For this we need to show that $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \bar{x}_j \geq k$ for any $i = 1, \dots, n$. This guarantees that the subset C output by our algorithm k -covers all the nodes.

Let us divide \bar{x} into two subsets, $I_1 = \{j | x_j^* < \frac{1}{\rho}\}$ and $I_2 = \{j | x_j^* \geq \frac{1}{\rho}\}$. Then for any $i = 1, \dots, n$ we have $\sum_{j \in I_1} a_{ij} x_j^* < \frac{1}{\rho} \sum_{j \in I_1} a_{ij} \leq 1$; therefore, $\sum_{j \in I_1} a_{ij} x_j^* < 1$. Also, $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \bar{x}_j \geq \sum_{j \in I_2} a_{ij} x_j^* \geq k - \sum_{j \in I_1} a_{ij} x_j^* > k - 1$. Since both $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \bar{x}_j$ and k are integers, it follows that $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} \bar{x}_j \geq k$. \square

5. NON-GLOBAL SOLUTIONS FOR THE k -CCS/ k -CS PROBLEMS

This section starts with a cluster-based solution which is quasi-local, followed by a local solution for the k -CCS/ k -CS problems. Some examples and bounds of the solutions are shown.

5.1. A Cluster-based Solution

In [25], the cluster-based CDS protocol is classified as a quasi-local solution, since it is based on mainly local state information and occasional partial global state information. In this subsection, we propose a scheme for the k -CCS/ k -CS problems, which is based on the traditional clustering algorithm:

- Sequentially apply a traditional clustering algorithm k times, whereby the clusterheads

selected each time are marked and removed immediately from the network.

- Find gateways to connect the first set of the clusterheads and also mark them.
- For each marked node (clusterhead or gateway), if it does not have k marked neighbors, it designates some unmarked neighbors to be marked.

The clustering algorithm divides the network into several clusters, and each has a clusterhead and several neighbors of this clusterhead as members. Any two clusterheads are not neighbors, and the clusterhead set is a maximum independent set (MIS) of the network in addition to a DS. The marked k sets of clusterheads together with one set of gateways form the k -CCS. For coverage without connectivity, the second step, gateway selection, can be removed. Note that gateway selection can be tree-based, whereby gateways are selected globally to make the CDS a tree, or mesh-based, whereby each clusterhead is connected to all of its neighboring clusterheads, and thus the CDS is a mesh structure. The implementation follows. Initially, all the nodes are unmarked. When the algorithm terminates, all the marked nodes (clusterheads or gateways) form the k -CCS/ k -CS.

Algorithm 2 Cluster-based k -CCS/ k -CS Algorithm (CKA)

1. Using a clustering algorithm to select clusterheads, set C_1 , and the selected clusterheads are marked and removed from the network.
2. Repeat step 1 k times, mark and remove C_i , $i = 2, \dots, k$.
3. Use a gateway selection approach to select gateways, set D , to connect clusterheads in the first set, C_1 , and mark nodes in D . (This step is removed for a solution without connectivity.)
4. For each node in $C_1 \cup C_2 \cup \dots \cup C_k \cup D$ (clusterhead or gateway), if the number of its marked neighbors, t , is smaller than k , it designates $k-t$ unmarked neighbors to be marked.

Theorem 2 All the clusterheads (and gateways) marked in CKA form a k -CS (k -CCS) of the networks.

Proof Let us assume that the network is $G=(V, E)$, and the clusterheads selected in round i are sets C_i , $i=1, \dots, k$. We first prove that all the unmarked nodes can be covered k times. If a node u is not marked, it must be the neighbor of a node in C_i in round i . Therefore, there are k nodes from each of the sets C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k , that are neighbors of u , and u is covered k times by the set $C = \sum C_i, i = 1, \dots, k$.

Then we prove the connectivity. Let us assume D is the gateway set of clusterhead set C_1 . For any two nodes $u, v, (u, v \in C)$, we now prove there is a path which contains only nodes in C to connect them. When $u, v \in C_1$, they are connected since $C_1 \cup D$ is a CDS. When u is not in C_1 , u must have a neighbor $u', u' \in C_i$. This is because C_1 is a DS of G . The same is with v . Therefore, u and v are connected through C_1 .

Finally, we prove that all the marked nodes themselves can also be covered k times by other marked nodes. This is obvious, because step 4 of CKA guarantees it. \square

A traditional clustering algorithm [26] takes $O(n)$ rounds in the worst case, in a network with n nodes. A randomized clustering algorithm [27] has been proposed to achieve 1-coverage in $O(\log^3 n)$ time with high probability. This algorithm can be easily extended to achieve k -coverage in $O(k \log^3 n)$ time with high probability.

5.2. A Local Solution

In this subsection, a local solution, PKA, for k -CCS/ k -CS is developed that is based on only local neighborhood information. A node u is “ k -covered” by a subset of C of its neighbors if and only if three conditions hold:

- The subset C is connected by nodes with higher priorities than u .
- Any neighbor of u is a neighbor of at least k nodes from C .
- Each node in C has a higher priority than u .

For coverage without connectivity, the first constraint can be removed. The following algorithm provides an implementation where each node determines its status (marked or unmarked) based on its 2-hop neighborhood information. Initially, it is assumed that all nodes are marked. After the algorithm terminates, all the marked nodes form the k -CCS/ k -CS.

Algorithm 3 Pruning-based k -CCS/ k -CS Algorithm (PKA)

1. Each node u is given a unique priority, $L(u)$, and each node u is represented by tuple $(L(u), ID(u))$, $ID(u)$ is node ID of u .
2. Each node broadcasts its neighbor set $N(u)$, where $N(u) = \{v | v \text{ is a neighbor of } u\}$.
3. At node u , build a subset: $C(u) = \{v | v \in N(u), L(v) > L(u)\}$. Node u is unmarked if:
 - a. subset $C(u)$ is connected by nodes with higher priorities than u (this constraint is removed for a solution without connectivity), and
 - b. for any node $w \in N(u)$, there are k distinct nodes in $C(u)$, say v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k , such that $w \in N(v_i)$.

Theorem 3 The marked nodes from PKA form a k -CCS/ k -CS of the network.

Proof Let us assume a node u is unmarked. Then according to PKA, there exists a set C , $C = \{s | s \in N(u), L(s) > L(u)\}$, and every node v in $N(u)$ has at least k neighbors in C . $N(u)$ is the neighbor set of node u and $L(u)$ is the unique priority of it. That is to say, u is not in the highest k rank (based on priority) nodes of v ; thus u is safe to be unmarked. Therefore, for each node v in G , its k highest rank neighbors do not have a chance to unmark. Every node in the network is covered k times by the marked nodes.

As to the connectivity, when condition 3 holds, the node set marked by PKA is a superset of the node set marked by pruning Rule K algorithm [10] on the network, which takes k as 1. Thus the connectivity is guaranteed. \square

5.3. Examples

Figure 1 is the small scale example. There are 15 nodes in the network. The transmission range is 4 and k is 2. The minimum node degree in the network is not less than 2. The nodes marked with diamonds form the resultant k -CS or k -CCS in the figures. In (a), there are 9 nodes in the resultant

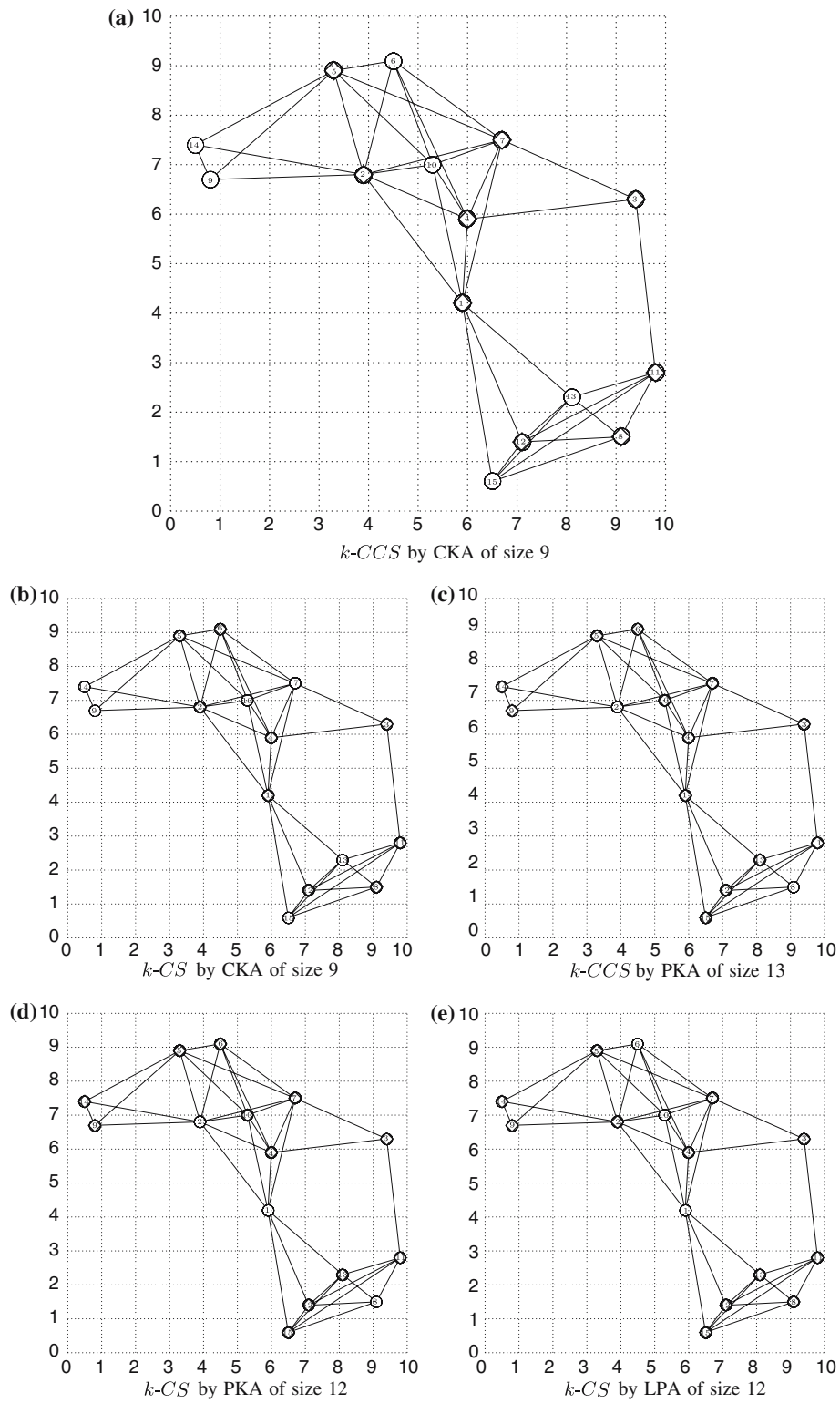


Fig. 1. A small scale example ($n = 15, k = 2, r = 40$).

k -CCS using CKA. We can see that all the marked nodes are connected, and every node in the network is covered at least twice by the marked nodes. (b) shows the k -CS of size 9 after the CKA (without connectivity). Although the size is the same as that of the k -CCS in (a), the marked nodes are different. Generally speaking, the size of resultant k -CS by CKA is smaller than that of k -CCS, but this is not necessary. This is because, according to CKA, the gateway selection and the k times of clusterhead selection are independent, and when the last step checks all the marked nodes, additional marked gateways may help to prevent adding more nodes in the set. (c) is the resultant k -CCS with the size of 13 by the PKA. (d) shows the k -CS by the PKA (without connectivity). There are 12 nodes in the set. Compared with (c), node 1 is not marked. This is because, neighbors of 1 form two connected components. One is nodes 4, 7, and 10, and the other is nodes 12, 13, and 15. Neither of these two components can satisfy the three constraints for k -CCS. But if they combine together, they are qualified. Therefore, node 1 unmarks itself in k -CS constructing. (e) is k -CS by LPA, and there are 12 nodes in it.

5.4. Theoretical Bounds

Let CKA_k be the backbone constructed by the cluster-based algorithm CKA. Similarly, let PKA_k denote the backbone constructed by the pruning algorithm PKA that achieves k -coverage, and OPT_k be the minimal node set that achieves k -coverage. We prove that the size of CKA_k is $O(k^2)$ times the size of OPT_k in the worst case, and the average size of PKA_k is $O(1)$ times the size of OPT_k in random WSNs.

Theorem 4 In a unit disk graph, $|CKA_k| = O(k^2) \cdot |OPT_k|$ for all $k \geq 1$.

Proof From the cluster-based algorithm, $CKA_k = C_1 \cup C_2 \cup \dots \cup C_k \cup D \cup C'_k$, where C_i ($1 \leq i \leq k$) is the set of clusterheads selected in round i , D is the set of gateways to connect C_1 , and C'_k is the set of nodes added in the last step to ensure k -coverage of marked nodes. It has been proved in [28] that

$$|C_i| = O(1) \cdot |OPT_1|$$

for $1 \leq i \leq k$ and

$$|D| = O(1) \cdot |OPT_1|$$

Therefore, the number of marked nodes before the last step is

$$|C_1| + |C_2| + \dots + |C_k| + |D| = O(k) \cdot |OPT_1|$$

Note that in the last step, at most k neighbors of each marked node are added in C'_k . That is,

$$|C'_k| \leq k(|C_1| + |C_2| + \dots + |C_k| + |D|)$$

Combine the above equations, we have $|CKP_k| \leq (k + 1)(|C_1| + |C_2| + \dots + |C_k| + |D|) = (k + 1)O(k) \cdot |OPT_1| = O(k^2) \cdot |OPT_1|$. When $k \geq 1$, $|OPT_1| \leq |OPT_k|$, and $|CLS_k| = O(k^2) \cdot |OPT_k|$. \square

Theorem 5 In random unit disk graphs, $E(|PKA_k|) = O(1) \cdot |OPT_k|$ for all $k \geq 1$.

Proof Consider a square region A with side $d = r/2\sqrt{2}$ (diagonal line $r/2$). As shown in Fig. 2, if A is not empty, neighbors of nodes in A are within a $7 \times 7 - 4 = 45$ square region surrounding A . These square regions can be k -covered by putting k nodes in each of the 12 gray regions. Note that these $12k$ nodes are all neighbors of an arbitrary node in A . In addition, these nodes are connected via themselves. Suppose these nodes do exist, and among them node v has the lowest priority, then all nodes in A with a lower priority than v can be unmarked.

Let V_A be the set of nodes within these 45 squares. We sort V_A in the descending order of node priority,

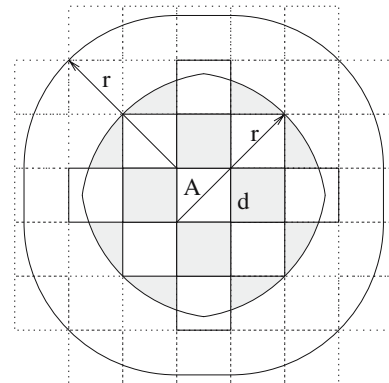


Fig. 2. For any node in region A , placing k nodes in each gray region is sufficient to k -cover all neighbors of nodes in A .

and denote them by their *ranks* $1, 2, \dots, |V_A|$ in the sorted list. The node with the highest priority has the lowest rank 1. Let $V_i \subseteq V_A$ be the set of k nodes with minimum ranks in the i th gray region ($1 \leq i \leq 12$), R_i be the maximal rank of nodes in V_i , and $R = \max(R_i)$ be the maximal rank of these $12k$ nodes that k -covers all neighbors of A . Note that all marked nodes in A have a rank less than R ; that is, $|PKA_A| < R$, where PKA_A is the set of marked nodes in A .

Consider each R_i as a random variable, where $R_i = n$ means among nodes with ranks $1, 2, \dots, n-1, k-1$ of them are in the i th gray region; in addition, the node with rank n is also in the i th gray region. The corresponding probability is

$$\Pr(R_i = n) = \binom{n-1}{k-1} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \quad (3)$$

where p_i is the probability that a node in V_A is in the i th gray region. From (3), R_i has a negative binomial (Pascal) distribution [29], which expected value is k/p_i . When nodes are randomly and uniformly distributed, p_i is a constant and $E[R_i] = O(k)$. Therefore,

$$E[|PKA_A|] < E[R] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{12} E[R_i] = \sum_{i=1}^{12} O(k) = O(k)$$

Since each non-empty region A_i is covered by at least k nodes from OPT_k , and each nodes in OPT_k can cover at most $O(1)$ such regions, the total number of non-empty regions in the network is

$$N = O(1/k) \cdot |OPT_k|$$

and $E[|PKA_k|] \leq \sum_{i=1}^N E[|PKA_{A_i}|] = N \cdot O(k) = O(1) \cdot |OPT_k|$. \square

6. SIMULATION

This section presents results from our simulation. The linear programming approach (LPA) for k -CS, the k -coverage approach by Jiang et al. (Jiang's) for k -CCS, the cluster-based algorithm with and without connectivity (CKA), and the pruning algorithm with and without connectivity (PKA) for k -CCS and k -CS are all evaluated and compared in the simulation. A mesh-based gateway selection algorithm is used in the CKA.

LP is implemented using Matlab. All other approaches are implemented on a custom simulator. To generate a random network, n nodes are randomly placed in a restricted 100×100 area. We assume all nodes have the same transmission range.

The tunable parameters in our simulation are as follows: (1) The node number n . We change the number of deployed nodes from 100 to 1000 to check the scalability of the algorithms. (2) The transmission range r . We use 20 and 40 as transmission ranges to produce the effect of link density on the algorithms. (3) The average node degree d . We use 30 and 60 as the average node degree in the network. When node number is 100, the adjusted transmission range is 40 with $d = 30$, and 60 with $d = 60$. (4) The coverage parameter k . We use 2, 3, and 4 as its values. The performance metric is the number of nodes in the resultant k -CCS/ k -CS. For each tunable parameter, the simulation is repeated 1000 times or until the confidence interval is sufficiently small ($\pm 1\%$, for the confidence level of 90%).

Table I compares the sizes of resultant k -CCS by Jiang's, CKA and PKA. Since in Jiang's algorithm [20], the biggest vacant square territory (BVST) is assumed to be small enough, the network is quite dense. We use 1000 as the number of nodes and 40 as the sensing range in Jiang's. Thus the adjusted transmission range, r' , is 7. We can see that CKA and PKA have better performance than Jiang's. This is because Jiang's is designed for the worst case bound, while CKA and PKA are based on average cases, and Jiang's does not generate a k -CCS set corresponding to every single value of k ; Jiang's has smaller transmission range than CKA or PKA.

Figure 3 shows the comparison of the proposed LPA, CKA, PKA algorithms. (a) shows the resultant k -CCSs by CKA and PKA when transmission range is 20. (b) is when transmission range is 40. CKA has better performance than PKA because CKA is quasi-local while PKA is local algorithm. More information leads to a more precise process. (c) shows the k -CSs by CKA, PKA and LPA when range is 20. Both CKA and PKA have better performance than LPA, especially when the node number is large. (d) is when range is 40. LPA has worse performance than CKA and PKA, especially when the network is dense. A dense network has a negative impact on the perfor-

Table I. Comparison of Jiang's, CKA, and PKA ($r = 40, n = 1000, r' = 7$)

k :	2	3	4
Jiang's	325.50	325.50	325.50
CKA	22.20	27.45	33.75
PKA	23.35	32.10	40.55

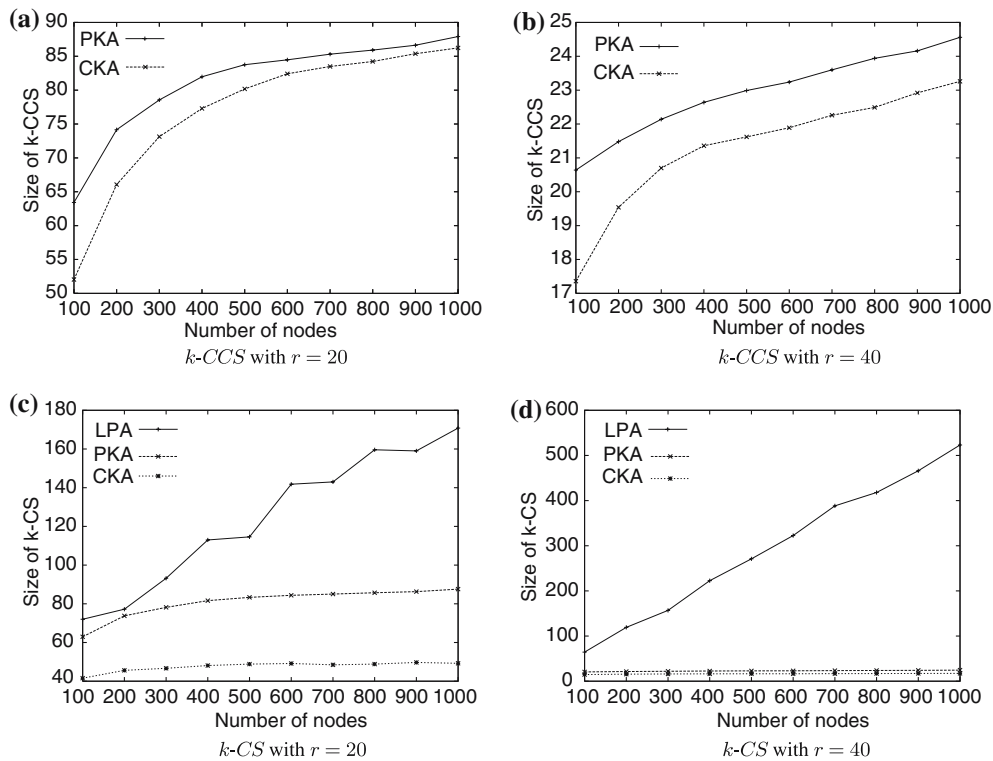


Fig. 3. Comparison of k -CCS and k -CS by different algorithms ($k=2$).

mance of LPA. This is because a dense network increases the maximum node degree, and thus the LPA's performance ratio. Additionally, a large maximum node degree decreases the k -set cover selection threshold ($1/\rho$), and therefore more nodes are added to the set C . As the theoretical results indicate, LPA performs better for sparse topologies.

Figure 4 shows the comparison of k -CS and k -CCS by different algorithms using different transmission ranges, 20 in (a) and 40 in (b), and node degree, 30 in (c) and 60 in (d). We can see that k -CS by CKA has the smallest size, and next is the k -CCS by CKA. k -CS by PKA has almost the same size as k -CCS by PKA. The size of k -CCS/ k -CS increases with the growth of the number of nodes when the average node degree is fixed. Figure 5 shows the size of k -CCS in (a), and k -CS in (b) as parameter k varies with $r = 20$. (c) and (d) are when the transmission range is 40. We can see that with larger k , the size of k -CCS or k -CS from CKA or PKA is larger. But when the number of node is great, this increase is less significant.

The simulation results can be summarized as follows: (1) CKA has better performance than PKA, especially in generating k -CS. (2) CKA and PKA have

better performance than LPA, especially when network is relatively dense. (3) Greater k leads to larger sized k -CCS/ k -CS. (4) CKA and PKA have better scalability than LPA, especially when the network is relatively dense. (5) LPA performs better in sparse topologies; a dense topology, with a large maximum node degree, negatively affects both LPA's performance ratio and the k -cover set selection threshold.

7. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we have addressed the k -(Connected) Coverage Set (k -CCS/ k -CS) problems in WSNs with the objective of minimizing the total energy consumption while obtaining k coverage for reliability. We have proposed one global solution for k -CS and two non-global algorithms. The first one uses a cluster-based approach to select backbone nodes to form the set. The second uses the pruning algorithm based on only 2-hop neighborhood information. We have also analyzed the performance of our algorithms through theoretical analysis and simulations.

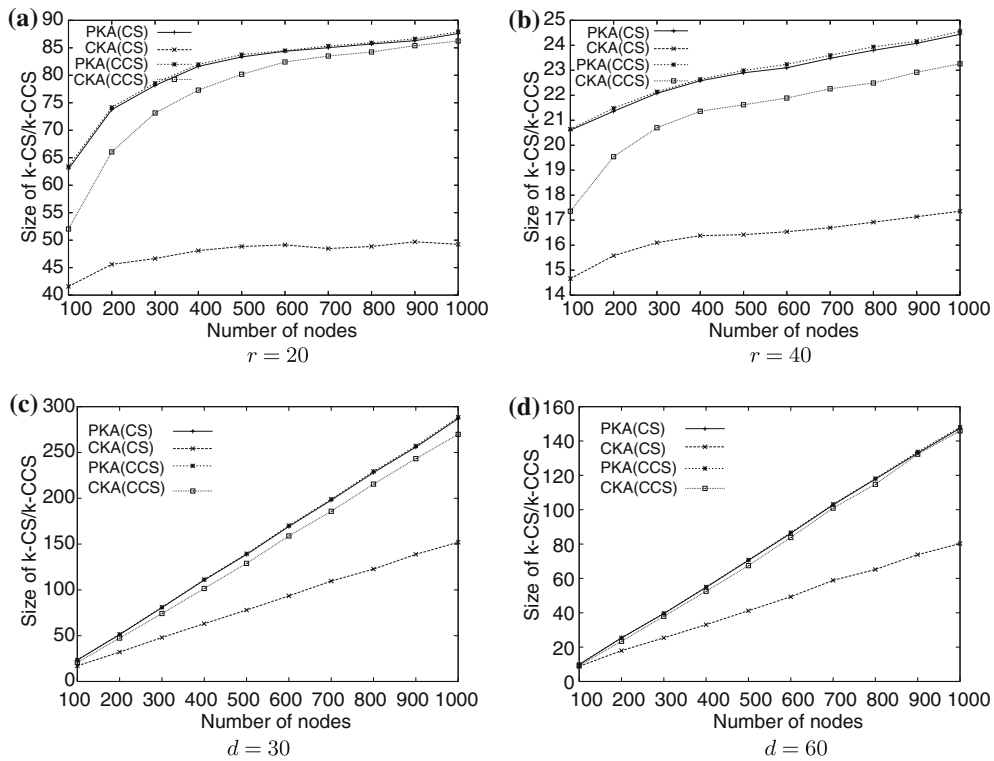


Fig. 4. Algorithms with and without connectivity ($k=2$).

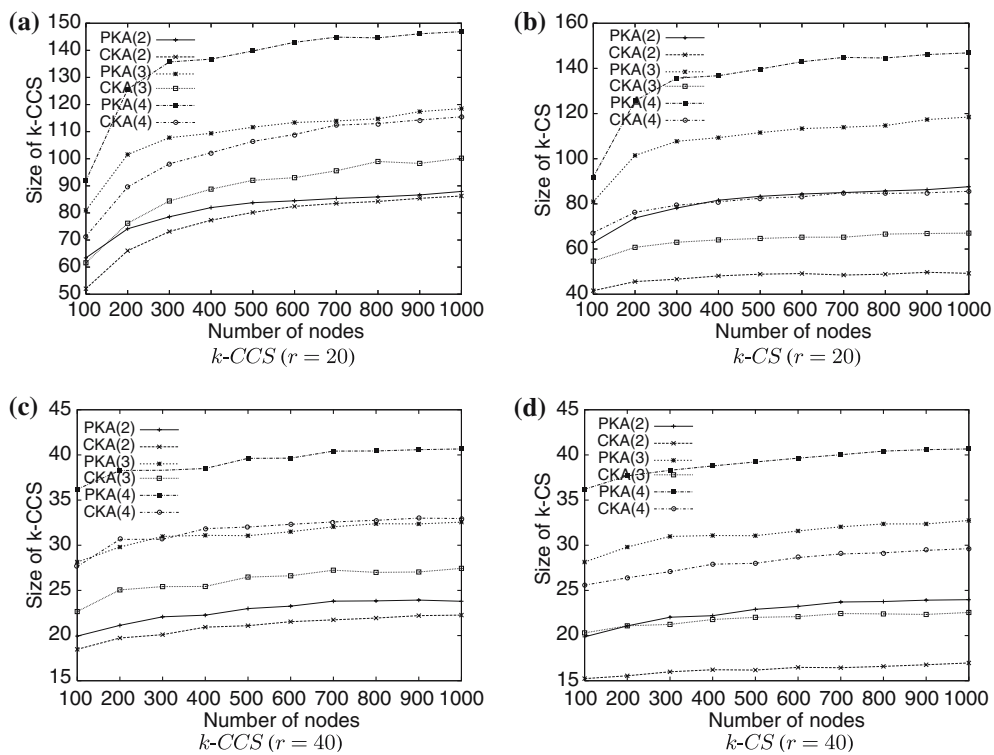


Fig. 5. k -CCS and k -CS by PKA and CKA with $k=2,3,4$.

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Shuhui Yang is a PhD candidate in the Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Florida Atlantic University. She received the BS and MS degrees in computer science in 2000 and 2003, respectively, from Jiangsu University, Zhenjiang and Nanjing University, Nanjing, China. Her current research focuses on the design of localized routing algorithms in the wireless ad hoc and sensor networks.



Fei Dai is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering at North Dakota State University. Dr. Dai received his PhD in the Department of Computer Science and Engineering at Florida Atlantic University, and MS in the Department of Computer Science and Technology at Nanjing University, China. He has been a senior programmer in Greatwall Computer and a software architect and team leader in J&A Securities, both in China. His research interests include networking, mobile computing, parallel and distributed computing, artificial intelligence, and software engineering.



Mihaela Cardei received her MS and PhD degrees in Computer Science from the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities, in 1999 and 2003, respectively. She is currently an Assistant Professor in the Department of Computer Science and Engineering at Florida Atlantic University. Her research interests include wireless networking, wireless sensor networks, network protocol and algorithm design, and combinatorial optimization in wireless networks. She is a member of IEEE and ACM.



Jie Wu is a Professor at Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Florida Atlantic University. He has published over 300 papers in various journal and conference proceedings. His research interests are in the area of mobile computing, routing protocols, fault-tolerant computing, and interconnection networks. Dr. Wu served as a program vice chair for 2000 International Conference on Parallel Processing (ICPP) and a program vice chair for 2001 IEEE International Conference on Distributed Computing Systems (ICDCS). He is a program co-chair for the IEEE 1st International Conference on Mobile Ad-hoc and Sensor Systems (MASS'04). He was a co-guest-editor of a special issue in IEEE Computer on "Ad Hoc Networks". He also edited several special issues in Journal of Parallel and Distributed Computing (JPDC) and IEEE Transactions on Parallel and Distributed Systems (TPDS). He is the author of the text "Distributed System Design" and is the editor of the text "Handbook on Theoretical and Algorithmic Aspects of Sensor, Ad Hoc Wireless, and Peer-to-Peer Networks". Currently, Dr. Wu serves as an Associated Editor in IEEE Transactions on Parallel and Distributed Systems and several other international journals. Dr. Wu is a recipient of the 1996–97 and 2001–2002 Researcher of the Year Award at Florida Atlantic University. He served as an IEEE Computer Society Distinguished Visitor and is the Chairman of IEEE Technical Committee on Distributed Processing (TCDP). Dr. Wu is a Member of ACM and a Senior Member of IEEE.



Floyd M. Patterson received the BS ('62) and MS ('63) in Electrical Engineering from the North Dakota State University. He also has postgraduate experience in bioengineering (The University of Iowa) and in signal/image processing (University of Minnesota). His industrial experience as an employee is with North American Aviation, Westinghouse Corporation, and IBM. He is presently an associate professor of Electrical and Computer Engineering at the

North Dakota State University. Primary professional interest is in image analysis and probability applications while also participating in formal SMET programs for high school students. His participation in multiple authorship grants from NSF (image acquisition and visualization laboratory, optics laboratory), ONR (SMET program), DOD (Tribal Community College Laboratory) exceeding \$1.5M have provided excellent equipment for students' learning. An active member of IEEE (IRE&AIIE) since 1959 (presently life senior member), he has been an officer of the Red River Section (1977–1980 and again 2001–2003) serving as section chair in 1980 and 2003. Patterson began as student branch advisor at NDSU. He is also a member of ASEE, SPIE, and AAAS, and became a member of Eta Kappa Nu, Tau Beta Pi, and Phi Kappa Phi as an undergraduate.