

Coverage and Connectivity using Virtual Spanning Tree in Wireless Sensor Networks

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Abstract:- Energy consumption is one of the most critical challenges in the area of sensor networks. Sleep-wakeup techniques can reduce the energy consumed in the sensor networks. Coverage tends to cover the area with the minimum possible number of sensors in networks. There are many area coverage approaches such as area coverage, point coverage and boundary coverage which also consider the connectivity problem. However, in the area of point coverage, they cover specified points within the area of the network. Here, we present a point coverage mechanism and two connectivity mechanisms. These mechanisms are compared to one of the best methods that consider both point coverage and connectivity. In the point coverage mechanism, we present a method for computing the waiting time, which reduces the number of the required sensors. For preserving the connectivity, virtual spanning tree (VST) and Microsoft research (MSR) are proposed. These mechanisms are based on making a virtual spanning tree and converting this tree to a physical tree. In order to spread out sensed data to the base station from different paths and decrease the loss of dead nodes, instead of using a minimum spanning tree (MST) to connect nodes to the base station, a combination of distance of nodes and number of hops are used to select edges and construct the tree. The simulation results show that the proposed coverage method reduces energy consumption and maximizes network lifetime compared to the existing method. The VST and MSR use more energy than the existing method, but the average packet loss decreases by up to 40%. Moreover, VST and MSR have less depth and data latency.

Keywords: Energy efficiency, VST, MSR, MST, Sleep-wakeup technique, Coverage, point coverage.

I. INTRODUCTION

wireless sensor network (WSN) consists of spatially distributed autonomous sensors to monitor physical or environmental conditions such as temperature, sound, pressure etc and to cooperatively pass their data through the network to a main location. Wireless sensor networks constitute the platform of a broad range of applications related to national security, surveillance, military, healthcare, and environmental monitoring. The sensor coverage problem has received increased attention recently, being considerably driven by recent advances in affordable and efficient integrated electronic devices. Wireless sensor networks (WSNs) have attracted a great deal of research attention due to their wide-range of potential applications. WSNs provide a new class of computer systems and expand the ability of individuals to remotely interact with the physical world. In a broad sense, WSNs will transform the way we manage our homes, factories, and environment. Applications of WSNs include battlefield surveillance,

biological detection, home appliance, smart spaces, and inventory tracking. The coverage concept is subject to a wide range of interpretations due to a variety of sensors and their applications. Different coverage formulations have been proposed, based on the subject to be covered (area versus discrete points) and sensor deployment mechanism (random versus deterministic) as well as on other wireless sensor network properties (e.g. network connectivity and minimum energy consumption). Sensor node: A sensor node, also known as a mote, is a node in a wireless sensor network that is capable of performing some processing, gathering sensory information and communicating with other connected nodes in the network. A mote is a node but a node is not always a mote. A minimum spanning tree (MST) or minimum weight spanning tree is a spanning tree with weight less than or equal to the weight of every other spanning tree. Virtual spanning tree and Microsoft research spanning trees are used to preserve connectivity and to protect against node failure. Coverage is one of the most important challenges in the area of sensor networks. Since the energy of sensors are limited, it is vital to cover the area with fewer sensors. Generally, coverage in sensor networks is divided into area coverage, point coverage, and boundary coverage subareas. Coverage does not ensure connectivity of nodes. However, many approaches have addressed both area coverage and connectivity, but limited numbers of approaches have covered both. Cardei proposed one of the best approaches in the field of connected point coverage. It contains two steps. Using the first step, the sensing nodes are selected. In the second step, some relay nodes are selected to make a MST between sensing nodes and the sink, based on Prim's algorithm, to ensure sink connectivity. However, MST has a problem. Usually, MST is relatively deep. In addition, the sink does not have many branches. Therefore, in the case of failure, they lose a significant amount of data.

In this method, MST is modified and a balanced tree is introduced, which solves the problem of using MST to ensure connectivity. In Prim's algorithm, the cost of edges is the distance of nodes. In contrast, the proposed method uses a combination of distance and hop count as the cost of edges. In the first step, distributed algorithm is used to compute the priority of nodes. This priority is computed based on the residual energy of nodes and the number of targets in their sensing area. Nodes with more residual energy and more targets in their sensing area have more priority than other nodes. In the second phase,

authors use another algorithm to select some relay nodes to construct a balanced tree between sensing nodes and the sink. To construct the tree, they first construct a virtual tree with targets and the sink, which is used as a skeleton to build an actual tree. After making a virtual tree, they convert it to a physical tree between nodes that are selected in the covering phase as a sensing node and the sink. In comparison to the Cardei method, the proposed method uses less sensors to cover all targets. In addition, the proposed method is more balanced than the Cardei method; therefore, in the case of node failure, they will lose less data, as all branches are more balanced. However, the proposed method uses more relay nodes to deliver sensed data to the sink, so the probability of a node failure in the tree is more of that the Cardei method.

The contributions of this method are as follows:

- One of the existing point coverage methods is changed to reduce energy consumption of sensor nodes which uses VST and MSR mechanisms.
- To maintain connectivity, a method is proposed to construct a balanced tree which is more robust against failure.
- We modify MSR to reduce no of dead nodes as well as packet loss.

II. RELATED WORKS

A survey on coverage problems in wireless sensor networks is presented. The coverage problem is divided into three subcategories: area coverage, point coverage and boundary coverage. Most of the research in the field of sensor networks consists of area coverage. The goal of area coverage is to cover as much area as possible with the minimum number of sensors. Most of these researches use probabilistic or geometric approaches. It is shown that the problem of selecting a subset of sensors that cover the whole area is NP-Complete, and an efficient approximation algorithm is proposed to address area coverage. If the radio range is at least twice the sensing range, complete coverage of an area implies connectivity among the working set of nodes. In ACOS[5], each node computes the area which can be only covered by it. If this area is smaller than a threshold, then this node goes to active mode.

The goal of point coverage is to cover some specific points of the network. An efficient method is proposed to extend the sensor network lifetime by organizing the sensors into a maximal number of disjoint sets that are activated successively. Selecting disjoint sets do not necessarily result in a larger lifetime of the network than non-disjoint sets. In this approach, the nodes are organized into maximal numbers of set covers instead of disjoint-sets. The target coverage issue in wireless sensor networks have sensors with adjustable sensing range. To solve this issue, linear programming, a localized greedy algorithm, and a distributed greedy algorithm, are proposed. In the boundary coverage problem, the goal is to cover the network so as to minimize the probability that a mobile object which crosses the barrier of network remains undetected. The best path for an intruder from a source to a

destination is in the Voronoi diagram. The view field of sensor nodes is limited and sensors have a directional camera. An optimal polynomial time algorithm was presented for computing the worst-case breach coverage.

Breach is the maximal distance that any hostile target cannot be detected by the sensors while traveling through a region. The coverage method uses a distributed algorithm to select sensing nodes. During the second phase, it selects relay nodes. For this purpose, it makes a virtual tree between targets and the sink and then converts it to a physical tree of sensing nodes and the sink. In the proposed method the coverage method is changed to reduce the number of active sensors that are needed to cover all of the targets. Instead of using MST to maintain sink-connectivity, a balanced tree is used to decrease the amount of data loss in sensor networks.

M. Cardei and J. Wu [2] Wireless sensor networks constitute the platform of a broad range of applications related to national security, surveillance, military, health care, and environmental monitoring. The sensor coverage problem has received increased attention recently, being considerably driven by recent advances in affordable and efficient integrated electronic devices. This problem is centered around a fundamental question: How well do the sensors observe the physical space? The coverage concept is subject to a wide range of interpretations due to a variety of sensors and their applications. Different coverage formulations have been proposed, based on the subject to be covered (area versus discrete points) and sensor deployment mechanism (random versus deterministic) as well as on other wireless sensor network properties (e.g. network connectivity and minimum energy consumption). Here authors survey recent contributions addressing energy-efficient coverage problems in the context of static wireless sensor networks. Authors present various coverage formulations, their assumptions, as well as an overview of the solutions proposed.

III. APPROACHES

A distributed method is proposed for connected point coverage, which is based on the Cardei method. In order to cover some targets in a homogeneous sensor network, an efficient number of sensors are used while still preserving sink-connectivity. Nodes and targets are stationary and authors suppose that each node knows the location of all targets and the sink. The algorithm runs in rounds. Each round begins with an initialization phase in which every sensor decides whether to be active or inactive for the rest of the round. This phase is divided into two steps: In the first step, sensing node selection, the sensor nodes are selected such that the union of them covers all the targets. In the second step, relay node selection, additional relay nodes are chosen so as to guarantee sink-connectivity. These steps are explained in the following sections.

3.1. Sensor Nodes Selection

In this phase a set of efficient sensing nodes is selected to cover all the targets in the field. Since this problem is NP-complete a distributed greedy heuristic

approach is used to address it. we start from selecting sensors with more targets in their sensing area and more residual energy as sensing nodes and they keep doing it until covering all the targets. To make this heuristic distributed, each sensor node computes a waiting time based on its residual energy and the number of uncovered targets it can cover. We use these waiting times to select sensing nodes in increasing order of their priority. The sensor that covers more uncovered targets and has more residual energy will get less waiting time, and thus more priority than other sensors. The waiting time of a sensor s_u is computed by the equation (1):

$$T_u = (1 - \alpha * E'_u / E - \beta * |TargetS_u| / M) * W_1 - T'_u(1)$$

Where:

- E'_u : the residual energy of sensor s_u
- E : the initial energy of sensors
- M : the number of targets in the network
- W_1 : the maximum waiting time
- α, β : weights which are assigned to the residual energy and the number of uncovered targets
- $TargetS_u$: Targets which are in sensing range of node s_u and have not been covered by any sensor node yet
- T'_u : the waiting time which sensor s_u has passed

When the waiting time of a sensor s_u is finished, it is selected as a sensing node and it acts as the supervisor of all the targets in the set $TargetS_u$. The supervisor of a target is the first sensor that passed its waiting time and covers it. Next, this sensor broadcasts a notification message to inform its neighbors about the targets covered by it. When a sensor passing its waiting time receives a notification message from its neighbours, it updates its waiting time and the set $TargetS_u$ if it has at least one target within its sensing range in common with the targets mentioned in the message. Assuming that R_s is the sensors' sensing range and R_c is the sensors' communication range, the maximum distance between two sensors with a common target in their sensing range is $2R_s$, if $R_s < 2R_c$. Therefore, it is adequate to broadcast the notification message in two hops.

The basic difference between the proposed method for sensing nodes selection and the Cardei method is that in the former the elapsed waiting time of a sensor is not considered in re-computation of the waiting time when it receives a notification message. As a result, sensors with a high number of targets in common with other sensors must update their waiting time many times, so their priority decreases and their waiting time increases each time, regardless of the time that passed up until now.

3.2. VST and MSR mechanism based on relay nodes

After selecting sensing nodes and covering all the targets, relay nodes must be selected to provide sink-connectivity. We suppose here that each sensor knows the location of the sink and all the targets. Achieving sink-connectivity, each selected sensing node s_u makes a virtual tree based on the set of targets and the sink. Unlike the Cardei method, which uses Prim's algorithm to construct a

virtual minimum spanning tree, a modified version of robust spanning tree is used in order to make authors approach robust against failure of nodes. In this spanning tree, which they call a virtual spanning tree (VST), the root is the sink and other vertices are targets. This tree serves as a virtual skeleton for the considered network. In order to convert this virtual tree to a physical tree of sensors, each sensing node broadcasts a message to find the supervisor of the target which is the parent of its covered target.

The VST algorithm is similar to Prim's algorithm, but rather than using the edge's length (edge's cost) for choosing an edge, it uses a combination of the edge's length and the vertex's depth (hop count). Here, we assume that the edge's length is Euclidean distance between connecting points. In this algorithm, cost is computed as follows:

$$Cost = \lambda * \text{hop count} + (1 - \lambda) * \text{weight of path}_i(2)$$

where λ is a function of the depth of a vertex:

$$\lambda_i = 1 - h_i / C_1(3)$$

$$\text{weight of path}_i = \text{weight of path}_j + z_{i,j}(4)$$

Descriptions of notations are as follows:

- hop count: number of hops to the sink.
- Weight of $path_i$: sum of the edges cost which connect vertex i to the sink
- C_1 : depth of the MST (maximum hop count)
- h_i : depth of vertex i
- $z_{i,j}$: length of edge (i,j)

In relay node selections, authors first construct a MST based on the set of targets and the sink, using the Prim's algorithm, and they set C_1 to the depth of this tree. Subsequently, cost is computed for each vertex and for the edges which connect it to a vertex of the tree according to equation (2). The vertex connected to the edge with the minimum cost is selected and added along with this edge to the tree.

The closer a vertex is to the sink, the greater λ it will have. Therefore, the edge's length has a greater effect on computing the edge's cost. As a result, vertices nearer to the sink will directly connect to it yielding a fat tree around the sink. On the other hand, vertices farther from the sink will have more choices to connect. As a result, the depth of the tree will decrease. Farther vertices have smaller λ , so the path weight as more of an effect on their edges' cost. Thus, these vertices will connect to the tree along edges which connect them to the path with the minimum cost.

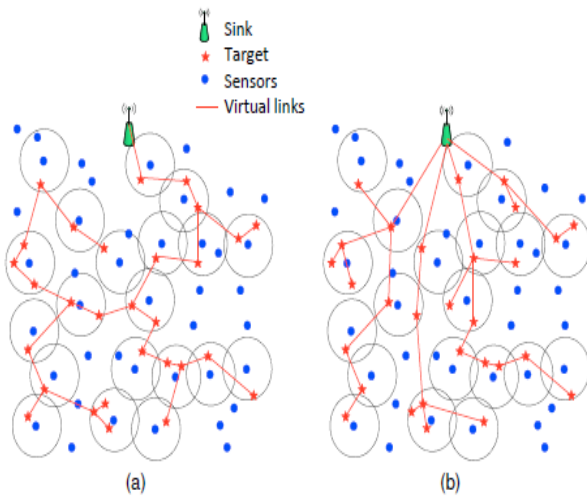


Fig.3.2.1: Examples of virtual trees in (a) MST and (b) VST

Figures 3.2.1(a) and 3.2.1(b) show a MST built with Prim’s algorithm and a VST, respectively. Obviously, the depth of the VST is far less than the MST.

As said before the supervisor of a target is the first sensor that passed its waiting time and covers it. After constructing the virtual tree, supervisors of targets must connect together via physical paths. Therefore, we have to select some relay nodes to connect the supervisors of targets. For each target t_i , the sensing node s_u starts the selection of relay nodes along the virtual link $(t_i, \Pi(t_i))$, where $\Pi(t_i)$ is the parent of target t_i in the virtual tree.

Every sensing node s_u broadcasts a control message RELAY_REQ for each target under its supervision. This message contains the location of sensing node s_u , destination target $\Pi(t_i)$, and the maximum distance from sensing nodes s_u to the supervisor of target $\Pi(t_i)$. The maximum distance of two supervisors can be calculated using equation (5). Each sensor that receives this message computes its distance from the source sensor. If this distance is less than the maximum distance mentioned in the message RELAY_REQ, then it forwards the message.

$$\text{Maxdistance} = \text{distance}(t_i, \Pi(t_i)) + 2R_s \quad (5)$$

When the supervisor of target $\Pi(t_i)$ receives the message RELAY_REQ, it will reply to this message. It will send this reply message to the sensing node s_u , through one of the paths in which it received the message RELAY_REQ. The supervisor of target $\Pi(t_i)$ can select one of the relay sensors who delivered the message RELAY_REQ, based on one of the following criteria:

- Relay sensor closest to the node s_u
- The first relay node which delivered the message
- Relay node with the most residual energy

This procedure will continue until the reply message is delivered to the source sensing node. Consequently, a physical path is built between sensing

nodes and the sink. All nodes participating in delivering the reply message are chosen as relay nodes. In Figure 3.2.2, virtual trees made by the Cardei method, the VST method, and physical trees built based on them are shown. It can be seen in this figure that the physical tree made based on the VST method, has less depth and more paths to the sink compared to the physical tree made based on MST. Therefore, in this proposed method, we will have less data loss when a sensor node fails.

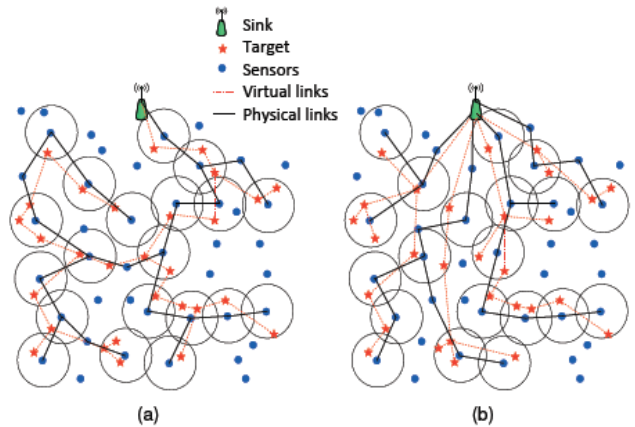


Fig. 3.2.2. Examples of virtual and physical trees in (a) Cardei and (b) VST

In equation (4), the cost of connecting vertex (target) i to vertex j as a member of the tree is equal to the sum of the length of edge (i, j) and the path’s weight from vertex j to the sink. Hence, in addition to the direct effect of depth on equation (2) as hop count, it indirectly affects the path weight from vertex j to the sink; thus, it has a double effect on this equation. In other words, not only is the vertex’s depth important to vertices near the sink, but also important to the vertices far from it. Its immediate result is that the vertex’s depth has a more important role than the edge’s length in selecting edges. For this reason, in the second proposed method (MSR), for relay nodes selection, they ignore the weight of path from vertex j to the sink and they consider the weight of edge (i, j) as the weight of the path from vertex i to the sink:

$$\text{weight of path } i = z_{(i,j)} \quad (6)$$

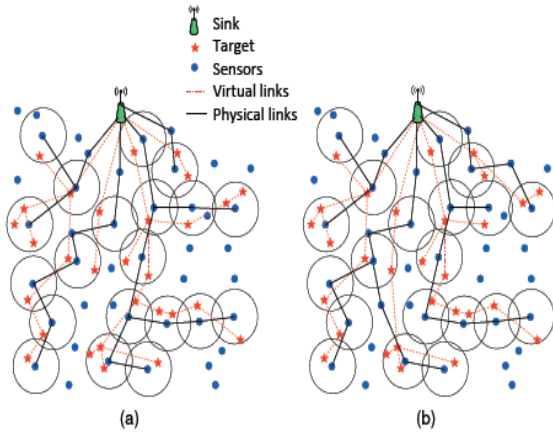


Fig.3.2.3. Examples of virtual and physical trees in (a) MSR and (b) VST

As shown in Figure 3.2.3, virtual and physical trees made by the MSR method have less depth than trees made by the VST method.

3.3. Removal Of Cycle Formation

Since some of the sensing nodes cover more than one target and are supervisors of some or all of them, it is possible that while they are converting a virtual tree to a physical tree, cycles are formed. This happens when a sensing node is a supervisor of more than one target and these targets have different parents. These cycles could have a length greater than or equal to two.

In Figure 3.3(a), a cycle with a length of two is shown. Sensor 2 covers two targets whose parents are different. If this sensor chooses sensor 3 as its parent during the conversion from virtual to physical tree, a cycle will be formed between sensors 2 and 3.

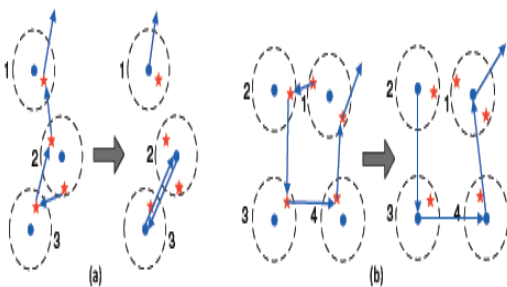


Fig.3.3. Forming cycles during converting virtual trees to physical trees

In order to avoid cycles with length of two, when a sensing node s_u , which is supervisor of more than one target, wants to select sensing node s_j as its parent, it must check if it has received any RELAY_REQ message from node s_j that its destination is node s_u . Receiving this message means that it is possible that sensing node s_j selects sensing node s_u as its parent, and in this case, a cycle with a length of two will be formed. For cases with a length more than two, we could use two approaches:

- Using cycle detection algorithms: Sensors covering more than one target run a cycle detection algorithm. If they detect a cycle, they choose another sensor as their parent.
- Packet examination: Sensors send their packets in one of the existing paths. A returned packet to its source indicates that there is a cycle in the network, and this sensor should change its parent.

Packet examination approach is used in the proposed methods, since it is more efficient than cycle detection approach. The reason is that the computational cost of cycle detection algorithms is high, which is $O(n^3)$, and the probability of formation of cycles with length more than two is low.

IV. PERFORMANCE

A set of simulation experiments are used to compare the performance of proposed method with that of the Cardei method. For this purpose, a simulator in the environment of MATLAB is implemented. Consider a stationary network in which sensor nodes and targets are scattered randomly in a square field $500m \times 500m$. Other simulation parameters are as follows:

- 500 sensors.
- 50 targets.
- Sensing energy consumption in a range of 50m is 20mW/s.
- Communication energy consumption in a range of 80m is 60mW/s.

For sensing and communication ranges greater than the specified ranges, energy consumption is computed as a square power. All sensors are homogeneous, so they have equal sensing and communication range. For each scenario, simulations are executed 200 times and the average outputs are shown in charts.

In the first experiment, the proposed coverage method is compared with the Cardei coverage method. In both methods they used the same relay nodes selection scheme, proposed by Cardei. Energy consumption of all the nodes, as shown in Figure 4.1, is the sum of energy consumption of sensing nodes and relay nodes. In this figure, the communication range is 120m. It can be seen that energy consumption of the proposed coverage method is less than that of the Cardei coverage method.

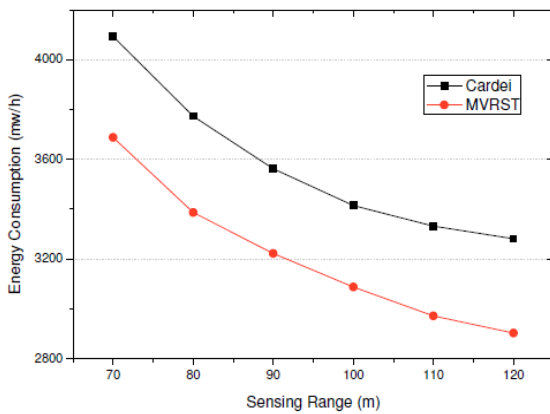


Fig.4.1. Effect of sensing range on energy consumption: $R_C = 120m$

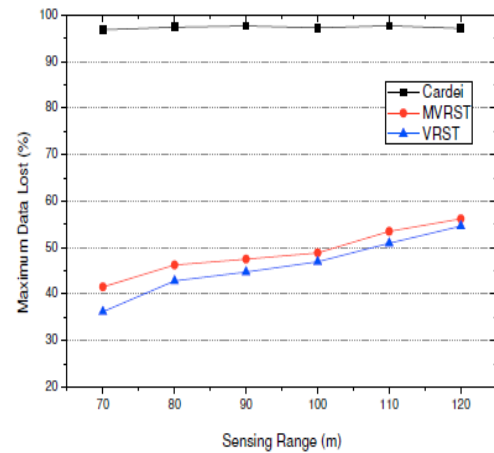


Fig. 4.3. Effect of sensing range on the maximum data loss: $R_C = 120m$

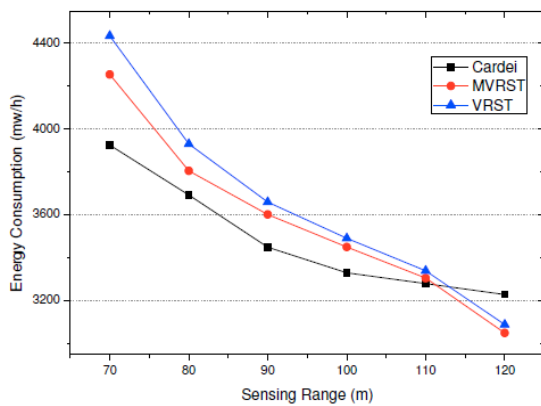


Fig. 4.2.Effect of sensing range on energy consumption: $R_C = 120m$

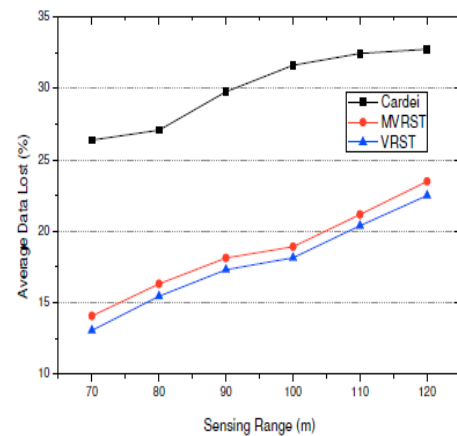


Fig. 4.4.Effect of sensing range on the average data loss: $R_C = 120m$

The difference between these methods increases by increasing the sensing range. The reason is that by increasing the sensing range, the number of common targets covered by distinct sensors increases.

In Figure 4.2, the VST and MSR methods are compared against the Cardel method. In this figure the proposed coverage method is compared with the VST and MSR methods. Since the VST method gives more priority to the depth of the virtual tree and tries to decrease it, the number of relay nodes and consequently energy consumption of this method is more than that of others. Finally, as the MSR method gives more importance to energy consumption during the construction of the virtual tree, where as the VST method, its energy consumption is less. Notice in Figure 4.2 that the energy consumptions of the VST and MSR methods are decreased more than the Cardel method by increasing the sensing range. As mentioned before, the reason is that by increasing the sensing range, the effect of proposed coverage method increases.

In Figures 4.3 and 4.4, the maximum and average data loss of proposed methods are compared with that of the Cardel method in a scenario of a single node failure. As expected, the maximum and average amount of data loss in the Cardel method is significantly more than the VST and MSR methods, since the Cardel method does not consider the depth of the tree and the number of transmission paths to the sink. It can be observed in Figure 4.2 that there are some critical nodes in the Cardel method, which their failure will result in a loss of more than 95% of sensed data.

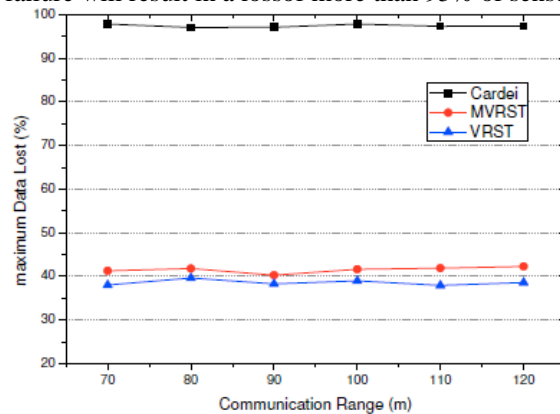


Fig. 4.5.Effect of communication range on the maximum data loss: $R_S = 70m$

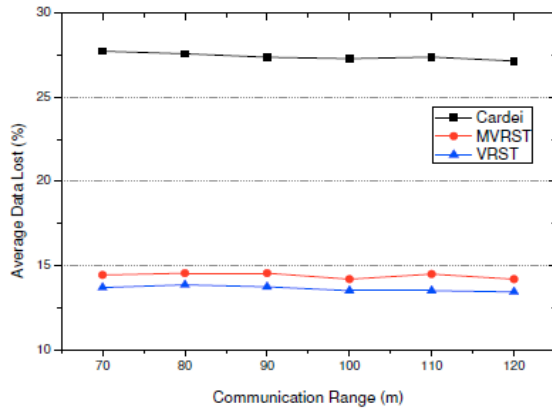


Fig. 4.6. Effect of communication range on the average data loss: $R_s = 70m$

Figures 4.5 and 4.6 illustrate the effect of communication range on the maximum and average data loss. In these figures the slope of all charts is almost zero. This is because that communication range only affects the number of relay nodes and it has no effect on the construction of virtual trees and number of transmission paths to the sink. It is clear from these figures that the amount of data loss only depends on the structure of the virtual trees.

In the next experiment, data loss is divided into 10% slots and the probability of failure is computed which could result in a given percent of data loss. The probability of failure in proposed methods is more than that of the Cardei method, since the number of relay nodes in VST and MSR are greater than that method. Therefore, in the VST and MSR methods, the probability of a failure which causes a low percentage of data loss is more than that of the Cardei method, as shown in Figure 4.7. However, in these methods, the probability of a failure which causes more than 40% data loss is less than that of the Cardei method. In other words, these methods reduce the probability of a high percentage of data loss, but they increase the probability of a low percentage of data loss.

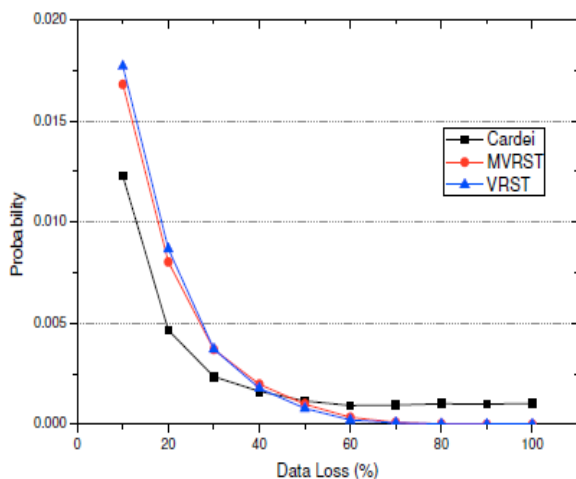


Fig. 4.7. Probability of data loss: $R_s = 70m$ and $R_c = 100m$

The most important parameter in transmission delay is the depth of sensing nodes, which can be used to estimate the transmission delay. Consequently, the average sensing nodes' depth of the proposed methods are compared with

that of the Cardei method in Figure 4.8, instead of comparing transmission delay. Contrary to the Cardei method, the depth of the nodes is considered in the VST and MSR methods, and as expected, proposed methods have less depth and less transmission delay than those of the Cardei method. Since the nodes' depth has a greater role in the selection of the nodes in the VST method, MSR has more depth than VST. The number of relay nodes decreases by increasing the communication range, and the depth of the tree in all methods decreases. In both the proposed coverage method and Cardei coverage method, each node uses a linear equation to compute the waiting time.

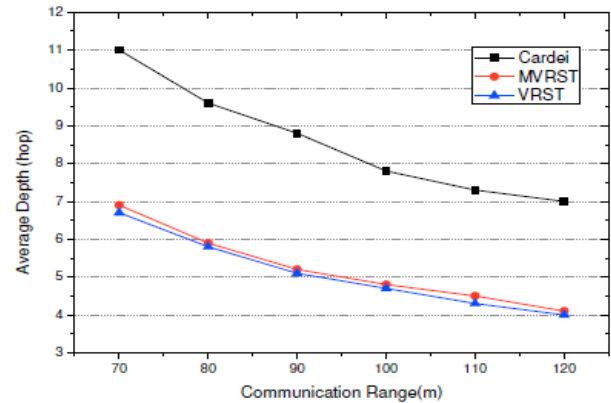


Fig. 4.8. Average depth: $R_s = 70m$

Therefore, complexities of both coverage methods are $O(c)$. On the other hand, in Cardei connectivity method, each node runs Prim's algorithm to construct a MST. Thus, the complexity of Cardei connectivity method is the same as Prim's algorithm, which is $O(n^3)$. In the VST and MSR methods, they use Prim's algorithm to compute the maximum depth of MST, and then, they run an algorithm similar to Prim's algorithm to construct a spanning tree. The only difference between Prim's algorithm and the algorithm used here is the way they assign weights to the edges. Therefore, the complexity of the VST and MSR methods are $O(n^3) + O(n^3)$, which is equal to $O(n^3)$.

V. FUTURE ENHANCEMENT

Here in this method is VST directly communicates with target nodes and hence it would consume more energy to overcome this we would enhance MSR by first communicating with other nodes and then to communicate with target nodes thereby reducing energy as well decreases no of dead nodes.

VI. CONCLUSION

Coverage is one of the most important challenges in the area of wireless sensor networks. Here a point coverage mechanism is proposed in addition to two connectivity mechanisms. In comparison with existing approaches, the point coverage mechanism needs less sensing nodes to cover all the targets, and as a result, less energy consumption. VST and MSR methods are used to preserve

connectivity. In these mechanisms, in order to spread out sensed data to the sink from different paths and decreasing the loss of dead nodes, a combination of distance of nodes and number of hops are used to select edges and construct the tree. Simulations show that the proposed coverage method reduces the energy consumption by up to 7% compared to the Cardei method. The VST and MSR use more energy than the previous method, but the average packet loss decreases by up to 40%. Moreover, this approach has less data latency and hence maximizes network lifetime.

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