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Reference


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Combinatorial Approach for Geographic Routing With Delivery Guarantees

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1 Introduction

Geographic routing is a routing paradigm proposed for wireless ad-hoc networks, which are capable of geographically locating nodes in the network (Bose et al., 1999), (Karp and Kung, 2000). This approach is promising due to its scalability and efficiency in the face of network dynamics, compared to the on-demand routing schemes proposed for wireless ad-hoc networks. Even though its seminal work on geographic routing focused on unicast routing, subsequent proposals build higher level communication abstractions like geographic hash tables, following a data centric approach (Ratnasamy et al., 2003).

Geographic routing relies on geographic information of nodes in the network. Therefore it should be supported by an auxiliary localization service. Localization is an independent problem, which was extensively studied, especially for the networks where expensive localization methods are not feasible. Thus most of the localization schemes assume that, only a small number of nodes (referred as beacons or anchors) know their exact geographic location information and the rest of the nodes can determine the distance between anchor nodes and them selves. With these two pieces of information a node can perform a geometric computation technique like trilateration to derive their geographic information.

In order to make sure that all the nodes get localized, newly localized nodes have to collaboratively act as anchors and propagate their geographic locations. This class of algorithms are practically attractive since they are distributed and computationally efficient specially for resource constraint devices.

One drawback of anchor based localization protocols is the problem of bootstrapping the system by placing the anchors and providing them geographic locations. This is not trivial specially in an environment like wireless sensor networks due to the ad-hoc nature of node deployment. Anchor free localization is proposed as a solution to overcome difficulties associated with anchors, where it only based on the distances between nodes. Main aim of this class of algorithms is to find an euclidean embedding of the network graph, such that it preserves the inter-distances of nodes. Such coordinate systems are termed as virtual coordinate systems, since they do not hold any correspondence with the physical coordinates of nodes.

Alternatively we explore a new avenue of virtual coordinate systems, where it uses the raw distance measurements from anchors as the coordinates. Fang et.al (Fang et al., 2005) and Fonseca et.al (Fonseca et al., 2005) independently proposed geographic routing schemes on top of virtual raw coordinate systems. But none of the two performed geographic
face routing as the fall-back mechanism when greedy routing hits a local-minima. In this paper we construct basic combinatorial properties to perform geographic face routing with delivery guarantees using only the raw distance measurements as the coordinates.

The remainder of the paper initially develops the combinatorial constructs in the form of order relations to be used in geographic face routing. This will be followed by the face routing algorithm based on the defined basic constructs. Finally we provide the simulation results of our algorithm comparing with standard geographic routing algorithms.

2 Background

2.1 Virtual Coordinate Systems

A different direction of localization research is to localize nodes with a virtual coordinate system (VCS), which is different from the Euclidean system. VCS, as opposed to real coordinates are desirable in some applications, which only need to preserve topological structure rather than their exact geographic locations. Geographic routing is one such application of this nature. Rao et.al proposed a mechanism to assign synthetic coordinates to perform geographic routing, commonly referred to as NoGeo (Rao et al., 2003). NoGeo computes an embedding of the network on the Euclidean space, starting from an initial coordinate assignment at each node. It models the coordinate assignment problem as a mass-spring model and performs an iterative relaxation algorithm to achieve on an approximation of the optimum coordinate assignment. Shang et al have incorporated inter distances between nodes into the coordinate construction problem, hence to compute an embedding of the network preserving the topological structure of the network (Shang et al., 2003). The problem formulation was based on a technique borrowed from psychometrics called multi dimensional scaling and based on an iterative approach. These virtual coordinate systems does not to bare any correspondence with their geographic coordinates in the Euclidean space. Therefore on these coordinate systems, it is not possible to perform operations which resemble geometric relationships with the physical topology. Specifically when considering geographic routing, face routing as a local-minima recovery scheme is not a candidate, thus failing to provide delivery guarantees.

2.2 Virtual Raw Anchor Coordinates

Even though virtual coordinate systems offer sound grounding to the localization problem, in a more realistic setting their applicability is questionable. This is mainly due to most of these mechanisms being iterative in nature, making them impractical for large networks. Additionally individual nodes would be computationally burdened with the numerical calculations involved in such algorithms. Identifying these discrepancies, (Fonseca et al., 2005) and (Fang et al., 2005) have independently proposed a virtual coordinate scheme relying only on the raw measures from anchor nodes. Both these mechanisms assign nodes their coordinates, simply as a hop-count vector from the anchors. Therefore this mechanism does not demand any further computational manipulations as in other virtual coordinate construction schemes. It is similar to VCS, as it does not physically related to the geographic locations. Huc et.al have proposed a similar virtual coordinate system which assigns raw distances from anchors as the coordinates; VRAC (Huc et al., 2010). A local routing strategy was proposed for VRAC in (Samarasinghe and Leone, 2012), where geographic primitives were identified (which can be performed locally) to perform classical algorithms like GFG and GPSR over VRAC. This proposal was based on a variant of original VRAC, where it assumed inter distances between anchors.

In this work, we propose a combinatorial constructs (based on order relations) to perform geographic face routing. We emphasis that these combinatorial constructs are very efficient to implement in practice, since they have to perform only basic comparison operations. Further more, we prove the delivery guarantees of face routing based on our approach.

3 Communication graph planarization in VRAC

The local planarization of the communication graph in the VRAC coordinate system is presented in (Huc et al., 2012) where we adapt the planarity criterion introduced in (Schnyder, 1989) to Unit Disk Graph (UDG), i.e. the nodes are positioned in a region of the plane and two nodes are connected if and only if the distance among them is less that a constant r called the range of communications. In our setting, the nodes are localized in the VRAC coordinate system and this associates to each node u the coordinates \((u_1, u_2, u_3) = (d(u,A_1), d(u,A_2), d(u, A_3))\), see Figure 1. Moreover, we assume that all the nodes are inside the triangular region, \(A_1A_2A_3\), with suits the anchors \(A_1, A_2, A_3\), see (Huc et al., 2012) for the explanation of why this is necessary and the description of possible further works to remove this assumption.

We can define three order relations on the set of nodes \(V\).
Definition 1. The three order relations \(<_i, i = 1, 2, 3\) on \(V \times V\) are defined by
\[
\forall u, v \in V \quad u <_i v \iff d(u, A_i) < d(v, A_i) \iff u_1 < v.
\]

The three order relations are total and it makes sense to associate the minimum of a set with respect to one of the three order. We will denote this by \(\text{min}_i\) for \(i = 1, 2, 3\).

These three order make possible the definition of sectors associated to a node \(u\).

Definition 2. We define the following sectors associated to a node \(u \in V\), see Figure 1. Note that the reference node \(u\) does not belong to the sectors.
\[
s_k^u = \{ v \mid u <_k v, u >_k v, u >_k v \} \cap A_1 A_2 A_3.
\]

In the text, we refer to these sectors as sector number 1, 2, 3, respectively, i.e. for instance, \(s_2^u\) is sector number 4 of \(u\).

Definition 3. Given a node \(D\), we also use the convenient notation \(s_j^D\) to denote the sector \(j\) of \(u\) such that \(D \in s_j^u\), i.e. \(D \in s_j^D\).

Given a UDG \(G\) with vertex set \(V\) and edge set \(E\) we define the graph \(\tilde{G} = (\tilde{V}, \tilde{E})\) by

Definition 4. The vertex set \(\tilde{V} = V\) and
\[
\tilde{E} = \{(u, v) \mid v \in s_2^{k-1} \text{ and } v = \text{min}_k(s_2^{k-1}) \text{ k = 1, 2, 3}\}
\]

We emphasize that the graph \(\tilde{G}\) is undirected (as the UDG \(G\)). There is an edge \((u, v) \in \tilde{E}\) if \(v\) is in sector \(s_2^u, s_3^u, s_2^u\) and is the closest with respect to the order relation \(<_1, <_2, <_3\) respectively or, if the same conditions apply with \(u\) and \(v\) interchanged. The important property is that:

Property 1. A node \(u\) has at most one neighboring node in each of \(s_1^u, s_2^u, s_3^u\) (the closer with respect to the corresponding order relation). Indeed, if \(v \in s_1^u, v \in s_2^u, v \in s_3^u\) then \(u \in s_1^u, u \in s_2^u, u \in s_3^u\) and \(v\) is minimal with respect to \(<_1, <_2, <_3\) respectively, the only possibility for an edge \((u, v) \in \tilde{E}\) is that \(v\) is minimal with respect to \(<_1, <_3, <_2\).
Property 2. Given that there is an edge between node $u$ and $v$ and, say, $v \in s^j_i$ for $i \in \{1, 3, 5\} = \{2j-1 \mid j = 1, 2, 3\}$ then, there are no other nodes in the region defined by the intersection of $s^j_i$ and $\{z \mid d(A_j, z) < d(A_j, v)\}$ with $j = 1, 2, 3$ with $i = 2j-1$, see the right of Figure 1.

This property is crucial to ensure that if there is an edge $(u, v)$ in $E$ then there are no nodes $w$ such that $w <_{<} v$ and $(u, w) \not\in E$ i.e., the node $w$ should be connected to $u$ to ensure planarity but, unfortunately, is out of the range of $u$. Notice that the property must be true because the node $v$ is the minimal node in $s^j_i$, $j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ with respect to the order relation $<_j$ (defined by $d(A_j, z)$) to ensure the planarity of $G$.

In this work, we focus on the delivery guarantee of our setting it is not always possible to detect such an intersection. This is why we consider a region that contains the source and destination nodes, see equation (1), and we detect when we cross this region. Also, we switch to greedy routing when data are transmitted to a node belonging to this region because face routing is no longer implementable in this case, see Proposition 3.

Notice that our version of greedy routing does not use an explicit distance function in a closed form. Anyway, our solution can be called greedy routing with the source destination line. Unfortunately, in our setting it is not always possible to detect such an intersection. This is why we consider a region that contains the source and destination nodes, see equation (1), and we detect when we cross this region. Also, we switch to greedy routing when data are transmitted to a node belonging to this region because face routing is no longer implementable in this case, see Proposition 3.

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4 Implementation of the routing primitives

Our routing algorithm is a variant of the combined greedy-face routing algorithm. However, the major difference is that in our restricted coordinate system it is not possible to implement face routing independently of greedy routing, see Proposition 3.

In the classical setting, the routing primitives are the implementation of the left or right hand traversal rule to explore a face of the planar graph and, the detection of the intersection of an edge of the path with the source destination line. Unfortunately, in our setting it is not always possible to detect such an intersection. This is why we consider a region that contains the source and destination nodes, see equation (1), and we detect when we cross this region. Also, we switch to greedy routing when data are transmitted to a node belonging to this region because face routing is no longer implementable in this case, see Proposition 3.

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4.1 Greedy routing primitives

Definition 5. Given a destination node $D$, a path $\{u^i\}_{i=1}^k$ is a greedy path if $(u^i, u^{i+1}) \in G$, $i = 1, \ldots, k-1$ and $u^{i+1} \in s^D_{0} \cap s^D_{w}$. In this case, we will say that a node $u^i$ makes a greedy routing decision.

Figure 2: Implementation of the routine greedy(u,D)

Proof. For concreteness, we consider $s^D_{0} = s^D_{3} = \{z \mid z <_1 u^i, z <_2 u^i, z >_3 u^i\}$ and, then $s^D_{0} = s^D_{3} = \{z \mid z <_1 D, z >_2 D, z >_3 D\}$ (we reverse the signs of the inequalities). The assumption $u^{i+1} \in s^D_{0} \cap s^D_{w}$ leads to $D <_1 u^{i+1} <_1 u^i$, $D <_2 u^{i+1} <_2 u^i$, $D >_3 u^{i+1} >_3 u^i$. We then conclude that $s^D_{0} = s^D_{3} = \{z \mid z < u^{i+1}, z <_2 u^{i+1}, z >_3 u^{i+1}\} = s^D_{w}$. This proves the proposition.

Corollary 1. Given a destination node $D$, a greedy path $\{u^i\}$ eventually reaches the destination $D$.

Proof. Using Proposition 2 by induction proves that $s^D_{w} = s^D_{w+1}$ for all nodes in the greedy path and that $D \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{k} s^D_{w}$. Because the area of this last intersection decreases, it must eventually hold that the destination $D$ is reached (there cannot be an infinite number of nodes in an infinitesimally small surface).

Notice that this result follows directly from the results in (Li et al., 2010) since the paths satisfy the required axioms. However, we provide a direct simple and independent proof of the delivery of data.

4.2 Face routing primitives

In the following we describe the implementation of the face routing primitives. Basically if $u$ is the source and $D$ the destination of data the routing algorithm
at $u$ switches to face routing if $\mathcal{N}_u \cap s_p^2 \cap s^D_w = \emptyset$. The algorithm selects to start the face traversal the node $v$ such that $v \in \mathcal{N}_u$ and the edge $(u, v)$ is the first edge encountered when the line $uD$ is rotated counterclockwise. The face traversal stops if the path goes through a node belonging to $\mathcal{N}_u \cap s_p^2 \cap s^D_w$ or, if an edge $(v, w)$ intersects this region the algorithm decides whether the face traversal algorithm must follow or switch the face. Because we implement only the primitives for the left hand traversal rule, keeping or switching the face is done by choosing if the path traverses the region (by selecting $w$ as the next node) or if the path does not traverse the region by inverting the order of the nodes $(v, w)$, i.e. the node $v$ continues the execution of the left hand traversal algorithm by assuming that the data is received from node $w$.

Notice that our implementation is not an implementation of a classical algorithm like GFG or GPSR since it cannot be executed independently of greedy routing for the reasons mentioned in the introduction and substantiated below. However, our implementation follows the rule of GFG for face switching. To easier the comparison with GFG, we also keep the same terminology when needed. Indeed, in the following we say that an edge $(u, v)$ is on the left of an edge $(u, w)$ or a line $uD$ if the angle between the two measured counterclockwise is smaller that $\pi$.

Given an edge $(u, v)$, a first primitive to implement the face traversal is to rotate the edge around $u$ counterclockwise and to determine the next edge $(u, w)$ that we encounter. Actually, this amounts to find the edge $(u, w)$ that makes the smaller angle with $(u, v)$ where the angle is measured counterclockwise. In our coordinate system, we cannot compute the angles since we only know the order relations defined by the three anchors. In the following we say that an edge is the next edge to an edge $(u, v)$ or a line to indicate that we rotate the edge counterclockwise around $u$ and stop to the next edge that we encounter.

4.3 The implementation barrier, impossibility result.

There is a particular configuration where it is not possible to determine which of two edges $(u, v)$ and $(u, w)$ are next to a line $uD$. We emphasize that this is due do the fact that the nodes $u$ and $D$ are not connected. However, this configuration is frequent when $u$ is the source of data and $w$ is the destination.

**Proposition 3.** If the nodes $v, w \in s^2_p \cap s^D_u$ and, $D \notin \mathcal{N}_u$ while $v, w \in \mathcal{N}_u$, it is not possible in our coordinate system to determine which of the edge $(u, v)$ or $(u, w)$ is the next edge of the line $uD$.

**Proof.** Figure 3 shows two configurations where $v, w, D \in s^2_p$ and, where the same order relations exist between the nodes, i.e. $D < v < w < u$, $D > w > u$ and, $D > v > w$. On the left side of the figure the edge $(u, v)$ is next to the line $uD$ while on the right $(u, w)$ is not possible the determine the face that must be traversed among the one supported by $(u, v)$ and the one by $(u, w)$. In that case, our routing algorithm switches to greedy routing mode.

4.4 The edges are not in the same sector of the data destination.

If the destination $D$ is not in the same sector as the nodes $v, w$ it is possible to select the edge next to the line $uD$. To make this possible, we number the sectors of a node $u$ depending on the destination $D$ in the following manner. The sector $s^2_p$ (see Definition 3) gets the number 0 and, the others sectors of $u$ are increasingly numbered counterclockwise. We denote by num$(s^2_p, D)$ this number. Given a node $v$, we denote num$(s^2_p, D)$ the number of the sector to which $v$ belongs.

The implementation of this function is done by first determining the number $k$ of the sector $s^2_p$ defined in Definition 2 by inspection. Then, computing num$(s^2_p, D) = k + 6 - j \mod 6$ where $D \in s^2_p$ (or equivalently $j$ is the number of $s^2_p$), see Figure 6.

With these conventions, it is possible to determine which of the edges $(u, v)$ and $(u, w)$ is next to the line $uD$.

**Proposition 4.** Given that two nodes $v, w \not\in s^2_p$, the edge $(u, v)$ is next to the line $uD$ if

1. num$(s^2_p, D) <$ num$(s^2_u, D)$,
2. num$(s^2_p, D) =$ num$(s^2_w, D)$, $v, w \in s^2_p$ and $d(A_2, v) < d(A_2, w)$ or equivalently $v < w$. 

---

**Figure 3:** An illustration of the proof of Proposition 3. Given the order relations it is not possible to decide whether we are on the configuration depicted on the left or on the right of this Figure.
1. Because there is an edge

4. The complete implementation of Proposition 4 is

Proof. The first case is clear if \( u,v \) and \( w \) are separated by a sector. However, because the sectors are not convex it is not clear that it is true if \( u,v \) and \( w \) belong to two adjacent sectors. In the left of Figure 4, we represent the case where \( w \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \), \( v \in \mathcal{S}_2^u \) and the algorithm of the Proposition return the edge \((u,w)\) but, the edge \((u,v)\) is next to the destination \( D \). In the following, we prove that this case is not possible. We remind that because there is an edge \((u,v)\) there must exist \( i \in \{1,2,3\} \) such that \( u,v \in \mathcal{S}_i^u \). Because \( v \in \mathcal{S}_2^u \) is equivalent to \( u > 1 \), \( u < 2 \), \( u < v \) and \( w \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \), to \( u > 1 \), \( u < 2 \), \( u < v \) \( i \) must be \( 2 \), i.e. \( u,v \in \mathcal{S}_2^u \), the node \( w \) must belong to the hatched region in left of Figure 4. We then conclude that the edge \((u,w)\) as depicted on Figure 4 is not possible. The cases where \( v \) belongs to \( \mathcal{S}_2^u \) or \( \mathcal{S}_3^u \) are proved similarly.

Next, we assume that \( v,w \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \). Notice that it is not possible that \( u,v \) \( w \) belong to \( \mathcal{S}_3^u \), \( \mathcal{S}_3^u \) or \( \mathcal{S}_2^u \) because there can be only one edge in these sectors by Property 1. Because there is an edge \((u,v)\) the node \( w \) cannot be in the region \( \mathcal{S}_3^u \) and satisfying \( u > 1 \), \( w > 1 \), \( v \), see Proposition 1. Then, if the edges \((u,v)\) is next to \((u,D)\) then the node \( w \) must satisfy \( d(A_3,w) > d(A_3,v) \) and reciprocally, see the right of Figure 4. Notice that the hatched region on the right of Figure 4 is forbidden to \( w \). Indeed, if \( w \) were in this region then \( v \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \), like \( u \). But, because \( u > 1 \), \( v > 1 \), \( w \) then \( w \) would be connected to \( v \) instead of \( u \), a contradiction. The proofs of others cases are similar.

For convenience we implement a subroutine \( \text{right}(u,v,w) \) that returns which of the edges \((u,v)\) or \((u,w)\) is the closest to right border when \( v \) and \( w \) are in the same sector, see Figure 5. This corresponds to the implementation of the points 2,3,4 of Proposition 4. The complete implementation of Proposition 4 is included in the implementation of the face traversal algorithm, see Algorithms 11 and 9.

\[
3. \quad \text{num}(\mathcal{S}_3^u,D) = \text{num}(\mathcal{S}_2^u,D), \quad v,w \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \quad \text{and} \quad d(A_3,v) < d(A_3,w) \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad v < w.
\]

\[
4. \quad \text{num}(\mathcal{S}_2^u,D) = \text{num}(\mathcal{S}_3^u,D), \quad v,w \in \mathcal{S}_2^u \quad \text{and} \quad d(A_1,v) < d(A_1,w) \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad v < w.
\]

Proof: The first case is clear if \( u,v \) and \( w \) are separated by a sector. However, because the sectors are not convex it is not clear that it is true if \( u,v \) and \( w \) belong to two adjacent sectors. In the left of Figure 4, we represent the case where \( w \in \mathcal{S}_2^u \), \( v \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \), and the algorithm of the Proposition return the edge \((u,w)\) but, the edge \((u,v)\) is next to the destination \( D \). In the following, we prove that this case is not possible. We remind that because there is an edge \((u,v)\) there must exist \( i \in \{1,2,3\} \) such that \( u,v \in \mathcal{S}_i^u \). Because \( v \in \mathcal{S}_2^u \) is equivalent to \( u > 1 \), \( u < 2 \), \( u < v \) and \( w \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \), to \( u > 1 \), \( u < 2 \), \( u < v \) \( i \) must be \( 2 \), i.e. \( u,v \in \mathcal{S}_2^u \), the node \( w \) must belong to the hatched region in left of Figure 4. We then conclude that the edge \((u,w)\) as depicted in Figure 4 is not possible. The cases where \( v \) belongs to \( \mathcal{S}_2^u \) or \( \mathcal{S}_3^u \) are proved similarly.

Next, we assume that \( v,w \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \). Notice that it is not possible that \( u,v \) \( w \) belong to \( \mathcal{S}_3^u \), \( \mathcal{S}_3^u \) or \( \mathcal{S}_2^u \) because there can be only one edge in these sectors by Property 1. Because there is an edge \((u,v)\) the node \( w \) cannot be in the region \( \mathcal{S}_3^u \) and satisfying \( u > 1 \), \( w > 1 \), \( v \), see Proposition 1. Then, if the edges \((u,v)\) is next to \((u,D)\) then the node \( w \) must satisfy \( d(A_3,v) > d(A_3,w) \) and reciprocally, see the right of Figure 4. Notice that the hatched region on the right of Figure 4 is forbidden to \( w \). Indeed, if \( w \) were in this region then \( v \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \), like \( u \). But, because \( u > 1 \), \( v > 1 \), \( w \) then \( w \) would be connected to \( v \) instead of \( u \), a contradiction. The proofs of others cases are similar.

Input: Nodes \( u,v,w \) such that \( v,w \in \mathcal{N}_u \) and \( v,w \) belong to the same sector of \( u \)

Output: Node \( x \in \{v,w\} \) that is the closer to the right border of the sector the nodes belong to

- if \( w \in \mathcal{S}_2^u \) then
- else if \( d(A_2,w) < d(A_2,v) \) then return \( w \);
- else
- return \( v \);
end if

else if \( w \in \mathcal{S}_3^u \) then
- else if \( d(A_3,w) < d(A_3,v) \) then return \( w \);
- else
- return \( v \);
end if

Figure 5: Implementation of the routine \( \text{right}(u,v,w) \)

4.5 Starting face routing, extension of the function \( \text{num}(\mathcal{S}_3^u,D), \text{num}(\mathcal{S}_2^u,D) \)

when \( v,w \in \mathcal{S}_D^u \)

In Proposition 3, we proved that if \( v,w \in \mathcal{S}_D^u \) it is not possible to determinates which of the edge \((u,v)\) or \((u,w)\) is next to the line \( uD \). Actually, if \( v \) or \( w \) belong to \( \mathcal{S}_D^u \) the algorithm selects this node and switches to greedy routing. However, we need to extend the function \( \text{num}(\mathcal{S}_3^u,D) \) to the case where \( v,w \in \mathcal{S}_D^u \).

Let us assume that \( D \in \mathcal{S}_D^u \). Because the algorithm described in Proposition 4 selects the nodes that belong to the sector with the smaller number, the solution consists in keeping the number 0 for the sector defined by \( \mathcal{S}_D^u \cap \{v \mid d(v,A_3) > d(D,A_3)\} \), see Figure 6 and assign the number 6 to the complement of this sector in \( \mathcal{S}_D^u \).

By inspection, we extend the function \( \text{num}(\mathcal{S}_3^u,D) \) by assigning the number 6 to the sector

\[
\mathcal{S}_D^u \cap \{v \mid d(v,A_2) < d(D,A_2)\} \quad \text{if} \quad D \in \mathcal{S}_D^u \\
\mathcal{S}_D^u \cap \{v \mid d(v,A_3) < d(D,A_3)\} \quad \text{if} \quad D \in \mathcal{S}_D^u \\
\mathcal{S}_D^u \cap \{v \mid d(v,A_1) < d(D,A_1)\} \quad \text{if} \quad D \in \mathcal{S}_D^u
\]

Next, if two or more nodes belong to the sector number 0 we choose the one that is next to the line \( uD \) by using the function \( \text{right}(u,v,w) \) presented in Figure 5. The entire algorithm is presented in Figure 9.
4.4. The sector 6 is a refinement of the sector 0 and contains the nodes of the form \( s^D_u \setminus (s^D_u \cup (s^D_u - 1) \cup (s^D_u - 2)) \) such that \( (u,v) \) is on the right of the line \( uD \).

**Input:** Nodes \( u, v, w, D \) such that \( v, w \in \mathcal{N}_u \), \( v, w \not\in s^D_u \) and \( D \not\in \mathcal{N}_u \).

**Output:** Node \( x \in \{v, w\} \) such that \( u(x) \) is next to \( uD \) next to the line \( uD \) provided that the region \( s^D_u \cap s^D_u = \emptyset \). The impossibility result holds when this intersection is not empty.

4.6 Selecting the next edge in face routing

To implement face routing, we face the problem that given that node \( u \) receives the data from node \( v \) we must determine which edge is next to \( (u,v) \) by rotating the edge around \( u \) counterclockwise. The function \textit{nextto}, Figure 7 discussed in Section 4.5 cannot be used in this form. Indeed, if we consider that two nodes \( x, y \in \mathcal{N}_u \cap s^D_u \) the function \textit{nextto} does not every time return the right nodes. The problem is again that the function \textit{nextto} assumes that \( x, y \not\in s^D_u \). However, because in our case there is an edge between \( u \) and \( v \) the function \textit{right} can be used.

To determine the the next edge to \( (u,v) \) is similar than in the function \textit{nextto} if \( x, y \ not \in s^D_u \). On the other case, we must distinguish the three configurations illustrated in Figure 8 using the function \textit{right}. The resulting function, \textit{FaceNextEdge} is presented in Figure 11.

4.7 Face switching

According to the proof that GFG delivers data with certainty for any planar graph given in (Bose et al., 1999), when an edge \( (v,w) \) of face routing cuts the
source destination line \( uD \), face traversal must change the traversed face if the line \( wD \) is on the right of the edge \((w,v)\). That means that the angle between \((w,v)\) and the line \( wD \) measured counterclockwise is larger than \( \pi \), i.e. we need to rotate the line \((w,v)\) for an angle larger than \( \pi \) to match the line \( uD \).

In our case, we cannot detect the intersection of the line \( uD \). What we detect is that the edge \((v,w)\) crosses the region \( s^D_u \cap s^D_v \). This is equivalent to detect that \((v,w) \cap uD \neq \emptyset \) because we know that \( s^D_u \cap s^D_v = \emptyset \). By direct inspection and using the Property 2, we conclude that a crossing that triggers a face switching occurs if and only if (the arrow \( \rightarrow \) indicates the direction of the data, and the number of the sectors are all \( \text{mod} 6 \), i.e. \( s^D_u + 1 \) means \( s^D_u + 1 \mod 6 \))

\[
\begin{align*}
  s^D_u + 1 & \rightarrow s^D_u - 1, \text{ or } s^D_u + 1, \text{ or } s^D_u + 2 \\
  s^D_u - 1 & \rightarrow s^D_u - 1 \\
  s^D_u - 2 & \rightarrow s^D_u - 1 \\
  s^D_u + 2 & \rightarrow s^D_u + 1 \\
  s^D_u + 1 & \rightarrow s^D_u + 1 \\
  s^D_u - 1 & \rightarrow s^D_u + 1, \text{ or } s^D_u - 1, \text{ or } s^D_u - 2 \\
\end{align*}
\]

We represent on Figure 10 the edges that cross the region \( s^D_u \cap s^D_v \).

5 The routing algorithm

The guaranteed delivery routing algorithm that we present in this section combine two different algorithm in the spirit of classical greedy-face routing algorithm (Bose et al., 1999; Karp and Kung, 2000). Our routing algorithm combine two routing modes that we call sector routing and face routing.

6 Simulations

In this section we present a comparative analysis of our geographic routing algorithm with GPSR.
We perform simulations varying the node density within an area of 400 x 400. Radio ranges of nodes are set to be 50 units and nodes are spread uniformly throughout the area. Shortest path is found between two randomly selected source and destination nodes in the randomly deployed topology using the Dijkstra’s algorithm in a centralized manner. Note that we do not perform better compared to GFG on a euclidean plane. But we emphasise the trade-off between cheap localization schemes like VRAC and relatively low stretch factor performance.

6.1 Stretch factor

We perform simulations varying the node density within an area of 400 x 400. Radio ranges of nodes are set to be 50 units and nodes are spread uniformly throughout the area. Shortest path is found between two randomly selected source and destination nodes in the randomly deployed topology using the Dijkstra’s algorithm in a centralized manner. Note that we do not perform better compared to GFG on a euclidean plane. But we emphasise the trade-off between cheap localization schemes like VRAC and relatively low stretch factor performance.

7 Conclusion

Geographic routing over virtual coordinate systems has studied extensively as an alternative to real localization systems. Despite of the numerous proposals mostly in theoretical perspectives, their practical realisability is questionable due to unfavorable computations required. Use of raw distance measures from a set of anchors as the coordinate like in VRAC, posed to be promising mainly due to its simplicity offered in wireless sensor network environments. Even though, partial nature of geographic information carried by VRAC coordinates make geographic routing not so trivial. Especially in the absence of fundamental geometric concepts like angle and distance, raw coordinate systems require a different approach to perform geographic routing algorithms. In this paper we take a combinatorial approach to construct basic properties needed to perform both greedy and face routing phases. Further more we prove that, based on those constructs it can perform delivery guaranteed face routing in arbitrary graphs.

We evaluate our approach with standard geographic routing algorithm GPSR comparing the stretch factor. As the first attempt in this line of research towards geographic face routing, we further believe that the combinatorial constructs could demonstrate resilience towards erroneous distance measures. Further more we believe that, with future contributions our approach would be a candidate with real wireless sensor network characteristics.

REFERENCES


