

Routing protocols for ad hoc networks

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OUTLINE:

- Introduction
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- Proactive routing protocols
- Reactive routing protocols
- Hybrid routing protocols
- Hierarchical routing protocols
- Power-aware routing protocols

1. Introduction

What we have in ad hoc environment:

- dynamically changing topology;
- absence of fixed infrastructure and centralized administration;
- bandwidth constrained wireless links;
- energy-constrained nodes.

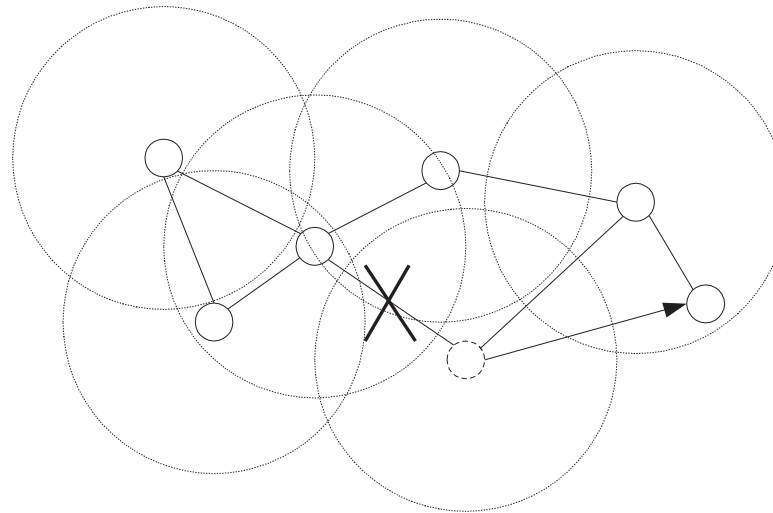


Figure 1: Link loss is one of the biggest problem for routing.

1.1. Challenges of routing protocols in ad hoc networks

The following are the main challenges:

- Movement of nodes:
 - Path breaks;
 - Partitioning of a network;
 - Inability to use protocols developed for fixed network.
- Bandwidth is a scarce resource;
 - Inability to have full information about topology;
 - Control overhead must be minimized.
- Shared broadcast radio channel:
 - Nodes compete for sending packets;
 - Collisions.
- Erroneous transmission medium:
 - Loss of routing packets.

1.2. Design goals

Goals that must be met:

- must be scalable;
- must be fully distributed, no central coordination;
- must be adaptive to topology changes caused by movement of nodes;
- route computation and maintenance must involve a minimum number of nodes;
- must be localized, global exchange involves a huge overhead;
- must be loop-free;
- must effectively avoid stale routes;
- must converge to optimal routes very fast;
- must optimally use the scarce resources: bandwidth, battery power, memory, computing;
- should provide QoS guarantees to support time-sensitive traffic.

2. Classification of routing protocols

Routing protocols for ad-hoc wireless networks can be classified based on:

- routing information update mechanism;
- usage of temporal information (e.g. cached routes);
- usage of topology information;
- usage of specific resources (e.g. GPS).

Based on routing information update mechanism

- Proactive (table-driven) routing protocols;
- Reactive (on-demand) routing protocols;
- Hybrid protocols.

Based on usage of temporal information

- Based on past temporal information;
- Based on future temporal information.

Based on the routing topology

- Flat topology routing protocols:
- Hierarchical topology routing protocols:

Routing based on utilization of specific resources:

- Power-aware routing;
- Geographical information assisted routing.

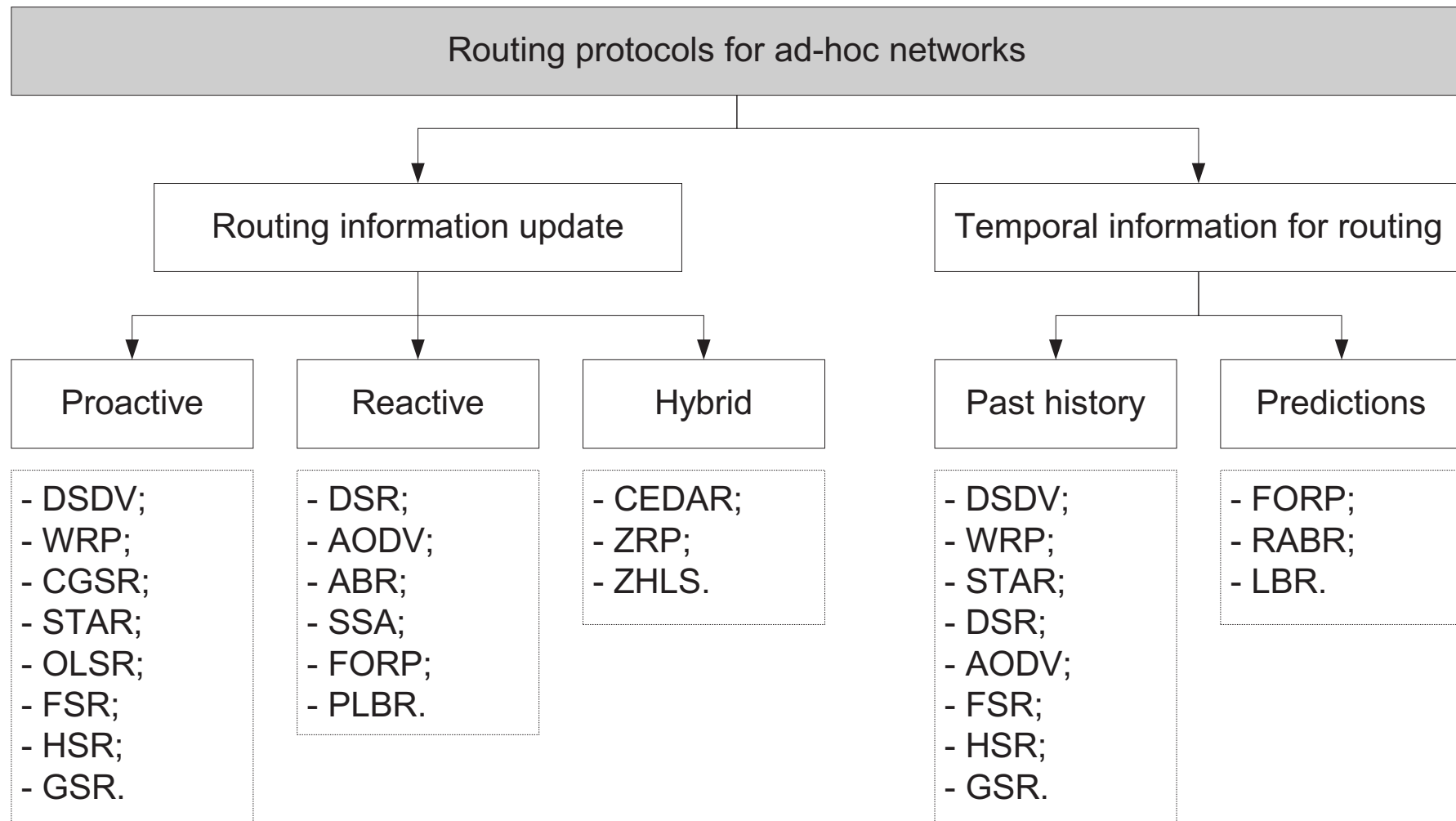


Figure 2: Classification of routing protocols, part I.

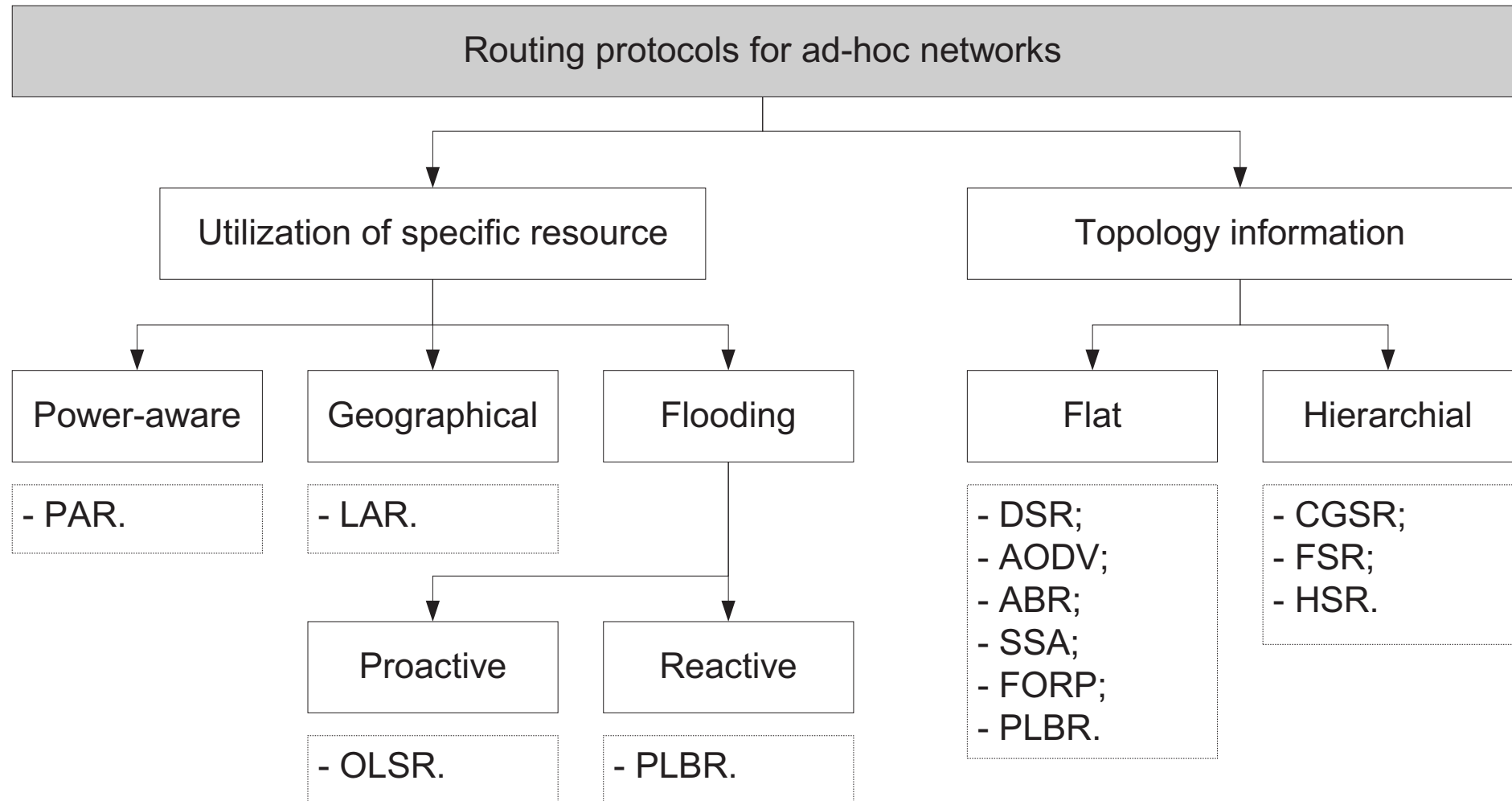


Figure 3: Classification of routing protocols, part II.

3. Proactive routing protocols

These are table-driven protocols.

We consider:

- destination sequenced distance vector routing protocol (DSDV);
- wireless routing protocol (WRP);
- cluster head gateway routing protocol (CGCR).
- source-tree adaptive routing protocol (STAR);

Common advantages and shortcoming of these protocols:

- +: low delay of route setup process: all routes are immediately available;
- -: high bandwidth requirements: updates due to link loss leads to high control overhead;
- -: low scalability: control overhead is proportional to the number of nodes;
- -: high storage requirements: whole table must be in memory.

3.1. Destination sequenced distance vector routing protocol (DSDV)

Modification of the Bellman-Ford algorithm where each node maintains:

- the shortest path to destination;
- the first node on this shortest path.

This protocol is characterized by the following:

- routes to destination are readily available at each node in the routing table (RT);
- RTs are exchanged between neighbors at regular intervals;
- RTs are also exchanged when significant changes in local topology are observed by a node.

RT updates can be of two types:

- incremental updates:
 - take place when a node does not observe significant changes in a local topology;
- full dumps:
 - take place when significant changes of local topology are observed;

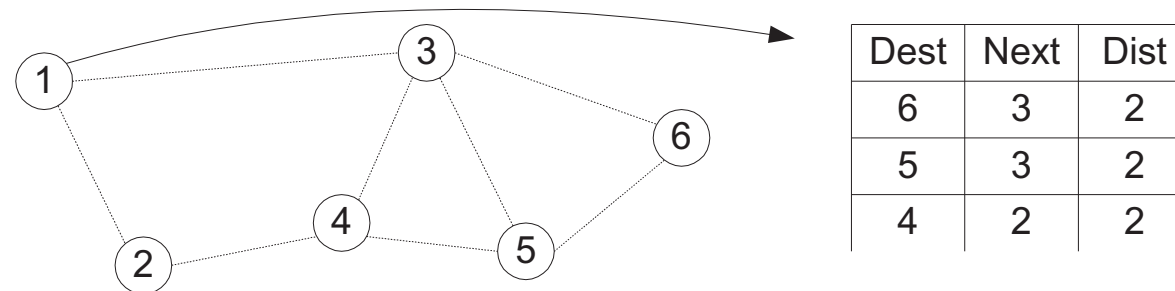


Figure 4: Example of routing table in DSDV.

The reconfiguration of path (used for ongoing data transfer) is done as follows:

- the end node of the broken link sends a table update message with:
 - broken link's weight assigned to infinity;
 - sequence number greater than the stored sequence number for that destination.
- each node re-sends this message to its neighbors to propagate the broken link to the network;
- even sequence number is generated by end node, odd – by all other nodes.

Note: single link break leads to the propagation of RT updates through the whole network!

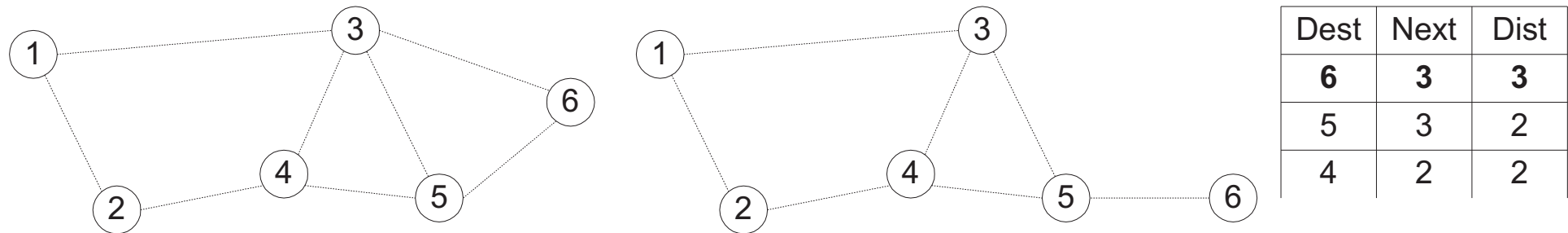


Figure 5: Route update in DSDV.

Route maintenance in DSDV is performed as follows:

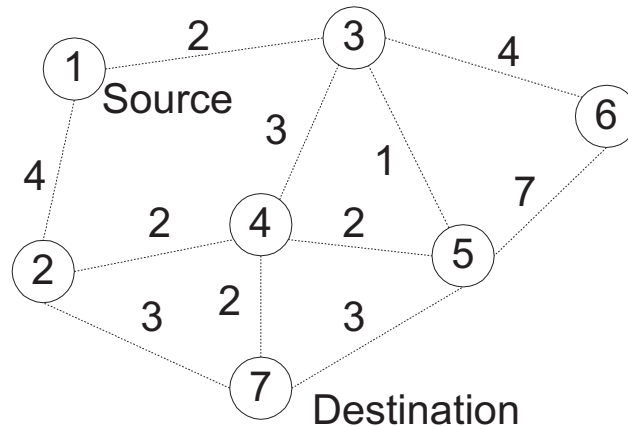
- when a neighbor node perceives a link break (node 3):
 - it sets all routes through broken link to ∞ ;
 - broadcasts its routing table.
- node 5 receives update message, it informs neighbors about the shortest distance to node 6;
- this information is propagated through the network and all node updates their RTs;
- node 1 may now sends their packets through route 1 – 3 – 5 – 6 instead of 1 – 3 – 6.

3.2. Wireless routing protocol (WRP)

Each node maintains the following:

- Distance table (DT) containing network view of the neighbors of the node:
 - distance and predecessor node for all destinations as seen by each neighbor.
- Routing table (RT) containing view of the network for all known destinations including:
 - the shortest distance to destinations;
 - the predecessor node;
 - the successor node;
 - flag indicating the status of the path (correct, loop, null).
- Link cost table (LCT) containing cost-related information including:
 - number of hops to reach destination (cost of the broken link is ∞);
 - number of update periods passed from the last successful update of the link.
- Message retransmission list (MRL) containing counter for each entry:
 - the counter is decremented after every retransmission of the update message.

Routing entries at each node for destination 7:



Dest	Next	Pred	Cost
7	7	7	0
6	3	5	8
5	7	5	3
4	7	4	2
3	5	5	4
2	7	2	3
1	3	5	6

Figure 6: Routing table in WRP.

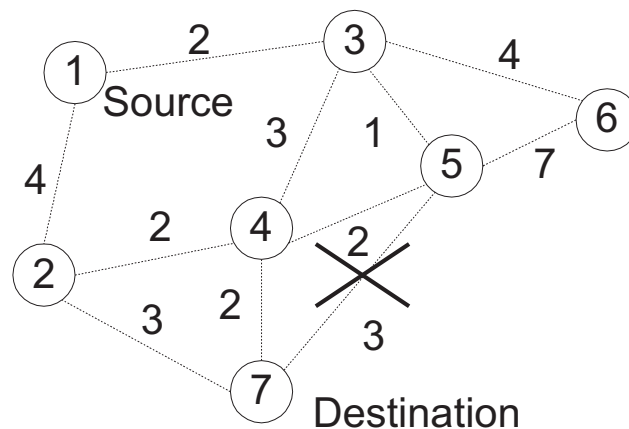
Break: detected by number of update periods missed since successful transmission:

- each update message contains a list of updates;
- a node marks each node in RT that has to acknowledge update message it transmitted;
- once the counter of MRL reaches zero:
 - entries in update message for which no acknowledgement received are to be retransmitted;
 - update message is deleted.

When a node detects a link break:

- it sends an update message to its neighbors with link cost set to ∞ ;
- all affected node update their routes when they receive update message;
- the node that initiated the update message finds an alternative route from its DT;
- it updates its RT and sends update message to its neighbors;
- nodes update its RTs if this received route is better than they have, otherwise they discard it.

Dest	Next	Pred	Cost
7	7	7	0
6	3	5	8
5	7	5	3
4	7	4	2
3	5	5	4
2	7	2	3
1	3	5	6



Dest	Next	Pred	Cost
7	7	7	0
6	3	4	9
5	4	4	4
4	7	4	2
3	4	4	5
2	7	2	3
1	2	2	7

Figure 7: Route maintenance in WRP.

3.3. Cluster head gateway switch routing protocol (GGSR)

It is characterized by the following:

- nodes are organized into clusters, each having an elected cluster-head;
- cluster head provides a coordination within its transmission range (single hop);
- token-based scheduling is used within a cluster for sharing bandwidth between nodes;
- all communications pass through the cluster head;
- communication between cluster is done using the common nodes (gateways with two interfaces).

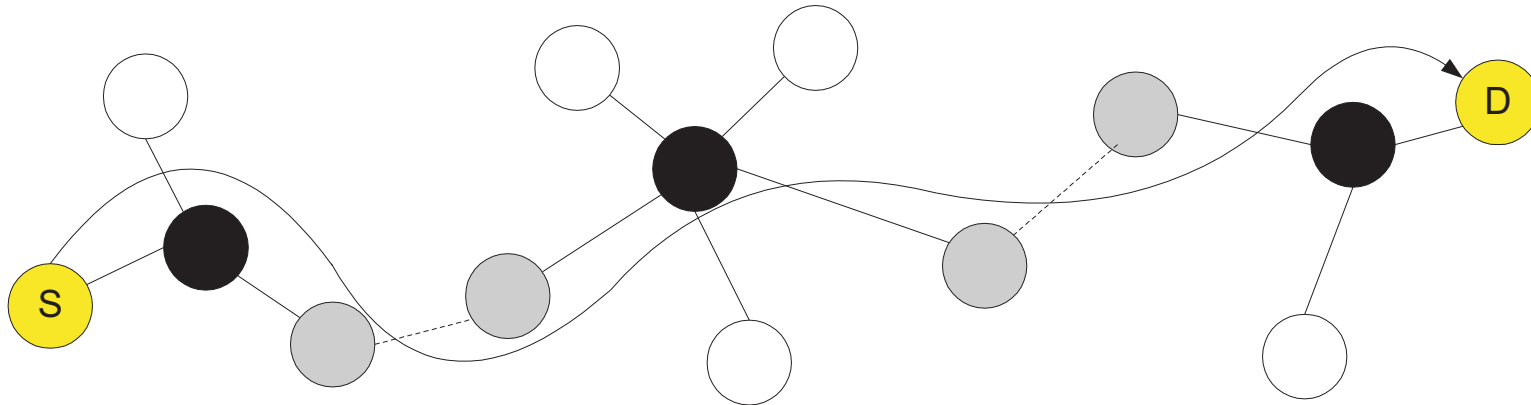


Figure 8: Abstract representation of routing in GGSR.

Two tables are used in CGSR:

- Cluster member table containing the destination cluster head for every node;
- Routing table containing the next-hop node for every destination cluster.

The protocol operates as follows:

- a node obtains a token from its cluster head;
- if this node has a packet to transmit, it determines the destination cluster head and next-hop;
- routed packet goes as follows:
 - $a - H_1 - G_1 - H_2 - G_2 - \dots - H_i - G_i - \dots - G_n - H_n - b$: where
 - G_i is the gateway i ;
 - H_i is the cluster head i .

Route reconfiguration happens when:

- there is a change in cluster heads;
- stale entries are in cluster member table or routing table.

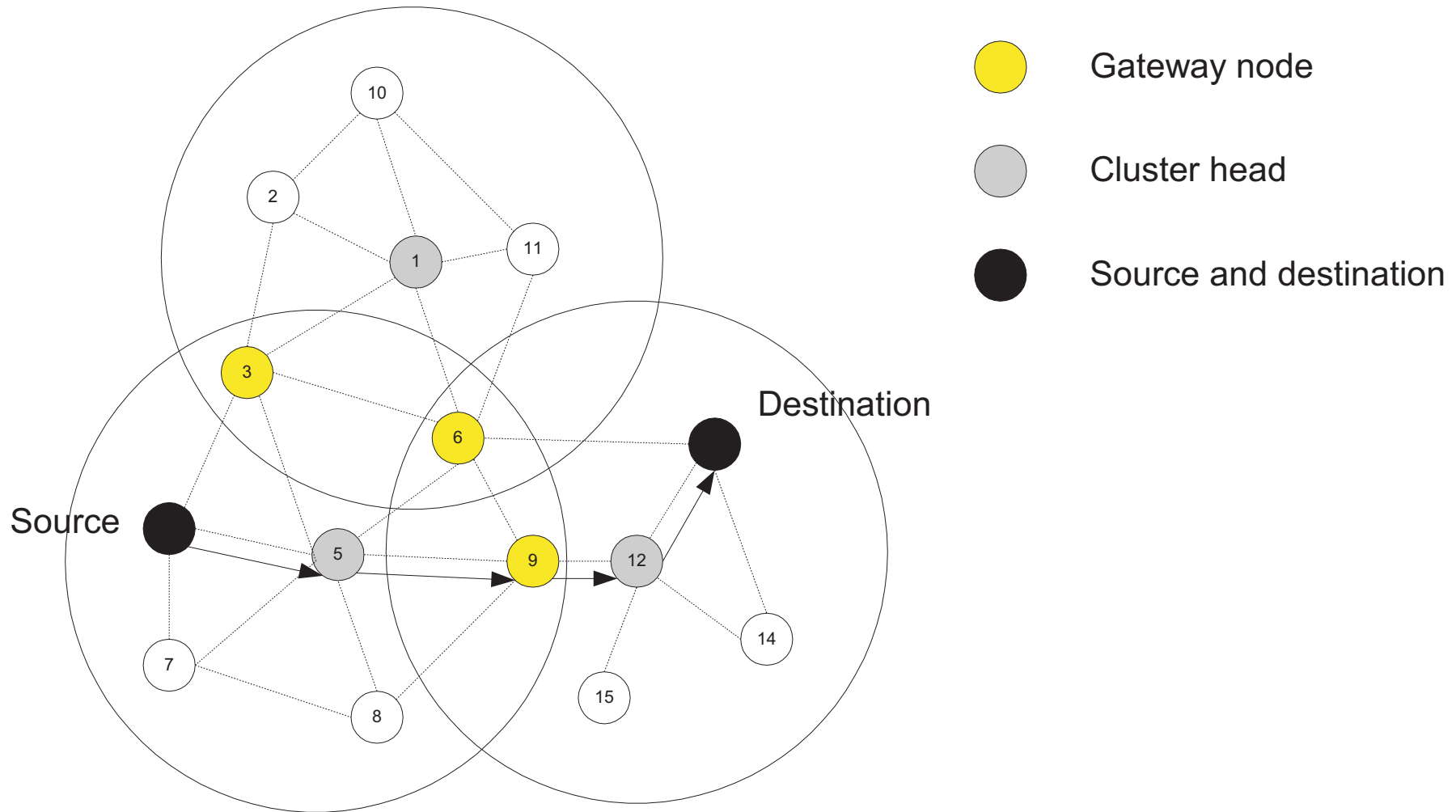


Figure 9: Route path in CGSR.

3.4. Source-tree adaptive routing protocol (STAR)

There are two protocols with different aims:

- Least overhead routing approach (LORA):
 - minimize control overhead irrespective of optimality;
- Optimum routing approach (ORA):
 - provide optimal routes irrespective of the control overhead;

The STAR protocol operates as follows:

- each node is required to:
 - send an update message to its neighbors during initialization;
 - send update messages about new destinations, chances of routing loops, costs of paths.
- every node broadcasts its **source-tree** information:
 - wireless links used by the node in its preferred path to destinations.
- every node builds its partial graph of topology based on:
 - its adjacent links with neighbors, source-tree broadcasts by neighbors.

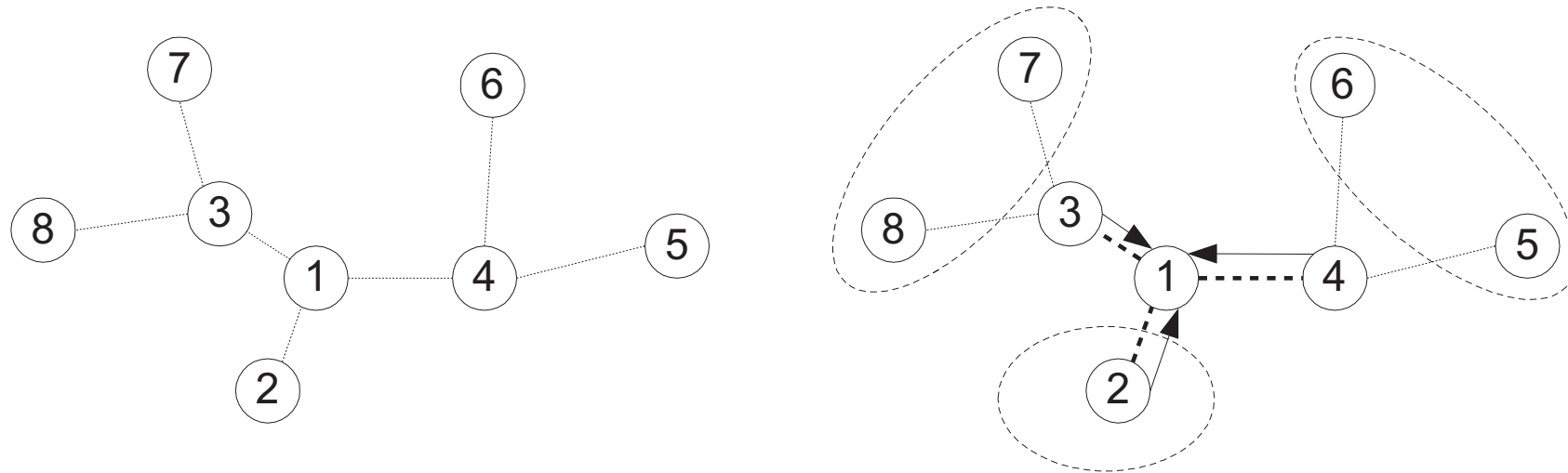


Figure 10: Local topology construction.

The following method is used to find paths:

- if a node 1 wishes to send data to node N and does not have path in its source tree:
 - it sends update message to all neighbors and indicates that there is no path to N ;
 - neighbor that have the path, responses with update messages;
 - node 1 updates its source tree and may begin transmission.

4. Reactive routing protocols

These protocols find paths to destination only when needed (on-demand) to transmit a packet.

We consider:

- Dynamic source routing protocol (DSR);
- Ad hoc on-demand distance vector routing protocol (AODV);
- Location aided routing (LAR);
- Associativity-based routing (ABR);
- Signal stability-based adaptive routing protocol (SSA);

These protocols have the following advantages and shortcomings:

- –: high delay of route setup process: routes are established on-demand;
- +: small control overhead: no route updates;
- –: low scalability: no route updates;
- –: low storage requirements: only needed routes are in cache.

4.1. Dynamic source routing protocol

This is a source-based routing protocol.

The difference between DSR and other on-demand routing protocols is:

- on-demand protocols periodically exchange the so-called **beacon** (hello) packets:
 - hello packets are used to inform neighbors about existence of the node.
- DSR does not use hello packets.

The basic approach of this protocol is as follows:

- during route contraction DSR floods a RouteRequest packets in the network;
- intermediate nodes forward RouteRequest if it is not redundant;
- destination node replies with RouteReply;
- the RouteReply packet contains the path traversed by RouteRequest packet;
- the receiver responds only if this is a first RouteRequest (not duplicate).

The DSR protocol uses the sequence numbers:

- RouteRequest packet carries the path traversed and the sequence number;
- the sequence numbers are used to prevent loop formation and nodes check it.

The DSR also uses route cache in each node:

- if node has a route in the cache, this route is used.

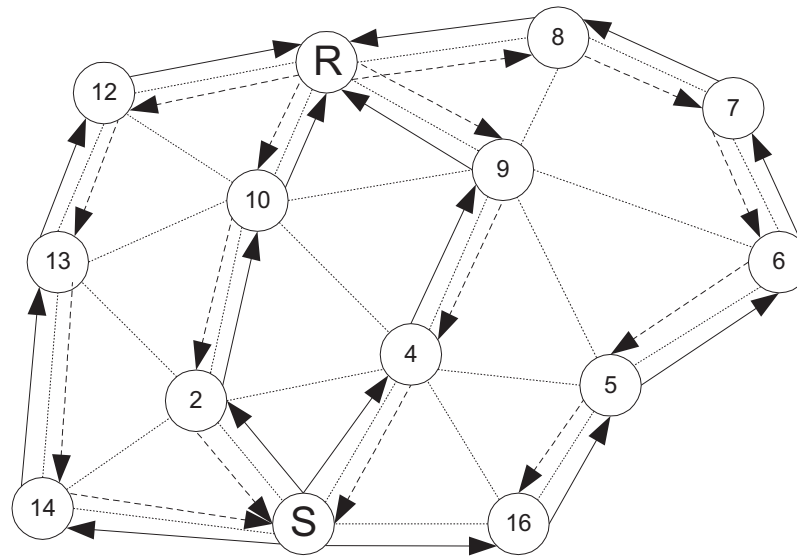


Figure 11: Route establishment in DSR.

Refinements of DSR:

- to avoid over-flooding the network, exponential back-off is used between RouteRequest sending;
- intermediate node is allowed to reply with RouteReply if it has a route to destination in cache;
- if the link is broken the RouteError is sent to the sender by node adjacent to a broken link.

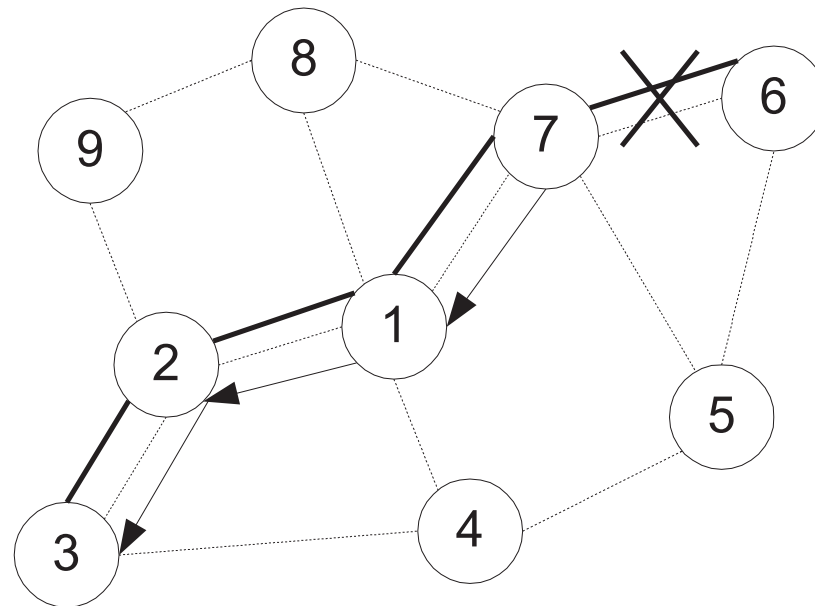


Figure 12: Route failure notification in DSR.

4.2. Ad hoc on-demand distance vector routing protocol

The major differences between AODV and DSR are as follows:

- in DSR a data packet carries the complete path to be traversed;
- in AODV nodes store the next hop information (hop-by-hop routing) for each data flow.

The RouteRequest packet in AODV carries the following information:

- the source identifier (SrcID): this identifies the source;
- the destination identifier (DestID): this identifies the destination to which the route is required;
- the source sequence number (SrcSeqNum);
- the destination sequence number (DestSeqNum): indicates the freshness of the route.
- the broadcast identifier (BcastID): is used to discard multiple copies of the same RouteRequest.
- the time to live (TTL): this is used to not allow loops.

The AODV protocol performs as follows:

- when a node does not have a valid route to destination a RouteRequest is forwarded;
- when intermediate node receives a RouteRequest packet two cases are possible:
 - if it does not have a valid route to destination, the node forwards it;
 - if it has a valid route, the node prepares a RouteReply message:
- if the RouteRequest is received multiple times, the duplicate copies are discarded:
 - are determined comparing BcastID-SrcID pairs.
- when RouteRequest is forwarded, the address of previous node and its BcastID are stored;
 - are needed to forward packets to the source.
- if RouteReply is not received before a time expires, this entry is deleted;
- either destination node or intermediate node responses with valid route;
- when RouteRequest is forwarded back, the address of previous node and its BcastID are stored;
 - are needed to forward packets to the destination.

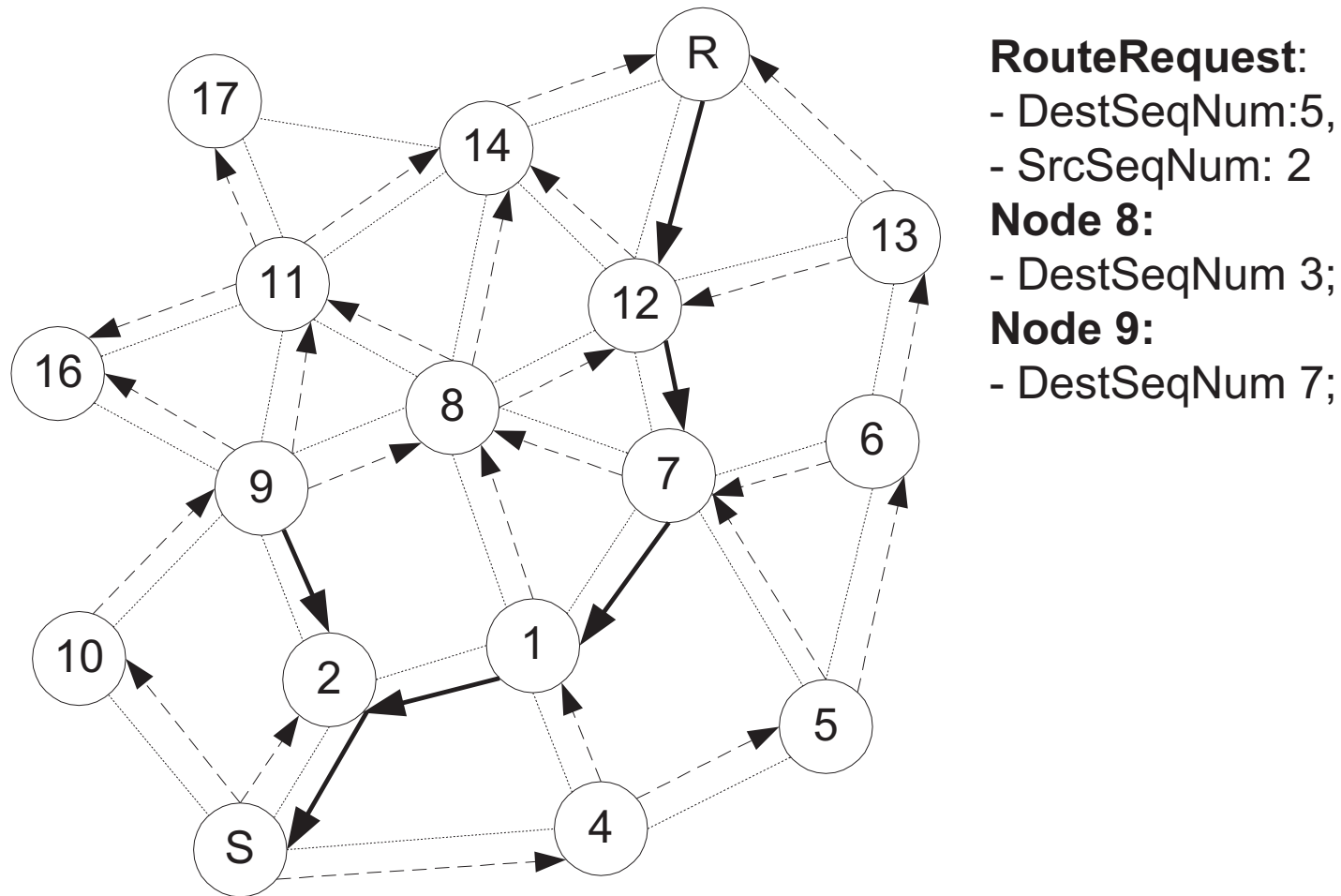


Figure 13: Route establishment in AODV.

In case of the link break:

- end-nodes are notified by unsolicited RouteReply with hop count set to ∞ ;
- end-nodes delete entries and establish a new path using new BcastID;
- link status is observed using the link-level beacons or link-level ACKs.

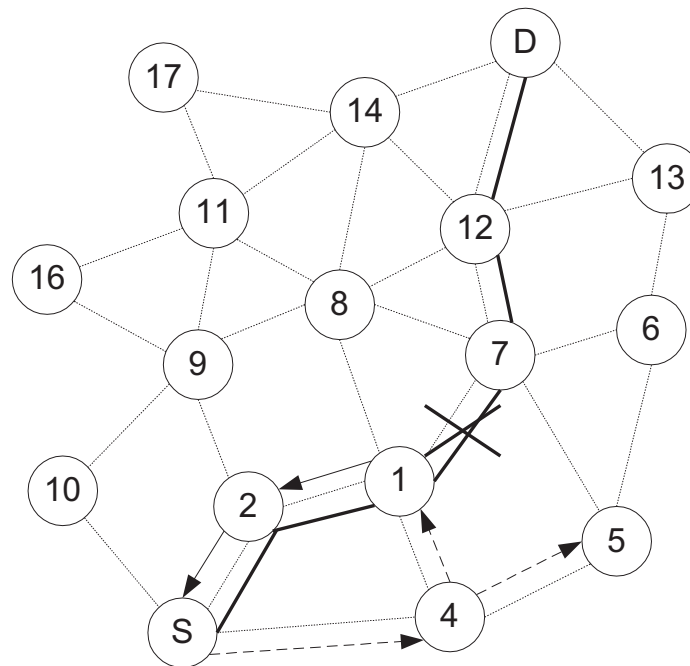


Figure 14: Route maintenance in AODV.

4.3. Location aided routing

What are basics of LAR:

- uses the location information (assumes the availability of GPS);
- reactive (on-demand) protocol.

LAR designates two zones for selective forwarding of control packets:

- **ExpectedZone:**

This is a geographical zone in which the location of the terminal is predicted based on:

- location of the terminal in the past;
- mobility information of the terminal.

There is no info about previous location of the terminal the whole network is the ExpectedZone.

- **RequestZone:**

This is a geographical zone within which control packets are allowed to propagate:

- this area is determined by the sender of the data packet;
- control packets are forwarded by node within a RequestZone only;
- if the node is not found using the first RequestZone, the size of RequestZone is increased.

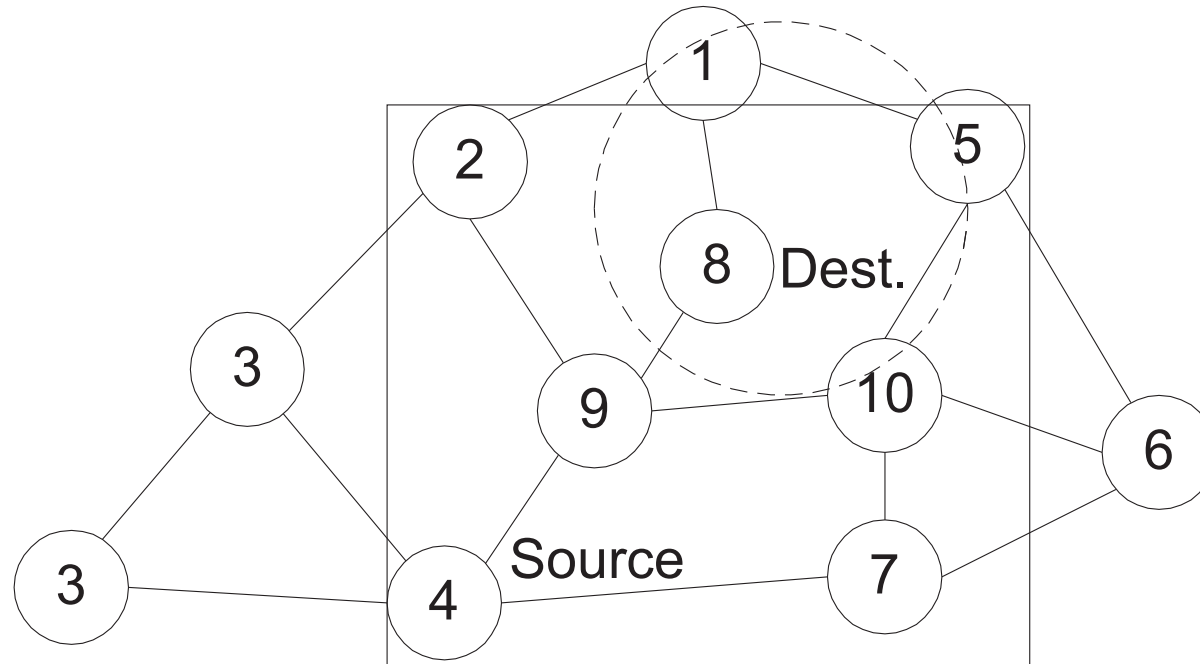


Figure 15: Example of ExpectedZone and RequestZone.

Nodes decide whether to forward or discard packets based on two algorithms:

- LAR type 1;
- LAR type 2.

LAR type 1 algorithm works as follows:

- the sender explicitly specifies the RequestZone in the RouteRequest packet;
- the RequestZone is the smallest rectangle that includes the source and the ExpectedZone;
- when the node is in ExpectedZone, the RequestZone is reduced to the ExpectedZone;
- if the RouteRequest packet is received by the node within RequestZone, it forwards it.

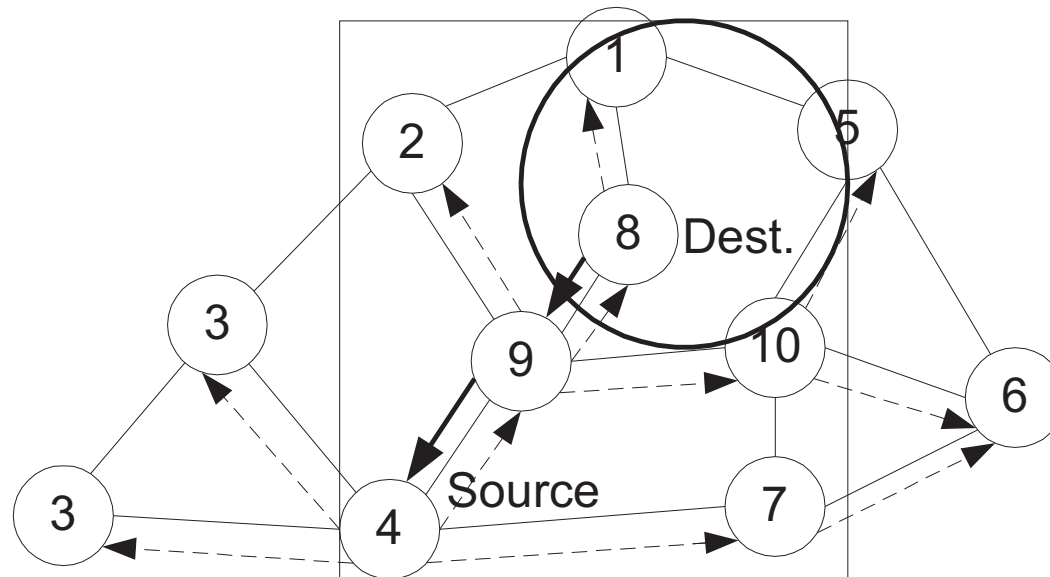


Figure 16: Routing procedure in LAR type 1.

LAR type 2 algorithm operates as follows:

- the sender includes the distance to the source in the RouteRequest packet;
- intermediate nodes compute the distance to the destination:
 - if this distance is less than the distance between source and destination packet is forwarded;
 - otherwise the packet is discarded.
- distance in the packet is updated at every node with lower distance to destination.

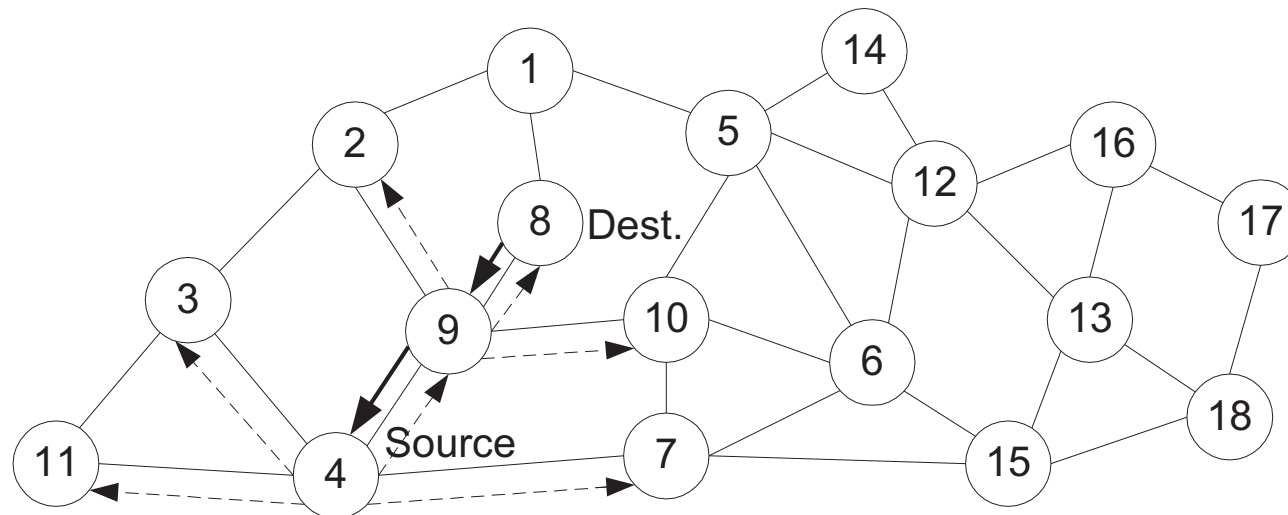


Figure 17: Routing procedure in LAR type 2.

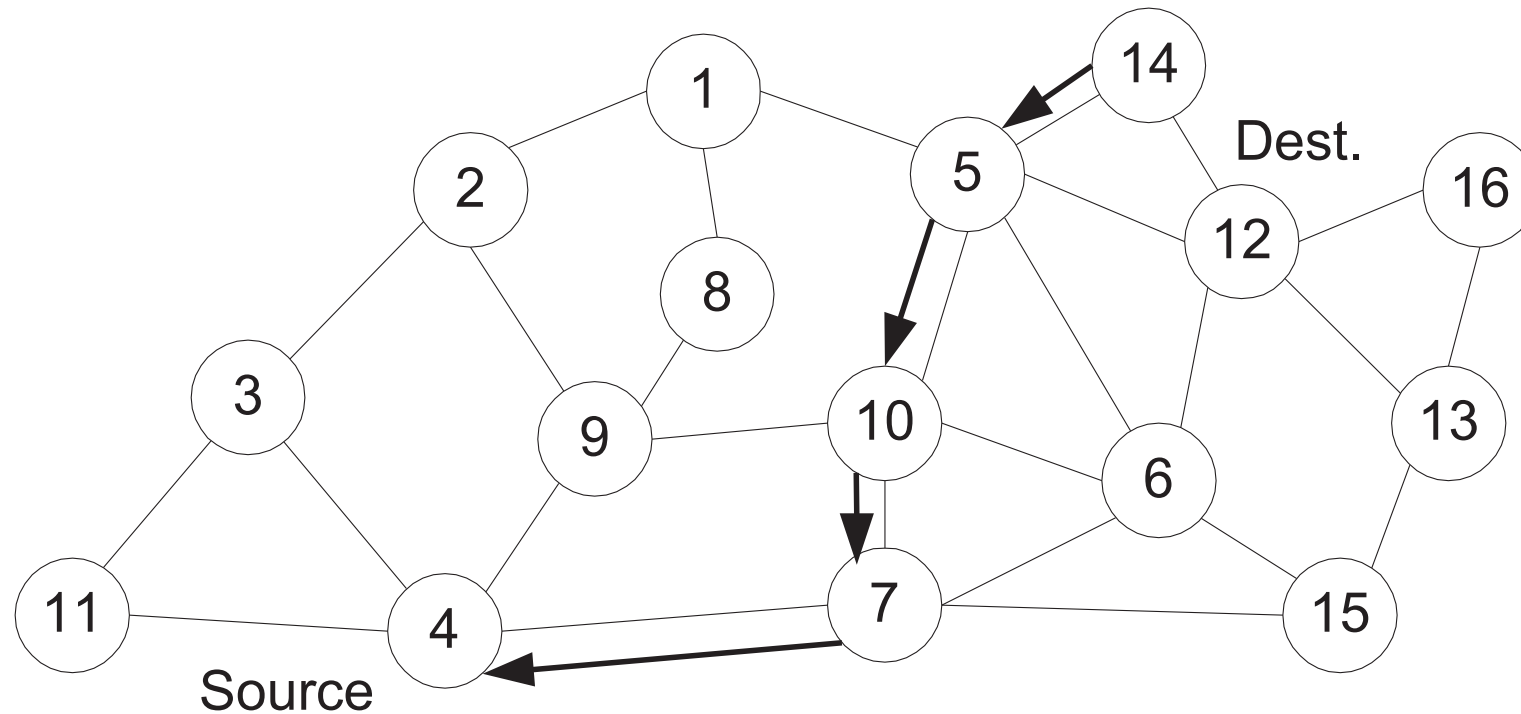
4.4. Associativity-based routing

It is characterized by the following:

- on-demand beacon-based protocol;
- routes are selected based on temporal stability of wireless links:
- to determine temporal stability, each node maintains the count of its neighbors' beacons.

The protocol operates as follows:

- source node floods the RouteRequest packet, all intermediate nodes forward this packet;
- RouteRequest packet carries the following:
 - the path it has traversed;
 - the beacon count for corresponding node in the path.
- when the first RouteRequest reaches the destination, the destination:
 - waits for RouteSelect time to receive multiple copies of RouteRequest;
 - selects the path that has the maximum number of stable links;
 - replies to the source with RouteReply packet.



4 - 7 - 10 - 5 - 14;
 4 - 7 - 6 - 12 - 14;
 4 - 9 - 8 - 1 - 5 - 14...

Figure 18: Routing in ABR.

If the link break occurs:

- the node closer to the source initiates a local link repair as follows:
 - broadcasts locally route repair packet (local query (LQ)) with limited TTL (e.g., 3);
- if this node fails to repair, then the next node closer to destination initiates a route repair;
- if nodes constituting a half of pass of the route fail to repair, the source is informed.

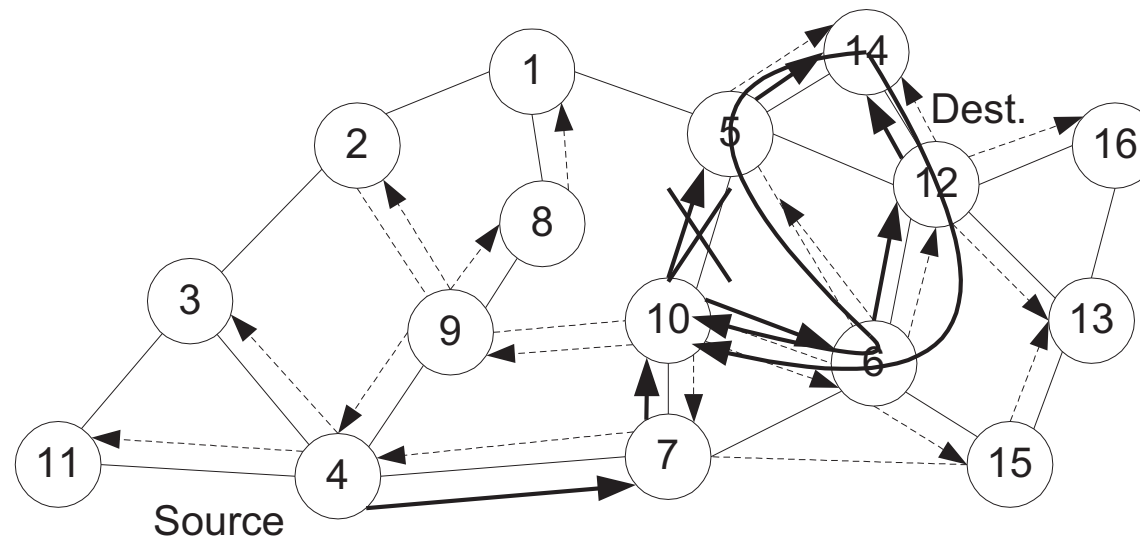


Figure 19: Local route repair in ABR.

4.5. Signal stability-based adaptive routing protocol

This protocol is characterized by the following:

- on-demand beacon-based protocol;
- routes are selected based on temporal stability of wireless links:
- based on temporal stability, each links is classified to:
 - stable
 - unstable
- to determine temporal stability, each node measures the signal strength of beacons.

The whole protocols consist of the following two parts:

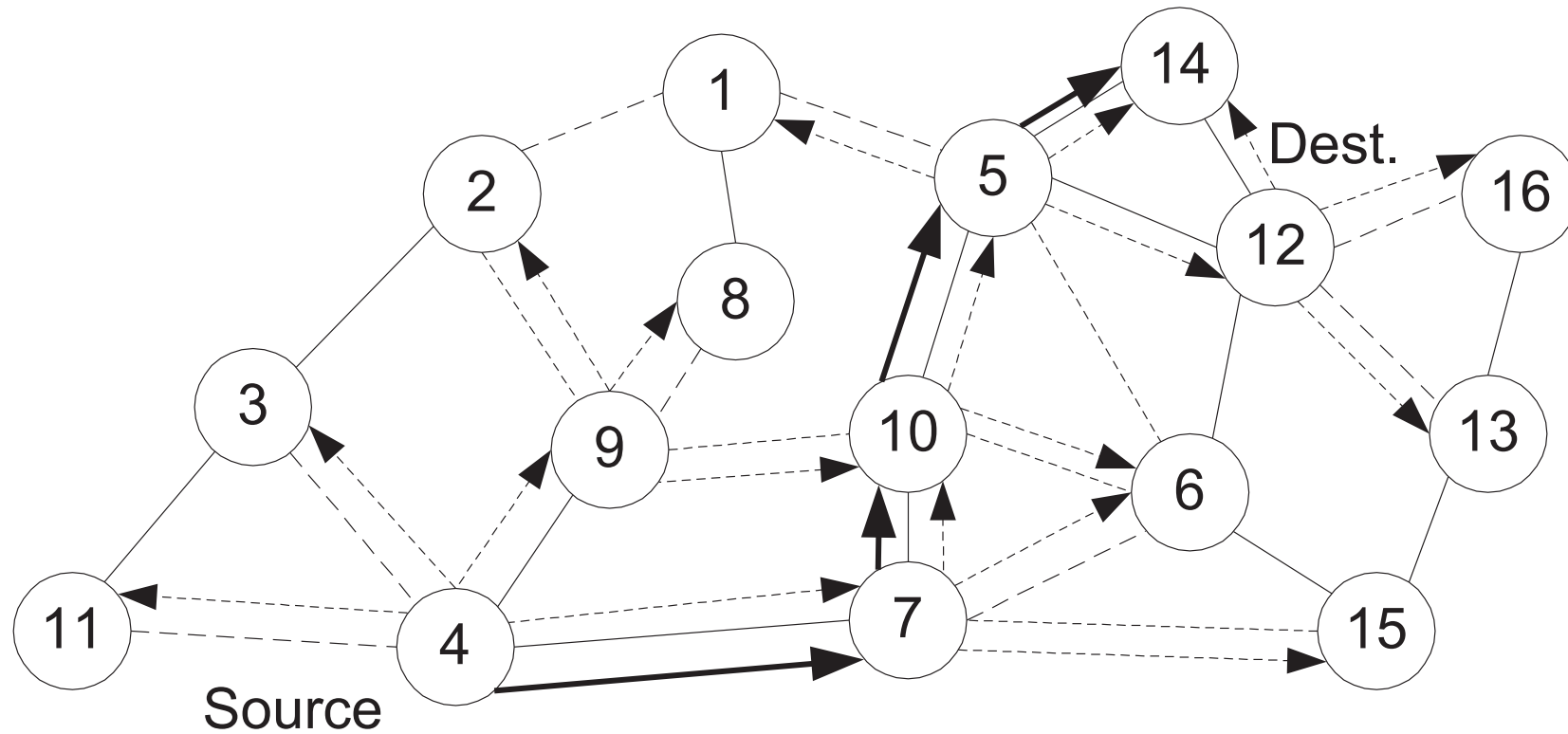
- dynamic routing protocol (DRP):
 - DRP maintains the routing table interacting with DRPs on other hosts.
- forwarding protocol (FP):
 - is responsible for forwarding of packets to destination.

In each node the signal stability table is maintained containing:

- beacon count and signal strength of these beacons;
 - if the signal strength is strong for past few beacons the link is stable;
 - if the signal strength is weak for past few beacons the link is unstable.

The protocol operates as follows:

- if no route in cache, the node floods the RouteRequest packet;
- RouteRequest packet carries the path it has traversed;
- if the intermediate node receives the RouteRequest via stable link it forwards it;
- if the intermediate node receives the RouteRequest via unstable link it drops it;
- when the first RouteRequest reaches the destination, the destination:
 - waits for RouteSelect time to receive multiple copies of RouteRequest;
 - selects the path that is most stable;
 - * if two or more paths are equal in stability, the shortest path is selected;
 - * if two or more shortest paths are available, random path among them is selected.
 - replies to the source with RouteReply packet.



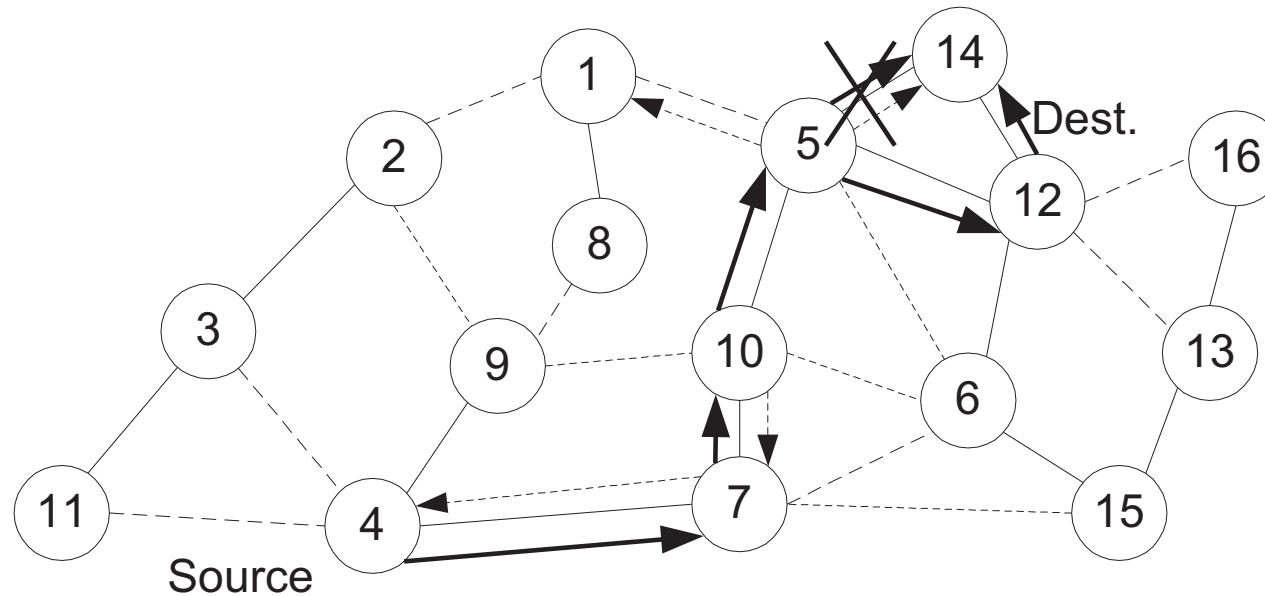
4 - 7 - 10 - 5 - 14;

4 - 7 - 10 - 5 - 12 - 14.

Figure 20: Routing in SSA.

In case of the link break:

- end-nodes are informed and they try to establish new stable route;
- if no stable routes are available, the restriction of stable links is removed.



4 - 7 - 10 - 5 - 14;
 4 - 7 - 10 - 5 - 12 - 14.

Figure 21: Route repair in SSA.

4.6. Flow-oriented routing protocol

Aim is on supporting real-time traffic using a predictive multi-hop-handoff feature:

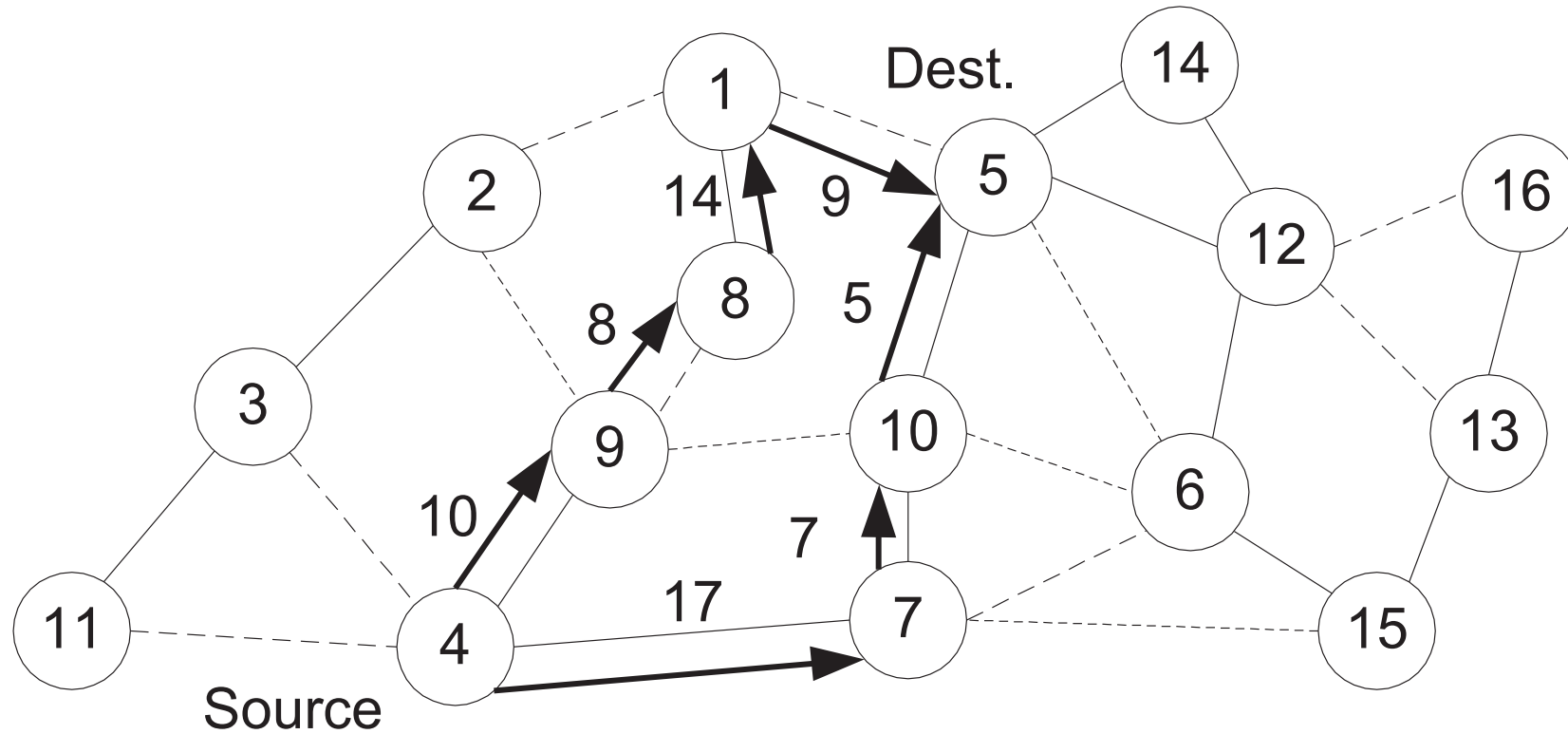
- Classic protocols (e.g., DSR, AODV etc.):
 - route repair is initiated when intermediate node detects the link breaks;
 - it causes delay, losses: low QoS is provided in result.
- FORP uses the predictive mechanism to estimate link expiration time (LET):
 - it is based on location, mobility and transmission range of nodes involved in forwarding;
 - the minimum of LET determines the route expiration time (RET);
 - it is assumed that GPS is used to make prediction of LET.

New shortcomings:

- –: devices are expensive;
- –: can only operate at the open air (due to GPS).

The protocol operates as follows:

- if no route in cache, the destination floods the Flow-REQ packet carrying:
 - information regarding the source and destination nodes;
 - flow identification number (sequence number) that is unique for every session.
- when neighbor receives the Flow-REQ packet:
 - to avoid looping checks if the sequence number is higher than that previously used;
 - if so, this node appends LET and its address in the packet, and forwards it;
 - if not, the packet is discarded.
- when the destination receives the packet:
 - the packet has a path it has traversed and LET associated with each wireless link;
 - if RET is acceptable, it originates the Flow-SETUP packet.
- when the source receives Flow-SETUP packet, it begins the transmission of packets.



4 - 7 - 10 - 5: RET: 8

4 - 9 - 8 - 1 - 5: RET: 5

Figure 22: Route establishment in FORP.

The LET of the link is estimated as follows:

$$LET_{AB} = \frac{-(pq + rs) + (p^2 + r^2)T_X^2 - (ps - qr)^2}{p^2 + q^2},$$

$$p = V_A \cos T_A - V_B \cos T_B, \quad q = X_A - X_B$$

$$r = V_A \sin T_A - V_B \sin T_B, \quad s = Y_A - Y_B, \quad (1)$$

- A and B are nodes with transmission range T_X ;
- V_A and V_B are velocities of nodes;
- T_A and T_B are angles as shown below:

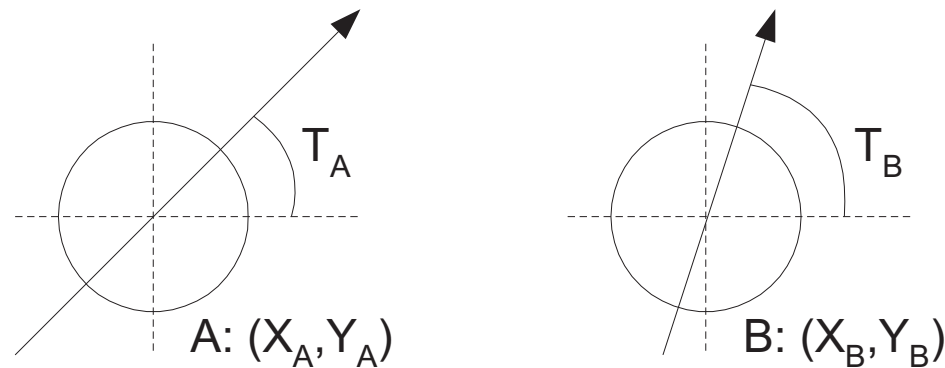


Figure 23: Motion angles in FORM.

FORP uses proactive route maintenance using available RET:

- when the destination determines that the break is about to occur it sends Flow-HANDOFF;
- Flow-HANDOFF propagates in the network similarly to Flow-REQ;
- when many Flow-HANDOFF are received at the source new path with highest RET is chosen.

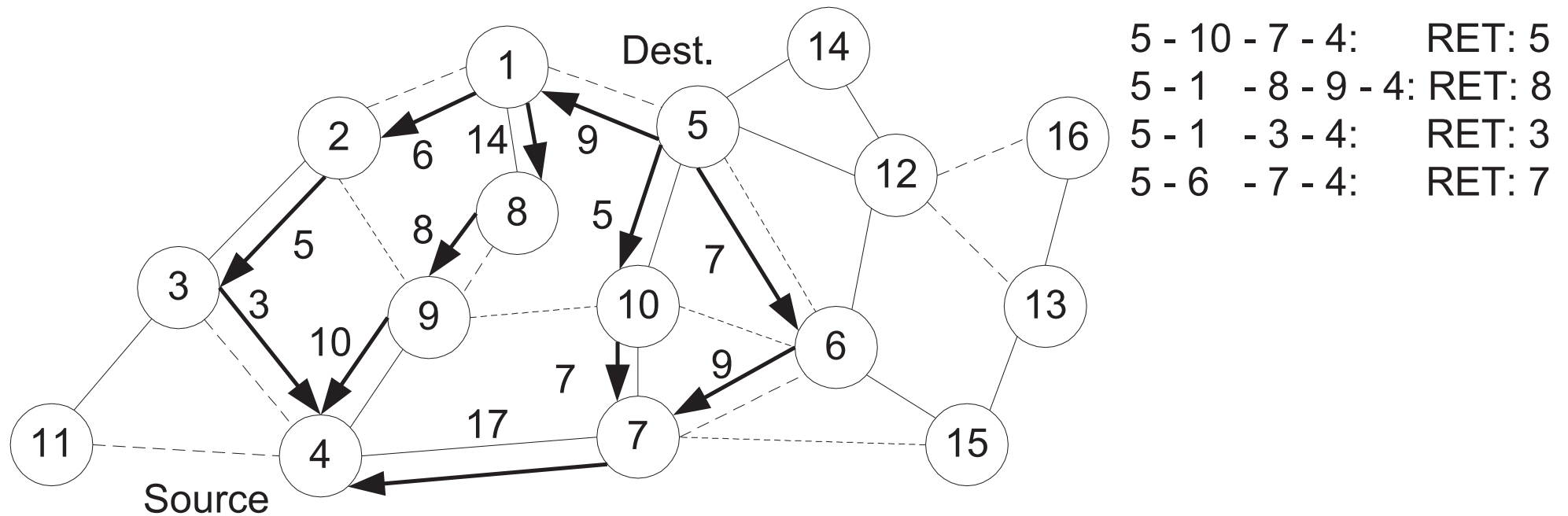


Figure 24: Route repair in FORP.

5. Hybrid routing protocols

These protocols maintain topology information up to m hops in tables.

We consider:

- Zone routing protocol (ZRP);
- Zone-based hierarchical link state routing protocol (ZHLS);

What are inherent shortcomings and advantages:

- +: fast link establishment;
- +: less overhead as compared to table-driven and reactive protocols.
- -: high storage and processing requirements as compared to reactive protocols.

Note: a compromise between proactive and reactive protocols.

5.1. Zone routing protocol (ZRP)

This protocols uses a combination of proactive and reactive routing protocols:

- **proactive:** in the neighborhood of r hops: Intra-zone routing protocol (IARP);
- **reactive:** outside this zone: Inter-zone routing protocol (IERP).

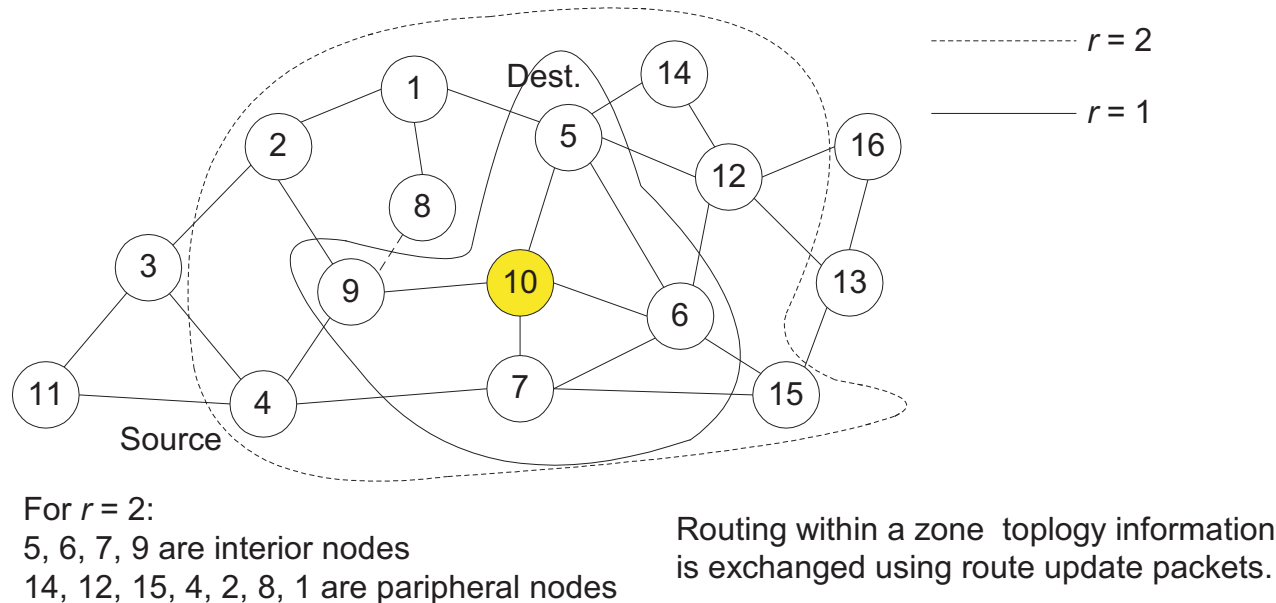


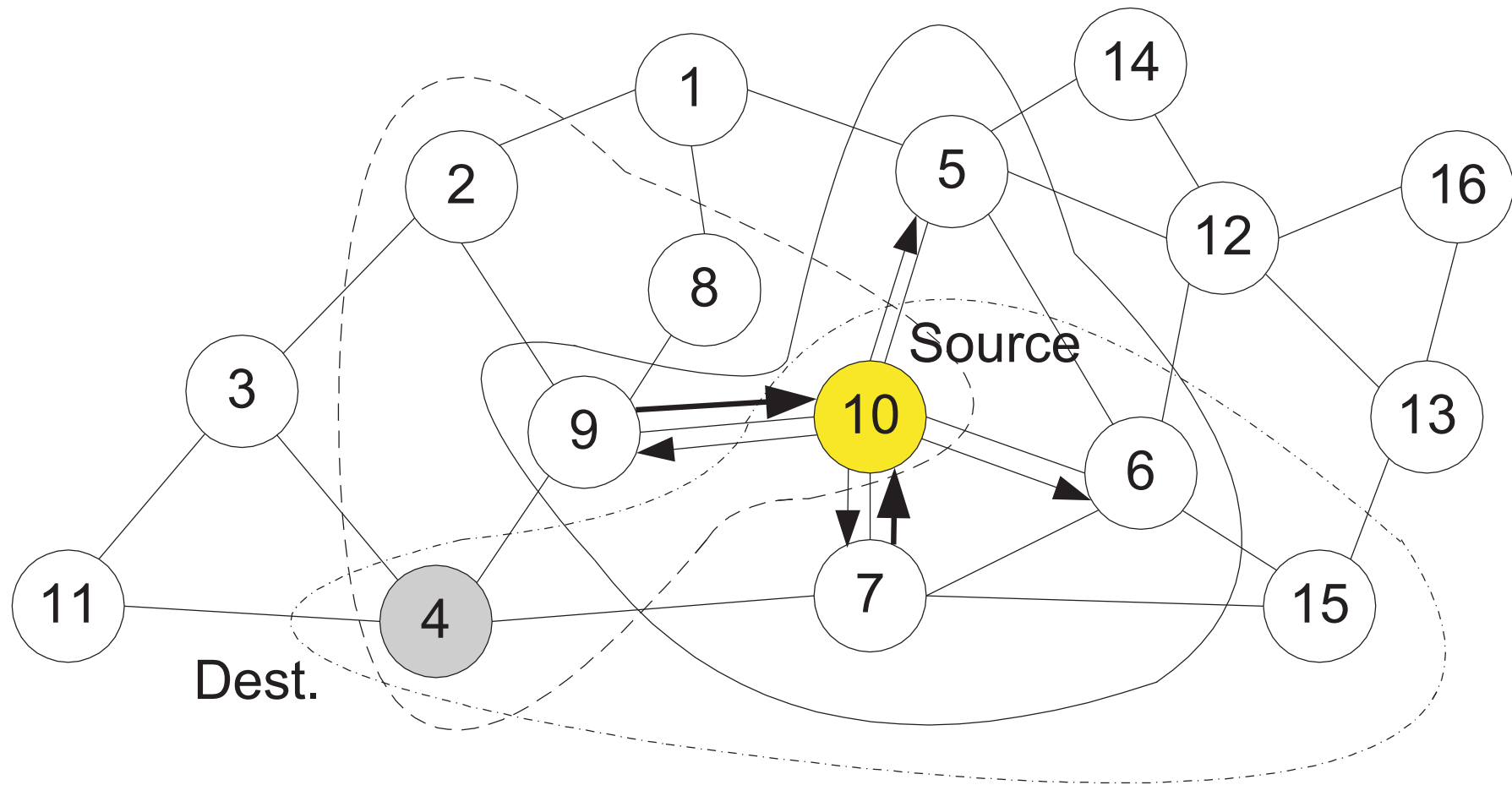
Figure 25: Zones in ZRP for node 10.

The protocol operates as follows:

- if the destination is within the zone, the source sends packets directly;
- if not, the destination sends RouteRequest to peripheral nodes;
- if any peripheral node, has the destination in its zone it replies with RouteReply;
- if not, peripheral nodes sends RouteRequest to their peripheral nodes and so on;
- if multiple RouteReply are received the best is chosen based on some metric.

If the broken link is detected:

- intermediate node repairs the link locally bypassing it (proactive routing!!!);
- end nodes are informed;
- sub-optimal pass but very quick procedure;
- after several local reconfiguration, the source initiates global pass finding to find optimal.

Figure 26: Routing in ZRP with $r = 1$.

5.2. Zone-based hierarchial link state routing protocol

ZHLS is characterized by the following:

- use of geographical location of nodes to determine the non-overlapping zones;
- hierarchial addressing with zone ID and node ID is used;
- each node requires the location information based on which its zone is obtained;
- topology information is maintained in every node inside this zone;
- for regions outside the zone, zone connectivity information is maintained;

The ZHLS uses:

- **proactive routing** is used inside zone;
- **reactive routing** is used outside zone;

Note: ZHLS requires GPS or similar service to identify itself with a certain sone.

Zones: coverage of the single node, application scenario, mobility of nodes, network size.

The protocol operates as follows:

- each node builds a one-hop node-level topology;
- this one-hop topology is propagated to other nodes in its zone using packet containing:
 - IDs of all zones in the zone, node ID, and zone IDs of all other nodes.
- nodes that receive responses from nodes belonging to other zones are **gateway nodes**;
- all traffic between zones is transmitted via gateway nodes;
- once node-level topology is built, nodes obtain zone-level topology sending packets via gates;
- if the destination is in the zone, packets are forwarded directly;
- if no, the source sends location request packet to every zone via gateways;
- every gateway node checks for destination in its routing table and replies with ReouteReply.

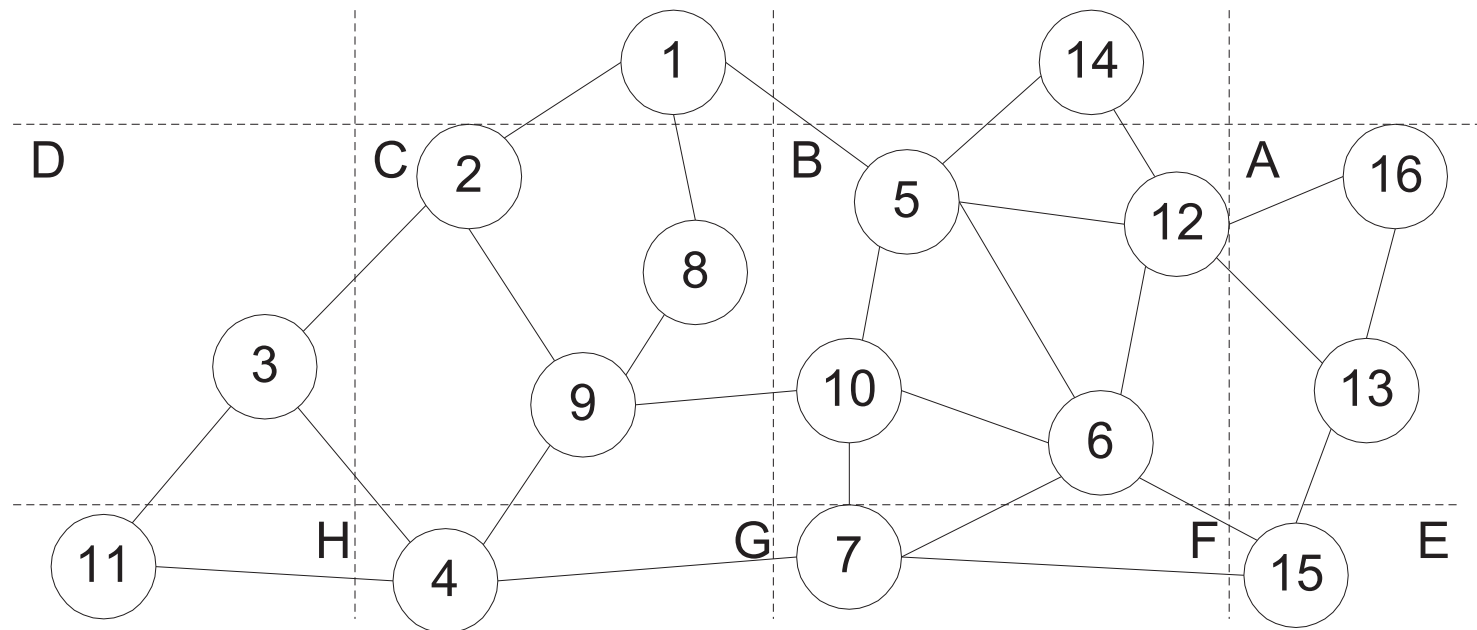


Figure 27: ZHLS zones.

The repair of broken links is as follows:

- source is notified about the link failures;
- if there are multiple gateways with the required zone, packet is forwarded via one of those;
- if no multiple gateways, packets are forwarded to other zones and then to the required zone.

6. Hierarchical routing protocols

These protocols introduce hierarchy in the network to achieve the following benefits:

- reduction in the size of routing tables;
- better scalability.

6.1. Hierarchical state routing protocol

HSR is characterized by the following:

- HSR uses multi-clustering to enhance resource allocation and management;
- HSR defines different levels of clusters;
- at every level leader is elected;
- the first level is made of single-hop clusters (physical clustering);
- the next level is comprised of leaders of clusters.

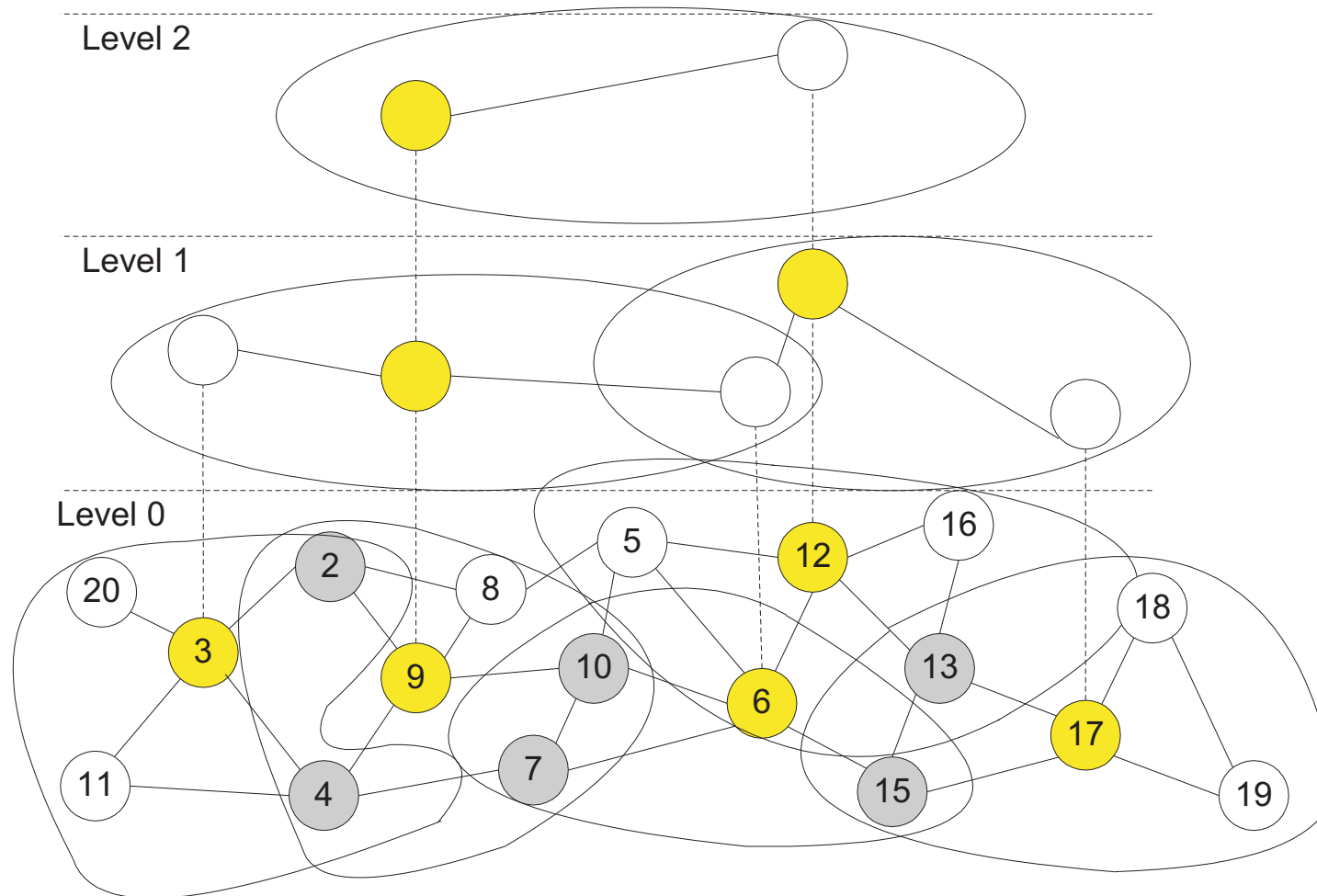


Figure 28: Topology example in HSR.

At the physical layer nodes are classified into:

- **cluster heads;** belong to a single cluster and elected as a cluster head;
- **gateway nodes;** belong to two or more clusters;
- **normal nodes:** belong to a single cluster.

Cluster heads at level 0 (physical level) could be responsible for:

- slot/frequency/code allocation to utilize spectrum more efficiently;
- call admission control from normal member nodes;
- scheduling of packets for transmission;
- exchange of routing information;
- handling route breaks.

Gateway nodes are responsible for:

- forwarding of packets between different clusters (cluster heads).

The following routing responsibilities are assigned to nodes in HSR:

- every node maintains information about the status of links with its neighbors:
 - this information is broadcasted within the cluster at regular intervals.
- cluster heads exchange the topology and link state information at any level:
 - this is done via multiple hops using the gateway nodes.
- the path between two cluster head involves multiple links is called the virtual link:
 - this is: head - gateway - head - gateway etc.
- every node knows the exact hierarchial topology information:
 - after obtaining the information the cluster head floods it to lower level.
- to route packets hierarchial addressing is used consisting of;
 - **hierarchial ID (HID)**: sequence of cluster headers' IDs from higher level;
 - **node ID**: similar to unique MAC address.

Address of node 12: (9,12,12).

- From 12 to 3: 12 - 9 - 3 over multiple links.

6.2. Fisheye state routing protocol

Generalization of the GSR protocol where the following property is introduced:

- accurate information about nodes in local topology;
- not so accurate information about nodes that are far away.

Why is it needed:

- complexity proactive routing: size of the network, mobility of node;
- reactive routing: + number of connections.

What is the basis:

- a node exchanges the routing information only with neighbors at periodic intervals:
 - trade-off between link-state (topology exchanges) and distance vector (link-level info).
- the complete topology information is maintained at each node;
- different update frequencies for different scopes one-hop/two-hop/... scopes:
 - one-hop – highest freq., two-hop less freq. etc.: decrease of the message size.

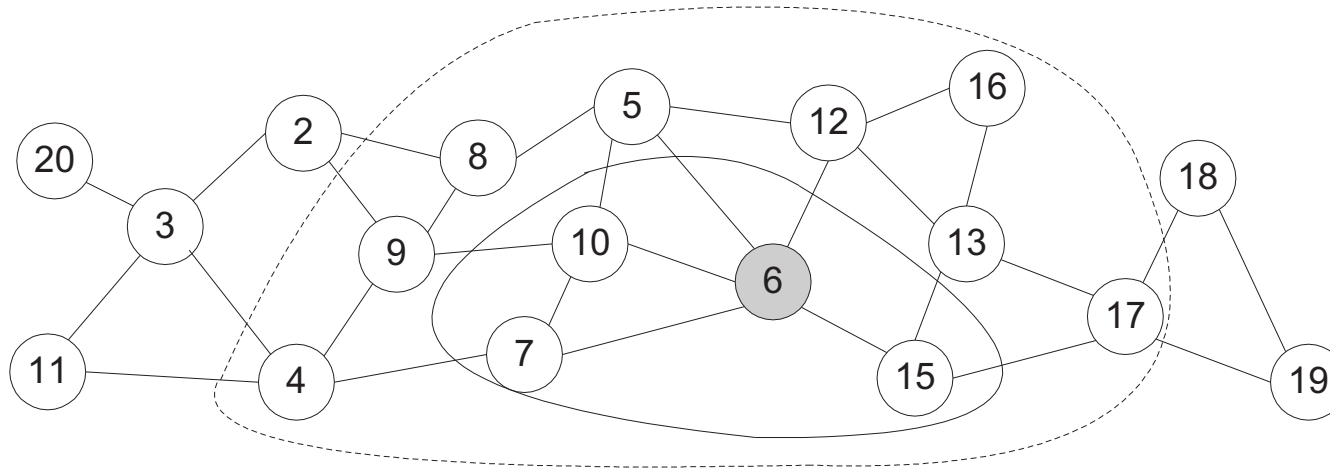


Figure 29: One-hop and two-hop scopes of the node.



Figure 30: Example of topology information in FSR.

7. Power-aware routing protocols

The following metrics can be taken into account on route selection procedure:

- **Minimal energy consumption per a packet:**

This metric involves a number of nodes from source to destination.

- +: uniform consumption of power throughout the network;

- **Maximize the network connectivity:**

To balance the load between the cut-sets (those nodes removal of which causes partitions).

- -: difficult to achieve due to variable traffic origination.

- **Minimum variance in node power levels:**

To distribute load such that power consumption pattern remains uniform across nodes.

- +: nearly optimal performance is achieved by routing a packet to least loaded next-hop.

- **Minimum cost per a packet:**

Cost as a function of the battery charge (less energy – more cost) and use it as a metric.

- +: easy to compute (battery discharge patterns are available);
- +: this metric handles congestions in the network.