## Geo-Routing

Chapter 3

## Rating

- Area maturity

- Practical importance

No apps

- Theoretical importance



## Overview

- Classic routing overview
- Geo-routing
- Greedy geo-routing
- Euclidean and planar graphs
- Face Routing
- Greedy and Face Routing
- 3D Geo-Routing
- Geometric Routing without Geometry


## Classic Routing 1: Flooding

- What is Routing?
- „Routing is the act of moving information across a network from a source to a destination." (CISCO)
- The simplest form of routing is "flooding": a source $s$ sends the message to all its neighbors; when a node other than destination $t$ receives the message the first time it re-sends it to all its neighbors.
+ simple (sequence numbers)
- a node might see the same message more than once. (How often?)
- what if the network is huge but the target $t$ sits just next to the source $s$ ?
- We need a smarter routing algorithm



## Classic Routing 2: Link-State Routing Protocols

- Link-state routing protocols are a preferred iBGP method (within an autonomous system) in the Internet
- Idea: periodic notification of all nodes about the complete graph
- Routers then forward a message along (for example) the shortest path in the graph
+ message follows shortest path
- every node needs to store whole graph, even links that are not on any path
- every node needs to send and receive messages that describe the whole graph regularly



## Classic Routing 3: Distance Vector Routing Protocols

- The predominant method for wired networks
- Idea: each node stores a routing table that has an entry to each destination (destination, distance, neighbor)
- If a router notices a change in its neighborhood or receives an update message from a neighbor, it updates its routing table accordingly and sends an update to all its neighbors
+ message follows shortest path
+ only send updates when topology changes
- most topology changes are irrelevant for a given source/destination pair
- every node needs to store a big table
- count-to-infinity problem

| Dest | Dir | Dst |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $a$ | $a$ | 1 |
| $b$ | $b$ | 1 |
| $c$ | $b$ | 2 |
| $t$ | $b$ | 2 |



## Discussion of Classic Routing Protocols

- Proactive Routing Protocols
- Both link-state and distance vector are "proactive," that is, routes are established and updated even if they are never needed.
- If there is almost no mobility, proactive algorithms are superior because they never have to exchange information and find optimal routes easily.
- Reactive Routing Protocols
- Flooding is "reactive," but does not scale
- If mobility is high and data transmission rare, reactive algorithms are superior; in the extreme case of almost no data and very much mobility the simple flooding protocol might be a good choice.

There is no "optimal" routing protocol; the choice of the routing protocol depends on the circumstances. Of particular importance is the mobility/data ratio.

## Routing in Ad-Hoc Networks

- Reliability
- Nodes in an ad-hoc network are not 100\% reliable
- Algorithms need to find alternate routes when nodes are failing
- Mobile Ad-Hoc Network (MANET)
- It is often assumed that the nodes are mobile ("Moteran")
- 10 Tricks $\rightarrow 2^{10}$ routing algorithms
- In reality there are almost that many proposals!
- Q: How good are these routing algorithms?!? Any hard results?
- A: Almost none! Method-of-choice is simulation...
- "If you simulate three times, you get three different results"


## Geometric (geographic, directional, position-based) routing

- ...even with all the tricks there will be flooding every now and then.
- In this chapter we will assume that the nodes are location aware (they have GPS, Galileo, or an ad-hoc way to figure out their coordinates), and that we know where the destination is.
- Then we simply route towards the destination



## Geometric routing

- Problem: What if there is no path in the right direction?
- We need a guaranteed way to reach a destination even in the case when there is no directional path...
- Hack: as in flooding nodes keep track of the messages they have already seen, and then they backtrack* from there
*backtracking? Does this mean that we need a stack?!?


Geo-Routing: Strictly Local


## Greedy Geo-Routing?



## Greedy Geo-Routing?



## What is Geographic Routing?

- A.k.a. geometric, location-based, position-based, etc.
- Each node knows its own position and position of neighbors
- Source knows the position of the destination
- No routing tables stored in nodes!
- Geographic routing makes sense
- Own position: GPS/Galileo, local positioning algorithms
- Destination: Geocasting, location services, source routing++
- Learn about ad-hoc routing in general


## Greedy routing

- Greedy routing looks promising.
- Maybe there is a way to choose the next neighbor and a particular graph where we always reach the destination?



## Examples why greedy algorithms fail

- We greedily route to the neighbor which is closest to the destination: But both neighbors of $x$ are not closer to destination D
- Also the best angle approach might fail, even in a triangulation: if, in the example on the right, you always follow the edge with the narrowest angle to destination $t$, you will forward on a loop $\mathrm{v}_{0}, \mathrm{w}_{0}, \mathrm{v}_{1}, \mathrm{w}_{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{v}_{3}, \mathrm{w}_{3}, \mathrm{v}_{0}, \ldots$



## Euclidean and Planar Graphs

- Euclidean: Points in the plane, with coordinates
- Planar: can be drawn without "edge crossings" in a plane

- Euclidean planar graphs (planar embeddings) simplify geometric routing.


## Unit disk graph

- We are given a set $V$ of nodes in the plane (points with coordinates).
- The unit disk graph $U D G(V)$ is defined as an undirected graph (with $E$ being a set of undirected edges). There is an edge between two nodes $u, v$ iff the Euclidean distance between $u$ and $v$ is at most 1 .
- Think of the unit distance as the maximum transmission range.
- We assume that the unit disk graph $U D G$ is connected (that is, there is a path between each pair of nodes)
- The unit disk graph has many edges.
- Can we drop some edges in the UDG to reduce complexity?



## Planar graphs

- Definition: A planar graph is a graph that can be drawn in the plane such that its edges only intersect at their common end-vertices.

- Kuratowski's Theorem: A graph is planar iff it contains no subgraph that is edge contractible to $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$.
- Euler's Polyhedron Formula: A connected planar graph with $n$ nodes, $m$ edges, and $f$ faces has $n-m+f=2$.
- Right: Example with 9 vertices, 14 edges, and 7 faces (the yellow "outside" face is called the infinite face)
- Theorem: A simple planar graph with $n$ nodes has at most $3 n-6$ edges, for $n \geq 3$.



## Gabriel Graph

- Let $\operatorname{disk}(u, v)$ be a disk with diameter $(u, v)$ that is determined by the two points $u, v$.
- The Gabriel Graph $G G(V)$ is defined as an undirected graph (with $E$ being a set of undirected edges). There is an
 edge between two nodes $u, v$ iff the disk $(u, v)$ including boundary contains no other points.
- As we will see the Gabriel Graph has interesting properties.



## Delaunay Triangulation

- Let disk( $u, v, w)$ be a disk defined by the three points $u, v, w$.
- The Delaunay Triangulation (Graph) $\mathrm{DT}(V)$ is defined as an undirected graph (with $E$ being a set of undirected edges). There is a triangle of edges between three nodes $u, v, w$ iff the disk $(u, v, w)$ contains no other points.
- The Delaunay Triangulation is the dual of the Voronoi diagram, and widely used in various CS areas; the DT is planar; the distance of a path ( $\mathrm{s}, \ldots, \mathrm{t}$ ) on the DT is within a constant factor of the s-t distance.



## Other planar graphs

- Relative Neighborhood Graph RNG(V)
- An edge e $=(u, v)$ is in the $R N G(V)$ iff there is no node $w$ with $(u, w)<(u, v)$ and $(\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{w})<(\mathrm{u}, \mathrm{v})$.

- Minimum Spanning Tree MST(V)
- A subset of $E$ of $G$ of minimum weight which forms a tree on $V$.



## Properties of planar graphs

- Theorem 1:
$\operatorname{MST}(V) \subseteq \mathrm{RNG}(V) \subseteq \mathrm{GG}(V) \subseteq \mathrm{DT}(V)$
- Corollary:

Since the MST $(\mathrm{V})$ is connected and the $\mathrm{DT}(\mathrm{V})$ is planar, all the planar graphs in Theorem 1 are connected and planar.

- Theorem 2:

The Gabriel Graph contains the Minimum Energy Path (for any path loss exponent $\alpha \geq 2$ )

- Corollary: $G G(V) \cap U D G(V)$ contains the Minimum Energy Path in UDG(V)


## Routing on Delaunay Triangulation?

- Let $d$ be the Euclidean distance of source $s$ and destination $t$
- Let $c$ be the sum of the distances of the links of the shortest path in the Delaunay Triangulation
- It was shown that $c=\Theta(d)$

- Three problems:

1) How do we find this best route in the DT? With flooding?!?
2) How do we find the DT at all in a distributed fashion?
3) Worse: The DT contains edges that are not in the UDG, that is, nodes that cannot receive each other are "neighbors" in the DT

## Breakthrough idea: route on faces

- Remember the faces...
- Idea:

Route along the boundaries of the faces that lie on the source-destination line


## Face Routing

0 . Let $f$ be the face incident to the source s , intersected by ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}$ )

1. Explore the boundary of f; remember the point $p$ where the boundary intersects with (s,t) which is nearest to $t$; after traversing the whole boundary, go back to $p$, switch the face, and repeat 1 until you hit destination $t$.


Face Routing Works on Any Graph


## Face Routing Properties

- All necessary information is stored in the message
- Source and destination positions
- Point of transition to next face
- Completely local:
- Knowledge about direct neighbors' positions sufficient
- Faces are implicit


"Right Hand Rule"
- Planarity of graph is computed locally (not an assumption)
- Computation for instance with Gabriel Graph


## Face routing is correct

- Theorem: Face routing terminates on any simple planar graph in $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$ steps, where n is the number of nodes in the network
- Proof: A simple planar graph has at most $3 n-6$ edges. You leave each face at the point that is closest to the destination, that is, you never visit a face twice, because you can order the faces that intersect the source-destination line on the exit point. Each edge is in at most 2 faces. Therefore each edge is visited at most 4 times. The algorithm terminates in $O(n)$ steps.


## Is there something better than Face Routing?

- How to improve face routing? A proposal called "Face Routing 2"
- Idea: Don't search a whole face for the best exit point, but take the first (better) exit point you find. Then you don't have to traverse huge faces that point away from the destination.
- Efficiency: Seems to be practically more efficient than face routing. But the theoretical worst case is worse - $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{n}^{2}\right)$.
- Problem: if source and destination are very close, we don't want to route through all nodes of the network. Instead we want a routing algorithm where the cost is a function of the cost of the best route in the unit disk graph (and independent of the number of nodes).


## Face Routing

- Theorem: Face Routing reaches destination in $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$ steps
- But: Can be very bad compared to the optimal route



## Bounding Searchable Area



## Adaptive Face Routing (AFR)

- Idea: Use face routing together with ad hoc routing trick 1!!
- That is, don't route beyond some radius r by branching the planar graph within an ellipse of exponentially growing size.



## AFR Example Continued

- We grow the ellipse and find a path



## AFR Pseudo-Code

0. Calculate $\mathrm{G}=\mathrm{GG}(\mathrm{V}) \cap \mathrm{UDG}(\mathrm{V})$ Set c to be twice the Euclidean source-destination distance.
1. Nodes $w \in W$ are nodes where the path $s-w$-t is larger than $c$. Do face routing on the graph $G$, but without visiting nodes in W . (This is like pruning the graph $G$ with an ellipse.) You either reach the destination, or you are stuck at a face (that is, you do not find a better exit point.)
2. If step 1 did not succeed, double c and go back to step 1 .

- Note: All the steps can be done completely locally, and the nodes need no local storage.


## The $\Omega(1)$ Model

- We simplify the model by assuming that nodes are sufficiently far apart; that is, there is a constant $d_{0}$ such that all pairs of nodes have at least distance $d_{0}$. We call this the $\Omega(1)$ model.
- This simplification is natural because nodes with transmission range 1 (the unit disk graph) will usually not "sit right on top of each other".
- Lemma: In the $\Omega(1)$ model, all natural cost models (such as the Euclidean distance, the energy metric, the link distance, or hybrids of these) are equal up to a constant factor.
- Remark: The properties we use from the $\Omega(1)$ model can also be established with a backbone graph construction.


## Analysis of AFR in the $\Omega(1)$ model

- Lemma 1: In an ellipse of size $c$ there are at most $O\left(c^{2}\right)$ nodes.
- Lemma 2: In an ellipse of size c, face routing terminates in $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{c}^{2}\right)$ steps, either by finding the destination, or by not finding a new face.
- Lemma 3: Let the optimal source-destination route in the UDG have cost $c^{*}$. Then this route $c^{*}$ must be in any ellipse of size $c^{*}$ or larger.
- Theorem: AFR terminates with cost $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{c}^{* 2}\right)$.
- Proof: Summing up all the costs until we have the right ellipse size is bounded by the size of the cost of the right ellipse size.
- The network on the right constructs a lower bound.
- The destination is the center of the circle, the source any node on the ring.
- Finding the right chain costs $\Omega\left(\mathrm{c}^{*}\right)$, even for randomized algorithms
- Theorem:

AFR is asymptotically optimal.


## Non-geometric routing algorithms

- In the $\Omega(1)$ model, a standard flooding algorithm enhanced with trick 1 will (for the same reasons) also cost $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{c}^{* 2}\right)$.
- However, such a flooding algorithm needs $\mathrm{O}(1)$ extra storage at each node (a node needs to know whether it has already forwarded a message).
- Therefore, there is a trade-off between $\mathrm{O}(1)$ storage at each node or that nodes are location aware, and also location aware about the destination. This is intriguing.


## GOAFR - Greedy Other Adaptive Face Routing

- Back to geometric routing...
- AFR Algorithm is not very efficient (especially in dense graphs)
- Combine Greedy and (Other Adaptive) Face Routing
- Route greedily as long as possible
- Circumvent "dead ends" by use of face routing
- Then route greedily again

Other AFR: In each face proceed to node closest to destination

## GOAFR+

- GOAFR+ improvements:
- Early fallback to greedy routing
- (Circle centered at destination instead of ellipse)



## Early Fallback to Greedy Routing?

- We could fall back to greedy routing as soon as we are closer to t than the local minimum
- But:

- "Maze" with $\Omega\left(\mathrm{c}^{* 2}\right)$ edges is traversed $\Omega\left(\mathrm{c}^{*}\right)$ times $\rightarrow \Omega\left(\mathrm{c}^{* 3}\right)$ steps


## GOAFR - Greedy Other Adaptive Face Routing

- Early fallback to greedy routing:
- Use counters p and q. Let $u$ be the node where the exploration of the current face $F$ started
- p counts the nodes closer to than $u$
- q counts the nodes not closer to $t$ than $u$
- Fall back to greedy routing as soon as $p>\sigma \cdot q$ (constant $\sigma>0)$

Theorem: GOAFR is still asymptotically worst-case optimal... ...and it is efficient in practice, in the average-case.

- What does "practice" mean?
- Usually nodes placed uniformly at random


## Average Case

- Not interesting when graph not dense enough
- Not interesting when graph is too dense
- Critical density range ("percolation")
- Shortest path is significantly longer than Euclidean distance



## Critical Density: Shortest Path vs. Euclidean Distance

- Shortest path is significantly longer than Euclidean distance

- Critical density range mandatory for the simulation of any routing algorithm (not only geographic)


## Randomly Generated Graphs: Critical Density Range



## Simulation on Randomly Generated Graphs



## A Word on Performance

- What does a performance of 3.3 in the critical density range mean?
- If an optimal path (found by Dijkstra) has cost c, then GOAFR+ finds the destination in 3.3.c steps.
- It does not mean that the path found is 3.3 times as long as the optimal path! The path found can be much smaller...
- Remarks about cost metrics
- In this lecture "cost" c = c hops
- There are other results, for instance on distance/energy/hybrid metrics
- In particular: With energy metric there is no competitive geometric routing algorithm


## Energy Metric Lower Bound

Example graph: $k$ "stalks", of which only one leads to $t$

- any deterministic (randomized) geometric routing algorithm $A$ has
- optimal path has constant cost c" $\} \underset{k \rightarrow \infty}{ } \frac{c(A)}{c^{*}}=\infty$ (covering a constant distance at almost no cost)

$\rightarrow$ With energy metric there is no competitive geometric routing algorithm


## GOAFR: Summary



## 3D Geo-Routing

- The world is not flat. We can certainly envision networks in 3D, e.g. in a large office building. Can we geo-route in three dimensions? Are the same techniques possible?
- Certainly, if the node density is high enough (and the node distribution is kind to us), we can simply use greedy routing. But what about those local minima?!?
- Is there something like a face in 3D?
- How would you do 3D routing?
- The picture on the right is the 3D equivalent of the 2D lower bound, proving that we need at least OPT ${ }^{3}$ steps.



## Deterministic Routing in 3-Dimensional Networks

We will prove that
There is no deterministic k-local routing algorithm for 3D UDGs

- Deterministic: Whenever a node $n$ receives a message from node $m, n$ determines the next hop as a function $f(n, m, s, t, N(n))$, where $s$ and $t$ are the source and the target nodes and $N(n)$ the neighborhood of $n$.
- k-local: A node only knows its k-hop neighborhood
- Proof Outline:
(A) We show that an arbitrary graph $G$ can be translated to a 3D UDG G'
(B) Assume for contradiction that there is a $k$-local algorithm $A_{k}$ for 3D UDGs,
(C)We show that there must also be a 1-local algorithm $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ for 3D UDGs
(D)The translation from $G$ to $G^{\prime}$ is strictly local, therefore, we could simulate $A_{1}$ on $G$ and obtain a 1-local routing for arbitrary graphs
(E) We show that there is no such algorithm, disproving the existence of $A_{k}$.


## Transforming a general graph to a 3D UDG (1/2)

- Main idea: Build the 3D UDG similar to an electronic circuit on three layers, and add chains of virtual nodes (the conductors)





## Transforming a general graph to a 3D UDG (2/2)

- Virtual nodes on the middle layer establish the connections
- The resulting graph is a 3D UDG



## 1-local Routing for 3D UDGs

- Assume that there is a k-local routing algorithm $\boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{k}}$ for 3D UDG
- Adapt the transformation s.t. the connecting lines contain at least $2 k$ virtual nodes
- As a result, $\boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{k}}$ cannot see more than 1 hop of the original graph
- The stretching of the paths introduces 'dummy' information of no use, but the algorithm $\mathbf{A}_{k}$ still has to work
- Therefore, there must also be a 1-local algorithm $\boldsymbol{A}_{1}$ for 3D UDG



## 1-local Routing for Arbitrary Graphs

- The transformation to the 3D UDG G' can be determined strictly locally from any graph $G$
- The nodes of any graph $G$ can simulate $A_{1}$ by simulating $G^{\prime}$
- Therefore, $\boldsymbol{A}_{1}$ can be used to build a 1-local routing algorithm for arbitrary graphs


How node 2 sees the virtual graph G'

## 1-local Routing for Arbitrary Graphs is impossible (1/2)

- A deterministic routing algorithm can be described as a function $f(n, m, s, t, N(n))$, which returns the next hop
- $n$ : current node, $m$ : previous node, $s$ : source, $t$ : target, $N(n)$ : neighborhood of $n$
- Node $n$ has no means to determine locally which of its neighbors has a connection to $t \rightarrow n$ must try all of them before returning to $m$
- Even the position of $t$ or $s$ can't help
- The function $f$ must be a cycle over the $i+1$ neighbors
- If not, we miss some neighbors of $n$, which may connect to $t$
©



## 1-local Routing for Arbitrary Graphs is impossible (2/2)

- Node 2 and 7 have to decide on one forwarding function
- There are 4 combinations possible. For all of them, forwarding fails either in the left or the right network
- Conclusion 1: 1-local routing algorithms do not exist
- Conclusion 2: There is no k-local routing algorithm for 3D UDG
- Conclusion 3: There is no k-local routing algorithm for 3D graphs


| $x$ | $f_{2}(x)$ |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 3 |  | $x$ | $f_{2}(x)$ |
| 3 | 4 | xor | 1 | 4 |
| 4 | 1 |  | 3 | 3 |


| $x$ | $f_{7}(x)$ |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 5 | 8 |  |  |  |
| 8 | 6 |  | $x$ | $f_{7}(x)$ |
| 6 | 5 |  | 5 | 6 |
|  |  |  | 8 | 8 |

## Routing with and without position information

- Without position information:
- Flooding
$\rightarrow$ does not scale
- Distance Vector Routing
$\rightarrow$ does not scale
- Source Routing
- increased per-packet overhead
- no theoretical results, only simulation
- With position information:
- Greedy Routing
$\rightarrow$ may fail: message may get stuck in a "dead end"
- Geometric Routing
$\rightarrow$ It is assumed that each node knows its position


## Obtaining Position Information

- Attach GPS to each sensor node
- Often undesirable or impossible
- GPS receivers clumsy, expensive, and energy-inefficient
- Equip only a few designated nodes with a GPS
- Anchor (landmark) nodes have GPS
- Non-anchors derive their position through communication (e.g., count number of hops to different anchors)


Anchor density determines
quality of solution

## What about no GPS at all?

- In absence of GPS-equipped anchors...
$\rightarrow$...nodes are clueless about real coordinates.
- For many applications, real coordinates are not necessary
$\rightarrow$ Virtual coordinates are sufficient


90 44' 56" East 470 3('119)' North


90 44' 57" East 470 3( ${ }^{\prime}, \frac{1}{19}$ " North

VS.
real coordinates

90 44'58" East 470 30¹9" North


90 44'55' East 470 30' 19 " North

virtual coordinates

## What are "good" virtual coordinates?

- Given the connectivity information for each node and knowing the underlying graph is a UDG find virtual coordinates in the plane such that all connectivity requirements are fulfilled, i.e. find a realization (embedding) of a UDG:
- each edge has length at most 1
- between non-neighbored nodes the distance is more than 1
- Finding a realization of a UDG from connectivity information only is NP-hard...
- [Breu, Kirkpatrick, Comp.Geom.Theory 1998]
- ...and also hard to approximate
- [Kuhn, Moscibroda, Wattenhofer, DIALM 2004]


## Geometric Routing without Geometry

- For many applications, like routing, finding a realization of a UDG is not mandatory
- Virtual coordinates merely as infrastructure for geometric routing
$\rightarrow$ Pseudo geometric coordinates:
- Select some nodes as anchors: $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}$
- Coordinate of each node $u$ is its hop-distance to all anchors:

$$
\left(d\left(u, a_{1}\right), d\left(u, a_{2}\right), \ldots, d\left(u, a_{k}\right)\right)
$$



- Requirements:
- each node uniquely identified: Naming Problem
- routing based on (pseudo geometric) coordinates possible: Routing Problem


## Pseudo-geometric routing in the grid: Naming



## Pseudo-geometric routing in the grid: Routing



Problem: UDG is usually not a grid

- Recursive construction of a unit dist tree (UDT) which needs $\Omega(\mathrm{n})$ anchors



## Pseudo-geometric routing in the UDT: Naming

- Leaf-siblings can only be distinguished if one of them is an anchor:


Lemma: in a unit disk tree with $n$ nodes there are up to $\Theta(n)$ leaf-siblings. That is, we need to $\Theta(n)$ anchors.

## Pseudo-geometric routing in the ad hoc networks

- Naming and routing in grid quite good, in previous UDT example very bad
- Real-world ad hoc networks are very probable neither perfect grids nor naughty unit disk trees


Truth is somewhere in


## Summary of Results

- If position information is available geo-routing is a feasible option.
- Face routing guarantees to deliver the message.
- By restricting the search area the efficiency is OPT².
- Because of a lower bound this is asymptotically optimal.
- Combining greedy and face gives efficient algorithm.
- 3D geo-routing is impossible.
- Even if there is no position information, some ideas might be helpful.
- Geo-routing is probably the only class of routing that is well understood.
- There are many adjacent areas: topology control, location services, routing in general, etc.


## Open problem

- One of the most-understood topics. In that sense it is hard to come up with a decent open problem. Let's try something wishy-washy.
- For a 2D UDG the efficiency of geo-routing can be quadratic to an optimal algorithm (with routing tables). However, the worst-case example is quite special. Open problem: How much information does one need to store in the network to guarantee only constant overhead?
- Variant: Instead of UDG some more realistic model
- How can one maintain this information if the network is dynamic?

