

Time Synchronization in Wireless Sensor Networks

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Abstract— Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs) consists of numerous small sensors. These sensors are wirelessly connected to each other for performing same task collectively such as monitoring weather conditions or specifically parameters like temperature, pressure, sound and vibrations etc. For all applications partial or full time synchronization is required and the message exchanged by sensor nodes for data fusion must be time stamped by each sensor's local clock. This helps to achieve a common notion of time in wireless sensor networks. This paper contains a survey, relative study and analysis of existing time synchronization protocols for wireless sensor networks, based on various parameters. No single protocol is optimal and sufficient in all aspects for designing a clock synchronization system. So the comparative study and design considerations will help a lot to the designer for designing a scheme which may or may not be application specific.

Index Terms— Time synchronization, Wireless sensor networks, Protocol

1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years, wireless sensor network, has received much attention of researchers as the technological advancement has made these low power devices very cost effective. Wireless sensor networks consist of numerous tiny low-power devices capable of performing sensing and communication tasks collectively.

Wireless sensor networks were first deployed for military applications. Gradually researchers found them to be very useful in applications like weather monitoring, habitat monitoring, agriculture, industrial applications, and recently smart homes and kindergartens [1, 2]. Wireless sensor network is an ad hoc network and being distributed in nature, time synchronization becomes a critical part of its functioning. Every small sensor consists of an embedded processor, memory and radio. Precise and synchronized time is needed for several reasons. For example, an accurate and synchronized time is necessary to determine the right chronological order of events as in target tracking. A lack of synchronization may lead to incorrect time stamping and misinterpretation of the readings.

For a wired network, two methods of time synchronization are most common. Network Time Protocol (NTP) [3] and Global Positioning System (GPS) are both used for synchronization. Neither protocol is useful for wireless sensor synchronization [4]. Both require resources not available in wireless networks. The Network Time Protocol requires an extremely accurate clock, usually a server with an atomic clock. The client computer wanting to synchronize with the server will send a UDP packet requesting the time information. The server will then return the timing information and as a result the computers would be synchronized. Because of many wireless devices are powered by batteries, a server with an atomic clock is impractical for a wireless network. GPS requires the

wireless device to communicate with satellites in order to synchronize. This requires a GPS receiver in each wireless device. Again because of power constraints, this is impractical for wireless networks. Also sensor networks consist of inexpensive wireless nodes. A GPS receiver on each wireless node would be expensive and therefore unfeasible. The time accuracy of GPS depends on how many satellites the receiver can communicate with at a given time. This will not always be the same, so the time accuracy will vary. Furthermore Global Positioning System devices depend on line of sight communication to the satellite, which may not always be available where wireless networks are deployed.

The constraints of wireless sensor networks do not allow for traditional wired network time synchronization protocols. Wireless sensor networks are limited to size, power, and complexity. Neither the Network Time Protocol nor GPS were designed for such constraints.

For a wireless sensor network, there are three basic types of synchronization methods. The first is relative timing and is the simplest. It relies on the ordering of messages and events. The basic idea is to be able to determine if event 1 occurred before event 2. Comparing the local clocks to determine the order is all that is needed. Clock synchronization is not important.

The next method is relative timing in which the network clocks are independent of each other and the nodes keep track of drift and offset. Usually a node keeps information about its drift and offset in correspondence to neighboring nodes. The nodes have the ability to synchronize their local time with another nodes local time at any instant. Most synchronization protocols use this method.

The last method is global synchronization where there is a constant global timescale throughout the network. This is obviously the most complex and the toughest to implement. Very few synchronizing algorithms use this method particularly because this type of synchronization usually is not necessary.

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2 DESIGN PRINCIPLES FOR WSN TIME SYNCHRONIZATION

Time synchronization schemes have four basic packet delay components: send time, access time, propagation time, and receive time [5]. As shown in Fig.1 the send time is that of the sender constructing the time message to transmit on the network. The access time is that of the MAC layer delay in accessing the network. This could be waiting to transmit in a TDMA protocol. The time for the bits to be physically transmitted on the medium is considered the propagation time. Finally, the receive time is the receiving node processing the message and transferring it to the host.

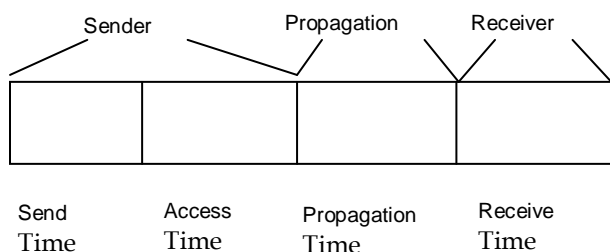


Fig. 1. Non-deterministic delay components

The major problem of time synchronization is not only that this packet delay exists, but also being able to predict the time spent on each can be difficult [6]. Eliminating any of these will greatly increase the performance of the synchronization technique.

2.1 REQUIREMENTS FOR SYNCHRONIZATION PROTOCOL

The authors have identified requirements for solving this problem [5, 6, 7]. These techniques aim to build a synchronization service that conforms to the requirements of WSNs:

Robustness: the service must continuously adapt to conditions inside the network, despite dynamics that lead to network partitions.

Energy efficiency: the energy spent synchronizing clocks should be as minimal as possible, because there is significant cost to continuous CPU use or radio listening.

Scalability: large populations of sensor nodes (hundreds or thousands) must be supported. Every application need different number of sensors deployed in sensor field.

Ad hoc deployment: time sync must work with no a priori configuration, and no infrastructure available

3 EXISTING APPROACHES TO TIME SYNCHRONIZATION

There are many time synchronization protocols, many of which do not differ much from each other. As with any protocol, the basic idea is always there, but improving on the disadvantages is a constant evolution. Three protocols will be discussed: Reference Broadcast Synchronization (RBS) [8], Timing-sync Protocol for Sensor Networks (TPSN) [9], and Flooding Time Synchronization Protocol (FTSP) [10]. These three protocols are the major timing protocols currently in use

for wireless sensor networks. There are other synchronization protocols, but these three represent a good illustration of the different types of protocols. These three cover sender to receiver synchronization as well as receiver to receiver. Also, they cover single hop and multi hop synchronization schemes.

3.1 REFERENCE BROADCAST SYNCHRONIZATION (RBS)

Many of the time synchronization protocols use a sender to receiver synchronization method where the sender will transmit the timestamp information and the receiver will synchronize to sender. RBS is different because it uses receiver to receiver synchronization. The idea is that a third party will broadcast a beacon to all the receivers. The beacon does not contain any timing information; instead the receivers will compare their clocks to one another to calculate their relative phase offsets.

The timing is based on when the node receives the reference beacon. The simplest form of RBS is one broadcast beacon and two receivers. The timing packet will be broadcasted to the two receivers. The receivers will record when the packet was received according to their local clocks. Then, the two receivers will exchange their timing information and be able to calculate the offset. This is enough information to retain a local timescale.

RBS can be expanded from the simplest form of one broadcast and two receivers to synchronization between n receivers; where n is greater than two. This may require more than one broadcast to be sent. Increasing the broadcasts will increase the precision of the synchronization. The reference beacon is broadcasted across all nodes. Once it is received, the receivers note their local time and then exchange timing information with their neighboring nodes. The nodes will then be able to calculate their offset [8].

This protocol uses a sequence of synchronization messages from a given sender in order to estimate both offset and skew of the local clocks relative to each other. The protocol exploits the concept of time-critical path, that is, the path of a message that contributes to non-deterministic errors in a protocol. Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 compare the time-critical path of traditional protocols, which are based on sender-to-receiver synchronization, with receiver-to-receiver synchronization in RBS.

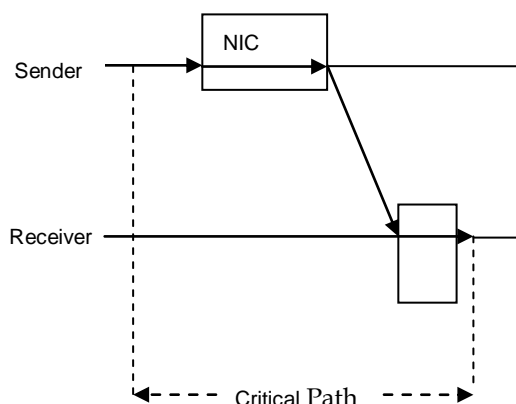


Fig. 2. Traditional time synchronization

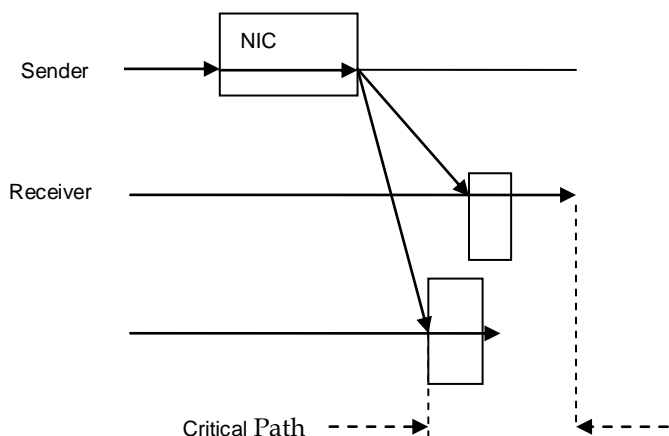


Fig. 3. RBS synchronization

The delays that occur at the sender side are eliminated by using the physical layer broadcast in sensor networks. The critical path now contains the propagation and the receiver uncertainty. If, however, the transmission range is relatively small, then we can eliminate the propagation time and the critical path only contains the uncertainty of the receiver [8].

3.2 MULTI-HOP RBS

In many cases, the nodes that need synchronized time may not be in the coverage area of some common node. Then, some other nodes should act as gateways for time translation between neighborhoods to route the time information from one node to another.

Fig. 4. depicts a case where multi-hop synchronization is required. For example, node 1 and node 7 are not in the same neighborhood, i.e., they do not share a common sender from which they can both receive a synchronization pulse. In this case, node 4 acts as a gateway node between the two neighborhoods. When senders A and B broadcast synchronization pulses to their neighborhood as usual, node 4 gets both of these pulses and can thus relate the local clocks of A and B, i.e., the two neighborhoods. When a beacon sender broadcasts a synchronization pulse, it essentially creates a set of nodes (a neighborhood) in which nodes can relate their local clocks among each other. Now consider a graph whose vertices correspond to sensor nodes in the network.

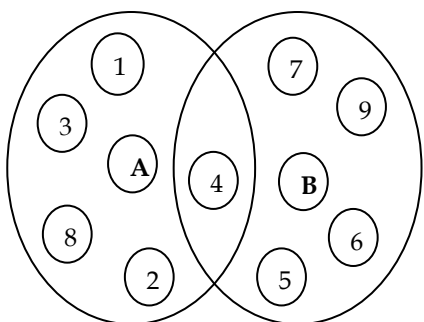


Fig. 4. Multi-hop RBS

An edge between two vertices in this graph exists if the corresponding nodes in the network are within the same neighborhood formed by RBS, i.e., if the two nodes can receive synchronization pulses from the same beacon sender. Then multi-hop synchronization can be performed along the edges of this graph. To this end, the concept of "time routing in multi-hop networks" is introduced. Finding the shortest path between two nodes would yield a minimal error multi-hop synchronization path for this pair of nodes [8]. Moreover, the authors proposed assigning weights to edges to represent the quality of pairwise synchronizations (e.g., using the residual error of the linear fit). In the analysis of the multi-hop RBS algorithm, the authors argue that there is just a slow decay in precision by multi-hop synchronization; the average synchronization error is proportional to n for an n -hop network.

3.3 TIMING-SYNC PROTOCOL FOR SENSOR NETWORKS (TPSN) [9]

TPSN is a traditional sender-receiver based synchronization. It uses a tree to organize the network topology. The working of protocol is split into two phases, the level discovery phase and the synchronization phase. The level discovery phase creates the hierarchical topology of the network. In this phase each node is assigned a level. Only one node, the root, resides on level zero. In the synchronization phase every i level node will synchronize with $i-1$ level nodes. This will result in all nodes synchronized with the root node [9].

Level Discovery Phase: In the level discovery phase the root node should be assigned first. If one node was equipped with a GPS receiver, then that could be the root node and all nodes on the network would be synced to the world time. If not, then any node can be the root node and other nodes can periodically take over the functionality of the root node to share the responsibility. Once the root node is determined, it will initiate the level discovery. The root, level zero, node will send out the *level_discovery* packet to its neighboring nodes. In the *level_discovery* packet, the identity and level of the sending node is included. The neighbors of the root node will then assign themselves as level one. They will in turn send out the *level_discovery* packet to their neighboring nodes. This process will continue until all nodes have received the *level_discovery* packet and are assigned a level.

Synchronization Phase: The root node starts this phase by broadcasting a *time_sync* packet. Upon its reception, the nodes on level 1 wait for a random time then send a *synchronization_pulse* packet to the root node. The randomized waiting prevents collisions caused by contention for media access. The root node replies accordingly with acknowledgement packets. Therefore, all nodes belonging to level 1 can correct their clocks according to the clock of the root node. In addition, the nodes on level 2 will overhear the two-way message exchange because they have at least a neighbor on level 1. Consequently, the nodes on level 2 will each send a *synchronization_pulse* packet to their level-1 neighbors for synchronization. This is applied recursively with nodes on level i synchronizing their clocks to nodes on level $i-1$. Eventually, every node in the network has its clock synchronized to the reference clock of

the root node, thus, the global clock synchronization is achieved.

Fig. 5. illustrates the two-way messaging between a pair of nodes. This messaging can synchronize a pair of nodes by following this method. The times T1, T2, T3, and T4 are all measured times. Node A will send the synchronization_pulse packet at time T1 to Node B. This packet will contain Node A's level and the time T1 when it was sent. Node B will receive the packet at time T2. Time T3 is when Node B sends the acknowledgment_packet to Node A. That packet will contain the level number of Node B as well as times T1, T2, and T3. By knowing the drift, Node A can correct its clock and successfully synchronize to Node B. This is the basic communication for TPSN.

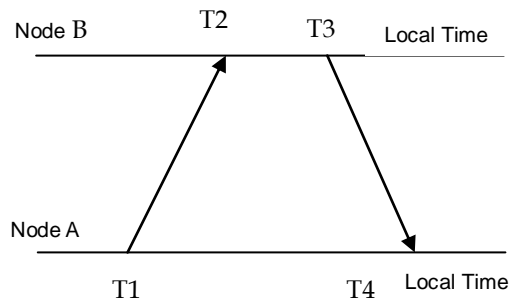


Fig. 5. Two-way messaging in TPSN

The synchronization process is again initiated by the root node. It broadcasts a time_sync packet to the level one nodes. These nodes will wait a random amount of time before initiating the two-way messaging. The root node will send the acknowledgment and the level one nodes will adjust their clocks to be synchronized with the root nodes. The level two node will be able to hear the level one nodes communication since at least one level one node is a neighbor of a level two node. On hearing this communication the level two nodes will wait a random period of time before initiating the two-way messaging with the level one nodes. This process will continue until all nodes are synchronized to the root node. Again the synchronization process executes much the same as the level discovery phase. All communication begins with the root node broadcasting information to the level 1 nodes. This communication propagates through the tree until all level i-1 nodes are synchronized with the level i nodes. At this point all nodes will be synchronized with the root node.

Here, T1, T4 represent the time measured by local clock of 'A'. Similarly T2, T3 represent the time measured by local clock of 'B'. At time T1, 'A' sends a synchronization_pulse packet to 'B'. The synchronization_pulse packet contains the level number of 'A' and the value of T1. Node B receives this packet at T2, where T2 is equal to T1 + Δ + d. Here Δ and d represents the clock drift between the two nodes and propagation delay respectively. At time T3, 'B' sends back an acknowledgement packet to 'A'. The acknowledgement packet contains the level number of 'B' and the values of T1, T2 and T3. Node A receives the packet at T4. Assuming that the clock drift and the propagation delay do not change in this small span of time, 'A' can calculate the clock drift and propagation delay as:

$$\Delta = \frac{(T2-T1)-(T4-T3)}{2} \tag{1}$$

$$d = \frac{(T2-T1)+(T4-T3)}{2} \tag{2}$$

3.4 FLOODING TIME SYNCHRONIZATION PROTOCOL [10]

Another form of sender to receiver synchronization is FTSP. This protocol is similar to TPSN, but it improves on the disadvantages to TPSN. It is similar in the fact that it has a structure with a root node and that all nodes are synchronized to the root. The root node will transmit the time synchronization information with a single radio message to all participating receivers. The message contains the sender's time stamp of the global time at transmission. The receiver notes its local time when the message is received. Having the sender's transmission time and the reception time, the receiver can estimate the clock offset. The message is MAC layer time stamped, as in TPSN, on both the sending and receiving side. To keep high precision compensation for clock drift is needed. FTSP uses linear regression for this. FTSP was designed for large multi-hop networks. The root is elected dynamically and periodically reelected and is responsible for keeping the global time of the network. The receiving nodes will synchronize themselves to the root node and will organize in an ad hoc fashion to communicate the timing information amongst all nodes. The network structure is mesh type topology instead of a tree topology as in TPSN. [10]

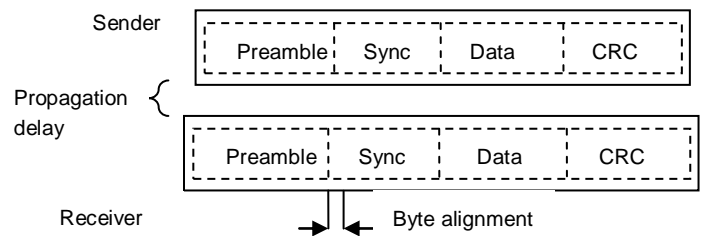


Fig. 6. Data packets transmitted over the radio channel. Solid lines represent the bytes of the buffer and the dashed lines are the bytes of packets.

There are several advantages to FTSP over TPSN. Although TPSN did provide a protocol for a multi-hop network, it did not handle topology changes well. TPSN would have to reinitiate the level discovery phase if the root node changed or the topology changes. This would induce more network traffic and create additional overhead. FTSP is robust in that it utilizes the flooding of synchronization messages to combat link and node failure. The flooding also provides the ability for dynamic topology changes. The protocol specifies the root node will be periodically reelected, so a dynamic topology is necessary. Like TPSN, FTSP also provides MAC layer time stamping which greatly increases the precision and reduces jitter. This will eliminate all but the propagation time error. It utilizes the multiple time stampings and linear regression to estimate clock drift and offset.

4 EVALUATION AND COMPARISON OF PROTOCOLS

In this section we compare and evaluate the above discussed synchronization protocols. We need to define various evaluation criteria for qualitative and quantitative comparison of time synchronization protocols.

4.1 QUALITATIVE EVALUATION

Here we evaluate the protocols based on overall quality criteria. The various protocols are compared in terms of the following qualitative criteria and are summarized in table 1 [6, 11].

1. Accuracy: A measure of the precision of synchronization. A protocol with high accuracy provides the guarantee of high precision. The absolute precision is achieved if the synchronized time in the network does not deviate much from an external standard.

2. Energy Efficiency: In WSNs nodes are distributed in areas where it is impossible to wire these nodes to a power source. Draining the power of nodes will degrade the efficiency of the network. Therefore, Energy efficiency is an implicit requirement in wireless sensor networks.

3. Scalability: Synchronization technique must work well with any number of nodes in the network. The synchronization protocols must be sufficiently scalable with varying network size. This is a limitation on many protocols as they are tested for a few hundred nodes.

4. Overall Complexity: In wireless sensor networks there is always limited resources and hardware capabilities and also have severe energy constraints. The complexity of protocol can make a protocol impracticable for many applications.

5. Fault Tolerance: Fault tolerance plays an important role because in wireless medium there is more chance of errors. If the delivery of a message is poor in WSNs then it could lead to devastating effects on synchronization protocols. Some fault-tolerant protocols solved message loss problem to some level, but some protocols do not address this issue [9].

istics and requirements of each application. For instance, a low cost, low precision protocol could be appropriate for many environmental monitoring applications. However, many safety critical applications, such as aircraft navigation or intrusion detection in military systems, will demand high precision protocols in order for nodes to correctly identify events occurring in the network.

1. Precision: Synchronization precision can be defined in two ways: Absolute precision: The maximum error (i.e. skew and offset) of a node's logical clock with respect to an external standard such as UTC. Relative precision: The maximum deviation (i.e., skew and offset) among logical clock readings of the nodes belonging to a wireless network. Precision of synchronization technique highly depends on the application.

2. Convergence Time: Convergence time is the total time required to synchronize the network.

3. Piggybacking: Piggybacking is a term used to describe the process of combining synchronization message with data message sent amongst nodes. Instead of sending independent acknowledgement messages, these messages are piggybacked on the data messages that have to be sent to the node, in order to reduce message traffic in the network.

4. Computational Complexity: As wireless sensor networks often have limited hardware capabilities and severe energy constraints, the complexity of a synchronization protocol can make a protocol impractical for many applications.

5. Graphic Users Interface Services: Graphic User Interface (GUI) services provide the ease to the end user. Only Ping's protocol [12] provides such services to the application and higher level kernel modules.

6. Network Size: Local synchronization technique must be extended to the entire network in WSNs. The network wide time synchronization protocol of Ganeriwal et al. [8] is important in this regard. This protocol was found to handle neighborhoods with up to 300 nodes.

TABLE 1

QUALITATIVE METRICS AND PERFORMANCE OF TIME SYNCHRONIZATION PROTOCOLS

Protocols	Accuracy	Energy Efficiency	Overall Complexity	Scalability	Fault Tolerance
RBS	High	High	High	Good	No
TPSN	High	High	Low	Poor	No
FTSP	High	High	High	Average	No

4.2 QUANTITATIVE EVALUATION

The protocols mentioned in previous section differ in their computational requirements, energy consumption, precision of synchronization results, and communication requirements. In various applications of wireless sensor networks no single protocol is applicable for all applications. In WSNs one protocol is suitable for one application but not fit for other application. The choice of a protocol will be driven by the character-

Table 2 compares the various protocols in terms of the above discussed quantitative criteria [6, 11]. These qualitative and quantitative criteria can be used as metrics or performance measures to evaluate or analyse the trade off between various requirements on time synchronization protocols for wireless sensor networks.

TABLE 2

QUANTITATIVE METRICS AND PERFORMANCE OF TIME SYNCHRONIZATION PROTOCOL

Protocols	Precision	Piggybacking	Convergence Time	GUI Services	Network Size
RBS	29.1 μ s per hop	N/A	N/A	NO	2-20 Nodes
TPSN	16.9 μ s per hop	NO	Unknown	NO	150-300 Nodes
FTSP	1.48 μ s per hop	NO	High (Multi-hop)	NO	50-60 Nodes

5 CONCLUSION

We have discussed, analyzed and compared RBS, TPSN and FTSP protocol for time synchronization in WSN. This will help researchers and designers a lot in selection of time synchronization protocol to build a system or an application where partial or full time synchronization is necessary. These protocols can be simulated in suitable network simulator and selection guideline can be refined.

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