

Packet Size Optimization in Wireless Sensor Networks for Smart Grid Applications

Sinan Kurt, Huseyin Ugur Yildiz, Melike Yigit, Bulent Tavli, and Vehbi Cagri Gungor

Abstract—Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs) are envisioned to be an important enabling technology for Smart Grid (SG) due to the low cost, ease of deployment, and versatility of WSNs. Limited battery energy is the tightest resource constraint on WSNs. Transmission power control and data packet size optimization are powerful mechanisms for prolonging network lifetime and improving energy efficiency. Increasing transmission power will reduce the Bit Error Rate (BER) on some links, however, utilizing the highest power level will lead to inefficient use of battery energy because on links with low path loss achieving low BER is possible without the need to use the highest power level. Utilizing a large packet size is beneficial for increasing the payload to overhead ratio, yet, lower packet sizes has the advantage of lower Packet Error Rate (PER). Furthermore, transmission power level assignment and packet size selection are interrelated. Therefore, joint optimization of transmission power level and packet size is of utmost importance in WSN lifetime maximization. In this study, we construct a detailed link layer model by employing the characteristics of Tmote Sky WSN nodes and channel characteristics based on actual measurements of SG path loss for various environments. A novel Mixed Integer Programming (MIP) framework is created by using the aforementioned link layer model for WSN lifetime maximization by joint optimization of transmission power level and data packet size. We analyzed the WSN performance by systematic exploration of the parameter space for various SG environments through the numerical evaluations of the MIP model.

Index Terms—wireless sensor networks, smart grid, network lifetime, mixed integer programming, packet size optimization, transmission power control.

I. INTRODUCTION

SMART Grid (SG) is a global networked cyber-physical system which is designed to efficiently orchestrate the global electric energy flow in the main electric arteries as well as in the single households [1], [2]. Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs) are among the important constituents of SG [3], [4]. Indeed, sensing, monitoring, communications, and networking capabilities possessed by WSNs are highly desirable in various SG applications [5]. For example, WSNs can be deployed over various parts of the electric power grid (*e.g.*, generation plants, power lines, renewable energy sites *etc.*) [4]. Data related to the power usage, generation efficiency, and many other types

of information can be measured, collected, and conveyed to a sink node (*i.e.*, base station, operation center) for system and energy management issues [6]. Furthermore, perimeter security and physical intruder detection in SG facilities are also the potential application areas of WSNs [7]. One particular challenge in the utilization of WSNs in SG applications is the unique characteristics of SG environments which, typically, have harsh channel conditions [8]. In fact, the impact of channel characteristics on the performance of WSNs is significant [9].

One of the most important performance metrics of WSNs is the network lifetime. Since WSN nodes are battery operated, in general, optimal utilization of the limited battery energy is vital for prolonging the network lifetime. Energy dissipation on communication is the dominant energy dissipation term in WSNs [10]. Therefore, optimization of all aspects of WSN communication and networking is the overarching goal. Adjusting the sensor nodes' duty cycle to facilitate the deep sleep mode for energy conservation is shown to be one of the important mechanisms for prolonging WSN lifetime. Avoiding redundant data transmissions by careful selection of data packet transmission frequency is, yet, another important mechanism for energy saving. Nevertheless, in this study, we focus on transmission power control and data packet size optimization which are two mechanisms which can be utilized to mitigate the unnecessary energy dissipation in WSNs. Especially WSNs used in SG environments experience harsher channel conditions than most terrestrial WSN deployments [11] where optimization of transmission power levels and packet sizes is imperative. While optimizing transmission power and data packet size, optimization of sensor nodes' duty cycle and transmission frequency should not be overlooked.

Optimization of packet size in WSNs is a topic extensively investigated in the literature. However, almost all studies on WSN packet size optimization are focused on specific deployment environments other than SG environments (*e.g.*, terrestrial WSNs [12]–[20], underwater WSNs [21]–[24], underground WSNs [25], and body area WSNs [26]–[28]). One exception is [29] which is the closest study to ours. In [29], reliability of low power wireless links for various SG environments are investigated through simulations.

In this study, we systematically investigate the impact of joint optimization of transmission power level and data packet size on WSN lifetime in various SG environments. We built a link layer model based on the characteristics of Tmote Sky WSN platforms [30] and empirical SG path loss models [29]. The link layer model includes a rich set of energy dissipation terms and mechanisms which enables us to investigate WSN

S. Kurt and B. Tavli are with the Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering, TOBB University of Economics and Technology, 06520, Ankara, Turkey (e-mail: {skurt,btavli}@etu.edu.tr).

H.U. Yildiz is with the Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering, TED University, 06420, Ankara, Turkey (e-mail: huguryildiz@ieec.org).

M. Yigit is with Department of Computer Engineering, Bahcesehir University, 34353, Istanbul, Turkey (e-mail: melike.yigit@stu.bahcesehir.edu.tr).

V. C. Gungor is with Department of Computer Engineering, Abdullah Gul University, 38039, Kayseri, Turkey (e-mail:cagri.gungor@agu.edu.tr).

energy dissipation in detail. We built a Mixed Integer Programming (MIP) framework on top of the link layer model for the analysis of WSNs deployed over SG environments. Through the numerical evaluations of the MIP model we explore the optimal transmission level and packet size characteristics for maximizing WSN lifetime in SG environments.

The major novel contributions of this study are itemized as follows

- 1) We built a novel link layer model based on the Tmote Sky platform and SG path loss characteristics. This model enables us to perform analysis for the whole link layer handshake cycle (data packets are replied with Acknowledgement –ACK– packets) which is ignored in all studies on WSN packet size optimization (*i.e.*, either the existence of ACK packets or non-zero probability of failure for ACK packets are assumed).
- 2) We construct a novel MIP framework which enables us to optimize transmission power level and data packet size, jointly. In the literature either transmission power level is optimized by keeping the packet size constant or packet size is optimized while keeping the transmission power level constant.
- 3) We systematically explored a large parameter space through the numerical evaluations of the MIP model to characterize the extent of WSN lifetime maximization in SG environments by optimizing packet size and transmission power level which has never been done in the literature.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The system model (*i.e.*, link layer model and MIP framework) is elaborated in Section II. Numerical analysis is given in Section III. Section IV provides our concluding remarks.

II. SYSTEM MODEL

In this study, we do not propose a new network protocol for maximizing SG WSN lifetime through data packet size optimization. Instead, we analyze the impact of packet size optimization in WSNs employed in SG environments from network lifetime maximization perspective within a general framework and without going into the details of specific MAC (Medium Access Control)/routing protocols or algorithms. In fact, MIP based optimization of data flows in the network to maximize the lifetime is an abstraction for an idealized cross-layer WSN MAC/routing protocol. By doing so we eliminate the possible suboptimal behaviors of routing protocols' implementation details not specifically related to the concept under investigation, *per se*.

In our framework, data flows, TDMA time slots allocations, and data packet sizes are optimized in a centralized manner by the base station. Network reorganization period for a typical WSN is sufficiently long [31] (*i.e.*, in all the scenarios we investigated the left hand side of Equation 17 is at least an order of magnitude lower than the right hand side), therefore, the energy costs of topology discovery and route creation operations constitute a small fraction (*e.g.*, less than 1.0% [31]) of the total network energy dissipation. Therefore, control overhead can be neglected without leading to significant underestimation of total energy dissipation.

A TDMA-based MAC layer is in operation which mitigates interference between active links through a time-slot assignment algorithm which outputs a conflict-free transmission schedule. A combinatorial interference model can be used to model interference, and the scheduling constraints can then be modeled by a conflict graph. In [32], it is shown that such an algorithm is possible hence collision free communication is achieved if sufficient bandwidth requirements are satisfied. In fact, in our model, we use the sufficient condition presented in [32] (*i.e.*, Equation 17 and Equation 18). Furthermore, it is also possible to reduce data packet collisions to negligible levels in practical low overhead MAC protocols designed with a dynamic TDMA approach (*e.g.*, DMAC is a time schedule based MAC protocol designed to facilitate energy efficient data collection in WSNs [33]). TDMA-based channel access is also necessary to avoid overhearing.

A stationary WSN with multiple sensor nodes and a base station is considered for the SG application. Data packets generated at sensor nodes are transferred to the base station possibly via multi-hop paths. A Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA) mechanism is assumed to be in effect as elaborated in the proceeding paragraphs. Time is organized into equal duration rounds (T_{rnd}). In each round, each sensor node generates a certain amount of data packets (s_i). Details of the the link layer are presented in Section II-A. Network lifetime optimization problem is outlined in Section II-B.

A. Link Layer Model

Our link layer is based on the characteristics of Tmote Sky motes which are one of the widely utilized platforms for experimental WSN research, in general, and for WSN deployments at SG environments, in particular [3], [29]. Tmote Sky motes consist of an Texas Instruments MSP430 microcontroller and Chipcon CC2420 radio. Eight transmission power levels and corresponding power consumptions are documented for Tmote Sky motes [30] and presented in Table I. Power consumption of Tmote Sky receiver for data reception is 69 mW (*i.e.*, $P_{rx}^{prc} = 23\text{mA} \times 3\text{V} = 69\text{ mW}$). Data acquisition energy is dissipated at each round on every node which is denoted as $E_{DA} = 57\ \mu\text{J}$. The power consumption for data acquisition is obtained by adding the power for running the processor (5.4 mW) and the sensor board (6 mW) in active mode [30], [34] (*i.e.*, $P_{DA} = 11.4\text{ mW}$). By multiplying P_{DA} with the total data acquisition and processing time ($T_{DA} = 5\text{ ms}$), E_{DA} is obtained.

Each node generates the same amount of processed data to be transferred to the base station (*e.g.*, each sensor node generates 120 Bytes of data at each $T_{rnd} = 40\text{ s}$ round). In our framework, the size of a data packet payload is denoted by M_{PL} and assumed to take values of 120, 60, 40, 30, 24, and 20 Bytes. Each node can adjust the number of data packets to be transmitted at each round according to the given payload sizes. For example, if a node utilizes 120 Bytes of payload, then it would transmit 1 data packet at each round. However, if this node utilizes 60 Bytes of payload, then it would transmit 2 data packets at each round. Same procedure applies for the rest of the payload sizes. The size of a data packet (M_P)

including a 8-Byte header ($M_H = 8$ Bytes) varies between 28 Bytes and 128 Bytes, *i.e.*, $M_P = M_{PL} + M_H$. ACK packet length is $M_A = 12$ Bytes.

TABLE I: Transmission power consumption ($P_{tx}^{crc}(l)$ in mW) and output antenna power ($P_{tx}^{ant}(l)$ in dBm) at each power level (l) for the Tmote Sky motes equipped with CC2420 for different power levels (l) [30].

l	$P_{tx}^{crc}(l)$	$P_{tx}^{ant}(l)$	l	$P_{tx}^{crc}(l)$	$P_{tx}^{ant}(l)$
3 (l_{min})	25.5	-25	19	41.7	-5
7	29.7	-15	23	45.6	-3
11	33.6	-10	27	49.5	-1
15	37.5	-7	31 (l_{max})	52.2	0

There are pre-determined time slots for data transmission between any pair of nodes. Guard times are used at the start and the end of a time slot to prevent synchronization errors [35] where we choose the guard time to be $T_{grd} = 100 \mu s$, which is roughly twice the maximum synchronization error. The time interval between the completion of the data packet transmission at the source node and the beginning of the ACK packet receipt which includes various delay terms (*e.g.*, propagation delay) is modeled by T_{rsp} (100 μs). To account for all of the aforementioned terms, the slot time is found as $T_{slot} = [2 \times T_{grd} + T_{tx}(M_P) + T_{rsp} + T_{tx}(M_A)] = 4.78$ ms for $M_P = 128$ Bytes and $M_A = 12$ Bytes, where $T_{tx}(M_P)$ and $T_{tx}(M_A)$ are the durations of data and ACK packets, respectively, which are obtained by dividing the number of bits to the channel data rate ($\xi = 250$ Kbps).

In the literature, there are many path loss models (analytical or experimental) proposed for WSNs [36], however, for accurate performance analysis the model to be used must be customized for the specific site (*i.e.*, through curve fitting the experimental data) [9]. Hence, we utilize the path loss models presented in [3], [29]. The models are given for both Line-Of-Sight (LOS) and Non-Line-Of-Sight (NLOS) cases in the different SG environments (*i.e.*, outdoor 500 kV substation, underground network transformer vault, and indoor main power control room at Georgia Power, Atlanta, GA, USA).

The path loss on link- (i, j) , Υ_{ij} , is given as

$$\Upsilon_{ij}[\text{dB}] = \Upsilon_0[\text{dB}] + 10n \log_{10}(d_{ij}/d_0) + X_\sigma \quad [\text{dB}], \quad (1)$$

where d_{ij} is the distance between transmitter and receiver, d_0 is a reference distance, Υ_0 is the path loss at the reference distance, n is the path loss exponent, and X_σ is a zero mean Gaussian random variable with the standard deviation σ in dB.

The received signal power due to a transmission at power level- l over the link- (i, j) is denoted as $P_{rx,ij}^{ant}(l)$ and obtained by

$$P_{rx,ij}^{ant}(l)[\text{dBm}] = P_{tx}^{ant}(l)[\text{dBm}] - \Upsilon_{ij}[\text{dB}]. \quad (2)$$

Since transmission power level (l) is chosen on a link and path loss can be calculated from Equation 1, the received power can be obtained by Equation 2. Hence, SNR ($\psi_{ij}(l)$) is calculated as

$$\psi_{ij}(l)[\text{dB}] = P_{rx,ij}^{ant}(l)[\text{dBm}] - P_n[\text{dBm}], \quad (3)$$

where P_n is the noise power which includes affect of total noise power on the effective receiver bandwidth and noise figure. Path loss parameters for the six SG measurement settings are presented in Table II.

In Tmote Sky motes, O-QPSK (Offset - Quadrature Phase Shift Keying) modulation is used. BER for O-QPSK is given by [37] as $p_e = Q\left(\sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{N_0}}\right)$ where $\frac{E_b}{N_0} = \psi_{ij}(l)G_P$. In this notation, G_P is the process gain, that is 8 for CC2420 radios ($\frac{2M^{chip/s}}{250Kbit/s}$) [38].

Hence, the probability of a successful packet reception of a φ -Byte packet transmitted at power level- l over the link- (i, j) is

$$p_{ij}^s(l, \varphi) = \left(1 - Q\left(\sqrt{16\psi_{ij}(l)}\right)\right)^{8\varphi}, \quad (4)$$

and failure probability is

$$p_{ij}^f(l, \varphi) = 1 - p_{ij}^s(l, \varphi). \quad (5)$$

The probability of a successful handshake for the data packet which is transmitted at power level- l and acknowledged at power level- k over the link- (i, j) is calculated as

$$p_{ij}^{HS,s}(l, k) = p_{ij}^s(l, M_P) \times p_{ji}^s(k, M_A). \quad (6)$$

Therefore the probability of a failed handshake is expressed as

$$p_{ij}^{HS,f}(l, k) = 1 - p_{ij}^{HS,s}(l, k). \quad (7)$$

On the average, data packets have to be transmitted $\lambda_{ij}(l, k) = \frac{1}{p_{ij}^{HS,s}(l, k)}$ times. Energy dissipation for transmitting an M_P -Byte packet from node- i to node- j at power level- l is

$$E_{tx}^D(l, M_P) = P_{tx}^{crc}(l)T_{tx}(M_P). \quad (8)$$

During a time slot, a node is in the receive mode after the packet transmission is completed. Therefore, the total energy dissipation is the sum of transmit energy during transmission, $T_{tx}(M_P)$, and receive energy during rest of the slot, $T_{slot} - T_{tx}(M_P)$, which can be expressed as

$$E_{tx}^{HS}(l, M_P) = E_{tx}^D(l, M_P) + P_{rx}^{crc}(T_{slot} - T_{tx}(M_P)). \quad (9)$$

The energy dissipation for packet processing and transmitter including all re-transmissions due to packet failures can be expressed as

$$E_{tx,ij}^D(l, k) = E_{PP} + \lambda_{ij}(l, k)E_{tx}^{HS}(l, M_P). \quad (10)$$

where E_{PP} is packet processing energy and dissipated only once. Therefore for all re-transmissions, there would be no additional processing energy consumed. Packet processing energy (E_{PP}) is obtained by using the power consumption of Tmote Sky mote platform in the active mode (5.4 mW) [30] and the total utilization time of the CPU for each packet (*e.g.*, $E_{PP} = 12.66 \mu J$ for $M_{PL} = 120$ Bytes).

Energy dissipation for receiving a data packet and replying with an ACK packet can be expressed as

$$E_{rx}^{HS,s}(k, M_A) = P_{rx}^{crc}(T_{slot} - T_{tx}(M_A)) + E_{tx}^A(k, M_A). \quad (11)$$

If the handshake failure is due to the ACK packet reception then energy dissipation on the receiver side is not affected. If

TABLE II: Path Loss Model Parameters for Various SG Environments [3]

Environment	Abbreviation	n	X_σ (dB)	P_n (dBm)
Outdoor 500 KV Substation (LOS)	OUS-L	2.42	3.12	-93
Outdoor 500 KV Substation (NLOS)	OUS-N	3.51	2.95	-93
Underground Network Transformer Vault (LOS)	UNT-L	1.45	2.45	-92
Underground Network Transformer Vault (NLOS)	UNT-N	3.15	3.19	-92
Indoor Main Power Room (LOS)	IMP-L	1.64	3.29	-88
Indoor Main Power Room (NLOS)	IMP-N	2.38	2.25	-88

the handshake failure occurs at the data packet reception path then at the receiver side energy cost will be

$$E_{rx}^{HS,f} = P_{rx}^{crc} T_{slot}. \quad (12)$$

Energy dissipation on the receiver side including all re-transmissions is given as

$$E_{rx,ji}^D(l,k) = E_{PP} + \lambda_{ij}(l,k) \left[p_{ij}^{HS,s}(l,k) E_{rx}^{HS,s}(k, M_A) + p_{ij}^s(l, M_P) p_{ji}^f(k, M_A) E_{rx}^{HS,s}(k, M_A) + p_{ij}^f(l, M_P) E_{rx}^{HS,f} \right]. \quad (13)$$

B. MIP Framework

The MIP framework presented in this subsection is designed to maximize WSN lifetime by utilizing the link layer model constructed in Section II-A. The network is represented as a directed graph (*i.e.*, $G = (V, A)$), where V represents the set of all sensor nodes. By denoting node-1 as the base station, we define the set W to represent all nodes excluding the base station (*i.e.*, $W = V \setminus \{1\}$). $A = \{(i, j) : i \in W, j \in V - i\}$ is the set of arcs. The *integer* valued f_{ij} represents the number of data packets flowing from node- i to node- j . The objective function and constraints of our model are presented in Figure 1. Note that, the objective function of our model is to maximize the network lifetime in terms of seconds which can be expressed by the product $N_{rnd} \times T_{rnd}$ where the variable N_{rnd} gives the network lifetime in terms of the number of rounds.

The *flow balance* constraint is given in Equation 14. It simply states that at every node- i , generated data is equal to the difference between outgoing data flow and incoming data flow. Equation 15 represents the *total busy time* for each sensor node which is the sum of data acquisition time, packet receive time, and packet transmit time including the re-transmissions. If a node is not busy during a time slot then it is in sleep mode. Power consumption in sleep mode is taken as $3 \mu\text{W}$ (*i.e.*, $P_{slp} = 3 \mu\text{W}$). *Energy constraint* at each node is represented by Equation 16 and left-hand side of this constraint is the sum of transmission, sleep, reception, and acquisition energies. The right-hand side of this constraint is the energy of batteries in sensor nodes ($\varrho = 15 \text{ KJ}$ for each node). Equation 17 states that the *channel bandwidth* required for communications at each node is bounded by the available bandwidth. For all nodes the cumulative duration of incoming flows, outgoing flows, and interfering flows is upper bounded by the total network lifetime. This constraint is a modified version of the sufficient condition given in [39]. Interfering flows are the flows around node- i which are not flowing into or flowing out of node- i , however, affect the available bandwidth of node- i . Interference function ($I_{jn}^i(l, k)$) is formulated in Equation 18. If node- i

Maximize N_{rnd}

Subject to:

$$\sum_{(i,j) \in A} f_{ij} - \sum_{(j,i) \in A} f_{ji} = N_{rnd} s_i \quad \forall i \in W \quad (14)$$

$$T_{busy,i} = T_{slot} \left[\sum_{(i,j) \in A} \lambda_{ij}(l, k) f_{ij} + \sum_{(j,i) \in A} \lambda_{ji}(l, k) f_{ji} \right] + N_{rnd} T_{DA}, \quad \forall i \in W \quad (15)$$

$$\underbrace{\sum_{(i,j) \in A} E_{tx,ij}^D(l, k) f_{ij}}_{\text{transmission}} + \underbrace{P_{slp} (N_{rnd} T_{rnd} - T_{busy,i})}_{\text{sleep}} + \underbrace{\sum_{(j,i) \in A} E_{rx,ji}^D(l, k) f_{ji}}_{\text{reception}} + \underbrace{N_{rnd} E_{DA}}_{\text{acquisition}} \leq \varrho \quad \forall i \in W \quad (16)$$

$$T_{slot} \left[\sum_{(i,j) \in A} \lambda_{ij}(l, k) f_{ij} + \sum_{(j,i) \in A} \lambda_{ji}(l, k) f_{ji} + \sum_{(j,n) \in A} \lambda_{jn}(l, k) f_{jn} I_{jn}^i(l, k) \right] \leq N_{rnd} T_{rnd}, \quad \forall i \in W \quad (17)$$

$$I_{jn}^i(l, k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } P_{rx,ji}^{ant}(l) \geq P_{sns} \text{ or} \\ & P_{rx,ni}^{ant}(k) \geq P_{sns} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

$$f_{ij} \geq 0 \quad \forall (i, j) \in A \quad (19)$$

Fig. 1: MIP framework.

is in the interference region of the transmission from node- j to node- n at power level- l (data transmission) or node- n to node- j at power level- k (ACK transmission), then the value of interference function for node- i is unity ($i \neq j \neq n$), otherwise it is zero. Equation 19 states that all flows are *non-negative*.

The MIP model presented in Figure 1 assumes a link level transmission power control mechanism where the power levels for both data and ACK packets are optimized on each link by considering the energy dissipations on each link (given in Equations 10 and 13). We assume that on link- (i, j) , data packets are transmitted at power level- l_{ij}^{opt} by node- i , and ACK packets are transmitted at power level- k_{ji}^{opt} by node- j . These optimal power levels are determined by using the following

link scope optimization scheme [10],

$$\{l_{ij}^{opt}, k_{ji}^{opt}\} = \underset{l \in S_L, k \in S_L}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left(E_{tx,ij}^D(l, k) + E_{rx,ji}^D(l, k) \right) \quad (20)$$

It is shown in [40] that the maximum lifetime problem in WSNs with convergecast traffic (*i.e.*, all traffic terminates at the base station) and integral flows (*i.e.*, the flow variables are integers) is NP-complete if there are multiple topologies for the convergecast (*i.e.*, multiple topology convergecast). In this context, single topology convergecast means that each generated data packet of each sensor node is delivered to the base station by using exactly the same path at each round. If multiple paths are used for data packet delivery at different rounds than the problem is a multiple topology convergecast. Since the MIP problem given in Figure 1 is a multiple topology convergecast problem with integral flows for network lifetime maximization, it is an NP-complete problem.

In comparison to the existing body of work on packet size optimization in WSN literature [12], [15], [29], our approach differs in several ways. Studies on simulation based analysis of packet size optimization (*e.g.*, [29]) utilize various heuristic approaches which are not guaranteed to determine the optimal operation conditions, therefore, the results of those studies do not necessarily give the optimal solutions. However, in our approach we present the results of optimal solutions. On the other hand, studies on mathematical modeling of packet size optimization (*e.g.*, [15]) use rather simplistic abstractions to facilitate the tractability of the models, therefore, the impact of many important mechanisms are ignored in such models. However, in our framework, we incorporated a very rich set of mathematical abstractions of actual platforms and propagation environments.

Iterative optimization is an approach utilized in many studies on WSNs (*e.g.*, real-time implementation of fault-tolerant control systems with performance optimization) [4]. To apply iterative optimization, the problem should have a structure that enables convergence to the optimal solution by successive iterations. The key to utilize iterative optimization is to partition the problem into subproblems and solve each subproblem. Therefore, the computational complexity of the solution is reduced when compared to the case where the whole problem is solved without partitioning the problem. However, the problem we investigate do not possess such a property, therefore, we do not employ such an approach in this study.

III. ANALYSIS

In this section, the results of numerical analysis are presented. MATLAB and General Algebraic Modeling System (GAMS) with CPLEX solver is used for the solutions of the MIP model presented in Section II.

We utilize two network topologies. The first one is the *square (grid)* topology where the sensor nodes are located at the vertices of grid (inter-node distance is fixed to d_{int}) and the base station is at the center. The second topology is a *disk shaped* network with the radius R_{net} where the base station is located at the center of the disk and sensor nodes are deployed within the disk by using a random uniform

distribution. For both topologies we denote N_N as the number of nodes which is taken as 81. Also for the transmission power levels on the links, we consider both network level and link level approaches. In the first case, on each link we utilize the maximum power level to reduce the packet errors (*i.e.*, network level approach). For the second case, transmission power levels on each link is optimized through the local optimization scheme defined in Equation 20 (*i.e.*, link level approach). Since the path loss values are taking random values, we obtain our results with 100 different trials and average values are presented in each figure.

In Figure 2, we present the average successful handshake probability ($E[p^{HS,s}]$) with respect to (*wrt.*) the inter-node distance (d_{int}) for a two node pair (*i.e.*, two nodes are separated by d_{int}). For this link, the maximum transmission power level ($l_{max} = 31$) is utilized and we consider the six different SG environments. In each sub-figure we present $E[p^{HS,s}]$ values for three different payload sizes (*i.e.*, $M_{PL} = 120, 40,$ and 20 Bytes). This figure is critical to understand the network lifetime optimization results present in the following figures.

In Table III, we mark d_{int} values which are denoted by d_n^m . The subscript n indicates the $E[p^{HS,s}]$ interval at that distance while superscript m points the SG environment. We also present the corresponding optimum payload size (OPS) in Bytes and absolute lifetime (LT) in months at each d_n^m value. Note that, since successful handshake probabilities for different packet sizes are used, for a fixed d_n^m value there exists a $E[p^{HS,s}]$ region rather than a fixed value. For different environments $E[p^{HS,s}]$ regions are changing but roughly around 0.4-0.8. We obtain OPS values and LT values as follows: the MIP framework (given in Figure 1) is solved for a 81-node grid topology and for the packet size value which yields the best lifetime (which is indeed the LT value) is considered as the OPS value. As the propagation environment becomes harsher (*i.e.*, $E[p^{HS,s}]$ decreases), LT values decreases and the OPS values becomes smaller to maximize the network lifetime.

In Figure 3, we show normalized lifetimes *wrt.* payload sizes for the six different SG environments when considering a square topology. For each curve we normalize the absolute lifetime values with the maximum lifetime value obtained at this configuration. In this figure, y-axis shows normalized lifetime values and x-axis denotes the payload sizes (M_{PL}) of 120, 60, 40, 30, 24 and 20 Bytes. We utilize the maximum transmission power level for all links. We observe that until a specific d_{int} value the network lifetime is maximum when the maximum packet size is utilized (*i.e.*, when $M_{PL} = 120$ Bytes). As d_{int} increases, $E[p^{HS,s}]$ decreases and the maximum lifetime is obtained for smaller packet sizes. Nevertheless, this figure only includes d_{int} values such that at least half of the 100 trials have connected networks (*i.e.*, for larger d_{int} , more than half of the networks are disconnected, thus, the statistical reliability is compromised). From the point of view of SG environments, line of sight (LOS) or non-line of sight (NLOS) cases results in different lifetime results even for the same environment because path loss characteristics varies significantly for LOS and NLOS cases which are presented in Table II.

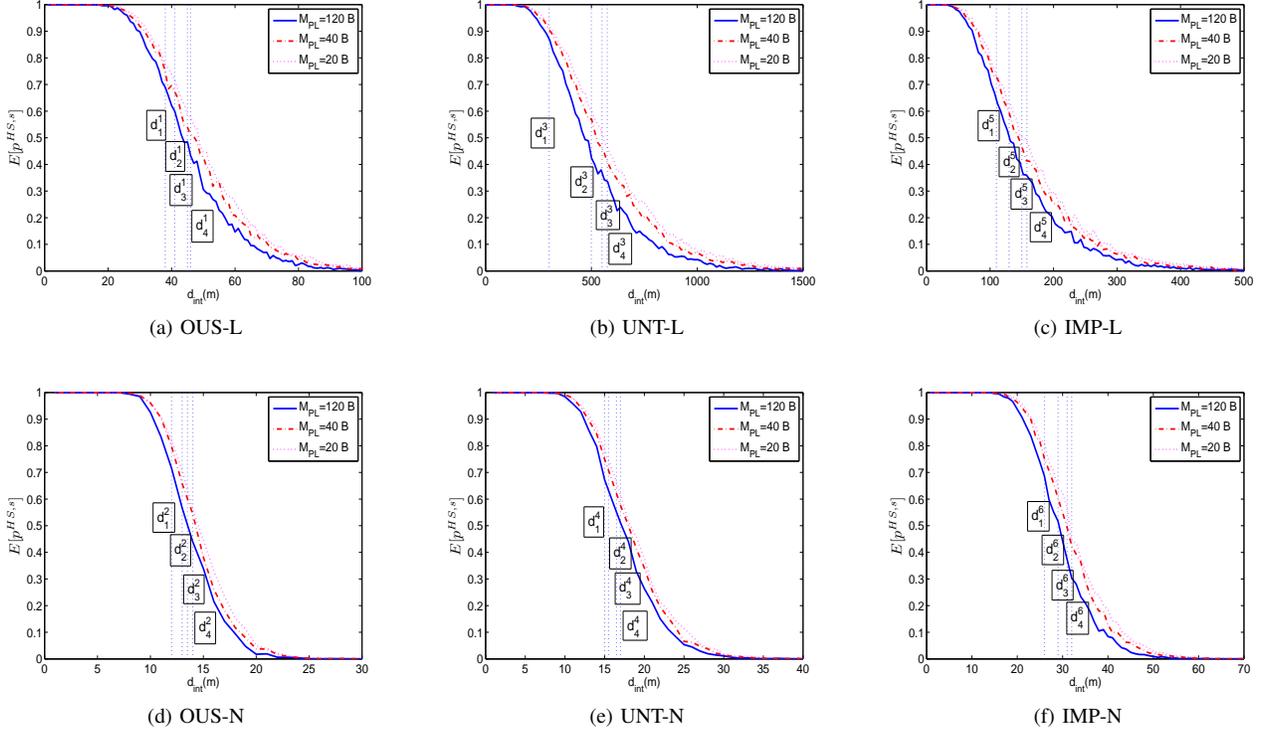


Fig. 2: Inter-node distance (d_{int}) vs. avg. successful handshake probability ($E[p^{HS,s}]$) for the maximum power level ($l_{max} = 31$) deployed at network level for six different SG environments with three different payload sizes (M_{PL}).

TABLE III: Measurement points ($d_{int} = d_n^m$), corresponding avg. successful handshake probability intervals ($E[p^{HS,s}]$), optimum payload sizes (OPS) in Bytes, and absolute lifetime (LT) in terms of months (mo).

OUS-L					UNT-L					IMP-L				
d_{int}	Value	$E[p^{HS,s}]$	OPS (Bytes)	LT (mo)	d_{int}	Value	$E[p^{HS,s}]$	OPS (Bytes)	LT (mo)	d_{int}	Value	$E[p^{HS,s}]$	OPS (Bytes)	LT (mo)
d_1^1	38 m	0.7-0.8	120	20.5	d_1^3	300 m	0.85-0.9	120	57.0	d_1^5	110 m	0.65-0.75	120	33.2
d_2^1	41 m	0.6-0.75	60	15.5	d_2^3	500 m	0.45-0.6	60	14.8	d_2^5	130 m	0.55-0.65	60	20.9
d_3^1	45 m	0.5-0.6	40	9.5	d_3^3	550 m	0.4-0.55	40	10.3	d_3^5	150 m	0.4-0.5	40	12.3
d_4^1	46 m	0.45-0.6	30	8.0	d_4^3	575 m	0.35-0.5	30	8.5	d_4^5	158 m	0.35-0.5	30	9.7
OUS-N					UNT-N					IMP-N				
d_{int}	Value	$E[p^{HS,s}]$	OPS (Bytes)	LT (mo)	d_{int}	Value	$E[p^{HS,s}]$	OPS (Bytes)	LT (mo)	d_{int}	Value	$E[p^{HS,s}]$	OPS (Bytes)	LT (mo)
d_1^2	12 m	0.7-0.8	120	17.6	d_1^4	15 m	0.65-0.8	120	17.6	d_1^6	26 m	0.7-0.8	120	17.0
d_2^2	13 m	0.6-0.75	60	11.4	d_2^4	15.5 m	0.65-0.75	60	15.0	d_2^6	29 m	0.55-0.65	60	10.6
d_3^2	13.5 m	0.5-0.6	40	9.6	d_3^4	16.5 m	0.55-0.7	40	10.5	d_3^6	31 m	0.4-0.55	30	7.1
d_4^2	14 m	0.45-0.6	30	6.3	d_4^4	17 m	0.5-0.65	30	7.6	d_4^6	32 m	0.35-0.5	24	5.3

We performed the same analysis as in Figure 3 (not presented in the paper) by considering the local transmission power control scheme presented in Equation 20. As we investigate the absolute lifetime values, transmission power level optimization increases lifetime for this topology 0.72% on the average and 2.12% at maximum. If we compare the square networks with smaller d_{int} values, transmission power level optimization would provide better absolute lifetime values. Nevertheless, for the packet size optimization perspective, smaller d_{int} values yield the optimum packet size as the maximum one which does not help to answer the aforementioned questions given

at the beginning of this section.

In Figure 4, we present normalized lifetimes wrt. different payload sizes for a disk shaped random topology with radius R_{net} where nodes are uniformly distributed within the disk. We assume that all links are utilizing the optimum power transmission level (according to Equation 20). R_{net} is changed for each SG environment to investigate the effects of packet size on the network lifetime. For smaller R_{net} values, largest packets yield the best network lifetime while we increase R_{net} , smaller packet sizes are favored to obtain maximum network lifetime. Comparing previous plots, it should be noted that network lifetime characteristics differ from that of square grid

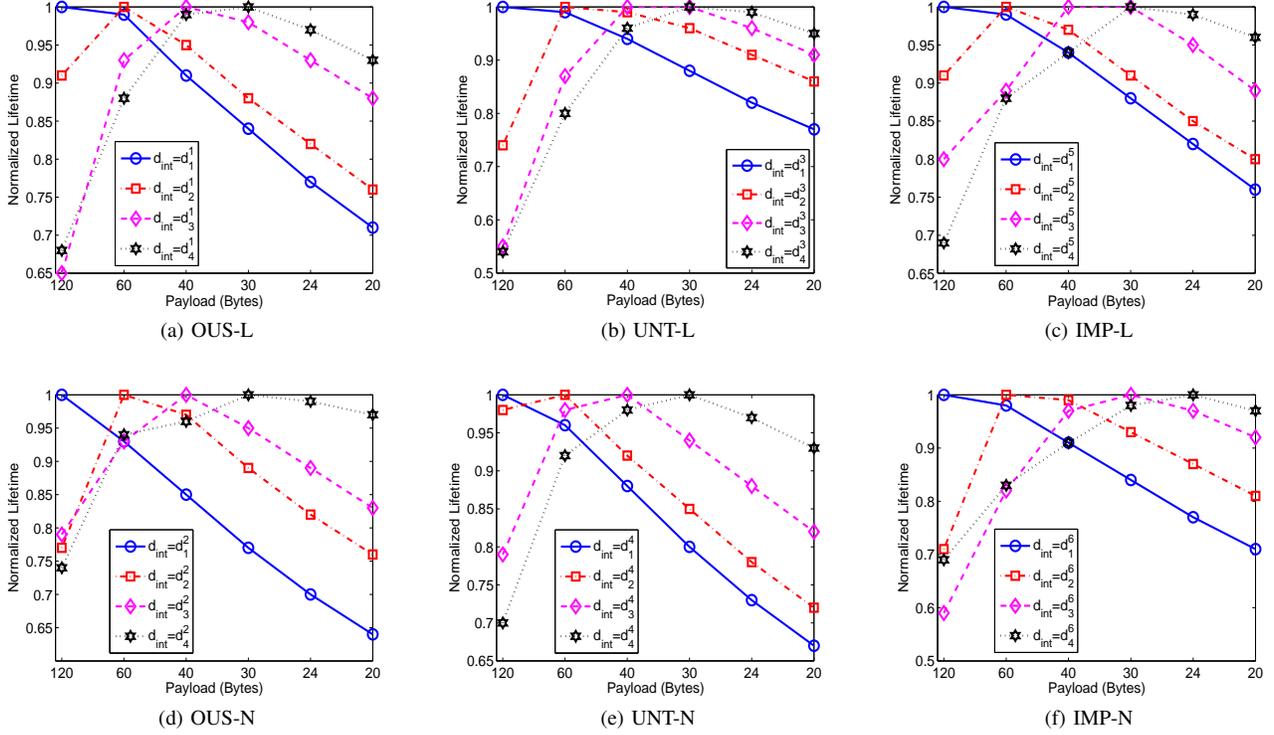


Fig. 3: Normalized lifetimes wrt. payload size for six different SG environments with max. power level ($l_{max} = 31$) is deployed at network level for various sized (wrt. to d_{int}) grid networks.

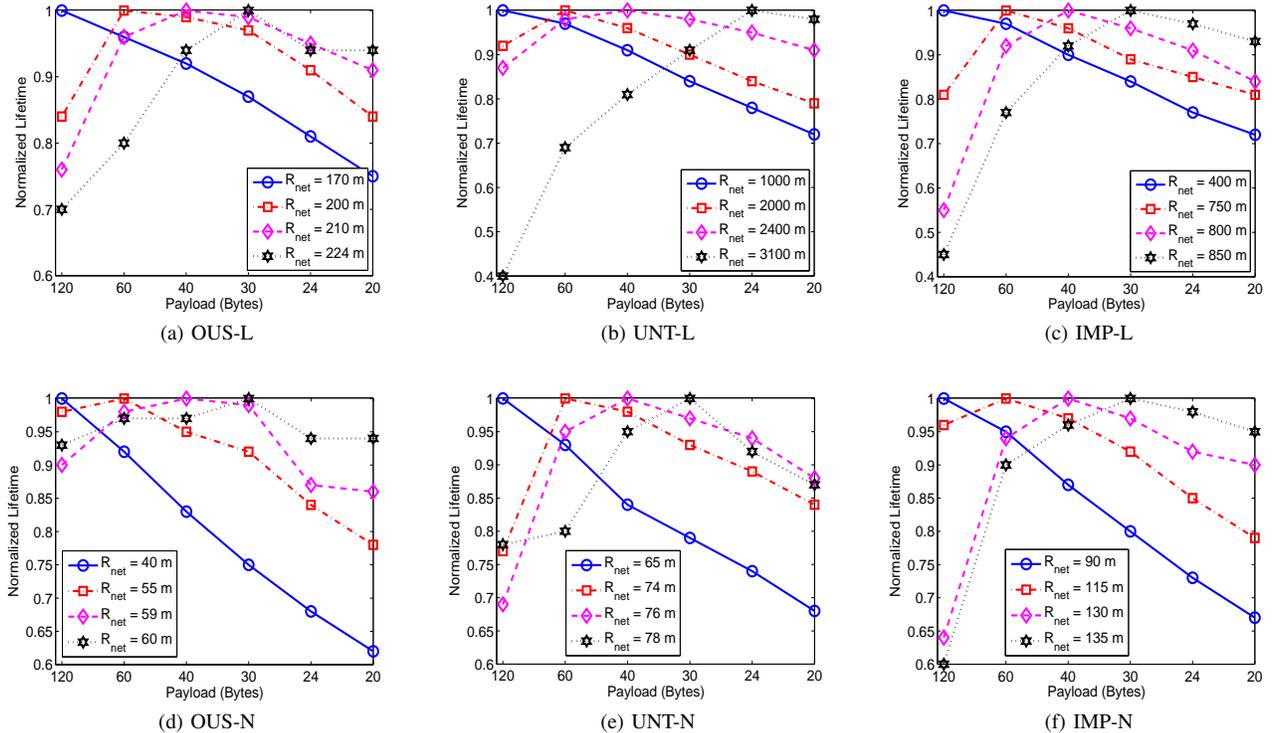


Fig. 4: Normalized lifetimes wrt. payload size for six different SG environments and power levels are optimized at link level for various sized (wrt. to R_{net}) disk shaped random networks.

topology.

We investigated the $p^{HS,s}$ distribution of the utilized links. As a general trend, majority of the data flows are on links with $p^{HS,s} \geq 0.98$ (e.g., more than half of the data, flow over all links with $p^{HS,s} \geq 1.00$). Another noteworthy observation on the characteristics of the $p^{HS,s}$ values of the utilized links is that $0.6 \leq p^{HS,s} \leq 0.7$ band is also utilized more than the other $p^{HS,s}$ values. These links are the ones where the re-transmissions occurred frequently. In this region, the optimization framework provides alternative ways with smaller number of hops to reduce the energy dissipation than the case of multi-hops for larger $p^{HS,s}$. Furthermore, percentage of use for very high $p^{HS,s}$ valued links with 0.98-0.99 are smaller for sparser networks.

Till this point we assume that no *sensitivity threshold* is applied in sensor nodes. If the usage of a link is prohibited when the received power is lesser than a sensitivity threshold, then how does the network lifetime get affected? This question can be answered by adding a condition to the Equation 4 and Equation 5; a link usage is allowed if and only if received antenna powers both at data and ACK receiving nodes are greater than the sensitivity threshold which can be mathematically expressed as $P_{rx,ij}^{ant}(l) \geq P_{sns}$ and $P_{rx,ji}^{ant}(k) \geq P_{sns}$. In this notation, P_{sns} denotes the nominal receiver sensitivity of the Tmote Sky motes.

To analyze the effects of the *sensitivity threshold* we use the same disk shaped random topology as in Figure 4. However we only use the second R_{net} values (e.g., $R_{net} = 200$ m for OUS-L, $R_{net} = 2000$ m for UNT-L, etc.) presented in Figure 4. P_{sns} values are given as -100, -97, -94, -90 dBm where the last two ones are typical and maximum threshold values for Tmote Sky motes, respectively [30] (we do not present the figure in the paper, however, we present the main results of the analysis). For most of the environments, setting a P_{sns} threshold value changes the optimum packet size value that yields the maximum lifetime. Furthermore, setting higher threshold values (e.g., $P_{sns} = -90$ dBm) results in disconnected networks even if they are connected in the case where P_{sns} threshold is inactive.

In this study, we considered a stable communication channel for each link where the path loss does not change. Nevertheless, the results we present are averages of 100 hundred independent scenarios where in each scenario the path loss values varies greatly, hence, the variations in channel conditions do not affect our conclusions provided that the channel state can be estimated accurately. Indeed, it is shown through direct experimentation in [41] that channel conditions can be estimated accurately in WSNs with very low overhead.

Since our MIP problem is an NP-complete problem its computational complexity is high. Furthermore, as the number of nodes increase the computational complexity increases rapidly. Therefore, efficient heuristics are necessary for the efficient solution of the optimization problem. As an alternative to the exact solution of the MIP problem, we solve the optimization problem by Linear Programming (LP) relaxation where integer variables of the original MIP problem are treated as continuous variables. Note that LP problems can be solved in polynomial time. however, the LP-relaxed solutions do not

TABLE IV: Lifetime difference (%) between LP-relaxation and exact solutions with average solution times as a function of payload size for OUS-L environment where the power levels are optimized at link level when $R_{net} = 170$ m and $N_N = 81$ for disk shaped random networks.

Payload (Bytes)	Lifetime Difference (%)	Avg. Solution Time (s)	
		LP Relaxation	Exact
120	0.00009	3.31	22.12
60	0.00018	3.22	19.51
40	0.00019	3.21	18.18
30	0.00020	3.21	16.63
24	0.00021	3.23	14.57

TABLE V: Maximum Lifetime difference (%) between LP-relaxation and exact solution with average solution times as a function of N_N for OUS-L environment where the power levels are optimized at link level when $R_{net} = 170$ m for disk shaped random networks ($M_{PL} = 24$ Bytes).

N_N	Max. Lifetime Difference (%)	Avg. Solution Time (s)	
		LP Relaxation	Exact
121	0.00010	8.19	45.03
101	0.00018	5.44	34.46
81	0.00021	3.23	14.57
61	0.00027	1.82	2.01
41	0.00032	0.87	0.92

necessarily result in integral solutions (e.g., 1245.2 packets flowing on a particular link). Nevertheless, the target in LP-relaxation is to closely approximate the optimal solution with low computational complexity. For all the problems we present in this paper we obtained the exact integer solutions and LP-relaxation solutions. The maximum difference between the exact and LP-relaxed solutions is upper bounded by 0.001%. To illustrate the performance of the LP-relaxation solution in comparison to the exact solution through an example, we present the $R_{net} = 170$ m solutions of Figure 4a in Table IV. The maximum difference between the exact and LP-relaxation solutions are upper limited by 0.00021%. Furthermore, the solution times of LP-relaxation solutions are significantly lower than the solution times of the exact integer solutions.

The most important factor affecting the computation time is the number of nodes in the network. To determine the effects of N_N , we present the comparative performance results and solution times for the exact and LP-relaxed solutions in Table V. Indeed, solution times increases as N_N increases for both the exact solution and the LP-relaxation solution, however, the solution times obtained for the exact solution increase with a much higher pace than the LP-relaxed solution as N_N increases. Note that average solution time for the optimal packet size determination problem for $N_N = 81$ are 16.08 s and 91.01 s by using the LP-relaxation and exact solutions, respectively.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, we propose a realistic WSN link layer energy dissipation model for Tmote Sky platforms and a MIP frame-

work to jointly optimize transmission power level and data packet size. We give a special attention not only to the harsh conditions of the SG environments (*e.g.*, high path loss, low SNR, and high BER values), but also the practical aspects such as packet re-transmission mechanism, changing the packet size according to the channel conditions, and enforcing a sensitivity threshold. Our main conclusions are itemized as follows:

- 1) Considering an SG environment with high $p^{HS,s}$ links, the optimum packet size is the *largest* packet size that is available, however, for a harsh SG environment (*i.e.*, low $p^{HS,s}$ valued links), the optimum packet size decreases to attain maximum lifetime.
- 2) Although transmission power control increases the absolute lifetime, normalized network lifetime does not vary significantly as a function of packet size, therefore, due to the dominance of the propagation environment, transmission power optimization is not the sole mechanism in determining the optimum packet size.
- 3) In denser networks, most of the data flow on the links with very high $p^{HS,s}$ values so the highest possible packet size is utilized, however, for sparse networks, high $p^{HS,s}$ valued links are scarcer and smaller packet sizes are utilized for maximizing WSN lifetime.
- 4) Elimination of the utilization of certain links with received power below a predetermined threshold (*i.e.*, the sensitivity threshold) can change the packet size that is optimum for network lifetime. For a given network configuration, for higher sensitivity thresholds larger packet sizes are favored.
- 5) The optimum design decisions for WSNs employed in SG environments with the objective of lifetime maximization are to (i) deploy sensor nodes in such a fashion that communication links do not have path loss values that force the transceivers to operate deep in the transitional region, (ii) utilize the highest packet size possible, and (iii) assign optimal transmission power levels for both data and ACK packets.

Validation of the link layer, energy dissipation model, and results of our analysis through experimental evaluations in WSN testbeds, and extending the proposed framework utilizing different physical layer models and network topologies are important future research directions.

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Sinan Kurt (skurt@etu.edu.tr) received his BS and MS degrees in Electrical and Electronics Engineering from the Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey, in 2004 and 2007, respectively. He received his PhD degree in Electrical and Electronics Engineering, from the TOBB University of Economics and Technology, Ankara, Turkey, in 2016. He is a lead design engineer at ASELSAN Inc., Ankara, Turkey. His research interests lie in the areas of wireless communications, electromagnetics, circuit design, wireless networks and optimization.



problems on wireless communications, wireless networks, and smart grids.

Huseyin Ugur Yildiz (huguryildiz@ieec.org) received the BS degree from the department of electrical and electronics engineering, Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey, in 2009; MS and PhD degrees from the same department at TOBB University of Economics and Technology, Ankara, Turkey, in 2013, and 2016, respectively. He is with TED University, Ankara, Turkey as an assistant professor in the department of electrical and electronics engineering. His research focuses on the applications of optimization techniques to modeling and analyzing research



Melike Yigit (melike.yigit@stu.bahcesehir.edu.tr) received her B.S. and M.S. degrees in computer engineering from Bahcesehir University, Istanbul, Turkey, in 2010 and 2012, respectively. Currently, she is a Ph.D. student at Bahcesehir University, Istanbul, Turkey and works at Turkish Airlines (THY), which is an international airlines in Turkey, as a Business Analyst.



ity, and smart grid are his current research areas.

Bulent Tavli (btavli@etu.edu.tr) is a Professor at the Electrical and Electronics Engineering Department, TOBB University of Economics and Technology, Ankara, Turkey. He received his BS degree in Electrical and Electronics Engineering from the Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey, in 1996. He received his MS and PhD degrees in Electrical and Computer Engineering from the University of Rochester, Rochester, NY, USA in 2002 and 2005, respectively. Wireless communications, networking, optimization, embedded systems, information security,



V. Cagri Gungor (cagri.gungor@agu.edu.tr) received his B.S. and M.S. degrees in Electrical and Electronics Engineering from Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey, in 2001 and 2003, respectively. He received his Ph.D. degree in electrical and computer engineering from the Broadband and Wireless Networking Laboratory, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, USA, in 2007. Currently, he is an Associate Professor and Chair of Computer Engineering Department, Abdullah Gul University (AGU), Kayseri, Turkey.