

# Northumbria Research Link

Citation: Wang, Tong, Wang, Yunfeng, Liu, Bingyi, Wang, Xibo, Zhang, Jianfeng, Hussain, Azhar, Wang, Peng and Cao, Yue (2017) A Novel Cross-layer Communication Protocol for Vehicular Sensor Networks. International Journal of Communication Systems. ISSN 1074-5351 (In Press)

Published by: Wiley

URL: <https://doi.org/10.1002/dac.3406> <<https://doi.org/10.1002/dac.3406>>

This version was downloaded from Northumbria Research Link:  
<http://nrl.northumbria.ac.uk/31499/>

Northumbria University has developed Northumbria Research Link (NRL) to enable users to access the University's research output. Copyright © and moral rights for items on NRL are retained by the individual author(s) and/or other copyright owners. Single copies of full items can be reproduced, displayed or performed, and given to third parties in any format or medium for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, provided the authors, title and full bibliographic details are given, as well as a hyperlink and/or URL to the original metadata page. The content must not be changed in any way. Full items must not be sold commercially in any format or medium without formal permission of the copyright holder. The full policy is available online: <http://nrl.northumbria.ac.uk/policies.html>

This document may differ from the final, published version of the research and has been made available online in accordance with publisher policies. To read and/or cite from the published version of the research, please visit the publisher's website (a subscription may be required.)

[www.northumbria.ac.uk/nrl](http://www.northumbria.ac.uk/nrl)



# A Novel Cross-layer Communication Protocol for Vehicular Sensor Networks

Tong Wang<sup>1</sup>, Yunfeng Wang<sup>1</sup>, Bingyi Liu<sup>1</sup>, Xibo Wang<sup>1</sup>, Jianfeng Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Azhar Hussain<sup>1</sup>, Peng Wang<sup>1</sup> and Yue Cao<sup>2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *College of Information and Communication Engineering, Harbin Engineering University, Harbin 150001, China*

<sup>2</sup> *Department of Computer and Information Sciences, Northumbria University, Newcastle Upon Tyne, NE2 1XE, UK*

## SUMMARY

Communication protocols in Vehicular Sensor Networks (VSNs) in urban areas play an important role in intelligent transport systems applications. Many cross-layer communication protocols studies are originated from topology-based algorithms, which is not suitable for the frequently-changing computational scenario. In addition, the influence factors that have been considered for VSNs routing are not enough. With these aspects in mind, this paper proposes a multi-factor cross-layer position-based routing (MCLPR) protocol for VSNs to improve reliability and efficiency in message delivery. Considering the complex intersection environment, the algorithm for vehicles selection at intersections (called AVSI) is further proposed, in which comprehensive factors are taken into account including the position and direction of vehicle, the vehicle density, the signal-to-noise-plus-interference ratio (SNIR), as well as the frame error rate (FER) in MAC layer. Meanwhile, the dynamic *HELLO\_STREAM* broadcasting system with the various vehicle speeds is proposed to increase the decisions accuracy. Experimental results in Network Simulator 3 (NS-3) show the advantage of MCLPR protocol over traditional state-of-the-art algorithms in terms of packet delivery ratio (PDR), overhead and the mean end-to-end delay. Copyright © 2017 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Received . . .

KEY WORDS: VSNs; cross-layer; communication protocols; routing algorithm; NS-3

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Vehicular Sensor Networks (VSNs) [1, 2] are composed of highly dynamic moving vehicles equipped with on-board communication sensors to relay data messages via wireless communication, which are self-organized with frequent topology changes. VSNs are envisioned to support the variety of urban monitoring and safety applications such as traffic monitoring, prevention of collisions, etc. The performance of VSNs communication protocols plays a key role in data transmission for reliability and efficiency. To some extent, there are two primary functions of this kind of communication protocols: computation, which refers to that all vehicles should evaluate and decide how to route to the next hop in the frequently changing topology with the cooperation with other vehicles; communication, which means that all vehicles work cooperatively according to their own contribution degrees to the objectives, such as cooperative sensing in Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs) [3, 4].

The majority of researches have focused on network-layer information. On one hand, the active topology-based routing protocol is proposed in [5, 6, 7]. In [6], the sequence information is considered to avoid the loop path error during routing table maintenance. In this type of routing

---

\*Correspondence to: Department of Computer and Information Sciences, Northumbria University, Newcastle Upon Tyne, NE2 1XE, UK. E-mail: yue.cao@northumbria.ac.uk

protocol, each vehicle must broadcast routing information periodically, as long as there is a data communication request. When the network topology changes, the vehicles update the routing table information, which can not adapt to the rapidly changing topology. To solve this, the on-demand topology-based routing protocol is proposed in [8, 9, 10, 11, 12]. Three nouns are defined in [8] worked by on-demand assignment. This type of protocol process includes route discovery phase and route maintenance phase. However, it will increase the time delay and influence the network transmission efficiency. On the other hand, literature [13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18] studies the position-based routing protocol. The study in [13] focuses on the greedy forwarding mechanism, mainly considering the position factors. Seminal work on defining reference point factor is carried out in [14]. The selection of forwarding path is determined according to the position of reference point. With the help of GPS and Beidou navigation [19], position sensors and other current advanced positioning equipment, this type of protocol obtains real-time geographical location, speed and direction of movement to find the next hop for forwarding [20]. However, this kind of routing protocol only considers the factors of application layer, and these factors are not enough to select the next hop.

Several studies have suggested the benefit of cross-layer routing protocol [21, 22]. On one hand, the idea of layer integration and new routing protocols is exploited. In [21], DYMO has been proposed, which uses the sequence numbers, to enhance the reliability of information. However, with higher vehicle densities, this routing protocol will cause furthered congestion. In [23], an improve routing protocol, MAR-DYMO, is proposed with higher PDR. However, this will induce a high end-to-end delay. Literature [24] proposes a new routing module integrated layer (RMIL), and redefined the interface standard. RMIL improves the performance of the routing protocol, which causes impact on the overall structure. Literature [25] proposes an integrated approach to design cross-layer routing protocols. The protocol integrates layers on Open System Interconnection (OSI) [26] model, including application layer, network layer, and PHY & MAC layer. However, the dearth of uniform application standards, instigates a lot of difficulties. On the other hand, some researches make use of cross-layer information to obtain the routing protocol. R-AOMDV [27] has been proposed, which merges transmission count and hop counts at the MAC layer, taking into account minimizing delay and performance of intermediate links. However, this routing protocol, based on the neighbors IP addresses, is not suitable for large-scale vehicle application scenario. R-S-AOMDV [28] is an improved routing protocol, taking into account the MAC layer transmission hops and other related indicators. However, the consideration factors are yet not enough and both studies are originated from topology-based AODV algorithms, which is not suitable for VSNs scenarios. DRCV has been proposed to detect of emergency message in [29], which helps in delivering packets with high reliability and with low latency, but the approach is limited to single-hop networks.

To tackle the above mentioned problems, we propose a multi-factor cross-layer position-based routing (MCLPR) protocol for VSNs. We also propose the algorithm for vehicles selection at intersections (AVSI) and algorithm for vehicles selection at non-intersections (AVSNI). The optimal forwarding path is determined using the analytic hierarchy process to calculate the weight value of each factor. The main contributions of this paper are presented as follows:

- The MCLPR protocol takes into account a number of factors to acquire optimal next hop, such as the position and direction information of vehicle, the vehicle density information, signal-to-noise-plus-interference ratio (SNIR), as well as frame error rate (FER) in MAC layer.
- In order to improve the routing performance in vehicles selection strategies, we propose the AVSI and AVSNI separately according to the different characteristics of intersection and non-intersection environments. The consideration is more comprehensive and closer to actual traffic.
- In MCLPR protocol, a dynamic *HELLO\_STREAM* broadcasting system that considers the vehicle speed is proposed. This can increase the accuracy of decision information and improve routing performance.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows. Section 2 provides the selection of vehicle movement model and wireless transmission model. Section 3 gives the flow of MCLPR protocol

and the selection in two vehicle algorithms. The proposals are evaluated and analyzed against the reference protocols in Section 4. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper.

## 2. PRELIMIARY

This section describes the wireless transmission model and vehicle mobility model and their application. VSNs scenarios and mobility model affect the performance of routing protocol. It is significant to construct vehicle movement model, and wireless transmission model. Furthermore, the commonly used variables are defined in Table I:

Table I. Commonly used variables

Variables	Specification
$q_i$	Vehicle $i$
$RI$	The unique identifier of the road section
$P_t(A)$	Random possibility of going straight or turning
$v_r(t)$	The speed of vehicle $r$ at instant $t$
$Q$	The set of vehicles
$f_{jq_i}$	The $j$ th neighbor vehicle of vehicle $q_i$
$F_{q_i}$	The set of neighbor vehicles of vehicle $q_i$
$d$	The destination vehicle
$R$	The vehicle communication radius
$T_{HELLO\_STREAM}$	The period of <i>HELLO_STREAM</i>
$Z_{q_i f_{jq_i}}^d$	The weight under intersection environment
$P_{q_i f_{jq_i}}^d$	The probability to character the possibility under non-intersection environment

### 2.1. Wireless Transmission Model

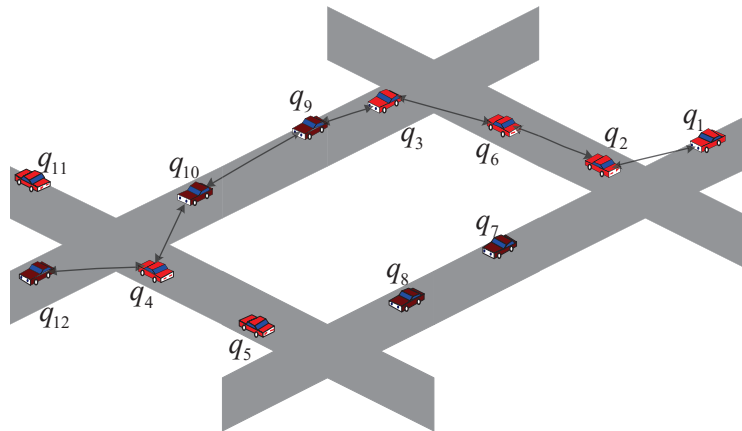


Figure 1. Wireless transmission model

The wireless transmission model, in general, is divided into line-of-sight (LOS) and non-line-of-sight (NLOS) transmission. In this paper, LOS transmission mainly exists in the non-intersections environment. As there are occlusion and other complex situations in the intersection environment, NLOS transmission is used. The transmission path from the source vehicle  $q_1$  to the destination vehicle  $q_{12}$  is shown in Figure 1. the data packet will go through three intersections. In the

intersection environment, if there exists a building block, the vehicle uses NLOS wireless transmission with other vehicles. Without occlusion, the vehicle uses LOS wireless transmission. In the non-intersection environment, LOS is used. In summary, there exists a wireless transmission path,  $q_1 \rightarrow q_2 \rightarrow q_6 \rightarrow q_3 \rightarrow q_9 \rightarrow q_{10} \rightarrow q_4 \rightarrow q_{12}$ . Actually, the LOS and NLOS models are both applied in this path.

## 2.2. Mobility Model and Manhattan Mobility Model

The normal random mobility model does not suit for the proposed situation. On the one hand, the vehicles are not moving irregularly, and their motions are limited to road topologies. On the other hand, these factors need to be considered together, such as the average vehicle speed, and the direction of movement. The road model, which includes several equal size blocks, is named as Manhattan mobility model [30].

Suppose there are  $N$  vehicles in Manhattan model denoted as  $q_i \in Q, 1 \leq i \leq N$ .  $Q$  is the set of vehicles  $Q = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_i, \dots, q_N\}$  and each vehicle knows its position information. The neighbor number of  $q_i$  is  $m$ , and the neighbor vehicle is denoted as  $f_{jq_i}, f_{jq_i} \in F_{q_i}, 1 \leq j \leq m$ .  $F_{q_i}$  is the set of all neighbor vehicles for  $q_i$ ,  $F_{q_i} = \{f_{1q_i}, f_{2q_i}, \dots, f_{jq_i}, \dots, f_{mq_i}\}$ . The destination vehicle is denoted as  $d$ . The vehicle's communication radius is denoted as  $R$ . According to the above assumptions, related concepts are defined as follows.

### Definition 1

(Road ID) Road ID is the unique identifier of the road section, which is indicated by the street and the intersections, denoted as  $RI$ .

Figure 2 shows the  $RI$  in  $5 \times 5$  Manhattan model. There are 25 intersections labeled as  $I_0, I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{24}$ . There are 10 streets labeled as  $S_0, S_1, S_2, \dots, S_9$ . The  $RI$  is denoted as  $RI = \{I_m, I_n, S_k\}$ ,  $0 \leq m, n \leq 24$ . For example,  $RI_{q_1} = \{8, 13, 3\}$  and  $RI_d = \{16, 17, 8\}$ .

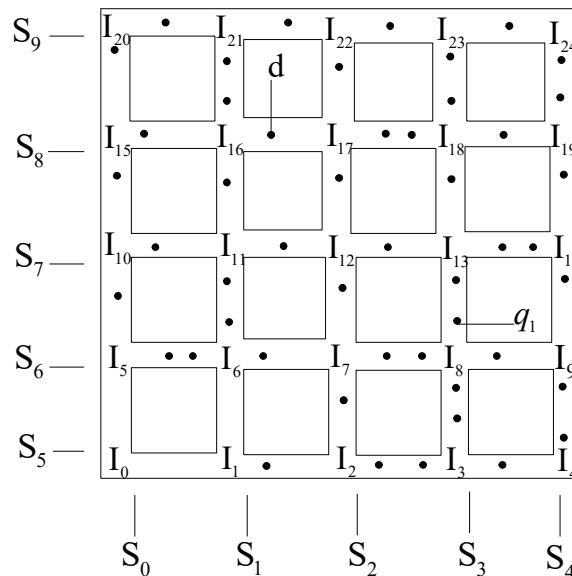


Figure 2. Schematic of Road ID

*Definition 2*

(*HELLO\_STREAM* information table) Vehicle  $q_i$  broadcasts "HELLO" information to its neighbors periodically. "HELLO" information table is denoted as  $HELLO\_STREAM \{ RI, Speed, Position, Number \}$ . "HELLO" information includes Road ID, vehicle speed, position and neighbors number.

*Definition 3*

(The local routing table) To forward the packet along a better path, vehicle  $q_i$  keeps a local routing table denoted as  $q_i\_STREAM \{ d, f_{jq_i}, Number, Z_{q_i f_{jq_i}}^d, P_{q_i f_{jq_i}}^d \}$ , where  $Z_{q_i f_{jq_i}}^d$  is the weight under intersection environment to find the next hop vehicle.  $P_{q_i f_{jq_i}}^d$  is the probability to character the possibility under non-intersection environment.

*Definition 4*

(The neighbor vehicles table) In order to select the ideal forwarding vehicle, vehicle  $q_i$  has a neighbor vehicles table, recording the neighbors information in one hop. The neighbor vehicles table is denoted as  $F_{q_i\_STREAM} \{ f_{jq_i}, RI_{f_{jq_i}}, Speed, Position, Number \}$ . When  $q_i$  receives the *HELLO\_STREAM* from neighbor vehicles, it retrieves  $F_{q_i\_STREAM}$  and updates itself.

*Definition 5*

(Position Feedback System (PFS)) When the information of destination vehicle is unknown, the PFS will get the information of destination of vehicle  $d$ , denoted as  $PFS \{ d, RI_d, Position, Speed \}$ .

### 3. MCLPR PROTOCOL

#### 3.1. Multi-factor cross-layer position-based routing protocol

MCLPR protocol has two phases: the neighbor discovery phase and the packet forwarding phase. The flowchart of MCLPR protocol is shown in Figure 3. In the neighbor discovery phase, it works to capture vehicles and exchange message table to select the next hop vehicle. When vehicle  $q_i$  should send data to destination vehicle  $d$ , the packet forwarding phase should be switched. According to the position of forwarding vehicle, the phase is divided into two independent mechanisms: intersection forwarding mechanism and non-intersection forwarding mechanism. In the packet forwarding phase, it mainly sends the data packet to the destination vehicle in the most reliable path efficiently. In MCLPR protocol, the communication beacon strategy is adopted in order to get the neighbors information. The vehicle broadcasts the information table periodically, updates

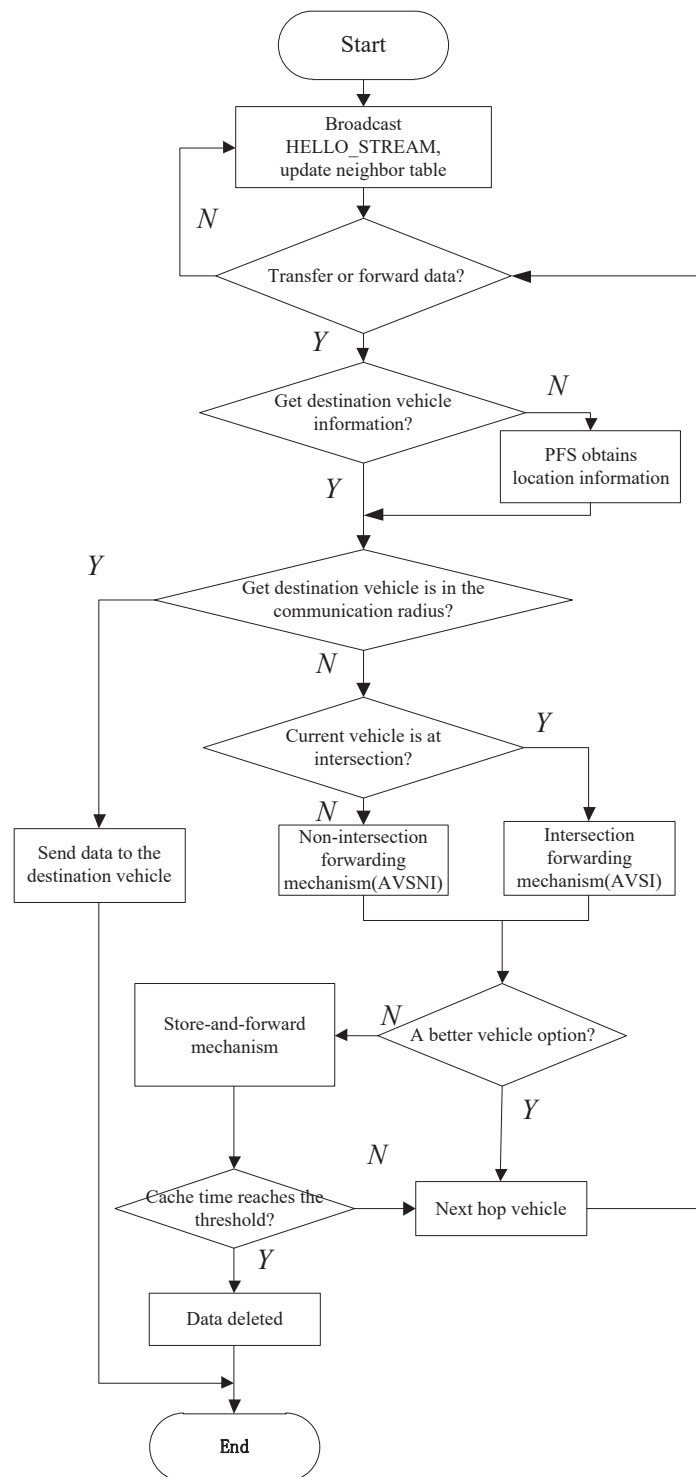


Figure 3. Flowchart of MCLPR protocol

the *HELLO\_STREAM* information table continuously, and obtains the neighbor vehicle status information in real time. The detail steps are as follows:

(1) The initialization procedure

In this step, the vehicle  $q_i$  obtains its own information (Road ID, Position, Speed) by the internal positioning system such as GPS in real time. It will initialize its own neighbor vehicles table and local routing table. The vehicle  $q_i$  updates its position information and broadcasts the *HELLO\_STREAM* information table periodically. This information can be exploited to notice the neighbor  $f_{jq_i}$ . The broadcasting period of *HELLO\_STREAM* information table has certain influence on the performance of routing protocol according to beacons. If the broadcasting period of *HELLO\_STREAM* is shorter, the information error rate and routing overhead will be higher. Conversely, if the period of *HELLO\_STREAM* is higher, the related information cannot ensure transmission in real time. Thus, it will affect the selection of next hop or multi-hop vehicle. Therefore, we exploit a dynamic *HELLO\_STREAM* broadcasting mechanism which considers the factor of vehicle speed, as shown in the Equation (1).

$$T_{HELLO\_STREAM} = \begin{cases} T_{MAX} & v \leq v_{MIN} \\ (T_{MIN} + T_{MAX})/2 & v_{MIN} \leq v \leq v_{MAX} \\ T_{MIN} & v_{MAX} \leq v \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

When vehicle speed is less than  $v_{MIN}$ , the period of *HELLO\_STREAM* is  $T_{MAX}$ . When the vehicle speed is bigger than  $v_{MAX}$ , the period of *HELLO\_STREAM* table is  $T_{MIN}$ . When the vehicle speed is between  $v_{MIN}$  and  $v_{MAX}$ , the average is used. In this paper, we set  $T_{MIN}=1$ ,  $T_{MAX}=3$ ,  $v_{MAX}=16$  and  $v_{MIN}=8$ .

(2) The reception and process of *HELLO\_STREAM* in neighbor

Neighbor  $f_{jq_i}$  receives the *HELLO\_STREAM* information table from  $q_i$ , and the neighbor vehicles table  $F_{q_i\_STREAM}$  will be updated. Then, it records the neighbors number in the process. Thus the optimal vehicle will be selected as the forwarding vehicle in the neighbors set  $F_{q_i} = \{f_{1q_i}, f_{2q_i} \cdots f_{jq_i} \cdots f_{mq_i}\}$ . The remaining vehicles judge whether they have data packet transmitted to  $d$ , and check whether they are forwarding vehicles. If not, the vehicle will continue waiting for broadcasting. If so, the vehicle will enter the data forwarding phase.

(3) PFS feedback destination vehicle information

In the neighbor discovery phase, the forwarding vehicle will check itself whether it has obtained the basic information of destination vehicle. If so, the vehicle will forward the data packet directly. On the contrary, the transmitting vehicle sends a request to PFS. After receiving the request, PFS will send the basic information of destination vehicle to the transmitting vehicle.

(4) The determination for intersection and non-intersection forwarding mechanism

In the MCLPR protocol, the data forwarding phase is divided into the intersection forwarding mechanism and the non-intersection forwarding mechanism. The position information of current forwarding vehicle is used to determine the forwarding mechanism. Figure 2 shows the Manhattan model. Every road has a unique *RI* in this model, which is written into the electronic map. Vehicles in the city obtain their own position. According to the position in the map, the *RI* will be known. Thus, the *RI* will be stored in the *HELLO\_STREAM* information table and be broadcast to the neighbors periodically. If one of  $RI_{F_{q_i}}$  is different from the  $RI_{q_i}$ , we judge that  $q_i$  is in the intersection. Intersection forwarding mechanism will be used to forward data. If all of  $RI_{F_{q_i}}$  is the same as  $q_i$ , we judge that  $q_i$  is in the non-intersection. Non-intersection forwarding mechanism will be used to forward data.

(5) The store-and-forward mechanism

Some factors will lead that the transmission vehicle is unable to select a suitable forwarding vehicle, such as, if the vehicles number is small, the distribution of vehicles is not uniform, vehicles move fast and network connectivity is poor. In addition, the vehicle will also face the local optimization problem. In order to solve the problem, the store-and-forward mechanism is introduced in MCLPR protocol. The data packet will be copied to the sub-optimal neighbor.

(6) Algorithm selection process

In intersection forwarding mechanism, the next hop vehicle is selected by algorithm for vehicles selection at intersections (AVSI). In the non-intersection forwarding mechanism, the next hop vehicle is selected by algorithm for vehicles selection at non-intersections (AVSNI). If the local



optimal situation is encountered, the store-and-forward mechanism will be used. In TTL time, the vehicle will be chosen as the next hop vehicle. Otherwise, the vehicle will discard packets. The above steps will be repeated until the data packet is transferred to the destination vehicle. Thus, the MCLPR protocol algorithm is shown in Algorithm 1.

---

**Algorithm 1** A Multi-hop Cross-Layer Position-based Routing protocol for VSNs (MCLPR)

---

step 1 MCLPR initialize,  $q_i$  initialize  $F_{q_i}$ -*STREAM* and local information stream.

step 2

**if**  $q_i$  has packets to send to  $d$ ;  $q_i$  become forwarding vehicle **then**

**if**  $q_i$  does not know the position of  $d$  **then**

acquire position by Position Feedback System.

**else if**  $d \in F_{q_i}$  **then**

$q_i$  send packets to  $d$ .

**else if**  $\exists RI_{f_{jq_i}} \neq RI_{q_i}$  **then**

acquire AVSI.

**else**

acquire AVSNI

**end if**

**if** no vehicles around or local optimization **then**

store and forward.

**else**

forward to next hop, go back step4

**end if**

**else**

go back step 1

**end if**

---

### 3.2. Algorithm for Vehicles Selection at Non-Intersections (AVSNI)

Wireless transmission model is a line transmission model. In Two Ray Ground Propagation Loss (TRGPL) transmission model, there are two paths between two vehicles. One is the linear Propagation Path (LPP) and the other is the Ground Return Path (GRP), which is suitable for long distance transmission. Neighbors should be optimized. The optimal vehicle can be select by AVSNI.

The vehicle forwarding probability  $P_{q_i f_{jq_i}}^d$  mainly considers the position of vehicle and related mobility information, which is shown in the Equation (2). Thus, the maximum forwarding probability can be obtained.

$$P_{q_i f_{jq_i}}^d = \lambda \cdot \cos \theta_{f_{jq_i} d} + (1 - \lambda) \frac{D_{q_i f_{jq_i}}}{R} \quad (2)$$

where  $\theta_{f_{jq_i} d}$  is the angle between the moving direction of neighbor  $f_{jq_i}$  and the vector from  $f_{jq_i}$  to  $d$ .  $D_{q_i f_{jq_i}}$  is the Euclidean distance between  $q_i$  and  $f_{jq_i}$ .  $R$  is the communication radius and  $\lambda$  is

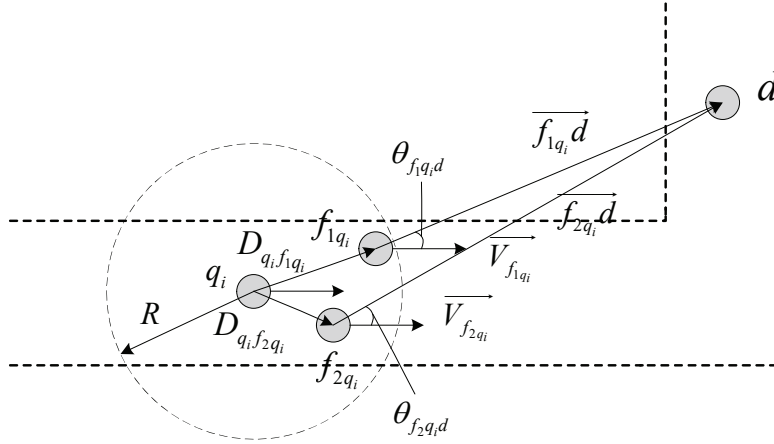


Figure 4. Algorithm for vehicles selection at intersections

the impact factor changed according to the street information. Figure 4 shows the relationship in the algorithm.

### 3.3. Algorithm for Vehicles Selection at Intersections (AVSI)

In this case, there are complicated situations such as occlusion. AVSI considers five factors which effect the next hop for  $q_i$  at intersection environments. The main impacts can be divided into three categories: the first is the attributes of vehicle, including the position information, speed and other related information. The second is the intersections information, especially the vehicle density at intersection. In this part, we propose an intersection vehicle density distribution function and calculate the weight value by the vehicle density. The third consists of cross-layer information: the quality of wireless link [31] and the MAC layer information. The quality of wireless link is mainly reflected by the signal-to-noise-interference-power-ratio (SNIR). Thus, the corresponding weight values can be calculated. MAC layer information is mainly reflected by the frame error rate(FER). The three parts are analyzed as follow.

(1)The attributes of vehicle

In Figure 5, the transmitting vehicle  $q_i$  is  $q_i(x_{q_i}, y_{q_i})$  and the destination vehicle  $d$  is  $d(x_d, y_d)$ . There are three neighbors in the intersection. Their coordinates are  $f_{1q_i}(x_{f_{1q_i}}, y_{f_{1q_i}})$ ,  $f_{2q_i}(x_{f_{2q_i}}, y_{f_{2q_i}})$ ,  $f_{3q_i}(x_{f_{3q_i}}, y_{f_{3q_i}})$  computed by the position correction mechanism. The cosine value  $\theta_{f_{j q_i} q_i d}$  is computed in Equation (3).

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta_{f_{j q_i} q_i d} &= \frac{\overrightarrow{q_i f_{j q_i}} \cdot \overrightarrow{q_i d}}{|\overrightarrow{q_i f_{j q_i}}| |\overrightarrow{q_i d}|} \\ &= \frac{(x_{f_{j q_i}} - x_{q_i})(x_d - x_{q_i}) + (y_{f_{j q_i}} - y_{q_i})(y_d - y_{q_i})}{\sqrt{(x_{f_{j q_i}} - x_{q_i})^2 + (y_{f_{j q_i}} - y_{q_i})^2} \sqrt{(x_d - x_{q_i})^2 + (y_d - y_{q_i})^2}} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

In Equation (3), the relative angle between the moving direction of neighbor  $q_i$  and  $f_{j q_i}$  is similar to that between  $q_i$  and  $d$ . As shown in Equation (4), it is the first part in the final weight value calculation.

$$f(\theta) = -\cos \theta_{f_{j q_i} q_i d} \quad (4)$$

Under the same scenario in Figure 5, Figure 6 shows the angle between the vehicle speed and the connection from the  $f_{j q_i}$  to  $d$  at intersection. Similarly, If the direction of  $f_{j q_i}$  is more consistent

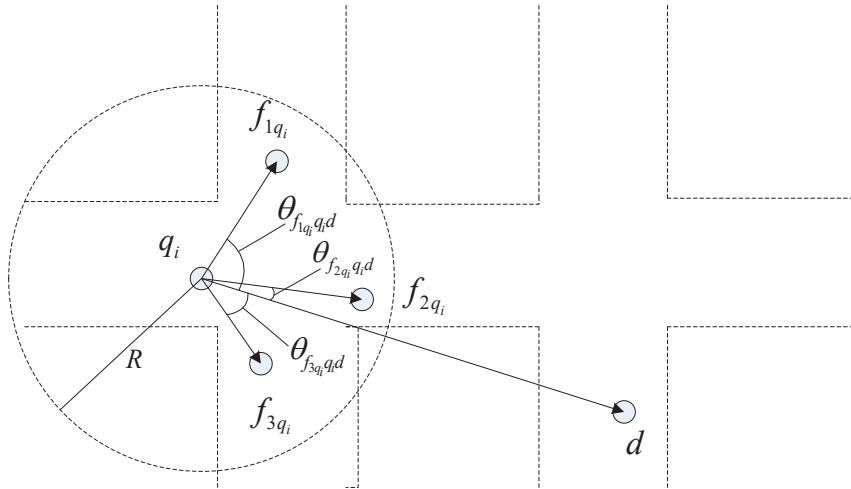


Figure 5. Vehicle position of intersection

with the direction of  $d$ , the vehicle will be chosen as the next hop vehicle more easily and the weight will be smaller.

In Figure 6, the speed of  $f_{jq_i}$  is known. The coordinates of  $f_{jq_i}$  and  $d$  are known after the position correction mechanism. Then, weight function is shown in the Equation (5).

$$f(\varphi) = -\cos \varphi_{f_{jq_i}d} = -\frac{\vec{v}_{f_{jq_i}} \cdot \vec{f}_{jq_i}d}{|\vec{v}_{f_{jq_i}}| |\vec{f}_{jq_i}d|} \quad (5)$$

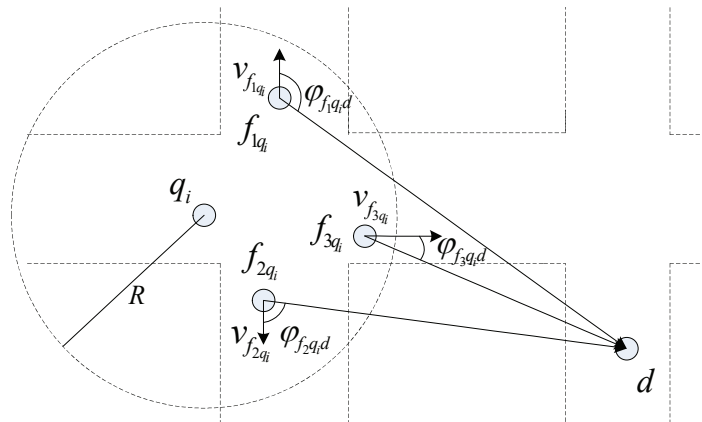


Figure 6. Vehicle position of intersection

(2) The intersection information

With a certain  $RI$ , the existing neighbors number in the communication radius of transmitting vehicle  $q_i$  is  $M_{F_{q_i}}$ . According to the neighbors distribution, we propose a normalized intersection density distribution function shown in Equation (6).

$$f(M_{F_{q_i}}) = \begin{cases} 1 & M_{F_{q_i}} \leq 3 \\ 0.75 & 3 < M_{F_{q_i}} \leq 6 \\ 0.5 & 6 < M_{F_{q_i}} \leq 9 \\ 0.25 & 9 < M_{F_{q_i}} \leq 12 \\ 0 & 12 < M_{F_{q_i}} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

### (3) Quality of wireless link

In the urban traffic environment, the intersection situation is more complicated. This is reflected by  $SNIR$ . Wireless channel quality  $SNIR$  function depends on the characteristics of information transmission. At the intersection environment, the vehicles number is large and the possibility of interference is large. In the communication radius, the remote vehicle is more disturbed than the proximal vehicle and the packet loss rate is increased. Therefore, the  $SNIR$  value of vehicles is small. The transmitting vehicle prefers the farthest vehicle with a good quality of wireless link in the communication radius. Wireless link quality information is introduced in MCLPR protocol. We set  $SNIR$  a threshold value. When the  $SNIR_{q_i}$  is less than  $SNIR_0$ , the vehicle is located at the far end of communication range. As the poor quality of channel, it has a higher weight value. Thus, if the  $SNIR$  is higher, it will give a smaller weight value. In this way, we can select the next hop vehicle to reduce the packet loss rate.

The weight value analysis function of  $SNIR$  is shown in the Equation (7). Where  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $SNIR_{min}$  are constants. According to Table II, we take  $SNIR_0 = 15$  through the calculation of equal conditions. We take  $SNIR_{min} = 9.75$ ,  $\alpha = 0.0009995$  and  $\beta = 5.25$  into the Equation (8), as part of the weight value calculation.

$$f(SNIR) = \begin{cases} \alpha u^2 & SNIR < SNIR_0 \\ \beta e^{-u} & SNIR \geq SNIR_0 \end{cases} \quad \left( \frac{\alpha}{\beta} = \frac{e^{-u}}{u^2} \Big|_{u=SNIR_0-SNIR_{min}} \right) \quad (7)$$

$$f(SNIR) = \begin{cases} 0.0009995(SNIR - 9.75)^2 & SNIR < 15 \\ 5.25e^{-(SNIR-9.75)} & SNIR \geq 15 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

Table II. Threshold for V2V communication simulation

Data transmission rate	Modulation scheme	Coding rate	SNIR threshold (dB)
3	BPSK	1/2	5
4.5	BPSK	3/4	6
6	QPSK	1/2	8
9	QPSK	3/4	11
12	64-QAM	1/2	15
18	64-QAM	3/4	20
24	64-QAM	2/3	25
27	64-QAM	3/4	N/A

### (4) MAC layer information

In the urban traffic environment, MAC layer information is reflected in the FER. In the additive Gauss white noise transmission channel, the relationship between bit error rate  $P_b$  and signal to noise ratio  $\frac{E_b}{n_0}$  is in Equation (9):

$$P_b = G\left[\frac{2E_b}{n_0}\right] \quad (9)$$

$$G(x) = \int_x^\infty \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} dy$$

The frame error rate  $FER$  and bit error rate  $P_b$  are as shown in Equation (10), where  $l_f$  is the length of frame, represented by the number of bits.

$$f(FER) = 1 - (1 - P_b)^{l_f} \quad (10)$$

#### (5) Weight analysis

The smaller  $FER$  helps select a better next hop. Equation (10) is used to characterize the weight function of FER factor. We can obtain a series of weights correlation function number  $f(\theta)$ ,  $f(\varphi)$ ,  $f(M_{F_{q_i}})$ ,  $f(SNIR)$  and  $f(FER)$ .  $weight_1, \dots, weight_5$  will be given to the corresponding function. The final result will be stored in  $q_i\_STREAM$ , shown in Equation (11).

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{q_i f_{j q_i}}^d = & weight_1 \times f(\theta) + weight_2 \times f(\varphi) \\ & + weight_3 \times f(M_{F_{q_i}}) + weight_4 \times f(SNIR) \\ & + weight_5 \times f(FER) \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

Weights are not fixed value, which are altered according to the actual situation. To high vehicle density, vehicles have more neighbors, which help vehicle select the optimal next hop vehicle. In this situation, vehicle density factor at intersection has little effect on the performance of the routing protocol. It is possible to preferentially select the vehicle with better communication quality and closer position to the destination vehicle. On the contrary, to low vehicle density, it should be possible to select the vehicle with larger number of neighbors. This will help data packets transmit reliably, reduce the PDR and improve communication connectivity. According to the network conditions, it is possible to achieve the optimal forwarding packet by adjusting these weight factors.

The weight analysis is a multi-factor problem. We use analytic hierarchy process (AHP) to analyze the weight, which contains Hierarchical establishment, judgment matrix construction and evaluation standardization. The process is as follow.

Establishing hierarchy: the factors are divided into different levels. The vehicle position factor is  $a_1$ . The speed factor is  $a_2$ . The vehicle density is  $a_3$ . The  $SNIR$  factor is  $a_4$ .  $FRE$  factor is  $a_5$ .

Constructing judgment matrix: the matrix is constructed by comparing the importance among factors. There are five factors to construct a  $5 \times 5$  matrix, as shown in the Equation (12). Discriminate scaling mechanism is introduced in the discriminate process. If one factor is more important, the weight is more bigger.

$$A_{5 \times 5} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & a_{15} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} & a_{25} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} & a_{35} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} & a_{45} \\ a_{51} & a_{52} & a_{53} & a_{54} & a_{55} \end{bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

Evaluating the normalized processing: according to the Equation (12), we obtain the normalized feature vector shown in Equation (13). The corresponding feature value will be tested consistently. If the test criterion is satisfied, the normalized feature vector can be used as the weight value.

$$(weight_1, weight_2, \dots, weight_n)^T = \left[ \frac{w_1}{\sum_i w_i}, \frac{w_2}{\sum_i w_i}, \dots, \frac{w_n}{\sum_i w_i} \right]^T \quad (13)$$

## 4. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

In this section, we will evaluate our MCLPR protocol through simulation against DSDV, AODV, DSR and GPSR with the different influencing factors. We conducted all simulation studies using network simulator-3 (NS-3).

4.1. Scenario Configuration

In this scenario, we consider 10 communication links in Manhattan model. The NS-3 simulation parameters are listed in Table III.

Table III. Simulation Parameters

Parameters	Settings
Streets	5 × 5
Blocks	4 × 4
Simulation Area	1600m × 1600m
Vehicle Density	50, 100, 150, 200
Vehicle Speed	0m/s, 5m/s, 10m/s, 15m/s, 20m/s
Simulation Time	200s
Pre-simulation Time	600s
HELLO_STREAM	1-3s
Communication Ranges	250m and 500m
Packet Size	512 bytes

4.2. Analysis of Packet Delivery Ratio

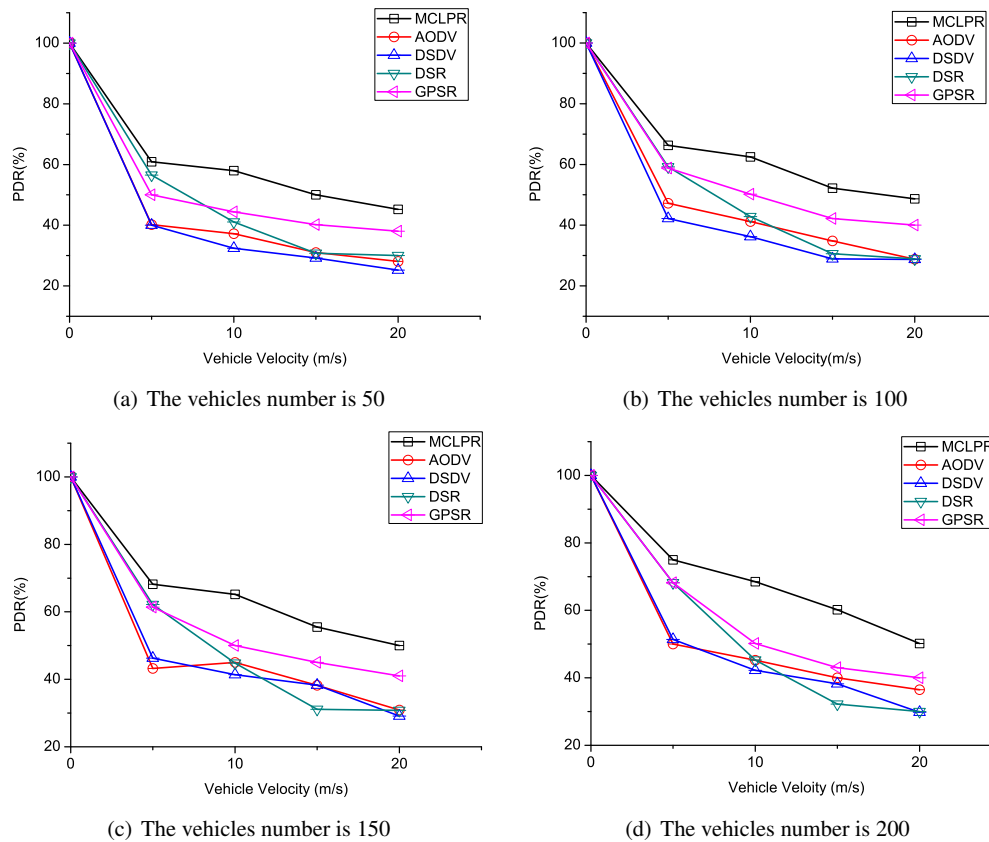


Figure 7. The trend of PDR with vehicle speed in definite vehicle density

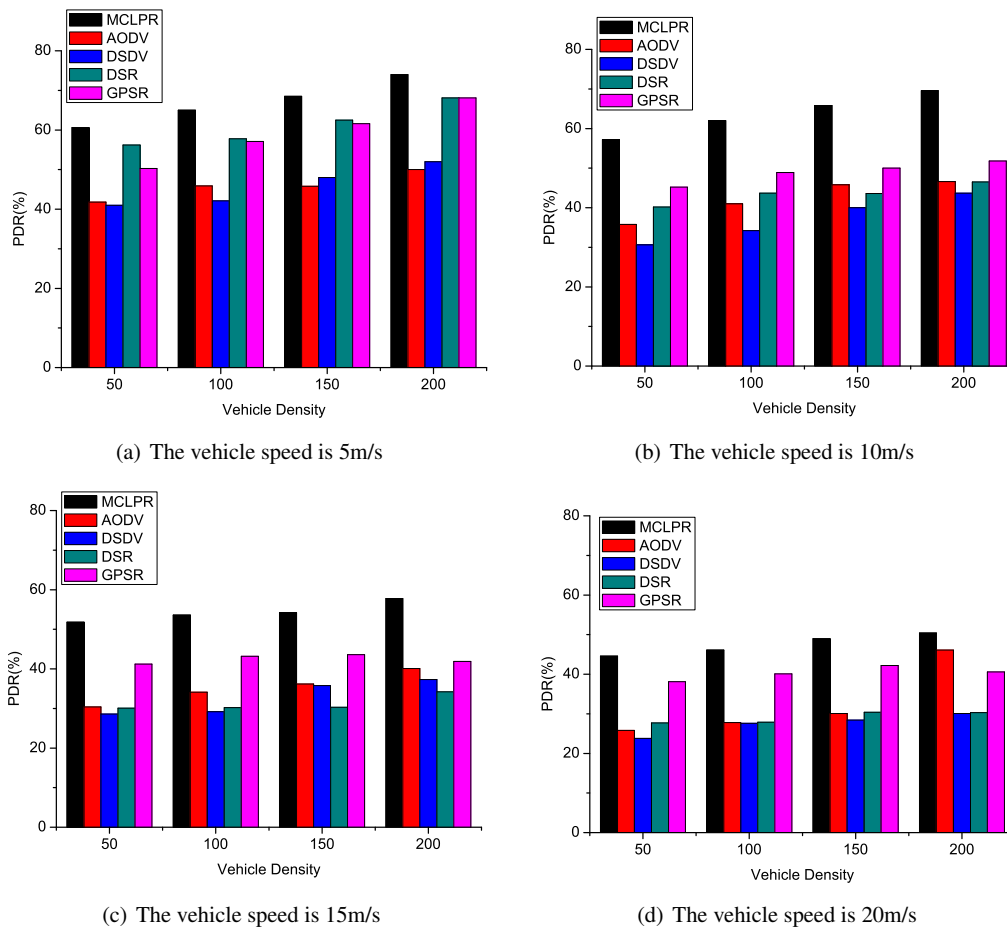


Figure 8. The trend of PDR with vehicle density in definite vehicle speed

Figure 7 shows the different trends in the packet delivery ratio (PDR) of five protocols with the increasing of vehicle speed when the number of vehicles in the network is 50, 100, 150 and 200. With the increase in vehicle speed, the PDR decreases in all routing protocols. When vehicle speed is slow, the communication links are established quickly and stably. This causes the PDR high. With increase in the vehicle speed, network topology changes frequently. This leads to a rapid decrease in the stability of communication links and the success rate of data transmission. Although the position-based routing protocol, GPSR, can adapt to the change of network topology to a certain extent, it considers fewer factors in the process of selecting vehicles. The mean data transmission rate of MCLPR protocol is higher than others. This is due to the vehicle position information, mobile information, intersection information, and MAC layer information considered in MCLPR protocol. In Figure 7, it is clear that the PDR in MCLPR protocol is higher than others under the same conditions. The PDR in GPSR is lower than the PDR in DSR, only when the vehicles number is 50 and vehicle speed is 10 m/s. The PDR in AODV and DSDV show the similar performance.

Figure 8 shows the influence of vehicle density on the routing protocol packet delivery ratio when the vehicle speed is 5m/s, 10m/s, 15m/s and 20m/s in the network. With different speeds, PDR becomes higher with the increase in vehicle density in the network. The increase in vehicle density makes the number of alternative paths, become much higher and the connectivity become better. Thus, the packet delivery ratio is improved. At different speeds, PDR of the MCLPR protocol is much better than other routing protocols. This is due to MCLPR considering a variety of factors including position, speed, vehicle density, *SNIR*, and *FER* information.

4.3. The Analysis of Mean End-to-End Delay

Mean end-to-end delay represents the efficiency of routing protocol in data transmission. As shown in the Equation (14), where  $\Delta\tau_i$  represents delay time of packet  $i$ ,  $D_{Receive}$  represents the total number of valid received packets, and  $m\_delay$  reflects the efficiency in the routing protocol. Under certain conditions, the smaller mean end-to-end delay makes the higher transmission efficiency. Figure 9 shows the variation between the mean end-to-end delay and vehicle speed under definite vehicle density. With the increase in vehicle speed, the mean end-to-end delay increases in all routing protocols. When vehicle speed is slow, the communication links are established quickly and stably. This causes the mean end-to-end delay small. With increase in the vehicle speed, the vehicle position information is frequently changed and the wireless links are not stable. This makes the discovery and maintenance process affected. Thus, the mean end-to-end delay increases.

$$m\_delay = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (\Delta\tau_i)}{D_{Receive}} \quad i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \quad (14)$$

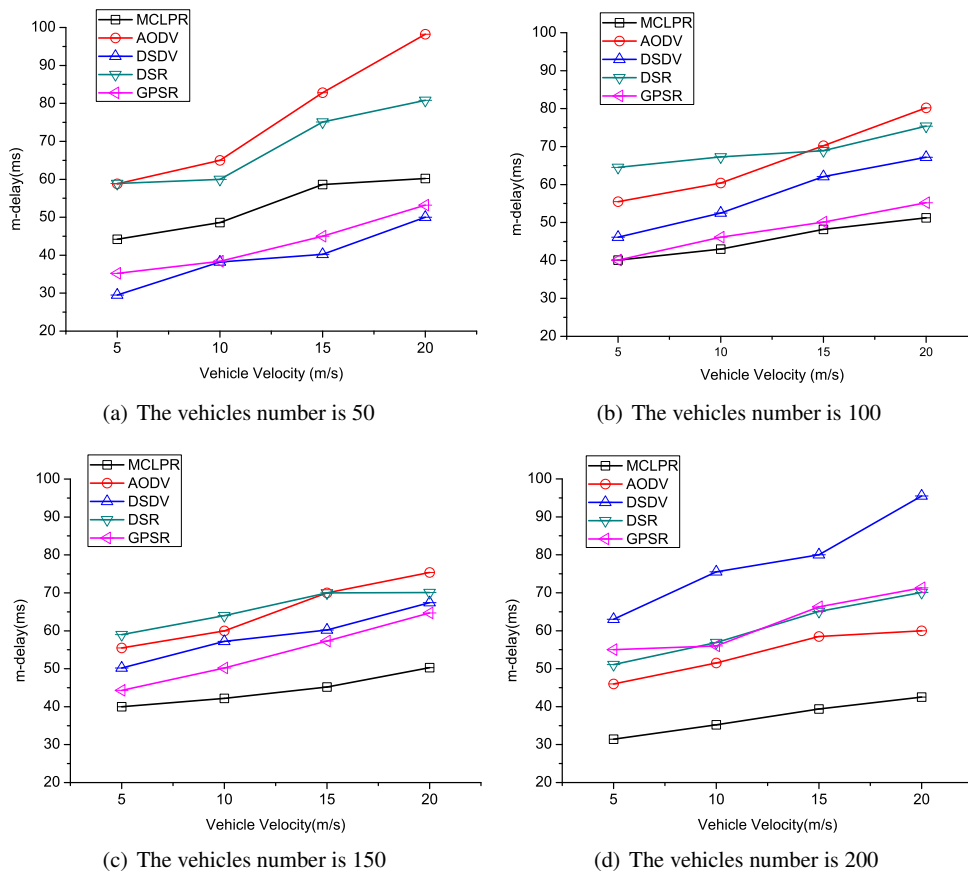


Figure 9. The variation between the mean end-to-end delay and vehicle speed under definite vehicle density

When the vehicles number is 50, the mean end-to-end delay of DSDV routing protocol is the smallest. This is because that DSDV is a proactive routing with fewer routing tables. Similarly, GPSR is better than MCLPR protocol mean end-to-end delay. We do not need to make a selection in more paths when the vehicles number is small. Thus, the MCLPR protocol is not the best choice under low vehicle density. When the vehicle density increases to 100, 150 and 200, MCLPR has a lower mean end-to-end delay. Due to the fewer vehicles in the network, MCLPR protocol also needs



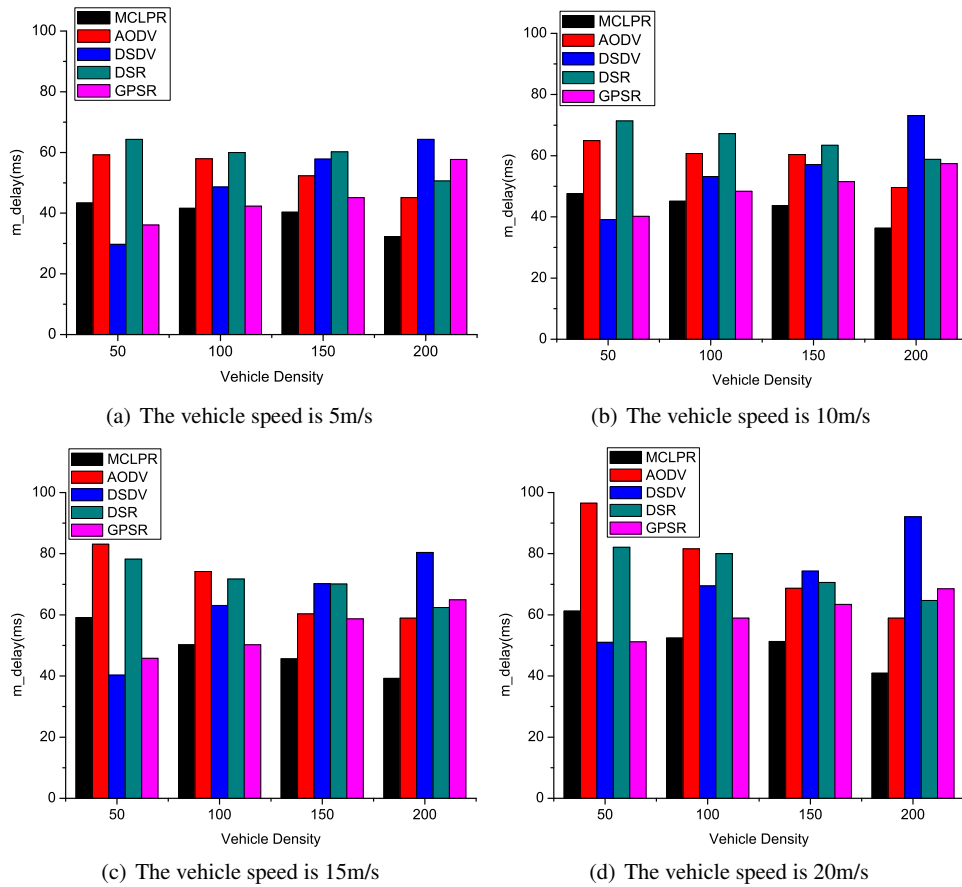


Figure 10. The variation between the mean end-to-end delay and vehicle density under definite vehicle speed

to consider five factors. The mean end-to-end delay is high. With increase in number of vehicles, the connectivity is enhanced in MCLPR protocol. Thus, the intersection factor is gradually reduced, and the multi-hop wireless link becomes much better. Therefore, the mean end-to-end delay is small, and the efficiency is high.

Figure 10 shows the variation between the mean end-to-end delay and vehicle density under definite vehicle speed. The mean end-to-end delay decreases with the increase in vehicle density for MCLPR, AODV and DSR. On the contrary, the mean end-to-end delay increases as the vehicle density rises in definite vehicle speed for DSDV and GPSR. The following points illustrate the above results: (1) DSDV is a topology-based routing protocol. When the vehicles number is small, we need to maintain few routing tables. Thus, the routing overhead is small, and the mean end-to-end delay is small. On the contrary, when the network density increases, we need to maintain more routing tables, and the mean end-to-end delay increases greatly. GPSR is a position-based routing protocol. When the vehicles number is small, the wireless link selection is relatively easy and the mean end-to-end delay is high. When the vehicles number increases, the path from  $q_i$  to  $d$  needs to be selected. This is one of the important factors that cause the mean end-to-end delay. (2) AODV and DSR are both on-demand topology-based routing protocols. When the vehicles number is small, the link quality is poor and the mean end-to-end delay is high. With the number of vehicles increasing, the mean end-to-end delay becomes low. (3) MCLPR is a multi-factor cross-layer position-based routing protocol. It sums up many factors including the vehicle position, speed information, intersection information, wireless link quality and MAC layer information. The position correction mechanism is introduced for intersection vehicles. It introduces the store-and-forward mechanism in the whole process of

routing. We achieve a global optimization considering a variety of factors. Thus, the mean end-to-end delay is decreasing with the number of vehicles increasing.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have presented a multi-factor cross-layer position-based routing protocol called MCLPR for VSNs to improve reliability and efficiency of message delivery. The protocol takes into account a numbers of factors, such as the information of vehicle, related traffic information, *SNIR*, as well as *FER*. In MCLPR protocol, we have proposed AVSI to select the optimal next hop vehicle in intersection environment and AVSNI to select the optimal next hop vehicle in non-intersection environment, respectively. We have conducted a comprehensive performance evaluation of the MCLPR protocol utilizing Manhattan model. Simulation results in NS-3 show that the proposed algorithm outperforms existing routing protocols for VSNs in terms of mean end-to-end delay and data transmission.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This paper is supported by the National Natural Science Foundation (61102105), the Postdoctoral start foundation of Heilongjiang Provence (LBH-Q12117); the Foundation for Innovative Research of Harbin (2015RAQXJ008); and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (GK2080260138 ).

## REFERENCES

1. Cao Y, Sun Z, Wang N, Riaz M, Cruickshank H, Liu X. Geographic-based spray-and-relay (gsar): an efficient routing scheme for dtns. *IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology* 2015; **64**(4):1548–1564.
2. Cao Y, Wang T, Kaiwartya O, Min G, Ahmad N, Abdullah AH. An ev charging management system concerning drivers' trip duration and mobility uncertainty 2016; **PP**(99).
3. Zhou B, Chen Q, Xiao P. The error propagation analysis of the received signal strength-based simultaneous localization and tracking in wireless sensor networks. *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory* 2017; .
4. Wang K, Liang S, Xian X, Xiong Q. Design and implementation of a novel monitoring system for container logistics based on wireless sensor networks and gprs. *Icic Express Letters* 2010; **4**(5):1905–1911.
5. Clausen T, Jacquet P. Optimized link state routing protocol (olsr). *Technical Report* 2003.
6. Raniwala A, Gopalan K, Chiueh Tc. Centralized channel assignment and routing algorithms for multi-channel wireless mesh networks. *ACM SIGMOBILE Mobile Computing and Communications Review* 2004; **8**(2):50–65.
7. Murthy S, Garcia-Luna-Aceves JJ. An efficient routing protocol for wireless networks. *Mobile Networks and applications* 1996; **1**(2):183–197.
8. Perkins C, Belding-Royer E, Das S. Ad hoc on-demand distance vector (aodv) routing. *Technical Report* 2003.

9. Perkins CE, Bhagwat P. Highly dynamic destination-sequenced distance-vector routing (dsv) for mobile computers. *ACM SIGCOMM computer communication review*, vol. 24, ACM, 1994; 234–244.
10. Johnson DB, Maltz DA, Broch J. Dsr: The dynamic source routing protocol for multi-hop wireless ad hoc networks. *Ad hoc networking* 2001; **5**:139–172.
11. Park VD, Corson MS. A highly adaptive distributed routing algorithm for mobile wireless networks. *INFOCOM'97. Sixteenth Annual Joint Conference of the IEEE Computer and Communications Societies. Driving the Information Revolution., Proceedings IEEE*, vol. 3, IEEE, 1997; 1405–1413.
12. XIE Ss, BAI Gw. Mtaodv: A novel vanet routing protocol in highway scenarios. *Microelectronics & Computer* 2011; **4**:010.
13. Karp B, Kung HT. Gpsr: Greedy perimeter stateless routing for wireless networks. *Proceedings of the 6th annual international conference on Mobile computing and networking*, ACM, 2000; 243–254.
14. Leontiadis I, Mascolo C. Geopps: Geographical opportunistic routing for vehicular networks. *2007 IEEE International Symposium on a World of Wireless, Mobile and Multimedia Networks*, Ieee, 2007; 1–6.
15. Cheng PC, Lee KC, Gerla M, Härri J. Geodtn+ nav: geographic dtn routing with navigator prediction for urban vehicular environments. *Mobile Networks and Applications* 2010; **15**(1):61–82.
16. Nzouonta J, Rajgure N, Wang G, Borcea C. Vanet routing on city roads using real-time vehicular traffic information. *IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology* 2009; **58**(7):3609–3626.
17. Boato G, Granelli F. Mora: a movement-based routing algorithm for ad hoc networks 2003; .
18. Stojmenovic I. Position-based routing in ad hoc networks. *IEEE communications magazine* 2002; **40**(7):128–134.
19. Li M, Qu L, Zhao Q, Guo J, Su X, Li X. Precise point positioning with the beidou navigation satellite system. *Sensors* 2014; **14**(1):927.
20. Zhou B, Chen Q. On the particle-assisted stochastic search mechanism in wireless cooperative localization. *IEEE Transactions on Wireless Communications* 2016; **15**(7):4765–4777.
21. Sommer C, Dressler F. The dymo routing protocol in vanet scenarios. *2007 IEEE 66th Vehicular Technology Conference*, IEEE, 2007; 16–20.
22. Noy NF, Musen MA, *et al.*. Algorithm and tool for automated ontology merging and alignment. *Proceedings of the 17th National Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI-00)*. Available as SMI technical report SMI-2000-0831, 2000.
23. Correia SLO, Celestino J, Cherkaoui O. Mobility-aware ant colony optimization routing for vehicular ad hoc networks. *Wireless Communications and Networking Conference (WCNC), 2011 IEEE*, IEEE, 2011; 1125–1130.
24. Jang HC, Yang CK. A hybrid architecture of routing protocols for vanet with cross-layer design. *Computer, Consumer and Control (IS3C), 2012 International Symposium on*, IEEE, 2012; 68–71.
25. Ur Rehman S, Khan MA, Zia TA. A multi-hop cross layer decision based routing for vanets. *Wireless Networks* 2015; **21**(5):1647–1660.
26. Zimmermann H. Osi reference model-the iso model of architecture for open systems interconnection. *IEEE Transactions on communications* 1980; **28**(4):425–432.

27. Chen Y, Xiang Z, Jian W, Jiang W. A cross-layer aomdv routing protocol for v2v communication in urban vanet. *Mobile Ad-hoc and Sensor Networks, 2009. MSN'09. 5th International Conference on*, IEEE, 2009; 353–359.
28. Chen Y, Xiang Z, Jian W, Jiang W. An adaptive cross-layer multi-path routing protocol for urban vanet. *2010 IEEE International Conference on Automation and Logistics*, IEEE, 2010; 603–608.
29. Drigo M, Zhang W, Baldessari R, Le L, Festag A, Zorzi M. Distributed rate control algorithm for vanets (drcv). *Proceedings of the sixth ACM international workshop on Vehicular InterNetworking*, ACM, 2009; 119–120.
30. Fogue M, Garrido P, Martinez FJ, Cano JC, Calafate CT, Manzoni P. An adaptive system based on roadmap profiling to enhance warning message dissemination in vanets. *IEEE/ACM Transactions On Networking* 2013; **21**(3):883–895.
31. Zhou B, Chen Q, Xiao P, Zhao L. On the spatial error propagation characteristics of cooperative localization in wireless networks. *IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology* 2017; **66**(2):1647–1658.