X-FDR: A Cross-Layer Routing Protocol for Multi-hop Full-Duplex Wireless Networks

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Abstract—The recent developments in self-interference (SI) cancellation techniques have led to the practical realization of full-duplex (FD) radios that can perform simultaneous transmission and reception. FD technology is attractive for various legacy communications standards. In this paper, after discussing the opportunities of FD technology at the network layer, we present a cross-layer aided routing protocol, termed as X-FDR, for multi-hop FD wireless networks. X-FDR exploits a Physical (PHY) layer model capturing imperfection of SI cancellation. At the medium access control (MAC) layer, X-FDR adopts an optimized MAC protocol which implements a power control mechanism without creating the hidden terminal problem. X-FDR exploits the unique characteristics of FD technology at the network layer to construct energy-efficient and low end-to-end latency routes in the network. Performance evaluation demonstrates the effectiveness of X-FDR in achieving the gains of FD at higher layers of the protocol stack.

Index Terms—full-duplex, cross-layer, distributed networks, routing, energy-efficiency, MAC.

I. INTRODUCTION

Recent advances in self-interference (SI) cancellation techniques have made in-band full-duplex (FD) operation feasible for wireless communications. FD-capable nodes can perform simultaneous transmission and reception on same resources in time and frequency domains. FD technology not only offers the potential of (theoretically) doubling the capacity and the spectrum utilization but also assists in solving some of the key problems in half-duplex (HD) networks, such as the hidden node issues, loss of throughput due to high congestion rates, and large end-to-end delays. Existing efforts towards FD communications have mainly investigated Physical (PHY) layer aspects; however, solutions for medium access control (MAC) and higher layers have also started to emerge. In order to reap the maximum benefits of FD technology, optimizations are required at different layers of the protocol stack.

On the other hand, energy saving in distributed wireless networks is of significant importance due to the limited battery supply of each node. Nodes in the network continuously participate in route construction, and act as relays for neighboring nodes. In addition to continuous variation in channel conditions, this leads to a large amount of control messages being exchanged across the network, which potentially entails high energy consumption. Therefore, energy-efficiency in distributed wireless networks is an important issue. Moreover, with the introduction of FD, the issue of energy efficiency becomes critical owing to additional hardware and processing capabilities of nodes.

Research on routing protocols for FD wireless networks is still in infancy. In [4], Fang et al. have proposed cross-layer optimization for opportunistic multi-path routing in FD wireless networks. The route selection problem has been solved under various resource competitions and node constraints. However, the proposed framework assumes perfect SI cancellation. Kato and Bandai [5] have proposed an on-demand detour routing protocol for directional FD wireless networks. Although the use of directional antennas mitigates the hidden terminal problem, the protocol is not compatible with networks employing omnidirectional antennas. Sugiyama et al. [6] designed a directional asynchronous FD-MAC protocol for mitigating collisions in multi-hop FD wireless networks, however the protocol is not applicable to the omni-directional antennas, which are widely used in handheld devices. Ramirez and Aazhang [7] addressed the problem of joint power allocation and routing in FD wireless networks through a modification to Dijkstra’s algorithm. However, the paper assumes that an FD MAC is in place. Besides, the main focus of the paper is system-level analysis. It is also important to mention that most of the existing studies do not fully exploit the key opportunities provided by FD technology, which have been discussed later. On the other hand, power-aware routing protocols [8] for conventional HD wireless networks have received significant attention over the last few years. It can be easily inferred that design of routing protocols for FD wireless networks requires further investigation from various aspects, which motivates this work.

Our objective in this paper is to design a cross-layer aided routing protocol for imperfect FD wireless networks, where the notion of imperfection implies that SI is not fully cancelled at the PHY layer. The proposed protocol, which is termed as X-FDR, is particularly designed for minimizing energy consumption and end-to-end latency in FD wireless networks. The key features of X-FDR can be summarized as follows. First, X-FDR accounts for residual self-interference (RSI) at the PHY layer. Second, X-FDR adapts an optimized (not necessarily optimal) MAC protocol that implements a power control mechanism without creating the hidden terminal problem. Third, X-FDR adopts a novel energy cost metric and exploits the opportunities provided by the FD technology e.g., the ability to sense the medium while transmitting. This provides immediate reaction to channel errors, and conse-
sequently, nodes are able to send a burst of packets, constrained by the minimum buffer size ($\beta_{\min}$) on the selected route. Moreover, nodes wait for the acknowledgement (ACK) of the last received packet only instead of acknowledging from the reception of each individual packet. Fourth, nodes in X-FDR employ immediate forwarding, which is enabled by their FD capabilities. A node does not have to wait for the reception of the full packet before it can forward it to the next hop. This feature reduces the end-to-end latency of the network. Last, the full packet before it can forward it to the next hop. Performance evaluation demonstrates that X-FDR provides a viable solution for multi-hop FD wireless networks.

II. OPPORTUNITIES OF FD AT NETWORK LAYER

In this section, we describe the key opportunities provided by the FD technology that could potentially be exploited by network layer protocols.

- **Immediate Forwarding** – FD technology enables simultaneous transmission and reception, which is particularly attractive in multi-hop wireless networks. When a FD node starts receiving a packet, it can simultaneously start forwarding it to the next hop. This provides a paradigm shift from conventional store-and-forward architecture in legacy HD networks, to receive-and-forward architecture. For example, consider the scenario depicted in Fig. [1] With immediate forwarding, node $A$ can start transmitting the packet, which is being received from node $S$, to next hop, as soon as it has processed the packet header. Immediate forwarding is particularly attractive to reduce end-to-end latency and improve throughput in multi-hop wireless networks.

- **Continuous Sensing** – Another key advantage of FD technology is the ability to sense the medium while transmitting. In conventional HD networks, a node will not be notified of transmission errors, until after the transmission is complete. With continuous sensing, FD nodes can detect an erroneous transmission as soon as it occurs, which leads to immediate termination of a transmission. This improves resource utilization and potentially enables reduction of end-to-end latency.

- **Burst Transmission** – The continuous sensing property further enables FD nodes to send burst of data packets, such that only the last packet is acknowledged. This is unlike conventional HD networks where packets are sent sequentially and each packet needs to be individually acknowledged. If properly exploited at the network layer, this feature has the potential to not only reduce end-to-end latency, but also improve resource utilization (particularly for signaling resources) and throughput.

- **Faster Convergence** – The above mentioned features, especially immediate forwarding, enable faster dissemination of signaling information associated with routing protocols. Hence, faster topological convergence can be achieved, especially for those routing protocols that rely on building a topology tree of the network. Besides, these features can also enhance the efficiency of flooding-based routing protocols.

- **Secure Routing** – Having two simultaneous transmissions on the same frequency makes it difficult for a nearby node to perform eavesdropping attacks as the received signal would be a scrambled mix of both signals. Hence, such attacks on intermediate nodes become significantly more complex to perform, thereby enhancing the security of the routing protocol between source and destination nodes.

It is emphasized that some of the key opportunities like immediate forwarding, continuous sensing, and burst transmission have been exploited in the design of X-FDR. These opportunities have been further explained while discussing the protocol operation.

III. NETWORK MODEL

We consider a distributed network comprising $N$ FD wireless nodes indexed by the set $\mathcal{N}$. Let, $\mathcal{R}$ denote the set of all possible routes in the network. A route $R \in \mathcal{R}$ represents an ordered set of nodes between a source node $S$ and a destination node $D$. For example, Fig. [1] demonstrates a route comprising four nodes in the network.

We assume that FD wireless nodes employ necessary SI cancellation techniques at the PHY layer. Since SI cancellation techniques are not perfect in practice, a node experiences RSI. We use an experimentally characterized model [9] for RSI, based on which, the power of the RSI signal is given by

$$P_{RSI} = P_t \frac{1}{\Delta x^\alpha},$$

where $P_t$ is the transmit power, $\Delta$ is the interference suppression factor, $\alpha$ depends on the SI cancellation technique, and $\rho$ denotes the SI cancellation capability. Note that $\rho = \infty$ denotes perfect SI cancellation, resulting in zero RSI. Moreover, $\rho = 0$ implies a constant reduction in transmission power. Realistically, $0 < |\rho| < 1$; with $\rho = 1$ implying a constant power, for RSI similar to noise.

We assume that the received signal power at a node $j$, based on a transmission from a node $i$ at maximum transmit power $P_{max}$ is given by $P_r = P_{max} |h_{i,j}|^2 d_{i,j}^{-\alpha}$, such that $h_{i,j}$ is the channel coefficient that accounts for small-scale fading, $d_{i,j}$ denotes the distance, and $\alpha$ denotes the path loss exponent. We assume that nodes in the network employ a power control mechanism based on the received signal strength such that the controlled power level is determined by $P_{ctrl} = P_{max} (P_r)^{-\frac{1}{\alpha}} \cdot \hat{\alpha}$, such that $\hat{\alpha}^{th}$ denotes the minimum required received signal strength and $\hat{e}$ is a constant [10]. Please note that RSI is not part of $P_{ctrl}$ as FD communication is not yet initialized. The impact of RSI and cumulative interference is captured on link-level. Further, our link-level model is based on signal-to-interference-plus-noise-ratio (SINR) which accounts for RSI and given by

$$SINR = \frac{P_t |h_{i,j}|^2 d_{i,j}^{-\alpha}}{RST + I_x + N_0},$$

where $P_t$ denotes the transmit power of node $i$ (either $P_{max}$ or $P_{ctrl}$) and $N_0$ denotes the noise power. Moreover, $I_x$ is the cumulative interference from neighboring nodes and is given by

$I_x = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{N} \setminus \{i,j\}} P_x |h_{x,i}|^2 d_{x,i}^{-\alpha}$, where $P_x$ is the transmitting power of an interfering node $x$, $h_{x,i}$ is the channel
A. Hidden Terminal Problem

Referring to Fig. 2, consider that nodes $S$ and $A$ constitute a sender-receiver pair in HD mode. Node $Z$, which resides in the carrier sensing range of $S$ but not of node $A$, may act as a hidden node. In FD transmission, hidden nodes may affect the reception of control signals at node $S$. Therefore, in the proposed protocol we adopt RTS-CTS handshake mechanism. Moreover, by sending FD-CTS using $P_{\text{max}}$, the protocol ensures that nodes in the carrier sensing ranges are aware of an ongoing transmission. After power control is applied for data transmission, node $Z$ can again create a hidden node problem, which is why the periodic increments from $P_{\text{ctrl}}$ to $P_{\max}$ are required.

1 According to the IEEE 802.11n standard [12], $15 \mu s$ is suitable for carrier sensing, and $2 \mu s$ is adequate to increase/decrease the power level from/to 10% to/from 90%. Therefore, a duration of $20 \mu s$ is deemed adequate for transition of power level from $P_{\text{ctrl}}$ to $P_{\text{max}}$ and vice versa. Since EIFS is set to $120 \mu s$, nodes will transmit at $P_{\text{max}}$ every $120 \mu s$ for a duration of $20 \mu s$, and the cumulative transmission duration is less than the EIFS duration.
V. X-FDR: Protocol Operation

This section explains the protocol operation of X-FDR. Unlike conventional Adhoc On-demand Distance Vector (AODV) routing protocol [13], where the route cost relies mainly on hop count, X-FDR uses energy consumption as the key metric for route cost estimation.

A. Route Cost Estimation

Since X-FDR is a cross-layer routing protocol, all relevant factors must be accounted for in route cost estimation. Nodes in the network initiate connections using RTS/FD-CTS messages with maximum power level $P_{max}$ in order to restrain other nodes residing in the sensing range from initiating an interfering transmission. Once the data transmission takes place using controlled power level $P_{ctrl}$, a periodic increase of power to $P_{max}$ takes place to stop potential interference and eliminate the problem of hidden nodes; therefore, the metric for route cost shall account for different power levels.

In a route $N = \{S, A, B, D\}$, the cost of energy for sending data from node $S$ to node $A$ can be estimated as $\rho(S,A) = \chi(E_{data} + E_{ctrl} + E_{on})$, where $\chi = 1/P_f$ is the number of retransmissions attempts such that $P_f$ denotes the probability of transmission failure, and $E_{data}$, $E_{ctrl}$ and $E_{on}$ denote the energy consumed during data transmission, control signal transmission and when the receiver is turned on, respectively. The energy consumption during data transmission phase can be calculated as $E_{data} = P_{ctrl}^S(\beta_{min}/r - T_{inc}) + P_{max}T_{inc}$, where $P_{ctrl}$ and $P_{max}$ denote the controlled power level and maximum transmit power of node $S$, respectively, $\beta_{min}$ is the minimum buffer size (explained in Section V.B), and $r$ is the data rate. Moreover, $T_{inc}$ denotes the duration of the periodic increase/decrease in power levels. The energy consumption during control signal transmission can be calculated as $E_{ctrl} = P_{max}(T_{RTS} + T_{FD-CTS})$, where $T_{RTS}$ and $T_{FD-CTS}$ denote the duration of RTS and FD-CTS messages, respectively.

Assume that there exists a route $R_i = n_0 \rightarrow n_1 \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow n_k$ from the source node $S$ to the destination $D$, where, without loss of generality, $S = n_0$ and $D = n_k$. Therefore, the total cost, $\rho_i$, along the route $R_i$ can be expressed as

$$\rho_i = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \rho(S_{j+1})(P_j),$$

where $P_j$ is the power level used by node $n_j$ to communicate with node $n_{j+1}$, and $\rho(S_{j+1})(P_j)$ is the relaying cost between nodes $n_j$ and $n_{j+1}$. Assuming that there are $x$ routes from source to destination, the objective of the routing protocol is to select the route with minimum energy consumption i.e.,

$$R_{min} = \arg\min\{\rho_i\}, \quad \forall \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, x.$$

B. Route Discovery

The first stage of X-FDR is route discovery. When a source node $S$ requires a route to destination node $D$, it broadcasts a Route REQuest message (RREQ). Once neighboring nodes receive RREQ, they calculate the energy cost, $\rho$, add it to RREQ and broadcast it to the neighboring nodes. After that the neighboring nodes calculate the new $\rho$, add it to the previous cost received in RREQ, and broadcast it further until it reaches the destination $D$. The destination node sets up a timer to allow several RREQ messages to arrive from different routes. After the timer expires, node $D$ chooses the route $R_{min}$ with minimum energy consumption and replies with a Route REply (RREP) message via $R_{min}$. The routing table of each node is refreshed, whenever it receives RREQ/RREP messages. Each node maintains a received RREQ table and compares the new RREQ messages in order to eliminate the duplicate RREQ messages. Additionally, a Route-ACKnowledgement (R-ACK) packet is used by the nodes receiving RREP, in order to confirm successful reception of the RREP packet and establishment of the route. Fig. 3 demonstrates an example of route discovery performed by node $S$, where $R_{min}$ is found to be $\{S, A, B, D\}$.

Instead of sending packets sequentially and waiting for acknowledgements (ACKs) for each data packet, X-FDR sends
a burst of packets, such that the number of packets in each burst is determined by the minimum buffer size, $\beta_{\text{min}}$, of the nodes in the route $R$. For example, let $\beta_S$ denote the buffer size (in terms of the number of packets) of node $S$. Further, node $S$ encapsulates $\beta_{\text{min}} = \beta_S$ within RREQ and broadcasts it. When a neighboring node $A$ receives RREQ, it compares $\beta_{\text{min}}$ with its own buffer size (i.e., $\beta_A$). If $\beta_A < \beta_{\text{min}}$, node $A$ updates $\beta_{\text{min}} = \beta_A$ in RREQ and broadcasts it forward. However, if $\beta_A > \beta_{\text{min}}$, node $A$ keeps the buffer size as it is and forwards RREQ. When $D$ receives RREQ, it compares its buffer size with the received $\beta_{\text{min}}$, and sends the lowest of the two within RREP, which informs node $S$ with the minimum buffer size to be used for data transmission. Note that if a node in the route does not have a buffer enabled, $\beta_{\text{min}}$ will be set to 1.

### C. Data Transmission

When node $S$ receives the RREP message as a result of route discovery process, it becomes aware of the most energy-efficient route to the destination $D$. After the route discovery process, node $S$ starts transmitting a burst of data packets to next hop (node $A$), where the number of packet in each burst is given by $\beta_{\text{min}}$ of the route. In conventional HD communications, when node $S$ sends a burst of data, it will not be notified of transmission errors, e.g., by receiving a Route ERRor (RERR) message, until after the entire burst is transmitted. This incurs significant waste of time and resources. However, using continuous sensing offered by FD technology, node $S$ can sense a problem in the transmission as soon as it occurs, which leads to immediate termination of the transmission. Hence, node $S$ continuously senses the packets forwarded by node $A$ and stops transmitting immediately if it receives RERR message.

Since node $A$ is FD-capable, it can employ immediate forwarding, wherein it does not have to wait for the entire packet to be received before forwarding. Once node $A$ receives all the packets, determined by $\beta_{\text{min}}$, it replies with an ACK to acknowledge the reception of the last packet. If a packet is dropped while the route is not deemed faulty, node $S$ gets notified by the ACK packet sent by $A$, and it retransmits the lost packet. The same process is repeated at each hop until the destination is reached. Note that each node in the route only notifies the previous hop with an ACK. This is because data is assumed to be buffered by the previous node in the route as $\beta_{\text{min}}$ is known to all nodes. Therefore, if a node did not receive all the packets, it would request these from previous nodes using ACK.

For instance, assume that $\beta_{\text{min}} = 4$, and consider the scenario demonstrated in Fig. 3. Node $S$ transmits data packets 1 through 4 while continuously sensing the signal transmitted by $A$. Node $A$ starts forwarding immediately; however it only receives 3 packets. Therefore, it sends an ACK for data packet 3, which notifies $S$ that it needs to retransmit data packet 4. Note that if the buffer size of node $S$ is larger than the amount of data packets that needs to be sent, it will include an end-of-queue (EQ) notification message with the last packet, in order to avoid an unnecessary retransmission.

### D. Route Maintenance

The process of route maintenance is depicted in Fig. 4, where the transmission of packets 1 to 3 from source $S$ to destination $D$ is exemplified. First, node $S$ transmits the burst of packets to node $A$. Node $A$ receives the packets successfully and responds with an ACK packet to the source $S$ to confirm the successful reception. As node $A$ receives the packets, it starts forwarding them to node $B$. However, node $B$ fails to receive the data packet 3 successfully, despite maximum number of retransmission attempts by node $A$ due to a link error. Once the pre-set timer expires at node $A$ without receiving any ACK from node $B$, it infers that the link $A-B$ is broken and sends an RERR message to its previous hop, which is node $S$ in this case. The RERR message informs node $S$ of a link failure and a new route discovery process. Node $S$ updates its routing table and marks link $A-B$ as broken, and then acknowledges the RERR of node $A$. Since the route error occurred at node $A$, it initiates a new route discovery process by broadcasting a RREQ message. Intermediate nodes follow the same procedure as described earlier for route discovery. When the destination node $D$ receives RREQ from node $A$, prior to the full reception of packets in the same burst of $\beta_{\text{min}}$, it knows that the request is to complete the same data stream, and replies with RREP, piggybacked with an ACK packet to inform node $A$ about the last packet node $D$ had received. After receiving the RREP message, node $A$ sends a Route UPDate (RUPD) message, with the new $\beta_{\text{min}}$, to the previous hop i.e., node $S$, to inform it of a new route. Finally, node $A$ starts new data transmission to destination $D$ from data packet 3 onwards. If node $S$ has new burst of data to send, it will use the updated route towards node $D$, starting the transmission after sensing the last packet sent by node $A$. The process of route maintenance is summarized in Algorithm 1.

**Remark 1** – It is worth emphasizing that X-FDR incurs less overhead and complexity as compared to its HD counterparts. First, it omits the MAC layer ACK procedure which reduces the signaling overhead. Second, from the routing perspective, the overhead in most cases is reduced which simplifies the system design. For instance, in the route discovery process, ACK packets are only sent to acknowledge the RREP packets which reduces the overhead significantly as compared to acknowledging the RERR packets. Similarly, acknowledging a burst of packets instead of each packet reduces the overhead in the network.

**Remark 2** – Some recent studies [14], [15] have investigated the problem of in-band wireless cut-through which is closely related to the problem of multi-hop transmissions in FD wireless networks. To realize wireless cut-through transmissions, specialized hardware is required for cancellation of all types of interference. It is worth emphasizing that the need for MAC and routing protocols cannot be eliminated for realizing wireless cut-through transmissions. X-FDR adopts a cross-layer approach for multi-hop transmissions in FD wireless networks and focuses only on SI cancellation which can be achieved through state-of-the-art FD radios. X-FDR can directly benefit from additional hardware capabilities as realized for wireless cut-through transmissions. Alternatively,
the cross-layer approach of X-FDR can improve the efficiency of wireless cut-through solutions.

Algorithm 1: Route Maintenance Process in X-FDR

Input: Source: $S$, Destination: $D$, Nodes: $N$, $R_{min}$
Output: New Route: Updated $R_{min}$

while $S \rightarrow D$
    Nodes forward incoming packets
    for each node $i \in \{R_{min} \setminus D\}$
        $i$ transmits packets to $i + 1$
        $i$ sets timer $t_{ACK}$
        if $i$ receives $ACK$, while $t_{ACK} \neq 0$
            $i$ forwards packets $z + 1$
        else $i$ marks link $i \rightarrow (i + 1)$ as broken
        Send RERR to node $i - 1$
        Nodes $i - (x + 1), x \in \{0, 1, \cdots, \text{hops to } S\}$
        traverse RERR back to $S$
        $i$ broadcasts RREQ
    if $D$ receives RREQ for the same stream then
        set a timer $t_{max}$
        if $t \leq t_{max}$ then
            continue receiving RREQ packets
        else stop receiving RREQ packets;
        compare received RREQ packets and select $R_{min}$
        return RREP packet with $R_{min}$ and $\beta_{min}$.
        if $i$ receives new RREP then
            Update $R_{min}$
            Send RUPD to node $i - 1$
            Nodes $i - (x + 1), x \in \{0, 1, \cdots, \text{hops to } S\}$
            update $R_{min}$
            and send RUPD back to $S$
            Closest node to $D$ with full $\beta_{min}$
            received will resume transmission
    end
end

VI. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

In this section, we conduct a performance evaluation of X-FDR. We have implemented X-FDR in OPNET. Necessary changes were made in the node and protocol models to implement simultaneous transmission and reception. We assume that nodes are randomly distributed in an area of 500 m$^2$. The buffer size is assumed to be fixed and set to 10 kB. The maximum transmit power of a node is set to 23 dBm (200 mW). We assume a channel bandwidth of 2 MHz. The path loss exponent is set to 4. We consider file transfer protocol (FTP) application with packet size of 1 kB. The RSI parameter, $\chi$ is set to 13 dB. The simulation results are averaged over 10 iterations. In each iteration, source and destination nodes are randomly selected. We have modified the wireless model in OPNET to account for RSI and Rayleigh fading. For performance comparison, we select two different baseline protocols: AODV and FD version of AODV, termed as FD-AODV, wherein nodes employ immediate forwarding and acknowledge each packet. Moreover, both AODV and FD-AODV do not employ power control.

Fig. 4a shows the average power consumption of routes from source to destination nodes selected by different protocols. First, we note that the power consumption increases with the number of nodes in the network. This is due to inclusion of more nodes in the routes selected by different protocols. Second, we note that X-FDR outperforms both baseline protocols by performing up to 40% and 50% better than AODV and FD-AODV protocols, respectively. The performance gain of X-FDR in terms of energy-efficiency is primarily due to the use of power control at the MAC layer, which limits the effect of interference, and the adoption of energy-based routing cost metric. Third, we note that SI cancellation plays an important role in power consumption. A higher SI cancellation capability, corresponding to higher values of $\Delta$ and $\rho$, reduces the power consumption due to less number of transmission failures due to interference.

Fig. 4b shows network throughput against the number of network nodes. We note that X-FDR outperforms AODV by performing up to 50.2% and 21.2% better under high and low SI cancellation scenarios, respectively. This is primarily due to the FD features of X-FDR. Further, X-FDR achieves nearly 8.6% lower throughput than FD-AODV under high SI cancellation scenario. This can be attributed to the employment of power control in X-FDR as there is an inherent trade-off between power and throughput. Note that the presence of SI, due to low SI cancellation capability, can degrade the performance of FD-AODV to the extent that it achieves lower throughput than AODV. Such performance degradation is also visible in case of X-FDR.

Fig. 4c plots the average hop count between randomly located source and destination nodes, as a function of number of nodes in the network. The average hop count increases with the number of network nodes as more nodes are involved in the selected routes. We note that X-FDR has higher average hop count than the baseline protocols. This is because both AODV and FD-AODV use hop count as the routing metric. However, X-FDR focuses on routes with minimal energy consumption, and therefore, it incurs higher hop count with lower total energy consumption.

Fig. 4d plots the average end-to-end delay against the number of network nodes. We note that X-FDR outperforms AODV by achieving up to 33% lower delay, due to the use of immediate forwarding, continuous sensing and burst transmission mode. On the other hand, FD-AODV outperforms X-FDR by achieving up to 12% lower delay. This is due to the fact that X-FDR incurs higher hop count. Although both AODV and FD-AODV incur similar hop count, the latter achieves lower delay due to immediate forwarding feature. It is important to mention here that the results in Fig. 4d correspond to the scenario when the route does not suffer any failures along its path. In order to capture the impact of route maintenance, we deliberately mark nodes to fail (an option provided by OPNET) across the route during transmission process and evaluate end-to-end delay in Fig. 4e. Initially,
we fail the first node after the source, then a node at the middle of the route, and finally, a node right before the destination for worst case scenario. As shown by the results, X-FDR outperforms both AODV and FD-AODV by performing up to 39% and 34% better than the former and the latter, respectively. The performance gain is due to the proposed route maintenance procedure that initiates a route discovery process at the last buffered node instead of starting new route discovery process by the source.

Fig. 4 shows the average number of MAC layer retransmission attempts against the number of network nodes. The average number of retransmissions increase with the number of network nodes due to higher probability of failures as a result of higher inter-node interference. We note that X-FDR incurs the lowest number of retransmissions than both AODV and FD-AODV. This is primarily due to an optimized MAC protocol that minimizes collisions due to hidden node problem while using power control.

Finally, a qualitative comparison of X-FDR against state-of-the-art protocols is given in Table I.

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

FD technology has the potential to play an important role in realizing the capacity objectives of future wireless networks. Realizing the FD capability at higher layers of the protocol stack is particularly attractive to reap the full potential of FD technology. In this paper, we have designed a cross-layer routing protocol, termed as X-FDR, for multi-hop FD wireless networks with imperfect SI cancellation. X-FDR accounts for RSI at the PHY layer, adopts an optimized MAC protocol with power control feature, and exploits the opportunities provided by FD technology at the network layer. Performance evaluation demonstrates that X-FDR outperforms baseline protocols in terms of power consumption without a significant compromise on network throughput. Besides, it achieves lower end-to-end delay in the presence of route failures. Hence, X-FDR provides a viable solution for multi-hop FD wireless networks.

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TABLE I: Qualitative Comparison of Different Routing Protocols for FD Wireless Networks

| Feature/Protocol            | OMR [4] | D-FDW [5] | M-DA [7] | AODV [7] | FD-AODV | X-FDR |
|----------------------------|---------|-----------|----------|----------|---------|-------|
| Residual SI                | No      | No        | Yes      | No       | Yes     | Yes   |
| Power Control              | No      | No        | No       | No       | No      | No    |
| Directional Antennas       | No      | Yes       | No       | No       | No      | No    |
| Optimized MAC              | Yes     | Yes       | No       | No       | No      | Yes   |
| Immediate Forwarding       | No      | Yes       | No       | No       | Yes     | Yes   |
| Continuous Sensing         | No      | No        | No       | No       | No      | Yes   |
| Burst Transmission         | No      | No        | No       | No       | No      | No    |
| Energy Efficiency          | No      | No        | No       | No       | No      | Yes   |

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