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# A Distributed Energy-Balanced Topology Control Algorithm based on a Noncooperative Game for Wireless Sensor Networks

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**Abstract:** In wireless sensor networks, there is no a central controller to enforce cooperation between nodes. Therefore, nodes may generate selfish behavior to conserve their energy resources. In this paper, we address the problems of transmission power minimization and energy balance in wireless sensor networks using a topology control algorithm. We considered the energy efficiency and energy balance of the nodes, and an improved optimization-integrated utility function is designed by introducing the Theil index. Based on this, a topological control game model of energy balance is established, and it is proved that the topological game model is an ordinal potential game with Pareto optimality. Additionally, an energy-balanced topology control game algorithm (EBTG) is proposed to construct topologies. The simulation and comparison show that, compared with other topological control algorithms based on game theory, the EBTG algorithm can improve energy balance and energy efficiency while reducing the transmitting power of nodes, thus prolonging the network lifetime.

**Keywords:** wireless sensor networks; topology control; game theory; energy balanced

## 1. Introduction

WSN (Wireless sensor networks, WSN) usually consist of a large number of sensor nodes. In general, sensor nodes operate on batteries and are thus limited in their working lifetime [1]; therefore, efficient and balanced energy usage is the key to prolonging the lifetime of a network, which is the primary concern of topology control. The goal of topology control is to optimize the transmitting power of each node and construct a better topology to improve network performance and prolong network lifetime [2].

At present, in the field of wireless sensor networks, many topological control algorithms, which are mainly divided into hierarchical, power control, and game-type topology control algorithms, are proposed. For example, a low-power hierarchical WSN topology control algorithm [3], which is a multilevel topology control algorithm, is designed; this algorithm extends the network level and improves the maintainability of WSN using a combination of the static address and the dynamic address. In another paper [4], an energy-efficient hierarchical topology control method is established in WSN using time slots, in which a cluster-head selecting approach decreases the difference in the cluster size of LEACH and the responsibility mechanism for the active node makes the energy consumption uniform in the cluster. In the literature [5], Kubisch et al. implement dynamic power control to set the node degree of the upper and lower limits, thus resulting in a lower total energy consumption network topology. The power control algorithm proposed in [6] uses a Borel Cayley graph to construct a network topology that has a short average link and low energy consumption. The algorithm does

33 not consider the robustness of the network topology and the residual energy of nodes, which affects  
34 the operation of the network to some extent.

35 When the sensor nodes perform data forwarding, the node will show selfish behavior due to  
36 energy saving considerations, and competition will occur between nodes [7]. On this basis, the game  
37 theory approach can be introduced into the study of WSN topology control. Game theory provides a  
38 powerful tool [8] for describing the phenomena competition and individual coping strategies between  
39 intelligent rational decision-makers, and it has been used in systems concerning action and payoff.  
40 Komali et al. [9], [10] formulated energy-efficient topology control as a noncooperative potential game,  
41 which guarantees the existence of at least one Nash equilibrium (NE) and proposes a distributed  
42 noncooperative game topology control algorithm based on game theory. In [11], a topology control  
43 algorithm based on a link power consumption game is designed to run the minimum MLPT algorithm  
44 for the maximum power of the node. To consider network lifetime as well, researchers have proposed  
45 two game-based topology control algorithms: the virtual game-based energy-balanced algorithm  
46 (VGEB) [12] and the energy welfare topology control algorithm (EWTC) [13]; these algorithms have  
47 been developed to improve network lifetime via energy-balanced network topologies. In [14], the  
48 adaptive cooperative topological control algorithm (CTCA) based on game theory considers the  
49 smallest potential lifetime and degree as the primary and secondary utility functions, respectively.  
50 In [15], a topology control algorithm (DEBA) based on the ordinal potential game is proposed by  
51 designing a payoff function that considers both network connectivity and the energy balance of nodes.  
52 Although some of the abovementioned algorithms based on game theory can achieve network topology  
53 control and improve network performance, they cannot guarantee the connectivity and robustness of  
54 the network. Additionally, the remaining energy, energy balance and energy efficiency of the nodes  
55 are not fully and accurately considered.

56 Based on the above analysis, this paper takes the energy efficiency and energy balance of the  
57 node as the starting point and considers the influence of the residual energy, the transmitting power  
58 and the node degree of the node. In addition, by introducing the Theil index to design an improved  
59 and optimized integrated utility function, an energy-balanced topology control game algorithm  
60 (EBTG) is proposed. The network topology constructed by this algorithm can efficiently guarantee the  
61 connectivity and robustness of the network and balance the energy between nodes, which effectively  
62 prolongs the network lifetime.

63 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 overviews critical concepts of the network  
64 model and the theory of potential games as applicable to our problem. Section 3 presents the topology  
65 control game model and provides the game formulation and theoretic analysis. From this model, in  
66 Section 4, an energy-balanced topology control algorithm, in which each sensor adaptively adjusts its  
67 transmit power according to the residual energy, is proposed. Section 5 validates our EBTG algorithm  
68 via simulation. Finally, Section 6 concludes this paper.

## 69 2. Preliminaries

70 In this section, we present a brief overview of some fundamental concepts related to the network  
71 model, the ordinal potential game theory and the Theil index.

### 72 2.1. Network model

73 WSN are usually abstracted  $\mathcal{G} = (N, L, P)$  as according to graph theory. Let  $\mathcal{G} = (N, L, P)$  be an  
74 undirected graph, where  $N$  denotes the set of nodes,  $L$  is a set of two-node communication links in  
75 node set  $N$  at time  $t$ , and  $P$  represents the transmit power set of  $n$  nodes.

76 It is assumed that all nodes are randomly deployed in the plane monitoring area and that their  
77 maximum transmit power  $p_i^{max}$  can be different. When the transmit power  $p_i \in [0, p_i^{max}]$  of node  $i$  is  
78 sufficiently large, the signal received by node  $j$  is higher than the receiving threshold  $p$  so that node  $j$   
79 can respond.

80 Because most routing and channel studies use bidirectional links, it is assumed that the links in  
81 the network topology are bidirectional. When all nodes use their maximum power to communicate,  
82 the formed network topology is denoted by  $\mathcal{G}_{max}$ . In this design,  $\mathcal{G}_{max}$  is the connected network.

### 83 2.2. Ordinal potential game theory

The ordinal potential game is a kind of strategy game. The strategy game  $\Gamma$  consists of  $N$  players,  
the possible strategy  $S$  of the players, and consequences  $u$  of the strategy. The following definition is  
given for the strategy game:

$$\Gamma = \langle N, S, \{u_i\} \rangle \quad (1)$$

84 Three definitions are as follows. First, (1)  $N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$  represents the set of players, and  $n$  is the  
85 number of players in the game. Then, (2)  $S$  represents the policy space, and  $S$  is the Cartesian product of  
86 the set of policies  $S_i (i \in N)$ , where  $S_i = \{s_{i1}, s_{i2}, \dots, s_{ik}\}$  represents an optional set of policies for node  
87  $i$ , which is usually abbreviated as  $S_i = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k\}$ . In general, we use  $s = (s_i, s_{-i}) \in S$  to describe  
88 a strategy combination,  $s_i$  to represent the strategy choice of node  $i$ , and  $s_{-i}$  to represent the other node  
89 strategy choices except node  $i$ . Finally, (3)  $u$  represents the utility function  $u = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$ , where  
90  $u_i$  denotes the maximum utility function that node  $i$  can achieve in the policy combination  $(s_i, s_{-i})$ .

91 **Definition 1.** In a strategy game  $\Gamma = \langle N, S, \{u_i\} \rangle$ , the strategy  $s_i^*$  of any game player  $i$  is the best  
92 strategy response to the strategy combination of  $s_{-i}^*$  the remaining game participants. Then, there must  
93 be  $u_i \{s_1^*, \dots, s_i^*, \dots, s_n^*\} \geq u_i \{s_1^*, \dots, s_{ij}^*, \dots, s_n^*\}$ , where  $s_{ij}$  indicates that the  $j$ -th strategy of game player  
94  $i$  is valid for any  $s_{ij} \in S$ ; then,  $\{s_1^*, \dots, s_n^*\}$  is called the "Nash Equilibrium (NE) [16]" of the game.

95 A game may possess a large amount of NEs or none at all, but some types of games have been  
96 proved to have at least one Nash equilibrium, such as the ordinal potential game used in this paper,  
97 which has been proved to be a Nash equilibrium and may not be unique in the literature [17].

**Definition 2.** A strategic game  $\Gamma = \langle N, S, \{u_i\} \rangle$  is an ordinal potential game if there exists a function  $V$  such  
that  $\forall i \in N, \forall s_{-i} \in S_{-i}$  and for  $\forall a_i, b_i \in S$

$$V(a_i, s_{-i}) - V(b_i, s_{-i}) > 0 \Leftrightarrow u_i(a_i, s_{-i}) - u_i(b_i, s_{-i}) > 0 \quad (2)$$

98 The function  $V$  is called the ordinal potential function of the strategy game  $\Gamma$ . Then, the strategy combination  $s^*$   
99 for the maximum value of the ordinal potential function  $V$  is the NE of the game [17].

### 100 2.3. Theil index

The Theil index [18] is a statistic primarily used to measure economic inequality and other  
economic phenomena. It was proposed by econometrician Henri Theil at Erasmus University in  
Rotterdam. This index measures income inequality through the concept of entropy in information  
theory [19]. When the concept of the entropy index in information theory is used to measure the  
income gap, the income gap can be interpreted as the amount of information contained in the message  
that converts the population share into the income share. The Theil index  $T$  is defined as:

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^N \left( \frac{x_i}{\sum_{j=1}^N x_j} \cdot \ln \frac{x_i}{\bar{x}} \right) \quad (3)$$

101 where  $x_i$  is a characteristic of agent  $i$ ,  $\bar{x}$  represents average income, and  $N$  is the population. The range  
102 of the Theil index is  $[0, \infty)$ . The larger the value, the more obvious the difference from the average.

### 103 3. Topology control game model

104 In this section, a topology control game model is first constructed. Then, it is proved that the  
105 game model belongs to the ordinal potential game and the NE is Pareto optimal.

#### 106 3.1. Utility function

107 The use environment of wireless sensor networks is relatively complex, and it is difficult to  
108 quantify the benefits of nodes. The existing topology control algorithm based on the ordinal potential  
109 game [15] does not adequately consider node revenue, and the utility function cannot accurately reflect  
110 the competition between nodes and the balance of energy consumption.

111 This paper uses a power control model based on the utility function [17]. To maximize utility  
112 function, each participant adjusts power in a selfish manner, which is typical for noncooperative power  
113 control games. In addition, to better balance the load between nodes, energy efficiency is improved. In  
114 this paper, the Theil index is introduced in the design of the utility function. In addition, the method of  
115 measuring income inequality in the field of social science is used to measure the imbalance of energy  
116 consumption between nodes in wireless sensor networks by using the node and its surplus energy as  
117 analogues for the group members and their income. Thus, a more accurate node utility function is  
118 obtained to describe the competitive relationship between nodes.

Consider a multihop network constituting independent and selfish nodes that adapt the transmit power levels according to their connectivity and energy consumption preferences. By considering the energy efficiency and energy balance, a specific utility function for node  $i (\forall i \in N)$  is given by:

$$u_i(p_i, p_{-i}) = f_{p_i} \left( \lambda p_i^{max} - k_{p_i} p_i + \frac{1}{T+1} \right) + \frac{E_r(i)}{E_0(i) - E_r(i)} + \mu \overline{E_i(p_i)} \quad (4)$$

where, for node  $i$ , initial energy, residual energy, current transmitting power and maximum transmitting power are  $E_0(i)$ ,  $E_r(i)$ ,  $p_i$  and  $p_i^{max}$ ,  $p_{-i}$  represents the transmit power of the remaining  $n-1$  nodes except node  $i$ . In addition, we define a link state variable  $f_{p_i}$  ( $f_{p_i} \geq 0$ ). If the network is connected, then  $f_{p_i} = 1$ ; otherwise,  $f_{p_i} = 0$ . Topology control aims to prolong the network lifetime by reducing the node power without destroying the overall network connectivity and robustness. By adding parameter  $f_{p_i}$  ( $f_{p_i} \geq 0$ ), it is ensured that the network remains connected after repeated iterations of the game. The  $k_{p_i}$  represents the degree of node  $i$  when the transmitting power is  $p_i$ ;  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  are the weight factors of the utility function and all are positive numbers.  $\overline{E_i(p_i)} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{E_r(j)}{E_0(j) - E_r(j)}$  (node  $j$  means that node  $i$  is a single hop neighbor node at power  $p_i$ , where  $m$  represents the number of one-hop neighbor nodes of node  $i$ ) in equation 4 indicates that more calls to the remaining high-energy nodes participate in the communication link to ensure load balancing [11]. To better balance the load between nodes and improve energy efficiency, the method of measuring income inequality in the field of social science is used to measure the imbalance of energy consumption between nodes in wireless sensor networks using the node and its residual energy as an analogue for group members and their income; the Theil index  $T$  is defined as

$$T = \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{E_r(i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n E_r(j)} \cdot \ln \frac{E_r(i)}{\overline{E_r}} \right).$$

119 The utility function satisfies the properties described in [20]. With the utility function defined, a  
120 game is played with all sensors picking their powers.

### 121 3.2. Model proof

122 We show that the game  $\Gamma = \langle N, S, \{u_i\} \rangle$  with the utility function of each sensor given by (4) is an  
123 ordinal potential game; then, the existence of NEs are guaranteed.

**Theorem 1.** *The game  $\Gamma = \langle N, S, \{u_i\} \rangle$  is an ordinal potential game. The ordinal potential function is given by:*

$$V(p_i, p_{-i}) = \sum_{i \in N} \left\{ f_{p_i} \left( \lambda p_i^{\max} - k_{p_i} p_i + \frac{1}{T+1} \right) + \frac{E_r(i)}{E_0(i) - E_r(i)} + \mu \overline{E_i(p_i)} \right\} \quad (5)$$

**Proof.** We apply the asserted ordinal potential game in (4). First, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta u_i &= u_i(p_i, p_{-i}) - u_i(q_i, p_{-i}) \\ &= f_{p_i} \left( \lambda p_i^{\max} - k_{p_i} p_i + \frac{1}{T+1} \right) + \mu \overline{E_i(p_i)} - f_{q_i} \left( \lambda p_i^{\max} - k_{p_i} q_i + \frac{1}{T+1} \right) - \mu \overline{E_i(q_i)} \\ &= (f_{p_i} - f_{q_i}) \left( \lambda p_i^{\max} + \frac{1}{T+1} \right) + f_{q_i} k_{q_i} q_i - f_{p_i} k_{p_i} p_i + \mu \left( \overline{E_i(p_i)} - \overline{E_i(q_i)} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Similarly:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta V &= V(p_i, p_{-i}) - V(q_i, p_{-i}) \\ &= \sum_{i \in N} \left[ f_{p_i} \left( \lambda p_i^{\max} - k_{p_i} p_i + \frac{1}{T+1} + \mu \overline{E_i(p_i)} \right) \right] \\ &\quad - \sum_{i \in N} \left[ f_{q_i} \left( \lambda p_i^{\max} - k_{p_i} q_i + \frac{1}{T+1} + \mu \overline{E_i(q_i)} \right) \right] \\ &= (f_{p_i} - f_{q_i}) \left( \lambda p_i^{\max} + \frac{1}{T+1} \right) + f_{q_i} k_{q_i} q_i - f_{p_i} k_{p_i} p_i + \mu \left( \overline{E_i(p_i)} - \overline{E_i(q_i)} \right) \\ &\quad + \sum_{j \in N, j \neq i} \left[ \lambda (f_{p_j} - f_{q_j}) p_j^{\max} + \mu \overline{E_j(p_j)} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Thus, we have:

$$\Delta V = \Delta u_i + \sum_{j \in N, j \neq i} \left[ \lambda (f_{p_j} - f_{q_j}) p_j^{\max} + \mu \overline{E_j(p_j)} \right] \quad (8)$$

For node  $i$ , because is monotonic and  $\lambda (f_{p_j} - f_{q_j}) p_j^{\max} + \mu \overline{E_j(p_j)} \geq 0$ , it follows from (6) that:

$$\Delta u_i = \begin{cases} \geq 0 & \text{if } p_i > q_i \text{ and } f_{p_i} > f_{q_i} \\ \leq 0 & \text{if } p_i < q_i \text{ and } f_{p_i} < f_{q_i} \\ > 0 & \text{if } p_i > q_i \text{ and } f_{p_i} = f_{q_i} \\ < 0 & \text{if } p_i < q_i \text{ and } f_{p_i} = f_{q_i} \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

124 Therefore,  $\text{sgn}(\Delta u_i) = \text{sgn}(\Delta V)$ , the function  $V(p_i, p_{-i})$  is the ordinal potential function of the strategy  
125 game, and the strategy game  $\Gamma = \langle N, S, \{u_i\} \rangle$  is the ordinal game.  $\square$

126 **Theorem 2.** *The NE of the topology game model established in this paper is Pareto optimal [16] if the network  
127  $\mathcal{G}_{max}$  is connected.*

128 **Proof.** Due to the limited number of nodes, a node has a limited number of optional power  
129 concentration elements. According to [17], the finite ordinal potential game must converge to the NE.  
130 According to the definition of the network model and the description of the utility function, a node  
131 maximizes the utility function by adjusting its own policy choice. The concrete manifestation is that

132 the node continuously reduces the transmitting power and prolongs the survival time until the power  
133 of all nodes no longer changes; that is, the NE state is reached.

134 When a NE point is reached, if a node reduces its power, network connectivity will be destroyed.  
135 As a result, the remaining nodes must increase their power, thus resulting in lower utility function  
136 values of other nodes and disruption of the NE. Therefore, according to the Pareto optimal definition,  
137 it can be concluded that the NE of the topological control game is Pareto optimal.  $\square$

#### 138 4. Energy-balanced topology control game algorithm

139 In this section, we propose an energy-balanced topology control algorithm in which each sensor  
140 adaptively adjusts its transmit power according to the residual energy.

141 Nodes in EBTG initiate with the maximum power network  $\mathcal{G}_{max}$  and then try to update this  
142 topology iteratively according to their increasing unwillingness. EBTG consists of three phases: the  
143 initialization phase (topological establishment phase), the adaptation phase (power adjustment phase),  
144 and the topology maintenance phase.

##### 145 4.1. Initialization phase

146 Every node in topology control game algorithms that makes a topological decision needs to collect  
147 some network information. In EBTG, the information required by node  $i$  in the topology construction  
148 process is the local topology  $\mathcal{G}_i$ , which is an induced subgraph of  $\mathcal{G}_{max}$ . Every vertex of the directed  
149 graph corresponds to a node in WSN.

150 To obtain this decision information, node  $i$  initializes its transmit power with maximum power  
151  $p_{max}$  and discovers its neighbor nodes by broadcasting the "Hello" Message and collecting the responses  
152 provided by the receivers at  $p_{max}$ . The message contains information such as node ID and remaining  
153 energy. By receiving and returning the message, a series of information, such as ID, transmit power  
154 and residual energy of its neighbor nodes, is learned and the maximum reachable neighbor set  $N_{max}(i)$   
155 of node  $i$  and its maximum uplink set  $L_{max}(i)$  is determined. By establishing these sets, the largest  
156 global network topology view  $\mathcal{G}_{max}$  can be learned, thereby establishing a basis for subsequent routing  
157 decisions.

##### 158 4.2. Adaptation phase

159 Node  $i$  in the adaptation phase determines its transmit power according to its current residual  
160 energy  $E_r(i)$ , the current transmitting power and the topology-related information collected during  
161 the initialization phase. The procedure of power adaptation is shown in Algorithm 1.

**Algorithm 1** EBTG Power Adaptation**initialization**

- 1: node  $i$  broadcasts "hello" message at  $p_i^{max}$
- 2: determine the neighbor set  $N_{max}(i)$
- 3: Determine the optional power set  $P_i$  for node  $i$ , descending sort
- 4: Broadcast optional power set  $P_i$

**Power adjustment**

- 1:  $P_i = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k\}$ , descending sort
- 2: while  $p_i$  is not NE
- 3:     for  $i = 1, i \leq N, i++$
- 4:         choose power according to  $p_i^* = \arg \max_{p_i \in P_i} u_i(p_i, p_{-i})$
- 5:         if  $u_i^*(p_i^*, p_{-i}) \geq u_i(p_i, p_{-i})$
- 6:             if  $p_i$  is NE
- 7:                  $p_i = p_i^*$ , update  $p_i$
- 8:             end if
- 9:         end if
- 10:     end for
- 11:     broadcast a "hello" message including the new power setting  $p_i$  at  $p_i^{max}$
- 12: end while

162 This paper adjusts the network topology structure through the power control method, sets the  
 163 transmission power of the node as the optimal transmission power, and thus obtains the optimized  
 164 network topological structure.

165 In the power adaptation phase, we first need to sort the node's strategy set  $P_i = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k\}$   
 166 in descending order. The minimum available transmit power  $p_i^{min}$  of node  $i$  can be calculated using  
 167 the free-space model proposed in [21]. Pseudocode is shown in Algorithm 1.

168 The power adjustment sequence of the EBTG algorithm is based on the node ID, as shown in  
 169 Fig. 1, the transmit power of one node is adjusted for each round, and the remaining power of  
 170 the node is unchanged. To ensure convergence to the NE, this algorithm uses the better response  
 171 strategy update scheme proved in [17], which converges to the NE in the finite ordinal potential game.  
 172 Given the power  $p_{-i}$  of other participants, the optimal response of node  $i$  is  $r_i(p_{-i}) = \min(p_i^{max}, p_i^*)$ ,  
 173 which has  $p_i^* = \arg \max_{p_i \in P_i} u_i(p_i, p_{-i})$ . During the game, when the node selects a power lower than the  
 174 current transmit power for communication, it is observed whether the corresponding integrated utility  
 175 function value increases. If it is larger, it indicates that the lower power is more suitable for use as the  
 176 transmit power; otherwise, the node keeps current transmit power unchanged.

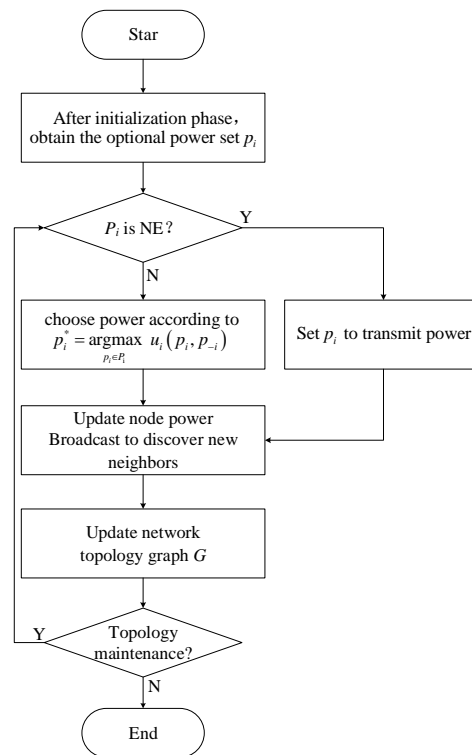


Figure 1. Flowchart of Power Adaptation

177 When the power of the node is changed, the communication radius, the neighboring node and  
 178 its related links will change, which leads to the change of the network topology. As shown in Fig.  
 179 2, when the transmit power of node  $i$  increases, node  $j$  will be included in its communication range;  
 180 then, the nearest neighbor node of node  $i$  is changed from the original node  $k$  to the current node  $j$ .  
 181 Therefore, node  $j$  can reduce its transmit power appropriately under the precondition of guaranteeing  
 182 full network connectivity.

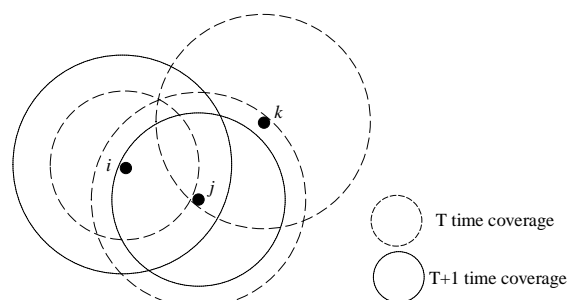


Figure 2. Diagram of Power Adaptation

#### 183 4.3. Topology maintenance phase

184 As time flows, the energy consumption of the nodes may become more unbalanced. Therefore,  
 185 energy consumption between nodes will become unbalanced. In consideration of node failure or  
 186 death, network topology maintenance must be performed dynamically. For the topology maintenance



187 phase, we designed an event-triggered approach that adaptively regenerates a more balanced network  
188 topology.

189 The power game process can be implemented by comparing the residual energy of nodes with  
190 the energy threshold or by setting the period to balance the load of nodes and prolong the network  
191 lifetime. Pseudocode is shown in Algorithm 2.

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### Algorithm 2 EBTG Topology Maintenance

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#### initialization

- 1: Receiving neighbor information
  - 2: if  $t \geq T$  ( $T$  is the set time threshold)
  - 3:     Replay the game of power adaptation
  - 4: end if
- 

192 **Theorem 3.** *If the  $\mathcal{G}_{max}$  is a connected network, the EBTG algorithm converges to the NE state that can*  
193 *maintain the connectivity of network  $\mathcal{G}_{max}$ .*

**Proof.** It is known from Theorem 1 that the topological control game model constructed in this paper is an ordinal potential game. In the EBTG algorithm proposed in this paper, the node increases its benefit function value by adjusting the choice of strategy (i.e., reducing the power value of the node) until the selection strategies of all nodes are not changed. Obviously, this state is a NE. It is assumed that the node  $i$  obtains greater benefits in the power  $p_i < p_i^*$ , and the network is disconnected when the power  $p_{-i}$  of the other nodes is unchanged; therefore:

$$u_i(p_i, p_{-i}) = \frac{E_r(i)}{E_0(i) - E_r(i)} + \mu \overline{E_i(p_i)} > \lambda p_i^{max} - k_{p_i} p_i^* + \frac{E_r(i)}{E_0(i) - E_r(i)} + \mu \overline{E_i(p_i^*)} \quad (10)$$

In addition, then:

$$\mu \overline{E_i(p_i)} > \lambda p_i^{max} - k_{p_i} p_i^* + \mu \overline{E_i(p_i^*)} \quad (11)$$

194 Obviously, equation (10) is not tenable, thus obtaining the connected network at each round of  
195 the game execution of the EBTG algorithm.  $\square$

## 196 5. Simulation results analysis

197 In this section, computer simulations are provided to illustrate the proposed algorithms. This  
198 paper uses MATLAB R2016a as a simulation tool to simulate the EBTG algorithm. In addition, a  
199 comparison with the DIA [10], MLPT [11] and DEBA [15] algorithms is conducted with regard to node  
200 degree, node transmit power, node hop number and node residual energy. The experiment assumes  
201 that all nodes are randomly deployed and cannot be moved, and each sensor sends a packet to other  
202 sensors per second, i.e., each sensor transmits  $n-1$  packets per second, the packet size is 1024 bytes,  
203 and the transmission rate is 106 bits/s. The remaining emulation parameters are shown in Table 1:

**Table 1.** Experimental parameter

Parameter name	Parameter size
Monitoring area	$150m \times 150m$
Communication radius	50m
Node initial energy	50J
Wavelength $\lambda$	0.1224m
Receiving threshold	$7 \times 10^{-10}w$
Transmit antenna gain $G_t$	1
Receive antenna gain $G_r$	1
System loss $L$	1

204 First, weight factor  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  in the utility function must be determined; the experiment randomly  
 205 distributes 50 nodes in the target region, as shown in Fig. 3.

206 For  $\mu = 1$ , the influence of  $\lambda$  on the network topology performance is considered in terms of the  
 207 average transmit power, the average node degree between nodes, the average residual energy of the  
 208 adjacent node and the average hop number of the shortest path between nodes.

209 Fig. 3(a) indicates that the average transmit power of the node decreases as  $\lambda$  increases. Fig. 3(b)  
 210 indicates that the residual energy of the neighboring node decreases as  $\lambda$  increases. Fig. 3(c) indicates  
 211 that the average node degree of the network decreases as  $\lambda$  increases, but tends to stabilize after  
 212  $\lambda \geq 2$ . Fig. 3(d) indicates that the average hop number of the shortest path between nodes increases  
 213 as  $\lambda$  increases. The changes after  $\lambda \geq 2$  also tended to stabilize. From the general theory of network  
 214 topology, it can be seen that the topology of the network is perfect when the transmit power of the  
 215 nodes is low, while there is a moderate node degree and average hop number. By comprehensively  
 216 considering node computing power and network performance [22], this paper sets  $\lambda = 4$  and  $\mu = 1$ .

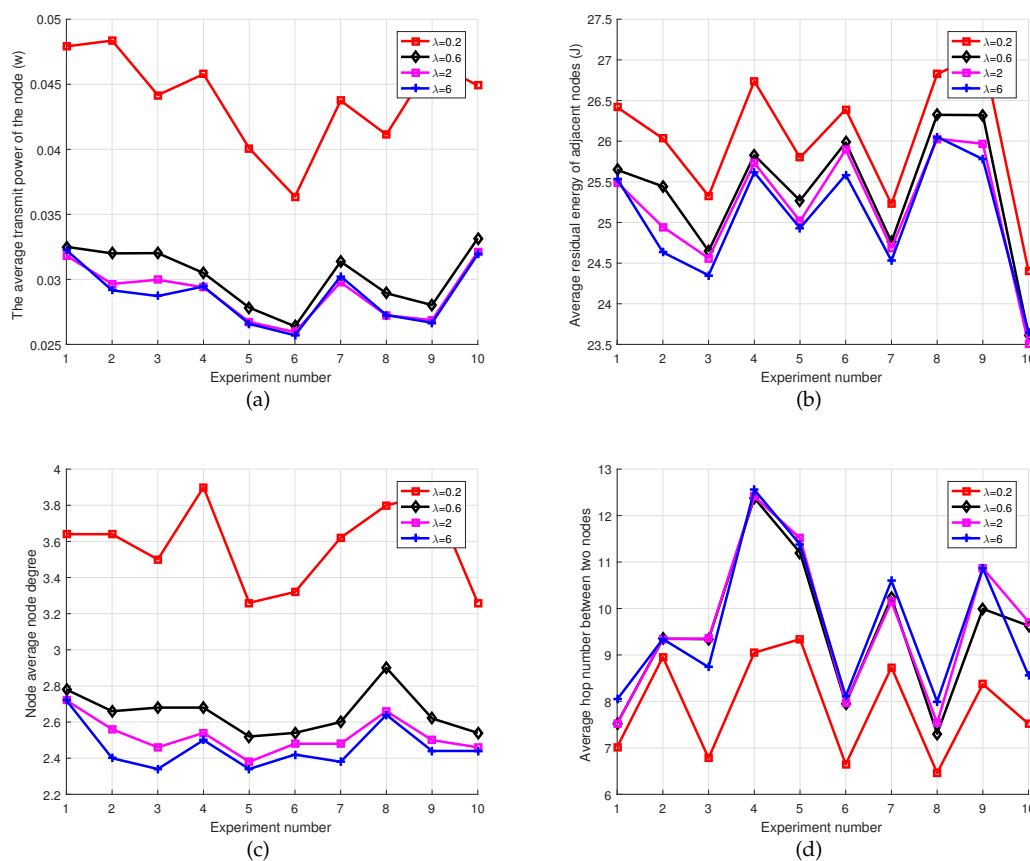
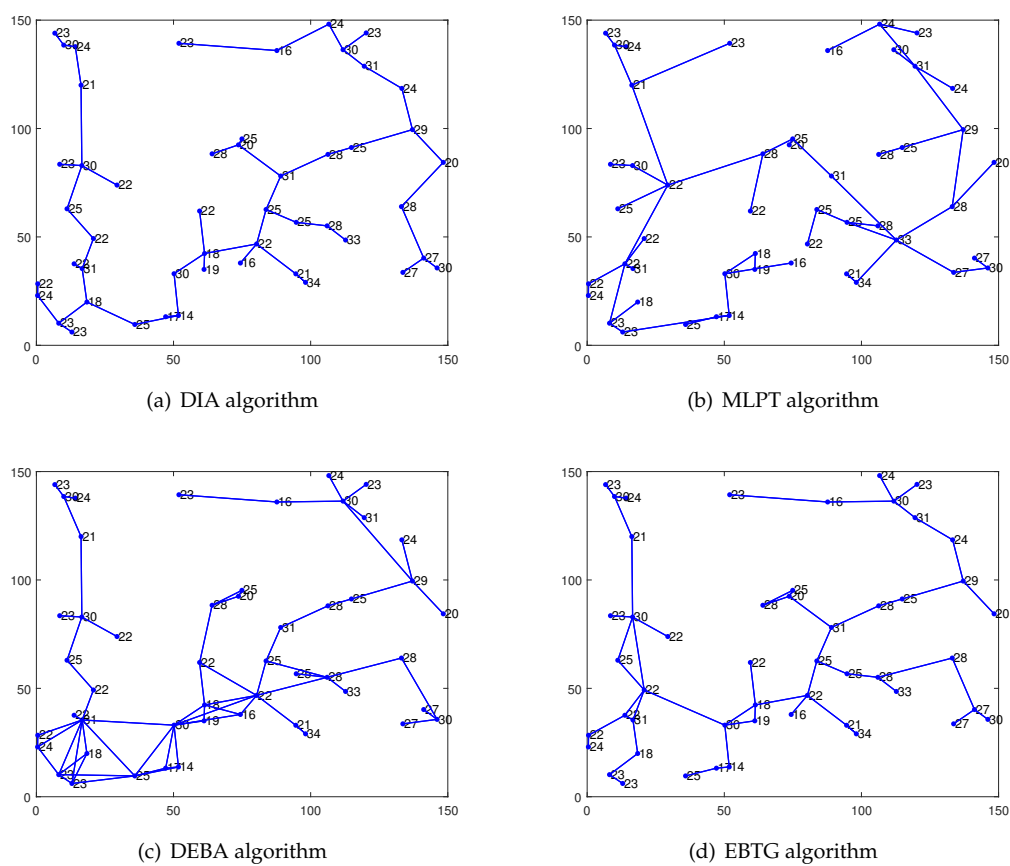


Figure 3. The impact of  $\lambda$  on network performance

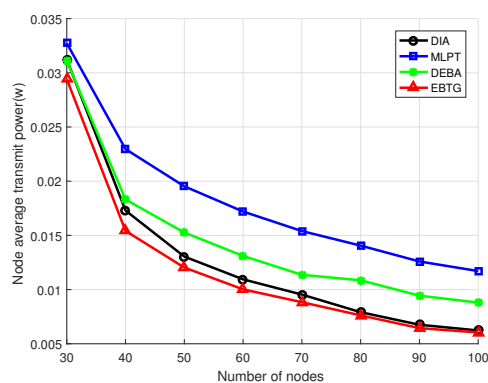
217 Fig. 4 shows the network topology diagram of the four algorithms, i.e., DIA, MLPT, DEBA and  
 218 EBTG. It can be seen that the network topology built by the DIA algorithm has a large load and low  
 219 residual energy (the nodes are marked out). The DEBA algorithm has a higher node degree and more  
 220 redundant nodes, which lead to faster energy consumption. Compared to the other two algorithms,  
 221 the MLPT and EBTG algorithms have lower node degrees and fewer redundant nodes. The general  
 222 theory of network topology shows that the EBTG algorithm has moderate nodes and redundant nodes;  
 223 therefore, its network connectivity and robustness are better than those of the other three algorithms,  
 224 which can efficiently balance the load between nodes to prolong network lifetime.



**Figure 4.** Network topology comparison chart

225 To make a clearer comparison of the four algorithms, this paper conducted 8 groups of  
 226 experiments. The specific experimental parameters are set as shown in Table 1, where the number  
 227 of nodes participating in the experiment is increased from 30 to 100 and the algorithm is compared  
 228 by calculating the node transmit power of the four algorithms, the hops of the shortest link between  
 229 nodes and the average value of the four parameters of the node degree.

230 Fig. 5 is a comparison diagram of the transmission power between nodes. It can be observed  
 231 from the figure that the transmission power of a node decreases as the number of nodes increases. The  
 232 EBTG algorithm's node average transmit power is lower than the DIA, MLPT and DEBA algorithms,  
 233 which can ensure that the EBTG algorithm can establish network topology connections with lower  
 234 power, which is conducive to extending the network lifetime.



**Figure 5.** Node average transmit power

235 Fig. 6 shows the hop count comparison of the shortest link between nodes. The average hop count  
 236 of the EBTG algorithm is higher than that of the MLPT algorithm, but it is still lower than the DIA and  
 237 DEBA algorithms. The MLPT algorithm has higher node transmit power and greater communication  
 238 coverage, and so its average link hop count is lower. Since the EBTG algorithm operates at lower power  
 239 and the communication radius is smaller, the average hop count of the link increases. However, the  
 240 EBTG algorithm still obtains fewer link hops than the DIA and DEBA algorithms when the transmit  
 241 power is lower than the DIA algorithm.

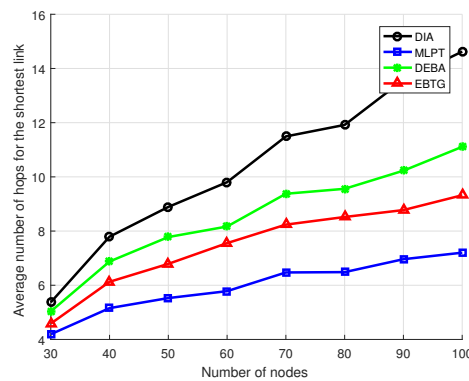


Figure 6. Average number of hops for the shortest link

242 Fig. 7 shows a comparison of node degrees for the four algorithms. Because nodes with more  
 243 energy remaining in the EBTG algorithm are more active in node communication, to obtain a more  
 244 balanced load to prolong the life cycle of the network, the node degree is higher than that of the  
 245 DIA algorithm but lower than that of the DEBA and MLPT algorithms. The moderate node degree  
 246 of the EBTG algorithm does occupy too much of the energy resources and obtains relatively good  
 247 connectivity and robustness, while having fewer redundant nodes can achieve better energy efficiency,  
 248 improve channel multiplexing and reduce interference.

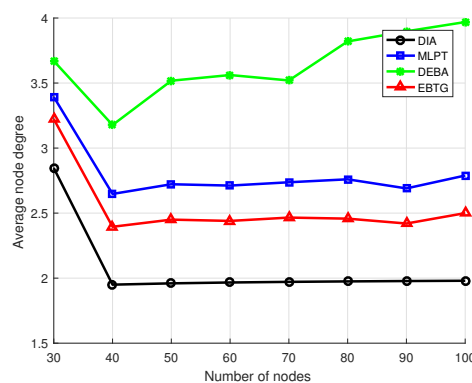


Figure 7. Average node degree

249 Fig. 8 compares the standard deviations of the node residual energy. It can be seen that the  
 250 variance of the EBTG algorithm changes slowly. In the network topology constructed by the DIA,  
 251 MLPT, and DEBA algorithms, the load of some nodes is too high, which affects the network lifetime. If  
 252 these heavily loaded nodes die prematurely, they will also have a greater impact on the connectivity and  
 253 robustness of the network. The DIA algorithm overemphasizes that reducing the node transmit power  
 254 makes the network energy consumption uneven; the MLPT algorithm does not consider the node's  
 255 residual energy, resulting in poor performance of its energy balance; the DEBA algorithm focuses on  
 256 energy balance while ignoring the energy efficiency, which leads to the growth of the residual energy  
 257 standard deviation; the rising trend of the EBTG algorithm is the most gradual. The EBTG algorithm

not only considers the remaining energy of the node but also transfers the data forwarding task to nodes with more residual energy, effectively balancing the load of the entire network and improving energy efficiency.

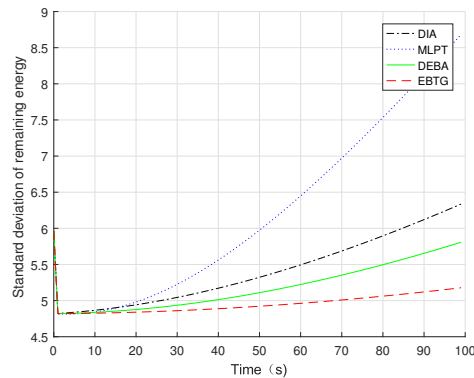


Figure 8. Standard deviation of node residual energy

Fig. 9 is a network lifetime comparison chart. Because topology control is mainly concerned with energy, prolonging the network life cycle is an important index for evaluating the topology control algorithm. The graph shows that the network lifetime of the EBTG algorithm is the longest because the EBTG algorithm reduces the transmit power of the node, expertly balances the load between nodes and improves the energy efficiency; therefore, its network lifetime is much higher than that of the networks constructed using the DIA, MLPT and DEBA algorithms.

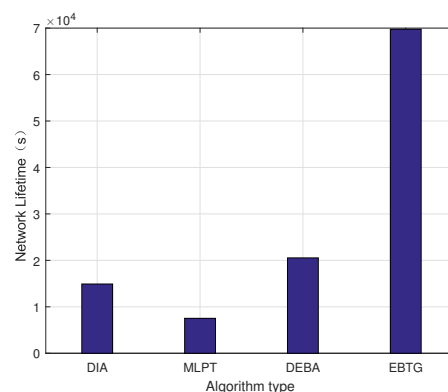


Figure 9. Network lifetime

## 6. Conclusions

Sensors in wireless sensor networks have been restricted to local communications and make topological decisions selfishly, and the unbalanced energy consumption between nodes is likely to shorten the network lifetime.

Based on the theory of potential games and the Theil index, this paper designs an optimized utility function that considers the residual energy of nodes, the transmitting power of nodes and the connectivity of the network. On this basis, a topological game model is constructed. Additionally, it is proved that a Pareto-optimal NE exists in this model. Thus, an energy-balanced WSN distributed topology game algorithm called EBTG is proposed. From the simulation results, it can be concluded that the EBTG algorithm can effectively reduce the power of the transmitting node, balance the load between nodes, improve the energy efficiency of the network and prolong the network lifetime to ensure network connectivity and robustness. In our future work, we will study the operation of

279 this algorithm in the real-world wireless communication environment to improve the reliability and  
280 stability of the algorithm.

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282 writing (original draft)—Y.D.; writing, review, and editing—Z.W.

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