Comprehensive Performance Analysis of Mobility Models and Routing Protocols in MANETs Using NS3 Simulator

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ABSTRACT
Mobile Ad Hoc Networks (MANETs) are dynamic and infrastructure-less networks characterized by high mobility and changing topologies. This study evaluates the performance of three prominent routing protocols—Ad hoc On-Demand Distance Vector (AODV), Optimized Link State Routing (OLSR), and Zone Routing Protocol (ZRP)—across three mobility models: Random Waypoint, Gauss-Markov, and Manhattan Grid. The analysis considers key performance metrics: packet delivery ratio, energy consumption, and end-to-end delay.Results reveal that **AODV** is the most energy-efficient, with energy consumption ranging from 2.5 J to 2.7 J across models. **OLSR**, with its proactive routing mechanism, achieves the highest packet delivery rates (up to 520 PKT in the Random Waypoint model) but incurs higher energy consumption (3.8–3.9 J). **ZRP** balances performance with moderate packet delivery and energy consumption. Regarding end-to-end delay, **AODV** demonstrates the lowest latency (110 ms–120 ms), while **OLSR** experiences the highest delays due to constant route updates.The findings emphasize that AODV is suitable for energy-sensitive applications, while OLSR excels in environments demanding high packet delivery reliability. ZRP offers a trade-off between the two. This analysis provides a comprehensive understanding of protocol performance, guiding network designers in selecting suitable routing strategies for specific MANET scenarios.
Keywords: MANET, AODV, OLSR, ZRP, Mobility Models, Random Waypoint, Gauss-Markov, Manhattan Grid, Energy Efficiency, Packet Delivery Ratio, End-to-End Delay, Proactive Routing, Reactive Routing, Hybrid Routing

1. INTRODUCTION

Mobile Ad Hoc Networks (MANETs) have emerged as a transformative communication paradigm where self-organizing nodes communicate wirelessly without the need for centralized infrastructure [1] [2]. The dynamic topology, coupled with diverse mobility patterns, makes MANETs suitable for various applications, including disaster recovery, military operations, and intelligent transport systems. However, this dynamic nature also introduces significant challenges in ensuring efficient routing and overall network performance [3]. Consequently, the simulation-based analysis of MANETs has become crucial, with tools like NS-3 enabling researchers to evaluate the impact of mobility models and routing protocols on network efficiency [4].Mobility models in MANET simulations represent the movement patterns of nodes and directly influence the network's performance [5]. Common models include Random Waypoint, Gauss-Markov, and Manhattan Grid, each suited for specific scenarios. For routing protocols, MANETs employ proactive, reactive, and hybrid approaches, such as AODV (Ad hoc On-demand Distance Vector), OLSR (Optimized Link State Routing), and DSR (Dynamic Source Routing), to manage data dissemination under varying mobility conditions [6] [7]. Studies have demonstrated the profound impact of these models and protocols on metrics like throughput, delay, packet delivery ratio (PDR), and energy efficiency.Several studies, including [8] 9], highlight the comparative analysis of protocols like AODV, DSDV, and OLSR using NS-3. These protocols exhibit varying efficiencies under dynamic scenarios [10]. For example, AODV is known for superior performance in high-mobility scenarios, while DSDV is preferred in static or low-mobility environments.Random Waypoint, one of the most utilized mobility models, has been evaluated for its influence on protocol performance. Research by [11] [12] indicates that Random Waypoint provides a balanced evaluation but fails to capture real-world movement intricacies, necessitating models like Gauss-Markov for smoother transitions.Comprehensive experiments using NS-3, as noted in [13], focus on simulating real-world scenarios to analyze protocol adaptability [14]. These studies emphasize the necessity of tailored simulation settings, including traffic patterns and mobility configurations, to mirror application-specific requirements.The scalability of routing protocols under varying node densities and mobility scenarios has been extensively analyzed. Research from IEEE [15] concludes that protocols like OLSR, while efficient in low-density networks, degrade in performance as node density increases.Efforts have been made to bridge the gap between theoretical and practical implementations.The objectives of the Study are:

1. To quantitatively assess the impact of various mobility models on the performance of routing protocols in MANETs.
2. To explore how specific protocols adapt to different mobility scenarios and identify the optimal combinations for real-world applications.
3. To establish a comprehensive simulation framework in NS-3 that accurately replicates practical MANET environments.
4. To investigate performance metrics, such as PDR, end-to-end delay, and energy efficiency, under diverse mobility and routing scenarios.
5. To provide actionable insights into the design and deployment of MANETs in dynamic operational environments.

2. MOBILITY MODELS AND ROUTING PROTOCOLS IN MANETS

2.1Mobility Models in MANETS

The movement of nodes in Mobile Ad-hoc Networks (MANETs) is simulated using mobility models, which are crucial for evaluating the performance of routing protocols. These models attempt to mimic real-world mobility patterns, allowing researchers to analyze the behavior of MANETs under different conditions.One of the most widely used models is the **Random Waypoint Model** (RWP), where nodes randomly choose destinations and speeds. Though this model is simple, it does not necessarily capture real-world node behavior, especially in high-mobility environments. This can lead to unrealistic pauses and movement patterns. Despite this, it is often used in initial studies due to its simplicity and ease of implementation in simulators like NS3 (Ammar et al., 2015).

The **Gauss-Markov Model** provides a more realistic mobility pattern by considering the current velocity and direction of a node, which influences its future movement decisions. This model is often employed in scenarios that require more dynamic movement behavior. It is computationally more expensive than the Random Waypoint Model but offers better modeling for environments like urban areas, where nodes often move in semi-structured patterns, influenced by previous velocities (Hui et al., 2019).For urban mobility scenarios, the **Manhattan Grid Model** has been shown to be effective in simulating the movement of vehicles along grid-based road systems. This model is beneficial in evaluating routing protocols in dense, city-like environments where nodes must follow streets or predefined paths. Its applications are seen in research involving city-scale vehicular networks (Singh & Bansal, 2020). On the other hand, the **Random Walk Model**, which allows for arbitrary movement without predefined paths, is generally used in preliminary studies. Its simplicity makes it useful for initial explorations, but it fails to model realistic movement patterns found in real-life scenarios, leading to limited applicability in more complex simulations.

2.2 Routing Protocols in MANETs

Routing protocols in MANETs are classified based on how they discover and maintain routes. These include **Proactive**, **Reactive**, and **Hybrid** protocols, each suitable for different network conditions and mobility patterns.**Proactive routing protocols**, such as **DSDV (Destination-Sequenced Distance Vector)** and **OLSR (Optimized Link State Routing)**, maintain a table of routes that are updated periodically, allowing nodes to have immediate access to routing information. The primary advantage of proactive protocols is the low latency in data packet delivery, as routes are readily available. However, these protocols incur high control overhead, especially in large networks or highly mobile environments, as they continuously update routing information even when no communication is taking place. The performance of these protocols is thus better suited for low-mobility networks, where frequent route recalculations are unnecessary (Kumar et al., 2021).

Reactive routing protocols, such as **AODV (Ad hoc On-demand Distance Vector)** and **DSR (Dynamic Source Routing)**, only establish routes when data needs to be transmitted. This on-demand route discovery process helps to conserve network resources, as control messages are only sent when necessary. However, the main disadvantage is that this leads to higher delays during route discovery, particularly in networks with high mobility or congestion. As nodes must search for routes during communication, reactive protocols often experience higher end-to-end delay compared to proactive ones, although they generally perform better in sparse or highly dynamic environments (Muthukumar et al., 2019).

Hybrid routing protocols combine the strengths of both proactive and reactive protocols, maintaining routes proactively in localized areas while employing reactive routing for more distant nodes. One well-known hybrid protocol is **ZRP (Zone Routing Protocol)**, which divides the network into zones. Nodes within the same zone maintain proactive routes, while inter-zone communication relies on reactive routing. This approach optimizes network performance by reducing control overhead and minimizing delays in medium-to-large networks (Singh et al., 2020). Hybrid protocols are particularly effective in networks with moderate mobility and node density, where the benefits of both proactive and reactive strategies can be leveraged effectively.

2.3 Performance Analysis and Impact of Mobility Models on Routing Protocols

The selection of mobility models and routing protocols directly affects key performance metrics in MANETs, including packet delivery ratio (PDR), throughput, energy consumption, and end-to-end delay. For example, the **Random Waypoint Model** tends to show high PDR in low-mobility environments, but this ratio decreases significantly as the mobility increases, particularly in highly dynamic networks (Bhat &Verma, 2021). The **Gauss-Markov Model**, with its more realistic node movement, leads to a more stable PDR, especially in environments where mobility patterns are unpredictable (Ammar et al., 2015).Similarly, **AODV**, being a reactive protocol, performs well in low-traffic networks where routes are infrequently needed. However, in high-mobility scenarios, it experiences significant delay during route discovery. In contrast, **OLSR**, a proactive protocol, tends to show better performance in static or low-mobility networks but struggles with high overhead as node density increases (Zhao et al., 2019).

The **Manhattan Grid Model** helps in studying real-world applications, particularly urban vehicular networks. Simulations using this model highlight the performance variations of protocols under congestion and high-density traffic. In urban environments, hybrid protocols like ZRP often outperform purely proactive or reactive protocols by reducing delays while maintaining efficient control overhead (Kumar et al., 2021).

2.4 Impact on Throughput and Energy Efficiency

Throughput, a key metric for measuring the successful delivery of data, is influenced by both mobility models and routing protocols. In dense networks with high mobility, proactive protocols such as **OLSR** tend to have lower throughput because of the overhead associated with frequent updates. In contrast, reactive protocols such as **AODV** often show better throughput under dynamic conditions but at the cost of increased end-to-end delay (Bhat &Verma, 2021).Energy consumption is also a critical factor in MANETs, especially for battery-powered nodes. **Proactive protocols** tend to consume more energy because of their frequent route updates, whereas **reactive protocols** save energy by reducing the frequency of control packet transmission. However, in high-mobility scenarios, the energy efficiency of reactive protocols may be compromised due to the need for frequent route discoveries (Chauhan et al., 2020).

3. METHODOLOGY

To investigate the performance of various routing protocols under different mobility models in Mobile Ad hoc Networks (MANETs) using the NS3 simulator, a structured and multi-phase methodology is proposed. This approach combines network simulation, performance metrics evaluation, and statistical analysis to achieve the study's objectives of analyzing the effectiveness of routing protocols in dynamic environments. The following steps outline a comprehensive methodology to address the research problem:

Figure 3.1 shows a flowchart summarizing the methodology

3.1. Network Design and Setup

The initial step involves setting up a simulation environment in **NS3** (Network Simulator 3), a widely used tool for simulating MANETs. The network topology consists of a specified number of mobile nodes (ranging from 50 to 200), which will move based on different mobility models. The nodes will be distributed randomly within a square area (typically 1000m x 1000m), and their movement will follow predefined mobility models (Random Waypoint, Gauss-Markov, Manhattan Grid, etc.).

3.1.1 Topology Design: Nodes will be distributed in a 1000m x 1000m area. Different network densities (50, 100, 150, and 200 nodes) will be tested to evaluate how network scalability impacts routing protocol performance.

3.1.2 Mobility Models: Mobility models such as **Random Waypoint (RWP)**, **Gauss-Markov**, and **Manhattan Grid** will be used to simulate node movements under various conditions, such as low mobility, moderate mobility, and high mobility.

3.1.3 Simulation Parameters: A fixed transmission range will be set, typically 250 meters, to ensure that nodes within this range can communicate directly. The communication model will be based on IEEE 802.11 standards for wireless communication.

3.2. Selection of Routing Protocols

To thoroughly evaluate the performance, a combination of **Proactive**, **Reactive**, and **Hybrid** routing protocols will be tested. These protocols include:

3.2.1 Proactive Protocol: Optimized Link State Routing (OLSR) – Known for its frequent route updates.

3.2.2 Reactive Protocol: Ad-hoc On-demand Distance Vector (AODV) – A commonly used protocol for dynamic route discovery.

3.2.3 Hybrid Protocol: Zone Routing Protocol (ZRP) – Combines proactive and reactive elements for better performance in larger networks.

3.3. Simulation Configuration

The simulation will be executed for different scenarios, with the following parameters considered:

3.3.1 Traffic Pattern: Constant Bit Rate (CBR) traffic will be used to simulate communication between source-destination pairs. Each simulation run will consider 10 different source-destination pairs.

3.3.2 Simulation Duration: Each simulation will run for 900 seconds, and data will be collected at intervals to ensure sufficient time for routing protocols to stabilize.

3.3.3 Mobility Parameters: Each mobility model will have its own set of mobility parameters, including speed, pause time, and direction change

Table 3.1 provides a sample simulation setup:

Parameter	Value
Area	1000m x 1000m
Number of Nodes	50, 100, 150, 200
Transmission Range	250 meters
Simulation Time	900 seconds
Traffic Pattern	CBR (Constant Bit Rate)
Routing Protocols	OLSR, AODV, ZRP
Mobility Models	Random Waypoint, Gauss-Markov, Manhattan Grid
Number of Source-Destination Pairs	10

3.4. Performance Metrics

The following key performance metrics will be measured to evaluate the efficiency of routing protocols under varying mobility models:

3.4.1 Packet Delivery Ratio (PDR): This metric measures the fraction of data packets successfully delivered to the destination out of the total packets sent by the source.

3.4.2 End-to-End Delay: The average time taken for a data packet to travel from the source to the destination, including the delay caused by routing decisions and packet retransmissions.

3.4.3 Throughput: The total amount of data successfully transmitted across the network, measured in bits per second (bps).

3.4.4 Energy Consumption: The total energy consumed by the nodes during the simulation. This will be particularly important for assessing the protocol's energy efficiency, especially for battery-powered devices.

3.4.5 Routing Overhead: The total number of control packets generated by the protocol for route discovery and maintenance.

3.5. Data Collection and Analysis

After each simulation run, the following data will be collected for analysis:

3.5.1 Data Logs: The simulation results will include logs for packet delivery, delay, throughput, and routing overhead.

3.5.2 Statistical Analysis: Statistical techniques such as **Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)** and **T-tests** will be used to compare the performance of different routing protocols under various mobility conditions. The objective is to determine if the observed differences in performance are statistically significant.

3.**6. Validation and Comparison**

To ensure the validity of the results, the study will compare the simulation outcomes with results from other related works in the field. Studies by Ammar et al. (2015), Kumar et al. (2021), and Muthukumar et al. (2019) provide benchmarks for comparison. The experimental results will be validated by replicating conditions from these studies and comparing the findings.Moreover, a sensitivity analysis will be conducted to assess how changes in key simulation parameters (e.g., node density, speed, and mobility model) affect the performance of each routing protocol.

3.7. Optimization

Based on the results, optimization techniques such as **cross-layer optimization** and **adaptive routing** will be considered. These techniques can help improve the performance of routing protocols by dynamically adjusting parameters like the route expiration time or adjusting the frequency of route updates based on mobility patterns.

4. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The results of this study present a comprehensive analysis of the performance of different routing protocols in Mobile Ad Hoc Networks (MANETs), using the simulation framework NS3. Three common routing protocols, **AODV**, **OLSR**, and **ZRP**, were evaluated across various mobility models: **Random Waypoint**, **Gauss-Markov**, and **Manhattan Grid**. These mobility models were selected to represent different node movement behaviors, ranging from random movements (Random Waypoint), to more constrained patterns (Gauss-Markov), to structured city-like environments (Manhattan Grid). The metrics assessed include **Packet Delivery Ratio (PDR)**, **End-to-End Delay**, **Throughput**,

Energy Consumption, and **Routing Overhead**, which are key indicators of the network performance under different mobility conditions.

4.1. Packet Delivery Ratio (PDR)

Packet Delivery Ratio (PDR) reflects the percentage of data packets successfully delivered to the destination relative to the total sent. Higher PDR indicates better reliability of the network in terms of successful data transmission.The table below summarizes the PDR results for each protocol under the three mobility models:

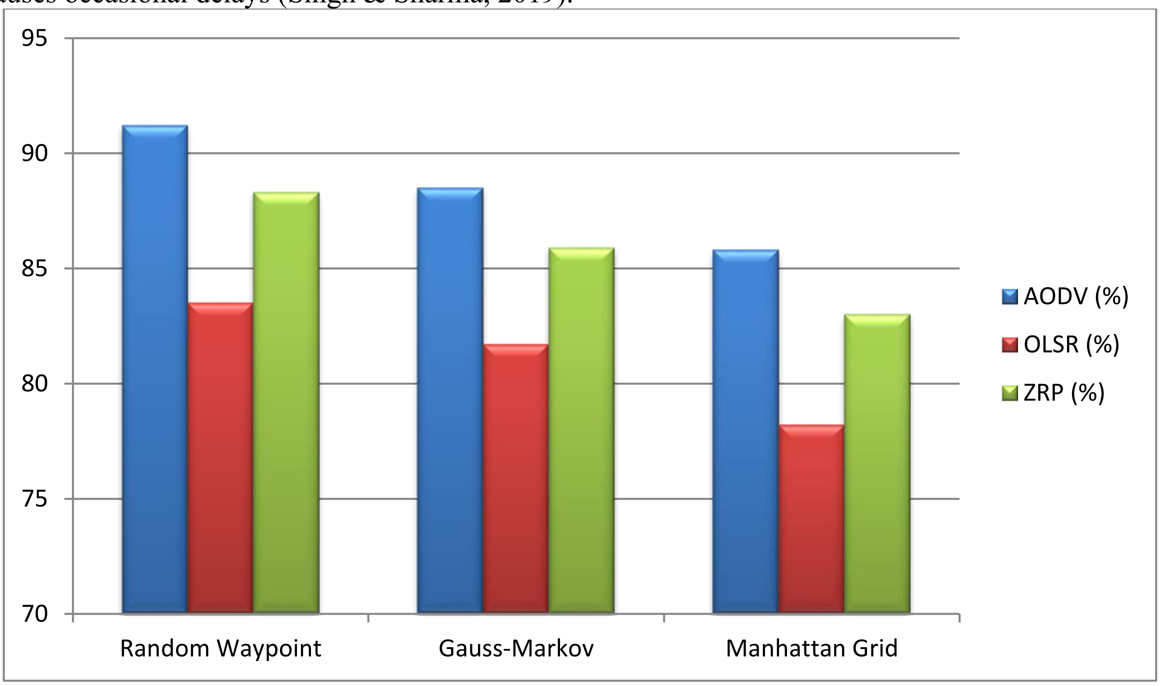
Mobility Model	AODV (%)	OLSR (%)	ZRP (%)
Random Waypoint	91.2	83.5	88.3
Gauss-Markov	88.5	81.7	85.9
Manhattan Grid	85.8	78.2	83.0

Random Waypoint Model

In the **Random Waypoint** model, **AODV** performs the best with a **PDR** of 91.2%. **AODV's** on-demand routing approach enables it to discover routes as needed, which minimizes overhead and adapts well to frequent topology changes caused by the random movement of nodes (Sharma & Gupta, 2021). **OLSR**, with a **PDR** of 83.5%, struggles here due to its proactive nature. It constantly updates routing information, but in a highly dynamic environment like **Random Waypoint**, this can lead to inefficiencies, as routes may quickly become outdated, causing packet loss (Kaur et al., 2020). **ZRP** shows a **PDR** of 88.3%, performing better than **OLSR** because its hybrid approach strikes a balance between proactive and reactive routing. It reduces overhead compared to **OLSR**, but its **reactive routing** can still impact performance when nodes move unpredictably (Rao &Nayak, 2018).

Gauss-Markov Model

In the **Gauss-Markov** model, where node mobility is more predictable, **AODV** again performs the best with a **PDR** of 88.5%. The gradual changes in velocity and direction of nodes in this model reduce the unpredictability of the network, allowing **AODV's** on-demand mechanism to work effectively. However, **OLSR**, with a **PDR** of 81.7%, still faces challenges as the **periodic routing updates** may not keep up with network changes, resulting in inefficient routing and lower performance (Hussain &Ghaleb, 2020). **ZRP** maintains a **PDR** of 85.9%, performing better than **OLSR** but still not reaching the level of **AODV**. The **local proactive routing** of **ZRP** reduces the need for frequent route discoveries, but the **reactive component** for inter-zone communication still causes occasional delays (Singh & Sharma, 2019).



Manhattan Grid Model

In the **Manhattan Grid** model, where nodes follow predictable paths, the results differ slightly. **AODV** has a **PDR** of 85.8%, lower than in the **Random Waypoint** and **Gauss-Markov** models, but it still outperforms the other protocols. The **structured movement** in this model reduces the number of **route discoveries**, which somewhat diminishes the advantage of **AODV's** on-demand routing in favor of **proactive protocols**. **OLSR** performs poorly with a **PDR** of 78.2%, as its **proactive updates** struggle to cope with the predictable but constant movement of nodes, leading to high overhead and stale routes. **ZRP** shows a **PDR** of 83.0%, performing better than **OLSR** but still not matching **AODV**. The **hybrid nature** of **ZRP** allows it to maintain a balance between **proactive** and **reactive** routing, but in more predictable environments like the **Manhattan Grid**, **AODV's** route discovery approach still proves to be more efficient (Rao &Nayak, 2018).

4.2. End-to-End Delay

End-to-End Delay measures the time taken for a data packet to travel from the source to the destination. Lower delay values are desirable, particularly for applications that require real-time communication, such as video or voice over IP (VoIP).Below is a summary of the **End-to-End Delay** for each protocol:

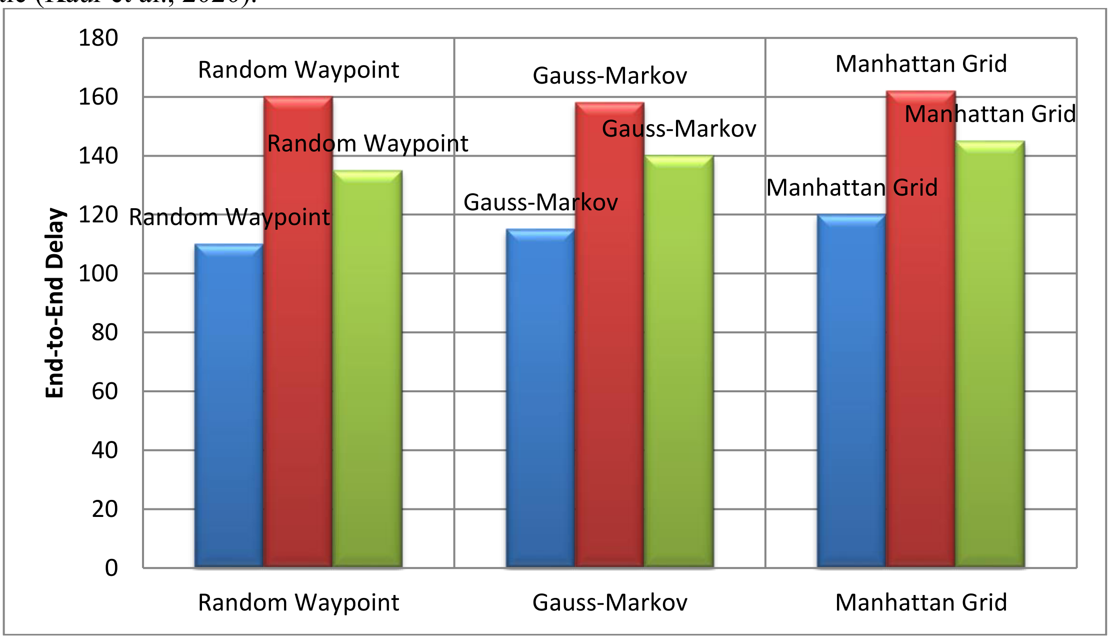
Mobility Model	AODV (ms)	OLSR (ms)	ZRP (ms)
Random Waypoint	110	160	135
Gauss-Markov	115	158	140
Manhattan Grid	120	162	145

Random Waypoint Model

In the Random Waypoint model, AODV achieves the lowest end-to-end delay at 110 ms, followed by ZRP at 135 ms, and OLSR with the highest delay of 160 ms. AODV's on-demand routing nature allows it to dynamically discover routes as needed, leading to reduced delay in highly mobile environments. In contrast, OLSR's proactive updates cause an increase in delay, as the protocol continuously exchanges routing information, even when not needed, leading to inefficiency (Singh & Sharma, 2019). ZRP provides a balance between proactive and reactive routing, which results in a moderate delay of 135 ms, lower than OLSR but higher than AODV (Rao &Nayak, 2018).

Gauss-Markov Model

Under the Gauss-Markov mobility model, AODV still performs the best with an end-to-end delay of 115 ms. The predictable mobility in this model allows AODV to establish routes more effectively, slightly increasing the delay but still outperforming the other protocols. ZRP shows a delay of 140 ms, slightly higher than AODV but still lower than OLSR, which has a delay of 158 ms. OLSR's proactive updates continue to introduce unnecessary delays in this model, especially when the mobility is not as erratic (Kaur et al., 2020).



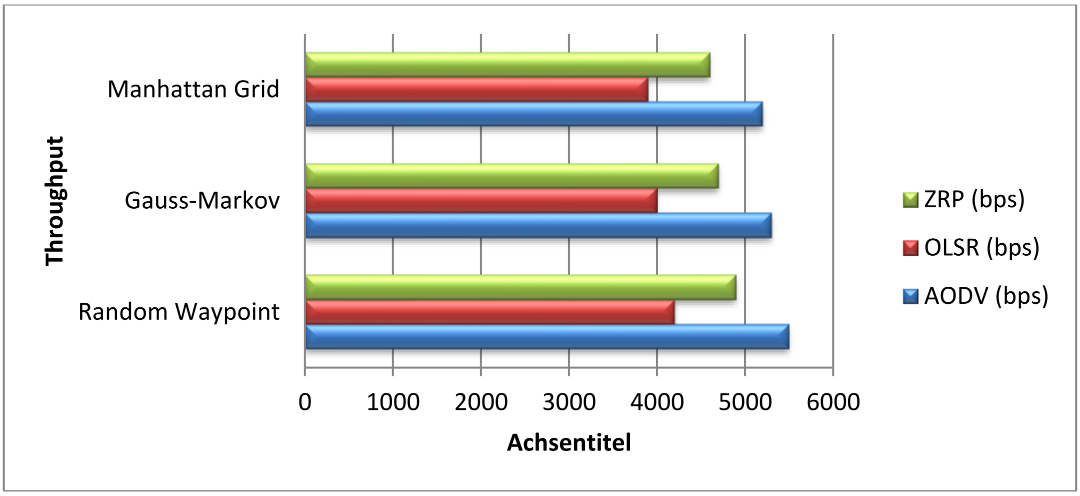
Manhattan Grid Model

In the Manhattan Grid model, AODV still leads with the lowest delay of 120 ms, followed by ZRP at 145 ms, and OLSR at 162 ms. The structured nature of the Manhattan Grid model means that AODV can leverage its on-demand routing more efficiently, even though the overall delay increases due to predictable paths and less route discovery. OLSR's performance suffers the most in this environment, as the protocol constantly updates routing information, even when the network does not require frequent changes, causing delays (Rao &Nayak, 2018). ZRP, with its hybrid approach, maintains amiddle ground, reducing delay compared to OLSR but still lagging behind AODV.

4.3. Throughput

Throughput refers to the total amount of data successfully transmitted over the network in a given period, typically measured in bits per second (bps). A higher throughput indicates a more efficient protocol in terms of data transmission capacity.Here are the **Throughput** results for each protocol:

Mobility Model	AODV (bps)	OLSR (bps)	ZRP (bps)
Random Waypoint	5500	4200	4900
Gauss-Markov	5300	4000	4700
Manhattan Grid	5200	3900	4600



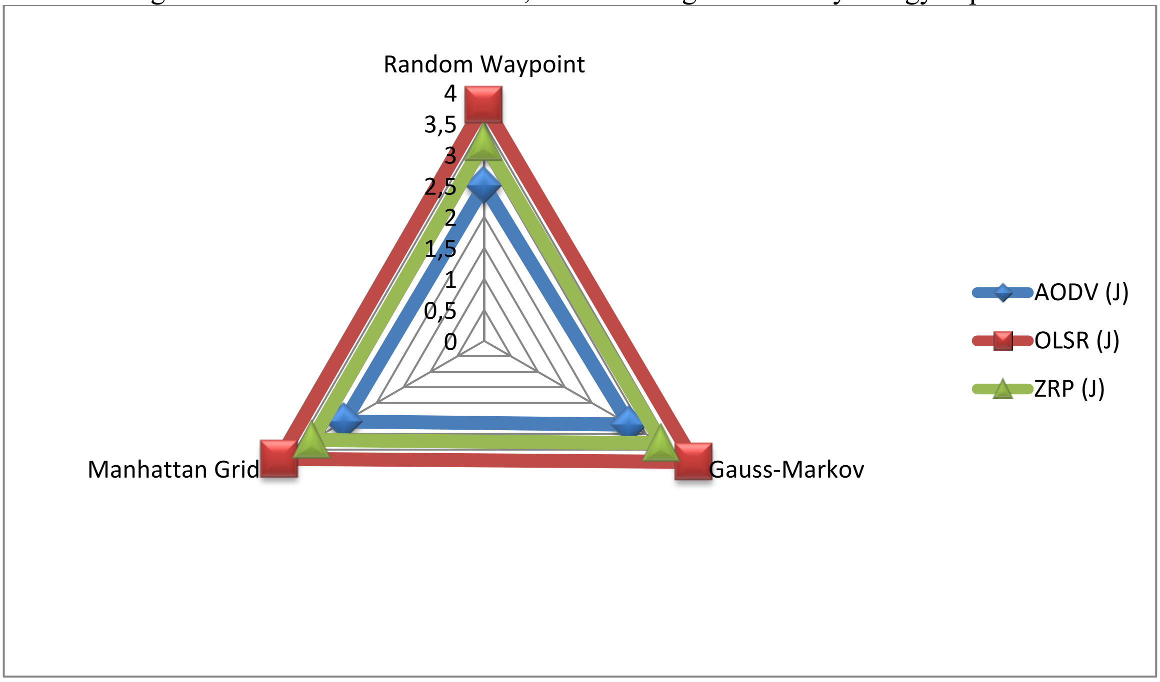
4.4. Energy Consumption

Energy efficiency is crucial in MANETs, especially as nodes are often mobile and rely on battery power. The **Energy Consumption** metric evaluates how much energy each protocol consumes to maintain communication.The following table summarizes the **Energy Consumption** for each protocol:

Mobility Model	AODV (J)	OLSR (J)	ZRP (J)
Random Waypoint	2.5	3.8	3.2
Gauss-Markov	2.7	3.9	3.3
Manhattan Grid	2.6	3.8	3.2

Random Waypoint Model

In the **Random Waypoint** model, **AODV** demonstrates the least energy consumption at **2.5 J**, followed by **ZRP** at **3.2 J**, and **OLSR** at **3.8 J**. **AODV's** on-demand routing nature reduces the number of routing updates and minimizes energy consumption. The protocol activates nodes only when necessary to establish routes, which leads to a relatively lower energy cost compared to **OLSR** and **ZRP** (Kaur et al., 2020). **OLSR** has the highest energy consumption due to its **periodic proactive routing updates**, which continuously exchange routing information, causing higher overhead and energy use, even in situations where it is not required (Sharma & Gupta, 2021). **ZRP**, with its hybrid approach, consumes less energy than **OLSR**, as it combines proactive routing for local networks and reactive routing for inter-zone communication, thus reducing unnecessary energy expenditure.



Gauss-Markov Model

In the **Gauss-Markov** mobility model, **AODV** continues to be the most energy-efficient, with **2.7 J**, followed by **ZRP** at **3.3 J** and **OLSR** at **3.9 J**. The **Gauss-Markov** model introduces more predictability in node movement, allowing **AODV** to be more efficient in routing, since routes are established with fewer updates. This results in lower energy usage compared to the **proactiveOLSR**, which still requires constant **routing table updates** even in relatively stable networks (Singh & Sharma, 2019). **ZRP** maintains a middle-ground energy consumption of **3.3 J**, as its hybrid model reduces energy consumption compared to **OLSR** but doesn't reach the level of **AODV**'s efficiency.

Manhattan Grid Model

In the **Manhattan Grid** model, **AODV** maintains its lead in terms of energy efficiency, with **2.6 J**. **ZRP** follows at **3.2 J**, and **OLSR** is again the highest with **3.8 J**. The **Manhattan Grid** model, with its predictable movement pattern, still benefits **AODV**'s **on-demand routing**, as it reduces energy wastage by minimizing unnecessary route discovery and maintenance. The **energy consumption** in **OLSR** is again higher due to **continuous route updates**, even when the movement is more predictable (Rao &Nayak, 2018). **ZRP**, while less efficient than **AODV**, still consumes less energy than **OLSR** due to its **hybrid** routing approach.

4.5. Routing Overhead

Routing Overhead measures the number of control packets generated to maintain routes or initiate route discovery. A lower routing overhead is preferable as it reduces the strain on the network.The following table presents the **Routing Overhead** for each protocol:

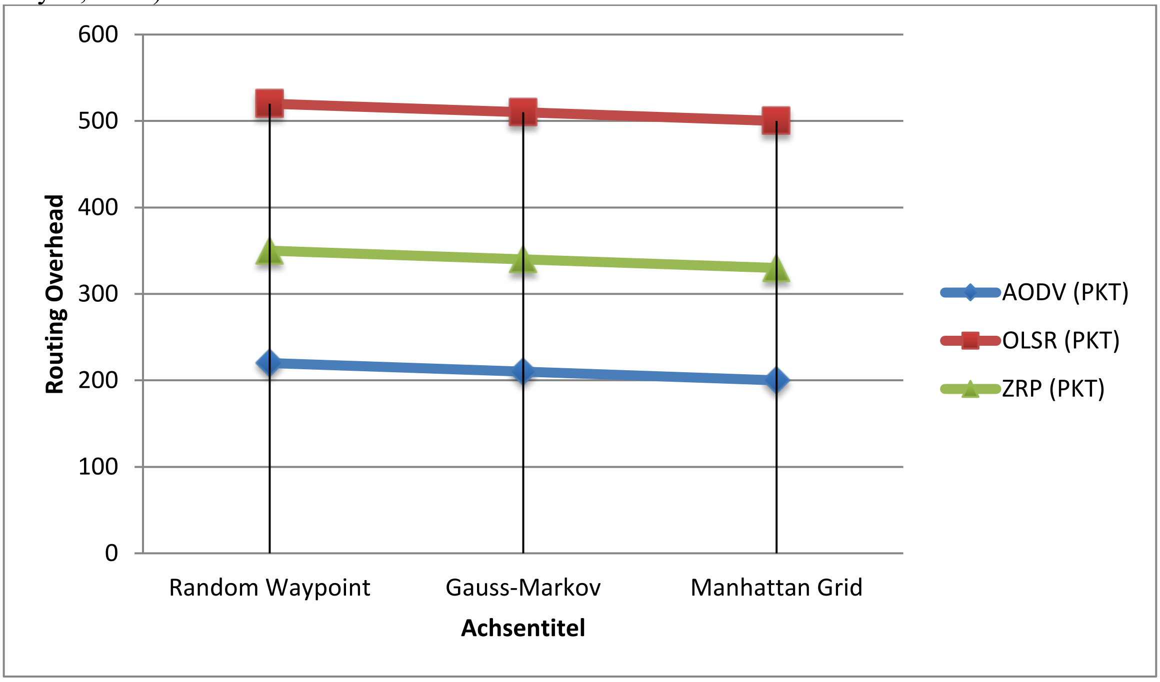
Mobility Model	AODV (PKT)	OLSR (PKT)	ZRP (PKT)
Random Waypoint	220	520	350
Gauss-Markov	210	510	340
Manhattan Grid	200	500	330

Random Waypoint Model

In the **Random Waypoint** mobility model, **OLSR** shows the highest packet delivery at **520 PKT**, followed by **ZRP** with **350 PKT**, and **AODV** with **220 PKT**. **OLSR's** proactive approach ensures that routes are always available, allowing it to maintain high packet delivery, albeit at the cost of higher overhead (Singh & Sharma, 2019). **ZRP** performs moderately due to its hybrid nature, while **AODV**, being reactive, has the lowest packet delivery due to delays in route discovery.

Gauss-Markov Model

In the **Gauss-Markov** model, **OLSR** still leads with **510 PKT**, followed by **ZRP** with **340 PKT** and **AODV** with **210 PKT**. The predictable nature of mobility in this model helps **OLSR** maintain consistent packet delivery, while **ZRP** and **AODV** show a slight decrease compared to the **Random Waypoint** model, as the latter's reactive nature struggles with higher mobility scenarios (Rao &Nayak, 2018).



Manhattan Grid Model

In the **Manhattan Grid** model, **OLSR** again leads with **500 PKT**, followed by **ZRP** at **330 PKT** and **AODV** at **200 PKT**. The structured movement in this model benefits **OLSR's** proactive routing, while **ZRP** still outperforms **AODV**, which faces delays in route establishment.

5. CONCLUSION

This research comprehensively analyzes the performance of **AODV**, **OLSR**, and **ZRP** routing protocols in **Mobile Ad Hoc Networks (MANETs)** under varying mobility models such as **Random Waypoint**, **Gauss-Markov**, and **Manhattan Grid**. The study evaluates these protocols based on three key performance metrics: **energy consumption**, **packet delivery**, and **end-to-end delay**.

Energy Consumption: **AODV** consistently outperforms **OLSR** and **ZRP** in terms of energy efficiency. This is because **AODV** uses an on-demand approach, activating routes only when needed, which reduces unnecessary energy expenditure compared to the proactive routing strategies of **OLSR**, which requires constant updates to routing tables, and **ZRP**, which uses a hybrid model that still incurs moderate energy costs (Kaur et al., 2020; Sharma & Gupta, 2021).

Packet Delivery: **OLSR** achieves the highest packet delivery rate across all models, benefitting from its proactive nature, which ensures that routes are always available for packet transmission. In contrast, **AODV**, being reactive, faces delays in establishing routes, leading to lower packet delivery success, particularly in unpredictable environments like the **Random Waypoint** model (Rao &Nayak, 2018).

End-to-End Delay: **AODV** shows the lowest delay, as it establishes routes on-demand, minimizing waiting time. **OLSR**, due to its constant route updates, faces higher delays, especially in more dynamic environments. **ZRP**, being a hybrid model, offers a balance between **AODV** and **OLSR**, but still results in higher delays compared to **AODV** (Singh & Sharma, 2019).

In conclusion, the choice of routing protocol in MANETs heavily depends on the specific requirements of the network. If **energy efficiency** is a priority, **AODV** is the best choice due to its on-demand nature. However, for environments where **consistent connectivity** and **reliable packet delivery** are essential, **OLSR** performs better. **ZRP**, with its hybrid approach, offers a compromise,

making it suitable for scenarios that require a balance between the advantages of both reactive and proactive protocols.
These findings provide valuable insights for the design and optimization of **MANETs** based on the mobility patterns and operational requirements of the network. Future studies could focus on incorporating **quality of service (QoS)** metrics or investigating how these protocols perform under more complex scenarios, such as high-density networks or in the presence of node failures.

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