

Satellite Networks Wireless Sensor Networks

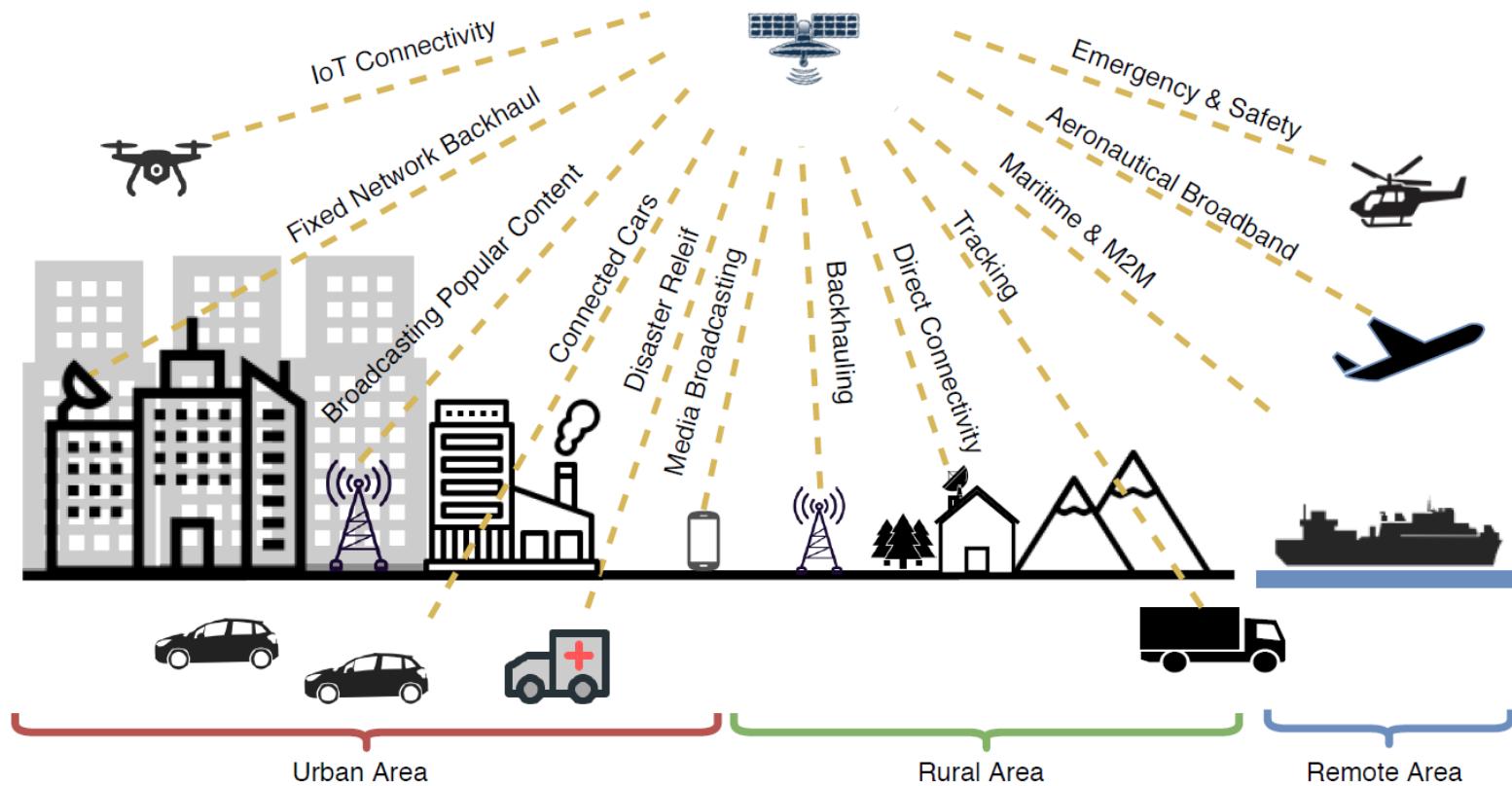
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2023/2024

Satellite networks

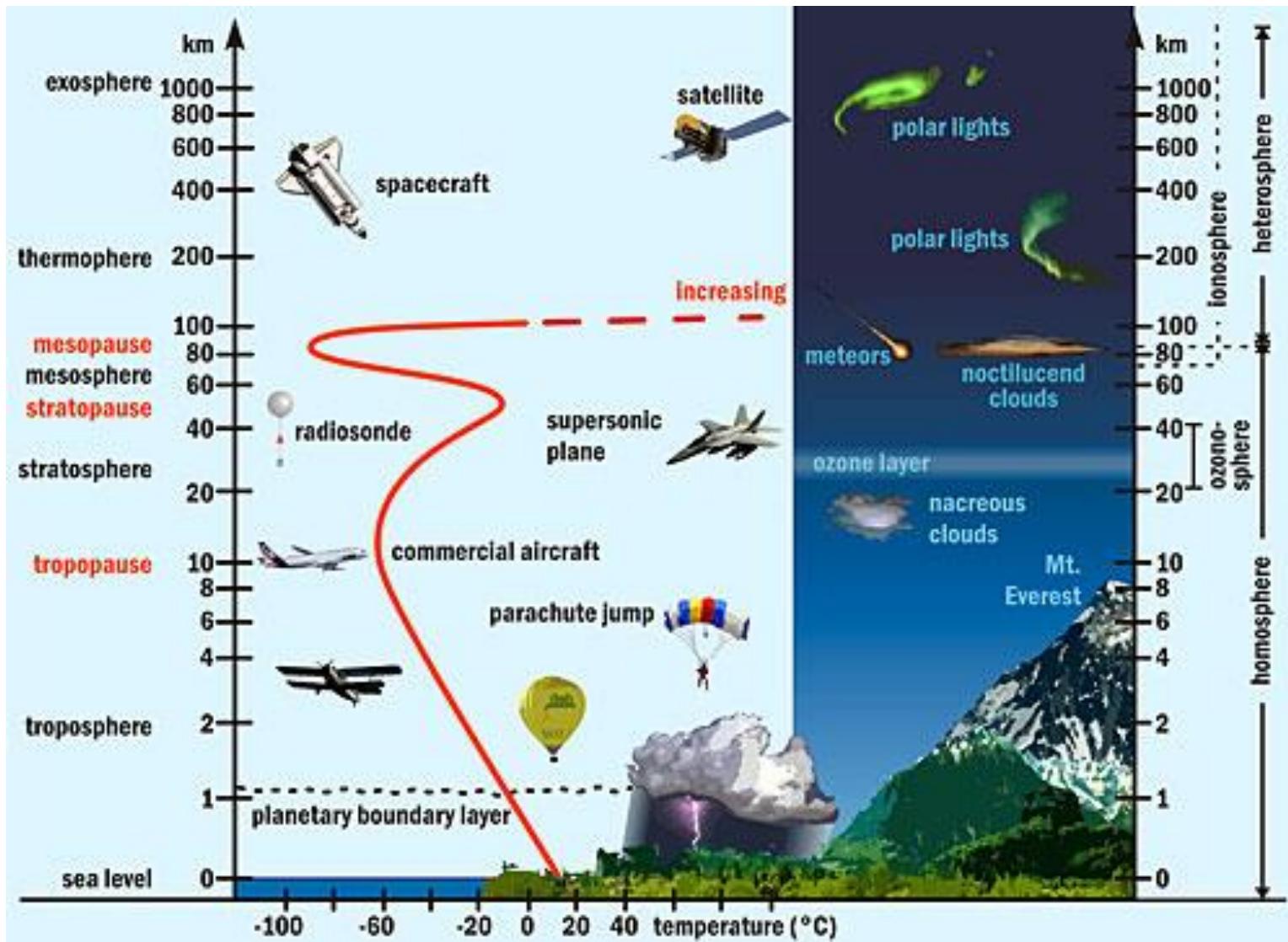
SATELLITES



Distance: 378.000 km
Period: 27.3 days



Earth's atmosphere



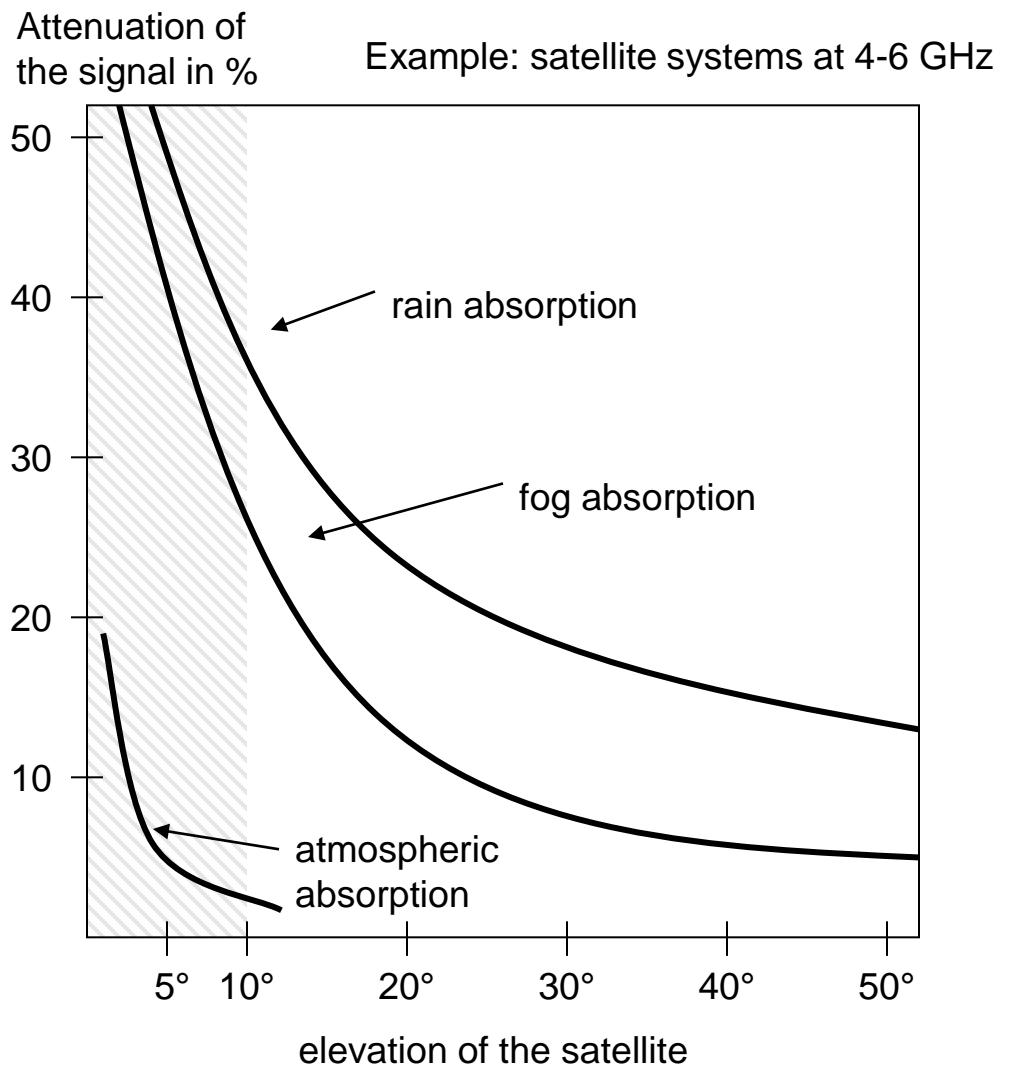
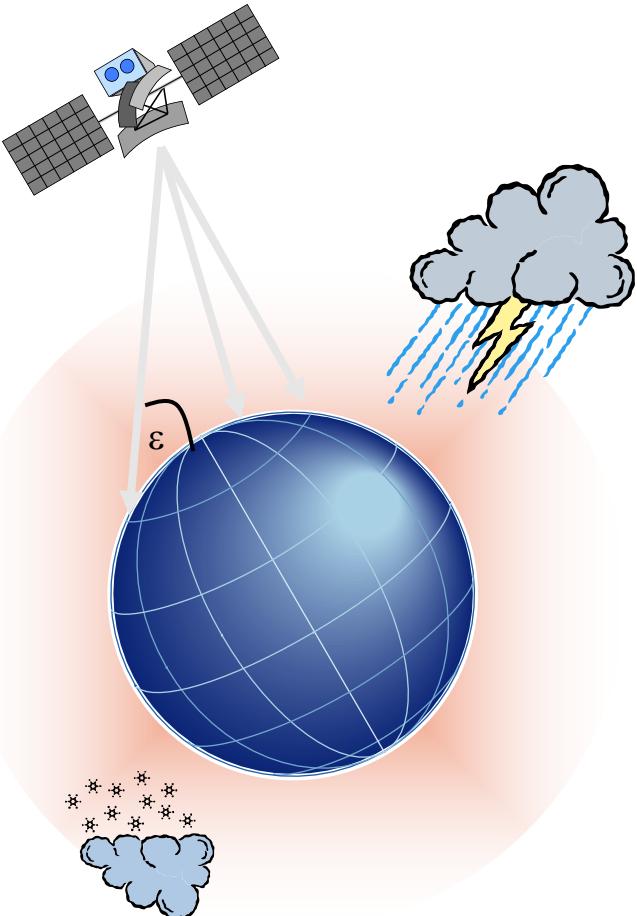
Basics

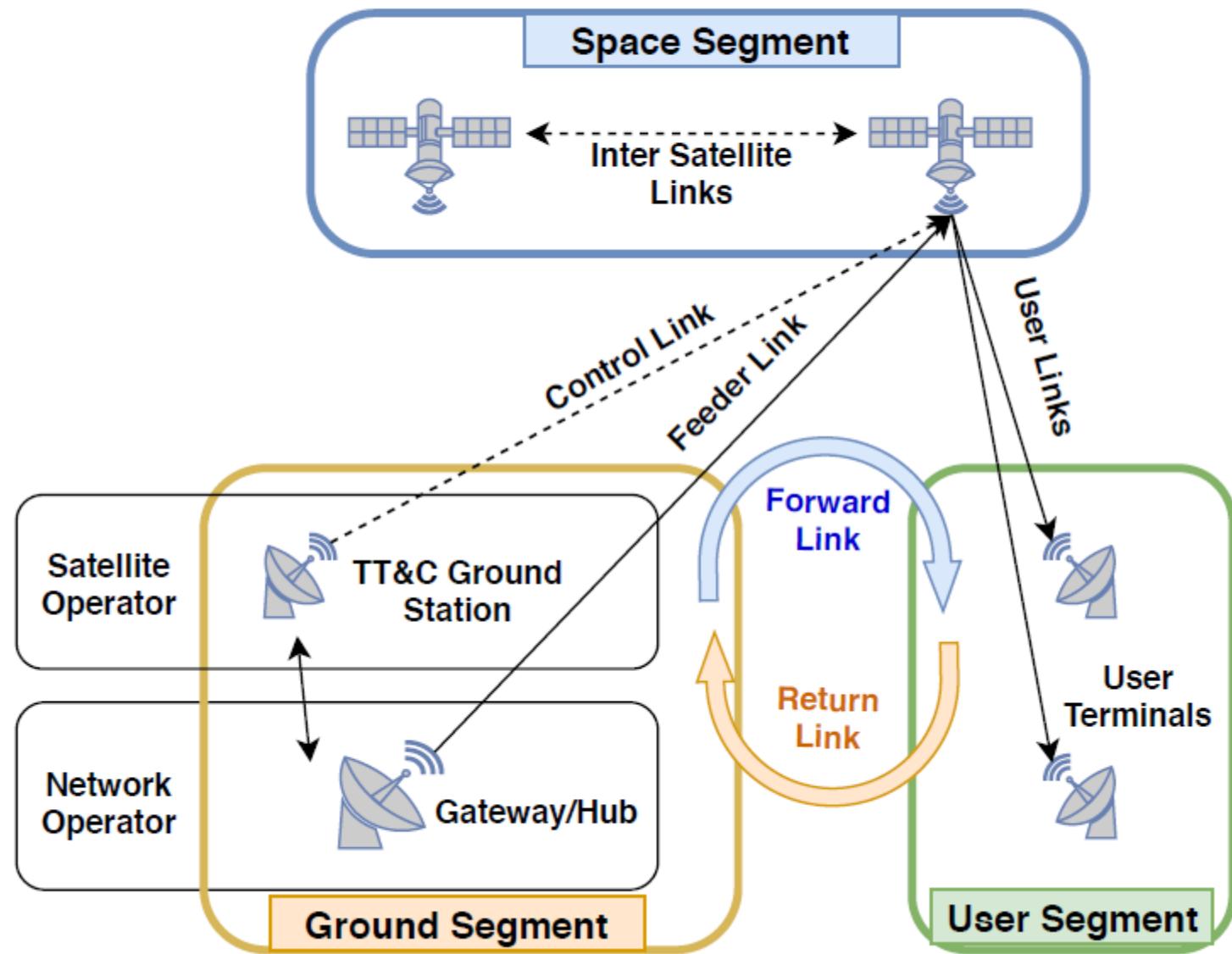
- ❑ elliptical or circular orbits
- ❑ complete rotation time depends on distance satellite-earth
- ❑ inclination: angle between orbit and equator
- ❑ elevation: angle between satellite and horizon
- ❑ LOS (Line of Sight) to the satellite necessary for connection
 - ➔ high elevation needed, less absorption due to e.g. buildings
- ❑ Uplink: connection base station - satellite
- ❑ Downlink: connection satellite - base station
- ❑ typically separated frequencies for uplink and downlink
 - transponder used for sending/receiving and shifting of frequencies
 - transparent transponder: only shift of frequencies
 - regenerative transponder: additionally signal regeneration

Features of Satellite Networks

- Effects of satellite mobility
 - Topology is dynamic.
 - Topology changes are predictable and periodic.
 - Traffic is very dynamic and non-homogeneous.
 - Handovers are necessary.
- Limitations and capabilities of satellites
 - Power and onboard processing capability are limited.
 - Implementing the state-of-the-art technology is difficult.
 - Satellites have a broadcast nature.
- Nature of satellite constellations
 - Higher propagation delays.
 - Fixed number of nodes.
 - Highly symmetric and uniform structure.

Atmospheric attenuation





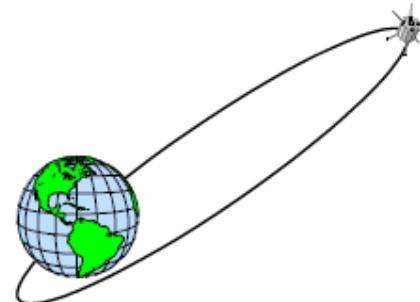
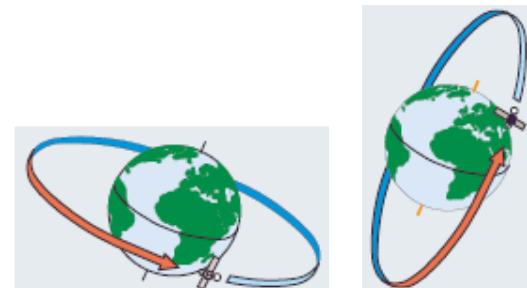
- Satellite up links and down links can operate in different frequency bands:

Frequency Bands	Downlink Channel (DL)	Uplink Channel (UL)	
L Band	1.535-1.56 GHz	1.635-1.66 GHz	Mobile/fixed comms., GPS
S Band	2.5-2.54 GHz	2.65-2.69 GHz	Direct to Sat comms
C Band	3.7-4.2 GHz	5.9-6.4 GHz	TV bcast., some Wi-Fi, phones and weather radars
X Band	7.25-7.75 GHz	7.9-8.4 GHz	Deep space comms.
Ku Band	10-13 GHz	14-17 GHz	Backhauls, TV studios
Ka Band	18-20 GHz	27-31 GHz	Radars in military planes

- The up-link is a highly directional, point to point link
- The down-link can have a footprint providing coverage for a substantial area "spot beam".

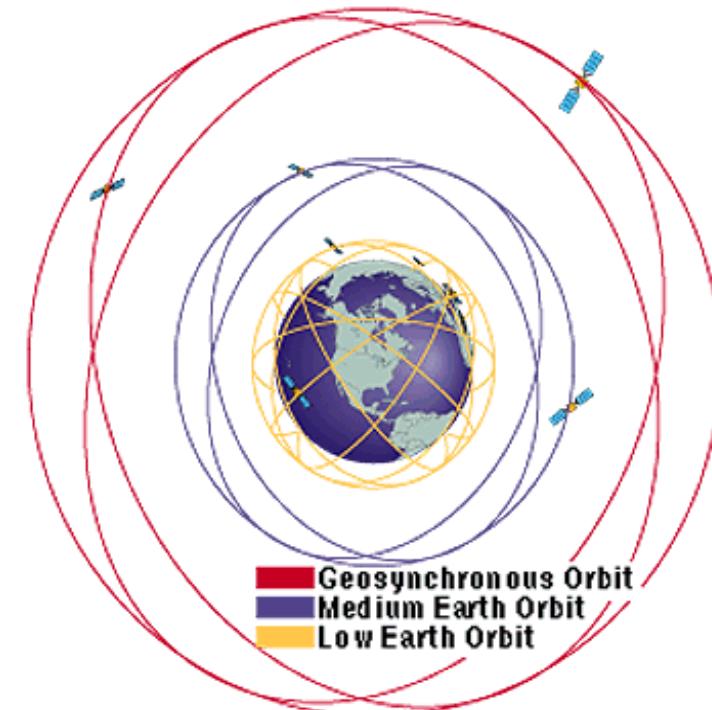
Types of Satellite Orbits

- Based on the inclination, “ i ”, over the equatorial plane:
 - Equatorial Orbits above Earth’s equator ($i=0^\circ$)
 - Polar Orbits pass over both poles ($i=90^\circ$)
 - Other orbits called inclined orbits ($0^\circ < i < 90^\circ$)
- Based on Eccentricity
 - Circular with centre at the earth’s centre
 - Elliptical with one foci at earth’s centre

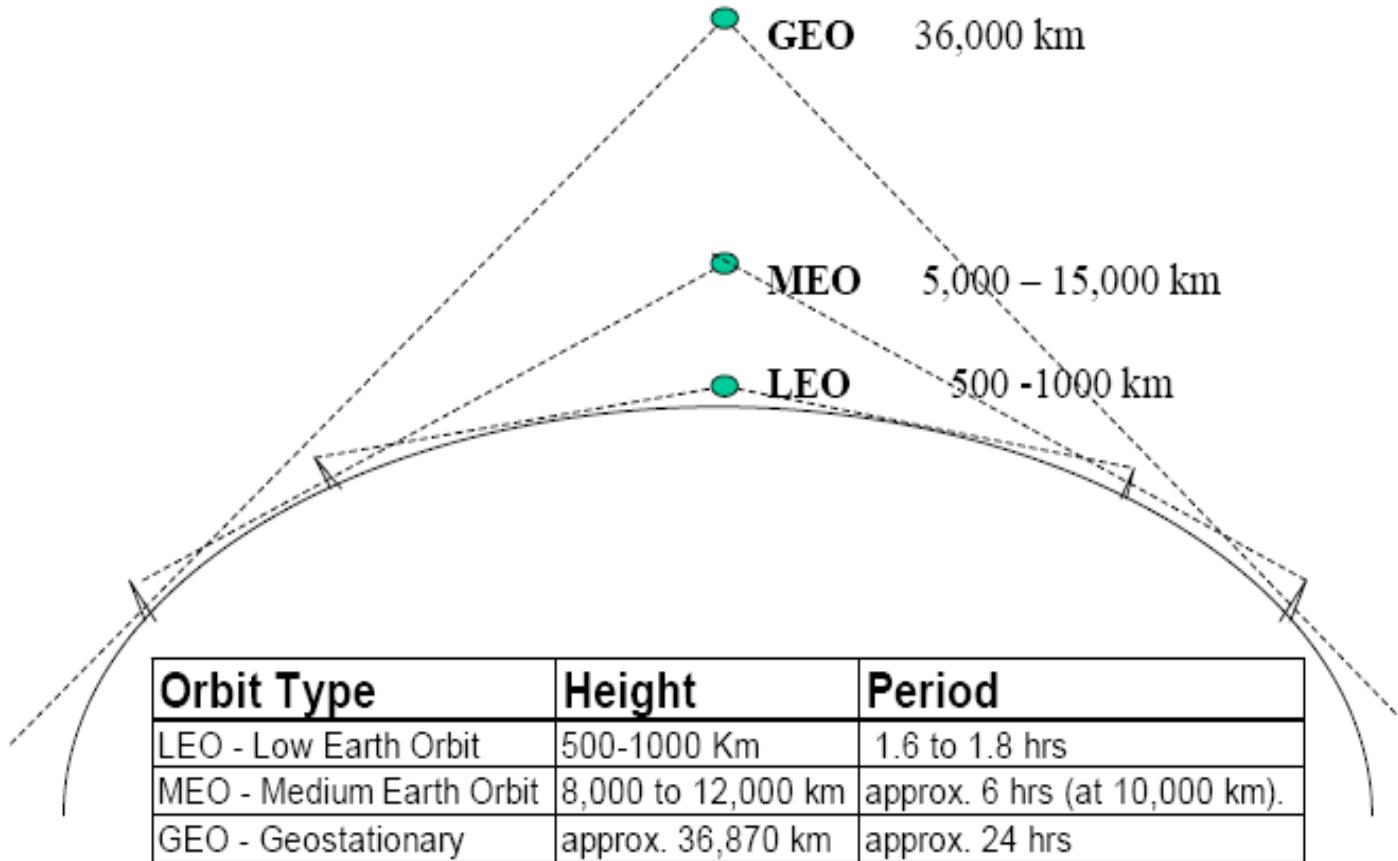


Types of Satellite based Networks

- Based on the Satellite Altitude
 - GEO – Geostationary Orbits
 - 36000 Km = 22300 Miles, equatorial, High latency
 - MEO – Medium Earth Orbit
 - High bandwidth, High power, High latency
 - LEO – Low Earth Orbit
 - Low power, Low latency, More Satellites, Small Footprint
 - VSAT
 - Very Small Aperture Satellites
 - Private WANs

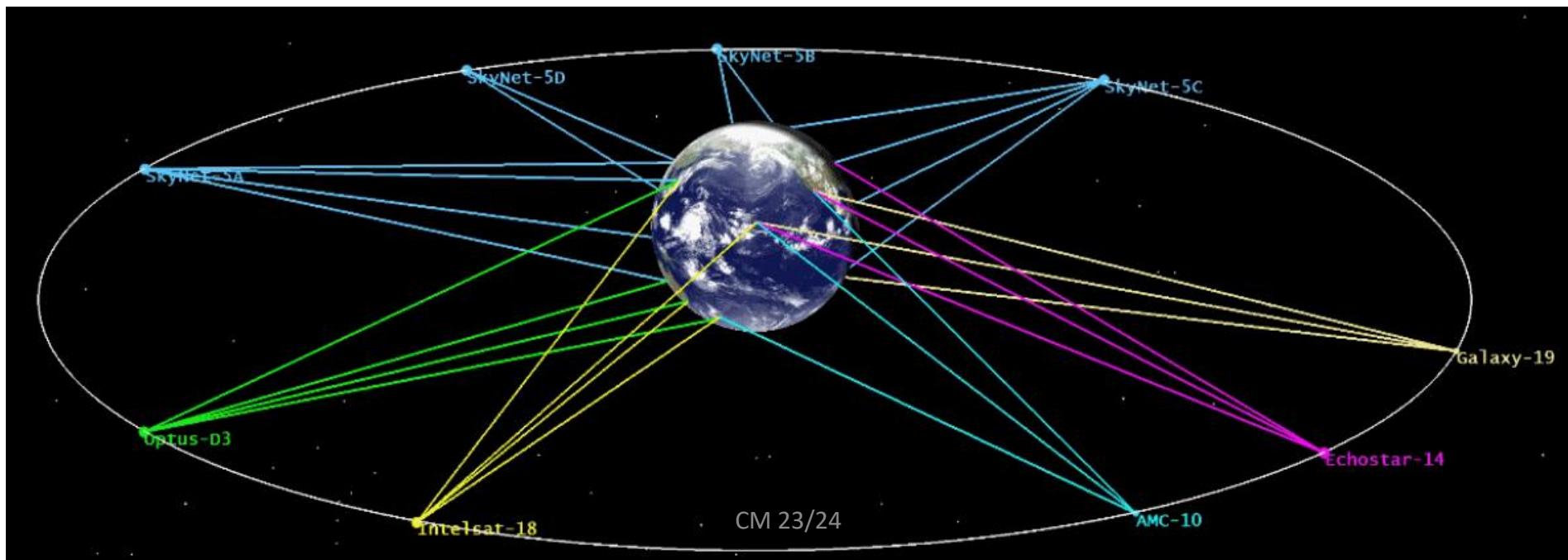


Satellite Orbits – Another perspective



GEO - Geostationary Orbit

- ▶ In the equatorial plane
- ▶ Orbital Period = 23 h 56 m 4.091 s
= 1 sidereal day*
- ▶ Satellite appears to be stationary over any point on equator:
 - ▶ Earth Rotates at same speed as Satellite
 - ▶
 - ▶



GEO Satellites

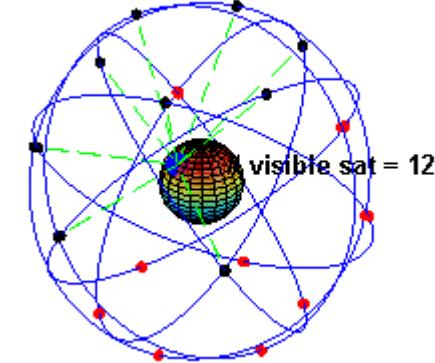
- No handover
- One-way propagation delay: 250-280 ms
- 3 to 4 satellites for global coverage
- Mostly used in video broadcasting
- Another applications:
 - Weather forecast, global communications, military applications
- Advantage: well-suited for broadcast services
- Disadvantages: Long delay, high free-space attenuation

MEO Satellites

- One-way propagation delay: 100 – 130 ms
- 10 to 15 satellites for global coverage
- Infrequent handover
- Orbit period: ~6 hr
- Mostly used in navigation
 - GPS, Galileo, Glonass
- Communications: Inmarsat, ICO

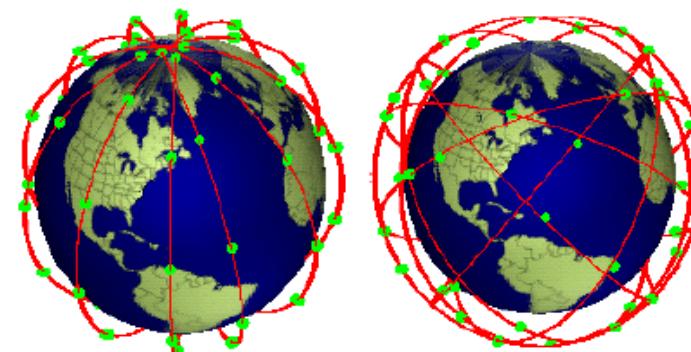
MEO Example: GPS

- Global Positioning System
 - Developed by US Dept. Of Defence
 - Became fully operational in 1993
 - Currently 31 satellites at 20.200 km.
 - Last lunch: March 2008
- It works based on a geometric principle
 - “Position of a point can be calculated if the distances between this point and three objects with known positions can be measured”
- Four satellites are needed to calculate the position
 - Fourth satellite is needed to correct the receiver’s clock.
- Selective Availability
- Glonass (Russian): 24 satellites, 19.100 km
- Galileo (EU): 30 satellites, 23.222 km, under development (expected date: 2013)
- Beidou (China): Currently experimental & limited.



LEO - Low Earth Orbits

- Circular or inclined orbit with < 1400 km altitude
 - Satellite travels across sky from horizon to horizon in 5 - 15 minutes => needs handoff
 - Earth stations must track satellite or have Omni directional antennas
 - Large constellation of satellites is needed for continuous communication (66 satellites needed to cover earth)
 - Requires complex architecture
 - Requires tracking at ground

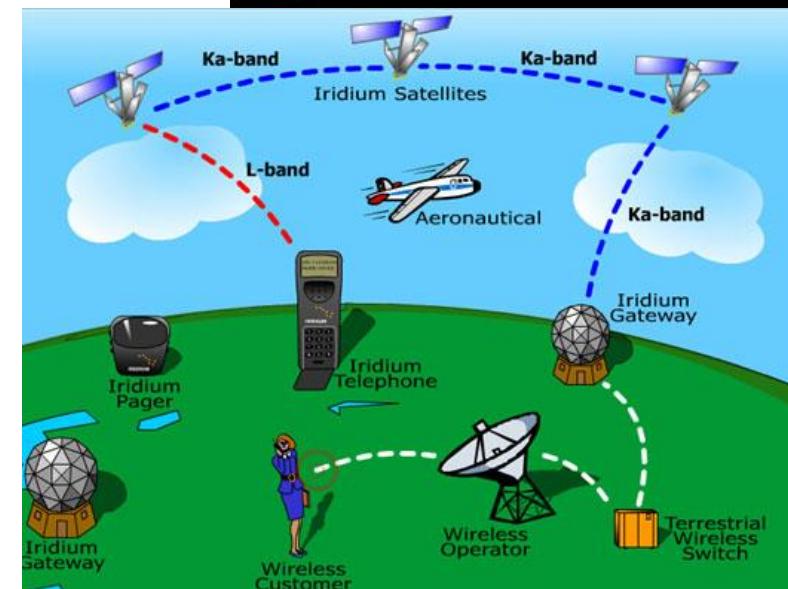
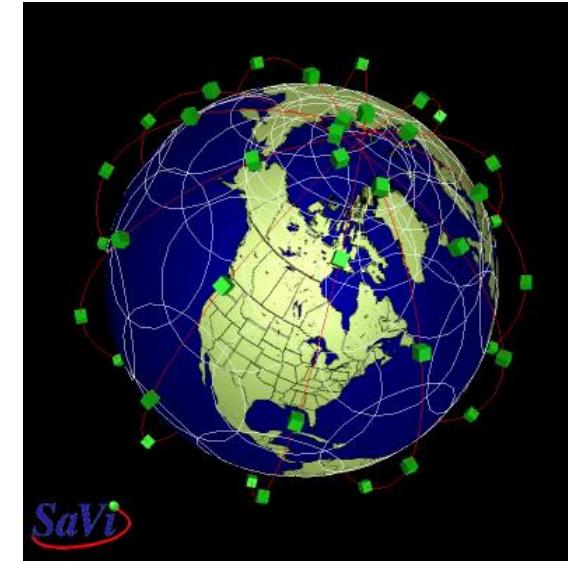


LEO Satellites

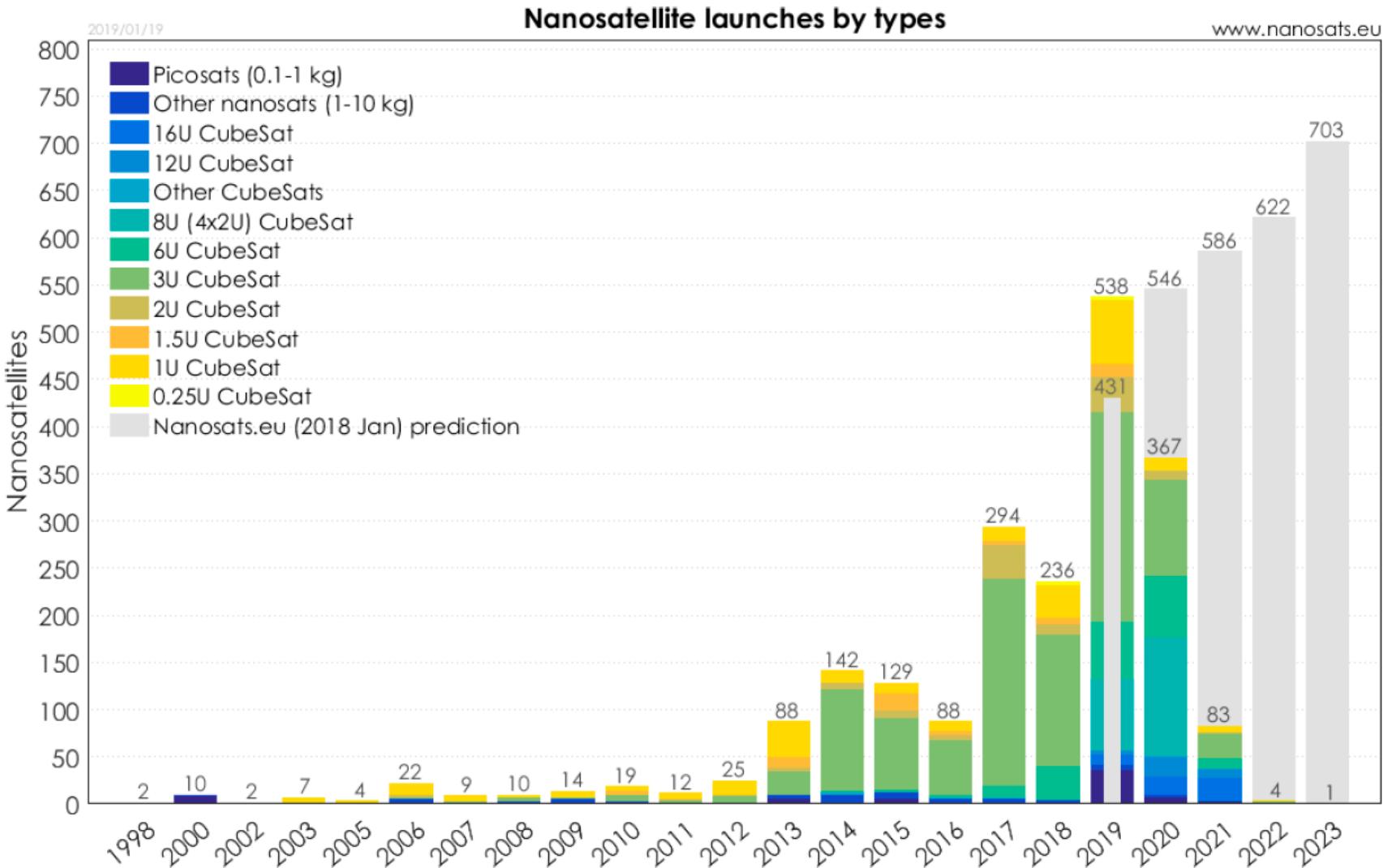
- One-way propagation delay: 5 – 20 ms
- More than 32 satellites for global coverage
- Frequent handover
- Orbit period: ~2 hr
- Applications:
 - Earth Observation
 - GoogleEarth image providers (DigitalGlobe, etc.)
 - RASAT (First satellite to be produced solely in Turkey)
 - Communications
 - Globalstar, Iridium
 - Search and Rescue (SAR)
 - COSPAS-SARSAT

Iridium

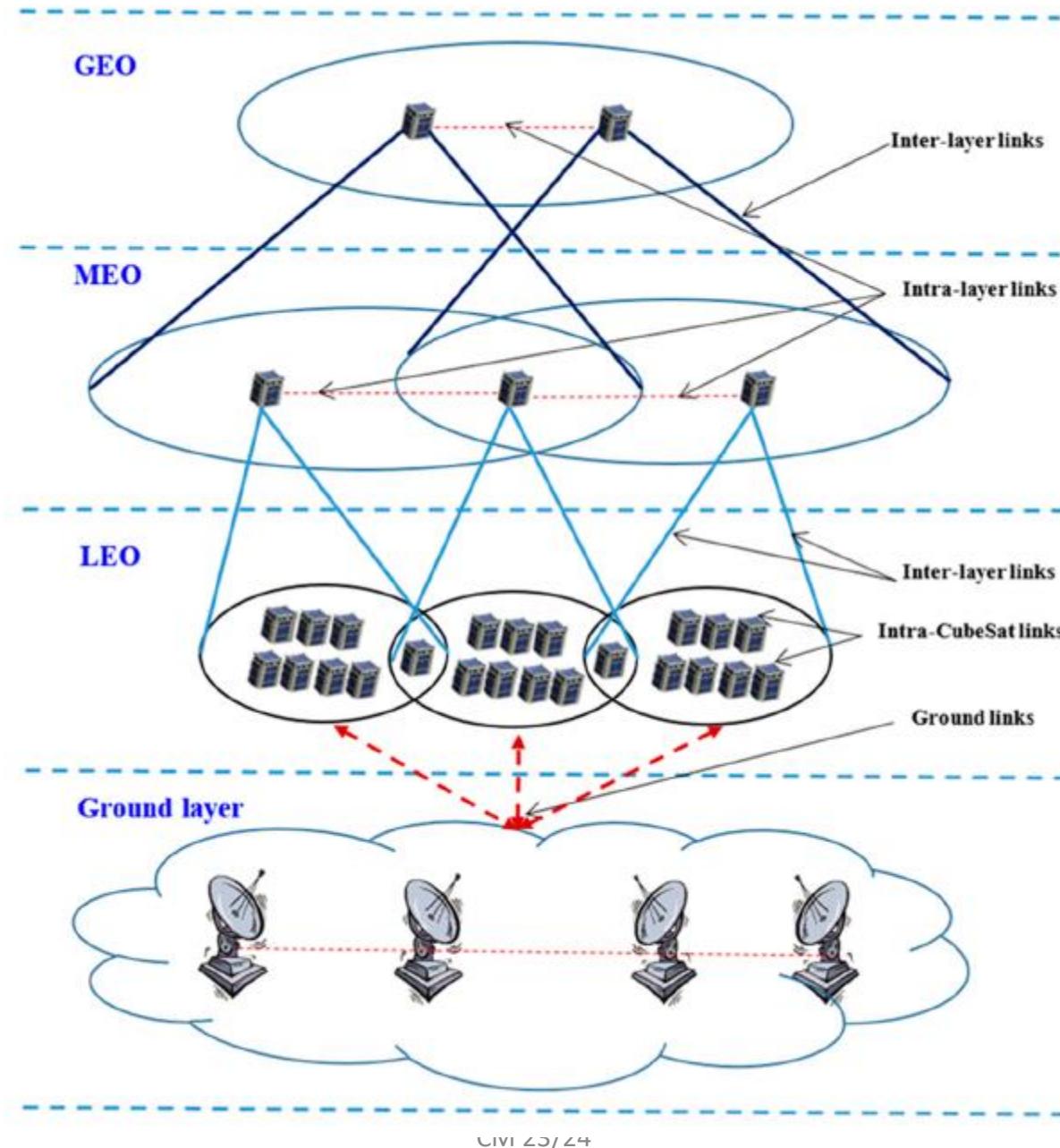
- 66 satellites (6 planes, 11 sat per plane) and 10 spares.
- 86.4° inclination: full coverage
- Altitude: 780 km
- Intersatellite links, onboard processing
- Satellite visibility time: 11.1 min
- Satellites launched in 1997-98.
- Initial company went into bankruptcy
 - Technologically flawless, however:
 - Very expensive; Awful business plan
 - Cannot compete with GSM
- Now, owned by Iridium satellite LLC.
- 280.000 subscribers (as of Aug. 2008)
- Multi-year contract with US DoD.
- Satellite collision (February 10, 2009).



The cubesat explosion



Challenges	Implications
Intermittent connectivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Satellites on this orbit are characterized by scheduled predictable/semi-predictable intermittent connectivity, whether for a satellite to ground links or inter-satellite links. - There are no contemporary paths present for satellite and ground station communication or cross-link communication.
Orbital period	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - LEO satellite orbital velocity ≈ 7800 m/s, based on the satellite altitude orbital period of about 90–110 min for 160–1200 km altitudes respectively. - Limited encounter time between satellites which in turns bounds data transfer rate.
Inter-CubeSat links	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transmission range between two satellites, approximately 5–200 km. - The transmission range of inter-CubeSats is bound by cross-link antenna transmission power. - Limited antenna size and capability compared with the conventional satellites. - Limited antenna coverage compared with the conventional satellites.
Up/Downlinks with the ground station	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transmission range between satellite and ground station, approximately 200–1200 km - The transmission range of CubeSats is bounded by the downlink antenna transmit power. - Satellite revisit time Limited antenna size and capability
Altitude and inclination ranges	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Orbit altitude range is 200–1200 km above the Earth and orbit inclination ranges 0°–180°.
Natural drag	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Common de-orbiting behaviour leads to changes in orbital height and hence meeting time between CubeSats will also change over time. - Orbiting at lower altitudes increases the drag process. - The drag upscales with increasing solar activity (sunspots).
High failure rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Space radiation effects on electronic components, particularly Commercial-off-the Shelf (COTS) components. - Impossibility of recovery under failure.
Energy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Solar cells limited space available on the small size of the CubeSat body. - Small storage batteries. - High power consumption of up/downlinks and cross-links.
Topology density	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Satellite dissemination and encounter times.
CubeSat stability on orbit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is no space on the CubeSats for advanced stability control devices. - Antenna directionality and steering ability.
Data rate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A single CubeSat has limited data rate - CubeSat swarms and constellations can provide a higher overall system data rate, however, networking CubeSats in these systems is challenging and requires advanced routing protocols.

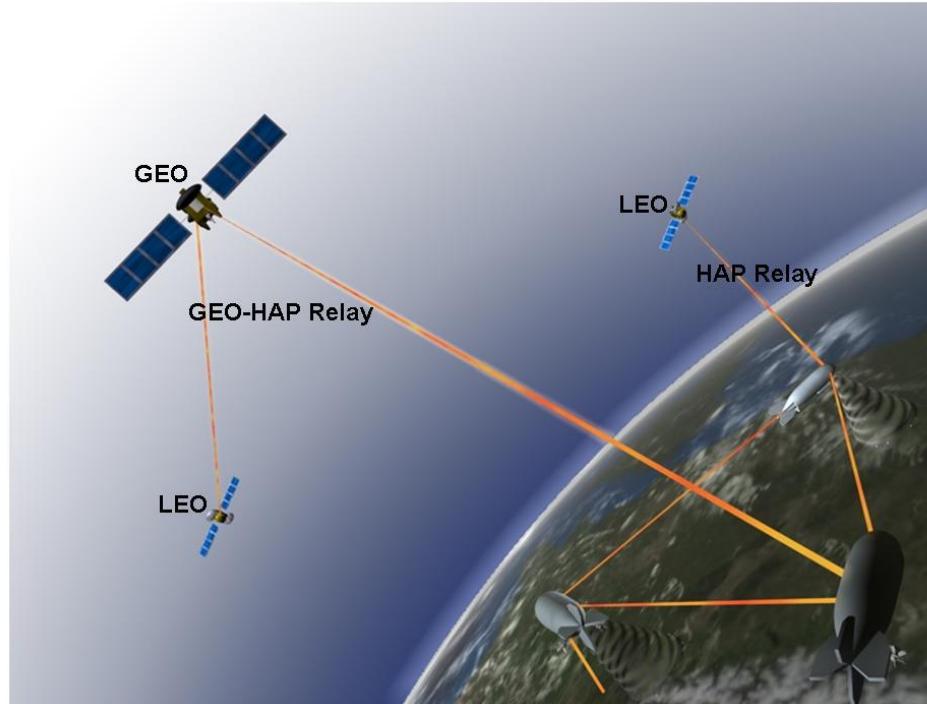


High Altitude Platforms (HAPs)

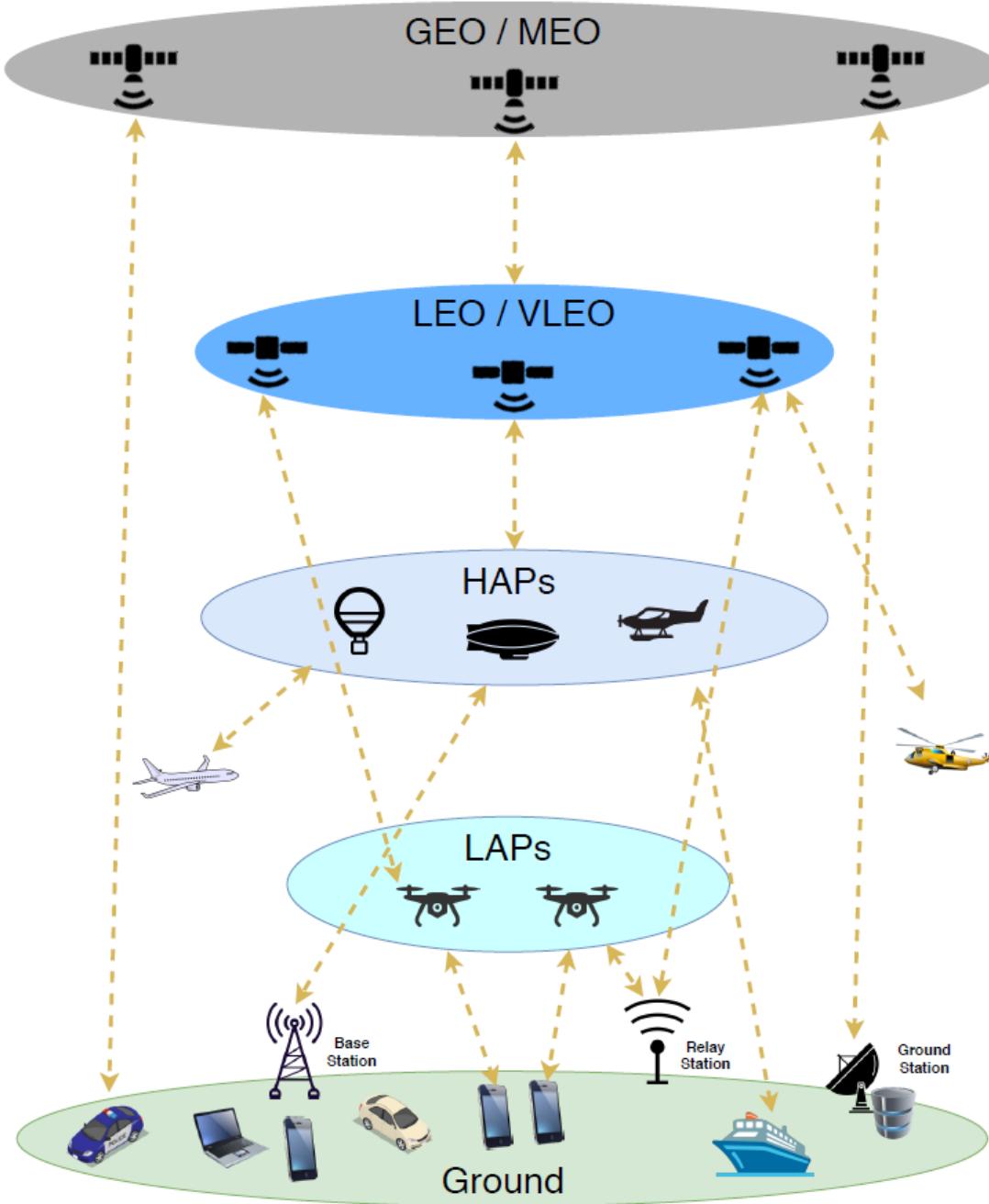
- Aerial unmanned platforms
- Quasi-stationary position (at 17-22 km)
- Telecommunications & surveillance
- Advantages:
 - Cover larger areas than terrestrial base stations
 - No mobility problems like LEOs
 - Low propagation delay
 - Smaller and cheaper user terminals
 - Easy and incremental deployment
- Disadvantages:
 - Immature airship technology
 - Monitoring of the platform's movement



HAP-Satellite Integration



- HAPs have significant advantages.
- Satellites still represent the most attractive solution for broadcast and multicast services
- Should be considered as complementary technologies.

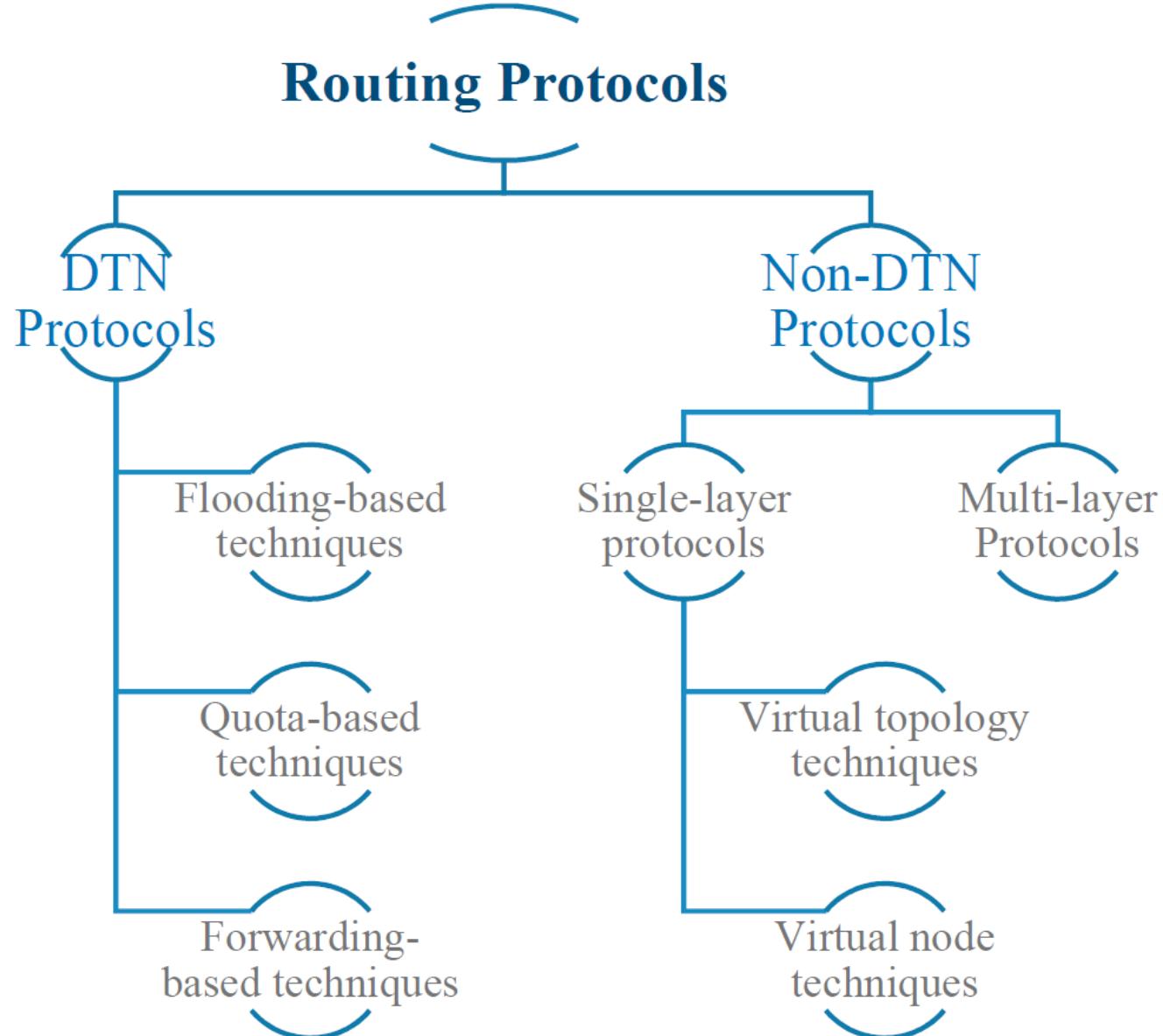


Satellites - Overview

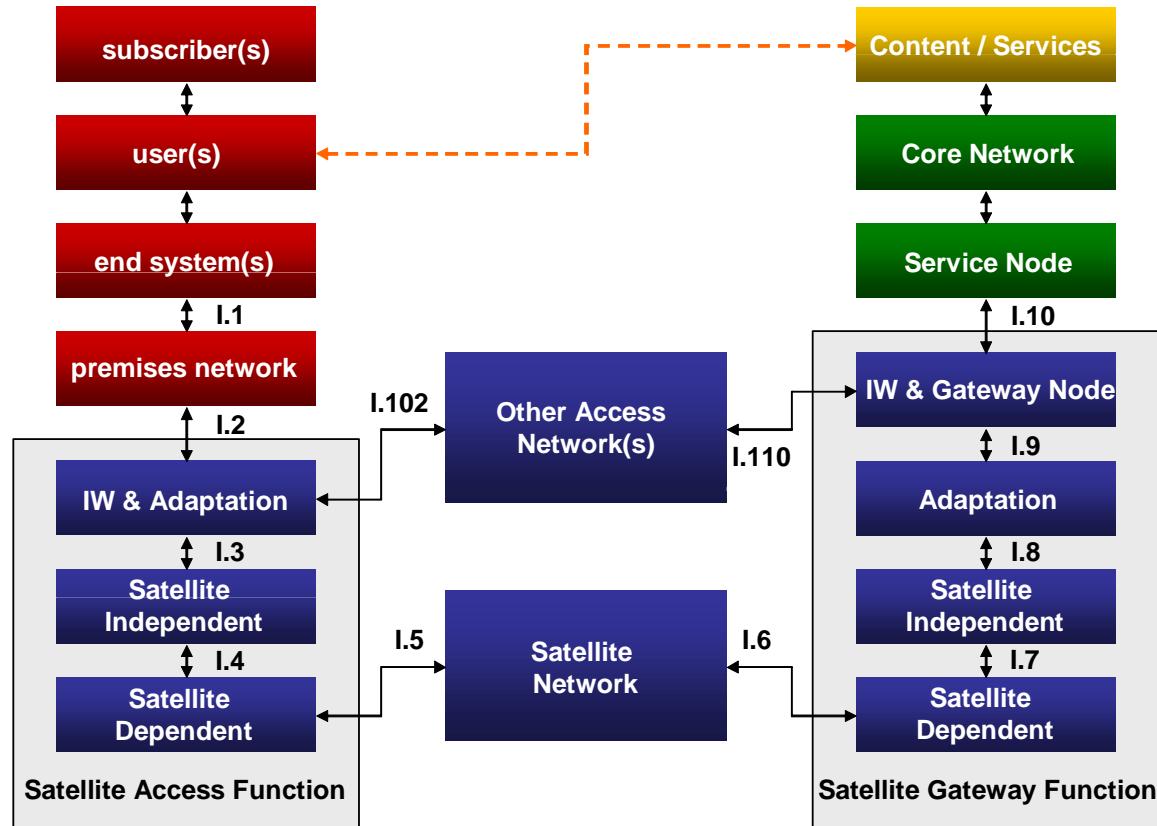
- GEOs have good broadcasting capability, but long propagation delay.
- LEOs offer low latency, low terminal power requirements.
- Inter-satellite links and on-board processing for increased performance and better utilization of satellites
 - From flying mirrors to intelligent routers on sky.
- Major problem with LEOs: Mobility of satellites
 - Frequent hand-over
- Another important problem with satellites:
 - Infeasible to upgrade the technology, after the satellite is launched

Routing

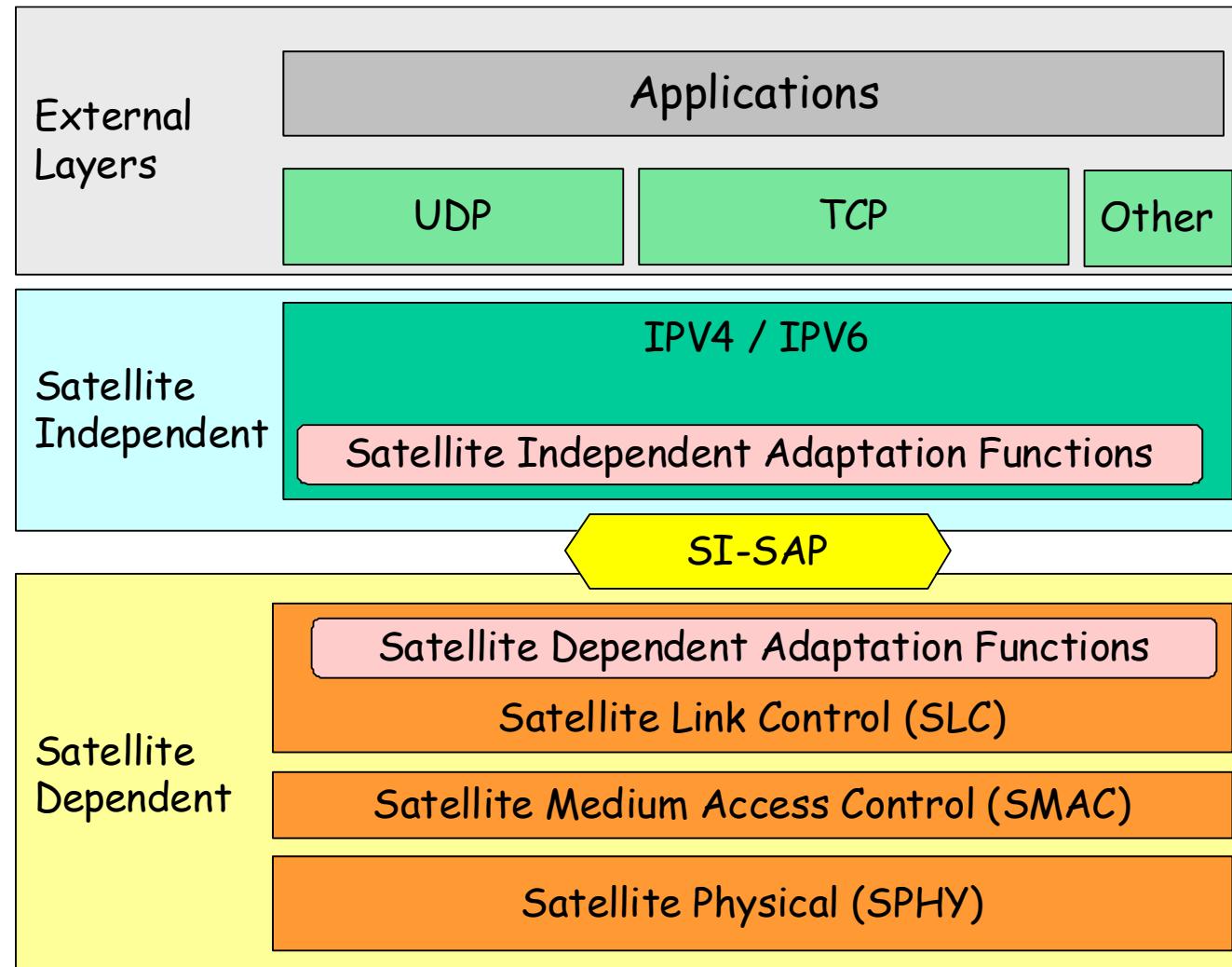
- One solution: inter satellite links (ISL)
 - ❑ reduced number of gateways needed
 - ❑ forward connections or data packets within the satellite network as long as possible
 - ❑ only one uplink and one downlink per direction needed for the connection of two mobile phones
- Problems:
 - ❑ more complex focusing of antennas between satellites
 - ❑ high system complexity due to moving routers
 - ❑ higher fuel consumption
 - ❑ thus shorter lifetime
- Iridium and Teledesic planned with ISL
- Other systems use gateways and additionally terrestrial networks



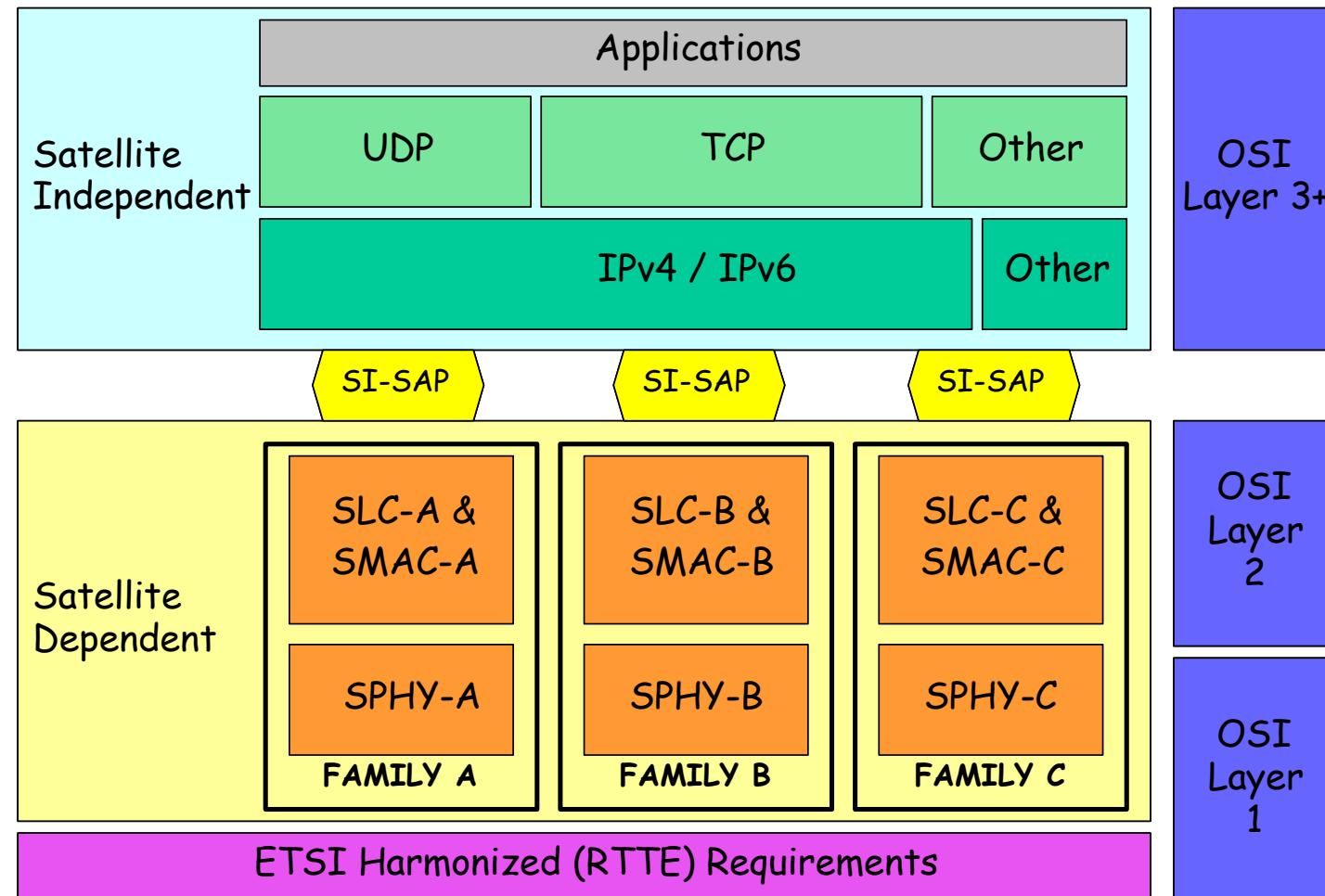
Reference model for satellite access



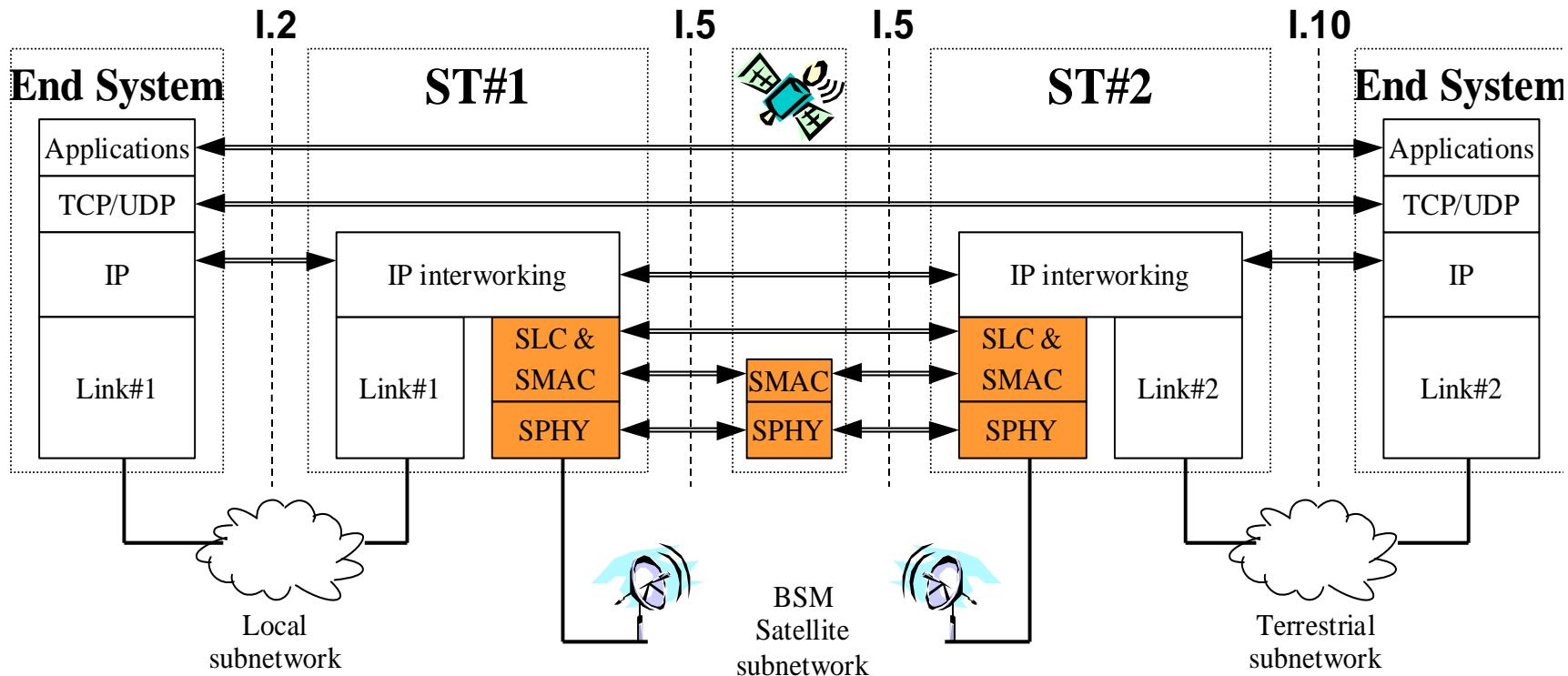
Protocol architecture



Protocol architecture



IP interworking



Wireless Sensor Networks

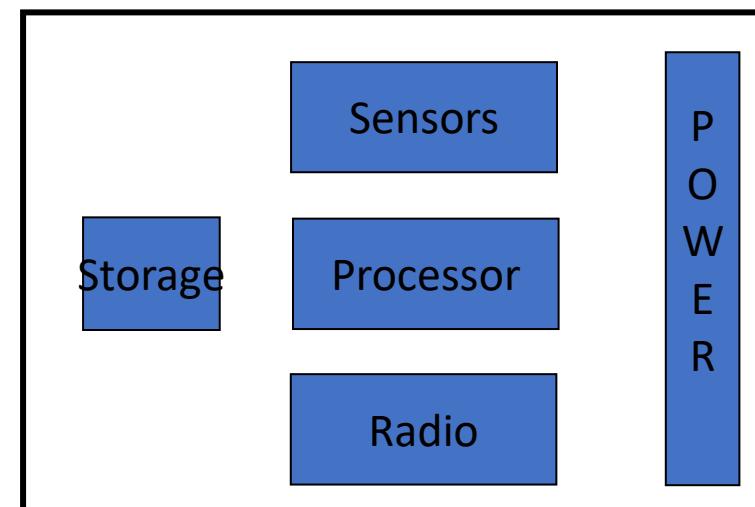
What are wireless sensor networks (WSNs)?

- A wireless sensor network (WSN) is a wireless network using sensors to cooperatively monitor physical or environmental conditions
- Networks of typically small, battery-powered, wireless devices (often MANY, sometimes heterogeneous)
 - On-board processing,
 - Communication, and
 - Sensing capabilities.

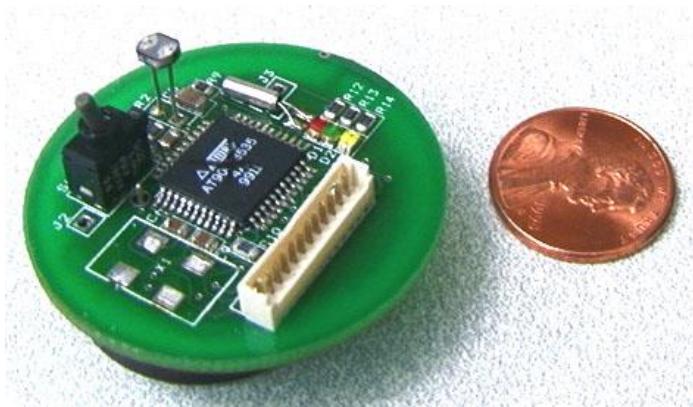
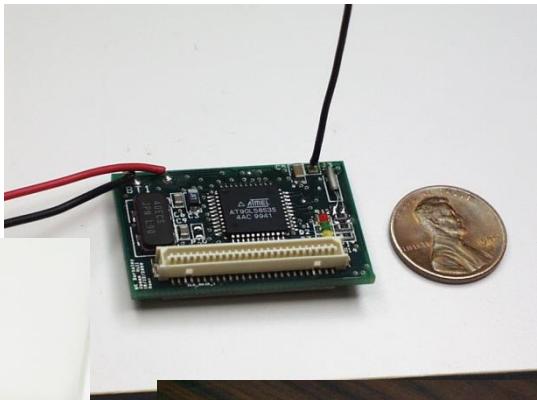
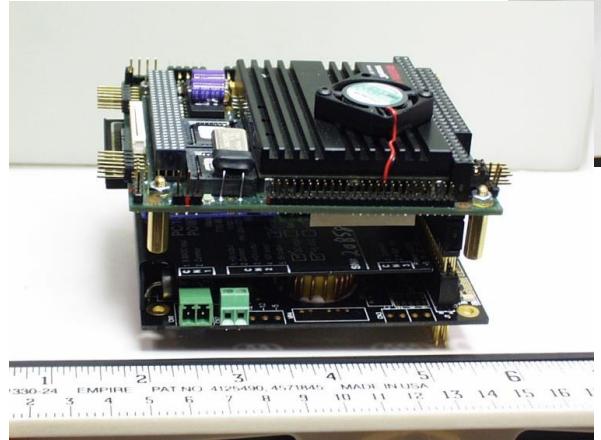
Or...

➤ Wireless sensing + Data Networking!

➤ Group of sensors linked by wireless media to perform distributed sensing tasks



Sensor Nodes and platforms



CM 23/24



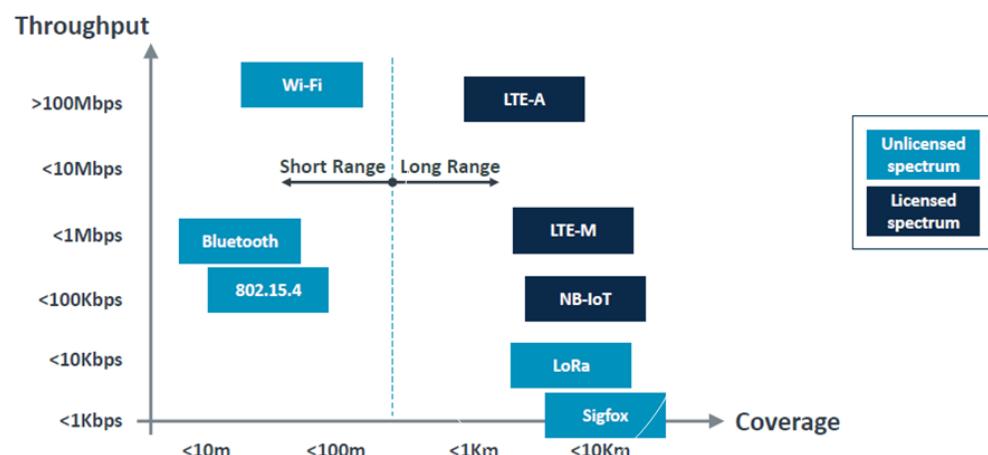
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IoT Wireless Connectivity

As with wireless in general, multiple standards with different properties

IoT Wireless Connectivity Technology

Multiple standards, different attributes

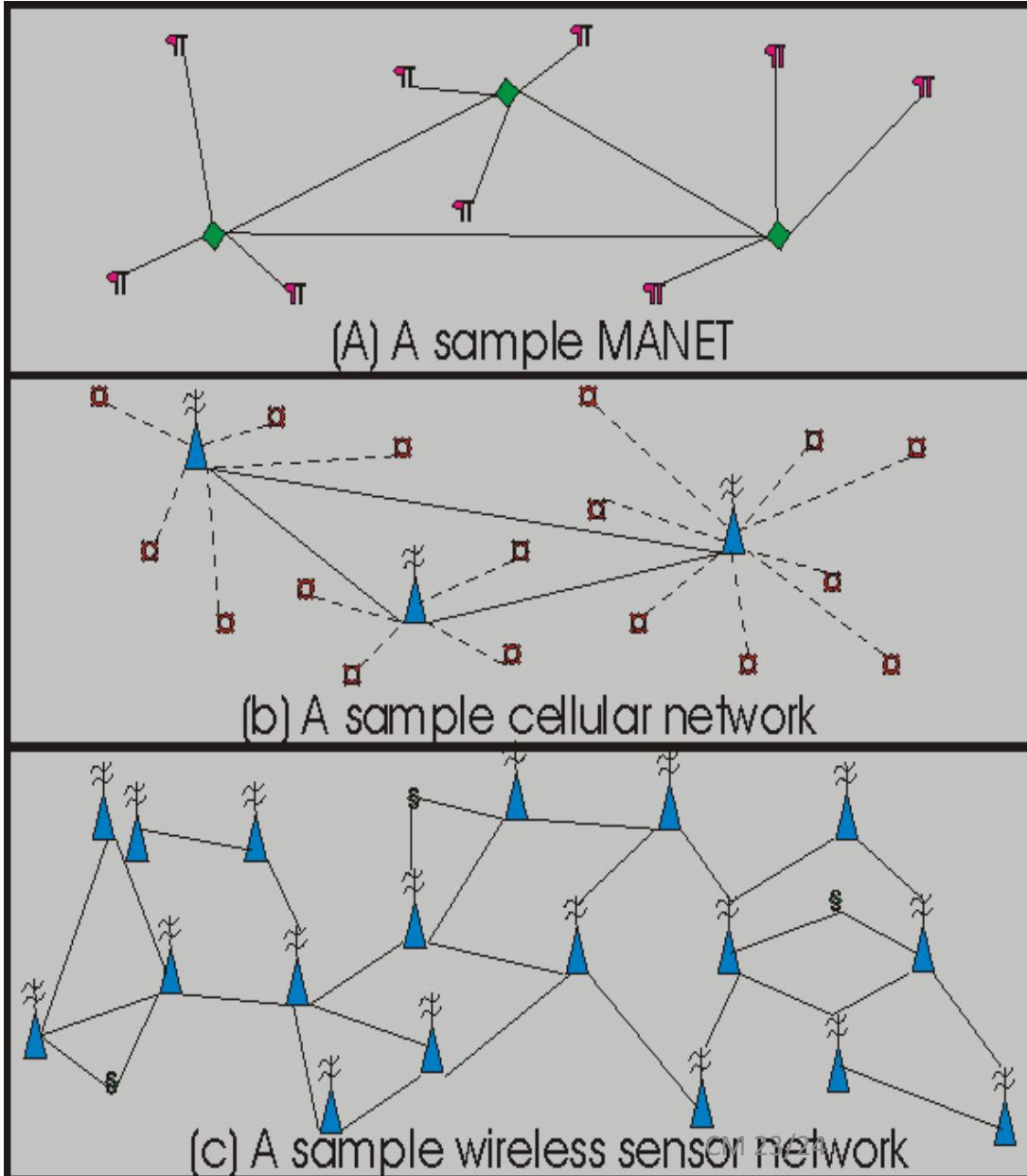


MIoT and HIoT are different

- IoT has multiple scenarios, from human-oriented to machine-oriented, and from industrial to forest environments
- WSN need to adapt to these environments.

	Manufacturing IoT	Consumer IoT
Goal	Manufacturing-industry Centric	Consumer Centric
Devices	Machines, Sensors, Controllers, Actuators, Smart meters	Consumer devices and Smart appliances
Working Environment	Harsh (vibration, noisy, extremely high/low temperature)	Moderate
Data rate	High (usually)	Low or average
Delay	Delay sensitive	Delay tolerant
Mission	Mission-critical	Non-mission-critical

Types of wireless Networks

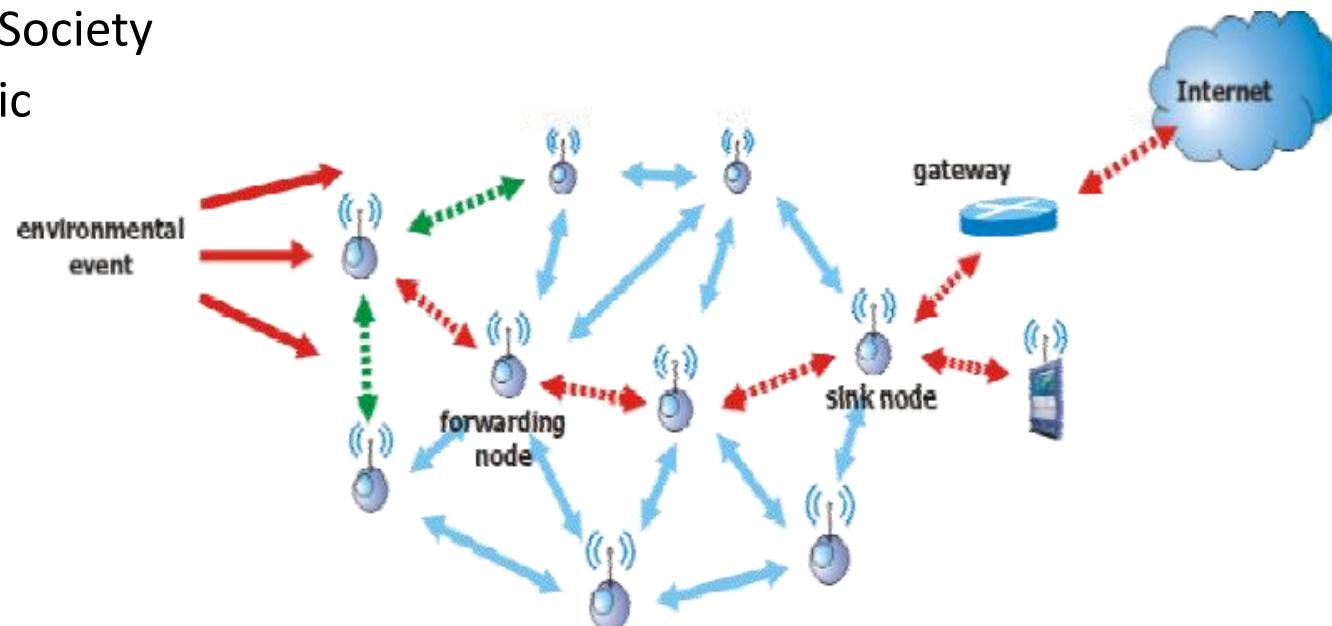


MANET – Mobile Ad-hoc network

WSN can explore the architecture and protocol concepts both of MANETs (mobile ad-hoc networks) and of cellular networks.

Wireless Sensor Network

- Focus on:
 - Ubiquitous Computing
 - Ubiquitous Network Society
 - (often) Human-centric
- **Ubiquitous**
 - Anytime
 - Anyone
 - Anywhere
 - Any Device
 - Affordable
 - All Security
 - Any Information/Service



MAC: challenges for wireless networking

- MAC is a critical layer for networking
- Traditional problems
 - Fairness
 - Latency
 - Throughput
- For Sensor Networks, more problems are added
 - Power efficiency
 - Scalability

MAC challenges for WSN

- Sensor networks are deployed in an ad hoc fashion, with individual nodes remaining largely **inactive for long periods of time**, but then becoming **suddenly active** when something is detected.
- These characteristics of sensor networks and applications motivate a MAC that is different from traditional wireless MACs :
 - **Energy conservation** and **self-configuration** are primary goals.
 - Per-node fairness and latency are less important.

Challenges in WSN's

- Energy and Power Consumption
- Self-organization
- Communication Heterogeneity
- Adaptability
- Security
- Scalability

Design Challenges

Why are WSNs challenging/unique?

- Typically, severely energy constrained.
 - Limited energy sources (e.g., batteries).
 - Trade-off between performance and lifetime.
- Self-organizing and self-healing.
 - Remote deployments.
- Scalable.
 - Arbitrarily large number of nodes.

Design Challenges

- Heterogeneity.
 - Devices with varied capabilities.
 - Different sensors.
 - Hierarchical deployments.
- Adaptability.
 - Adjust to operating conditions and changes in application requirements.
- Security and privacy.
 - Potentially sensitive information.
 - Hostile environments.

Sensor Network MAC Protocols

- The major sources of energy wastage are:

- Collisions – *interfering packets*
- Overhearing – *hearing more than required from a packet*
- Control packet overhead – *control versus data*
- Idle listening – *hearing for nothing*

Typical solutions in wireless MACs

- Carrier Sensing
 - Only during low traffic load.
- Contention
 - RTS-CTS only during high traffic load.
- Backoff
 - Backoff in application layer is desired other than in MAC layer.

Achieving good scalability and collision avoidance capability is necessary.

Challenges

1. Energy Efficiency:

- Sensor nodes are not connected to any energy source.
- Energy efficiency is a dominant consideration no matter what the problem is.
- Many solutions, both hardware and software related, have been proposed to optimize energy usage.

2. Ad hoc deployment (adaptability):

- Most sensor nodes are deployed in regions which have no infrastructure.
- We must cope with the changes of connectivity and distribution.

Challenges

3. Unattended operation:

- Generally, once sensors are deployed, there is no human intervention for a long time.
- Sensor network must reconfigure by itself when certain errors occur.

4. Dynamic changes (self-healing and scalability)

- As changes of connectivity due to addition of more nodes or failure of nodes, Sensor network must be able to adapt itself to changing connectivity, to arbitrary large numbers of nodes

5. Security

- Both Sensors and Actuators carry sensitive information in an hostile environment

Sensor-MAC (S-MAC)

- S-MAC is a medium-access control (MAC) protocol designed for wireless sensor networks.
 - Explores typical solutions also found in many other sensor MACs.
 - **Nodes periodically sleep, and sleep during other nodes' transmissions**
 - Nearby nodes form virtual clusters to synchronize their wake-up and sleep periods
 - Trades **energy efficiency for lower throughput and higher latency**
 - Message passing is used to reduce the contention latency and control overhead



802.15.4 and Zigbee

What is ZigBee?

- Technological Standard Created for Control and Sensor Networks
 - Based on the IEEE 802.15.4 Standard
 - Centered in small radios
- Created by the ZigBee Alliance
 - 200+ members
- History
 - *May 2003: IEEE 802.15.4 completed*
 - December 2004: ZigBee specification ratified
 - June 2005: public availability

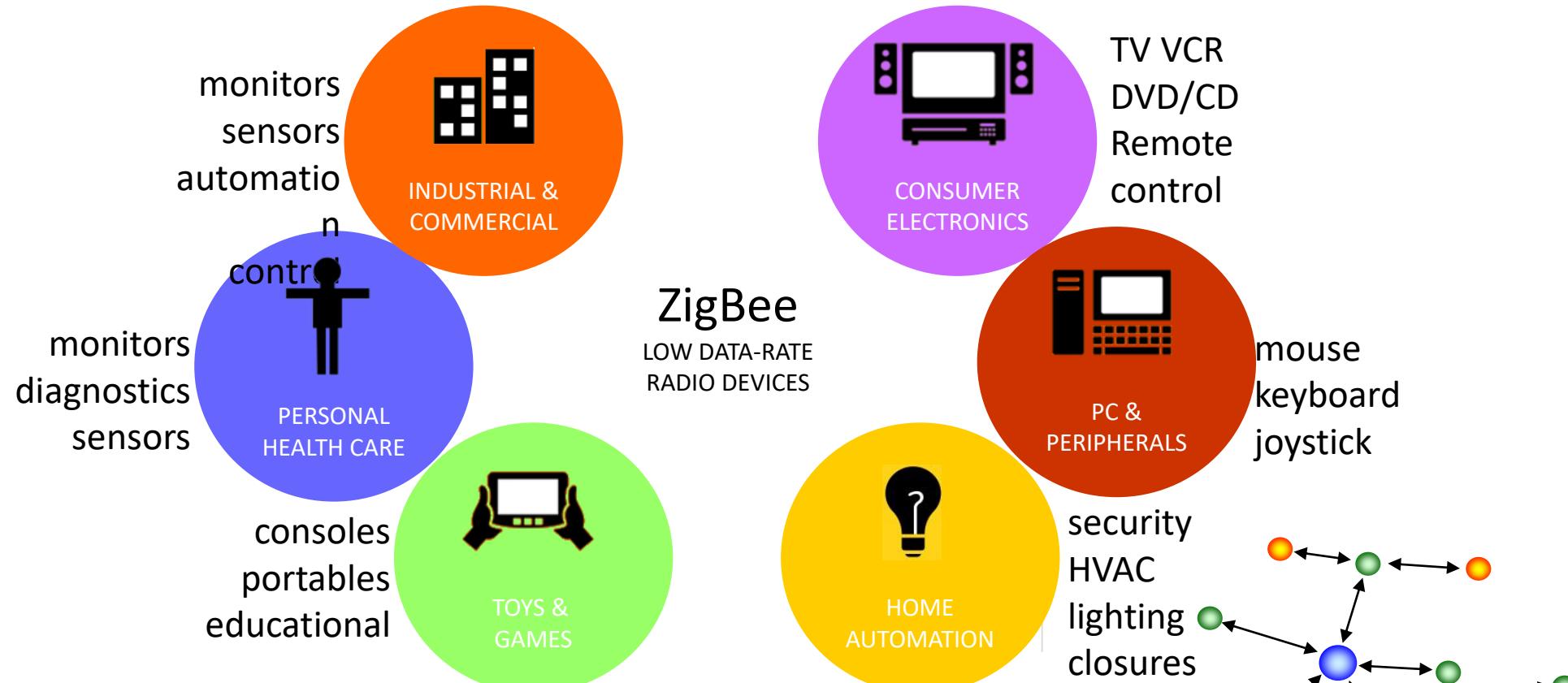
What Does ZigBee Do?

- Designed for wireless controls and sensors
 - Operates in Personal Area Networks (PAN's) and device-to-device networks
 - Connectivity between small packet devices
 - Examples: control of lights, switches, thermostats, appliances, etc.

Zigbee?

- Named for erratic, zig-zagging patterns of bees between flowers
- Symbolizes communication between nodes in a mesh network
- Network components “seen as analogous” to queen bee, drones, worker bees

ZigBee network applications



- Just everything you can imagine for wireless sensor nodes or in general short range communications

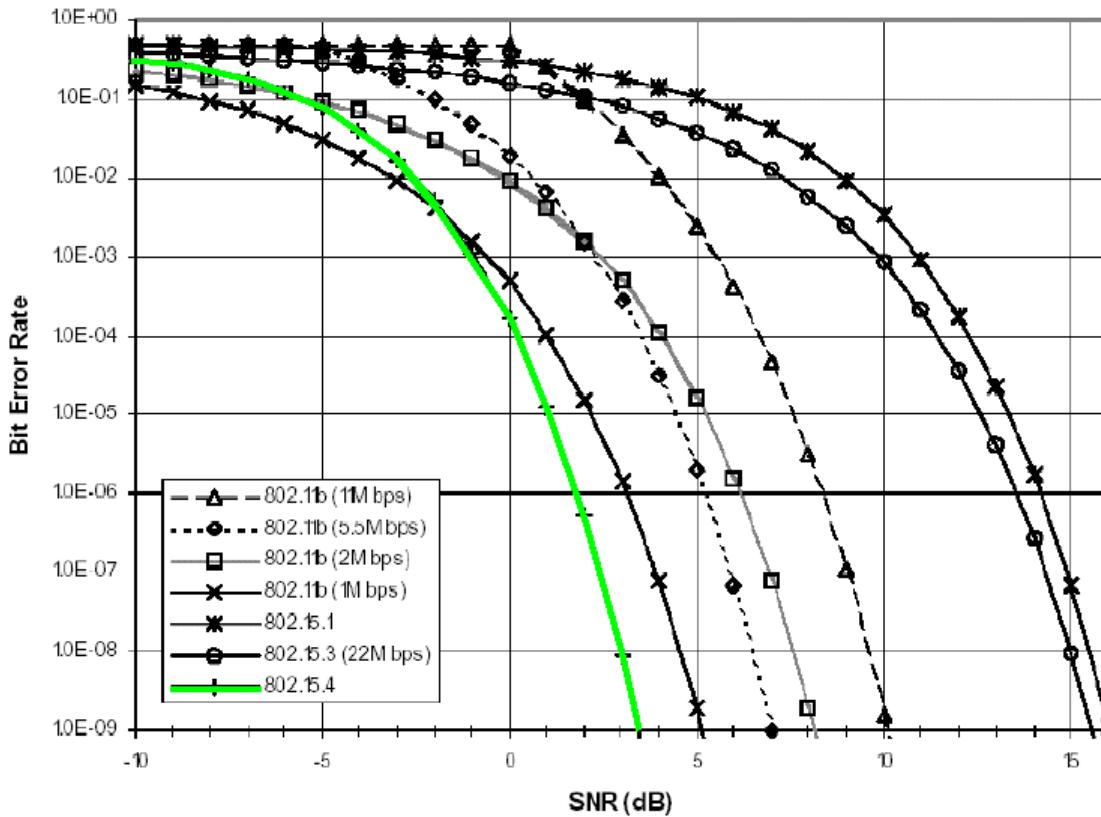
ZigBee and Other Wireless Technologies

Market Name	ZigBee™	---	Wi-Fi™	Bluetooth™
Standard	802.15.4	GSM/GPRS CDMA1xRTT	802.11b	802.15.1
Application Focus	Monitoring & Control	Wide Area Voice & Data	Web, Email, Video	Cable Replacement
System Resources	4KB - 32KB	16MB+	1MB+	250KB+
Battery Life (days)	100 - 1,000+	1-7	.5 - .5	1 - 7
Network Size	Unlimited (2^{64})	1	32	7
Bandwidth (KB/s)	20 - 250	64 - 128+	11,000+	720
Transmission Range (meters)	1 - 100+	1,000+	1 - 100	1 - 10+
Success Metrics	Reliability, Power, Cost	Reach, Quality	Speed, Flexibility	Cost, Convenience

Why do we need another “WPAN” standard?

- Power consumption
 - ZigBee: 10mA <==> BT: 100mA
- Production costs
 - ZigBee: 1.1 \$ <==> BT: 3 \$
- Development costs
 - Codesize ZB/codesize BT = $\frac{1}{2}$
- Bit-error-rate (BER)
- Sensitivity
- flexibility
 - No. of supported nodes
 - ZigBee: 65536 (in a mesh) <==> BT: 7
- Security
- Latency requirements
- Range
 - ZigBee: up to 75 m in LOS condition <==> BT: 10 m

802.11b, 802.15.x BER Comparison

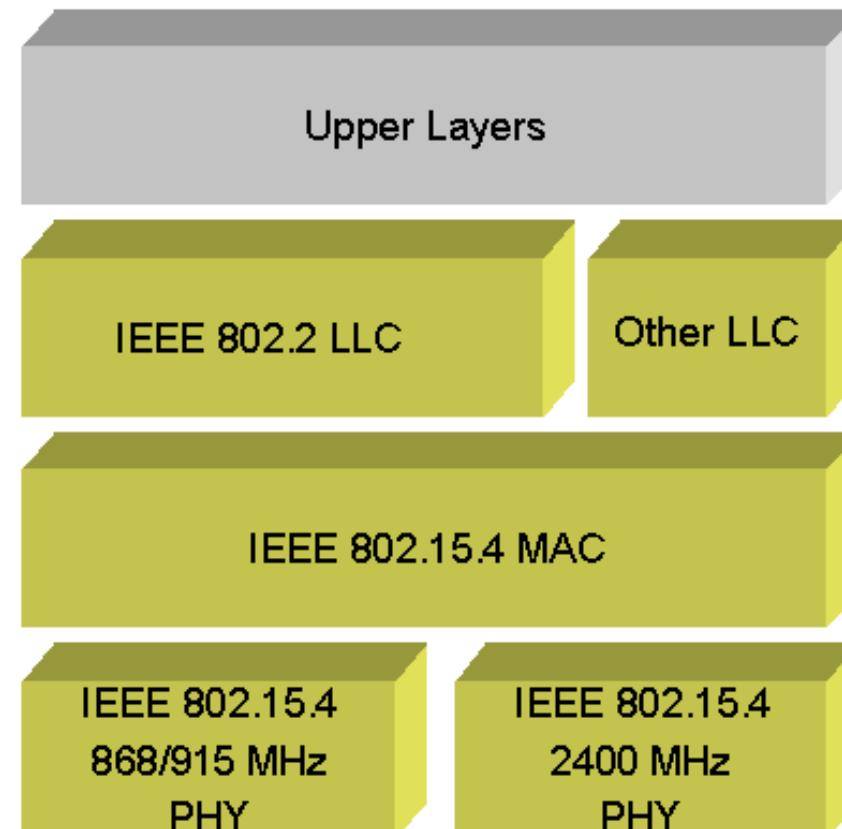


ZigBee/IEEE 802.15.4 features

- Low power consumption
- Low cost
- Small packet
- Low offered message throughput
- Supports large network orders ($\leq 65k$ nodes)
- Low to no QoS guarantees
- Flexible protocol design suitable for many applications

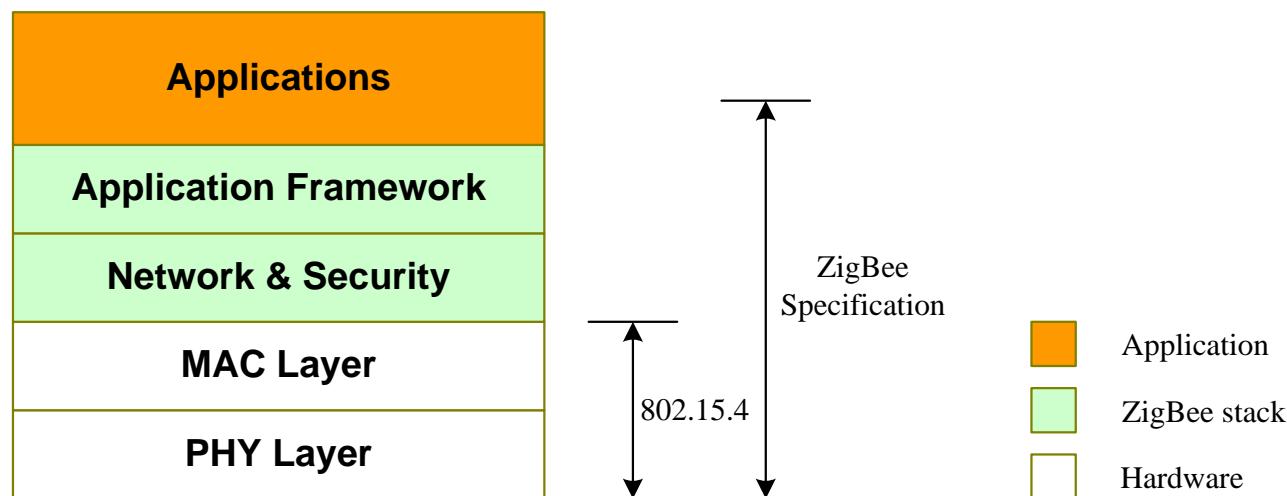
IEEE 802.15.4 - Overview

- Low Rate WPAN (LR-WPAN)
 - E.g. Sensor networks
- Simple and low cost
 - Fully handshake protocol
- Low power consumption
 - Years on lifetime using standard batteries
- Different topologies
 - Star, peer-to-peer, combined
- Data rates: 20-250 kbps
 - Low latency support
- Operates at different frequencies
 - 868 Mhz, 915 Mhz, 2.4 GHz

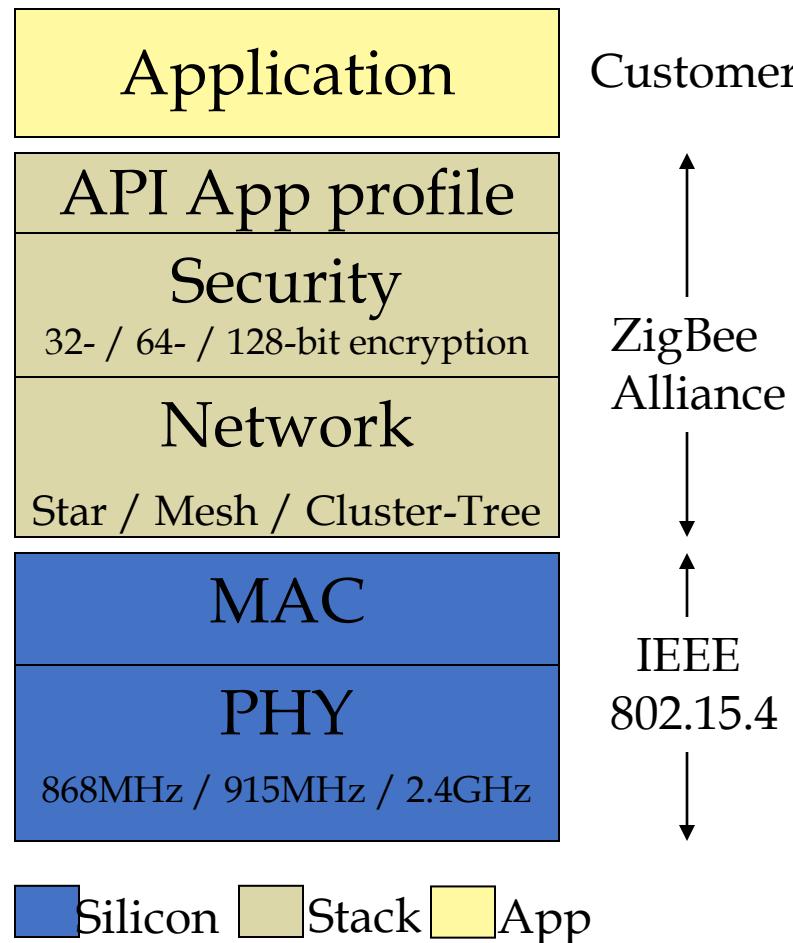


ZigBee/802.15.4 architecture

- ZigBee Alliance
 - Companies: semiconductor manufacturers, IP providers, OEMs, etc.
 - Defining upper layers of protocol stack: from network to application, including application profiles
 - First profiles published mid 2003
- IEEE 802.15.4 Working Group
 - Defining lower layers of protocol stack: MAC and PHY



IEEE 802.15.4 & ZigBee In Context



ZigBee Alliance

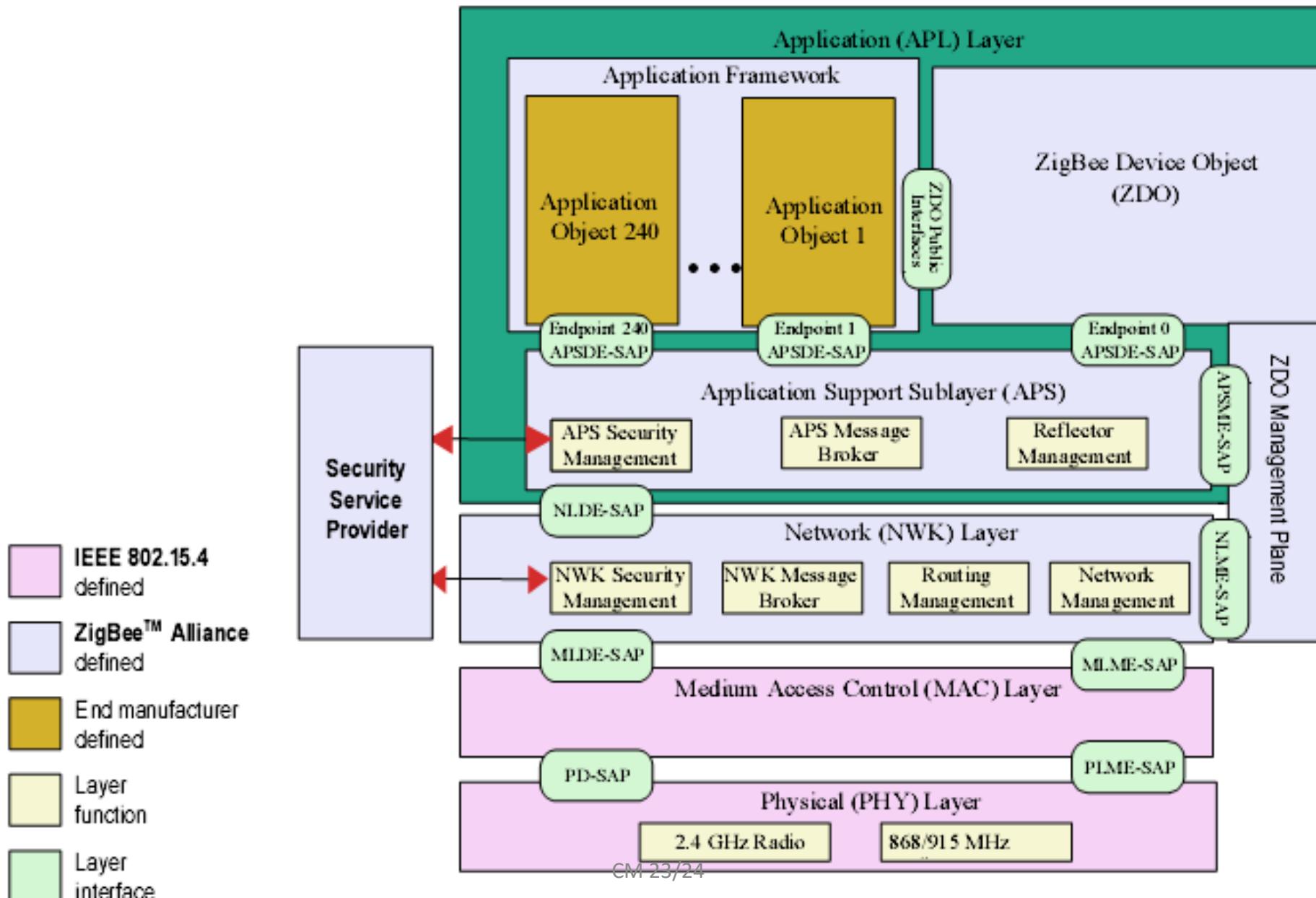
- “the software”
- Network, Security & Application layers
- Brand management

IEEE 802.15.4

- “the hardware”
- Physical & Media Access Control layers

Source: http://www.zigbee.org/resources/documents/IWAS_presentation_Mar04_Designing_with_802154_and_zigbee.ppt

Protocol Stack



How ZigBee Works

- Topology
 - Star
 - Cluster Tree
 - Mesh
- Network coordinator, routers, end devices
- 2 or more devices form a PAN/WSN

How ZigBee Works

- States of operation
 - Active
 - Sleep
- Devices
 - Full Function Devices (FFD's)
 - Reduced Function Devices (RFD's)
- Modes of operation
 - Beacon
 - Non-beacon
- Traffic types
 - Intermittent
 - Repetitive
 - Periodic

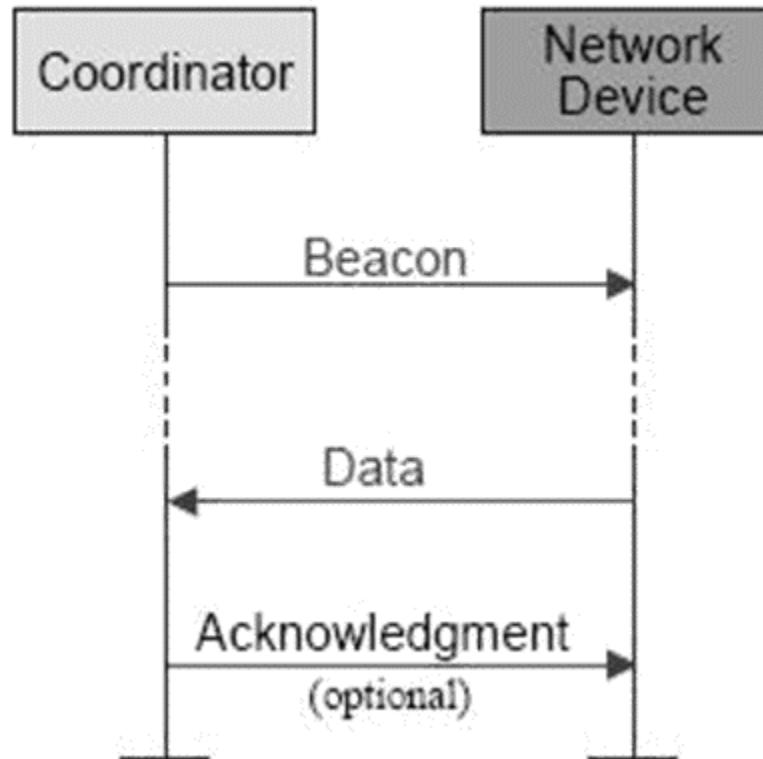
Traffic-Types

- Data is periodic
 - application dictates rate (e.g. sensors)
- Data is intermittent
 - application or stimulus dictates rate (optimum power savings), e.g. light switch
- Data is repetitive (fixed rate a priori)
 - device gets guaranteed time slot (e.g. heart monitor)

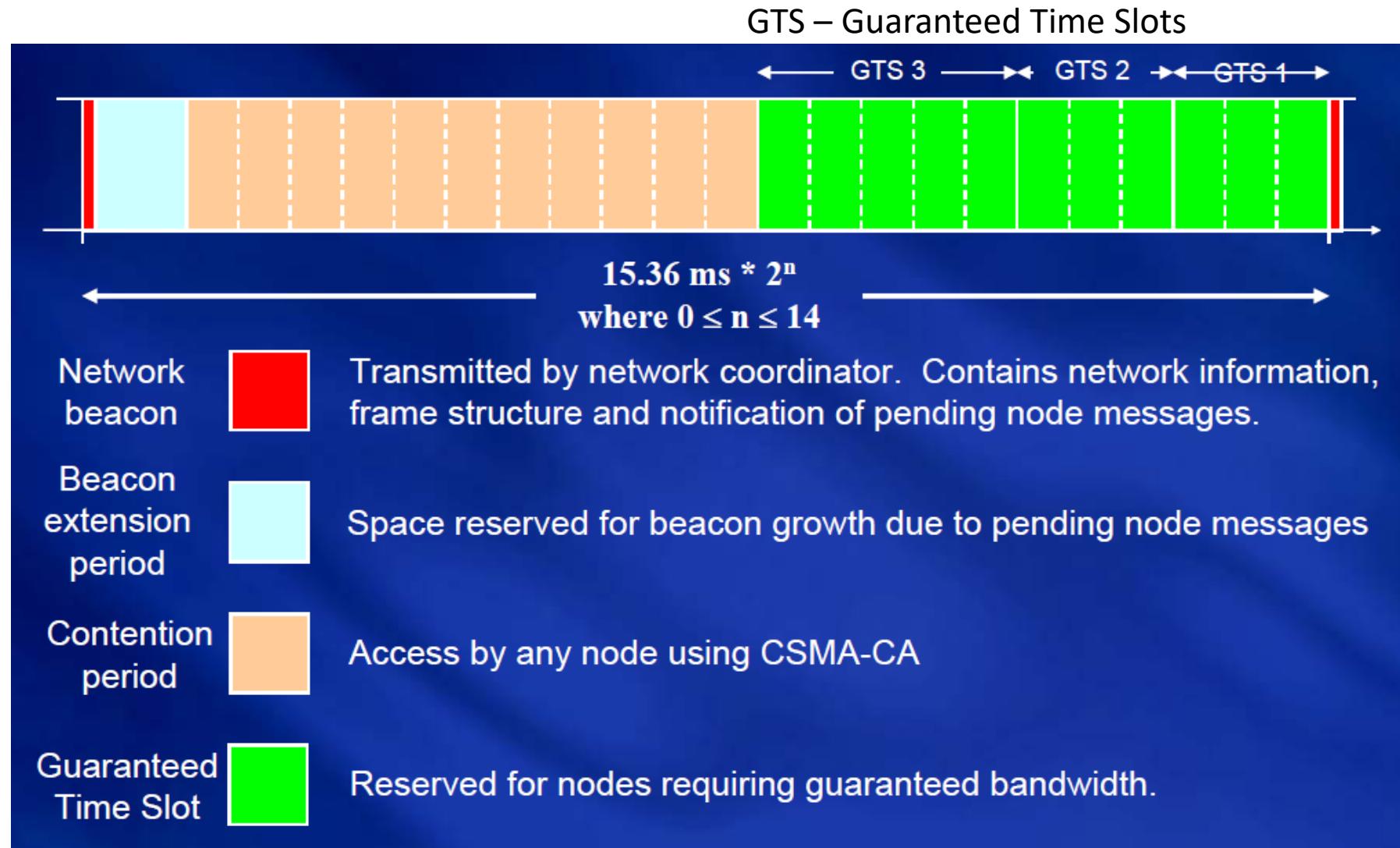
Traffic-Modes

Beacon mode:

- beacon sent periodically
- Coordinator and end device can go to power save
- Lowest energy consumption
- Precise timing needed
- Beacon period (ms-m)



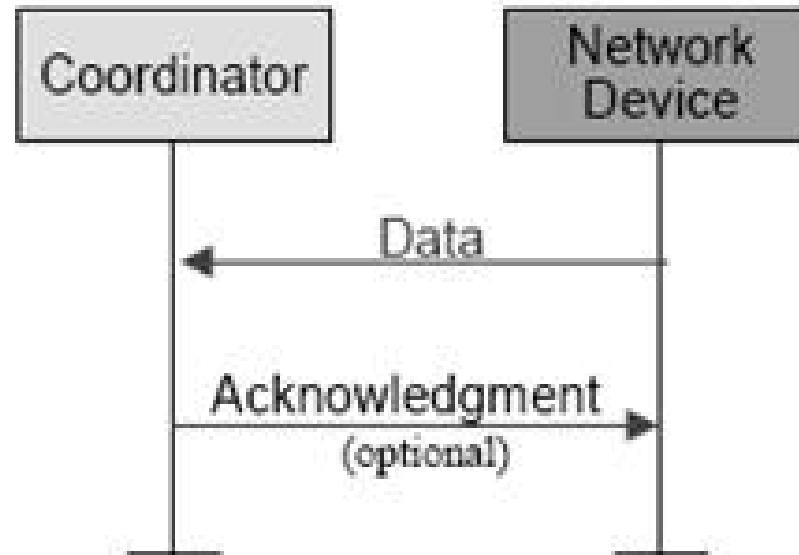
Beacon Mode



Traffic-Modes

Non-Beacon mode:

- coordinator/routers have to stay awake
(robust power supply needed)
- heterogeneous network
- asymmetric power



ZigBee Node-Types

ZigBee Coordinator (ZBC) (IEEE 802.15.4 FFD)

- only one in a network
- initiates network
- stores information about the network
- all devices communicate with the ZBC
- routing functionality
- bridge to other networks

ZigBee Router (ZBR) (IEEE 802.15.4 FFD)

- optional component
- routes between nodes, network backbone
- extends network coverage
- manages local address allocation/de-allocation

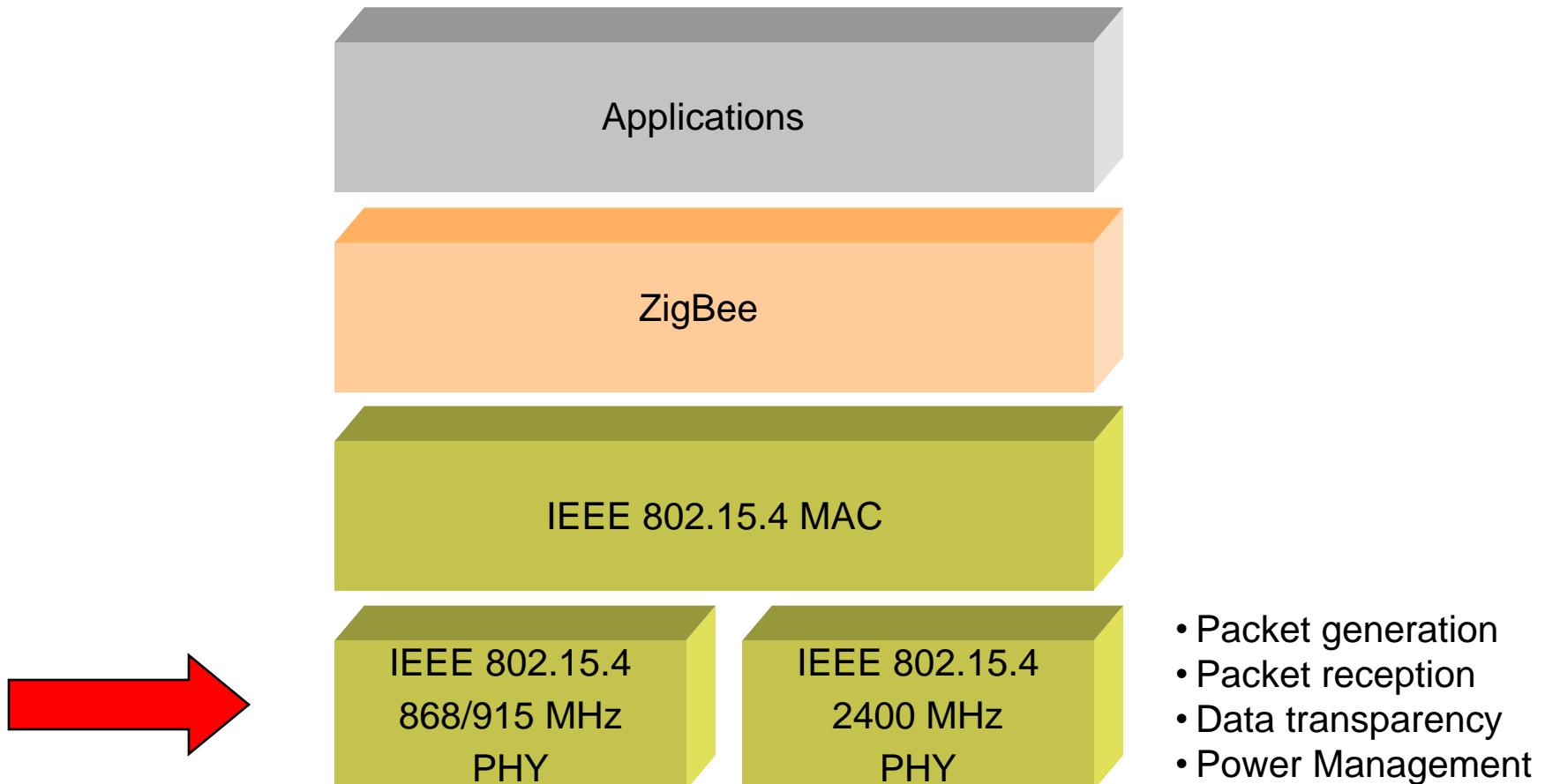
ZigBee End Device (ZBE) (IEEE 802.15.4 RFD)

- optimized for low power consumption
- cheapest device type
 - sensor would be deployed here



Remember:
FFD – Full Function Device
RFD – Reduced Function Device

802.15.4 / ZigBee Architecture



IEEE 802.15.4 basics

- 802.15.4 is a simple packet data protocol for lightweight wireless networks
 - Channel Access is via **Carrier Sense Multiple Access with collision avoidance** and optional time slotting
 - Message acknowledgement and an optional beacon structure
 - Multi-level security
 - Works well for
 - Long battery life, selectable latency for controllers, sensors, remote monitoring and portable electronics
 - Configured for maximum battery life, has the potential to last as long as the shelf life of most batteries

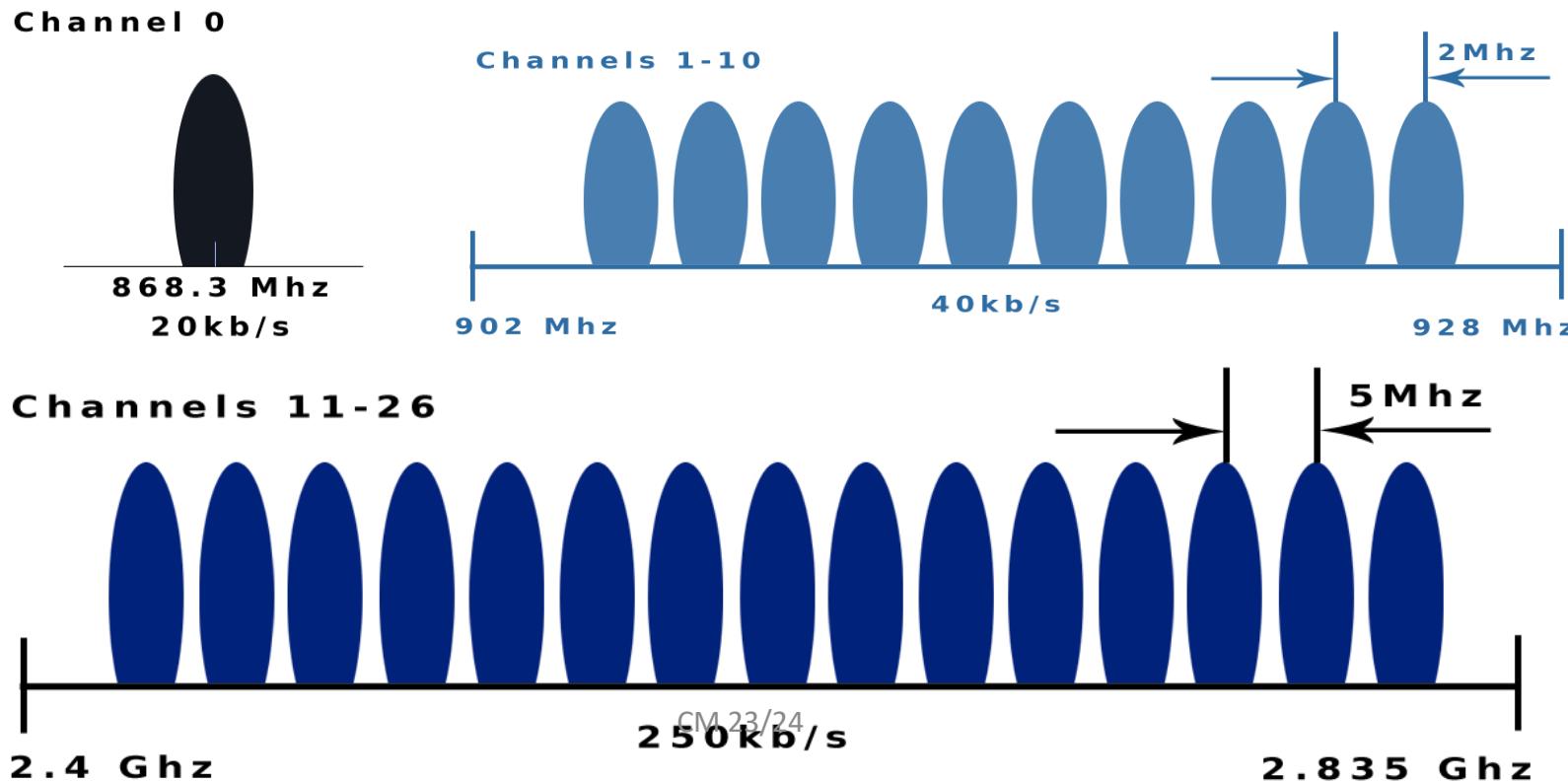
802.15.4 General characteristics

- Data rates of 250 kbps , 20 kbps and 40kpbs.
- Star or Peer-to-Peer operation.
- Support for low latency devices.
- CSMA-CA channel access, with CCA detection
 - Clear Channel Assessment
- Dynamic device addressing.
- Fully handshaked protocol for transfer reliability.
- Low power consumption.
- 16 channels in the 2.4GHz ISM band
- 10 channels in the 915MHz ISM band
- one channel in the European 868MHz band.
- Extremely low duty-cycle (<0.1%)

802.15.4 frequency bands

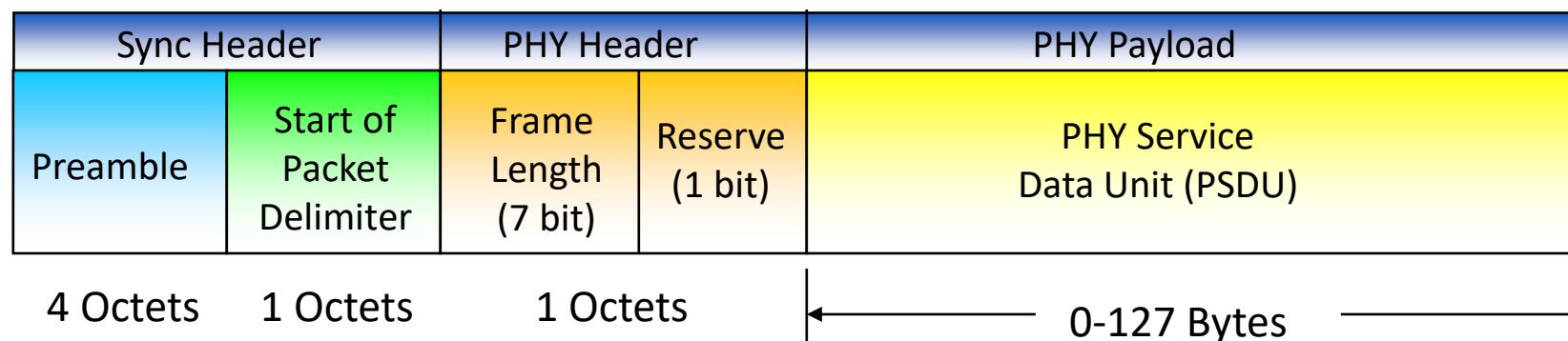
Operates in Unlicensed Bands

- ISM 2.4 GHz Global Band at 250kbps
- 868 MHz European Band at 20kbps
- 915 MHz North American Band at 40kbps

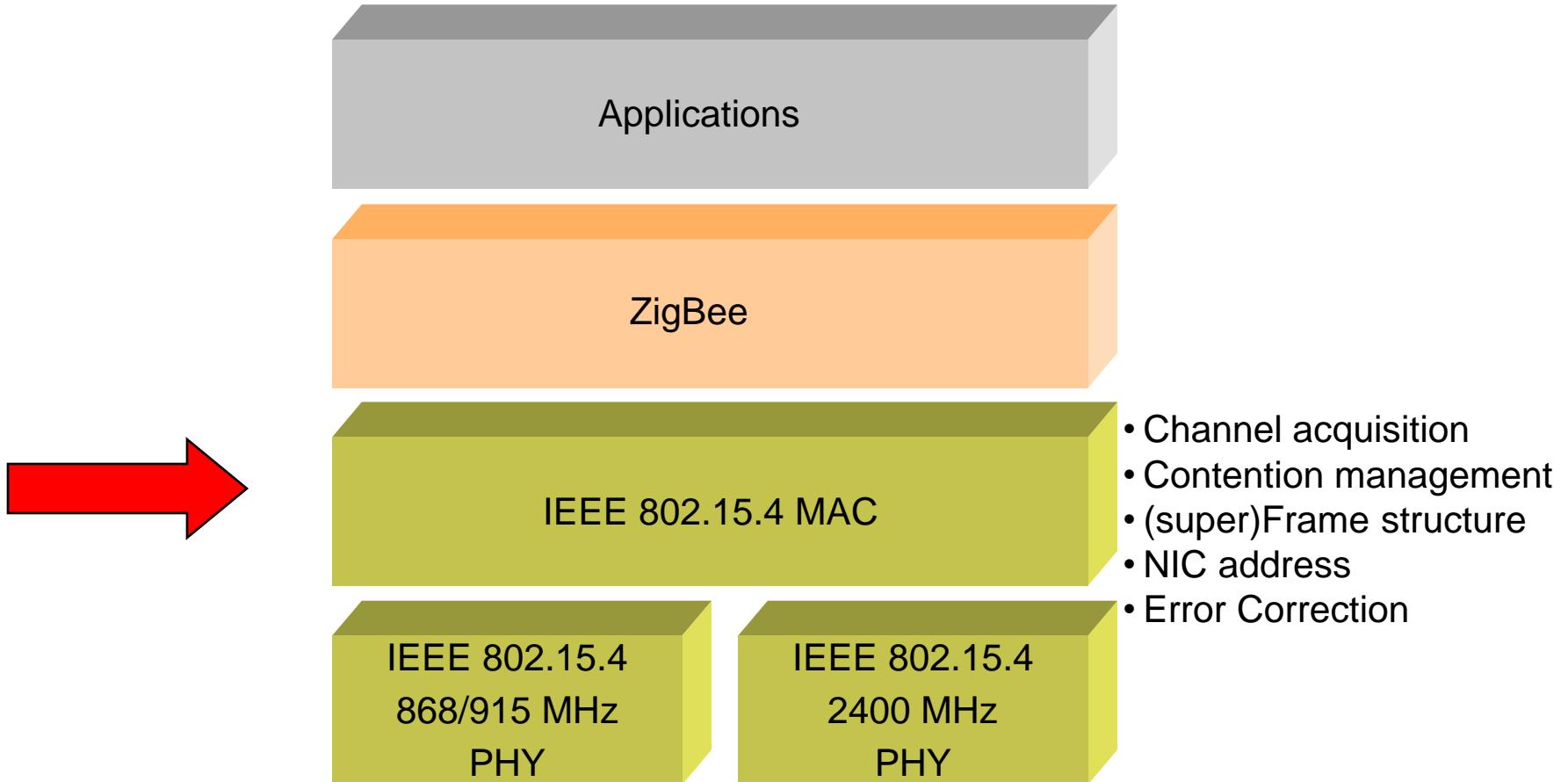


PHY frame structure

- PHY packet fields
 - Preamble (32 bits) – synchronization
 - Start of packet delimiter (8 bits) – shall be formatted as “11100101”
 - PHY header (8 bits) –PSDU length
 - PSDU (0 to 127 bytes) – data field



802.15.4 Architecture (MAC)



IEEE 802.15.4 MAC Design Drivers

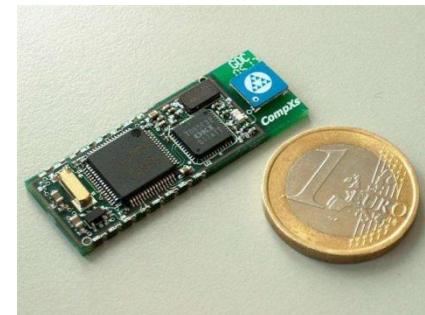
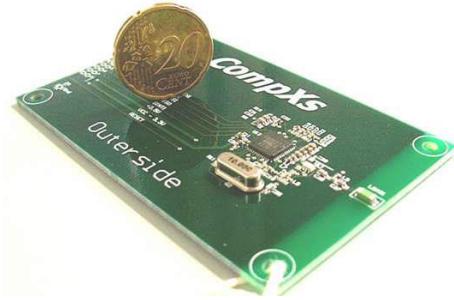
- Extremely low cost
- Ease of implementation
- Reliable data transfer
- Short range operation
- Very low power consumption

Simple but flexible protocol

IEEE 802.15.4 MAC Overview

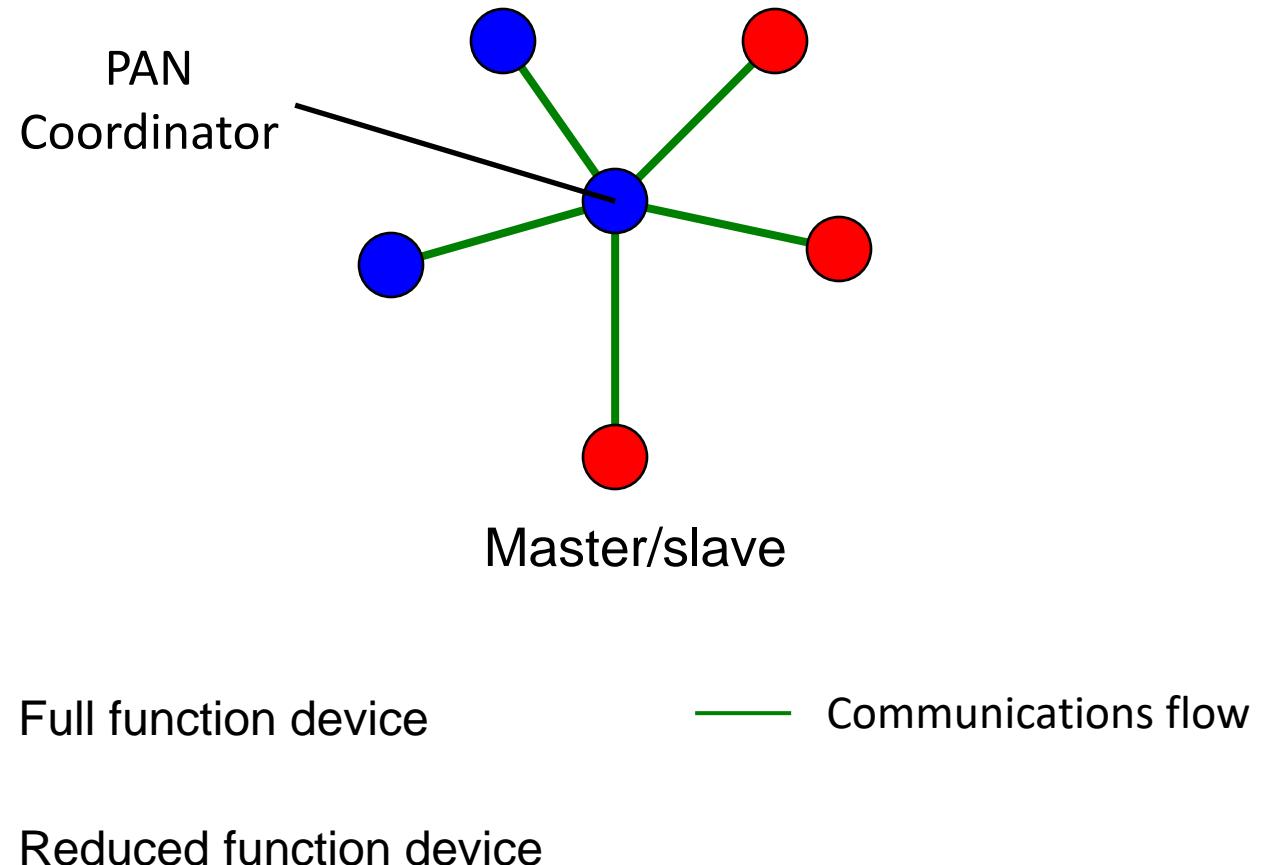
Device Classes

- Full function device (**FFD**)
 - Any topology
 - Network coordinator capable
 - Talks to any other device
 - The FFD can operate in three modes serving
 - Device
 - Coordinator
 - PAN coordinator
- Reduced function device (**RFD**)
 - Limited to star topology
 - Talks only to a network coordinator
 - Cannot become a network coordinator
 - Very simple implementation



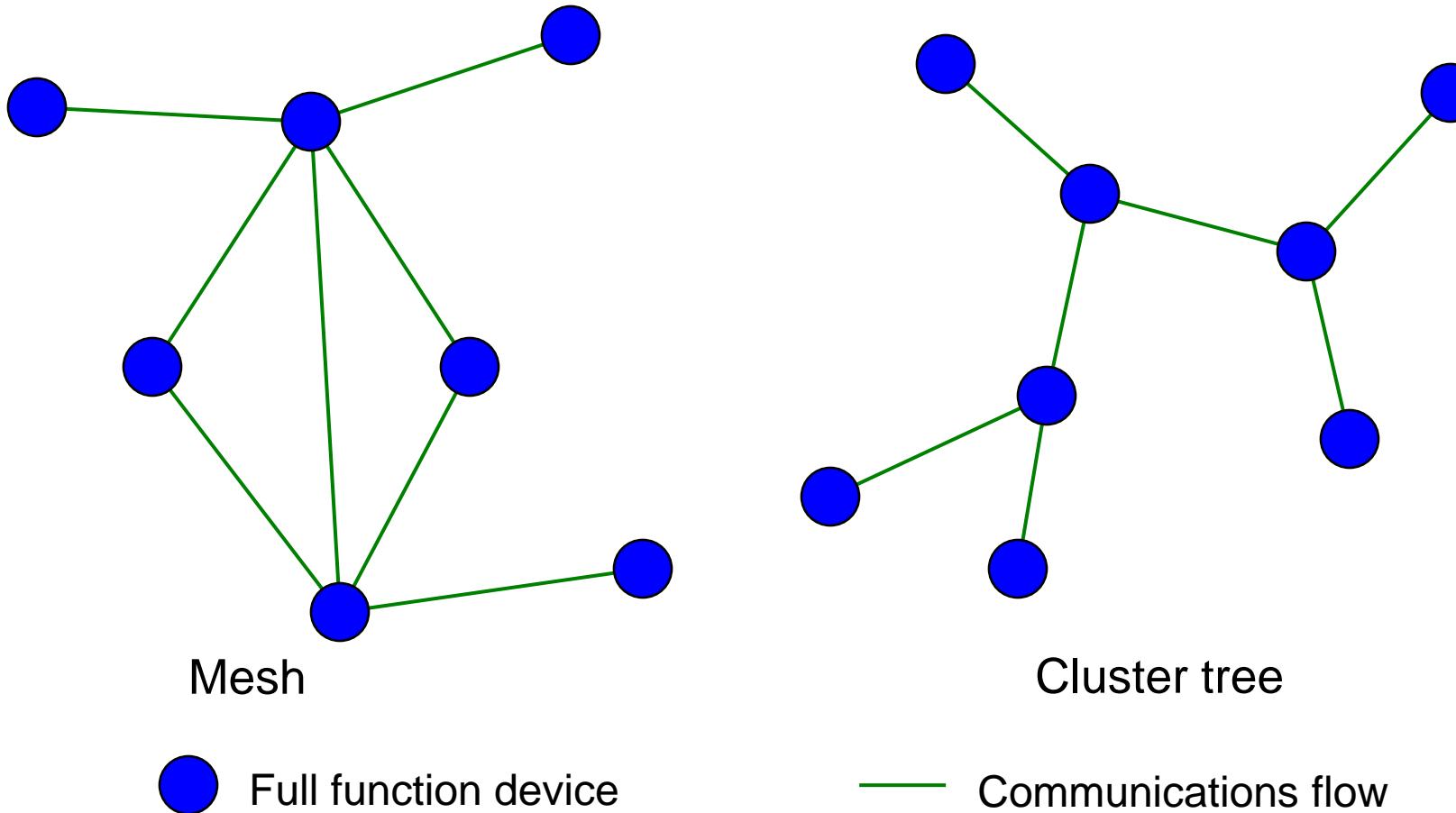
IEEE 802.15.4 MAC Overview

Star Topology



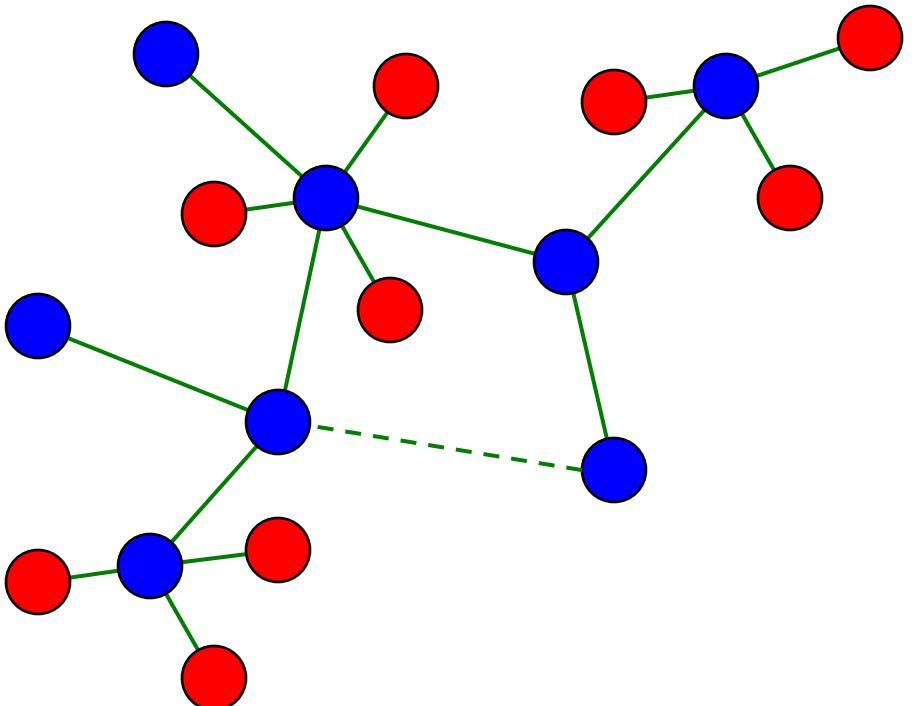
IEEE 802.15.4 MAC Overview

Mesh (Peer-Peer) and cluster tree topologies



IEEE 802.15.4 MAC Overview

Combined Topology



Full function device



Reduced function device



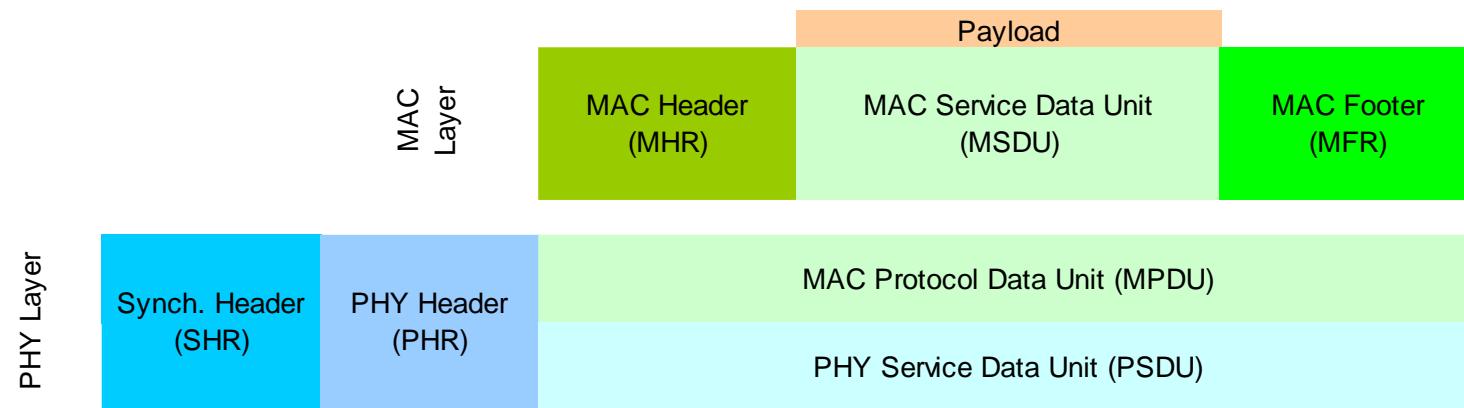
Communications flow

Clustered stars - for example, cluster nodes exist between rooms of a hotel and each room has a star network for control.

May have a mesh structure in some cases as well

IEEE 802.15.4 MAC Overview

General Frame Structure



4 Types of MAC Frames:

- Data Frame
- Beacon Frame
- Acknowledgment Frame
- MAC Command Frame

MAC layer

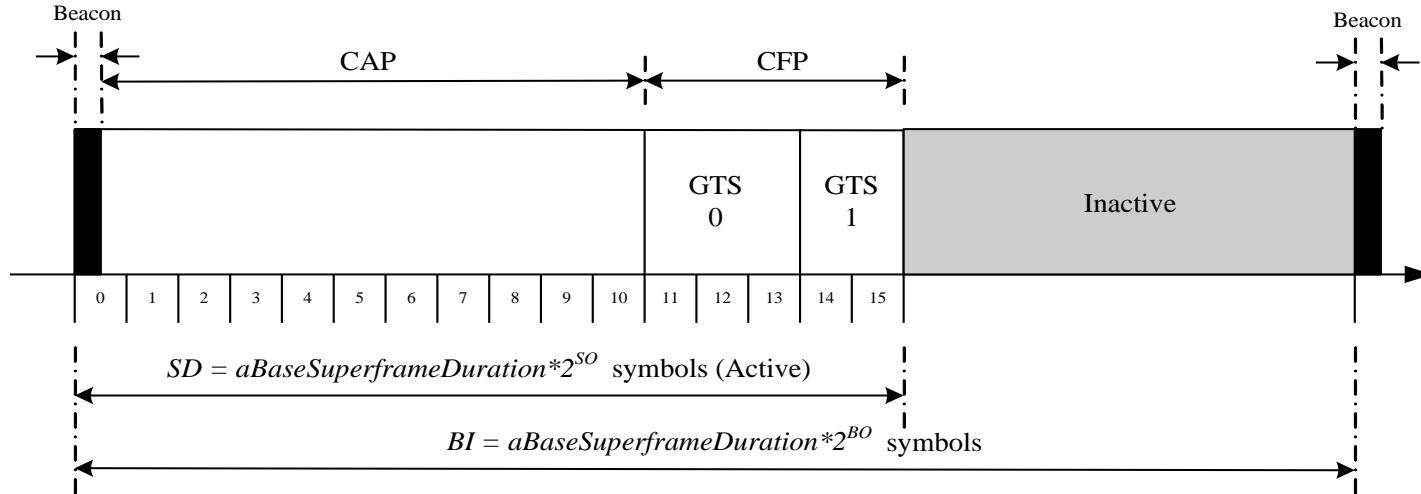
Managing PANs

- Channel scanning (Energy Detection, active, passive, orphan – verifies if it still has a parent)
- PAN ID conflict detection and resolution
- Starting a PAN
- Sending beacons
- Device discovery, association/disassociation
- Synchronization (beacon/nonbeacon)
- Orphaned device realignment

Transfer handling

- Transaction based (indirect transmission)
 - Beacon indication
 - Polling
- Transmission, Reception, Rejection, Retransmission
 - Acknowledged / Not acknowledged
- GTS management
 - Allocation/deallocation/Reallocation
 - Usage

Superframe



- A coordinator in a PAN can optionally bound channel time using a SuperFrame structure
 - bound by beacon frames
- A superframe is divided into two parts
 - Inactive: all devices sleep (including the coordinator)
 - Active:
 - Active period will be divided into 16 slots
 - 16 slots can further be divided into two parts
 - Contention access period
 - Contention free period

CAP – Contention Access Period

CFP – Contention Free Period

SD – Superframe Duration

BI – Beacon Interval

Superframe

- Beacons are used for
 - starting superframes
 - synchronizing with associated devices
 - announcing the existence of a PAN
 - informing pending data in coordinators
- In a beacon enabled network,
 - Devices use the **slotted CSMA/CA** mechanism to contend for the usage of channels
 - FFDs which require fixed rates of transmissions can ask for ***guarantee time slots (GTS)*** from the coordinator

Superframe

- The structure of superframes is controlled by two parameters: *beacon order (BO)* and *superframe order (SO)*
 - BO decides the length of a superframe
 - SO decides the length of the active portion in a superframe
- For channels 11 to 26, the length of a superframe can range from 15.36 msec to 215.7 sec.
 - which means very low duty cycle
- Remember: Duty Cycle
 - Duty Cycle indicates the fraction of time a resource is busy.
 - When a single device transmits on a channel for 2 time units every 10 time units, this device has a duty cycle of 20%.

Superframe

- Each device will be active for $2^{-(BO-SO)}$ portion of the time, and sleep for $1-2^{-(BO-SO)}$ portion of the time
- In IEEE 802.15.4, devices' duty cycle follow the specification

BO-SO	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	≥ 10
Duty cycle (%)	100	50	25	12	6.25	3.125	1.56	0.78	0.39	0.195	< 0.1

BO – Beacon Order

SO – Superframe Order

GTS concepts

- A guaranteed time slot (GTS) allows a device to operate on the channel within a portion of the superframe
- A GTS shall only be allocated by the PAN coordinator
- The PAN coordinator can allocate up to seven GTSs at the same time
- The PAN coordinator decides whether to allocate GTS based on:
 - Requirements of the GTS request
 - The current available capacity in the superframe

GTS concepts

- A GTS can be **deallocated**
 - At any time at the discretion of the PAN coordinator or
 - By the device that originally requested the GTS
- A data frame transmitted in an allocated GTS shall use only short addressing
- The PAN coordinator shall be able to store the info of devices that are necessary for GTS, including starting slot, length, direction and associated device address

GTS concepts

- Before GTS starts, the GTS direction shall be specified as either transmit or receive
- Each device may request one **transmit** GTS and/or one **receive** GTS
- A device shall only attempt to allocate and use a GTS if it is currently tracking the beacon
- If a device loses synchronization with the PAN coordinator, all its GTS allocations shall be lost
- The use of GTSs be an RFD is optional

Channel access mechanism

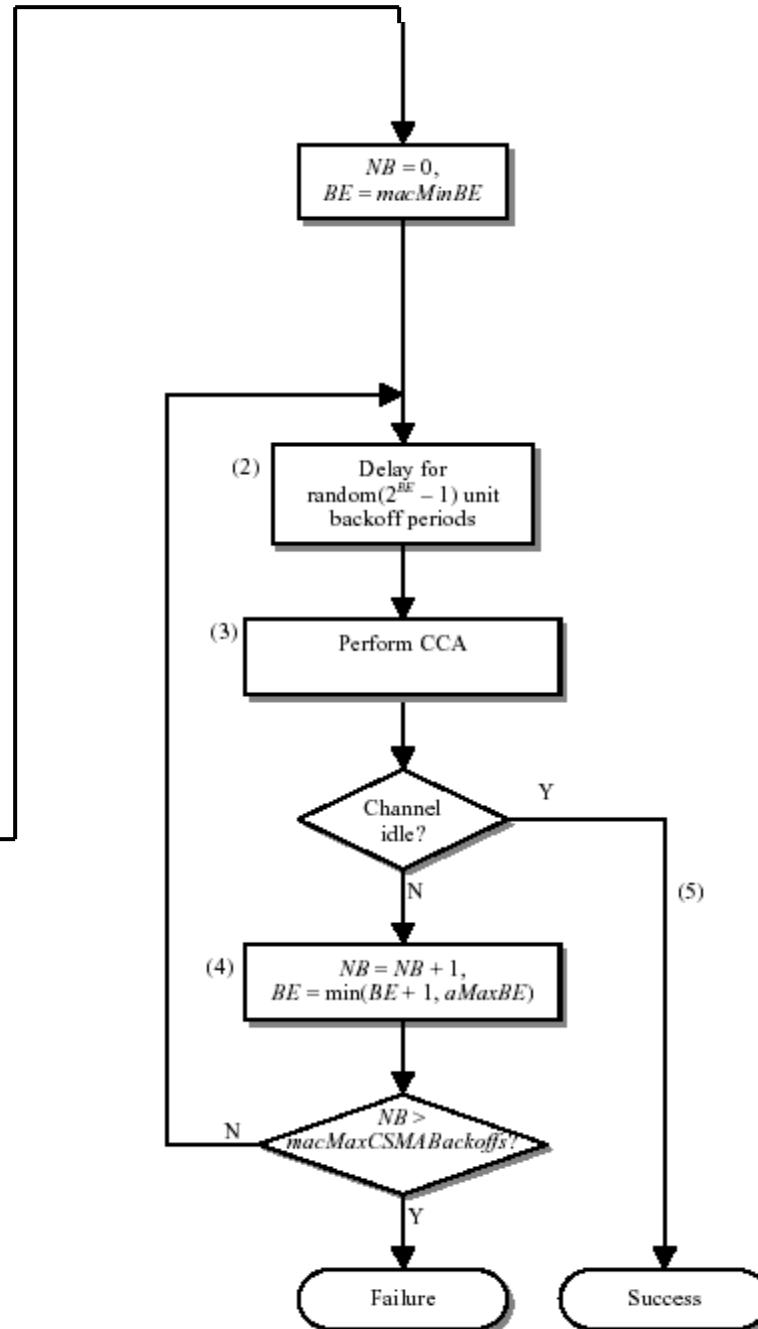
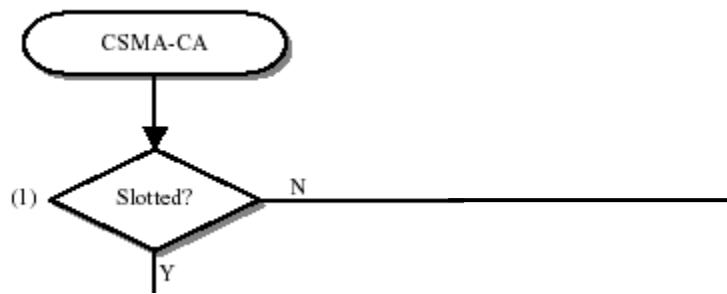
- Two type channel access mechanism:
 - In non-beacon-enabled networks → **unslotted** CSMA/CA channel access mechanism
 - In beacon-enabled networks → **slotted** CSMA/CA channel access mechanism

Unslotted CSMA/CA

NB is the number of times the CSMA-CA algorithm was required to backoff while attempting the current transmission

BE is the backoff exponent, which defines the number of backoff periods a node should wait before attempting **Clear Channel Assessment (CCA)**

MacMinBE constant defined in the standard.



CSMA/CA algorithm

- In slotted CSMA/CA
 - The **backoff period boundaries** of every device in the PAN shall be **aligned with the superframe slot boundaries** of the PAN coordinator
 - i.e. the start of first backoff period of each device is aligned with the start of the beacon transmission
 - The MAC sublayer shall ensure that the PHY layer commences **all of its transmissions on the boundary of a backoff period**

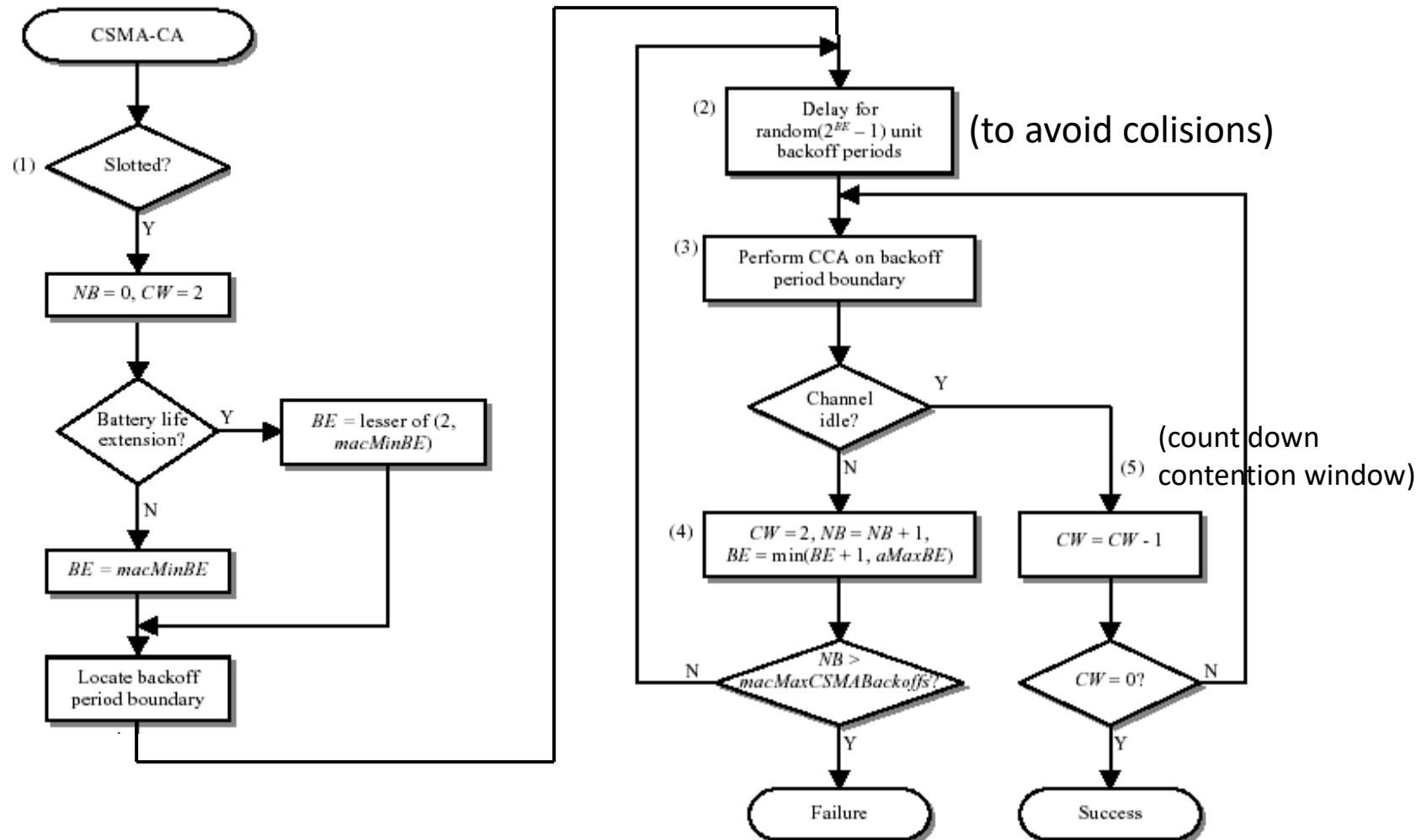
CSMA/CA algorithm

- Each device shall maintain three variables for each transmission attempt
 - NB: number of time the CSMA/CA algorithm was required to backoff while attempting the current transmission
 - CW: contention window length, the number of backoff periods that needs to be clear of channel activity before transmission can commence (initial to 2 and reset to 2 if sensed channel to be busy)
 - BE: the backoff exponent which is related to how many backoff periods a device shall wait before attempting to assess a channel

Slotted CSMA/CA

NB is the number of times the CSMA-CA algorithm was required to backoff while attempting the current transmission

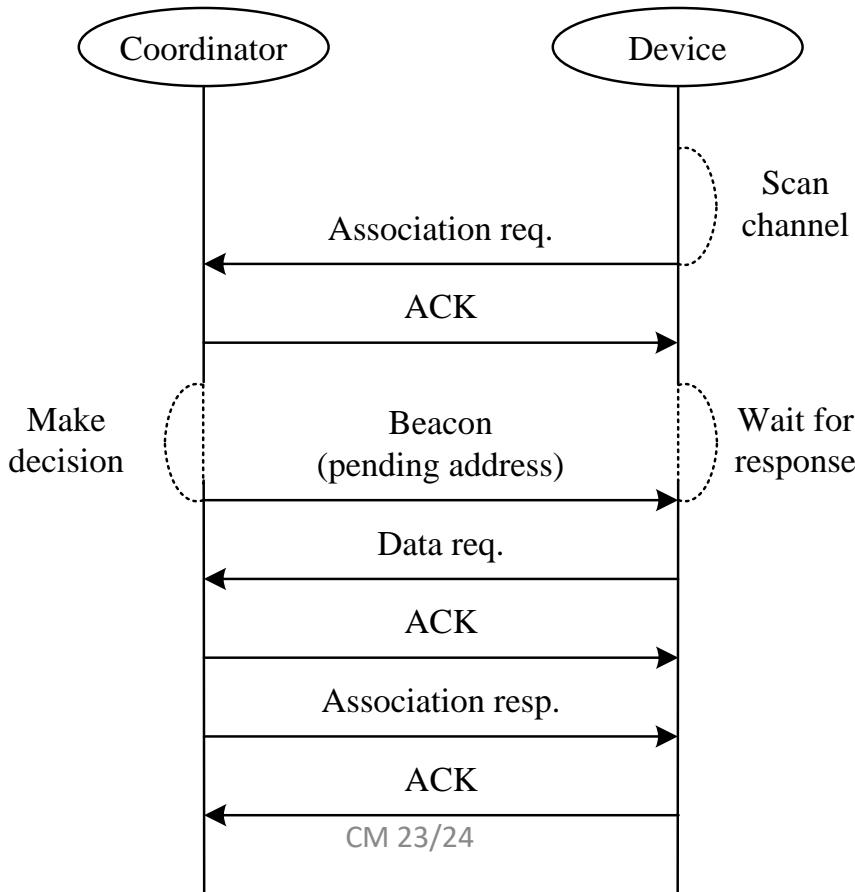
BE is the backoff exponent, which defines the number of backoff periods a node should wait before attempting **Clear Channel Assessment (CCA)**



This ensures performing two CCA operations to prevent potential collisions of acknowledgement frames. If the channel is again sensed as idle (CW = 0), the node attempts to transmit.

Association procedures

- A device becomes a member of a PAN by associating with its coordinator
- Procedures

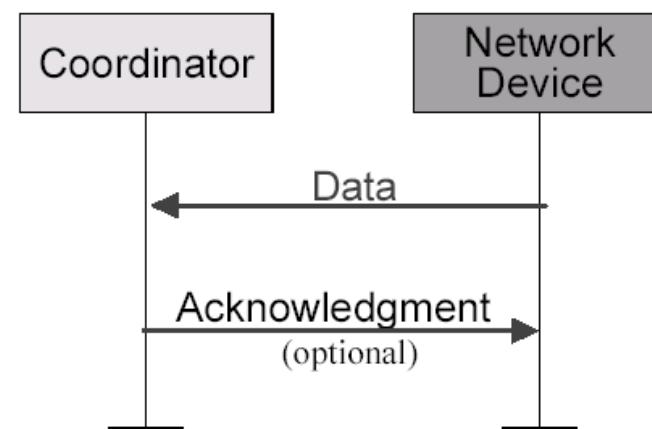
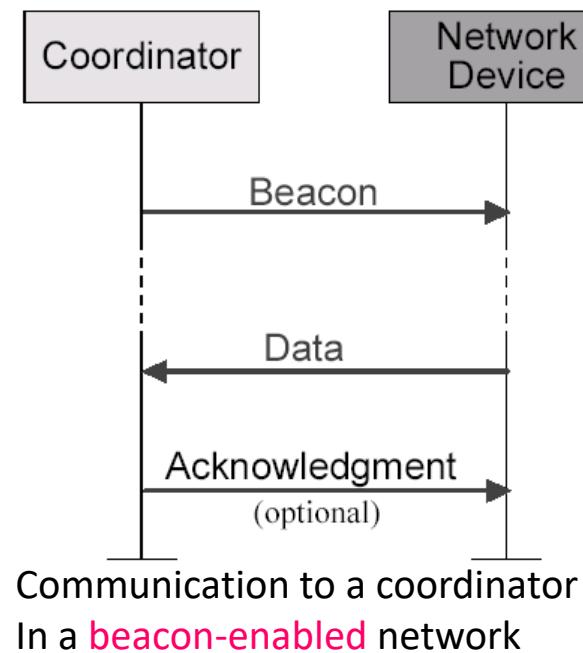


Association procedures

- In IEEE 802.15.4, **association results** are announced in an indirect fashion
- A coordinator responds to association requests by appending devices' long addresses (64 bit) in beacon frames
- Devices need to send a data request to the coordinator to acquire the association result
- After associating to a coordinator, a device will be assigned a 16-bit *short address*.

Data transfer model (device to coordinator)

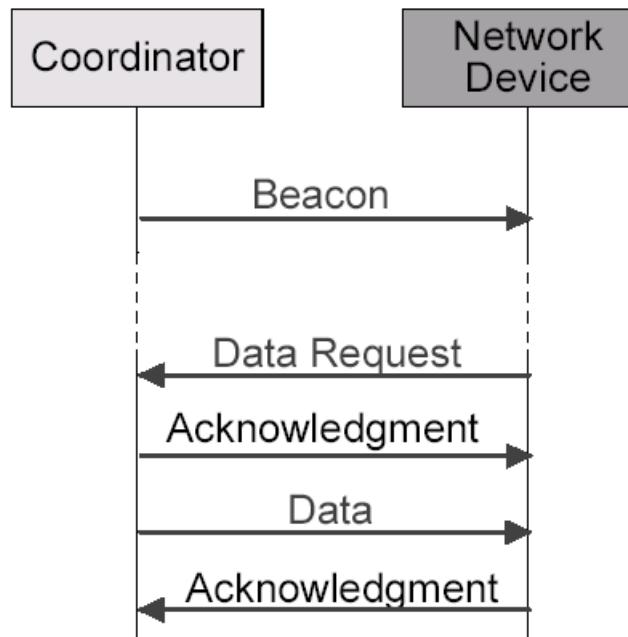
- Data transferred from device to coordinator
 - In a beacon-enable network, the device finds the beacon to synchronize to the superframe structure. Then uses slotted CSMA/CA to transmit its data.
 - In a non beacon-enable network, device simply transmits its data using unslotted CSMA/CA



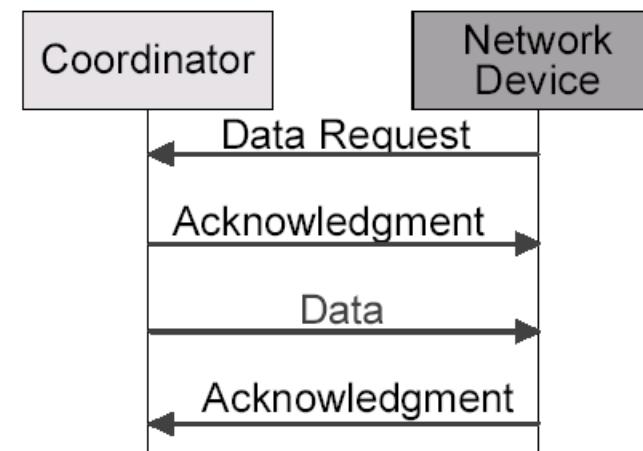
Communication to a coordinator
In a **non beacon-enabled** network

Data transfer model (coordinator to device)

- Data transferred from coordinator to device
 - In a **beacon-enable network**, the coordinator indicates in the beacon that the data is pending. Device periodically listens to the beacon and transmits a MAC command request using slotted CSMA/CA if necessary.
 - In a **non-beacon-enable network**, a device transmits a MAC command request using unslotted CSMA/CA. If the coordinator has its pending data, the coordinator transmits data frame using unslotted CSMA/CA. Otherwise, coordinator transmits a data frame with zero length payload.

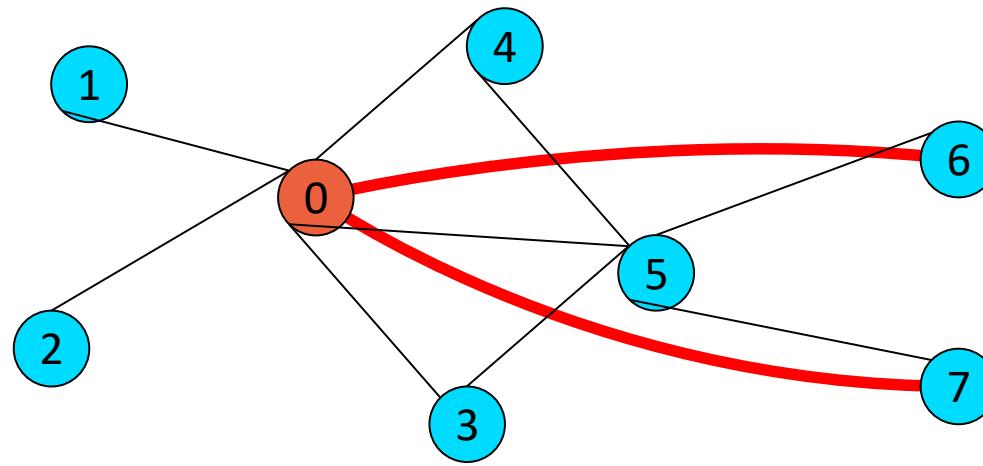


Communication from a coordinator
In a **beacon-enabled** network



Communication from a coordinator
in a **non beacon-enabled** network

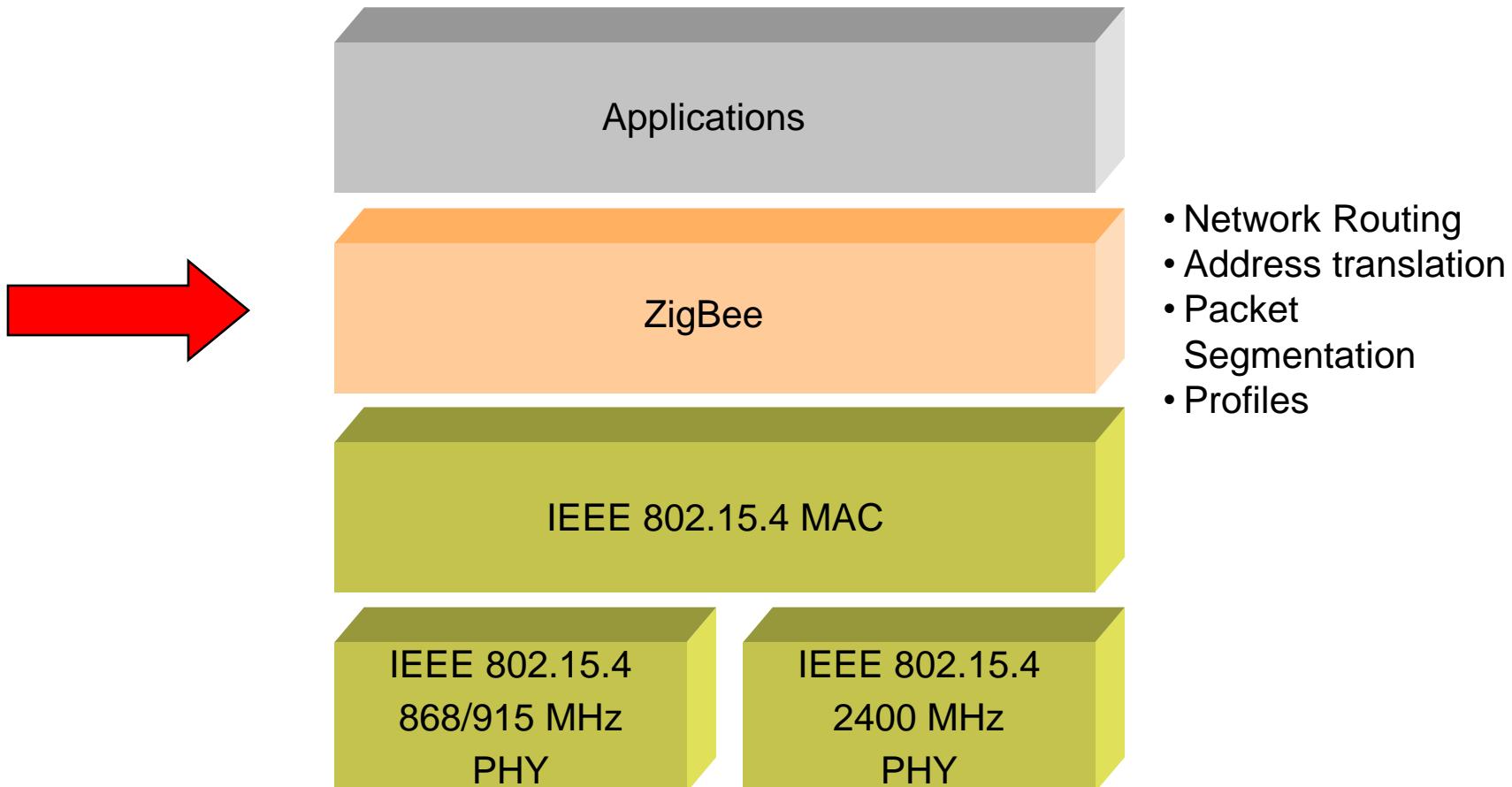
MAC layer



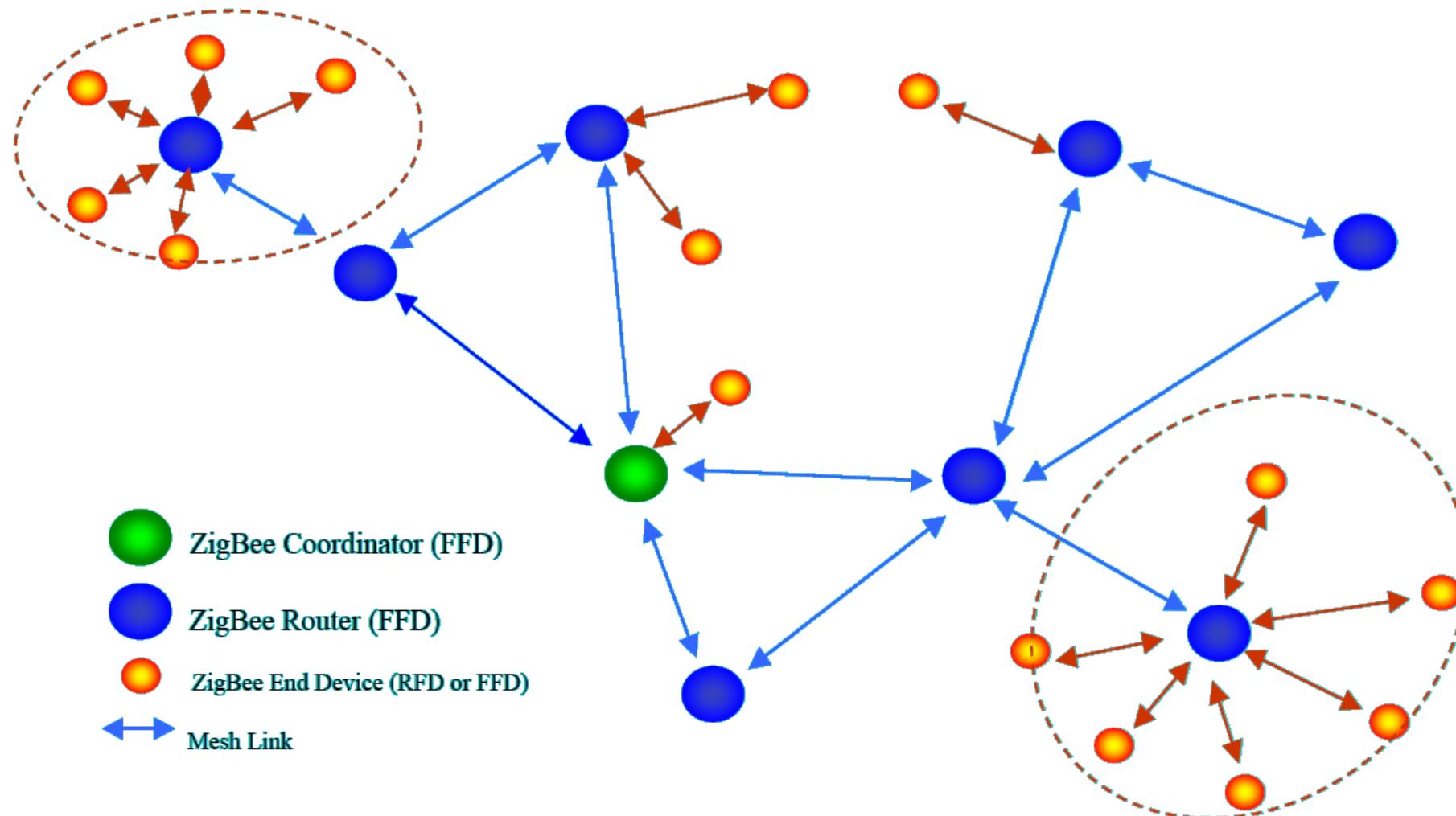
How 6 and 7 connect to coordinator 0?

Routing (NWK Layer)

802.15.4 Architecture



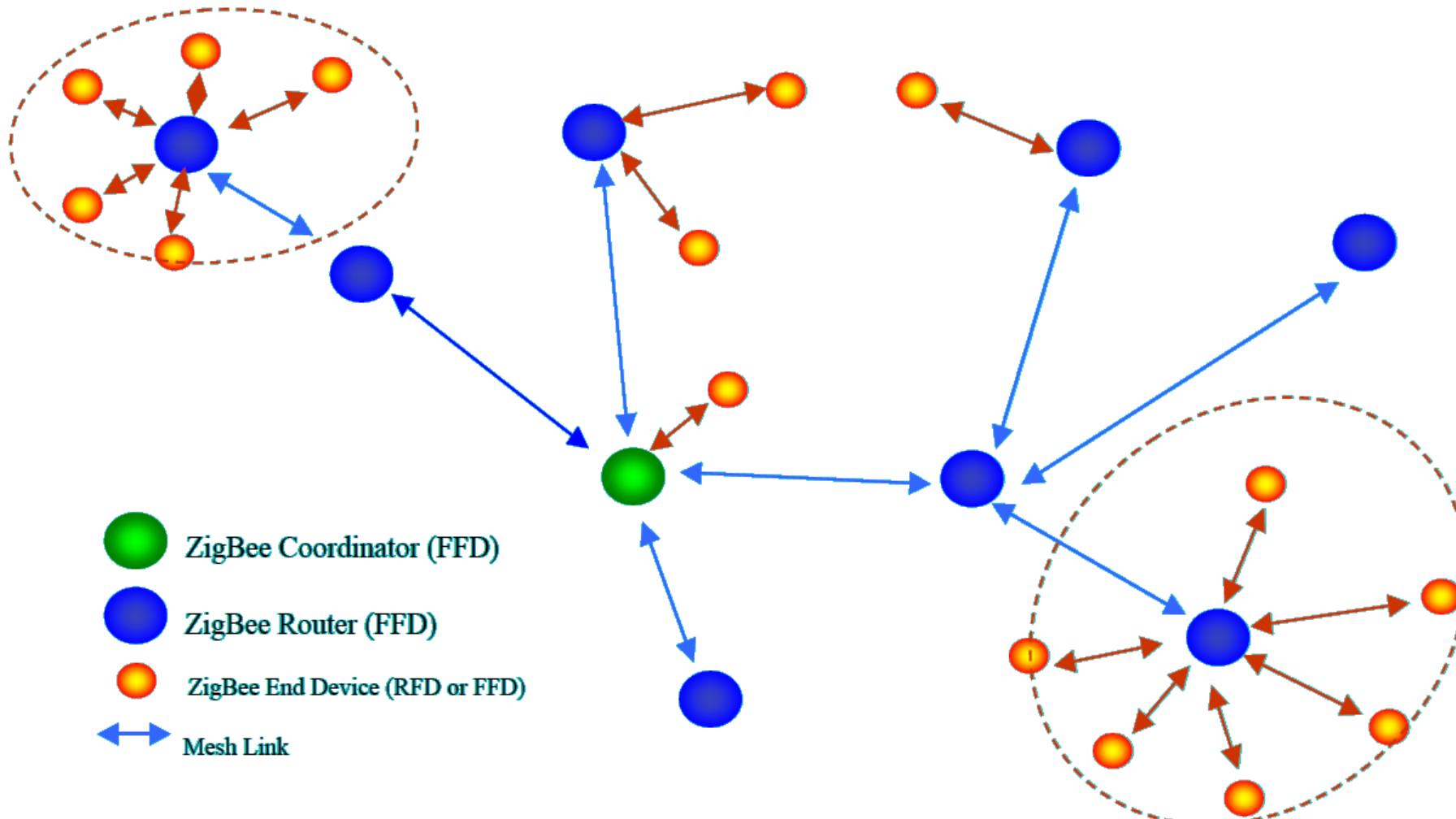
Combined topologies: Mesh Topologies



In a mesh network, regular beacons are not allowed.

Devices in a mesh network can only communicate with each other by peer-to-peer transmissions

Combined Topologies: Tree



In a tree network, the coordinator and routers can announce beacons.

Device addressing

- Two or more devices communicating on the same physical channel constitute a WPAN which includes at least one FFD (PAN coordinator)
- Each independent PAN will select a unique PAN identifier
- All devices operating on a network shall have unique 64-bit extended address (IEEE 802.15.4). This address can be used for direct communication in the PAN
- The network address can use a 16-bit short address, which is allocated to the child routers by the PAN coordinator when the device associates
- 256 sub addresses may be allocated for subunits

Address assignment in a ZigBee network

- In ZigBee, network addresses are assigned to devices by a **distributed address assignment scheme**
 - The ZigBee coordinator determines three network parameters to set the allocations
 - the maximum number of children (C_m) of a ZigBee router
 - the maximum number of child routers (R_m) of a parent node
 - the depth of the network (L_m)
 - A parent device utilizes C_m , R_m , and L_m to compute a parameter called C_{skip}
 - which is used to compute the size of its children's address pools

$$Cskip(d) = \begin{cases} 1 + Cm \cdot (Lm - d - 1), & \text{if } Rm = 1 \\ \frac{1 + Cm - Rm - Cm \cdot Rm^{Lm-d-1}}{1 - Rm}, & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \dots \dots \dots$$

- If a parent node at depth d has an address A_{parent} ,
 - the n th child router is assigned to address $A_{parent} + (n-1) \times C_{skip}(d) + 1$
 - n th child end device is assigned to address $A_{parent} + R_m \times C_{skip}(d) + n$

For node C

$$C_{skip}=31$$

Total:127

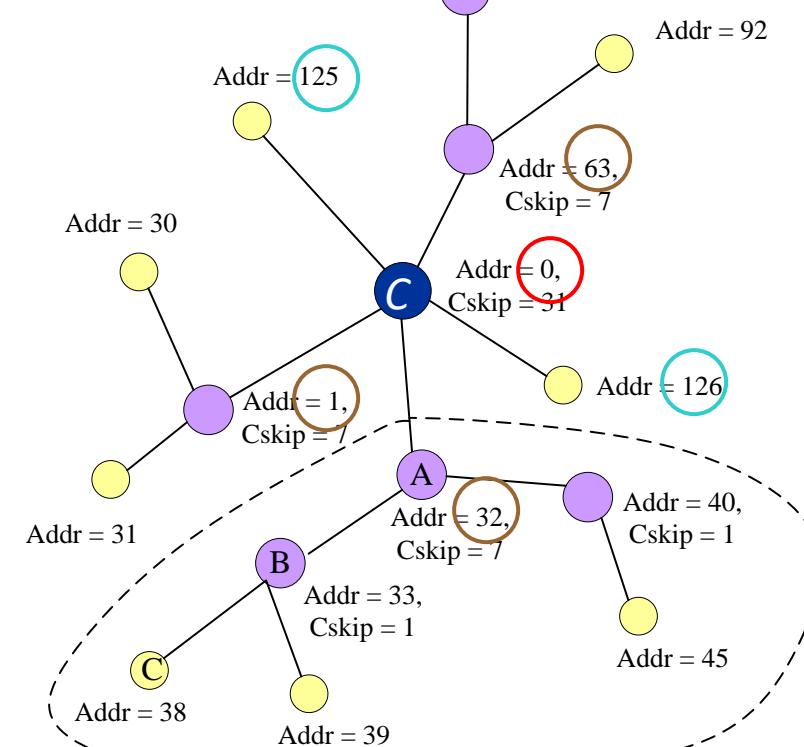


node A

125,126

Cm=6
Rm=4
Lm=3

Addr = 64,
Cskip = 1



ZigBee routing protocols

- In a tree network
 - Utilize the address assignment to obtain the routing paths
- In a mesh network
 - Two options
 - Reactive routing: if having routing capacity
 - Use tree routing: if do not have routing capacity
- Note:
 - ZigBee coordinators and routers are said to have *routing capacity* if they have **routing table capacities** and **route discovery table capacities**

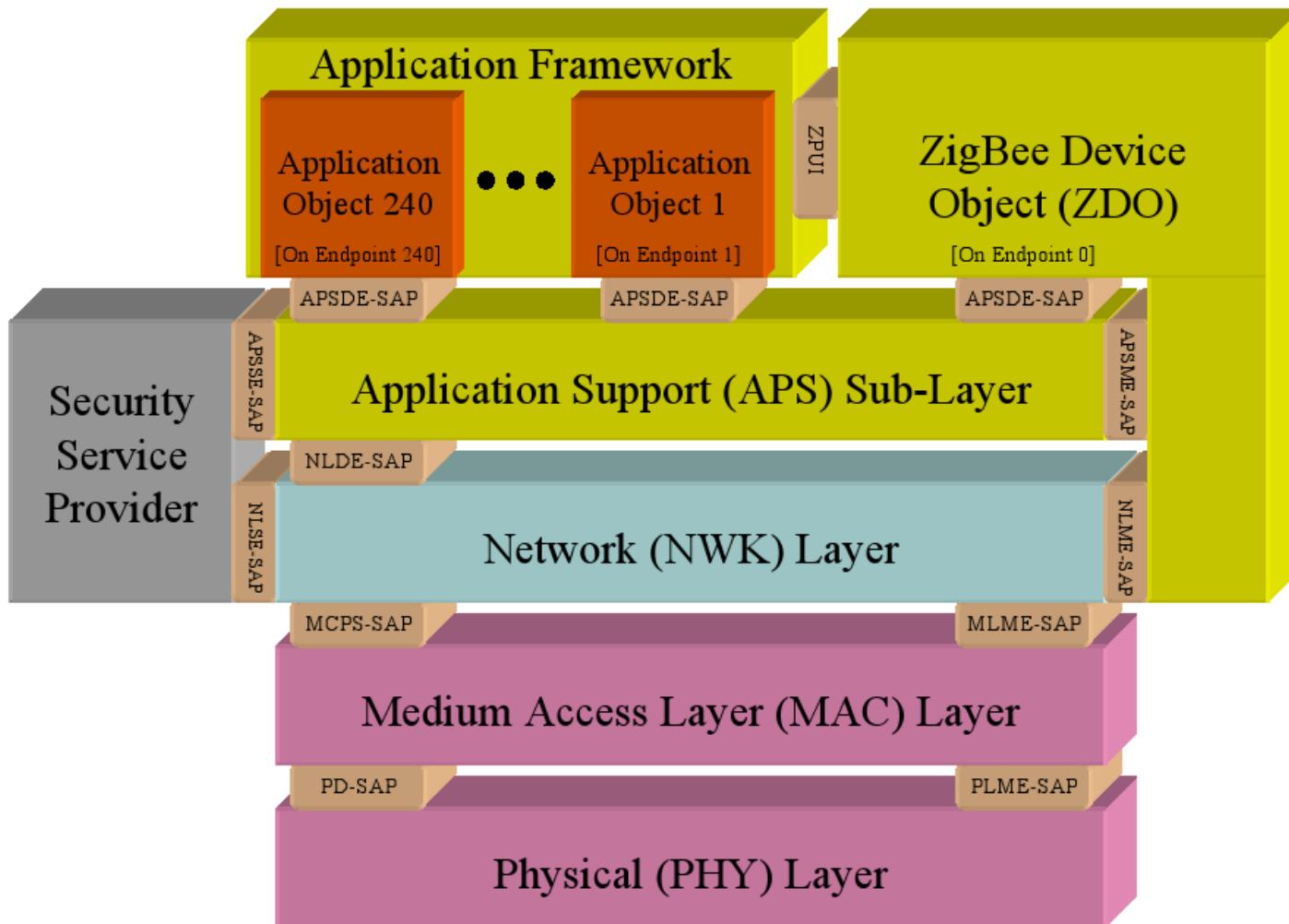
Summary of ZigBee network layer

- Pros and cons of different kinds of ZigBee network topologies

	Pros	Cons
Star	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Easy to synchronize2. Support low power operation3. Low latency	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Small scale
Tree	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Low routing cost2. Can form superframes to support sleep mode3. Allow multihop communication	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Route reconstruction is costly2. Latency may be quite long
Mesh	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Robust multihop communication2. Network is more flexible3. Lower latency	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Cannot form superframes (and thus cannot support sleep mode)2. Route discovery is costly3. Needs storage for routing table

Application Level

CM 23/24



ZigBee defined Objects (ZDO):

- provides common function for applications
- Initializes APS, NWK-Layer and Security Service Specification
- offers services like device-/service-discovery, binding and security management
- assembles information about the network
- for ZBC/ZBR -> e.g. binding table

CM 23/24

Command	Addressing	
	Request	Response
End device bind	Unicast to ZC	Unicast
Bind	Unicast to ZC or Src	Unicast
Unbind	Unicast to ZC or Src	Unicast

Profiles:

Definition of ZigBee-Profiles

- describes a common language for exchanging data
- defines the offered services
- device interoperability across different manufacturers
- Standard profiles available from the ZigBee Alliance
- **profiles contain device descriptions**
- unique identifier (licensed by the ZigBee Alliance)

ZigBee and BLE

- Business comparison:
 - ZigBee is older. It has gone through some iterations
 - ZigBee has market mindshare, but not a lot of shipments yet.
 - Market barriers: connectivity – ZigBee is not in PCs or mobile phones yet.
- Technical comparison:
 - Zigbee is low power; Bluetooth LE is even lower. Detailed analysis depends on specific applications and design detail, no to mention chip geometry.
 - ZigBee stack is light; the Bluetooth LE/GATT stack is even simpler
 - Remember: GATT – Generic ATtribute profile
- Going forward:
 - ZigBee has a lead on developing applications and presence
 - Bluetooth low energy has improved technology, and a commanding presence in several existing markets: mobile phones, automobiles, consumer electronics, PC industry
 - Replacing “classic Bluetooth” with “dual mode” devices will bootstrap this market quickly

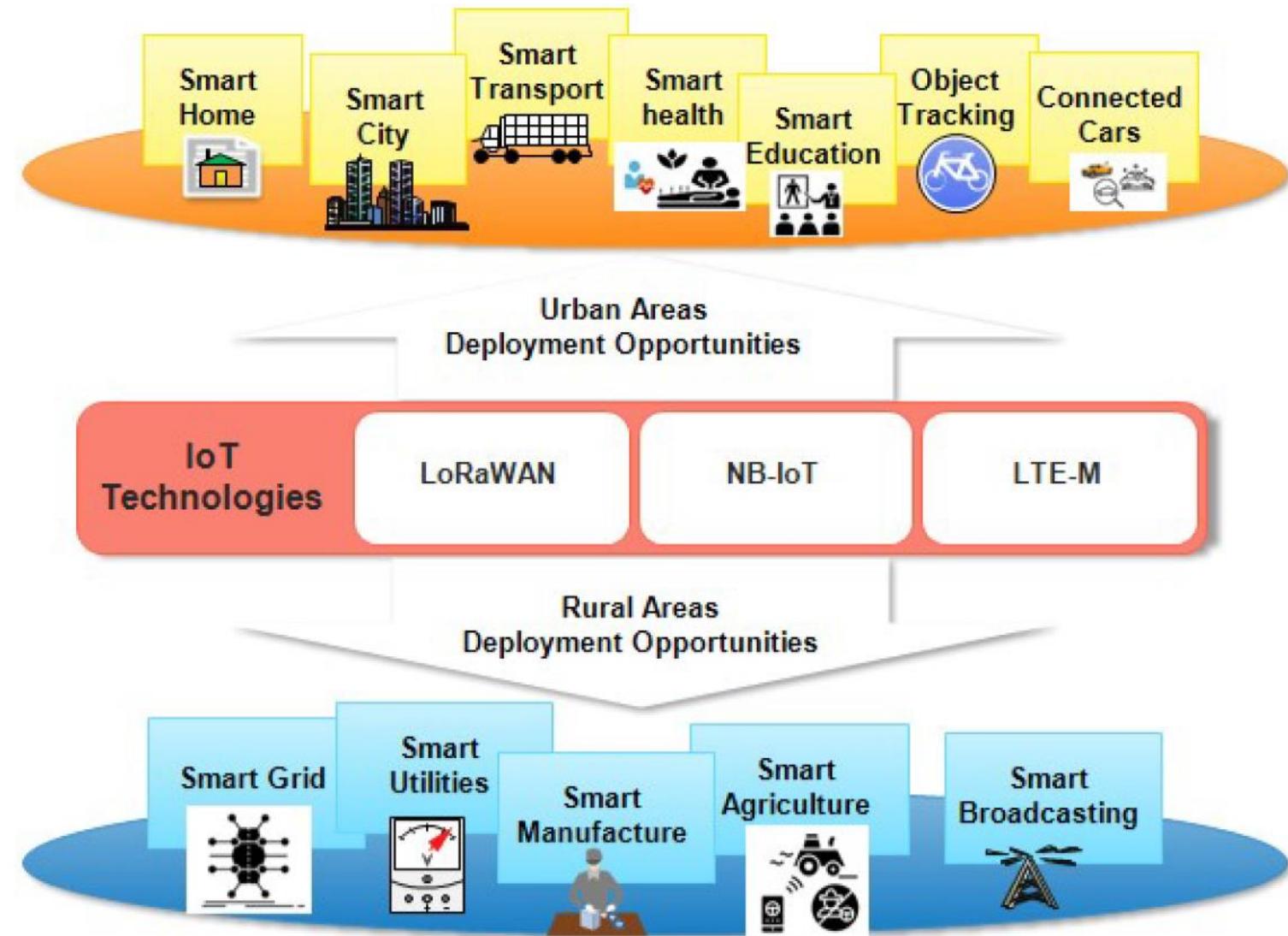
Wide Area Wireless Sensor Networks

WWSN

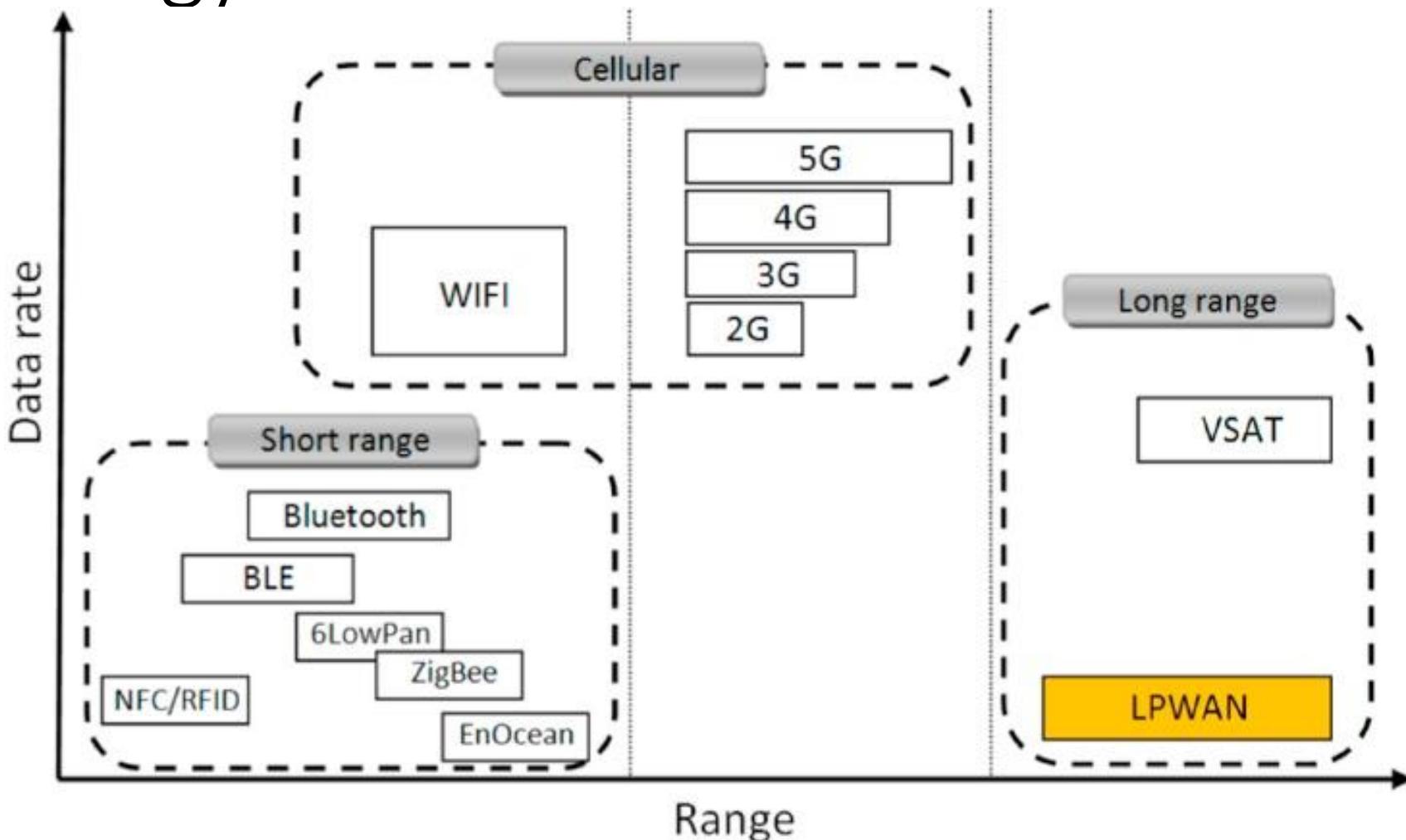
What is this?

- WWSN – wide area wireless sensor networks
- LPWSN – low power wireless sensor networks
- Technologies for sensor networks in wide areas
 - either for low power, or for geography
 - Typically: Sigfox, LoRa, cellular (LTE-M, NB-IoT)

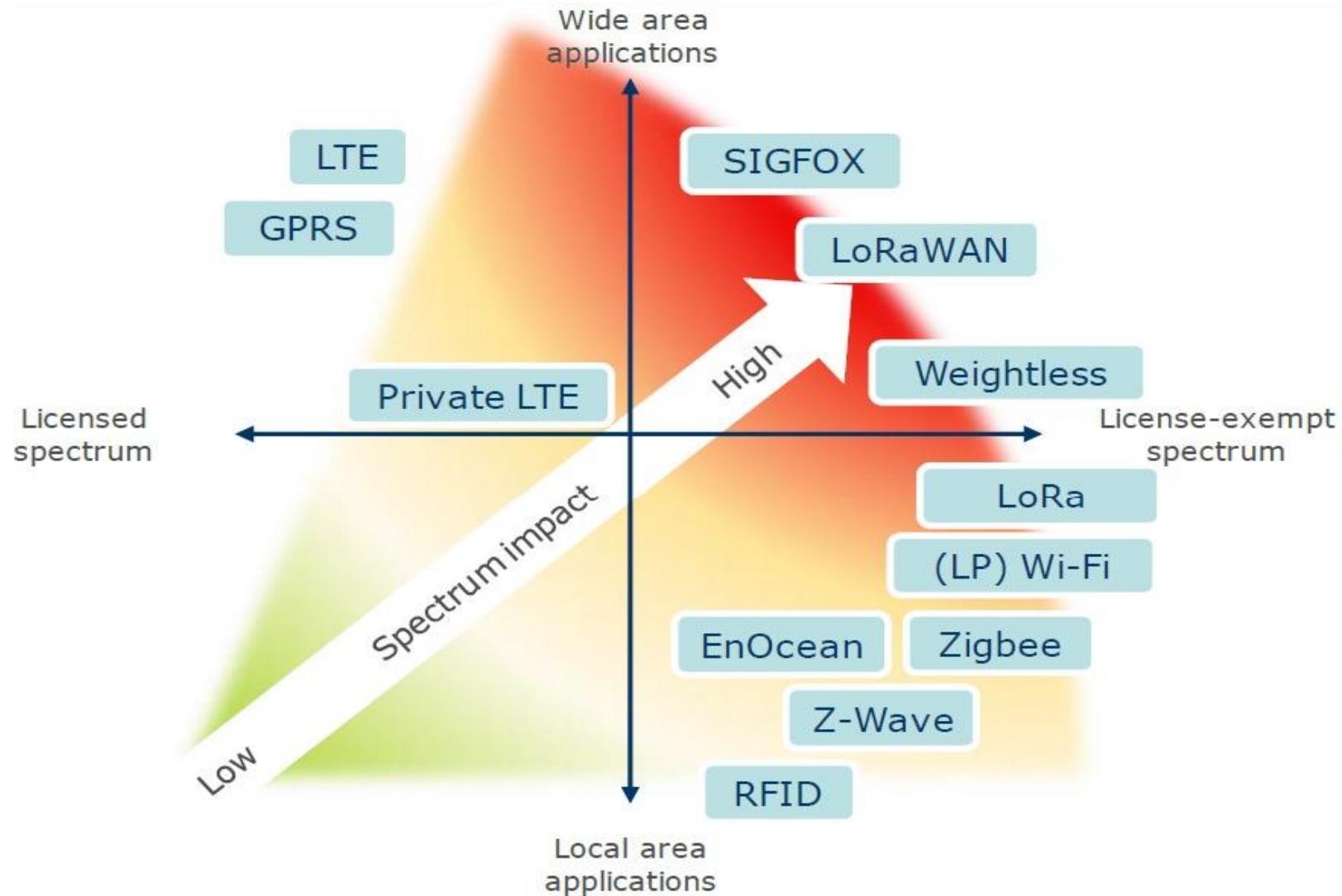
LPWSN



Technology review



Licensed vs licensed-exempt



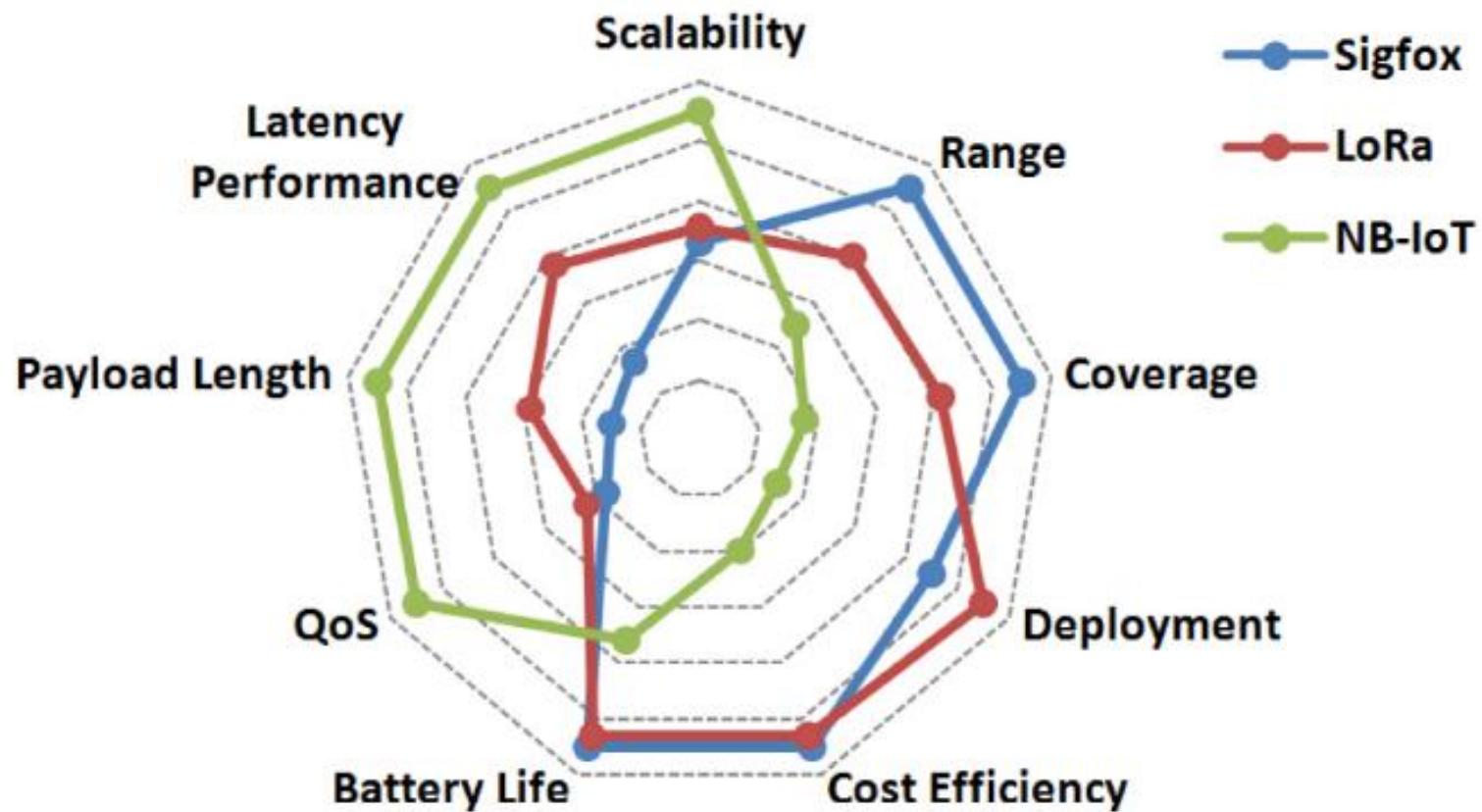
Overview of LPWAN

Overview of LPWAN technologies: Sigfox, LoRa, and NB-IoT.

	Sigfox	LoRaWAN	NB-IoT
Modulation	BPSK	CSS	QPSK
Frequency	Unlicensed ISM bands (868 MHz in Europe, 915 MHz in North America, and 433 MHz in Asia)	Unlicensed ISM bands (868 MHz in Europe, 915 MHz in North America, and 433 MHz in Asia)	Licensed LTE frequency bands
Bandwidth	100 Hz	250 kHz and 125 kHz	200 kHz
Maximum data rate	100 bps	50 kbps	200 kbps
Bidirectional	Limited / Half-duplex	Yes / Half-duplex	Yes / Half-duplex
Maximum messages/day	140 (UL), 4 (DL)	Unlimited	Unlimited
Maximum payload length	12 bytes (UL), 8 bytes (DL)	243 bytes	1600 bytes
Range	10 km (urban), 40 km (rural)	5 km (urban), 20 km (rural)	1 km (urban), 10 km (rural)
Interference immunity	Very high	Very high	Low
Authentication & encryption	Not supported	Yes (AES 128b)	Yes (LTE encryption)
Adaptive data rate	No	Yes	No
Handover	End-devices do not join a single base station	End-devices do not join a single base station	End-devices join a single base station
Localization	Yes (RSSI)	Yes (TDOA)	No (under specification)
Allow private network	No	Yes	No
Standardization	Sigfox company is collaborating with ETSI on the standardization of Sigfox-based network	LoRa-Alliance	3GPP

	Spectrum cost	Deployment cost	End-device cost
Sigfox	Free	>4000€/base station	<2€
LoRa	Free	>100€/gateway > 1000€/base station	3–5€
NB-IoT	>500 M€ /MHz	>15 000€/base station	>20€

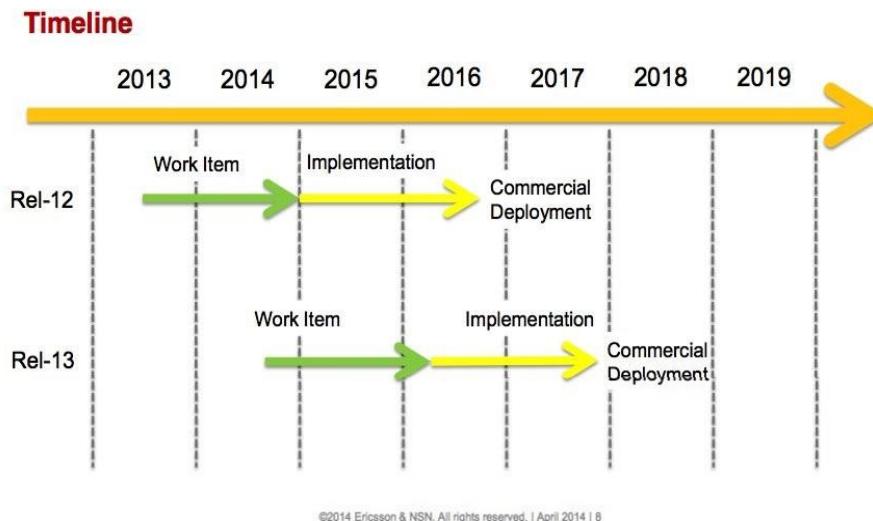
Comparison Radar



LTE-M - Overview



- Evolution of LTE optimized for IoT
- Low power consumption and autonomous
- Easy Deployment
- Interoperability with existing LTE networks
- Coverage up to 11 Km
- Max Throughput \leq 1 Mbps



- ✓ First released in Rel.12 in 2 Q4 2014
- ✓ Optimization in Rel.13
- ✓ Specifications completed in Q1 2016
- ✓ Available since 2017

Evolution from LTE to LTE-M

3GPP Releases	8 (Cat.4)	8 (Cat. 1)	12 (Cat.0) LTE-	13 (Cat. 1,4 MHz) LTE-
Downlink peak rate (Mbps)	150	10	1	1
Uplink peak rate (Mbps)	50	5	1	1
Number of antennas (MIMO)	2	2	1	1
Duplex Mode	Full	Full	Half	Half
UE receive bandwidth (MHz)	20	20	20	1.4
UE Transmit power (dBm)	23	23	23	20

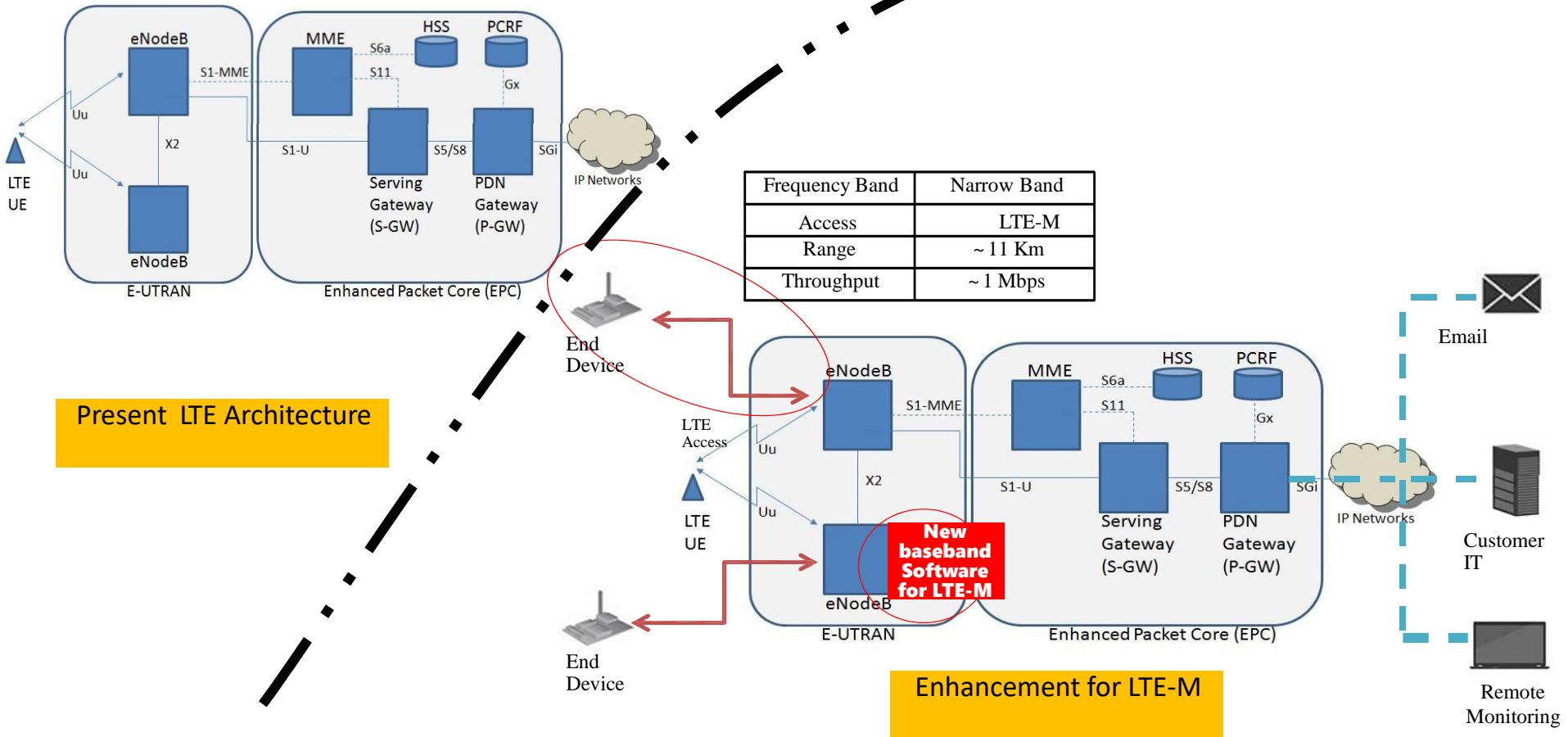
Release 12

- New category of UE (“Cat-0”): lower complexity and low cost devices
- Half duplex FDD operation allowed
- Single receiver
- Lower data rate requirement (Max: 1 Mbps)

Release 13

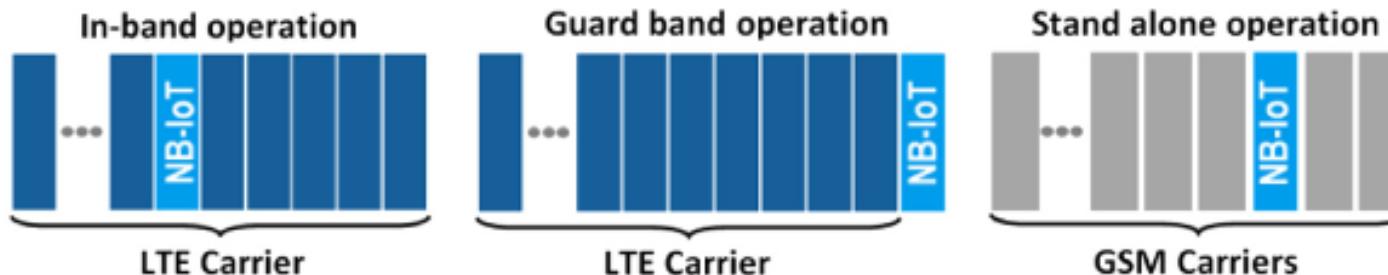
- Reduced receive bandwidth to 1.4 MHz
- Lower device power class of 20 dBm
- 15dB additional link budget: better coverage
- More energy efficient because of its extended discontinuous repetition cycle (eDRX)

LTE to LTE-M - Architecture



NB-IoT

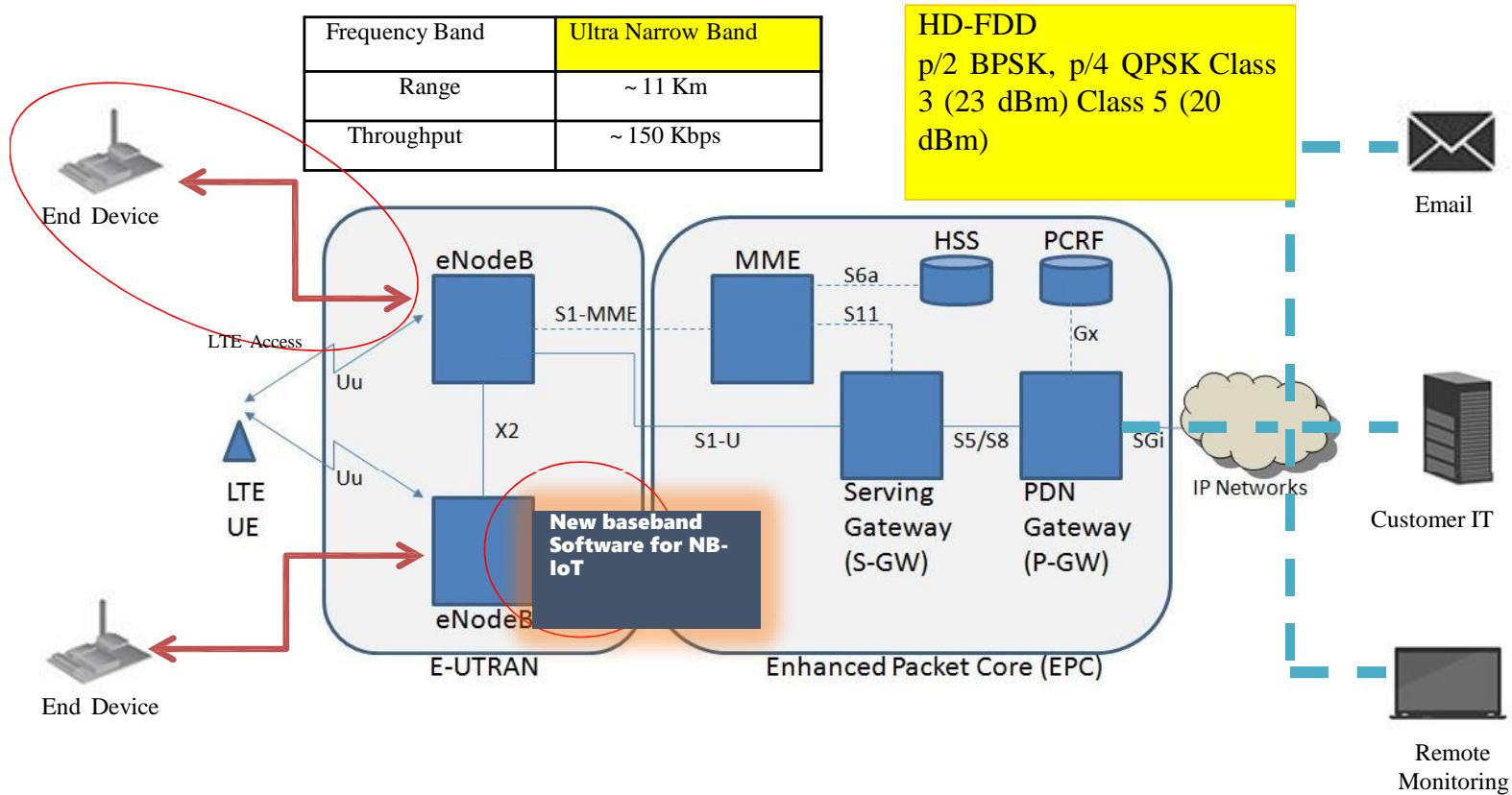
- Defined in R13, another mode instead of LTE-M
- Bandwidth – 200KHz
 - One resource block in GSM/LTE
- Based in LTE protocol, stripped down
 - OFDMA(down)/FDMA(up), QPSK
 - 200kbps (down)/20kbps(up)
- Three modes of operation



NB-IoT

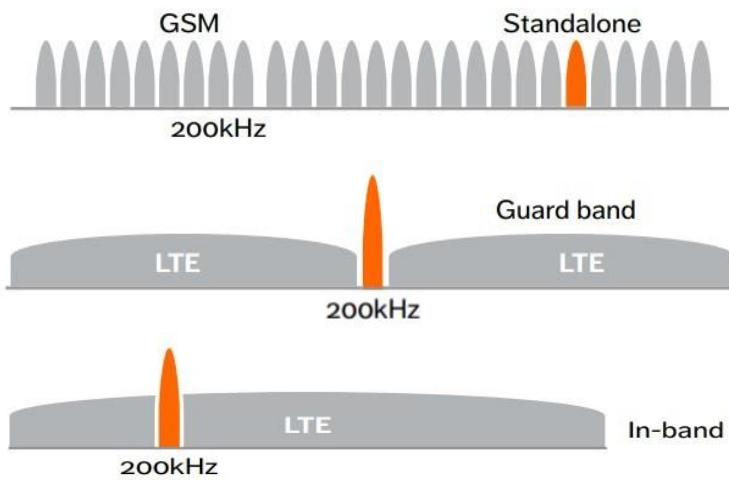
- Uses LTE design extensively
- Lower cost in terms of channel utilization
- Extended coverage
- Low Receiver sensitivity = -141 dBm
- Long battery life: 10 years with 5 Watt Hour battery (depending on traffic and coverage needs)
- Support for massive number of devices: at least 50.000 per cell
- 3 modes of operation:
 - Stand-alone: *stand-alone carrier, e.g. spectrum currently used by GERAN (GSM Edge Radio Access Network) systems as a replacement of one or more GSM carriers*
 - Guard band: *unused resource blocks within a LTE carrier's guard-band*
 - In-band: *resource blocks within a normal LTE carrier*

NB-IoT - Architecture



NB-IoT – Spectrum & Access

Designed with a number of deployment options for licensed GSM ,
WCDMA or LTE spectrum to achieve efficiency



Stand-alone operation

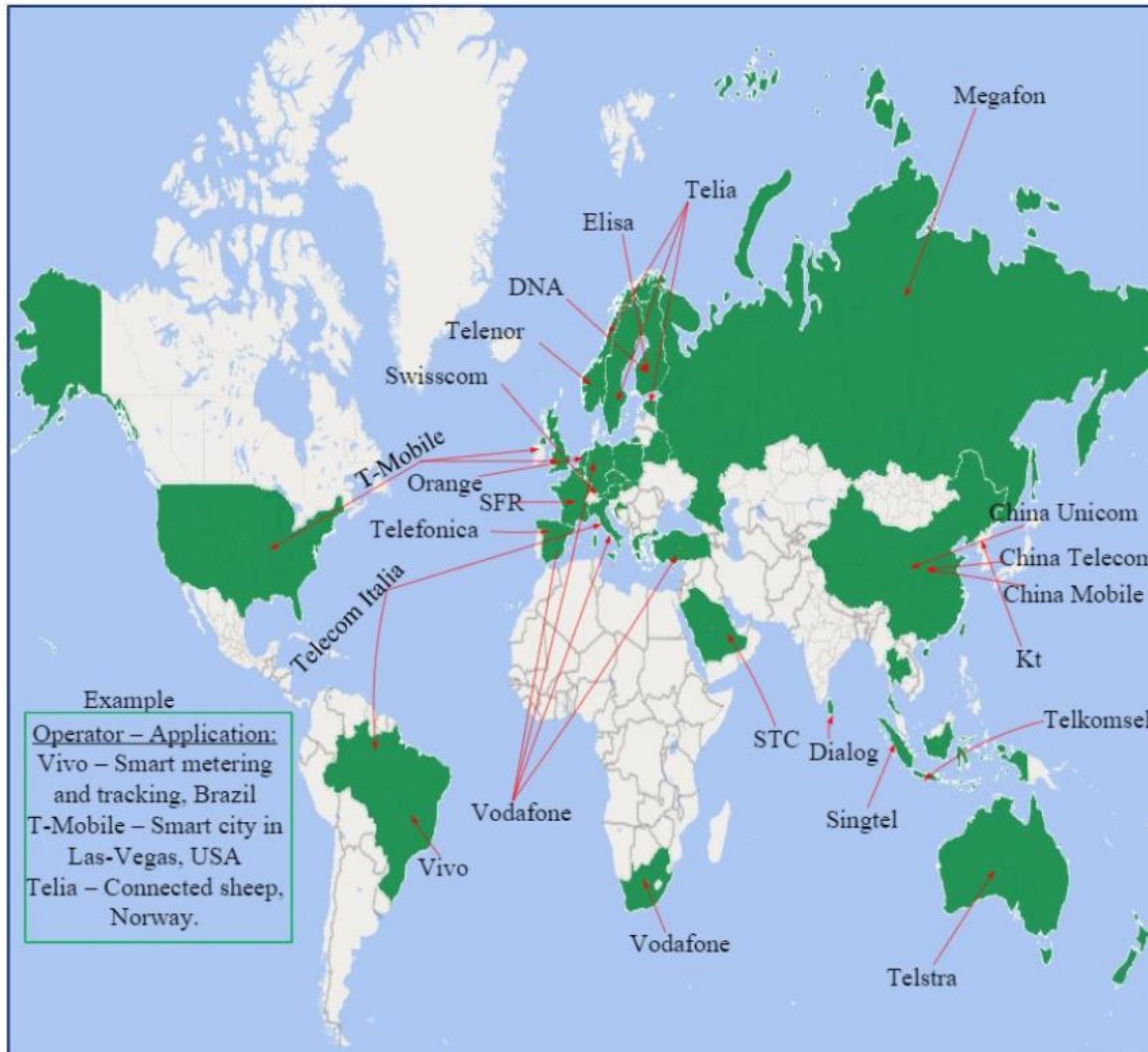
Dedicated spectrum.

Ex.: By **re-farming GSM channels**

Guard band Operation:
Based on the unused RB within a LTE carrier's **guard-band**

In-band operation
Using **resource blocks** within a normal LTE carrier

NB-IoT (@2019)



Cellular technologies

- Two strategies, for different scenarios
 - No MIMO for lower end device energy.

	LTE-M	NB-IoT
Peak data rate	384 kbps	<100 kbps
Latency	50-100 ms	1.5-10 seconds
Power consumption	Best at medium data rates	Best at very low data rates
Mobility	Yes	No, stationary only
Voice	Yes	No
Antennas	1	1

SigFox



- Provide and maintain a PAID connectivity platform
 - Ultra Narrow Band: 100Hz per message
 - Ultra Low Bit rate: 12 byte messages, 140 messages per day (max!)
 - Long Range: ~50KM
 - Sensors lasting 10 years
 - Only provides connectivity, access control and a broker
- Business Model: connectivity service for alarms, smart meters, etc..

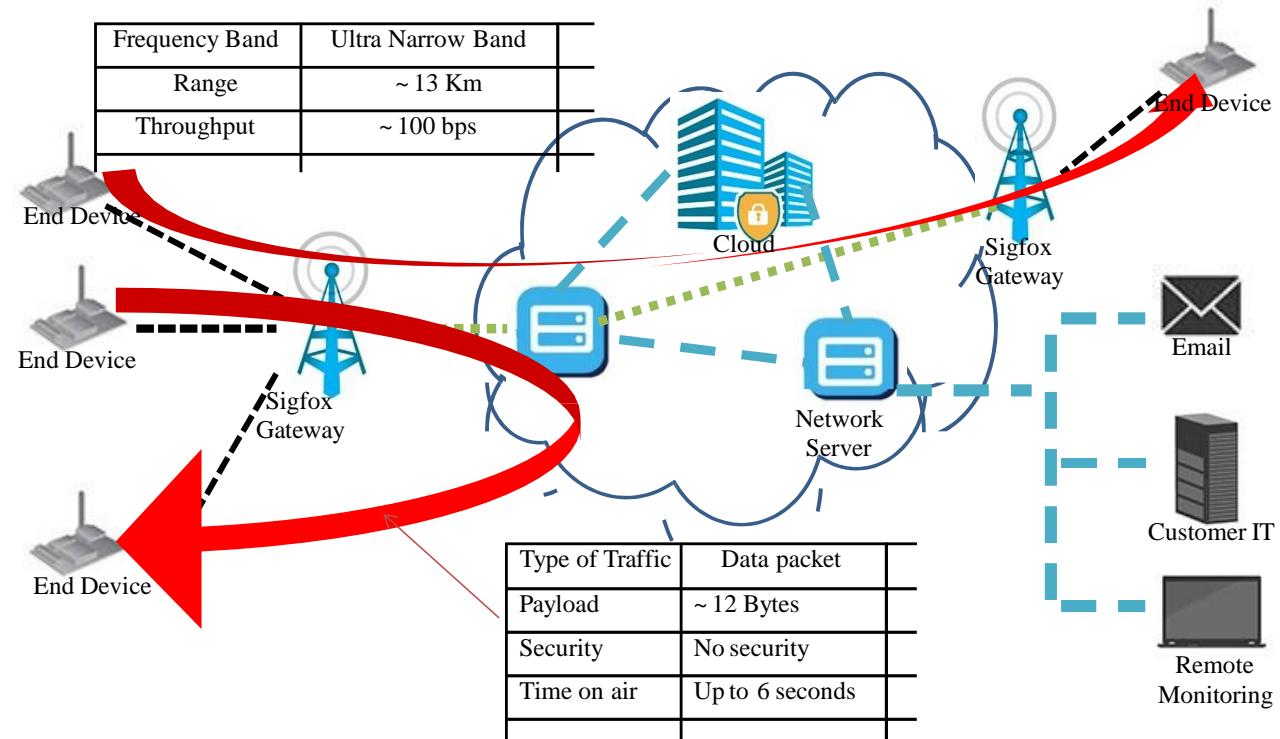
SigFox

- Low Power Wide Area Sensor Network (LPWASN)
- Thousands of millions ☺
 - A million per access point ;)
- Proprietary 😞 commercial
 - You have to use its access infrastructure (built with operators) and software
 - Open market for the endpoints
- 30-50km range in rural areas, and 3-10km range in urban
- Ultra narrow band, 868 (EU) or 902 (US) frequency (MHz)
- Low energy consumption
- Dedicated network

SigFox

- Each device can send up to 140 messages per day
 - Payload: 12 octets (~96 bytes)
 - Datarate: up to 100bps
- **(Duty cycle:** the time occupied by the operation of a device, which operates intermittently)
 - Common in the IoT
- Sigfox exploits this:
 - When a device has a message to be sent, the Sigfox interface wakes up, and the message is transmitted uplink
 - Then, the device listens for a short duration, if there is data to be sent to it
 - This is good for data acquisition scenarios
 - But not so good for command-and-control situations
- Use cases:
 - Smart meters, smoke detectors

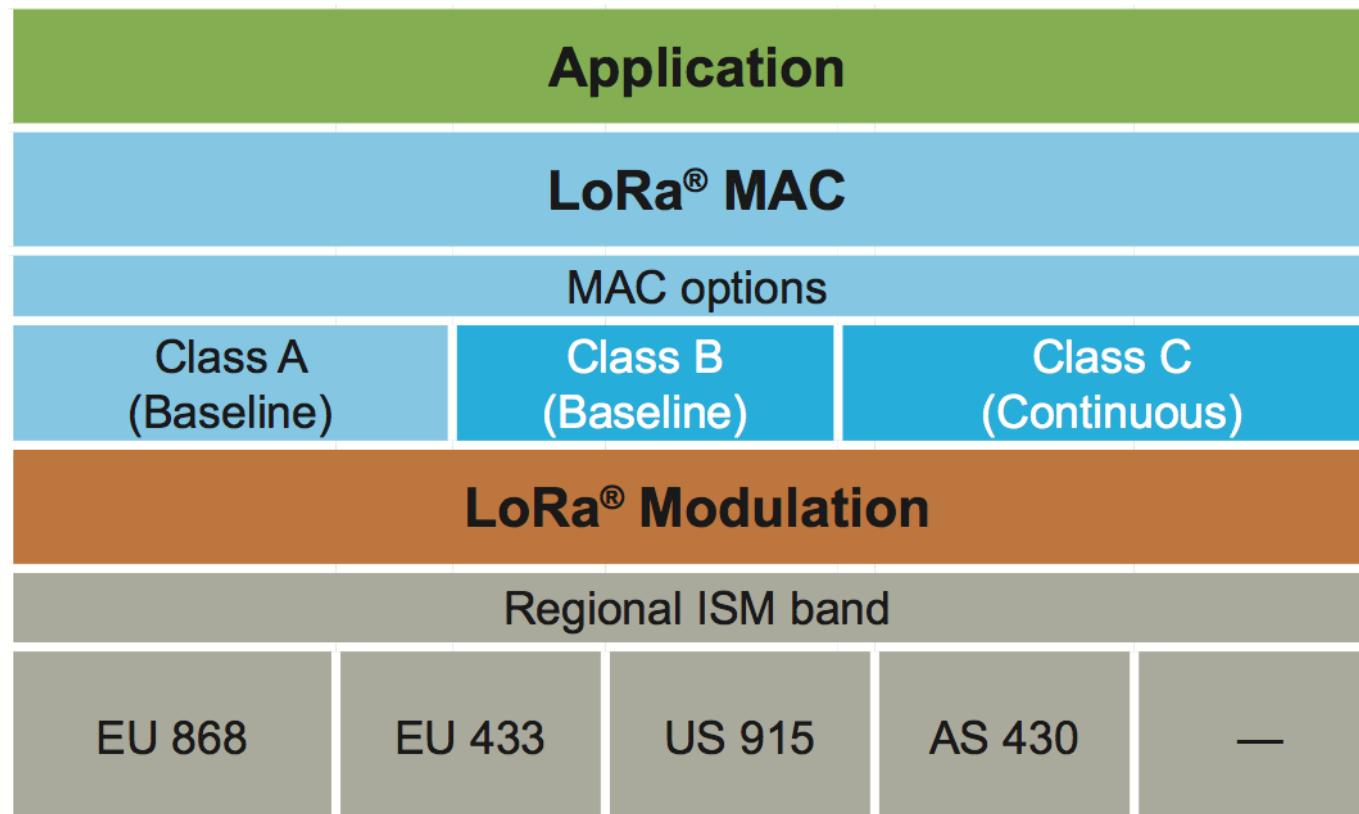
Sigfox - Architecture



LoRa

- Stands for “Long Range”
- To be used in long-lived battery-powered devices scenarios
- Semi-proprietary
 - Parts of the protocol are well documented, others not
 - They own the radio part (but sub-licensing is on the way)
 - You can install your own gateways
- LoRa usually means two different things:
 - LoRa: a physical layer that uses Chirp Spread Spectrum (CSS) modulation
 - LoRaWAN: a MAC layer protocol

LoRa Stack

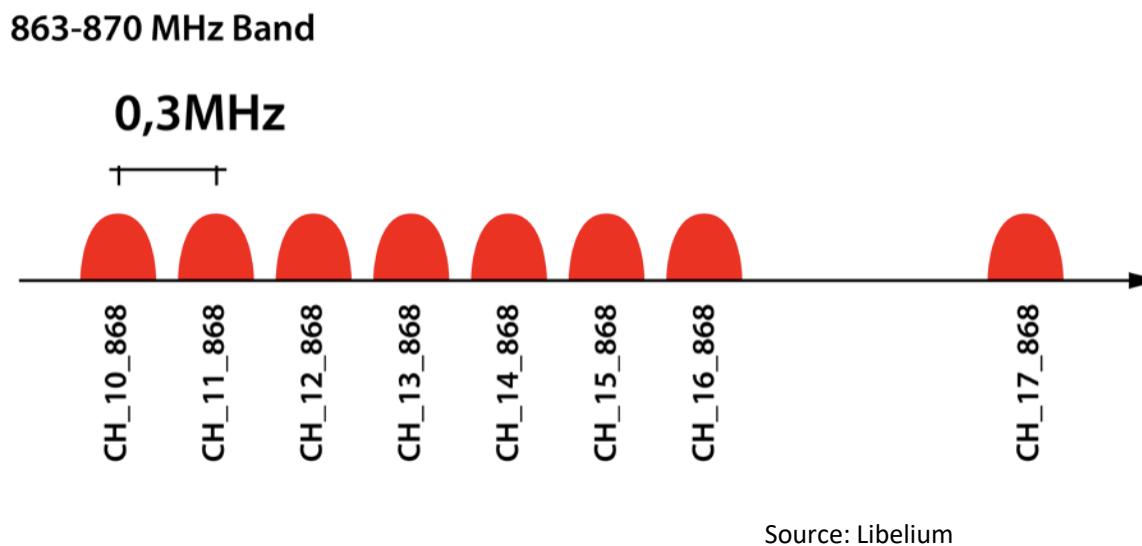


LoRa (the physical layer ☺)

- Developed by Semtech
- Low-range, low-power and low-throughput
- Operates on 433-, 868- (EU) or 915 (US) MHz bands
- Payload from 2 to 255 octets (2Kb)
 - Depends on configuration parameters
- Datarate: up to 50Kbps

LoRa (the physical layer ☺)

- In Europe, 8 channels with a bandwidth of 0.3MHz are used

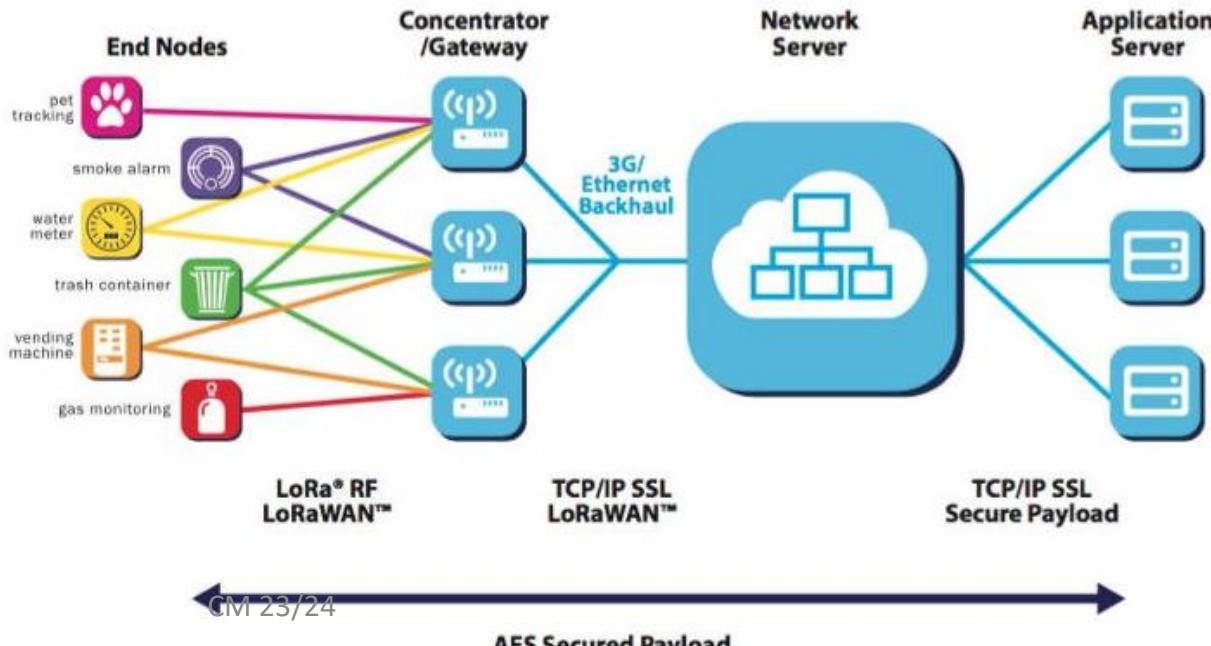


LoRaWAN

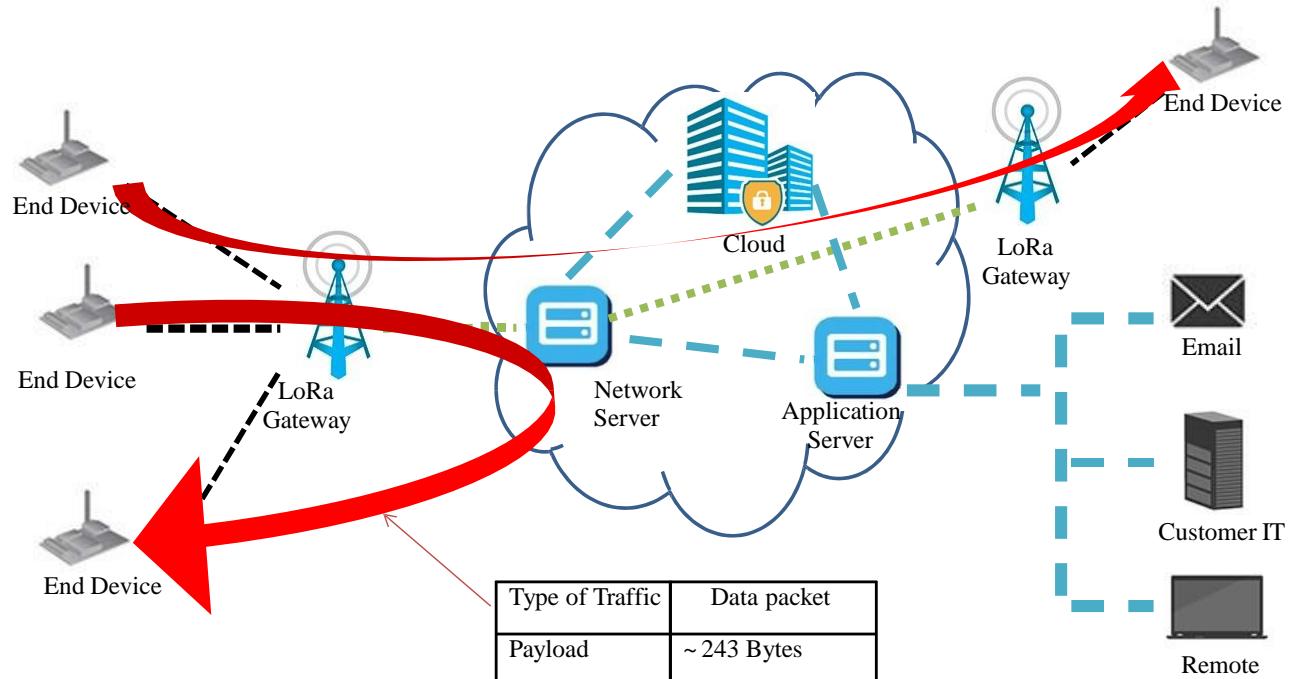
- MAC mechanism for controlling communications between end devices and LoRaWAN gateways. For all devices, it manages:
 - Communication frequencies
 - Data rate
 - Power
- Open Standard developed by the LoRa Alliance

LoRA Network

- Star of stars topology
- Devices transmit data asynchronously
 - Data is received by multiple gateways
 - Each gateway forwards received data to a centralized network server, using a backhaul link (Ethernet or cellular)
 - The network server:
 - Filters duplicate packets
 - Packet with the strongest signal gets decoded
 - Realizes security checks
 - Manages the network



LORA - Architecture



Modulation	LoRa RF (Spread Spectrum)
Range	~ 15 Km
Throughput	~ 50 Kbps

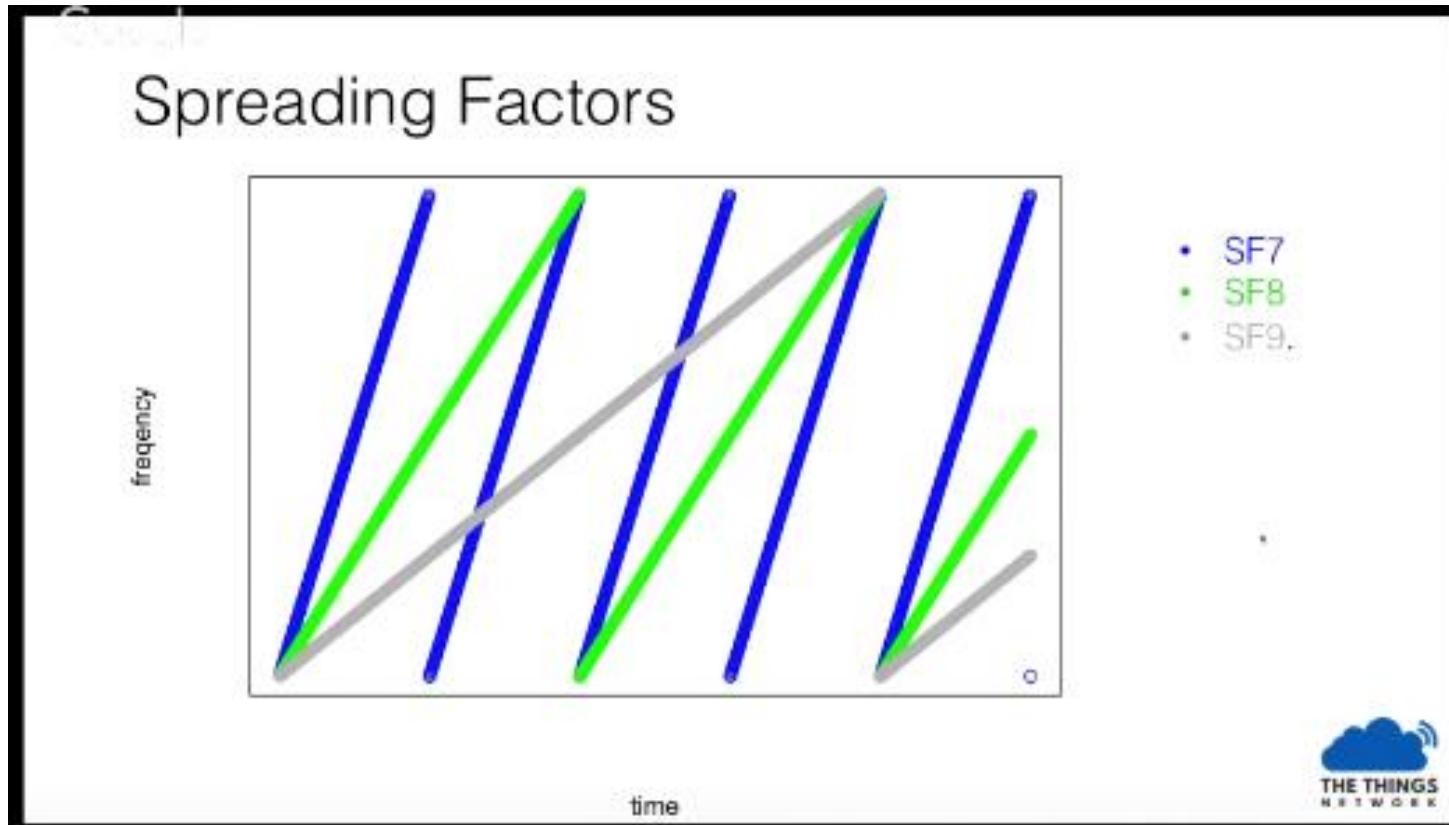
LoRa Physical Layer

- Modulation
 - (changing a signal, the carrier, in a way that allows it to contain information to be transmitted)
- LoRa uses a proprietary Spread-Spectrum modulation technique: Chirp Spread Spectrum (CSS)
 - (A chirp is a signal in which frequency raises or lowers with time)
 - Tries to increase range by:
 - Sending information with more power (within regulated values - <14dBm or 25mW)
 - Or by lowering the data rate
 - Increases link budget
 - Increases immunity to in-band interference
- This, along with Forward Error Correction techniques, contribute to extend the range and robustness of radio communication links
 - Compared to FSK

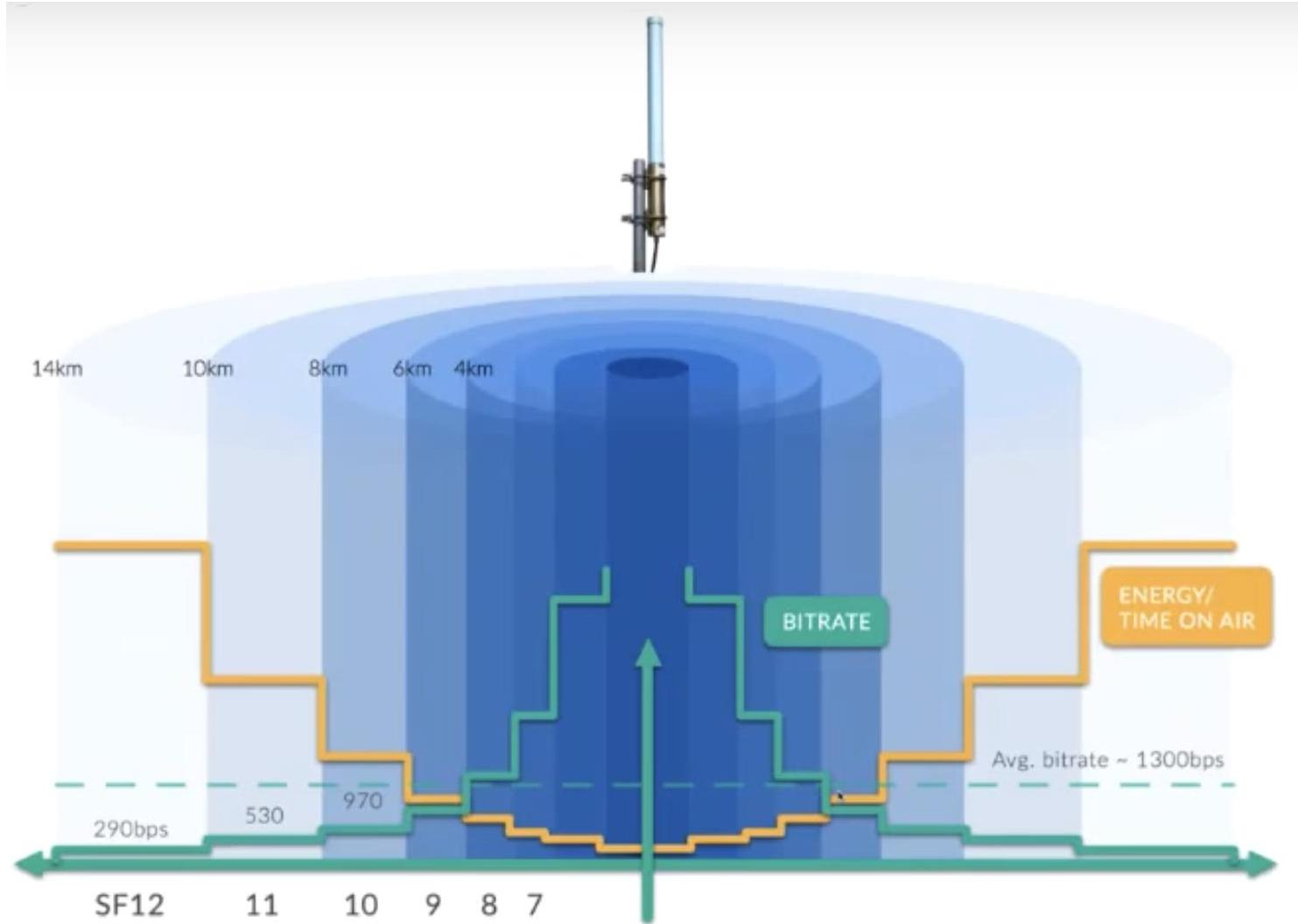
LoRa Physical Layer

- Has different Spread Factors (SF7 to SF12)
 - Spread factors can set the modulation rate and tune the distance
 - They indicate how fast or slow is the chirp (how many chirps you get per second) → **how much data you can encode per second**
 - The higher the SF, the lower the datarate
 - Each SF is 2x slower than the one before
 - The slower you send your data, the farther you can send it
 - The higher the SF, the more energy is required (time on air)
 - The interface has more time to decode and sensitivity is increased
- This helps on scaling the network
 - Closer nodes receive data much faster
 - Air is "cleared" for other nodes to transmit
 - By adding more gateways, devices get nearer to them, applying the above

LoRa Physical Layer



Source: Thomas Telkamp



LoRa Physical Layer

- For a 125kHz bw (configurable by design)

Spreading Factor	Symbols/second	SNR limit	Time-on-air (10 byte packet) - ms	Bitrate - bps
7	976	-7.5	56	5469
8	488	-10	103	3125
9	244	-12.5	205	1758
10	122	-15	371	977
11	61	-17.5	741	537
12	30	-20	1483	293

LoRa Physical Layer

- The Bandwidth (kHz), Spreading Factor and Coding Rate are design variables that allow a system to optimize the trade-off between
 - Occupied bandwidth
 - Data rate
 - Link budget
 - Interference immunity
- By using software, it is possible to combine these values to define a transmission mode

LoRa Physical Layer

- Bandwidth
 - Show how wide is going to be the transmission signal
 - 3 options: 125 kHz, 250 kHz or 500 kHz
 - Greater reach: 125 kHz
 - Greater transmission speed: 500 kHz
 - Less bandwidth = more airtime = more sensitivity = more battery consumed

LoRa Physical Layer

- Coding Rate
 - 4 options: 4/5, 4/6, 4/7 and 4/8
 - Meaning:
 - Every 4 useful bytes are going to be encoded by 5, 6, 7 or 8 transmission bits
 - Smaller coding rate: 4/8
 - Lower coding rate = more airtime

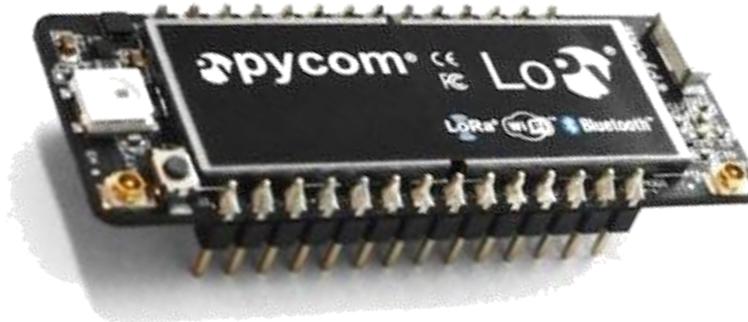
LoRa Physical Layer

- Spreading Factor
 - Number of chips per symbol used in data treatment before the transmission signal
 - 7 options: 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12
 - Greater Spreading Factor = Greater Range = more air time

LoRa Physical Layer

Mode	BW	CR	SF	Sensitivity (dB)	Transmission time (ms) for a 100-byte packet sent	Transmission time (ms) for a 100-byte packet sent and ACK received	Comments
1	125	4/5	12	-134	4245	5781	max range, slow data rate
2	250	4/5	12	-131	2193	3287	-
3	125	4/5	10	-129	1208	2120	-
4	500	4/5	12	-128	1167	2040	-
5	250	4/5	10	-126	674	1457	-
6	500	4/5	11	-125,5	715	1499	-
7	250	4/5	9	-123	428	1145	-
8	500	4/5	9	-120	284	970	-
9	500	4/5	8	-117	220	890	-
10	500	4/5	7	-114	186	848	min range, fast data rate, minimum battery impact

LoRa Physical Layer - Practical



- On the LoPy
 - Method
 - `lora.init(mode, *, frequency=868000000, tx_power=14,
bandwidth=LoRa.BW_125KHZ, sf=7, preamble=8,
coding_rate=LoRa.CODING_4_5,
power_mode=LoRa.ALWAYS_ON, tx_iq=False, rx_iq=False,
adr=False, public=True, tx_retries=1, device_class=LoRa.CLASS_A)`
 - Bandwidth: **LoRa.BW_125KHZ / LoRa.BW_250KHZ /
LoRa.BW_500KHZ**
 - SF: **sf=6 / sf=7 / sf=8 / sf=9 / sf=10 / sf=11 / sf=12**
 - Coding Rate: **LoRa.CODING_4_5 / LoRa.CODING_4_6 /
LoRa.CODING_4_7 / LoRa.CODING_4_8**

LoRaWAN

- Components
 - End-Device
 - Devices (low-power) that communicate with the LoRa Gateway
 - They are not associated to a particular gateway.
 - They are, however, associated to a Network Server.
 - Gateway
 - Intermediate devices that relay packets between end-devices and a network server.
 - Linked to the Network server via a higher bandwidth backhaul network.
 - They add information about the quality of reception, when forwarding a packet from an end-device to a network server.
 - They are transparent to the end-devices.
 - There are multiple gateways in a network
 - Multiple gateways can receive the same packet transmitted from the same end-device
 - Network Server
 - Decodes and de-duplicates packets sent from devices.
 - Generates packets to be sent towards devices
 - Chooses the appropriate gateway to send packets to a specific end-device

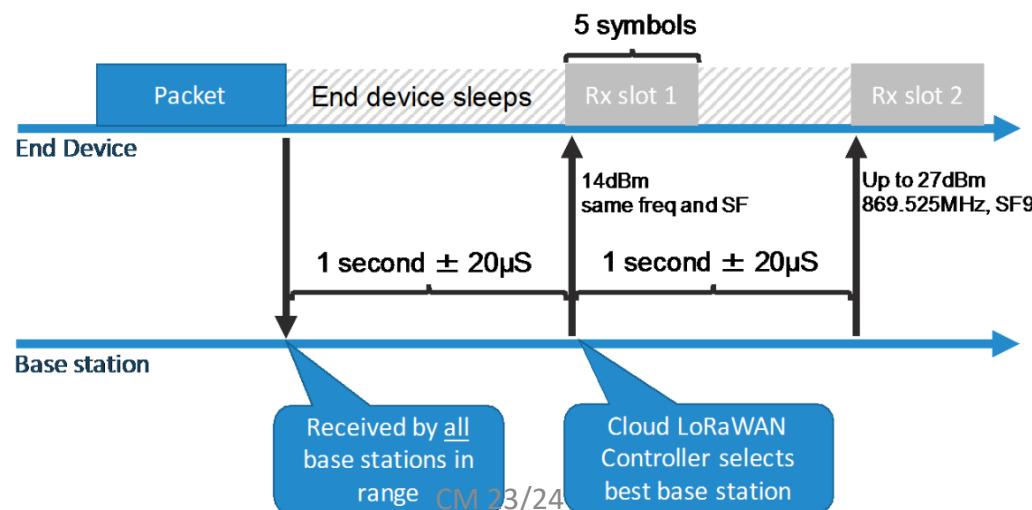
LORA – Device Classes

Classes	Description	Intended Use	Consumption	Examples of Services
A (`` all '')	Listens only after end device transmission	Modules with no latency constraint	The most economic communication Class energetically.. Supported by all modules. Adapted to battery powered modules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fire Detection • Earthquake Early Detection
B (`` beacon '')	The module listens at a regularly adjustable frequency	Modules with latency constraints for the reception of messages of a few seconds	Consumption optimized. Adapted to battery powered modules	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Smart metering • Temperature rise
C (`` continuous '')	Module always listening	Modules with a strong reception latency constraint (less than one second)	Adapted to modules on the grid or with no power constraints	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fleet management • Real Time Traffic Management

Any LoRa object can transmit and receive data

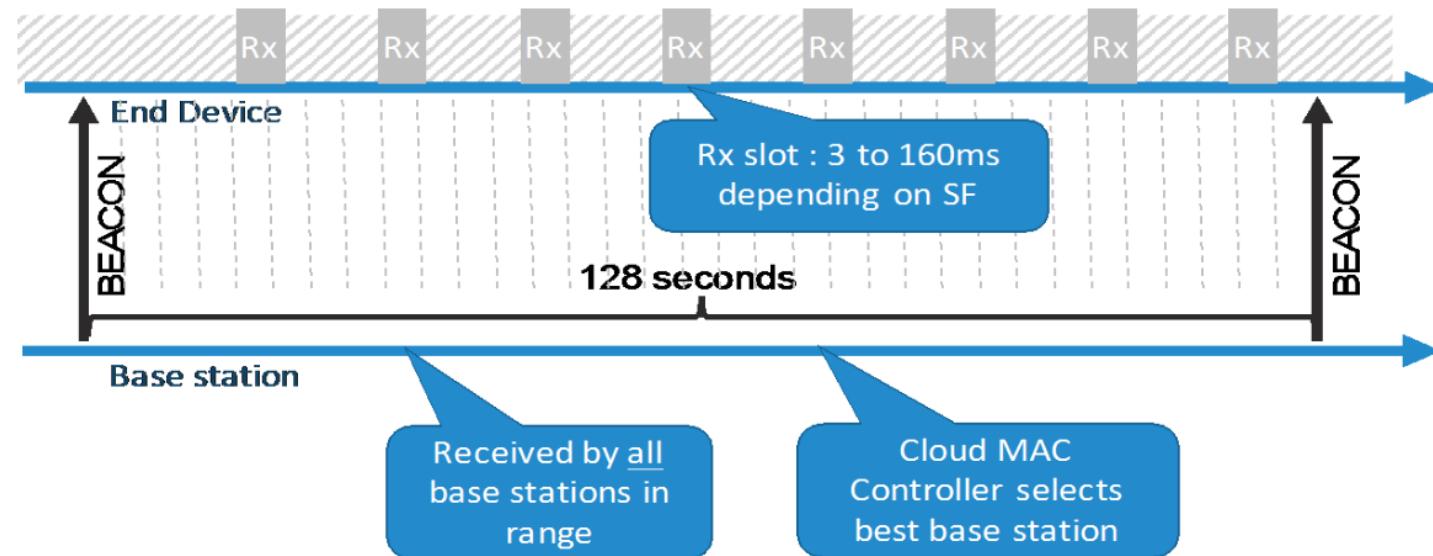
LoRaWAN

- End-devices classes
 - Class A – bi-directional
 - Lowest power consumption
 - Devices schedule uplink transmissions according to their requirements, with a small variation before transmission.
 - Each uplink transmission is followed by two short downlink receive windows
 - Downlink transmissions at any other time have to wait until the next uplink transmission
 - Less flexibility for downlink



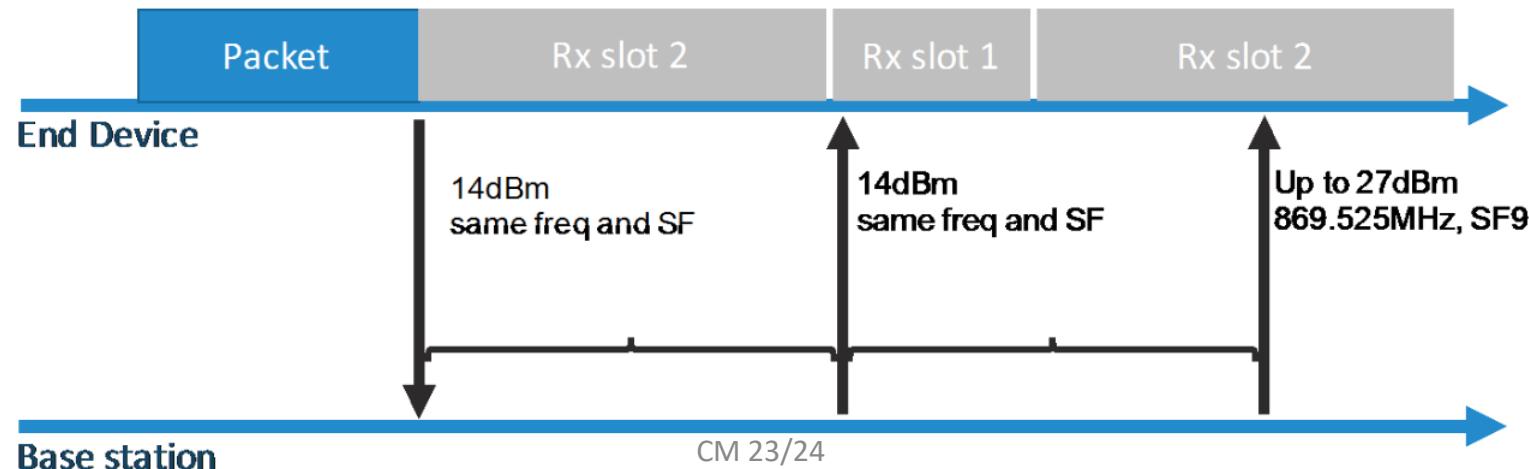
LoRaWAN

- End-devices classes
 - Class B – bi-directional with scheduled receive slots
 - Devices open more receive windows at scheduled times
 - There is a synchronized beacon from the gateway to the network server, indicating when the device is listening



LoRaWAN

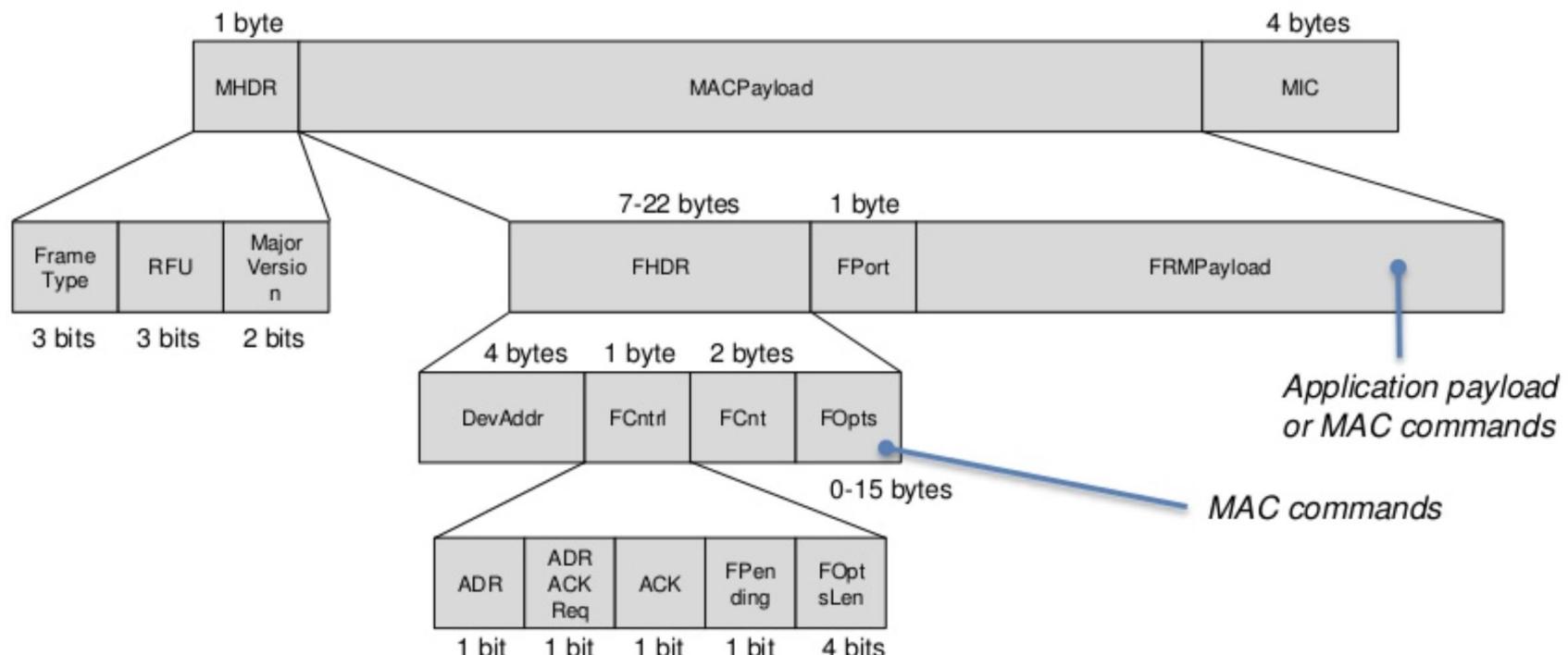
- End-devices classes
 - Class C – bi-directional with maximal receive slots
 - Greatest power consumption
 - Almost continuous receiving windows
 - Server can initiate transmission almost anytime



LoRaWAN

- End-Device Duty Cycle
 - Besides transmission frequency, duty cycle regulations apply
 - Delay between successive frames sent by a device
 - 1% limitation for end-devices
 - Device has to wait 100x the time it took for it to send the message, in order to be able to send again in the same channel
 - Gateways: 10%

LoRaWAN - Payload



Source: Stephen Pharrell

LoRaWAN

- *DevAddr* - short address of the device.
- *FPort* - multiplexing port field.
- *FCnt* - frame counter.
- *MIC* - cryptographic message integrity code
- *MType* - message type (uplink, downlink, confirmed (requires an ACK, ...)).
- *Major* - LoRaWAN version
- *ADR* and *ADRACKReq* - data rate control adaptation mechanism by the network server.
- *ACK* - acknowledges the last received frame.
- *Fpending* - indicates that there is still data to be sent by the network server (end-device is required to send another message to open a receive window).
- *FOptsLen* - length of the *FOpts* field in bytes.
- *FOpts* - contains MAC commands on a data message.
- *CID* - MAC command ID.
- *Args* -optional arguments of the command.
- *FRMPayload* - payload, encrypted using AES with a key length of 128 bits.

The minimal size of the MAC header is 13 bytes; its maximal size is 28 bytes.

There is no destination address on uplink packets, or source address on downlink packets.

LoRaWAN

- MAC Commands
 - Allows the network to customize end-device parameters
- Checks
 - Link status (this can be send by the end-device itself)
 - Device battery
 - Device margin (SNR)
- Settings
 - Datarate
 - TX power
 - TX and RX channels
 - RX timing
 - Repetition
 - Duty cycle
 - Dwell time

LoRaWAN

- End-Device Connection to a network
 - Also known as ***Activation***
- This process provides the end-device with:
 - End-device address (*DevAddr*): An identifier composed by the network identifier (7bit) and by the end-device's network address (25bit)
 - App identifier (*AppEUI*): Unique identification of the end-device owner
 - Network Session Key (*NwkSKey*): A key used by both the network server and end-device to verify and ensure message integrity
 - App Session Key (*AppSKey*): A key used by both the network server and end-device to encrypt the payload of received messages
- Note on security:
 - LoRaWAN protocol security is based on 802.15.4
 - AES-128

LoRaWAN

- To activate the device, there are two procedures:
 - Over-the-Air Activation (OTAA)
 - *Join-Request* and *Join-Response* messages are exchanged in each new session, allowing the end-devices to obtain the network and application session keys
 - Activation By Personalization (ABP)
 - The devices have both keys already stored internally

LoRaWAN

- Adaptive Data Rate
 - The network tells the node at which data rate it can send data
 - Manages the SF for each end-device
 - The aim is to:
 - Optimize for fastest data rate versus range
 - Maximize battery life
 - Maximize network capacity

LoRaWAN

- Typically, there is no node-to-node direct communication
 - LoRaWAN allows this by having 2 gateways and a network server in between the nodes
 - However, most end-device vendors also include (for testing, mostly) a raw form of LoRa
 - Allows peer-to-peer communication between nodes
 - Contains only the link layer protocol
 - Only allows a very small number of nodes in a topology
 - There is no packet management
- (useful for a first try with LoRa)

LoRaWAN vs NB-IoT

Table 5. NB-IoT vs. LoRaWAN average power consumption, latency, and throughput.

Features	NB-IoT	LoRaWAN
Joining network	3 mAh	1 mAh
Uplink message (44 bytes)	1.8 mAh	100 µAh
UE class	Cat NB1	A
Data rate (20 bytes)	0.6–4 bps	
Frequency	28 Mhz	EU868 MHz

The Things Network

- Built in a crowdsourced manner by companies and enthusiasts
 - Low density coverage, mostly in larger cities (5 GW in Aveiro)
 - 1-2Km range in cities, 10km in open space
- Provides a Free connectivity service, and broker with APIs
- Composed by:
 - Nodes: owned by companies and citizens, send data to Gateways
 - Gateways: owned by companies and citizens, interface with TTN
 - TTN Servers: Hosted by TTN, routing data to/from user apps