

1 *Communication*

2 **Feasibility analysis of LoRa-based WSN using public** 3 **transport**

4 **Silvano Bertoldo**^{1, *}, **Lorenzo Carosso**¹, **Emanuele Marchetta**², **Miryam Paredes**^{1,3} and **Marco**
5 **Allegretti**^{1,3}

6 ¹ Politecnico di Torino, Department of Electronics and Telecommunications (DET), corso Duca degli
7 Abruzzi 24, 10129, Torino (Italy)

8 ² Technologies for Business (T4B), Via Bobbio 21/8, 10141, Torino (Italy)

9 ³ Envisens Technologies, s.r.l. (EST), via C. Menotti 4, 10138, Torino (Italy).

10 * Correspondence: silvano.bertoldo@polito.it; Tel.: +39-011-090-4623

11 Received: date; Accepted: date; Published: date

12 **Abstract:** LoRa is a proprietary radio communication technology exploiting license-free frequency
13 bands, allowing low-rate information exchange over long distances with very low-power
14 consumption. Conventional environmental monitoring sensors have the disadvantage of being in
15 fixed positions and distributed over wide areas, thus providing measurements with spatially
16 insufficient level of detail. Since public transport vehicles travel continuously within cities, they are
17 ideal to house portable monitoring systems for environmental pollution and meteorological
18 parameters. The paper presents a feasibility analysis of a Wireless Sensor Network (WSN) to collect
19 this information from the vehicles conveying it to a central node for processing. The communication
20 system is realized by deploying a layer-structured, fault-resistant, multi-hop Low Power Wide Area
21 Network (LPWAN) based on the LoRa technology. Both a theoretical study about electromagnetic
22 propagation and network architecture are addressed with consideration about a potential practical
23 network realization.

24 **Keywords:** LoRa; LoRa modulation; Internet-of-Things; LPWAN; wireless communication; multi-
25 hop networks; electromagnetic propagation,
26

27 **1. Introduction**

28 The Internet of Things (IoT) refers to the network of different devices, designed to provide smart
29 services and applications without the need of human intervention. It is one of the key technologies
30 of the near future [1]. Essentially IoT is a “system” where the network itself and all the connected
31 devices have “less of everything”: less memory, less processing power, less available bandwidth, less
32 available energy etc. [2]. Notwithstanding, the set of sensors and devices connected to the IoT is
33 continuously increasing. It has been estimated that 50 billion devices will be connected by 2020 [3].

34 IoT offers a wide range of possible applications. Actually, the basis of IoT is the pervasive,
35 continuous and efficient real data collection. Data can be acquired, transmitted, stored and
36 aggregated for different purposes [4–6] and the set of sensors and equipment by which IoT is made
37 of, constitutes a wide Distributed Measurement System (DMS) [7]. Among the infinite range of
38 possibilities that IoT is able to offer, one of the most important is related to implement smart cities,
39 with pollution and environmental monitoring, and transportation control [8]. In particular the real-
40 time efficient and distributed monitoring of environmental pollution and meteorological parameters
41 (such as temperature, atmospheric pressure and humidity), also known as EIoT [9], is one of the goal
42 that most cities are trying to achieve for various purposes. Although standard observation stations
43 have been used for decades, they present some limitations for measurements with a higher spatial
44 resolution. Indeed, they pretend to monitor large areas but the collected data ends up being the

45 average of numerous contributions, not allowing to precisely identifying critical zones (e.g. small and
46 defined areas more subject to pollution problems) and not giving the possibility to improve the
47 performances of the local meteorological and weather forecasting models.

48 Of course, ad-hoc instrumented vehicles would be too expensive. However, it has been already
49 proved that standard vehicles can be used as meteorological integrated sensors; they can be either
50 properly equipped with a specific monitoring station [10-12] or they can even use the set of sensors
51 currently installed on them [13]. A valid means to realize a capillary and distributed monitoring
52 system is represented by the city's public transport fleet (Figure 1). In fact, according to the European
53 Metropolitan Transport Authorities (EMTA) Barometer 2015, 11° Edition, the public transports cover,
54 on average, an area of 1432 km² of urbanized surface [14], corresponding to the area that can be
55 monitored. A report of Istituto Nazionale di Statistica (ISTAT) from Italy related to 2015 shows that
56 the public transport have more than 200 vehicles distributed over the municipal territory of the
57 biggest Italian cities (e.g. Milan, Turin) [15]. Continuously moving within the entire city area, vehicles
58 are able to provide a near real-time map of air quality and environmental parameters as well as
59 detailed statistics defining hourly and daily trends.

60 Some experimentale Wireless Sensor Network (WSN) were already proposed. For example, [16]
61 [17] presents WSNs based on Zigbee. However, they are not based on low power Low Power Wide
62 Area Network (LPWAN) technologies [18].

63 LoRa is only one of many LPWAN) technologies. Among the others, we have: Sigfox [19], which
64 offers longer-range communication with respect to LoRa but has service subscription costs;
65 NarrowBand IoT [20], which focuses on indoor coverage (which is not the case of our proposed
66 network). Other technologies are also Weightless, 5by5 Wireless, HaLow and so on.

67 Among the main advantages of LoRa with respect to traditional technologies, there are long-
68 range capabilities (up to 15 km), battery life optimization, easy deployment and robustness to
69 interference [21]. These features make LoRa the ideal choice for a vast number of IoT applications. A
70 detailed study about LoRa, including the report of different tests is documented in [22] where some
71 possible solutions for performance enhancements of a IoT network based on the LoRa technology are
72 also proposed.

73 While most implementations built with these technologies are single-hop networks, used to
74 connect only end-devices to gateways and relying on the Internet for the remaining part, there are
75 examples of multi-hop networks based on LoRa. In [23], a multi-hop linear network is deployed, with
76 nodes forming a line topology and packets travelling from a node to the next in the line. In [24], the
77 focus is on the effects of concurrent transmission in a multi-hop network, in order to ensure network
78 reliability.

79 The Low-Power Wide Area Network (LPWAN) presented in this work is realized with the LoRa
80 technology, a wireless communication technology (working on free-of-charge unlicensed spectrum)
81 that uses Chirp Spread Spectrum (CSS) modulation to encode information.

82 The prototypal network includes three types of nodes, which differ in their role but not in the
83 used hardware. On the public transport vehicles, the sensor nodes are installed on the vehicles
84 themselves; they transmit air-quality sensors and weather-parameters sensors data to the gateway,
85 together with position and date and time indication. Gateways, spread around the city, receive the
86 information and relay it to the supergateway, a central node which processes this information. The
87 supergateway may display the data, keep track of the correct operation of end-nodes and gateways
88 belonging to the network, reporting any possible malfunction.

89 After a brief presentation of the LoRa technology (section 2), we focus on the theoretical analysis
90 of propagation performance (section 3). We describe the networking solutions that could be properly
91 adopted for the realization of a LoRa-based WSN using public transport (section 4) and the software
92 implementation (section 5). Conclusions and outlooks are given in the last section.

93 2. LoRa Technology

94 LoRa is a proprietary wireless communication technology featuring long-range capabilities,
95 with low-power consumption although with low data rates. Developed by Cycleo and acquired by

96 Semtech in 2012, it uses license-free sub-gigahertz radio frequency bands. Its characteristics make it
97 suitable for IoT and Machine to Machine (M2M) communication over wide areas, requiring a modest
98 amount of exchanged traffic. The LoRa modulation scheme derives from the Chirp Spread Spectrum
99 (CSS) modulation technique, which encodes the information in chirps [25]. As the expression spread
100 spectrum implies, this technique uses the entire allocated bandwidth to transmit the signal. For this
101 reason it exhibits robustness to noise and other channel degradation mechanisms such as multi-path
102 fading (urban applications). It also mitigates the Doppler Effect (mobile applications).

103 In particular, the Doppler aspect is very important for the present prototypal LPWAN.
104 According to [2] the CSS modulation set for Lora allows a frequency offset between the transmitter
105 and the receiver up to 20%, which should be enough to avoid problems due to the velocity of the
106 LoRa transceiver in our application. The results presented in [26], show that some communication
107 problems may arise at around 40 km/h and that the number of lost packets increases according to the
108 increasing speed, reaching up to 33% packet loss when the velocity of a car reaches 100 km/h. In any
109 case, the speed limit inside urban centers (valid also for public transport) is between 30 km/h and 50
110 km/h in most European cities. At those speeds, the success ratio for correctly transmitted and received
111 packets is significantly higher. Hence, technology is suitable for this kind of mobile application.

112 There are limitations such as the restrictions and regulations on the duty-cycle, the possibility to
113 send only sparse datagrams, and the already mentioned limited data rate. These constraints do not
114 influence negatively the use of LoRa for the proposed applications.

115 LoRa is the physical (PHY) layer (the lowest layer in OSI communication stack) implementation
116 and it works regardless of the technology operating on upper layers. In this respect, the LoRa
117 Alliance™ has developed the open-source LoRaWAN specification [27]: an infrastructure consisting
118 of media access control (MAC), network and application layers built on top of LoRa. LoRaWAN is
119 organized in a star-of-stars topology in which gateways relay messages between end-devices and a
120 central network server; gateways are connected to the network server via standard IP connections,
121 while end-nodes use single-hop LoRa communication to reach gateways.

122 For our purposes both LoRa and LoRaWAN technologies can be used, but only LoRa was
123 preferred since it does not enforce the gateways (see next section) to be connected to the Internet,
124 giving the possibility to create an entire ad-hoc network using plain LoRa communication. However,
125 to provide basic medium access control (MAC) features, a carrier sense mechanism was implemented
126 in software to reduce collisions as much as possible. It is possible to configure different LoRa in order
127 to adapt the technology to the working scenario and needs of the network to be realized. These
128 parameters are

- 129 • the bandwidth, to be chosen among 125, 250 and 500 KHz and defines how wide the
130 transmitted signal is;
- 131 • the spreading factor, a number in the range 6-12 which indicates how many bits are
132 used to encode each symbol;
- 133 • the code rate, from 4/5 to 4/8 and specifies the proportion of useful transmitted bits
134 (non-redundant).

135 According to the results presented in [28], a LoRa based network and properly configured allows
136 to reach a communication range of 15 km with an average packet successful delivery ration up to
137 97%. Of course, for the presented application, we need a shorter communication range.
138

139 3. Theoretical analysis of propagation performance

140 In order to get a deeper insight of the maximum distance that could be covered in urban areas
141 at the frequency on which LoRa modules operate in Europe, a theoretical analysis of the propagation
142 performance in term of range and received power was performed. Wireless channel characterization
143 is determined by path loss, shadowing and multipath fading where the last two quantities are
144 extremely important in an urban environment and may heavily affect the propagation performance
145 of a radio link.

146 This analysis is also useful to estimate the maximum distance at which end-nodes, gateways and
 147 supergateway can be installed taking into account different values of transmitted power

148 In general, indicating with $P_T|_{dBm}$ the power radiated by the transmitter, expressed in dBm,
 149 $G_T|_{dB}$ and $G_R|_{dB}$ the antenna gains, respectively of the transmitter and receiver expressed in dB, and
 150 $L_P|_{dB}$ the path loss attenuation, expressed in dB, caused by both the distance between transmitter
 151 and receiver and the different characteristics of the surrounding environment, the received power
 152 $P_R|_{dBm}$ can be calculated as:
 153

$$P_R|_{dBm} = P_T|_{dBm} + G_T|_{dB} + G_R|_{dB} - L_P|_{dB} \quad (1)$$

154
 155 At present, there is no specific path loss model for the LoRa technology in order to estimate
 156 $L_P|_{dB}$. However, there is a large number of different empirical propagation models which were
 157 developed and/or derived from experimental measurements using different standards, different
 158 frequency and in various propagation conditions. Some of them can be used for the frequency band
 159 dedicated to LoRa in Europe. For instance, in [29] the Erceg model [30] is used with promising results
 160 compared with experimental measurements with a difference of maximum 100 m in the useful range.
 161 The problem is that the Erceg model tends to overestimate the distances in urban environment due
 162 to dampening by buildings and other urban structures. In [31] authors present an analysis and
 163 possible optimizations of the Lee propagation model [32], which can be used for both area-to-area,
 164 and point-to-point communications. The model is used to predict the path loss over a flat terrain but
 165 according to some arrangements and optimizations it is possible to adapt it to urban areas. The
 166 applicability of Lee's propagation model is efficient as soon as a proper variant is determined for each
 167 specific city, but in the case of Turin, this information is not available. However, by similarity it could
 168 be possible to use the standard parameters defined for urban areas and already applied in some cities
 169 (e.g. Newark, USA, [28]), considering the obtained results as indicators of propagation performance.

170 When dealing with transmissions between 100 and 1500 MHz in urban areas, the empirical
 171 Okumura-Hata model [29] can be used with good results since it has been specifically developed for
 172 wireless communication in urban environment. The equation (2) yields the path loss L_P by knowing
 173 the operating frequency f in MHz, the transmitter and receiver heights h_T and h_R expressed in
 174 meters, the correction parameter $a(h_R)$, equation (3), due to the area type (urban area or, even,
 175 country area) and the distance d between transmitter and receiver expressed in kilometers.
 176
 177

$$L_P|_{dB} = 69.55 + 26.16 \log_{10} f - 13.82 \log_{10} h_T - a(h_R) + \quad (2)$$

$$+ (44.9 - 6.55 \log_{10} h_T) \log_{10} d$$

$$\text{where for large cities } a(h_R) = 3.2[\log_{10}(11.75 \cdot h_R)]^2 - 4.97. \quad (3)$$

178
 179

180 Even if a LoRa receiver can have a sensitivity up to -157 dBm [21], a lower reasonable limit for
 181 received power P_R has been set to -120 dBm. It is a receiver hypothetical sensitivity value that
 182 ensures a correct reception with a good margin including all the possible source of additive path
 183 losses. Assuming a 0 dB gain antenna for both transmitter and receiver antenna, in order to simulate
 184 them as omnidirectional source because we do not know their orientation, and by varying the
 185 transmitted power it is possible to obtain different distances covered by the signal.

186 According to LoRa specifications and European regulations, the transmitter power can vary
 187 from a minimum value of 0 dBm up to maximum value of 14 dBm. The LoRa operating frequency
 188 is 865 MHz. At first, the heights of transmitter and receiver are supposed equal both to 3 m and then
 189 the receiver height was assumed at 20 m in order to simulate a different possible scenario of

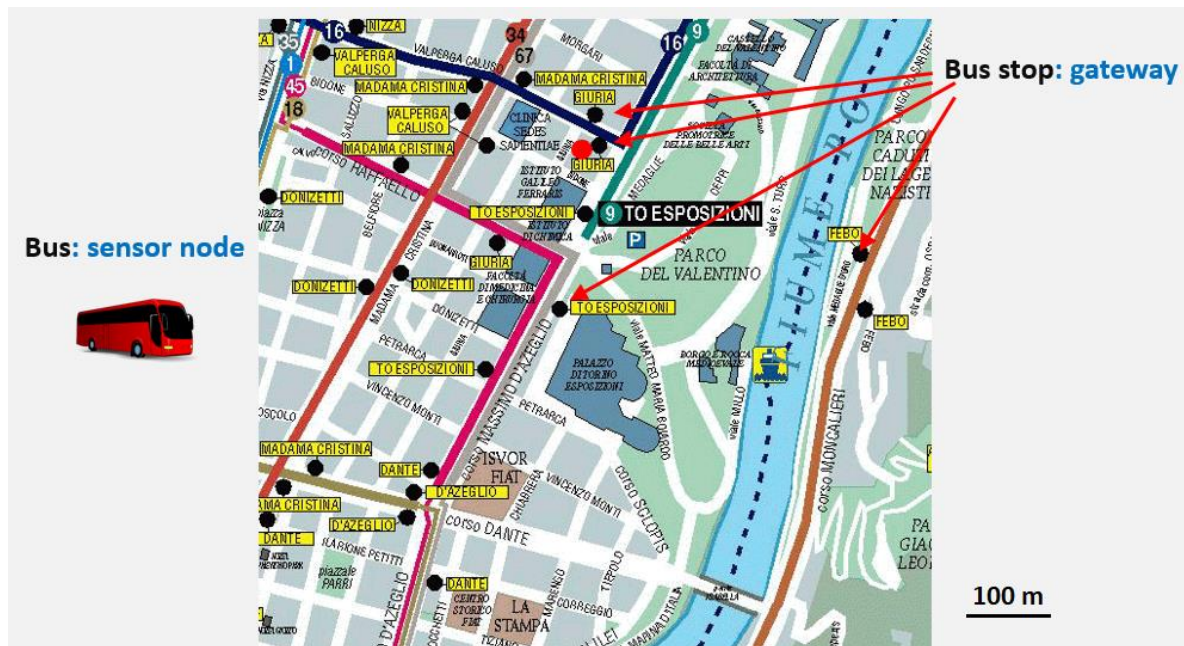
190 installations in an urban environment. By means of equations (1), (2) and (3), we can evaluate the
 191 maximum communication ranges reported in Table 1, assuming to work with a real antenna with
 192 gains =3.16 dB.

193 **Table 1.** Transmitted power and maximum range using the Okumura-Hata model for urban
 194 environment and two receiver heights $h_r=3$ m and $h_r=10$ m

Transmitted power [dBm]	Maximum range [m]	
	$h_r=3$ m	$h_r=10$ m
0	552	923
5	727	121
14	1194	1998

195
 196
 197 The results are reasonable for the deployment of a DMS based on the LoRa technology in an
 198 urban area. The LoRa end-node installed on a public transport vehicle can communicate with the
 199 nearest gateway at less than 500 m apart if operating in the lower possible power consumption mode
 200 (transmitting only 0 dBm). Of course, this range can be increased using proper antenna with a gain
 201 greater than 0 dB. In that case, the maximum distance between nodes and gateways can be around
 202 half a kilometer: An example of tentative installation of gateways in Turin is reported in Figure 1 and
 203 it appears that the maximum distance between two bus stops, where the first level gateways will be
 204 installed, does not exceed some hundreds of meters.

205
 206



207
 208 **Figure 1.** Example of tentative installations of gateway on the pole of bus stop for a portion of the city
 209 of Turin.

210 A comparison between the theoretical results obtained with the Okumura-Hata model and some
 211 experimental measurements is given in [35] where some preliminary propagation tests using for both
 212 a point-to-point and a star topology network are introduced. The tests demonstrate the capability of
 213 the system to correctly receive data, in term of both received power and packet error rate, over a
 214 range of about 800 m. They demonstrates that LoRa can be used in an urban noisy environment.

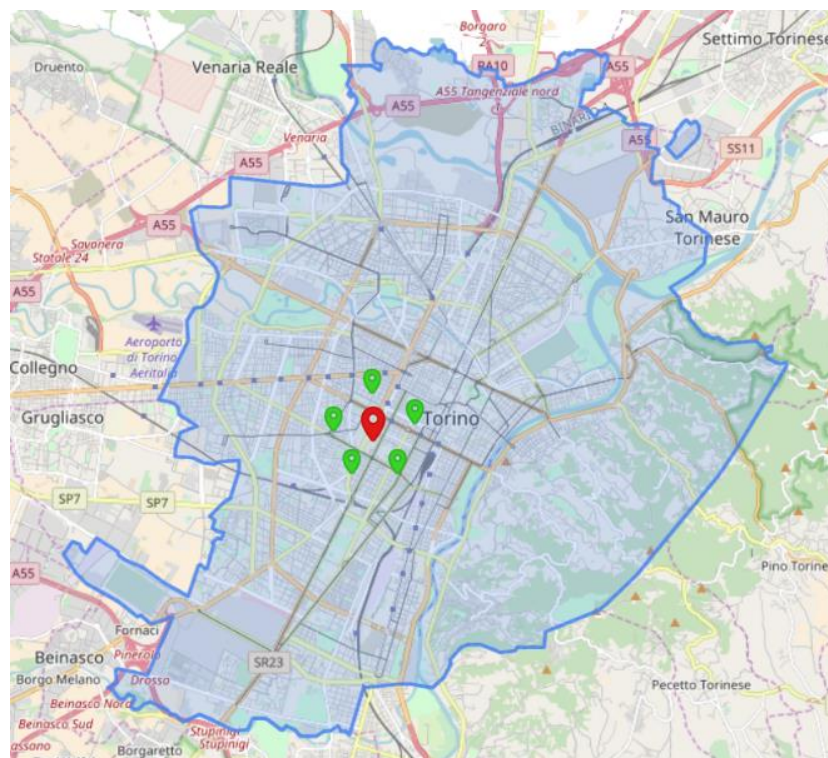
215
 216

217 4. Network architecture

218 The network to be realized should cover a metropolitan city. The *sensor nodes* (also referred as
 219 *end-nodes*) will have to be installed on public transport vehicles. They will acquire information about
 220 environmental parameters through to the installed sensors and will send data to the *gateways*.
 221 *Gateways* receive this information and relay it to the *supergateway*. The supergateway receives all the
 222 information, and keeps track of the correct operation of end-nodes and gateways in the network,
 223 reporting any possible malfunction. The supergateway is connected to a computer equipped with an
 224 ad-hoc processing software and both a database server and a web server for storing and displaying
 225 the data measured by each node.

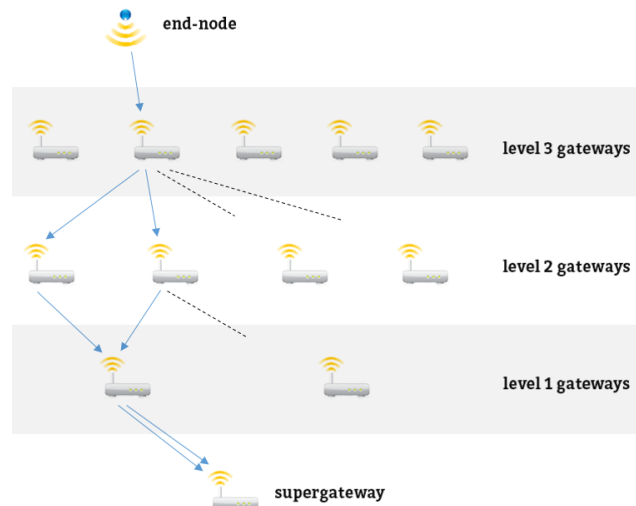
226 Since the network will be realized with LoRa technology without using the LoRaWAN protocol,
 227 a proper algorithm for both addressing and routing has been implemented. In general, addressing
 228 and routing can be implemented in either a static or dynamic manner. Given the intrinsically static
 229 configuration of our scenario, this is reflected on the defined setup of the network. The best solution
 230 in terms of minimum exchanged traffic, throughput and fault-tolerance turned out to be a multi-layer
 231 topology (which translates either into a star-of-stars or tree topology, depending on the position of
 232 the supergateway in the network). In this multilayer topology, gateways are organized in layers
 233 depending on their distance from the central hub. Considering the city of Turin, for instance, a
 234 possible configuration of the network is represented in Figure 2. The distance between the central
 235 node and the gateways satisfies the propagation considerations and measurement results reported in
 236 the following sections.

237
 238



239 **Figure 2.** The Turin city map and a possible arrangement of supergateway (red indicator) and first-
 240 level gateways (green indicators).

241 As shown in Figure 3, packets travel always from higher layers to lower layers reaching the
 242 supergateway, which is ideally at the zero level. The packets are transmitted in two different ways
 243 depending on whether the communication is from an end-node to a gateway or from a gateway to
 244 another gateway.
 245

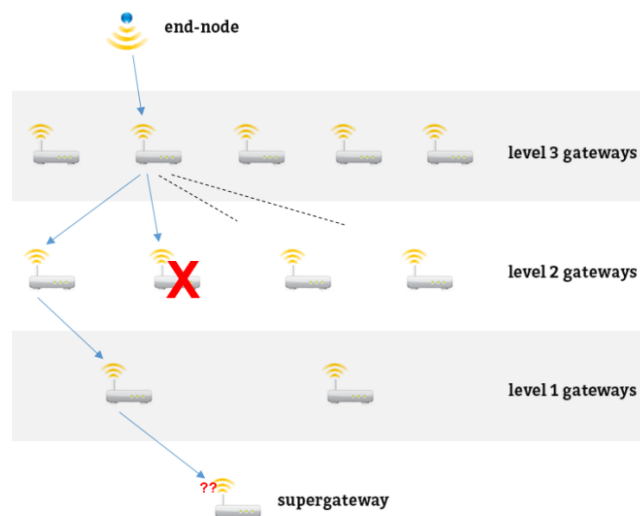


246
247
248
249

Figure 3. A representation of the proposed multilevel architecture in its correct operation. A direct consequence of the network’s modus operandi is the redundancy highlighted at the supergateway level.

250 *First mode:* the end-node sends a broadcast message looking for a gateway nearby; gateways
251 receiving this request inform the end-node about their availability to handle the packet. The end-
252 node will forward it to the first gateway answering to its initial query. In the unfortunate event that
253 there are no gateway nearby, the end-nodes keeps trying and looking for another available gateway.

254 *Second mode:* a gateway, which receives a packet, does not behave as an end-node (looking for
255 gateways nearby and sending the packet to one of them); it instead realizes a multicast
256 communication directed to all gateways of the lower layer, thus allowing the packet to reach the
257 supergateway. It is straightforward that such an implementation results in some redundancy in the
258 network, but this phenomenon can be limited by properly arranging gateways in space. This
259 apparent disadvantage can be also exploited to keep track of working nodes in the network and detect
260 possible faults (Figure 4). This operation is carried out by the supergateway. Before discarding
261 duplicated packets, it checks the path they followed and infers, based on the knowledge of the entire
262 topology of the network, which gateways may not be working correctly. Since end-nodes are
263 expected to collect data from sensors and transmit them at regular intervals of time, the supergateway
264 is able to identify malfunctioning end-nodes as well.



265
266
267

Figure 4. A hypothetical case of failure of a gateway, which results nonetheless in a correct delivery of the packet and fault detection by the supergateway.

268 Similarly, the end-nodes to gateways communication can be analyzed for fault detection. Apart
 269 from leading to a higher level of redundancy without consistently improving the performance and
 270 robustness of the network, this implementation may solve another major problem. If, by chance, no
 271 gateway happens to be in proximity of the end-node at the time of the transmission, the information
 272 would not be lost; in fact, in the current implementation, the end-node repeatedly sends its request-
 273 for-transmission packet until a gateway replies.

274 5. Software implementation and description

275 A preliminary version of a software to manage the network has been developed and tested. The
 276 software to control the entire network, and specifically end-nodes, gateways and supergateways, was
 277 written with the Arduino IDE and is based on the SX1272 library developed by Libelium, properly
 278 modified and adapted. This choice is based on the fact that Arduino is an open source platform that
 279 can be adapted to different purposes and control different potential sensors of a DMS. Since many
 280 aspects of software were common to all three types of nodes, a new library was created to improve
 281 modularity, code reuse and maintenance. Of course, in this way, a significant reduction of the
 282 development time and costs has been achieved.

283 LoRa reserves one byte for the specification of the network address of a node, with the special
 284 value 0 used for broadcast communication and therefore unassignable to any node. Since having a
 285 unique address for each end-node is an impracticable solution, they all share the same network
 286 address. This does not cause any conflict in the network, but has the downside of making end-nodes
 287 undistinguishable from each other. Consequently, there is the need to reserve some space in the
 288 packet payload for the indication of a unique sensor ID, in order to identify end-nodes appropriately.
 289 As opposed to these terminal nodes, the supergateway is unique and it has address 1, while five
 290 addressing classes are devised for the five levels of gateways (Table 2). Additional addresses, one for
 291 each level, are reserved for the multicast communication previously described: they target all
 292 gateways belonging a certain level, and this mechanism allows the flowing of data packets from
 293 higher layers to the central hub.
 294

295 **Table 2.** Addressing plan for the multilevel architecture

CLASS	START ADDRESS	END ADDRESS	MULTICAST
End-nodes		255	-
Class 5 Gateways	160	249	-
Class 4 Gateways	94	153	7
Class 3 Gateways	50	89	6
Class 2 Gateways	24	43	5
Class 1 Gateways	10	19	4
Supergateway		1	-

296 The generic data packet is created at the end-node, which populates it with the measured data
 297 (including position and timing) and sends it to the first gateway it encounters. Each gateway adds
 298 the required information to allow the supergateway to know which path has been followed by the
 299 packet. Since the maximum number of levels has been limited to 5, this implementation choice does
 300 not cause any problem of exceeded packet size and respects the LoRa specification.
 301

302 The structure of the packet payload is reported in Table 3. The meaning of the definitions is as
 303 follow:

- 304 • *TYPE* is an integer defining the type of packet; as described in the previous section,
 305 the implementation provides not only for data packets but also for control
 306 information packets.
- 307 • *TRIP* lists the path of intermediate gateways traversed, and it is there to allow the
 308 supergateway to discover malfunctioning gateways.
- 309 • *SID* contains the sensor ID of the end-node that generated the packet.

- 310 • *TS* is the date and time (timestamp) when the measurement was made.
- 311 • *POS* reports the position (GPS coordinates) of the vehicle at the time that data from
- 312 sensors were collected.
- 313 • *MSG* contains the formatted sensor data, composed of environmental pollution
- 314 information and meteorological parameters.
- 315

316 **Table 3.** Packet fields with their relative size

TYPE	TRIP	SID	TS	POS	MSG
1 byte	variable	2 byte	4 bytes	16 bytes	variable

317 Conclusions

318 This communication shows a feasibility analysis for the realization of a WSN for environmental
 319 monitoring using public transport. The structure of the DMS is described considering both the
 320 physical architecture and the software solution. The WSN can be realized on a portion of a city or
 321 even over a whole city, since theoretical propagation performances show that LoRa technology offers
 322 a satisfactory coverage in urban areas. LoRa can be an ad-hoc network solution, convenient for
 323 integration in the public transport system of a city.

324 Even if the presented network and the experimental results give very important indications
 325 about its use and deployment, tests concerning propagation performance as well as networking
 326 performance should be extensively performed taking into account also the Doppler Effect potential
 327 problems. Concerning the networking aspect, it could be interesting to evaluate the possibility to
 328 switch to a dynamic approach for both addressing and routing. The network topology can be also
 329 modified from a configuration based on a single supergateway to the deployment of a series of central
 330 nodes.

332 **Author Contributions:** S Bertoldo did the theoretical analysis and calculation and wrote the first draft of the
 333 paper. M. Paredes, E. Marchetta and L. Carosso studied the networking aspects. M. Allegretti wrote the final
 334 version of the paper together with S. Bertoldo.

335

336 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

337

338 References

- 339 1. C. Perera, C. H. Liu and S. Jayawardena. The emerging Internet of Things marketplace form an industrial
 340 perspective. *IEEE Trans. Emerg. Topics Comput.* **2015**, Vol. 3, No. 4, pp. 585-298.
 341 <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1502.00134.pdf>
- 342 2. A. Augustin, J. Yi, T. Clausen and W. M. Townsley. A Study of LoRa: Long Range & Low Power Networks
 343 for the Internet of Things. *Sensors* **2016**, 16, 1466. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s16091466>
- 344 3. D. Evans. The Internet of Things: How the Next Evolution of the Internet is Changing Everything; Cisco
 345 Internet Business Solutions Group: San Jose, CA, USA, 2011.
- 346 4. L. Da Xu, W. He, and S. Li, Internet of things in industries: A survey. *IEEE Trans. Ind. Informat.*, **2014**, Vol.
 347 *10*, No. 4, pp. 2233–2243. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TII.2014.2300753>
- 348 5. S. M. R. Islam, D. Kwak, M. H. Kabir, M. Hossain and K.-S. Kwak. The Internet of Things for health care:
 349 A comprehensive survey. *IEEE Access*, **2015**, Vol. 3, pp. 678–708.
 350 <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2015.2437951>
- 351 6. A. Khan and K. Turowski. A survey of current challenges in manufacturing industry and preparation for
 352 industry 4.0. *Advances in Intelligent Systems and Computing*, 2016, Vol. 450. Cham, Switzerland: Springer, pp.
 353 15–26.

- 354 7. M. Rizzi, P. Ferrari, A. Flammini and E. Sisinni. Evaluation of the IoT LoRaWAN Solutions for Distributed
355 Measurement Applications. *IEEE Trans Instr. and Meas.* **2017**, Vol. 66. No .12, pp. 3340-3349.
356 <https://doi.org/10.1109/TIM.2017.2746378>
- 357 8. A. Zanella, N. Bui, A. Castellani, L. Vangelista, and M. Zorzi. Internet of Things for smart cities. *IEEE*
358 *Internet Things J.*, **2014**, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 22–32. <https://doi.org/10.1109/IIOT.2014.2306328>
- 359 9. H. Wang, T. Zhang, Y. Quan, R. Dong. Research on the framework of the Environmental Internet of Things.
360 *IJSDWE* **2013**, Vol. 20, pp. 199-204. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13504509.2013.783517>
- 361 10. A. R. S. Anderson, G. Wiener, S. Linden, W. Petzke, G. N. Guevara, B. C. Boyce, and P. Pisano. The Pikalert®
362 Vehicle Data Translator Updates and Applications. Proceedings of 32nd Conference on Environmental
363 Information Processing Technologies, New Orleans (USA), January 2016.
- 364 11. T. Sukuvaara, P. Nurmi, M. Hippinen, R. Autio, D. Stepanova, P. Eloranta, L. Riihentupa, and K. Kauvo.
365 Wireless traffic safety network for incident and weather information. Proceedings of the first ACM
366 international symposium on Design and analysis of intelligent vehicular networks and applications
367 (DIVANet '11). New York (USA), pp. 9-14.
- 368 12. V. Karsisto, T. Sukuvaara, M. Hippinen, and P. Nurmi. Mobile observations as part of future road weather
369 services. Proceedings of European Geosciences Union General Assembly 2018 (EGU 2018), Vienna (AUT),
370 April 2018, EGU2018-74.
- 371 13. S. Bertoldo, C. Lucianaz, M. Allegretti. Car as a moving meteorological integrated sensor. Proceedings of
372 IEEE Antenna and Propagation for Wireless Communication (APWC 2017), Verona (ITA), September 2017.
373 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/APWC.2017.8062239>.
- 374 14. EMTA (European Metropolitan Transport Authorities) Barometer 2015 – 11° Edition, published 2017.
- 375 15. Mobilità urbana: domanda e offerta di trasporto pubblico locale. Anno 2015. Istituto Nazionale di Statistica
376 (ISTAT), 2017, Italy.
- 377 16. M. S. Jamil, M. A. Jamil, A. Mazhar, A. Ikram, A. Ahmed and U. Munawa. Smart environment monitoring
378 system by employing wireless sensor networks on vehicles for pollution free smart cities. *Procedia*
379 *Engineering*, 2015, Vol. 107, pp. 480-484, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2015.06.106>
- 380 17. E. Suganya and S. Vijayashaarathi. Smart vehicle monitoring system for air pollution detection using Wsn.
381 Proceedings of IEEE International Conference on Communication and Signal Processing (ICCSP), April
382 2016; pp. 719-722).
- 383 18. A. Augustin¹, J. Yi, T. Clausen and W. M. Townsley. A Study of LoRa: Long Range & Low Power Networks
384 for the Internet of Things. *Sensors* **2016**, Vol. 16, 1466, <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/s16091466>
- 385 19. Sigfox technical overview. Sigfox, 2017. Available online: [https://www.disk91.com/wp-](https://www.disk91.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/05/4967675830228422064.pdf)
386 [content/uploads/2017/05/4967675830228422064.pdf](https://www.disk91.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/05/4967675830228422064.pdf) (accessed on June 2018).
- 387 20. J. Schlienz and D. Raddino, Narrowband Internet of Things Whitepaper. Rohde & Schwarz Whitepaper,
388 2016.
- 389 21. LoRa Modulation Basics. Semtec (2015). Available online:
390 <https://www.semtech.com/uploads/documents/an1200.22.pdf> (accessed on 28 May 2018).
- 391 22. M. Centenaro, L. Vangelista, A. Zanella, and M. Zorzi. Long-range communications in unlicensed bands:
392 the rising stars in the IoT and smart city scenarios. *IEEE Wireless Communications* **2016**, Vol. 23, No. 5, pp.
393 60-67. <https://doi.org/10.1109/MWC.2016.7721743>
- 394 23. Cong Tan Duong, Myung Kyun Kim. Multi-Hop Linear Network Based on LoRa. *AST* **2018**, Vol. 150, pp.
395 29-33, <http://dx.doi.org/10.14257/astl.2018.150.08>.
- 396 24. Chun-Hao Liao, Guibing Zhu, Daiki Kuwabara, Makoto Suzuki, Hiroyuki Morikawa. Multi-Hop LoRa
397 Networks Enabled by Concurrent Transmission. *IEEE* **2017**, Vol. 5, pp. 21430-21446,
398 <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2017.2755858>.
- 399 25. A. Springer, W. Gugler, M. Huemer, L. Reind, C. Ruppel and R. Weigel. Spread spectrum communications
400 using chirp signals. Proceedings of the IEEE/AFCEA Information Systems for Enhanced Public Safety and
401 Security (EUROCOMM 2000), Munich, Germany, 19 May 2000; pp. 166–170.
- 402 26. J. Petajajarvi, K. Mikhaylov, M. Pettisalo, J. Janhunen and J. Iinatti. Performance of low-power wide-area
403 network based on LoRa technology: Doppler robustness, scalability and coverage. *Int. J. Distr. Sensor*
404 *Networks*, **2017**, Vol. 13, No. 13. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1550147717699412>
- 405 27. LoRaWAN 1.1 Specification. Available online: [https://loro-alliance.org/sites/default/files/2018-](https://loro-alliance.org/sites/default/files/2018-04/lorawantm_specification_v1.1.pdf)
406 [04/lorawantm_specification_v1.1.pdf](https://loro-alliance.org/sites/default/files/2018-04/lorawantm_specification_v1.1.pdf) (accessed on 28 May 2018).

- 407 28. J. Petajarvi, K. Mikhaylov, M. Pettisalo, J. Janhunen and J. Iinatti. On the coverage of LPWANs: range
408 evaluation and channel attenuation model for LoRa technology. Proceeding of 14th IEEE International
409 Conference on Intelligent Transportation Systems Telecommunications 2015 (IIST 2015), Copenhagen
410 (DEN), December 2015, pp. 55–59.
- 411 29. N. Blenn and F. Kuipers. LoRaWAN in the Wild: Measurements from the Things Network. *CoRR*, 2017.
412 arXiv:1706.03086. <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1706.03086.pdf>
- 413 30. V. Erceg, L. J. Greenstein, S. Y. Tjandra, S. R. Parkoff, A. Gupta, B. Kulic, A. A. Julius, and R. Bianchi. An
414 empirically based path loss model for wireless channels in suburban environments. *IEEE Journal on selected*
415 *areas in communications*, 1999, Vol. 17, No. 7, pp. 1205–1211.
- 416 31. D. Dobrilovic, M. Malic, D. Malic, S. Sladojevic. Analysis and optimization of Lee propagation model for
417 LoRa 868 MHz network deployments in urban areas. *J. Eng. Management and Competitiveness*, 2017, Vol. 7,
418 No. 1, pp. 55-62.
- 419 32. W. C. Y Lee, *Wireless & Cellular Telecommunication*: McGraw Hill, 2006.
- 420 33. M. Hata. Empirical formula for propagation loss in land mobile radio services. *IEEE Transactions on*
421 *Vehicular Technology*, 1980, Vol. 29, No. 3, pp. 317-325.
- 422 34. SX1272/3/6/7/8: LoRa Modem Designer's Guide AN1200.13. Semtec (2013). Available online:
423 https://www.semtech.com/uploads/documents/LoraDesignGuide_STD.pdf (accessed on March 2018).
- 424 35. S. Bertoldo, M. Paredes, L. Carosso, C. Lucianaz, M. Allegretti, P. Savi, "Feasibility analysis of LoRa ad-hoc
425 network in a urban noisy environment", Mediterranean Microwave Symposium 2018 (MMS2018), 31st
426 October – 2nd November 2018, Istanbul (Turkey), in press.
- 427



© 2018 by the authors. Submitted for possible open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license

430 (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>)