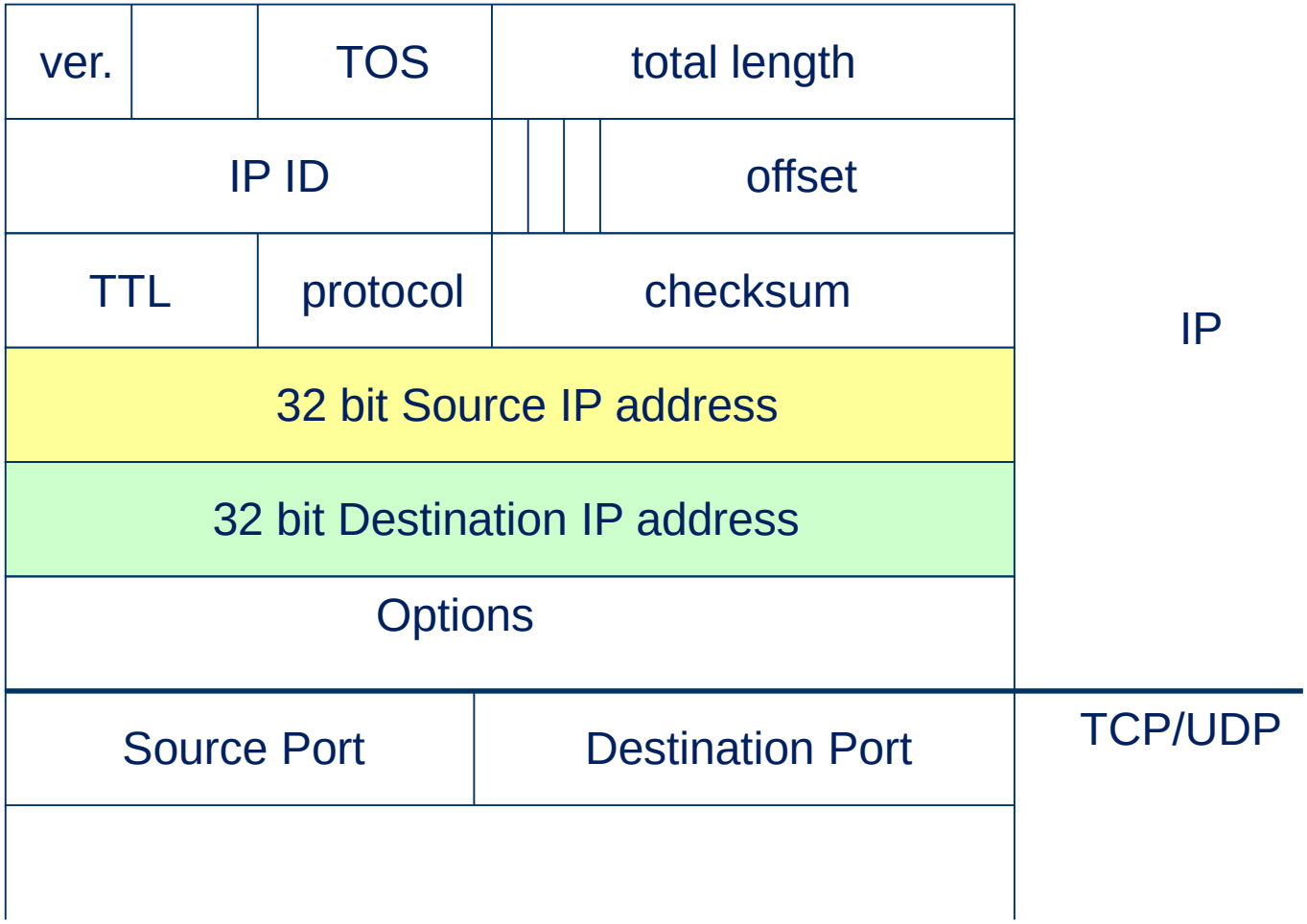
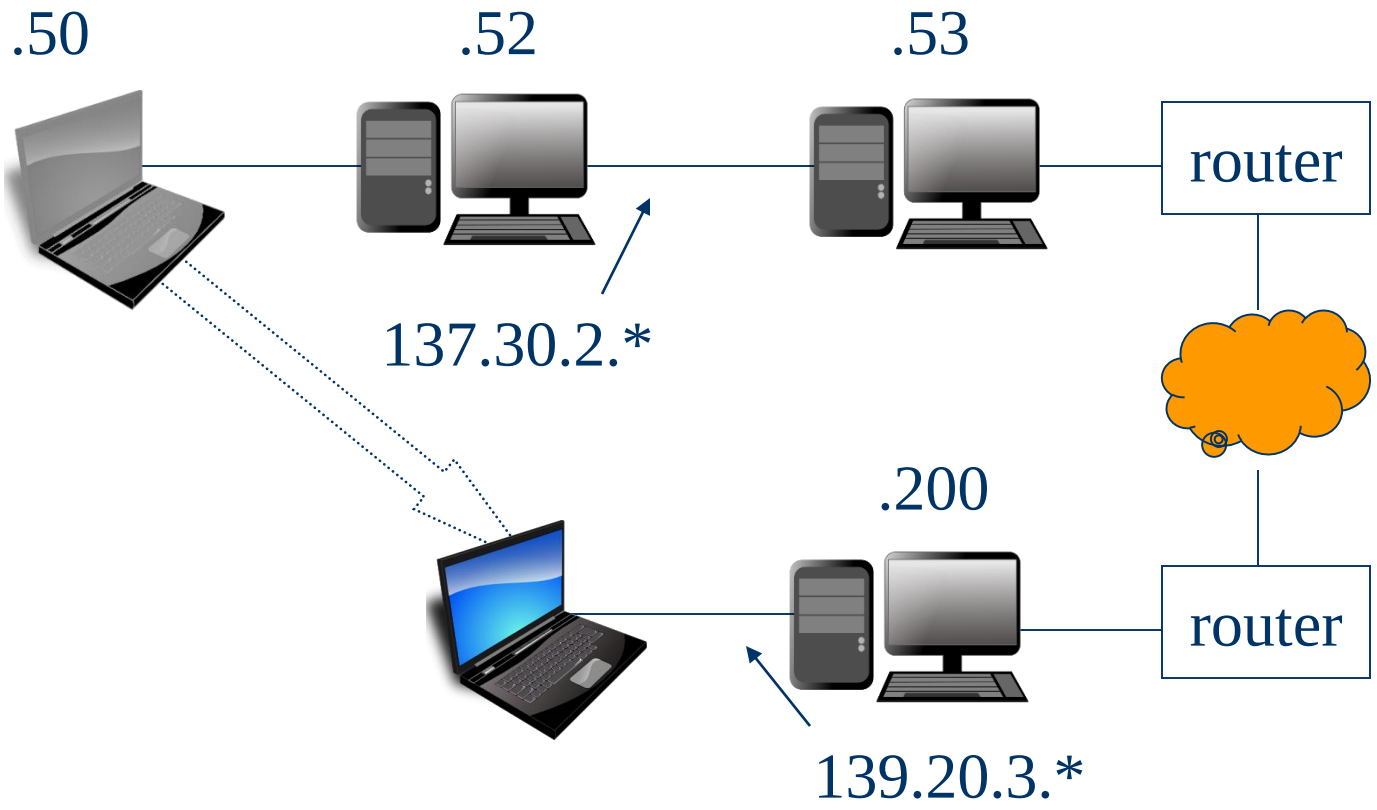
Κινητά και Ασύρματα Δίκτυα

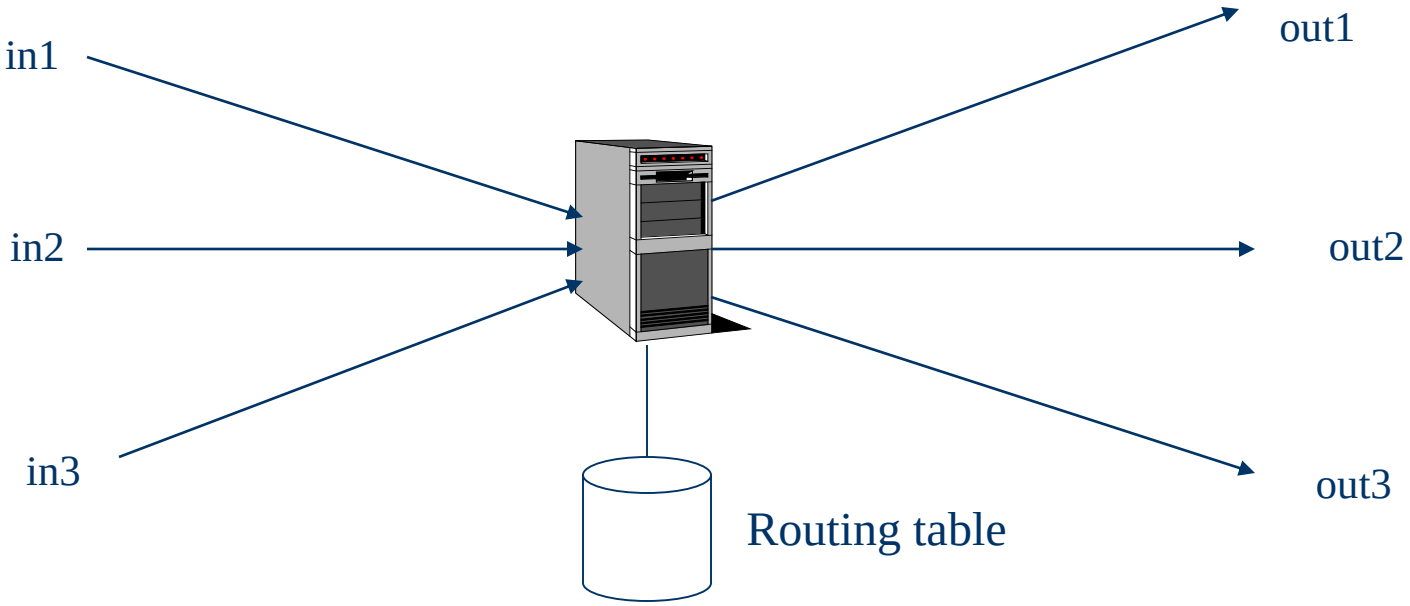
Ασύρματη Μετάδοση και Πολλαπλή Πρόσβαση

IP Header


ver.
TOS
total length
IP ID
offset
TTL
protocol
checksum
32 bit Source IP address
32 bit Destination IP address
Options
IP
Source Port
Destination Port
TCP/UDP

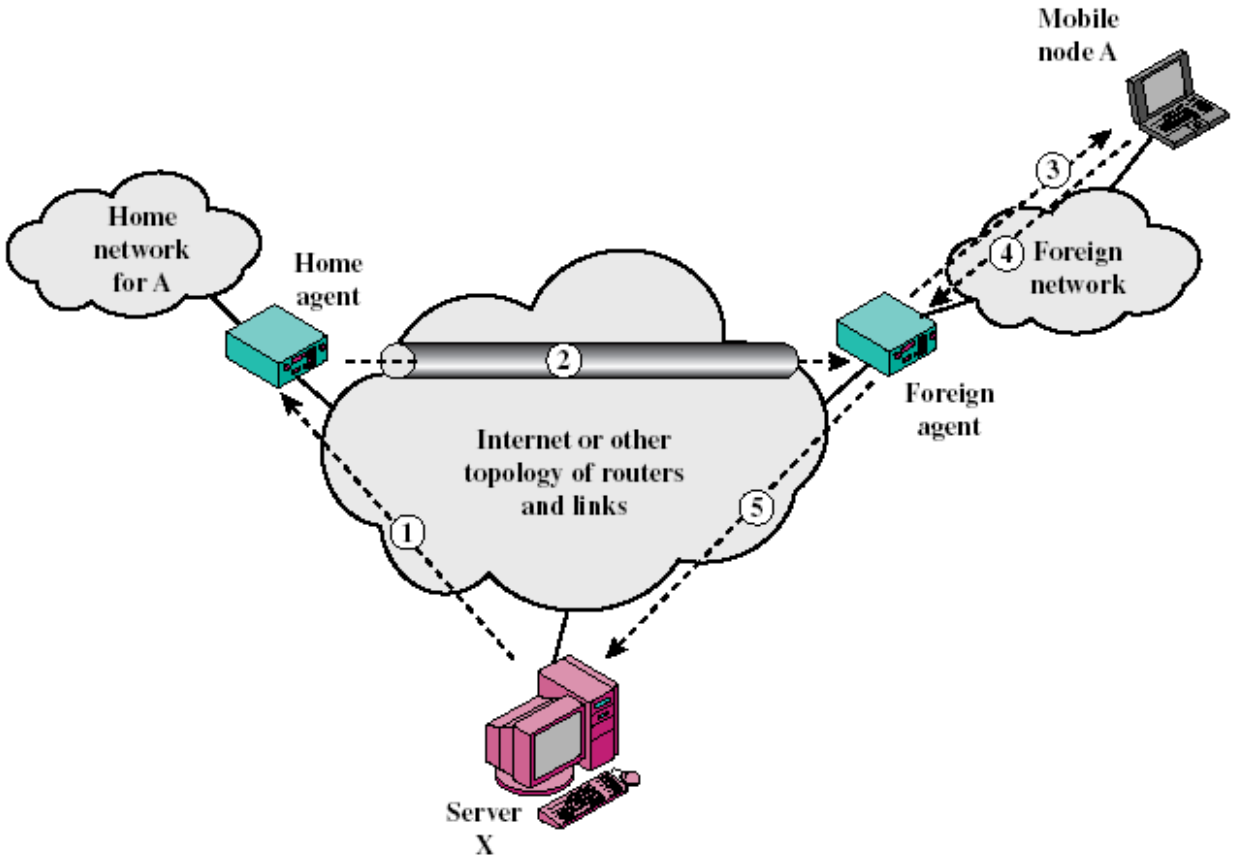

.50
.52
.53
router
137.30.2.*
.200
router
139.20.3.*

IP routing



137.30.2.x	out1
137.30.3.x	out2
default	out3

Mobile IP


Mobile
node A
Home
network
for A
Home
agent
Foreign
network
Foreign
agent
Internet or other
topology of routers
and links
Server
X
1
2
3
4
5

Mobile IP terminology

Correspondent Node (CN)

Home Agent (HA)

Foreign Agent (FA)

home address

care-of address

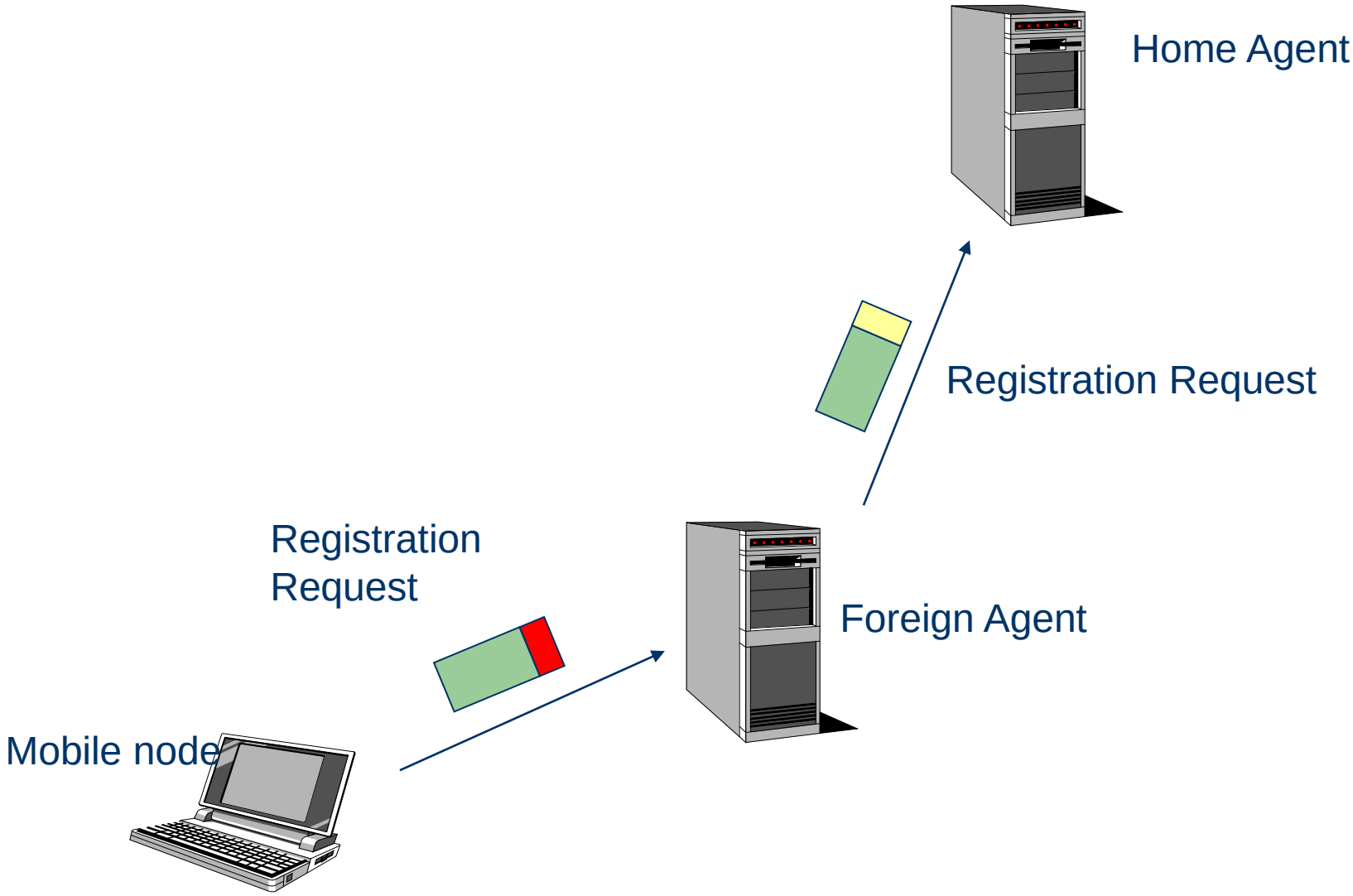
Mobile Node (MN)

Οικείο δίκτυο

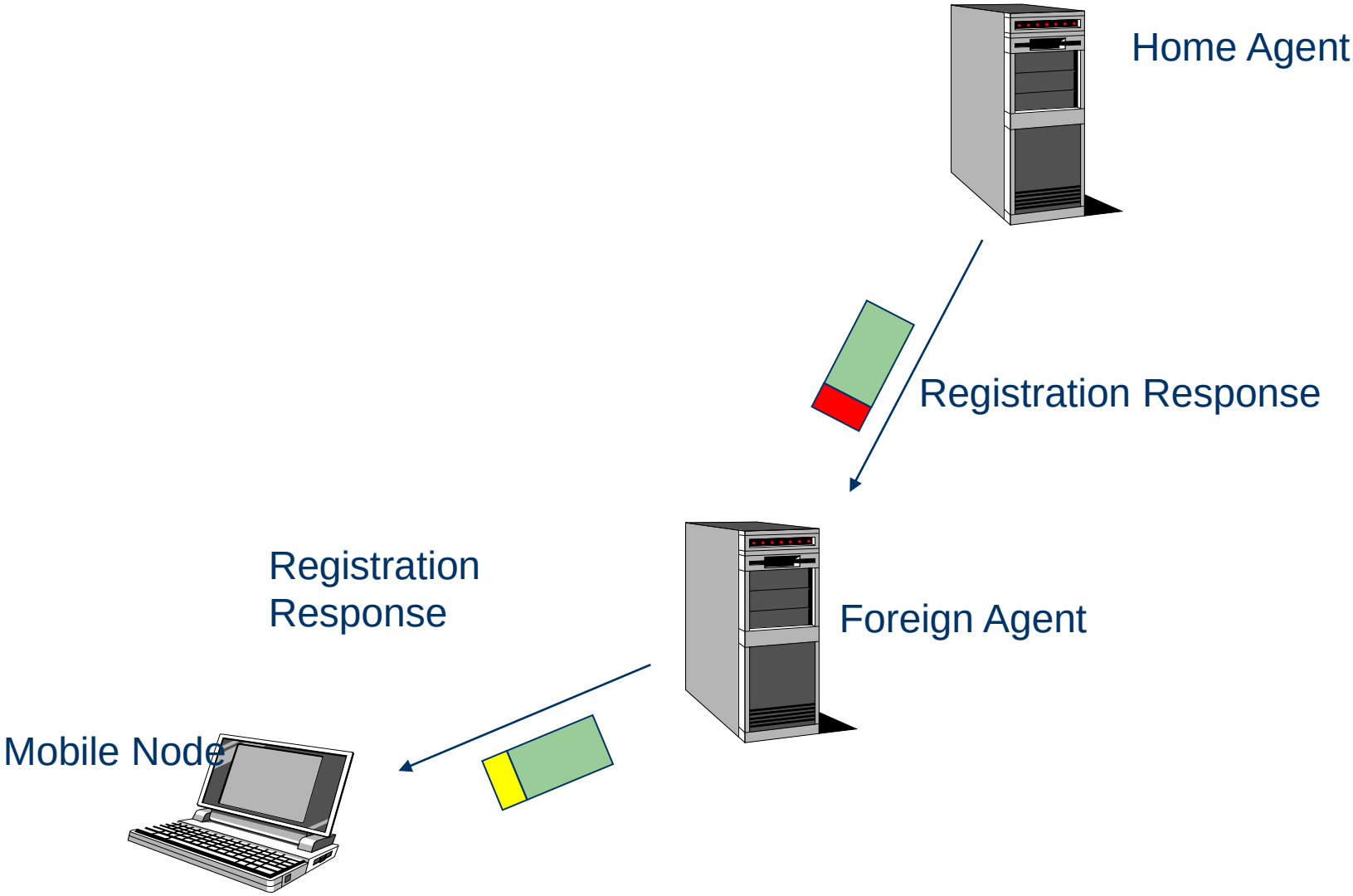
home network

foreign network

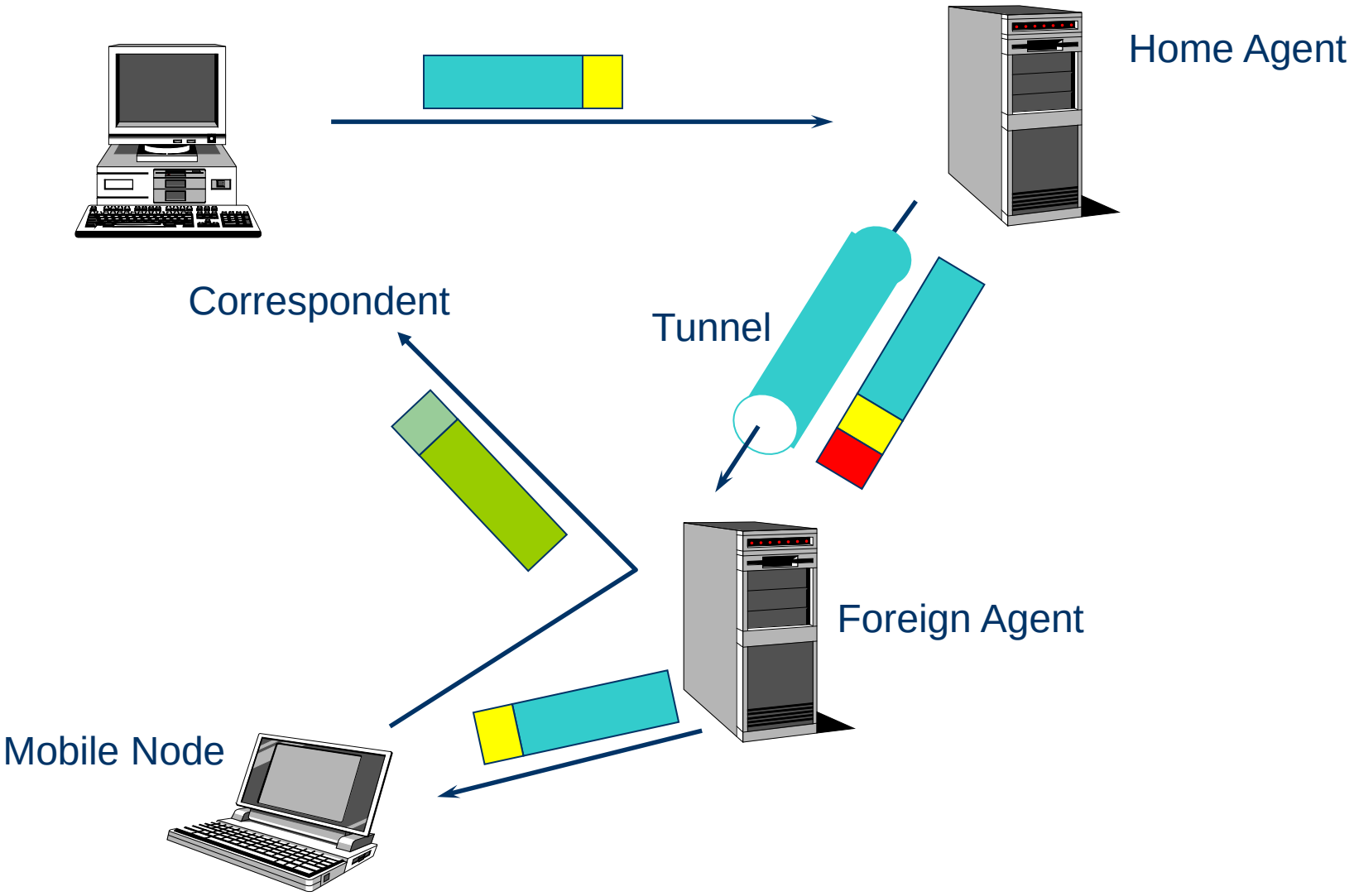
Mobile IP – Registration



Mobile IP – Registration

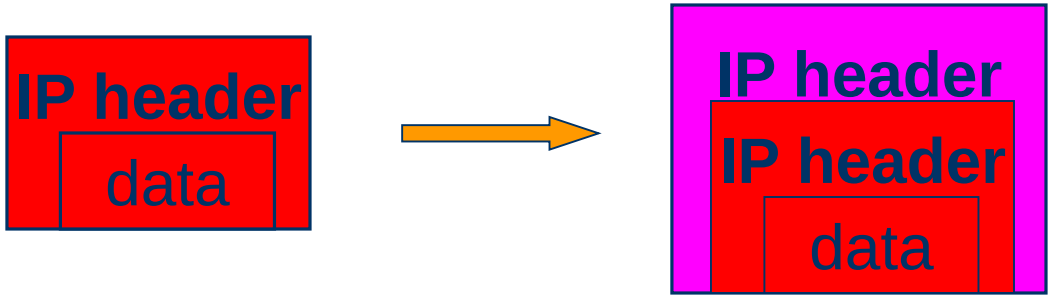


Mobile IP - Operation



IP-in-IP Tunneling

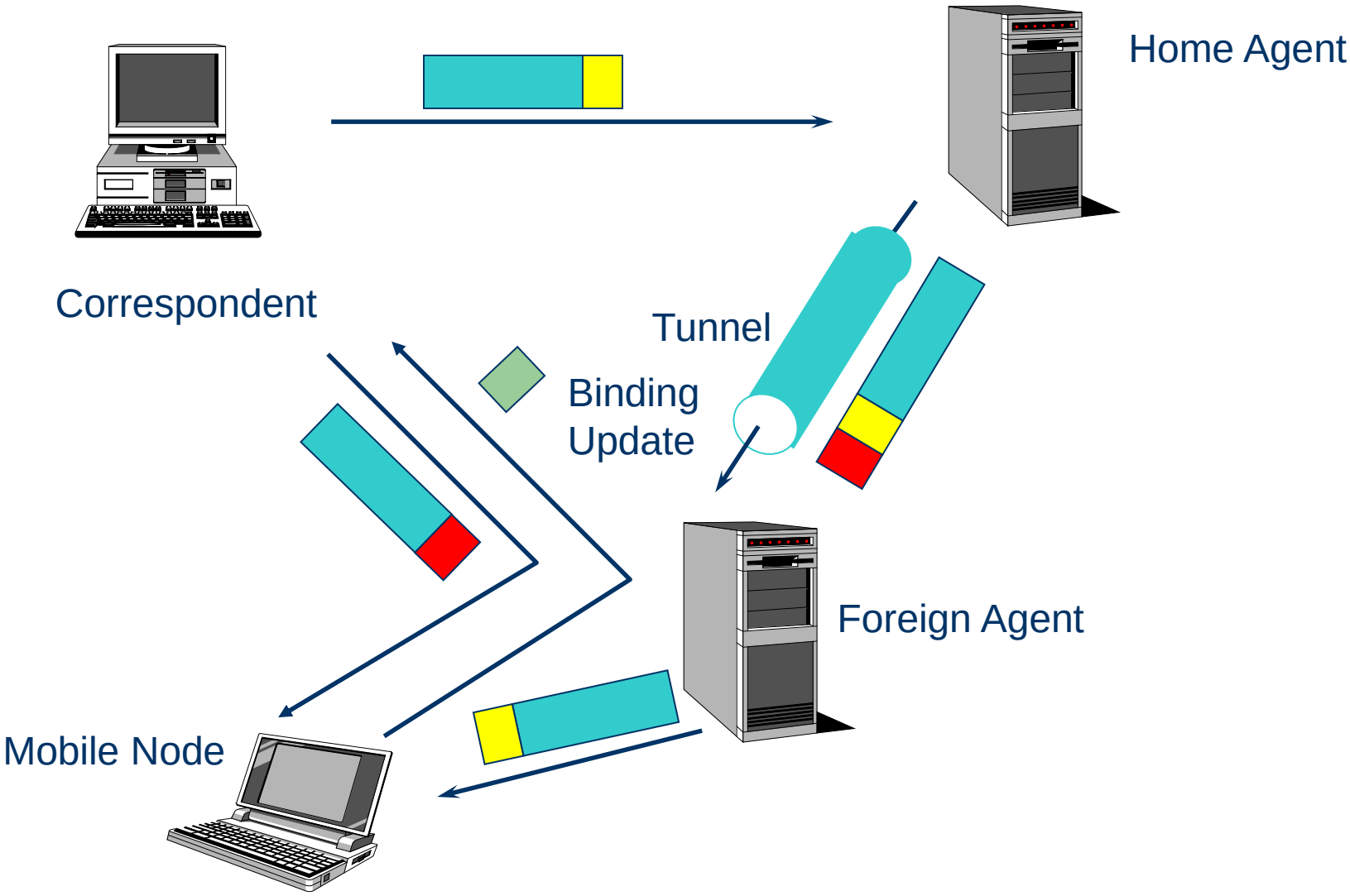
- IP packet is encapsulated into a new IP packet
  - Destination = care-of-address
  - Source = address of home agent
  - Data = original IP packet



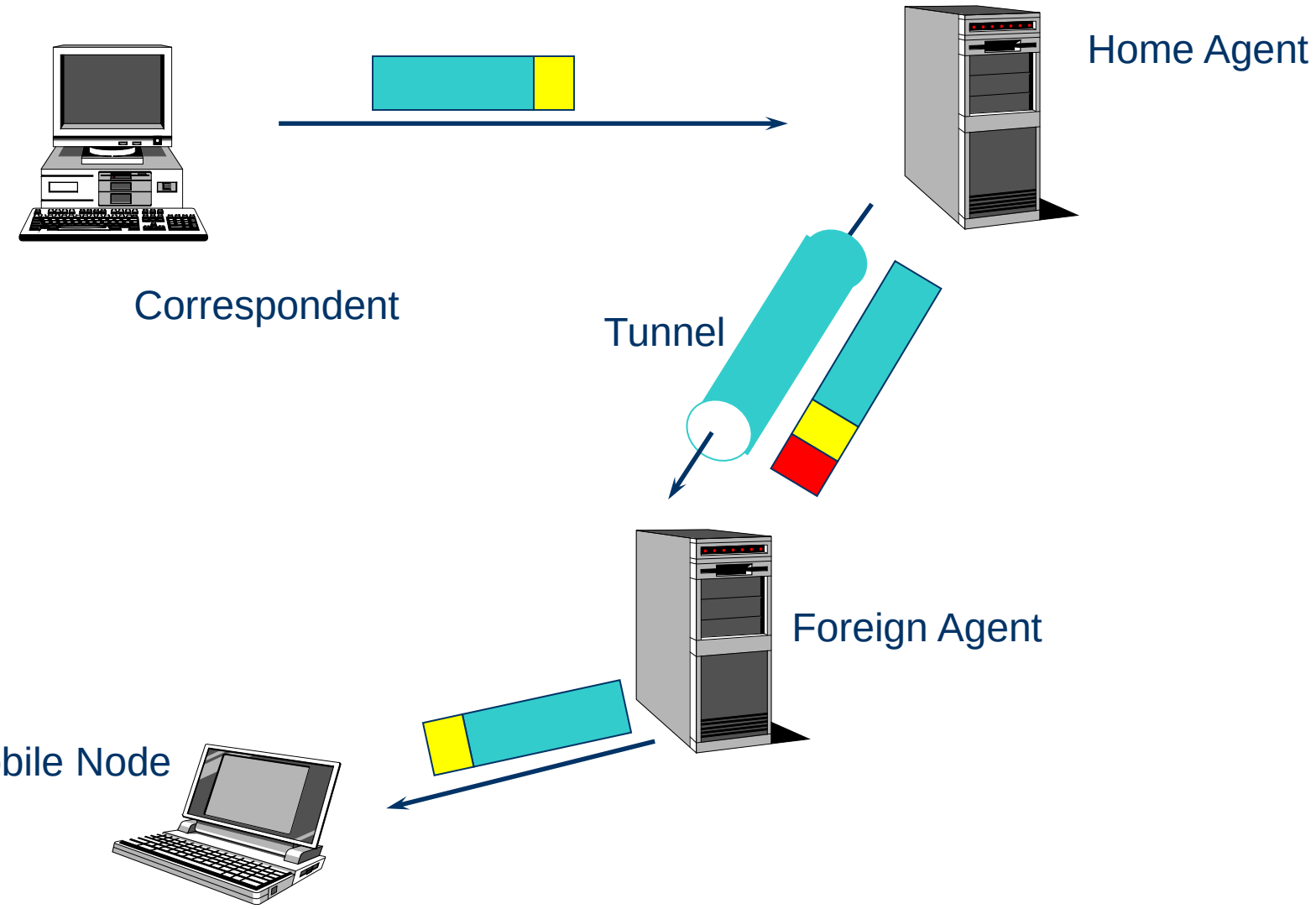
Mobile IP drawbacks

- Triangular routing
  - Solution: Route optimization
- Firewalls: No direct reverse link possible
  - Solution: Reverse tunneling

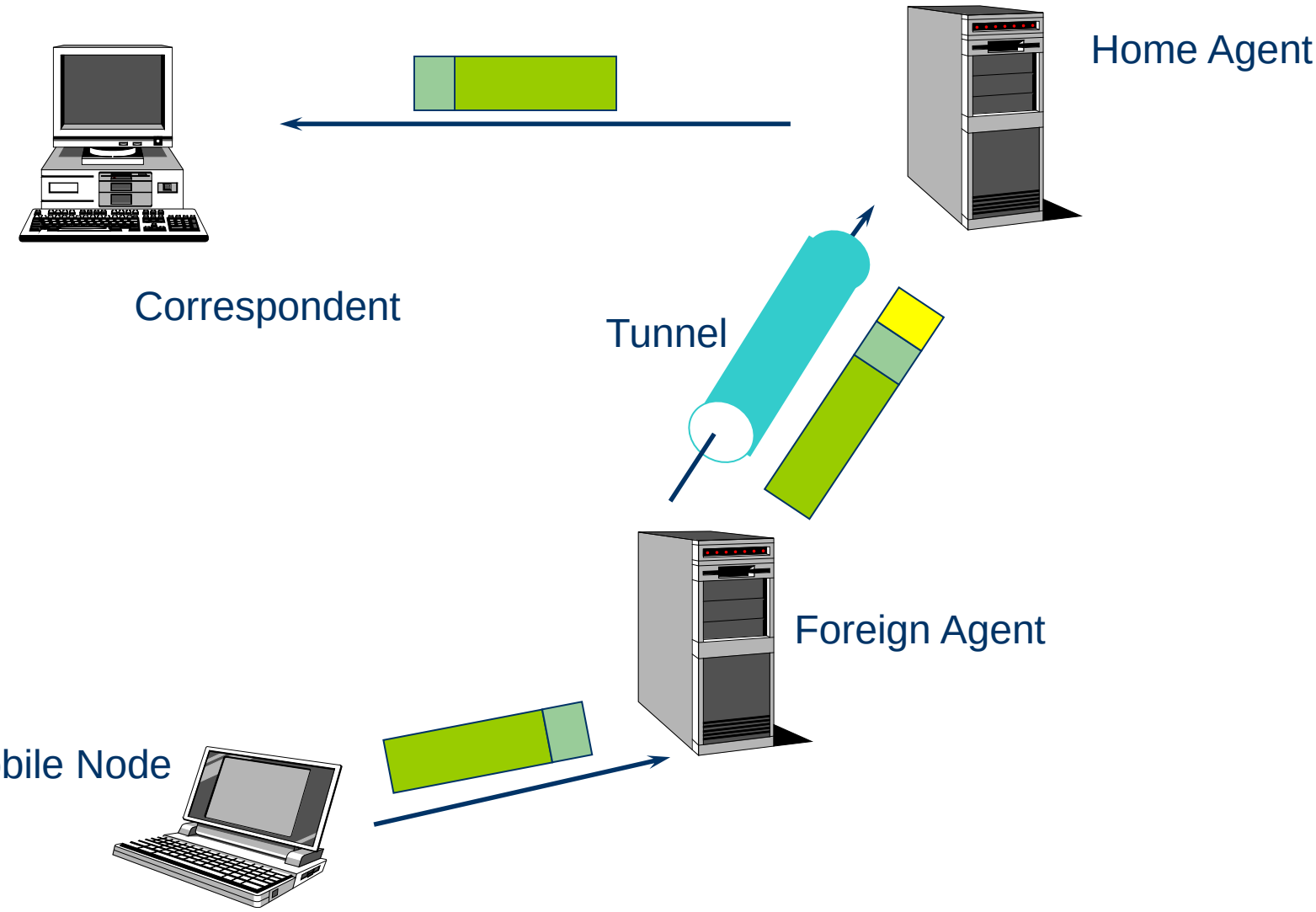
Mobile IP – Route Optimization



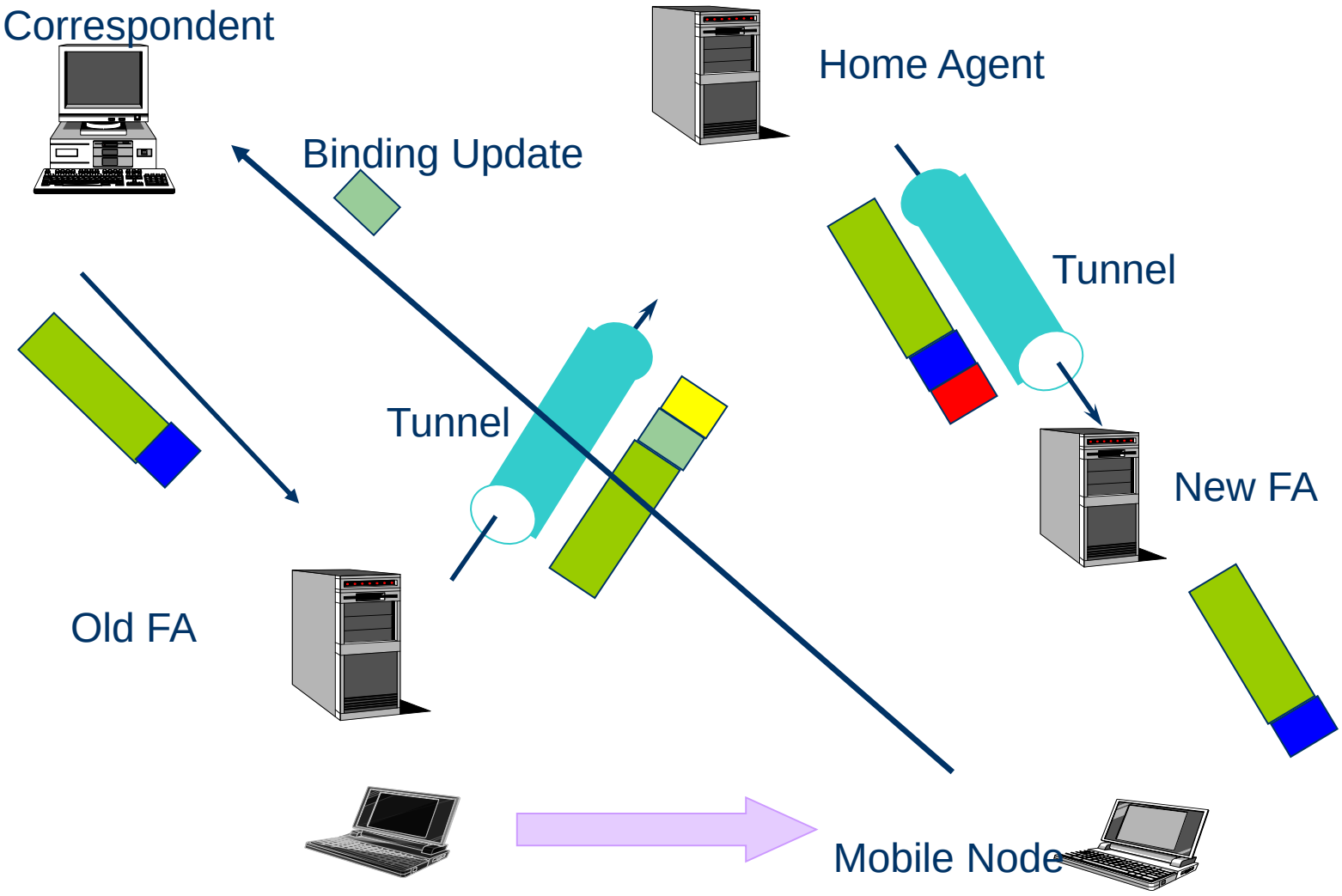
Mobile IP – Reverse tunnel



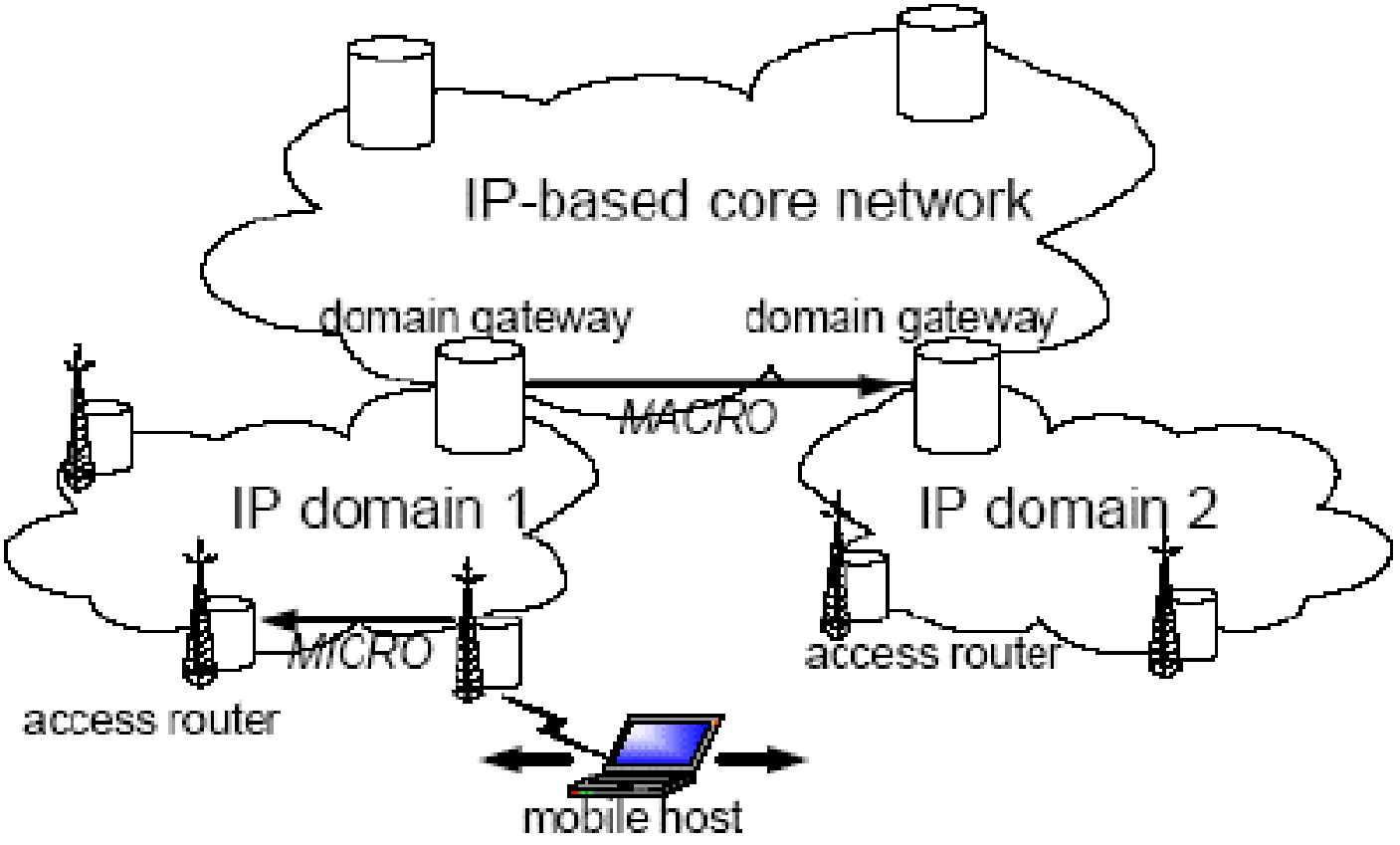
Mobile IP – Reverse tunnel



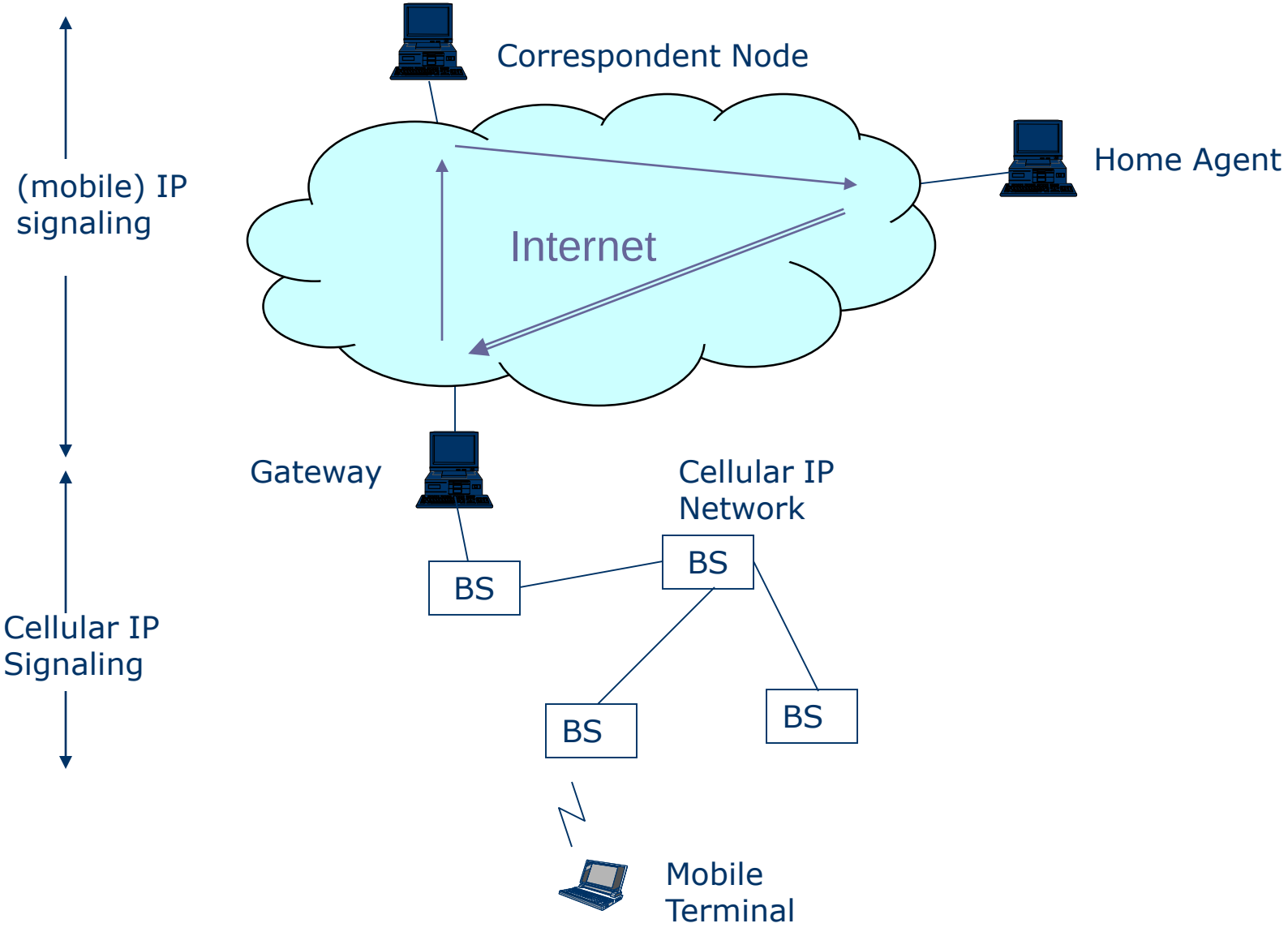
Mobile IP – Handover



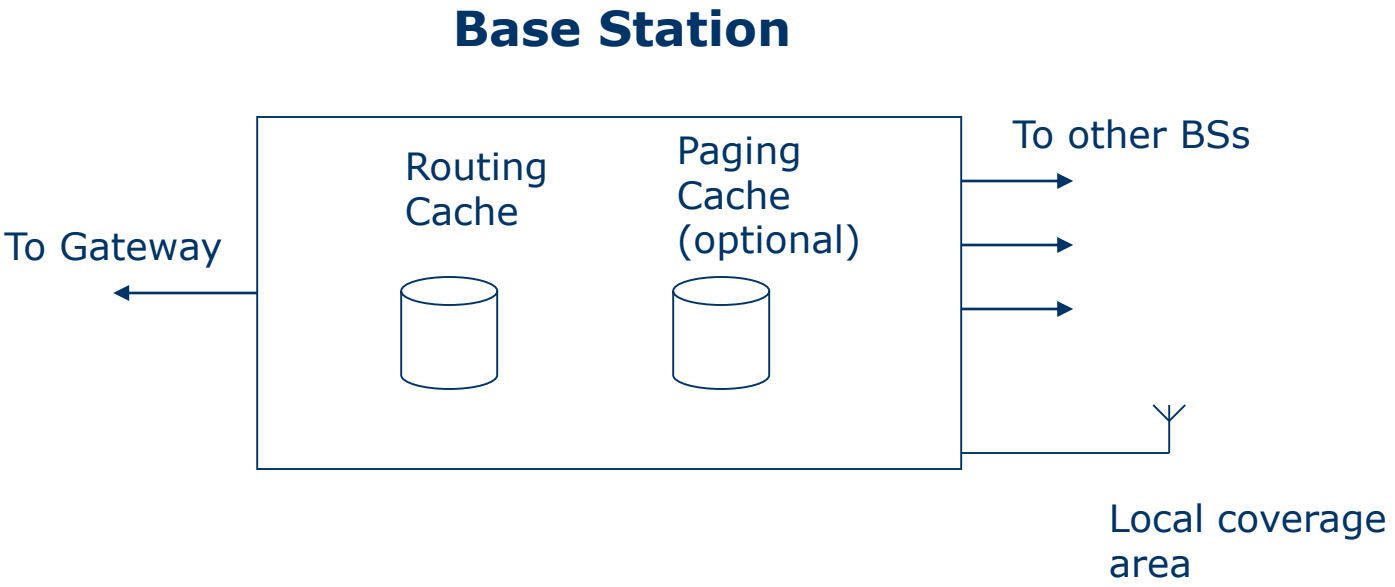
Macro- and Micro- mobility



Cellular IP

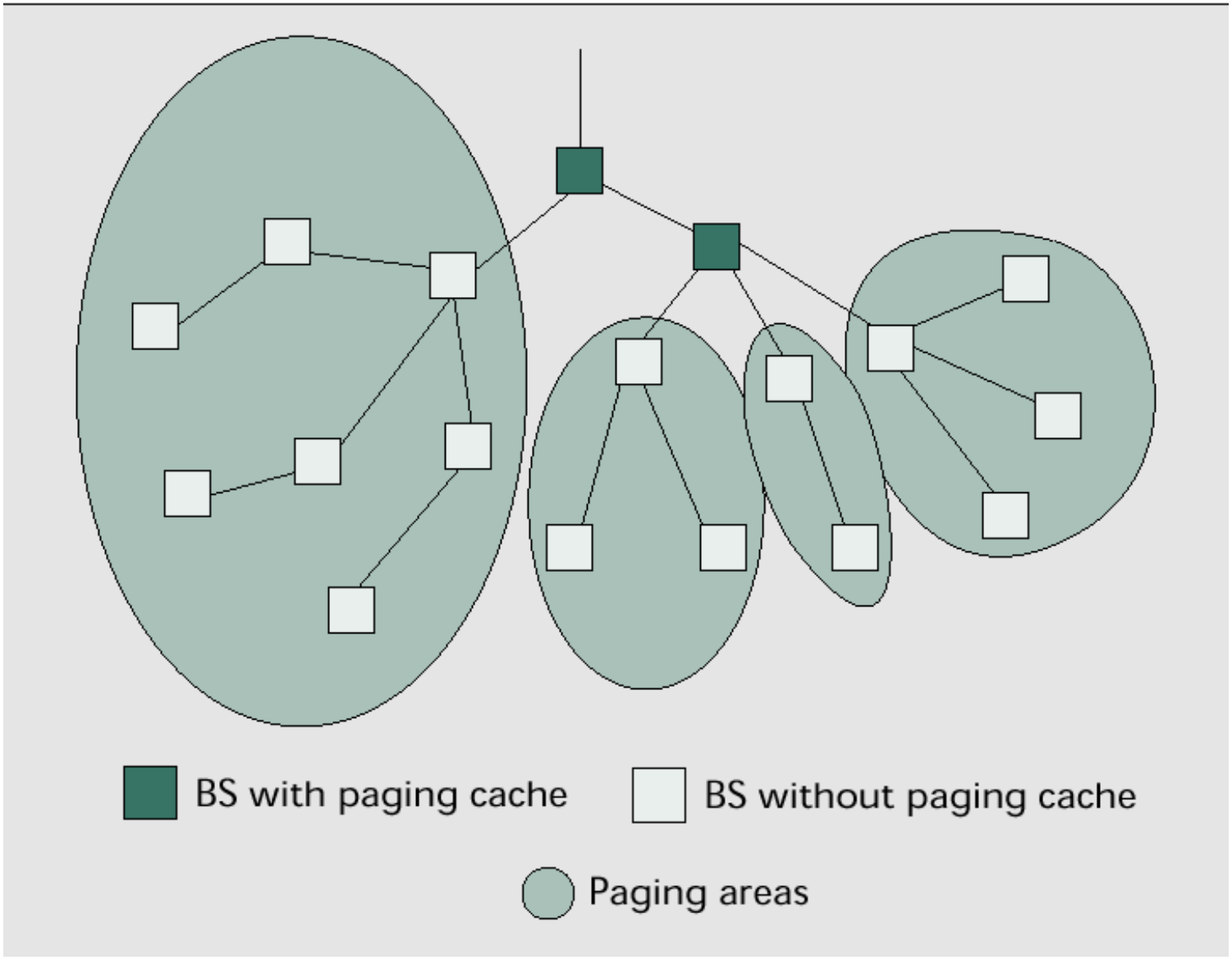

Correspondent Node
Home Agent
Internet
(mobile) IP
signaling
Gateway
Cellular IP
Network
BS
BS
BS
BS
Cellular IP
Signaling
Mobile
Terminal

Cellular IP

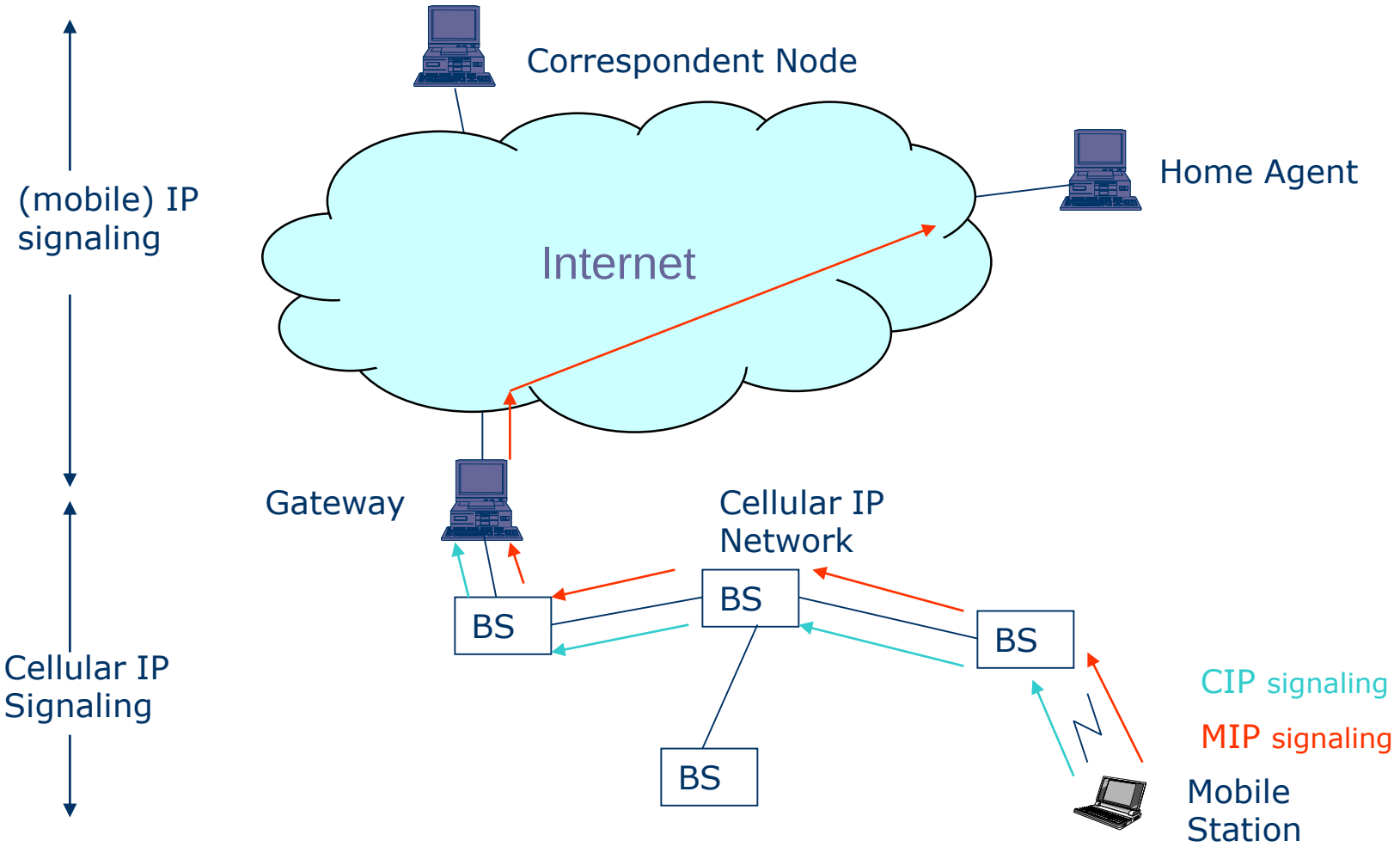


Routing Cache in all nodes

Paging Cache depends on design

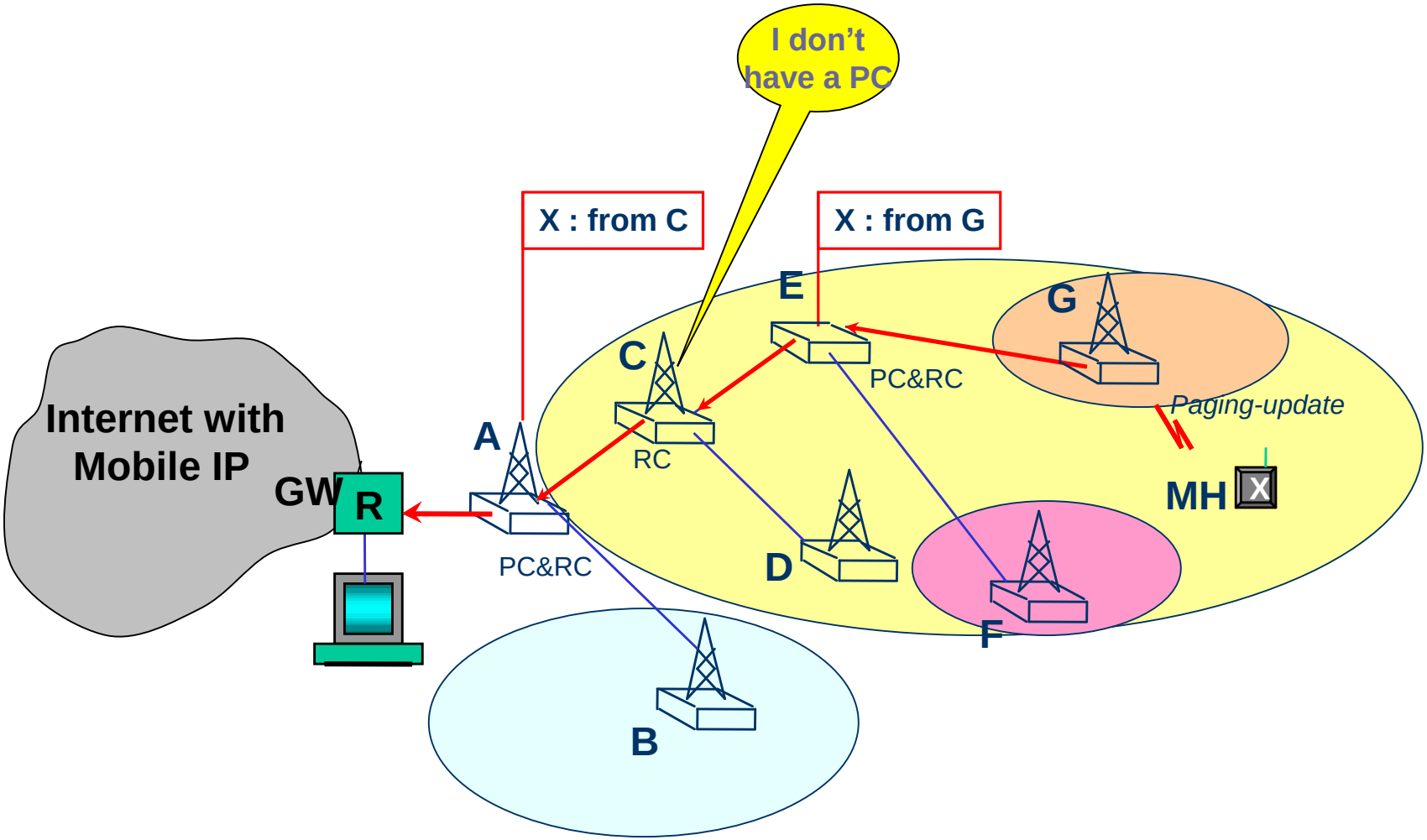

BS with paging cache
BS without paging cache
Paging areas

Cellular IP - Registration

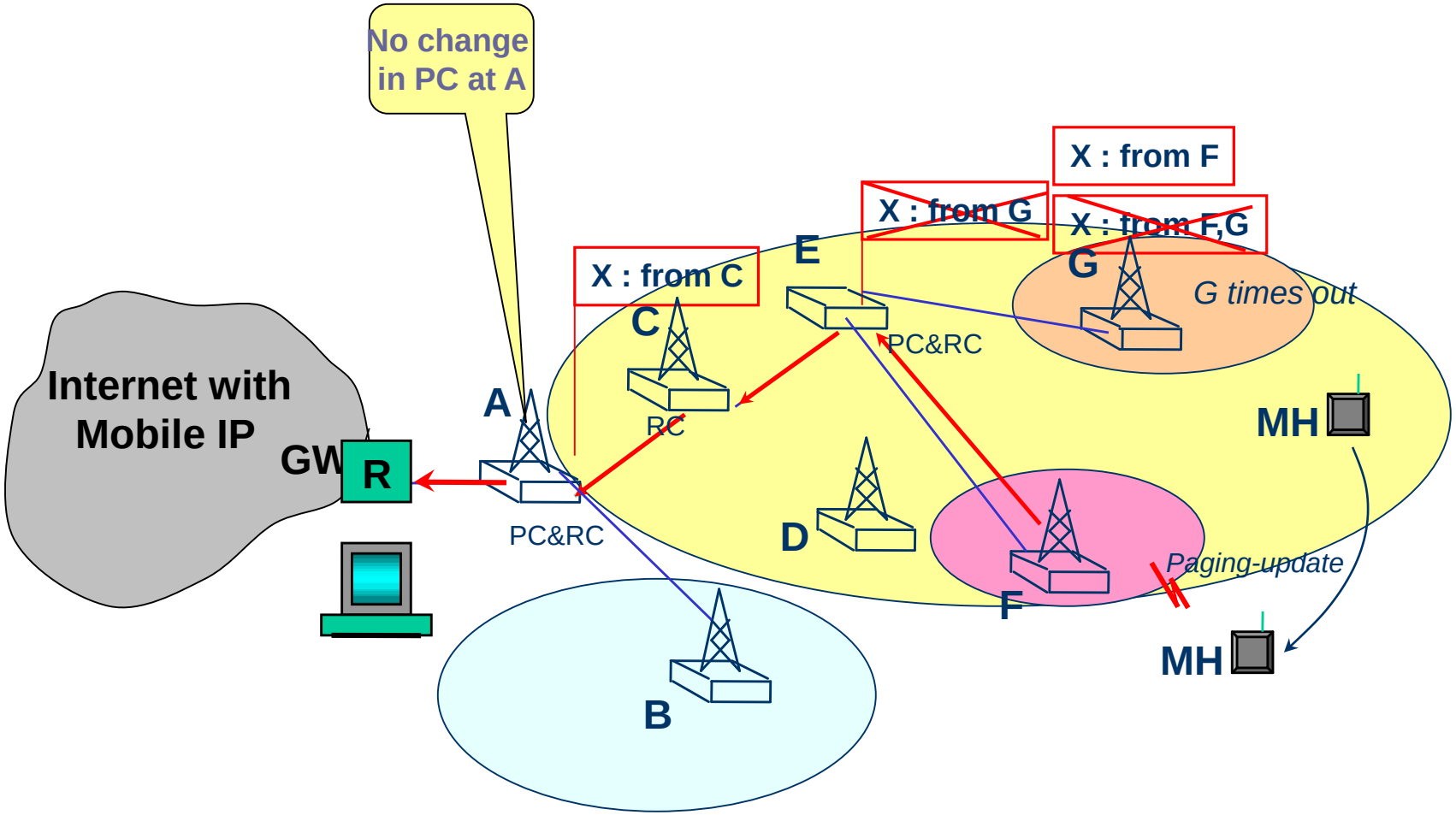


Care-of-address = Gateway address

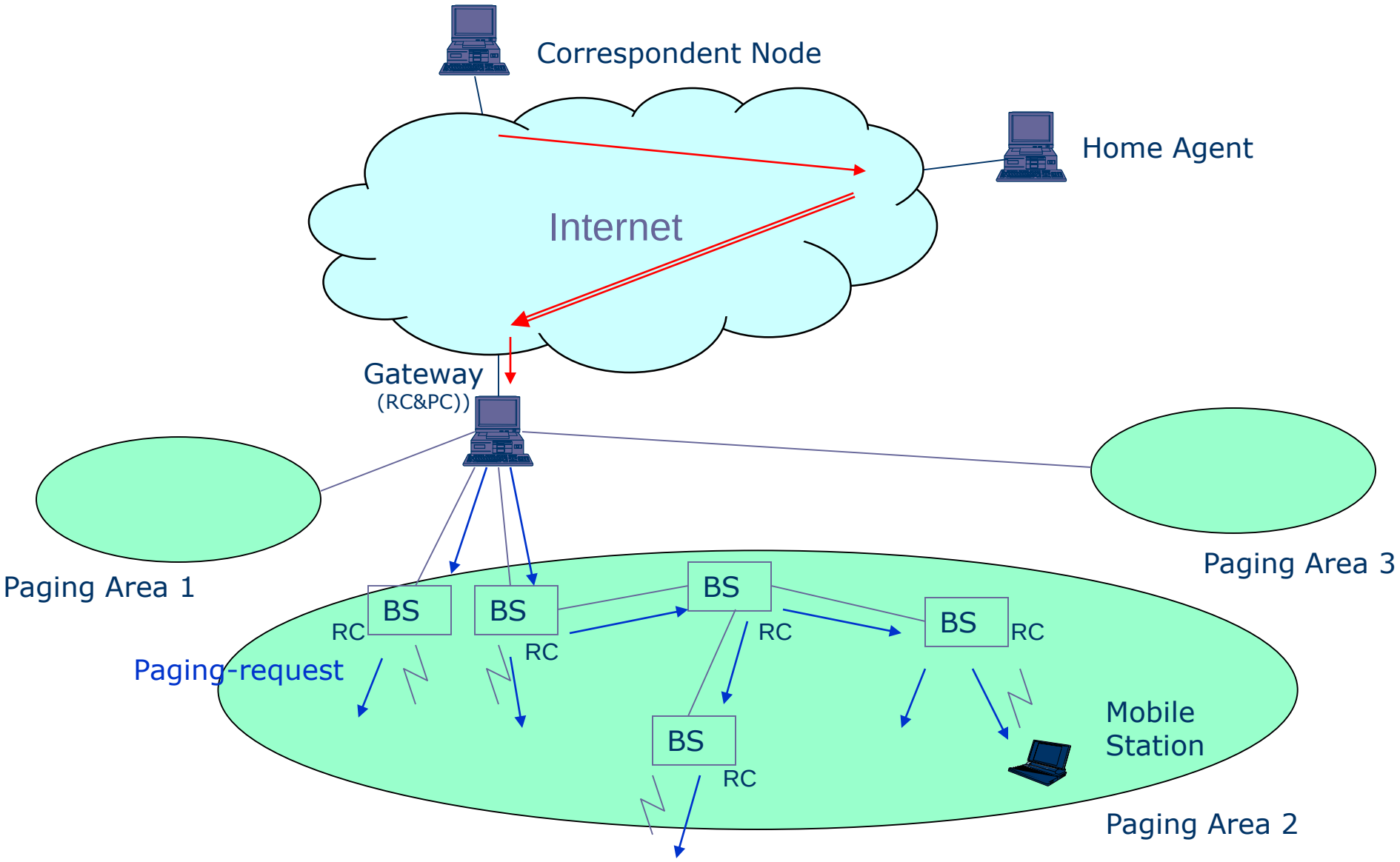
Paging Update



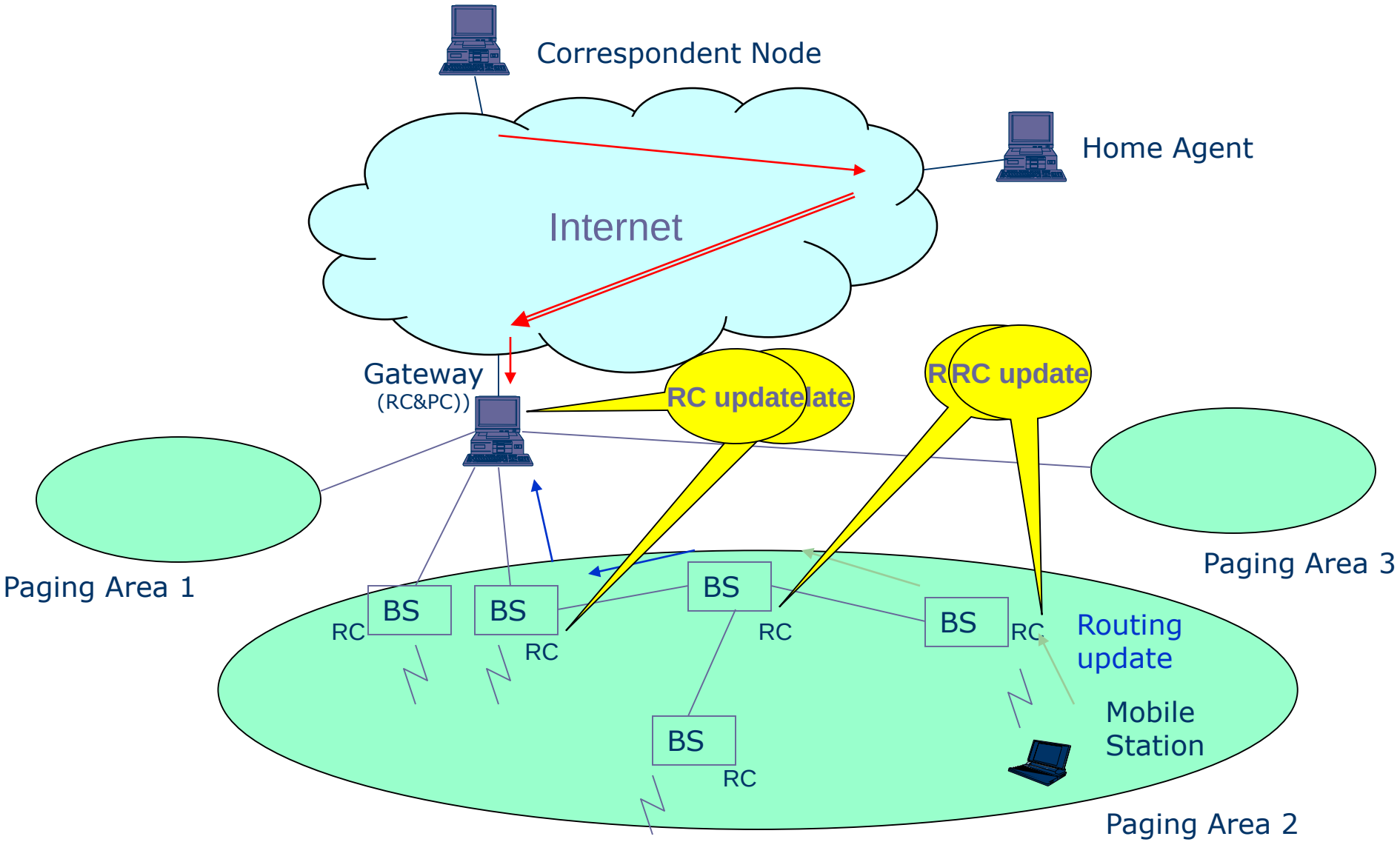
Change of Paging Area



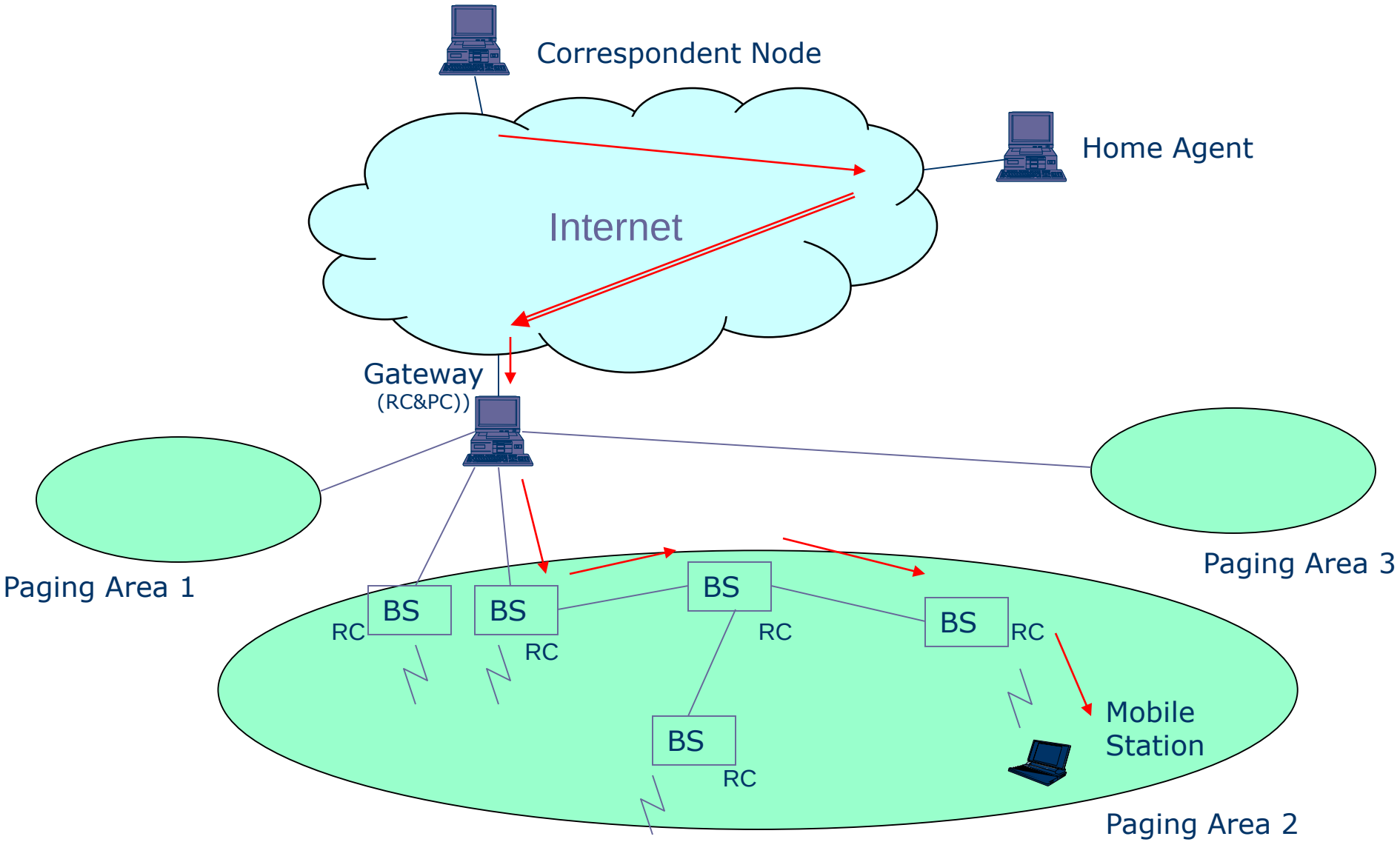
Cellular IP – Paging Request



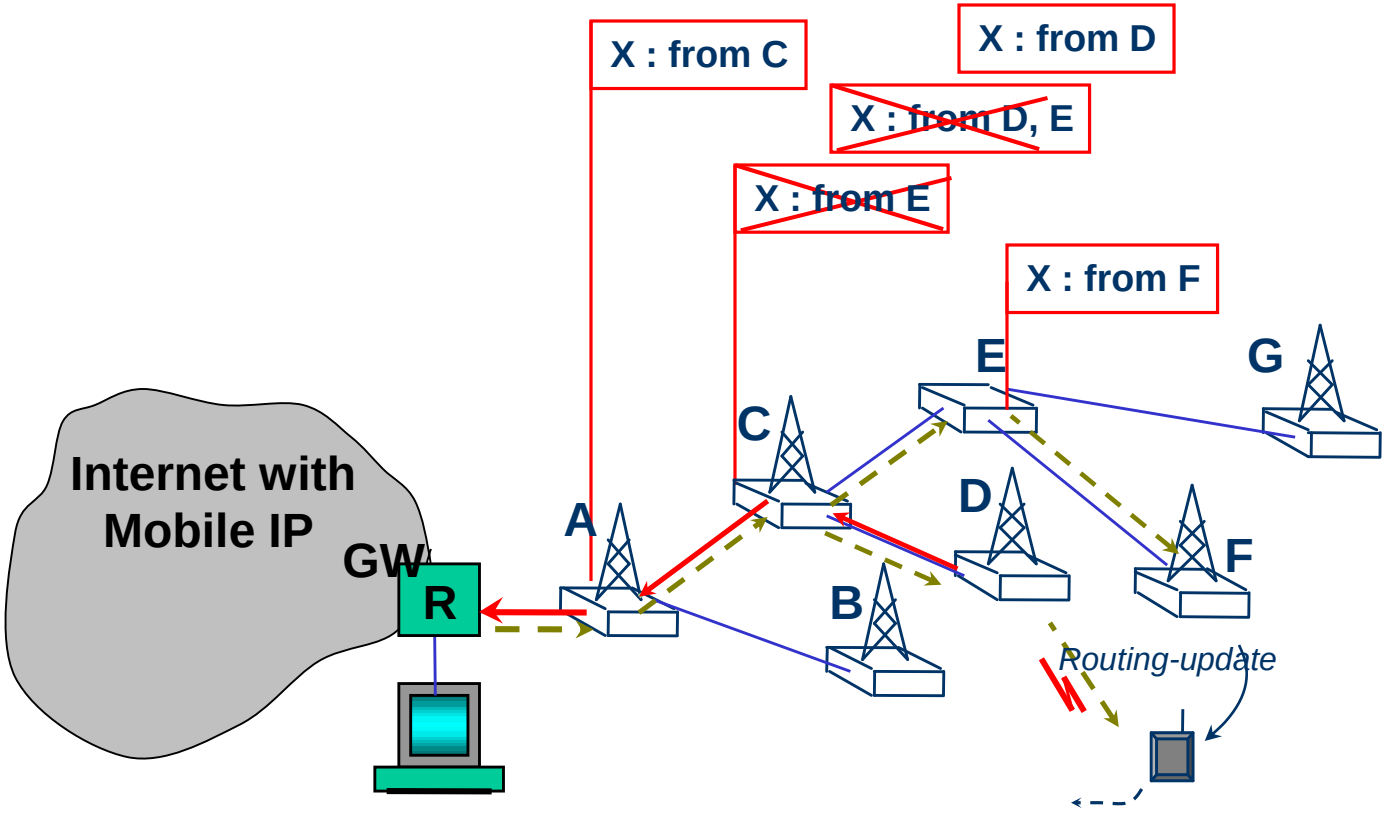
Cellular IP – Paging Response



Cellular IP – Data Delivery



Routing Update (handover)



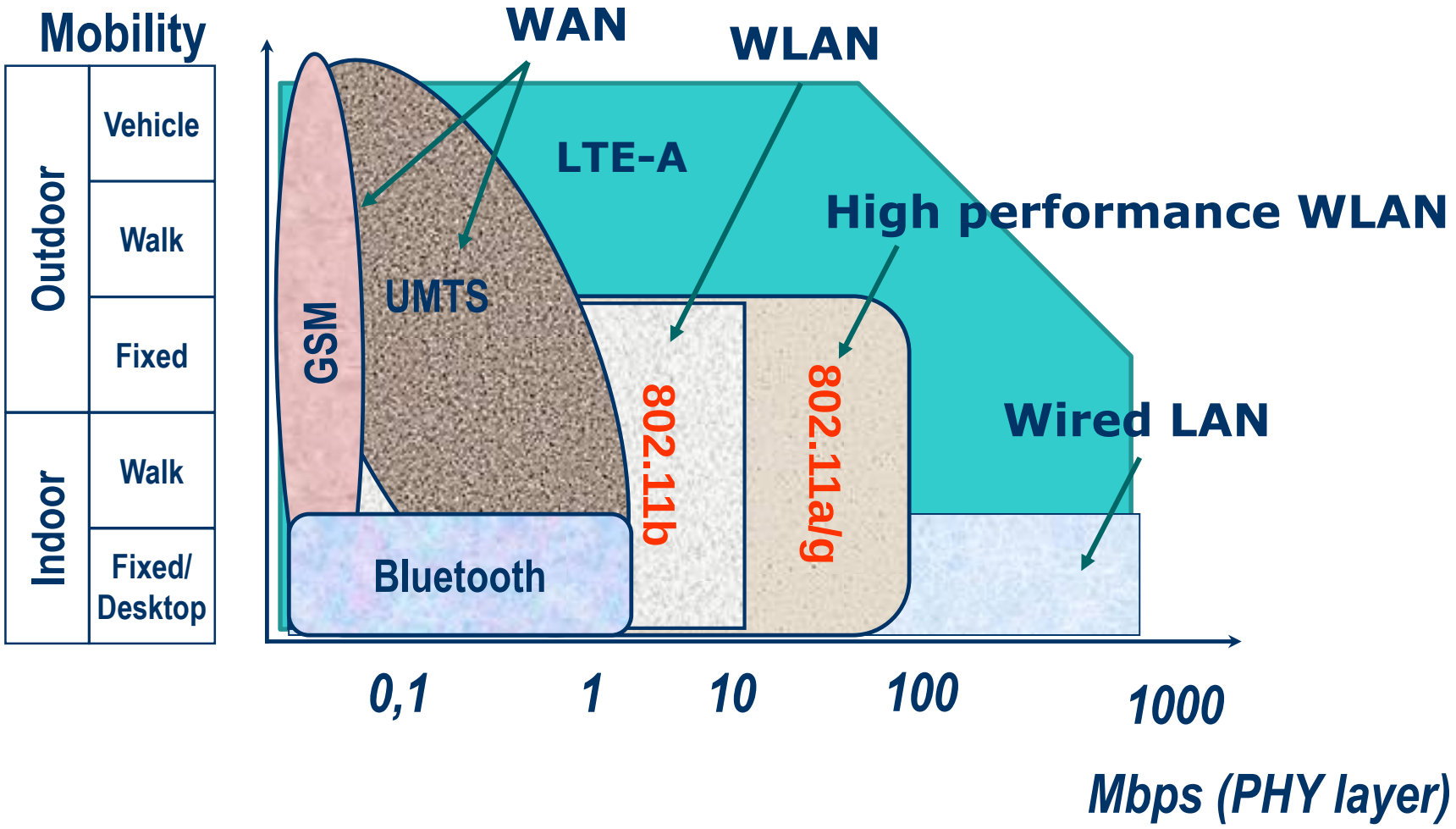
Wireless and/or Mobile

Wireless	Mobile	Application
NO	NO	Static work stations
NO	YES	Laptop in hotel
YES	NO	Buildings with no cables
YES	YES	Full mobility support

Cellular Network Organization

- Multiple low power transmitters
  - 100w or less
- Area divided into cells
  - Each with own antenna
  - Each with own range of frequencies
  - Served by base station
    - Transmitter, receiver, control unit
  - Adjacent cells on different frequencies to avoid crosstalk

Wireless Standards



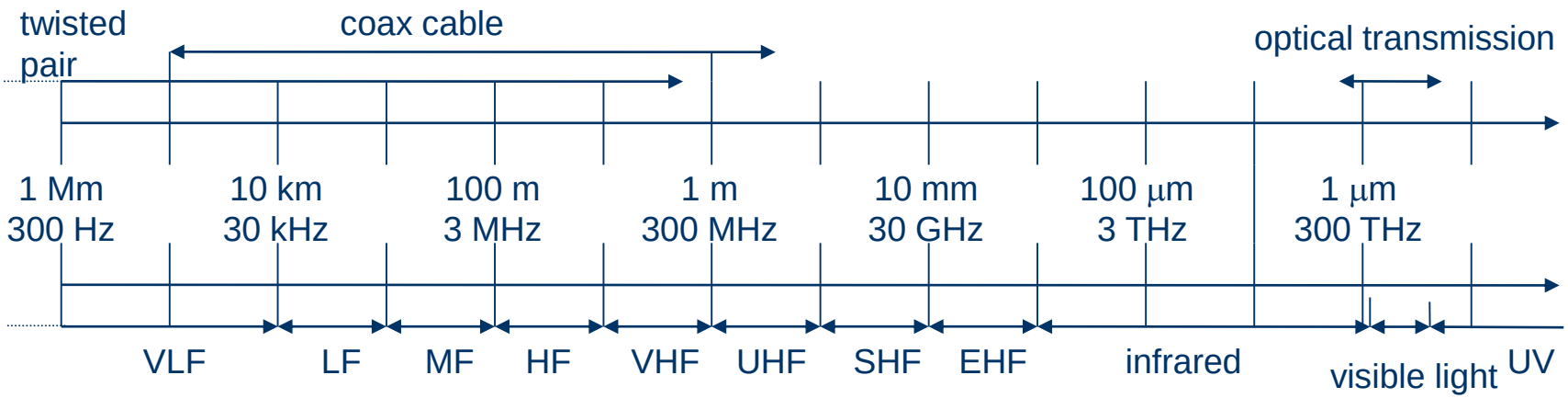
Wireless Transmission

- Based on the capability of electrons to move creating electromagnetic waves
  - To all directions
  - With the speed of light
  - Even in space

- Main characteristics of wireless transmission
  - Frequency ***f*** = number of oscillations per second (Hertz)
  - Wave length ***λ*** **=** distance between two minimums or two maximums
  - ***λ*f*** = c (c=speed of light)

- The signals behavior depends on its frequency
  - Low frequency = the signal can go through obstacles, its power density is reduced slowly with distance but the information transferred is small
  - High frequency = The information transferred is larger, but the signal cannot go through obstacles so easily and the power density if reduced quickly with distance (path loss).

Spectrum Allocation



VLF = Very Low Frequency
LF = Low Frequency
MF = Medium Frequency
HF = High Frequency
VHF = Very High Frequency

UHF = Ultra High Frequency
SHF = Super High Frequency
EHF = Extra High Frequency
UV = Ultraviolet Light

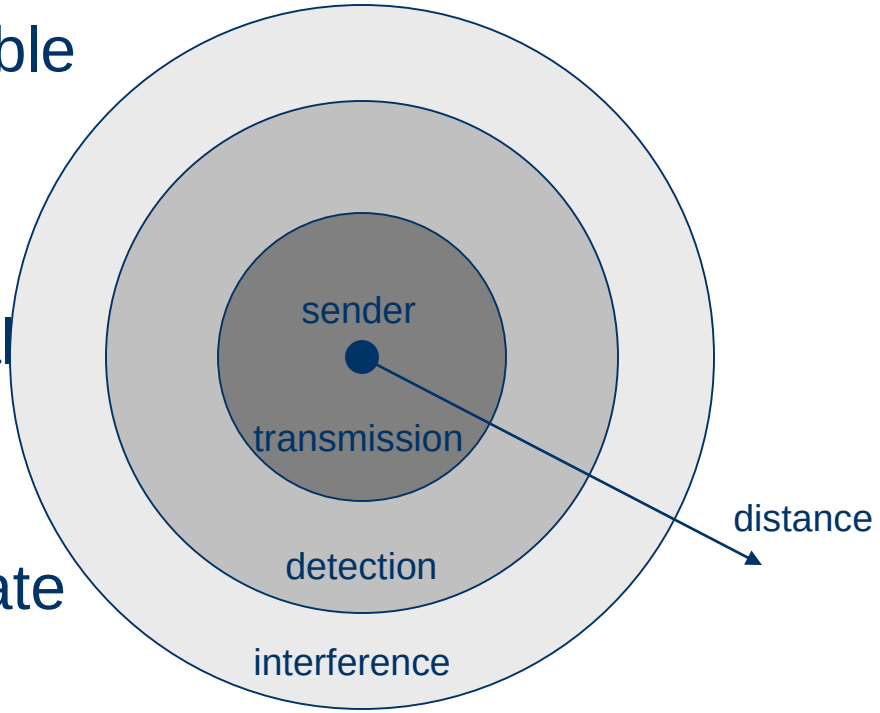
Relationship between frequency 'f' and wave length 'λ' :

$$\lambda = c/f$$

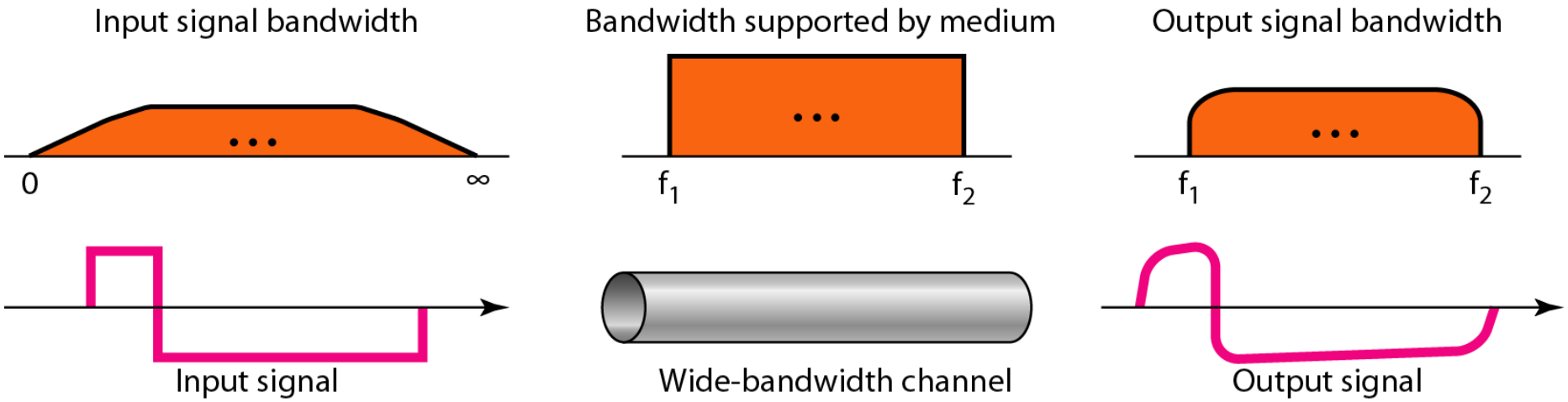
where c is the speed of light $\cong 3 \times 10^8$ m/s

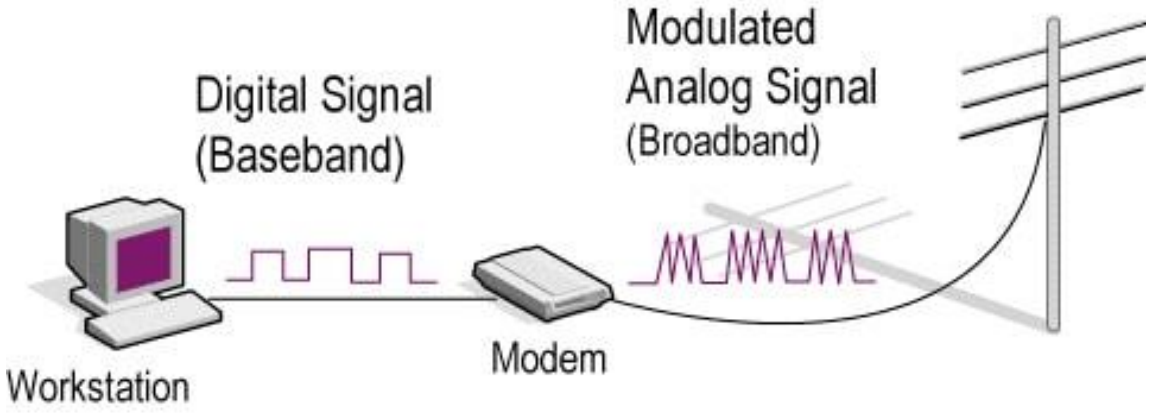
Signal Propagation Ranges

- Transmission range
  - communication possible
  - low error rate
- Detection range
  - detection of the signal possible
  - no communication possible, high error rate
- Interference range
  - signal may not be detected
  - signal adds to the background noise

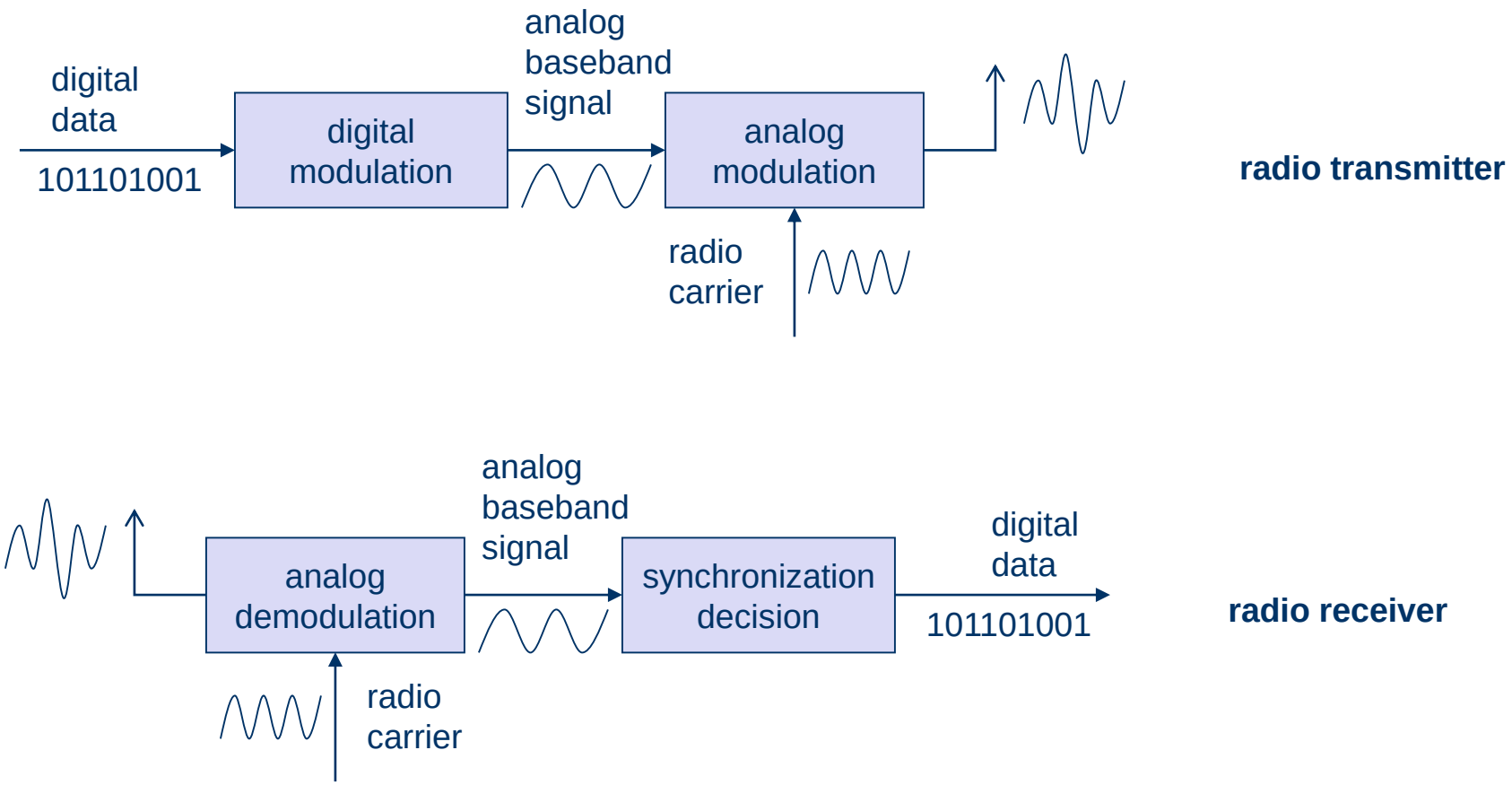


Baseband transmission





Modulation and Demodulation



Signal Modulation

$$s(t) = A(t)\cos(f(t)\,t + \phi(t))$$

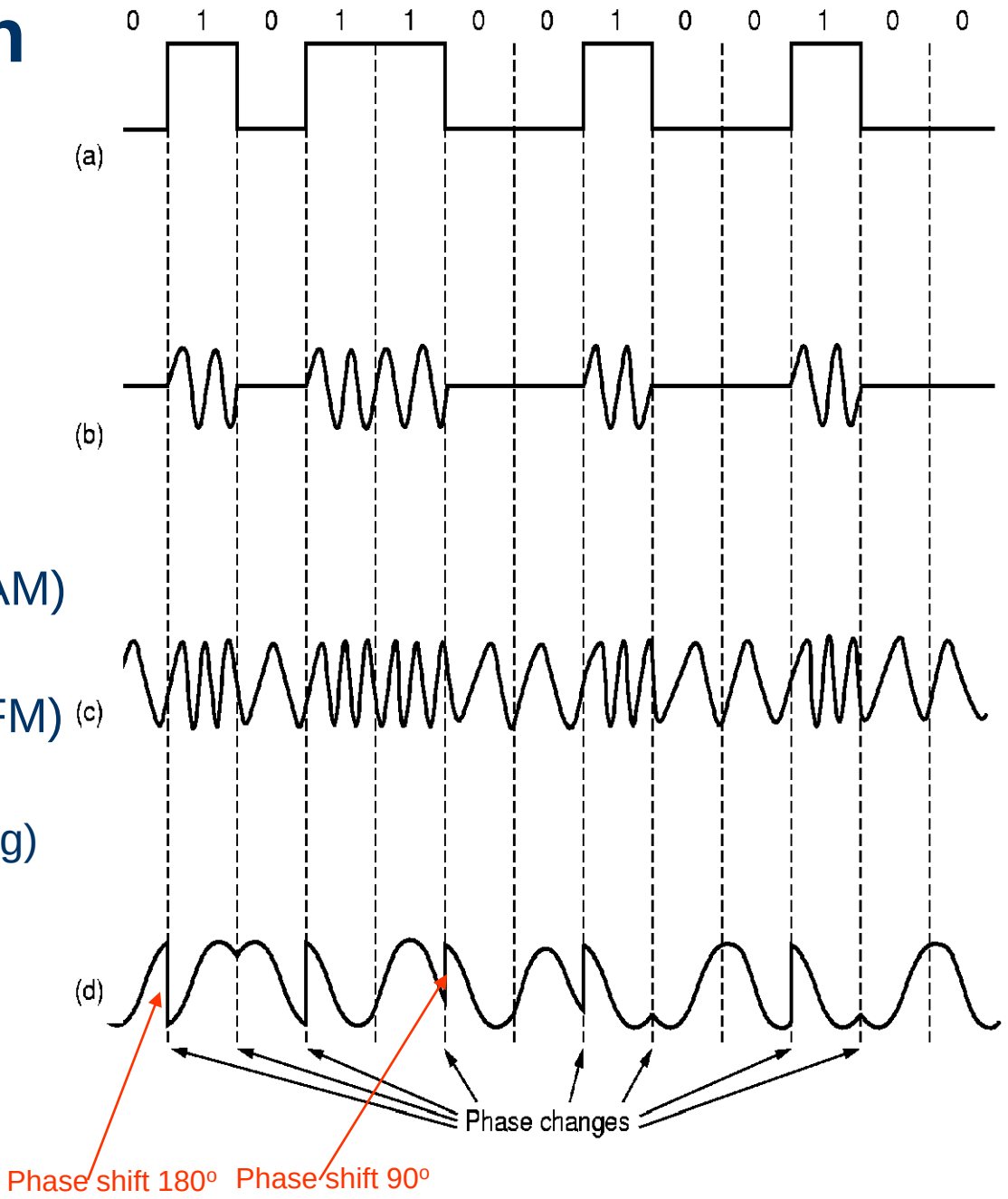
- (a) unmodulated (digital) signal
- (b) amplitude modulation (AM)

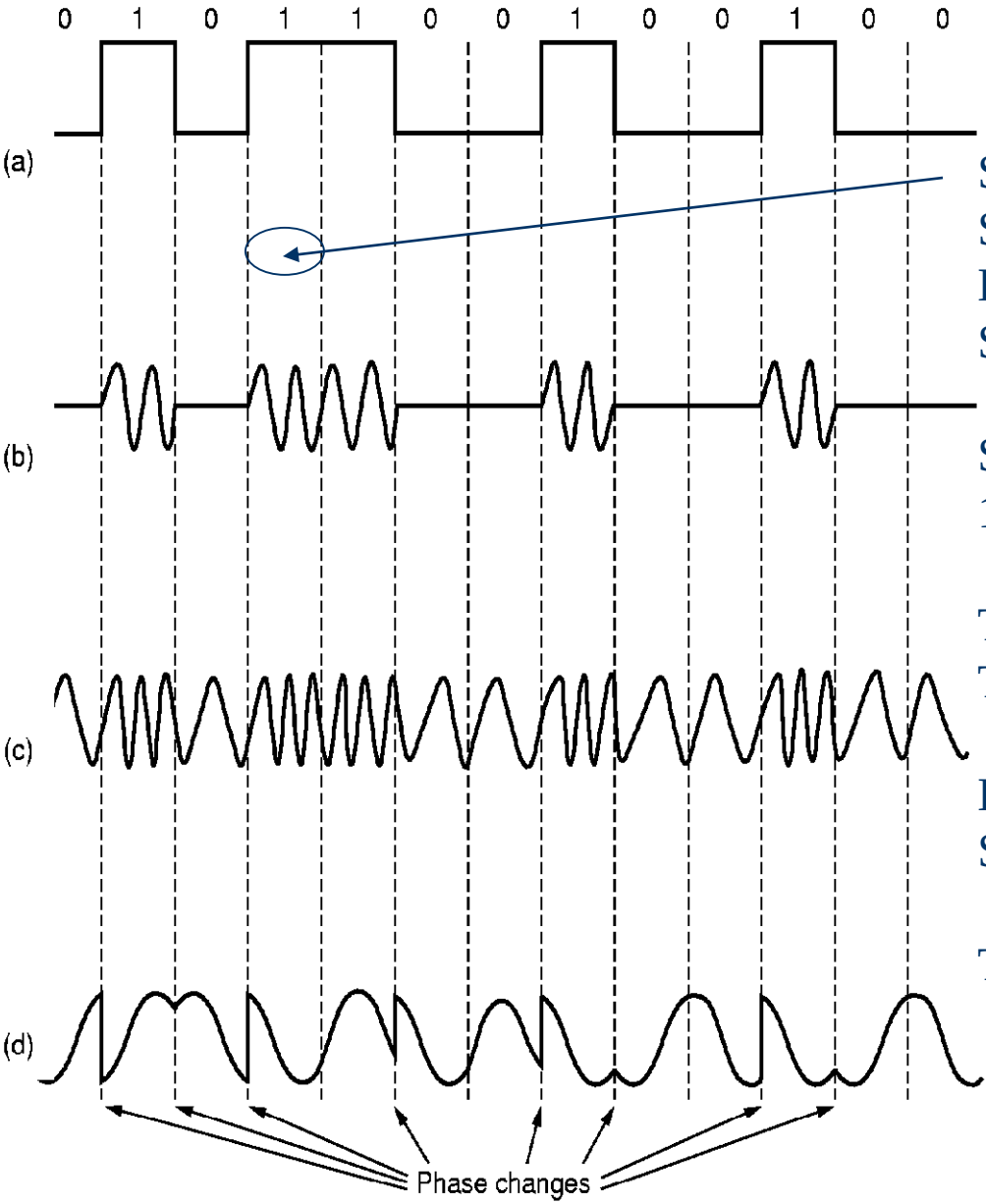
  $s(t) = A(t)\cos(f\,t + \phi)$
- (c) frequency modulation (FM)

  $s(t) = A\cos(f(t)\,t + \phi)$
  - FSK (frequency shift keying)
- (d) phase modulation (PM)

  $s(t) = A\cos(f\,t + \phi(t))$
  - phase shift keying (PSK)

- f : carrier frequency





Sample
Sample Rate=Samples/sec (Baud Rate)
During one Sample one **“symbol”** is sent
Symbol=piece of information=level of voltage

Simpler :
1 symbol = 1 bit (0/1) = voltage/no voltage

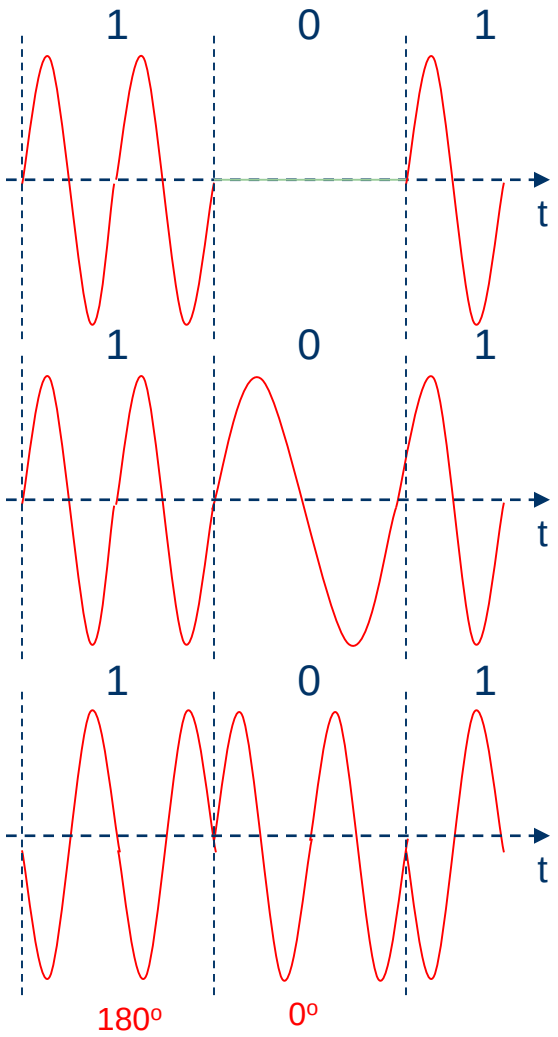
To increase the data rate we cannot reduce
The sample duration indefinitely

But we can increase the number of possible
Samples (e.g. amplitude levels)

This is usually combined with PSK

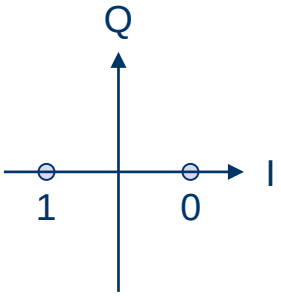
Digital Modulation

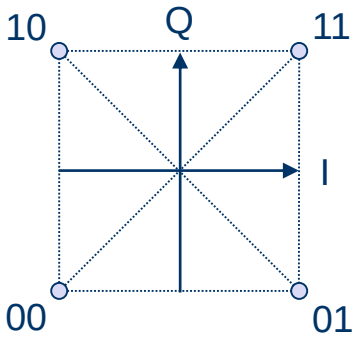
- Modulation of digital signals known as Shift Keying
- Amplitude Shift Keying (ASK):
  - very simple
  - low bandwidth requirements
  - very sensitive to interference
- Frequency Shift Keying (FSK):
  - needs larger bandwidth
- Phase Shift Keying (PSK):
  - more complex
  - expensive

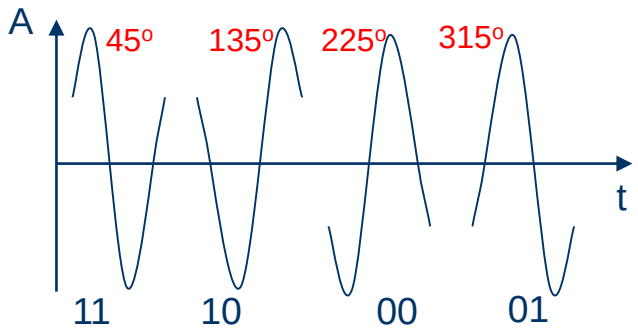


Advanced Phase Shift Keying

- BPSK (Binary Phase Shift Keying):
  - bit value 0: wave
  - bit value 1: inverted wave
  - very simple PSK
  - low spectral efficiency
  - robust, used e.g. in satellite systems
- QPSK (Quadrature Phase Shift Keying):
  - 2 bits coded as one symbol
  - more complex
  - better spectral efficiency

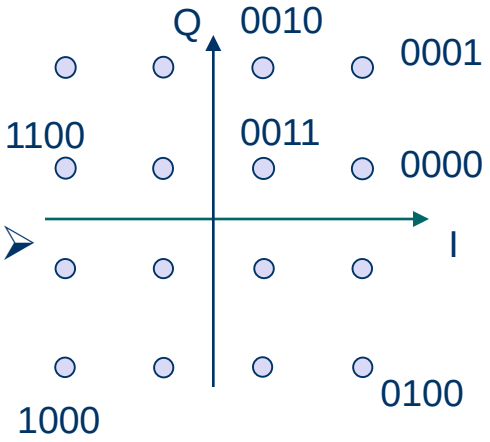






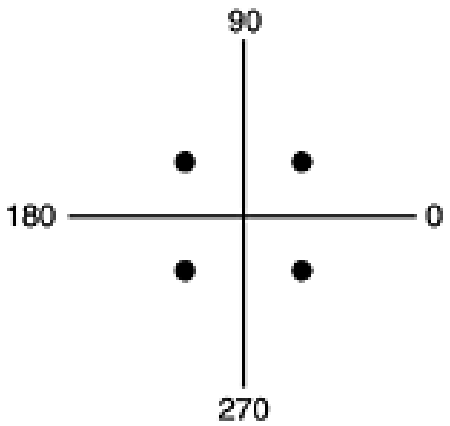
Quadrature Amplitude Modulation

- Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM): combines amplitude and phase modulation
- it is possible to code n bits using one symbol
- 2^n discrete levels, n=2 identical to QPSK
- bit error rate increases with n, but less errors compared to comparable PSK schemes

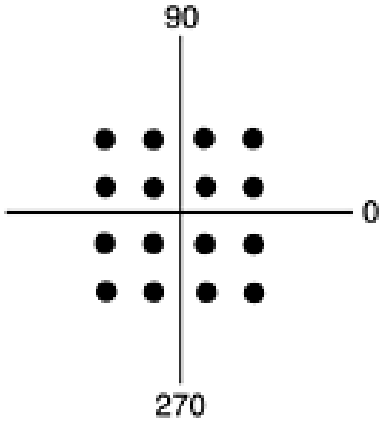


Example: 16-QAM (4 bits = 1 symbol)

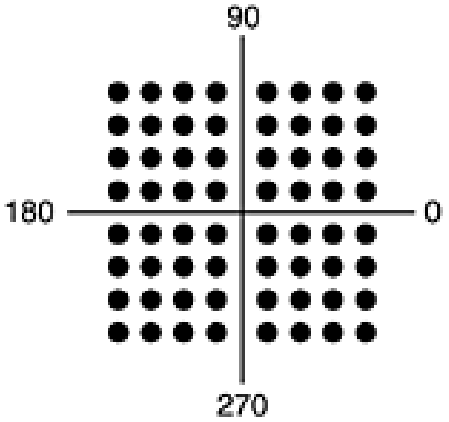
- BPSK (Binary Phase Shift Keying) = 2 phase shifts, 1 amplitude level, 1 bit/symbol
- QPSK (Quadrature Phase Shift Keying) = 4 phase shifts, 1 amplitude level, 2 bits/symbol
- QAM-16 = 4 phase shifts, 4 amplitude levels, 4 bits/symbol
- QAM-64 = 4 phase shifts, 16 amplitude levels, 6 bits/symbol



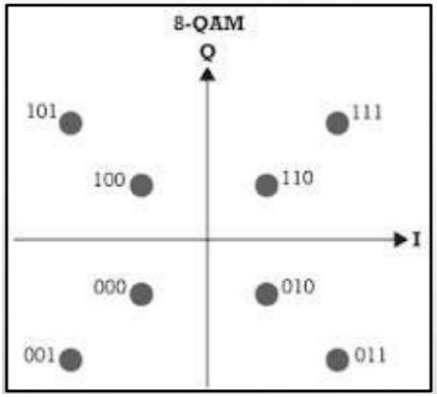
QPSK

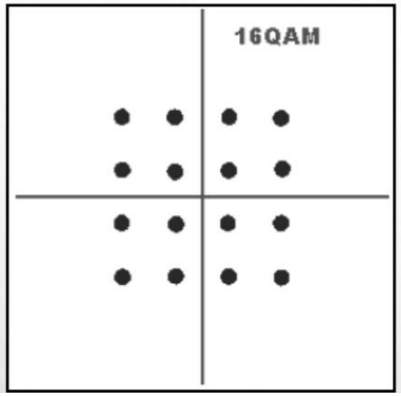


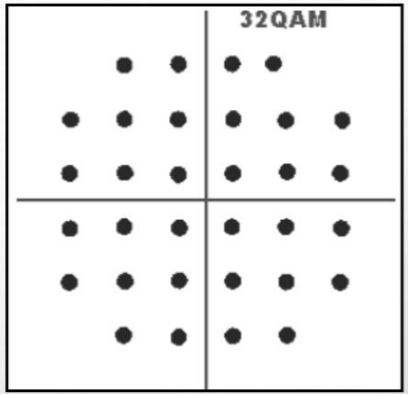
QAM-16

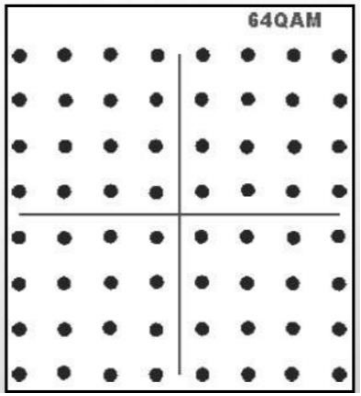


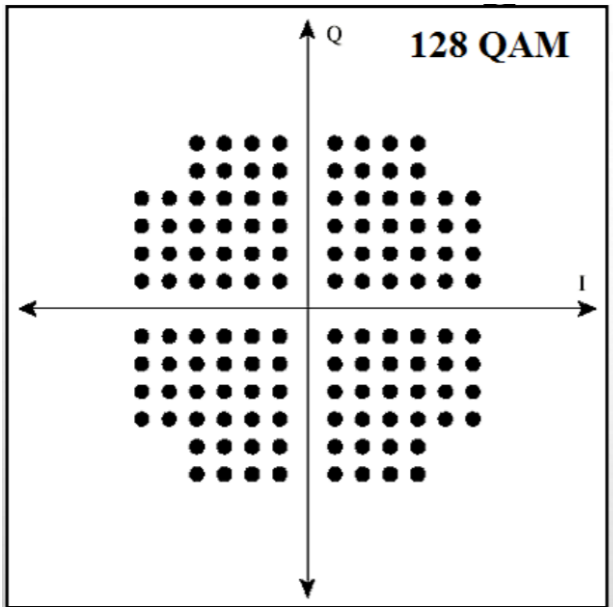
QAM-64

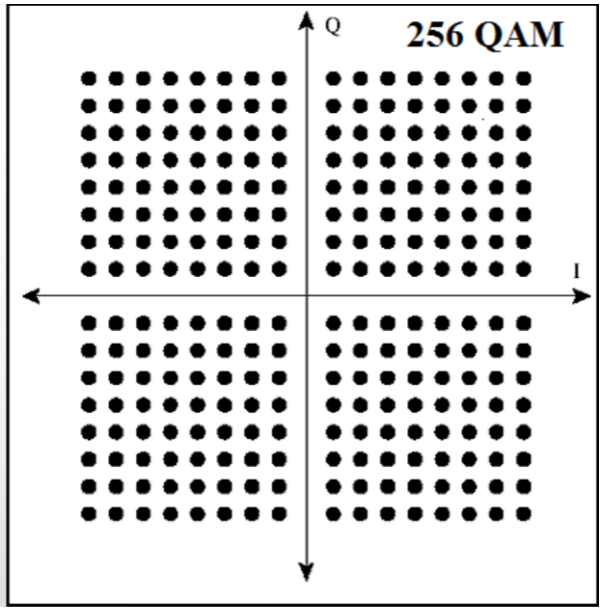

8-QAM
Q
I
101
111
100
110
000
010
001
011


16QAM


32QAM


64QAM

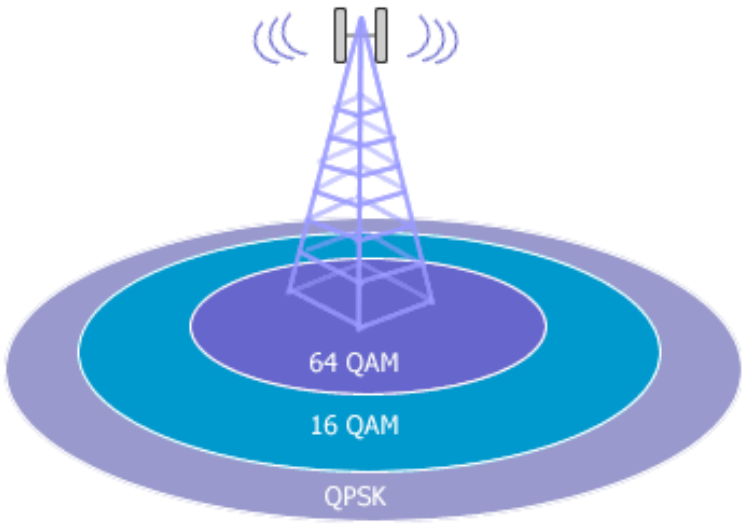

Q
128 QAM
I

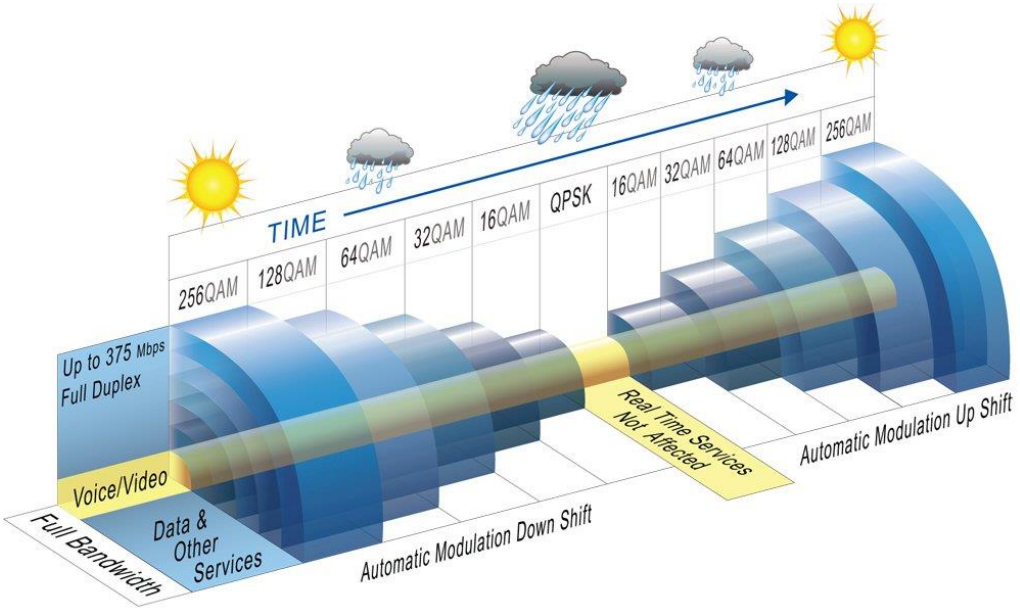

Q
256 QAM
I

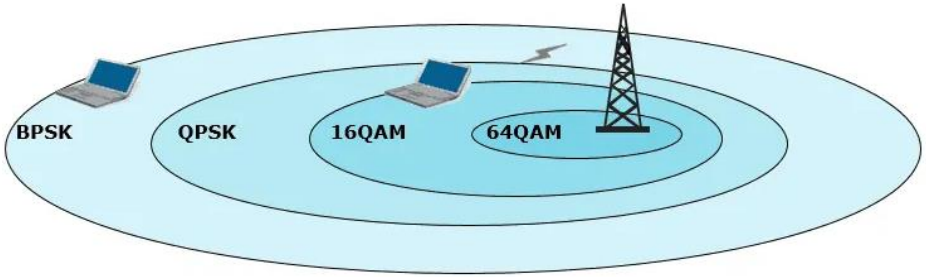
Number of States (*m*-ary)	Bits Transmitted Per Symbol
2	1
4	2
8	3
16	4
32	5
64	6
128	7
256	8

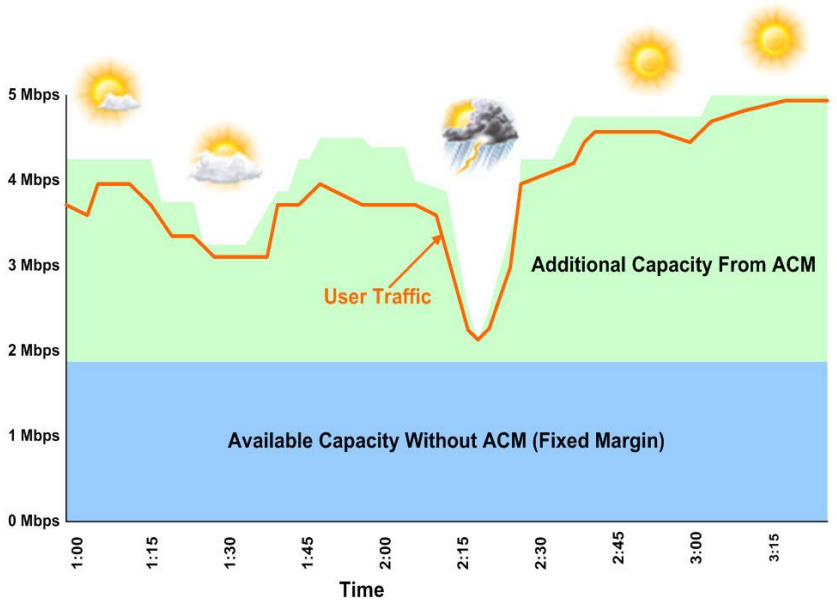
Modulation Scheme	Physical Data Rate
BPSK	6 Mbps
BPSK	9 Mbps
QPSK	12 Mbps
QPSK	18 Mbps
16 QAM	24 Mbps
16 QAM	36 Mbps
64 QAM	48 Mbps
64 QAM	54 Mbps

Adaptive (coding and) modulation









Adaptive (Coding and) Modulation (ACM)

- “Link Adaption” or “Dynamic Coding Modulation”

- Functionality
  - Observes change in Signal-to-Noise (SNR) of channel
  - Sends the Code and Modulation Information (CMI) in the header of a packet
  - Changes modulation scheme to optimize throughput

Requirements for ACM

1. Current channel conditions must be known with reasonable accuracy

   - Open Loop Information
     - Received Signal Information
   - Closed Loop (Feedback) Information
     - Receiver sends SNR Measurements to Transmitter
     - Requires a feedback channel

Requirements for ACM

2. Channel conditions must remain constant or change slowly relative to the adaption rate

- Two Categories of Channel Fading Impairments
  - Fast Channel Fading (ex: Multi-Path)
  - Slow Channel Fading (ex: Shadow Fading)
- Goal is to adjust SNR update rates so that:
  - SNR updates slow enough to average fast fading effects
  - SNR updates fast enough to track slow fading effects

ACM schemes in LTE (4G)

ID (c_l)	level	$r(c_l)$ [bits/symbol]	SNR boundary [dB][1]
0	Silent	0	0
1	QPSK(1/2)	1	6
2	QPSK(3/4)	1.5	8.5
3	16QAM(1/2)	2	11.5
4	16QAM(3/4)	3	15
5	64QAM(2/3)	4	18.5
6	64QAM(3/4)	4.5	21

Trick question: What is the difference between LTE and 4G

Multiple access protocols

Channel Types

- Broadcast channels
  - (at least) one transmits and (possibly) many receive (simultaneously)
- Multi-access channels
  - Many transmitters use one (single) channel to communicate with (at least) one receiver (not necessarily simultaneously)
  - Possibly communicate between themselves
- Example: Mobile phone and base station
  - Mobile phone ⟹ base station : multiple access channel (many transmitters send to a single receiver)
  - Base station ⟹ mobile phone: the sender broadcasts to many receivers

Multiple Access Control Channels

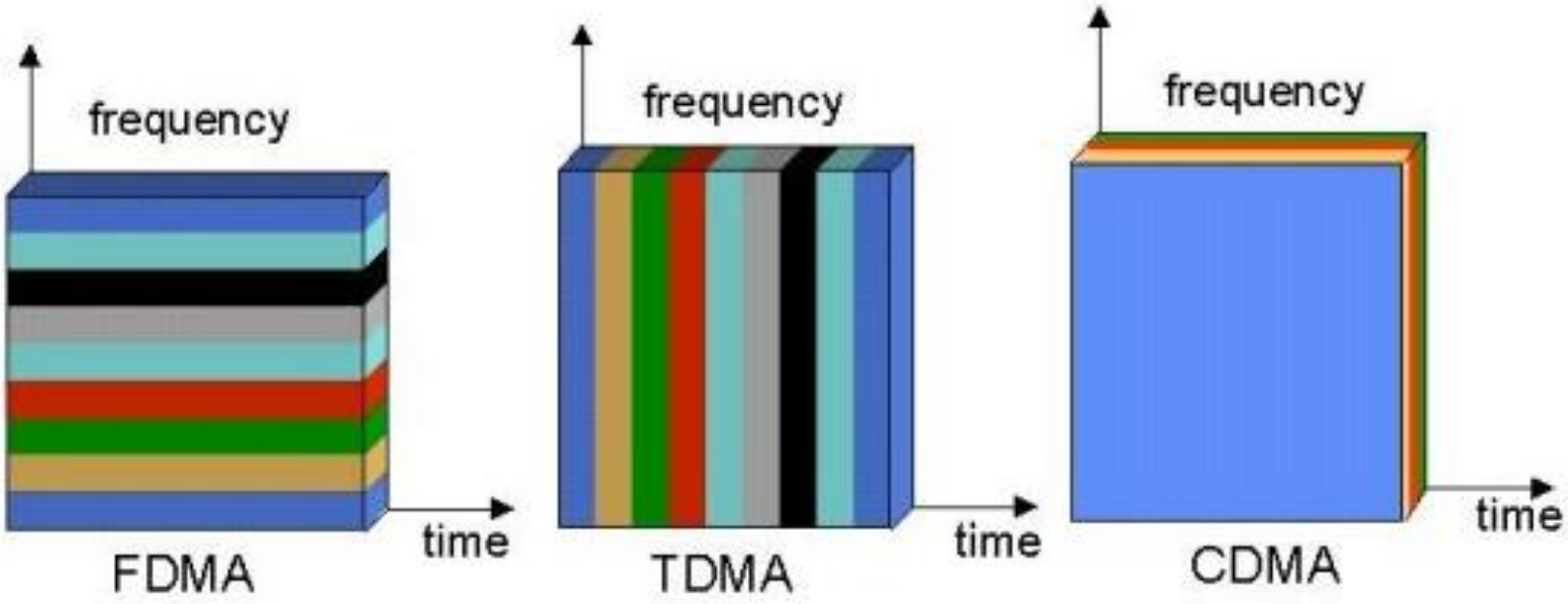
- N independent stations
  - Assumption of limited or unlimited number
  - Poisson arrivals
  - Fixed packet length
- Single Channel
- Collisions are possible
  - Carrier sensing
  - Collision detection
- Time assumptions
  - Segmented non-continuous time / Synchronous mode
  - Non-segmented continuous time / Asynchronous mode

Multiplexing Techniques

- Multiplexing techniques are used to allow many users to share a common transmission resource. In our case the users are mobile and the transmission resource is the radio spectrum. Sharing a common resource requires an access mechanism that will control the multiplexing mechanism.
- As in wireline systems, it is desirable to allow the simultaneous transmission of information between two users engaged in a connection. This is called duplexing.
- Two types of duplexing exist:
  - Frequency division duplexing (FDD), whereby two frequency channels are assigned to a connection, one channel for each direction of transmission.
  - Time division duplexing (TDD), whereby two time slots (closely placed in time for duplex effect) are assigned to a connection, one slot for each direction of transmission.

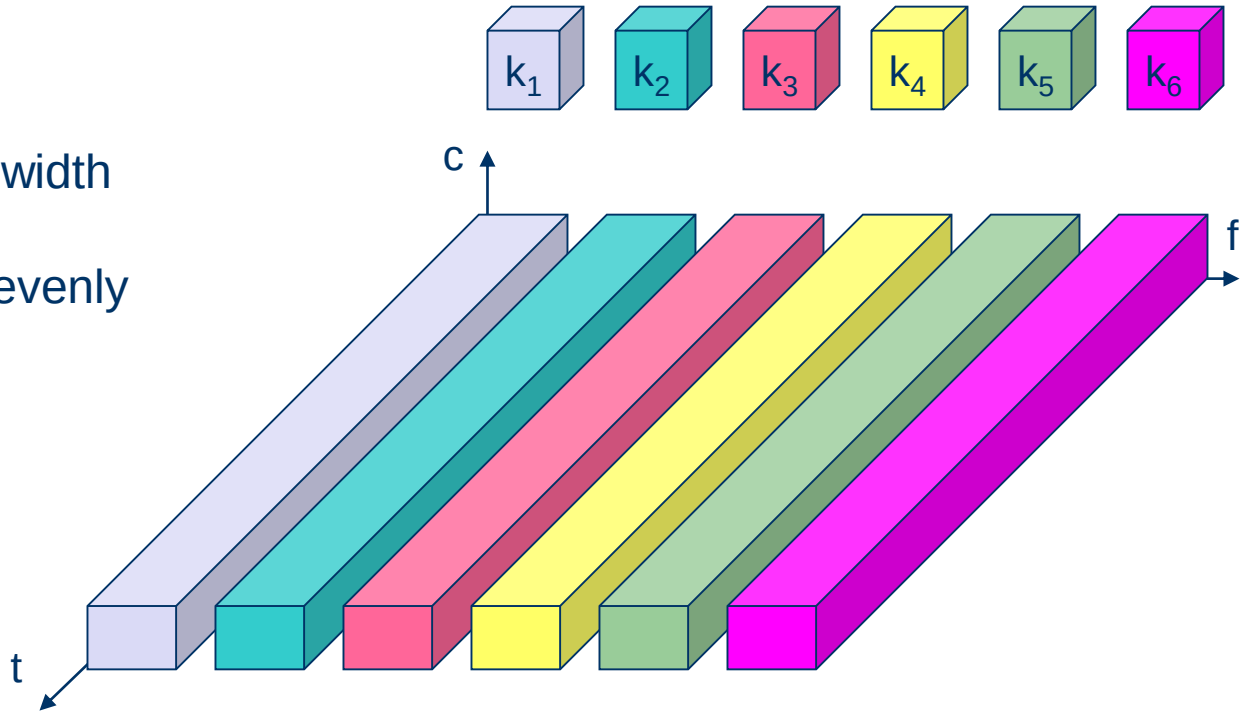
Multiplexing

- Multiplexing allows parallel transmission from different sources, handling interference.
- Three basic kinds
  - **TDM/TDMA** (Time Division Multiple Access)
  - **FDM/FDMA** (Frequency Division Multiple Access)
  - **CDMA** (Code Division Multiple Access)
  - Combinations of the above


frequency
time
FDMA
frequency
time
TDMA
frequency
time
CDMA

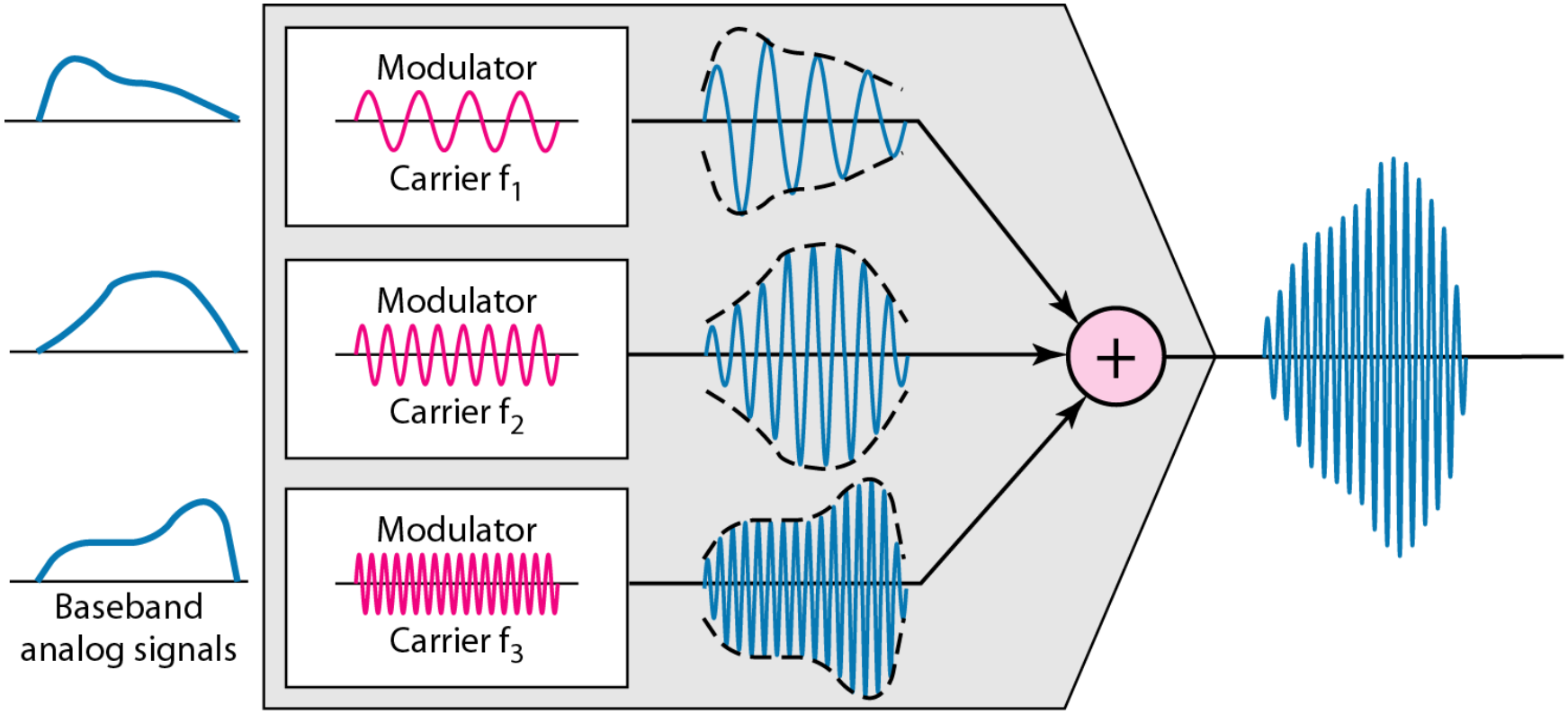
Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

- Separation of the whole spectrum into smaller frequency bands
- A channel gets a certain band of the spectrum for the whole time
  Advantages:
  - no dynamic coordination necessary
  - works also for analog signals
  - cheaper
- Disadvantages:
  - waste of bandwidth if the traffic is distributed unevenly
  - inflexible

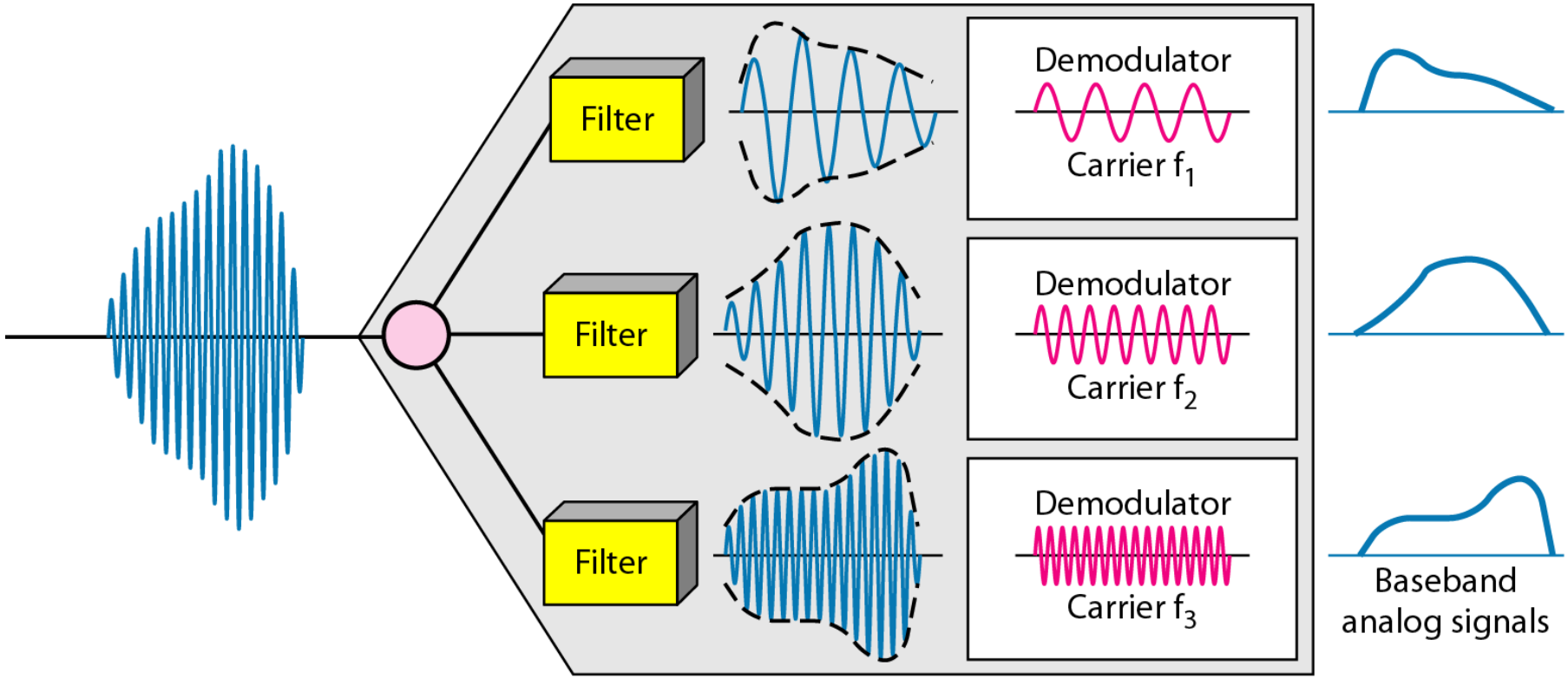


Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)



Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

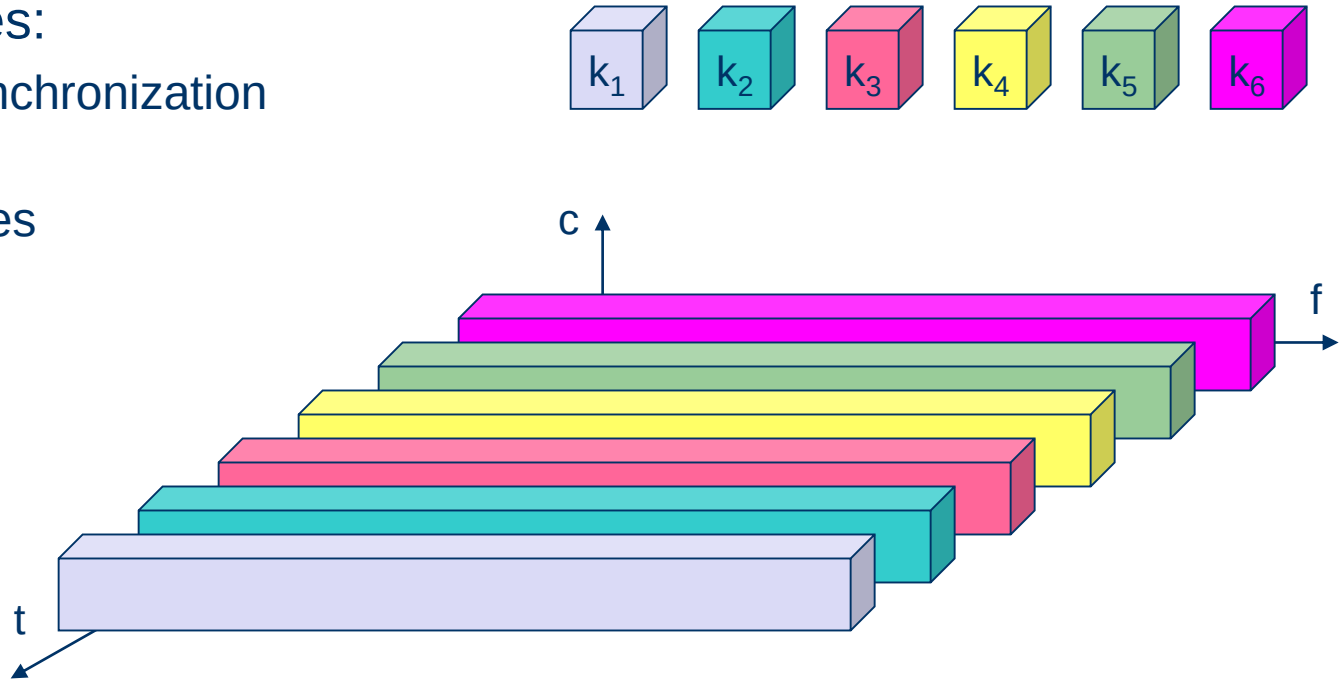


Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)

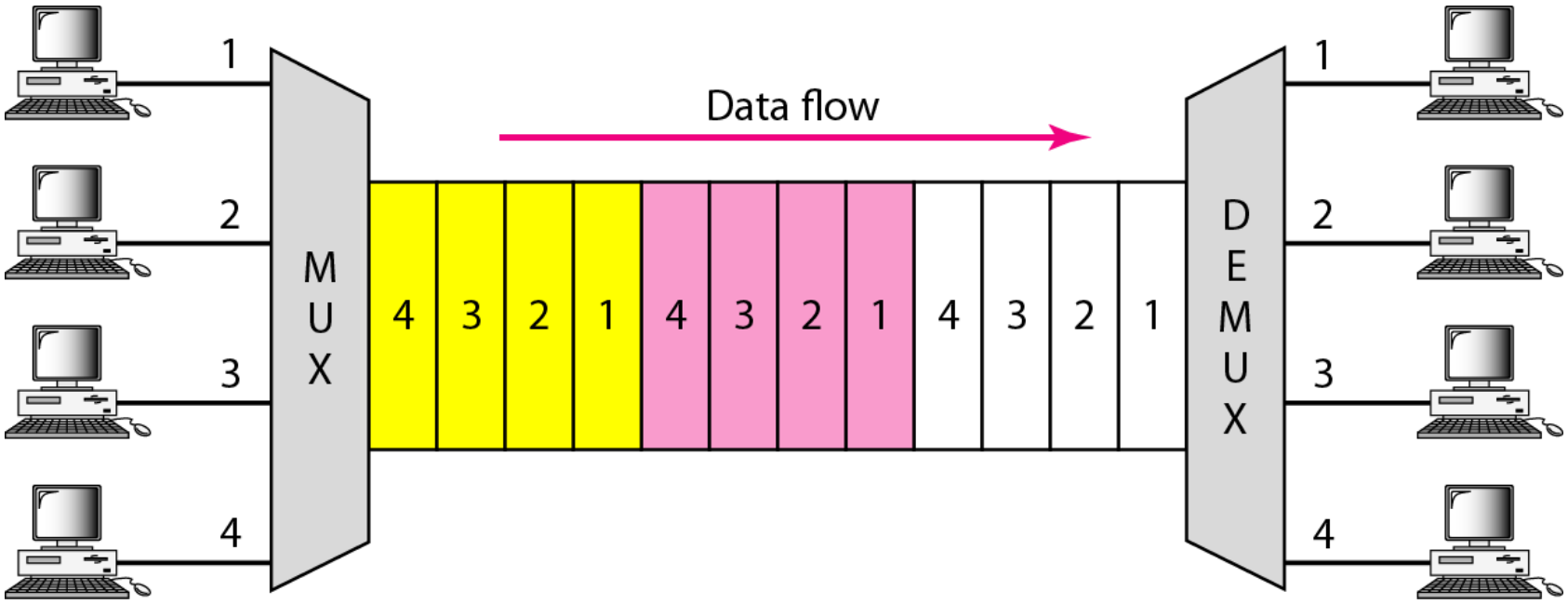
- A channel gets the whole spectrum for a certain amount of time
- Advantages:
  - only one carrier in the medium at any time
  - throughput high - supports bursts
  - flexible – multiple slots
- Disadvantages:
  - Precise synchronization necessary
  - high bit rates

    at each

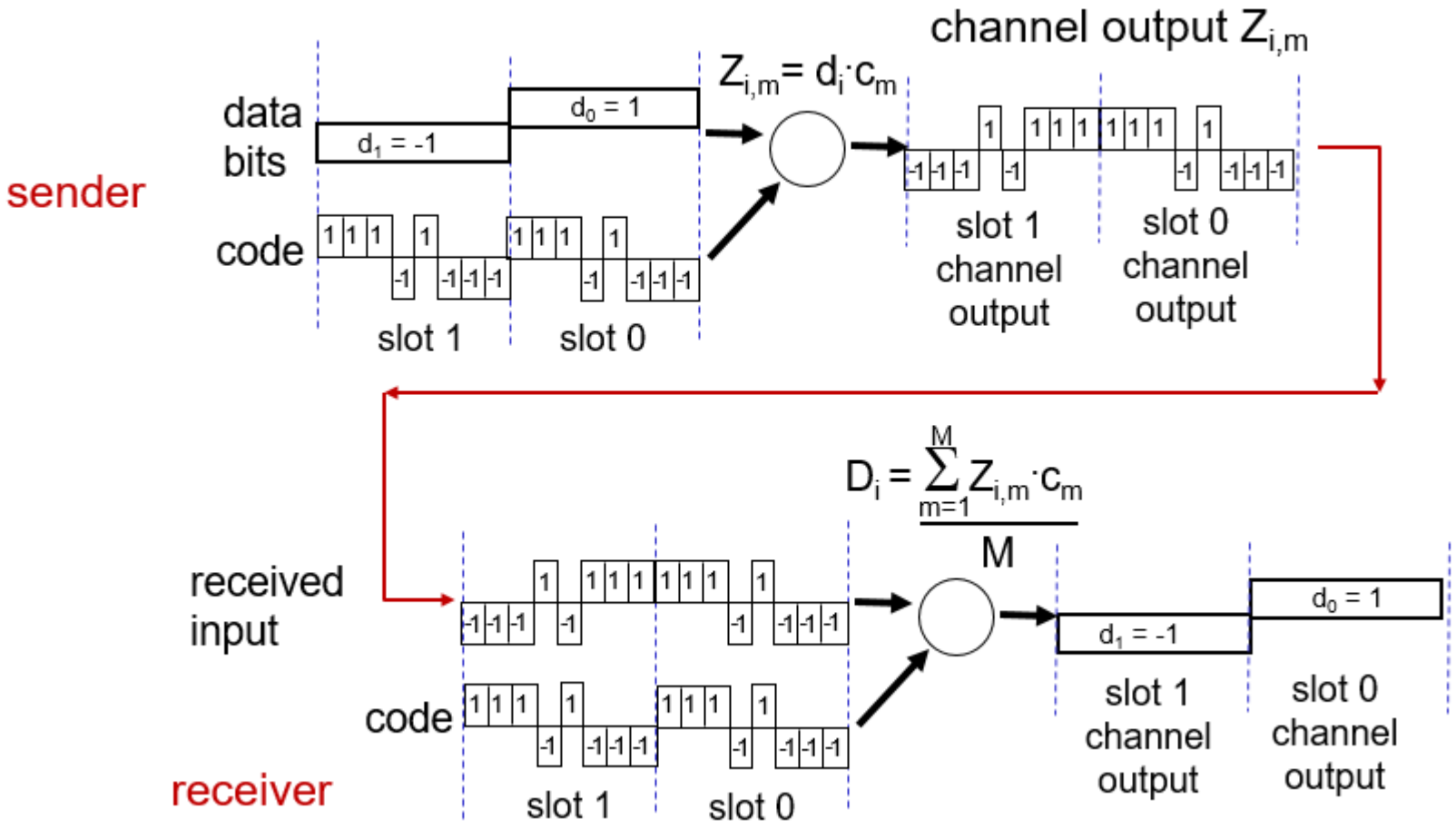
    Tx/Rx



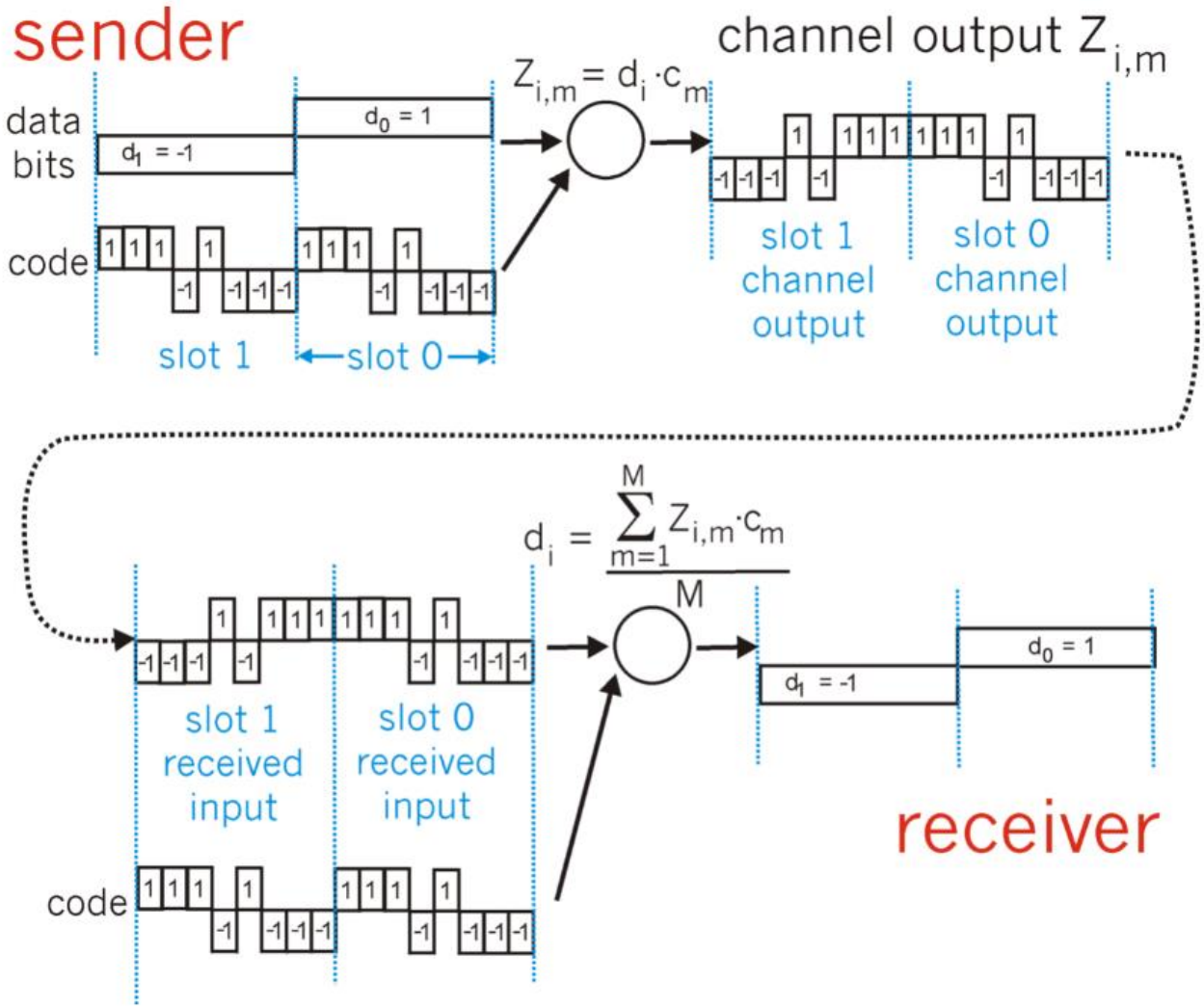
Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)



Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA)



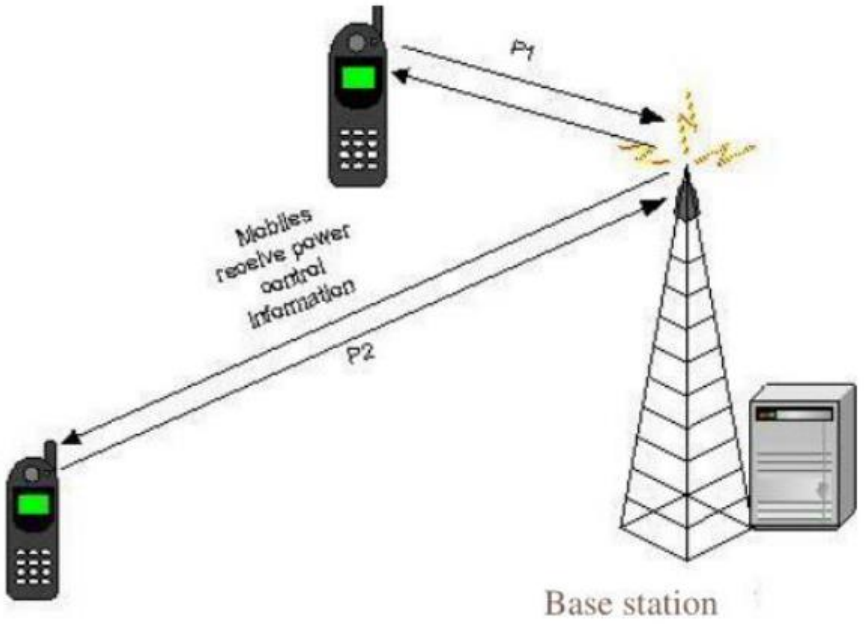
Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA)

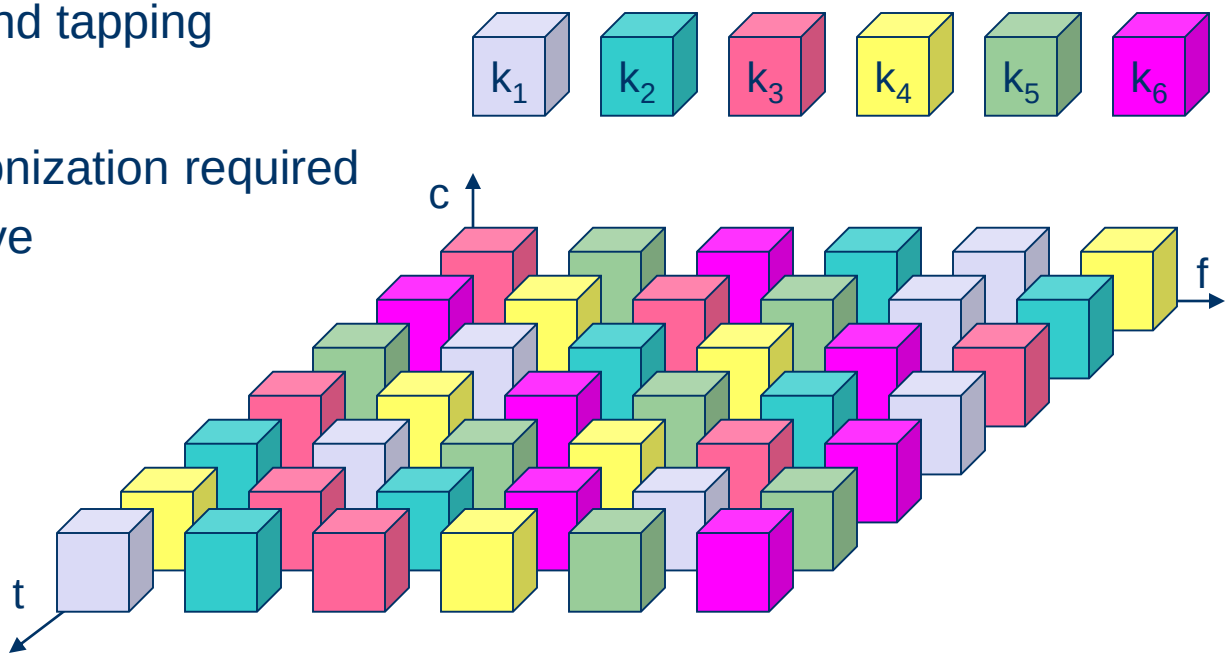


Near-far problem in CDMA

- A CDMA receiver cannot successfully de-spread the desired signal in a high multiple-access-interference environment
- Unless a transmitter close to the receiver transmits at power lower than a transmitter farther away, the far transmitter cannot be heard
- Power control must be used to mitigate the near-far problem
- Mobiles transmit at such power levels to ensure that received power levels are equal at base station

- Power control and channel problems!



Hybrid TDM/FDM

- Combination of both methods
- A channel gets a certain frequency band for a certain amount of time (slot).
- Advantages:
  - better protection against interference and tapping
- Disadvantages:
  - Better synchronization required
  - More expensive