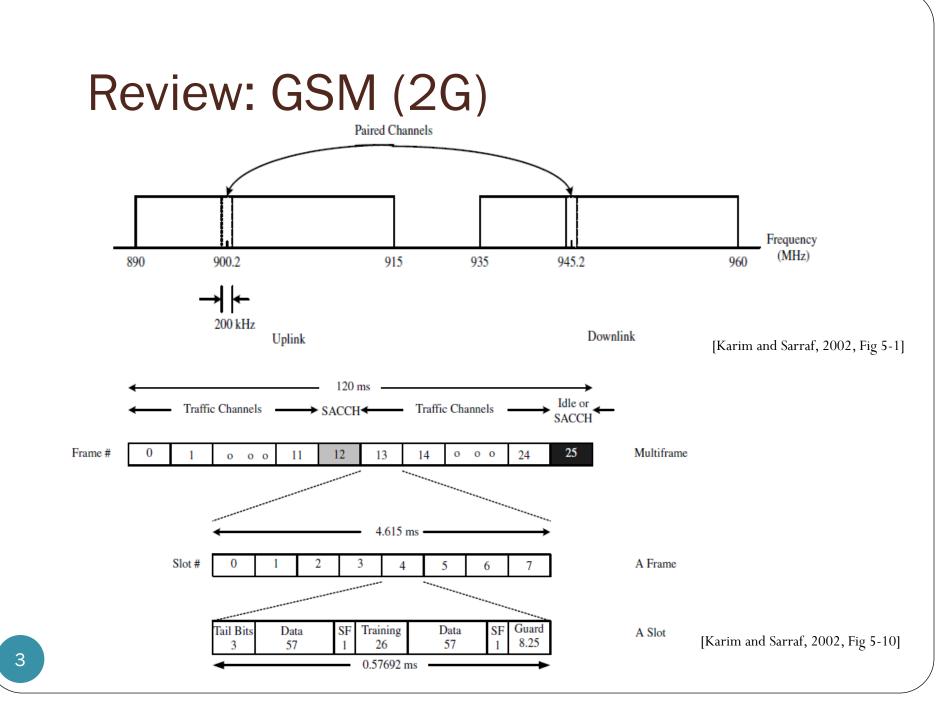
ECS455: Chapter 6 Applications



Review: Cellular History

- The first-generation (1G) systems introduced in the 1980s were characterized by analog speech transmission.
- The **second-generation (2G)** systems, developed in the 1990s, are **digital** and have data transport capabilities but only to a limited extent.
 - **GSM** supports SMSs and user data at rates only up to 9.6 kb/s.
 - **IS-95B** (cdmaOne) provides data rates in the range of 64 to 115 kb/s in increments of 8 kb/s over a **1.25 MHz channel**.
 - Each cell uses a carrier with a bandwidth of 1.25MHz, which is divided into 64 data and signalling channels by the use of orthogonal CDMA codes.



GSM Enhancement

- Want to deliver *data* as well as voice.
- 2.5G: General Packet Radio Service (GPRS)
 - Provide connectivity to IP networks (Internet).
 - Each slot can handle up to 20 kb/s. Each user may be allocated up to 8 slots
 - Data rates up to about 160 kb/s per user are possible.
 - A single time slot may be shared by multiple users for transferring packet mode data.
- 2.75G: Enhanced Data Rates for GSM Evolution (EDGE)
 - Support IP-based services in GSM at rates up to 384 kb/s

ECS455: Chapter 6 Applications

6.1 3G (UMTS and WCDMA)



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Review: UMTS

- Universal Mobile Telecommunications System (UMTS)
- The research activity on UMTS started in Europe at the beginning of the 1990s.
 - Even before the earliest 2G systems arrived on the market
- Designed to support wideband services with data rates up to 2Mbit/s.
- Developed from GSM
 - Keep the core network more-or-less intact
 - Change the air interface to use **CDMA**
- Compatibility between UMTS and GSM:
 - Most UMTS mobiles also implement GSM, and the network can *hand* them *over* from a UMTS base station to a GSM one if they reach the edge of the UMTS coverage area.
 - However, network operators can*not* implement the two systems in the same frequency band, so they are not fully compatible with each other.

Bandwidth Comparison

ansmission Bandwidth	Standard
and 30 kHz	
00 kHz	GSM
25 MHz	IS-95 (CDMA)
25 MHz	CDMA2000 1X-RTT
MHz	WCDMA and CDMA2000 3X-RTT
p to 20 MHz	LTE and WiMAX (802.16) Wi-Fi (802.11a/g)
2	0 kHz 25 MHz 25 MHz MHz

Wider and wider radio frequency bands!

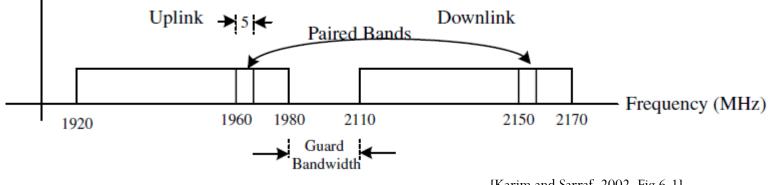
[Myung and Goodman, 2008]

UMTS: FDD

- The chip rate for spectrum spreading is 3.84 Mc/s.
- The maximum transmitter power of the user equipment is in the range of 21 to 33 dBm (that is, 125 mW to 2W)

$(10^{21/10} \,\mathrm{mW}) \,(10^{33/10} \,\mathrm{mW})$

(0 dBm or dBmW = 1 mW)

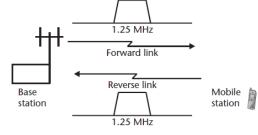


UMTS W-CDMA FDD and TDD (UMTS Terrestrial Radio Access)

- The air interface (UTRA) of UMTS is based on CDMA
- UMTSW-CDMA FDD
 - Direct-sequence CDMA system
 - 5 MHz bandwidth
- UMTSW-CDMA TDD
 - Also uses CDMA with a bandwidth of 5 MHz
 - The frequency band is time shared in both directions—one half of the time, it is used for transmission in the forward direction and the other half of the time in the reverse direction.
- FDD is currently much more popular

Cdma2000 (IMT Multi-Carrier)

- Another 3G mobile technology standard
- Multicarrier, direct-sequence CDMA FDD system.
- Backward-compatible with its previous 2G iteration IS-95 (cdmaOne).
- CDMA2000 1X (IS-2000)
 - also known as 1x and 1xRTT
 - 1x = Spreading Rate 1 = use the same chip rate of IS-95 (i.e., 1.2288 Mcps).
 - Same RF bandwidth as IS-95: a duplex pair of 1.25 MHz radio channels.
 - Core CDMA2000 wireless air interface standard.
 - Almost doubles the capacity of IS-95 by adding 64 more traffic channels to the forward link, orthogonal to (in quadrature with) the original set of 64.



3G Spreading Codes

- In UMTS and cdma2000, signaling and user data is spread twice in succession
 - First with the channelization codes
 - Orthogonal Walsh codes
 - Inherently more tolerant of interference caused by multiple users.
 - Later with the scrambling codes
 - Not necessarily orthogonal
 - Built from **PN codes**
- In contrast to IS-95, the WCDMA/UMTS standard applies variable length orthogonal spreading codes and coherent QPSK detection for both uplink and downlink directions.

Review: CDMA

- Two Users. Suppose the code length = 4.
- User 1 uses code \underline{c}_1 . Want to send messages $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots$ • Send $\underline{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \underline{c}_1 & a_2 \underline{c}_1 & a_3 \underline{c}_1 & a_4 \underline{c}_1 & \cdots \end{bmatrix}$
- User 2 uses code \underline{c}_2 . Want to send messages $b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, \dots$ • Send $\underline{x}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \underline{c}_2 & b_2 \underline{c}_2 & b_3 \underline{c}_2 & b_4 \underline{c}_2 & \cdots \end{bmatrix}$
- Receiver gets $\underline{r} = \underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2$
 - To recover a_1 , calculate $\frac{1}{4} \langle \underline{r}(1:4), \underline{c}_1 \rangle$
 - To recover b_1 , calculate $\frac{1}{4} \langle \underline{r}(1:4), \underline{c}_2 \rangle$
 - To recover a_2 , calculate $\frac{1}{4} \langle \underline{r}(5:8), \underline{c}_1 \rangle$

OVSF (1)

- Channelization codes used in UMTSW-CDMA and cdma2000 are variable-length Walsh codes, also known as orthogonal variable spreading factor (OVSF) codes.
- The spreading factors in UMTS may vary from 4 to 256 chips on uplink channels and from 4 to 512 chips on downlink channels.
 - In cdma2000, OVSF codes used on traffic channels may vary from 4 to 128 chips.
- **Comparison**: IS-95 uses a set of 64 fixed-length Walsh codes to spread forward physical channels. In the reverse direction, they are used for orthogonal modulation where every six symbols from the block interleaver output are modulated as one of 64 Walsh codes.

OVSF (2)

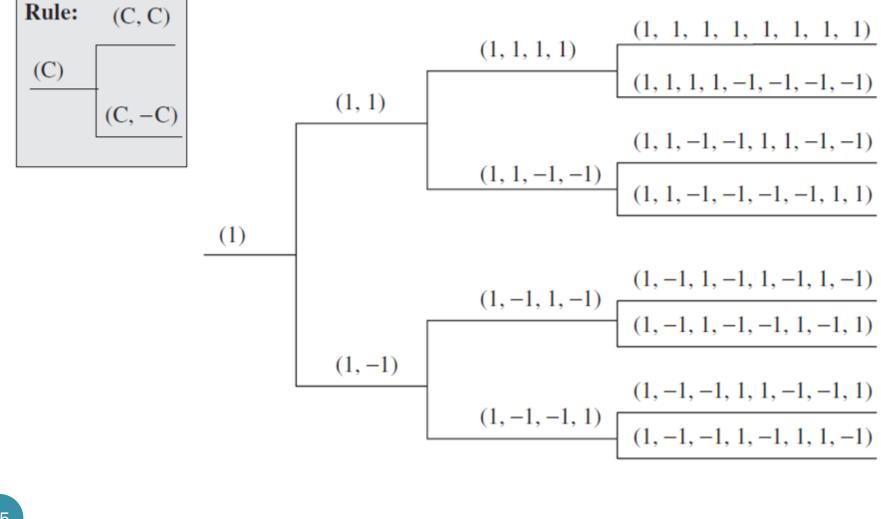
- Similar to Walsh sequences
 - Arranged and numbered in a different way
- Use a tree structure
- For each **spreading factor SF** = 1, 2, 4, ..., which is a power of 2, there are *N* = SF orthogonal codes obtained by the recursion relations:

$$c_{2SF,2m} = [c_{SF,m}, c_{SF,m}], m = 0, 1, \dots, SF - 1.$$

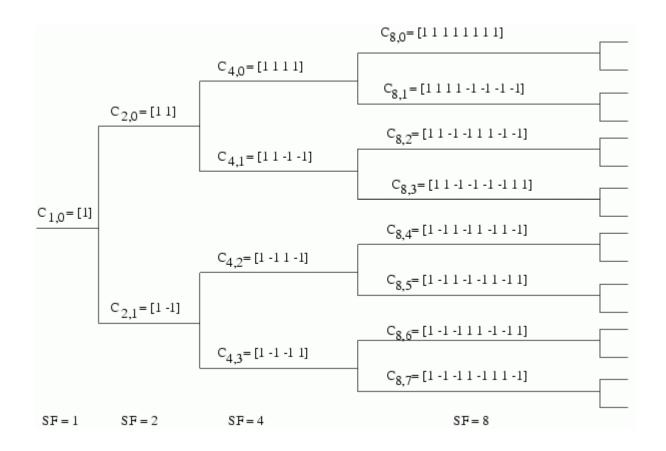
$$c_{2SF,2m+1} = [c_{SF,m}, -c_{SF,m}], m = 0, 1, \dots, SF - 1.$$

• Different data rates are supported on a physical channel by simply changing the spreading factor of the associated code.

Tree structure for OVSF codes (1)



Tree structure for OVSF codes (2)

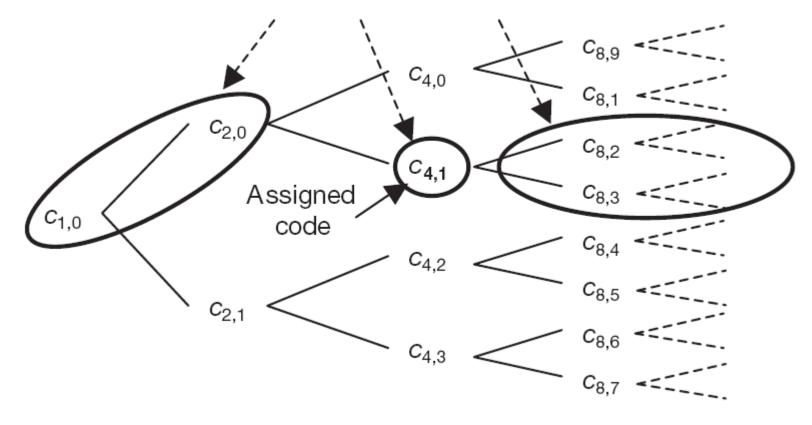


Code allocation rules (1)

- OVSF codes can be applied to realize connections with **different data rates** by varying the spreading factor.
- Smaller SF = Faster data rate
- To have connections with different data rates, need some rules (for selecting the codes) to **maintain orthogonality**
- Code blocking property: If a certain code is already used for one connection, neither this code nor a code that is a descendant or an ancestor of this code (on the tree) is allowed to be used for another connection
 - These codes are not orthogonal to the already allocated one.

Code allocation rules (2)

Codes not allowed to be assigned to other connections



[Schulze Luders, 2005, Fig 5.12]

Code allocation rules (3)

- Two OVSF codes are orthogonal if and only if neither code lies on the path from the other code to the root.
- If, for example, code $c_{4,1}$ is in use, another connection with a different data rate is not allowed to use the encircled codes.
 - Other cades can still be used.
- If, for example, the second connection has twice the data rate of the first one, it has to select the code c_{2,1}.
 - Within the period of one data bit of connection 1, connection 2 transmits two data bits.

OVSF: Disadvantages

- Poor autocorrelation property
 - Look, for example, at the codes c_{SF,0}.
- When there is no perfect synchronization, the orthogonality gets lost (high values for the cross correlation)

Scrambling Codes in UMTS

- The scrambling codes in UMTS are complex valued and may be either long or short.
- A long code has a length of 38,400 chips (that is, 10 ms) and a short code only 256 chips.
- A long code for a UMTS uplink channel is constructed with two PN codes, whose characteristic polynomials are

$$g_1(x) = x^{25} + x^3 + 1$$
 and $g_2(x) = x^{25} + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$

- They are implemented as sequences PN1 and PN2 using two 25-bit shift registers.
- PN1 and PN2 are added modulo 2, and the output is mapped to a real-valued function, say, I.
- Another function Q is derived by simply delaying I by $2^{24} + 16$ chips.
- Q is multiplied by ±j, where the sign changes every chip period, and then added to I to yield the long code.