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GSM Architecture (Radio Interface)

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EE- 400

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ABSTRACT

In this project we present the GSM architecture and we specialize on Radio İnterface. GSM which is the Global System For Mobile Communications is purely digital, it can easily interface with other digital communications system, such as ISDN , and digital devices. GSM structure is a complex object, its implementation and operation are not simplee task, neither easy its description. There are some internal structures of each part of GSM like the Mobile Station, Base Station System and Network Swicthing Subsystem. In the Cellular Communcations, this tutorial discusses the basics of radiotelephony system including both analog and digital systems. Upon completion of this tutorial, you should be able to describe the basic compontnts of a Cellular system and also to identify and describe the digital wireless technologies. The Radio Interface is the interface between the mobile stations and the fixed infrastructure. It is one of the most important interfaces of the GSM system. The specification of the Radio Interface has an important influence on the spectrum efficiency.

INTRODUCTION

GSM (Global System for Mobile Communications) is a European digital communications standard which provides full duplex data traffic to any device fitted with GSM capability, it can easily interface with other digital communications systems, such as ISDN, and digital devices, such as Group 3 facsimile machines.

Unlike any other service, GSM products such as cellular phones require the use of a Subscriber Identity Module, or SIM card .These small electronic devices are approximately the size of a credit card and record all of the user information in it. This includes data such as programmed telephone numbers and network security features, which identify the user. Without this module, the device will not function. This allows for greater security and also greater easy of use as this card maybe transported from one phone to another, while maintaining the same information available to the user. GSM is also present outside of Europe but known by different names.

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1. INTRODUCTION TO GSM

1.1 Overview

GSM (Global System for Mobile Communications) is a European digital communications standard which provides full duplex data traffic to any device fitted with GSM capability, such as a phone, fax, or pager, at a rate of 9600 bps using the TDMA communications scheme. Since GSM is purely digital , it can easily interface with other digital communications systems, such as ISDN, and digital devices, such as Group 3 facsimile machines.

Unlike any other service, GSM products such as cellular phones require the use of a Subscriber Identity Module, or SIM card. These small electronic devices are approximately the size of a credit card and record all of the user information it. This includes data such as programmed telephone numbers and network security features, which identify the user. Without this module, the device will not function. This allows for greater security and also greater ease of use as this card may be transported from one phone to another, while maintaining the same information available to the user. GSM is also present outside of Europe but known by different names.

In North America it is known as PCS 1900 and elsewhere are DCS 1800 (also known as PCS). The only difference between these systems is the frequency at which operate. The number stands for the operating frequency in megahertz. While each system uses the GSM standard, they are not compatible with each other. Figure 1.1 shows the evolution of the Mobile.

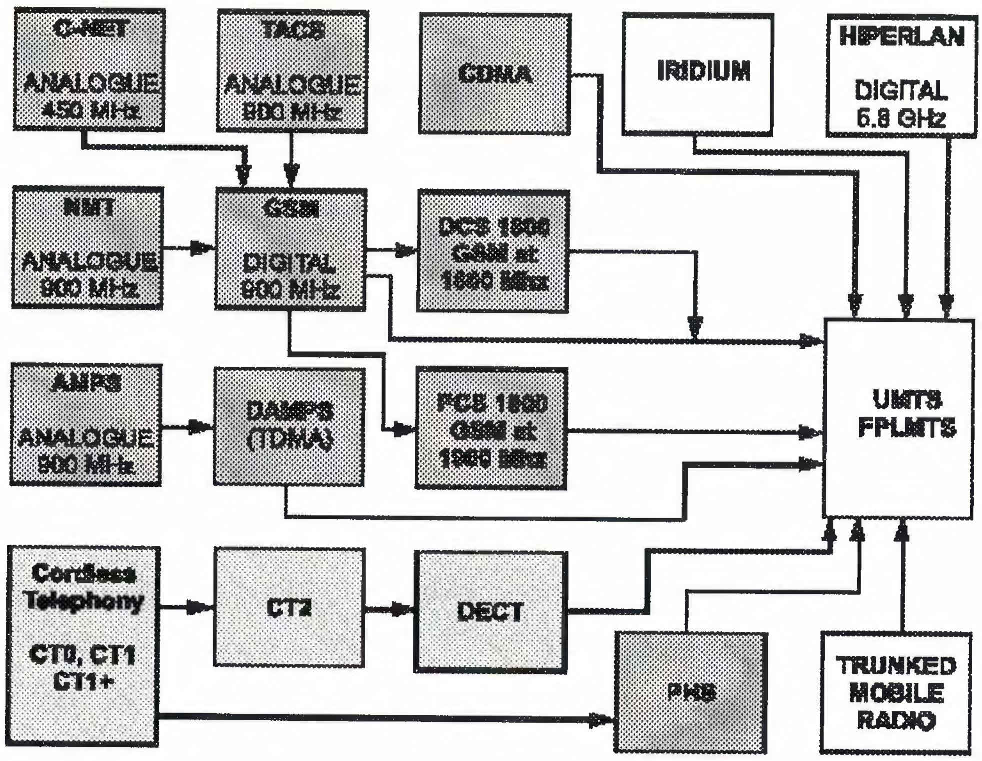


Figure 1.1 The Mobile Evolution

1.2 History Of GSM

During the early 1980s, analog cellular telephone systems were experiencing rapid growth in Europe, particularly in Scandinavia and the United Kingdom, but also in France and Germany. In the Nordic and Benelux countries the NMT 450 was developed, TACS in the UK and C-Netz in West Germany. The Radio com 2000 was in France and RTMI/RTMS in Italy. But each system was incompatible with everyone else's in equipment and operation and as business was becoming increasingly international, the cutting edge of the communications industry focused on exclusively local cellular solutions. These systems were fine if you wanted to call the office if you were in your own home, but not if you were with a client in another country. Also home market revenue simply wouldn't justify sustained programs of investment. As a solution in 1982 CEPT, the Conference des Administrations Europeans des Postes et Telecommunications comprised the telecom administrations of twenty-six European countries, established the Group Special Mobile (GSM).

1.2.1 Developments of GSM

Its objective was to develop the specification for a pan-European mobile communications network capable of supporting the many millions of subscribers likely to turn to mobile communications in the years ahead. The home market revenue simply wouldn't justify sustained programs of investment so to further progress they lobbied for support from some political heavyweights. In 1985, the growing commitment to resolving the problem became evident when West Germany, France and Italy signed an agreement for the development of GSM. The United Kingdom added its name to the agreement the following year. By this time, CEPTs Group Special Mobile could argue persuasively that the standards they were developing held the key to a technically and economically viable solution as their standard was likely to employ digital rather than analogue technology and operate in the 900MHz frequency band. Digital technology offered an attractive combination of performance and spectral efficiency. In other words, it would provide high quality transmission and enable more callers simultaneously to use the limited radio band available. In addition, such a system would allow the development of advanced features like speech security and data communications. Handsets could be cheaper and smaller. It would also make it possible to introduce the first hand-held terminals - even though in the early days in terms of size and weight these would be practically indistinguishable from a brick. Finally, the digital approach neatly complemented the Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN), which was being developed by land-based telecommunications systems throughout the world. But the frequencies to be employed by the new standard were being snapped up by the analogue networks. Over-capacity crisis had started to sound alarm bells throughout the European Community. Demand was beginning to outstrip even the most optimistic projections. The Group Special Mobile's advocacy of digital cellular technology was on hand to offer light at the end of the tunnel. The Directive ensured that every Member State would reserve the 900MHz frequency blocks required for the rollout program. Although these were somewhat smaller than the amount advocated by the CEPT, the industry had finally achieved the political support it needed to advance its objectives. The logistical nightmare in the GSM, which followed soon left this achievement as a distant, dream so single, permanent organization at the helm.

In1986 the GSM Permanent Nucleus was formed and its head quarters established in Paris. It was all very well agreeing the technology and standards for this new product. But what about the creation of a market ? It was essential to forge a commercial agreement between potential operators who would commit themselves to implementing the standard by a particular date. Without such an agreement there could be no network. Without the network there would be no terminals. Without network and terminals there would be no service. Stephen Temple of the UK's Department of Trade and Industry was charged with the task of drafting the first Memorandum of Understanding (MOU). In September 1987 network operators from thirteen countries signed a MOU in Copenhagen. One of the most important conclusions drawn from the early tests was that the new standard should employ Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA) technology. The strength of its technical performance ensured that narrowband TDMA had the support of major players like Nokia, Ericsson and Siemens. This promised the flexibility inherent in having access to a broad range of suppliers and the potential to get product faster into the marketplace. But as always as soon as one problem was solved other problems looming on the horizon .

In 1989, the UK Department of Trade and Industry published a discussion document called "Phones on the Move". This advocated the introduction of mass-market mobile communications using new technology and operating in the 1800 MHz frequency band. The UK government licensed two operators to run what became known as Personal Communications Networks (PCN). Operating at the higher frequency gave the PCN operators virtually unlimited capacity; where as 900MHz was limited. The next hurdle to over come was that of the deadline. If the 1 July 1991 launch date was not met there was a real danger that confidence in GSM technology would be fatally undermined but moral received a boost when in 1989 the responsibility for specification development passed from the GSM Permanent Nucleus to the newly created European Telecommunications Standards Institute (ETSI). In addition, the UK's PCN turned out to be more of an opportunity than a threat. The new operators decided to utilize the GSM specification - slightly modified because of the higher frequency - and the development of what became known as DCS 1800 was carried out by ETSI in parallel with GSM standardization. In fact, in 1997 DCS 1800 was renamed GSM 1800 to reflect the affinity between the two technologies. With so many manufacturers creating so many products in so many countries, it soon became apparent that it was critical that each type of terminal was subject to a rigorous approval regime. Rogue terminals could cause untold damage to the new networks. The solution was the introduction of Interim Type Approval (ITA). Essentially, this was a procedure in which only a subset of the approval parameters was tested to ensure that the terminal in question would not create any problems for the networks. In spite of considerable concern expressed by some operators, ITA terminals became widely available in the course of 1992. True hand held terminals hit the market at the end of that year and the GSM bandwagon had finally started to roll. From here the G.S.M became a success story. In 1987, the first of what was to become an annual event devoted to the worldwide promotion of GSM technology was staged by conference organizers IBC Technical Services. The Pan European Digital Cellular Conference . This year it celebrated its tenth anniversary in Cannes, attracting over 2,400 delegates. By the end of 1993, GSM had broken through the 1 million-subscriber barrier with the next million already on the horizon. By June 1995 Phase 2 of standardization came in to play and a demonstration of fax, video and data communication via GSM. When the GSM standard was being drawn up by the CEPT, six separate systems were all considered as the base. There were seven criteria deemed to be of importance when assessing which of the six would be used. Each country developed its own system, which was incompatible with everyone else's in equipment and operation. This was an undesirable situation, because not only was the mobile equipment limited to operation within national boundaries, which in a unified Europe were increasingly unimportant, but there was also a very limited market for each type of equipment, so economies of scale and the subsequent savings could not be realized. The Europeans realized this early on, and in 1982 the Conference of European Posts and Telegraphs (CEPT) formed a study group called the Group Special Mobile (GSM) to study and develop a pan-European public land mobile system. The proposed system had to meet certain criteria. In 1989, GSM responsibility was transferred to the European Telecommunication Standards Institute (ETSI), and phase-I of the GSM specifications were published in 1990. Commercial service was started in mid-1991, and by 1993 there were 36 GSM networks in 22 countries with 25 additional countries having already selected or considering GSM. This is not only a European standard - South Africa, Australia, and many Middle and Far East countries have chosen GSM. Although standardized in Europe, GSM is not only a European standard. Over 200

GSM networks (including DCS1800 and PCS1900) are operational in 110 countries around the world. In the beginning of 1994, there were 1.3 million subscribers worldwide, which had grown to more than 55 million by October 1997. With North America making a delayed entry into the GSM field with a derivative of GSM called PCS1900, GSM systems exist on every continent, and the acronym GSM now aptly stands for Global System for Mobile communications. The developers of GSM chose an unproven (at the time) digital system, as opposed to the then-standard analog cellular systems like AMPS in the United States and TACS in the United Kingdom. They had faith that advancements in compression algorithms and digital signal processors would allow the fulfillment of the original criteria and the continual improvement of the system in terms of quality and cost. The over 8000 pages of GSM recommendations try to allow flexibility and competitive innovation among suppliers, but provide enough standardization to guarantee proper inter-working between the components of the system. This is done by providing functional and interface descriptions for each of the functional entities defined in the system. The development of GSM started in 1982, when the Conference of European Posts and Telegraphs (CEPT) formed a study group called Group Special Mobile (the initial meaning of GSM). The group was to study and develop a pan-European public cellular system in the 900 MHz range, using spectrum that had been previously allocated. At that time, there were many incompatible analog cellular systems in various European countries. Some of the basic criteria for their proposed system were:

- Good subjective speech quality.
- Low terminal and service cost.
- Support for international roaming.
- Ability to support handheld terminals.
- Support for range of new services and facilities.
- Spectral efficiency.
- ISDN compatibility.

In 1989, the responsibility for GSM was transferred to the European Telecommunication Standards Institute (ETSI), and the Phase I recommendations were published in 1990. At that time, the United Kingdom requested a specification based on GSM but for higher user densities with low-power mobile stations, and operating at 1.8

GHz. The specifications for this system, called Digital Cellular System (DCS1800) were published 1991. Commercial operation of GSM networks started in mid-1991 in European countries. By the beginning of 1995, there were 60 countries with operational or planned GSM networks in Europe, the Middle East, the Far East, Australia, Africa, and South America, with a total of over 5.4 million subscribers. As it turned out, none of the six candidates was actually used! The information collected during the tests did enable the GSM (Group Special Mobile) to design the specifications of the current GSM network. The total change to a digital network was one of the fundamental factors of the success of GSM. Digital transmission is easier to decode than analogue due to the limited number of possible input values (0.1), and as ISDN was becoming de facto at the time, it was logical to avail of digital technology. This also ensured that GSM could evolve properly in an increasingly digital world, for example with the introduction of an 8kps speech coder. It is much easier to change channel characteristics digitally than analogously. Finally, the transmission method decided on for the network was TDMA, as opposed to FDMA and CDMA. In 1989, responsibility for the specification was passed from CEPT to the newly formed and now famous European Telecommunications Standards Institute (ETSI). By 1990, the specifications and explanatory notes on the system were documented extensively, producing 138 documents in total, some reaching sizes of several hundred pages in length services.

1.3 Technology

1.3.1 Services Provided by GSM

From the beginning, the planners of GSM wanted ISDN compatibility in terms of the services offered and the control signaling used. However, radio transmission limitations, in terms of bandwidth and cost, do not allow the standard ISDN B-channel bit rate of 64 kbps to be practically achieved. Using the ITU-T definitions, telecommunication services can be divided into bearer services, tele-services, and supplementary services. The digital nature of GSM allows data, both synchronous and asynchronous, to be transported as a bearer service to or from an ISDN terminal. Data can use either the transparent service, which has a fixed delay but no guarantee of data integrity, or a non-transparent service, which guarantees data integrity through an Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ) mechanism, but with a variable delay. The data rates supported by

GSM are 300 bps, 600 bps, 1200 bps, 2400 bps, and 9600 bps. The most basic tele-service supported by GSM is telephony. As with all other communications, speech is digitally encoded and transmitted through the GSM network as a digital stream. There is also an emergency service, where the nearest emergency-service provider is notified by dialing three digits (similar to 911). A variety of data services is offered. GSM users can send and receive data, at rates up to 9600 bps, to users on POTS (Plain Old Telephone Service), ISDN, Packet Switched Public Data Networks, and Circuit Switched Public Data Networks using a variety of access methods and protocols, such as X.25 or X.32. Since GSM is a digital network, a modem is not required between the user and GSM network, although an audio modem is required inside the GSM. Network to inter-work with POTS . Other data services include Group 3 facsimile, as described in ITU-T recommendation T.30, which is supported by use of an appropriate fax adaptor. A unique feature of GSM, not found in older analog systems, is the Short Message Service (SMS). SMS is a bi directional service for short alphanumeric (up to 160 bytes) messages. Messages are transported in a store-and-forward fashion. For point-to-point SMS, a message can be sent to another subscriber to the service, and an acknowledgement of receipt is provided to the sender. SMS can also be used in a cell-broadcast mode, for sending messages such as traffic updates or news updates. Messages can also be stored in the SIM card for later retrieval supplementary services are provided on top of tele-services or bearer services. In the current (Phase I) specifications, they include several forms of call forward (such as call forwarding when the mobile subscriber is unreachable by the network), and call barring of outgoing or incoming calls, for example when roaming in another country. Many additional supplementary services will be provided in the Phase 2 specifications, such as caller identification, call waiting, multi-party conversations. GSM was designed having interoperability with ISDN in mind, and the services provided by GSM are a subset of the standard ISDN services. Speech is the most basic, and most important, tele-service provided by GSM. In addition, various data services are supported, with user bit rates up to 9600 bps. Specially equipped GSM terminals can connect with PSTN, ISDN, Packet Switched and Circuit Switched Public Data Networks, through several possible methods, using synchronous or asynchronous transmission. Also supported are Group 3 facsimile service, video-tax, and telexed. Other GSM services include a cell broadcast service, where messages such as traffic reports, are broadcast to users in particular cells. A service unique to GSM, the Short Message Service, allows users to send and receive point-to-point alphanumeric messages up to a few tens of bytes. It is similar to paging services, but much more comprehensive, allowing bi-directional messages, store-and-forward delivery, and acknowledgement of successful delivery.

1.4 The Different GSM-Based Networks

Different frequency bands are used for GSM 900, GSM1800 and GSM 1900 (Table 1.3.). In some countries, an operator applies for the available frequencies. In other countries, e.g. United States, an operator purchases available frequency bands at auctions.

Table 1.3 Frequency Bands for the Different GSM-Based Networks

Network type	Frequency band UL / DL	Implementations
GSM 900	890-915 / 935-960 MHz	GSM 900
GSM1800	1710 – 1785 / 1805 -1880 MHz	GSM 1800
GSM1900	1850-1910 / 1930-1990 MHz	GSM1900

1.4.1 Where are GSM Frequencies Used?

GSM networks presently operate in three different frequency ranges. These are:

a) GSM 900

(Also called GSM) operates in the 900 MHz frequency range and is the most common in Europe and the world.

b) GSM 1800

(Also called PCN (Personal Communication Network), and DCS 1800) - operates in the 1800 MHz frequency range and is found in a rapidly-increasing number of countries including France, Germany, Switzerland, the UK, and Russia. A European Commission mandate requires European Union members to license at least one DCS 1800 operator before 1998.

c) GSM 1900

(Also called PCS (Personal Communication Services), PCS 1900, and DCS 1900) - the only frequency used in the United States and Canada for GSM. Note that the terms PCS is commonly used to refer to any digital cellular network operating in the1900 MHz frequency range, not just GSM.

2. GSM STRUCTURE

2.1 Overview

GSM as the modern telecommunication system is a complex object. Its implementation and operation are not simple task, neither easy its description.

The GSM architecture consists of four parts: the Mobile Station (MS), the Base Station Subsystem (BBS), the Network Switching Subsystem (NSS), and operation and support Subsystem em (OSS).

2.2 Services provided by GSM

From the beginning, the planners of GSM wanted ISDN compatibility in terms of the services offered and the control signaling used. However, radio transmission limitations, in terms of bandwidth and cost, do not allow the standard ISDN B-channel bit rate of 64 kbps to be practically achieved.

Using the ITU-T definition, telecommunication services can be divided into bearer services, tale services, and supplementary services. The most basic tale service supported by GSM is telephony. As with all other communications, speech is digitally encoded and transmitted through the GSM network as a digital stream. There is also an emergency service, where the nearest emergency-service provider is notified by dialing three digits (similar to 911).

A variety of data services is offered. GSM users can send and receive data, at rates up to 9600 bps, to users on POTS (Plain Old Telephone Service), ISDN, Packet Switched Public Data Networks, and Circuit Switched Public Data Networks using a variety of access methods and protocols, such as X.25 or X.32. Since GSM is a digital network, a modem is not required between the user and GSM network, although an audio modem is required inside the GSM network to inter work with POTS.

Other data services include Group 3 facsimile, as described in ITU-T recommendation T.30, which is supported by use of an appropriate fax adaptor. A unique feature of GSM, not found in older analog systems, is the Short Message Service (SMS). SMS is a bidirectional service for short alphanumeric (up to 160 bytes) messages. Messages are transported in a store-and-forward fashion. For point-to-point SMS, a message can be sent to another subscriber to the service, and an acknowledgement of receipt is provided to the sender. SMS can also be used in a cell-broadcast mode, for sending messages such as traffic updates or news updates. Messages can also be stored in the SIM card for later retrieval.

Supplementary services are provided on top of tale services or bearer services. In the current (Phase I) specifications, they include several forms of call forward (such as call forwarding when the mobile subscriber is unreachable by the network), and call barring of outgoing or incoming calls, for example when roaming in another country. Many additional supplementary services will be provided in the Phase 2 specifications, such as caller identification, call waiting, multi-party conversations.

2.3 Architecture of the GSM network

A GSM network is composed of several functional entities, whose functions and interfaces are specified. Figure 1 shows the layout of a generic GSM network. The GSM network can be divided into three broad parts. The Mobile Station is carried by the subscriber. The Base Station Subsystem controls the radio link with the Mobile Station. The Network Subsystem, the main part of which is the Mobile services Switching Center (MSC), performs the switching of calls between the mobile users, and between mobile and fixed network users. The MSC also handles the mobility management operations. Not shown is the Operations and Maintenance Center, which oversees the proper operation and setup of the network. The Mobile Station and the Base Station Subsystem communicate across the Um interface, also known as the air interface or radio link. The Base Station Subsystem communicates with the Mobile services Switching Center across the A interface.

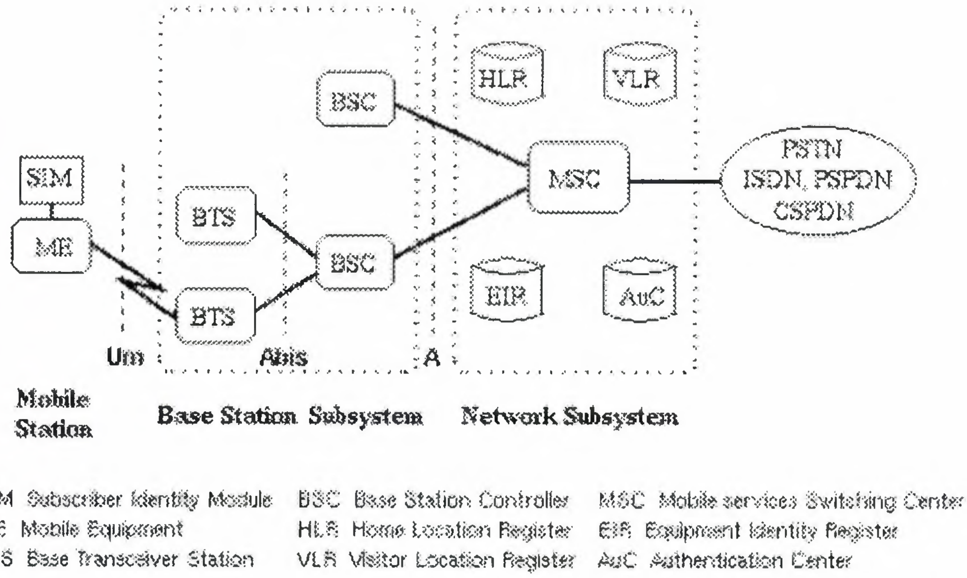


Figure 2.1 General architecture of a GSM network

2.3.1 Mobile Station

A Mobile station consists of two main elements: the Mobile Terminal (MT) and the subscriber Identity Module (SIM). There are different types of terminals distinguished principally by their power and application. The `fixed` terminals are the ones installed in cars. Their maximum allowed output power is 20 W. The handheld terminals have experienced the biggest success thanks to their weight and volume, which are continuously decreasing. These terminals can emit up to 2 W. The evolution of technologies allows to decrees the maximum allowed power to 0.8 W.

THE SIM CARD

The SIM card is a smart card that identifies the terminal, By inserting the SIM card into the terminal, the user can have access to all the services. Without the SIM card, the terminal is not operational. The SIM card is protected by a four-digit personal Identification Number (PIN). In order to identify the subscriber to the system . The SIM card contains some parameters of the user such as its international Mobile Identity (IMSI). Another advantage of the SIM card is the mobility of the users. In fact, the only element that personalizes a terminal is the SIM card. Therefore, the user can have access to its subscribed services in any terminal using its SIM card.

2.3.2 Base Station Subsystem

The Base Station System connects the Mobile Station and the MSC. It is in charge of the transmission and reception. The BSS can be divided into two parts: a) The Base Transceiver Station (BTS), b) Base Station and The Base Station Controller (BSC).

a) The Base Transceiver Station

The BTS corresponds to the transceivers and antennas in each cell of the network. A BTS is usually placed in the center of a cell. Its transmitting power defines the size of cell.

b) The Base Station Controller

The BSC controls a group of BTS and manages their radio resources. A BSC is principally in charge of handovers, frequency hoping, exchange functions and control of the radio frequency power of the BTSs. BSC can act as a concentrator for the links between the Abis and Asub interfaces. The BSC involves a separate Transcending And Rate Adaptation Unit (TRAU) for speech coding and data rate adaptation.

2.3.3 Network Switching System (NSS)

Mobile Switching Centre (MSC) is a stored-program controlled digital witching centre. The MSC is the switching centre in the PLMN, which

- acts as a gateway to other networks.
- Is linked to other MSCs in the PLMN,
- Connects the network elements of the NSS with the network elements of the BSS in the coverage area pf PLMN. The MSC has functions that are familiar from the switching centers of the fixed networks as well as special functions that are not necessary in the switching centers of the fixed networks. There are some registers related to the network switching subsystem (NSS) like a) (VLR) and b) (HLR) c) The Equipment Identity Register (EIR) d) International Mobile Subscriber Identity (IMSI) Number e) Mobile subscriber ISDN (MSISDN) Number

a) VLR (Visitor Location Register)

A Visitor Location Register (VLR) is a database which contains temporary information concerning the mobile subscribers that are currently located in a given MSC serving area, but whose Home Location Register (HLR) is elsewhere.

When a mobile subscriber roams away from his home location and into a remotelocation, SS7 messages are used to obtain information about the subscriber from the HLR, and to create a temporary record for the subscriber in the VLR. There is usually one VLR per MSC

b) HLR (HOME LOCATION REGISTER)

A Home Location Register (HLR) is a database that contains semi-permanent mobile subscriber information for a wireless carriers' entire subscriber base. HLR subscriber information includes the International Mobile Subscriber Identity (IMSI), service subscription information, location information (the identity of the currently serving Visitor Location Register (VLR) to enable the routing of mobile-terminated calls), service restrictions and supplementary services information The HLR handles SS7 transactions with both Mobile Switching Centers (MSCs) and VLR nodes, which either request information from the HLR or update the information contained within the HLR. The HLR also initiates transactions with VLRs to complete incoming calls and to update subscriber data.

Traditional wireless network design is based on the utilization of a single Home Location Register (HLR) for each wireless network, but growth considerations are prompting carriers to consider multiple HLR topologies.

c) The Equipment Identity Register (EIR)

The Equipment Identity Register (EIR) is an optional register. Its purpose is to register IMEIs of mobile stations in use. By implementing the EIR the network provider can blacklist malfunctioning MSs or even receive reports to the operations centre when stolen mobile stations are used to make calls.

The IMSI is a unique non-dial able number allocated to each mobile subscriber in the GSM system that identifies the subscriber and his or her subscription within the GSM network. The IMSI resides in the Subscriber Identity Module (SIM), which is transportable across Mobile Station Equipment (MSE). The IMSI is made up of three parts (1) the mobile country code (MCC) consisting of three digits, (2) the Mobile Network Code (MNC) consisting of two digits, and (3) the Mobile Subscriber Identity Number (MSIN) with up to 10 digits.

e) Mobile subscriber ISDN (MSISDN) Number

The MSISDN is the dial able number that callers use to reach a mobile subscriber. Some phones can support multiple MSISDNs - for example, a U.S.-based MSISDN and a Canadian-based MSISDN. Callers dialing either number will reach the subscriber.

2.4 Radio link aspects

The International Telecommunication Union (ITU), which manages the international allocation of radio spectrum (among many other functions), allocated the bands 890-915 MHz for the uplink (mobile station to base station) and 935-960 MHz for the downlink (base station to mobile station) for mobile networks in Europe. Since this range was already being used in the early 1980s by the analog systems of the day, the CEPT had the foresight to reserve the top 10 MHz of each band for the GSM network that was still being developed. Eventually, GSM will be allocated the entire 2x25 MHz bandwidth.

2.4.1 Multiple access and channel structure

Since radio spectrum is a limited resource shared by all users, a method must be devised to divide up the bandwidth among as many users as possible. The method chosen by GSM is a combination of Time- and Frequency-Division Multiple Access (TDMA/FDMA). The FDMA part involves the division by frequency of the (maximum) 25 MHz bandwidth into 124 carrier frequencies spaced 200 kHz apart. One or more carrier frequencies are assigned to each base station. Each of these carrier frequencies is then divided in time, using a TDMA scheme. The fundamental unit of time in this TDMA scheme is called a *burst period* and it lasts 15/26 ms (or approx. 0.577 ms). Eight burst periods are grouped into a *TDMA frame* (120/26 ms, or approx. 4.615 ms), which forms the basic unit for the definition of logical channels. One physical channel is one burst period per TDMA frame.

Channels are defined by the number and position of their corresponding burst periods. All these definitions are cyclic, and the entire pattern repeats approximately every 3 hours. Channels can be divided into *dedicated channels*, which are allocated to a mobile station, and *common channels*, which are used by mobile stations in idle mode.

2.4.1.1. Traffic channels

A traffic channel (TCH) is used to carry speech and data traffic. Traffic channels are defined using a 26-frame multi frame, or group of 26 TDMA frames. The length of a 26-frame multi frame is 120 ms, which is how the length of a burst period is defined (120 ms divided by 26 frames divided by 8 burst periods per frame). Out of the 26 frames, 24 are used for traffic, 1 is used for the Slow Associated Control Channel (SACCH) and 1 is currently unused (see Figure 2). TCHs for the uplink and downlink are separated in time by 3 burst periods, so that the mobile station does not have to transmit and receive simultaneously, thus simplifying the electronics.

In addition to these *full-rate* TCHs, there are also *half-rate* TCHs defined, although they are not yet implemented. Half-rate TCHs will effectively double the capacity of a system once half-rate speech coders are specified (i.e., speech coding at around 7 kbps, instead of 13 kbps). Eighth-rate TCHs are also specified, and are used for signaling. In the recommendations, they are called Stand-alone Dedicated Control Channels (SDCCH).

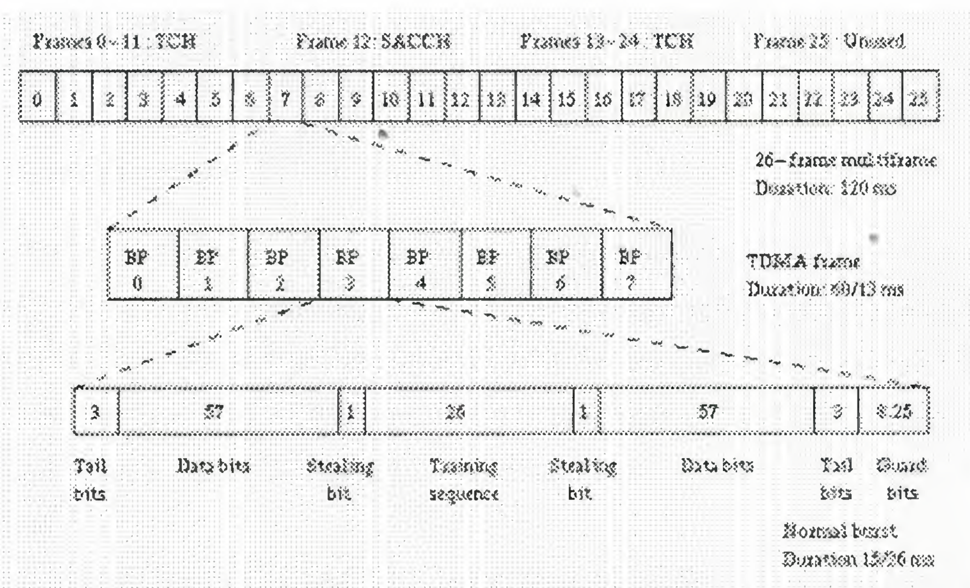


Figure 2.2 Organization of bursts, TDMA frames, and multi frames for speech and data

2.4.1.2 Control channels

Common channels can be accessed both by idle mode and dedicated mode mobiles. The common channels are used by idle mode mobiles to exchange the signaling information required to change to dedicated mode. Mobiles already in dedicated mode monitor the surrounding base stations for handover and other information. The common channels are defined within a 51-frame multi frame, so that dedicated mobiles using the 26-frame multi frame TCH structure can still monitor control channels. The common channels include:

Broadcast Control Channel (BCCH)

Continually broadcasts, on the downlink, information including base station identity, frequency allocations, and frequency-hopping sequences.

Frequency Correction Channel (FCCH) and Synchronization Channel (SCH)

Used to synchronies the mobile to the time slot structure of a cell by defining the boundaries of burst periods, and the time slot numbering . Every cell in a GSM network broadcasts exactly one FCCH and one SCH, which are by definition on time slot number 0 (within a TDMA frame).

Random Access Channel (RACH)

Slotted Aloha channel used by the mobile to request access to the network.

Paging Channel (PCH)

Used to alert the mobile station of an incoming call .

Access Grant Channel (AGCH)

Used to allocate an SDCCH to a mobile for signaling (in order to obtain a dedicated channel), following a request on the RACH.

2.4.1.3 Burst structure

There are four different types of bursts used for transmission in GSM. The normal burst is used to carry data and most signaling. It has a total length of 156.25 bits, made up of two 57 bit information bits, a 26 bit training sequence used for equalization, 1 stealing bit for each information block (used for FACCH), 3 tail bits at each end, and an 8.25 bit guard sequence, as shown in Figure 2. The 156.25 bits are transmitted in 0.577 ms, giving a gross bit rate of 270.833 kbps.

The F burst, used on the FCCH, and the S burst, used on the SCH, have the same length as a normal burst, but a different internal structure, which differentiates them from normal bursts

(Thus allowing synchronization). The access burst is shorter than the normal burst, and is used only on the RACH.

2.4.2 Speech coding

GSM is a digital system, so speech which is inherently analog, has to be digitized. the method employed by isdn, and by current telephone systems for multiplexing voice lines over high speed trunks and optical fiber lines, is pulse coded modulation (PCM). The output stream from PCM is 64 kbps, too high a rate to be feasible over a radio link. the 64 kbps signal, although simple to implement, contains much redundancy. the GSM group studied several speech coding algorithms on the basis of subjective speech quality and complexity (which is related to cost, processing delay, and power consumption once implemented) before arriving at the choice of a Regular Pulse Excited -- Linear Predictive Coder (RPE--LPC) with a Long Term Predictor loop. Basically, information from previous samples, which does not change very quickly, is used to predict the current sample. The coefficients of the linear combination of the previous samples, plus an encoded form of the residual, the difference between the predicted and actual sample, represent the signal. Speech is divided into 20 millisecond samples, each of which is encoded as 260 bits, giving a total bit rate of 13 kbps. This is the so-called Full-Rate speech coding. Recently, an Enhanced Full-Rate (EFR) speech coding algorithm has been implemented by some North American GSM1900 operators. This is said to provide improved speech quality using the existing 13 kbps bit rate.

2.4.3 Channel coding and modulation

Stems (at least for Because of natural and man-made electromagnetic interference, the encoded speech or data signal transmitted over the radio interface must be protected from errors. GSM uses convolution encoding and block interleaving to achieve this protection. The exact algorithms used differ for speech and for different data rates. The method used for speech blocks will be described below. Recall that the speech codec produces a 260 bit block for every 20 ms speech sample. From subjective testing, it was found that some bits of this block were more important for perceived speech quality than others. The bits are thus divided into three classes:

- **Class Ia** 50 bits - most sensitive to bit errors
- **Class Ib** 132 bits - moderately sensitive to bit errors
- **Class II** 78 bits - least sensitive to bit errors

Class Ia bits have a 3 bit Cyclic Redundancy Code added for error detection. If an error is detected, the frame is judged too damaged to be comprehensible and it is discarded. It is replaced by a slightly attenuated version of the previous correctly received frame. These 53 bits, together with the 132 Class Ib bits and a 4 bit tail sequence (a total of 189 bits), are input into a 1/2 rate convolution encoder of constraint length 4. Each input bit is encoded as two output bits, based on a combination of the previous 4 input bits. The convolution encoder thus outputs 378 bits, to which are added the 78 remaining Class II bits, which are unprotected. Thus every 20 ms speech sample is encoded as 456 bits, giving a bit rate of 22.8 kbps. To further protect against the burst errors common to the radio interface, each sample is interleaved. The 456 bits output by the convolution encoder are divided into 8 blocks of 57 bits, and these blocks are transmitted in eight consecutive time-slot bursts. Since each time-slot burst can carry two 57 bit blocks, each burst carries traffic from two different speech samples. Recall that each time-slot burst is transmitted at a gross bit rate of 270.833 kbps. This digital signal is modulated onto the analog carrier frequency using Gaussian-filtered Minimum Shift Keying (GMSK). GMSK was selected over other modulation schemes as a compromise between spectral efficiency, complexity of the transmitter, and limited spurious emissions. The complexity of the transmitter is related to power consumption, which should be minimized for the mobile station. The spurious radio emissions, outside of the allotted bandwidth, must be strictly controlled so as to limit adjacent channel interference, and allow for the co-existence of GSM and the older analog system the time being).

2.4.4 Multipath equalization

At the 900 MHz range, radio waves bounce off everything - buildings, hills, cars, airplanes, etc. Thus many reflected signals, each with a different phase, can reach an antenna. Equalization is used to extract the desired signal from the unwanted reflections. It works by finding out how a known transmitted signal is modified by multi path fading, and constructing an inverse filter to extract the rest of the desired signal. This known signal is the 26-bit training sequence transmitted in the middle of every time-slot burst. The actual implementation of the equalizer is not specified in the GSM specifications.

2.4.5 Frequency hopping

The mobile station already has to be frequency agile, meaning it can move between a transmit , receive, and monitor time slot within one TDMA frame, which normally are on different frequencies. GSM makes use of this inherent frequency agility to implement slow frequency hopping, where the mobile and BTS transmit each TDMA frame on a different carrier frequency. The frequency hopping algorithm is broadcast on the Broadcast Control Channel. Since multi path fading is dependent on carrier frequency, slow frequency hopping helps alleviate the problem. In addition, co-channel interference is in effect randomized.

2.4.6. Discontinuous transmission

Minimizing co-channel interference is a goal in any cellular system, since it allows better service for a given cell size, or the use of smaller cells, thus increasing the overall capacity of the system. Discontinuous transmission (DTX) is a method that takes advantage of the fact that a person speaks less that 40 percent of the time in normal conversation, by turning the transmitter off during silence periods. An added benefit of DTX is that power is conserved at the mobile unit.

The most important component of DTX is, of course, Voice Activity Detection. It must distinguish between voice and noise inputs, a task that is not as trivial as it appears, considering background noise. If a voice signal is misinterpreted as noise, the transmitter is turned off and a very annoying effect called clipping is heard at the receiving end. If, on the other hand, noise is misinterpreted as a voice signal too often, the efficiency of DTX is dramatically decreased. Another factor to consider is that when the transmitter is turned off, there is total silence heard at the receiving end, due to the digital nature of GSM. To assure the receiver that the connection is not dead, *comfort noise* is created at the receiving end by trying to match the characteristics of the transmitting end's background noise.

2.4.7 Discontinuous reception

Another method used to conserve power at the mobile station is discontinuous reception. The paging channel, used by the base station to signal an incoming call, is structured into sub-channels. Each mobile station needs to listen only to its own sub-channel. In the time between successive paging sub-channels, the mobile can go into sleep mode, when almost no power is used.

2.4.8 Power control

There are five classes of mobile stations defined, according to their peak transmitter power, rated at 20, 8, 5, 2, and 0.8 watts. To minimize co-channel interference and to conserve power, both the mobiles and the Base Transceiver Stations operate at the lowest power level that will maintain an acceptable signal quality. Power levels can be stepped up or down in steps of 2 dB from the peak power for the class down to a minimum of 13 dBm (20 milli watts).

The mobile station measures the signal strength or signal quality (based on the Bit Error Ratio), and passes the information to the Base Station Controller, which ultimately decides if and when the power level should be changed. Power control should be handled carefully, since there is the possibility of instability. This arises from having mobiles in co-channel cells alternating increase their power in response to increased co-channel interference caused by the other mobile increasing its power. This in unlikely to occur in practice but it is (or was as of 1991) under study.

2.5 Network aspects

Ensuring the transmission of voice or data of a given quality over the radio link is only part of the function of a cellular mobile network. A GSM mobile can seamlessly roam nationally and internationally, which requires that registration, authentication, call routing and location updating functions exist and are standardized in GSM networks. In addition, the fact that the geographical area covered by the network is divided into cells necessitates the implementation of a handover mechanism. These functions are performed by the Network Subsystem, mainly using the Mobile Application Part (MAP) built on top of the Signaling System No. 7 protocol.

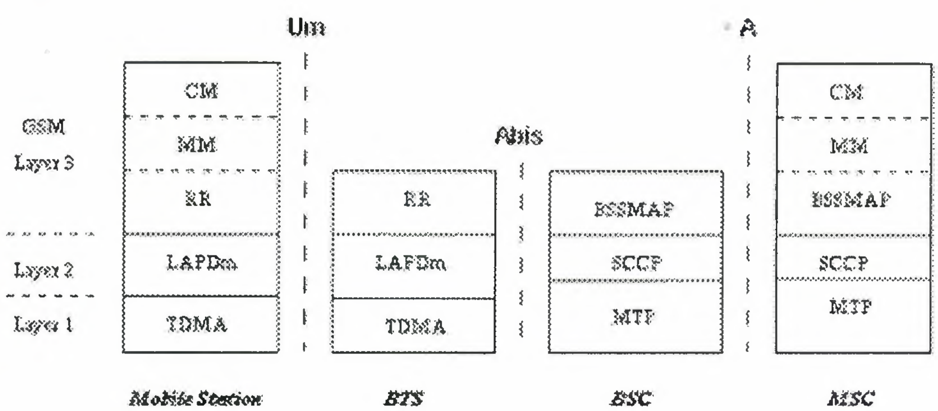


Figure 2.3 Signaling protocol structure in GSM

The signaling protocol in GSM is structured into three general layers, depending on the interface, as shown in Figure 3. Layer 1 is the physical layer, which uses the channel structures discussed above over the air interface. Layer 2 is the data link layer. Across the Um interface, the data link layer is a modified version of the LAPD protocol used in ISDN, called LAPDm. Across the A interface, the Message Transfer Part layer 2 of Signaling System Number 7 is used. Layer 3 of the GSM signaling protocol is itself divided into 3 sub layers.

Radio Resources Management
Controls the setup, maintenance, and termination of radio and fixed channels, including handovers.
Mobility Management
Manages the location updating and registration procedures, as well as security and authentication .
Connection Management

Handles general call control, similar to CCITT Recommendation Q.931, and manage Supplementary Services and the Short Message Service.

Signaling between the different entities in the fixed part of the network, such as between the HLR and VLR, is accomplished thought the Mobile Application Part (MAP). MAP is built on top of the Transaction Capabilities Application Part (TCAP, the top layer of Signaling System Number 7. The specification of the MAP is quite complex, and at over 500 pages, it is one of the longest documents in the GSM recommendations.

2.5.1 Radio resources management

The radio resources management (RR) layer oversees the establishment of a link, both radio and fixed, between the mobile station and the MSC. The main functional components involved are the mobile station, and the Base Station Subsystem, as well as the MSC. The RR layer is concerned with the management of an RR-session, which is the time that a mobile is in dedicated mode, as well as the configuration of radio channels including the allocation of dedicated channels.
An RR-session is always initiated by a mobile station through the access procedure, either for an outgoing call, or in response to a paging message. The details of the access and paging procedures, such as when a dedicated channel is actually assigned to the mobile, and the paging sub-channel structure, are handled in the RR layer. In addition, it handles the

management of radio features such as power control, discontinuous transmission and reception, and timing advance.

2.5.1.1 Handover

In a cellular network, the radio and fixed links required are not permanently allocated for the duration of a call. Handover, or handoff as it is called in North America, is the switching of an on-going call to a different channel or cell. The execution and measurements required for handover form one of basic functions of the RR layer.

There are four different types of handover in the GSM system, which involve transferring a call between:

- Channels (time slots) in the same cell
- Cells (Base Transceiver Stations) under the control of the same Base Station Controller (BSC),
- Cells under the control of different BSCs, but belonging to the same Mobile services Switching Center (MSC), and
- Cells under the control of different MSCs.

The first two types of handover, called internal handovers, involve only one Base Station Controller (BSC). To save signaling bandwidth, they are managed by the BSC without involving the Mobile services Switching Center (MSC), except to notify it at the completion of the handover. The last two types of handover, called external handovers, are handled by the MSCs involved. An important aspect of GSM is that the original MSC, the *anchor MSC*, remains responsible for most call-related functions, with the exception of subsequent inter-BSC handovers under the control of the new MSC, called the *relay MSC*.

Handovers can be initiated by either the mobile or the MSC (as a means of traffic load balancing). During its idle time slots, the mobile scans the Broadcast Control Channel of up to 16 neighboring cells, and forms a list of the six best candidates for possible handover, based on the received signal strength. This information is passed to the BSC and MSC, at least once per second, and is used by the handover algorithm.

The algorithm for when a handover decision should be taken is not specified in the GSM recommendations . There are two basic algorithms used, both closely tied in with power control. This is because the BSC usually does not know whether the poor signal quality is due to multi path fading or to the mobile having moved to another cell. This is especially true in small urban cells. The 'minimum acceptable performance' algorithm gives precedence to power control over handover, so that when the signal degrades beyond a certain point, the power level of the mobile is increased. If further power increases do not improve the signal, then a handover is considered. This is the simpler and more common method, but it creates 'smeared' cell boundaries when a mobile transmitting at peak power goes some distance beyond its original cell boundaries into another cell. The 'power budget' method uses handover to try to maintain or improve a certain level of signal quality at the same or lower power level. It thus gives precedence to handover over power control. It avoids the 'smeared' cell boundary problem and reduces co-channel interference, but it is quite complicated.

2.5.2 Mobility management

The Mobility Management layer (MM) is built on top of the RR layer, and handles the functions that arise from the mobility of the subscriber, as well as the authentication and security aspects. Location management is concerned with the procedures that enable the system to know the current location of a powered-on mobile station so that incoming call routing can be completed. The Mobility Management function is in charge of all the aspects related with the mobility of the user, specially the location management, the authentication and security.

2.5.2.1 Location updating

A powered-on mobile is informed of an incoming call by a paging message sent over the PAGCH channel of a cell. One extreme would be to page every cell in the network for each call, which is obviously a waste of radio bandwidth. The other extreme would be for the mobile to notify the system, via location updating messages, of its current location at the individual cell level. This would require paging messages to be sent to exactly one cell, but would be very wasteful due to the large number of location updating messages. A compromise solution used in GSM is to group cells into *location areas*. Updating messages are required when moving between location areas, and mobile stations are paged in the cells of their current location area.

The location updating procedures, and subsequent call routing, use the MSC and two location registers: the Home Location Register (HLR) and the Visitor Location Register (VLR). When a mobile station is switched on in a new location area, or it moves to a new location area or different operator's PLMN, it must register with the network to indicate its current location. In the normal case, a location update message is sent to the new MSC/VLR, which records the location area information, and then sends the location information to the subscriber's HLR. The information sent to the HLR is normally the SS7 address of the new VLR, although it may be a routing number. The reason a routing number is not normally assigned, even though it would reduce signaling, is that there is only a limited number of routing numbers available in the new MSC/VLR and they are allocated on demand for incoming calls. If the subscriber is entitled to service, the HLR sends a subset of the subscriber information, needed for call control, to the new MSC/VLR, and sends a message to the old MSC/VLR to cancel the old registration.

For reliability reasons, GSM also has a periodic location updating procedure. If an HLR or MSC/VLR fails, to have each mobile register simultaneously to bring the database up to date would cause overloading. Therefore, the database is updated as location updating events occur. The enabling of periodic updating, and the time period between periodic updates, is controlled by the operator, and is a trade-off between signaling traffic and speed of recovery. If a mobile does not register after the updating time period, it is deregistered.

A procedure related to location updating is the IMSI attach and detach. A detach lets the network know that the mobile station is unreachable, and avoids having to needlessly allocate channels and send paging messages. An attach is similar to a location update, and informs the system that the mobile is reachable again. The activation of IMSI attach/detach is up to the operator on an individual cell basis.

2.5.2.2 Authentication and security

The SIM card are the Authentication Centre are used for the authentication procedure. A secret key, stored in the SIM card and the AC, and a ciphering algorithm is used in order to verify th authenticity of the user. The mobile station and the AC compute a SRES (Signed Results) using the secret key, the algorithm A3 and a random number generated by the AC. If the two computed SRES are the same, the subscriber is authenticated. The different services to which the subscriber has access are also checked.

Another security procedure is to check the equipment identity. If the IMEI number of the mobile is authorized in the EIR, the mobile station is allowed to connect the network. In order to assure user confidentiality, the user is registered with a Temporary Mobile Subscriber Identity (TMSI) after its first location update procedure.

Since the radio medium can be accessed by anyone, authentication of users to prove that they are who they claim to be, is a very important element of a mobile network. Authentication involves two functional entities, the SIM card in the mobile, and the Authentication Center (AuC). Each subscriber is given a secret key, one copy of which is stored in the SIM card and the other in the AuC. During authentication, the AuC generates a random number that it sends to the mobile. Both the mobile and the AuC then use the random number, in conjunction with the subscriber's secret key and a ciphering algorithm called A3, to generate a signed response (SRES) that is sent back to the AuC. If the number sent by the mobile is the same as the one calculated by the AuC, the subscriber is authenticated.

The same initial random number and subscriber key are also used to compute the ciphering key using an algorithm called A8. This ciphering key, together with the TDMA frame number, use the A5 algorithm to create a 114 bit sequence that is XORed with the 114 bits of a burst (the two 57 bit blocks). Enciphering is an option for the fairly paranoid, since the signal is already coded, interleaved, and transmitted in a TDMA manner, thus providing protection from all but the most persistent and dedicated eavesdroppers.

Another level of security is performed on the mobile equipment itself, as opposed to the mobile subscriber. As mentioned earlier, each GSM terminal is identified by a unique International Mobile Equipment Identity (IMEI) number. A list of IMEIs in the network is stored in the Equipment Identity Register (EIR). The status returned in response to an IMEI query to the EIR is one of the following:

White-listed
The terminal is allowed to connect to the network.
Grey-listed
The terminal is under observation from the network for possible problems.

Black-listed

The terminal has either been reported stolen, or is not type approved (the correct type of terminal for a GSM network). The terminal is not allowed to connect to the network.

2.5.3 Communication management

The Communication Management layer (CM) is responsible for Call Control (CC), supplementary service management, and short message service management. Each of these may be considered as a separate sub layer within the CM layer. Call control attempts to follow the ISDN procedures specified in Q.931, although routing to a roaming mobile subscriber is obviously unique to GSM. Other functions of the CC sub layer include call establishment, selection of the type of service (including alternating between services during a call), and call release.

2.5.3.1 Call routing

Unlike routing in the fixed network, where a terminal is semi-permanently wired to a central office, a GSM user can roam nationally and even internationally. The directory number dialed to reach a mobile subscriber is called the Mobile Subscriber ISDN (MSISDN), which is defined by the E.164 numbering plan. This number includes a country code and a National Destination Code which identifies the subscriber's operator. The first few digits of the remaining subscriber number may identify the subscriber's HLR within the home PLMN.

An incoming mobile terminating call is directed to the Gateway MSC (GMSC) function. The GMSC is basically a switch which is able to interrogate the subscriber's HLR to obtain routing infor□□□□□□□□□□□□□thus contains a table linking MSISDNs to their corresponding HLR. A simplification is to have a GSMC handle one specific PLMN. It should be noted that the GMSC function is distinct from the MSC function, but is usually implemented in an MSC.

The routing information that is returned to the GMSC is the Mobile Station Roaming Number (MSRN), which is also defined by the E.164 numbering plan. MSRNs are related to the geographical numbering plan, and not assigned to subscribers, nor are they visible to subscribers.

VLR, and does not have the MSRN (see the location updating section). The HLR must therefore query the subscriber's current VLR, which will temporarily allocate an MSRN from its pool for the call. This MSRN is returned to the HLR and back to the GMSC, which can then route the call to the new MSC. At the new MSC, the IMSI corresponding to the MSRN is looked up, and the mobile is paged in its current location area (see Figure 4).

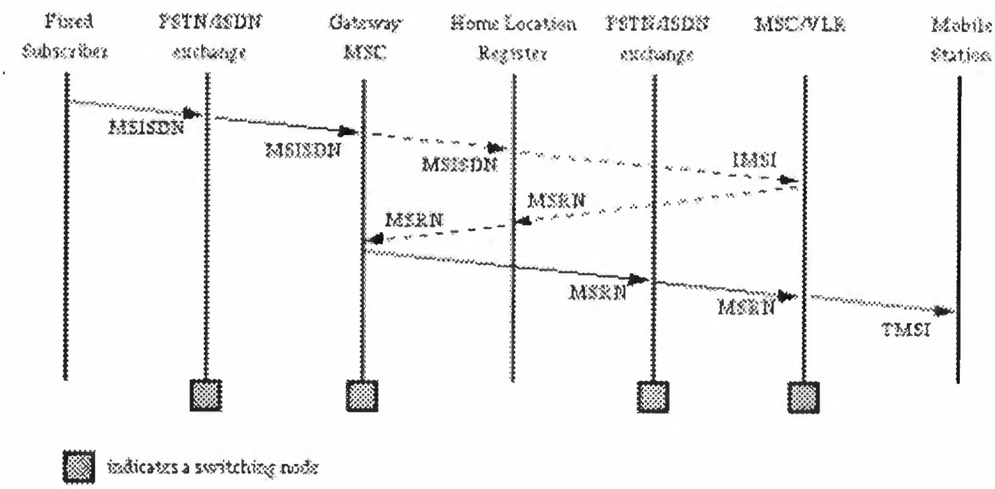


Figure 2.4 Call routing for a mobile terminating call

2.6 Conclusion and comments

In this paper I have tried to give an overview of the GSM system. As with any overview, and especially one covering standard 6000 pages long, there are many details missing. I believe, however, that I gave the general flavor of GSM and the philosophy behind its design. It was a monumental task that the original GSM committee undertook, and one that has proven a success, showing that international cooperation on such projects between academia, industry, and government can succeed. It is a standard that ensures interoperability without stifling competition and innovation among suppliers, to the benefit of the public both in terms of cost and service quality. For example, by using Very Large Scale Integration (VLSI) microprocessor technology, many functions of the mobile station can be built on one chipset, resulting in lighter, more compact and more energy-efficient terminals.

Telecommunications are evolving towards personal communication networks, whose objective can be stated as the availability of all communication services anytime, anywhere, to anyone, by a single identity number and a pocket able communication terminal. Having a multitude of incompatible systems throughout the world moves us farther away from this ideal. The economies of scale created by a unified system are enough to justify its implementation, not to mention the convenience to people of carrying just one communication terminal anywhere they go, regardless of national boundaries.

The GSM system, and its sibling systems operating at 1.8 GHz (called DCS1800) and 1.9 GHz (called GSM1900 or PCS1900, and operating in North America), are a first approach at a true personal communication system. The SIM card is a novel approach that implements personal mobility in addition to terminal mobility. Together with international roaming, and support for a variety of services such as telephony, data transfer, fax, Short Message Service, and supplementary services, GSM comes close to fulfilling the requirements for a personal communication system: close enough that it is being used as a basis for the next generation of mobile communication technology in Europe, the Universal Mobile Telecommunication System (UMTS).

Another point where GSM has shown its commitment to openness, standards and interoperability is the compatibility with the Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN) that is evolving in most industrialized countries and Europe in particular (the so-called Euro-ISDN). GSM is also the first system to make extensive use of the Intelligent Networking concept, in which services like 800 numbers are concentrated and handled from a few centralized service centers, instead of being distributed over every switch in the country. This is the concept behind the use of the various registers such as the HLR. In addition, the signaling between these functional entities uses Signaling System Number 7, an international standard already deployed in many countries and specified as the backbone signaling network for ISDN.

GSM is a very complex standard, but that is probably the price that must be paid to achieve the level of integrated service and quality offered while subject to the rather severe restrictions imposed by the radio environment.

3.CELLULAR COMMUNICAIONS

3.1 Overview

This tutorial discusses the basics of radiotelephony systems, including both analog and digital systems. Upon completion of this tutorial, you should be able to accomplish the following:

1. Describe the basic components of a cellular system
2. Identify and describe digital wireless technologies

3.2 Mobile Communications Principles

Each mobile uses a separate, temporary radio channel to talk to the cell site. The cell site talks to many mobiles at once, using one channel per mobile. Channels use a pair of frequencies for communication—one frequency, the forward link, for transmitting from the cell site, and one frequency, the reverse link, for the cell site to receive calls from the users. Radio energy dissipates over distance, so mobiles must stay near the base station to maintain communications. The basic structure of mobile networks includes telephone systems and radio services. Where mobile radio service operates in a closed network and has no access to the telephone system, mobile telephone service allows interconnection to the telephone network (Figure 3.1).

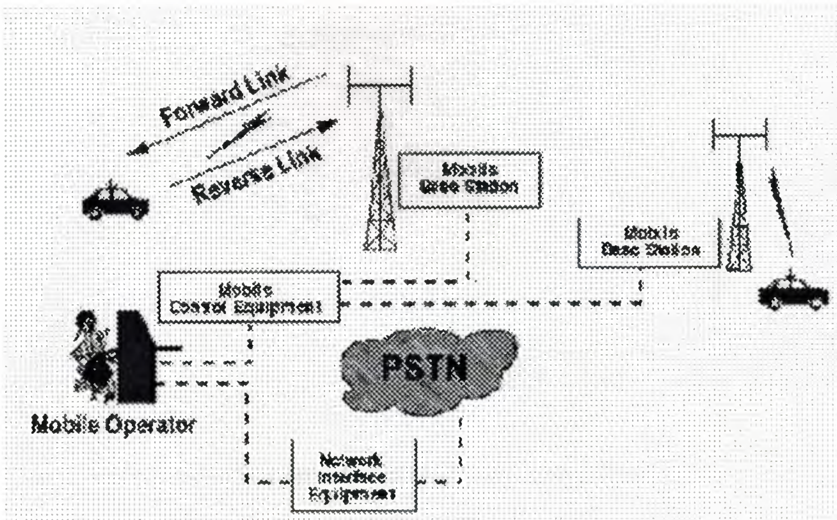


Figure 3.1: Basic Mobile Telephone Service Network

3.2.1 Early Mobile Telephone System Architecture

Traditional mobile service was structured similar to television broadcasting: One very Powerful transmitter located at the highest spot in an area would broadcast in a radius of up to fifty kilometers. The cellular concept" structured the mobile telephone network in a different way. Instead of using one powerful transmitter, many low-power transmitters were placed throughout a coverage area. For example, by dividing a metropolitan region into one hundred different areas (cells) with low-power transmitters using twelve conversations (channels) each, the system capacity theoretically could be increased from twelve conversations or voice channels using one powerful transmitter to twelve hundred conversations (channels) using one hundred low-power transmitters. (Figure 3.2) shows a metropolitan area configured as a traditional mobile telephone network with one high-power transmitter.

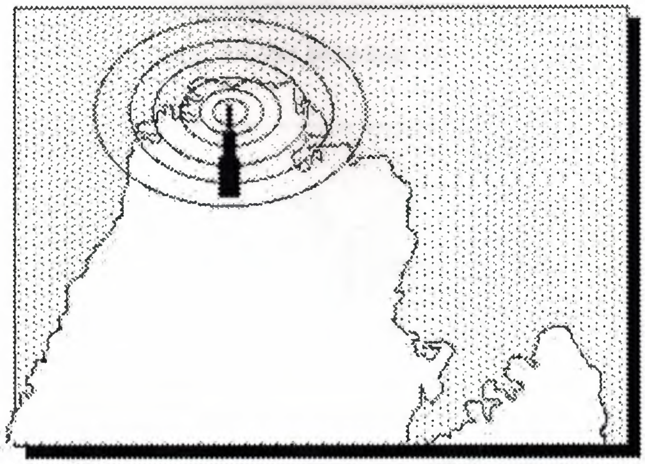


Figure 3.2: Early Mobile Telephone System Architecture

3.3 Mobile Telephone System Using the Cellular Concept

Interference problems caused by mobile units using the same channel in adjacent areas proved that all channels could not be reused in every cell. Areas had to be skipped before the same channel could be reused. Even though this affected the efficiency of the original concept, frequency reuse was still a viable solution to the problems of mobile telephony systems.

Engineers discovered that the interference effects were not due to the distance between areas, but to the ratio of the distance between areas to the transmitter power (radius) of the areas. By reducing the radius of an area by fifty percent, service providers could increase the number of potential customers in an area fourfold. Systems based on areas with a one-kilometer radius would have one hundred times more channels than systems with areas ten kilometers in radius. Speculation led to the conclusion that by reducing the radius of areas to a few hundred meters, millions of calls could be served.

The cellular concept employs variable low-power levels, which allows cells to be sized according to the subscriber density and demand of a given area. As the population grows, cells can be added to accommodate that growth. Frequencies used in one cell cluster can be reused in other cells. Conversations can be handed off from cell to cell to maintain constant phone service as the user moves between cells (Figure 3.3).

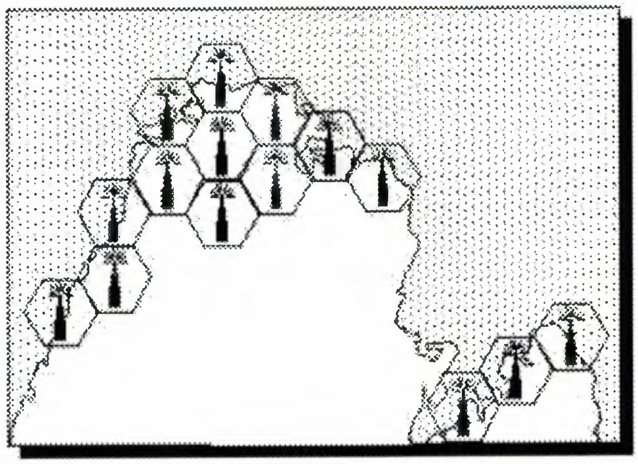


Figure 3.3: Mobile Telephone System Using a Cellular Architecture

The cellular radio equipment (base station) can communicate with mobiles as long as they are within range. Radio energy dissipates over distance, so the mobiles must be within the operating range of the base station. Like the early mobile radio system, the base station communicates with mobiles via a channel. The channel is made of two frequencies, one for transmitting to the base station and one to receive information from the base station.

3.4 Cellular System Architecture

Increases in demand and the poor quality of existing service led mobile service providers to research ways to improve the quality of service and to support more users in their systems. Because the amount of frequency spectrum available for mobile cellular use was limited, efficient use of the required frequencies was needed for mobile cellular coverage. In modern cellular telephony, rural and urban regions are divided into areas according to specific provisioning guidelines. Engineers experienced in cellular system architecture determine deployment parameters, such as amount of cell-splitting and cell sizes.

Provisioning for each region is planned according to an engineering plan that includes cells, clusters, frequency reuse, and handovers.

3.4.1 Cells

A cell is the basic geographic unit of a cellular system. The term *cellular* comes from the honeycomb shape of the areas into which a coverage region is divided. Cells are base stations transmitting over small geographic areas that are represented as hexagons. Each cell size varies depending on the landscape. Because of constraints imposed by natural terrain and man-made structures, the true shape of cells is not a perfect hexagon.

3.4.2 Clusters

A cluster is a group of cells. No channels are reused within a cluster. (Figure3.4) Illustrates a seven-cell cluster.

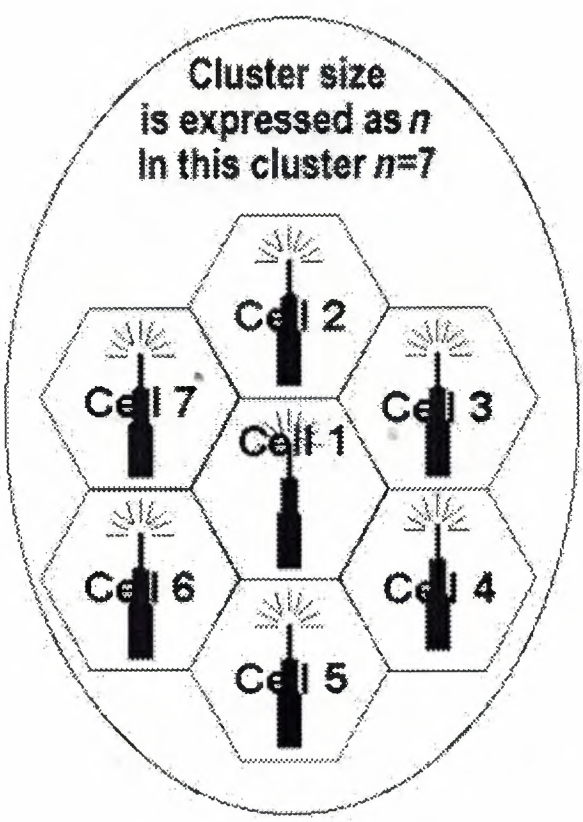


Figure3.4: A Seven-Cell Cluster

3.4.3 Frequency Reuse

Because only a small number of radio channel frequencies were available for mobile systems, engineers had to find a way to reuse radio channels in order to carry more than one conversation at a time. The solution the industry adopted was called frequency planning or frequency reuse. Frequency reuse was implemented by restructuring the mobile telephone system architecture into the cellular concept.

The concept of frequency reuse is based on assigning to each cell a group of radio channels used within a small geographic area. Cells are assigned a group of channels that is completely different from neighboring cells. The coverage area of cells is called the footprint. This footprint is limited by a boundary so that the same group of channels can be used in different cells that are far enough away from each other so that their frequencies do not interfere (Figure 3.5).

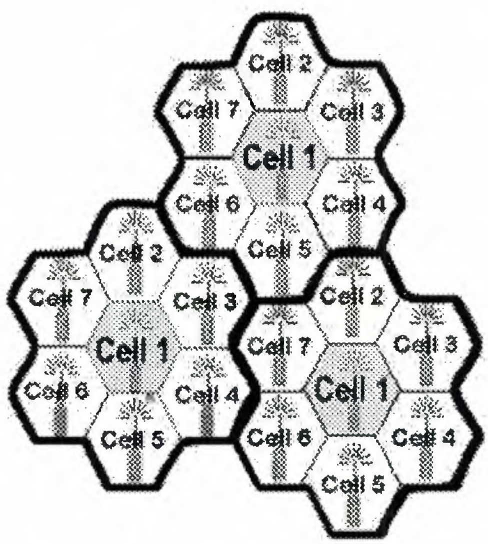


Figure 3.5: Frequency Reuse

Cells with the same number have the same set of frequencies. Here, because the number of available frequencies is 7, the frequency reuse factor is 1/7. That is, each cell is using 1/7 of available cellular channels.

3.4.4 Cell Splitting

Unfortunately, economic considerations made the concept of creating full systems with many small areas impractical. To overcome this difficulty, system operators developed the idea of cell splitting. As a service area becomes full of users, this approach is used to split a single area into smaller ones. In this way, urban centers can be split into as many areas as necessary in order to provide acceptable service levels in heavy-traffic regions, while larger, less expensive cells can be used to cover remote rural regions (Figure 3.6).

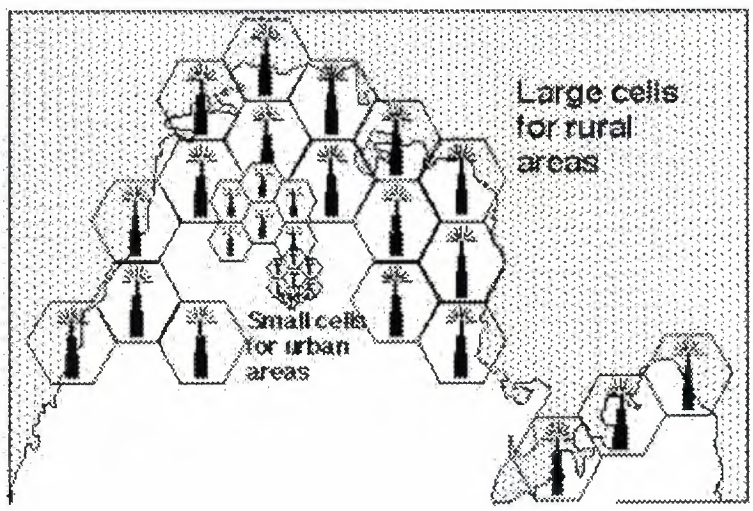


Figure 3.6: Cell Splitting

3.4.5 Handoff

The final obstacle in the development of the cellular network involved the problem created when a mobile subscriber traveled from one cell to another during a call. As adjacent areas do not use the same radio channels, a call must either be dropped or transferred from one radio channel to another when a user crosses the line between adjacent cells. Because dropping the call is unacceptable, the process of handoff was created. Handoff occurs when the mobile telephone network automatically transfers a call from radio channel to radio channel as a mobile crosses adjacent cells (Figure 3.7).

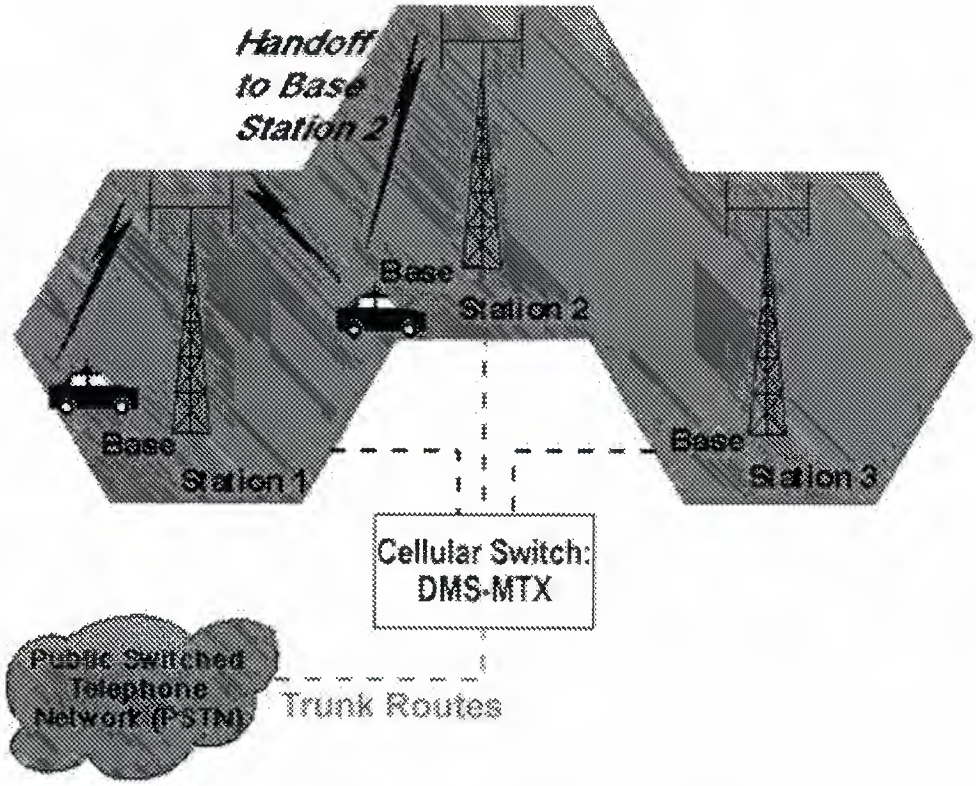


Figure 3.7: Handoff between Adjacent Cells

During a call, two parties are on one voice channel. When the mobile unit moves out of the coverage area of a given cell site, the reception becomes weak. At this point, the cell site in use requests a handoff. The system switches the call to a stronger-frequency channel in a new site without interrupting the call or alerting the user. The call continues as long as the user is talking, and the user does not notice the handoff at all.

3.5 North American Analog Cellular Systems

Originally devised in the late 1970s to early 1980s, analog systems have been revised somewhat since that time and operate in the 800-MHz range. A group of government, Telco, and equipment manufacturers worked together as a committee to develop a set of rules (protocols) that govern how cellular subscriber units (mobiles) communicate with the "cellular system." System development takes into consideration many different, and often opposing, requirements for the system, and often a compromise between conflicting requirements results. Cellular development involves some basic topics:

1. Frequency and channel assignments
2. Type of radio modulation
3. Maximum power levels
4. Modulation parameters
5. Messaging protocols
6. Call-processing sequences

3.5.1 The Advanced Mobile Phone Service (AMPS)

AMPS was released in 1983 using the 800-MHz to 900-MHz frequency band and the 30 kHz bandwidth for each channel as a fully automated mobile telephone service. It was the first standardized cellular service in the world and is currently the most widely used standard for cellular communications. Designed for use in cities, AMPS later expanded to rural areas. It maximized the cellular concept of frequency reuse by reducing radio power output. The AMPS telephones (or handsets) have the familiar telephone-style user interface and are compatible with any AMPS base station. This makes mobility between service providers (roaming) simpler for subscribers. Limitations associated with AMPS include:

1. Low calling capacity
2. Limited spectrum
3. No room for spectrum growth
4. Poor data communications
5. Minimal privacy
6. Inadequate fraud protection

AMPS is used throughout the world and is particularly popular in the United States, South America, China, and Australia. AMPS uses frequency modulation (FM) for radio transmission. In the United States, transmissions from mobile to cell site use separate frequencies from the base station to the mobile subscriber.

3.5.2 Narrowband Analog Mobile Phone Service (NAMPS)

Since analog cellular was developed, systems have been implemented extensively throughout the world as first-generation cellular technology. In the second generation of analog cellular systems, NAMPS was designed to solve the problem of low calling capacity. NAMPS is now operational in 35 U.S. and overseas markets and NAMPS was introduced as an interim solution to capacity problems. NAMPS is a U.S. cellular radio system that combines existing voice processing with digital signaling, tripling the capacity of today's AMPS systems. The NAMPS concept uses frequency division to get three channels in the AMPS 30-kHz single channel bandwidth. NAMPS provides three users in an AMPS channel by dividing the 30-kHz AMPS bandwidth into three 10-kHz channels. This increases the possibility of interference because channel bandwidth is reduced.

3.6 Cellular System Components

The cellular system offers mobile and portable telephone stations the same service provided fixed stations over conventional wired loops. It has the capacity to serve tens of thousands of subscribers in a major metropolitan area. The cellular communications system consists of the following four major components that work together to provide mobile service to subscribers (Figure 3.8):

1. Public switched telephone network (PSTN)
2. Mobile telephone switching office (MTSO)
3. Cell site with antenna system
4. Mobile subscriber unit (MSU)

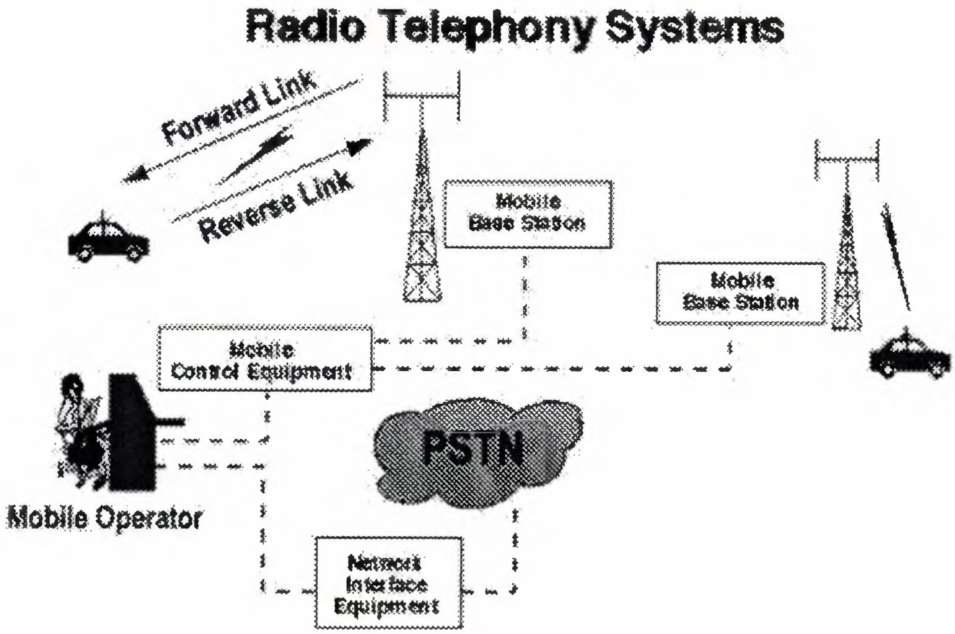


Figure 3.8: Cellular System Components

3.6.1 PSTN

The PSTN is made up of local networks, the exchange area networks, and the long-haul network that interconnect telephones and other communication devices on a worldwide basis.

3.6.2 Mobile Telephone Switching Office (MTSO)

The MTSO is the central office for mobile switching. It houses the mobile switching center (MSC), field monitoring and relay stations for switching calls from cell sites to wire line central offices (PSTN). In analog cellular networks, the MSC controls the system operation. The MSC controls calls, tracks billing information, and locates cellular subscribers.

3.6.3 The Cell Site

The term cell site is used to refer to the physical location of radio equipment that provides coverage within a cell. A list of hardware located at a cell site includes power sources, interface equipment, radio frequency transmitters and receivers, and antenna systems.

3.6.4 Mobile Subscriber Units (MSUs)

The mobile subscriber unit consists of a control unit and a transceiver that transmits and receives radio transmissions to and from a cell site. Three types of MSUs are available:

1. The mobile telephone (typical transmit power is 4.0 watts)
2. The portable (typical transmit power is 0.6 watts)
3. The transportable (typical transmit power is 1.6 watts)

The mobile telephone is installed in the trunk of a car, and the handset is installed in a convenient location to the driver. Portable and transportable telephones are hand-held and can be used anywhere. The use of portable and transportable telephones is limited to the charge life of the internal battery.

3.7 Digital Systems

As demand for mobile telephone service has increased, service providers found that basic engineering assumptions borrowed from wire line (landline) networks did not hold true in mobile systems. While the average landline phone call lasts at least ten minutes, mobile calls usually run ninety seconds. Engineers who expected to assign fifty or more mobile phones to the same radio channel found that by doing so they increased the probability that a user would not get dial tone—this is known as call-blocking probability. As a consequence, the early systems quickly became saturated, and the quality of service decreased rapidly. The critical problem was capacity. The general characteristics of TDMA, GSM, PCS1900, and CDMA promise to significantly increase the efficiency of cellular telephone systems to allow a greater number of simultaneous conversations. (Figure 3.9) shows the components of a typical digital cellular system.

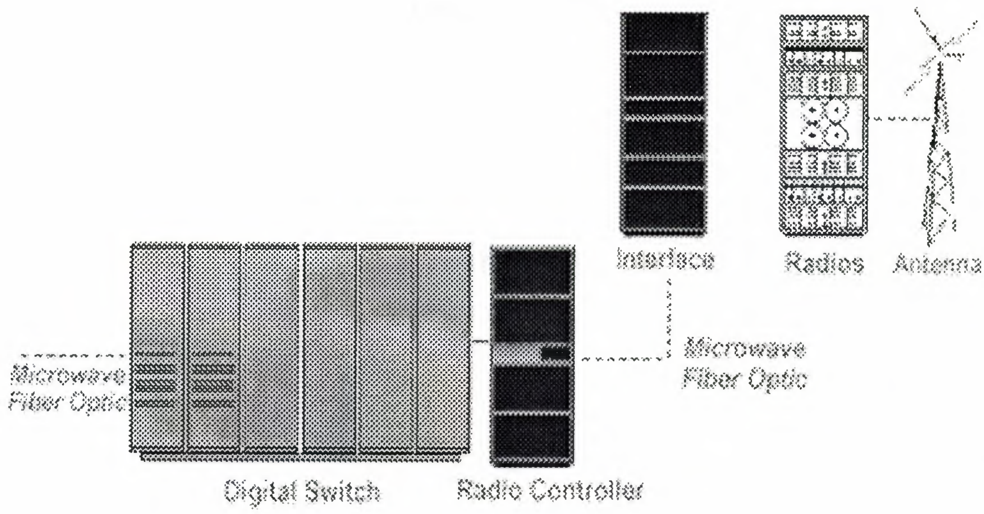


Figure 3.9: Digital Cellular System

The advantages of digital cellular technologies over analog cellular networks include increased capacity and security. Technology options such as TDMA and CDMA offer more channels in the same analog cellular bandwidth and encrypted voice and data. Because of the enormous amount of money that service providers have invested in AMPS hardware and software, providers look for a migration from AMPS to DAMPS by overlaying their existing networks with TDMA architectures.

Table 3.1: AMPS/DAMPS Comparison

	Analog	Digital
Standard	EIA-533 (AMPS)	IS–54 (TDMA + AMPS
Spectrum	824 MHz to 891 MHz	824 MHz to 891 MHz
Channel Bandwidth	30 kHz	30 kHz
Channels	21 CC / 395 VC	21 CC / 395 VC
Conversations per Channel	1	3 or 6
Subscriber Capacity	40 to 50 Conversations per cell	125 to 300 Conversations per cell
TX/RCV Type	Continuous	Time-shared bursts
Carrier Type	Constant phase Variable frequency	Constant frequency Variable phase
Mobile/Base Relation ship	Mobile slaved to base	Authority shared cooperatively
Privacy	Poor	Better—easily scrambled
Noise Immunity	Poor	High
Fraud Detection	ESN plus optional password (PIN)	ESN plus optional password (PIN)

3.7.1 Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA)

North American digital cellular (NADC) is called DAMPS and TDMA. Because AMPS preceded digital cellular systems, DAMPS uses the same setup protocols as analog AMPS. TDMA has the following characteristics:

1. IS–54 standard specifies traffic on digital voice channels
2. Initial implementation triples the calling capacity of AMPS systems
3. Capacity improvements of 6 to 15 times that of AMPS are possible
4. Uses many blocks of spectrum in 800 MHz and 1900 MHz
5. All transmissions are digital
6. TDMA/FDMA application 7. 3 callers per radio carrier (6 callers on half rate later), providing three times the AMPS capacity.

TDMA is one of several technologies used in wireless communications. TDMA provides each call with time slots so that several calls can occupy one bandwidth. Each caller is assigned a specific time slot. In some cellular systems, digital packets of information are sent during each time slot and reassembled by the receiving equipment into the original voice components. TDMA uses the same frequency band and channel allocations as AMPS. Like NAMPS, TDMA provides three to six time channels in the same bandwidth as a single AMPS channel. Unlike NAMPS, digital systems have the means to compress the spectrum used to transmit voice information by compressing idle time and redundancy of normal speech. TDMA is the digital standard and has 30-kHz bandwidth. Using digital voice encoders, TDMA is able to use up to six channels in the same bandwidth where AMPS uses one channel.

3.7.2 Extended Time Division Multiple Access (E– TDMA)

The extended TDMA (E–TDMA) standard claims a capacity of fifteen times that of analog cellular systems. This capacity is achieved by compressing quiet time during conversations. E–TDMA divides the finite number of cellular frequencies into more time slots than TDMA. This allows the system to support more simultaneous cellular calls.

3.7.3 Fixed Wireless Access (FWA)

Fixed wireless access (FWA) is a radio-based local exchange service in which telephone service is provided by common carriers (Figure 10). It is primarily a rural application that is, it reduces the cost of conventional wireline. FWA extends telephone service to rural areas by replacing a wire line local loop with radio communications. Other labels for wireless access include fixed loop, fixed radio access, wireless telephony, radio loop, fixed wireless, radio access, and Ionica. FWA systems employ TDMA or CDMA access technologies.

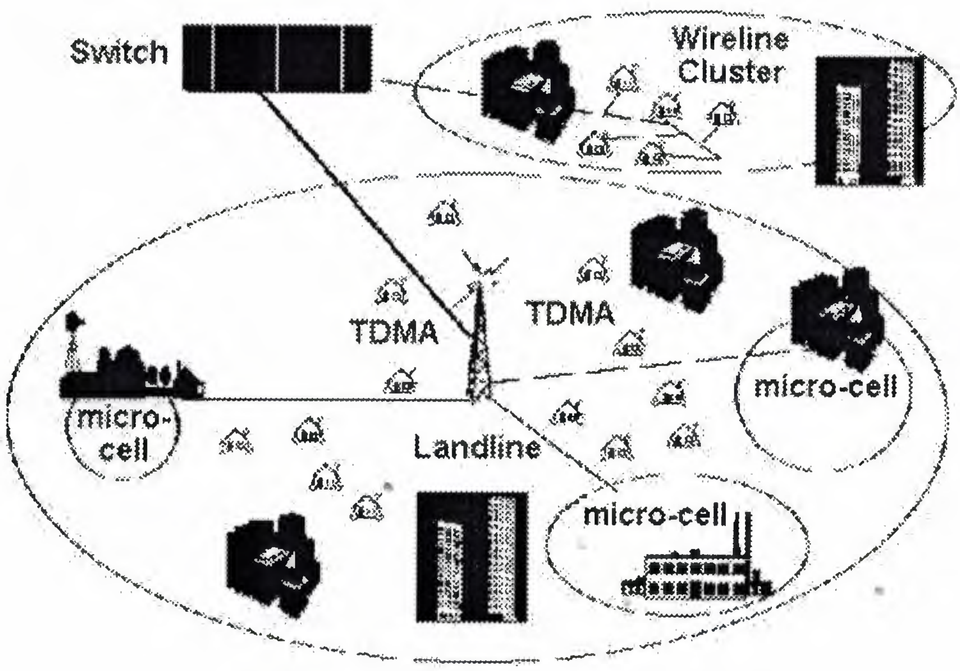


Figure 10: Fixed Wireless Access

3.7.4 Personal Communications Services (PCS)

The future of telecommunications includes personal communications services. PCS at 1900 MHz (PCS1900) is the North American implementation of DCS1800 (Global System for Mobile communications, or GSM). Trial networks were operational in the United States by 1993, and in 1994 the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) began spectrum auctions. As of 1995, the FCC auctioned commercial licenses. In the PCS frequency spectrum the operator's authorized frequency block contains a definite number of channels. The frequency plan assigns specific channels to specific cells, following a reuse pattern, which restarts with each *n*th cell. The uplink and downlink bands are paired mirror images. As with AMPS, a channel number implies one uplink and one downlink frequency: e.g., Channel 512 = 1850.2 MHz uplink paired with 1930.2 MHz downlink.

3.7.5 Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA)

Code division multiple access (CDMA) is a digital air interface standard, claiming eight to fifteen times the capacity of analog. It employs a commercial adaptation of military spread-spectrum single-sideband technology. Based on spread spectrum theory, it is essentially the same as wire line service the primary difference is that access to the local exchange carrier (LEC) is provided via wireless phone. Because users are isolated by code, they can share the same carrier frequency, eliminating the frequency reuse problem encountered in AMPS and DAMPS. Every CDMA cell site can use the same 1.25 MHz band, so with respect to clusters, n = 1. This greatly simplifies frequency planning in a fully CDMA environment.

CDMA is an interference-limited system. Unlike AMPS/TDMA, CDMA has a soft capacity limit; however, each user is a noise source on the shared channel and the noise contributed by users accumulates. This creates a practical limit to how many users a system will sustain. Mobiles that transmit excessive power increase interference to other mobiles. For CDMA, precise power control of mobiles is critical in maximizing the system's capacity and increasing battery life of the mobiles. The goal is to keep each mobile at the absolute minimum power level that is necessary to ensure acceptable service quality. Ideally, the power received at the base station from each mobile should be the same (minimum signal to interference).

SUMMARY

A mobile communications system uses a large number of low-power wireless transmitters to create cells the basic geographic service area of a wireless communications system. Variable power levels allow cells to be sized according to the subscriber density and demand within a particular region. As mobile users travel from cell to cell, their conversations are "handed off" between cells in order to maintain seamless service. Channels (frequencies) used in one cell can be reused in another cell some distance away. Cells can be added to accommodate growth, creating new cells in unserved areas or overlaying cells in existing areas.

4. GSM RADIO INTERFACE

4.1 Overview

The Radio interface is the interface between the mobile stations and the fixed infrastructure. It is one of the most important interfaces of the GSM system. The specification of the radio interface has then an important influence on the spectrum efficiency.

4.2 Frequency Allocation

Two frequency bands, of 25 MHz each one, have been allocated for the GSM system:

-The band 890-915 MHz has been allocated for the uplink direction (transmitting from the mobile station to the base station).

-The band 935-960 MHz has been allocated for the downlink direction (transmitting from the base station to the mobile station).

These bands were allocated by the ITU (International Telecom Union) who are responsible for allocating radio spectrum on an international basis. Although these bands were (and still are) used by analog systems in the early 1980's, the top 10 MHz were reserved for the already emerging GSM Network by the CEPT (European Conference of Posts and Telecommunications: translated from French). But not all the countries can use the whole GSM frequency bands. This is due principally to military reasons and to the existence of previous analog systems using part of the two 25 Mhz frequency bands.

The multiple access scheme defines how different simultaneous communications, between different mobile stations situated in different cells, share the GSM radio spectrum. A mix of Frequency Division Multiple Access (FDMA) and Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA), combined with frequency hopping, has been adopted as the multiple access scheme for GSM.

It is hoped that eventually the GSM network will use the entire bandwidth. It is apparent from this that the bandwidth you use on a day-to-day basis to operate your mobile phone is limited. It would seem that only a certain number of users can operate on the bandwidth simultaneously. However GSM has devised a method to maximize the bandwidth available. They use a combination of Time and Frequency Division Multiple Access (TDMA/FDMA).

a) **FDMA:** Using FDMA, a frequency is assigned to a user. So the larger the number of users in a FDMA system, the larger the number of available frequencies must be. The limited available radio spectrum and the fact that a user will not free its assigned frequency until he does not need it anymore, explain why the number of users in a FDMA system can be "quickly" limited.

This is the division of the bandwidth in to 124 carrier frequencies each of 200 kHz. At least one of these is assigned to each base station. Figure 4.1 shows the FDMA System.

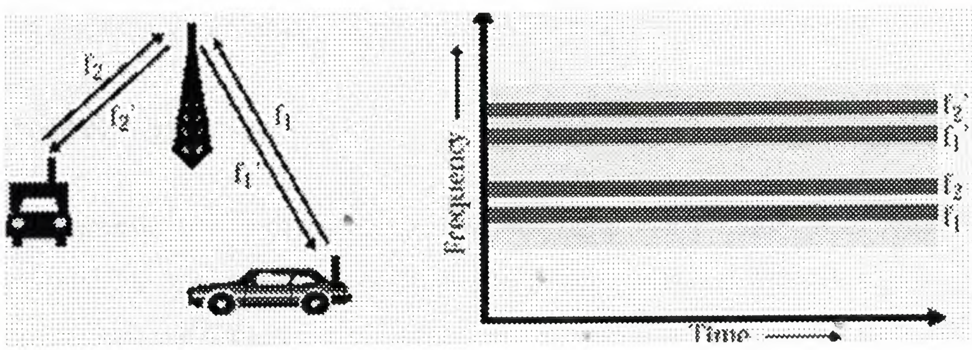


Figure4.1 Frequency Division Multiple Access

b) **TDMA:** TDMA allows several users to share the same channel. Each of the users, sharing the common channel, is assigned their own burst within a group of bursts called a frame. Usually TDMA is used with a FDMA structure.

The carrier frequencies are then divided again into 8 time slots. This prevents mobiles from transmitting and receiving calls at the same time as they are allocated separate time slots. Figure 4.2 shows Time Division Multiple Access System.

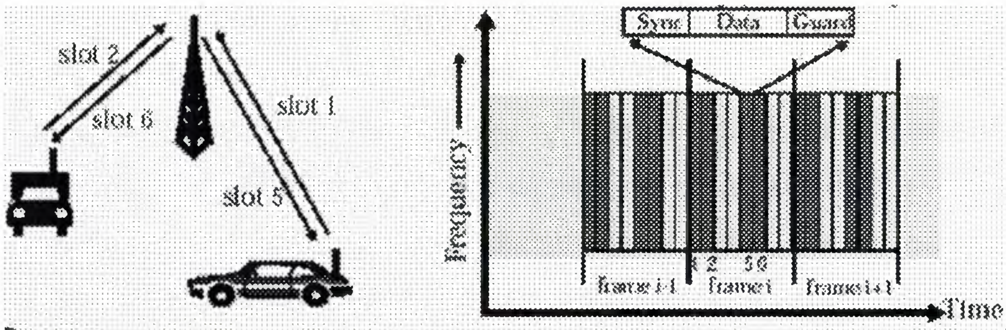


Figure 4.2 Time Division Multiple Access

In GSM, a 25 Mhz frequency band is divided, using a FDMA scheme, into 124 carrier frequencies spaced one from each other by a 200 kHz frequency band. Normally a 25 Mhz frequency band can provide 125 carrier frequencies but the first carrier frequency is used as a guard band between GSM and other services working on lower frequencies. Each carrier frequency is then divided in time using a TDMA scheme. This scheme splits the radio channel, with a width of 200 kHz, into 8 bursts. A burst is the unit of time in a TDMA system, and it lasts approximately 0.577 ms. A TDMA frame is formed with 8 bursts and lasts, consequently, 4.615 ms. Each of the eight bursts, that form a TDMA frame, are then assigned to a single user.

4.4 Channel Structure

A channel corresponds to the recurrence of one burst every frame. It is defined by its frequency and the position of its corresponding burst within a TDMA frame. In GSM there are two types of channels:

- The traffic channels used to transport speech and data information.
- The control channels used for network management messages and some channel maintenance tasks.

Since radio spectrum is a limited resource shared by all users, a method must be devised to divide up the bandwidth among as many users as possible. The method chosen by GSM is a combination of Time- and Frequency-Division Multiple Access (TDMA/FDMA). The FDMA part involves the division by frequency of the (maximum)

25 MHz bandwidth into 124 carrier frequencies spaced 200 kHz apart. One or more carrier frequencies are assigned to each base station. Each of these carrier frequencies is then divided in time, using a TDMA scheme. The fundamental unit of time in this TDMA scheme is called a burst period and it lasts 15/26 ms (or approx. 0.577 ms). Eight burst periods are grouped into a TDMA frame (120/26 ms, or approx. 4.615 ms), which forms the basic unit for the definition of logical channels. One physical channel is one burst period per TDMA frame. The number and position of their corresponding burst periods define channels. All these definitions are cyclic, and the entire pattern repeats approximately every 3 hours. Channels can be divided into dedicated channels, which are allocated to a mobile station, and common channels, which are used by mobile stations in idle mode.

4.4.1 Traffic Channels

A traffic channel (TCH) is used to carry speech and data traffic. Traffic channels are defined using a 26-frame multi frame, or group of 26 TDMA frames. The length of a 26-frame multi frame is 120 ms, which is how the length of a burst period is defined (120 ms divided by 26 frames divided by 8 burst periods per frame). Out of the 26 frames, 24 are used for traffic, 1 is used for the Slow Associated Control Channel (SACCH) and 1 is currently unused (see Figure 4.1). TCHs for the uplink and downlink are separated in time by 3 burst periods, so that the mobile station does not have to transmit and receive simultaneously, thus simplifying the electronics. In addition to these full-rate TCHs, there are also half-rate TCHs defined, although they are not yet implemented.

Half-rate TCHs will effectively double the capacity of a system once half-rate speech coders are specified (i.e., speech coding at around 7 kbps, instead of 13 kbps). Eighth-rate TCHs are also specified, and are used for signaling. In the recommendations, they are called Stand-alone Dedicated Control Channels (SDCCH). Full-rate traffic channels (TCH/F) are defined using a group of 26 TDMA frames called a 26-Multiframe. The 26-Multiframe lasts consequently 120 ms. In this 26-Multiframe structure; the traffic channels for the downlink and uplink are separated by 3 bursts. As a consequence, the mobiles will not need to transmit and receive at the same time, which simplifies considerably the electronics of the system. The frames that form the 26-Multiframe structure have different functions:

- 24 frames are reserved to traffic.
- 1 frame is used for the Slow Associated Control Channel (SACCH).
- The last frame is unused. This idle frame allows the mobile station to perform other functions, such as measuring the signal strength of neighboring cells.

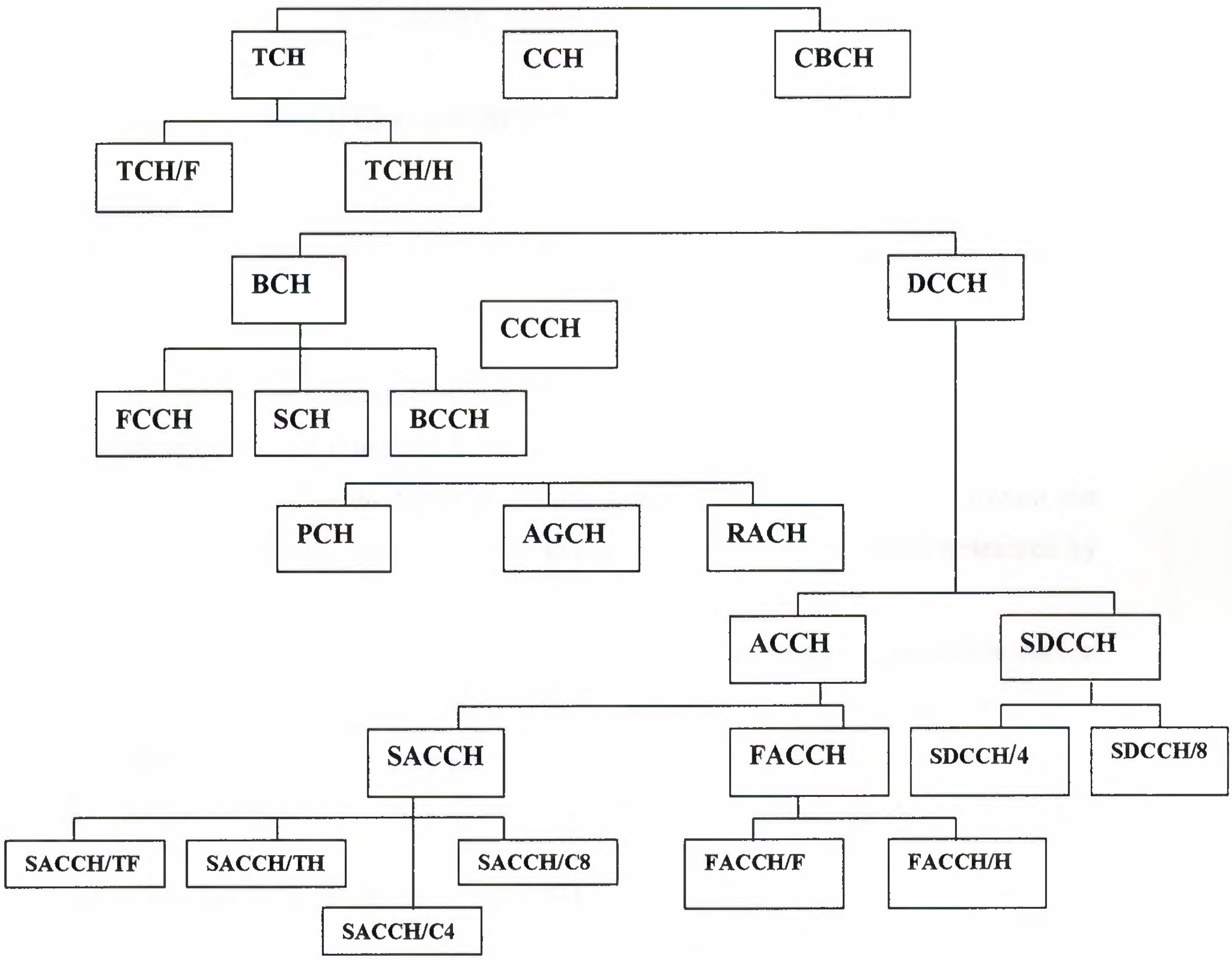
Half-rate traffic channels (TCH/H), which double the capacity of the system, are also grouped in a 26-Multiframe but the internal structure is different.

4.4.2 Control Channels

According to their functions, four different classes of control channels are defined:

- Broadcast channels.
- Common control channels.
- Dedicated control channels.
- Associated control channels.

Common channels can be accessed both by idle mode and dedicated mode mobiles. Idle mode mobiles to exchange the signalling information required to change to dedicated mode use the common channels. Mobiles already in dedicated mode monitor the surrounding base stations for handover and other information. The common channels are defined within a 51-frame multiframe, so that dedicated mobiles using the 26-frame multiframe TCH structure can still monitor control channels. Figure 4.3 shows the Logical channels. The common channels include:



TCH: Traffic Channel.
TCH/F: Traffic Channel/Full.
TCH/H: Traffic Channel/Half.
CCH: Control Channel.
BCH:Broadcast Channel.
CBCH:Cell Broadcast Channel.
CCCH: Common Control Channel.
ACCH: Associated Control Channel.
SACCH: Slow Associated Control Channel.
FACCH: Fast Associated Control Channel.
SDCCH: Stand-Alone Ded icated Control Channel.
FCCH: Freq. Correction Channel.
SCH: Synchronization Channel.
BCCH: Broadcast Control Channel.
PCH: Paging Channel.
AGCH: Access Grant Channel.
RACH: Random Access Channel.
DCCH: Dedicated Control Channel.

Figure 4.3 Structure of Logical Channels

a) Broadcast Control Channel (BCCH)

The base station, to provide the mobile station with the sufficient information it needs to synchronize with the network, uses the BCH channels. Three different types of BCHs can be distinguished:

- The Broadcast Control Channel (BCCH), which gives to the mobile station the parameters needed in order to identify and access the network.
- The Synchronization Channel (SCH), which gives to the mobile station the training sequence needed in order to demodulate the information transmitted by the base station.
- The Frequency-Correction Channel (FCCH), which supplies the mobile station with the frequency reference of the system in order to synchronize it with the network Continually broadcasts, on the downlink, information including base station identity, frequency allocations, and frequency-hopping sequences.

b) Common Control Channels (CCCH)

The CCCH channels help to establish the calls from the mobile station or the network. Three different types of CCCH can be defined:

- The Paging Channel (PCH). It is used to alert the mobile station of an incoming call.
- The Random Access Channel (RACH), which is used by the mobile station to request access to the network.
- The Access Grant Channel (AGCH). The base station, to inform the mobile station about which channel it should use, uses it. This channel is the answer of a base station to a RACH from the mobile station.

c) Broadcast Channels (BCH)

The BCH channels are used, by the base station , to provide the mobile station with the sufficient information it needs to synchronize with the network. Three different types of BCHs can be distinguished:

a) The broadcast Control Channel (BCCH),which gives the mobile station the parameters needed in order to identify and access the network.
b) The synchronization Channel (SCH), which gives to the mobile station the training sequence needed in order to demodulate the information transmitted by the base station;
c) The frequency-correction Channel (FCH), which supplies the mobile station with the frequency reference of the system in order to synchronize it with the network.

d) Frequency Correction Channel (FCCH) and Synchronization Channel (SCH)

Used to synchronize the mobile to the time slot structure of a cell by defining the boundaries of burst periods, and the time slot numbering. Every cell in a GSM network broadcasts exactly one FCCH and one SCH, which are by definition on time slot number 0 (within a TDMA frame).

e) Dedicated Control Channels (DCCH)

The DCCH channels are used for message exchange between several mobiles or a mobile and the network. Two different types of DCCH can be defined:

- The Standalone Dedicated Control Channel (SDCCH), which is used in order to exchange signaling information in the downlink and uplink directions.
- The Slow Associated Control Channel (SACCH). It is used for channel maintenance and channel control.

f) Associated Control Channels

The Fast Associated Control Channels (FACCH) replace all or part of a traffic channel when urgent signaling information must be transmitted. The FACCH channels carry the same information as the SDCCH channels.

g) Random Access Channel (RACH)

Slotted Aloha channel used by the mobile to request access to the network.

h) Paging Channel (PCH)

Used to alert the mobile station of an incoming calls

i) Access Grant Channel (AGCH)

Used to allocate an SDCCH to a mobile for signaling (in order to obtain a dedicated channel), following a request on the RACH.

4.4.3 Burst Structure

There are four different types of bursts used for transmission in GSM. The normal burst is used to carry data and most signaling. It has a total length of 156.25 bits, made up of two 57 bit information bits, a 26 bit training sequence used for equalization, 1 stealing bit for each information block (used for FACCH), 3 tail bits at each end, and an 8.25 bit guard sequence, as shown in Figure4.4. The 156.25 bits are transmitted in 0.577 ms, giving a gross bit rate of 270.833 kbps. The F burst, used on the FCCH, and the S burst, used on the SCH, have the same length as a normal burst, but a different internal structure, which differentiates them from normal bursts (thus allowing synchronization). The access burst is shorter than the normal burst, and is used only on the RACH. As it has been stated before, the burst is the unit in time of a TDMA system. Four different types of bursts can be distinguished in GSM:

- The frequency-correction burst is used on the FCCH. It has the same length as the normal burst but a different structure.
- The synchronization burst is used on the SCH. It has the same length as the normal burst but a different structure.
- The random access burst is used on the RACH and is shorter than the normal burst.
- The normal burst is used to carry speech or data information. It lasts approximately 0.577 ms and has a length of 156.25 bits.

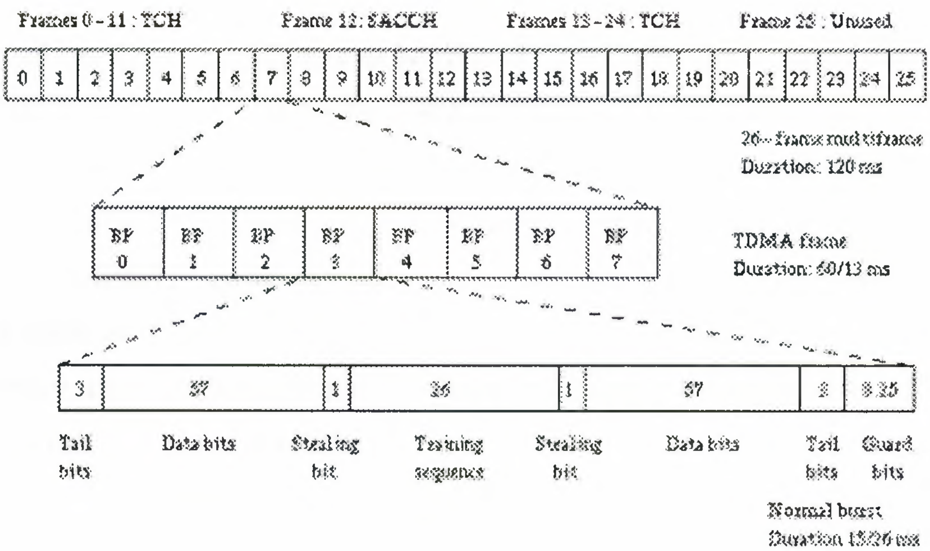


Figure 4.4 Structure of the 26-Multiframe, the TDMA frame and the normal burst

The tail bits (T) are a group of three bits set to zero and placed at the beginning and the end of a burst. They are used to cover the periods of ramping up and down of the mobile's power. The coded data bits correspond to two groups, of 57 bits each, containing signaling or user data. The stealing flags (S) indicate, to the receiver, whether the information carried by a burst corresponds to traffic or signaling data. The training sequence has a length of 26 bits. It is used to synchronize the receiver with the incoming information, avoiding then the negative effects produced by a multipath propagation. The guard period (GP), with a length of 8.25 bits, is used to avoid a possible overlap of two mobiles during the ramping time.

4.4.4 Frequency Hopping

The mobile station already has to be frequency agile, meaning it can move between a transmit, receive, and monitor time slot within one TDMA frame, which normally are on different frequencies. GSM makes use of this inherent frequency agility to implement slow frequency hopping, where the mobile and BTS transmit each TDMA frame on a different carrier frequency. The frequency-hopping algorithm is broadcast on the Broadcast Control Channel. Since multipath fading is dependent on carrier frequency, slow frequency hopping helps alleviate the problem. In addition, co-channel interference is in effect randomized.

The propagation conditions and therefore the multipath fading depend on the radio frequency. In order to avoid important differences in the quality of the channels, the slow frequency hopping is introduced. The slow frequency hopping changes the frequency with every TDMA frame. A fast frequency hopping changes the frequency many times per frame but it is not used in GSM. The frequency hopping also reduces the effects of co-channel interference.

There are different types of frequency hopping algorithms. The algorithm selected is sent through the Broadcast Control Channels.

Even if frequency hopping can be very useful for the system, a base station does not have to support it necessarily On the other hand, a mobile station has to accept frequency hopping when a base station decides to use it.

4.5 From source information to radio waves

The figure 4.5 presents the different operations that have to be performed in order to pass from the speech source to radio waves and vice versa. If the source of information is data and not speech, the speech coding will not be performed.

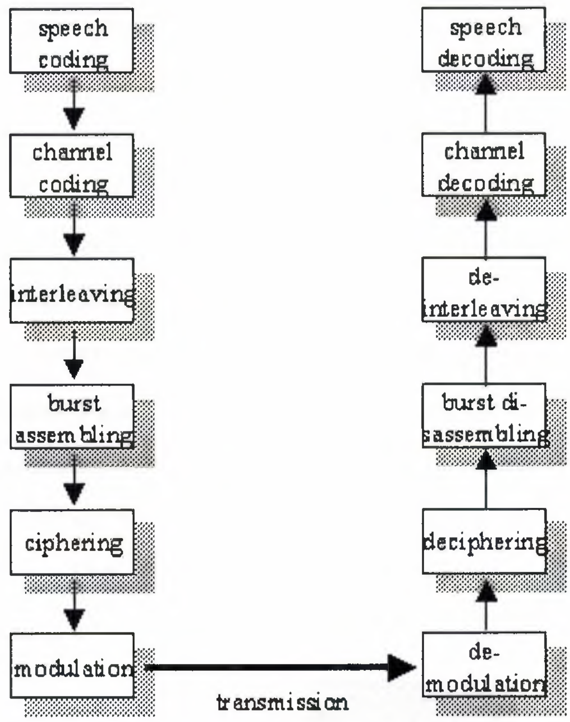


Figure 4.5 From Speech Source To Radio Waves

4.5.1 Speech Coding

The transmission of speech is, at the moment, the most important service of a mobile cellular system. The GSM speech coder, which will transform the analog signal (voice) into a digital representation, has to meet the following criterias:

- A good speech quality, at least as good as the one obtained with previous cellular systems.
- To reduce the redundancy in the sounds of the voice. This reduction is essential due to the limited capacity of transmission of a radio channel.
- The speech coder must not be very complex because complexity is equivalent to high costs.

The final choice for the GSM speech coder is a coder named RPE-LTP (Regular Pulse Excitation Long-Term Prediction). This coder uses the information from previous samples (this information does not change very quickly) in order to predict the current sample. The speech signal is divided into blocks of 20 ms. These blocks are then passed to the speech coder, which has a rate of 13 kbps, in order to obtain blocks of 260 bits. Obviously the most important aspect of the GSM Network is speech transmission. Although other services are now offered, voice telephony is still the most popular service available and hence generates the most revenue for the various companies. The device that transforms the human voice into a stream of digital data, suitable for transmission over the radio interface and which regenerates an audible analog representation of received data is called a Speech CODEC (speech transcoder or speech coder/decoder). The full-rate speech CODEC used in GSM is known as RPE-LTP, which stands for "Regular Pulse Excitation - Long Term Prediction". It is hoped there will eventually be a standardized full speech CODEC which will half the amount of data to be transmitted and so will enable twice as many customers to use the same slot in the TDMA frame. The Figure 4.6 below shows audio signal processing

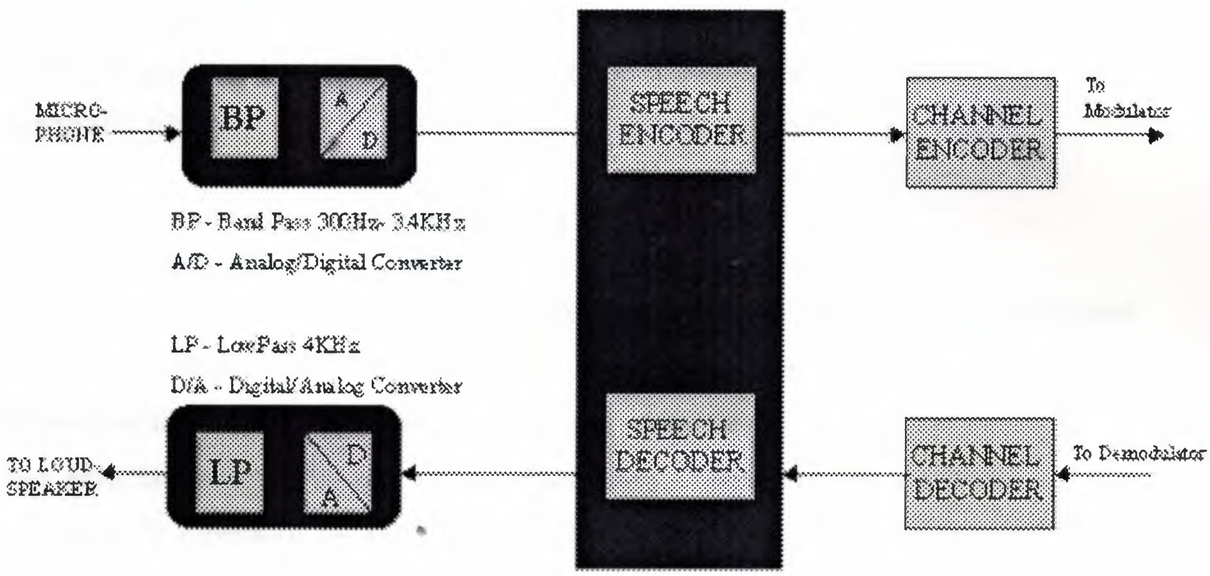


Figure 4.6 Audio Signal Processing

GSM is a digital system, so speech which is inherently analog, has to be digitized. The method employed by ISDN, and by current telephone systems for multiplexing voice lines over high-speed trunks and optical fiber lines, is Pulse Coded Modulation (PCM). The output stream from PCM is 64 kbps, too high a rate to be feasible over a radio link. The 64 kbps signal, although simple to implement, contains much redundancy. The GSM group studied several speech coding algorithms on the basis of subjective speech quality and complexity (which is related to cost, processing delay, and power consumption once implemented) before arriving at the choice of a

Regular Pulse Excited Linear Predictive Coder (RPE-LPC) with a Long Term Predictor loop. Basically, information from previous samples, which does not change

Very quickly, is used to predict the current sample. The coefficients of the linear combination of the previous samples, plus an encoded form of the residual, the difference between the predicted and actual sample, represent the signal. Speech is divided into 20 millisecond samples, each of which is encoded as 260 bits, giving a total bit rate of 13 kbps. This is the so-called Full-Rate speech coding. Recently, some North American GSM1900 operators have implemented an Enhanced Full-Rate (EFR) speech-coding algorithm. This is said to provide improved speech quality using the existing 13 kbps bit rate.

4.5.2 Channel coding

Channel coding adds redundancy bits to the original information in order to detect and correct, if possible, errors occurred during the transmission. The channel coding is performed using two codes: a block code and a convolution code.

a) Channel coding for the GSM data TCH channels

The channel coding is performed using two codes: a block code and a convolutional code. The block code corresponds to the block code defined in the GSM Recommendations 05.03. The block code receives an input block of 240 bits and adds four zero tail bits at the end of the input block. The output of the block code is consequently a block of 244 bits. A convolutional code adds redundancy bits in order to protect the information. A convolutional encoder contains memory. This property differentiates a convolutional code from a block code. A convolutional code can be defined by three variables: n, k and K. The value n corresponds to the number of bits at the output of the encoder, k to the number of bits at the input of the block and K to the memory of the encoder. The ratio, R, of the code is defined as follows: R = k/n. Let's consider a convolutional code with the following values: k is equal to 1, n to 2 and K to 5. This convolutional code uses then a rate of R = 1/2 and a delay of K = 5, which Means that it will add a redundant bit for each input bit. The convolutional code uses 5 consecutive bits in order to compute the redundancy bit. As the convolutional code is a 1/2 rate convolutional code, a block of 488 bits is generated. These 488 bits are punctured in order to produce a block of 456 bits. Thirty-two bits, obtained as follows, are not transmitted:

$$C\,(11 + 15\,j) \text{ for } j = 0, 1, \ldots, 31 \qquad (4.1)$$

The block of 456 bits produced by the convolutional code is then passed to the interleaver.

b) Channel coding for the GSM speech channels

Before applying the channel coding, the 260 bits of a GSM speech frame are divided in three different classes according to their function and importance. The most important class is the class Ia containing 50 bits. Next in importance is the class Ib, which contains 132 bits. The least important is the class II, which contains the remaining 78 bits. The different classes are coded differently. First of all, the class Ia bits are block-coded. Three parity bits, used for error detection, are added to the 50 class Ia bits. The resultant 53 bits are added to the class Ib bits. Four zero bits are added to this block of 185 bits (50+3+132). A convolutional code, with $r = 1/2$ and $K = 5$, is then applied, obtaining an output block of 378 bits. The class II bits are added, without any protection, to the output block of the convolutional coder. An output block of 456 bits is finally obtained.

c) Channel coding for the GSM control channels

In GSM the signaling information is just contained in 184 bits. Forty parity bits, obtained using a fire code, and four zero bits are added to the 184 bits before applying the convolutional code ($r = 1/2$ and $K = 5$). The output of the convolutional code is then a block of 456 bits, which does not need to be punctured. Electromagnetic interference can disrupt encoded speech and data transmitted over the GSM Network. Because of this this complicated encoding and block interleaving is used to protect the Network. Speech and data rates use different algorithms. Radio emissions too can cause interference if they occur outside of the allotted bandwidth and must be strictly controlled to allow for both GSM and older analog systems to co-exist. Because of natural and man-made electromagnetic interference, the encoded speech or data signal transmitted over the radio interface must be protected from errors. GSM uses convolutional encoding and block interleaving to achieve this protection. The exact algorithms used differ for speech and for different data rates. The method used for speech blocks will be described below. Recall that the speech coder produces a 260-bit block for every 20 ms speech sample. From subjective testing, it was found that some bits of this block were more important for perceived speech quality than others. The bits are thus divided into three classes:

- **Class Ia** 50 bits - most sensitive to bit errors.
- **Class Ib** 132 bits - moderately sensitive to bit errors.
- **Class II** 78 bits - least sensitive to bit errors.

Class Ia bits have a 3 bit Cyclic Redundancy Code added for error detection. If an error is detected, the frame is judged too damaged to be comprehensible and it is discarded. It is replaced by a slightly attenuated version of the previous correctly received frame. These 53 bits, together with the 132 Class Ib bits and a 4-bit tail sequence (a total of 189 bits), are input into a 1/2 rate convolutional encoder of constraint length 4. Each input bit is encoded as two output bits, based on a combination of the previous 4 input bits. The convolutional encoder thus outputs 378 bits, to which are added the 78 remaining Class II bits, which are unprotected. Thus every 20 ms speech sample is encoded as 456 bits, giving a bit rate of 22.8 kbps. To further protect against the burst errors common to the radio interface, each sample is interleaved. The 456 bits output by the convolutional encoder are divided into 8 blocks of 57 bits, and these blocks are transmitted in eight consecutive time-slot bursts. Since each time-slot burst can carry two 57-bit blocks, each burst carries traffic from two different speech samples. Recall that each time-slot burst is transmitted at a gross bit rate of 270.833 kbps. This digital signal is modulated onto the analog carrier frequency using Gaussian-filtered Minimum Shift Keying (GMSK). GMSK was selected over other modulation schemes as a compromise between spectral efficiency, complexity of the transmitter, and limited spurious emissions. The complexity of the transmitter is related to power consumption, which should be minimized for the mobile station. The spurious radio emissions, outside of the allotted bandwidth, must be strictly controlled so as to limit adjacent channel interference, and allow for the co-existence of GSM and the older analog systems (at least for the time being).

4.5.3 Interleaving

An interleaving rearranges a group of bits in a particular way. It is used in combination with FEC codes in order to improve the performance of the error correction mechanisms. The interleaving decreases the possibility of losing whole bursts during the transmission, by dispersing the errors. Being the errors less concentrated, it is then easier to correct them.

a) Interleaving for the GSM control channels

A burst in GSM transmits two blocks of 57 data bits each. Therefore the 456 bits corresponding to the output of the channel coder fit into four bursts (4x114 = 456). The 456 bits are divided into eight blocks of 57 bits. The first block of 57 bits contains the bit numbers (0, 8, 16,....., 448), the second one the bit numbers (1, 9, 17, ...,449), etc. The last block of 57 bits will then contain the bit numbers (7, 15,....., 455). The first four blocks of 57 bits are placed in the even-numbered bits of four bursts. The other four blocks of 57 bits are placed in the odd-numbered bits of the same four bursts. Therefore the interleaving depth of the GSM interleaving for control channels is four and a new data block starts every four bursts. The interleaver for control channels is called a block rectangular interleaver.

b) Interleaving for the GSM speech Channels

The block of 456 bits, obtained after the channel coding, is then divided in eight blocks of 57 bits in the same way as it is explained in the previous paragraph. But these eight blocks of 57 bits are distributed differently. The first four blocks of 57 bits are placed in the even-numbered bits of four consecutive bursts. The other four blocks of 57 bits are placed in the odd-numbered bits of the next four bursts. The interleaving depth of the GSM interleaving for speech channels is then eight. A new data block also starts every four bursts. The interleaver for speech channels is called a block diagonal interleaver.

c) Interleaving for the GSM data TCH channels

A particular interleaving scheme, with an interleaving depth equal to 22, is applied to the block of 456 bits obtained after the channel coding. The block is divided into 16 blocks of 24 bits each, 2 blocks of 18 bits each, 2 blocks of 12 bits each and 2 blocks of 6 bits each. It is spread over 22 bursts in the following way:

- The first and the twenty-second bursts carry one block of 6 bits each.
- The second and the twenty-first bursts carry one block of 12 bits each.
- The third and the twentieth bursts carry one block of 18 bits each.
- From the fourth to the nineteenth burst, a block of 24 bits is placed in each burst.

A burst will then carry information from five or six consecutive data blocks. The data blocks are said to be interleaved diagonally. A new data block starts every four bursts.

4.5.4 Burst Assembling

The burst assembling procedure is in charge of grouping the bits into bursts. Section 4.4.3. presents the different bursts structures and describes in detail the structure of the normal burst.

4.5.5 Ciphering

Ciphering is used to protect signaling and user data. First of all, a ciphering key is computed using the algorithm stored on the SIM card, the subscriber key and a random number delivered by the network (this random number is the same as the one used for the authentication procedure). Secondly, a 114-bit sequence is produced using the ciphering key, an algorithm called A5 and the burst numbers. This bit sequence is then XORed with the two 57 bit blocks of data included in a normal burst. In order to decipher correctly, the receiver has to use the same algorithm A5 for the deciphering procedure.

4.5.6 Modulation

The modulation chosen for the GSM system is the Gaussian Minimum Shift Keying (GMSK).. The GMSK modulation has been chosen as a compromise between spectrum efficiency, complexity and low spurious radiations (that reduce the possibilities of adjacent channel interference). The GMSK modulation has a rate of 270 5/6 kbauds and a BT product equal to 0.3. Figure 4.7. presents the principle of a GMSK modulator.

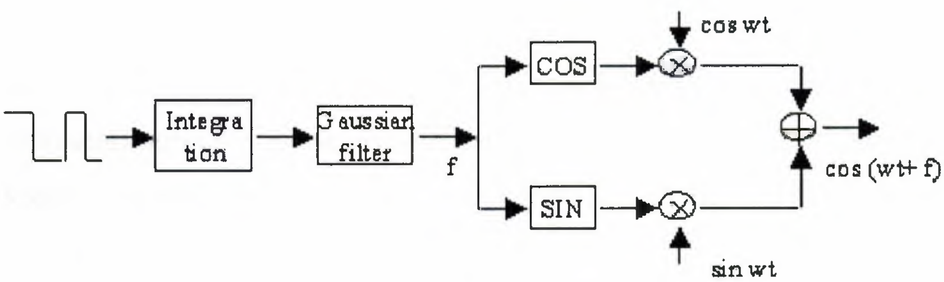


Figure 4.7 GMSK Modulator

4.6 Discontinuous Transmission (DTX)

Minimizing co-channel interference is a goal in any cellular system, since it allows better service for a given cell size, or the use of smaller cells, thus increasing the overall capacity of the system. Discontinuous Transmission (DTX) is a method that takes advantage of the fact that a person speaks less that 40 percent of the time in normal conversation, by turning the transmitter off during silence periods. An added benefit of DTX is that power is conserved at the mobile unit. The most important component of DTX is, of course, Voice Activity Detection (VAD). It must distinguish between voice and noise inputs, a task that is not as trivial as it appears, considering background noise. If a voice signal is misinterpreted as noise, the transmitter is turned off and a very annoying effect called clipping is heard at the receiving end. If, on the other hand, noise is misinterpreted as a voice signal too often, the efficiency of DTX is dramatically annoying effect called clipping is heard at the receiving end. If, on the other hand, noise is misinterpreted as a voice signal too often, the efficiency of DTX is dramatically decreased. Another factor to consider is that when the transmitter is turned off, there is total silence heard at the receiving end, due to the digital nature of GSM. To assure the receiver that the connection is not dead, comfort noise is created at the receiving end by trying to match the characteristics of the transmitting end's background noise. This is another aspect of GSM that could have been included as one of the requirements of the GSM speech coder. The function of the DTX is to suspend the radio transmission during the silence periods. This can become quite interesting if we take into consideration the fact that a person speaks less than 40 or 50 percent during a conversation. The DTX helps then to reduce interference between different cells and to increase the capacity of the system. It also extends the life of a mobile's battery. The DTX function is performed thanks to two main features:

- The Voice Activity Detection (VAD), which has to determine whether the sound represents speech or noise, even if the background noise is very important. If the voice signal is considered as noise, the transmitter is turned off producing then, an unpleasant effect called clipping.
- The comfort noise. An inconvenient of the DTX function is that when the signal is considered as noise, the transmitter is turned off and therefore, a total silence is heard at the receiver. This can be very annoying to the user at the reception because it seems that the connection is dead. In order to overcome this problem, the receiver creates a minimum of background noise called comfort noise. The comfort noise eliminates the impression that the connection is dead.

4.7 Timing Advance

The timing of the bursts transmissions is very important. Mobiles are at different distances from the base stations. Their delay depends, consequently, on their distance. The aim of the timing advance is that the signals coming from the different mobile stations arrive to the base station at the right time. The base station measures the timing delay of the mobile stations. If the bursts corresponding to a mobile station arrive too late and overlap with other bursts, the base station tells, this mobile, to advance the transmission of its bursts.

4.8 Power Control

There are five classes of mobile stations defined, according to their peak transmitter power, rated at 20, 8, 5, 2, and 0.8 watts. To minimize co-channel interference and to conserve power, both the mobiles and the Base Transceiver Stations operate at the lowest power level that will maintain an acceptable signal quality. Power levels can be stepped up or down in steps of 2 dB from the peak power for the class down to a minimum of 13 dBm (20 milli watts). The mobile station measures the signal strength or signal quality (based on the Bit Error Ratio), and passes the information to the Base Station Controller, which ultimately decides if and when the power level should be changed. Power control should be handled carefully, since there is the possibility of instability. This arises from having mobiles in co-channel cells alternatingly increase their power in response to increased co-channel interference caused by the other mobile increasing its power. This in unlikely to occur in practice but it is (or was as of 1991) under study. At the same time the base stations perform the timing measurements, they also perform measurements on the power level of the different mobile stations. These power levels are adjusted so that the power is nearly the same for each burst. A base station also controls its power level. The mobile station measures the strength and the quality of the signal between itself and the base station. If the mobile station does not receive correctly the signal, the base station changes its power level.

4.9 Discontinuous Reception

Another method used to conserve power at the mobile station is discontinuous reception. The paging channel, used by the base station to signal an incoming call, is structured into sub-channels. Each mobile station needs to listen only to its own sub-channel. In the time between successive paging sub-channels, the mobile can go into sleep mode, when almost no power is used. It is a method used to conserve the mobile station's power. The paging channel is divided into sub channels corresponding to single mobile stations. Each mobile station will then only 'listen' to its sub channel and will stay in the sleep mode during the other sub channels of the paging channel.

4.10 Multipath And Equalization

At the GSM frequency bands, radio waves reflect from buildings, cars, hills, etc. So not only the 'right' signal (the output signal of the emitter) is received by an antenna, but also many reflected signals, which corrupt the information, with different phases. An equalizer is in charge of extracting the 'right' signal from the received signal. It estimates the channel impulse response of the GSM system and then constructs an inverse filter. The receiver knows which training sequence it must wait for. The equalizer will then, comparing the received training sequence with the training sequence it was expecting, compute the coefficients of the channel impulse response. In order to extract the 'right' signal, the received signal is passed through the inverse filter. At the 900 MHz range, radio waves bounce off everything - buildings, hills, cars, airplanes, etc. Thus many reflected signals, each with a different phase, can reach an antenna. Equalization is used to extract the desired signal from the unwanted reflections. It works by finding out how a known transmitted signal is modified by multipath fading, and constructing an inverse filter to extract the rest of the desired signal. This known signal is the 26-bit training sequence transmitted in the middle of every time-slot burst. The actual implementation of the equalizer is not specified in the GSM specifications.

CONCLUSION

To design a satellite system for trucking applications was in past no more difficult that to design the transmission system whose role it was meant to fulfill. This is now changing rapidly. The evolution of the network, the emergence of very competitive alternatives, and the foreseen evolution of the satellite systems themselves call for a reappraisal of their role in the implementation of the backbone digital network. The reappraisal requires the investigation of many system problems which did not use to show up on the tables of satellite communications engineers. The problems are there. But the benefits that this integration may provide are very attractive. This is why ESA is actively studying every implication of these concepts. In this paper, the need for internetworking of LANS and some of the problems of the existing interconnection facilities were discussed briefly. A satellite based wide area network concept and inter-LAN traffic assessment issues were also discussed. Given the major evaluation criteria as suggested earlier in the paper, the conclusion is that such procedure provides a flexible and efficient space telecommunication network capable of satisfying user requirements. In particular it would provide: minimum transmission delay, user access direct or a via ISDN, flexibility in bandwidth-to-service allocation.

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