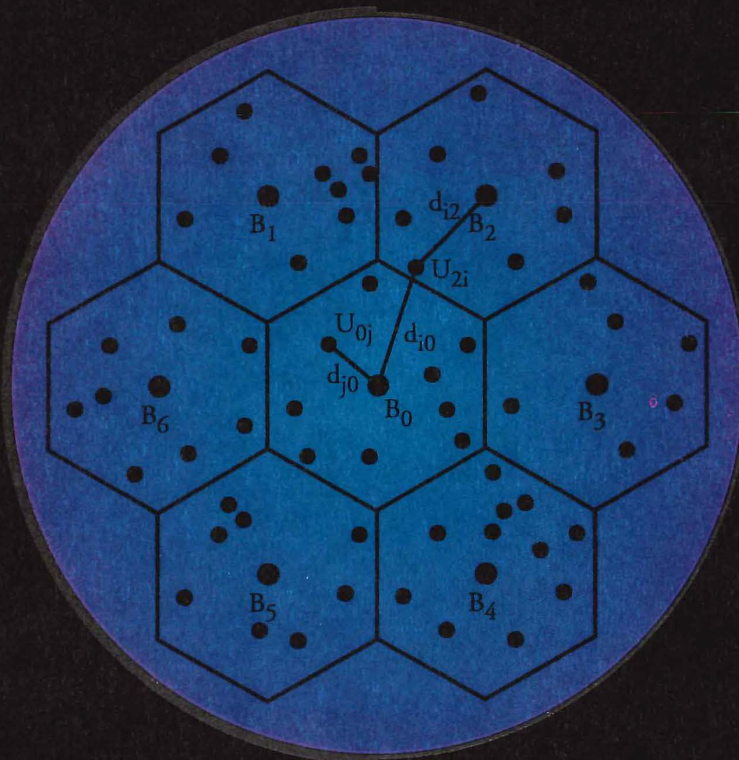


WIRELESS

communications

Principles & Practice



Theodore S. Rappaport

Wireless Communications

Principles and Practice

Theodore S. Rappaport

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Contents

Preface	xi
1 Introduction to Wireless Communication Systems	1
1.1 Evolution of Mobile Radio Communications	1
1.2 Mobile Radiotelephone in the U.S.	4
1.3 Mobile Radio Systems Around the World	6
1.4 Examples of Mobile Radio Systems	9
1.4.1 Paging Systems	11
1.4.2 Cordless Telephone Systems	13
1.4.3 Cellular Telephone Systems	14
1.4.4 Comparison of Common Mobile Radio Systems	17
1.5 Trends in Cellular Radio and Personal Communications	20
1.6 Problems	22
2 The Cellular Concept — System Design Fundamentals	25
2.1 Introduction	25
2.2 Frequency Reuse	26
2.3 Channel Assignment Strategies	30
2.4 Handoff Strategies	31
2.4.1 Prioritizing Handoffs	34
2.4.2 Practical Handoff Considerations	34
2.5 Interference and System Capacity	37
2.5.1 Co-channel Interference and System Capacity	37
2.5.2 Adjacent Channel Interference	41
2.5.3 Power Control for Reducing Interference	43
2.6 Trunking and Grade of Service	44

2.7 Improving Capacity in Cellular Systems	54
2.7.1 Cell Splitting	54
2.7.2 Sectoring	57
2.7.3 A Novel Microcell-Zone Concept	61
2.8 Summary	63
2.9 Problems	63
3 Mobile Radio Propagation: Large-Scale Path Loss	69
3.1 Introduction to Radio Wave Propagation	69
3.2 Free Space Propagation Model	70
3.3 Relating Power to Electric Field	74
3.4 The Three Basic Propagation Mechanisms	78
3.5 Reflection	78
3.5.1 Reflection from Dielectrics	79
3.5.2 Brewster Angle	84
3.5.3 Reflection from Perfect Conductors	85
3.6 Ground Reflection (2-ray) Model	85
3.7 Diffraction	90
3.7.1 Fresnel Zone Geometry	91
3.7.2 Knife-edge Diffraction Model	94
3.7.3 Multiple Knife-edge Diffraction	99
3.8 Scattering	100
3.8.1 Radar Cross Section Model	101
3.9 Practical Link Budget Design using Path Loss Models	102
3.9.1 Log-distance Path Loss Model	102
3.9.2 Log-normal Shadowing	104
3.9.3 Determination of Percentage of Coverage Area	106
3.10 Outdoor Propagation Models	110
3.10.1 Longley-Rice Model	110
3.10.2 Durkin's Model — A Case Study	111
3.10.3 Okumura Model	116
3.10.4 Hata Model	119
3.10.5 PCS Extension to Hata Model	120
3.10.6 Walfisch and Bertoni Model	120
3.10.7 Wideband PCS Microcell Model	121
3.11 Indoor Propagation Models	123
3.11.1 Partition Losses (same floor)	123
3.11.2 Partition Losses between Floors	126
3.11.3 Log-distance Path Loss Model	126
3.11.4 Ericsson Multiple Breakpoint Model	128
3.11.5 Attenuation Factor Model	128
3.12 Signal Penetration into Buildings	131
3.13 Ray Tracing and Site Specific Modeling	132
3.14 Problems	133

54
54
57
61
63
63
69
69
70
74
78
78
79
84
85
85
90
91
94
99
100
101
102
102
104
106
110
110
111
116
119
120
120
121
123
123
126
126
128
128
131
132
133

4 Mobile Radio Propagation: Small-Scale Fading and Multipath	139
4.1 Small-Scale Multipath Propagation	139
4.1.1 Factors Influencing Small-Scale Fading	140
4.1.2 Doppler Shift	141
4.2 Impulse Response Model of a Multipath Channel	143
4.2.1 Relationship Between Bandwidth and Received Power	147
4.3 Small-Scale Multipath Measurements	153
4.3.1 Direct RF Pulse System	154
4.3.2 Spread Spectrum Sliding Correlator Channel Sounding	155
4.3.3 Frequency Domain Channel Sounding	158
4.4 Parameters of Mobile Multipath Channels	159
4.4.1 Time Dispersion Parameters	160
4.4.2 Coherence Bandwidth	163
4.4.3 Doppler Spread and Coherence Time	165
4.5 Types of Small-Scale Fading	167
4.5.1 Fading Effects Due to Multipath Time Delay Spread	168
4.5.2 Fading Effects Due to Doppler Spread	170
4.6 Rayleigh and Ricean Distributions	172
4.6.1 Rayleigh Fading Distribution	172
4.6.2 Ricean Fading Distribution	174
4.7 Statistical Models for Multipath Fading Channels	176
4.7.1 Clarke's Model for Flat Fading	177
4.7.2 Simulation of Clarke and Gans Fading Model	181
4.7.3 Level Crossing and Fading Statistics	185
4.7.4 Two-ray Rayleigh Fading Model	188
4.7.5 Saleh and Valenzuela Indoor Statistical Model	188
4.7.6 SIRCIM and SMRCIM Indoor and Outdoor Statistical Models	189
4.8 Problems	192
5 Modulation Techniques for Mobile Radio	197
5.1 Frequency Modulation vs. Amplitude Modulation	198
5.2 Amplitude Modulation	199
5.2.1 Single Sideband AM	202
5.2.2 Pilot Tone SSB	203
5.2.3 Demodulation of AM signals	206
5.3 Angle Modulation	206
5.3.1 Spectra and Bandwidth of FM Signals	208
5.3.2 FM Modulation Methods	209
5.3.3 FM Detection Techniques	211
5.3.4 Tradeoff Between SNR and Bandwidth in an FM Signal	219
5.4 Digital Modulation — an Overview	220
5.4.1 Factors That Influence the Choice of Digital Modulation	221
5.4.2 Bandwidth and Power Spectral Density of Digital Signals	224
5.4.3 Line Coding	225
5.5 Pulse Shaping Techniques	225
5.5.1 Nyquist Criterion for ISI Cancellation	227

5.5.2 Raised Cosine Rolloff Filter	229
5.5.3 Gaussian Pulse-shaping Filter	233
5.6 Geometric Representation of Modulation Signals	234
5.7 Linear Modulation Techniques	238
5.7.1 Binary Phase Shift Keying (BPSK)	238
5.7.2 Differential Phase Shift Keying (DPSK)	242
5.7.3 Quadrature Phase Shift Keying (QPSK)	243
5.7.4 QPSK Transmission and Detection Techniques	246
5.7.5 Offset QPSK	247
5.7.6 $\pi/4$ QPSK	249
5.7.7 $\pi/4$ QPSK Transmission Techniques	249
5.7.8 $\pi/4$ QPSK Detection Techniques	252
5.8 Constant Envelope Modulation	254
5.8.1 Binary Frequency Shift Keying	256
5.8.2 Minimum Shift Keying (MSK)	259
5.8.3 Gaussian Minimum Shift Keying (GMSK)	261
5.9 Combined Linear and Constant Envelope Modulation Techniques	267
5.9.1 M-ary Phase Shift Keying (MPSK)	267
5.9.2 M-ary Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM)	270
5.9.3 M-ary Frequency Shift Keying (MFSK)	272
5.10 Spread Spectrum Modulation Techniques	274
5.10.1 Pseudo-noise (PN) Sequences	275
5.10.2 Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum (DS-SS)	276
5.10.3 Frequency Hopped Spread Spectrum (FH-SS)	278
5.10.4 Performance of Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum	280
5.10.5 Performance of Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum	283
5.11 Modulation Performance in Fading and Multipath Channels	284
5.11.1 Performance of Digital Modulation in Slow, Flat Fading Channels	285
5.11.2 Digital Modulation in Frequency Selective Mobile Channels	289
5.11.3 Performance of $\pi/4$ DQPSK in Fading and Interference	290
5.12 Problems	294
6 Equalization, Diversity, and Channel Coding	299
6.1 Introduction	299
6.2 Fundamentals of Equalization	300
6.3 A Generic Adaptive Equalizer	303
6.4 Equalizers in a Communications Receiver	307
6.5 Survey of Equalization Techniques	308
6.6 Linear Equalizers	310
6.7 Nonlinear Equalization	312
6.7.1 Decision Feedback Equalization (DFE)	313
6.7.2 Maximum Likelihood Sequence Estimation (MLSE) Equalizer	315
6.8 Algorithms for Adaptive Equalization	316
6.8.1 Zero Forcing Algorithm	318
6.8.2 Least Mean Square Algorithm	319
6.8.3 Recursive Least Squares Algorithm	321
6.8.4 Summary of Algorithms	323

229
233
234
238
238
242
243
246
247
249
249
252
254
256
259
261
267
267
270
272
274
275
276
278
280
283
284
285
289
290
294
299
299
300
303
307
308
310
312
313
315
316
318
319
321
323

els

6.9 Fractionally Spaced Equalizers	323
6.10 Diversity Techniques	325
6.10.1 Derivation of Selection Diversity Improvement	326
6.10.2 Derivation of Maximal Ratio Combining Improvement	328
6.10.3 Practical Space Diversity Considerations	330
6.10.4 Polarization Diversity	332
6.10.5 Frequency Diversity	335
6.10.6 Time Diversity	335
6.11 RAKE Receiver	336
6.12 Interleaving	338
6.13 Fundamentals of Channel Coding	339
6.14 Block Codes	340
6.14.1 Examples of Block Codes	344
6.14.2 Case Study of Reed-Solomon Codes	346
6.15 Convolutional Codes	352
6.15.1 Decoding of Convolutional Codes	354
6.16 Coding Gain	356
6.17 Trellis Coded Modulation	356
6.18 Problems	357
7 Speech Coding	361
7.1 Introduction	361
7.2 Characteristics of Speech Signals	363
7.3 Quantization Techniques	365
7.3.1 Uniform Quantization	365
7.3.2 Nonuniform Quantization	365
7.3.3 Adaptive Quantization	368
7.3.4 Vector Quantization	368
7.4 Adaptive Differential Pulse Code Modulation	369
7.5 Frequency Domain Coding of Speech	371
7.5.1 Sub-band Coding	372
7.5.2 Adaptive Transform Coding	375
7.6 Vocoders	376
7.6.1 Channel Vocoders	376
7.6.2 Formant Vocoders	377
7.6.3 Cepstrum Vocoders	377
7.6.4 Voice-Excited Vocoder	378
7.7 Linear Predictive Coders	378
7.7.1 LPC Vocoders	378
7.7.2 Multi-pulse Excited LPC	381
7.7.3 Code-Excited LPC	382
7.7.4 Residual Excited LPC	383
7.8 Choosing Speech Codecs for Mobile Communications	384
7.9 The GSM Codec	387
7.10 The USDC Codec	389
7.11 Performance Evaluation of Speech Coders	389
7.12 Problems	392

8 Multiple Access Techniques for Wireless Communications	395
8.1 Introduction	395
8.1.1 Introduction to Multiple Access	396
8.2 Frequency Division Multiple Access (FDMA)	397
8.3 Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA)	400
8.4 Spread Spectrum Multiple Access	404
8.4.1 Frequency Hopped Multiple Access (FHMA)	404
8.4.2 Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA)	405
8.4.3 Hybrid Spread Spectrum Techniques	407
8.5 Space Division Multiple Access (SDMA)	409
8.6 Packet Radio	410
8.6.1 Packet Radio Protocols	411
8.6.2 Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA) Protocols	415
8.6.3 Reservation Protocols	416
8.6.4 Capture Effect in Packet Radio	416
8.7 Capacity of Cellular Systems	417
8.7.1 Capacity of Cellular CDMA	422
8.7.2 Capacity of CDMA with Multiple Cells	425
8.7.3 Capacity of Space Division Multiple Access	431
8.8 Problems	437
9 Wireless Networking	439
9.1 Introduction to Wireless Networks	439
9.2 Differences Between Wireless and Fixed Telephone Networks	441
9.2.1 The Public Switched Telephone Network (PSTN)	441
9.2.2 Limitations in Wireless Networking	443
9.2.3 Merging Wireless Networks and the PSTN	444
9.3 Development of Wireless Networks	445
9.3.1 First Generation Wireless Networks	445
9.3.2 Second Generation Wireless Networks	448
9.3.3 Third Generation Wireless Networks	449
9.4 Fixed Network Transmission Hierarchy	449
9.5 Traffic Routing in Wireless Networks	450
9.5.1 Circuit Switching	452
9.5.2 Packet Switching	452
9.5.3 The X.25 Protocol	454
9.6 Wireless Data Services	455
9.6.1 Cellular Digital Packet Data (CDPD)	455
9.6.2 Advanced Radio Data Information Systems (ARDIS)	457
9.6.3 RAM Mobile Data (RMD)	457
9.7 Common Channel Signaling (CCS)	458
9.7.1 The Distributed Central Switching Office for CCS	459
9.8 Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN)	461
9.8.1 Broadband ISDN and ATM	463
9.9 Signaling System No. 7 (SS7)	463
9.9.1 Network Services Part (NSP) of SS7	465

IS	395
	395
	396
	397
	400
	404
	404
	405
	407
	409
	410
	411
	415
	416
	416
	417
	422
	425
	431
	437
	439
	439
	441
	441
	443
	444
	445
	445
	448
	449
	449
	450
	452
	452
	454
	455
	455
	457
	457
	458
	459
	461
	463
	463
	465

	9.9.2 The SS7 User Part	466
	9.9.3 Signaling Traffic in SS7	467
	9.9.4 SS7 Services	468
	9.9.5 Performance of SS7	469
	9.10 An example of SS7 — Global Cellular Network Interoperability	469
	9.11 Personal Communication Services/Networks (PCS/PCN)	472
	9.11.1 Packet vs. Circuit switching for PCN	472
	9.11.2 Cellular Packet-Switched Architecture	473
	9.12 Protocols for Network Access	477
	9.12.1 Packet Reservation Multiple Access (PRMA)	478
	9.13 Network Databases	479
	9.13.1 Distributed Database for Mobility Management	479
	9.14 Universal Mobile Telecommunication System (UMTS)	480
	9.15 Summary	481
	10 Wireless Systems and Standards	483
	10.1 AMPS and ETACS	483
	10.1.1 AMPS and ETACS System Overview	484
	10.1.2 Call Handling in AMPS and ETACS	485
	10.1.3 AMPS and ETACS Air Interface	487
	10.1.4 N-AMPS	491
	10.2 United States Digital Cellular (IS-54)	491
	10.2.1 USDC Radio Interface	493
	10.2.2 United States Digital Cellular Derivatives (IS-94 and IS-136)	500
	10.3 Global System for Mobile (GSM)	500
	10.3.1 GSM Services and Features	501
	10.3.2 GSM System Architecture	502
	10.3.3 GSM Radio Subsystem	505
	10.3.4 GSM Channel Types	507
	10.3.5 Example of a GSM Call	512
	10.3.6 Frame Structure for GSM	513
	10.3.7 Signal Processing in GSM	515
	10.4 CDMA Digital Cellular Standard (IS-95)	519
	10.4.1 Frequency and Channel Specifications	520
	10.4.2 Forward CDMA Channel	521
	10.4.3 Reverse CDMA Channel	527
	10.4.4 IS-95 with 14.4 kbps Speech Coder [ANS95]	533
	10.5 CT2 Standard For Cordless Telephones	533
	10.5.1 CT2 Services and Features	533
	10.5.2 The CT2 Standard	534
	10.6 Digital European Cordless Telephone (DECT)	535
	10.6.1 Features and Characteristics	535
	10.6.2 DECT Architecture	536
	10.6.3 DECT Functional Concept	537
	10.6.4 DECT Radio Link	538

10.7 PACS — Personal Access Communication Systems	539
10.7.1 PACS System Architecture	540
10.7.2 PACS Radio Interface	541
10.8 Pacific Digital Cellular (PDC)	543
10.9 Personal Handyphone System (PHS)	544
10.10 U.S. PCS and ISM Bands	544
10.11 U.S. Wireless Cable Television	547
10.12 Summary of Standards Throughout the World	548
10.13 Problems	551
APPENDICES	
A Trunking Theory	555
A.1 Erlang B	556
A.1.1 Derivation of Erlang B	556
A.2 Erlang C	561
A.2.1 Derivation of Erlang C	561
B Noise Figure Calculations for Link Budgets	565
C Gaussian Approximations for Spread Spectrum CDMA	569
C.1 The Gaussian Approximation	577
C.2 The Improved Gaussian Approximation (IGA)	582
C.3 A Simplified Expression for the Improved Gaussian Approximation (SEIGA)	585
D Q, erf & erfc Functions	593
D.1 The Q-Function	593
D.2 The erf and erfc functions	595
E Mathematical Tables	599
F Abbreviations and Acronyms	607
G References	617
Index	635

Introduction to Wireless Communication Systems

The ability to communicate with people on the move has evolved remarkably since Guglielmo Marconi first demonstrated radio's ability to provide continuous contact with ships sailing the English channel. That was in 1897, and since then new wireless communications methods and services have been enthusiastically adopted by people throughout the world. Particularly during the past ten years, the mobile radio communications industry has grown by orders of magnitude, fueled by digital and RF circuit fabrication improvements, new large-scale circuit integration, and other miniaturization technologies which make portable radio equipment smaller, cheaper, and more reliable. Digital switching techniques have facilitated the large scale deployment of affordable, easy-to-use radio communication networks. These trends will continue at an even greater pace during the next decade.

1.1 Evolution of Mobile Radio Communications

A brief history of the evolution of mobile communications throughout the world is useful in order to appreciate the enormous impact that cellular radio and personal communication services (PCS) will have on all of us over the next several decades. It is also useful for a newcomer to the cellular radio field to understand the tremendous impact that government regulatory agencies and service competitors wield in the evolution of new wireless systems, services, and technologies. While it is not the intent of this text to deal with the techno-political aspects of cellular radio and personal communications, techno-politics are a fundamental driver in the evolution of new technology and services, since radio spectrum usage is controlled by governments, not by service providers, equipment manufacturers, entrepreneurs, or researchers. Progressive involvement in

technology development is vital for a government if it hopes to keep its own country competitive in the rapidly changing field of wireless personal communications.

Wireless communications is enjoying its fastest growth period in history, due to enabling technologies which permit wide spread deployment. Historically, growth in the mobile communications field has come slowly, and has been coupled closely to technological improvements. The ability to provide wireless communications to an entire population was not even conceived until Bell Laboratories developed the cellular concept in the 1960s and 1970s [Nob62], [Mac79], [You79]. With the development of highly reliable, miniature, solid-state radio frequency hardware in the 1970s, the wireless communications era was born. The recent exponential growth in cellular radio and personal communication systems throughout the world is directly attributable to new technologies of the 1970s, which are mature today. The future growth of consumer-based mobile and portable communication systems will be tied more closely to radio spectrum allocations and regulatory decisions which affect or support new or extended services, as well as to consumer needs and technology advances in the signal processing, access, and network areas.

The following market penetration data show how wireless communications in the consumer sector has grown in popularity. Figure 1.1 illustrates how mobile telephony has penetrated our daily lives compared with other popular inventions of the 20th century. Figure 1.1 is a bit misleading since the curve labeled "mobile telephone" does not include nontelephone mobile radio applications, such as paging, amateur radio, dispatch, citizens band (CB), public service, cordless phones, or terrestrial microwave radio systems. In fact, in late 1990, licensed noncellular radio systems in the U.S. had over 12 million users, more than twice the U.S. cellular user population at that time [FCC91]. Figure 1.1 shows that the first 35 years of mobile telephone saw little market penetration due to high cost and the technological challenges involved, but how, in the past decade, cellular telephone has been accepted by consumers at rates comparable to the television, and the video cassette recorder.

In 1934, 194 municipal police radio systems and 58 state police stations had adopted amplitude modulation (AM) mobile communication systems for public safety in the U.S.. It was estimated that 5000 radios were installed in mobiles in the mid 1930s, and vehicle ignition noise was a major problem for these early mobile users [Nob62]. In 1935, Edwin Armstrong demonstrated frequency modulation (FM) for the first time, and since the late 1930s, FM has been the primary modulation technique used for mobile communication systems throughout the world. World War II accelerated the improvements of the world's manufacturing and miniaturization capabilities, and these capabilities were put to use in large one-way and two-way consumer radio and television systems following the war. The number of U.S. mobile users climbed from several thousand in 1940 to

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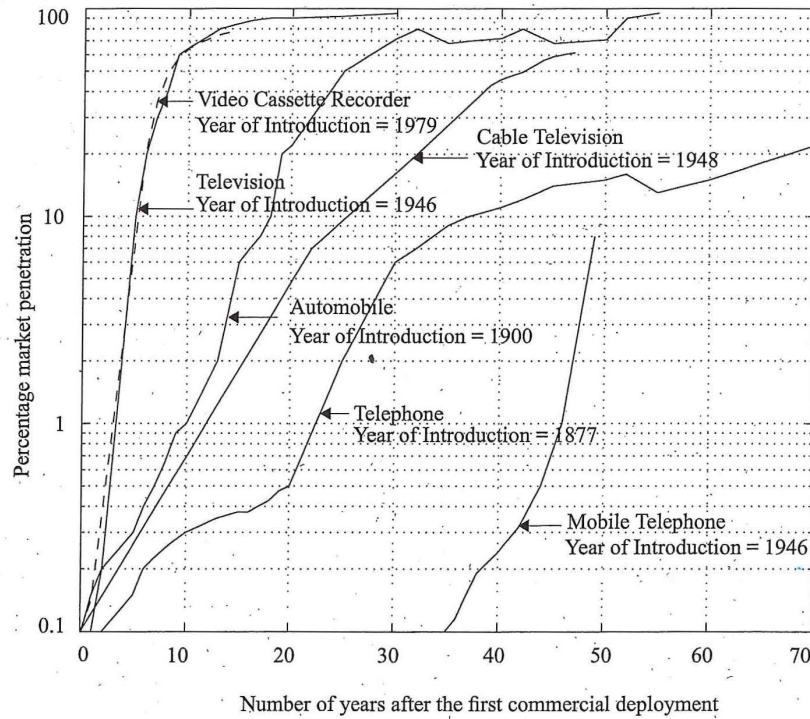


Figure 1.1
Figure illustrating the growth of mobile telephony as compared to other popular inventions of this century.

86,000 by 1948, 695,000 by 1958, and about 1.4 million users in 1962 [Nob62]. The vast majority of mobile users in the 1960s were not connected to the *public switched telephone network* (PSTN), and thus were not able to directly dial telephone numbers from their vehicles. With the boom in CB radio and cordless appliances such as garage door openers and telephones, the number of users of mobile and portable radio in 1995 was about 100 million, or 37% of the U.S. population. Research in 1991 estimated between 25 and 40 million cordless telephones were in use in the U.S., and by the turn of the century this is certain to double [Rap91c]. The number of cellular telephone users grew from 25,000 in 1984 to about 16 million in 1994, and since then, wireless services having been experiencing customer growth rates well in excess of 50% per year. By the end of 1995, there will be nearly 30 million U.S. cellular users. In the first couple of decades of the 21st century, there will be an equal number of wireless and conventional wireline customers throughout the world!

1.2 Mobile Radiotelephone in the U.S.

In 1946, the first public mobile telephone service was introduced in twenty-five major American cities. Each system used a single, high-powered transmitter and large tower in order to cover distances of over 50 km in a particular market. The early FM push-to-talk telephone systems of the late 1940s used 120 kHz of RF bandwidth in a half-duplex mode (only one person on the telephone call could talk at a time), even though the actual telephone-grade speech occupies only 3 kHz of baseband spectrum. The large RF bandwidth was needed because of the difficulty in mass-producing tight RF filters and low-noise, front-end receiver amplifiers. In 1950, the FCC doubled the number of mobile telephone channels per market, but with no new spectrum allocation. Improved technology enabled the channel bandwidth to be cut in half to 60 kHz. By the mid 1960s, the FM bandwidth of voice transmissions was cut to 30 kHz. Thus, there was only a factor of 4 increase in spectrum efficiency due to technology advances from WW II to the mid 1960s. Also in the 1950s and 1960s, automatic channel trunking was introduced and implemented under the label IMTS (Improved Mobile Telephone Service). With IMTS, telephone companies began offering full duplex, auto-dial, auto-trunking phone systems [Cal88]. However, IMTS quickly became saturated in major markets. By 1976, the Bell Mobile Phone service for the New York City market (a market of about 10,000,000 people) had only twelve channels and could serve only 543 paying customers. There was a waiting list of over 3,700 people [Cal88], and service was poor due to call blocking and usage over the few channels. IMTS is still in use in the U.S., but is very spectrally inefficient when compared to today's U.S. cellular system.

During the 1950s and 1960s, AT&T Bell Laboratories and other telecommunications companies throughout the world developed the theory and techniques of cellular radiotelephony — the concept of breaking a coverage zone (market) into small cells, each of which reuse portions of the spectrum to increase spectrum usage at the expense of greater system infrastructure [Mac79]. The basic idea of cellular radio spectrum allocation is similar to that used by the FCC when it allocates television stations or radio stations with different channels in a region of the country, and then reallocates those same channels to different stations in a completely different part of the country. Channels are only reused when there is sufficient distance between the transmitters to prevent interference. However, cellular relies on reusing the same channels within the same market or service area. AT&T proposed the concept of a cellular mobile system to the FCC in 1968. Technology wasn't available to implement cellular telephony until the late 1970s. In 1983, the FCC finally allocated 666 duplex channels (40 MHz of spectrum in the 800 MHz band, each channel having a one-way bandwidth of 30 kHz for a total spectrum occupancy of 60 kHz for each duplex channel) for the U.S. Advanced Mobile Phone System (AMPS) [You79]. According to FCC rules, each city (called a market) was only allowed to have two

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cellular radio system providers, thus providing a duopoly within each market which would assure some level of competition. As described in Chapters 2 and 10, the radio channels were split equally between the two carriers. AMPS was the first U.S. cellular telephone system, and was deployed in late 1983 by Ameritech in Chicago, IL [Bou91]. In 1989, the FCC granted an additional 166 channels (10 MHz) to U.S. cellular service providers to accommodate the rapid growth and demand. Figure 1.2 illustrates the spectrum currently allocated for U.S. cellular telephone use. Cellular radio systems operate in an interference-limited environment and rely on judicious frequency reuse plans (which are a function of the market-specific propagation characteristics) and frequency division multiple access (FDMA) to maximize capacity. These concepts will be covered in detail in subsequent chapters of this text.

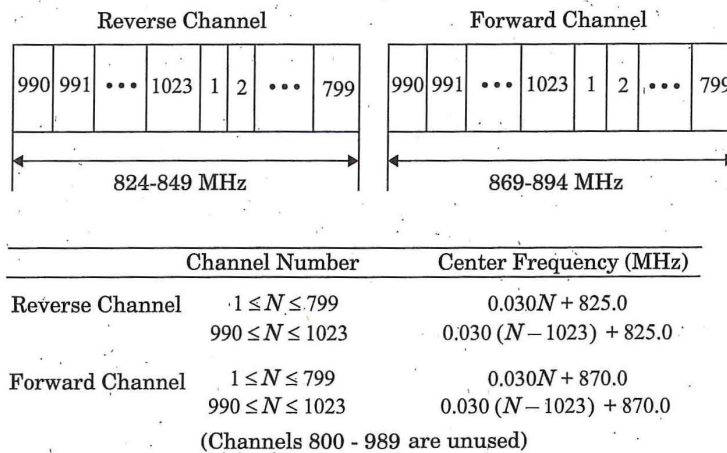


Figure 1.2
Frequency spectrum allocation for the U.S. cellular radio service. Identically labeled channels in the two bands form a forward and reverse channel pair used for duplex communication between the base station and mobile. Note that the forward and reverse channels in each pair are separated by 45 MHz.

In late 1991, the first U.S. Digital Cellular (USDC) system hardware was installed in major U.S. cities. The USDC standard (Electronic Industry Association Interim Standard IS-54) allows cellular operators to replace gracefully some single-user analog channels with digital channels which support three users in the same 30 kHz bandwidth [EIA90]. In this way, U.S. carriers can gradually phase out AMPS as more users accept digital phones. As discussed in Chapters 8 and 10, the capacity improvement offered by USDC is three times that of AMPS, because digital modulation ($\pi/4$ differential quadrature phase shift keying), speech coding, and time division multiple access (TDMA) are used in place of analog FM and FDMA. Given the rate of digital signal processing advancements,

speech coding technology will increase the capacity to six users per channel in the same 30 kHz bandwidth within a few years.

A cellular system based on code division multiple access (CDMA) has been developed by Qualcomm, Inc. and standardized by the Telecommunications Industry Association (TIA) as an Interim Standard (IS-95). This system supports a variable number of users in 1.25 MHz wide channels using direct sequence spread spectrum. While the analog AMPS system requires that the signal be at least 18 dB above the co-channel interference to provide acceptable call quality, CDMA systems can operate at much larger interference levels because of their inherent interference resistance properties. The ability of CDMA to operate with a much smaller signal-to-noise ratio than conventional narrowband FM techniques allows CDMA systems to use the same set of frequencies in every cell, which provides a large improvement in capacity [Gil91]. Unlike other digital cellular systems, the Qualcomm system uses a variable rate vocoder with voice activity detection which considerably reduces the required data rate and also the battery drain by the mobile transmitter.

In the early 1990s, a new specialized mobile radio service (SMR) was developed to compete with U.S. cellular radio carriers. By purchasing small groups of radio system licenses from a large number of independent private radio service providers throughout the country, Nextel and Motorola have formed an extended SMR (E-SMR) network in the 800 MHz band that could provide capacity and services similar to cellular. Using Motorola's integrated radio system (MIRS), SMR integrates voice dispatch, cellular phone service, messaging, and data transmission capabilities on the same network [Fil95].

New Personal Communication Service (PCS) licenses in the 1800/1900 MHz band were auctioned by the U.S. Government to wireless providers in early 1995, and these promise to spawn new wireless services that will complement, as well as compete with, cellular and SMR. One of the stipulations of the PCS license is that a majority of the coverage area be operational before the year 2000. Thus, there is pressure on PCS licensees to "build-out" each market. As many as five PCS licenses are allocated for each major U.S. city (see Chapter 10).

1.3 Mobile Radio Systems Around the World

Many mobile radio standards have been developed for wireless systems throughout the world, and more standards are likely to emerge. Table 1.1 through Table 1.3 lists the most common paging, cordless, cellular, and personal communications standards used in North America, Europe, and Japan. The differences between the basic types of wireless systems are described in Section 1.5, and are covered in detail in Chapter 10.

The world's most common paging standard is the Post Office Code Standard Advisory Group (POCSAG) [CCI86],[San82]. POCSAG was developed by British Post Office in the late 1970s and supports binary frequency shift keying (FSK).

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reless systems rge. Table 1.1 c, and personal Japan. The dif- in Section 1.5,

Code Standard ped by British keying (FSK)

Table 1.1 Major Mobile Radio Standards in North America

Standard	Type	Year of Introduction	Multiple Access	Frequency Band	Modulation	Channel Bandwidth
AMPS	Cellular	1983	FDMA	824-894 MHz	FM	30 kHz
NAMPS	Cellular	1992	FDMA	824-894 MHz	FM	10 kHz
USDC	Cellular	1991	TDMA	824-894 MHz	$\pi/4$ -DQPSK	30 kHz
CDPD	Cellular	1993	FH/ Packet	824-894 MHz	GMSK	30 kHz
IS-95	Cellular/ PCS	1993	CDMA	824-894 MHz 1.8-2.0 GHz	QPSK/ BPSK	1.25 MHz
GSC	Paging	1970's	Simplex	Several	FSK	12.5 kHz
POCSAG	Paging	1970's	Simplex	Several	FSK	12.5 kHz
FLEX	Paging	1993	Simplex	Several	4-FSK	15 kHz
DCS-1900 (GSM)	PCS	1994	TDMA	1.85-1.99 GHz	GMSK	200 kHz
PACS	Cordless/ PCS	1994	TDMA/ FDMA	1.85-1.99 GHz	$\pi/4$ -DQPSK	300 kHz
MIRS	SMR/PCS	1994	TDMA	Several	16-QAM	25 kHz

signaling at 512 bps, 1200 bps, and 2400 bps. New paging systems, such as FLEX and ERMES, provide up to 6400 bps transmissions by using 4-level modulation and are currently being deployed throughout the world.

The CT2 and *Digital European Cordless Telephone* (DECT) standards developed in Europe are the two most popular cordless telephone standards throughout Europe and Asia. The CT2 system makes use of microcells which cover small distances, usually less than 100 m, using base stations with antennas mounted on street lights or on sides of buildings. The CT2 system uses battery efficient frequency shift keying along with a 32 kbps adaptive differential pulse code modulation (ADPCM) speech coder for high quality voice transmission. Handoffs between base stations are not supported in CT2, as it is intended to provide short range access to the PSTN. The DECT system accommodates

Table 1.2 Major Mobile Radio Standards in Europe

Standard	Type	Year of Introduction	Multiple Access	Frequency Band	Modulation	Channel Bandwidth
E-TACS	Cellular	1985	FDMA	900 MHz	FM	25 kHz
NMT-450	Cellular	1981	FDMA	450-470 MHz	FM	25 kHz
NMT-900	Cellular	1986	FDMA	890-960 MHz	FM	12.5 kHz
GSM	Cellular /PCS	1990	TDMA	890-960 MHz	GMSK	200 kHz
C-450	Cellular	1985	FDMA	450-465 MHz	FM	20 kHz/ 10 kHz
ERMES	Paging	1993	FDMA	Several	4-FSK	25 kHz
CT2	Cordless	1989	FDMA	864-868 MHz	GFSK	100 kHz
DECT	Cordless	1993	TDMA	1880-1900 MHz	GFSK	1.728 MHz
DCS-1800	Cordless /PCS	1993	TDMA	1710-1880 MHz	GMSK	200 kHz

Table 1.3 Major Mobile Radio Standards in Japan

Standard	Type	Year of Introduction	Multiple Access	Frequency Band	Modulation	Channel Bandwidth
JTACS	Cellular	1988	FDMA	860-925 MHz	FM	25 kHz
PDC	Cellular	1993	TDMA	810-1501 MHz	$\pi/4$ -DQPSK	25 kHz
NTT	Cellular	1979	FDMA	400/800 MHz	FM	25 kHz
NTACS	Cellular	1993	FDMA	843-925 MHz	FM	12.5 kHz
NTT	Paging	1979	FDMA	280 MHz	FSK	12.5 kHz
NEC	Paging	1979	FDMA	Several	FSK	10 kHz
PHS	Cordless	1993	TDMA	1895-1907 MHz	$\pi/4$ -DQPSK	300 kHz

data and voice transmissions for office and business users. In the U.S., the PACS standard, developed by Bellcore and Motorola, is likely to be used inside office buildings as a wireless voice and data telephone system or radio local loop. The Personal Handyphone System (PHS) standard supports indoor and local loop applications in Japan. Local loop concepts are explained in Chapter 9.

The world's first cellular system was implemented by the Nippon Telephone and Telegraph company (NTT) in Japan. The system, deployed in 1979, uses 600 FM duplex channels (25 kHz for each one-way link) in the 800 MHz band. In Europe, the Nordic Mobile Telephone system (NMT 450) was developed in 1981 for the 450 MHz band and uses 25 kHz channels. The Extended European Total Access Cellular System (ETACS) was deployed in 1985 and is virtually identical

Channel Bandwidth
25 kHz
25 kHz
12.5 kHz
200 kHz
20 kHz/ 10 kHz
25 kHz
100 kHz
1.728 MHz
200 kHz

Channel Bandwidth
25 kHz
25 kHz
25 kHz
12.5 kHz
12.5 kHz
10 kHz
300 kHz

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to the U.S. AMPS system, except that the smaller bandwidth channels result in a slight degradation of signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) and coverage range. In Germany, a cellular standard called C-450 was introduced in 1985. The first generation European cellular systems are generally incompatible with one another because of the different frequencies and communication protocols used. These systems are now being replaced by the Pan European digital cellular standard GSM (Global System for Mobile) which was first deployed in 1991 in a new 900 MHz band which all of Europe dedicated for cellular telephone service [Mal89]. As discussed in Chapter 10, the GSM standard is gaining worldwide acceptance as the first universal digital cellular system with modern network features extended to each mobile user, and is a strong contender for PCS services above 1800 MHz throughout the world. In Japan, the Pacific Digital Cellular (PDC) standard provides digital cellular coverage using a system similar to North America's USDC.

1.4 Examples of Mobile Radio Systems

Most people are familiar with a number of mobile radio communication systems used in everyday life. Garage door openers, remote controllers for home entertainment equipment, cordless telephones, hand-held walkie-talkies, pagers (also called paging receivers or "beepers"), and cellular telephones are all examples of mobile radio communication systems. However, the cost, complexity, performance, and types of services offered by each of these mobile systems are vastly different.

The term *mobile* has historically been used to classify any radio terminal that could be moved during operation. More recently, the term *mobile* is used to describe a radio terminal that is attached to a high speed mobile platform (e.g. a cellular telephone in a fast moving vehicle) whereas the term *portable* describes a radio terminal that can be hand-held and used by someone at walking speed (e.g. a walkie-talkie or cordless telephone inside a home). The term *subscriber* is often used to describe a mobile or portable user because in most mobile communication systems, each user pays a subscription fee to use the system, and each user's communication device is called a *subscriber unit*. In general, the collective group of users in a wireless system are called *mobiles* or *users*, even though many of the users may actually use portable terminals. The mobiles communicate to fixed *base stations* which are connected to a commercial power source and a fixed *backbone network*. Table 1.4 lists definitions of terms used to describe elements of wireless communication systems.

Mobile radio transmission systems may be classified as *simplex*, *half-duplex* or *full-duplex*. In simplex systems, communication is possible in only one direction. Paging systems, in which messages are received but not acknowledged, are simplex systems. Half-duplex radio systems allow two-way communication, but use the same radio channel for both transmission and reception. This

Table 1.4 Wireless Communications System Definitions

Base Station	A fixed station in a mobile radio system used for radio communication with mobile stations. Base stations are located at the center or on the edge of a coverage region and consist of radio channels and transmitter and receiver antennas mounted on a tower.
Control Channel	Radio channels used for transmission of call setup, call request, call initiation, and other beacon or control purposes.
Forward Channel	Radio channel used for transmission of information from the base station to the mobile.
Full Duplex Systems	Communication systems which allow simultaneous two-way communication. Transmission and reception is typically on two different channels (FDD) although new cordless/PCS systems are using TDD.
Half Duplex Systems	Communication systems which allow two-way communication by using the same radio channel for both transmission and reception. At any given time, the user can only either transmit or receive information.
Handoff	The process of transferring a mobile station from one channel or base station to another.
Mobile Station	A station in the cellular radio service intended for use while in motion at unspecified locations. Mobile stations may be hand-held personal units (portables) or installed in vehicles (mobiles).
Mobile Switching Center	Switching center which coordinates the routing of calls in a large service area. In a cellular radio system, the MSC connects the cellular base stations and the mobiles to the PSTN. An MSC is also called a mobile telephone switching office (MTSO).
Page	A brief message which is broadcast over the entire service area, usually in a simulcast fashion by many base stations at the same time.
Reverse Channel	Radio channel used for transmission of information from the mobile to base station.
Roamer	A mobile station which operates in a service area (market) other than that from which service has been subscribed.
Simplex Systems	Communication systems which provide only one-way communication.
Subscriber	A user who pays subscription charges for using a mobile communications system.
Transceiver	A device capable of simultaneously transmitting and receiving radio signals.

means that at any given time, a user can only transmit or receive information. Constraints like “push-to-talk” and “release-to-listen” are fundamental features of half-duplex systems. Full duplex systems, on the other hand, allow simultaneous radio transmission and reception between a subscriber and a base station, by providing two simultaneous but separate channels (frequency division duplex,

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from the base

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area (market) other

two-way communication

mobile communication

and receiving radio

give information.

additional features

and, allow simultaneous

with a base station,

frequency division duplex,

or FDD) or adjacent time slots on a single radio channel (time division duplex, or TDD) for communication to and from the user.

Frequency division duplexing (FDD) provides simultaneous radio transmission channels for the subscriber and the base station, so that they both may constantly transmit while simultaneously receiving signals from one another. At the base station, separate transmit and receive antennas are used to accommodate the two separate channels. At the subscriber unit, however, a single antenna is used for both transmission to and reception from the base station, and a device called a *duplexer* is used inside the subscriber unit to enable the same antenna to be used for simultaneous transmission and reception. To facilitate FDD, it is necessary to separate the transmit and receive frequencies by about 5% of the nominal RF frequency, so that the duplexer can provide sufficient isolation while being inexpensively manufactured.

In FDD, a pair of simplex channels with a fixed and known frequency separation is used to define a specific radio channel in the system. The channel used to convey traffic to the mobile user from a base station is called the *forward channel*, while the channel used to carry traffic from the mobile user to a base station is called the *reverse channel*. In the U.S. AMPS standard, the reverse channel has a frequency which is exactly 45 MHz lower than that of the forward channel. Full duplex mobile radio systems provide many of the capabilities of the standard telephone, with the added convenience of mobility. Full duplex and half-duplex systems use *transceivers* for radio communication. FDD is used exclusively in analog mobile radio systems and is described in more detail in Chapter 8.

Time division duplexing (TDD) uses the fact that it is possible to share a single radio channel in time, so that a portion of the time is used to transmit from the base station to the mobile, and the remaining time is used to transmit from the mobile to the base station. If the data transmission rate in the channel is much greater than the end-user's data rate, it is possible to store information bursts and provide the appearance of full duplex operation to a user, even though there are *not* two simultaneous radio transmissions at any instant of time. TDD is only possible with digital transmission formats and digital modulation, and is very sensitive to timing. It is for this reason that TDD has only recently been used, and only for indoor or small area wireless applications where the physical coverage distances (and thus the radio propagation time delay) are much smaller than the many kilometers used in conventional cellular telephone systems.

1.4.1 Paging Systems

Paging systems are communication systems that send brief messages to a subscriber. Depending on the type of service, the message may be either a numeric message, an alphanumeric message, or a voice message. Paging systems are typically used to notify a subscriber of the need to call a particular telephone

number or travel to a known location to receive further instructions. In modern paging systems, news headlines, stock quotations, and faxes may be sent. A message is sent to a paging subscriber via the paging system access number (usually a toll-free telephone number) with a telephone keypad or modem. The issued message is called a *page*. The paging system then transmits the page throughout the service area using base stations which broadcast the page on a radio carrier.

Paging systems vary widely in their complexity and coverage area. While simple paging systems may cover a limited range of 2 km to 5 km, or may even be confined to within individual buildings, wide area paging systems can provide worldwide coverage. Though paging receivers are simple and inexpensive, the transmission system required is quite sophisticated. Wide area paging systems consist of a network of telephone lines, many base station transmitters, and large radio towers that simultaneously broadcast a page from each base station (this is called *simulcasting*). Simulcast transmitters may be located within the same service area or in different cities or countries. Paging systems are designed to provide reliable communication to subscribers wherever they are; whether inside a building, driving on a highway, or flying in an airplane. This necessitates large transmitter powers (on the order of kilowatts) and low data rates (a couple of thousand bits per second) for maximum coverage from each base station. Figure 1.3 shows a diagram of a wide area paging system.

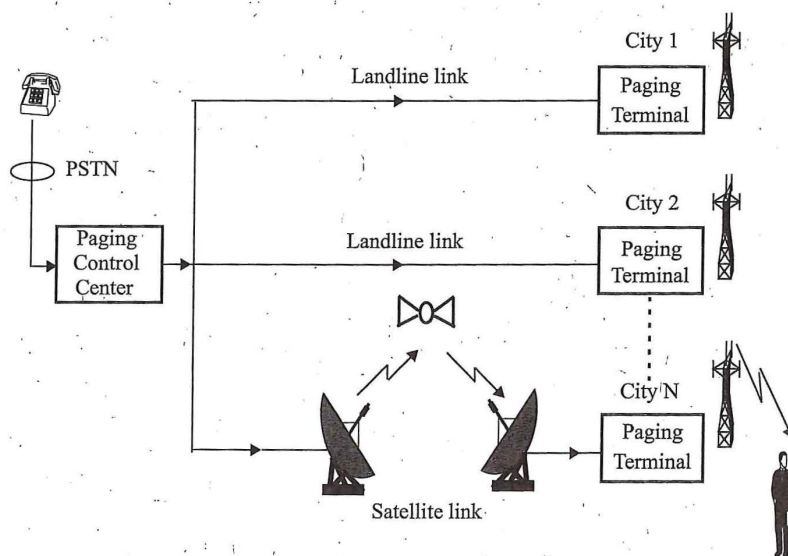
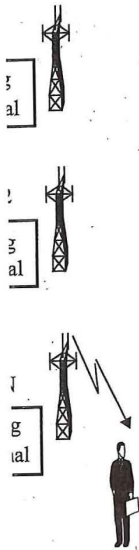


Figure 1.3

Diagram of a wide area paging system. The paging control center dispatches pages received from the PSTN throughout several cities at the same time.

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Example 1.1

Paging systems are designed to provide ultra-reliable coverage, even inside buildings. Buildings can attenuate radio signals by 20 or 30 dB, making the choice of base station locations difficult for the paging companies. For this reason, paging transmitters are usually located on tall buildings in the center of a city, and simulcasting is used in conjunction with additional base stations located on the perimeter of the city to flood the entire area. Small RF bandwidths are used to maximize the signal-to-noise ratio at each paging receiver, so low data rates (6400 bps or less) are used.

1.4.2 Cordless Telephone Systems

Cordless telephone systems are full duplex communication systems that use radio to connect a portable handset to a dedicated base station, which is then connected to a dedicated telephone line with a specific telephone number on the public switched telephone network (PSTN). In first generation cordless telephone systems (manufactured in the 1980s), the portable unit communicates only to the dedicated base unit and only over distances of a few tens of meters. Early cordless telephones operate solely as extension telephones to a transceiver connected to a subscriber line on the PSTN and are primarily for in-home use.

Second generation cordless telephones have recently been introduced which allow subscribers to use their handsets at many outdoor locations within urban centers such as London or Hong Kong. Modern cordless telephones are sometimes combined with paging receivers so that a subscriber may first be paged and then respond to the page using the cordless telephone. Cordless telephone systems provide the user with limited range and mobility, as it is usually not possible to maintain a call if the user travels outside the range of the base station. Typical second generation base stations provide coverage ranges up to a few hundred meters. Figure 1.4 illustrates a cordless telephone system.

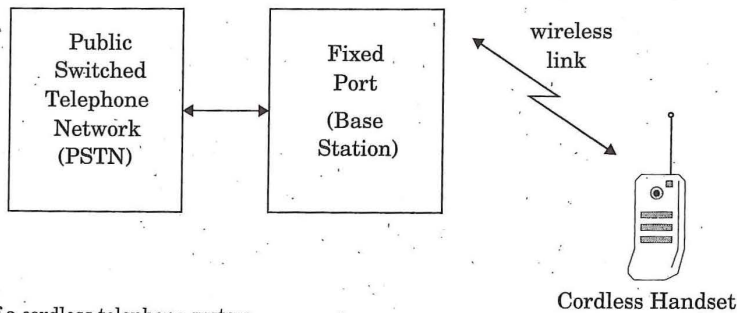


Figure 1.4
Diagram of a cordless telephone system.

1.4.3 Cellular Telephone Systems

A cellular telephone system provides a wireless connection to the PSTN for any user location within the radio range of the system. Cellular systems accommodate a large number of users over a large geographic area, within a limited frequency spectrum. Cellular radio systems provide high quality service that is often comparable to that of the landline telephone systems. High capacity is achieved by limiting the coverage of each base station transmitter to a small geographic area called a *cell* so that the same radio channels may be reused by another base station located some distance away. A sophisticated switching technique called a *handoff* enables a call to proceed uninterrupted when the user moves from one cell to another.

Figure 1.5 shows a basic cellular system which consists of *mobile stations*, *base stations* and a *mobile switching center (MSC)*. The Mobile Switching Center is sometimes called a *mobile telephone switching office (MTSO)*, since it is responsible for connecting all mobiles to the PSTN in a cellular system. Each mobile communicates via radio with one of the base stations and may be handed-off to any number of base stations throughout the duration of a call. The mobile station contains a transceiver, an antenna, and control circuitry, and may be mounted in a vehicle or used as a portable hand-held unit. The base stations consist of several transmitters and receivers which simultaneously handle full duplex communications and generally have towers which support several transmitting and receiving antennas. The base station serves as a bridge between all mobile users in the cell and connects the simultaneous mobile calls via telephone lines or microwave links to the MSC. The MSC coordinates the activities of all of the base stations and connects the entire cellular system to the PSTN. A typical MSC handles 100,000 cellular subscribers and 5,000 simultaneous conversations at a time, and accommodates all billing and system maintenance functions, as well. In large cities, several MSCs are used by a single carrier.

Communication between the base station and the mobiles is defined by a standard *common air interface (CAI)* that specifies four different channels. The channels used for voice transmission from the base station to mobiles are called *forward voice channels (FVC)* and the channels used for voice transmission from mobiles to the base station are called *reverse voice channels (RVC)*. The two channels responsible for initiating mobile calls are the *forward control channels (FCC)* and *reverse control channels (RCC)*. Control channels are often called *setup channels* because they are only involved in setting up a call and moving it to an unused voice channel. Control channels transmit and receive data messages that carry call initiation and service requests, and are monitored by mobiles when they do not have a call in progress. Forward control channels also serve as beacons which continually broadcast all of the traffic requests for all mobiles in the system. As described in Chapter 10, supervisory and data mes-

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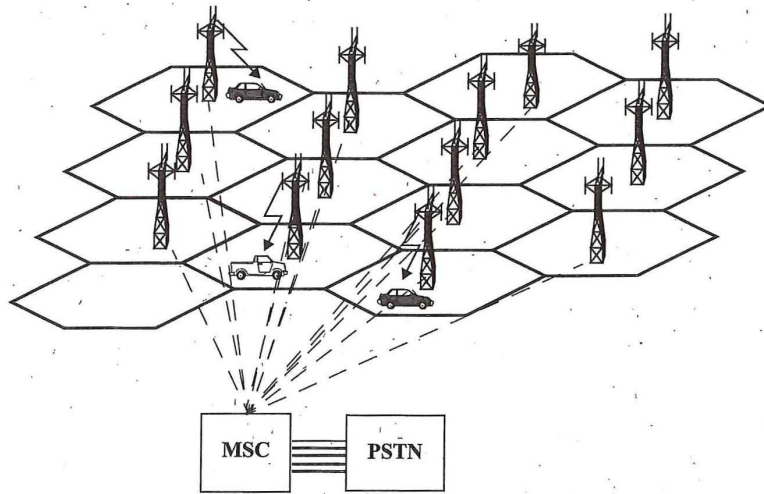


Figure 1.5 An illustration of a cellular system. The towers represent base stations which provide radio access between mobile users and the Mobile Switching Center (MSC).

sages are sent in a number of ways to facilitate automatic channel changes and handoff instructions for the mobiles before and during a call.

Example 1.2

Cellular systems rely on the frequency reuse concept, which requires that the forward control channels (FCCs) in neighboring cells be different. By defining a relatively small number of FCCs as part of the common air interface, cellular phones can be manufactured by many companies which can rapidly scan all of the possible FCCs to determine the strongest channel at any time. Once finding the strongest signal the cellular phone receiver stays "camped" to the particular FCC. By broadcasting the same setup data on all FCCs at the same time, the MSC is able to signal all subscribers within the cellular system and can be certain that any mobile will be signaled when it receives a call via the PSTN.

1.4.3.1 How a Cellular Telephone Call is Made

When a cellular mobile phone is turned on and is not yet engaged in a call, it first scans the group of forward control channels to determine the one with the strongest signal, and then monitors that control channel until the signal drops below a usable level. At this point it again scans the control channels in search of the strongest base station signal. For each cellular system described in Table 1.1 through Table 1.3, the control channels are defined and standardized over the entire geographic area covered and typically make up about 5% of the total num-

ber of channels available in the system (the other 95% are dedicated to voice and data traffic for the end-users). Since the control channels are standardized and are identical throughout different markets within the country or continent, every phone scans the same channels while idle. When a telephone call is placed to a mobile user, the MSC dispatches the request to all base stations in the cellular system. The *mobile identification number* (MIN), which is the subscriber's telephone number, is then broadcast as a paging message over all of the forward control channels throughout the cellular system. The mobile receives the paging message sent by the base station which it monitors, and responds by identifying itself over the reverse control channel. The base station relays the acknowledgment sent by the mobile and informs the MSC of the handshake. Then, the MSC instructs the base station to move the call to an unused voice channel within the cell (typically, between ten to sixty voice channels and just one control channel are used in each cell's base station). At this point the base station signals the mobile to change frequencies to an unused forward and reverse voice channel pair, at which point another data message (called an *alert*) is transmitted over the forward voice channel to instruct the mobile telephone to ring, thereby instructing the mobile user to answer the phone. Figure 1.6 shows the sequence of events involved with connecting a call to a mobile user in a cellular telephone system. All of these events occur within a few seconds and are not noticeable by the user.

Once a call is in progress, the MSC adjusts the transmitted power of the mobile and changes the channel of the mobile unit and base stations in order to maintain call quality as the subscriber moves in and out of range of each base station. This is called a *handoff*. Special control signaling is applied to the voice channels so that the mobile unit may be controlled by the base station and the MSC while a call is in progress.

When a mobile originates a call, a call initiation request is sent on the reverse control channel. With this request the mobile unit transmits its telephone number (MIN), *electronic serial number* (ESN), and the telephone number of the called party. The mobile also transmits a *station class mark* (SCM) which indicates what the maximum transmitter power level is for the particular user. The cell base station receives this data and sends it to the MSC. The MSC validates the request, makes connection to the called party through the PSTN, and instructs the base station and mobile user to move to an unused forward and reverse voice channel pair to allow the conversation to begin. Figure 1.7 shows the sequence of events involved with connecting a call which is initiated by a mobile user in a cellular system.

All cellular systems provide a service called *roaming*. This allows subscribers to operate in service areas other than the one from which service is subscribed. When a mobile enters a city or geographic area that is different from its home service area, it is registered as a roamer in the new service area. This is

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s allows subscrib- h service is sub- different from its vice area. This is

accomplished over the FCC, since each roamer is camped on to a FCC at all times. Every several minutes, the MSC issues a global command over each FCC in the system, asking for all mobiles which are previously unregistered to report their MIN and ESN over the RCC. New unregistered mobiles in the system periodically report back their subscriber information upon receiving the registration request, and the MSC then uses the MIN/ESN data to request billing status from the home location register (HLR) for each roaming mobile. If a particular roamer has roaming authorization for billing purposes, the MSC registers the subscriber as a valid roamer. Once registered, roaming mobiles are allowed to receive and place calls from that area, and billing is routed automatically to the subscriber's home service provider. The networking concepts used to implement roaming are covered in Chapter 9.

1.4.4 Comparison of Common Mobile Radio Systems

Table 1.5 and Table 1.6 illustrate the types of service, level of infrastructure, cost, and complexity required for the subscriber segment and base station segment of each of the five mobile or portable radio systems discussed earlier in this chapter. For comparison purposes, common household wireless remote devices are shown in the table. It is important to note that each of the five mobile radio systems given in Table 1.5 and Table 1.6 use a fixed base station, and for good reason. Virtually all mobile radio communication systems strive to connect a moving terminal to a fixed distribution system of some sort and attempt to look invisible to the distribution system. For example, the receiver in the garage door opener converts the received signal into a simple binary signal which is sent to the switching center of the garage motor. Cordless telephones use fixed base stations so they may be plugged into the telephone line supplied by the phone company — the radio link between the cordless phone base station and the portable handset is designed to behave identically to the coiled cord connecting a traditional wired telephone handset to the telephone carriage.

Notice that the expectations vary widely among the services, and the infrastructure costs are dependent upon the required coverage area. For the case of low power, hand-held cellular phones, a large number of base stations are required to insure that any phone is in close range to a base station within a city. If base stations were not within close range, a great deal of transmitter power would be required of the phone, thus limiting the battery life and rendering the service useless for hand-held users.

Because of the extensive telecommunications infrastructure of copper wires, microwave line-of-sight links, and fiber optic cables — all of which are fixed — it is highly likely that future land-based mobile communication systems will continue to rely on fixed base stations which are connected to some type of fixed distribution system. However, emerging mobile satellite networks will require orbiting base stations.

Base Station	FCC		Transmits page (MIN) for specified user.				Transmits data message for mobile to move to specific voice channel.	
	RCC			Receives MIN, ESN, Station Class Mark and passes to MSC.				
	FVC							Begin voice transmission.
	RVC							Begin voice reception.
Mobile	FCC		Receives page and matches the MIN with its own MIN.				Receives data messages to move to specified voice channel.	
	RCC			Acknowledges receipt of MIN and sends ESN and Station Class Mark.				
	FVC							Begin voice reception.
	RVC							Begin voice transmission.
MSC		Receives call from PSTN. Sends the requested MIN to all base stations.			Verifies that the mobile has a valid MIN, ESN pair.	Requests BS to move mobile to unused voice channel pair.		Connects the mobile with the calling party on the PSTN.

time →

Figure 1.6
Timing diagram illustrating how a call to a mobile user initiated by a landline subscriber is established.

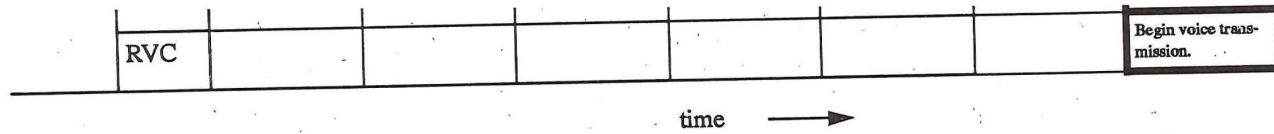


Figure 1.6
Timing diagram illustrating how a call to a mobile user initiated by a landline subscriber is established.

Base Station	FCC		Receives call initiation request from base station and verifies that the mobile has a valid MIN, ESN pair.	Instructs FCC of originating base station to move mobile to a pair of voice channels.		Connects the mobile with the called party on the PSTN.	
	RCC	Receives call initiation request. and MIN, ESN, Station Class Mark.				Pages for called mobile, instructing the mobile to move to voice channel.	
	FVC						Begin voice transmission.
	RVC						Begin voice reception.
Mobile	FCC					Receives page and matches the MIN with its own MIN. Receives instruction to move to voice channel.	
	RCC	Sends a call initiation request along with subscriber MIN and number of called party.					
	FVC						Begin voice reception.
	RVC						Begin voice transmission.

Figure 1.7
Timing diagram illustrating how a call initiated by a mobile is established.

Table 1.5 Comparison of Mobile Communication Systems — Mobile Station

Service	Coverage Range	Required Infrastructure	Complexity	Hardware Cost	Carrier Frequency	Functionality
TV Remote Control	Low	Low	Low	Low	Infra-red	Transmitter
Garage Door Opener	Low	Low	Low	Low	< 100 MHz	Transmitter
Paging System	High	High	Low	Low	< 1 GHz	Receiver
Cordless Phone	Low	Low	Moderate	Low	< 100 MHz	Transceiver
Cellular Phone	High	High	High	Moderate	< 1 GHz	Transceiver

Table 1.6 Comparison of Mobile Communication Systems — Base Station

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Cellular Phone	High	High	High	High	< 1 GHz	Transceiver

1.5 Trends in Cellular Radio and Personal Communications

Since 1989, there has been enormous activity throughout the world to develop personal wireless systems that combine the network intelligence of today's PSTN with modern digital signal processing and RF technology. The concept, called Personal Communication Services (PCS), originated in the United Kingdom when three companies were given spectrum in the 1800 MHz to develop Personal Communication Networks (PCN) throughout Great Britain [Rap91c]. PCN was seen by the U.K. as a means of improving its international competitiveness in the wireless field while developing new wireless systems and

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the world to intelligence of ology. The con- in the United 1800 MHz to Great Britain s international ss systems and

services for citizens. Presently, field trials are being conducted throughout the world to determine the suitability of various modulation, multiple-access, and networking techniques for future PCN and PCS systems.

The terms PCN and PCS are often used interchangeably. PCN refers to a wireless networking concept where any user can make or receive calls, no matter where they are, using a light-weight, personalized communicator. PCS refers to new wireless systems that incorporate more network features and are more personalized than existing cellular radio systems, but which do not embody all of the concepts of an ideal PCN.

Indoor wireless networking products are steadily emerging and promise to become a major part of the telecommunications infrastructure within the next decade. An international standards body, IEEE 802.11, is developing standards for wireless access between computers inside buildings. The European Telecommunications Standard Institute (ETSI) is also developing the 20 Mbps HIPER-LAN standard for indoor wireless networks. Recent products such as Motorola's 18 GHz Altair WIN (wireless information network) modem and AT&T's (formerly NCR) waveLAN computer modem have been available as wireless ethernet connections since 1990 and are beginning to penetrate the business world [Tuc93]. Before the end of the 20th century, products will allow users to link their phone with their computer within an office environment, as well as in a public setting, such as an airport or train station.

A worldwide standard, the Future Public Land Mobile Telephone System (FPLMTS) – renamed International Mobile Telecommunication 2000 (IMT-2000) in mid-1995 – is being formulated by the International Telecommunications Union (ITU) which is the standards body for the United Nations, with headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland. The technical group TG 8/1 standards task group is within the ITU's Radiocommunications Sector (ITU-R). ITU-R was formerly known as the Consultative Committee for International Radiocommunications (CCIR). TG 8/1 is considering how future PCNs should evolve and how worldwide frequency coordination might be implemented to allow subscriber units to work anywhere in the world. FPLMTS (now IMT-2000) is a third generation universal, multi-function, globally compatible digital mobile radio system that would integrate paging, cordless, and cellular systems, as well as low earth orbit (LEO) satellites, into one universal mobile system. A total of 230 MHz in frequency bands 1885 MHz to 2025 MHz and 2110 MHz to 2200 MHz has been targeted by the ITU's 1992 World Administrative Radio Conference (WARC). The type of modulation, speech coding, and multiple access schemes to be used in IMT-2000 are yet to be decided.

Worldwide standards are also required for emerging LEO satellite communication systems that are in the design and prototyping stage. Due to the very large areas on earth which are illuminated by satellite transmitters, satellite-based cellular systems will never approach the capacities provided by land-based

microcellular systems. However, satellite mobile systems offer tremendous promise for paging, data collection, and emergency communications, as well as for global roaming before IMT-2000 is deployed. In early 1990, the aerospace industry demonstrated the first successful launch of a small satellite on a rocket from a jet aircraft. This launch technique is more than an order of magnitude less expensive than conventional ground-based launches and can be deployed quickly, suggesting that a network of LEOs could be rapidly deployed for wireless communications around the globe. Already, several companies have proposed systems and service concepts for worldwide paging, cellular telephone, and emergency navigation and notification [IEE91].

In emerging nations, where existing telephone service is almost nonexistent, fixed cellular telephone systems are being installed at a rapid rate. This is due to the fact that developing nations are finding it is quicker and more affordable to install cellular telephone systems for fixed home use, rather than install wires in neighborhoods which have not yet received telephone connections to the PSTN.

The world is now in the early stages of a major telecommunications revolution that will provide ubiquitous communication access to citizens, wherever they are [Kuc91], [Goo91], [ITU94]. This new field requires engineers who can design and develop new wireless systems, make meaningful comparisons of competing systems, and understand the engineering trade-offs that must be made in any system. Such understanding can only be achieved by mastering the fundamental technical concepts of wireless personal communications. These concepts are the subject of the remaining chapters of this text.

1.6 Problems

- 1.1 Why do paging systems need to provide low data rates? How does a low data rate lead to better coverage?
- 1.2 Qualitatively describe how the power supply requirements differ between mobile and portable cellular phones, as well as the difference between pocket pagers and cordless phones. How does coverage range impact battery life in a mobile radio system?
- 1.3 In simulcasting paging systems, there usually is one dominant signal arriving at the paging receiver. In most, but not all cases, the dominant signal arrives from the transmitter closest to the paging receiver. Explain how the FM capture effect could help reception of the paging receiver. Could the FM capture effect help cellular radio systems? Explain how.
- 1.4 Where would walkie-talkies fit in Tables 1.5 and 1.6? Carefully describe the similarities and differences between walkie-talkies and cordless telephones. Why would consumers expect a much higher grade of service for a cordless telephone system?
- 1.5 Assume a 1 Amp-hour battery is used on a cellular telephone (often called a cellular subscriber unit). Also assume that the phone's radio receiver draws 35 mA on receive and 250 mA during a call. How long would the phone work (i.e. what is the battery life) if the user has one 3-minute call every day? every 6

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hours? every hour? What is the maximum talk time available on the cellular phone in this example?

- 1.6 Assume a CT2 subscriber unit has the same size battery as the phone in Problem 1.5, but the paging receiver draws 5 mA and the transmitter draws 80 mA during a call. Recompute the battery life for the cases in Problem 1.5. Recompute the maximum talk time for the CT2 handset.
- 1.7 Why would one expect the CT2 handset in Problem 1.6 to have a smaller battery drain during transmission than a cellular telephone?
- 1.8 Why is FM, rather than AM, used in most mobile radio systems today? List as many reasons as you can think of, and justify your responses. Consider issues such as fidelity, power consumption, and noise.
- 1.9 List the factors that led to the development of (a) the GSM system for Europe, and (b) the U.S. digital cellular system. How important was it for both efforts to (i) maintain compatibility with existing cellular phones? (ii) obtain spectral efficiency? (iii) obtain new radio spectrum?
- 1.10 Assume that a GSM, an IS-95, and a U.S. digital cellular base station transmit the same power over the same distance. Which system will provide the best SNR at a mobile receiver? How much is the improvement over the other two systems? Assume a perfect receiver with only thermal noise is used for each of the three systems.
- 1.11 Discuss the similarities and difference between a conventional cellular radio system and a space-based cellular radio system. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each system? Which system could support a larger number of users for a given frequency allocation? How would this impact the cost of service for each subscriber?
- 1.12 Assume that wireless communication services can be classified as belonging to one of the following four groups:
 - High power, wide area systems (cellular)
 - Low power, local area systems (cordless telephone and PCS)
 - Low speed, wide area systems (mobile data)
 - High speed, local area systems (wireless LANs)
 Classify each of the wireless systems described in Chapter 1 using these four groups. Justify your answers. Note that some systems may fit into more than one group.
- 1.13 Discuss the importance of regional and international standards organizations such as ITU-R, ETSI, and WARC. What competitive advantages are there in using different wireless standards in different parts of the world? What disadvantages arise when different standards and different frequencies are used in different parts of the world?
- 1.14 Based on the proliferation of wireless standards throughout the world, discuss how likely it is for IMT-2000 to be adopted. Provide a detailed explanation, along with probable scenarios of services, spectrum allocations, and cost.

