



ANNAIWOMEN'S COLLEGE

(Arts&Science)

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Course Material

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UNIT-1

The communication device moves (with or without a user). Many mechanisms in the network and inside the device have to make sure that communication is still possible while the device is moving. A typical example for systems supporting device portability is the mobile phone system, where the system itself hands the device from one radio transmitter (also called a base station) to the next if the signal becomes too weak. Most of the scenarios described in this book contain both user mobility and device portability at the same time.

A communication device can thus exhibit one of the following characteristics:

- **Fixed and wired:** This configuration describes the typical desktop computer in an office. Neither weight nor power consumption of the devices allow for mobile usage. The devices use fixed networks for performance reasons.
- **Mobile and wired:** Many of today's laptops fall into this category; users carry the laptop from one hotel to the next, reconnecting to the company's network via the telephone network and a modem.
- **Fixed and wireless:** This mode is used for installing networks, e.g., in historical buildings to avoid damage by installing wires, or at trade shows to ensure fast network setup. Another example is bridging the last mile to a customer by a new operator that has no wired infrastructure and does not want to lease lines from a competitor.
- **Mobile and wireless:** This is the most interesting case. No cable restricts the user, who can roam between different wireless networks. Most technologies discussed in this book deal with this type of device and the networks supporting them. Today's most successful example for this category is GSM with more than 800 million users.

APPLICATIONS:

Although many applications can benefit from wireless networks, mobile communications, particular application environments seem to be predestined for their use.

➤ Vehicles:

Today's cars already comprise some, but tomorrow's cars will comprise many wireless communication systems and mobility aware applications. Music, news, road conditions, weather reports, and other broadcast information are received via digital audio broadcasting (DAB) with 1.5 Mbit/s. For personal communication, a universal mobile telecommunications system (UMTS) phone might be available offering voice and data

connectivity with 384 kbit/s. For remote areas, satellite communication can be used, while the current position of the car is determined via the global positioning system (GPS).

➤ **Emergencies:**

Just imagine the possibilities of an ambulance with a high-quality wireless connection to a hospital. Vital information about injured persons can be sent to the hospital from the scene of the accident. All the necessary steps for this particular type of accident can be prepared and specialists can be consulted for an early diagnosis. Wireless networks are the only means of communication in the case of natural disasters such as hurricanes or earthquakes. In the worst cases, only decentralized, wireless ad-hoc networks survive.

➤ **Business:**

A travelling salesman today needs instant access to the company's database: to ensure that files on his or her laptop reflect the current situation, to enable the company to keep track of all activities of their travelling employees, to keep databases consistent etc. With wireless access, the laptop can be turned into a true mobile office, but efficient and powerful synchronization mechanisms are needed to ensure data consistency.

➤ **Replacement of wired networks:**

In some cases, wireless networks can also be used to replace wired networks, e.g., remote sensors, for trade shows, or in historic buildings. Due to economic reasons, it is often impossible to wire remote sensors for weather forecasts, earthquake detection, or to provide environmental information. Wireless connections, e.g., via satellite, can help in this situation.

➤ **Credit Card Verification:**

At Point of Sale (POS) terminals in shops and supermarkets, when customers use credit cards for transactions, the intercommunication required between the bank central computer and the POS terminal, in order to effect verification of the card usage, can take place quickly and securely over cellular channels using a mobile computer

unit. This can speed up the transaction process and relieve congestion at the POS terminals.

➤ **Replacement of Wired Networks:**

wireless networks can also be used to replace wired networks, e.g., remote sensors, for trade shows, or in historic buildings. Due to economic reasons, it is often impossible to wire remote sensors for weather forecasts, earthquake detection, or to

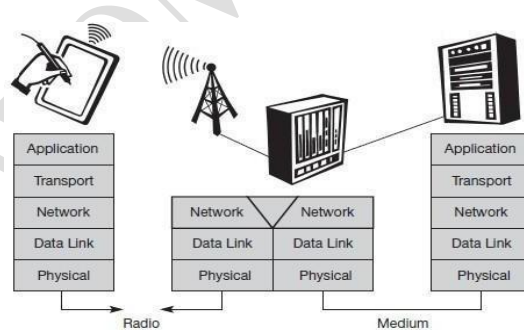
provide environmental information. Wireless connections, e.g., via satellite, can help in this situation. Other examples for wireless networks are computers, sensors, or information displays in historical buildings, where excess cabling may destroy valuable walls or floors.

➤ **Infotainment:**

wireless networks can provide up-to-date information at any appropriate location. The travel guide might tell you something about the history of a building (knowing via GPS, contact to local base station, or triangulation where you are) downloading information about a concert in the building at the same evening via a local wireless network. Another growing field of wireless network applications lies in entertainment and games to enable, e.g., ad-hoc gaming networks as soon as people meet to play together.

ASIMPLIFIEDREFERENCEMODEL:

The figure shows the **protocol stack** implemented in the system according to the reference model. **End-systems**, such as the PDA and computer in the example, need a full protocol stack comprising the application layer, transport layer, network layer, data link layer, and physical layer. Applications on the end-systems communicate with each other using the lower layers services. **Intermediate systems**, such as the interworking unit, do not necessarily



need all of the layers.

Physical layer:

This is the lowest layer in a communications system and is responsible for the conversion of a stream of bits into signals that can be transmitted on the sender side. The physical layer of the receiver then transforms the signals back into a bit stream. For wireless communication, the physical layer is responsible for frequency selection, generation of the carrier frequency, signal detection (although heavy interference may disturb the signal),

modulation of data onto a carrier frequency and (depending on the transmission scheme) encryption.

Data link layer:

The main tasks of this layer include accessing the medium, multiplexing of different data streams, correction of transmission errors, and synchronization (i.e., detection of a data frame). Altogether, the data link layer is responsible for a reliable point-to-point connection between two devices or a point-to-multipoint connection between one sender and several receivers.

Network layer:

This third layer is responsible for routing packets through a network or establishing a connection between two entities over many other intermediate systems. Important functions are addressing, routing, device location, and handover between different networks.

Transport layer:

This layer is used in the reference model to establish an end-to-end connection

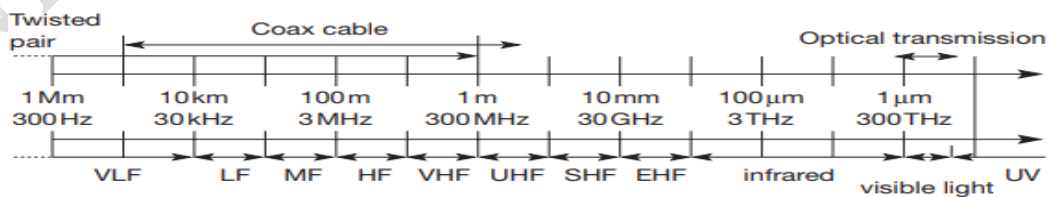
Application layer:

Finally, the applications (complemented by additional layers that can support applications) are situated on top of all transmission-oriented layers. Functions are service location, support for multimedia applications, adaptive applications that can handle the large variations in transmission characteristics, and wireless access to the world-wide web using a portable device.

WIRELESS TRANSMISSION:

FREQUENCIES FOR RADIOTRANSMISSION:

Radio transmission can take place using many different frequency bands. Each frequency band exhibits certain advantages and disadvantages. Figure gives a rough overview of the frequency spectrum that can be used for data transmission. The figure shows frequencies starting at 300 Hz and going up to over 300 THz. Directly coupled to the frequency is the wavelength λ via the equation: $\lambda = c/f$.



where $c \cong 3 \cdot 10^8$ m/s (the speed of light in vacuum) and f the frequency. For traditional wired networks, frequencies of up to several hundred kHz are used for distances up to some km with twisted pair copper wires, while frequencies of several hundred MHz are used with

coaxial cable (new coding schemes work with several hundred MHz even with twisted pair copper wires over distances of some 100 m). Fiber optics are used for frequency ranges of several hundred THz, but here one typically refers to the wavelength which is, e.g., 1500 nm, 1350 nm etc. (infrared).

Radio transmission starts at several kHz, the very low frequency (VLF) range. These are very long waves. Waves in the low frequency (LF) range are used by submarines, because they can penetrate water and can follow the earth's surface. Some radio stations still use these frequencies, e.g., between 148.5 kHz and 283.5 kHz in Germany. The medium frequency (MF) and high frequency (HF) ranges are typical for transmission of hundreds of radio stations either as amplitude modulation (AM) between 520 kHz and 1605.5 kHz, as shortwave (SW) between 5.9 MHz and 26.1 MHz, or as frequency modulation (FM) between 87.5 MHz and 108 MHz. The frequencies limiting these ranges are typically fixed by national regulation and, vary from country to country. Shortwaves are typically used for (amateur) radio transmission around the world, enabled by reflection at the ionosphere. Transmit power is up to 500 kW – which is quite high compared to the 1 W of a mobile phone.

As we move to higher frequencies, the TV stations follow. Conventional analog TV is transmitted in ranges of 174–230 MHz and 470–790 MHz using the very high frequency (VHF) and ultra high frequency (UHF) bands. In this range, digital audio broadcasting (DAB) takes place as well (223–230 MHz and 1452–1472 MHz) and digital TV is planned or currently being installed (470–862 MHz), reusing some of the old frequencies for analog TV. UHF is also used for mobile phones with analog technology (450–465 MHz), the digital GSM (890–960 MHz, 1710–1880 MHz), digital cordless telephones following the DECT standard (1880–1900 MHz), 3G cellular systems following the UMTS standard (1900–1980 MHz, 2020–2025 MHz, 2110–2190 MHz) and many more. VHF and especially UHF allow for small antennas and relatively reliable connections for mobile telephony.

SIGNALS:

Signals are the physical representation of data. Users of a communications system can only exchange data through the transmission of signals. Layer 1 of the ISO/OSI basic reference model is responsible for the conversion of data, i.e., bits, into signals and vice versa (Halsall, 1996), (Stallings, 1997 and 2002).

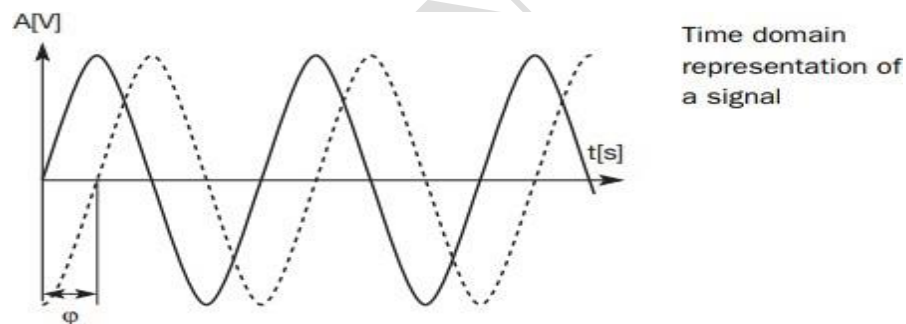
Signals are functions of time and location. Signal parameters represent the data values. The most interesting types of signals for radio transmission are periodic signals, especially sine waves as carriers. (The process of mapping of data onto a carrier is explained in section 2.6.) The

general function of a sine wave is: $g(t) = A \sin(2\pi f t + \phi)$.

Signal parameters are the amplitude A , the frequency f , and the phase shift ϕ . The amplitude as a factor of the function g may also change over time, thus $A t$, (see section 2.6.1). The frequency f expresses the periodicity of the signal with the period $T = 1/f$. (In equations, ω is frequently used instead of $2\pi f$.) The frequency f may also change over time, thus $f t$, (see section 2.6.2). Finally, the phase shift determines the shift of the signal relative to the same signal without a shift. An example for shifting a function is shown in Figure. This shows a sine function without a phase shift and the same function, i.e., same amplitude and frequency, with a phase shift ϕ . Section 2.6.3 shows how shifting the phase can be used to represent data.

Sine waves are of special interest, as it is possible to construct every periodic signal by using only sine and cosine functions according to a fundamental equation of Fourier:

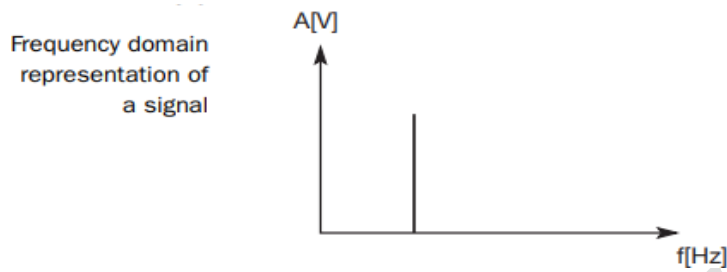
$$g(t) = \frac{1}{2}c + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin(2\pi n f t) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \cos(2\pi n f t)$$



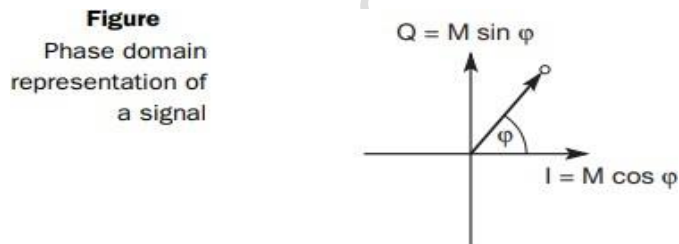
In this equation the parameter c determines the Direct Current (DC) component of the signal, the coefficients a_n and b_n are the amplitudes of the n th sine and cosine function. The equation shows that an infinite number of sine and cosine functions is needed to construct arbitrary periodic functions. However, the frequencies of these functions (these so-called harmonics) increase with a growing parameter n and are a multiple of the fundamental frequency f . The bandwidth of any medium, air, cable, transmitter etc. is limited and, there is an upper limit for the frequencies. In reality therefore, it is enough to consider a limited number of sine and cosine functions to construct periodic functions—all real

transmitting systems exhibit these bandwidth limits and can never transmit arbitrary periodic functions. It is sufficient for us to know that we can think of transmitted signals as composed of one or many sine functions. The following illustrations always represent the example of one sine function, i.e., the case of a single frequency.

Representations in the time domain are problematic if a signal consists of many different frequencies (as the Fourier equation indicates). In this case, a better representation of a signal is the frequency domain (see Figure).



A third way to represent signals is the phase domain shown in Figure. This representation, also called phase state or signal constellation diagram, shows the amplitude M of a signal and its phase ϕ in polar coordinates. (The length of the vector represents the amplitude, the angle the phase shift.) The x-axis represents a phase of 0 and is also called In-Phase (I). A phase shift of 90° or $\pi/2$ would be a point on the y-axis, called Quadrature (Q).



ANTENNAS:

As the name wireless already indicates, this communication mode involves 'getting rid' of wires and transmitting signals through space without guidance. We do not need any 'medium' (such as an ether) for the transport of electromagnetic waves. Somehow, we have to couple the energy from the transmitter to the outside world and, in reverse, from the outside world to the receiver. This is exactly what antennas do. Antennas couple electromagnetic energy to and from space to and from a wire or coaxial cable (or any other appropriate conductor). A theoretical reference antenna is the isotropic radiator, a point in space radiating equal power in all directions, i.e., all points with equal power are located on a sphere with the antenna as its center. The radiation pattern is symmetric in all directions (see Figure, a two-dimensional cross-section of the real three-dimensional pattern).

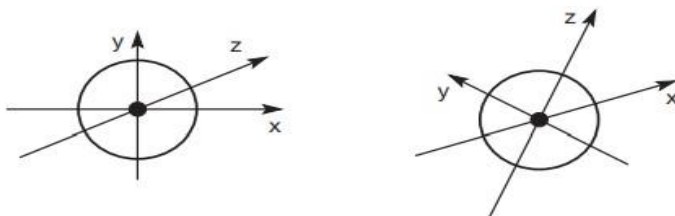


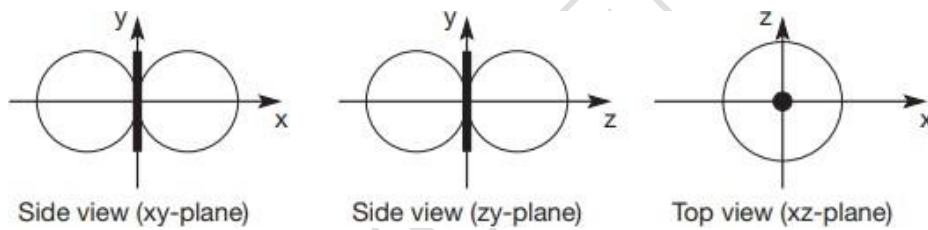
Figure
Radiation pattern of an isotropic radiator

However, such an antenna does not exist in reality. Real antennas all exhibit directive effects, i.e., the intensity of radiation is not the same in all directions from the antenna. The simplest real antenna is a thin, center-fed dipole, also called Hertzian dipole, as shown in Figure (right-hand side). The dipole consists of two collinear conductors of equal length, separated by a small feeding gap. The length of the dipole is not arbitrary, but, for example, half the wavelength λ of the signal to transmit results in a very efficient radiation of the energy. If mounted on the roof of a car, the length of $\lambda/4$ is efficient. This is also known as Marconi antenna.



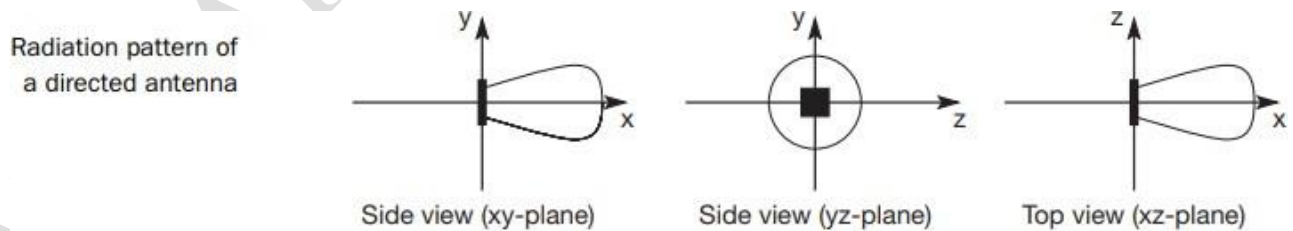
Figure Simple antennas

A $\lambda/2$ dipole has a uniform or omni-directional radiation pattern in one plane and a figure eight pattern in the other two planes as shown in Figure. This type of antenna can only overcome environmental challenges by boosting the power level of the signal. Challenges could be mountains, valleys, buildings etc.



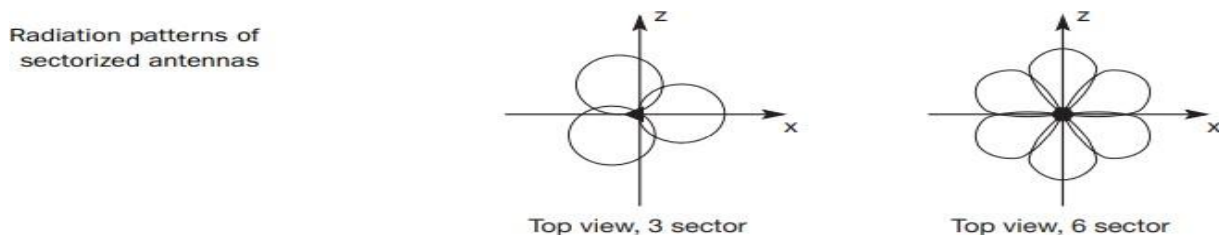
Radiation pattern of a simple dipole

Figures show the radiation pattern of a directional antenna with the main lobe in the direction of the x-axis. A special example of directional antennas is constituted by satellite dishes.



Radiation pattern of a directed antenna

A cell can be sectorized into, for example, three or six sectors, thus enabling frequency reuse as explained in previous fig. Next figures show the radiation patterns of these sectorized antennas.



Radiation patterns of sectorized antennas

Top view, 3 sector

Top view, 6 sector

SIGNAL PROPAGATION:

Like wired networks, wireless communication networks also have senders and receivers of signals. However, in connection with signal propagation, these two network exhibit considerable differences. In wireless networks, the signal has no wire to determine the direction of propagation, whereas signals in wired networks only travel along the wire (which can be twisted pair copper wires, a coax cable, but also a fiber etc.). As long as the wire is not interrupted or damaged, it typically exhibits the same characteristics at each point. One can precisely determine the behavior of a signal travelling along this wire, e.g., received power depending on the length. For wireless transmission, this predictable behavior is only valid in a vacuum, i.e., without matter between the sender and the receiver. The situation would be as follows (Figure).

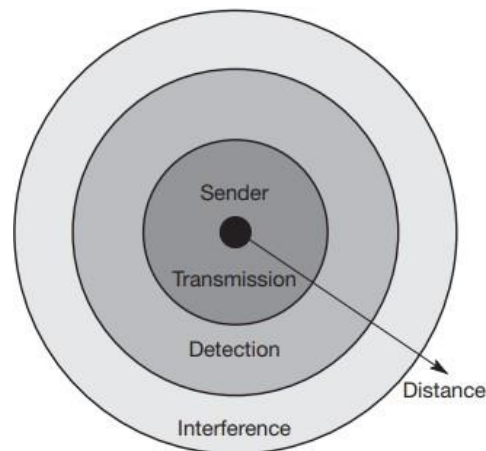


Figure
Ranges for transmission,
detection, and
interference of signals

Transmission range: Within a certain radius of the sender transmission is possible, i.e., a receiver receives the signals with an error rate low enough to be able to communicate and can also act as sender.

- **Detection range:** Within a second radius, detection of the transmission is possible, i.e., the transmitted power is large enough to differ from background noise. However, the error rate is too high to establish communication.
- **Interference range:** Within a third even larger radius, the sender may interfere with other transmission by adding to the background noise. A receiver will not be able to detect the signals, but the signals may disturb other signals.

This simple and ideal scheme led to the notion of cells around a transmitter. However, real life does not happen in a vacuum, radio transmission has to contend with

our atmosphere, mountains, buildings, moving senders and receivers etc. In reality, the three circles referred to above will be bizarrely-shaped polygons with their shape being time and frequency

dependent.

Radio waves can exhibit three fundamental propagation behaviors depending on their frequency:

- **Ground wave (<2MHz):** Waves with low frequencies follow the earth's surface and can propagate long distances. These waves are used for, e.g., submarine communication or AM radio.
- **Skywave (2–30 MHz):** Many international broadcasts and amateur radio use these short waves that are reflected at the ionosphere. This way the waves can bounce back and forth between the ionosphere and the earth's surface, travelling around the world.
- **Line-of-sight (>30 MHz):** Mobile phone systems, satellite systems, cordless telephones etc. use even higher frequencies. The emitted waves follow a (more or less) straight line of sight.

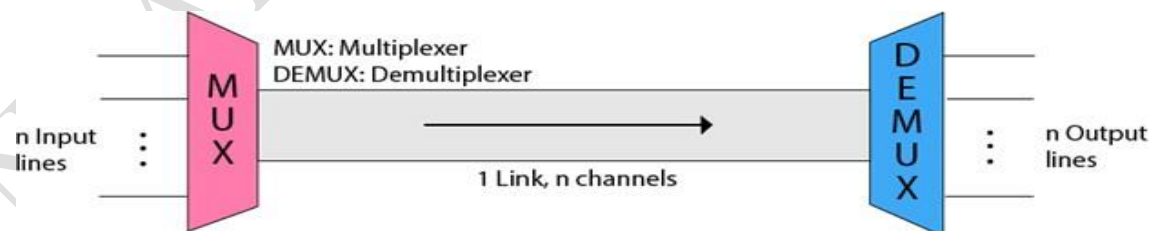
MULTIPLEXING:

Multiplexing is a technique used to combine and send the multiple data streams over a single medium. The process of combining the data streams is known as multiplexing and hardware used for multiplexing is known as a multiplexer.

Multiplexing is achieved by using a device called Multiplexer (**MUX**) that combines n input lines to generate a single output line. Multiplexing follows many-to-one, i.e., n input lines and one output line.

Demultiplexing is achieved by using a device called Demultiplexer (**DEMUX**) available at the receiving end. DEMUX separates a signal into its component signals (one input and n outputs). Therefore, we can say that demultiplexing follows the one-to-many approach.

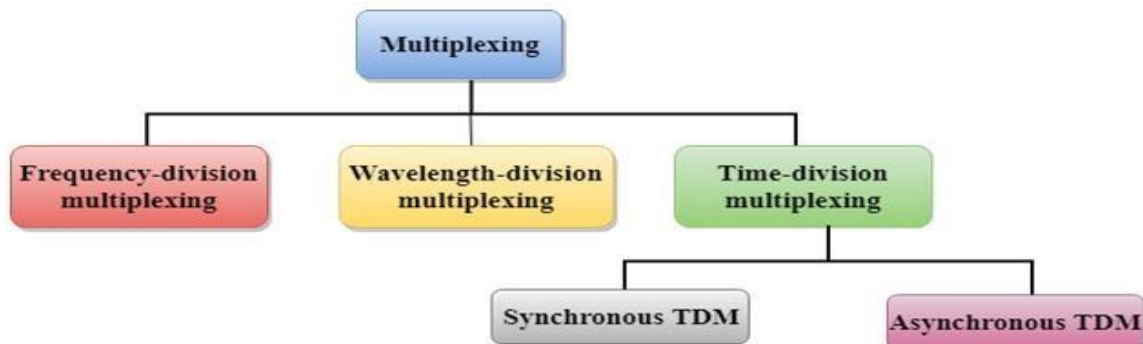
CONCEPT OF MULTIPLEXING:



- The ' n ' input lines are transmitted through a multiplexer and multiplexer combines the signals to form a composite signal.
- The composite signal is passed through a Demultiplexer and demultiplexer separates signal to component signals and transfers them to their respective destinations.

MULTIPLEXING TECHNIQUES:

Multiplexing techniques can be classified as:

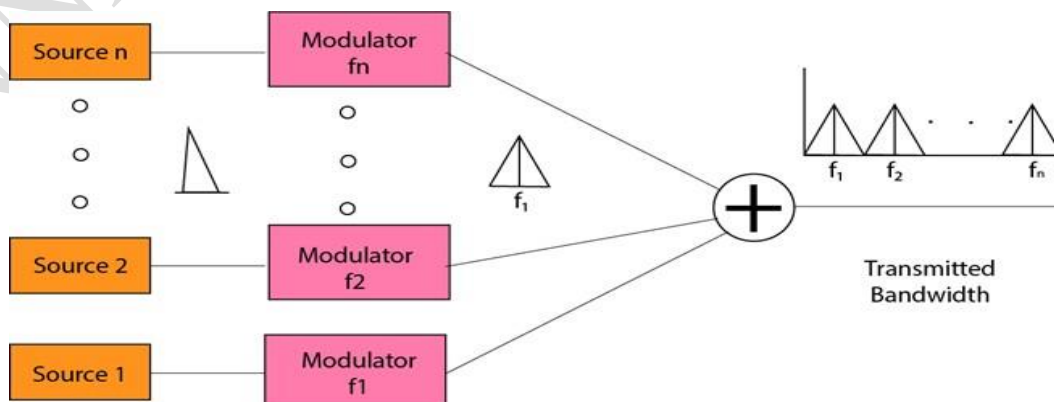


FREQUENCY-DIVISION MULTIPLEXING (FDM):

- It is an analog technique.
- **Frequency Division Multiplexing** is a technique in which the available bandwidth of a single transmission medium is subdivided into several channels.
- In the above diagram, a single transmission medium is subdivided into several frequency channels, and each frequency channel is given to different devices. Device 1 has a frequency channel of range from 1 to 5.
- The input signals are translated into frequency bands by using modulation techniques, and they are combined by a multiplexer to form a composite signal.

The main aim of the FDM is to subdivide the available bandwidth into different frequency channels and allocate them to different devices.

- Using the modulation technique, the input signals are transmitted into frequency bands and then combined to form a composite signal.
- The carriers which are used for modulating the signals are known as **sub-carriers**. They are represented as f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n .
- **FDM** is mainly used in radio broadcasts and TV networks.



Advantages Of FDM:

- FDM is used for analog signals.
- FDM process is very simple and easy modulation.
- A large number of signals can be sent through an FDM simultaneously.
- It does not require any synchronization between sender and receiver.

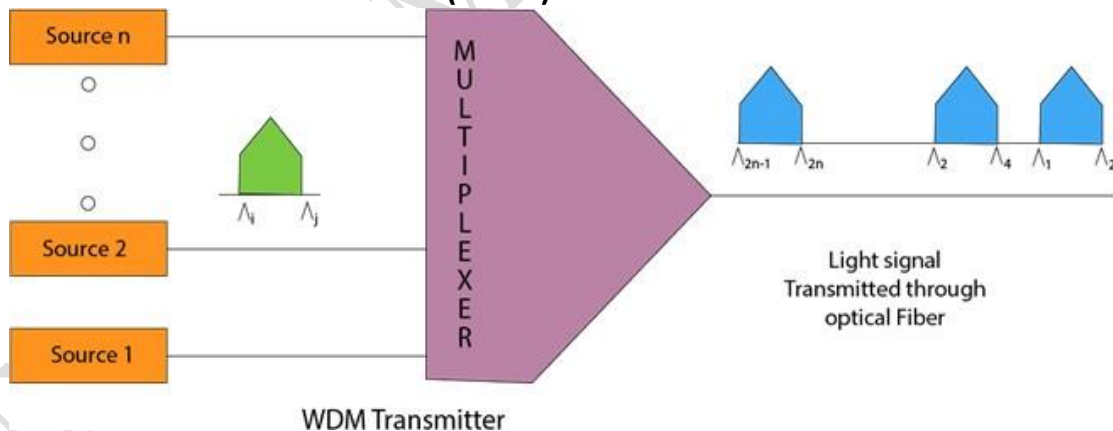
Disadvantages Of FDM:

- FDM technique is used only when low-speed channels are required.
- It suffers the problem of crosstalk.
- A large number of modulators are required.
- It requires a high bandwidth channel.

Applications Of FDM:

- FDM is commonly used in TV networks.
- It is used in FM and AM broadcasting. Each FM radio station has different frequencies, and they are multiplexed to form a composite signal. The multiplexed signal is transmitted in the air.

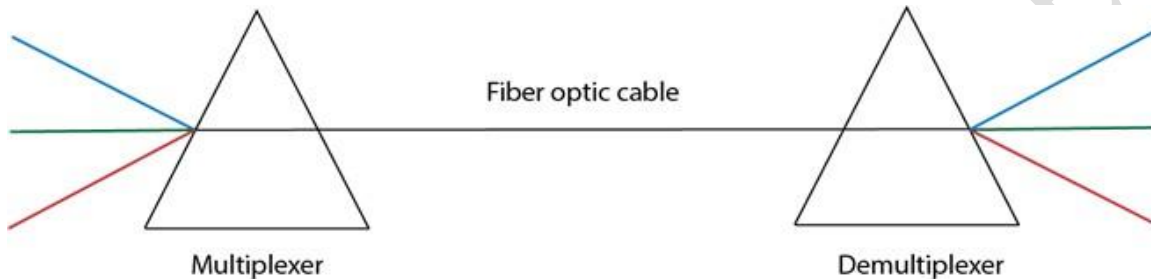
WAVELENGTH DIVISION MULTIPLEXING (WDM):



- Wavelength Division Multiplexing is same as FDM except that the optical signals are transmitted through the fibre optic cable.
- WDM is used on fibre optics to increase the capacity of a single fibre.
- It is used to utilize the high data rate capability of fibre optic cable.
- It is an analog multiplexing technique.
- Optical signals from different sources are combined to form a wider band of light with the help of

multiplexer.

- At the receiving end, demultiplexer separates the signal to transmit them to their respective destinations.
- Multiplexing and Demultiplexing can be achieved by using a prism.
- Prism can perform a role of multiplexer by combining the various optical signals to form a composite signal, and the composite signal is transmitted through a fibre optical cable.
- Prism also performs a reverse operation, i.e., demultiplexing the signal.



TIME DIVISION MULTIPLEXING:

- It is a digital technique.
- In Frequency Division Multiplexing Technique, all signals operate at the same time with different frequencies, but in case of Time Division Multiplexing technique, all signals operate at the same frequency with different times.

In **Time Division Multiplexing technique**, the total time available in the channel is distributed among different users. Therefore, each user is allocated with different time intervals known as a Time slot at which data is to be transmitted by the sender.

- A user takes control of the channel for a fixed amount of time.
- In Time Division Multiplexing technique, data is not transmitted simultaneously rather the data is transmitted one-by-one.
- In TDM, the signal is transmitted in the form of frames. Frames contain a cycle of time slots in which each frame contains one or more slots dedicated to each user.
- It can be used to multiplex both digital and analog signals but is mainly used to multiplex digital signals.

MODULATION:

Modulation is the process of converting data into radio waves by adding information to an electronic or optical carrier signal. A carrier signal is one with a steady waveform -- constant height, or amplitude, and frequency. Information can be added to the carrier by varying its amplitude, [frequency](#), [phase](#), [polarization](#) -- for optical signals -- and even quantum-level phenomena like [spin](#).

Modulation is usually applied to electromagnetic signals: radiowaves, lasers/optics and computer networks. Modulation can even be applied to a direct current -- which can be treated as a degenerate carrier wave with a fixed amplitude and frequency of 0 Hz -- mainly by turning it on and off, as in [Morse code](#) telegraphy or a digital current loop interface. The special case of no carrier -- a response message indicating an attached device is no longer connected to a remote system -- is called baseband modulation.

Modulation can also be applied to a low-frequency alternating current -- 50-60 Hz -- as with power line networking.

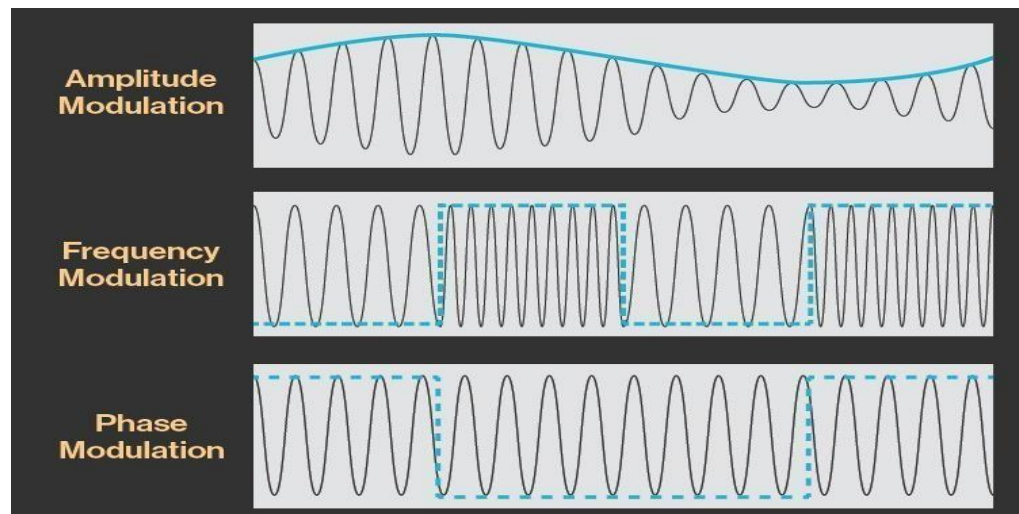
Types of modulation

There are many common modulation methods, including the following -- a very incomplete list:

- [Amplitude modulation \(AM\)](#), in which the height -- i.e., the strength or intensity -- of the signal carrier is varied to represent the data being added to the signal.
- [Frequency modulation \(FM\)](#), in which the frequency of the carrier waveform is varied to reflect the frequency of the data.

[Phase modulation \(PM\)](#), in which the phase of the carrier waveform is varied to reflect changes in the frequency of the data. In PM, the frequency is unchanged while the phase is changed relative to the base carrier frequency. It is similar to FM.

- **Polarization modulation**, in which the angle of rotation of an optical carrier signal is varied to reflect transmitted data.
- [Pulse-code modulation](#), in which an analog signal is sampled to derive a data stream that is used to modulate a digital carrier signal.
- **Quadrature amplitude modulation (QAM)**, which uses two AM carriers to encode two or more bits in a single transmission.



Radio and television [broadcasts](#) and satellite radio typically use AM or FM. Most short-range two-way radios -- up to tens of miles -- use FM, while longer-range two-way radios -- up to hundreds or thousands of miles -- typically employ a mode known as single [sideband](#) (SSB).

More complex forms of modulation include [phase-shift keying](#) (PSK) and QAM. Modern Wi-Fi modulation uses a combination of PSK and QAM64 or QAM256 to encode multiple bits of information into each transmitted symbol. SPREADSPECTRUM:

A collective class of signaling techniques are employed before transmitting a signal to provide ease of communication, known as the **Spread Spectrum Modulation**. The main advantage of spread spectrum communication technique is to prevent "interference" whether it is intentional or unintentional.

These signals modulated with these techniques are hard to interfere and cannot be jammed. An intruder with no official access is never allowed to crack them. Hence, these techniques are used for military purposes. These spread spectrum signals transmit at low power density and have a wide spread of signals.

Pseudo-Noise Sequence

A coded sequence of **1s** and **0s** with certain auto-correlation properties, called as **Pseudo-Noise coding sequence** is used in spread spectrum techniques. It is a maximum-length sequence, which is a type of cyclic code.

Narrow-band and Spread-spectrum Signals

Both the Narrow band and Spread spectrum signals can be understood easily by observing their frequency spectrum as shown in the following figures.

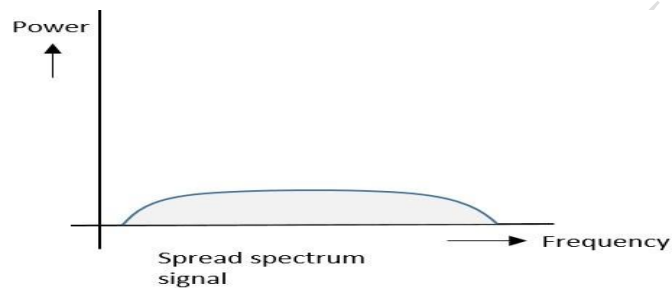
Following are some of its features–

- Band of signals occupy a narrow range of frequencies.
- Power density is high.
- Spread of energy is low and concentrated.

Though the features are good, these signals are prone to interference. Spread Spectrum Signals

Spread Spectrum Signals

These spread spectrum signals have the signal strength distributed as shown in the following frequency spectrum figure.



Following are some of its features–

- Band of signals occupy a wider range of frequencies.
- Power density is very low.
- Energy is wide spread.

With these features, these spread spectrum signals are highly resistant to interference or jamming. Since multiple users can share the same spread spectrum bandwidth without interfering with one another, these can be called as **multiple access techniques**.

Advantages of Spread Spectrum

Following are the advantages of spread spectrum–

- Cross-talk elimination
- Better output with data integrity
- Reduced effect of multipath fading
- Better security
- Reduction in noise
- Co-existence with other systems
- Longer operative distances
- Hard to detect

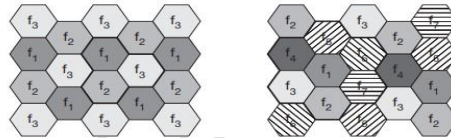
- Noteasytodemodulate/decode
- Difficulttojamthesignals

Althoughspreadpectrumtechniques wereoriginallydesignedfor militaryuses,theyarenowbeingusedwidelyfor commercialpurpose.

CELLULARSYSTEMS:

CellularsystemsformobilecommunicationsimplementSDM.Eachtransmitter,typically called a base station, covers a certain area, a cell. Cell radii can vary from tens ofmetersinbuildings,andhundredsofmetersincities,uptotensofkilometersinthecountryside. The shape of cells are never perfect circles or hexagons (as shown in Figure), butdepend on the environment (buildings, mountains, valleys etc.), on weather conditions, andsometimesevenonsystemload. Typicalsystemsusingthisapproacharemobiletelecommunication systems (see chapter 4), where a mobile station within the cell around abasestationcommunicateswiththisbasestationandviceversa.

Figure
Cellular system
with three and seven
cell clusters



Inthiscontext,thequestionarisesastowhymobilenetworkprovidersinstallseveralhundreds of base stations throughout a country (which is quite expensive) and do not usepowerful transmitters with huge cells like, e.g., radio stations, use. Advantages of cellularsystems withsmallcellsarethefollowing:

- **Higher capacity:** Implementing SDM allows frequency reuse. If one transmitter is far away from another, i.e., outside the interference range, it can reuse the same frequencies. As most mobile phone systems assign frequencies to certain users (or certain hopping patterns), this frequency is blocked for other users.
- **Less transmission power:** While power aspects are not a big problem for base stations, they are indeed problematic for mobile stations. A receiver far away from a base station would need much more transmit power than the current few Watts. But energy is a serious problem for mobile handheld devices.
- **Local interference only:** Having long distances between sender and receiver results in even more interference problems. With small cells, mobile stations and base stations only have to deal with 'local' interference.
- **Robustness:** Cellular systems are decentralized and so, more robust against the failure of single components. If one antenna fails, this only influences communication within a small area. Small cells also have some disadvantages:
- **Infrastructure needed:** Cellular systems need a complex infrastructure to connect all base stations. This includes many antennas, switches for call forwarding, location registers to find a mobile station etc, which make the whole system quite expensive.
- **Handover needed:** The mobile station has to perform a handover when changing from one cell to another. Depending on the cell size and the speed of movement, this can happen quite often.
- **Frequency planning:** To avoid interference between transmitters using the same frequencies, frequencies have to be distributed carefully. On the one hand, interferences should be avoided, on the other, only a limited number of frequencies is available.

MEDIUM ACCESS CONTROL:

Motivation for a specialized MAC:

The main question in connection with MAC in the wireless is whether it is possible to use elaborated MAC schemes from wired networks, for example, CSMA/CD as used in the original specification of IEEE 802.3 networks (aka Ethernet).

So let us consider carrier sense multiple access with collision detection, (CSMA/CD) which works as follows. A sender senses the medium (a wire or coaxial cable) to see if it is free. If the medium is busy, the sender waits until it is free. If the medium is free, the sender starts

transmitting data and continue to listen into the medium. If the sender detects a collision while sending, it stops at once and sends a jamming signal.

Channelization:

It is a multiple access in which the available bandwidth of a link is shared in Time, frequency or through code.

Time → Time division multiple

access Frequency → Frequency division multiple ac

cess Code → Code division multiple access

Multiple Access Techniques:

In wireless communications systems, it is often desirable to allow the subscriber to send information simultaneously from the mobile station to the base station while receiving information from the base station to the mobile station.

A cellular system divides any given area into cells where a mobile unit in each cell communicates with a base station. The main aim in the cellular system design is to be able to **increase the capacity of the channel**, i.e., to handle as many calls as possible in a given bandwidth with a sufficient level of quality of service.

There are several different ways to allow access to the channel. These include mainly the following—

- Frequency division multiple-access (FDMA)
- Time division multiple-access (TDMA)
- Code division multiple-access (CDMA)
- Space division multiple access (SDMA)

Depending on how the available bandwidth is allocated to the users, these techniques can be classified as **narrowband** and **wideband** systems.

Narrowband Systems:

Systems operating with channels substantially narrower than the coherence bandwidth are called as Narrow band systems. Narrow band TDMA allows users to use the same channel but allocates a unique time slot to each user on the channel, thus separating a small number of users in time on a single channel.

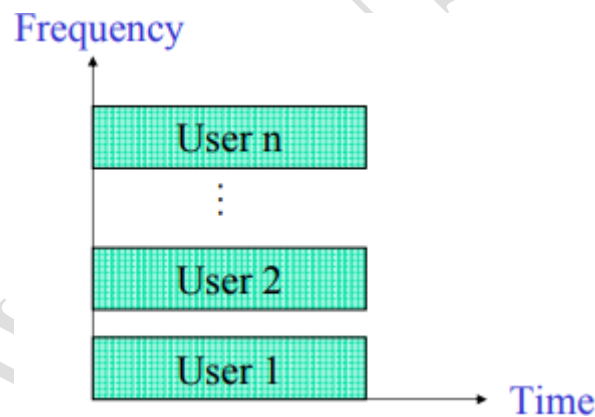
Wideband Systems

In wideband systems, the transmission bandwidth of a single channel is much larger than the coherence bandwidth of the channel. Thus, multipath fading doesn't greatly affect the received signal within a wideband channel, and frequency selective fades occur only in a small fraction of the signal bandwidth.

Frequency Division Multiple Access (FDMA)

FDMA is the basic technology for advanced mobile phone services. The features of FDMA are as follows.

- FDMA allots a different sub-band of frequency to each different user to access the network.
- If FDMA is not in use, the channel is left idle instead of being allotted to the other users.
- FDMA is implemented in narrowband systems and is less complex than TDMA.
- Tight filtering is done here to reduce adjacent channel interference.
- The base station BS and mobile station MS, transmit and receive simultaneously and continuously in FDMA.

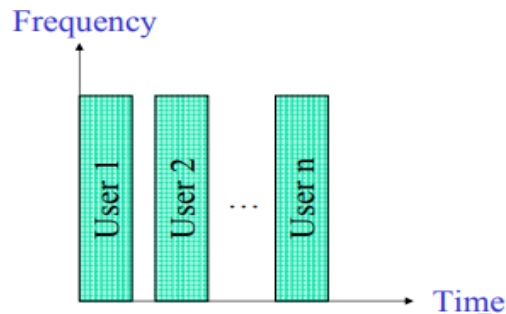


Time Division Multiple Access (TDMA)

In the cases where continuous transmission is not required, TDMA is used instead of FDMA. The features of TDMA include the following.

- TDMA shares a single carrier frequency with several users where each user makes use of non-overlapping time slots.
- Data transmission in TDMA is not continuous, but occurs in bursts. Hence, the handoff process is simpler.

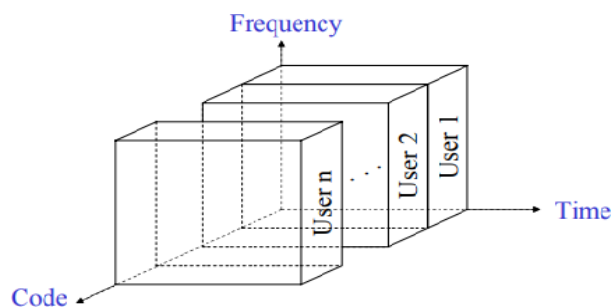
- TDMA uses different time slots for transmission and reception thus duplexers are not required.
- TDMA has an advantage that it is possible to allocate different numbers of time slots per frame to different users.
- Bandwidth can be supplied on demand to different users by concatenating or reassigning time slots based on priority.



Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA)

Code division multiple access technique is an example of multiple access where several transmitters use a single channel to send information simultaneously. Its features are as follows.

- In CDMA every user uses the full available spectrum instead of getting allotted by separate frequency.
- CDMA is much recommended for voice and data communications.
- While multiple codes occupy the same channel in CDMA, the users having same code can communicate with each other.
- CDMA offers more air-space capacity than TDMA.
- The hand-off between base stations is very well handled by CDMA.



Space Division Multiple Access (SDMA)

Space division multiple access or spatial division multiple access is a technique which is MIMO (multiple-input multiple-output) architecture and used mostly in wireless and satellite communication. It has the following features.

- All users can communicate at the same time using the same channel.
- SDMA is completely free from interference.
- A single satellite can communicate with more satellite receivers of the same frequency.
- The directional spot-beam antennas are used and hence the base station in SDMA, can track a moving user.
- Control the radiated energy for each user in space.

ANNAL WOMEN'S COLLEGE

UNIT-II

GSM(GlobalSystemforMobileCommunication):

GSM is a mobile communication system; it stands for global system for mobile communication (GSM). The idea of GSM was developed at Bell Laboratories in 1970. It is widely used mobile communication system in the world. GSM is an open and digital cellular technology used for transmitting mobile voice and data services operates at the 850MHz, 900MHz, 1800MHz and 1900MHz frequency bands.

GSM system was developed as a digital system using time division multiple access (TDMA) technique for communication purpose. A GSM digitizes and reduces the data, then sends it down through a channel with two different streams of client data, each in its own particular time slot. The digital system has a capability to carry 64 kbps to 120 Mbps of data rates.

GSM services:

GSM offers much more than just voice telephony. Contact your local GSM network operator to the specific services that you can avail.

GSM offers three basic types of services:

- Telephony services or tele services
- Data services or bearer services
- Supplementary services

➤ **TELESERVICES**

The abilities of a Bearer Service are used by a Teleservice to transport data. These services are further transited in the following ways:

- Voice Calls
- The most basic Teleservices supported by GSM is telephony. This includes full-rate speech at 13 kbps and emergency calls, where the nearest emergency-service provider is notified by dialing three digits.
- Videotext and Facsimile
- Another group of teleservices includes Videotext access, Teletex transmission, Facsimile, Alternatespeech and Facsimile Group 3, Automatic Facsimile Group, 3 etc.
- Short Text Messages
- Short Messaging Service (SMS) service is a text messaging service that allows sending and receiving text messages on your GSM mobile phone.

messages, other text data including news, sports, financial, language, and location-based data can also be transmitted.

➤ **BEARER SERVICES:**

Data services or Bearer Services are used through a GSM phone. To receive and send data is the essential building block leading to widespread mobile Internet access and mobile data transfer. GSM currently has a data transfer rate of 9.6k. New developments that will push up data transfer rates for GSM users are HSCSD (high speed circuit switched data) and GPRS (general packet radio service) are now available.

➤ **SUPPLEMENTARY SERVICES:**

Supplementary services are additional services that are provided in addition to tele services and bearer services. These services include caller identification, call forwarding, call waiting, multi-party conversations, and barring of outgoing (international) calls, among others. A brief description of supplementary services is given here:

- Conferencing : It allows a mobile subscriber to establish a multiparty conversation, i.e., a simultaneous conversation between three or more subscribers to setup a conference call. This service is only applicable to normal telephony.
- Call Waiting : This service notifies a mobile subscriber of an incoming call during a conversation. The subscriber can answer, reject, or ignore the incoming call.
- Call Hold : This service allows a subscriber to put an incoming call on hold and resume after a while. The call hold service is applicable to normal telephony.
- Call Forwarding : Call Forwarding is used to divert calls from the original recipient to another number. It is normally set up by the subscriber himself. It can be used by the subscriber to divert calls from the Mobile Station when the subscriber is not available, and so to ensure that calls are not lost.
- Call Barring : Call Barring is useful to restrict certain types of outgoing calls such as ISD or stop incoming calls from undesired numbers. Call barring is a flexible service that enables the subscriber to conditionally bar calls.
- Number Identification : There are following supplementary services related to number identification:

GSM Architecture:

A GSM network comprises of many functional units. These functions and interfaces are explained in this chapter. The GSM network can be broadly divided into:

- The Mobile Station (MS)
- The Base Station Subsystem (BSS)

- The Network Switching Subsystem (NSS)
- The Operation Support Subsystem (OSS)

➤ **Mobile station (MS):**

The MS consists of the physical equipment, such as a radio transceiver, display and digital signal processors, and the SIM card. It provides the air interface to the user in GSM networks. As such, other services are also provided, which include:

- Voice tele services
- Data bearer services
- The features' supplementary services



The MS Functions

The MS also provides the receptor for SMS messages, enabling the user to toggle between the voice and data use. Moreover, the mobile facilitates access to voice messaging systems. The MS also provides access to the various data services available in a GSM network. These data services include:

- X.25 packet switching through a synchronous or asynchronous dial-up connection to the PAD at speeds typically at 9.6 Kbps.
- General Packet Radio Services (GPRS) using either an X.25 or IP based data transfer method at speeds up to 115 Kbps.
- High speed, circuit switched data at speeds up to 64 Kbps.

SIM:

The SIM provides personal mobility so that the user can have access to all subscribed services irrespective of both the location of the terminal and the use of a specific terminal. You need

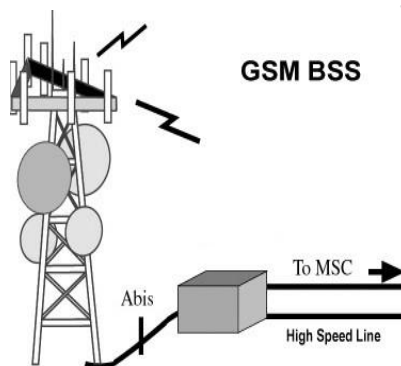
to insert the SIM card into another GSM cellular phone to receive calls at that phone, make calls from that phone, or receive other subscribed services.

➤ **The Base Station Subsystem (BSS):**

The BSS is composed of two parts:

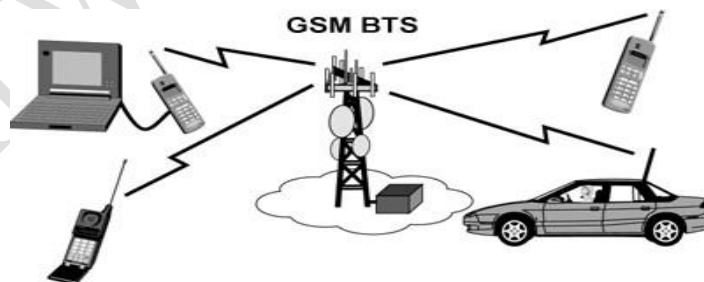
- The Base Transceiver Station (BTS)
- The Base Station Controller (BSC)

The BTS and the BSC communicate across the specified Abis interface, enabling operations between components that are made by different suppliers. The radio components of a BSS may consist of four to seven or nine cells. A BSS may have one or more base stations. The BSS uses the Abis interface between the BTS and the BSC. A separate high-speed line (T1 or E1) is then connected from the BSS to the Mobile MSC.



➤ **The Base Transceiver Station (BTS)**

The BTS houses the radio transceivers that define a cell and handles the radio link protocols with the MS. In a large urban area, a large number of BTSs may be deployed.



The BTS corresponds to the transceivers and antennas used in each cell of the network. A BTS is usually placed in the center of a cell. Its transmitting power defines the size of a cell. Each BTS has between 1 and 16 transceivers, depending on the density of users in the cell. Each BTS serves as a single cell. It also includes the following functions:

-

- Transcoding and rate adaptation
- Time and frequency synchronizing
- Voice through full- or half-rate services
- Decoding, decrypting, and equalizing received signals
- Random access detection
- Timing advances
- Uplink channel measurements

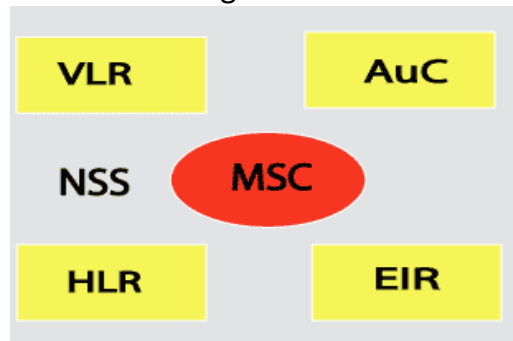
➤ **The Base Station Controller (BSC)**

The BSC manages the radio resources for one or more BTSs. It handles radio channel setup, frequency hopping, and handovers. The BSC is the connection between the mobile and the MSC. The BSC also translates the 13 Kbps voice channel used over the radio link to the standard 64 Kbps channel used by the Public Switched Telephone Network (PSDN) or ISDN.

- Control of frequency hopping
- Performing traffic concentration to reduce the number of lines from the MSC
- Providing an interface to the Operations and Maintenance Center for the BSS
- Reallocation of frequencies among BTSs
- Time and frequency synchronization
- Power management
- Time-

delay measurements of received signals from the MS
The Network Switching Subsystem (NSS):

The Network switching system (NSS), the main part of which is the Mobile Switching Center (MSC), performs the switching of calls between the mobile and other fixed or mobile network users, as well as the management of mobile services such as authentication.



Home Location Register (HLR)

The HLR is considered the most important database, as it stores permanent data about subscribers, including a subscriber's service profile, location information, and activity status. When an individual buys a subscription in the form of SIM, then all the information about this subscription is registered in the HLR of that operator.

Mobile Services Switching Center (MSC)

The central component of the Network Subsystem is the MSC. The MSC performs the switching of calls between the mobile and other fixed or mobile network users, as well as the management of mobile services such as registration, authentication, location updating, handovers, and call routing to a roaming subscriber. It also performs such functions as toll ticketing, network interfacing, common channel signaling, and others. Every MSC is identified by a unique ID.

Visitor Location Register (VLR)

The VLR is a database that contains temporary information about subscribers that is needed by the MSC in order to service visiting subscribers. The VLR is always integrated with the MSC. When a mobile station roams into a new MSC area, the VLR connected to that MSC will request data about the mobile station from the HLR. Later, if the mobile station makes a call, the VLR will have the information needed for call setup without having to interrogate the HLR each time.

Authentication Center (AUC)

The Authentication Center is a protected database that stores a copy of the secret key stored in each subscriber's SIM card, which is used for authentication and ciphering of the radio channel. The AUC protects network operators from different types of fraud found in today's cellular world.

Equipment Identity Register (EIR)

The Equipment Identity Register (EIR) is a database that contains a list of all valid mobile equipment on the network, where its International Mobile Equipment Identity (IMEI) identifies each MS. An IMEI is marked as invalid if it has been reported stolen or is not type approved.

The Operation Support Subsystem (OSS)

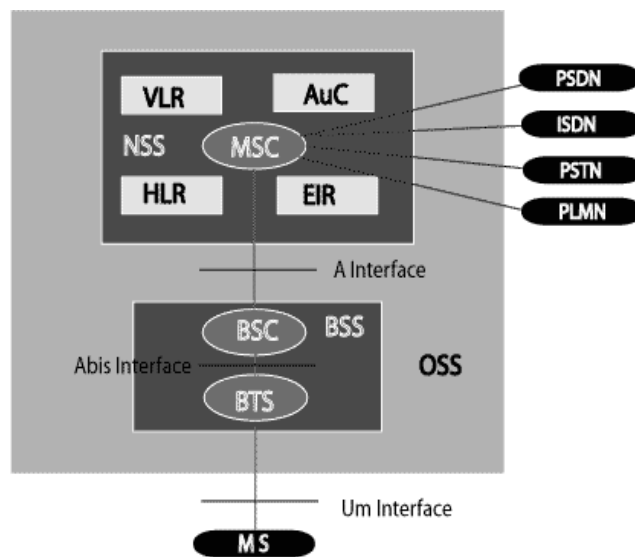
The operations and maintenance center (OMC) is connected to all equipment in the switching system and to the BSC. The implementation of OMC is called the operation and support system (OSS).

Here are some of the OMC functions:

- Administration and commercial operation (subscription, end terminals, charging and statistics).
- Security Management.
- Network configuration, Operation and Performance Management.
- Maintenance Tasks.

The operation and maintenance functions are based on the concepts of the Telecommunication Management Network (TMN), which is standardized in the ITU-T series M.30.

GSM ARCHITECTURE:



The additional components of the GSM architecture comprise of databases and messaging systems functions:

- Home Location Register (HLR)
- Visitor Location Register (VLR)
- Equipment Identity Register (EIR)
- Authentication Center (AuC)
- SMS Serving Center (SMSSC)
- Gateway MSC (GMSC)
- Chargeback Center (CBC)
- Transcoder and Adaptation Unit (TRAU)

Features of GSM Module:

- Improved spectrum efficiency
- International roaming
- Compatibility with integrated services digital network (ISDN)
- Support for new services.
- SIM phone book management
- Fixed dialing number (FDN)
- Real time clock with alarm management
- High-quality speech
- Uses encryption to make phone calls more secure
- Short message service (SMS)

| S.NO | GSM | CDMA |
|------|---|--|
| 1. | GSM stands for Global System for Mobile communication. | CDMA stands for Code Division Multiple Access. |
| 2. | GSM uses the technology named FDMA and TDMA. | While it uses the technology CDMA. |
| 3. | GSM is in roaming in worldwide. | While it is in roaming in limited. |
| 4. | GSM has slow data rate. | While it has fast data rate. |
| 5. | In GSM, information in addition as voice each are transmitted at the same time. | While CDMA have not this facility. |
| 6. | GSM is specific for SIM. | While it is specific for headset or phone. |

DECT:

- Another fully digital cellular network is the digital enhanced cordless telecommunications (DECT) systems specified by ETSI (2002, 1998j,k), (DECT Forum, 2002).
- Formerly also called digital European cordless telephone and digital European cordless telecommunications, DECT replaces older analog cordless phone systems such as CT1 and CT1+.
- These analog systems only ensured security to a limited extent as they did not use encryption for data transmission and only offered a relatively low capacity.
- DECT is also a more powerful alternative to the digital system CT2, which is mainly used in the UK (the DECT standard works throughout Europe).

- DECT is mainly used in offices, on campus, at trade shows, or in the home. Furthermore, access points to the PSTN can be established within, e.g., railway stations, large government buildings and hospitals, offering a much cheaper telephone service compared to a GSM system.
- DECT could also be used to bridge the last few hundred meters between a new network operator and customers.
- Using this 'small range' local loop, new companies can offer their service without having their own lines installed in the streets. DECT systems offer many different interworking units, e.g., with GSM, ISDN, or data networks.
- A big difference between DECT and GSM exists in terms of cell diameter and cell capacity.
- While GSM is designed for outdoor use with a cell diameter of up to 70 km, the range of DECT is limited to about 300 m from the base station (only around 50 m are feasible inside buildings depending on the walls).
- Due to this limited range and additional multiplexing techniques, DECT can offer its service to some 10,000 people within one km².
- DECT works at a frequency range of 1880–1990 MHz offering 120 full duplex channels.
- Time division duplex (TDD) is applied using 10 ms frames.
- The frequency range is subdivided into 10 carrier frequencies using FDMA, each frame being divided into 24 slots using TDMA.

DECT System architecture:

- A DECT system, may have various different physical implementation depending on its actual use.
- Different DECT entities can be integrated into one physical unit; entities can be distributed, replicated etc. However, all implementations are based on the same logical reference model of the system architecture as shown in Figure.
- A global network connects the local communication structure to the outside world and offers its services via the interface D1.
- Global networks could be integrated services digital networks (ISDN), public switched telephone networks (PSTN), public land mobile networks (PLMN), e.g., GSM, or packet switched public data network (PSPDN).
- The services offered by these networks include transportation of data and the translation of addresses and routing of data between the local networks.

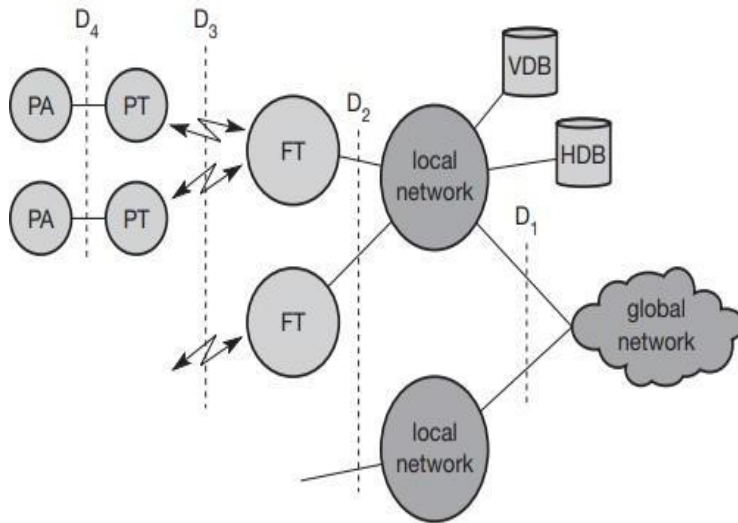
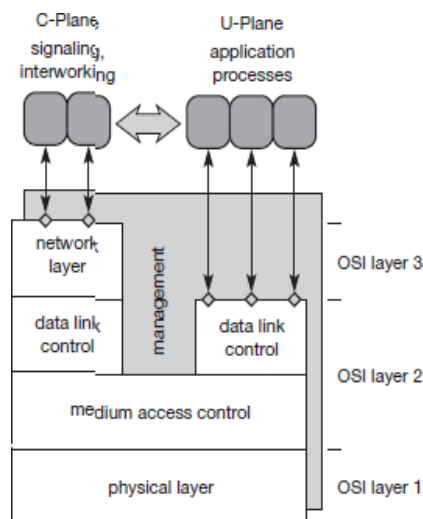


Figure
DECT system
architecture reference
model

The DECT core network consists of the **fixed radio termination (FT)** and the **portable radiotermination (PT)**, and basically only provides a multiplexing service. FT and PT cover layers one to three at the fixed network side and mobile network side respectively. Additionally, several portable applications (PA) can be implemented on a device.

Protocol architecture:

The DECT protocol reference architecture follows the OSI reference model. Figure 4.19 shows the layers covered by the standard: the physical layer, medium access control, and data link control for both the **control plane (C-Plane)** and the **user plane (U-Plane)**. An additional network layer has been specified for the C-Plane, so that user data from layer two is directly forwarded to the U-Plane. A management plane vertically covers all lower layers of a DECT system.



Medium access control layer:

The **medium access control (MAC)** layer establishes, maintains, and releases channels for higher layers by activating and deactivating physical channels. MAC multiplexes several logical channels onto physical channels. Logical channels exist for signaling network control, user data transmission, paging, or sending broadcast messages. Additional services offered include segmentation/reassembly of packets and error control/error correction.

Data link control layer:

The **data link control (DLC)** layer creates and maintains reliable connections between the mobile terminal and the base station. Two services have been defined for the **C-Plane**: a **connectionless broadcast** service for paging (called **Lb**) and a **point-to-point** protocol similar to LAPD in ISDN.

Network layer:

The **network layer** of DECT is similar to those in ISDN and GSM and only exists for the **C-Plane**. This layer provides services to request, check, reserve, control, and release resources at the fixed station (connection to the fixed network, wireless connection) and the mobile terminal (wireless connection).

WIRELESS LAN:

WLANs are typically restricted in their diameter to buildings, a campus, single room etc. and are operated by individuals, not by large-scale network providers. The global goal of WLANs is to replace office cabling, to enable tetherless access to the internet and, to introduce a higher flexibility for ad-

hoc communication in, e.g., group meetings. The following points illustrate some general advantages and disadvantages of WLANs compared to their wired counterparts. **ADVANTAGES:**

- **Flexibility:** Within radio coverage, nodes can communicate without further restriction. Radiowaves can penetrate walls, senders and receivers can be placed anywhere (also non-visible, e.g., within devices, in wall etc.).

- **Planning:** Only wireless ad-hoc networks allow for communication without previous planning, any wired network needs wiring plans. As long as devices follow the same standard, they can communicate. For wired networks, additional cabling with the right plugs and probably interworking units (such as switches) have to be provided.

- **Design:** Wireless networks allow for the design of small, independent devices which can for example be put into a pocket. Cables not only restrict users but also designers of small PDAs, notepads etc. Wireless senders and receivers can be hidden in historic buildings, i.e., current networking technology can be introduced without being visible.

- **Robustness:** Wireless networks can survive disasters, e.g., earthquakes or users pulling a plug. If the wireless devices survive, people can still communicate. Networks requiring a wired infrastructure will usually break down completely.

- **Cost:** After providing wireless access to the infrastructure via an access point for the first user, adding additional users to a wireless network will not increase the cost.

DISADVANTAGES:

Quality of service: WLANs typically offer lower quality than their wired counterparts.

- **Proprietary solutions:** Due to slow standardization procedures, many companies have come up with proprietary solutions offering standardized functionality plus many enhanced features (typically a higher bit rate using a patented coding technology or special inter-access point protocols).

- **Restrictions:** All wireless products have to comply with national regulations. Several government and non-government institutions worldwide regulate the operation and restrict frequencies to minimize interference.

- **Safety and security:** Using radio waves for data transmission might interfere with other high-tech equipment in, e.g., hospitals. Senders and receivers are operated by laymen and, radiation has to be low. Special precautions have to be taken to prevent safety hazards.

- **Global operation:** WLAN products should sell in all countries so, national and international frequency regulations have to be considered.

- **Low power:** Devices communicating via a WLAN are typically also wireless devices running on battery power. The LAN design should take this into account and implement special power-saving modes and power management functions.

- **License-free operation:** LAN operators do not want to apply for a special license to be able to use the product. The equipment must operate in a license-free band, such as the 2.4 GHz ISM band.

- **Robust transmission technology:** Compared to their wired counterparts, WLANs operate under difficult conditions. If they use radio transmission, many other electrical devices can interfere with them (vacuum cleaners, hair dryers, train engines etc.).

- **Simplified spontaneous cooperation:** To be useful in practice, WLANs should not require complicated setup routines but should operate spontaneously after power-up. These LANs would not be useful for supporting, e.g., ad-hoc meetings.

- **Easy to use:** In contrast to huge and complex wireless WANs, wireless LANs are made for simple use. They should not require complex management, but rather work on a plug-and-play basis.

- **Protection of investment:** A lot of money has already been invested into wired LANs.

- **Safety and security:** Wireless LANs should be safe to operate, especially regarding low radiation if used, e.g., in hospitals. Users cannot keep safety distance to antennas..
- **Transparency for applications:** Existing applications should continue to run over WLANs, the only difference being higher delay and lower bandwidth.

INFRARED VS RADIO TRANSMISSION:

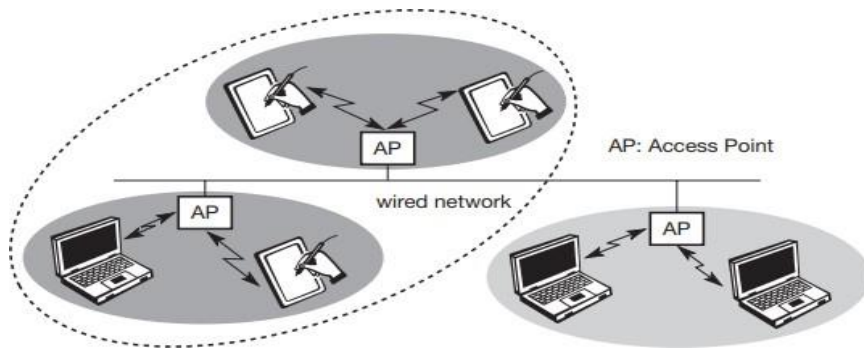
Today, two different basic transmission technologies can be used to set up WLANs. One technology is based on the transmission of infra red light (e.g., at 900 nm wavelength), the other one, which is much more popular, uses radio transmission in the GHz range (e.g., 2.4 GHz in the license-free ISM band). Both technologies can be used to set up ad-hoc connections for work groups, to connect, e.g., a desktop with a printer without a wire, or to support mobility within a small area. Infra red technology uses diffuse light reflected at walls, furniture etc. or directed light if a line-of-sight (LOS) exists between sender and receiver. Senders can be simple light emitting diodes (LEDs) or laser diodes.

- The main advantages of infra red technology are its simple and extremely cheap senders and receivers which are integrated into nearly all mobile devices available today. PDAs, laptops, notebooks, mobile phones etc. have an infra red data association (IrDA) interface. Version 1.0 of this industry standard implements data rates of up to 115 kbit/s, while IrDA 1.1 defines higher data rates of 1.152 and 4 Mbit/s. No licenses are needed for infrared technology and shielding is very simple. Electrical devices do not interfere with infrared transmission.
- Disadvantages of infrared transmission are its low bandwidth compared to other LAN technologies. Typically, IrDA devices are internally connected to a serial port limiting transfer rates to 115 kbit/s. Even 4 Mbit/s is not a particularly high data rate. However, their main disadvantage is that infra red is quite easily shielded. Infra red transmission cannot penetrate walls or other obstacles. Typically, for good transmission quality and high data rates a LOS, i.e., direct connection, is needed.

INFRASTRUCTURE AND AD-HOC NETWORKS:

- Many WLANs of today need an infrastructure network. Infrastructure networks not only provide access to other networks, but also include forwarding functions, medium access control etc.
- In these infrastructure-based wireless networks, communication typically takes place only between the wireless nodes and the access point (see Figure), but not directly between the wireless nodes.
- The access point does not just control medium access, but also acts as a bridge to other wireless or wired networks.
- Figures show three access points with their three wireless networks and a wired network.

➤ Several wireless networks may form one logical wireless network, so the access points together with the fixed network in between can connect several wireless networks to form a larger network beyond actual radio coverage.



- Ad-hoc wireless networks, however, do not need any infrastructure to work. Each node can communicate directly with other nodes, so no access point controlling medium access is necessary.
- In ad-hoc networks, the complexity of each node is higher because every node has to implement medium access mechanisms, mechanisms to handle hidden or exposed terminal problems, and perhaps priority mechanisms, to provide a certain quality of service.
- This type of wireless network exhibits the greatest possible flexibility as it is, for example, needed for unexpected meetings, quick replacements of infrastructure or communication scenarios far away from any infrastructure.

IEEE 802.11:

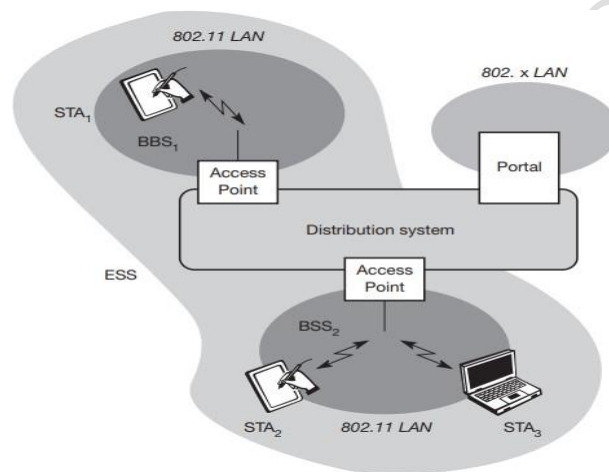
- The IEEE standard 802.11 (IEEE, 1999) specifies the most famous family of WLANs in which many products are available.
- As the standard's number indicates, this standard belongs to the group of 802.x LAN standards, e.g., 802.3 Ethernet or 802.5 Token Ring.
- This means that the standard specifies the physical and medium access layer adapted to the special requirements of wireless LANs, but offers the same interface as the others to higher layers to maintain interoperability.
- The primary goal of the standard was the specification of a simple and robust WLAN which offers time-bounded and asynchronous services.
- The MAC layer should be able to operate with multiple physical layers, each of which exhibits a different medium sense and transmission characteristic.
- Candidates for physical layers were infrared and spread spectrum radio transmission techniques.
- The following sections will introduce the system and protocol architecture of the initial IEEE 802.11 and then discuss each layer, i.e., physical layer and medium access.

- After that, the complex and very important management functions of the standard are presented.
- Finally, this subsection presents the enhancements of the original standard for higher data rates, 802.11a (up to 54 Mbit/s at 5 GHz) and 802.11b (today the most successful with 11 Mbit/s) together with further developments for security support, harmonization, or other modulation schemes.

- **System architecture:**

Wireless networks can exhibit two different basic system architectures as shown in infrastructure-based or ad-

hoc. Figure shows the components of an infrastructure and a wireless part as specified for IEEE 802.11. Several nodes, called stations (STA_i), are connected to access points (AP).



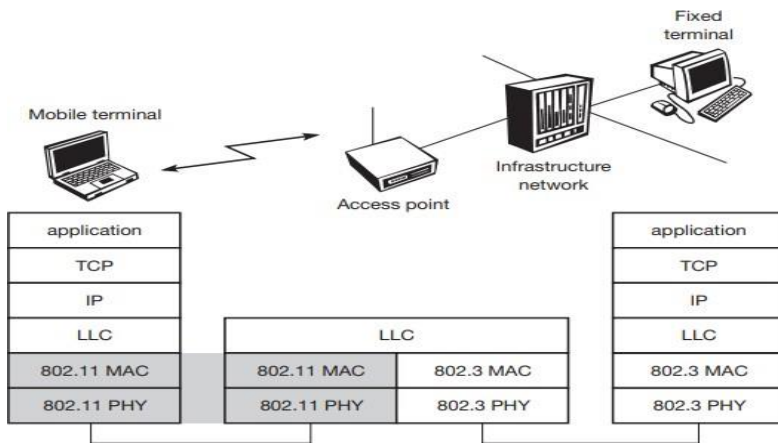
- **Protocol architecture:**

As indicated by the standard number, IEEE 802.11 fits seamlessly into the other 802.x standards for wired LANs

(see Halsall, 1996; IEEE, 1990). Figure shows the most common scenario: an IEEE

802.11 wireless LAN connected to a switched IEEE 802.3 Ethernet via a bridge. Applications should not notice any difference apart from the lower bandwidth and perhaps higher access time from the wireless LAN. The WLAN behaves like a slow wired LAN. Consequently, the higher layers (application, TCP, IP) look the same for wireless nodes as for wired nodes. The upper part of the data link control layer, the logical link control (LLC), covers the differences of the medium access control layers needed for the different media. In many of today's networks, no explicit LLC layer is visible.

The IEEE 802.11 standard only covers the physical layer PHY and medium access layer MAC like the other 802.x LANs do. The physical layer is subdivided into the physical layer convergence protocol (PLCP) and the physical medium dependent sublayer PMD (see Figure). The basic tasks of the MAC layer comprise medium access, fragmentation of user data, and encryption.



HIPERLAN(highperformancelocalareanetwork):

- HIPERLAN stands for high performance local area network. It is a wireless standard derived from traditional LAN environments and can support multimedia and asynchronous data effectively at high data rates of 23.5 Mbps.
- It is defined by the European Telecommunications Standards Institute (ETSI).
- It does not necessarily require any type of access point infrastructure for its operation, although a LAN extension via access points can be implemented.
- HIPERLAN uses cellular-based data networks to connect to an ATM backbone.
- The main idea behind HIPERLAN is to provide an infrastructure or ad-hoc wireless with low mobility and a small radius.
- HIPERLAN supports isochronous traffic with low latency. The HiperLAN standard family has four different versions.
- The key feature of all four networks is their integration of time-sensitive data transfer services.
- Over time, names have changed and the former HIPERLANs 2, 3, 1 and 4 are now called HiperLAN2, HIPERACCESS, and HIPERLINK.

Table : HIPERLAN protocol family

| | HIPERLAN 1 | HIPERLAN 2 | HIPERLAN 3 | HIPERLAN 4 |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------|---|
| Application | wireless LAN | access to ATM fixed networks | wireless local loop | point-to-point wireless ATM connections |
| Frequency | 5.1-5.3GHz | | | 17.2-17.3GHz |
| Topology | decentralized ad-hoc/infrastructure | cellular, centralized | point-to-multipoint | point-to-point |
| Antenna | omni-directional | | directional | |
| Range | 50 m | 50-100 m | 5000 m | 150 m |
| QoS | statistical | ATM traffic classes (VBR, CBR, ABR, UBR) | | |
| Mobility | <10m/s | | stationary | |
| Interface | conventional LAN | ATM networks | | |
| Data rate | 23.5 Mbit/s | >20 Mbit/s | | 155 Mbit/s |
| Power conservation | yes | | not necessary | |

HIPERLAN1:

On the physical layer FSK and GMSK modulations are used in HiperLAN/1. HiperLAN features:

orange50m

oslowmobility(1.4m/s)

osupportsasynchronousandsynchronoustraffic

osound32kbit/s,10nslatency

ovideo2Mbit/s,100nslatency

odata 10Mbit/s

➤ HIPERLAN2:

WhileHIPERLAN1didnotsucceedHiperLAN2mighthaveabetterchance.HiperLAN2offersmorefeatures inthe mandatory partsofthestandard (HiperLAN2,2002).

○ **Qualityofservicesupport:**supportofQoSismuchsimpler.Eachconnectionhasitsownsetof QoSparameters(bandwidth,delay,jitter, biterror rateetc.).

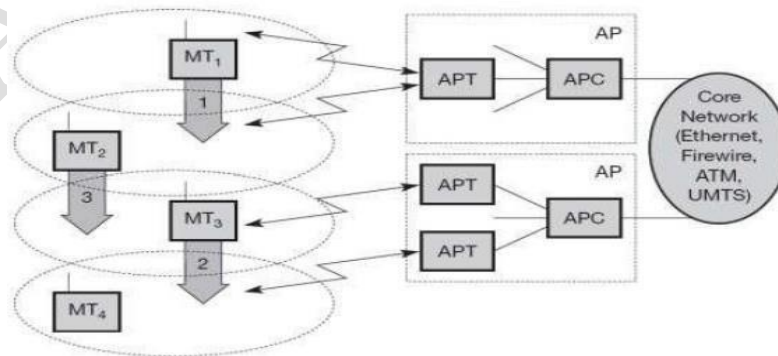
○ **Dynamicfrequencyselection:**HiperLAN2doesnotrequirefrequency

○ **Securitysupport:**AuthenticationaswellasencryptionaresupportedbyHiperLAN2.

○ **Mobilitysupport:**Mobileterminals canmovearoundwhiletransmissionalways takesplacebetween theterminalandthe accesspointwiththebestradiosignal.

○ **Application and network independence:** HiperLAN2 was not designed with a certain group of applications or networks in mind. Access points can connect to LANs running ethernet as well asIEEE 1394 (Firewire) systemsused toconnecthomeaudio/video devices.

○ **Powersaves:** Mobileterminals cannegotiatecertainwake-uppatternstosavepower.



TheaboveFigureshowsthestandardarchitectureofaninfrastructure-basedHiperLAN2network.

Here, two **access points** (AP) are attached to a core network. Core networks might beEthernet LANs, Firewire (IEEE 1394) connections between audio and video equipment,

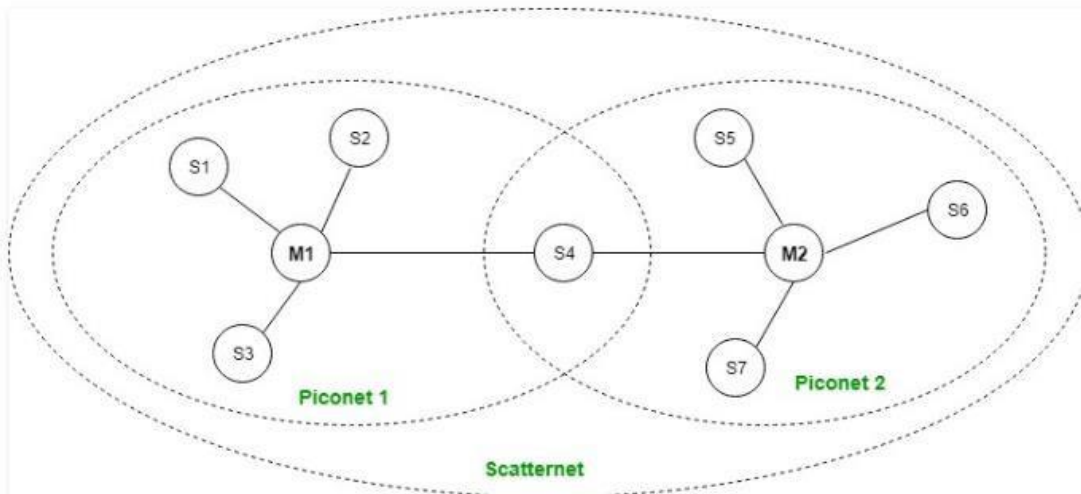
ATM networks, UMTS 3G cellular phone network etc. Each AP consists of an **access point controller (APC)** and one or more **access point transceivers (APT)**.

BLUETOOTH:

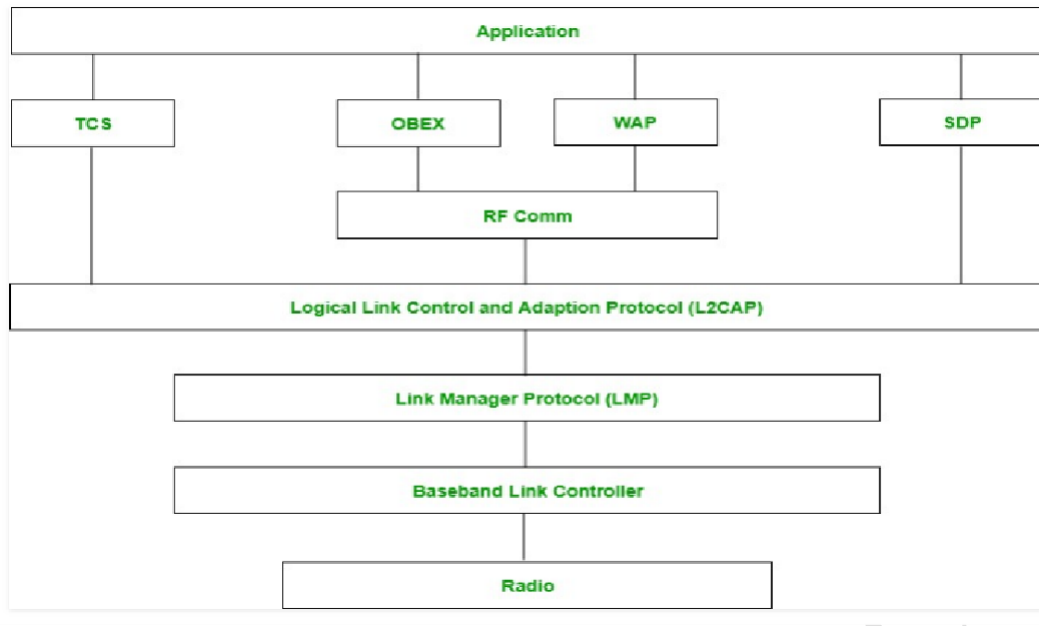
Bluetooth is a wireless technology standard for exchanging data over short distances (using short-wavelength radio transmissions in the ISM band from 2400–2480 MHz) from fixed and mobile devices, creating personal area networks (PANs) with high levels of security. Different type of network is needed to connect different small devices in close proximity (about 10 m) without expensive wiring or the need for a wireless infrastructure. Bluetooth is a new standard suggested by a group of electronics manufacturers that will allow any sort of electronic tools from computers and cell phones to keyboards and headphones to make its own connections, without wires, cables or any direct action from a user.

BLUETOOTH ARCHITECTURE:

Bluetooth Architecture:



Bluetooth protocol stack:



1. Radio(RF)layer:

It performs modulation/demodulation of the data into RF signals. It defines the physical characteristics of bluetooth transceiver. It defines two types of physical link: connection-less and connection-oriented.

2. BasebandLinklayer:

It performs the connection establishment within a piconet.

3. LinkManagerprotocollayer:

It performs the management of the already established links. It also includes authentication and encryption processes.

4. LogicalLinkControlandAdaptionprotocollayer:

It is also known as the heart of the bluetooth protocol stack. It allows the communication between upper and lower layers of the bluetooth protocol stack. It packages the data packets received from upper layers into the form expected by lower layers. It also performs the segmentation and multiplexing.

5. SDPlayer:

It is short for Service Discovery Protocol. It allows to discover the services available on another bluetooth enabled device.

6. RFcomm layer:

It is short for Radio Frontend Component. It provides serial interface with WAP and OBEX.

7. OBEX:

It is short for Object Exchange. It is a communication protocol to exchange objects between 2 devices.

8. WAP:

It is short for Wireless Access Protocol. It is used for internet access.

9. TCS:

10. It is short for Telephony Control Protocol. It provides telephony service.

Application layer:

It enables the user to interact with the application.

Advantages:

- Lowcost.
- Easyto use.
- Itcanalsopenetratethroughwalls.
- Itcreatesanadhocconnectionimmediatelywithoutanywires.
- Itisusedfor voiceanddatatransfer.

Disadvantages:

- Itcanbehackedand hence,less secure.
- Ithas slowdata transferrate:3 Mbps.
- Ithassmallrange:10meters.

ANNAI WOMEN'S COLLEGE

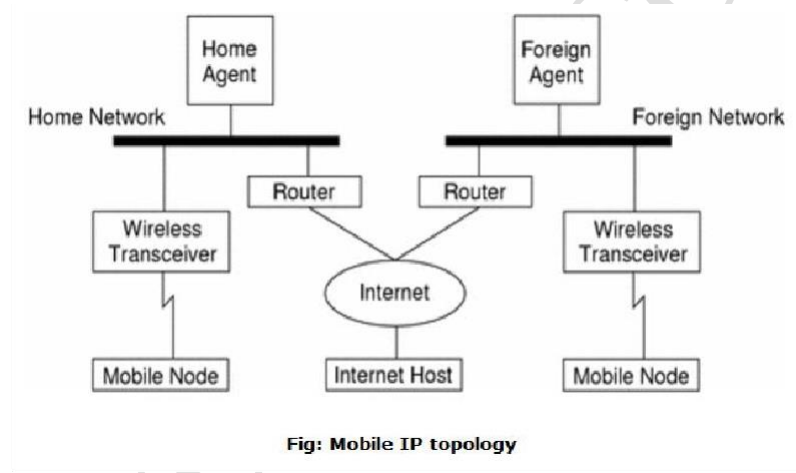
UNIT-III

MOBILE NETWORK LAYER:

MOBILE IP:

This is an **IETF (Internet Engineering Task Force)** standard communications protocol designed to allow mobile devices' (such as laptop, PDA, mobile phone, etc.) users to move from one network to another while maintaining their permanent IP (Internet Protocol) address.

Defined in RFC (Request for Comments) 2002, mobile IP is an enhancement of the internet protocol (IP) that adds mechanisms for forwarding internet traffic to mobile devices (known as mobile nodes) when they are reconnecting through other than their home network.



The following case shows how a datagram moves from one point to another within the Mobile IP framework.

- First of all, the internet host sends a datagram to the mobile node using the mobile node's home address (normal IP routing process).
- If the mobile node (MN) is on its home network, the datagram is delivered through the normal IP (Internet Protocol) process to the mobile node. Otherwise the home agent picks up the datagram.
- If the mobile node (MN) is on foreign network, the home agent (HA) forwards the datagram to the foreign agent.
- The foreign agent (FA) delivers the datagram to the mobile node.
- Datagrams from the MN to the Internet host are sent using normal IP routing procedures. If the mobile node is on a foreign network, the packets are delivered to the foreign agent. The FA forwards the datagram to the Internet host.

In the case of wireless communications, the above illustrations depict the use of wireless transceivers to transmit the datagrams to the mobile node. Also, all datagrams between the Internet host and the MN use the mobile node's home address regardless of whether the mobile node is on a home or foreign network. The care-of address (COA) is used only for communication with mobility agents and is never seen by the Internet host.

Components of Mobile IP

The mobile IP has following three components as follows:

1. Mobile Node (MN)

The mobile node is an end system or devices such as a cell phone, PDA (Personal Digital Assistant), or laptop whose software enables network roaming capabilities.

2. Home Agent (HA)

The home agent provides several services for the mobile node and is located in the home network. The tunnel for packets towards the mobile node starts at home agent. The home agent maintains a location registry, i.e. it is informed of the mobile node's location by the current COA (care of address). Following alternatives for the implementation of an HA exist.

- Home agent can be implemented on a **router** that is responsible for the home network. This is obviously the best position, because without optimization to mobile IP, all packets for the MN have to go through the router anyway.
- If changing the router's software is not possible, the home agent could also be implemented on an **arbitrary node** in the subnet..

3. Foreign Agent (FA)

The foreign agent can provide several services to the mobile node during its visit to the foreign network. The FA can have the COA (care of address) acting as a tunnel endpoint and forwarding packets to the MN. The foreign agent can be the default router for the MN.

Foreign agent can also provide security services because they belong to the foreign network as opposed to the MN which is only visiting.

In short, FA is a router that may function as the point of attachment for the mobile node when it roams to a foreign network delivers packets from the home agent to the mobile node.

4. Care of Address (COA)

The Care-of-address defines the current location of the mobile node from an IP point of view. All IP packets sent to the MN are delivered to the COA, not directly to the IP address of the MN. Packet delivery toward the mobile node is done using a tunnel. To be more precise, the COA marks the endpoint of the tunnel, i.e. the address where packets exit the tunnel.

There are two different possibilities for the location of the care-of-address:

1. **Foreign Agent COA:** The COA could be located at the foreign agent, i.e. the COA is an IP address of the foreign agent. The foreign agent is the tunnel endpoint and forwards packets to the MN. Many MNs using the FA can share this COA as common COA.
2. **Co-located COA:** The COA is co-located if the MN temporarily acquires an additional IP address which acts as a COA. This address is now topologically correct, and the tunnel endpoint is at the mobile node. Co-located address can be acquired using services such as DHCP. One problem associated with this approach is the need for additional addresses if MNs request a COA. This is not always a good idea considering the scarcity of IPv4 addresses.

5. Correspondent Node (CN)

At least one partner is needed for communication. The correspondent node represents this partner for the MN. The correspondent node can be a fixed or mobile node.

6. Home Network

The home network is the subset the MN belongs to with respect to its IP address. No mobile IP support is needed within this network.

7. Foreign network

The foreign network is the current subset the MN visits and which is not the home network.

Process of Mobile IP

The mobile IP process has following three main phases, which are:

1. Agent Discovery

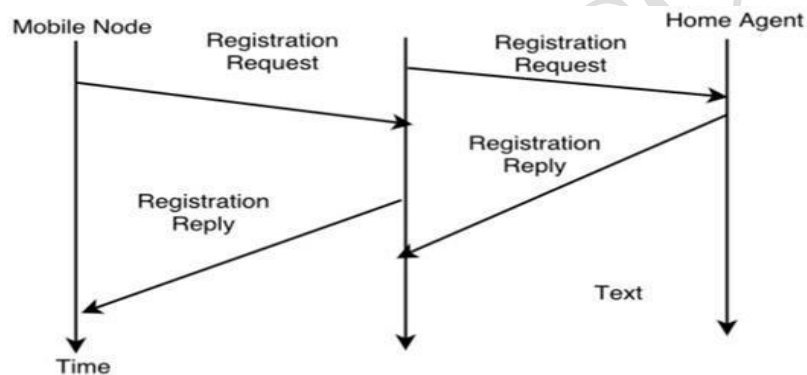
During the agent discovery phase the HA and FA advertise their services on the network by using the ICMP router discovery protocol (IRDP).

Mobile IP defines two methods: agent advertisement and agent solicitation which are in fact router discovery methods plus extensions.

- **Agent advertisement:** For the first method, FA and HA advertise their presence periodically using special agent advertisement messages. These messages advertisement can be seen as a beacon broadcast into the subnet. For this advertisement internet control message protocol (ICMP) messages according to RFC1256, are used with some mobility extensions.
- **Agent solicitation:** If no agent advertisements are present or the inter arrival time is too high, and an MN has not received a COA, the mobile node must send agent solicitations. These solicitations are again based on RFC1256 for router solicitations.

2. Registration

The main purpose of the registration is to inform the home agent of the current location for correct forwarding of packets.



Registration can be done in two ways depending on the location of the COA.

- **If the COA is at the FA**, the MN sends its registration request containing the COA to the FA which is forwarding the request to the HA. The HA now sets up a **mobility binding** containing the mobile node's home IP address and the current COA.

Additionally, the mobility binding contains the lifetime of the registration which is negotiated during the registration process. Registration expires automatically after the lifetime and is deleted; so a mobile node should register before expiration. After setting up the mobility binding, the HA sends a reply message back to the FA which forwards it to the MN.

- **If the COA is co-located**, registration can be very simpler. The mobile node may send the request directly to the HA and vice versa. This by the way is also the registration procedure for MNs returning to their home network.

3. Tunneling

A tunnel is used to establish a virtual pipe for data packets between a tunnel entry and a tunnel endpoint. Packets which are entering in a tunnel are forwarded inside the tunnel and leave the tunnel unchanged. Tunneling, i.e., sending a packet through a tunnel is achieved with the help of encapsulation.

Tunneling is also known as "**port forwarding**" is the transmission and data intended for use only within a private, usually corporate network through a public network.

DYNAMIC HOST CONFIGURATION PROTOCOL:

Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) is a network management protocol used to dynamically assign an IP address to any device, or node, on a network so they can communicate using IP (Internet Protocol). DHCP automates and centrally manages these configurations. There is no need to manually assign IP addresses to new devices. Therefore, there is no requirement for any user configuration to connect to a DHCP based network.

DHCP can be implemented on local networks as well as large enterprise networks. DHCP is the default protocol used by the most routers and networking equipment. DHCP is also called RFC (Request for Comments) 2131.

DHCP DOES THE FOLLOWING:

- DHCP manages the provision of all the nodes or devices added or dropped from the network.
- DHCP maintains the unique IP address of the host using a DHCP server.
- It sends a request to the DHCP server whenever a client/node/device, which is configured to work with DHCP, connects to a network. The server acknowledges by providing an IP address to the client/node/device.

DHCP is also used to configure the proper subnet mask, default gateway and DNS server information on the node or device.

How DHCP works

DHCP runs at the application layer of the TCP/IP protocol stack to dynamically assign IP addresses to DHCP clients/nodes and to allocate TCP/IP configuration information to the DHCP clients. Information includes subnet mask information, default gateway, IP addresses and domain names system addresses.

DHCP is based on client-server protocol in which servers manage a pool of unique IP addresses, as well as information about client configuration parameters, and assign addresses out of those address pools.

The DHCP lease process works as follows:

- First of all, a client (network device) must be connected to the internet.
- DHCP clients request an IP address. Typically, client broadcasts a query for this information.
- DHCP server responds to the client request by providing IP server address and other configuration information. This configuration information also includes time period, called lease, for which the allocation is valid.
- When refreshing an assignment, a DHCP client requests the same parameters, but the DHCP server may assign a new IP address. This is based on the policies set by the administrator.

Components of DHCP

When working with DHCP, it is important to understand all of the components. Following are the list of components:

- **DHCP Server:** DHCP server is a networked device running the DHCP service that holds IP addresses and related configuration information. This is typically a server or a router but could be anything that acts as a host, such as an SD-WAN appliance.
- **DHCP client:** DHCP client is the endpoint that receives configuration information from a DHCP server. This can be any device like computer, laptop, IoT endpoint or anything else that requires connectivity to the network. Most of the devices are configured to receive DHCP information by default.
- **IP address pool:** IP address pool is the range of addresses that are available to DHCP clients. IP addresses are typically handed out sequentially from lowest to the highest.
- **Subnet:** Subnet is the partitioned segments of the IP networks. Subnet is used to keep networks manageable.
- **Lease:** Lease is the length of time for which a DHCP client holds the IP address information. When lease expires, the client has to renew it.
- **DHCP relay:** A host or router that listens for client messages being broadcast on that network and then forwards them to a configured server. The server then sends responses back to the relay agent that passes them along to the client. DHCP relay can be used to centralize DHCP servers instead of having a server on each subnet.

Benefits of DHCP

There are following benefits of DHCP:

Centralized administration of IP configuration: DHCP IP configuration information can be stored in a single location and enables that administrator to centrally manage all IP address configuration information.

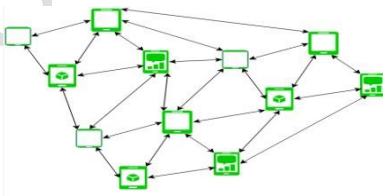
Dynamic host configuration: DHCP automates the host configuration process and eliminates the need to manually configure individual host. When TCP/IP (Transmission control protocol/Internet protocol) is first deployed or when IP infrastructure changes are required.

Seamless IP host configuration: The use of DHCP ensures that DHCP clients get accurate and timely IP configuration IP configuration parameter such as IP address, subnet mask, default gateway, IP address of DNS server and so on without user intervention.

Flexibility and scalability: Using DHCP gives the administrator increased flexibility, allowing the administrator to move easily change IP configuration when the infrastructure changes.

MOBILE ADHOC NETWORK (MANET):

MANET stands for Mobile adhoc Network also called as wireless adhoc network or adhoc wireless network that usually has a routable networking environment on top of a Link Layer adhoc network.. They consist of set of mobile nodes connected wirelessly in a self configured, self healing network without having a fixed infrastructure. MANET nodes are free to move randomly as the network topology changes frequently. Each node behave as a router as they forward traffic to other specified node in the network.



MANET may operate as standalone fashion or they can be the part of larger internet. They form highly dynamic autonomous topology with the presence of one or multiple different transceivers between nodes. The main challenge for the MANET is to equipped each devices to continuously maintain the information required to properly route traffic. MANETs consist of a peer-to-peer, self-forming, self-healing network. MANET's circa 2000-2015 typically communicate at radio frequencies (30MHz-5GHz). This can be used in road safety, ranging from sensors for environment, home, health, disaster rescue operations, air/land/navy defense, weapons, robots, etc.

Characteristics of MANET–

: **Network topology which is typically multi hops, may change randomly and rapidly with time, it can form unidirectional or bi-directional links.**

- **Bandwidth constrained, variable capacity links:** Wireless links usually have lower reliability, efficiency, stability and capacity as compared to wired network. The throughput of wireless communication is even less than a radio's maximum transmission rate after dealing with the constraints like multiple access, noise, interference conditions, etc.
- **Autonomous Behavior:** Each node can act as a host and router, which shows its autonomous behavior.
- **Energy Constrained Operation:** As some or all the nodes rely on batteries or other exhaustible means for their energy. Mobile nodes are characterized with less memory, power and light weight features.
- **Limited Security:** Wireless networks are more prone to security threats. A centralized firewall is absent due to its distributed nature of operation for security, routing and host configuration.
- **Less Human Intervention:** They require minimum human intervention to configure the network, therefore they are dynamically autonomous in nature.

Pros and Cons of MANET–

Pros:

1. Separation from central network administration.
2. Each node can play both the roles i.e. of router and host showing autonomous nature.
3. Self configuring and self healing nodes, does not require human intervention.

Cons:

1. Resources are limited due to various constraints like noise, interference conditions, etc.
2. Lack of authorization facilities.
3. More prone to attacks due to limited physical security.

TRADITIONAL TCP:

➤ **Congestion control:**

- ✓ A transport layer protocol such as TCP has been designed for fixed networks with fixed end-systems.
- ✓ Data transmission takes place using network adapters, fiber optics, copper wires, special hardware for routers etc.
- ✓ Congestion may appear from time to time even in carefully designed networks.
- ✓ The packet buffers of a router are filled and the router cannot forward the packets fast enough because the sum of the input rates of packets destined for one output link is higher than the capacity of the output link.

to congestion.

- ✓ Retransmitting the missing packet and continuing at full sending rate would now be unwise, as this might only increase the congestion.

➤ **Slow start:**

- ✓ TCP's reaction to a missing acknowledgement is quite drastic, but it is necessary to get rid of congestion quickly. The behavior TCP shows after the detection of congestion is called slow start.
- ✓ The sender always calculates a congestion window for a receiver.
- ✓ The start size of the congestion window is one segment (TCP packet).
- ✓ The sender sends one packet and waits for acknowledgement. If this acknowledgement arrives, the sender increases the congestion window by one, now sending two packets (congestion window = 2).
- ✓ After arrival of the two corresponding acknowledgements, the sender again adds 2 to the congestion window, one for each of the acknowledgements.
- ✓ Now the congestion window equals 4.
- ✓ This scheme doubles the congestion window every time the acknowledgements come back, which takes one round trip time (RTT).
- ✓ This is called the exponential growth of the congestion window in the slow start mechanism.

➤ **Fast retransmit/fast recovery:**

- ✓ Two things lead to a reduction of the congestion threshold. One is a sender receiving continuous acknowledgements for the same packet.
- ✓ This informs the sender of two things. One is that the receiver got all packets up to the acknowledged packet in sequence.
- ✓ In TCP, a receiver sends acknowledgements only if it receives any packets from the sender.
- ✓ Receiving acknowledgements from a receiver also shows that the receiver continuously receives something from the sender.
- ✓ The gap in the packet stream is not due to severe congestion, but a simple packet loss due to a transmission error. The sender can now retransmit the missing packet(s) before the timer expires. This behavior is called fast retransmit.

➤ **Implications on mobility:**

- ✓ While slow start is one of the most useful mechanisms in fixed networks, it drastically decreases the efficiency of TCP if used together with mobile receivers or senders.

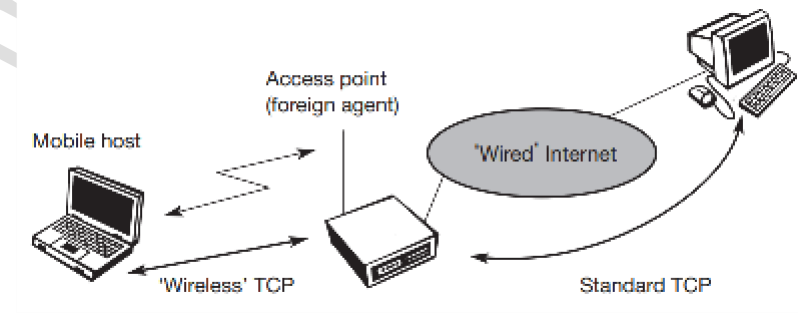
- ✓ Thereasonforthisisthe use ofslowstartunderthewrongassumptions.
- ✓ Fromamissingacknowledgement,TCPconcludesacongestionsituation.
- ✓ Whilethismay alsohappeninnetworkswithmobileand wirelessend-systems,itisnotthe mainreasonfor packetloss.
- ✓ Errorratesonwirelesslinksareordersofmagnitudehighercomparedtofixedfiberor copperlinks.

CLASSICALTCPIMPROVEMENTS:

TogetherwiththeintroductionofWLANsinthemid-ninetiesseveralresearchprojectswerestartedwiththegoal toincreaseTCP's performanceinwirelessandmobileenvironments.

➤ **IndirectTCP:**

- ✓ TwocompetinginsightsledtothedevelopmentofindirectTCP(I-TCP)(Bakre,1995).
- ✓ OneisthatTCPperforms poorlytogetherwithwirelesslinks;the other isthatTCPwithinthefixednetworkcannotbechanged.
- ✓ I-TCPsegments aTCPconnection intoafixed partandawirelesspart.
- ✓ Figureshowsanexamplewithamobilehostconnectedviaawirelesslinkandanaccesspoint tothe'wired'internetwherethecorrespondent host resides.
- ✓ The correspondent node could also use wireless access. The following would thenalso beappliedtothe accesslink ofthecorrespondenthost.
- ✓ StandardTCPisusedbetweenthefixedcomputerandtheaccesspoint. Nocomputerinthe internetrecognizesanychangestoTCP.



AdvantageswithI-TCP:

- ✓ I-TCP doesnotrequireanychangesintheTCPprotocolasusedbythehostsinthefixednetworkor thehosts inawireless network thatdonot usethis optimization.
- ✓ Duetothestrictpartitioningintotwoconnections,transmissionerrorsonthewirelesslink,i.e., lostpackets,cannotpropagateintothe fixednetwork.

- ✓ It is always dangerous to introduce new mechanisms into a huge network such as the internet without knowing exactly how they will behave.
- ✓ The authors assume that the short delay between the mobile host and foreign agent could be determined and was independent of other traffic streams.
- ✓ Partitioning into two connections also allows the use of a different transport layer protocol between the foreign agent and the mobile host or the use of compressed headers etc. The foreign agent can now act as a gateway to translate between the different protocols.

Disadvantages:

- ✓ The loss of the end-to-end semantics of TCP might cause problems if the foreign agent partitions the TCP connection.
- ✓ If a sender receives an acknowledgement, it assumes that the receiver got the packet.
- ✓ Receiving an acknowledgement now only means (for the mobile host and a correspondent host) that the foreign agent received the packet.
- ✓ The correspondent node does not know anything about the partitioning, so a crashing access node may also crash applications running on the correspondent node assuming reliable end-to-end delivery.
- ✓ The foreign agent must be a trusted entity because the TCP connections end at this point. If users apply end-to-end encryption.

TCPOVER 2.5/3G WIRELESS NETWORKS:

The current internet draft for TCP over 2.5G/3G wireless networks (Inamura, 2002) describes a profile for optimizing TCP over today's and tomorrow's wireless WANs such as GSM/GPRS, UMTS, or cdma2000. The configuration optimizations recommended in this draft can be found in most of today's TCP implementations so this draft does not require an update of millions of TCP stacks. The focus on 2.5G/3G for transport of internet data is important as already more than 1 billion people use mobile phones and it is obvious that the mobile phone systems will also be used to transport arbitrary internet data.

The following characteristics have to be considered when deploying applications over 2.5G/3G wireless links:

➤ **Data rates:**

- ✓ While typical data rates of today's 2.5G systems are 10–20 kbit/s uplink and 20–50 kbit/s downlink, 3G and future 2.5G systems will initially offer data rates around 64 kbit/s uplink and 115–384 kbit/s downlink.

- ✓ Typically, data rates are asymmetric as it is expected that users will download more data compared to uploading.
- ✓ Uploading is limited by the limited battery power.
- ✓ In cellular networks, asymmetry does not exceed 3–6 times, however, considering broadcast systems as additional distribution media (digital radio, satellite systems), asymmetry may reach a factor of 1,000.
- ✓ Serious problems that may reduce throughput dramatically are bandwidth oscillations due to dynamic resource sharing.
- ✓ To support multiple users within a radio cell, a scheduler may have to repeatedly allocate and deallocate resources for each user.
- ✓ This may lead to a periodic allocation and release of a high-speed channel.
- **Latency:** All wireless systems comprise elaborated algorithms for error correction and protection, such as forward error correction (FEC), checksumming, and interleaving.
- **Jitter:** Wireless systems suffer from large delay variations or ‘delay spikes’. Reasons for sudden increase in the latency are: link outages due to temporal loss of radio coverage, blocking due to high-priority traffic, or handovers.
- **Packet loss:** Packets might be lost during handovers or due to corruption. Thanks to link-level retransmissions the loss rates of 2.5G/3G systems due to corruption are relatively low (but still orders of magnitude higher than, e.g., fiber connections!). However, recovery at the link layer appears as jitter to the higher layers.

Based on these characteristics, suggest the following configuration parameters to adapt TCP to wireless environments:

- **Large windows:** TCP should support large enough window sizes based on the bandwidth delay product experienced in wireless systems. With the help of the windows scale option (RFC 1323) and larger buffer sizes this can be accomplished (typical buffer size settings of 16 kbyte are not enough). A larger initial window (more than the typical one segment) of 2 to 4 segments may increase performance particularly for short transmissions (a few segments in total).
- **Limited transmit:** This mechanism, defined in RFC 3042 (Allman, 2001) is an extension of Fast Retransmission/Fast Recovery (Caceres, 1995) and is particularly useful when small amounts of data are to be transmitted (standard for, e.g., web service requests).
- **Large MTU:** The larger the MTU (Maximum Transfer Unit) the faster TCP increases the congestion window. Link layers fragment PDUs for transmission anyway according to their needs and large MTUs may be used to increase performance. MTU

path discovery according to RFC 1191 (IPv4) or RFC 1981 (IPv6) should be used to employ

larger segment sizes instead of assuming the small default MTU.

- **Selective Acknowledgement (SACK):** SACK (RFC 2018) allows the selective retransmission of packets and is almost always beneficial compared to the standard cumulative scheme.
- **Explicit Congestion Notification (ECN):** ECN as defined in RFC 3168 (Ramakrishna, 2001) allows a receiver to inform a sender of congestion in the network by setting the ECN-Echo flag on receiving an IP packet that has experienced congestion.
- **Timestamp:** TCP connections with large windows may benefit from more frequent RTT samples provided with timestamps by adapting quicker to changing network conditions.
- **No header compression:** As the TCP header compression mechanism according to RFC 1144 does not perform well in the presence of packet losses this mechanism should not be used.

ANNAL WOMEN'S COLLEGE

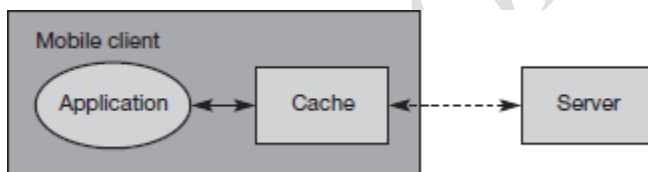
UNIT-4

Filesystems:

The general goal of a file system is to support efficient, transparent, and consistent access to files, no matter where the client requesting files or the server(s) offering files are located. **Efficiency** is of special importance for wireless systems as the bandwidth is low so the protocol overhead and updating operations etc. should be kept at a minimum. **Transparency** addresses the problems of location-dependent views on a file system. To support mobility, the filesystem should provide identical views on directories, filenames, access rights etc., independent of the current location.

Consistency:

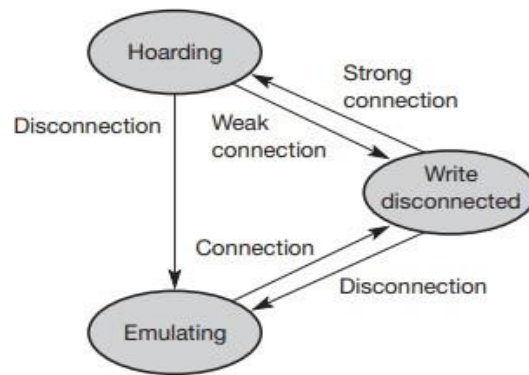
The basic problem for distributed file systems that allow replication of data for performance reasons is the consistency of replicated objects (files, parts of files, parts of a data structure etc.). What happens, for example, if two portable devices hold copies of the same object, then one device changes the value of the object and after that, both devices read the value? Without further mechanisms, one portable device reads an old value. To avoid inconsistencies many traditional systems apply mechanisms to maintain a permanent consistent view for all users of a file system. This **strong consistency** is achieved by atomic updates similar to database systems.



ms.

Coda:

Coda is the successor of AFS and offers two different types of replication: server replication and caching on clients. Disconnected clients work only on the cache, i.e., applications use only cached replicated files. Figure shows the cache between an application and the server. Coda is a transparent extension of the client's cache manager. This very general architecture is valid for most of today's mobile systems that utilize a cache.



Little Work: The distributed file system Little Work is, like Coda, an extension of AFS (Huston,1993), (Honeyman, 1995). Little Work only requires changes to the cache manager of the client and detects write conflicts during reintegration. Little Work has no specific tools for reintegration and offers no transaction service.

- **Connected:** The operation of the client is normal, i.e., no special mechanisms from Little Work are required. This mode needs a continuous high bandwidth as available in typical office environments using, e.g., a WLAN.
- **Partially connected:** If a client has only a lower bandwidth connection, but still has the possibility to communicate continuously, it is referred to as partially connected.
- **Fetch only:** If the only network available offers connections on demand, the client goes into the fetch only state.
- **Disconnected:** Without any network, the client is disconnected. Little Work knows about aborts if a cache miss occurs, otherwise replicates are used.

Ficus:

Ficus is a distributed file system, which is not based on a client/server approach (Popek, 1990), (Heidemann, 1992). Ficus allows the optimistic use of replicates, detects write conflicts, and solves conflicts on directories. Ficus uses so-called gossip protocols, and in many other systems took over later. A mobile computer does not necessarily need to have a direct connection to a server.

Mio-NFS:

The system mobile integration of NFS (Mio-NFS) is an extension of the Network File System (NFS, (Guedes, 1995)). In contrast to many other systems, Mio-NFS uses a pessimistic

approach with tokens controlling access to files. Only the token-holder for a specific file may change this file, so MIO-NFS avoids write conflicts. Read/write conflicts are cannot be avoided. MIO-NFS supportsthreedifferentmodes:

- Connected:Theserverhandlesallaccesstofilesas usual.
- Looselyconnected:Clientsuselocalreplicates,exchangetokenoverthenetwork,andupdatefiles viathenetwork.
- Disconnected:Theclientusesonlylocalreplicates.Writingisonlyallowediftheclientistoken-holder

Rover:

Compared to Coda, the Rover platform uses another approach to support mobility (Joseph,1997a and 1997b). Instead of adapting existing applications for mobile devices, Rover providesa platform for developing new, mobility aware applications. Two new components have beenintroduced in Rover. Relocatable dynamic objects are objects that can be dynamically loadedintoaclientcomputerfromaserver(orvice-versa)to reduceclient-servercommunication.

WWW:

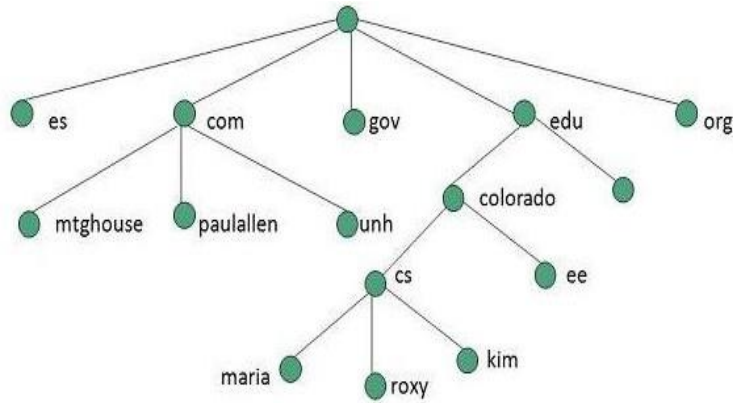
WWWstandsfor**WorldWideWeb**.AtechnicaldefinitionoftheWorldWideWebis:alltheresourcesand usersontheInternetthatareusingtheHypertextTransferProtocol(HTTP).

AbroaderdefinitioncomesfromtheorganizationthatWebinventor**TimBerners-Lee**helpedfound,the **WorldWideWebConsortium (W3C)**.

TheWorldWideWebistheuniverseofnetwork-accessibleinformation,anembodimentofhumanknowledge.

Insimpleterms,TheWorldWideWebisawayofexchanginginformationbetweencomputersontheInternet, tyingthemtogetherintoavastcollection ofinteractivemultimediaresources.

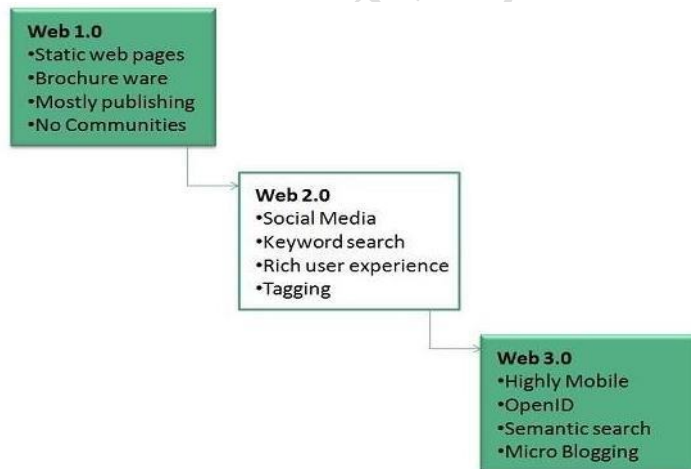
InternetandWebis notthesamething:Webusesinternettopassovertheinformation.



Evolution:

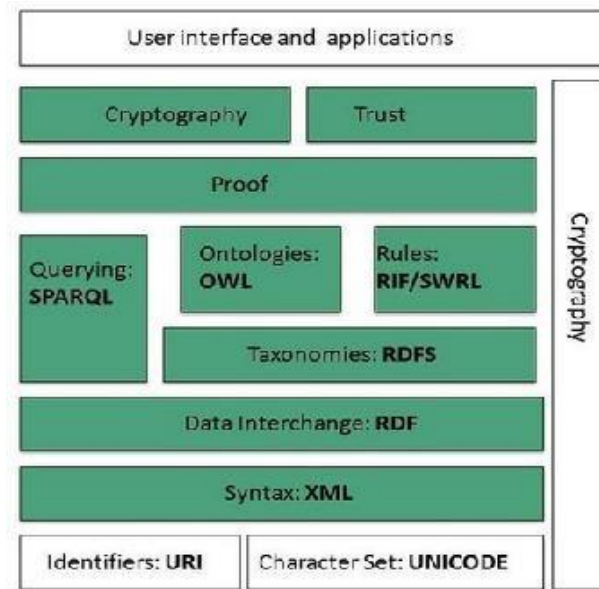
World Wide Web was created by **Timothy Berners Lee** in 1989 at **CERN** in **Geneva**. World Wide Web came into existence as a proposal by him, to allow researchers to work together effectively and efficiently at **CERN**. Eventually it became **World Wide Web**.

The following diagram briefly defines evolution of World Wide Web:



WWW Architecture:

WWW architecture is divided into several layers as shown in the following diagram:



Identifiers and Character Set

Uniform Resource Identifier (URI) is used to uniquely identify resources on the web and **UNICODE** makes it possible to build web pages that can be read and written in human languages.

Syntax

XML (Extensible Markup Language) helps to define common syntax in semantic web.

Data Interchange

Resource Description Framework (RDF) framework helps in defining core representation of data for web. RDF represents data about resource in graph form.

Taxonomies

RDF Schema (RDFS) allows more standardized description of **taxonomies** and other **ontological** constructs.

Ontologies

Web Ontology Language (OWL) offers more constructs over RDFS. It comes in following three versions:

- OWL Lite for taxonomies and simple constraints.
- OWL DL for full description logics support.
- OWL for more syntactic freedom of RDF

Rules

RIF and **SWRL** offers rules beyond the constructs that are available from **RDFs** and **OWL**.

Simple Protocol and **RDF Query Language (SPARQL)** is SQL like language used for querying RDF data and OWL Ontologies.

Proof

All semantic and rules that are executed at layers below Proof and their result will be used to provide deductions.

Cryptography

Cryptography means such as digital signature for verification of the origin of sources is used.

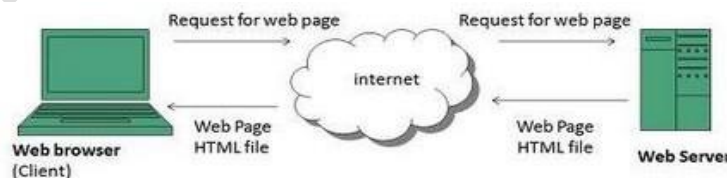
User Interface and Applications

On the top of layer **User interface and Applications** layer is built for user interaction.

WWW Operation

WWW works on client-server approach. Following steps explain how the web works:

1. User enters the URL (say, <http://www.tutorialspoint.com>) of the web page in the address bar of web browser.
2. Then browser requests the Domain Name Server for the IP address corresponding to www.tutorialspoint.com.
3. After receiving IP address, browser sends the request for web page to the web server using HTTP protocol which specifies the way the browser and web server communicates.
4. Then web server receives request using HTTP protocol and checks its search for the requested web page. If found it returns it back to the web browser and close the HTTP connection.
5. Now the web browser receives the web page, it interprets it and displays the contents of the web page in the web browser's window.



Future

There has been a rapid development in the field of web. It has its impact in almost every area such as education, research, technology, commerce, marketing etc. So the future of web is almost unpredictable.

Apart from huge development in the field of WWW, there are also some technical issues that the W3 consortium has to cope up with.

User Interface

Work on higher quality presentation of 3-D information is under development. The W3 Consortium is also looking forward to enhance the web to full fill requirements of global communities which would include all regional languages and writing systems.

Technology

Work on privacy and security is underway. This would include hiding information, accounting, access control, integrity and risk management.

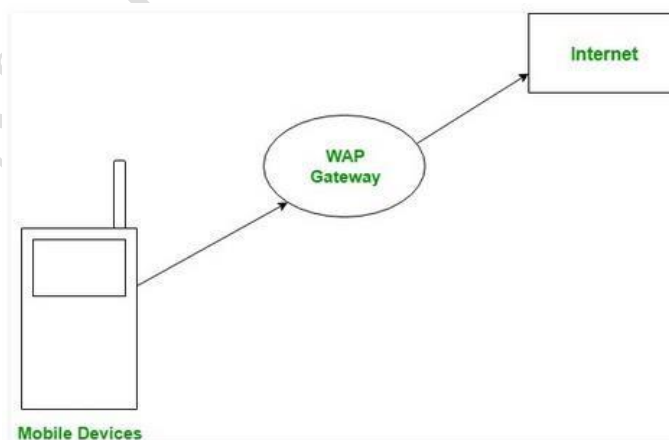
Architecture

There has been huge growth in field of web which may lead to overload the internet and degrade its performance. Hence more better protocols are required to be developed.

WIRELESS APPLICATION PROTOCOL (WAP):

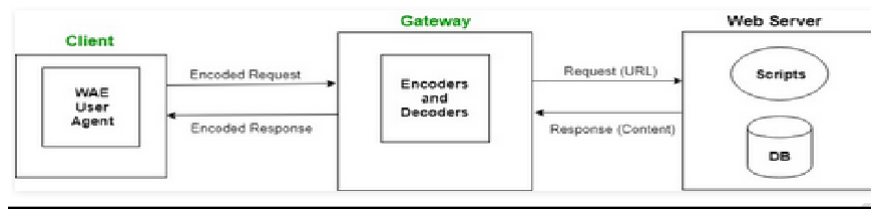
WAP stands for **Wireless Application Protocol**. It is a protocol designed for micro-browsers and it enables the access of internet in the mobile devices. It uses the mark-up language WML (Wireless Markup Language and not HTML), WML is defined as XML 1.0 application. It enables creating web applications for mobile devices. In 1998, *WAP Forum* was founded by Ericson, Motorola, Nokia and Unwired Planet whose aim was to standardize the various wireless technologies via protocols.

WAP protocol was resulted by the joint efforts of the various members of WAP Forum. In 2002, WAP forum was merged with various other forums of the industry resulting in the formation of **Open Mobile Alliance (OMA)**.



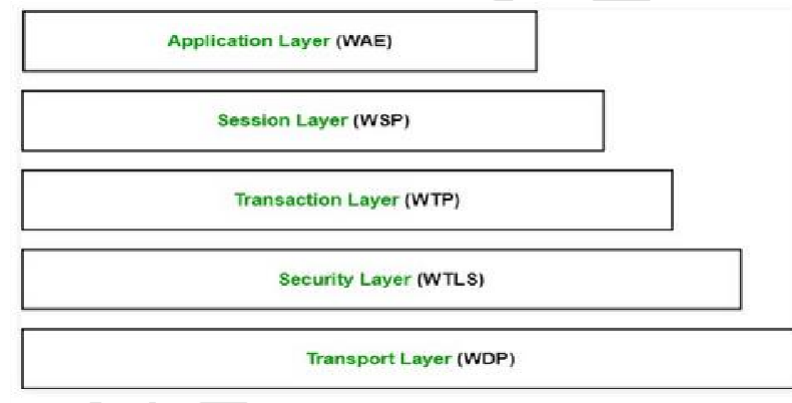
WAP Model:

The user opens the mini-browser in a mobile device. He selects a website that he wants to view. The mobile device sends the URL encoded request via network to a WAP gateway using WAP protocol.



The WAP gateway translates this WAP request into a conventional HTTP URL request and sends it over the internet. The request reaches to a specified Web server and it processes the request just as it would have processed any other request and sends the response back to the mobile device through WAP gateway in WML file which can be seen in the micro-browser.

WAP Protocol stack:



1. Application layer:

This layer contains the *Wireless Application Environment (WAE)*. It contains mobile device specifications and content development programming languages like WML.

2. Session Layer:

This layer contains *Wireless Session Protocol (WSP)*. It provides fast connection suspension and reconnection.

3. Transaction Layer:

This layer contains *Wireless Transaction Protocol (WTP)*. It runs on top of UDP (User Datagram Protocol) and is a part of TCP/IP and offers transaction support.

4. Security Layer:

This layer contains *Wireless Transaction Layer Security (WTLS)*. It offers data integrity, privacy and authentication.

5. Transport Layer:

This layer contains *Wireless Datagram Protocol*. It presents consistent data format to higher layers of WAP protocol stack.

WAP 2.0:

- ✓ The recently released then extension (Version 2.0) of specifications for the Wireless Application Protocol (WAP).
- ✓ As an evolution of the open wireless standards for delivering applications to mobile devices such as cellular phones and personal digital assistants, WAP 2.0 sounds promising.
- ✓ WAP 2.0 now supports XHTML (Extensible Hypertext Markup Language) Basic by providing the Wireless Markup Language (WML) as a basic profile WML2.
- ✓ The addition of support for XHTML (the XML version of the popular HTML tagging language) is a good step in the unification of the various presentation formats for Web and wireless delivery.
- ✓ The WAP Forum has also ensured backward compatibility with WML1 (part of the WAP 1.2 specification). This is particularly important because part of the WAP stack -- the Wireless Application Environment -- lives on the device, and it can take quite some time for the new stack to be available on new handsets.

A significant aspect of the WAP 2.0 specification is its support for the popular Web protocols such as TCP/IP, TLS and HTTP. In the previous versions of the WAP specification, a new set of protocols, collectively known as WAP 1 Stack, were created to make use of low-bandwidth mobile networks. This stack included the Wireless Session Protocol, Wireless Transaction Protocol, Wireless Transport Layer Security and Wireless Datagram Protocol. With the advent of the next-generation 2.5G and 3G high-speed wireless networks, it has become increasingly important to support the same set of protocols that are available on the Web. As another measure to ensure backward compatibility, manufacturers of devices and microbrowsers can choose to implement a dual stack to support both sets of protocols.

A number of key vendors have announced support for the WAP 2.0 standard. However, widespread usage for applications based on WAP 2.0 will surface only when development tools, microbrowsers, gateways and handsets are available with WAP 2.0 support. Unlike desktop Web browsers, upgrading wireless microbrowsers in a handset is not a straightforward task. Most consumers will have to wait until new WAP 2.0-compatible handsets are available.