

**ECE 4880**

**Fall 2016**

# **Chapter 10**

## **Multiple Access and Air Protocols**

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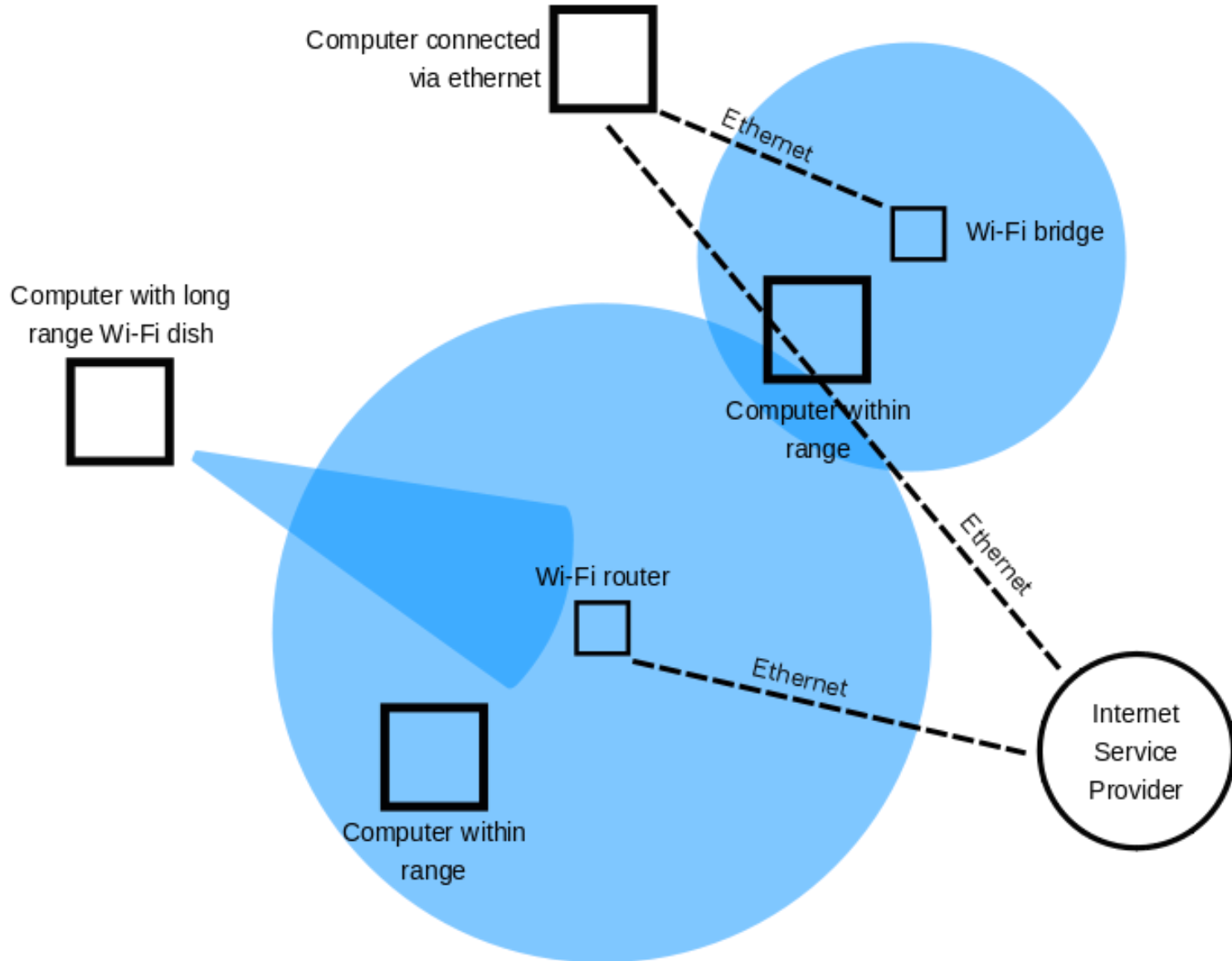
# Goals

- Understanding time, frequency (channel and intermediate), and code division in radio transceivers
- Time division multiple access and Aloha protocol
- Frequency division and spread spectrum
- Orthogonal, error detection and error correction codes

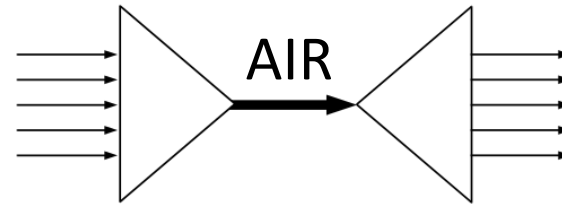
# Multiple Access of Wireless Local Area Network (WLAN)

- If all signals are added together, the receiver cannot distinguish each source clearly.
- **Security and privacy** are major issues.
- A checksum or cyclic redundancy check (CRC) is used to detect if a correct message (header or ID) is heard by receiver.
- Within the WLAN (IEEE 802.11):
  - **Infrastructure**: base station; access points; hub owner
  - **Ad hoc**: peer-to-peer (P2P); independent basic service set (BSS)

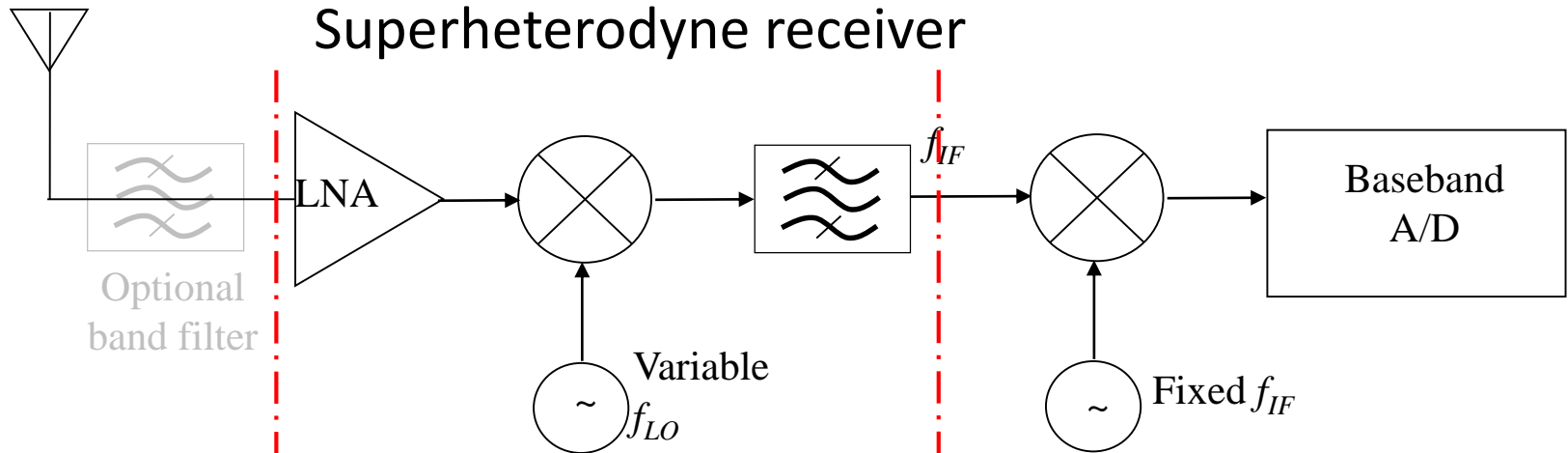
# WLAN Example: Wi-Fi



# Multiple Access from the Transceiver View



Superheterodyne receiver



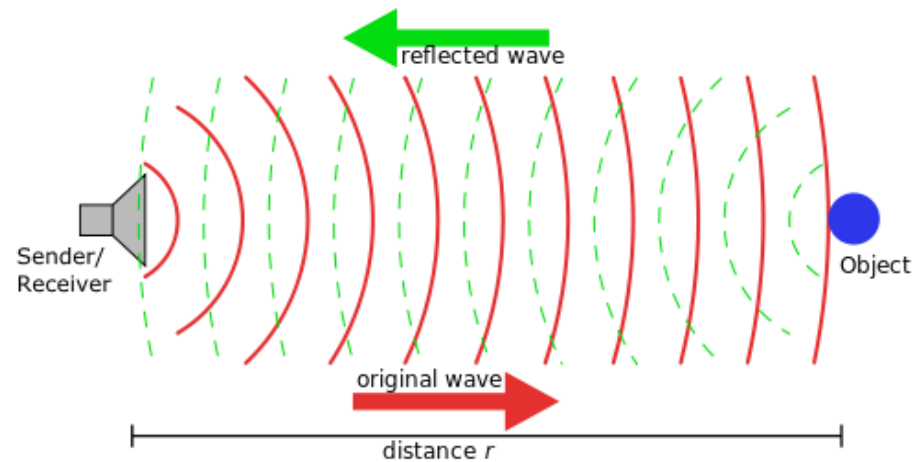
Time Division  
Multiple Access  
(**TDMA**)

Frequency Division  
Multiple Access  
(**FDMA**)

Spread Spectrum (SS)  
and Code Division  
Multiple Access (**CDMA**)

# Incoherent and Coherent Receivers

- When TX and RX are not together, the receiver is “incoherent” and “multi-static”.
- In Radar and RFID systems, when the receiver is listening to the echo, the receiver is coherent and mono-static.



# Time Division Multiplexing (TDM; TDMA)

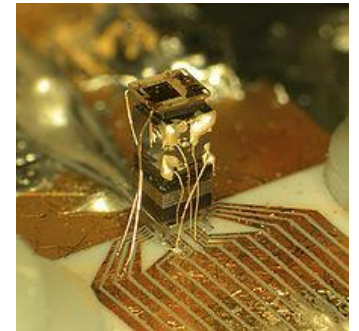
- There is only one transmitter within WLAN at a time: Traffic control by the hub owner so that the “air space” is time-shared.
- Polling of all potential transmitters to agree on further efficient multiple-access protocols.
- The only possible method when the data rate of the transmission medium exceeds that of signals to be transmitted.
- Originally developed for telegraphy and telephony.
- Further improvement:
  - Synchronous digital hierarchy (SDH): require **global clock**
  - Statistical time-division multiplexing (STDM): Address (media control address: MAC) & data
  - Dynamic TDMA: Scheduling and Aloha

# A Word on “Synchronization” of WLAN

- WLAN synchronization most often means the same frequency of  $LO_{RF\_TX}$  and  $LO_{RF\_RX}$ .
  - Local absolute frequency reference (crystal oscillator or atomic clock)
  - Master and slave (recapturing LO frequency from master in the infrastructure): Security concerns!
  - GPS synchronization (radio clock)
  - Listen to long-wave broadcast (USA: WWVB; EU: Allouis)
- Handshaking (flags and ACK) protocol is still needed for control. On IC, this is still similar to the asynchronous circuits.
  - Music analogy (the scale can be absolute, but dance steps for all parties have more requirements)



“Atomic” watch



Atomic clock



# Allouis Longwave Tower

- 350 m tall
- 162kHz; 2MW transmitting; single quarter wavelength antenna (Geneva standard)
- At Allouis, France



# WWVB Radio Station

- At Fort Collins, CO
- Four 122 m tower
- 60 KHz at 70kW
- Frequency precision  $< 10^{-12}$



# Aloha: Heritage from Ethernet

- An invention by Robert Metcalfe in 1974 in Harvard (almost flunked) and then Xerox.
- In 1979, Metcalfe formed 3Com and developed Ethernet with Digital, Intel and Xerox (called DIX).
- 3Com developed Network Interface Card for all later computers including Apple and PC.
- Communication markets shift quickly, and 3Com has tried Chinese market (Huawei), but eventually purchased by HP in 2010.

*“Every success takes a unique combination of timing, invention, talent, and effort. Failure, it just needs one thing terribly wrong.”*

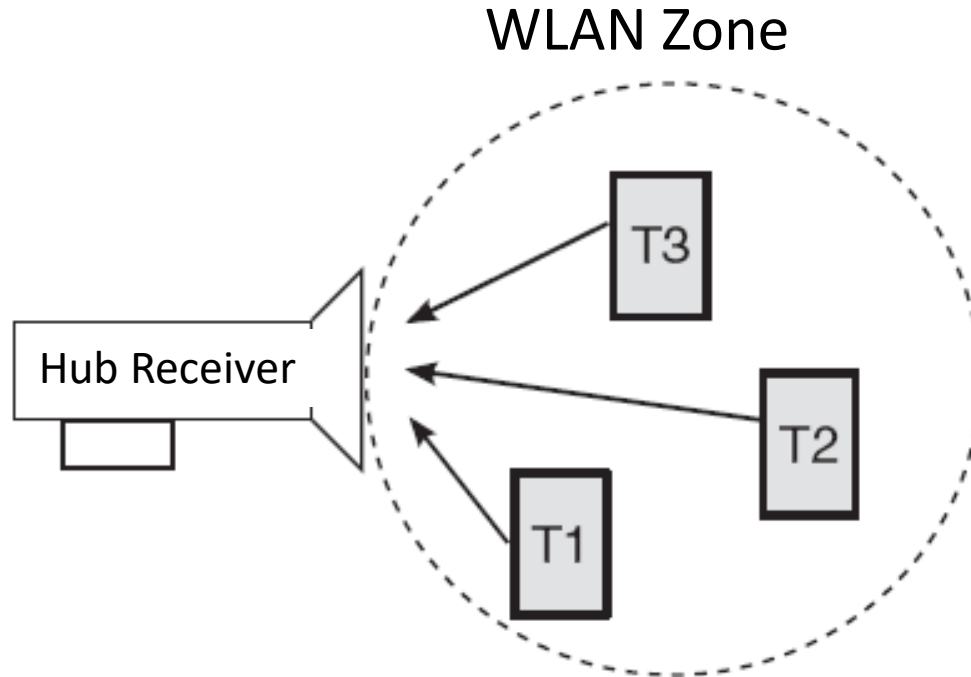
*--- Adapted from Sun Tze.*



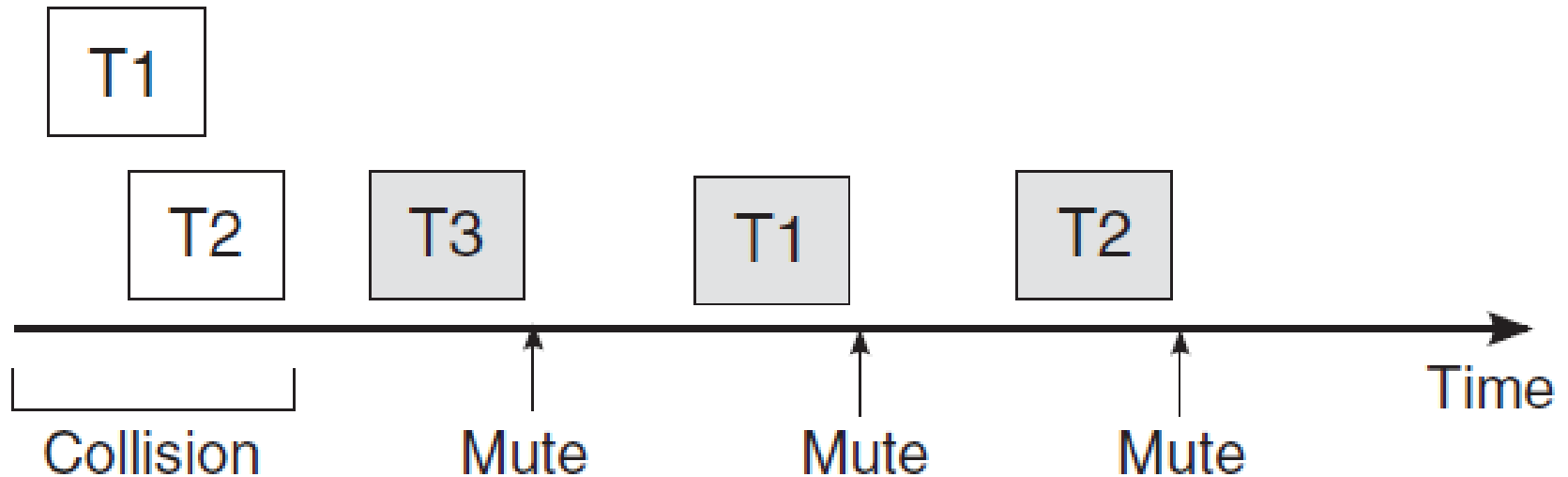
Bob Metcalfe  
National Medal, 2003

# Pure Aloha (PA)

- The hub receiver listens to a potential “Channel”.
- If a header is received correctly, the receiver sends ACK
- If a collision is detected, it sends NACK, and all transmitters (lack of a valid ACK) transmit headers again after a random delay.

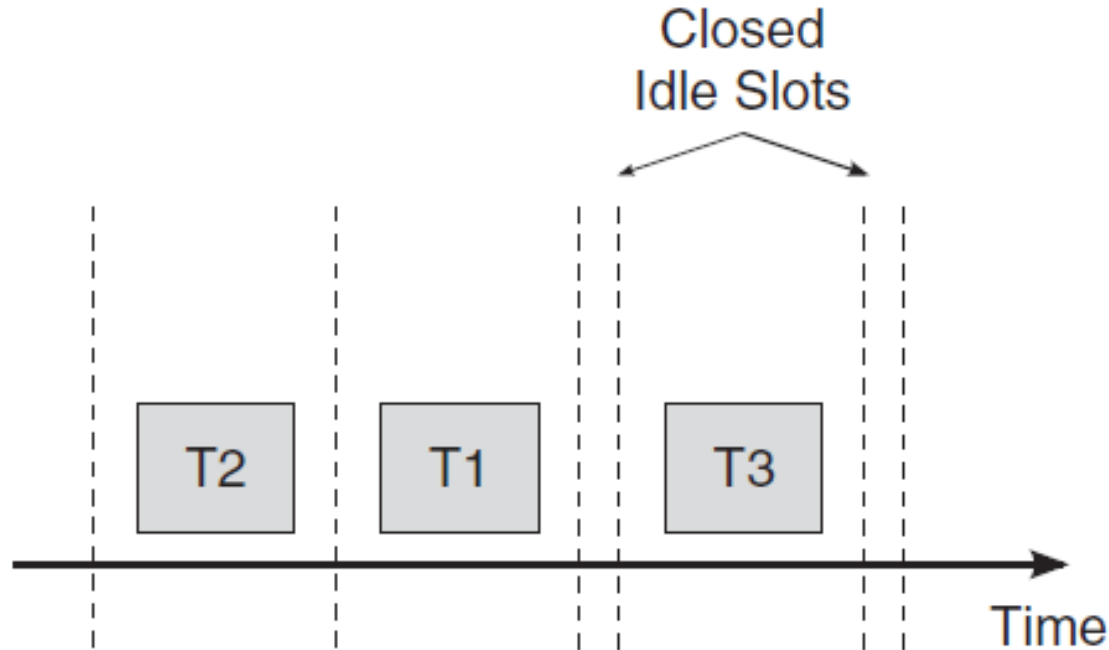


# Pure Aloha with Muting



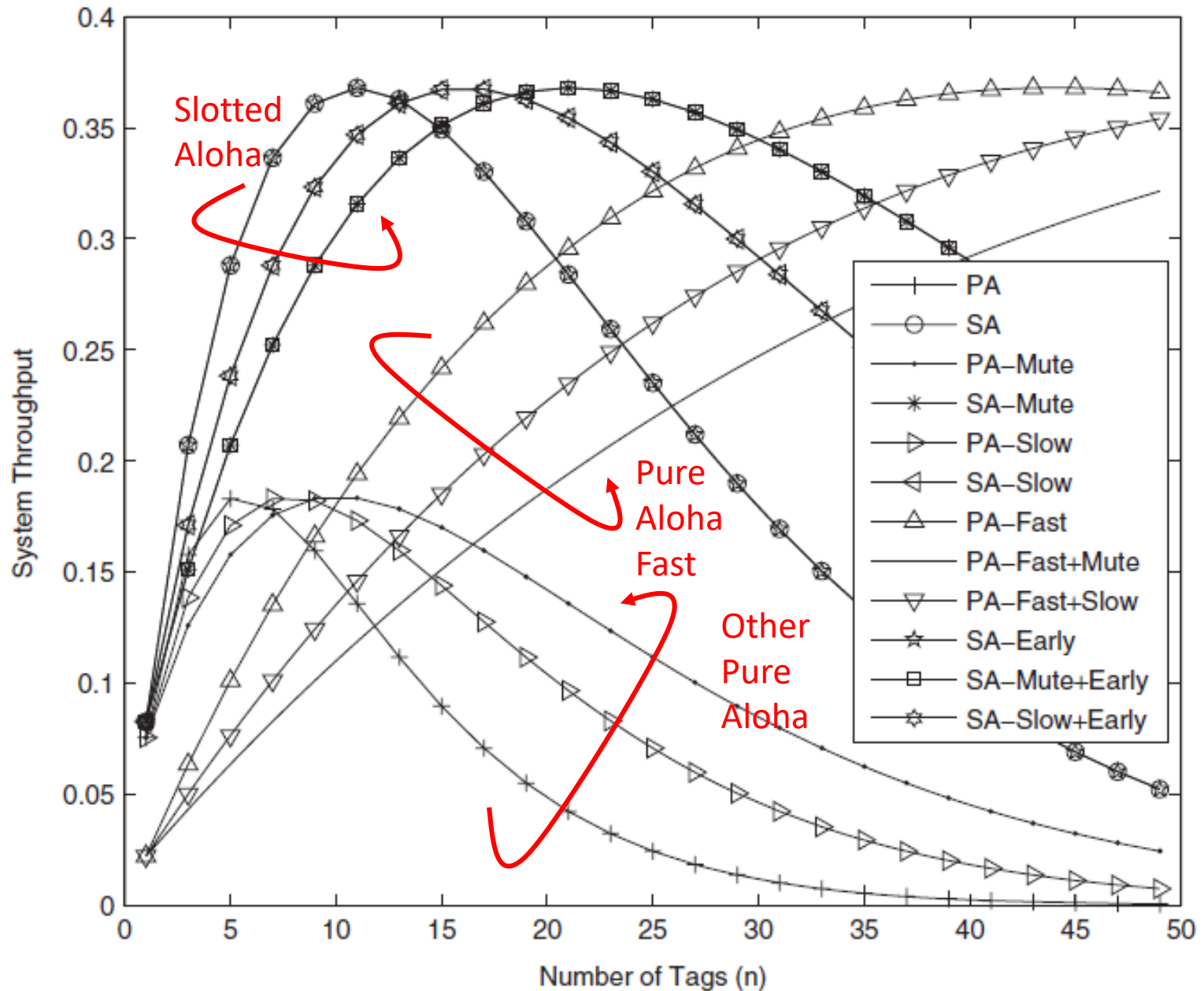
- After ACK is detected, the transmitter will be muted until further command (such as reset).
- Successfully read units will not cause further collision until the polling is finished.

# Slotted Aloha



- Pure Aloha has a high probability of partial collision
- Slotted Aloha synchronize transmitters: the hub owner broadcasts slot frame rates.
- Slot can have an “Early End” (to shorten an idle slot) by adding START\_SLOT and END\_SLOT commands.

# System Performance of Aloha Variants







# Frequency Division Multiple Access (FDMA)

- Synchronization of the **LO carriers** in transmitters and receivers.
- Only one transmitter is allowed on each channel.
- Channel availability monitoring: listen before talk (LBT)
- Carriers and subcarriers for supergroups and groups.
- Number of channels vs. number of users
  - Pigeonhole theory

# The Pigeonhole Principle

- If  $n$  discrete objects are to be allocated to  $m$  containers, then at least one container must hold no fewer than  $\lceil n/m \rceil$  objects, where  $\lceil \ \rceil$  is the ceiling function: the smallest integer  $\geq x$ .

- Similarly, at least one container must hold no more than  $\lfloor n/m \rfloor$  objects, where  $\lfloor \ \rfloor$  is the floor function: (the largest integer  $\leq x$ ).

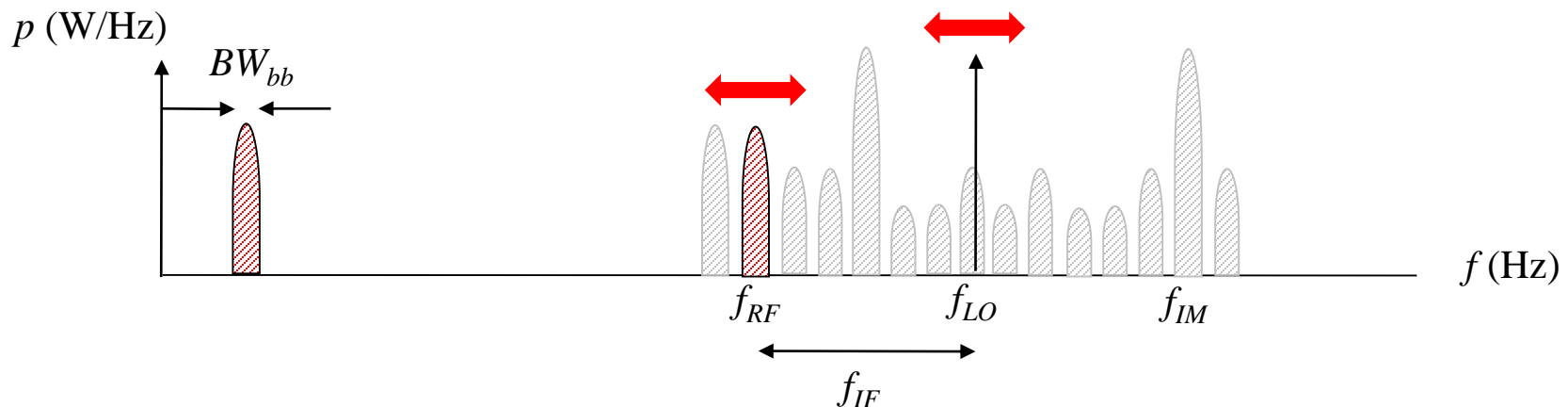


- For random and uniform probability, then the probability of at least one hole will hold more than one pigeon is:

$$1 - \frac{m(m-1)\cdots(m-n+1)}{m^n}$$

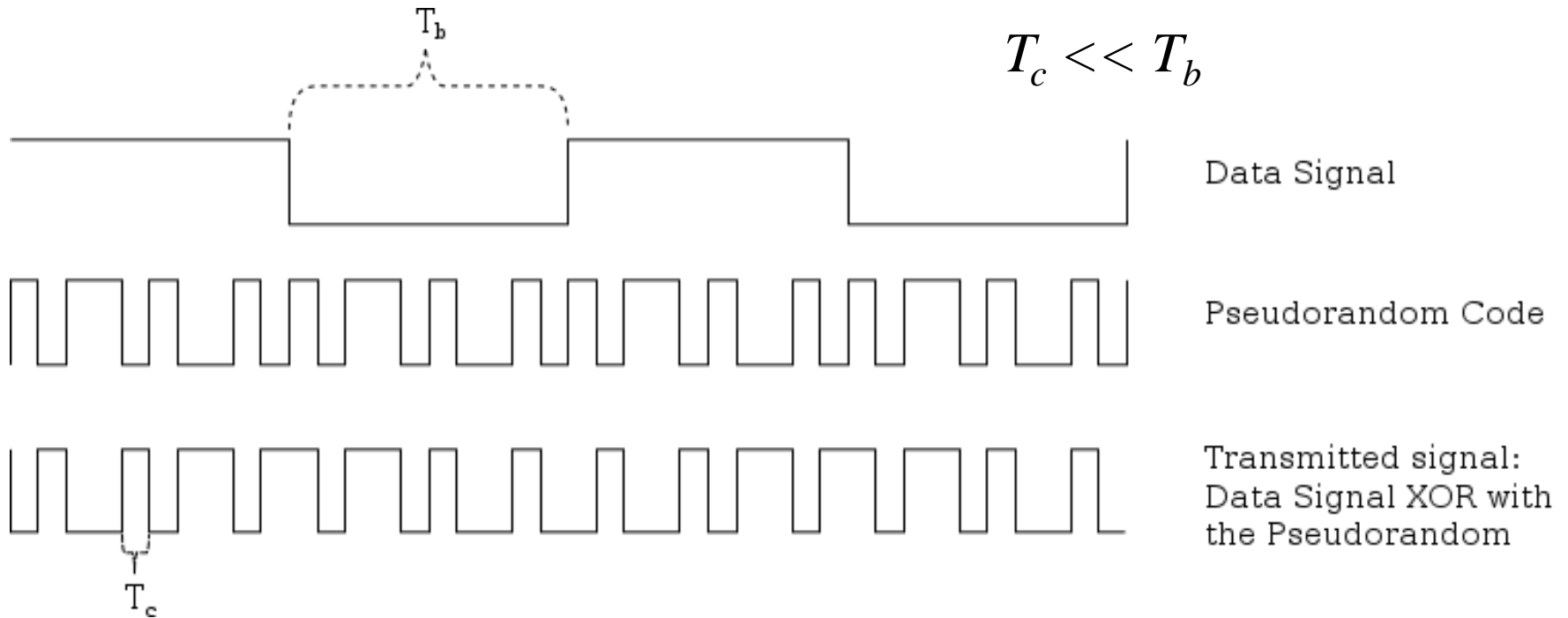
# Spread Spectrum (SS)

- **Channel hopping:** Signals hopped among pre-determined order of channels (by LO), such as in Bluetooth. In a given time period say 1 second, the TX spectrum is spread over the entire allowable band.
- Broaden the effective spectrum of transmission
  - For security: prevent eavesdropping on a specific channel
  - For reliability: more immune to narrow-band interference



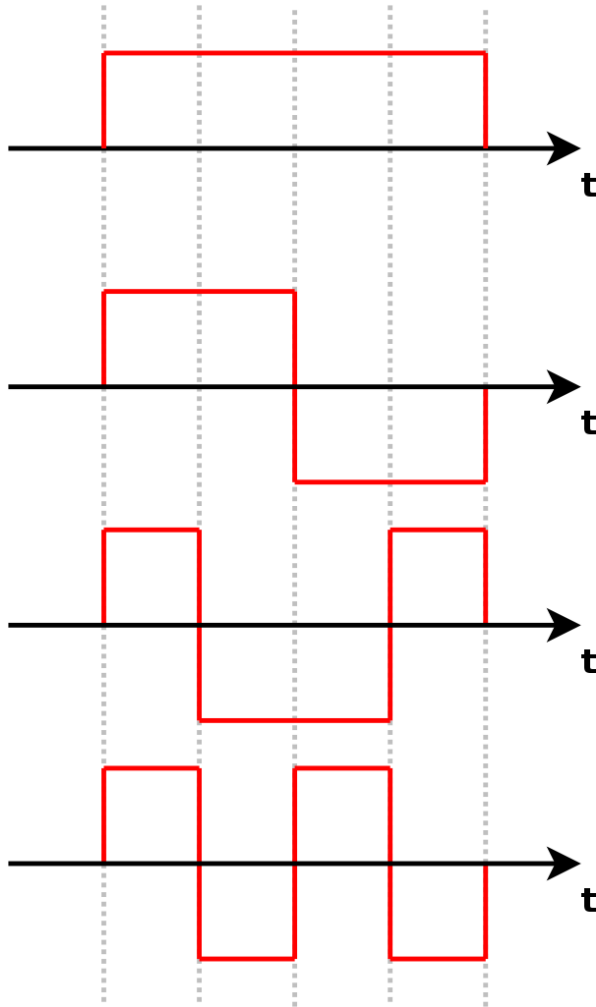
# CDMA (Code Division Multiple Access)

- Inject a “chip” (pseudo-noise or PN code sequence) into the baseband to spread the spectrum, as in a direct sequence spread spectrum (DSSS).



Baseband and PN code need to be synchronized.

# Example of Orthogonal Digital Signals



$$\int_0^T c_i(t)c_j(t)dt = \delta_{ij} \quad \forall i, j$$

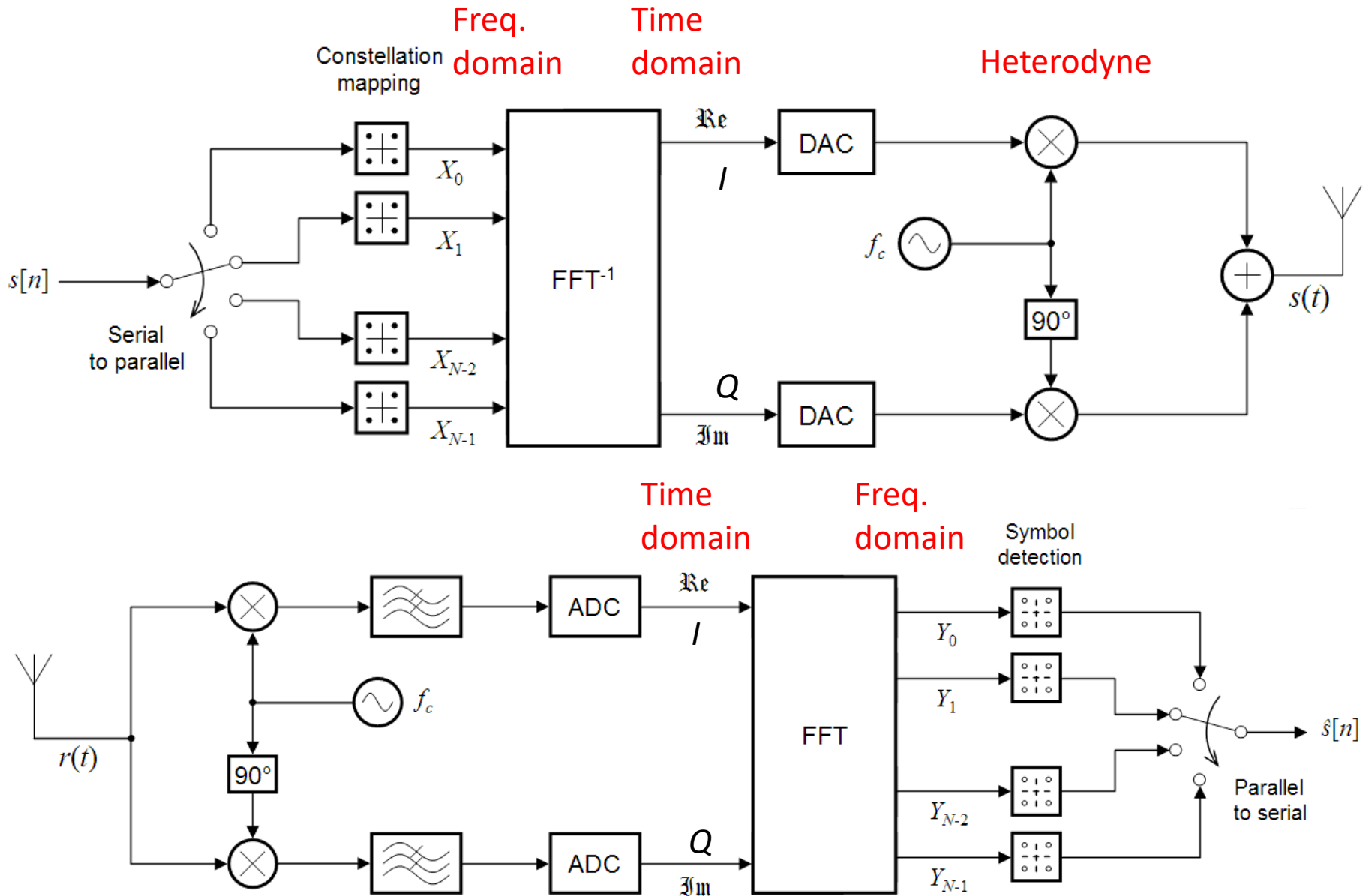
$T$ : Symbol duration

$c_i$ :  $i$ -th PN code

# Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing (OFDM)

- Orthogonal subcarriers in the baseband, similar to those used in FM for stereo and color for broadcasting TV.
- Sub-carrier frequencies are orthogonal with spacing  $\Delta f = K/T$ , where  $T$  is the symbol duration and  $K$  a chosen integer.
- Require very accurate synchronization between TX and RX (deviation will cause loss of orthogonality)
  - AWGN (additive white Gaussian noise) channel description
  - Multi-path interference as noise into the inter-symbol interference (ISI) for indoor wireless link
  - Doppler effect correction for moving TX/RX (change of carrier frequency)
- Easier implementation with DSP: no subcarrier filter or pilot.
- High spectral efficiency with symbol rate close to the Nyquist rate: lower symbol rate in each subcarrier lowers required SNR

# OFDM Radio Transceiver



# OFDM with $N$ Subcarriers

Baseband: 
$$v(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X_k e^{j2\pi kt/T}; \quad 0 \leq t < T$$

Orthogonality: 
$$\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T e^{-j2\pi k_1 t/T} e^{j2\pi k_2 t/T} dt = \delta_{k_1 k_2}$$



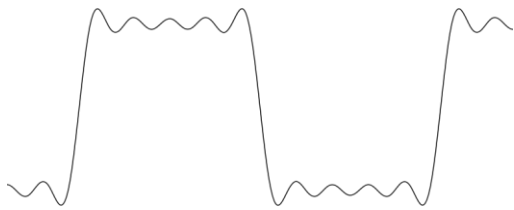
# Further Observation in OFDM

- Symbol rate in each subcarrier is very low: immune to multi-path inter-symbol interference (ISI), especially for indoors.
- Symbol detection has much longer time to ease the ADC requirement on jitter and noise
- Within the symbol period, each subcarrier does NOT interfere each other.
- Can use one or all subcarriers: flexibility in data rate
- Replacing IF with the Fourier block: resolving ma
- We have very good and efficient algorithms on FFT and IFFT.

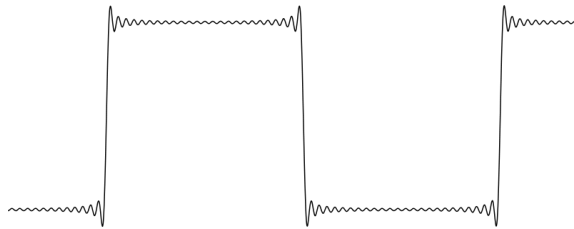
# A Word on Gibbs Oscillation

- Abrupt transition such as that in digital switching can cause oscillation when time signal is reconstructed from limited bandwidth
- Need to use Haar wavelet or ENO functions to converge faster

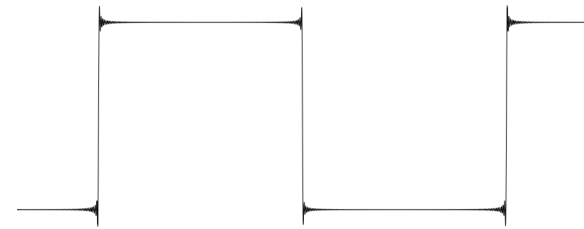
$$\sin(x) + \frac{1}{3}\sin(3x) + \frac{1}{5}\sin(5x) + \dots$$



5 harmonics



25 harmonics



125 harmonics

# Errors in the Digital Codes

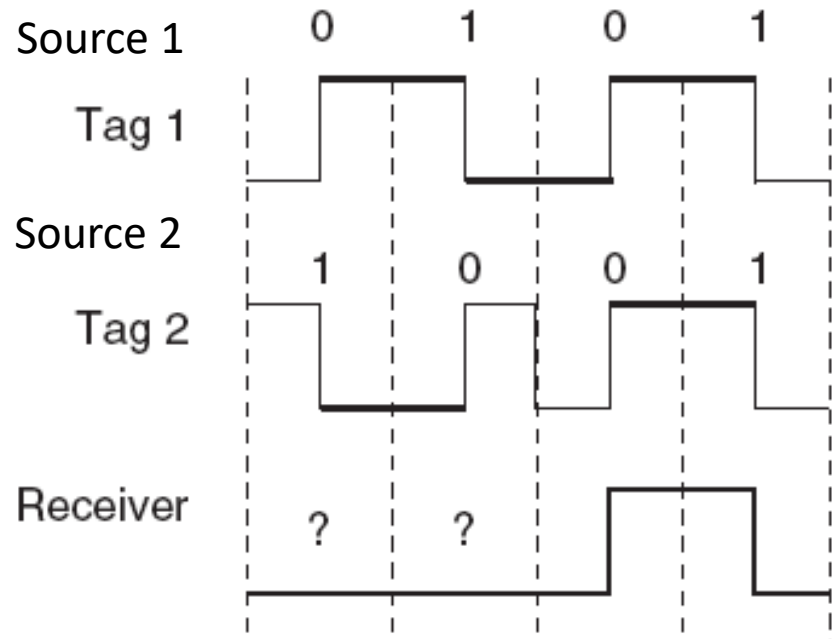
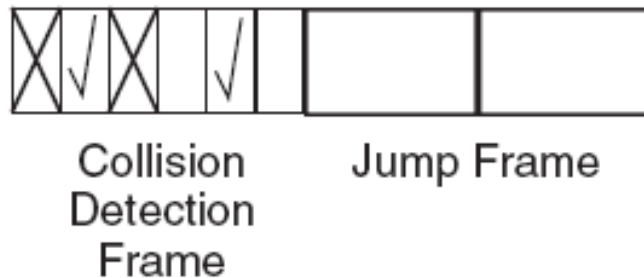
- **Random errors:** the bit error probabilities are independent or nearly independent of each other. Example: thermal noise; interferences.
- **Burst errors:** the bit error occurs sequentially in time or as groups of “stuck-at”. Example: weak signal when the antenna is detuned or scratch in DVD
- **Impulse errors:** large blocks of the data are full of random errors. Example: transmission collision; reader interference.

**Error correction  $\Rightarrow$  Data Redundancy!!!**

# Collision Detection in Fixed Time Slots

- Dedicated the initial frames for pooling, and then decide the jump frame sizes.
- Collision detection from Manchester coding (as one possibility)

Require exactly one transition in the detection frame



# Collision Detection by Cyclic Redundancy Check

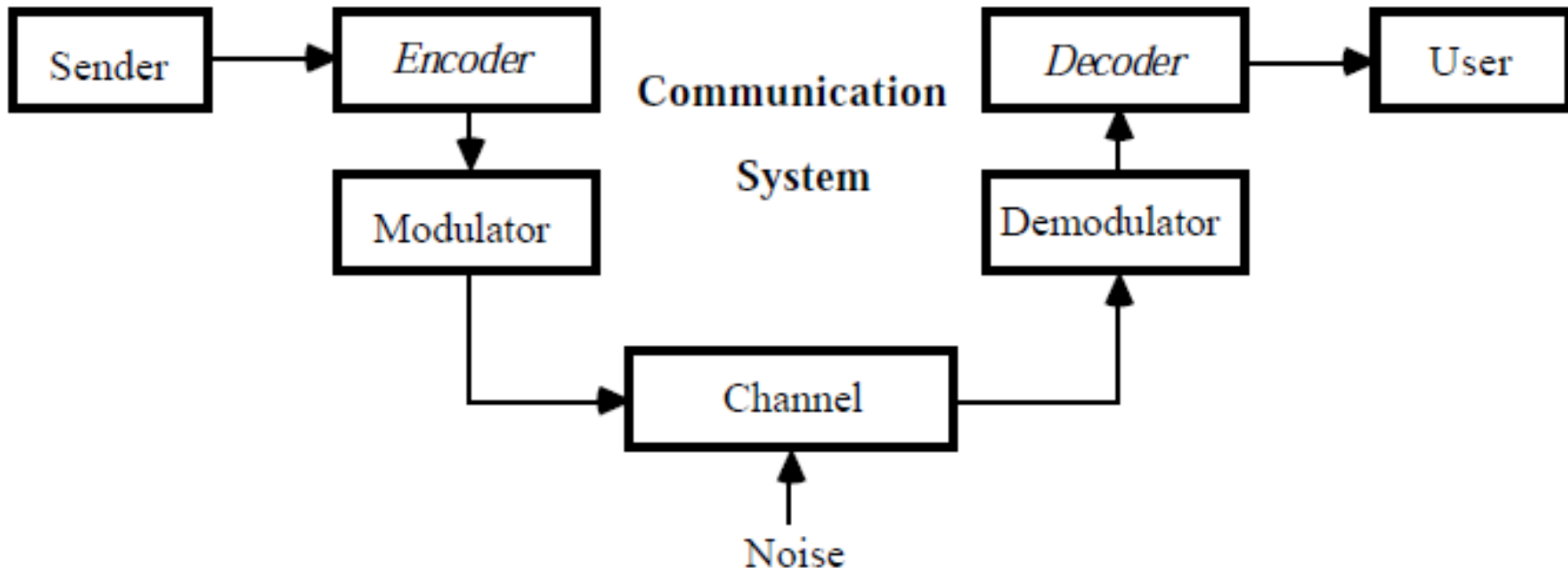
```
11010011101100 000 <--- input right padded by 3 bits
1011                <--- divisor
01100011101100 000 <--- result
 1011                <--- divisor ...
00111011101100 000
 1011
00010111101100 000
 1011
00000001101100 000
      1011
00000000110100 000
      1011
00000000011000 000
      1011
00000000001110 000
      1011
00000000000101 000
      101 1 -----
00000000000000 100 <--- remainder (3 bits)
```

**Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC):  
Very good in detecting errors;  
but less efficient in error  
correction.**

# Levels of Error Correction Code (ECC)

- Repetition code: based on majority vote
  - Very inefficient in code rate
  - Fast recovery
  - No assumption on the position of bits in each packet
- Forward correction code
  - Bit-level: Hamming code: popular in memory
  - Block code: Reed-Solomon code: popular in serial storage and communication channels
- Automatic repeat request (ARQ)
  - Stop and wait
  - Continuous duplex: popular in multi-level circuits (MLC)

# Error Correction System



- Probability of error:
  - probability of uncorrectable errors:  $P_{UE}$
  - probability that the channel will change a symbol during the processing or transmission:  $P_{SE}$ .
  - $P_{UE} = P_{SE}$  if there is no error correction system.

# Bit-Level Hamming Code Example

	Data Bits				Check Bits		
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1
2	0	0	1	0	1	0	1
3	0	0	1	1	1	1	0
4	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
5	0	1	0	1	1	0	1
6	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
7	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
8	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
9	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
10	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
11	1	0	1	1	0	0	1
12	1	1	0	0	0	0	1
13	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
14	1	1	1	0	1	0	0
15	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

$b_7$        $b_6$        $b_5$        $b_4$        $b_3$        $b_2$        $b_1$



# Check-Bit Generation Before and After

- Bit A, B, C, and D: original bits:  $2^4 = 16$  possible combinations.
- Bit E, F and G: parity bits: total  $2^7 = 128$  possible combinations.

$$E = A \oplus B \oplus C \quad Eq.(1)$$

$$F = A \oplus B \oplus D \quad Eq.(2)$$

$$G = A \oplus C \oplus D \quad Eq.(3)$$

- (7, 4) Hamming code:
- $k = 4$ : the uncoded bits in a word
- $n = 7$ : total number of bits in a codeword
- $(n - k)$ : the parity check bits
- $t$ : the number of bits correctable  $\sim (n - k)/2$

# Finding the Error-Bit Address

Bit in Error	Eq. 1 $E' = A \oplus B \oplus C$	Eq. 2 $F' = A \oplus B \oplus D$	Eq. 3 $G' = A \oplus C \oplus D$
None	True	True	True
A	False	False	False
B	False	False	True
C	False	True	False
D	True	False	False
E	False	True	True
F	True	False	True
G	True	True	False

The position of error always corresponds to a unique combination in the truth table!!

The error bit address can be uniquely determined and then toggle to correct!!

# Criteria to Generate the Check Bits

**“Distance” between legal codes can be increased by check bits!!**

	Data Bits				Parity Bit
	A	B	C	D	$A \oplus B \oplus C \oplus D$
	A	B	C	D	E
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	1	1
2	0	0	1	0	1
3	0	0	1	1	0
4	0	1	0	0	1
5	0	1	0	1	0
6	0	1	1	0	0
7	0	1	1	1	1
8	1	0	0	0	1
9	1	0	0	1	0
10	1	0	1	0	0
11	1	0	1	1	1
12	1	1	0	0	0
13	1	1	0	1	1
14	1	1	1	0	1
15	1	1	1	1	0

- Original Word ABCD: each word can be differed by only one bit: if one bit is wrong, it will still be legal.
- If we add just a parity bit, then each word is differed by at least 2 bits! If only one bit is wrong, then it will become an illegal word.
- However, two words with one parity bit can go to the same illegal word, so when we have the wrong word, we cannot distinguish where it is from.

Original Word 1: 00101

Original Word 2: 00110

Received Word: 00100

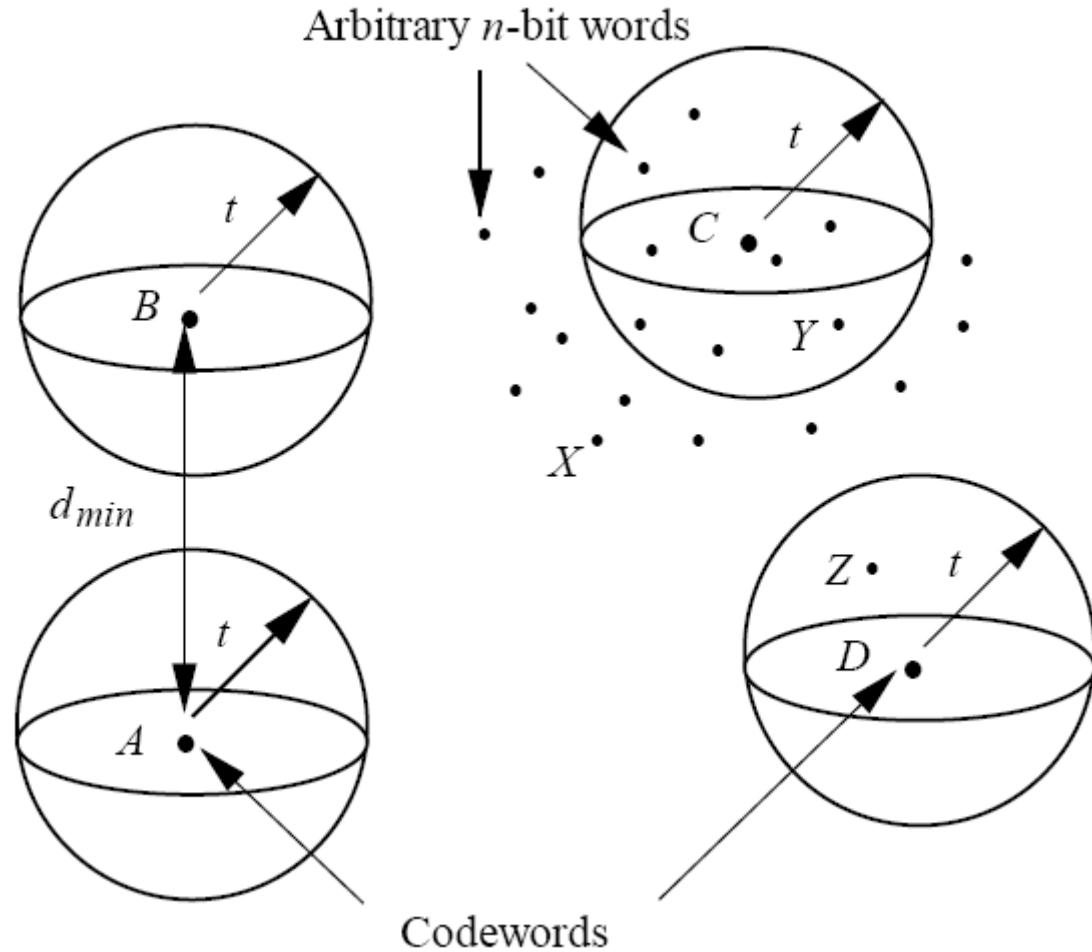
# Bit “Distance” in Legal Words

Intuitively, if we are expecting  $m$  bits can be in error, then the original legal words (plus whatever check bits added):

- Need to have at least distance  $m+1$  for the error to be detectable!
- Need to have at least distance  $2m+1$  for the error to be correctable!
- This does not prescribe how efficient is the detection or correction, but just whether there is no ambiguity when we receive a word containing at most  $m$ -bit errors!

# Hamming Distance of Legal Words

- The minimum “Hamming” distance is defined as the smallest number of places that any two codewords (block words) in the codebook differ.
- Error correction code is to add check bits to enlarge that distance!



# Further Reading on Hamming Distance and Quad Logic

- *R. W. Hamming, Coding and information theory; 2nd ed.*  
Richard W. Hamming , Prentice Hall, 1986
- *Z. Kohavi, Switching and finite automata theory*, McGraw-Hill,  
1970, 1987 (Coding and quad logic)



Richard Hamming  
(1915 – 1998)

# Detectability and Correctability

For a  $(n,k)$  coding scheme ( $2^n$  codewords to represent  $2^k$  data)

- Assume  $t = \left\lfloor \frac{n-k-1}{2} \right\rfloor$  is the minimal distance between codewords
- $n - k - 1$  of error bits will be detectable (or at least  $2t$  number of error bits will be detectable)
- $t$  number of error bits will be correctable

Exercise: How many bits are less than Hamming distance 2 from  $(7,4)$  coding scheme?

Exercise: How many bits are less than Hamming distance 4 from  $(n,k)$  coding scheme?

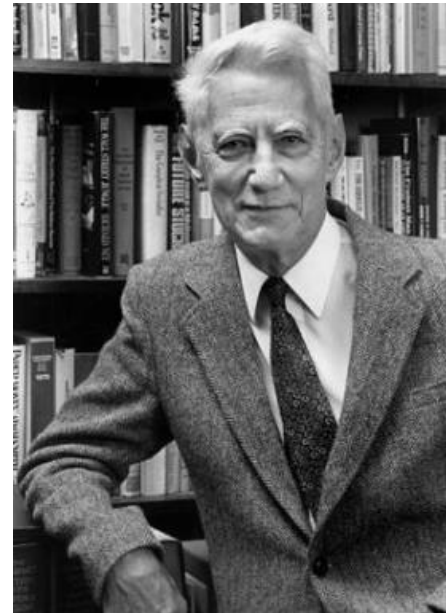
# Shannon Coding Limits

The Shannon limit was posted in 1948, but only until Reed-Solomon coding is published in 1960, practical, efficient coding is available.

- $C$ : Upper limit to the number of bits per second that can be reliably transmitted across a channel
- $W$ : channel bandwidth in Hz;  $R$ : transmitted bit rate (bits/s)
- $S$ : received signal power
- $N$ : additive noise power
- $E_b$ : signal energy per bit
- $N_0$ : noise power level in W/Hz

$$C = W \log_2 \left( 1 + \frac{S}{N} \right)$$

$$C = W \log_2 \left( 1 + \frac{E_b}{N_0} \frac{R}{W} \right)$$



Claude Shannon  
(1916 -2001):

“I just wondered  
how things were  
put together.”



# Transmission Rate

- For the accomplished transmission rate  $R$  (bits/sec), if
  - $R < C$ : Arbitrarily small error rate can be achieved
  - $R > C$ : Not possible to achieve reliable error rate no matter what code is used.

$$C = W \log_2 \left( 1 + \frac{E_b}{N_0} \frac{R}{W} \right)$$

# Probability of Random Error

- Probability of uncorrectable errors:  $P_{UE}$
- Probability that the channel will change a symbol during the processing or transmission:  $P_{SE}$
- Assume random errors are uncorrelated (no burst)

$$P_{UE} = 1 - \sum_{i=0}^t C_i^n P_{SE}^i (1 - P_{SE})^{n-i}$$

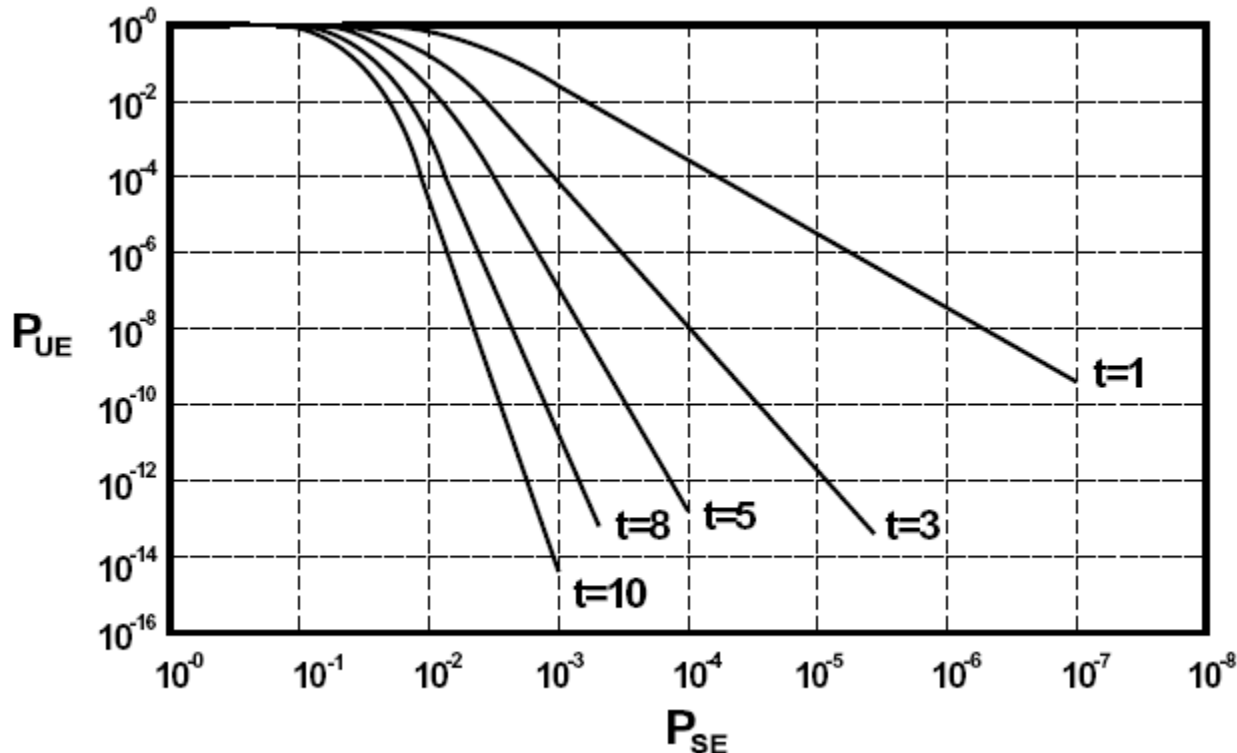
- Another way to measure error probability: corrected bit error rate
  - CBER = the reciprocal of the expected number of correct bits between uncorrectable errors

# RS Code Performance Curves

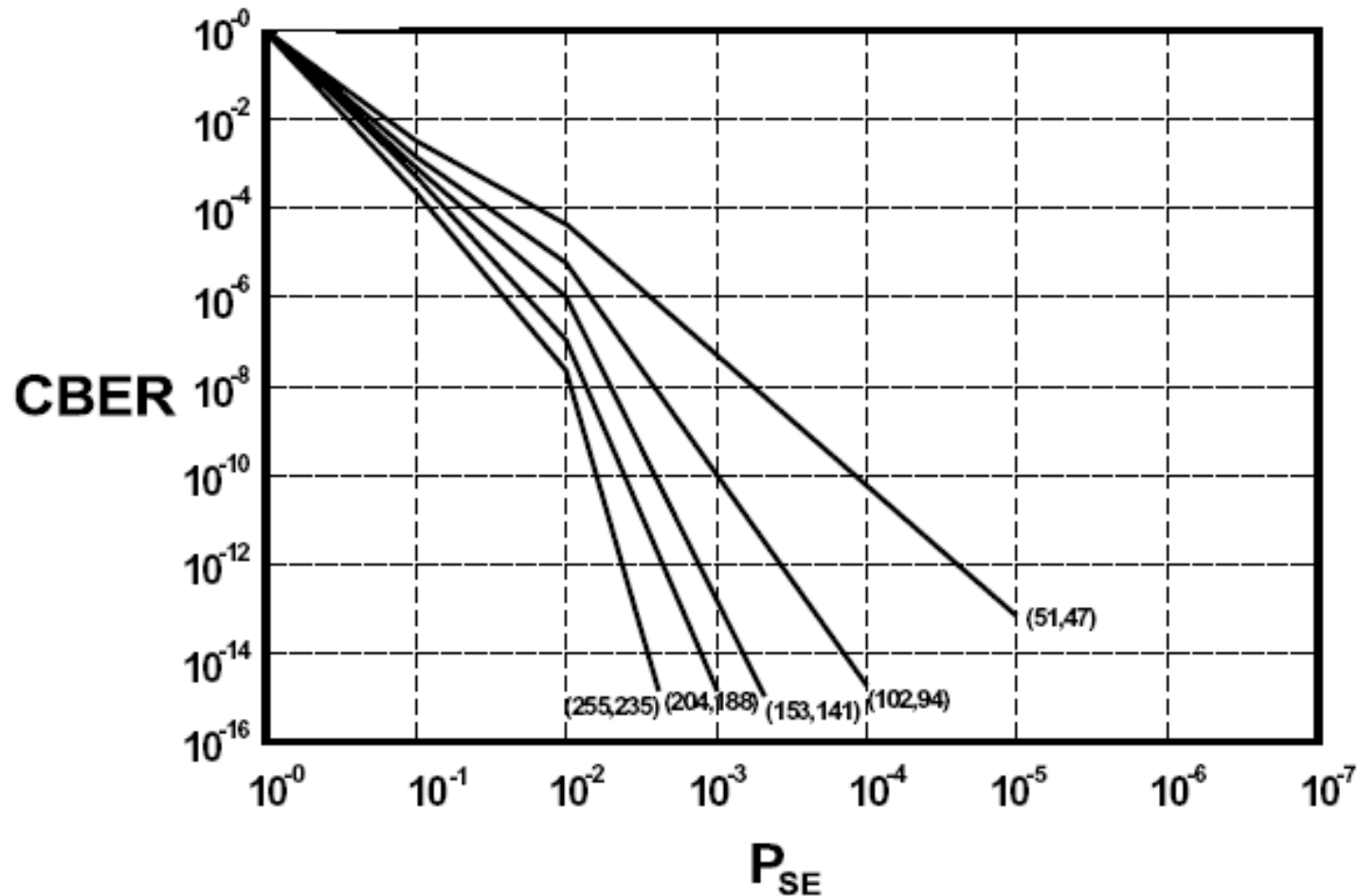
## System performance of Reed-Solomon (RS) Block error correction code

- RS(255, k) code
  - k = 244; t = 10
  - k = 253; t = 1

Notice that within reasonably small number of check bits (< 10 check bits for 244 data bits), if  $P_{SE}$  is larger than 0.1, ECC does not perform well at all!!!



# Bit-Error-Rate Curves



Example: For RS(255, 235) code with  $P_{SE} = 10^{-3}$ ,  $CBER = 10^{-17}$ . That is, on average 1 error will happen after  $10^{17}$  bits read. For a 1Gbit/s channel, this takes about 3 years!

# Hamming Codes

- To detect 2-bit errors and correct 1-bit error by parity bit locations, the block length  $n = 2^r - 1$  and message length  $k = 2^r - r - 1$  forms  $(n, k)$  Hamming code.
- Coding efficiency  $\xi = k/n$

Total bit $n$	Data bit $k$	Redundant bit $n - k$	Hamming code	Efficiency $\xi$
3	1	2	(3, 1) triple repetition code	0.333
7	4	3	(7, 4)	0.571
15	11	4	(15, 11)	0.733
31	26	5	(31, 26)	0.839
255	248	8	(255, 248)	0.972

# What Do You Learn

- Multiple access methods from the transceiver point of view
- TDMA, FDMA and CDMA
- The power combining digital communication with RF frontend!