

18-452/18-750
Wireless Networks and Applications
Lecture 6: Physical Layer
Spread Spectrum and OFDM

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<http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~prs/wirelessS20/>

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Spread Spectrum

- Spread transmission (much) wider spectrum band than needed for the intended bit rate
- Reduce impact of a “bad” frequencies
 - » Also in military: jamming and interception becomes harder
- The price is that you use more spectrum
- What can be gained from this apparent waste of spectrum?
 1. Provides a safety buffer to the receiver to overcome impact of bad channel properties
 2. Several users can independently use the same higher bandwidth with very little interference
 - Key idea: traffic of other users looks like noise

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Outline

- RF introduction
- Modulation and multiplexing
- Channel capacity
- Antennas and signal propagation
- Modulation
- Diversity and coding
 - » Space, time and frequency diversity
- OFDM

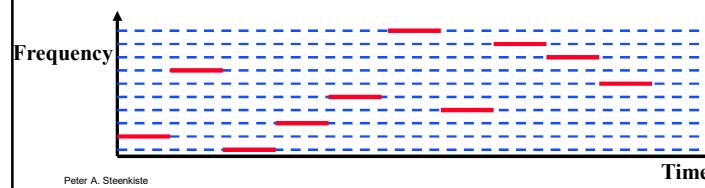


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Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum (FHSS)

- Have the transmitter hop between a seemingly random sequence of frequencies
 - » Each frequency has the bandwidth of the original signal
- Dwell time is the time spent on one frequency
- Spreading code determines the hopping sequence
 - » Must be shared by sender and receiver (i.e., standardized)
 - » Using different spreading codes minimizes interference



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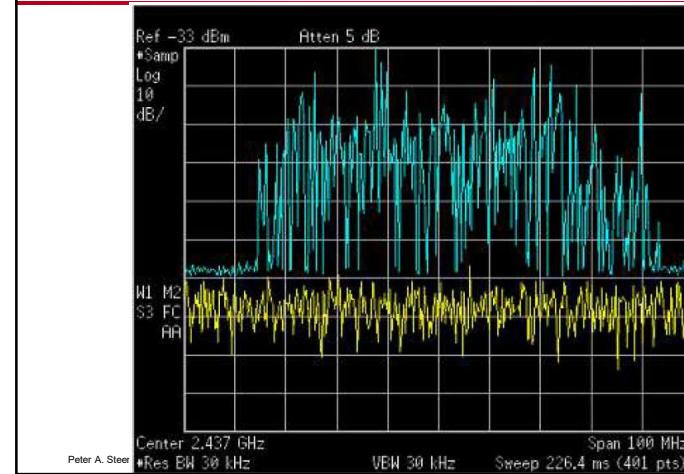
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Example: Bluetooth

- **Uses frequency hopping spread spectrum in the 2.4 GHz ISM band**
- **Uses 79 frequencies with a spacing of 1 MHz**
 - » Other countries use different numbers of frequencies
- **Frequency hopping rate is 1600 hops/s**
- **Signal uses GFSK**
 - » Minimum deviation is 115 KHz
- **Maximum data rate is 1 MHz**
- **Also used in the original WiFi standard**

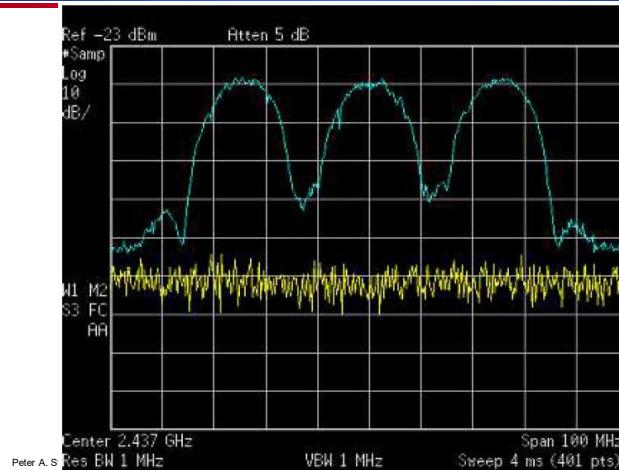
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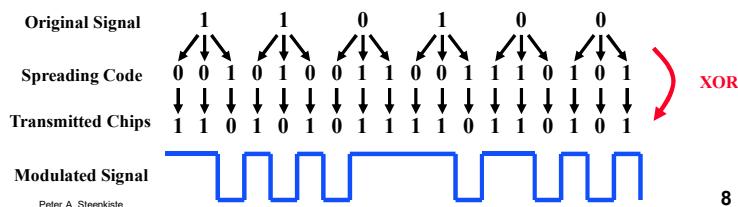
802.11 Spectrogram



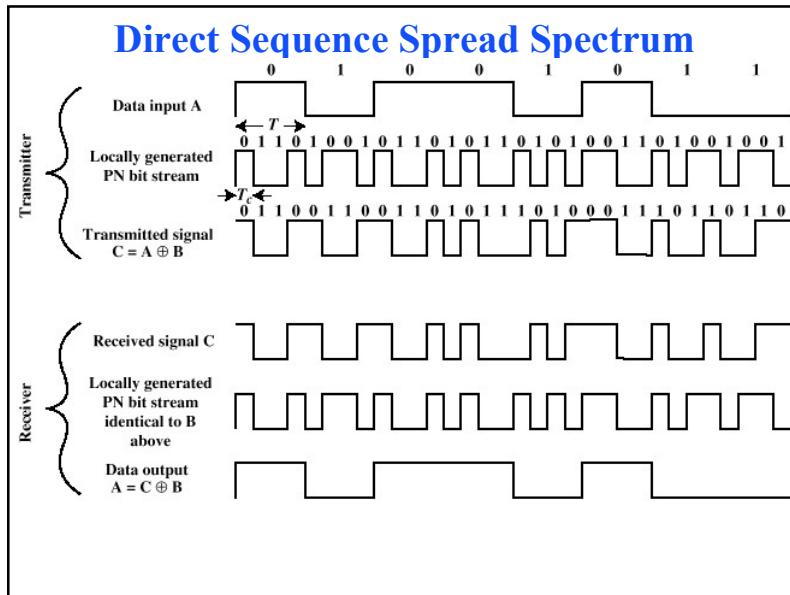
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Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum (DSSS)

- Each bit in original signal is represented by multiple bits (chips) in the transmitted signal
- Spreading code spreads signal across a wider frequency band
 - » Spread is in direct proportion to number of bits used
 - » E.g. exclusive-OR of the bits with the spreading code
- The resulting bit stream is used to modulate the signal



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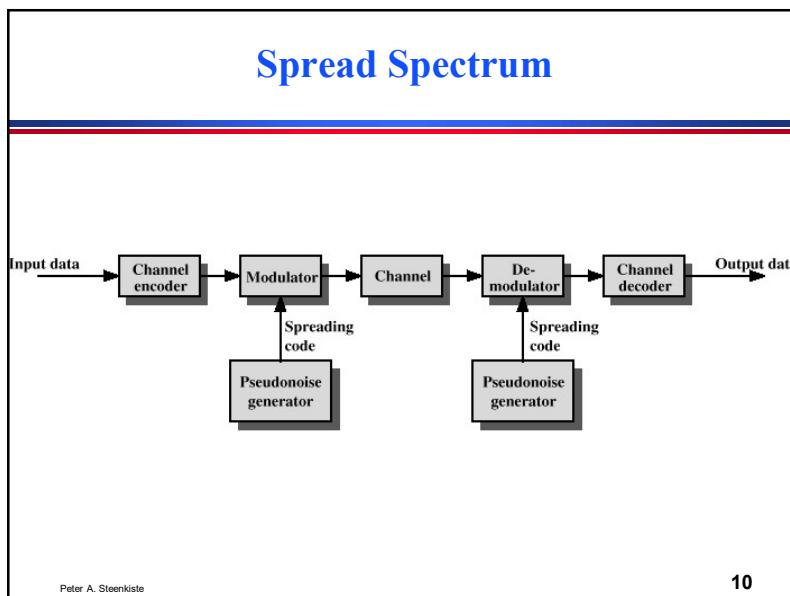


Example: Original 802.11 Standard (DSSS)

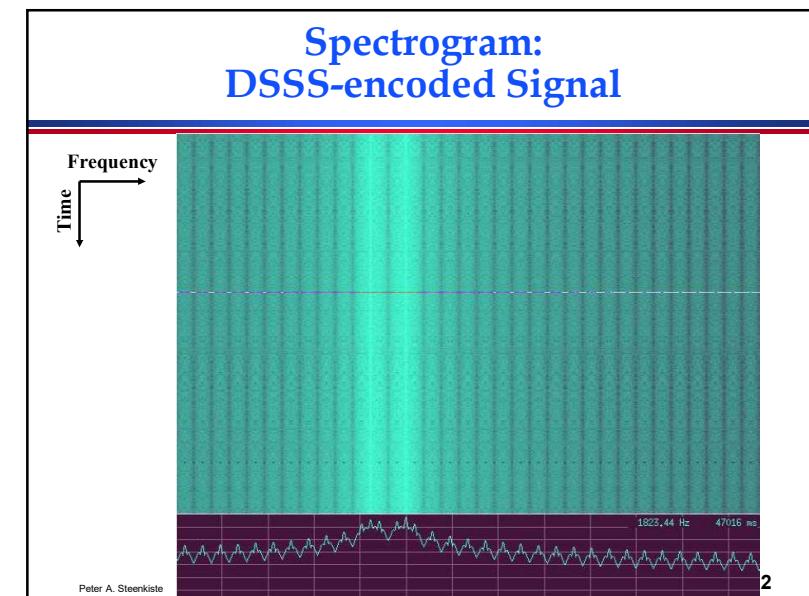
- The DS PHY uses a 1 Msymbol/s rate with an 11-to-1 spreading ratio and a Barker chipping sequence
 - » Barker sequence has low autocorrelation properties – why?
 - » Uses about 22 MHz
- Receiver decodes by counting the number of “1” bits
 - » 6 “1” bits correspond to a 0 data bit
- Chips were transmitted using DBPSK modulation
 - » Resulting data rate is 1 Mbps (i.e. 11 Mchips/sec)
 - » Extended to 2 Mbps by using a DQPSK modulation
 - Requires the detection of a $\frac{1}{4}$ phase shift

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DSSS Properties

- Since each bit is sent as multiple chips, you need more bps bandwidth to send the signal.
 - » Number of chips per bit is called the spreading ratio
- Given the Nyquist and Shannon results, you need more spectral bandwidth to do this.
 - » Spreading the signal over the spectrum
- Advantage is that transmission is more resilient.
 - » Effective against noise and multi-path
 - » DSSS signal will look like noise in a narrow band
 - » Can lose some chips in a word and recover easily
- Multiple users can share bandwidth (easily).
 - » Follows directly from Shannon (capacity is there)
 - » E.g., Code Division Multiple Access - next

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CDMA Principle

- Basic Principles of CDMA
 - » D = rate of data signal
 - » Break each bit into k chips - user-specific fixed pattern
 - » Chip data rate of new channel = kD
- If $k=6$ and code is a sequence of 1s and -1s
 - » For a '1' bit, A sends code as chip pattern
 - $\langle c1, c2, c3, c4, c5, c6 \rangle$
 - » For a '0' bit, A sends complement of code
 - $\langle -c1, -c2, -c3, -c4, -c5, -c6 \rangle$
- Receiver knows sender's code and performs electronic decode function

$$S_u(d) = d_1 \times c_1 + d_2 \times c_2 + d_3 \times c_3 + d_4 \times c_4 + d_5 \times c_5 + d_6 \times c_6$$

– $\langle d1, d2, d3, d4, d5, d6 \rangle$ = received chip pattern
– $\langle c1, c2, c3, c4, c5, c6 \rangle$ = sender's code

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Code Division Multiple Access

- Users use a spectrum band at the same time, but they use different codes to spread their data over the frequency
 - » DSSS where users use different spreading sequences
 - » Use spreading sequences that are orthogonal, i.e. they have minimal overlap
- The signal of other users will appear as noise
 - » But since each user uses a lot of spectrum their signal is very robust
- Offers an easy way to share spectrum
 - » Adding users will increase the noise for each user
 - » This will reduce their throughput – sharing!

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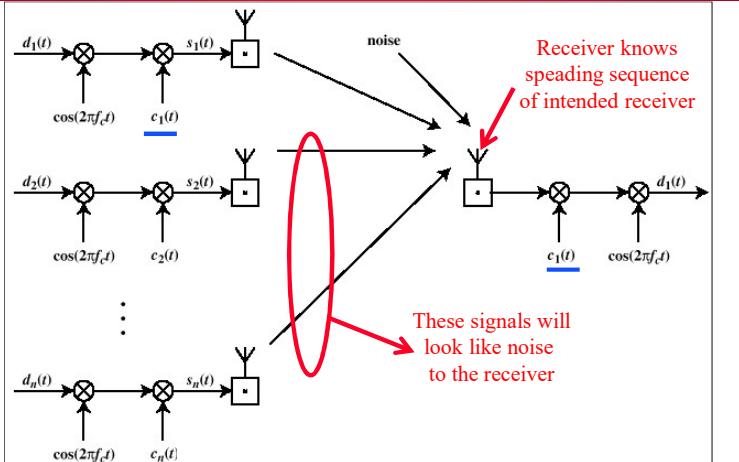
CDMA Example

- User A code = $\langle 1, -1, -1, 1, -1, 1 \rangle$
 - » To send a 1 bit = $\langle 1, -1, -1, 1, -1, 1 \rangle$
 - » To send a 0 bit = $\langle -1, 1, 1, -1, 1, -1 \rangle$
- User B code = $\langle 1, 1, -1, -1, 1, 1 \rangle$
 - » To send a 1 bit = $\langle 1, 1, -1, -1, 1, 1 \rangle$
- Receiver receiving with A's code
 - » (A's code) \times (received chip pattern)
 - User A '1' bit: 6 \rightarrow 1
 - User A '0' bit: -6 \rightarrow 0
 - User B '1' bit: 0 \rightarrow unwanted signal ignored

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CDMA for Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum



CDMA Example

- **CDMA cellular standard**
 - » 3G standard
 - » Used in the US, e.g. Sprint
- **Allocates 1.228 MHz for base station to mobile communication**
 - » Shared by 64 “code channels”
 - » Used for voice (55), paging service (8), and control (1)
- **Provides a lot error coding to recover from errors**
 - » Voice data is 8550 bps
 - » Coding and FEC increase this to 19.2 kbps
 - » Then spread out over 1.228 MHz using DSSS; uses QPSK

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CDMA Discussion

- **CDMA does not assign a fixed bandwidth but a user's bandwidth depends on the traffic load**
 - » More users results in more “noise” and less throughput for each user, e.g. more information lost due to errors
 - » How graceful the degradation is depends on how orthogonal the codes are
 - » TDMA and FDMA have a fixed channel capacity
- **Weaker signals may be lost in the clutter**
 - » This will systematically put the same node pairs at a disadvantage – not acceptable
 - » The solution is to add power control, i.e. nearby nodes use a lower transmission power than remote nodes

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Summary

- **Spread spectrum achieves robustness by spreading out the signal over a wide channel**
 - » Sending different data blocks on different frequencies, or
 - » Spreading all data across the entire channel
- **CDMA builds on the same concept by allowing multiple senders to simultaneously use the same channel**
 - » Sender and receiver must coordinate so receiver can decode the data

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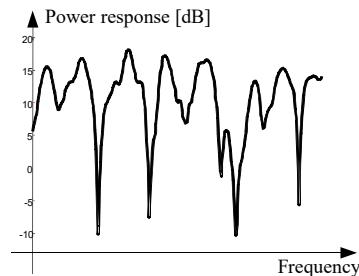
Outline

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- Modulation
- Diversity and coding
- OFDM

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Frequency-Selective Radio Channel



- Interference of reflected and LOS radio waves results in frequency dependent fading
- Impact is reduced for narrow channels

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How Do We Increase Rates?

- Two challenges related to multipath:
- Frequency selective fading starts to have a bigger impact because there is less redundancy in the signal
 - » This is major issue for wide-band channels only
- As rates increase, symbol times shrink and the effects of inter-symbol interference becomes more pronounced
 - » There is a limit on how much we can shrink symbol times
- We need an encoding/modulation solution that has long symbol times and limits the impact of frequency selective fading

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Inter-Symbol-Interference

Transmitted signal:

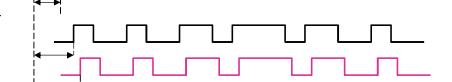


Received Signals:

Line-of-sight:



Reflected:



The symbols add up on the channel
→ Distortion!

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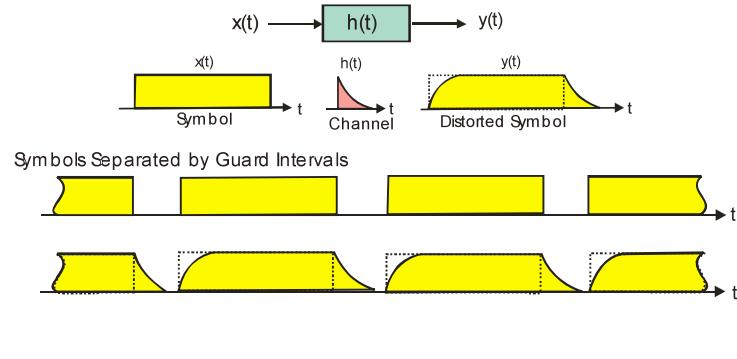
Fighting ISI

- Frequency selective fading will only affects some subcarriers
 - » May be able to simply amplify affected subcarriers
 - » No need for complex dynamic equalizer
 - Become less effective with shorter symbols
- Further reduce ISI effects by sending a “cyclic prefix” before every burst of symbols
 - » Can be used to absorb delayed copies of real symbols, without affecting the symbols in the next burst
 - » Prefix is a copy of the tail of the symbol burst to maintain a smooth symbol
 - » E.g. a cyclic prefix of 64 symbols and data bursts of 256 symbols using QPSK modulation

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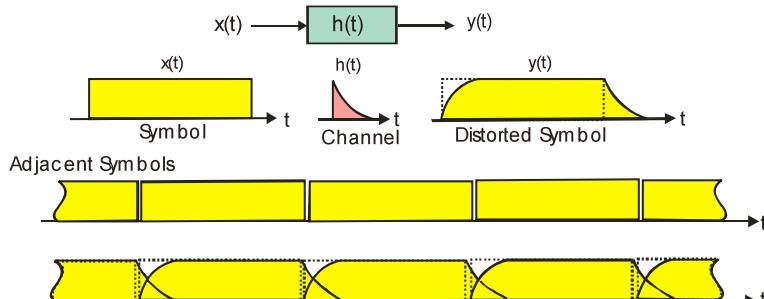
Guard Interval Inserted Between Adjacent Symbols to Suppress ASI



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Slide Prof Harris, SDSU 31

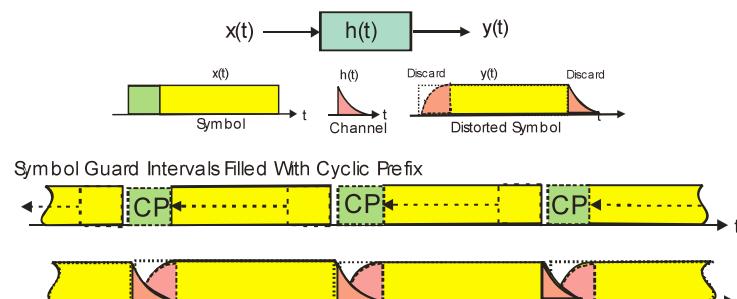
Adjacent Symbol Interference (ASI) Symbol Smearing Due to Channel



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Cyclic Prefix Inserted in Guard Interval to Suppress Adjacent Channel Interference (ACI)

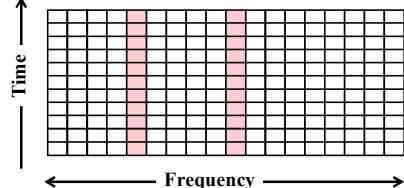


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Use of Redundancy in OFDM

- OFDM uses error coding as described earlier
 - » Degree of error coding depends on channel conditions
- OFDM offers frequency and diversity
 - » Frequency: data is spread out over multiple subcarriers
 - » Time: data spread out over multiple time slots



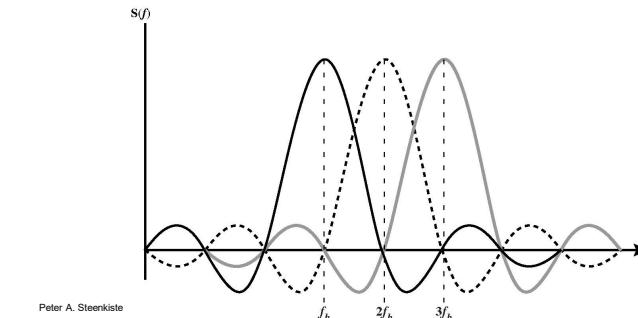
- Combining OFDM with MIMO adds space diversity (discussed later in course)

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Subcarriers are “Orthogonal”

- Peaks of spectral density of each carrier coincide with the zeros of the other carriers
 - » Carriers can be packed very densely with minimal interference
 - » Requires very good control over frequencies



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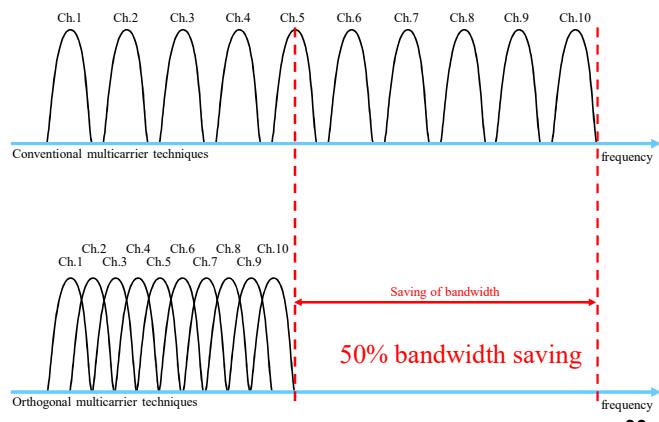
Implementing OFDM

- This is great, but OFDM looks very complicated!
- How many radios do I need? 48?
- How do I get 48 (or more) subcarriers packed very densely?
- Do I need guard bands between the subcarriers, and if so, how wide?
 - » Looks like a lot of wasted spectrum

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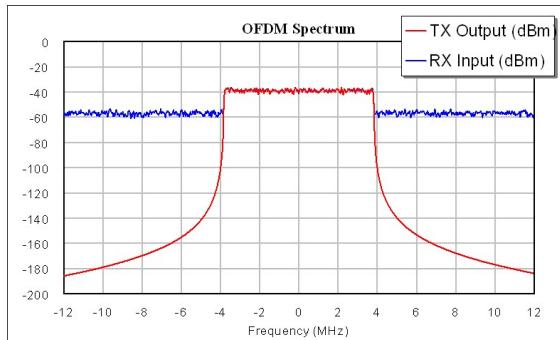
Densely Packing OFDM Channels



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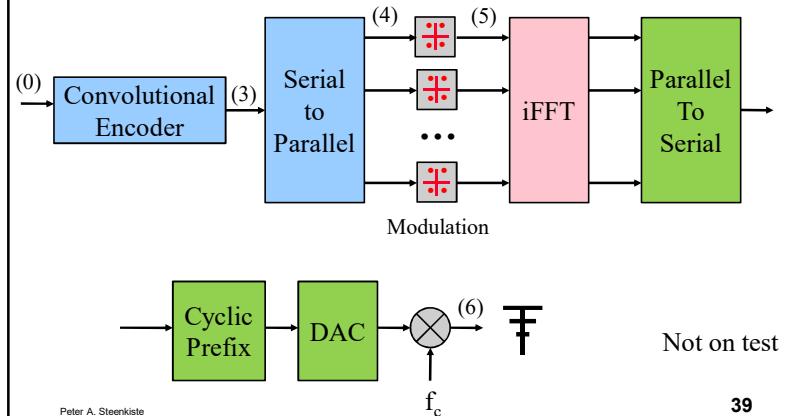
OFDM Spectrum Use



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OFDM Transmitter



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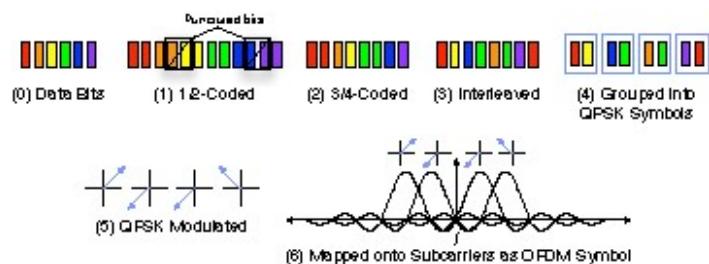
Implementing OFDM

- The naïve approach is to modulate individual subcarriers and move them each to the right frequency
 - Not practical: the subcarriers are packed very densely and their spacing must be very precise
 - Also complicated: lots of signals to deal with!
- How it works: Radio modulates the subcarriers and combines them in the digital domain and then converts the signal to the analog domain
 - The details do not matter for this course

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OFDM in 802.11



- Uses punctured code: add redundancy and then drop some bits to reach a certain level of redundancy

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OFDM in WiFi

- OFDM is used in all “post b” WiFi standard
- Example: 802.11a
- 20 MHz band, with a signal of 16.6 MHz
- 52 subcarriers: 48 for data, 4 pilots
- Modulations: BPSK, QPSK, 16-QAM, 64-QAM
- 4 microsec symbol duration, including a 0.8 microsec guard interval
- Modulation and coding scheme determines the bit rates
 - » Next slide

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Discussion

- OFDM is very effective in fighting frequency selective fading and ISI
- Finally a free lunch?
- No – you introduce some overhead
 - » Frequency: you need space between the sub carriers
 - » Time: You need to insert prefixes
- You also add complexity
 - » How do you create many, closely spaced subcarriers?
 - » The OFDM signal is fairly flat in the frequency domain, so it is very variable in the time domain
 - High peak-to-average Power ratio (PAPR)
 - Can be a problem for simple, mobile devices

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MCS for 802.11a

MCS index	RATE bits	Modulation type	Coding rate	Data rate (Mbit/s)
13	1101	BPSK	1/2	6
16	1111	BPSK	3/4	9
5	0101	QPSK	1/2	12
7	0111	QPSK	3/4	18
9	1001	16-QAM	1/2	24
11	1011	16-QAM	3/4	36
1	0001	64-QAM	2/3	48
3	0011	64-QAM	3/4	54

Symbol rate is 12 Msymbols/sec

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Summary

- OFDM fights frequency selective fading and inter-symbol interference to increase rates
 - » Both become more significant at higher rates
 - » It modules a large number of narrow-band signals (subcarriers) instead of a single wide channel
 - » Cyclic prefixes are used to separate symbols
- It uses time and frequency diversity, combined with coding (FEC) to reduce the effect of fading
 - » Can “pick” the right bit rate for the observed channel conditions by adjusting both the modulation and coding parameters

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