

PACKET RADIO NETWORK BROADCASTING

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Abstract - This article is concerned with studies in shared media or broadcast type of networks based on packet radios and satellite channel.

Because multiple uncoordinated users attempt to gain access to a single channel in a random manner and thus result in contention, such networks are also known as multi access or random access or contention networks .

The central problem in shared media networks is how to allocate the channel, one at a time to the large number of competing users who are incoordinated and, possibly geographically dispersed. None of the traditional techniques for sharing a channel, namely, FDM, TDM, Polling and concentration works satisfactorily for shared channels like satellite, packet radio, coaxial cable, etc. The basic problem with FDM and TDM, both of which allocate a channel statically, is two-fold

- (a) The number of stations being large and time varying, channel allocation poses a big problem
- (b) The frequent non-utilization of their allocated frequencies or time slots by a large number of users gives rise to considerable wastage of channel capacity and causes increased delay. Value of the mean delay actually increases N times if the bandwidth is reduced N times. So far as Polling is concerned, it is unsuitable because of the large overhead, especially for large propagation delay channels like satellites. The round trip delay for a satellite being around 270 min, the minimum time to complete a polling cycle with 100 stations would be 54 seconds. Finally, concentration is simply not possible because, to allow possible simultaneous transmissions by several stations, it requires a dedicated or private port for each station. Thus, a new channel sharing technique is required in building shared media multiple access networks.

Keywords : ALOHA , SLOTTED ALOHA, FDM,TDM PACKET RADIO NETWORKS,CONTENTION PODA, CELLULAR RADIO NETWORK, METROPOLIS, CPODA .

INTRODUCTION:

BROADCAST NETWORKS-NEED FOR A NEW CHANNEL ALLOCATION TECHNIQUE

A novel and elegant technique for allocating channel under the condition of multiple independent and random users was decided in 1971 by Norman Abramson of the University of Hawaii and his colleagues while building a ground radio based computer network. The experiment was called ALOHA and the dynamic channel allocation technique it employed, popularly referred to as ALOHA technique, is the forerunner of a host of efficient multiple access techniques subsequently used in satellite based WANs and some LANs. The ALOHA protocol is described in the following section.

PURE ALOHA PROTOCOL

The ALOHA protocol recognizes the fact that even though the users are uncoordinated they can utilize the feedback property inherent in the broadcast channel to bring about, though in an isolated manner, an effective coordination between themselves. The basic ALOHA protocol is very simple, and it has two variations, namely, pure ALOHA and SLOTTED ALOHA. In the pure ALOHA protocol, a station is allowed to send a frame (or packet) whenever it wants to but obviously, this frame may "collide" (overlap in time) with one or more frames transmitted by other stations because the stations are uncoordinated. However, because of the feedback property of the broadcast channel, the sending station can discover by itself whether any collision took place by simply listening to the channel. If there has been a collision the frame will obviously need to be re-transmitted but only after waiting for a random period of time. The randomness of the waiting period is essential because, otherwise, the same set of frames (users) will collide over and over again. It should be noted that collision by two or more frames may be caused even by a partial overlap during as small as one bit period. For example, if the first bit of a frame even partially overlaps the last bit of a frame.

Efficiency of the pure ALOHA protocol in terms of the throughput S was analyzed by Abramson under the following assumptions.

- (a) The number of stations is infinitely large.
- (b) The frames are of fixed length and, accordingly, the frame time, L , the time needed to transmit a frame, is also fixed.

(c) Transmission of frames (both new as well as old frames transmitted by all stations taken together) is a Poisson process with a mean of G frames/frame time.

Abramson argues that had there been no collision S would have been equal to the offered traffic G itself. However, because of collisions S is reduced compared to G by a factor P_s , i.e.,

$$S = P_s G$$

Here p , the probability that the transmission of any frame, taken at random, is successful or equivalently, the transmitted frame does not offer a collision. It should be noted that although the throughput S is necessarily limited to unity (1 frame/frame time), G may exceed unity. However, a large value of C only increases the number of collisions and hence re-transmissions but does not contribute to the throughput. The success factor, and hence the relation between S and G can be determined as follows.

Considering an arbitrary frame which is transmitted at time t it occupies the channel during the period $[t_0, t_0 + t]$. From Figure B1 it may be observed that this frame will escape collision only if no other frame is transmitted within the time period $[t_0 - \tau, t_0 + \tau]$ which may be termed as the collision zone.

Since the frame transmission process is Poisson with a mean of G frames/frame time, i.e., 20 frames/21 seconds and the number of stations is infinite.

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_s &= \text{Prob \{ no frame is transmitted during } 2\tau \text{ second} \}} \\
 &= \frac{(2G)^0 e^{-(2G)}}{0!} = e^{-2G} \\
 \text{Hence } S_{\text{PURE}} &= G e^{-2G} \quad (B.2)
 \end{aligned}$$

The lower curve in Figure B.2 depicts the above relationship between the offered traffic G , i.e., the number of frames per frame time that is attempted to be transported across the broadcast subnet and the throughput S , i.e., the number of frames per frame time that is actually transported by the broadcast subnet.

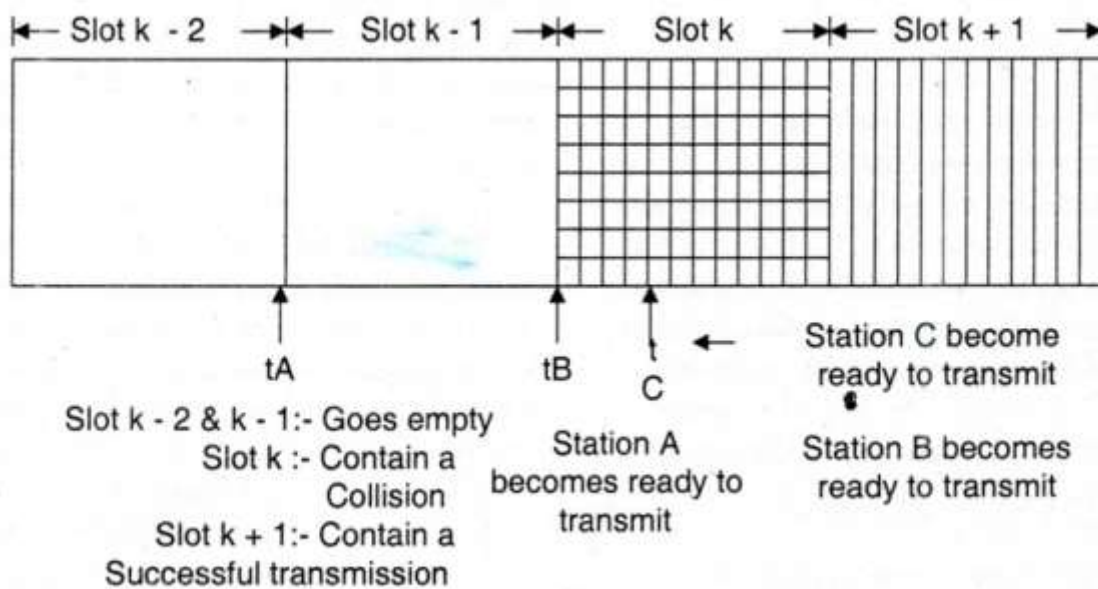


Figure B.3 Functioning of a slotted ALOHA system.

The maximum throughput of, equivalently, the maximum efficiency or channel utilization of the pure ALOHA protocol is $1/2$ (a little over 18%) and is obtained when $G=0.5$ frames/frame time

SLOTTED ALOHA PROTOCOL

In slotted ALOHA protocol which was proposed by L. Roberts in 1972, stations are not allowed to transmit whenever they want. I.e., asynchronously, but are constrained to transmit only in synchronism, with a system clock. Time is divided up into fixed size intervals of slots, each slot being equal to one frame time, and one of the statistics a synchronization pulse at the beginning of each slot. This arrangement, shown in Figure B3, which converts a continuous time ALOHA system (pure ALOHA) to a discrete time ALOHA system (slotted ALOHA) clearly reduce the collision zone to only seconds so that $p_s = e^{-G}$ and

$$S_{\text{SLOTTED}} = Ge^{-G}$$

The relation between G and S for a slotted ALOHA system is shown by the upper curve in Figure B.2. Maximum throughput for slotted ALOHA $1/e$ which is exactly double than that of pure ALOHA and is obtained when $G=1$. Beyond $G=1$, the throughput starts falling almost drastically because of a marked increase in the number of collisions resulting in a large decrease in the number of re-transmissions. As a matter of fact, it can be shown that the mean number of transmission per frame varies exponentially with G .

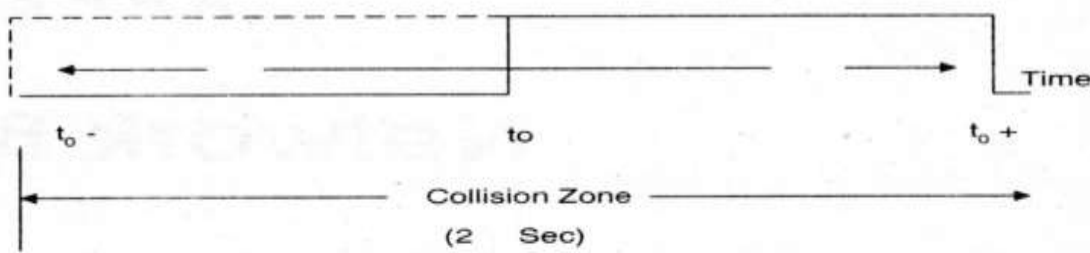


Figure B.1 Collision zone of a frame in pure ALOHA

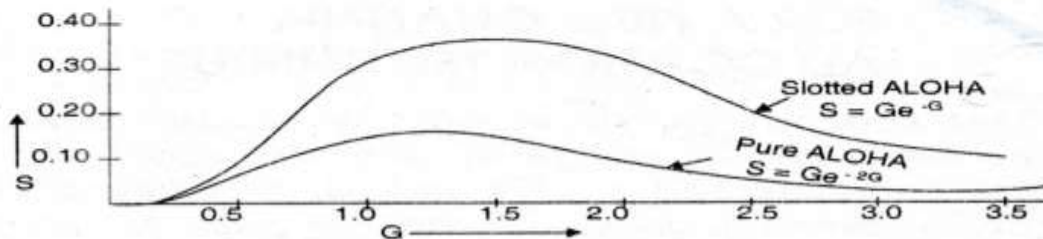


Figure B.2 Throughput Vs. offered load curve for pure and slotted ALOHA system.

PACKET RADIO NETWORKS

In a packet radio network, there are a large number of interconnected stations each equipped with a radio transmitter-receiver unit. The network based neither entirely on point-to-point communication nor entirely on one broadcast channel: instead, it may be looked upon as a kind of broadcast in parts subnet. Each station can only hear a subset of the other stations and correspondingly, it can be heard by all the stations in this subnet. Thus, any two stations transmitting simultaneously will collide at a station if they both belong to its subnet but will not collide otherwise. Thus, multiple nodes (stations) can transmit simultaneously without interference. Packet radio networks are attractive as relatively low cost networks (especially compared to satellites where the stations are in poorly developed areas lacking telephone communication, the stations are mobile (eg, a fleet of ship, cars and taxis in a metropolis, etc) or the stations have a high peak-to-average traffic ratio making dedicated communication links wasteful.

The topology of a radio network can be described by a graph, as shown in Figure B.6 although even for a moderate sized network the graph becomes unmanageably complex. Mobility of the stations dynamically changes the topology of a packet radio network. It should be noted that if a station's transmitting power is increased, it can be heard by a larger set of stations

and, in a similar manner, it can hear larger set of stations if the sensitivity of its receiver is increased.

As an alternative measure, repeater stations may be installed to receive and rebroadcast the messages transmitted by each station within its range. The basis property of partial connectivity together with the highly dynamic changes in the topology make packet radio networks the most complex among all the different types of networks.

An interesting and important development in the area of packet radio network is the cellular radio which used for mobile voice communication. The total area covered by the cellular radio network (eg, a metropolis) is divided into a large number of local areas called cells. Each cell has a set of frequency bands for use within the cell.

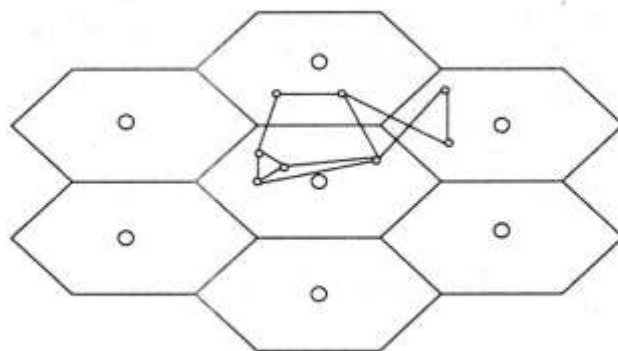


Figure B.7 Partial graph of a cellular packet radio network.

Theoretically, cell should have hexagonal shape so that the whole area is completely covered by cells in a mutually exclusive way (see Figure 87). The cell size corresponds to the range of the mobile transmitters. This ensures that a station is heard by all stations within its own cell some cell beyond that. Clearly, to avoid interference, neighboring cell must have different frequencies. The problem of allocation of sets of frequencies to the cell under the condition is just the well known graph colouring problem. In addition to the large number of mobile stations in each cell, there is a centrally placed (at a high altitude) non-mobile "base" station which can communicate with all stations within its cell.

When a mobile station (for example, a cellular telephone in a car) is switched on it first determines its base station by monitoring signals from all base stations and determining the strongest one among them. Immediately, it announces its telephone number to this base station which then tells it the cell number and the set of frequencies to be used by the mobile

telephone wants to make a call, it transmits a message to its base station which then allocates it a frequency, if available, and later deallocates this frequency at the end of the call. A station monitors all base station signals all the time. When it moves into a different cell, it discovers that the signal from some other base station has now become the strongest. It then informs its present base station about its new base station and the former then hands it over to the latter. Its new base station then instructs it to switch to the set of frequencies of the new base station. A central computer keeps track of the current location of every mobile station and all base stations have access to this central computer. Whenever a base station receives an incoming call to be forwarded to a particular station, it accesses the central computer to find out the destination station's whereabouts and then routes the incoming via the proper base station.

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