OpenBTS based Cognitive Radio Testbed

Dual Degree Dissertation

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by

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Abstract

Our goal is to set up a software defined cognitive radio using OpenBTS, GNU Radio and USRP kits. We decide on a frequency channel, to run our cognitive OpenBTS system in, beforehand. First we sense the presence of ongoing calls made by the primary users in the predefined frequency channel. The sensing is done by calculating the energy in that channel using a technique of energy detection called peroidogram analysis. If the energy is above some predefined threshold then there are ongoing calls in that channel and hence we wait for the calls to end. As soon as the calls involving the primary users end the energy in that channel goes low. GNU Radio detects this change and it provides the ARFCN, corresponding to this channel, to the secondary BTS system and the secondary BTS starts using this ARFCN allowing secondary users to make calls and send SMSs.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background

The electromagnetic radio spectrum is a natural resource that remains underutilized [8]. It is licensed by governments for use by transmitters and receivers. With the explosive proliferation of cell phones and other wireless communication devices, we cannot afford to waste our spectral resources anymore.

In November 2002, the Spectrum Policy Task Force, a group under the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) in the United States, published a report saying [4],

"In many bands, spectrum access is a more significant problem than physical scarcity of spectrum, in large part due to legacy command-and-control regulation that limits the ability of potential spectrum users to obtain such access."

If we were to scan the radio spectrum even in metropolitan places where it's heavily used, we would find that [15]:

- 1. some frequency bands are unoccupied most of the time,
- 2. some are only partially occupied and
- 3. the rest are heavily used.

The underutilization of spectral resources leads us to think in terms of *spectrum holes*, which are defined as [10]:

A spectrum hole is a band of frequencies assigned to a primary user, but, at a particular time and specific geographic location, the band is not being utilized by that user.

The spectrum can be better utilized by enabling secondary users (users who are not licensed to use the services) to access spectrum holes unoccupied by primary users at the location and the time in question. *Cognitive Radio*, which includes software-defined radio, has been promoted as the means to make efficient use of the spectrum by exploiting the existence of spectrum holes [8][13][12].

1.2 Cognitive Radio

One of the definitions of Cognitive Radio is [8]:

Cognitive radio is an intelligent wireless communication system that is aware of its surrounding environment (i.e., outside world), and uses the methodology of understanding-by-building to learn from the environment and adapt its internal states to statistical variations in the incoming RF stimuli by making corresponding changes in certain operating parameters (e.g., transmit-power, carrier-frequency, and modulation strategy) in real-time, with two primary objectives in mind:

- highly reliable communications whenever and wherever needed;
- efficient utilization of the radio spectrum.

Besides, a cognitive radio is also reconfigurable. This property of cognitive radio is provided by a platform known as *software-defined radio*. Software-defined Radio (SDR) is basically a combination of two key technologies: digital radio, and computer software.

1.3 Contribution of Thesis

A cognitive base transceiver station is developed to demonstrate the efficient utilization of spectrum by allowing secondary users to make use of the frequency bands that are already licensed to primary users but that are not being used at that particular time and space.

- 1. A two-frequency system is developed where as soon as the presence of primary users is detected in F_1 the secondary BTS switches from F_1 to F_2 and vice-versa.
- 2. The two-frequency system is extended to a four-frequency one where two of the four frequency channels always remain occupied. The secondary system switches to one of the two unused frequency channels.
- 3. For sensing the frequency channels the energy detection based spectrum sensing method has been used and for peak detection the method called CUSUM has been used. The frequency used by the secondary users is sensed continuously and as soon as the presence of primary users in that frequency is detected the secondary finds an underutilized frequency nearby and switches to that frequency.

1.4 Organization

The rest of this document is organized as follows. Chapter 2 briefly describes the GSM architecture. Chapter 3 gives a literature survey on Universal Software Radio Peripheral (USRP N210) and the GNU Radio software package. Chapter 4 explains various parts of the OpenBTS software. Chapter 5 gives a brief description of various techniques of spectrum sensing and compares them. Chapter 6 covers the Cognitive Radio testbed made using OpenBTS. It also describes the proposed future work along with some flowgraphs describing the algorithms for the implementation of a cognitive BTS on the OpenBTS platform.

Chapter 2

GSM

2.1 Overview

GSM (Global System for Mobile Communications, originally Groupe Spécial Mobile), is a very popular standard that describes protocols for second generation (2G) digital cellular networks used by mobile phones. GSM networks usually operate in the 900 MHz, 1800 MHz or 1900 MHz bands. It supports a full data rate of 9.6 kbits/sec or 14.4 kbits/sec using better codecs.

2.2 System Architecture

A GSM Public Land Mobile Network (PLMN) consists of at least one Service Area managed by a Mobile Switching Center (MSC) connected to the Public Switched Telephone Network (PSTN).

The network structure can be divided into the following discrete sections:

- Base Station Subsystem
- Network and Switching Subsystem
- Operation Subsystem



Figure 2.1: The architecture of a GSM Public Land Mobile Network (PLMN). Source: http://gnuradio.org/redmine/attachments/download/156/fullnetwork.jpg

2.2.1 Base Station Subsystem (BSS)

A base station subsystem consists of

- a Base Station Controller (BSC) and
- at least one Base Transceiver Station (BTS) for Mobile Stations (MS). A mobile station can be a cell phone, or any electronic equipment such as a Personal Digital Assistant (PDA) with a phone interface.

The area served by a BTS is called a Network Cell. One or more BTSs are managed by a BSC. A group of BSSs can be managed as a Location Area (Location Area) provided all those BSSs are being managed by the same MSC.

An MSC may also be connected via a Gateway MSC (GMSC) to other MSCs or the PSTN with the Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN) option. The Inter-Working Function (IWF) of a GMSC makes it possible to connect the circuit switched data paths of a GSM network with the PSTN/ISDN.



Figure 2.2: The GSM network architecture for a single MSC controlled Service Area. Source: http://wireless.arcada.fi/MOBWI/material/CN_1_2.html

2.2.2 Network and Switching Subsystem (NSS)

The NSS is made up of an MSC and a Visitor Location Register (VLR). An MSC

- sets up, controls and shuts down connections
- handles call charges
- manages additionals services like call forwarding, call blocking, etc.

A VLR contains all the subscriber data and location data of the phones being served by the accompanying MSC. The VLR also maintains data about the SIMs that do not belong to the network but have roamed into the network. The area served by an MSC is called a MSC/VLR service area.

2.2.3 The Operation Subsystem (OSS)

The OSS consists of the Operation and Maintenance Center (OMC), the Authentication Center (AuC), the Home Location Register (HLR) and the Equipment Identity Register (EIR).

The OSS is responsible for

- network management functions like service provisioning, network configuration, fault management, etc.
- billing calls

• administering subscribers

The AuC controls all the encryption algorithms used for verifying the SIMs. The EIR contains the serial numbers of all the MSs (mobile phones) being served. The HLR contains the subscriber data and location data of all the SIMs in different parts of the network.

2.3 Protocol Architecture

The data communication protocols in a GSM network are implemented to work over the bearer¹ data channel. The GSM protocol architecture is structured into three independent planes:

- user plane
- control plane
- management plane

The user plane defines protocols for handling the voice and user data. At the Um interface, the traffic control channel (TCH) is used to carry the user data.

The control plane defines protocols for controlling connections by using signalling data. The signalling data are carried over logical channels called Dm-channels (wireless analog of the D-channels for wired interface). The spare capacities of the Dm-channels are used for carrying user data. Eventually all logical channels have to multiplexed onto the physical channel.

The management plane takes care of the coordination between different planes. It also manages functions related to the control and/or user planes. The management plane handles things like network configuration, network fault, etc.

2.3.1 Signalling Transmission

In GSM, the network nodes exchange signaling information with each other to establish, control and terminate connections. The various interfaces in a GSM network are:

MS-BTS: UmBTS-BSC: AbisBSC-MSC: A

¹A bearer data channel is a channel that carries call content i.e. one that does not carry signaling.

MSC-VLR: B
MSC-HLR: C
VLR-HLR: D
MSC-MSC: E
MSC-EIR: F
VLR-VLR: G

The Um interface is the only interface that uses the wireless physical medium for carrying signals. The rest of the interfaces all use wired and digital mediums.

DATA LINK LAYER (LAYER 2) PROTOCOLS

Link Access Protocol on Dm-channel (LAPDm) is a layer 2 protocol that provides safe, reliable connections to layer 3 protocols. It is a wireless-adapted version of the standard Link Access Protocol on D-channel (LAPD) of ISDN. It works in two modes: Unacknowledged and Acknowledged. In Unacknowledged mode it operates without acknowledgement, without error correction and without flow control. While in acknowledged mode, it asserts acknowledgement, error correction is done by resending and flow is controlled.

Message Transfer Part (MTP) is the standard ISDN message transport part of Signaling System 7 (SS7). The networking layers covered by MTP cannot be mapped one-to-one to the OSI model². But it covers layer 1, layer 2 and parts of layer 3 from the OSI model. The parts of layer 3 not covered by MTP are covered by Signalling Connection Control Part (SCCP).

NETWORK LAYER (LAYER 3) PROTOCOLS

Radio Resource Management (RR) is a protocol that sets up, manages and terminates radio link channels. It is involved in measuring radio field strength, signal quality etc. It manages handover, modulation scheme, co-channel interference, etc. The goal is to utilize the limited spectral resources efficiently.

Mobility Management (MM) manages mobility of the mobile stations (MS). This protocol is used by the MS to communicate directly with the MSC bypassing the BSS. It works over an already established RR connection. It handles stuff like TMSI reallocation, authentication, IMSI attach/detach, roaming, location update procedure, etc.

²Operation Systems Interconnection model

Call Management (CM) protocol consists of the following parts:

- Call Control (CC) sets up, manages and ends calls. For each call a CC instance is created in the MS and another one in the MSC. CC instances communicate over already established MM and RR connections.
- Short Message Service (SMS) works over already established MM, RR and LAPDm connections.
- Supplementary Services (SS) provide upper layers the access to GSM supplementary services like call forwarding, call barring, etc.

Signal Connection Control Part (SCCP) is a SS7 protocol that provides routing, flow control, connection-orientation, error correction facilities etc. It works at the A-interface.

Base Station System Application Part (BSSAP) is a signaling protocol at the A interface supported by MTP and SCCP.

- Direct Transfer Application Part (DTAP) handles signaling between the MS and the MSC.
- Base Station System Management Application Part (BSSMAP) transfers management information from the BSC to the MSC.
- Base Station System Operation and Management Application Part (BSSOMAP) transports network management information from OMC to BSC.

Mobile Application Part (MAP) is an SS7 application-layer protocol for the various nodes in a GSM network. It provides facilities such as:

- roaming support via location update, IMSI attach/detach, authentication
- call handling
- subscriber tracing
- SMS
- supplementary services

Chapter 3

Software Defined Radio

3.1 USRP

The USRP (Universal Software Radio Peripheral) is intended to provide a low-cost, high quality hardware platform for software radio. It is designed and marketed by Ettus Research, LLC. It is commonly used by research labs, universities, and hobbyists. The USRP platform is designed for RF applications from DC to 6 GHz. USRPs connect to a host computer through a high-speed USB or Gigabit Ethernet link, which the host-based software uses to control the USRP hardware and transmit/receive data.

The USRP Hardware Driver (UHD) is the official driver for all Ettus Research products. The UHD supports Linux, Mac OS X and Windows.

In this project we are using a particular model of USRP product known as the USRP N210.

3.1.1 USRP N210

The USRP N200 and N210 are the highest performing class of hardware of the USRP family of products, which enables engineers to rapidly design and implement powerful, flexible software radio systems. The N200 and N210 hardware is ideally suited for applications requiring high RF performance and great bandwidth. Such applications include physical layer prototyping, dynamic spectrum access and cognitive radio, spectrum monitoring, record and playback, and even networked sensor deployment. The Networked Series products offers MIMO capability with high bandwidth and dynamic range. The Gigabit Ethernet interface



Figure 3.1: Block diagram of USRP.

Source: Kranthi A., Experimental setup of Cognitive Radio Test-Bed using Software Defined Radio, Master's Thesis, 2013.

serves as the connection between the N200/N210 and the host computer. This enables the user to realize 50 MS/s of real-time bandwidth in the receive and transmit directions, simultaneously (full duplex).

3.2 GNU Radio

GNU Radio is a free & open-source software development toolkit that provides signal processing blocks to implement software radios. It can be used with readily-available low-cost external RF hardware to create software-defined radios, or without hardware in a simulation-like environment. It is widely used in hobbyist, academic and commercial environments to support both wireless communications research and real-world radio systems.

3.2.1 What does GNU Radio do?

It does all the signal processing. You can use it to write applications to receive data out of digital streams or to push data into digital streams, which is then transmitted using hardware.

GNU Radio has software equivalents of real world radio system components like filters, demodulators, equalizers, etc. These are usually referred to as blocks. You can create a complex system by connecting various blocks. If you cannot find some specific blocks, you

can even create your own blocks and add them.

Most of GNU Radio has been implemented using the Python programming language, and the performance-critical parts have been implemented using C++. Typically, a GNU Radio user writes his applications in Python, unless he has some performance-critical needs. Thus, GNU Radio gives its users an easy-to-use, rapid application development environment.

3.2.2 GNU Radio with USRP



Figure 3.2: Architecture of GNU Radio

The USRP and the host computer make up the hardware part of the SDR system. The host computer must run a compatible software package such as GNU Radio or Simulink to complete the SDR system. In this project we are using GNU Radio as the software platform.

GNU Radio communicates with the USRP through the USRP Hardware Driver (UHD) software. The UHD provides a host driver and an Application Programming Interface (API) for the USRP. GNU Radio uses the UHD to set user-specified parameters like RF center frequency, antenna selection, gain, sampling rate, interpolation, decimation, etc.

Chapter 4

OpenBTS

OpenBTS is a Unix application that uses a software radio to present a GSM Um interface to handsets and uses a SIP softswitch or PBX to connect calls. The combination of the global-standard GSM air interface with low cost VoIP backhaul forms the basis of a new type of cellular network that can be deployed and operated at a much lower cost than existing technologies in many applications, especially rural cellular deployments and private cellular networks in remote areas.

4.1 The OpenBTS Application Suite

A complete OpenBTS installation consists of many distinct applications:

- OpenBTS The actual OpenBTS application, containing most of the GSM stack above the radio modem.
- Transceiver The software radio modem and hardware control interface.
- SMQueue A store-and-forward server for text messaging.
- **Asterisk** A VoIP PBX or "softswitch".
- SIPAuthServe An application managing the database of subscriber information.
- Other Services Optional services supported through external servers, interfaced to OpenBTS through various protocols.

4.2 Key applications

4.2.1 OpenBTS

The OpenBTS application contains:

- L1 TDM functions
- L1 FEC functions
- L1 closed loop power and timing controls
- L2 LAPDm
- L3 radio resource management functions
- L3 GSM-SIP gateway for mobility management
- L3 GSM-SIP gateway for call control
- L4 GSM-SIP gateway for text messaging

The general design approach of OpenBTS is not to implement any function above L3 or L4, so at L3 or L4 every subprotocol of GSM is either terminated locally or translated through a gateway to some other protocol for handling by an external application. Similarly, OpenBTS itself does not contain any speech transcoding functions above the L1 FEC parts.

4.2.2 Transceiver

The transceiver application performs the radiomodem functions of GSM 05.05 and manages the Gigabit Ethernet interface (USB2 interface, in case of USRP1 or older models) to the radio hardware.

4.2.3 SMQueue

SMQueue is a store-and-forward server that is used for text messaging in the OpenBTS system. SMQueue is required to send a text message from one MS to another, or to an MS from any source.

4.2.4 SIP router/PBX

OpenBTS uses a SIP router or PBX to perform the call control functions that are normally performed by the MSC in a conventional GSM network. These switches also provide transcoding services.

The SIP router used in OpenBTS is Asterisk by default. Though there are other PBXs available in the market like Yate, FreeSwitch, etc.

4.2.5 SIPAuthServe

An application that implements Subscriber Registry, the database of subscriber information that replaces both the Asterisk SIP registry and the GSM Home Location Register (HLR) found in a conventional GSM network.

4.3 Network organization

In the simplest network, with just a single access point, all the applications run on the same embedded computer as shown in figure 4.1.

In larger network, with more than one access points, one of them can behave as a master and provide servers to the rest of them. Figure 4.2 shows a network with two access points where a master access points is providing servers to the other one.

The Transceiver applications and the OpenBTS must run in each GSM/SIP access point. The Asterisk and the Subscriber Registry applications (SIPAuthServe) communicate via the filesystem, so they must run in the same computer, but that computer can be remote to the access point. SMQueue and other servers can run in any access point and can have multiple instances.



Figure 4.1: Components of the OpenBTS application suite and their communication channels as installed in each access point. Sharp-cornered boxes are hardware components. Round-cornered boxes are software components.

Source: https://wush.net/trac/rangepublic/attachment/wiki/WikiStart/OpenBTS-4.0-Manual.pdf [Accessed on May $27,\,2014$]



Figure 4.2: Two access points with unit #1 providing servers for both. Source: https://wush.net/trac/rangepublic/attachment/wiki/WikiStart/OpenBTS-4.0-Manual.pdf [Accessed on May 27, 2014]

Chapter 5

Spectrum sensing

Spectrum sensing is the main task in the entire operation of cognitive radio. Spectrum sensing is defined as the finding of spectrum holes in the local neighborhood of the cognitive radio receiver. Spectrum holes are the underutilized (in part or in full) subbands of spectrum at a particular time in a specific location. Moreover for cognitive radio to fulfil its potential in solving the problem of spectrum underutilization, the spectrum sensing method used should be reliable and computationally feasible in real-time [9].

There are many spectrum sensing techniques available. Three important ones of them are as follows:

- Energy detection
- Matched filter detection
- Cyclostationarity detection

5.1 Energy detection

Conventional energy detector is made up of a low pass filter, an A/D converter, a square law detector and an integrator (Figure 5.1a). This implementation is not flexible enough, especially in the case of narrowband signals and sinewaves. Also, this requires a pre-filter matched to the bandwidth B of the signal to be scanned [3].

So, an alternative implementation is generally used where we find the squared magnitude of

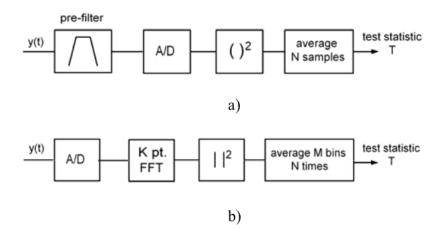


Figure 5.1: (a) Implementation using analog filter and square law device (b) Implementation using periodogram. Source: [3]

the FFT using the Average Periodogram method (Figure 5.1b). In this architecture, we can alter the bandwidth of frequencies scanned just by taking the required number of FFT bins.

Spectrum sensing can be viewed as a binary hypothesis-testing problem [17]:

- H0: primary user is absent
- H1: primary user is present

The detection is basically to decide between the following two hypotheses,

$$x(t) = n(t),$$

$$x(t) = h(t)s(t) + n(t),$$

$$H1$$

where x(t) is the received signal, s(t) is the primary user signal, h(t) is the complex channel gain and n(t) is the additive white gaussian noise (AWGN) with zero mean and variance σ_n^2 . Generally h(t) is assumed to be constant h_0 for the detection period. A statistics Y is computed by taking energy samples over a time T in a bandwidth B and compared with a predefined threshold γ for making the decision.

Energy detection is one of the simplest methods of spectrum sensing. It is the optimal detection method for unknown signals. Moreover, it is widely used because its computationally less resource-intensive.

But this method is not without problems. It is always to difficult to determine a threshold that will work for all situations. This method cannot say whether an interfering signal is from a primary user or a secondary user. Low SNR (signal to noise ratio) signals cannot be detected easily.

The frequency resolution can be improved by increasing N, the number of FFT points, but then this requires more samples and thereby takes more time.

5.2 Matched filter detection

A matched filter is a linear filter to maximize the output SNR of a received signal. It is the optimum filter to detect signals that are known a priori [11].

In matched filtering, the received signal is first band pass filtered and then convolved with the impulse response. The impulse response h here is the reference signal itself [2]. Matched filtering is so called because the impulse response is matched to the reference signal.

$$Y[n] = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} h[n-k]x[k]$$

Here, x[k] is the received or unknown signal with additive noise. The goal of matched filtering is to enhance the component of reference signal in the received signal and to suppress the noise. This works best when the additive noise is completely orthogonal to the reference signal or when the noise is completely Gaussian. In practice though, the noise doesn't turn out to be purely Gaussian.

Matched filtering requires only O(1/SNR) samples to meet a given P_d , probability of detection requirement. Thus it requires less detection time.

But, matched filtering requires us to have a priori information about the received signal. This technique requires demodulating the received signal. For demodulation, we require information like bandwidth, operating frequency, modulation type, pulse shaping, packet format, etc. Demodulating the received signal correctly also requires timing synchronization, carrier synchronization, etc. It might still be possible to achive this because the received data carry preambles, synchronization data, etc.

This method requires a specific type of receiver for every primary user. Implementing this

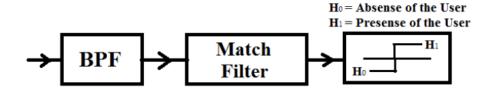


Figure 5.2: Block diagram of Matched filter implementation.

method on a receiver will increase the complexity and the power consumption greatly.

5.3 Cyclostationarity detection

To identify signals in the presence of noise and other signals, cyclostationarity detection uses the periodic properties of the signal. Sinusoidal waves, hopping sequences, cyclic prefixes, etc. of primary signals carry periodic properties in them. These cyclostationary signals manifest spectral correlation and other periodic statistics while stationary noise and interference do not.

These periodic properties are intentionally put in these signals to help the receivers do timing synchronization, phase synchronization, direction of arrival estimation [1], etc. These periodic properties help in identifying some random signal with particular modulation types even in the midst of noise and interference from other signals.

In low SNR regions, cyclostationarity detection performs better than energy detection in identifying or detecting signals. Cyclostationarity detection is very resistant to noise and other interferences. Although it requires some a priori information, cyclostationarity can distinguish some Cognitive Radio signals from primary signals.

The cons of cyclostationarity detection are that it is quite complicated mathematically, more computationally involved and requires longer observation time.

We can detect a signal, given we know its cyclic frequency, by finding that frequency in the SCD (Spectral Correlation Density) function calculated for the received signal. The SCD is also known as CS (Cyclic Spectrum) and SCF (Spectral Correlation Function). The SCD is given by [6]:

$$S_x^{\alpha}(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x^{\alpha}(\tau) e^{-i2\pi f \tau} d\tau$$



Figure 5.3: Block diagram of Cyclostationary Detection implementation.

where the cyclic autocorrelation function $R_x^{\alpha}(\tau)$ is defined as [7]

$$R_x^{\alpha}(\tau) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \lim_{T \to \infty} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x(t + \tau/2) x^*(t - \tau/2) e^{-i2\pi\alpha t} dt$$

where x(t) is the received signal and α is the cyclic frequency.

We can also get the SCD function by considering a zero mean signal x(t) whose time varying autocorrelation function $R_x(t,\tau)$ defined as [14]

$$R_x(t,\tau) = E\{x(t)x^*(t+\tau)\}\$$

is periodic in time t and can be represented as a Fourier series

$$R_x(t,\tau) = \sum_{\alpha} R_x^{\alpha}(\tau) e^{i2\pi\alpha t}$$

for which the cyclic autocorrelation function is defined as

$$R_x^{\alpha}(\tau) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{\frac{T}{2}}^{\frac{T}{2}} R_x(t, \tau) e^{-i2\pi\alpha t} dT$$

Again the Fourier transform of $R_x^{\alpha}(\tau)$ is the SCD defined as

$$S_x^{\alpha}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R_x^{\alpha}(\tau) e^{-i2\pi f \tau} d\tau$$

Cyclic Spectrum is a two-dimensional transform whereas Power Spectral Density (PSD) is just one-dimensional. Cyclostationarity detection won't work without a priori information. But if we have all the a priori information, then matched filtering turns out to be a much simpler and faster technique.

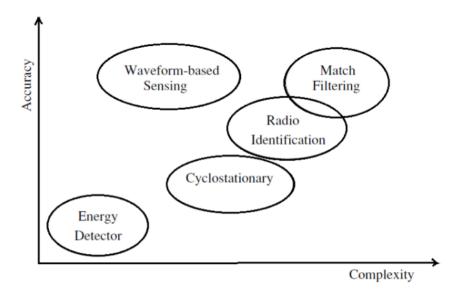


Figure 5.4: Comparison of some spectrum sensing methods

5.4 Comparison of sensing techniques

Energy detection technique is the simplest method of all but it is also the most error prone. On the other hand, matched filtering is the most complex but it is very accurate. Cyclostationarity detection is more complicated than energy detection but it is more accurate. There is no ideal detection method. There are always compromises and tradeoffs to be made. Figure 5.4 shows a comparison of some spectrum sensing methods.

There are other methods of spectrum sensing that are more involved. For example multitaper spectral estimation, wavelet based detection, waveform based detection, etc.

5.5 Implementation of energy detection technique

In this section, we give a brief mathematical overview of the Average Periodogram Analysis method, that we have used in this project to calculate the energy in various operating frequencies. We also dwell on the wideband spectrum analyzer which happens to use the Average Periodogram Analysis method for doing its job.

5.5.1 Average periodogram analysis

This method applies the FFT (fast fourier transform) algorithm to the estimation of power spectra by sectioning the input time-domain data, finding the modified periodogram for each section and then averaging them to get the final spectral estimate. Since this method transforms the input data into smaller chunks, it requires less storage memory to implement this algorithm and also fewer computations. This is certainly an advantage and makes this method work faster. This method is also good for nonstationarity tests because it has the potential to resolve the data in the time domain [16].

While computing the modified periodogram the data is smoothened using a window because sharp transitions of data corrupt the modified periodograms. The window used in our project is the Blackman-Harris window.

Assume X(n), n = 0, ..., N - 1 is a sample from a stationary sequence. We take segments, possibly overlapping, of length L that are D units apart from X(n). Let $X_0(n)$ be the first such segment. Then $X_1(n) = X_0(n+D)$ and $X_2(n) = X_1(n+D)$ and so on, where n = 0, ..., L - 1. We take K segments such that those K segments almost use up all the data in X(n) i.e. (K-1)D + L = N. Supposing W(n), n = 0, ..., L - 1 is the window, we calculate the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) of each segment to get

$$A_k(m) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=0}^{L-1} X_k(n) W(n) e^{-j2\pi nm/L} \qquad k = 0, ..., K-1$$

The K modified periodograms are computed as

$$I_k(f_m) = \frac{L}{U} |A_k(m)|^2$$
 $k = 0, ..., K - 1$

where

$$f_m = \frac{m}{L} \qquad m = 0, ..., L/2$$

and

$$U = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=0}^{L-1} W^2(n)$$

The spectral estimate is the average of these periodograms,

$$P(f_m) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} I_k(f_m)$$

5.5.2 Wideband Spectrum Analyzer

GNURadio comes with a default spectrum analyzing program named "usrp_spectrum_sense.py". The code for this program is given in Appendix B. This program can be used as a template for other programs that involve spectrum analysis.

The output of this code is the squared magnitude of the FFT spectrum. For a typical FFT bin [i] the output is Y[i] = re[X[i]] * re[X[i]] + im[X[i]] * im[X[i]]. The power for a particular band can be calculated by summing these values for the correct number of bins that cover that bandwidth. The energy in a particular frequency corresponding to a particular bin [i] is the square root of Y[i].

N time samples of x(t) sampled at a sampling frequency of F_s are required to use N point complex FFT $X(\omega)$ analysis. To reduce spectral leakage, an appropriate window function like Blackman-Harris window is to be chosen and applied to these time samples. The output of the FFT represents the spectrum content as follows:

- The first value of the FFT output (bin0 == X[0]) corresponds to the energy in the centre frequency.
- The first half of the FFT spectrum (X[1] to X[N/2-1]) corresponds to the positive baseband frequencies i.e. from the centre frequency to $+F_s/2$.
- The second half (X[N/2] to X[N-1]) corresponds to the negative baseband frequencies, i.e. from $-F_s/2$ to the centre frequency.

For the purposes of our project, we used to collect N=1024 samples using a radio tuner centered at the frequency of our interest, say 900 MHz. The number of FFT points, N should be a power of 2 for the FFT algorithm to work fast, so we set N=1024 for our work. We set the sampling frequency to be 1 MHz because all we are required to do is scan GSM bands that are of 200 KHz each. The frequency resolution thus turns out to be: 1 MHz / 1024 = 976.56 KHz. The decimation factor is defined as the dsp rate divided by the sampling rate. The dsp rate is the actual hardware sampling rate of the ADC in the USRP kit and was 100 MHz in our case. The UHD driver (driver software for the USRP kits) requires the decimation factor to be an integer value. So we set our sampling rate to 1 MHz which made the decimation factor to be 100 MHz / 1 MHz = 100, an integer value. For example if we set the sampling rate as 3 MHz then the USRP's driver would complain because the decimation factor 100 MHz / 1 MHz = 33.33 turns out to be a non-integral value.

As has been said earlier, a GSM band is of 200 KHz. Hence, to calculate the energy in a particular GSM band of interest, we have to find the average of all the bin values which lie in the 200 KHz band centered at that frequency.

Chapter 6

OpenBTS based Cognitive Radio testbed

In this project we try to demonstrate the coexistence of primary and secondary users in the same GSM frequency band by making the secondary users switch to some neighboring unoccupied GSM frequency band (spectrum hole) as soon as the primary users of that frequency band makes a call. A spectrum hole is a frequency band/channel that have been licensed to the primary users but is not being used at that particular space and time. This allows secondary users to make use of already licensed frequency bands instead of having to allot them completely new frequency bands altogether.

In the first phase of the project, we implemented a two-frequency system where the secondary system had an option of switching into one of two frequency channels depending on which one was free. We expanded this to a four-frequency system with two primary systems in the second phase. The secondary would search for an unused frequency band among these four frequencies, two of which always remain used.

6.1 The two-frequency system

6.1.1 Experimental setup

Experimental setup diagram.

The hardware and software components used in this experiment are the following:

- A primary BTS This is a Linux laptop running OpenBTS software with 1 USRP as the OpenBTS radio interface. The USRP hardware kit has a WBX 50-2200 MHz RX/TX daughterboard in it. Two mobile phones (primary users) are connected to the OpenBTS network running in this primary BTS system.
- A secondary BTS This is an Ubuntu desktop running OpenBTS and GNURadio software. Two USRP kits are connected to this machine, one as the OpenBTS radio interface and the other as the GNURadio radio interface. The GNURadio software is used for the spectrum sensing. So, here the OpenBTS software with its radio interface acts as a Base Transceiver Station (BTS) while the GNURadio software alongwith its radio interface acts as a spectrum sensor. Each of the two USRP kits has a WBX 50-2200 MHz RX/TX daughterboard. Two other mobile phones (secondary users) are connected to the OpenBTS network running in this secondary BTS.

The secondary BTS system has cognitive capabilities. It was a challenge to make OpenBTS and GNURadio run simultaneously in the same computer and make them communicate with each other. GNURadio keeps sensing the spectrum used by the secondary users continuously in the background and takes decisions whether to switch the frequency band of the secondary BTS or not, depending upon the energy level in the frequency band in which it is running.

6.1.2 Testing

First we choose any two GSM frequency bands say 945 MHz (F_1) and 950 MHz (F_2) . The primary users are made to occupy F_1 . Then we let the secondary users come into F_1 . This makes the energy level in F_1 go high, which gets detected by the spectrum sensor of the secondary BTS. So, the secondary BTS moves out of F_1 and switches its frequency to F_2 . Similarly, now if the primary users are made to come into F_2 , the secondary switches back to F_1 .

In this experiment we don't have the situation where both F_1 and F_2 remain occupied because there is only one set of primary users. Therefore, the secondary also doesn't check the energy level in a channel before taking the decision to switch into that channel.

Flow graph here.

6.2 The four-frequency system

As has been said earlier, in second phase, we expanded the two-frequency system to a four-frequency one. The frequency channels are $F_1 = 936$ MHz, $F_2 = 943$ MHz, $F_3 = 950$ MHz, $F_4 = 957$ MHz. We also had two primary systems instead of just one this time. We also used a method known as CUSUM for peak detection in this case.

6.2.1 Experimental setup

The tools used in this experiment are as follows:

- Two primary BTSs One is a laptop and the other one is a desktop. Both of them runs Ubuntu as the Operating System. Each one of them runs OpenBTS with a USRP kit as its radio interface. A pair of mobile phones are connected to each one of them.
- A secondary BTS This is the same as in the two-frequency system. It runs OpenBTS and GNURadio on two different USRP kits. A pair of mobile phones (secondary users) are connected to its OpenBTS network.

One of the primary BTSs has a USRP with a SBX 400-4400 MHz RX/TX daughterboard, the rest of the USRPs all had a WBX daughterboard as before.

6.2.2 Testing

Initially we make one of the primary systems operate in F_2 . And the secondary is made to operate in F_1 . Now we let the other primary come into F_1 . The secondary senses it and attempts to switch to F_2 because the secondary is programmed to check F_1 , F_2 , F_3 , F_4 serially in that order. After checking F_4 the secondary checks F_1 , F_2 , F_3 , ... again and so on the cycle continues.

But the frequency F_2 happens to be occupied by the one of the primary systems. So, the secondary moves ahead to F_3 which is unoccupied and utilizes that channel.

Unlike the two-frequency system, in this case the secondary always checks the availability of a channel before deciding to switch into it. In the two-frequency system, it was assumed that one of the two channels is always unoccupied.

Flow graph for four-frequency system here.

The spectrum sensing is done using the energy detection based method. For making decisions whether to switch the frequency of the secondary BTS or not, a threshold of energy level is required to be set. If the energy level in a given channel is beyond the threshold, it implies that the primary users are also using that channel i.e. that channel is already occupied by primary users.

To choose a threshold energy level, we took various readings of the noise floor, energy when only primary users were active, energy when only secondary users were active and also when both primary users and secondary users were active simultaneously for a short duration. The energy level threshold depends on the distance of the mobile phones from the BTS. We can subdue this dependency on the distance by setting the threshold quite low so that even if the users move farther away the decision making is not affected.

6.3 CUSUM method

The CUSUM (or cumulative sum control chart) method is used here to detect the peak in energy levels [5]. This method is used to ascertain that the peak in the energy levels in a given channel are not just due to some irrelevant reasons like random fluctuations in the noise power, etc.

CUSUM is a technique used for monitoring change detection. It involves calculating the cumulative sum, which is what makes it sequential. The samples from a process x_n are assigned weights ω_n and summed in the following way:

$$S_0 = 0$$

$$S_n = max(0, S_n + x_n - \omega_n)$$

When the value of S exceeds a certain threshold value, a change in value has been found. However, this formula detects only a change in the positive direction. For the negative direction, the max operation has to be replaced by the min operation. In this case the change has been found when the (negative) value is below the threshold value.

6.4 Things done over the year

What follows is a brief overview of the things done and the challenges faced during the course of the project.

- 1. We began by trying to get acquainted with Cognitive Radio. We carried out a literature survey on Cognitive Radio and also on the ongoing research work in the field of Cognitive Radio.
- 2. Since GNURadio applications are written in the Python programming language, we had to brush up our knowledge of the Python language.
- 3. We familiarized ourselves with the GNURadio software package. Even the installation procedure of GNURadio was a little challenging for us back then because GNURadio required a manual installation. We tweaked and played around with the already existing codes of signal processing blocks that come by default with GNURadio.
- 4. We acquainted ourselves with the USRP hardware kit, which happens to be the prime hardware used in our project. An outdoor experiment was carried out to estimate the range of the USRP kit. This is largest distance upto which mobile phones are able to get reasonable signal quality from the USRP.
- 5. Then we got familiar with the OpenBTS software. We had a hard time installing and configuring OpenBTS to work. But eventually we managed to get our SIMs registered to the OpenBTS network and also to make calls and to text messages between the phones. The USRP kit is the hardware radio interface for the OpenBTS software.
- 6. Spectrum sensing lies at the very heart of the entire operation of Cognitive Radio. So we surveyed literature on various methods of spectrum sensing. We made a decision to go with Energy detection based method because it is comparatively less complicated and computationally less resource-expensive. Average Periodogram Analysis is a technique used in energy detection based spectrum sensing. So we carried out a study on Average Periodogram Analysis.
- 7. After all these we prepared our problem statement and designed a flow graph presenting our proposed algorithm to solve the problem. Then we started developing the experimental setup that we have covered at the beginning part of this chapter.
- 8. A key approach in solving our problem was to make GNURadio and OpenBTS run simultaneously in the same computer hardware. This was a little tricky for us. Because

we had to figure out if it was possible to run two USRP kits on the same computer. Fortunately, it is possible if the two kits do not use the same IP address. So, we had to configure the kits to use different IP addresses. This was done by burning a different IP address to one of the kits.

- 9. Next we built a two-frequency system which had a pair of primary users and a pair of secondary users communicating in parallel. The primary users were to be given higher priority. So the secondary users would have to switch to a different and unoccupied channel as soon as the primary users started making calls. A detailed description has already been given at the beginning part of this chapter.
- 10. Then we extended the two-frequency system to a four-frequency system which has two pairs of primary users instead of just one. Thus we have demonstrated the coexistence of primary users and secondary users in the same GSM frequency band.

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