

Chapter-14

Introduction

In astronomical terms, a satellite is a celestial body that orbits around a gate planet (moon). In aerospace terms, however, a satellite is a space vehicle launched by humans and orbits earth or another celestial body.

A communication satellite is a microwave repeater in the sky that consists of a diverse combination of one or more of the following: receiver, transmitter, amplifier, regenerator, filter, onboard computer, multiplexer, demultiplexer, antenna, waveguide, regenerator, and about any other electronic communications circuit even developed.

A satellite radio repeater is called a transponder. A satellite system consists of one or more satellite space vehicles, a ground-based station to control the operation of the system and a user network of earth stations.

Kepler's Laws

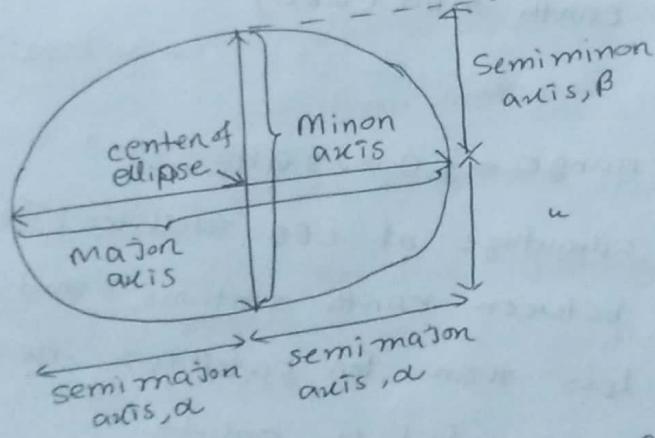
- It may be simply stated as:
- ① The planets move in ellipses with the sun at one focus.
 - ② The line joining the sun and a planet sweeps out equal areas in equal intervals of time.
 - ③ The square of the time of revolution of a planet

divided by the cube of its mean distance from the sun gives a number that is same for all planets.

→ Kepler's Law can be applied to any two bodies that interact through gravitation.

→ The larger body → primary
a smaller one → secondary / satellite.

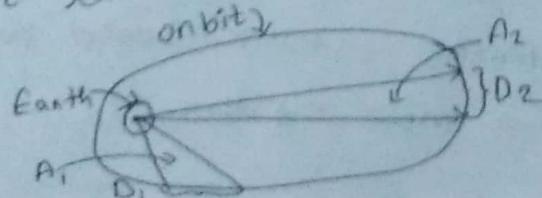
Kepler's first law states that a satellite will orbit a primary body following an elliptical path. An ellipse has two focal points and the center of the mass of a two-body system is always centered on one of the foci.



for the semimajor axis a and the semiminor axis, B shown in figure, the eccentricity of the ellipse can be defined as,

$$e = \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - B^2}}{a}$$

Keplons 2nd law is also known as law of areas



Keplar's Third law can be stated mathematically as,

$$\alpha = AP^{2/3}$$

A = constant (unitless)

P = mean solar earth days

α = semimajor axis (kilometers)

satellite Elevation categories?

Satellites are generally classified as having a low earth orbit (LEO), medium earth orbit (MEO), or geosynchronous earth orbit (GEO)

LEO: frequency range = 1.0 - 2.5 GHz.

The main advantage of LEO satellites is that the path loss between earth stations and space vehicles is much less than for satellites revolving in medium-or-high-altitude orbits.

Less path loss equals to lower transmit powers, smaller antenna, and less weight.

MEO

frequency range = 1.2 GHz - 1.66 GHz.

orbit between 6000 - 12000 miles above earth.

The department of defense's satellite based positioning system, NAVSTAR is a MEO system.

GEO:

frequency range = 2 GHz - 18 GHz.

orbit 2230 miles above earth's surface.

Most commercial communications satellites are in GEO geosynchronous orbit.

GEO satellites have an orbital time of approximately 24 hours, same as Earth; thus satellites appear to be stationary.

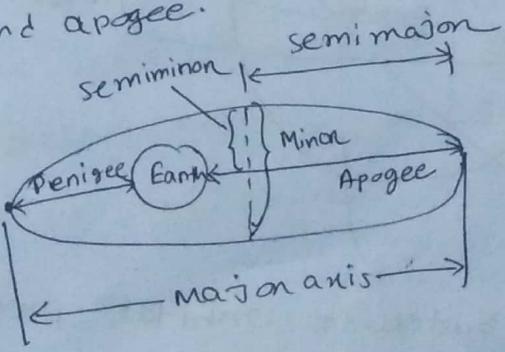
Satellite orbital patterns:

Terms: ① Apogee = The point in an orbit that is located farthest from earth.

Perigee = closest to earth

② Major axis = the line joining the perigee and apogee through the center of the earth.

③ Minor axis = The line perpendicular to the major axis and halfway between the perigee and apogee.

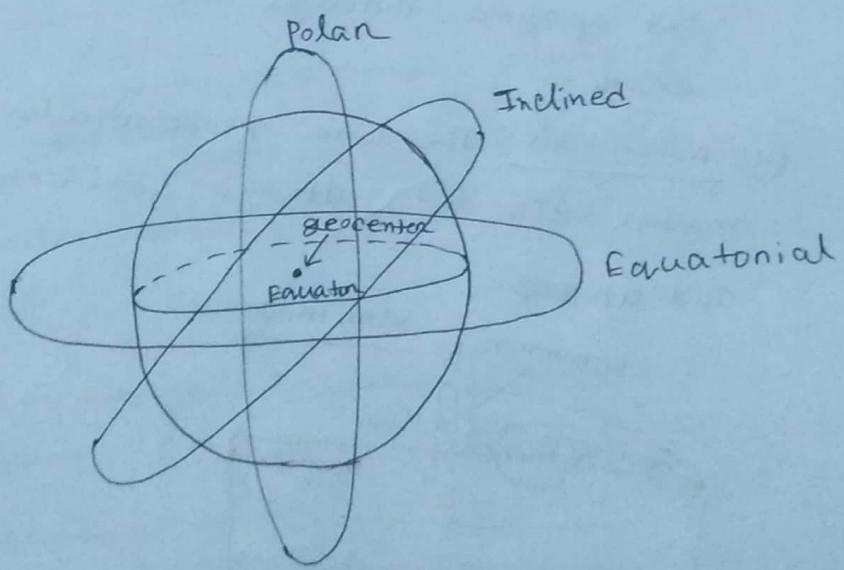


Three paths are useful for communications satellite:
inclined, equatorial, or polar.

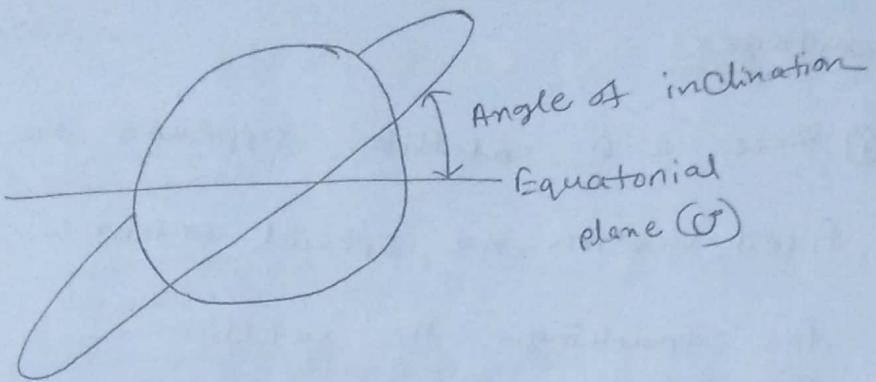
All satellites rotate around Earth in an orbit that forms a plane that passes through the center of gravity of Earth called the geocentre.

Inclined orbit: are virtually all orbits except those that travel directly above the equator or directly over the North and South poles.

The angle of inclination is the angle between the Earth's equatorial plane and the orbital plane of a satellite measured counter clockwise at the point in the orbit where it crosses the equatorial plane travelling from south to north.



Satellite Orbital Patterns.



Equatorial orbit: is when the satellite rotates in a path that directly above the equator, usually in a circular path.

With an equatorial orbit, the angle of inclination is zero. All geosynchronous satellites are in this orbit.

Polar orbit: A polar orbit is when the satellite rotates in a path that takes it over the North and South poles in an orbit perpendicular to the equatorial plane.

④ Geosynchronous satellites

⇒ Sometimes referred to as stationary satellites - Why?
G. satellites orbit Earth above the equator with the same angular velocity as earth. Hence G. satellites appear to remain in a fixed location above one spot on Earth's surface.

Advantages:

- ① Since a G. satellite appears to remain in a fixed location, no special antenna is needed for tracking the satellite.
- ② Make repeated observations over a given area.
- ③ Get high temporal resolution data.
- ④ The orbit is quite high, so they do not experience as much atmospheric drag - their orbits may be a lot more stable.
- ⑤ Only three satellites are sufficient to cover the entire earth.

Disadvantages:

- ① Due to high orbit, the spatial resolution data is not as great as for the polar orbiting satellites.
- ② Due to longer transmission distance, the received signal is very weak.
- ③ It provides poor coverage at higher latitude places usually greater than

77 degrees.

Math $n=?$ $\alpha=?$

$$\alpha = AP^{2/3} \text{ km}$$

$$n = d - 6378 \text{ km} = \text{km}$$

The circumference of a orbit,

$$C = 2\pi\alpha = \text{km}$$

velocity, $V = \frac{C}{24 \text{ hr}} \text{ km/hr}$

exam-A must

satellite system link models

A satellite system consists of three basic sections.

① Uplink model:

The primary component within the uplink section of a satellite system is the earth station transmitter. A typical earth station transmitter consists of a IF modulator, an IF-to-RF microwave up-converter, a high power amplifier (HPA) and some means of bandlimiting the final output spectrum.

② The IF modulator converts the input baseband signals to either an FM-, a PSK-, or a QAM-

modulated intermediate frequency.

④ The up-converter converts the IF to an appropriate RF-carrier frequency.

⑤ The HPA provides adequate gain and output power to propagate the signal to the satellite transponder.

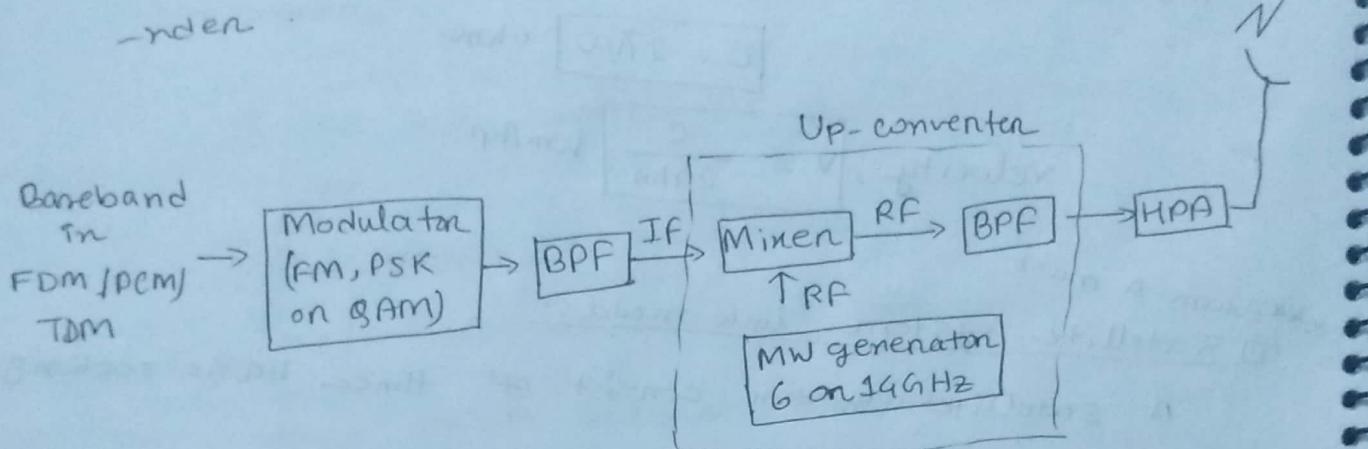


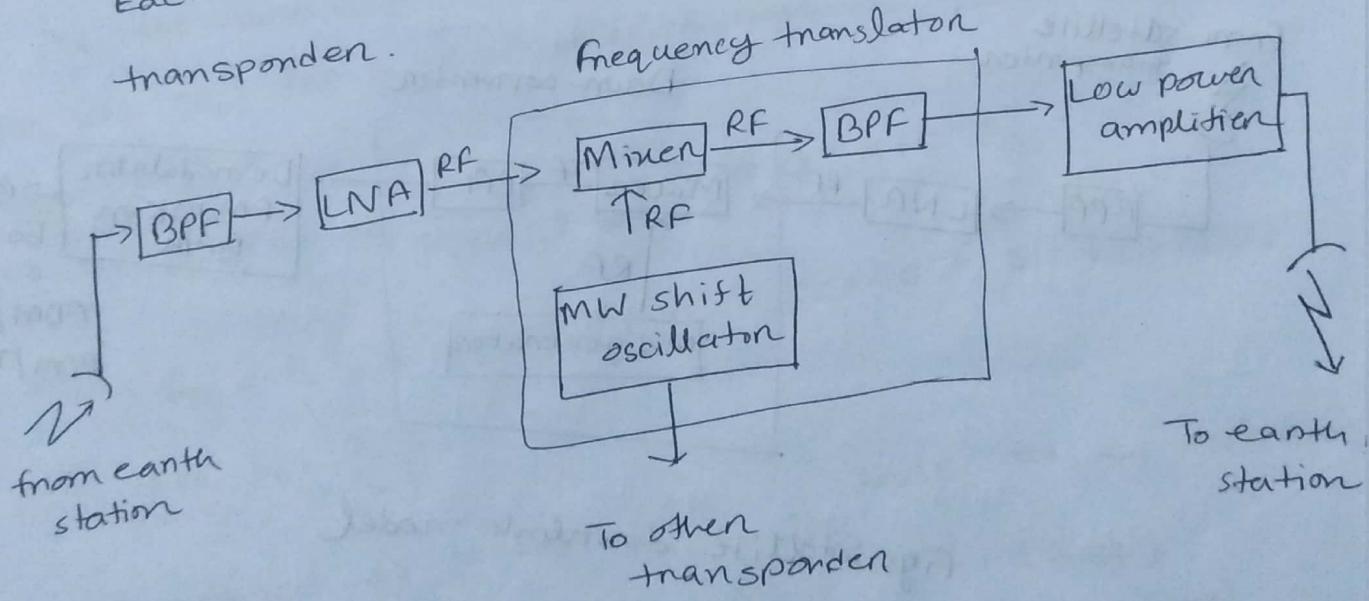
Fig: satellite Uplink Model.

⑥ Transponder:
A typical satellite transponder consists of an input bandlimiting device (BPF), an input low noise amplifier (LNA), a frequency translator, a low level power amplifier, and an output bandpass filter.

④ the input BPF limits the total noise applied to the input of the LNA ⑤ The output of the LNA is fed to a frequency translator, which converts the high-band uplink frequency to the low band downlink frequency.

⑥ the low level power amplifier which is commonly amplifies the RF signal for transmission through the downlink to earth station receivers.

Each RF satellite channel requires a separate transponder.



figg satellite transponden.

③ Downlink Model

An earth station receiver includes an input BPF, an LNA, and an RF-to-IF down converter.

(a) The BPF limits the input noise power to the LNA.

(b) The LNA is a highly sensitive, low-noise device such as a tunnel diode amplifier or a parametric amplifier.

(c) The RF-to-IF down converter converts the received RF signal to IF frequency.

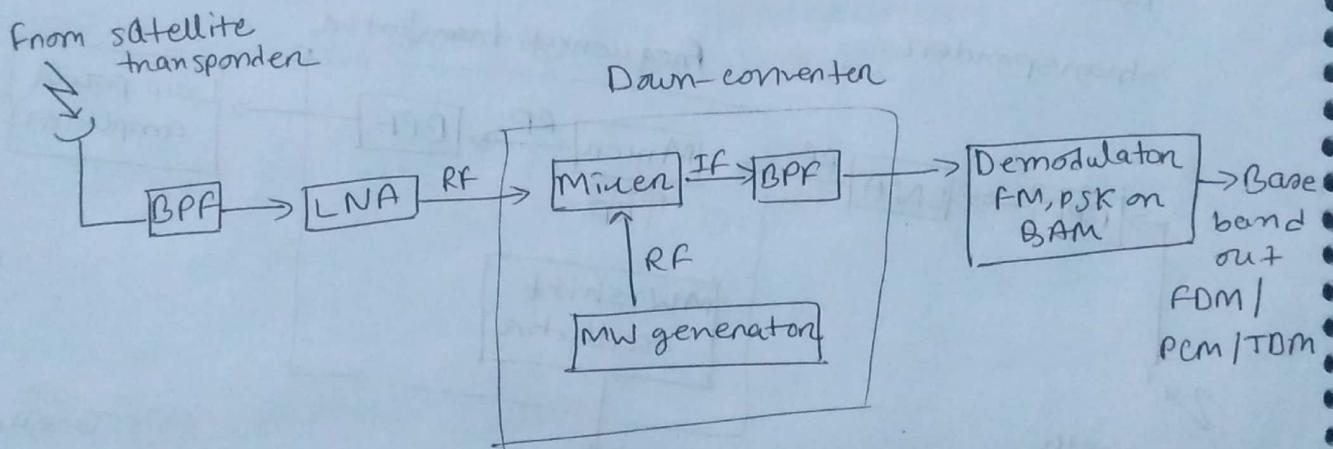


fig: Satellite downlink model

② Cross link:

Occasionally, there is an application where it is necessary to communicate between satellites. This is done using satellite cross link/intersatellite link.

A disadvantage of using ISL is that both the transmitter and the receiver are space bound. Consequently, both the transmitter's output power and the receiver's input sensitivity are limited.

Example-2

For the total power (P_t) of 1000W, determine the energy per bit (E_b) for a transmission rate of 50Mbps

$$\text{Sol no } \quad T_b = \frac{1}{f_b} = \frac{1}{50 \times 10^6 \text{ bps}} = 0.02 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}$$

$$E_b = P_t T_b = 1000 \text{ J/s} \times (0.02 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s/bit}) = 20 \mu\text{J}$$

$$\left[\text{on, } E_b = \frac{P_t}{f_b} \right]$$

Expressed as a log with 1 joule as the reference

$$E_b = 10 \log (20 \times 10^{-6}) = -47 \text{ dBJ}$$

(Ans)

It is common to express P_t in dBW and E_b in dBW/bps.
on, $P_t = 10 \log 1000 = 30 \text{ dBW}$

$$E_b = P_t - 10 \log f_b = P_t - 10 \log (50 \times 10^6)$$

$$= 30 \text{ dBW} - 77 \text{ dB}$$

$$= -47 \text{ dBW/bps}$$

WDM

④ WDM (Wavelength-Division multiplexing)

It is a technology that enables many optical signals to be transmitted simultaneously by a single fiber cable.

WDM is coupling light at two or more discrete wavelengths into and out of an optical fiber. Each wavelength is capable of carrying vast amounts of information in either analog or digital form, and the information can already be time or frequency division multiplexed.

⑤ Similarity with FDM

WDM is sometimes referred to as simply wave division multiplexing. Since wave and frequency are closely related, WDM is similar to FDM, in the idea is to send information signals that originally occupied the same band of frequency through the same fiber at the same time without them interfering with each other.

WDM vs FDM

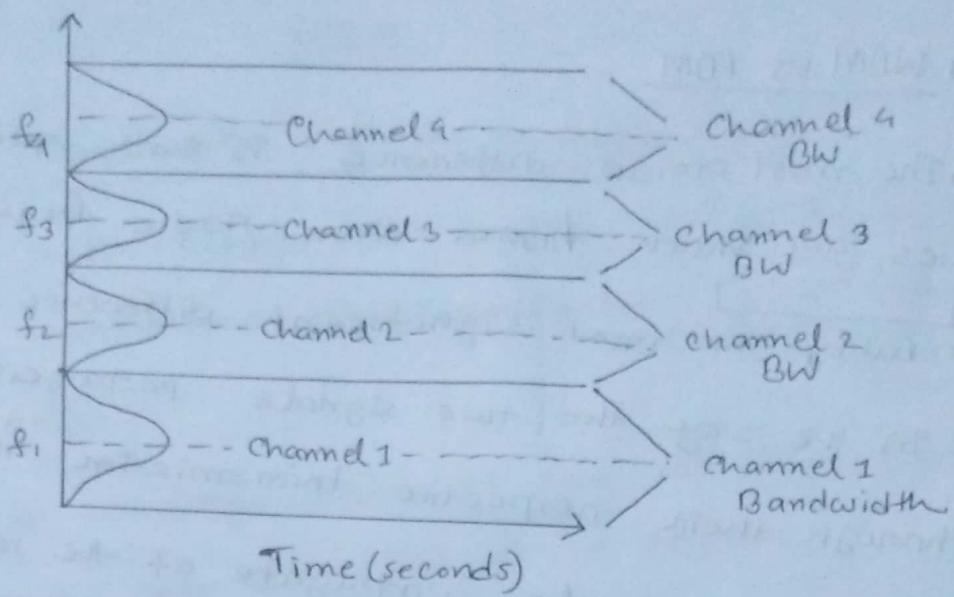
⇒ The most obvious difference is that optical frequencies are much higher than radio frequencies.

⇒ Probably the most significant difference, however, is in the way the two signals propagate at the through their respective transmission media.

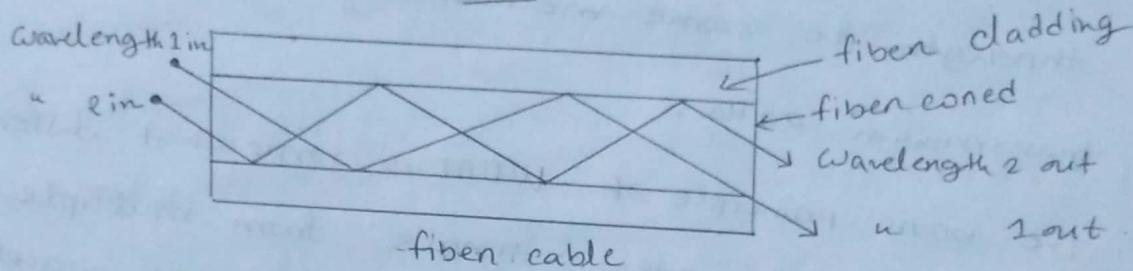
⇒ With FDM, signals propagate at the same time and through the same medium and follow the same transmission path.

The basic principle of WDM is somewhat different. With WDM, it is multiple sources from multiple sources modulate lasers operating at different wavelengths. Hence the signals enter the fiber at the same time and travel through the same medium. However, they do not take the same path down the fiber. Since each wavelength takes a different path, they each arrive at the receive end at slightly different times.

⇒ [WDM multiplexing is performed at extremely high frequencies, whereas FDM is at relatively low radio and baseband frequency] [first line 23 or 25]



(a)



(b)

Fig: (a) FDM, (b) WDM

Dense-Wave Division multiplexing (DWDM):

WDM is generally accomplished at approximate wavelengths of 1550nm, 100 GHz frequency separation and 0.8nm wavelength separation.

Using a multiplexing technique called DWDM, the spacing between adjacent frequencies is considerably less.

Generally, optical systems carrying multiple optical signals spaced more than 200GHz on 1.6nm apart in the vicinity of 1550nm are considered standard WDM.

WDM systems carrying multiple optical signals in the vicinity of 1550nm with less than 200GHz separation are considered D-WDM.

The more wavelengths used in a WDM system, the closer they are to each other and the denser the wavelength spectrum.

DWDM transmitter can simultaneously carry 206 digitally modulated wavelengths of colors over a

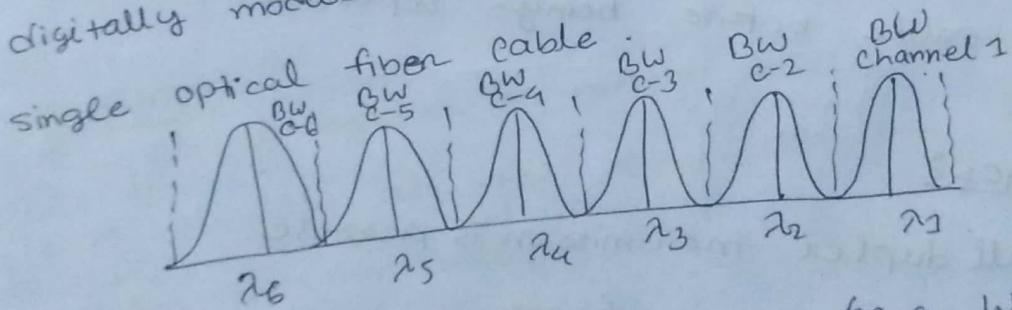


fig: wavelength spectrum for a WDM system using six wavelengths.

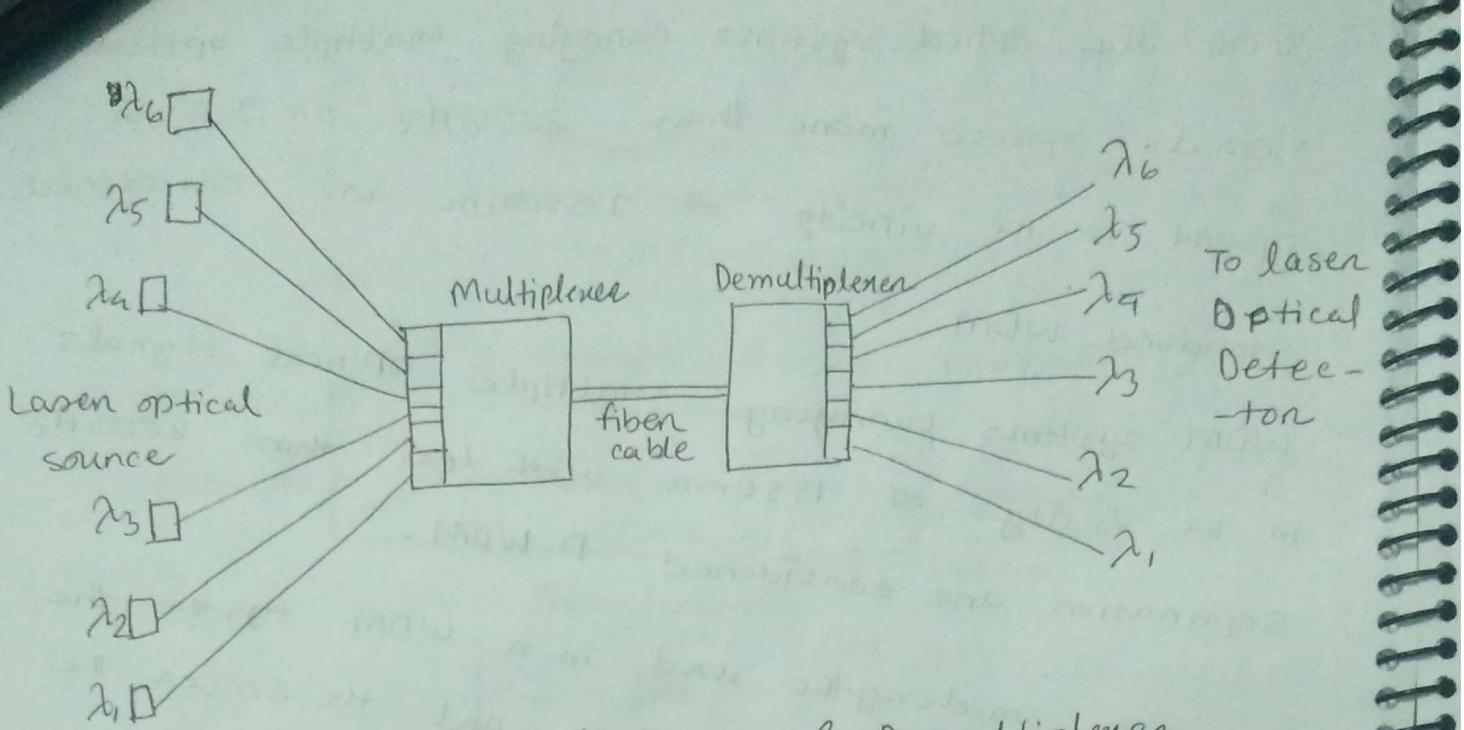


Fig: Multiplexer & Demultiplexer

Shows how the output wavelengths from six lasers are combined (multiplexed) and then propagated over a single optical cable before being separated (demultiplexed).

Advantages:

- ① Full duplex transmission is possible
- ② Easier to reconfigure
- ③ Optical components are similar and more reliable
- ④ It provides higher bandwidth
- ⑤ High security

⑥ simple to implement.

⑦ Disadvantages:

① Signals can not be very close.

② Cost of system increases with addition of optical components.

③ Light wave carrying WDM are limited to 2-point circuit

④ Inefficiency in BW utilization, difficulty in wavelength tuning.

GSM

⑧ GSM:
Global system for mobile communication (GSM)
is a globally accepted standard for digital
cellular communication.

GSM → 1991

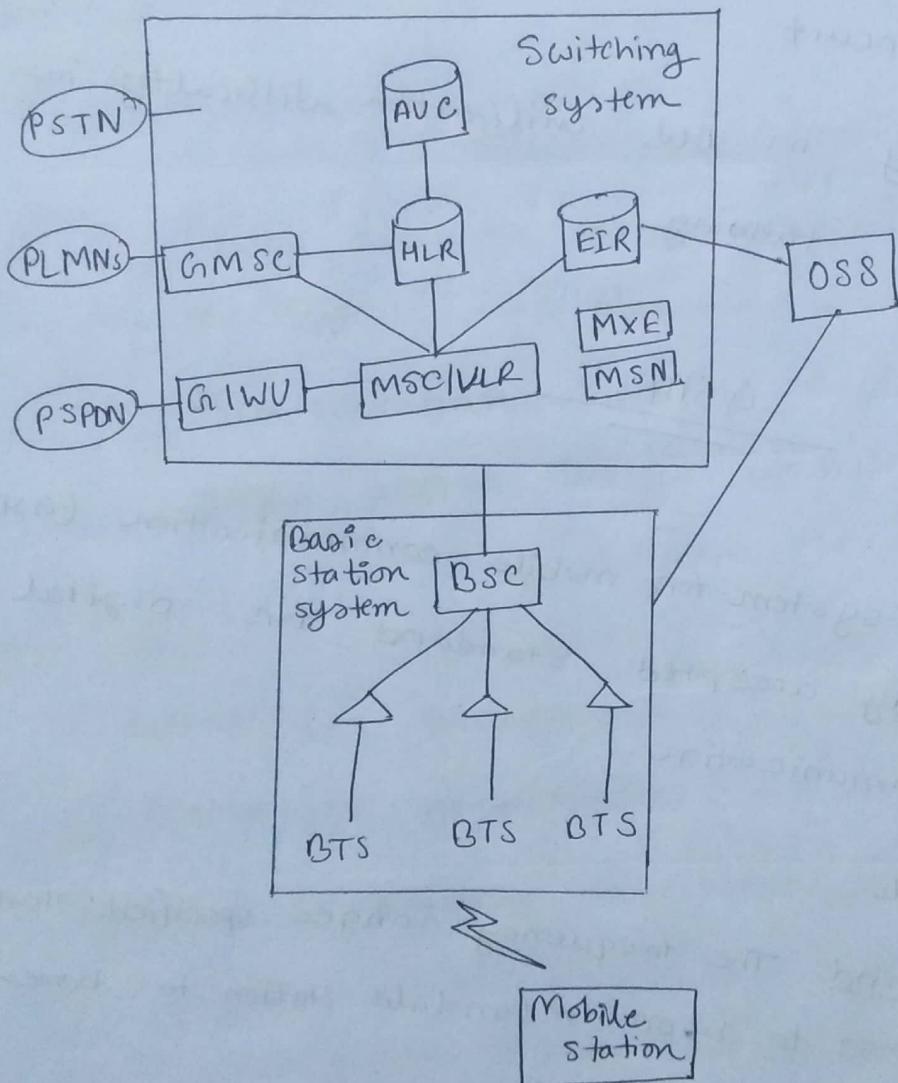
⑨ frequency bands: The frequency range specified for
GSM is 1850 to 1900 Hz (mobile station to base
station).

⑩ Digital system was adopted for GSM.

④ Narrowband time division multiple access solution (TDMA) was chosen for GSM.

~~Diagram~~ The GSM Network

The GSM network is divided into three major systems: the switching system (SS), the base station system (BSS) and the operation and support system (OSS).



① The switching system:

" " " " is responsible for call processing and subscriber-related functions. The ss include the following functional units:

① home location register (HLR): The HLR is a database used for storage and management of subscriptions. It stores permanent data about subscribers, including subscriber's service profile, location information, and activity status.

② mobile services switching center (MSC): The MSC performs the telephony switching functions of the system. It controls calls to and from other telephone and data systems.

③ Visitor location register (VLR): It is a database that contains temporary information about subscribers that is needed by the MSC in order to service visiting subscribers.

④ Authentication center (AUC): A unit called the AUC provides authentication and encryption parameters that verify the user's identity and ensure the confidentiality of each call. The AUC protects the network operators from different types of fraud.

found in today's cellular world.

⑤ equipment identity register (EIR) & The EIR is a database that contains information about the identity of mobile equipment that prevents calls from stolen, unauthorized or defective mobile stations.

iv Base station system (BSS)

All radio-related functions are performed

in the BSS, which consists of:

① BSC (Base station controllers):

The BSC provides all the control functions and physical links between the MSC and BTS.

A number of BSCs are served by an MSC.

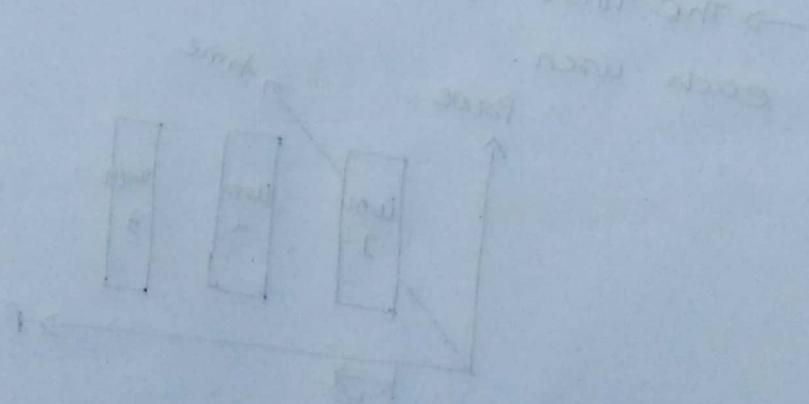
② BTS (Base transceiver stations):

The BTS handles the radio interface to the mobile station. A group of BTSS are controlled by a BSC.

(B1) The operating and support system (OSS)

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

The OSS is the functional unit from which the network operator monitors and controls the system. An important function of OSS is to provide a network overview and support the maintenance activities of different operation and maintenance organizations.



Interface

DTE: Data terminal Equipment can be virtually any binary digital service that generates, transmits, receives or interprets data messages.

DCE: Data communication Equipment is a general term used to describe equipments that interfaces ~~DTE~~ DTE to a transmission channel.

LCU: Line control unit is a DTE.
It processes information and serves as an interface between the host computer because it passes all the data communication circuits it served. That's why it is often called a front-end processor on FEP.

FEP is a small sized computer that interfaces to the host computer a number of networks on a number of peripheral devices.

Within the FEP and LCUs, a single special-purpose integrated circuit performs many of the fundamental data communications functions. This integrated circuit is called

- ① UART
- ② USART
- ③ USART

All three types of circuits specify general purpose

integrated circuit chips located in a LCU or FEP that allow DTEs to interface with DCEs.

④ UART (Universal asynchronous receiver or transmitter)

A UART is used for asynchronous transmission of data between a DTE and a DCE. Asynchronous data transmission means that an asynchronous data format is used, and there is no clocking information transferred between the DTE and DCE.

It can be divided into two functional sections: ① Transmitter ② Receiver. The primary functions performed by a UART are the following:

① Parallel-to-serial data conversion in the transmitter and serial-to-parallel data conversion in the receiver.

② Error detection by inserting parity bits in the transmitter and checking parity bits in the receiver.

③ Insert start and stop bits in the T and detect and remove start and stop bits in the R.

④ Formatting data in the T and R.

⑤ Provide transmit and receive status information

to the CPU.

⑥ Voltage level conversion between DTE and the serial interface and vice versa.

Transmit and receive function can be performed by a UART simultaneously because the transmitter and receiver have separate control signals and clock signals and share a bidirectional data bus, which allows them to operate virtually independently of one another.

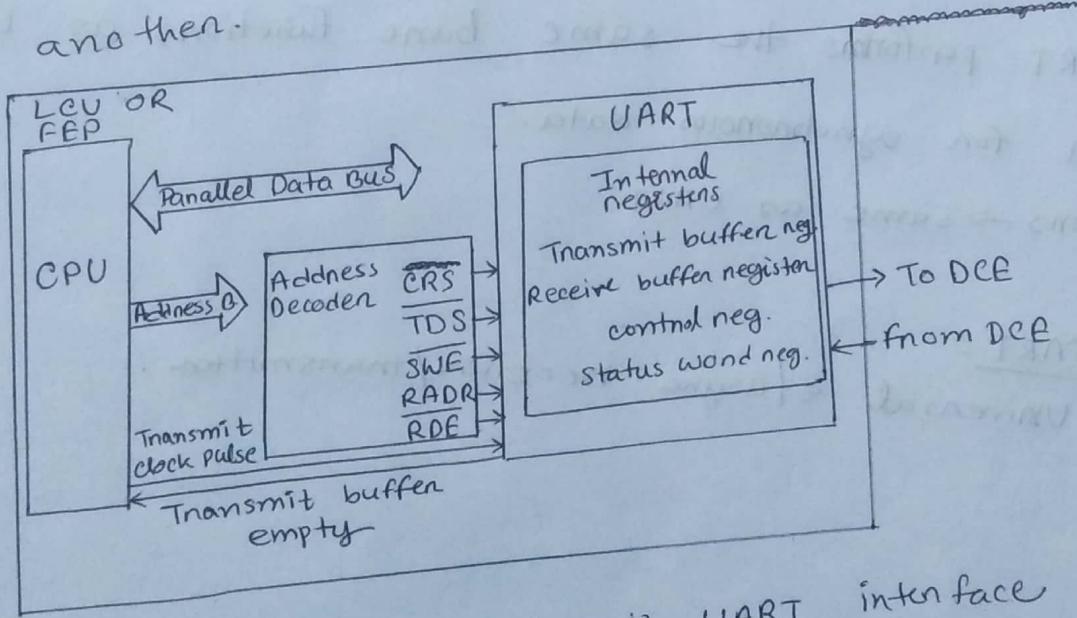


Fig: Line control unit UART interface

(2) USART

Universal synchronous Receiver and transmitter.

A USART is used for synchronous transmission of data between a DTE and a DCE.

Synchronous data transmission means that a synchronous data format is used, and clock information is generally transferred between the DTE and DCE.

A USART performs the same basic functions as UART except for synchronous data.

functions → same as UART

(3)

USART:

Universal s/async receiver/transmitter