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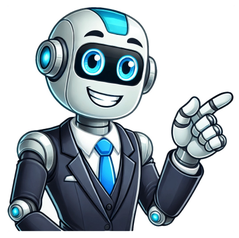

Police polygraph exam questions

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Taking a polygraph is one of the most nerve-wracking parts of the law enforcement application process. It is possible for applicants who are telling the truth to appear like they are not. However, opting out of a required polygraph is not an option if you want to continue in the hiring process. If you fail a polygraph, you must disclose that when applying to a law enforcement agency in the future, even if that agency does not require a polygraph. This may negatively impact your chance of being hired, which is why it is vital to pass the polygraph in the first "go." Agencies may polygraph candidates to: Verify the information the candidate already provided Find out information they are not disclosing Determine if they are honest and trustworthy In the academy, they can teach you offensive driving, how to shoot a firearm, and other physical tactics, but they cannot teach you integrity. That is why agencies go to great lengths to find candidates who are honest and trustworthy. The polygraph is usually one of the final stages of the application process because administering the test can be expensive. It usually happens after you pass the police written test, oral board interview, and physical agility test. Before taking the polygraph, you will be given a background questionnaire. Make sure to answer truthfully since the information you provide will be compared to the answers you provided elsewhere during the application process. Try a Simulated, Interactive Polygraph Exam Some of the topics the questionnaire and polygraph may cover include: Personal history Negative information from other agencies (such as previously failing a polygraph) Employment background Criminal behavior Financial information Illegal drug use Alcohol use Illegal or deviant sexual behavior The online course Mastering the Polygraph, developed by Sgt. Godoy, will provide you with the tips and techniques you need to pass your polygraph honestly. (It does NOT teach you how to lie during a polygraph.) The course is mobile-friendly and provides unlimited use! Mastering the Polygraph will cover: – How the polygraph works – How the exam is conducted – Questions that may be asked during the polygraph – Bonus: an interactive, practice polygraph to help you prepare for the actual test! If you have a polygraph exam coming up, you may feel anxious about the questions your examiner has lined up for the test. Note that standard procedure requires polygraphers to conduct pre-test interviews before administering the polygraph exam. During the preliminary interviews, an experienced polygraph examiner will inform the examinees of the topic they'll be queried over. The polygrapher will also seek the defendant's unreserved consent, without which the entire test is null and void. But while it's important to know the polygraph topic you'll be queried over in advance, professional polygraphers won't disclose the exact questions to the examinees until the D-date. Fortunately, you can make an intelligent guess based on the topic at hand. Read below as we uncover frequently asked questions in various lie detector tests. Despite the theme topic, any lie detector test would involve a series of related questions. Moreover, it is prudent to note that all the questions will be reviewed with the examinee prior to the data collection phase. There would be no surprise questions asked during the test. The queries broadly fall into the following categories: Most polygraph exams begin with general questions. The idea is to make the defendant comfortable in the examination room and counter check specific facts gathered during the pre-test interviews. For instance, asking someone, "Is your alias "Bingo?" helps confirm their identity and credibility, particularly if they already shared this information. General questions may further be split into personal and professional. If a defendant is embroiled in a robbery case at their former workplace, an examiner may ask, "Do you work with Lindsay Printing Press." The question can help elicit a more genuine response than simply asking, "Were you involved in a robbery at Lindsay Company." This expression is a misnomer, as all polygraph questions should be topic-relevant. A more appropriate term would be case-related questions. Case-related questions target the core of the interview. They provide invaluable clues on whether the defendant had a direct involvement in the matter under investigation. After being asked a series of case-related queries, most polygraph examinees will naturally develop unease. That's where irrelevant questions come in. Irrelevant questions pose the least risks of self-incrimination. They allow the defendant to revert to their physiological baselines, helping to prevent false negatives. Control questions are employed to gauge varying levels of salience by asking questions related to the test issue but not exactly covering the test issue. Suppose the relevant question is "Did you shoot John Smith?" In that case, the control question would be "Are you the kind of person who would shoot John Smith?" Did you wilfully submit to being polygraphed? – Confirms the defendant's knowledge of and consent to the lie detector test. Is your nickname "Wrangler" – Confirms a piece of personal information previously disclosed. Are you at least 18 years of age? – The age of majority is a critical consideration before administering lie detector tests. Are you in Manhattan right now? – An important polygraph question rule that verifies the examinee understands their whereabouts and what's going on. Do you study at (SCHOOL NAME), or do you work at (COMPANY NAME)? On (ENTER DATE), did you shoot Martin Brown? – The most direct question concerns the defendant's involvement with the crime. Do you know who shot Martin Brown? – Uncovers if more people were involved in the crime. Were you 100% truthful on your job application – It helps uncover early evidence of deception. Have you ever been sacked from a job? – An affirmative answer could be an indictment of the examinee's efficiency or integrity. Are you seeking to join our company for other reasons besides genuine employment? – They could be spies for all you know. Have you deliberately lied about any questions I asked? – An intelligent way to double-check their responses. Have you engaged in any form of sexual activity or conversation with anyone besides your current spouse since your relationship started? Have you ever lied to someone about your current relationship status? Do you have a secret dating profile? During the past year, have you used any illegal or scheduled substances? Polygraph questions should be brief and framed. To formulate the best response, an examinee must understand each query outright. Besides, keep the questions topic-relevant. While slightly deviating from the principal issue is allowed (such as while asking control questions), sticking to the topic enhances the test's accuracy by sifting out irrelevant responses. In the same vein, only ask questions that require flat-out 'Yes' or No' answers. Make A Good First ImpressionYour examiner's subjective opinion about you may influence the outcome of your Polygraph/CVSA interrogation. Look your best. Make sure you're clean shaven and have a conservative haircut. Dress professionally, polish your shoes. If you're a woman, dress conservatively.Be friendly. Smile, but don't overdo it. Keep good eye contact with your examiner, but don't stare. Your examiner may interpret avoidance of eye contact as a sign of deception. Answer questions directly with confidence and without hesitation - but be natural.Don't Be LateIf you're late you'll instantly make a bad impression. Your examiner may think being late is a subconscious attempt to avoid the exam - increasing his suspicion of you even before he asks his first question. Pseudoscientific device that attempts to infer lying For other uses, see Polygraph (disambiguation). "Lie Detector" redirects here. For other uses, see Lie Detector (disambiguation). American inventor Leonarde Keeler testing his improved polygraph on Arthur Koehler, a former witness for the prosecution at the 1935 trial of Richard Hauptmann A polygraph, often incorrectly referred to as a lie detector test,[1][2][3] is a pseudoscientific[4][5][6] device or procedure that measures and records several physiological indicators such as blood pressure, pulse, respiration, and skin conductivity while a person is asked and answers a series of questions.[7] The belief underpinning the use of the polygraph is that deceptive answers will produce physiological responses that can be differentiated from those associated with non-deceptive answers; however, there are no specific physiological reactions associated with lying, making it difficult to identify factors that separate those who are lying from those who are telling the truth.[8] In some countries, polygraphs are used as an interrogation tool with criminal suspects or candidates for sensitive public or private sector employment. Some United States law enforcement and federal government agencies,[9][10] as well as many police departments, use polygraph examinations to interrogate suspects and screen new employees. Within the US federal government, a polygraph examination is also referred to as a psychophysiological detection of deception examination.[11] Assessments of polygraphy by scientific and government bodies generally suggest that polygraphs are highly inaccurate, may easily be defeated by countermeasures, and are an imperfect or invalid means of assessing truthfulness.[12][13][6][14] A comprehensive 2003 review by the National Academy of Sciences of existing research concluded that there was "little basis for the expectation that a polygraph test could have extremely high accuracy."[6] The American Psychological Association states that "most psychologists agree that there is little evidence that polygraph tests can accurately detect lies."[8] For this reason, the use of polygraphs to detect lies is considered a form of pseudoscience, or junk science.[15] See also: Lie detection § Questioning and testing techniques The examiner typically begins polygraph test sessions with a pre-test interview to gain some preliminary information which will later be used to develop diagnostic questions. Then the tester will explain how the polygraph is supposed to work, emphasizing that it can detect lies and that it is important to answer truthfully. Then a "stim test" is often conducted: the subject is asked to deliberately lie and then the tester reports that he was able to detect this lie. Guilty subjects are likely to become more anxious when they are reminded of the test's validity. However, there are risks of innocent subjects being equally or more anxious than the guilty.[16] Then the actual test starts. Some of the questions asked are "irrelevant" ("Is your name Fred?"), others are "diagnostic" questions, and the remainder are the "relevant questions" that the tester is really interested in. The different types of questions alternate. The test is passed if the physiological responses to the diagnostic questions are larger than those during the relevant questions.[17] Criticisms have been given regarding the validity of the administration of the Control Question Technique. The CQT may be vulnerable to being conducted in an interrogation-like fashion. This kind of interrogation style would elicit a nervous response from innocent and guilty suspects alike. There are several other ways of administering the questions.[18] An alternative is the Guilty Knowledge Test (GKT), or the Concealed Information Test, which is used in Japan.[19] The administration of this test is given to prevent potential errors that may arise from the questioning style. The test is usually conducted by a tester with no knowledge of the crime or circumstances in question. The administrator tests the participant on their knowledge of the crime that would not be known to an innocent person. For example: "Was the crime committed with a .45 or a 9 mm?" The questions are in multiple choice and the participant is rated on how they react to the correct answer. If they react strongly to the guilty information, then proponents of the test believe that it is likely that they know facts relevant to the case. This administration is considered more valid by supporters of the test because it contains many safeguards to avoid the risk of the administrator influencing the results.[20] Assessments of polygraphy by scientific and government bodies generally suggest that polygraphs are inaccurate, may be defeated by countermeasures, and are an imperfect or invalid means of assessing truthfulness.[6][12][13] Despite claims that polygraph tests are between 80% and 90% accurate by advocates,[21][22] the National Research Council has found no evidence of effectiveness.[13][23] In particular, studies have indicated that the relevant–irrelevant questioning technique is not ideal, as many innocent subjects exert a heightened physiological reaction to the crime-relevant questions.[24] The American Psychological Association states "Most psychologists agree that there is little evidence that polygraph tests can accurately detect lies."[8] In 2002, a review by the National Research Council found that, in populations "untrained in countermeasures, specific-incident polygraph tests can discriminate lying from truth telling at rates well above chance, though well below perfection". The review also warns against generalization from these findings to justify the use of polygraphs—"polygraph accuracy for screening purposes is almost certainly lower than what can be achieved by specific-incident polygraph tests in the field"—and notes some examinees may be able to take countermeasures to produce deceptive results.[25] In the 1998 US Supreme Court case United States v. Scheffer, the majority stated that "There is simply no consensus that polygraph evidence is reliable […] Unlike other expert witnesses who testify about factual matters outside the jurors' knowledge, such as the analysis of fingerprints, ballistics, or DNA found at a crime scene, a polygraph expert can supply the jury only with another opinion." The Supreme Court summarized their findings by stating that the use of polygraph was "little better than could be obtained by the toss of a coin."[26] In 2005, the 11th Circuit Court of Appeals stated that "polygraphy did not enjoy general acceptance from the scientific community".[27] In 2001, William Iacono, Professor of Psychology and Neuroscience at the University of Minnesota, concluded: Although the CQT [Control Question Test] may be useful as an investigative aid and tool to induce confessions, it does not pass muster as a scientifically credible test. CQT theory is based on naive, implausible assumptions indicating (a) that it is biased against innocent individuals and (b) that it can be beaten simply by artificially augmenting responses to control questions. Although it is not possible to adequately assess the error rate of the CQT, both of these conclusions are supported by published research findings in the best social science journals (Honts et al., 1994; Horvath, 1977; Kleinmuntz & Szucko, 1984; Patrick & Iacono, 1991). Although defense attorneys often attempt to have the results of friendly CQTs admitted as evidence in court, there is no evidence supporting their validity and ample reason to doubt it. Members of scientific organizations who have the requisite background to evaluate the CQT are overwhelmingly skeptical of the claims made by polygraph proponents.[28] Polygraphs measure arousal, which can be affected by anxiety, anxiety disorders such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), nervousness, fear, confusion, hypoglycemia, psychosis, depression, substance-induced states (nicotine, stimulants), substance-withdrawal state (alcohol withdrawal) or other emotions; polygraphs do not measure "lies".[16][29][30] A polygraph cannot differentiate anxiety caused by dishonesty and anxiety caused by something else.[31] Since the polygraph does not measure lying, the Silent Talker Lie Detector inventors expected that adding a camera to film microexpressions would improve the accuracy of the evaluators. This did not happen in practice according to an article in the Intercept.[32] In 1983, the US Congress Office of Technology Assessment published a review of the technology[33] and found that there is at present only limited scientific evidence for establishing the validity of polygraph testing. Even where the evidence seems to indicate that polygraph testing detects deceptive subjects better than chance, significant error rates are possible, and examiner and examinee differences and the use of countermeasures may further affect validity.[34] In 2003, the National Academy of Sciences (NAS) issued a report entitled "The Polygraph and Lie Detection". The NAS found that "overall, the evidence is scanty and scientifically weak", concluding that 57 of the approximately 80 research studies that the American Polygraph Association relied on to reach their conclusions were significantly flawed.[35] These studies did show that specific-incident polygraph testing, in a person untrained in counter-measures, could discern the truth at "a level greater than chance, yet short of perfection". However, due to several flaws, the levels of accuracy shown in these studies "are almost certainly higher than actual polygraph accuracy of specific-incident testing in the field".[36] By adding a camera, the Silent Talker Lie Detector attempted to give more data to the evaluator by providing information about microexpressions. However adding the Silent Talker camera did not improve lie detection and was very expensive and cumbersome to include according to an article in the Intercept.[37] When polygraphs are used as a screening tool (in national security matters and for law enforcement agencies for example) the level of accuracy drops to such a level that "Its accuracy in distinguishing actual or potential security violators from innocent test takers is insufficient to justify reliance on its use in employee security screening in federal agencies." The NAS concluded that the polygraph "may have some utility but that there is "little basis for the expectation that a polygraph test could have extremely high accuracy".[6] The NAS conclusions paralleled those of the earlier United States Congress Office of Technology Assessment report "Scientific Validity of Polygraph Testing: A Research Review and Evaluation".[38] Similarly, a report to Congress by the Moynihan Commission on Government Secrecy concluded that "The few Government-sponsored scientific research reports on polygraph validity (as opposed to its utility), especially those focusing on the screening of applicants for employment, indicate that the polygraph is neither scientifically valid nor especially effective beyond its ability to generate admissions".[39] Despite the NAS finding of a "high rate of false positives," failures to expose individuals such as Aldrich Ames and Larry Wu-Tai Chin, and other inabilities to show a scientific justification for the use of the polygraph, it continues to be employed.[37] Several proposed countermeasures designed to pass polygraph tests have been described. There are two major types of countermeasures: "general state" (intending to alter the physiological or psychological state of the subject during the test), and "specific point" (intending to alter the physiological or psychological state of the subject at specific periods during the examination, either to increase or decrease responses during critical examination periods).[29] General state: asked how he passed the polygraph test, Central Intelligence Agency officer turned KGB mole Aldrich Ames explained that he sought advice from his Soviet handler and received the simple instruction to: "Get a good night's sleep, and rest, and go into the test rested and relaxed. Be nice to the polygraph examiner, develop a rapport, and be cooperative and try to maintain your calm".[40] Additionally, Ames explained, "There's no special magic... Confidence is what does it. Confidence and a friendly relationship with the examiner… rapport, where you smile and you make him think that you like him".[41] Specific point: other suggestions for countermeasures include for the subject to mentally record the control and relevant questions as the examiner reviews them before the interrogation begins. During the interrogation the subject is supposed to carefully control their breathing while answering the relevant questions, and to try to artificially increase their heart rate during the control questions, for example by thinking of something scary or exciting, or by pricking themselves with a pointed object concealed somewhere on the body. In this way the results will not show a significant reaction to any of the relevant questions.[42] Law enforcement agencies and intelligence agencies in the United States are by far the biggest users of polygraph technology. In the United States alone most federal law enforcement agencies either employ their own polygraph examiners or use the services of examiners employed in other agencies.[43] In 1978 Richard Helms, the eighth Director of Central Intelligence, stated: We discovered there were some Eastern Europeans who could defeat the polygraph at any time. Americans are not very good at it, because we are raised to tell the truth and when we lie it is easy to tell we are lying. But we find a lot of Europeans and Asiatics can handle that polygraph without a blip, and you know they are lying and you have evidence that they are lying.[44] Susan McCarthy of Salon said in 2000 that "The polygraph is an American phenomenon, with limited use in a few countries, such as Canada, Israel and Japan."[45] In Armenia, government administered polygraphs are legal, at least for use in national security investigations. The National Security Service (NSS), Armenia's primary intelligence service, requires polygraph examinations of all new applicants.[46] Polygraph evidence became inadmissible in New South Wales courts under the Lie Detectors Act 1983. Under the same act, it is also illegal to use polygraphs for the purpose of granting employment, insurance, financial accommodation, and several other purposes for which polygraphs may be used in other jurisdictions.[47] In Canada, the 1987 decision of R v Béland, the Supreme Court of Canada rejected the use of polygraph results as evidence in court, finding that they were inadmissible. The polygraph is still used as a tool in the investigation of criminal acts and sometimes employed in the screening of employees for government organizations.[48] In the province of Ontario, the Employment Standards Act, 2000 prohibits employers from asking or requiring employees to undergo a polygraph test.[49][50] Police services are permitted use polygraph tests as part of an investigation if the person consents.[51] In a majority of European jurisdictions, polygraphs are generally considered to be unreliable for gathering evidence, and are usually not used by local law enforcement agencies. Polygraph testing is widely seen in Europe to violate the right to remain silent.[52]:62ff In England and Wales a polygraph test can be taken, but the results cannot be used in a court of law to prove a case.[53] However, the Offender Management Act 2007 put in place an option to use polygraph tests to monitor serious sex offenders on parole in England and Wales;[54] these tests became compulsory in 2014 for high risk sexual offenders currently on parole in England and Wales.[55] The Supreme Court of Poland declared on January 29, 2015, that the use of polygraph in interrogation of suspects is forbidden by the Polish Code of Criminal Procedure. Its use might be allowed though if the suspect has been already accused of a crime and if the interrogated person consents of the use of a polygraph. Even then, the use of polygraph can never be used as a substitute of actual evidence.[56] As of 2017, the justice ministry and Supreme Court of both of the Netherlands and Germany had rejected use of polygraphs.[52]:62ff[57] According to the 2017 book Psychology and Law: Bridging the Gap by psychologists David Canter and Rita Žukauskienė Belgium was the European country with the most prevalent use of polygraph testing by police, with about 300 polygraphs carried out each year in the course of police investigations. The results are not considered viable evidence in bench trials, but have been used in jury trials.[52]:62ff In Lithuania, "polygraphs have been in use since 1992",[58] with law enforcement utilizing the Event Knowledge Test (a "modification"[59] of the Concealed Information Test) in criminal investigations. In 2008, an Indian court adopted the Brain Electrical Oscillation Signature Profiling test as evidence to convict a woman who was accused of murdering her fiancé.[60] It was the first time that the result of polygraph was used as evidence in court.[61] On May 5, 2010, The Supreme Court of India declared use of narcoanalysis, brain mapping and polygraph tests on suspects as illegal and against the constitution if consent is not obtained and forced.[62] Article 20(3) of the Indian Constitution states: "No person accused of any offence shall be compelled to be a witness against himself."[63] Polygraph tests are still legal if the defendant requests one.[64] The Supreme Court of Israel, in Civil Appeal 551/89 (Menora Insurance v. Jacob Sdovnik), ruled that the polygraph has not been recognized as a reliable device. In other decisions, polygraph results were ruled inadmissible in criminal trials. Polygraph results are only admissible in civil trials if the person being tested agrees to it in advance.[65] The results of polygraph tests are inadmissible in court in the Philippines.[66][67] The National Bureau of Investigation, however, uses polygraphs in aid of investigation.[68] Brochure of the Defense Security Service (DSS) about polygraph testing Demonstrating the administration of the polygraph, the polygrapher making notes on the readouts. 1970s "The Truth About the Polygraph" (National Security Agency (NSA)-produced video on the polygraph process) In 2018, Wired magazine reported that an estimated 2.5 million polygraph tests were given each year in the United States, with the majority administered to paramedics, police officers, firefighters, and state troopers. The average cost to administer the test is more than $700 and is part of a $2 billion industry.[69] In 2007[update], polygraph testimony was admitted by stipulation in 19 states, and was subject to the discretion of the trial judge in federal court. The use of polygraph in court testimony remains controversial, although it is used extensively in post-conviction supervision, particularly of sex offenders. In Daubert v. Merrell Dow Pharmaceuticals, Inc. (1993),[70] the old Frye standard was lifted and all forensic evidence, including polygraph, had to meet the new Daubert standard in which "underlying reasoning or methodology is scientifically valid and properly can be applied to the facts at issue." While polygraph tests are commonly used in police investigations in the US, no defendant or witness can be forced to undergo the test unless they are under the supervision of the courts.[71] In United States v. Scheffer (1998),[72] the US Supreme Court left it up to individual jurisdictions whether polygraph results could be admitted as evidence in court cases. Nevertheless, it is used extensively by prosecutors, defense attorneys, and law enforcement agencies. In the states of Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Maryland, New Jersey, Oregon, Delaware and Iowa it is illegal for any employer to order a polygraph either as conditions to gain employment, or if an employee has been suspected of wrongdoing.[73][74] The Employee Polygraph Protection Act of 1988 (EPPA) generally prevents employers from using lie detector tests, either for pre-employment screening or during the course of employment, with certain exemptions.[75] As of 2013, about 70,000 job applicants are polygraphed by the federal government on an annual basis.[76] In the United States, the State of New Mexico admits polygraph testing in front of juries under certain circumstances.[77] In 2010 the NSA produced a video explaining its polygraph process.[78] The video, ten minutes long, is titled "The Truth About the Polygraph" and was posted to the website of the Defense Security Service. Jeff Stein of The Washington Post said that the video portrays "various applicants, or actors playing them—it's not clear—describing everything bad they had heard about the test, the implication being that none of it is true."[79] AntiPolygraph.org argues that the NSA-produced video omits some information about the polygraph process; it produced a video responding to the NSA video.[78] George Maschke, the founder of the website, accused the NSA polygraph video of being "Orwellian".[79] The polygraph was invented in 1921 by John Augustus Larson, a medical student at the University of California, Berkeley and a police officer of the Berkeley Police Department in Berkeley, California.[80] The polygraph was on the Encyclopædia Britannica 2003 list of greatest inventions, described as inventions that "have had profound effects on human life for better or worse."[81] In 2013, the US federal government had begun indicting individuals who stated that they were teaching methods on how to defeat a polygraph test.[76][82][83] During one of those investigations, upwards of 30 federal agencies were involved in investigations of almost 5000 people who had various degrees of contact with those being prosecuted or who had purchased books or DVDs on the topic of beating polygraph tests.[84][85][86] In 1995, Harold James Nicholson, a Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) employee later convicted of spying for Russia, had undergone his periodic five-year reinvestigation, in which he showed a strong probability of deception on questions regarding relationships with a foreign intelligence unit. This polygraph test later led to an investigation which resulted in his eventual arrest and conviction. In most cases, however, polygraphs are more of a tool to "scare straight" those who would consider espionage. Jonathan Pollard was advised by his Israeli handlers that he was to resign his job from American intelligence if he was ever told he was subject to a polygraph test.[citation needed] Likewise, John Anthony Walker was advised by his handlers not to engage in espionage until he had been promoted to the highest position for which a polygraph test was not required, to refuse promotion to higher positions for which polygraph tests were required, and to retire when promotion was mandated.[6] In 1983, CIA employee Edward Lee Howard was dismissed when, during a polygraph screening, he truthfully answered a series of questions admitting to minor crimes such as petty theft and drug abuse. In retaliation for his perceived unjust punishment for minor offenses, he later sold his knowledge of CIA operations to the Soviet Union.[87] Polygraph tests may not deter espionage. From 1945 to the present, at least six Americans have committed espionage while successfully passing polygraph tests. Notable cases of two men who created a false negative result with the polygraphs were Larry Wu-Tai Chin, who spied for China, and Aldrich Ames, who was given two polygraph examinations while with the CIA, the first in 1986 and the second in 1991, while spying for the Soviet Union/Russia. The CIA reported that he passed both examinations after experiencing initial indications of deception.[88] According to a Senate investigation, an FBI review of the first examination concluded that the indications of deception were never resolved.[89] Ana Belen Montes, a Cuban spy, passed a counterintelligence scope polygraph test administered by the US Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA) in 1994.[90] Despite these errors, in August 2008, the DIA announced that it would subject each of its 5,700 prospective and current employees to polygraph testing at least once annually.[91] This expansion of polygraph screening at DIA occurred while DIA polygraph managers ignored documented technical problems discovered in the Lafayette computerized polygraph system.[92] The DIA uses computerized Lafayette polygraph systems for routine counterintelligence testing. The impact of the technical flaws within the Lafayette system on the analysis of recorded physiology and on the final polygraph test evaluation is currently unknown.[93] In 2012, a McClatchy investigation found that the National Reconnaissance Office was possibly breaching ethical and legal boundaries by encouraging its polygraph examiners to extract personal and private information from US Department of Defense personnel during polygraph tests that purported to be limited in scope to counterintelligence matters.[94] Allegations of abusive polygraph practices were brought forward by former NRO polygraph examiners.[95] Most polygraph researchers have focused more on the exam's predictive value on a subject's guilt. However, there have been no empirical theories established to explain how a polygraph measures deception. A 2010 study indicated that functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) may benefit in explaining the psychological correlations of polygraph exams. It could also explain which parts of the brain are active when subjects use artificial memories.[clarification needed][96] Most brain activity occurs in both sides of the prefrontal cortex, which is linked to response inhibition. This indicates that deception may involve inhibition of truthful responses.[97] Some researchers believe that reaction time (RT) based tests may replace polygraphs in concealed information detection. RT based tests differ from polygraphs in stimulus presentation duration and can be conducted without physiological recording as subject response time is measured via computer. However, researchers have found limitations to these tests as subjects voluntarily control their reaction time, deception can still occur within the response deadline, and the test itself lacks physiological recording.[98] Earlier societies utilized elaborate methods of lie detection which mainly involved torture. For instance, in the Middle Ages, boiling water was used to detect liars, as it was believed honest men would withstand it better than liars.[99] Early devices for lie detection include an 1895 invention of Cesare Lombroso used to measure changes in blood pressure for police cases, a 1904 device by Vittorio Benussi used to measure breathing, the Mackenzie-Lewis Polygraph first developed by James Mackenzie in 1906 and an abandoned project by American William Moulton Marston which used blood pressure to examine German prisoners of war (POWs).[100] Marston said he found a strong positive correlation between systolic blood pressure and lying.[16] Marston wrote a second paper on the concept in 1915, when finishing his undergraduate studies. He entered Harvard Law School and graduated in 1918, re-publishing his earlier work in 1917.[101] Marston's main inspiration for the device was his wife, Elizabeth Holloway Marston.[99] "According to Marston's son, it was his mother Elizabeth, Marston's wife, who suggested to him that 'When she got mad or excited, her blood pressure seemed to climb'" (Lamb, 2001). Although Elizabeth is not listed as Marston's collaborator in his early work, Lamb, Matte (1996), and others refer directly and indirectly to Elizabeth's work on her husband's deception research. She also appears in a picture taken in his polygraph laboratory in the 1920s (reproduced in Marston, 1938).[102] Despite his predecessors' contributions, Marston styled himself the "father of the polygraph". (Today he is often equally or more noted as the creator of the comic book character Wonder Woman and her Lasso of Truth, which can force people to tell the truth.)[103] Marston remained the device's primary advocate, lobbying for its use in the courts. In 1938 he published a book, The Lie Detector Test, wherein he documented the theory and use of the device.[104] In 1938 he appeared in advertising by the Gillette company claiming that the polygraph showed Gillette razors were better than the competition.[105][106][107] A device recording both blood pressure and breathing was invented in 1921 by John Augustus Larson of the University of California and first applied in law enforcement work by the Berkeley Police Department under its nationally renowned police chief August Vollmer.[108] Further work on this device was done by Leonarde Keeler.[109] As Larson's protege, Keeler updated the device by making it portable and added the galvanic skin response to it in 1939. His device was then purchased by the FBI, and served as the prototype of the modern polygraph.[99][108] Several devices similar to Keeler's polygraph version included the Berkeley Psychograph, a blood pressure-pulse-respiration recorder developed by C. D. Lee in 1936[110] and the Darrow Behavior Research Photopolygraph, which was developed and intended solely for behavior research experiments.[110][111][112] A device which recorded muscular activity accompanying changes in blood pressure was developed in 1945 by John E. Reid, who claimed that greater accuracy could be obtained by making these recordings simultaneously with standard blood pressure-pulse-respiration recordings.[110][113] Lie detection has a long history in mythology and fairy tales; the polygraph has allowed modern fiction to use a device more easily seen as scientific and plausible. Notable instances of polygraph usage include uses in crime and espionage themed television shows and some daytime television talk shows, cartoons and films. Numerous TV shows have been called Lie Detector or featured the device. The first Lie Detector TV show aired in the 1950s, created and hosted by Ralph Andrews. In the 1960s Andrews produced a series of specials hosted by Melvin Belli. In the 1970s the show was hosted by Jack Anderson. In early 1983 Columbia Pictures Television put on a syndicated series hosted by F. Lee Bailey.[114] In 1998 TV producer Mark Phillips with his Mark Phillips Philms & Telephision put Lie Detector back on the air on the FOX Network—on that program Ed Gelb with host Marcia Clark questioned Mark Fuhrman about the allegation that he "planted the bloody glove". In 2005 Phillips produced Lie Detector as a series for PAX/ION; some of the guests included Paula Jones, Reverend Paul Crouch accuser Lonny Ford, Ben Rowling, Jeff Gannon and Swift Boat Vet, Steve Garner.[115] In the UK, shows such as The Jeremy Kyle Show used polygraph tests extensively. The show was ultimately canceled when a participant committed suicide shortly after being polygraphed. The guest was slated by Kyle on the show for failing the polygraph, but no other evidence has come forward to prove any guilt. Producers later admitted in the inquiry that they were unsure on how accurate the tests performed were.[116] In the Fox game show The Moment of Truth, contestants are privately asked personal questions a few days before the show while hooked to a polygraph. On the show they asked the same questions in front of a studio audience and members of their family. In order to advance in the game they must give a "truthful" answer as determined by the previous polygraph exam.[117] Daytime talk shows, such as Maury Povich and Steve Wilkos, have used polygraphs to supposedly detect deception in interview subjects on their programs that pertain to cheating, child abuse, and theft.[118] In episode 93 of the US science show MythBusters, the hosts attempted to fool the polygraph by using pain when answering truthfully, in order to test the notion that polygraphs interpret truthful and non-truthful answers as the same. They also attempted to fool the polygraph by thinking pleasant thoughts when lying and thinking stressful thoughts when telling the truth, to try to confuse the machine. However, neither technique was successful for a number of reasons. Michael Martin correctly identified each guilty and innocent subject. Martin suggested that when conducted properly, polygraphs are correct 98% of the time, but no scientific evidence has been offered for this.[119] The history of the polygraph is the subject of the documentary film The Lie Detector, which first aired on American Experience on January 3, 2023.[120] A hand-held lie detector is being deployed by the US Department of Defense according to a report in 2008 by investigative reporter Bill Dedman of NBC News. The Preliminary Credibility Assessment Screening System, or PCASS, captures less physiological information than a polygraph, and uses an algorithm, not the judgment of a polygraph examiner, to render a decision whether it believes the person is being deceptive or not. The device was first used in Afghanistan by US Army troops. The Department of Defense ordered its use be limited to non-US persons, in overseas locations only.[121] Polygraphy has been faulted for failing to trap known spies such as double-agent Aldrich Ames, who passed two polygraph tests while spying for the Soviet Union.[91][122] Ames failed several tests while at the CIA that were never acted on.[123] Other spies who passed the polygraph include Karl Koecher,[124] Ana Montes,[125] and Leandro Aragoncillo.[126] CIA spy Harold James Nicholson failed his polygraph examinations, which aroused suspicions that led to his eventual arrest.[127] Polygraph examination and background checks failed to detect Nada Nadim Prouty, who was not a spy but was convicted for improperly obtaining US citizenship and using it to obtain a restricted position at the FBI.[128] The polygraph also failed to catch Gary Ridgway, the "Green River Killer". Another suspect allegedly failed a given lie detector test, whereas Ridgway passed.[16] Ridgway passed a polygraph in 1984; he confessed almost 20 years later when confronted with DNA evidence.[129] Conversely, innocent people have been known to fail polygraph tests. In Wichita, Kansas in 1986, Bill Wegerle was suspected of murdering his wife Vicki Wegerle because he failed two polygraph tests (one administered by the police, the other conducted by an expert that Wegerle had hired), although he was neither arrested nor convicted of her death. In March 2004, evidence surfaced connecting her death to the serial killer known as BTK, and in 2005 DNA evidence from the Wegerle murder confirmed that BTK was Dennis Rader, exonerating Wegerle.[130] Prolonged polygraph examinations are sometimes used as a tool by which confessions are extracted from a defendant, as in the case of Richard Miller, who was persuaded to confess largely by polygraph results combined with appeals from a religious leader.[131] In the Watts family murders, Christopher Watts failed one such polygraph test and subsequently confessed to murdering his wife.[132] In the 2002 disappearance of seven-year-old Danielle van Dam of San Diego, police suspected neighbor David Westerfield; he became the prime suspect when he allegedly failed a polygraph test.[133] United States portal Bogus pipeline Cleve Backster Doug Williams (polygraph critic) Ecological fallacy Ronald Pelton Voice stress analysis P300 (neuroscience)#Applications ^ "lie detector test". 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data processing and edge computing. 5G networks also extend beyond terrestrial infrastructure, incorporating non-terrestrial networks (NTN) such as satellites and high-altitude platforms, to provide global coverage, including remote and underserved areas. 5G deployment faces challenges such as significant infrastructure investment, spectrum allocation, security risks, and concerns about energy efficiency and environmental impact associated with the use of higher frequency bands. However, it is expected to drive advancements in sectors like healthcare, transportation, and entertainment. Mobile base station at Hatta city, UAE 5G networks are cellular networks,[5] in which the service area is divided into small geographical areas called cells. All 5G wireless devices in a cell communicate by radio waves with a cellular base station via fixed antennas, over frequencies assigned by the base station. The base stations, termed nodes, are connected to switching centers in the telephone network and routers for Internet access by high-bandwidth optical fiber or wireless backhaul connections. As in other cellular networks, a mobile device moving from one cell to another is automatically handed off seamlessly. The industry consortium setting standards for 5G, the 3rd Generation Partnership Project (3GPP), defines "5G" as any system using 5G NR (5G New Radio) software—a definition that came into general use by late 2018. 5G continues to use OFDM encoding. Several network operators use millimeter waves or mmWave called FR2 in 5G terminology, for additional capacity and higher throughputs. Millimeter waves have a shorter range than the lower frequency microwaves, therefore the cells are of a smaller size. Millimeter waves also have more trouble passing through building walls and humans. Millimeter-wave antennas are smaller than the large antennas used in previous cellular networks. The increased data rate is achieved partly by using additional higher-frequency radio waves in addition to the low- and medium-band frequencies used in previous cellular networks. For providing a wide range of services, 5G networks can operate in three frequency bands—low, medium or high. 5G can be implemented in low-band, mid-band or high-band millimeter-wave. Low-band 5G uses a similar frequency range to 4G smartphones, 600–900 MHz, which can potentially offer higher download speeds than 4G: 5–250 megabits per second (Mbit/s).[6][7] Low-band cell towers have a range and coverage area similar to 4G towers. Mid-band 5G uses microwaves of 1.7–4.7 GHz, allowing speeds of 100–900 Mbit/s, with each cell tower providing service up to several kilometers in radius. This level of service is the most widely deployed, and was deployed in many metropolitan areas in 2020. Some regions are not implementing the low band, making Mid-band the minimum service level. High-band 5G uses frequencies of 24–47 GHz, near the bottom of the millimeter wave band, although higher frequencies may be used in the future. It often achieves download speeds in the gigabit-per-second (Gbit/s) range, comparable to co-axial cable Internet service. However, millimeter waves (mmWave or mmW) have a more limited range, requiring many small cells.[8] They can be impeded or blocked by materials in walls or windows or pedestrians.[9][10] Due to their higher cost, plans are to deploy these cells only in dense urban environments and areas where crowds of people congregate such as sports stadiums and convention centers. The above speeds are those achieved in actual tests in 2020, and speeds are expected to increase during rollout.[6] The spectrum ranging from 24.25 to 29.5 GHz has been the most licensed and deployed 5G mmWave spectrum range in the world.[11] Rollout of 5G technology has led to debate over its security and relationship with Chinese vendors. It has also been the subject of health concerns and misinformation, including discredited conspiracy theories linking it to the COVID-19 pandemic. The ITU-R has defined three main application areas for the enhanced capabilities of 5G. They are Enhanced Mobile Broadband (eMBB), Ultra Reliable Low Latency Communications (URLLC), and Massive Machine Type Communications (mMTC).[12] Only eMBB is deployed in 2020; URLLC and mMTC are several years away in most locations.[13] Enhanced Mobile Broadband (eMBB) uses 5G as a progression from 4G LTE mobile broadband services, with faster connections, higher throughput, and more capacity. This will benefit areas of higher traffic such as stadiums, cities, and concert venues.[14] 'Ultra-Reliable Low-Latency Communications' (URLLC) refers to using the network for mission-critical applications that require uninterrupted and robust data exchange. Short-packet data transmission is used to meet both reliability and latency requirements of the wireless communication networks. Massive Machine-Type Communications (mMTC) would be used to connect to a large number of devices. 5G technology will connect some of the 50 billion connected IoT devices.[15] Most will use the less expensive Wi-Fi. Drones, transmitting via 4G or 5G, will aid in disaster recovery efforts, providing real-time data for emergency responders.[15] Most cars will have a 4G or 5G cellular connection for many services. Autonomous cars do not require 5G, as they have to be able to operate where they do not have a network connection.[16] However, most autonomous vehicles also feature tele-operations for mission accomplishment, and these greatly benefit from 5G technology.[17][18] The 5G Automotive Association has been promoting the C-V2X communication technology that will first be deployed in 4G. It provides for communication between vehicles and infrastructures.[19] A real time digital twin of the real object such as a turbine engine, aircraft, wind turbines, offshore platform and pipelines. 5G networks helps in building it due to the latency and throughput to capture near real-time IoT data and support digital twins. Mission-critical push-to-talk (MCPTT) and mission-critical video and data are expected to be furthered in 5G.[20] Fixed wireless connections will offer an alternative to fixed-line broadband (ADSL, VDSL, fiber optic, and DOCSIS connections) in some locations. Utilizing 5G technology, fixed wireless access (FWA) can deliver high-speed internet to homes and businesses without the need for extensive physical infrastructure. This approach is particularly beneficial in rural or underserved areas where traditional broadband deployment is too expensive or logistically challenging. 5G FWA can outperform older fixed-line technologies such as ADSL and VDSL in terms of speed and latency, making it suitable for bandwidth-intensive applications like streaming, gaming, and remote work.[21][22][23] Sony has tested the possibility of using local 5G networks to replace the SDI cables currently used in broadcast camcorders.[24] The 5G Broadcast tests started around 2020 (Orkney, Bavaria, Austria, Central Bohemia) based on FeMBMS (Further evolved multimedia broadcast multicast service).[25] The aim is to serve unlimited number of mobile or fixed devices with video (TV) and audio (radio) streams without these consuming any data flow or even being authenticated in a network. Main article: Voice over NR 5G networks, like 4G networks, do not natively support voice calls traditionally carried over circuit-switched technology. Instead, voice communication is transmitted over the IP network, similar to IPTV services. To address this, Voice over NR (VoNR) is implemented, allowing voice calls to be carried over the 5G network using the same packet-switched infrastructure as other IP-based services, such as video streaming and messaging. Similarly to how Voice over LTE (VoLTE) enables voice calls on 4G networks, VoNR (Vo5G) serves as the 5G equivalent for voice communication, but it requires a 5G standalone (SA) network to function.[26] This article possibly contains unsourced predictions, speculative material, or accounts of events that might not occur. Information must be verifiable and based on reliable published sources. Please help improve it by removing unsourced speculative content. (January 2022) (Learn how and when to remove this message) 5G is capable of delivering significantly faster data rates than 4G (5G is approximately 10 times faster than 4G),[27][28] with peak data rates of up to 20 gigabits per second (Gbps).[29] Furthermore, average 5G download speeds have been recorded at 186.3 Mbit/s in the U.S. by T-Mobile,[30] while South Korea, as of May 2022[update], leads globally with average speeds of 432 megabits per second (Mbps).[31][32] 5G networks are also designed to provide significantly more capacity than 4G networks, with a projected 100-fold increase in network capacity and efficiency.[33] The most widely used form of 5G, sub-6 GHz 5G (mid-band), is capable of delivering data rates ranging from 10 to 1,000 megabits per second (Mbps), with a much greater reach than mm Wave bands. C-Band (n77/n78) was deployed by various U.S. operators in 2022 in the sub-6 bands, although its deployment by Verizon and AT&T was delayed until early January 2022 due to safety concerns raised by the Federal Aviation Administration. The record for 5G speed in a deployed network is 5.9 Gbit/s as of 2023, but this was tested before the network was launched.[34] Low-band frequencies (such as n5) offer a greater coverage area for a given cell, but their data rates are lower than those of mid and high bands in the range of 5–250 megabits per second (Mbps).[7] In 5G, the ideal "air latency" is of the order of 8 to 12 milliseconds i.e., excluding delays due to HARQ retransmissions, handovers, etc. Retransmission latency and backhaul latency to the server must be added to the "air latency" for correct comparisons. Verizon reported the latency on its 5G early deployment is 30 ms.[35] Edge Servers close to the towers have the possibility to reduce round-trip time (RTT) latency to 14 milliseconds and the minimum jitter to 1.84 milliseconds.[36] Latency is much higher during handovers; ranging from 50 to 500 milliseconds depending on the type of handover[citation needed]. Reducing handover interruption time is an ongoing area of research and development; options include modifying the handover margin (offset) and the time-to-trigger (TTT). 5G uses an adaptive modulation and coding scheme (MCS) to keep the block error rate (BLER) extremely low. Whenever the error rate crosses a (very low) threshold the transmitter will switch to a lower MCS, which will be less error-prone. This way speed is sacrificed to ensure an almost zero error rate. The range of 5G depends on many factors: transmit power, frequency, and interference. For example, mmWave (e.g.: band n258) will have a lower range than mid-band (e.g.: band n78) which will have a lower range than low-band (e.g.: band n5) Given the marketing hype on what 5G can offer, simulators and drive tests are used by cellular service providers for the precise measurement of 5G performance. Initially, the term was associated with the International Telecommunication Union's IMT-2020 standard, which required a theoretical peak download speed of 20 gigabits per second and 10 gigabits per second upload speed, along with other requirements.[29] Then, the industry standards group 3GPP chose the 5G NR (New Radio) standard together with LTE as their proposal for submission to the IMT-2020 standard.[37][38] 5G NR can include lower frequencies (FR1), below 6 GHz, and higher frequencies (FR2), above 24 GHz.[39] However, the speed and latency in early FR1 deployments, using 5G NR software on 4G hardware (non-standalone), are only slightly better than new 4G systems, estimated at 15 to 50% better.[40][41] The standard documents are organized by 3rd Generation Partnership Project (3GPP),[42][43] with its system architecture defined in TS 23.501.[44] The packet protocol for mobility management (establishing connection and moving between base stations) and session management (connecting to networks and network slices) is described in TS 24.501.[45] Specifications of key data structures are found in TS 23.003.[46] DECT NR+ is a related, non-cellular standard of 5G based on DECT-2020 specifications based on a mesh network.[47][48] Further information: Fronthaul and Common Public Radio Interface IEEE covers several areas of 5G with a core focus on wireline sections between the Remote Radio Head (RRH) and Base Band Unit (BBU). The 1914.1 standards focus on network architecture and dividing the connection between the RRU and BBU into two key sections. Radio Unit (RU) to the Distributor Unit (DU) being the NGFI-I (Next Generation Fronthaul Interface) and the DU to the Central Unit (CU) being the NGFI-II interface allowing a more diverse and cost-effective network. NGFI-I and NGFI-II have defined performance values which should be compiled to ensure different traffic types defined by the ITU are capable of being carried.[page needed] The IEEE 1914.3 standard is creating a new Ethernet frame format capable of carrying IQ data in a much more efficient way depending on the functional split utilized. This is based on the 3GPP definition of functional splits.[page needed] Main article: 5G NR 5G NR (5G New Radio) is the de facto air interface developed for 5G networks.[49] It is the global standard for 3GPP 5G networks.[50] The study of 5G NR within 3GPP started in 2015, and the first specification was made available by the end of 2017. While the 3GPP standardization process was ongoing, the industry had already begun efforts to implement infrastructure compliant with the draft standard, with the first large-scale commercial launch of 5G NR having occurred at the end of 2018. Since 2019, many operators have deployed 5G NR networks and handset manufacturers have developed 5G NR enabled handsets.[51] 5Gi is an alternative 5G variant developed in India. It was developed in a joint collaboration between IIT Madras, IIT Hyderabad, TSDSI, and the Centre of Excellence in Wireless Technology (CEWiT) [citation needed]. 5Gi is designed to improve 5G coverage in rural and remote areas over varying geographical terrains. 5Gi uses Low Mobility Large Cell (LMLC) to extend 5G connectivity and the range of a base station.[52] In April 2022, 5Gi was merged with the global 5G NR standard in the 3GPP Release 17 specifications.[53] 5G TF: American carrier Verizon used a pre-standard variation of 5G known as 5G TF (Verizon 5G Technical Forum) for Fixed Wireless Access in 2018. The 5G service provided to customers in this standard is incompatible with 5G NR. Verizon has since migrated to 5G NR.[54] 5G-SIG: KT Corporation had a pre-standard variation of 5G developed called 5G-SIG. This was deployed at the Pyeongchang 2018 Winter Olympics.[55] In the Internet of things (IoT), 3GPP is going to submit the evolution of NB-IoT and eMTC (LTE-M) as 5G technologies for the LPWA (Low Power Wide Area) use case.[56] Standards are being developed by 3GPP to provide access to end devices via non-terrestrial networks (NTN), i.e. satellite or airborne telecommunication equipment to allow for better coverage outside of populated or otherwise hard to reach locations.[57][58] The enhanced communication quality relies on the unique properties of Air to Ground channel. Several manufacturers have announced and released hardware that integrates 5G with satellite networks: Samsung Electronics introduced a standardized 5G NTN modem technology in Korea in February 2023,[59] simulated on their Exynos Modem 5300, facilitating smartphone-satellite communication. MediaTek launched the world's first commercially available 5G IoT-NTN chipset, MT6825, capable of automatic satellite message receipt and extensive power efficiency.[60][61] Qualcomm, in collaboration with Skylo, announced new satellite IoT solutions on June 22, 2023, including the Qualcomm 212S and 9205S modems, supporting the Qualcomm Aware platform for real-time asset tracking and device management.[62] Motorola's Defy Satellite Link hotspot, powered by MediaTek's MT6825, became available in June 2023, providing a portable satellite messaging solution with robust battery life and built-in GPS.[63][64] Rakuten Symphony, in collaboration with Supermicro, announced high-performing Open RAN technologies and storage systems for operators of cloud-based mobile services.[65] 5G-Advanced (also known as 5.5G or 5G-A) is an evolutionary upgrade to 5G technology, defined under the 3GPP Release 18 standard. It serves as a transitional phase between 5G and future 6G networks, focusing on performance optimization, enhanced spectral efficiency, energy efficiency, and expanded functionality. This technology supports advanced applications such as extended reality (XR), massive machine-type communication (mMTC), and ultra-low latency for critical services, such as autonomous vehicles.[66][67][68] 5G-Advanced would offer a theoretical 10 Gbps downlink, 1 Gbps uplink, 100 billion device connections and lower latency.[69] Additionally, 5G-Advanced integrates artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) to optimize network operations, enabling smarter resource allocation and predictive maintenance. It also enhances network slicing, allowing highly customized virtual networks for specific use cases such as industrial automation, smart cities, and critical communication systems. 5G-Advanced aims to minimize service interruption times during handovers to nearly zero, ensuring robust connectivity for devices in motion, such as high-speed trains and autonomous vehicles. To further support emerging IoT applications, 5G-Advanced expands the capabilities of RedCap (Reduced Capability) devices, enabling their efficient use in scenarios that require low complexity and power consumption.[70][71] Furthermore, 5G-Advanced introduces advanced time synchronization methods independent of GNSS, providing more precise timing for critical applications. For the first time in the development of mobile network standards defined by 3GPP, it offers fully independent geolocation capabilities, allowing position determination without relying on satellite systems such as GPS. The standard includes extended support for non-terrestrial networks (NTN), enabling communication via satellites and unmanned aerial vehicles, which facilitates connectivity in remote or hard-to-reach areas.[72] In December 2023, Finnish operator DNA demonstrated 10 Gbps speeds on its network using 5G-Advanced technology.[73][74] The Release 18 specifications were finalized by mid-2024.[75][76] On February 27, 2025, Elisa announced its deployment of the first 5G-Advanced network in Finland.[77] In March 2025, China Mobile started deployment of 5G-Advanced network in Hangzhou.[78] See also: List of 5G NR networks 5G 3.5 GHz cell site of Deutsche Telekom in Darmstadt, Germany 5G 3.5 GHz cell site of Vodafone in Karlsruhe, Germany Beyond mobile operator networks, 5G is also expected to be used for private networks with applications in industrial IoT, enterprise networking, and critical communications, in what being described as NR-U (5G NR in Unlicensed Spectrum)[79] and Non-Public Networks (NPNs) operating in licensed spectrum. By the mid-to-late 2020s, standalone private 5G networks are expected to become the predominant wireless communications medium to support the ongoing Industry 4.0 revolution for the digitization and automation of manufacturing and process industries.[80] 5G was expected to increase phone sales.[81] Initial 5G NR launches depended on pairing with existing LTE (4G) infrastructure in non-standalone (NSA) mode (5G NR radio with 4G core), before maturation of the standalone (SA) mode with the 5G core network.[82] As of April 2019, the Global Mobile Suppliers Association had identified 224 operators in 88 countries that have demonstrated, are testing or trialing, or have been licensed to conduct field trials of 5G technologies, are deploying 5G networks or have announced service launches.[83] The equivalent numbers in November 2018 were 192 operators in 81 countries.[84] The first country to adopt 5G on a large scale was South Korea, in April 2019. Swedish telecoms giant Ericsson predicted that 5G Internet will cover up to 65% of the world's population by the end of 2025.[85] Also, it plans to invest 1 billion reals ($238.30 million) in Brazil to add a new assembly line dedicated to fifth-generation technology (5G) for its Latin American operations.[86] When South Korea launched its 5G network, all carriers used Samsung, Ericsson, and Nokia base stations and equipment, except for LG U Plus, who also used Huawei equipment.[87][88] Samsung was the largest supplier for 5G base stations in South Korea at launch, having shipped 53,000 base stations at the time, out of 86,000 base stations installed across the country at the time.[89] The first fairly substantial deployments were in April 2019. In South Korea, SK Telecom claimed 38,000 base stations, KT Corporation 30,000 and LG U Plus 18,000; of which 85% are in six major cities.[90] They are using 3.5 GHz (sub-6) spectrum in non-standalone (NSA) mode and tested speeds were from 193 to 430 Mbit/s down.[91] 260,000 signed up in the first month and 4.7 million by the end of 2019.[92] T-Mobile US was the first company in the world to launch a commercially available 5G NR Standalone network.[93] Nine companies sell 5G radio hardware and 5G systems for carriers: Altiostar, Cisco Systems, Datang Telecom/Fiberhome, Ericsson, Huawei, Nokia, Qualcomm, Samsung, and ZTE.[94][95][96][97][98][99][100] As of 2023, Huawei is the leading 5G equipment manufacturer and has the greatest market share of 5G equipment and has built approximately 70% of worldwide 5G base stations.[101]:182 Large quantities of new radio spectrum (5G NR frequency bands) have been allocated to 5G.[102] For example, in July 2016, the U.S. Federal Communications Commission (FCC) freed up vast amounts of bandwidth in underused high-band spectrum for 5G. The Spectrum Frontiers Proposal (SFP) doubled the amount of millimeter-wave unlicensed spectrum to 14 GHz and created four times the amount of flexible, mobile-use spectrum the FCC had licensed to date.[103] In March 2018, European Union lawmakers agreed to open up the 3.6 and 26 GHz bands by 2020.[104] As of March 2019[update], there are reportedly 52 countries, territories, special administrative regions, disputed territories and dependencies that are formally considering introducing certain spectrum bands for terrestrial 5G services, are holding consultations regarding suitable spectrum allocations for 5G, have reserved spectrum for 5G, have announced plans to auction frequencies or have already allocated spectrum for 5G use.[105] 5G connectivity on a Samsung Galaxy S10 In March 2019, the Global Mobile Suppliers Association released the industry's first database tracking worldwide 5G device launches.[106] In it, the GSA identified 23 vendors who have confirmed the availability of forthcoming 5G devices with 33 different devices including regional variants. There were seven announced 5G device form factors: (telephones (×12 devices), hotspots (×4), indoor and outdoor customer-premises equipment (×8), modules (×5), Snap-on dongles and adapters (×2), and USB terminals (×1)).[107] By October 2019, the number of announced 5G devices had risen to 129, across 15 form factors, from 56 vendors.[108] In the 5G IoT chipset arena, as of April 2019 there were four commercial 5G modem chipsets (Intel, MediaTek, Qualcomm, Samsung) and one commercial processor/platform, with more launches expected in the near future.[109]An Apple iPhone showing that it is connected to a 5G Network On March 4, 2019, the first-ever all-5G smartphone Samsung Galaxy S10 5G was released. According to Business Insider, the 5G feature was showcased as more expensive in comparison with the 4G Samsung Galaxy S10e.[110] On March 19, 2020, HMD Global, the current maker of Nokia-branded phones, announced the Nokia 8.3 5G, which it claimed as having a wider range of 5G compatibility than any other phone released to that time. The mid-range model is claimed to support all 5G bands from 600 MHz to 3.8 GHz.[111] Google Pixel smartphones support 5G starting with the 4a 5G and Pixel 5,[112] while Apple smartphones support 5G starting with the iPhone 12.[113][114] See also: 5G NR frequency bands The air interface defined by 3GPP for 5G is known as 5G New Radio (5G NR), and the specification is subdivided into two frequency bands, FR1 (below 6 GHz) and FR2 (24–54 GHz). Otherwise known as sub-6, the maximum channel bandwidth defined for FR1 is 100 MHz, due to the scarcity of continuous spectrum in this crowded frequency range. The band most widely being used for 5G in this range is 3.3–4.2 GHz. The Korean carriers use the n78 band at 3.5 GHz. Some parties used the term "mid-band" frequency to refer to higher part of this frequency range that was not used in previous generations of mobile communication. The minimum channel bandwidth defined for FR2 is 50 MHz and the maximum is 400 MHz, with two-channel aggregation supported in 3GPP Release 15. Signals in this frequency range with wavelengths between 4 and 12 mm are called millimeter waves. The higher the carrier frequency, the greater the ability to support high data-transfer speeds. This is because a given channel bandwidth takes up a lower fraction of the carrier frequency, so high-bandwidth channels are easier to realize at higher carrier frequencies. 5G in the 24 GHz range or above use higher frequencies than 4G, and as a result, some 5G signals are not capable of traveling large distances (over a few hundred meters), unlike 4G or lower frequency 5G signals (sub 6 GHz). This requires placing 5G base stations every few hundred meters in order to use higher frequency bands. Also, these higher frequency 5G signals cannot penetrate solid objects easily, such as cars, trees, walls, and even humans, because of the nature of these higher frequency electromagnetic waves. 5G cells can be deliberately designed to be as inconspicuous as possible, which finds applications in places like restaurants and shopping malls.[115] Cell types Deployment environment Max. number of users Output power (W) Max. distance from base station 5G NR FR2 Femtocell Homes, businesses Home: 4–8Businesses: 16–32 indoors: 0.01–0.1outdoors: 0.2–1 tens of meters Pico cell Public areas like shopping malls,airports, train stations, skyscrapers 64 to 128 indoors: 0.1–0.25outdoors: 1–5 tens of meters Micro cell Urban areas to fill coverage gaps 128 to 256 outdoors: 5−10 few hundreds of meters Macro cell Urban areas to provide additional capacity more than 250 outdoors: 10−20 hundreds of meters Wi-Fi(for comparison) Homes, businesses fewer than 50 indoors: 0.02–0.1outdoors: 0.2–1 few tens of meters See also: Multi-user MIMO MIMO (multiple-input and multiple-output) systems use multiple antennas at the transmitter and receiver ends of a wireless communication system. Multiple antennas use the spatial dimension for multiplexing in addition to the time and frequency ones, without changing the bandwidth requirements of the system. Spatial multiplexing gains allow for an increase in the number of transmission layers, thereby boosting system capacity. Massive MIMO antennas increases sector throughput and capacity density using large numbers of antennas. This includes Single User MIMO and Multi-user MIMO (MU-MIMO). The antenna array can schedule users separately to satisfy their needs and beamform towards the intended users, minimizing interference.[116] Main article: Multi-access edge computing Edge computing is delivered by computing servers closer to the ultimate user. It reduces latency, data traffic congestion[117][118] and can improve service availability.[119] Main article: Small cell Small cells are low-powered cellular radio access nodes that operate in licensed and unlicensed spectrum that have a range of 10 meters to a few kilometers. Small cells are critical to 5G networks, as 5G's radio waves can't travel long distances, because of 5G's higher frequencies.[120][121][122][123] Main article: Beamforming There are two kinds of beamforming (BF): digital and analog. Digital beamforming involves sending the data across multiple streams (layers), while analog beamforming shaping the radio waves to point in a specific direction. The analog BF technique combines the power from elements of the antenna array in such a way that signals at particular angles experience constructive interference, while other signals pointing to other angles experience destructive interference. This improves signal quality in the specific direction, as well as data transfer speeds. 5G uses both digital and analog beamforming to improve the system capacity.[124][125] One expected benefit of the transition to 5G is the convergence of multiple networking functions to achieve cost, power, and complexity reductions. LTE has targeted convergence with Wi-Fi band/technology via various efforts, such as License Assisted Access (LAA; 5G signal in unlicensed frequency bands that are also used by Wi-Fi) and LTE-WLAN Aggregation (LWA; convergence with Wi-Fi Radio), but the differing capabilities of cellular and Wi-Fi have limited the scope of convergence. However, significant improvement in cellular performance specifications in 5G, combined with migration from Distributed Radio Access Network (D-RAN) to Cloud- or Centralized-RAN (C-RAN) and rollout of cellular small cells can potentially narrow the gap between Wi-Fi and cellular networks in dense and indoor deployments. Radio convergence could result in sharing ranging from the aggregation of cellular and Wi-Fi channels to the use of a single silicon device for multiple radio access technologies.[126] NOMA (non-orthogonal multiple access) is a proposed multiple-access technique for future cellular systems via allocation of power.[127] Main articles: Software-defined networking, SD-WAN, Network function virtualization, and 5G network slicing Initially, cellular mobile communications technologies were designed in the context of providing voice services and Internet access. Today a new era of innovative tools and technologies is inclined towards developing a new pool of applications. This pool of applications consists of different domains such as the Internet of Things (IoT), web of connected autonomous vehicles, remotely controlled robots, and heterogeneous sensors connected to serve versatile applications.[128] In this context, network slicing has emerged as a key technology to efficiently embrace this new market model.[129] The 5G Service-Based architecture replaces the referenced-based architecture of the Evolved Packet Core that is used in 4G. The SBA breaks up the core functionality of the network into interconnected network functions (NFs), which are typically implemented as Cloud-Native Network Functions. These NFs register with the Network Repository Function (NRF) which maintains their state, and communicate with each other using the Service Communication Proxy (SCP). The interfaces between the elements all utilize RESTful APIs.[130] By breaking functionality down this way, mobile operators are able to utilize different infrastructure vendors for different functions, and the flexibility to scale each function independently as needed.[130] 5G Network Functions [131] NF Name NF Acronym Analogous EPC element Authentication Server Function AUSF MME / HSS (Authentication) Access and Mobility Management Function AMF MME Unstructured Data Storage Function UDSF N/A Network Exposure Function NEF N/A Network Slice Specific Authentication and Authorization Function NSSAAF N/A Network Slice Selection Function NSSF N/A Policy Control Function PCF PCRF Session Management Function SMF MME / PGW-C Unified Data Management UDM HSS (DB Front End) Unified Data Repository UDR HSS (User Database) User Plane Function UPF SGW-U / PGW-U UE radio Capability Management Function UCMF N/A Application Function AF AF (IMS) Network Data Analytics Function NWDAF N/A CHarging Function CHF CSCF In addition, the standard describes network entities for roaming and inter-network connectivity, including the Security Edge Protection Proxy (SEPP), the Non-3GPP InterWorking Function (N3IWF), the Trusted Non-3GPP Gateway Function (TNGF), the Wireline Access Gateway Function (W-AGF), and the Trusted WLAN Interworking Function (TWIF). These can be deployed by operators as needed depending on their deployment. The channel coding techniques for 5G NR have changed from Turbo codes in 4G to polar codes for the control channels and LDPC (low-density parity check codes) for the data channels.[132][133] In December 2018, 3GPP began working on unlicensed spectrum specifications known as 5G NR-U, targeting 3GPP Release 16.[134] Qualcomm has made a similar proposal for LTE in unlicensed spectrum. 5G wireless power is a technology based on 5G standards that transfers wireless power.[135][136] It adheres to technical standards set by the 3rd Generation Partnership Project, the International Telecommunication Union, and the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers. It utilizes extremely high frequency radio waves with wavelengths from one to ten millimeters, also known as mmWaves.[137][138] Up to 6μW of power has been demonstrated being captured from 5G signals at a distance of 180m by researchers at Georgia Tech.[135] Internet of things devices could benefit from 5G wireless power technology, given their low power requirements that are within the range of what has been achieved using 5G power capture.[139] See also: Concerns over Chinese involvement in 5G wireless networks and Criticism of Huawei § Espionage and security concerns A report published by the European Commission and European Agency for Cybersecurity details the security issues surrounding 5G. The report warns against using a single supplier for a carrier's 5G infrastructure, especially those based outside the European Union; Nokia and Ericsson are the only European manufacturers of 5G equipment.[140] On October 18, 2018, a team of researchers from ETH Zurich, the University of Lorraine and the University of Dundee released a paper entitled, "A Formal Analysis of 5G Authentication".[141][142] It alerted that 5G technology could open ground for a new era of security threats. The paper described the technology as "immature and insufficiently tested," and one that "enables the movement and access of vastly higher quantities of data, and thus broadens attack surfaces". Simultaneously, network security companies such as Fortinet,[143] Arbor Networks,[144] A10 Networks,[145] and Voxility[146] advised on personalized and mixed security deployments against massive DDoS attacks foreseen after 5G deployment. IoT Analytics estimated an increase in the number of IoT devices, enabled by 5G technology, from 7 billion in 2018 to 21.5 billion by 2025.[147] This can raise the attack surface for these devices to a substantial scale, and the capacity for DDoS attacks, cryptojacking, and other cyberattacks could boost proportionally.[142] In addition, the EPS solution for 5G networks has identified a design vulnerability. The vulnerability affects the operation of the device during cellular network switching.[148] Due to fears of potential espionage of users of Chinese equipment vendors, several countries (including the United States, Australia and the United Kingdom as of early 2019)[149] have taken actions to restrict or eliminate the use of Chinese equipment in their respective 5G networks. A 2012 U.S. House Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence report concluded that using equipment made by Huawei and ZTE, another Chinese telecommunications company, could "undermine core U.S. national security interests".[150] In 2018, six U.S. intelligence chiefs, including the directors of the CIA and FBI, cautioned Americans against using Huawei products, warning that the company could conduct "undetected espionage".[151] Further, a 2017 investigation by the FBI determined that Chinese-made Huawei equipment could disrupt U.S. nuclear arsenal communications.[152] Chinese vendors and the Chinese government have denied claims of espionage, but experts have pointed out that Huawei would have no choice but to hand over network data to the Chinese government if Beijing asked for it because of Chinese National Security Law.[153] In August 2020, the U.S. State Department launched "The Clean Network" as a U.S. government-led, bi-partisan effort to address what it described as "the long-term threat to data privacy, security, human rights and principled collaboration posed to the free world from authoritarian malign actors". Promoters of the initiative have stated that it has resulted in an "alliance of democracies and companies", "based on democratic values". On October 7, 2020, the UK Parliament's Defence Committee released a report claiming that there was clear evidence of collusion between Huawei and Chinese state and the Chinese Communist Party. The UK Parliament's Defence Committee said that the government should consider removal of all Huawei equipment from its 5G networks earlier than planned.[154] In December 2020, the United States announced that more than 60 nations, representing more than two thirds of the world's gross domestic product, and 200 telecom companies, had publicly committed to the principles of The Clean Network. This alliance of democracies included 27 of the 30 NATO members; 26 of the 27 EU members, 31 of the 37 OECD nations, 11 of the 12 Three Seas nations as well as Japan, Israel, Australia, Singapore, Taiwan, Canada, Vietnam, and India. Parts of this article (those related to 5G, short for the fifth generation of wireless technology, employs a range of higher-frequency radio waves than its predecessors.) need to be updated. Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. (January 2022) The spectrum used by various 5G proposals, especially the n258 band centered at 26 GHz, will be near that of passive remote sensing such as by weather and Earth observation satellites, particularly for water vapor monitoring at 23.8 GHz.[155] Interference is expected to occur due to such proximity and its effect could be significant without effective controls. An increase in interference already occurred with some other prior proximate band usages.[156][157] Interference to satellite operations impairs numerical weather prediction performance with substantially deleterious economic and public safety impacts in areas such as commercial aviation.[158][159] The concerns prompted U.S. Secretary of Commerce Wilbur Ross and NASA Administrator Jim Bridenstine in February 2019 to urge the FCC to delay some spectrum auction proposals, which was rejected.[160] The chairs of the House Appropriations Committee and House Science Committee wrote separate letters to FCC chairman Ajit Pai asking for further review and consultation with NOAA, NASA, and DoD, and warning of harmful impacts to national security.[161] Acting NOAA director Neil Jacobs testified before the House Committee in May 2019 that 5G out-of-band emissions could produce a 30% reduction in weather forecast accuracy and that the resulting degradation in ECMWF model performance would have resulted in failure to predict the track and thus the impact of Superstorm Sandy in 2012. The United States Navy in March 2019 wrote a memorandum warning of deterioration and made technical suggestions to control band bleed-over limits, for testing and fielding, and for coordination of the wireless industry and regulators with weather forecasting organizations.[162] At the 2019 quadrennial World Radiocommunication Conference (WRC), atmospheric scientists advocated for a strong buffer of −55 dBW, European regulators agreed on a recommendation of −42 dBW, and US regulators (the FCC) recommended a restriction of −20 dBW, which would permit signals 150 times stronger than the European proposal. The ITU decided on an intermediate −33 dBW until September 1, 2027, and after that a standard of −39 dBW.[163] This is closer to the European recommendation but even the delayed higher standard is much weaker than that requested by atmospheric scientists, triggering warnings from the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) that the ITU standard, at 10 times less stringent than its recommendation, brings the "potential to significantly degrade the accuracy of data collected".[164] A representative of the American Meteorological Society (AMS) also warned of interference,[165] and the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), sternly warned, saying that society risks "history repeat[ing] itself" by ignoring atmospheric scientists' warnings (referencing global warming, monitoring of which could be imperiled).[166] In December 2019, a bipartisan request was sent from the US House Science Committee to the Government Accountability Office (GAO) to investigate why there is such a discrepancy between recommendations of US civilian and military science agencies and the regulator, the FCC.[167] The United States FAA has warned that radar altimeters on aircraft, which operate between 4.2 and 4.4 GHz, might be affected by 5G operations between 3.7 and 3.98 GHz. This is particularly an issue with older altimeters using RF filters[168] which lack protection from neighboring bands.[169] This is not as much of an issue in Europe, where 5G uses lower frequencies between 3.4 and 3.8 GHz.[170] Nonetheless, the DGAC in France has also expressed similar worries and recommended 5G phones be turned off or be put in airplane mode during flights.[171] On December 31, 2021, U.S. Transportation Secretary Pete Buttigieg and Steve Dickinson, administrator of the Federal Aviation Administration asked the chief executives of AT&T and Verizon to delay 5G implementation over aviation concerns. The government officials asked for a two-week delay starting on January 5, 2022, while investigations are conducted on the effects on radar altimeters. The government transportation officials also asked the cellular providers to hold off their new 5G service near 50 priority airports, to minimize disruption to air traffic that would be caused by some planes being disallowed from landing in poor visibility.[172] After coming to an agreement with government officials the day before,[173] Verizon and AT&T activated their 5G networks on January 19, 2022, except for certain towers near 50 airports.[174] AT&T scaled back its deployment even further than its agreement with the FAA required.[175] The FAA rushed to test and certify radar altimeters for interference so that planes could be allowed to perform instrument landings (e.g. at night and in low visibility) at affected airports. By January 16, it had certified equipment on 45% of the U.S. fleet, and 78% by January 20.[176] Airlines complained about the avoidable impact on their operations, and commentators said the affair called into question the competence of the FAA.[177] Several international airlines substituted different planes so they could avoid problems landing at scheduled airports, and about 2% of flights (320) were cancelled by the evening of January 19.[178] Further information: C band (IEEE) A number of 5G networks deployed on the radio frequency band of 3.3–3.6 GHz are expected to cause interference with C-Band satellite stations, which operate by receiving satellite signals at 3.4–4.2 GHz frequency.[179] This interference can be mitigated with low-noise block downconverters and waveguide filters.[179] In regions like the US and EU, the 6 GHz band is to be opened up for unlicensed applications, which would permit the deployment of 5G-NR Unlicensed, 5G version of LTE in unlicensed spectrum, as well as Wi-Fi 6e. However, interference could occur with the co-existence of different standards in the frequency band.[180] There have been concerns surrounding the promotion of 5G, questioning whether the technology is overhyped. There are questions on whether 5G will truly change the customer experience,[181] ability for 5G's mmWave signal to provide significant coverage,[182][183] overstating what 5G can achieve or misattributing continuous technological improvement to "5G",[184] lack of new use case for carriers to profit from,[185] wrong focus on emphasizing direct benefits on individual consumers instead of for Internet of Things devices or solving the last mile problem,[186] and overshadowing the possibility that in some aspects there might be other more appropriate technologies.[187] Such sort of concerns have also led to consumers not trusting information provided by cellular providers on the topic.[188] Main article: 5G misinformation Further information: Wireless device radiation and health There is a long history of fear and anxiety surrounding wireless signals that predates 5G technology. The fears about 5G are similar to those that have persisted throughout the 1990s and 2000s. According to the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) "exposure to intense, direct amounts of non-ionizing radiation may result in damage to tissue due to heat. This is not common and mainly of concern in the workplace for those who work on large sources of non-ionizing radiation devices and instruments."[189] Some advocates of fringe health claim the regulatory standards are too low and influenced by lobbying groups.[190] An anti-5G sticker in Luxembourg There have been rumors that 5G mobile phone use can cause cancer, but this is a myth.[191] Many popular books of dubious merit have been published on the subject[additional citation(s) needed] including one by Joseph Mercola alleging that wireless technologies caused numerous conditions from ADHD to heart diseases and brain cancer. Mercola has drawn sharp criticism for his anti-vaccinationism during the COVID-19 pandemic and was warned by the Food and Drug Administration to stop selling fake COVID-19 cures through his online alternative medicine business.[190][192] According to The New York Times, one origin of the 5G health controversy was an erroneous unpublished study that physicist Bill P. Curry

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Internet portalTelecommunication portal 5G Multi-Antenna Concepts Preceded by4th Generation (4G) Mobile telephony generations Succeeded by6th Generation (6G) Retrieved from " 3First generation of wireless cellular technology For other uses, see 1G (disambiguation). "Analog network" redirects here and is not to be confused with Analog modulation. Not to be confused with GPRS, a 2G mobile internet speed displayed as "G" on most Android and iPhone devices. Part of a series on theWireless network technologies Analog 0G1G (1.5G) Digital 2G (2.5G, 2.75G, 2.9G)3G (3.5G, 3.75G, 3.9G/3.95G)4G (4G/4.5G, 4.5G, 4.9G)5G (5.5G)6G Mobile telecommunicationsvte 1G refers to the first generation of mobile telecommunications standards, introduced in the 1980s. This generation was characterized by the use of analog audio transmissions, a major distinction from the subsequent 2G networks, which were fully digital. The term "1G" itself was not used at the time, but has since been retroactively applied to describe the early era of cellular networks. During the 1G era, various regional standards were developed and deployed in different countries, rather than a single global system. Among the most prominent were the Nordic Mobile Telephone (NMT) system and the Advanced Mobile Phone System (AMPS), which were widely adopted in their respective regions.[1] The lack of a unified global standard resulted in a fragmented landscape, with different countries and regions utilizing different technologies for mobile communication. As digital technology advanced, the inherent advantages of digital systems over analog led to the eventual replacement of 1G by 2G networks. While many 1G networks were phased out by the early 2000s, some continued to operate into the 2010s, particularly in less developed regions. The antecedent to 1G technology is the mobile radio telephone (i.e. "0G"), where portable phones would connect to a centralised operator. 1G refers to the very first generation of cellular networks.[2] Cellular technology employ a network of cells throughout a geographical area using low-power radio transmitters.[1] Cellular network standards and generation timeline. The first commercial cellular network was launched in Japan by Nippon Telegraph and Telephone (NTT) in 1979, initially in the metropolitan area of Tokyo. The first phone that used this network was called TZ-801 built by Panasonic.[3] Within five years, the NTT network had been expanded to cover the whole population of Japan and became the first nationwide 1G/cellular network. Before the network in Japan, Bell Laboratories built the first cellular network around Chicago in 1977 and trialled it in 1978.[4] As in the pre-cellular era, the Nordic countries were among the pioneers in wireless technologies. These countries together designed the NMT standard which first launched in Sweden in 1981.[5] NMT was the first mobile phone network to feature international roaming. In 1983, the first 1G cellular network launched in the United States, which was Chicago-based Ameritech using the Motorola DynaTAC mobile phone. In the early to mid 1990s, 1G was superseded by newer 2G (second generation) cellular technologies such as GSM and cdmaOne. Although 1G also used digital signaling to connect the radio towers (which listen to the handsets) to the rest of the telephone system, the voice itself during a call is encoded to digital signals in 2G whereas 1G uses analog FM modulation for the voice transmission, much like a 2-way land mobile radio. Most 1G networks had been discontinued by the early 2000s. Some regions especially Eastern Europe continued running these networks for much longer. The last operating 1G network was closed down in Russia in 2017. After Japan, the earliest commercial cellular networks launched in 1981 in Sweden, Norway and Saudi Arabia, followed by Denmark, Finland and Spain in 1982, the U.S. in 1983 and Hong Kong, South Korea, Austria and Canada in 1984. By 1986 networks had also launched in Tunisia, Malaysia, Oman, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, United Kingdom, West Germany, France, South Africa, Israel, Thailand, Indonesia, Iceland, Turkey, the Virgin Islands and Australia.[6] Generally, African countries were slower to take up 1G networks, while Eastern European were among the last due to the political situation.[7] In Europe, the United Kingdom had the largest number of cellular subscribers as of 1990 numbering 1.1 million, while the second largest market was Sweden with 482 thousand.[7] Although Japan was the first country with a nationwide cellular network, the number of users was significantly lower than other developed economies with a penetration rate of only 0.15 percent in 1989.[5] As of January 1991, the highest penetration rates were in Sweden and Finland with both countries above 50 percent closely followed by Norway and Iceland. The United States had a rate of 21.2 percent. In most other European countries it was below 10 percent.[8] Analog cellular technologies that were used were:[6] Advanced Mobile Phone System (AMPS)[9] Nordic Mobile Telephone (NMT) Total Access Communication System (TACS) developed in the United Kingdom and also some other parts of the world C-450 developed in West Germany and also adopted in Portugal and South Africa Radiocom 2000 in France (France Telecom only) RTMI in Italy MCS-L1 and MCS-L2 (developed by NTT) in Japan[10] JTACS (a variant of TACS operated by Daini Denden Planning, Inc. (DDI)) in Japan[10] List of mobile phone generations 2G 3G 3.5G 4G 4.5G 5G 6G Wireless Application Protocol Wireless device radiation and health ^ a b "Chapter 3 - Technology". 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Glossary: 1G – First Generation wireless technology Glossary: Detailed Description on 1G Technology Preceded by0G Mobile Telephony Generations Succeeded by2G Retrieved from " 4First generation of digital cellular networks For other uses, see 2G (disambiguation). Part of a series on theWireless network technologies Analog 0G1G (1.5G) Digital 2G (2.5G, 2.75G, 2.9G)3G (3.5G, 3.75G, 3.9G/3.95G)4G (4G/4.5G, 4.5G, 4.9G)5G (5.5G)6G Mobile telecommunicationsvte 2G refers to the second-generation of cellular network technology, which were rolled out globally starting in the early 1990s. The main differentiator to previous mobile telephone systems, retrospectively dubbed 1G, is that the radio signals of 2G networks are digital rather than analog, for communication between mobile devices and base stations. In addition to voice telephony, 2G also made possible the use of data services. The most common 2G technology has been the GSM standard, which became the first globally adopted framework for mobile communications. Other 2G technologies include cdmaOne and the now-discontinued Digital AMPS (D-AMPS/TDMA),[1] as well the Personal Digital Cellular (PDC) and Personal Handy-phone System (PHS) in Japan. The transition to digital technology enabled the implementation of encryption for voice calls and data transmission, significantly improving the security of mobile communications while also increasing capacity and efficiency compared to earlier analog systems. 2G networks were primarily designed to support voice calls and Short Message Service (SMS), with later advancements such as General Packet Radio Service (GPRS) enabling always-on packet data services, including email and limited internet access. 2G was succeeded by 3G technology, which provided higher data transfer rates and expanded mobile internet capabilities. In 1990, AT&T Bell Labs engineers Jesse Russell, Farhad Barzegar and Can A. Eryaman filed a patent for a digital mobile phone that supports the transmission of digital data. Their patent was cited several years later by Nokia and Motorola when they were developing 2G digital mobile phones.[2] 2G was first commercially launched in 1991 by Radiolinja (now part of Elisa Oyj) in Finland in the form of GSM, which was defined by the European Telecommunications Standards Institute (ETSI).[3] The Telecommunications Industry Association (TIA) defined the cdmaOne (IS-95) 2G standard, with an eight to ten fold increase in voice call capacity compared to analog AMPS.[4] The first deployment of cdmaOne was in 1995.[5] In North America, Digital AMPS (IS-54 and IS-136) and cdm

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Retrieved 3 April 2025. ^ a b c d "2G network switched off by the end of October 15". VnEconomy. 17 September 2024. Retrieved 12 October 2024. Preceded by1st Generation (1G) Mobile Telephony Generations Succeeded by3rd Generation (3G) Retrieved from " 5Third generation of wireless mobile telecommunications technology For other uses, see 3G (disambiguation). This article needs to be updated. Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. (April 2021) A USB modem for 3G plugged into a laptop. Part of a series on theWireless network technologies Analog 0G1G (1.5G) Digital 2G (2.5G, 2.75G, 2.9G)3G (3.5G, 3.75G, 3.9G/3.95G)4G (4G/4.5G, 4.5G, 4.9G)5G (5.5G)6G Mobile telecommunicationsvte 3G refers to the third-generation of cellular network technology. These networks were rolled out beginning in the early 2000s and represented a significant advancement over the second-generation (2G), particularly in terms of data transfer speeds and mobile internet capabilities. The major 3G standards are UMTS (developed by 3GPP, succeeding GSM) and CDMA2000 (developed by Qualcomm, succeeding cdmaOne);[1][2] both of these are based on the IMT-2000 specifications established by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU). While 2G networks such as GPRS and EDGE supported limited data services, 3G introduced significantly higher-speed mobile internet and enhanced multimedia capabilities, in addition to improved voice quality.[3] It provided moderate internet speeds suitable for general web browsing and multimedia content including video calling and mobile TV,[3] supporting services that provide an information transfer rate of at least 144 kbit/s.[4][5] Later 3G releases, often referred to as 3.5G (HSPA) and 3.75G (HSPA+) as well as EV-DO, introduced important improvements, enabling 3G networks to offer mobile broadband access with speeds ranging from several Mbit/s up to 42 Mbit/s.[6] These updates improved the reliability and speed of internet browsing, video streaming, and online gaming, enhancing the overall user experience for smartphones and mobile modems in comparison to earlier 3G technologies. 3G was later succeeded by 4G technology, which provided even higher data transfer rates and introduced advancements in network performance. A new generation of cellular standards has emerged roughly every decade since the introduction of 1G systems in 1979. Each generation is defined by the introduction of new frequency bands, higher data rates, and transmission technologies that are not backward-compatible due to the need for significant changes in network architecture and infrastructure. Several telecommunications companies marketed wireless mobile Internet services as 3G, indicating that the advertised service was provided over a 3G wireless network. However, 3G services have largely been supplanted in marketing by 4G and 5G services in most areas of the world. Services advertised as 3G are required to meet IMT-2000 technical standards, including standards for reliability and speed (data transfer rates). To meet the IMT-2000 standards, Third-generation mobile networks, or 3G, must maintain minimum consistent Internet speeds of 144 Kbps.[5] However, many services advertised as 3G provide higher speed than the minimum technical requirements for a 3G service.[7] Subsequent 3G releases, denoted 3.5G and 3.75G, provided mobile broadband access of several Mbit/s for smartphones and mobile modems in laptop computers.[8] 3G branded standards: The UMTS (Universal Mobile Telecommunications System) system, standardized by 3GPP in 2001, was used in Europe, Japan, China (with a different radio interface) and other regions predominated by GSM (Global Systems for Mobile Communications) 2G system infrastructure. The cell phones are typically UMTS and GSM hybrids. Several radio interfaces are offered, sharing the same infrastructure: The original and most widespread radio interface is called W-CDMA (Wideband Code Division Multiple Access). The TD-SCDMA radio interface was commercialized in 2009 and only offered in China. The latest UMTS release, HSPA+, can provide peak data rates up to 56 Mbit/s in the downlink in theory (28 Mbit/s in existing services) and 22 Mbit/s in the uplink. The CDMA2000 system, first offered in 2002, standardized by 3GPP2, used especially in North America and South Korea, sharing infrastructure with the IS-95 2G standard. The cell phones are typically CDMA2000 and IS-95 hybrids. The latest release EVDO Rev. B offers peak rates of 14.7 Mbit/s downstream. The 3G systems and radio interfaces are based on spread spectrum radio transmission technology. While the GSM EDGE standard ("2.9G"), DECT cordless phones and Mobile WiMAX standards formally also fulfill the IMT-2000 requirements and are approved as 3G standards by ITU, these are typically not branded as 3G and are based on completely different technologies. The common standards complying with the IMT2000/3G standard are: EDGE, a revision by the 3GPP organization to the older 2G GSM based transmission methods, which utilizes the same switching nodes, base station sites, and frequencies as GPRS, but includes a new base station and cellphone RF circuits. It is based on the three times as efficient 8PSK modulation scheme as a supplement to the original GMSK modulation scheme. EDGE is still used extensively due to its ease of upgrade from existing 2G GSM infrastructure and cell phones. EDGE combined with the GPRS 2.5G technology is called EGPRS, and allows peak data rates in the order of 200 kbit/s, just like the original UMTS WCDMA versions and thus formally fulfill the IMT2000 requirements on 3G systems. However, in practice, EDGE is seldom marketed as a 3G system, but a 2.9G system. EDGE shows slightly better system spectral efficiency than the original UMTS and CDMA2000 systems, but it is difficult to reach much higher peak data rates due to the limited GSM spectral bandwidth of 200 kHz, and it is thus a dead end. EDGE was also a mode in the IS-136 TDMA system, no longer used. Evolved EDGE, the latest revision, has peaks of 1 Mbit/s downstream and 400 kbit/s upstream but is not commercially used. The Universal Mobile Telecommunications System, created and revised by the 3GPP. The family is a full revision from GSM in terms of encoding methods and hardware, although some GSM sites can be retrofitted to broadcast in the UMTS/W-CDMA format. W-CDMA is the most common deployment, commonly operated on the 2,100 MHz band. A few others use the 850, 900, and 1,900 MHz bands. HSPA is an amalgamation of several upgrades to the original W-CDMA standard and offers speeds of 14.4 Mbit/s down and 5.76 Mbit/s up. HSPA is backward-compatible and uses the same frequencies as W-CDMA. HSPA+, a further revision and upgrade of HSPA, can provide theoretical peak data rates up to 168 Mbit/s in the downlink and 22 Mbit/s in the uplink, using a combination of air interface improvements as well as multi-carrier HSPA and MIMO. Technically though, MIMO and DC-HSPA can be used without the "+" enhancements of HSPA+. The CDMA2000 system, or IS-2000, including CDMA2000 1x and CDMA2000 High Rate Packet Data (or EVDO), standardized by 3GPP2 (differing from the 3GPP), evolving from the original IS-95 CDMA system, is used especially in North America, China, India, Pakistan, Japan, South Korea, Southeast Asia, Europe, and Africa. CDMA2000 1x Rev. E has an increased voice capacity (by three times the original amount) compared to Rev. 0 EVDO Rev. B offers downstream peak rates of 14.7 Mbit/s while Rev. C enhanced existing and new terminal user experience. While DECT cordless phones and Mobile WiMAX standards formally also fulfill the IMT-2000 requirements, they are not usually considered due to their rarity and unsuitability for usage with mobile phones.[9] The 3G (UMTS and CDMA2000) research and development projects started in 1992. In 1999, ITU approved five radio interfaces for IMT-2000 as a part of the ITU-R M.1457 Recommendation; WiMAX was added in 2007.[10] There are evolutionary standards (EDGE and CDMA) that are backward-compatible extensions to pre-existing 2G networks as well as revolutionary standards that require all-new network hardware and frequency allocations. The cell phones use UMTS in combination with 2G GSM standards and bandwidths, but do not support EDGE. The latter group is the UMTS family, which consists of standards developed for IMT-2000, as well as the independently developed standards DECT and WiMAX, which were included because they fit the IMT-2000 definition. While EDGE fulfills the 3G specifications, most GSM/UMTS phones report EDGE ("2.75G") and UMTS ("3G") functionality.[11] Cellular network standards and generation timeline. 3G technology was the result of research and development work carried out by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) in the early 1980s. 3G specifications and standards were developed in fifteen years. The technical specifications were made available to the public under the name IMT-2000. The communication spectrum between 400 MHz to 3 GHz was allocated for 3G. Both the government and communication companies approved the 3G standard. The first pre-commercial 3G network was launched by NTT DoCoMo in Japan in 1998,[12] branded as FOMA. It was first available in May 2001 as a pre-release (test) of W-CDMA technology. The first commercial launch of 3G was also by NTT DoCoMo in Japan on 1 October 2001, although it was initially somewhat limited in scope;[13][14] broader availability of the system was delayed by apparent concerns over its reliability.[15][16][17][18][19] The first European pre-commercial network was an UMTS network on the Isle of Man by Manx Telecom, the operator then owned by British Telecom, and the first commercial network (also UMTS based W-CDMA) in Europe was opened for business by Telenor in December 2001 with no commercial handsets and thus no paying customers. The first network to go commercially live was by SK Telecom in South Korea on the CDMA-based 1xEV-DO technology in January 2002. By May 2002, the second South Korean 3G network was by KT on EV-DO and thus the South Koreans were the first to see competition among 3G operators. The first commercial United States 3G network was by Monet Mobile Networks, on CDMA2000 1x EV-DO technology, but the network provider later shut down operations. The second 3G network operator in the US was Verizon Wireless in July 2002, also on CDMA2000 1x EV-DO. AT&T Mobility was also a true 3G UMTS network, having completed its upgrade of the 3G network to HSUPA. The first commercial United Kingdom 3G network was started by Hutchison Telecom which was originally behind Orange S.A.[20] In 2003, it announced first commercial third generation or 3G mobile phone network in the UK. The first pre-commercial demonstration network in the southern hemisphere was built in Adelaide, South Australia, by m.Net Corporation in February 2002 using UMTS on 2100 MHz. This was a demonstration network for the 2002 IT World Congress. The first commercial 3G network was launched by Hutchison Telecommunications branded as Three or "3" in June 2003.[21] In India, on 11 December 2008, the first 3G mobile and internet services were launched by a state-owned company, Mahanagar Telecom Nigam Limited (MTNL), within the metropolitan cities of Delhi and Mumbai. After MTNL, another state-owned company, Bharat Sanchar Nigam Limited (BSNL), began deploying the 3G networks country-wide. Emtel launched the first 3G network in Africa.[22] Videotelephony through cellular networks were made possible using 3G technologies Japan was one of the first countries to adopt 3G, the reason being the process of 3G spectrum allocation, which in Japan was awarded without much upfront cost. The frequency spectrum was allocated in the US and Europe based on auctioning, thereby requiring a huge initial investment for any company wishing to provide 3G services. European companies collectively paid over 100 billion dollars in their spectrum auctions.[23] Nepal Telecom adopted 3G Service for the first time in southern Asia. However, its 3G was relatively slow to be adopted in Nepal. In some instances, 3G networks do not use the same radio frequencies as 2G, so mobile operators must build entirely new networks and license entirely new frequencies, especially to achieve high data transmission rates. Other countries' delays were due to the expenses of upgrading transmission hardware, especially for UMTS, whose deployment required the replacement of most broadcast towers. Due to these issues and difficulties with deployment, many carriers could not or delayed the acquisition of these updated capabilities. In December 2007, 190 3G networks were operating in 40 countries and 154 HSDPA networks were operating in 71 countries, according to the Global Mobile Suppliers Association (GSA). In Asia, Europe, Canada, and the US, telecommunication companies use W-CDMA technology with the support of around 100 terminal designs to operate 3G mobile networks. The roll-out of 3G networks was delayed by the enormous costs of additional spectrum licensing fees in some countries. The license fees in some European countries were particularly high, bolstered by government auctions of a limited number of licenses and sealed bid auctions, and initial excitement over 3G's potential. This led to a telecoms crash that ran concurrently with similar crashes in the fibre-optic and dot.com fields. The 3G standard is perhaps well known because of a massive expansion of the mobile communications market post-2G and advances of the consumer mobile phone. An especially notable development during this time is the smartphone (for example, the iPhone, and the Android family), combining the abilities of a PDA with a mobile phone, leading to widespread demand for mobile internet connectivity. 3G has also introduced the term "mobile broadband" because its speed and capability made it a viable alternative for internet browsing, and USB Modems connecting to 3G networks, and now 4G became increasingly common. By June 2007, the 200 millionth 3G subscriber had been connected of which 10 million were in Nepal and 8.2 million in India. This 200 millionth is only 6.7% of the 3 billion mobile phone subscriptions worldwide. (When counting CDMA2000 1x RTT customers—max bitrate 72% of the 200 kbit/s which defines 3G—the total size of the nearly-3G subscriber base was 475 million as of June 2007, which was 15.8% of all subscribers worldwide.) In the countries where 3G was launched first – Japan and South Korea – 3G penetration is over 70%.[24] In Europe the leading country[when?] for 3G penetration is Italy with a third of its subscribers migrated to 3G. Other leading countries[when?] for 3G use include Nepal, UK, Austria, Australia and Singapore at the 32% migration level. According to ITU estimates,[25] as of Q4 2012 there were 2096 million active mobile-broadband[vague] subscribers worldwide out of a total of 6835 million subscribers—this is just over 30%. About half the mobile-broadband subscriptions are for subscribers in developed nations, 934 million out of 1600 million total, well over 50%. Note however that there is a distinction between a phone with mobile-broadband connectivity and a smart phone with a large display and so on—although according[26] to the ITU and informatandm.com the US has 321 million mobile subscriptions, including 256 million that are 3G or 4G, which is both 80% of the subscriber base and 80% of the US population, according[25] to ComScore just a year earlier in Q4 2011 only about 42% of people surveyed in the US reported they owned a smart phone. In Japan, 3G penetration was similar at about 81%, but smart phone ownership was lower at about 17%.[25] In China, there were 486.5 million 3G subscribers in June 2014,[27] in a population of 1,385,566,537 (2013 UN estimate). Since the increasing adoption of 4G networks across the globe, 3G use has been in decline. Several operators around the world have already or are in the process of shutting down their 3G networks (see table below). In several places, 3G is being shut down while its older predecessor 2G is being kept in operation; Vodafone UK is doing this, citing 2G's usefulness as a low-power fallback.[28] EE in the UK, plans to switch off their 3G networks in early 2024.[29] In the US, Verizon shutdown their 3G services on 31 December 2022,[30] T-Mobile shut down Sprint's networks on 31 March 2022 and shutdown their main networks on 1 July 2022,[31] and AT&T has done so on 22 February 2022.[32] Currently 3G around the world is declining in availability and support. Technology that depends on 3G for usage are becoming inoperable in many places. For example, the European Union plans to ensure that member countries maintain 2G networks as a fallback[citation needed], so 3G devices that are backwards compatible with 2G frequencies can continue to be used. However, in countries that plan to decommission 2G networks or have already done so as well, such as the United States and Singapore, devices supporting only 3G and backwards compatible with 2G are becoming inoperable.[33] As of February 2022, less than 1% of cell phone customers in the United States used 3G; AT&T offered free replacement devices to some customers in the run-up to its shutdown.[34] It has been estimated that there are almost 8,000 patents declared essential (FRAND) related to the 483 technical specifications which form the 3GPP and 3GPP2 standards.[35][36] Twelve companies accounted in 2004 for 90% of the patents (Qualcomm, Ericsson, Nokia, Motorola, Philips, NTT DoCoMo, Siemens, Mitsubishi, Fujitsu, Hitachi, InterDigital, and Matsushita). Even then, some patents essential to 3G might not have been declared by their patent holders. It is believed that Nortel and Lucent have undisclosed patents essential to these standards.[36] Furthermore, the existing 3G Patent Platform Partnership Patent pool has little impact on FRAND protection because it excludes the four largest patent owners for 3G.[37][38] ITU has not provided a clear[39][vague] definition of the data rate that users can expect from 3G equipment or providers. Thus users sold 3G service may not be able to point to a standard and say that the rates it specifies are not being met. While stating in commentary that "it is expected that IMT-2000 will provide higher transmission rates: a minimum data rate of 2 Mbit/s for stationary or walking users, and 348 kbit/s in a moving vehicle,"[40] the ITU does not actually clearly specify minimum required rates, nor required average rates, nor what modes[clarification needed] of the interfaces qualify as 3G, so various[vague] data rates are sold as '3G' in the market. In a market implementation, 3G downlink data speeds defined by telecom service providers vary depending on the underlying technology deployed; up to 384 kbit/s for UMTS (WCDMA), up to 7.2 Mbit/sec for HSPA, and a theoretical maximum of 21.1 Mbit/s for HSPA+ and 42.2 Mbit/s for DC-HSPA+ (technically 3.5G, but usually clubbed under the tradename of 3G).[citation needed] See also: Mobile security § Attacks based on the GSM networks 3G networks offer greater security than their 2G predecessors. By allowing the UE (User Equipment) to authenticate the network it is attaching to, the user can be sure the network is the intended one and not an impersonator.[41] 3G networks use the KASUMI block cipher instead of the older A5/1 stream cipher. However, a number of serious weaknesses in the KASUMI cipher have been identified. In addition to the 3G network infrastructure security, end-to-end security is offered when application frameworks such as IMS are accessed, although this is not strictly a 3G property. The bandwidth and location capabilities introduced by 3G networks enabled a wide range of applications that were previously impractical or unavailable on 2G networks. Among the most significant advancements was the ability to perform data-intensive tasks, such as browsing the internet seamlessly while on the move, as well as engaging in other activities that benefited from faster data speeds and enhanced reliability. Beyond personal communication, 3G networks supported applications in various fields, including medical devices, fire alarms, and ankle monitors. This versatility marked a significant milestone in cellular communications, as 3G became the first network to enable such a broad range of use cases.[42] By expanding its functionality beyond traditional mobile phone usage, 3G set the stage for the integration of cellular networks into a wide array of technologies and services, paving the way for further advancements with subsequent generations of mobile networks. Both 3GPP and 3GPP2 are working on the extensions to 3G standards that are based on an all-IP network infrastructure and using advanced wireless technologies such as MIMO. These specifications already display features characteristic for IMT-Advanced (4G), the successor of 3G. However, falling short of the bandwidth requirements for 4G (which is 1 Gbit/s for stationary and 100 Mbit/s for mobile operation), these standards are classified as 3.9G or Pre-4G. 3GPP plans to meet the 4G goals with LTE Advanced, whereas Qualcomm has halted UMB development in favour of the LTE family.[43] On 14 December 2009, TeliaSonera announced in an official press release that "We are very proud to be the first operator in the world to offer our customers 4G services."[44] With the launch of their LTE network, initially they are offering pre-4G (or beyond 3G) services in Stockholm, Sweden and Oslo, Norway. Country Status Network Shutdown date Standard References Notes Argentina Personal TBD UMTS [45] Local shutdowns commenced in Q1 2023. Australia No Service Optus 2024-10-28 UMTS [46][47] Telstra 2024-10-28 UMTS [48][49][47] 2100 MHz band shutdown on 25 Mar 2019. TPG / Vodafone 2023-12-15 UMTS [50][51] Austria Magenta Telekom 2024 (est.) UMTS [52] Belgium Orange 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [53][54] Local shutdowns commenced in Jan 2024. Telenet 2024-09-30 (est.) UMTS [55] Local shutdowns commenced in Sep 2024. Proximus 2024-12-31 (est.) UMTS [56] Canada Bell 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [57] Rogers 2025-07-31 UMTS [57][58][59][60][61][62] 1900 MHz shutdown in Jun 2021.850 MHz remains active until 31 July 2025. Telus 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [57] Videotron 2025-07-31 UMTS [63] China China Mobile TBD TD-SCDMA [64][65][66][67] Local shutdowns commenced on 16 Mar 2016. China Telecom 2025 (est.) CDMA2000 [68][69][70] CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rev. ALocal shutdowns commenced on 16 Jun 2020. China Unicom TBD UMTS [71] Local shutdowns commenced in Q4 2022. Croatia HT 2025 (est.) UMTS [72] Local shutdown commenced in Dec 2023. Czech Republic No Service O2 2021-11-30 UMTS [73] T-Mobile 2021-11-30 UMTS [73] Vodafone 2021-03-31 UMTS [74] Denmark 3 2025-12-01 (est.) UMTS [75] Local shutdown commenced in 2019. TDC TBD UMTS [76] Local shutdown commenced in 2022. TT-Netværket(Telenor, Telia) 2023-03-20 UMTS [77][78] Service on the 2100 MHz band ended in 2021.Shutdown on the 900 MHz band commenced in summer 2022. Estonia Elisa 2024-11-26 UMTS [79] Tele2 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [80] Telia Eesti 2023-12-13 UMTS [81][82][83][84] Finland No Service DNA 2024-01-25 UMTS [85][86][87][88] Local shutdowns commenced in May 2023. Elisa 2023-11-30 UMTS [89] Local shutdowns commenced in Apr 2023. Finnish Shared Network [fi] 2024-12 UMTS [90] Joint company by Telia and DNA to manage networks in Northern and Eastern Finland. Telia 2024-10-28 UMTS [91][92][93] Local shutdowns commenced on 9 Sep 2023. France Bouygues 2029 (est.) UMTS [94] Orange 2028-12-31 (est.) UMTS [53] SFR 2028 (est.) UMTS [95] Germany No Service Deutsche Telekom 2021-07-01 UMTS [96] O2 2021-12-31 UMTS [97][98][99] Vodafone 2021-06-30 UMTS [100] Greece No Service Cosmote 2021-12-31 UMTS [101] NOVA 2023-03-27 UMTS [102][103][104][105] Vodafone 2023-05-31 UMTS [106] Greenland Tusass TBD UMTS [107] Hong Kong 3 active UMTS CMHK 2025-06-30 (est.) UMTS [108] CSL 2017-10-31 CDMA2000 [109] CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rev. A.Service previously provided by PCCW. After acquisition of CSL by HKT,its mobile business PCCW Mobile was merged into CSL.No service for local customers, only served incoming roaming tourists.CSL terminated its CDMA family business upon its licence expiry,and cdmaOne service has also terminated along with CDMA2000. CSL active UMTS Smartone active UMTS Hungary No Service Magyar Telekom 2022-06-30 UMTS [110][111][112] Yettel Hungary 2023-11-13 UMTS [110][112][113] Vodafone Hungary 2023-03-31 UMTS [114][112] Iceland Nova 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [115][116] Síminn 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [116] Vodafone 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [116] India Airtel 2020-03-31 UMTS [117][118] Vodafone Idea 2022-10-06 UMTS [119] Complete network refarming to 4G/LTE. Indonesia Smartfren 2017-11-13 CDMA2000 [120] CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rel. 0, 1xEV-DO Rev. A, EV-DO Rev. B Telkomsel 2023-06-23 UMTS [121] Indosat 2022-12-31 UMTS [122] XL Axiata TBD UMTS [123][124] Local shutdowns commenced in June 2021. Ireland Vodafone TBD UMTS [125] Local shutdowns commenced in Feb 2023. Israel 2025-12-31 (est.) [126] Per government statement Italy Iliad 2025 (est.) UMTS [127] TIM 2022-10-21 UMTS [128][129][130][131] Vodafone 2021-02-28 UMTS [132] Wind Tre 2025 (est.) UMTS [127] Japan KDDI 2022-03-31 CDMA2000 [133][134][135] CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rel. 0, 1xEV-DO Rev. A, EV-DO Rev. B NTT docomo 2026-03-31 (est.) UMTS [136] Softbank 2024-04-15 UMTS [137][138][139] Kazakhstan Tele2 TBD UMTS [140][141] Local shutdown commenced on 28 Mar 2024. Lithuania Telia 2022-12-15 UMTS [142][143][144] Tele2 2025-12 (est.) UMTS [145] Luxembourg Orange 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [53] Tango / Telindus 2024-01-31 UMTS [146] Macau China Telecom 2025-06-04 (est.) CDMA2000 [147][148][149] CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rev. A CTM 2025-06-04 (est.) UMTS [149] 3 2025-06-04 (est.) UMTS [149] Smartone 2024-11-11 UMTS [150] Smartone ceased operations in Macau and returned its license. Malaysia No Service Celcom 2021-12-31 UMTS [151][152] Maxis 2021-12-31 UMTS [153] U Mobile 2021-12-31 UMTS [153] Digi 2021-12-31 UMTS [153][152] Moldova Interdnestrcom 2023-08-01 CDMA2000 [154] Montenegro Crnogorski Telekom 2024-01-22 UMTS [155][156] Netherlands KPN 2023-05-10 UMTS [157][158][159] Local shutdown commenced on 31 Mar 2022. Vodafone 2020-02-04 UMTS [160] New Zealand 2degrees 2025 Q4 (est.) UMTS [161] One 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [162][163][164] Local shutdown will commence by 31 Mar 2025. Spark 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [165][166] Local shutdown will commence "towards the end of 2025". Norway No Service Telia 2021-11-11 UMTS [167] Telenor 2021-01-31 UMTS [168] Oman Omantel 2024 Q3 (est.) UMTS [169][170] Pakistan No Service Jazz 2024-11-18 UMTS [171][172] Philippines Smart (PLDT) TBD UMTS [173] Globe TBD UMTS [174] Shutdown commenced in Oct 2020. Poland T-Mobile 2023-04 (est.) UMTS [175][176][177] Shutdown commenced in Apr 2023. Orange 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [53][178][179] Local shutdown commenced on 26 Sep 2023. Portugal MEO 2024-01-31 UMTS [180] Local shutdown commenced on 4 Sep 2023. Vodafone 2024-07 (est.) UMTS [181] NOS 2024-05 (est.) UMTS [182] Shutdown commenced in May 2024. Romania Digi 2023-08-29 UMTS [183] Orange 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [53] Telekom 2023-03-31 UMTS [184] Vodafone 2025-07-01 (est.) UMTS [185] Russia Beeline 2025 (est.) UMTS [186] Shutdown commenced in Moscow in Feb 2023. MTS 2025 (est.) UMTS [187] Shutdowns commenced in Saint-Petersburg in Oct 2024. Saudi Arabia stc 2022-12-31 UMTS [188] Singapore No Service M1 2024-08-01 UMTS [189][190] Singtel 2024-11-01 UMTS [189][190] StarHub 2024-11-01 UMTS [189][190] Slovakia O2 TBD UMTS [191] Local shutdown commences in Jan 2024. Orange 2024-02-22 UMTS [53][192][193] Telekom 2023-11-23 UMTS [194][195] Local shutdown commenced on 3 Oct 2023. Slovenia Telekom Slovenije 2022-09-30 UMTS [196] A1 Slovenija 2023-06-30 UMTS [197] South Africa 2025-03 (est.) [198][199] Per government statement South Korea KT 2012-03-19 CDMA2000 [200][201][202] CDMA2000 was also referred to as "2G" in South Korea, besides cdmaOne (IS-95).[203]CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rel. 0SKT also operates an UMTS "3G" network. Spain Movistar 2025 (est.) UMTS Orange 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [53] Vodafone España 2024-10-29 (est.) UMTS [209][210] Sri Lanka Airtel 2022-06-12 UMTS [211] Dialog Axiata TBD UMTS [212] Sweden Telenor 2025-12 (est.) UMTS [213] Telia 2025 (est.) UMTS [214] Three 2025-12-01 (est.) UMTS [215][216] Local shutdown for 2100 MHz commenced in late 2021. Switzerland Sunrise 2025-06 (est.) UMTS [217] Swisscom 2025-12-01 (est.) UMTS [218] Taiwan No Service Asia Pacific Telecom 2017-12-31 CDMA2000 [219][220] CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rev. A Chunghwa Telecom 2018-12-31 (Data)2024-06-30 (Voice) UMTS [221][222][223] Far EasTone 2018-12-31 (Data)2024-06-30 (Voice) UMTS [221][222][223] Taiwan Mobile 2018-12-31 (Data)2024-06-30 (Voice) UMTS [221][222][223] Taiwan Star 2018-12-31 (Data)2024-06-30 (Voice) UMTS [221][222][223] United Kingdom EE 2024-02-25 UMTS [224][225][226][227] Three 2024-12-31 UMTS [228] O2 2025-12-31 (est.) UMTS [229][230] Local shutdown commenced in Apr 2025. Vodafone 2024-02-28 UMTS [231][232][233][234] Local shutdown commenced in Jun 2023. United States Puerto Rico US Virgin Islands No Service Appalachian Wireless 2023-01-03 CDMA2000 [235][236][237] CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rev. A AT&T 2022-02-22 UMTS [238][239] Cellcom 2023-03-31 CDMA2000 [240] Cellular One of North East Arizona 2023-05-04 UMTS [241] Commnet Wireless (Choice) 2022-12-31 CDMA2000 [242] Liberty 2022-02-22 UMTS [243] Silver Star 2022-12-30 CDMA2000 [244][245] CDMA2000 1X & 1xEV-DO Rev. A Strata Networks 2022-12-31 CDMA2000 [246] T-Mobile 2022-07-01 UMTS [247][248][249][250] T-Mobile (Sprint) 2022-05-31 CDMA2000 [251][247][248][249][252][253] CDMA2000 1X, 1X Adv. (Rev.E), 1xEV-DO Rel. 0, 1xEV-DO Rev. AShutdown commenced on 31 Mar 2022. UScellular 2024-01-14 CDMA2000 [254][255][256] CDMA2000 1X1xEV-DO (Rel. 0 & Rev. A) shutdown commenced in 2021. Verizon 2022-12-31 CDMA2000 [257][258][259] CDMA2000 1X, 1xEV-DO Rel. 0, 1xEV-DO Rev. A Vietnam 2028-09 (est.) [260] per government statement List of mobile phone generations Mobile radio telephone (also known as "0G") Mobile broadband Wireless device radiation and health 1G 2G 4G 5G 6G LTE

ProjectAbbreviation3GPPFormation1998; 27 years ago (1998)TypeStandards organizationRegion served WorldwideWebsitewww.3gpp.org The 3rd Generation Partnership Project (3GPP) is an umbrella term for a number of standards organizations which develop protocols for mobile telecommunications. Its best known work is the development and maintenance of:[1] GSM and related 2G and 2.5G standards, including GPRS and EDGE UMTS and related 3G standards, including HSPA and HSPA+ LTE and related 4G standards, including LTE Advanced and LTE Advanced Pro 5G NR and related 5G standards, including 5G-Advanced An evolved IP Multimedia Subsystem (IMS) developed in an access independent manner 3GPP is a consortium with seven national or regional telecommunication standards organizations as primary members ("organizational partners") and a variety of other organizations as associate members ("market representation partners"). The 3GPP organizes its work into three different streams: Radio Access Networks, Services and Systems Aspects, and Core Network and Terminals.[2] The project was established in December 1998 with the goal of developing a specification for a 3G mobile phone system based on the 2G GSM system, within the scope of the International Telecommunication Union's International Mobile Telecommunications-2000, hence the name 3GPP.[3] It should not be confused with 3rd Generation Partnership Project 2 (3GPP2), which developed a competing 3G system, CDMA2000.[4] The 3GPP administrative support team (known as the "Mobile Competence Centre") is located at the European Telecommunications Standards Institute headquarters in the Sophia Antipolis technology park in France.[5] The seven 3GPP Organizational Partners are from Asia, Europe and North America. Their aim is to determine the general policy and strategy of 3GPP and perform the following tasks: The approval and maintenance of the 3GPP scope; The maintenance of the Partnership Project Description; Take the decision to create or cease a Technical Specification Groups, and approve their scope and terms of reference; The approval of Organizational Partner funding requirements; The allocation of human and financial resources provided by the Organizational Partners to the Project Co-ordination Group; Act as a body of appeal on procedural matters referred to them. Together with the Market Representation Partners (MRPs) perform the following tasks: The maintenance of the Partnership Project Agreement; The approval of applications for 3GPP partnership; Take the decision against a possible dissolution of 3GPP. The Organizational Partners are:[6] Organizational Partners Organization Country/region Website Association of Radio Industries and Businesses (ARIB) Japan ARIB Alliance for Telecommunications Industry Solutions (ATIS) USA ATIS China Communications Standards Association (CCSA) China CCSA European Telecommunications Standards Institute (ETSI) Europe ETSI Telecommunications Standards Development Society (TSDSI) India TSDSI Telecommunications Technology Association (TTA) South Korea TTA Telecommunication Technology Committee (TTC) Japan TTC The 3GPP Organizational Partners can invite a Market Representation Partner to take part in 3GPP, which: Has the ability to offer market advice to 3GPP and to bring into 3GPP a consensus view of market requirements (e.g., services, features and functionality) falling within the 3GPP scope; Does not have the capability and authority to define, publish and set standards within the 3GPP scope, nationally or regionally; Has committed itself to all or part of the 3GPP scope; Has signed the Partnership Project Agreement. As of January 2025[update], the Market Representation Partners are:[6] Market Representation Partners Organization Website 5G-ACIA 5G Automotive Association 5G Americas Deterministic Networking Alliance (5GDNA) 6G Smart Network and Services Industry Association (6G-IA) 5G Slicing Association (5GSA) 5G Media Action Group (5G-MAG) Automotive Edge Computing Consortium (AECC) Broadband India Forum Cellular Operators Association of India (COAI) China Society of Automotive Engineers (CSAE) CTIA Global Satellite Operators Association (GSOA) Global Certification Forum (GCF) Global mobile Suppliers Association (GSA) GSMA IPV6 Forum Next Generation Mobile Networks (NGMN) Public Safety Communication Europe (PSCE) Forum Small Cell Forum TCCA TD Industry Alliance Wireless Broadband Alliance 3GPP standards are structured as Releases. Discussion of 3GPP thus frequently refers to the functionality in one release or another. Version[7] Released[8] Info Phase 1 1992 GSM Features Phase 2 1995 GSM Features, EFR Codec, Release 96 1997 Q1 GSM Features, 14.4 kbit/s User Data Rate, Release 97 1998 Q1 GSM Features, GPRS Release 98 1999 Q1 GSM Features, AMR codec, EDGE, GPRS for PCS1900 Release 99 2000 Q1 Specified the first UMTS 3G networks, incorporating a CDMA air interface[9] Release 4 2001 Q2 Originally called the Release 2000 – added features including an all-IP Core Network[10] Release 5 2002 Q1 Introduced IMS and HSDPA[11] Release 6 2004 Q4 Integrated operation with Wireless LAN networks and adds HSUPA, MBMS, enhancements to IMS such as Push to Talk over Cellular (PoC), GAN[12] Release 7 2007 Q4 Focuses on decreasing latency, improvements to QoS and real-time applications such as VoIP.[13] This specification also focus on HSPA+ (High Speed Packet Access Evolution), SIM high-speed protocol and contactless front-end interface (Near Field Communication enabling operators to deliver contactless services like Mobile Payments), EDGE Evolution. Release 8 2008 Q4 First LTE release. All-IP Network (SAE). New OFDMA, FDE and MIMO based radio interface, not backwards compatible with previous CDMA interfaces. Dual-Cell HSDPA. UMTS HNB. Release 9 2009 Q4 SAES Enhancements, WiMAX and LTE/UMTS Interoperability. Dual-Cell HSDPA with MIMO, Dual-Cell HSUPA. LTE HeNB. Evolved multimedia broadcast and multicast service (eMBMS). Release 10 2011 Q1 LTE Advanced fulfilling IMT Advanced 4G requirements. Backwards compatible with release 8 (LTE). Multi-Cell HSDPA (4 carriers). Release 11 2012 Q3 Advanced IP Interconnection of Services. Service layer interconnection between national operators/carriers as well as third-party application providers. Heterogeneous networks (HetNet) improvements, Coordinated Multi-Point operation (CoMP). In-device Co-existence (IDC). Release 12 2015 Q1 Enhanced Small Cells (higher order modulation, dual connectivity, cell discovery, self configuration), Carrier aggregation (2 uplink carriers, 3 downlink carriers, FDD/TDD carrier aggregation), MIMO (3D channel modeling, elevation beamforming, massive MIMO), New and Enhanced Services (cost and range of MTC, D2D communication, eMBMS enhancements)[14] Release 13 2016 Q1 LTE-Advanced Pro. LTE in unlicensed, LTE enhancements for Machine-Type Communication. Elevation Beamforming / Full-Dimension MIMO, Indoor positioning.[15] Release 14 2017 Q2 Energy Efficiency, Location Services (LCS), Mission Critical Data over LTE, Mission Critical Video over LTE, Flexible Mobile Service Steering (FMSS), Multimedia Broadcast Supplement for Public Warning System (MBSP), enhancement for TV services over eMBMS, massive Internet of Things, Cell Broadcast Service (CBS)[16] Release 15 2018 Q2 First 5G NR ("New Radio") release. Support for 5G Vehicle-to-x service, IP Multimedia Core Network Subsystem (IMS), Future Railway Mobile Communication System[17] Release 16 2020 Q3 The 5G System – Phase 2: 5G enhancements, NR-based access to unlicensed spectrum (NR-U), Satellite access[18] Release 17 2022 Q1 TSG RAN: Several features that continue to be important for overall efficiency and performance of 5G NR: MIMO, Spectrum Sharing enhancements, UE Power Saving and Coverage Enhancements. RAN1 will also undertake the necessary study and specification work to enhance the physical layer to support frequency bands up to 71 GHz. TSG SA groups focused on further enhancements to the 5G system and enablers for new features and services: Enhanced support of: non-public networks, industrial Internet of Things, low complexity NR devices, edge computing in 5GC, access traffic steering, switch and splitting support, network automation for 5G, network slicing, advanced V2X service, multiple USIM support, proximity-based services in 5GS, 5G multicast broadcast services, Unmanned Aerial Systems (UAS), satellite access in 5G, 5GC location services, Multimedia Priority Service...[19] Release 18 2023 Q4 5G-Advanced. Introducing further machine-learning based techniques at different levels of the wireless network. Edge computing, Evolution of IMS Multimedia Telephony Service, Smart Energy and Infrastructure, Vehicle-Mounted Relays, Low Power High Accuracy Positioning for industrial IoT scenarios, Enhanced Access to and Support of Network slicing, Satellite backhaul in 5G...[20][21][19] Release 19 [22] 2025 Q4 5G-Advanced. Each release incorporates hundreds of individual Technical Specification and Technical Report documents, each of which may have been through many revisions. Current 3GPP standards incorporate the latest revision of the GSM standards. The documents are made available without charge on 3GPP's web site. The Technical Specifications cover not only the radio part ("Air Interface") and Core Network, but also billing information and speech coding down to source code level. Cryptographic aspects (such as authentication, confidentiality) are also specified. The 3GPP specification work is done in Technical Specification Groups (TSGs) and Working Groups (WGs).[23] There are three Technical Specifications Groups, each of which consists of multiple WGs: RAN (Radio Access Network): RAN specifies the UTRAN and the E-UTRAN. It is composed of six working groups. WG Shorthand Scope Specifications RAN WG1 RAN1 Radio Layer 1 (Physical layer) List of specs RAN WG2 RAN2 Radio Layer 2 and Radio Layer 3 Radio Resource Control List of specs RAN WG3 RAN3 UTRAN, E-UTRAN, NG-RAN architecture and related network interfaces List of specs RAN WG4 RAN4 Radio performance and protocol aspects List of specs RAN WG5 RAN5 Mobile terminal conformance testing List of specs SA (Service and System Aspects): SA specifies the service requirements and the overall architecture of the 3GPP system. It is also responsible for the coordination of the project. SA is composed of six working groups. WG Shorthand Scope Specifications SA WG1 SA1 Services List of specs SA WG2 SA2 Architecture List of specs SA WG3 SA3 Security List of specs SA WG4 SA4 Codec List of specs SA WG5 SA5 Management, Orchestration and Charging List of specs SA WG6 SA6 Application Enablement and Critical Communication Applications List of specs CT (Core Network and Terminals): CT specifies the core network and terminal parts of 3GPP. It includes the core network – terminal layer 3 protocols. It is composed of five working groups. WG Shorthand Scope Specifications CT WG1 CT1 User Equipment – Core Network protocols List of specs CT WG2 CT2 closed CT WG3 CT3 Interworking with external networks List of specs CT WG4 CT4 Core Network Protocols List of specs CT WG5 CT5 closed CT WG6 CT6 Smart Card Application Aspects List of specs GERAN (GSM/EDGE Radio Access Network): The closure of GERAN was announced in January 2016.[24] The specification work on legacy GSM/EDGE system was transferred to RAN WG, RAN6. RAN6 was closed in July 2020 (. The 3GPP structure also includes a Project Coordination Group, which is the highest decision-making body. Its missions include the management of overall timeframe and work progress. 3GPP standardization work is contribution-driven. Companies ("individual members") participate through their membership to a 3GPP Organizational Partner. As of December 2020, 3GPP is composed of 719 individual members.[25] Specification work is done at WG and at TSG level:[26] the 3GPP WGs hold several meetings a year. They prepare and discuss change requests against 3GPP specifications. A change request accepted at WG level is called "agreed". the 3GPP TSGs hold plenary meetings quarterly. The TSGs can "approve" the change requests that were agreed at WG level. Some specifications are under the direct responsibility of TSGs and therefore, change requests can also be handled at TSG level. The approved change requests are subsequently incorporated in 3GPP specifications. 3GPP follows a three-stage methodology as defined in ITU-T Recommendation I.130:[27] stage 1 specifications define the service requirements from the user point of view. stage 2 specifications define an architecture to support the service requirements. stage 3 specifications define an implementation of the architecture by specifying protocols in details. Test specifications are sometimes defined as stage 4, as they follow stage 3. Specifications are grouped into releases. A release consists of a set of internally consistent set of features and specifications. Timeframes are defined for each release by specifying freezing dates. Once a release is frozen, only essential corrections are allowed (i.e. addition and modifications of functions are forbidden). Freezing dates are defined for each stage. The 3GPP specifications are transposed into deliverables by the Organizational Partners. List of mobile phone generations Universal Mobile Telecommunications System (UMTS) 3GPP Long Term Evolution Evolution to 3G IP Multimedia Subsystem 3GP 3GPP2 – The 3GPP's counterpart in the CDMA2000 sphere. GSM services LoRaWAN Telecoms & Internet converged Services & Protocols for Advanced Networks (TISPAN) Open Mobile Alliance Service data adaptation protocol Service layer European Telecommunications Standards Institute ^ 3GPP Scope and Objectives, 31 August 2007 ^ "About 3GPP". 3GPP. Retrieved 10 March 2019. ^ "3GPP Background". 7 June 2000. Archived from the original on 6 July 2000. ^ "3rd Generation Partnership Project 2". Archived from the original on 23 January 2004. Retrieved 25 November 2012. ^ "Mobile Competence Centre". 3GPP. Retrieved 10 March 2019. ^ a b "Partners". 3GPP. Retrieved 1 January 2025. ^ Releases ^ "3GPP Specifications – Releases (and phases and stages)". Retrieved 16 September 2010. ^ Overview of 3GPP Release 99, Summary of all Release 99 Features. ETSI Mobile Competence Centre, Version xx/07/04 ^ Overview of 3GPP Release 4, Summary of all Release 4 Features, v.1.1.0 (draft) ETSI Mobile Competence Centre 2004 ^ Summary of all Release 5 Features, ETSI Mobile Competence Centre, Version 9 September 2003 ^ Overview of 3GPP Release 6, Summary of all Release 6 Features, Version TSG #33, ETSI Mobile Competence Centre 2006 ^ Review of the Work Plan at Plenaries #31, 3GPP, SP-060232 3GPP TSG SA#31 Sanya, 13–16 March 2006 ^ "Highlights of 3GPP Release 12". Retrieved 20 November 2014. ^ "Release 13 priorities". Retrieved 20 November 2014. ^ "3GPP Portal > Specifications". portal.3gpp.org. Retrieved 27 October 2016. ^ "3GPP Portal > Specifications". portal.3gpp.org. Retrieved 27 October 2016. ^ "3GPP Portal > Specifications". portal.3gpp.org. Retrieved 14 July 2020. ^ a b "5G evolution toward 5G advanced: An overview of 3GPP releases 17 and 18". Ericsson. Retrieved 25 August 2022. ^ "Release 18". 3gpp.org. Retrieved 25 November 2021. ^ "5G-Advanced's system architecture begins taking shape at 3GPP". Nokia. Retrieved 25 November 2021. ^ "Release 19". 3GPP. Retrieved 8 September 2024. ^ "Specification Groups". Archived from the original on 9 May 2011. Retrieved 11 April 2011. ^ closure of GERAN ^ 3GPP membership ^ 3GPP TR 21.900 Technical Specification Group working methods ^ ITU-T Recommendation I.130 3GPP website 3GPP Standards List of Acronyms & Terminology 3GPP freely published, detailed technical specifications 3GPP releases descriptions ETSI GSM UMTS 3GPP Numbering Cross Reference TS/TR specification numbering Tool for visualizing multiple inter-related 3gpp standards Tool for visualizing, decoding, encoding network protocol messages defined by 3gpp LTE-3GPP.info: online 3GPP messages decoder fully supporting Rel.15 Retrieved from " 8Multimedia file format families 3GPFilename extension .3gp, .3gppInternet media type video/3gpp, audio/3gppUniform Type Identifier (UTI)public.3gppDeveloped by3GPPInitial release4 April 2003; 22 years ago (2003-04-04)[1]Latest release17.0.0[1]7 April 2022; 3 years ago (2022-04-07) Type of formatContainer formatContainer foraudio, video, textExtended fromMPEG-4 Part 12Open format?YesFree format?No 3G2Filename extension .3g2, .3gp2, .3gpp2Internet media type video/3gpp2, audio/3gpp2Uniform Type Identifier (UTI)public.3gpp2Developed by3GPP2Initial releaseJanuary 2004; 21 years ago (2004-01)[2]Latest releaseC.S0050-B v1.0[2]September 2024; 8 months ago (2024-09) Type of formatContainer formatContainer foraudio, video, textExtended fromMPEG-4 Part 12Open format?YesFree format?yes 3GP (3GPP file format) is a digital multimedia container format defined by the Third Generation Partnership Project (3GPP) for 3G UMTS multimedia services. It is very similar to the 3GP file format but consumes less space and bandwidth, and has some extensions and limitations in comparison to 3GP. 3GP is defined in the ETSI 3GPP technical specification.[1] 3GP is a required file format for video and associated speech/audio media types and timed text in ETSI 3GPP technical specifications for IP Multimedia Subsystem (IMS), Multimedia Messaging Service (MMS), Multimedia Broadcast/Multicast Service (MBMS) and Transparent end-to-end Packet-switched Streaming Service (PSS).[3][4][5][6] 3G2 is defined in the 3GPP2 technical specification.[2] The factual accuracy of parts of this article (those related to 3GP codec list (see release 12 of 2016 p.65)) may be compromised due to out-of-date information. The reason given is: 3GP has expanded codec lists while 3G2 has stagnated. Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. (February 2021) Relations between ISO Base Media File Format, MP4 File Format, 3GPP file format and 3GPP2 file format. Based on the 3GPP2 technical specification published on 18 May 2007.[7] The 3GP and 3G2 file formats are both structurally based on the ISO base media file format defined in ISO/IEC 14496-12 – MPEG-4 Part 12,[8][9][10] but older versions of the 3GP file format did not use some of its features.[7] 3GP and 3G2 are container formats similar to MPEG-4 Part 14 (MP4), which is also based on MPEG-4 Part 12. The 3GP and 3G2 file format were designed to decrease storage and bandwidth requirements to accommodate mobile phones. They are good for lower end smartphones for faster streaming & download. 3GP and 3G2 are similar standards, but with some differences: 3GPP file format was designed for GSM-based phones and may have the filename extension .3gp 3GPP2 file format was designed for CDMA-based phones and may have the filename extension .3g2 Some cell phones use the .mp4 extension for 3GP video. The 3GP file format stores video streams as MPEG-4 Part 2, H.263, or MPEG-4 Part 10 (AVC/H.264), and audio streams as AMR-NB, AMR-WB, AMR-WB+, AAC-LC, HE-AAC v1 or Enhanced aacPlus (HE-AAC v2). 3GPP allowed use of AMR and H.263 codecs in the ISO base media file format (MPEG-4 Part 12), because 3GPP specified the usage of the Sample Entry and template fields in the ISO base media file format as well as defining new boxes to which codecs refer. These extensions were registered by the registration authority for code-points in ISO base media file format ("MP4 Family" files).[11][12] For the storage of MPEG-4 media specific information in 3GP files, the 3GP specification refers to MP4 and the AVC file format, which are also based on the ISO base media file format. The MP4 and the AVC file format specifications described usage of MPEG-4 content in the ISO base media file format.[8] A 3GP file is always big-endian, storing and transferring the most significant bytes first. [citation needed] The 3G2 file format can store the same video streams and most of the audio streams used in the 2007 3GP file format. In addition, 3G2 stores audio streams as EVRC, EVRC-B, EVRC-WB, 13K (QCELP), SMV or VMR-WB, which was specified by 3GPP2 for use in ISO base media file format.[12] The 3G2 specification also defined some enhancements to 3GPP Timed Text. 3G2 file format does not store Enhanced aacPlus (HE-AAC v2) and AMR-WB+ audio streams.[7] For the storage of MPEG-4 media (AAC audio, MPEG-4 Part 2 video, MPEG-4 Part 10 – H.264/AVC) in 3G2 files, the 3G2 specification refers to the MP4 file format and the AVC file format specification, which described usage of this content in the ISO base media file format. For the storage of H.263 and AMR content 3G2 specification refers to the 3GP file format specification.[7] Most 3G capable mobile phones support the playback and recording of video in 3GP format (memory, maximum filesize for playback and recording, and resolution limits exist and vary).[citation needed] Some newer/higher-end phones without 3G capabilities may also playback and record in this format (again, with said limitations).[citation needed] Audio imported from CD onto a PlayStation 3 when it is set to encode to the MPEG-4 AAC format copies onto USB devices in the 3GP format. [citation needed] The Nintendo 3DS used 3GP technology to play YouTube videos. Apple iDevices used to support files for playback only as passthrough files, hence no editing ability, but since iOS 9 this has been deprecated meaning files of this format have to be manually converted to H.264.[citation needed] When transferred to a computer, 3GP movies can be viewed on Microsoft Windows, Apple macOS, and the various Linux-based operating systems; on the former two with Windows Media Player[13] and Apple QuickTime[14] respectively (their built-in media players), and on all three with VLC media player.[15] Programs such as Media Player Classic, K-Multimedia Player, Totem, RealPlayer, MPlayer, and GOM Player can also be used. 3GP and 3G2 files can be encoded and decoded with open source software FFmpeg.[16] Media tags can be read and written on Linux, macOS and Windows using the open source AtomicParsley command-line utility.[17] computer programming portal Comparison of (audio/video) container formats SIF (Source Input Format) CIF (Common Intermediate Format) ^ a b c ETSI 3GPP 3GPP TS 26.244; Transparent end-to-end packet switched streaming service (PSS); 3GPP file format (3GP) Retrieved on 2009-06-02. ^ a b c "3GPP2 C.S0050, 3GPP2 File Formats for Multimedia Services, File Format for Multimedia Services for cdma2000". 3GPP2. 2003. 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Retrieved 2024-06-24. 3GPP codecs specifications; 3G and beyond / GSM, 26 series 3GPP file format (3GP); 3GPP TS 26.244; Transparent end-to-end packet switched streaming service (PSS) - specification 3GPP2 specifications 3GPP2 File Formats for Multimedia Services; 3GPP2 C.S0050-B Version 1.0 - specification RFC 3839, MIME Type Registrations for 3rd Generation Partnership Project (3GPP) Multimedia files RFC 4393, MIME Type Registrations for 3GPP2 Multimedia Files RFC 4281, The Codecs Parameter for "Bucket" Media Types 3GP & 3G2 File Formats Retrieved from " 9Multimedia file format families 3GPFilename extension .3gp, .3gppInternet media type video/3gpp, audio/3gppUniform Type Identifier (UTI)public.3gppDeveloped by3GPPInitial release4 April 2003; 22 years ago (2003-04-04)[1]Latest release17.0.0[1]7 April 2022; 3 years ago (2022-04-07) Type of formatContainer formatContainer foraudio, video, textExtended fromMPEG-4 Part 12Open format?YesFree format?No 3G2Filename extension .3g2, .3gp2, .3gpp2Internet media type video/3gpp2, audio/3gpp2Uniform Type Identifier (UTI)public.3gpp2Developed by3GPP2Initial releaseJanuary 2004; 21 years ago (2004-01)[2]Latest releaseC.S0050-B v1.0[2]September 2024; 8 months ago (2024-09) Type of formatContainer formatContainer foraudio, video, textExtended fromMPEG-4 Part 12Open format?YesFree format?yes 3GP (3GPP file format) is a digital multimedia container format defined by the Third Generation Partnership Project (3GPP) for 3G UMTS multimedia services, largely based on MPEG-4 Part 12. A 3GP container may consist of H.263 or H.264 video codecs or AMR or AAC-LC audio codecs. 3G2 (3GPP2 file format) is a multimedia container format defined by the 3GPP2 for 3G CDMA2000 multimedia services. It is very similar to the 3GP file format but consumes less space and bandwidth, and has some extensions and limitations in comparison to 3GP. 3GP is defined in the ETSI 3GPP technical specification.[1] 3GP is a required file format for video and associated speech/audio media types and timed text in ETSI 3GPP technical specifications for IP Multimedia Subsystem (IMS), Multimedia Messaging Service (MMS), Multimedia Broadcast/Multicast Service (MBMS) and Transparent end-to-end Packet-switched Streaming Service (PSS).[3][4][5][6] 3G2 is defined in the 3GPP2 technical specification.[2] The factual accuracy of parts of this article (those related to 3GP codec list (see release 12 of 2016 p.65)) may be compromised due to out-of-date information. The reason given is: 3GP has expanded codec lists while 3G2 has stagnated. Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. (February 2021) Relations between ISO Base Media File Format, MP4 File Format, 3GPP file format and 3GPP2 file format. Based on the 3GPP2 technical specification published on 18 May 2007.[7] The 3GP and 3G2 file formats are both structurally based on the ISO base media file format defined in ISO/IEC 14496-12 – MPEG-4 Part 12,[8][9][10] but older versions of the 3GP file format did not use some of its features.[7] 3GP and 3G2 are container formats similar to MPEG-4 Part 14 (MP4), which is also based on MPEG-4 Part 12. The 3GP and 3G2 file format were designed to decrease storage and bandwidth requirements to accommodate mobile phones. They are good for lower end smartphones for faster streaming & download. 3GP and 3G2 are similar standards, but with some differences: 3GPP file format was designed for GSM-based phones and may have the filename extension .3gp 3GPP2 file format was designed for CDMA-based phones and may have the filename extension .3g2 Some cell phones use the .mp4 extension for 3GP video. The 3GP file format stores video streams as MPEG-4 Part 2, H.263, or MPEG-4 Part 10 (AVC/H.264), and audio streams as AMR-NB, AMR-WB, AMR-WB+, AAC-LC, HE-AAC v1 or Enhanced aacPlus (HE-AAC v2). 3GPP allowed use of AMR and H.263 codecs in the ISO base media file format (MPEG-4 Part 12), because 3GPP specified the usage of the Sample Entry and template fields in the ISO base media file format as well as defining new boxes to which codecs refer. These extensions were registered by the registration authority for code-points in ISO base media file format ("MP4 Family" files).[11][12] For the storage of MPEG-4 media specific information in 3GP files, the 3GP specification refers to MP4 and the AVC file format, which are also based on the ISO base media file format. The MP4 and the AVC file format specifications described usage of MPEG-4 content in the ISO base media file format.[8] A 3GP file is always big-endian, storing and transferring the most significant bytes first. [citation needed] The 3G2 file format can store the same video streams and most of the audio streams used in the 2007 3GP file format. In addition, 3G2 stores audio streams as EVRC, EVRC-B, EVRC-WB, 13K (QCELP), SMV or VMR-WB, which was specified by 3GPP2 for use in ISO base media file format.[12] The 3G2 specification also defined some enhancements to 3GPP Timed Text. 3G2 file format does not store Enhanced aacPlus (HE-AAC v2) and AMR-WB+ audio streams.[7] For the storage of MPEG-4 media (AAC audio, MPEG-4 Part 2 video, MPEG-4 Part 10 – H.264/AVC) in 3G2 files, the 3G2 specification refers to the MP4 file format and the AVC file format specification, which described usage of this content in the ISO base media file format. 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Apple iDevices used to support files for playback only as passthrough files, hence no editing ability, but since iOS 9 this has been deprecated meaning files of this format have to be manually converted to H.264.[citation needed] When transferred to a computer, 3GP movies can be viewed on Microsoft Windows, Apple macOS, and the various Linux-based operating systems; on the former two with Windows Media Player[13] and Apple QuickTime[14] respectively (their built-in media players), and on all three with VLC media player.[15] Programs such as Media Player Classic, K-Multimedia Player, Totem, RealPlayer, MPlayer, and GOM Player can also be used. 3GP and 3G2 files can be encoded and decoded with open source software FFmpeg.[16] Media tags can be read and written on Linux, macOS and Windows using the open source AtomicParsley command-line utility.[17] computer programming portal Comparison of (audio/video) container formats SIF (Source Input Format) CIF (Common Intermediate Format) ^ a b c ETSI 3GPP 3GPP TS 26.244; Transparent end-to-end packet switched streaming service (PSS); 3GPP file format (3GP) Retrieved on 2009-06-02. ^ a b c "3GPP2 C.S0050, 3GPP2 File Formats for Multimedia Services, File Format for Multimedia Services for cdma2000". 3GPP2. 2003. 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Retrieved 2020-07-25. ^ "VLC Media Player features". VLC. Retrieved 2020-07-25. ^ "FFmpeg, General Documentation, Supported File Formats and Codecs". FFmpeg. Retrieved 2009-06-11. ^ "AtomicParseley". Wez Furlong. Retrieved 2024-06-24. 3GPP codecs specifications; 3G and beyond / GSM, 26 series 3GPP file format (3GP); 3GPP TS 26.244; Transparent end-to-end packet switched streaming service (PSS) - specification 3GPP2 specifications 3GPP2 File Formats for Multimedia Services; 3GPP2 C.S0050-B Version 1.0 - specification RFC 3839, MIME Type Registrations for 3rd Generation Partnership Project (3GPP) Multimedia files RFC 4393, MIME Type Registrations for 3GPP2 Multimedia Files RFC 4281, The Codecs Parameter for "Bucket" Media Types 3GP & 3G2 File Formats Retrieved from " 10 The following pages link to 3GP and 3G2 External tools (link count transclusion count sorted list) · See help page for transcluding these entries Showing 50 items. View (previous 50 | next 50) (20 | 50 | 100 | 250 | 500)Au file format (links | edit) Data compression (links | edit) GIF (links | edit) H.263 (links | edit) ITU-T (links | edit) JPEG (links | edit) JPEG Network Graphics (links | edit) MP3 (links | edit) Moving Picture Experts Group (links | edit) MPEG-1 (links | edit) MPEG-2 (links | edit) MPEG-4 (links | edit) Multiple-image Network Graphics (links | edit) Ogg (links | edit) PNG (links | edit) QuickTime (links | edit) Run-length encoding (links | edit) Vorbis (links | edit) WAV (links | edit) Windows Media Audio (links | edit) Audio Video Interleave (links | edit) M-law algorithm (links | edit) ATRAC (links | edit) Image compression (links | edit) RealMedia (links | edit) Video codec (links | edit) RealAudio (links | edit) Discrete cosine transform (links | edit) JPEG 2000 (links | edit) Shorten (codec) (links | edit) Interchange File Format (links | edit) Audio Interchange File Format (links | edit) DivX (links | edit) FLAC (links | edit) Dolby Digital (links | edit) G.723.1 (links | edit) G.711 (links | edit) Resource Interchange File Format (links | edit) TIFF (links | edit) Material Exchange Format (links | edit) MPEG-1 Audio Layer II (links | edit) Theora (links | edit) Dirac (video compression format) (links | edit) Monkey's Audio (links | edit) Motion JPEG (links | edit) MPEG-7 (links | edit) MPEG-21 (links | edit) Xvid (links | edit) FFmpeg (links | edit) Advanced Audio Coding (links | edit) View (previous 50 | next 50) (20 | 50 | 100 | 250 | 500) Retrieved from " WhatLinksHere/3GP_and_3G2" If you’re one of those people who is considering joining the police force, you must have already thought of the tests you have to pass to become a police officer. Not only does qualifying for the job of a police officer involve performing a series of exams and tests, it also consists of passing the same satisfactorily so that you can move forward in the hiring process. Needless to say, policing definitely isn’t an easy career, especially for someone who is terrified of exams and tests. These tests exist to measure your overall mindset and mental stability; it’s not the the agency doesn’t “trust” you…it is about the fact that since the you will hold a position of great responsibility and will carry a firearm with live ammunition, they need to know that you can handle both others as well as yourself, and can respond according to the situation. You will thus have to prove that you’re absolutely fit not only physically but also mentally, which requires you to sit for these tests, and include the polygraph test and a psychological examination. Note however, that passing the polygraph is not a requirement solely for police officers, but also for other agencies like the state police, U.S. Customs and Border Protection, ICE, and candidates for federal agencies like the DEA, ATF and the FBI. Passing the polygraph exam is indeed of utmost importance if you wish to qualify for a career in law enforcement, which is exactly what we will be discussing in this post. According to research studies, polygraph examinations are highly unpopular. Many do not support the use of passing polygraph examination as necessary requirement for gaining entry into law enforcement since they are inadmissible in court. Having personally seen many a capable potential police officers getting disqualified due to (sometimes faulty) polygraph results, I would say that police polygraph tests aren’t really capable of detecting lies and weeding out the liars and fabricators from the pool. However, even as polygraph tests aren’t 100% accurate in detecting lies, they are as of now the best available tool to screen applicants and determine whether or not the applicant was being truthful. Which is pretty much the reason why they are used in the first place. Anyway, since pre-employment polygraph exams aren’t going anywhere anytime soon, you’d be better-off knowing about it in as much detail as possible, complete with tips on how you must prepare for a polygraph test. But first of all, you must have a clear understanding of what a polygraph really is, the reasons why people are indeed afraid of this test, and why in spite of its flaws, it continues to be an integral part of the hiring process. THE POLYGRAPH EXPLAINED So what is a polygraph? The first thing you should know about a polygraph is that it has no way of actually detecting when you are telling a lie. It basically works on the principle that when people lie, their body goes through various physiological upheavals, which is what the polygraph detects. By means of logical deduction, therefore, it can be said that when the polygraph detects such activity, it is most likely that the individual is lying. The polygraph, therefore, records physiological responses, such as the rate of perspiration, pulse, blood pressure and breathing rate. In particular, the polygraph system, which comes in both the antique analog model and the modern computerized model gathers physiological data from three specific areas of your body. The testing process involves 2 rubber tubes which are placed over the candidate’s abdomen and chest to monitor breathing activity, along