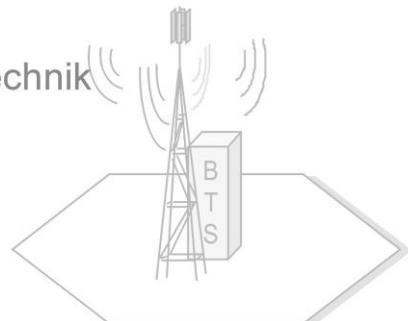


Evolution der öffentlichen Mobilfunknetze (3G/4G)

Chapter III: Coverage Planning



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1. Introduction/ Overview
2. Basics: Radio Transmission
3. Basics: Radio Network Planning
4. Physical Layer
5. Radio Interface Protocols
6. Architecture/ Core Network
7. Release 4/5
8. Applications





1. Basics of Radio Network Planning
2. Okumura-Hata
3. Coverage Areas
4. Interference in CDMA networks
5. Link Budget
6. Cell Capacity
7. Basic CDMA estimations





Decibels - a ratio of two powers.

Standard dB references include:

- **dBi** - power gain or loss relative to an isotropic antenna
- **dBd** - power gain or loss relative to a dipole antenna (0 dBd = 2.15 dBi)
- **dBm** - power gain or loss relative to 1 milliwatt (1 mW)
- $\text{dB} = 10 \log_{10} (P_1/P_2)$
- **EIRP** = Effective Isotropic Radiated Power



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- **Simplification of calculations**

- “big” numbers are transformed to “handy” numbers

- Instead of factor 1000 → 30 dB
- Instead of factor 1 Million → 60 dB
- Instead of factor 1/100 → -20 dB
- Instead of factor 1/billion → -90 dB

- E.g. free space loss :

$$\alpha = \frac{P_E}{P_S} = \left(\frac{\lambda}{4\pi d} \right)^2 = \left(\frac{c_0}{4\pi df} \right)^2$$

c_0	: Speed of light
d	: Distance
f	: Frequency

$$\alpha [\text{dB}] = -92,5 \text{dB} - 20 \log f(\text{GHz}) - 20 \log d(\text{km})$$





- CDMA networks are based on a frequency reuse factor of one
- Cells are separated by codes
- Capacity is interference limited
 - thus capacity is shared by several cells





- External (Outdoor) – cold, heat, rain, atmospheric moisture, lightning etc.
- Vegetation – depending on seasons
- Open – looks like line of site but..
- Cluttered - buildings, street furniture etc.
- Traffic – large and small vehicles moving in the coverage area, maybe obscuring paths.
- Co-located systems





Frequency (MHz) (dB/meter)	Approximate Attenuation
432	0.10 - 0.30
1296	0.15 - 0.40
2304	0.25 - 0.50
3300	0.40 - 0.60
5600	0.50 - 1.50
10000	1.00 - 2.00

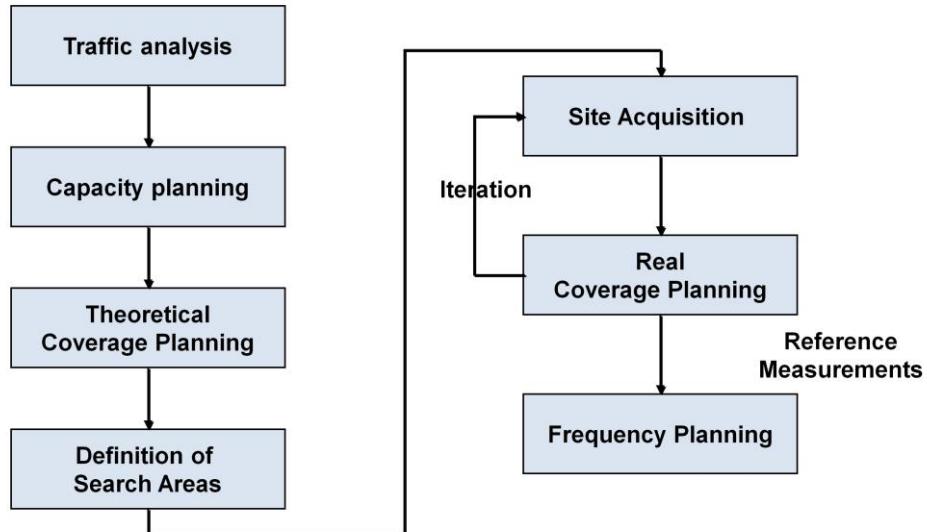




- 1.8 to 2.4 GHz signals may be attenuated by up to 0.05 dB/km by torrential rain (100-150mm/hr).
- Thick fog produces up to 0.02 dB/km attenuation.
- Even though rain itself does not cause major propagation problems, rain will collect on the leaves of trees and will produce additional attenuation until it evaporates.



Radio Network Planning





Prediction models:

- Cost 231-Okumura-Hata model (empirical, rough planning)
- Walfisch-Ikegami (empirical)
- UMTS 30.03
- Ray Tracing (knowledge of sites needed)
 - Accuracy $\pm 6\text{-}9 \text{ dB}$

Basic equation

$$L_{Path} = k_1 + k_2 \cdot ld(r) + \xi$$

$$\frac{C}{I} = \frac{C}{\sum_{User-I} I + N_0}$$

Goal: Determination of average transmission power to fulfil coverage probability



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L_{Path}	= Pfadverlust
r	= Abstand zum Sender
C	= Empfangsleistung Nutzsignal
I	= Störleistung
k	= Konstanten abhängig von der Umgebung, der Frequenz, der Sender- und Empfängerhöhe

Für die weiteren Betrachtungen ist es notwendig, den Zusammenhang zwischen Entfernung und Ausbreitungsdämpfung von Funkwellen zu verstehen: je weiter ein Empfänger von einem Sender entfernt ist, desto geringer ist der Anteil der ausgestrahlten Leistung, die beim Empfänger noch ankommt (vgl. Abbildung XXX).

Es gibt eine Vielzahl von mathematischen Modellen, die diese Abhängigkeit beschreiben. Der genaue Zusammenhang ist abhängig vom Frequenzbereich, von der Art der eingesetzten Antennen, von der Beschaffenheit der Umgebung etc. Das bekannteste Modell ist das Modell von Okumura-Hata, dass für einen Frequenzbereich von 500MHz bis 2GHz gültig ist. Das Modell basiert auf Messungen und kennt zwei Geländetypen und drei Arten von Bebauung.

Der UMTS-Standard enthält ebenfalls ein Dokument (ETSI TR 101 112, kurz UMTS 30.03), das verschiedene Szenarien und Modelle für die Leistungsbewertung von UMTS-Systemtechnik enthält. Dort werden auch Ausbreitungsmodelle für Gebäude angegeben.

Da die Dämpfung in einem weiten Bereich variieren kann, stellt man den Dämpfungsfaktor oft logarithmisch (in dB) dar. Da es sich um Leistungen handelt, rechnet man den logarithmischen Wert wie folgt in die lineare Darstellung um:

```
\begin{math}
D_{\text{linear}} = 10^{(D_{\text{logarithmisch}})/10}
\end{math}
```

Umgekehrt kommt man über die Formel

```
\begin{math}
D_{\text{logarithmisch}} = 10 * \log(D_{\text{linear}})
\end{math}
```

von einem linearen Wert zu einem Dämpfungsfaktor.



Basic Law:

$$Pr [\text{dBm}] = Ps [\text{dBm}] + G_{\text{Ant1}} [\text{dBi}] + G_{\text{Ant2}} [\text{dBi}] - L [\text{dB}] - M [\text{dB}]$$

with

- Pr Power received
- Ps Power send
- G_{Ant1} Directive Antenna gain
- L Path loss
- M Protection margin slow fading (due to moving obstacles and buildings) and fast fading (due to multi-path reception)
- d Distance in meters/km

Free space transmission loss is

$$L [\text{dB}] = 20 \log_{10}(4 * \pi * d [\text{m}] / \lambda [\text{m}])$$





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- The Hata model has been developed by Masahura Hata in 1980.
- It is based on empirically determined measurements of field strength in certain distances and different environments.
- The Model has been modified several times to eliminate several disadvantages e.g. restriction in frequency range and distance.
- Nowadays an ITU model is used:
 - ITU Specification ITU-R P.529-3
 - Usable at frequencies >600MHz and distances up to 60km





- Assumptions: uniform surface
- Three basic formulas for different coverage areas:
 - Urban (town)
 - Suburban
 - Rural
- Basic Okumura- Hata model is usable with following restrictions:
 - Frequency range (f): 150 - 1500 MHz
 - Height (sender) (h_b): 30 - 200 m
 - Height receiver (h_m): 1 - 10 m
 - Distance (d): 1 - 20 km
- Other models allow higher frequency ranges:
 - COST 231





Path-loss formula:

$$L[dB] = 69.55 + 26.16 \cdot \log_{10}(f) - 13.82 \cdot \log_{10}(h_b) \\ + (44.9 - 65.5 \cdot \log_{10}(h_b)) \cdot \log_{10}(d) - A_{hm}$$

Where

L = Path Loss from base station to the mobile unit;

f = Carrier Frequency in MHz;

h_b = Base Station Antenna height in metres above the ground level in the range 3-10km from the base station; h_b may therefore vary slightly with the direction of the mobile from the base;

R = Distance between base station and mobile in kilometres

h_m = mobile antenna height in metres

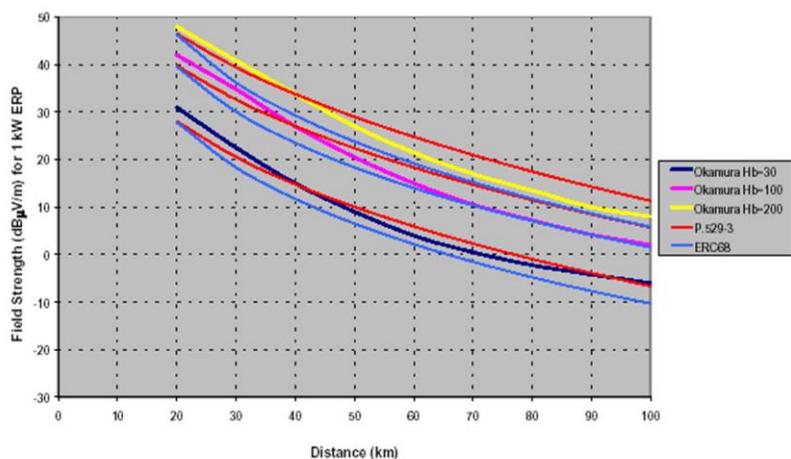
Correction for small and medium sized towns:

$$A_{hm} = (1.1 \cdot \log_{10}(f) - 0.7) \cdot h_m - (1.56 \cdot \log_{10}(f) - 0.8)$$





Okumura and Modified Hata Curves 450 MHz



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$$P(p_R > P_{R\min}) = \int_{P_{R\min}}^{\infty} p(p_R) dp_R$$

Probability, that the received power p_R will exceed the lowest possible level $P_{R\min}$

$$P_{CPixel} = 1 - \prod_{j=1}^{Count_{BS}} [1 - P(p_R > P_{R\min})]$$

Coverage probability in a small area (pixel) covered by several base stations

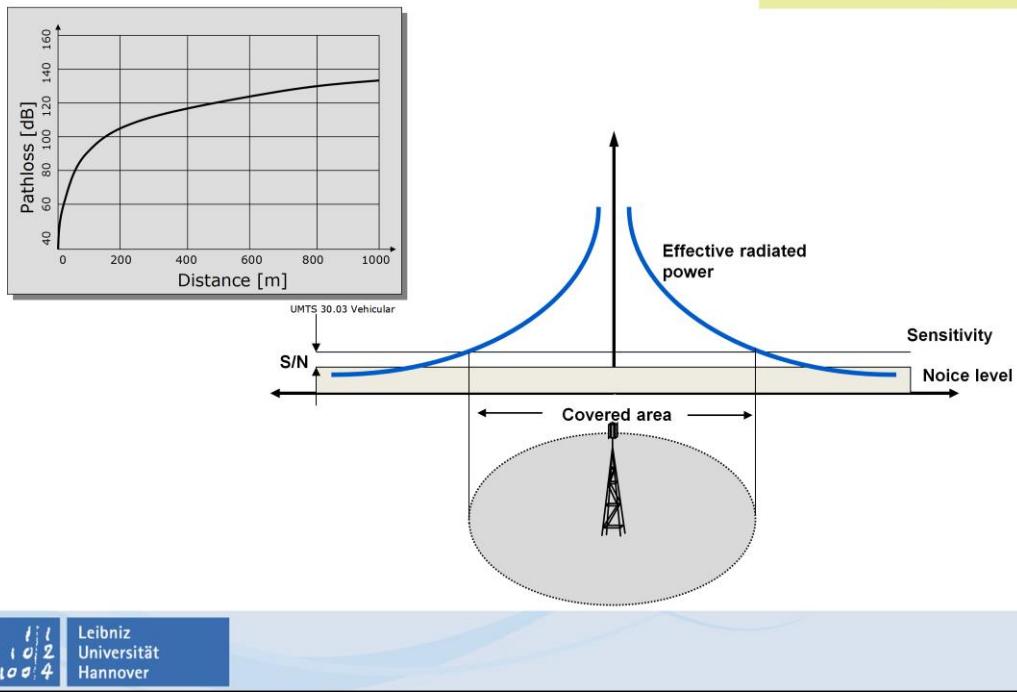
$$P_{CA} = \frac{1}{A} \sum_A \Delta A_i \cdot P_{CPixel}$$

Coverage probability for an area A



Ist die Wahrscheinlichkeitsdichtefunktion $p(pE)$ für einen Pixel mit der Empfangsfeldstärke pE und dem Mittelwert pE_{mittel} bekannt, kann die Versorgungswahrscheinlichkeit $P(pE > pE_{min})$ für ein Flächenelement mit dem Mindestpegel pE_{min} berechnet werden

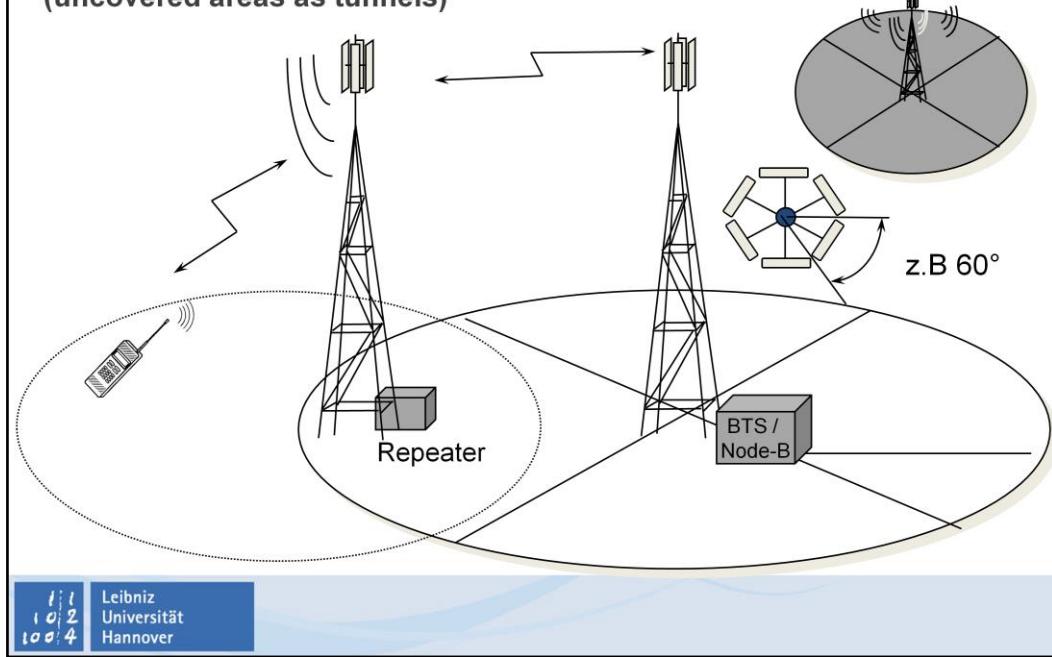
Coverage Area



The coverage in an area is given, when the signal level is higher than the sensitivity.
The sensitivity must have the signal to noise distance to the noise level.

This is an example for a noise limited coverage.

Network optimisation: Sectorized Antennas (capacity gains) and Repeater Solutions (uncovered areas as tunnels)



Repeater erhöhen die Reichweite des Systems, aber nicht die Verkehrskapazität! Sie sind allerdings wesentlich kostengünstiger als eine BTS.

Durch Sektorisierung, d.h. dem Einsatz von gerichteten Antennen, kann sowohl die Reichweite (höherer Antennengewinn) als auch die Kapazität des Systems verbessert werden.

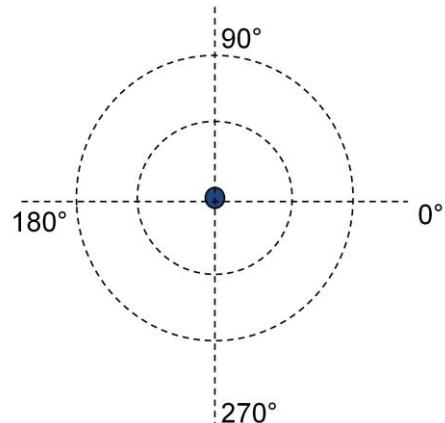
Gegebenfalls verringern sich auch die Frequenzwiederholabstände.

Das Bild zeigt die Bildung von Clustern bei der Planung von Frequenzwiederholabständen.



Isotroper Punktstrahler:

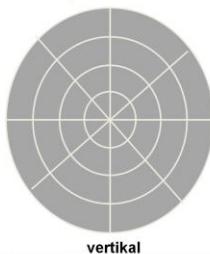
- gleichmäßige Abstrahlung in alle Richtungen
- horizontale und vertikale Abstrahlcharakteristik gleich



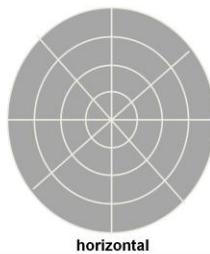


- Es findet keine tatsächliche Verstärkung, sondern die Bündelung der abgestrahlten Leistung in eine Vorzugsrichtung statt.
- Der Antennengewinn wird in dBi oder dBd angegeben:
 - Der Antennengewinn in dBi bezieht sich auf einen (rein theoretischen) isotropen Strahler.
 - Der Antennengewinn in dBd bezieht sich auf einen Dipol.
 - Ein Dipol hat im Vergleich zum isotropen Strahler einen Gewinn von 2,15 dBi.

Isotroper Strahler



vertikal

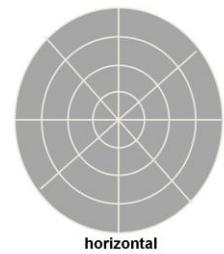


horizontal

Dipol



vertikal



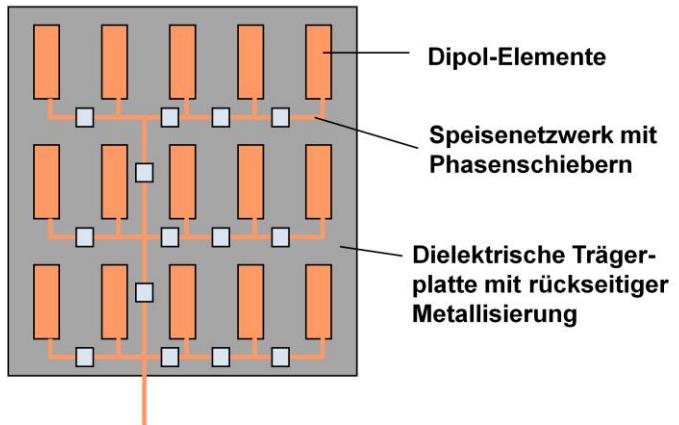
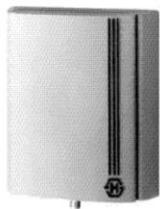
horizontal



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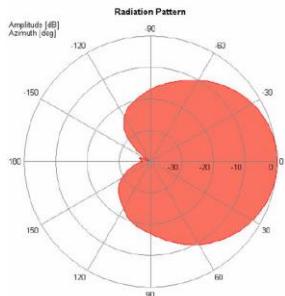
Patchantenne/ Panelantenne

- Dipol-Array in Form einer gedruckten Schaltung

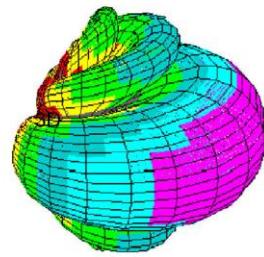
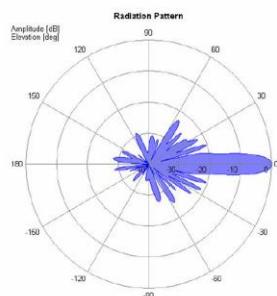


Beispiel: Strahlungsdiagramm mit 3D-Darstellung

horizontal



vertikal



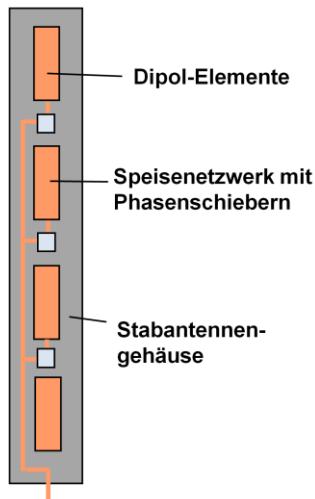
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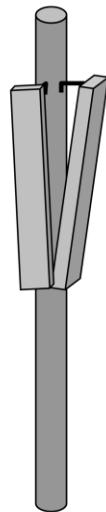
- **Neigung der Antenne:**
 - Vermeidung von Überreichweiten
 - Optimierung der Ausleuchtung
 - Reduktion von Interferenz
- **Unterscheidung:**
 - Mechanischer Down-Tilt
 - Elektronischer Down-Tilt



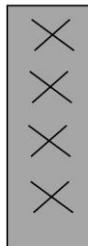
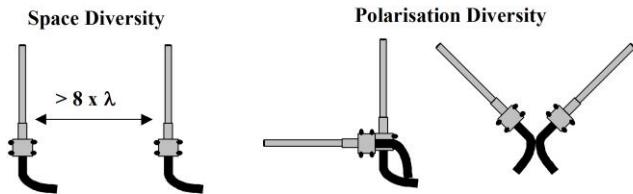
Vertikale Ebene einer Stabantenne mit elektronischem Down-Tilt



Aufbau Stabantenne omnidirektional mit elektronischem Down-Tilt



Panelantenne mit Down-Tilt durch geneigte Befestigung



Diversity gains are based on:

- different radio path
- different polarisations

E.g. strongest of two radio signals is used.



Short-range radio communications can be susceptible to the phenomenon of multi-path fading. This occurs when reflected signals arrive at a receiver over different paths and the difference in path length is long enough to result in a phase difference causing partial or complete signal cancellation. Multi-path fading is a well-known and significant problem for mobile/portable radio devices. As users or devices change position they pass in and out of 'dead spots'. To counter this many systems make use of antenna diversity, a technique that involves equipping one end of the link with two antennas and an antenna switch. If multi-path cancellation is being experienced at one antenna, this will reduce the signal strength, so the receiver will switch automatically to the other.

Two principle diversity mechanisms can be differentiated

Space diversity uses two antennas with the same orientation in a certain distance (more than 50% than a wavelength) whereas

Polarisation diversity uses the effect that the reception level will be different for different orientations of the antenna. In theory a vertical oriented dipole antenna will result in a better reception level at another vertical oriented antenna at the receiving end. But reflections cause changes in polarisation thus polarisation diversity works.



SISO

Single Input Single Output



MISO

Multiple Input Single Output



SIMO

Single Input Multiple Output



MIMO

Multiple Input Multiple Output

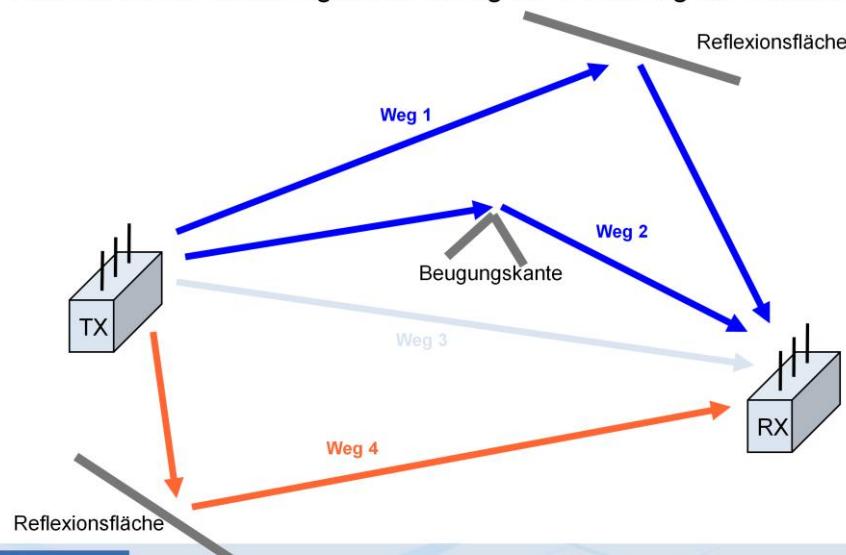




- SIMO
 - Diversityempfang
 - z. B. bei TETRA Basisstationen
- MISO
 - Elektronische Ausrichtung von Antennendiagrammen
 - z. B. militärische Radarsysteme und WiMAX
- MIMO
 - Ausnutzung von Mehrwegeausbreitung zur Erhöhung der Datenrate
 - z. B. IEEE 802.11n



- Ausnutzen der Mehrwegeausbreitung zur Erhöhung der Datenrate:

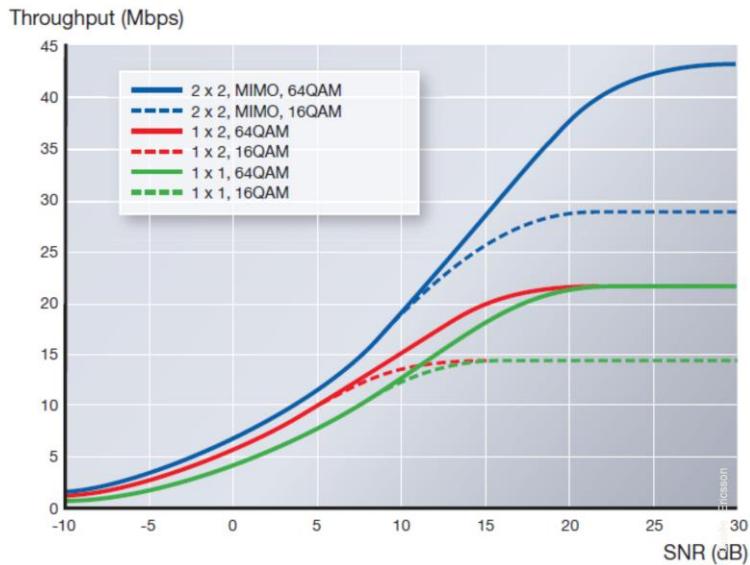




- Mehrwegeausbreitung wird genutzt, um verschiedene Inhalte zeitgleich auf derselben Frequenz zu übertragen.
- Das System ermittelt (Zeitdifferenz), welche verschiedenen Ausbreitungspfade zwischen Sender und Empfänger zur Verfügung stehen.
- Durch mehrere, einzeln ansteuerbare Antennen werden
 - am Sender Signale in verschiedene Richtungen abgestrahlt,
 - am Empfänger Signale den verschiedenen Richtungen (Ausbreitungspfade) zugeordnet.
- In einer Freien Fläche ohne Reflexionen und Beugung kann durch MIMO keine Erhöhung der Punkt-zu-Punkt Nutzerdatenrate erreicht werden.



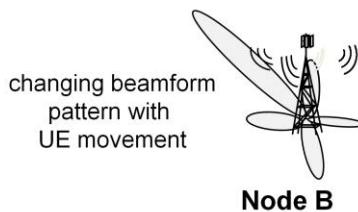
Datendurchsatz MIMO und mehrstufige Modulation





Smart Antenna Advantages:

- improved system capacity
- improved signal quality
- reduced UE output power
- increased coverage



array of multiple antenna elements



Beamforming and Smart Antennas²

With low chip rate TDD, the two leading technologies of an advanced TDMA system is combined with synchronous CDMA. One of the advanced technologies are smart antennas. With smart antennas,

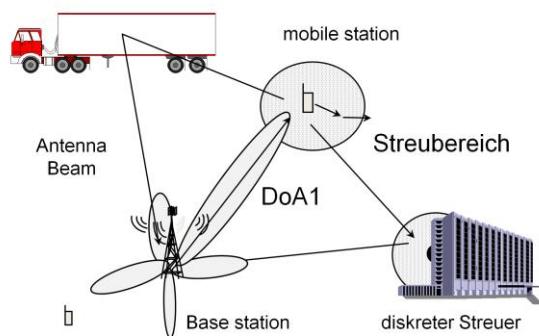
- the system capacity can be improved,
- the signal quality can be improved,
- the UE's transmission power can be reduced, and
- the coverage can be increased.

The Node B is equipped with a smart antenna and baseband DSPs (Digital Signaling Processors). A smart antenna consists of an array of K antenna elements, K feed cables, and K coherent RF transceiver in the RF part. All modules belong to the analogue part of the Node B. Analog/Digital (A/D) converters are used to make the analogue-digital conversation.

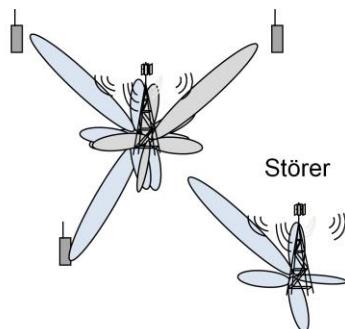
When a signal is transmitted from one UE, each antenna element and coherent RF transceiver will get it. The antenna elements are spatially separated. Thus, each of them will receive the incoming signal with a different amplitude, phase, and delay. This is also true in the case of a multipath propagation situation. The signals of all antenna elements will be digitized and sent with phase and amplitude information to the digital signaling processor. Here the de-spreading takes place, and a combination of the individual de-spreaded signals may take place. Hereby, the target is to get the best possible Signal-to-Interference Ratio for the combined signal.

In the TDD mode, uplink and downlink are realized on the same carrier bandwidth. Therefore, the characteristics of each signal arriving at the individual antenna elements can be used for downlink beamforming. The 5 ms sub-frames were introduced to allow hereby a fast beamforming. As an alternative, Tx Diversity can be used.

- 1.) Interferenz-Verringerung
Verbesserte Entzerrung



- 2.) Kapazitätserhöhung bis zu Faktor 3
Bedienung von bis zu 3 MS auf dem
gleichen Zeitschlitz und auf der
gleichen Frequenz

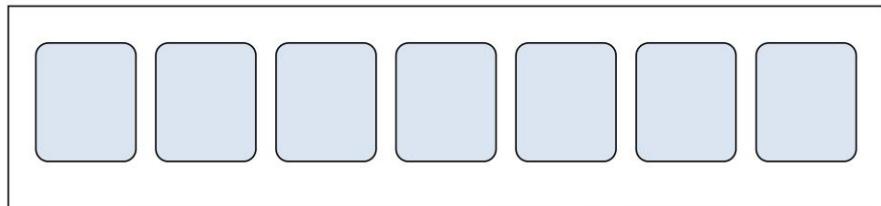
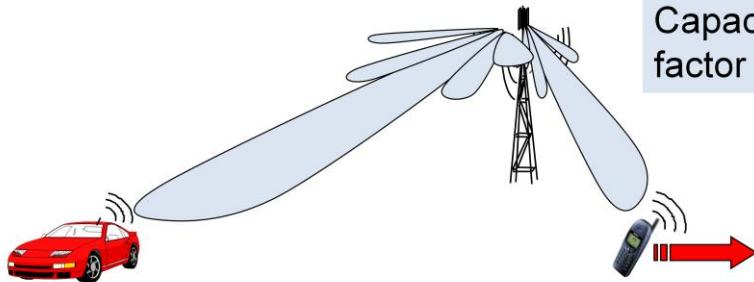


- 1.) Verringerung des Einflusses von Mehrwegepfaden und Interferenz: Die störenden einfallenden Wellenfronten werden in die Nullrichtungen der adaptiven Antenne gelegt.
- 2.) Eine Kapazitätserhöhung von einem Faktor ≤ 3 ist durch SDMA (Space Diversity Multiple Access) möglich. Dieses geschieht durch die Richtungstrennung der Strahlungskeulen. Allerdings sind aufwendige Algorithmen zur Steuerung der Antennen und zur Verwaltung der einzelnen sich bewegenden Teilnehmer notwendig.

Adaptive antennae



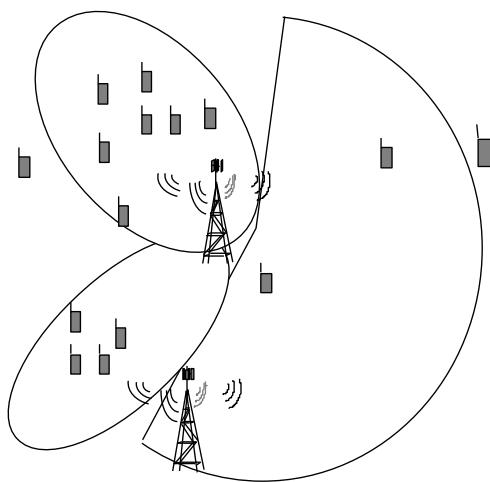
Beam is tracking user movements
Capacity gains of up to factor 3



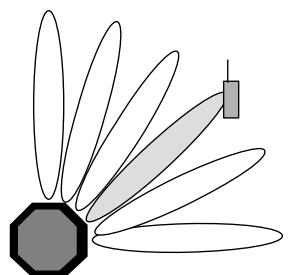
„Adaptive“ Antennen lassen sich auf zwei Arten erreichen. Die einfachste Antenne schaltet einfach zwischen verschiedenen Strahlungsrichtungen um. Bei Patch-Antennen sind aufwendige Algorithmen notwendig, die die einzelnen Antennenarrays phasenunterschiedlich zur Steuerung der Beams ansteuern.

Damit ist dann auch eine unterschiedliche Ausformung des Sektors, z.B. abhängig von Lastzuständen, möglich.

variable Sektoren



Switched Beam





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Interference

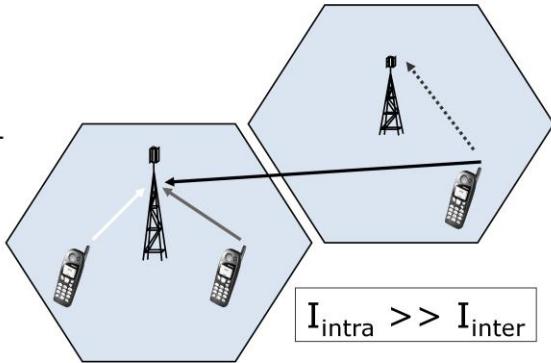


Intracell: due to transmitters within the same cell and within the same frequency channel (Multiple Access Interference)

Intercell: due to transmitters in other cells and with the same frequency channel

$$C/I = \frac{C}{I_{\text{intra}} + I_{\text{inter}}}$$

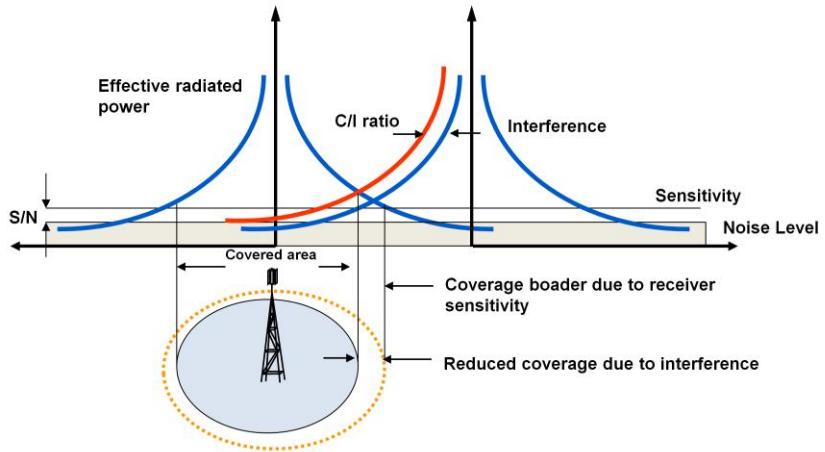
typically < 0 dB



Interference



The carrier to interference ratio is called C/I:



Receiver only can cope on two signals of the same frequency when signals have a difference of C/I in level.

This is an example for interference limited coverage.

You remember we already saw a noise limited coverage,

Link Budget

(Example FDD UL, speech, 8 kbit/s)



UE EIRP [dBm]	21
Receiver Noise Floor [dBm]	-103
Interference Power [dBm]	-98.26
Total (Noise + Interference) [dBm]	-97
Required C/I [dB]	-20.9
Receiver Sensitivity [dBm]	= -117.9
Gains and Losses at the BS [dB]	11
Maximum Pathloss [dB] (=Z1+Z6+Z7)	149.9
Fading Margin [dB]	12.3
Handover Gain [dB]	3
Link Budget [dB]	140.7

← =f(n)



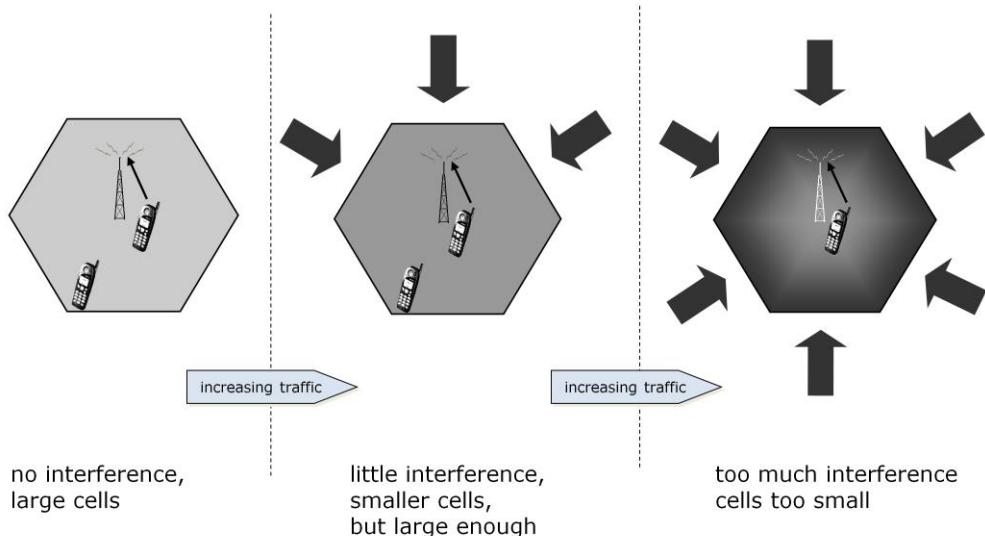
Radio Link Budget - uplink



	Service A	Service B	Service C
Transmitter (mobile)			
Max. mobile transmission power [W]	0.125	0.25	0.25
As above in dBm	21	24	24a
Mobile antenna gain [dBi]	0	2	2b
Body loss [dB]	3	0	0c
Equivalent Isotropic Radiated Power	18	26	26 d = a+b+c
Receiver (base station)			
Thermal noise density [dBm/Hz]	-174	-174	-174e
Base Station receiver noise figure [dB]	5	5	5f
Receiver Noise density [dBm/Hz]	-169	-169	-169g = e+f
Receiver Noise Power [dBm]	-103,2	-103,2	-103,2h = g+10*log(3840000)
Interference Margin [dB]	3	3	3i
Receiver interference Power [dBm]	-103,2	-103,2	-103,2j = 10*log(10^((h+i)/10)-10^(h/10))
Total effective noise + Interference [dBm]	-100,2	-100,2	-100,2k = 10*log(10^(h/10)+10^(i/10))
Processing Gain [dB]	25	14,3	10l = 10*log(3840/Rate)
Required Eb/No [dB]	5	1,5	1m
Receiver Sensitivity	-120,2	-113	-109,2n = m-l+k
Base Station antenna gain [dBi]	18	18	18o
Cable Loss in the base station [dB]	2	2	2p
Fast Fading margin [dB]	0	4	4q
Max. path loss [dB]	154,2	151	147,2 r = d-n+o-p-q
Coverage probability [%]	95	80	95
Log normal fading constant [dB]	7	12	7
Propagation model exponent	3,52	3,52	3,52
Log normal fading margin [dB]	7,3	4,2	7,3s
Soft handover gain [dB], multi-cell	3	2	0t
Indoor loss [dB]	8	15	0u
Allowed propagation loss for cell range [dB]	141,9	133,8	139,9v = r-s+t-u

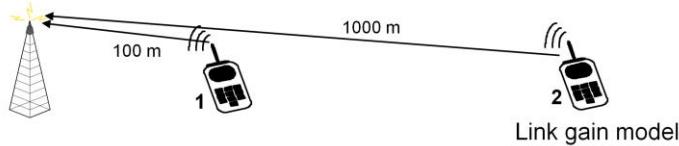


Cell-Breathing



- Both users transmit with the same power:

$$(p_{tx,1})_{dB} = (p_{tx,2})_{dB} = 24 \text{ dBm}$$



- Received power:

$$(p_{rx,1})_{dB} = 24 \text{ dBm} - 80 \text{ dBi} = -64 \text{ dBm}$$

$$(p_{rx,2})_{dB} = 24 \text{ dBm} - 120 \text{ dBi} = -104 \text{ dBm}$$

$$g_{ij} \approx d_{ij}^{-4}$$

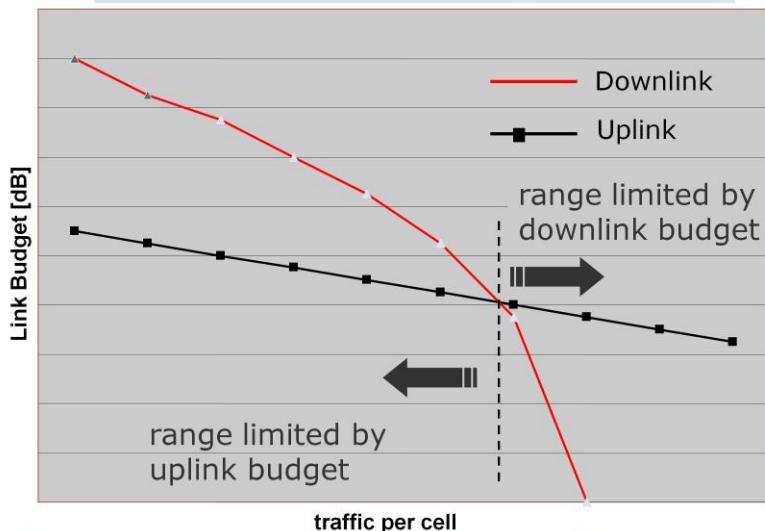
Near-far problem.

Signal received from mobile 1 is 10000 times stronger than the signal from mobile 2.





Traffic versus Link Budget (FDD)



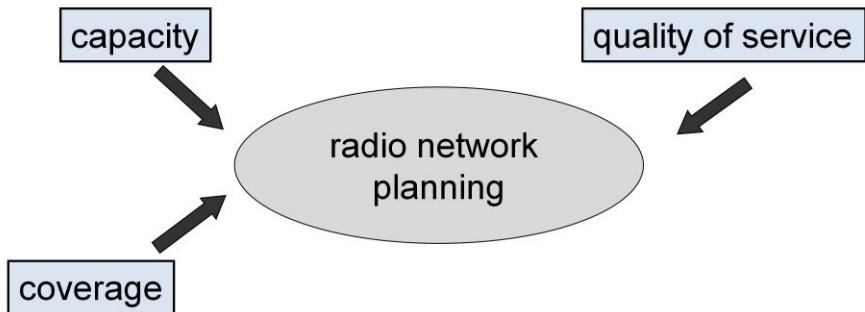


1. Basics of Radio Network Planning
2. Okumura-Hata
3. Coverage Areas
4. Interference in CDMA networks
5. Link Budget
6. Cell Capacity
7. Basic CDMA estimations





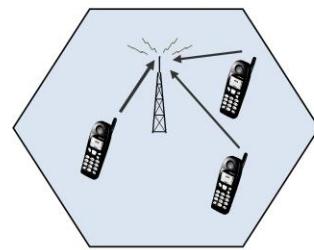
Due to the cell-breathing the cell size depends on the amount and on the type of traffic





FDD UL: quasi-orthogonal codes, single-user detector, perfect power control

$$\frac{C}{I} = \frac{1*C}{(n-1) * C}$$

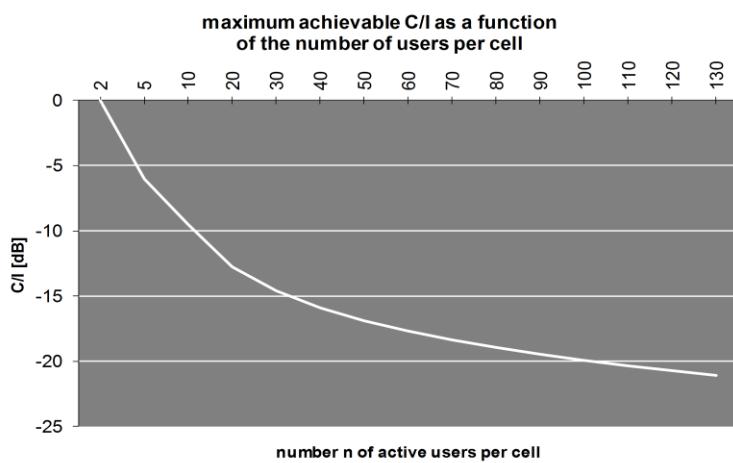


n=3 user



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Cell Capacity



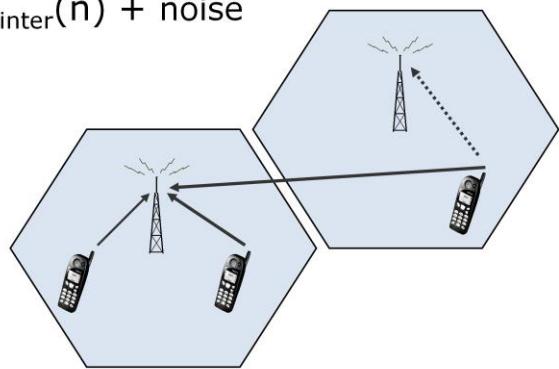
the achievable capacity depends on the
required minimum C/I value



Multi-Cell Capacity



$$\frac{C}{I} = \frac{1*C}{(n-1)*C + I_{\text{inter}}(n) + \text{noise}}$$



Interference within CDMA Systems



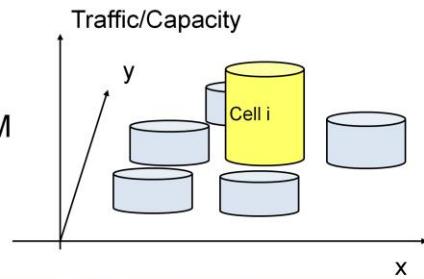
$$\left(\frac{C}{I}\right)_{\text{effective}} = \frac{S_{\text{Data}}}{\sum_{\text{User}} \frac{S_{\text{Interference } i} \cdot x_{\text{CrossCorrelation}} \cdot n_i}{G_P} + \frac{N_0}{G_P}}$$

- G_P Process gain due to spreading
 x Cross Correlation Factor (downlink)
 S Received Signal Power in dB
 N_0 Noise density
 n_i Activity





- Frequency planning is simplified:
 - Code planning necessary (simpler)
 - Coverage planning
 - Load planning
- Bundling gains are achieved due the usage of one air interface (5Mhz) for all services
- „Soft“-Capacity:
 - Influenced by chosen QoS
 - Traffic of neighbouring cells
- Capacity is higher compared to GSM





1. Basics of Radio Network Planning
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1. Capacity Simple CDMA Case
2. Load factor
3. Network Planning

1 | 1
1 | 0 | 2
1 | 0 | 0 | 4

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- assuming perfect power control, the received powers from all mobile users are the same.
- M is the total number of active users in a given band.
- The total interference power in the band equals the sum of powers of single users.
- Simple formula for CDMA capacity:

$$\frac{S}{N} = \frac{1}{M-1}$$



Here we look at capacity from the user interference side. To illustrate a basic case, we use the link reference parameter, i.e. E_b/N_0 , or energy per bit per noise power density, which later will apply to the link budget frame work.

Picking it up from equation, we consider the generic reverse-link capacity in CDMA as the limiting factor. Thus, assuming perfect power control for this instance, the received powers from all mobile users are the same.



- Now equating the energy per bit to the average modulating signal power

$$E_b = ST = \frac{S}{R} T$$

- where S is the average modulating signal power,
- T is bit time duration,
- R is the bit rate, i.e. $1/T$
- Then, incorporating the noise power density N_o , which is the total noise power N divided by the bandwidth B (i.e. $N_o = N/B$), we get

$$\frac{E_b}{N_o} = \frac{S}{N} \frac{B}{R} = \frac{1}{(M-1)} \frac{B}{R}$$

E_b/N_o , or energy per pit per noise power density





- Solving for M yields

$$M - 1 = \frac{(B / R)}{(E_b / N_o)}$$

- and for large M we get

$$M = \frac{(B / R)}{(E_B / N_0)} = \frac{G_p}{(E_B / N_0)}$$

- Where G_p corresponds to the system processing gain defined in equation,
- M defines the number of projected users in single CDMA cell with omnidirectional antenna without interference from neighbouring cells users transmitting continuously.

Theoretical Capacity Cell Loading



- In real 3G mobile networks there always exists more than one cell and more than one sector, thus we need to introduce a loading effect due to interference from neighbouring cells

$$\frac{E_b}{N_o} = \frac{1}{(M-1)} \frac{B}{R} \left(\frac{1}{1+\beta} \right)$$

- where β is the loading factor (ranging from 0 to 100%) as introduced
- Typical β values will range from 45 to 50%. The inverse of $(1+\beta)$ has often been defined as the frequency re-use factor, i.e. $F=1/(1+\beta)$. The ideal single cell CDMA value of $F=1$ (i.e. $\beta=0$) decreases as the loading of multi-cell environments increase.



Theoretical Capacity Influence of Sectorisation



- Sectorization gain λ :

$$\lambda = \frac{\int_0^{2\pi} I(\theta) d\theta}{\int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{A_G(\theta)}{A_G(0)} \right) I(\theta) d\theta}$$

- Where $A_G(0)$ is the peak antenna gain occurring generally at the bore sight (i.e. $\theta=0$), $A_G(\theta)$ is the horizontal antenna pattern of the sector antenna;
- $I(\theta)$ represents the received interference power from users of other cells as a function of θ .
- In practice $\lambda = 2.5$ for a three sector configuration and about 5 for a six sector one. Incorporating the sectorization gain in the loading effect, we get:

$$\frac{E_b}{N_o} = \frac{1}{(M-1)} \frac{B}{R} \left(\frac{1}{1+\beta} \right) \lambda$$



Sectorization can decrease interference from other users in other cells. Thus, instead of deploying only omnidirectional antennas with 360° a majority (if not) all sites can bear at least three sectors (e.g. 120°), and allow thereby the sectorized antenna to reject interference from users outside its antenna pattern.

Theoretical Capacity

Activity and Orthogonality



- Initially for the single cell case, we have assumed continuous transmission. However, this does not occur for voice and some multimedia services; although it does for data. Thus, we will now introduce an activity factor $1/v$ to reflect this event in the UL loading effect. Then, we get

$$\frac{E_b}{N_o} = \frac{1}{(M-1)R} \left(\frac{1}{1+\beta} \right) \lambda \left(\frac{1}{v} \right)$$

- where v may range from 40 to 50% for voice and 1% for data. Therefore, the value of v reduces the overall interference of the UL loading effect equation. For the downlink (DL) we need an additional parameter ε to reflect the orthogonality of the transmission. Thus empirically, we can express it as:

$$\frac{E_b}{N_o} = \frac{1}{(M-1)R} \left(\frac{1}{(1-\varepsilon)+\beta} \right) \lambda \left(\frac{1}{v} \right)$$





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1 | 1
1 | 0 | 2
1 | 0 | 0 | 4

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Standard path-loss assumption:

$$L = 137.4 + 35.2 \log_{10}(R)$$

- Where L is the path loss in dB and R is the range in km.
- For suburban areas we assume an additional area correction factor of 8 dB and obtain the path loss as:

$$L = 129.4 + 35.2 \log_{10}(R)$$

Example:

- According to Equation (1), the cell range of 12.2 kbps speech service with 141.9 dB path loss in a suburban area would be 2.3 km. The range of 144 kbps indoors would be 1.4 km. Once the cell range R is determined, the site area, which is also a function of the base station sectorisation configuration, can then be derived. For a cell of hexagonal shape covered by an omnidirectional antenna, the coverage area can be approximated as $2.6R^2$.



The coverage efficiency of WCDMA is defined by the average coverage area per site, in km^2/site , for a predefined reference propagation environment and supported traffic density. From the link budgets above, the cell range R can be readily calculated for a known propagation model, for example the Okumura-Hata model or the Walfish-Ikegami model. The propagation model describes the average signal propagation in that environment, and it converts the maximum allowed propagation loss in dB to the maximum cell range in kilometres. As an example we can take the Okumura-Hata propagation model for an urban macro cell with base station antenna height of 30 m, mobile antenna height of 1.5 m and carrier frequency of 1950 MHz:



- The second phase of dimensioning is estimating the amount of supported traffic per base station site.
- Frequency reuse of a WCDMA system is 1,
 - thus the system is typically interference-limited by the air interface
 - the amount of interference and delivered cell capacity must thus be estimated.
- Uplink Load Factor
 - The theoretical spectral efficiency of a WCDMA cell can be calculated from the load equation whose derivation is shown below. (1)
 - We first define the E_b/N_0 , energy per user bit divided by the noise spectral density:

$$\left(E_b/N_0 \right)_j = \text{Processing gain of user } j * \frac{\text{Signal of user } j}{\text{Total received power(excl. own signal)}}$$



Uplink Load Factor (I)



This can be written:

$$(E_b / N_0)_j = \frac{W}{v_j R_j} * \frac{P_j}{I_{total} - P_j} \quad (2)$$

Solving for P_j gives:

$$P_j = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{(E_b / N_0)_j * R_j * v_j}} I_{total} \quad (3)$$

W is the chip rate,

P_j is the received signal power from user j ,

v_j is the activity factor of user j ,

R_j is the bit rate of user j ,

I_{total} is the total received wideband power including thermal noise power in the base station.

We define $P_j = W * I_{total}$ and obtain the load factor L_j of one connection:

$$\Omega_j = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{(E_b / N_0)_j * R_j * v_j}} \quad (4)$$





The total received interference, excluding the thermal noise P_N , can be written as the sum of the received powers from all N users in the same cell.

$$I_{total} - P_N = \sum_{j=1}^N P_j = \sum_{j=1}^N \Omega_j * I_{total} \quad (5)$$

The noise rise is defined as the ratio of the total received wideband power to the noise power.

$$Noiserise = \frac{I_{total}}{P_N} \quad (6)$$

and using Equation (5) we can obtain

$$Noise\ rise = \frac{I_{total}}{P_N} = \frac{1}{1 - \sum_{j=1}^N \Omega_j} = \frac{1}{1 - \eta_{UL}} \quad (7)$$

where we have defined the load factor η_{UL} as

$$\eta_{UL} = \sum_{j=1}^N \Omega_j \quad (8)$$

When η_{UL} becomes close to 1, the corresponding noise rise approaches to infinity and the system has reached its pole capacity.



Additionally, in the load factor the interference from the other cells must be taken into account by the ratio of other cell to own cell interference, i :

$$i = \frac{\text{other cell interference}}{\text{own cell interference}} \quad (9)$$

The uplink load factor can then be written as

$$\eta_{UL} = (1+i) * \sum_{j=1}^N \Omega_j = (1+i) * \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{1}{1 + \frac{W}{(E_b/N_0)_j * R_j * v_j}} \quad (10)$$

- The load equation predicts the amount of noise rise over thermal noise due to interference.
- The noise rise is equal to $-10 * \log_{10} (1 - \eta_{UL})$.
- The interference margin in the link budget must be equal to the maximum planned noise rise.
- The required E_b/N_0 can be derived from link level simulations and from measurements.



Uplink Load Factor (IV)



$$\frac{W}{E_b / N_0 * R * \nu} \gg 1$$

Simplification for a classical all-voice-service network, where all N users in the cell have a low bit rate of R.

$$\eta_{UL} = \frac{E_b / N_0}{W / R} * N * \nu * (1 + i)$$

Example: Parameters used in uplink load factor calculation:

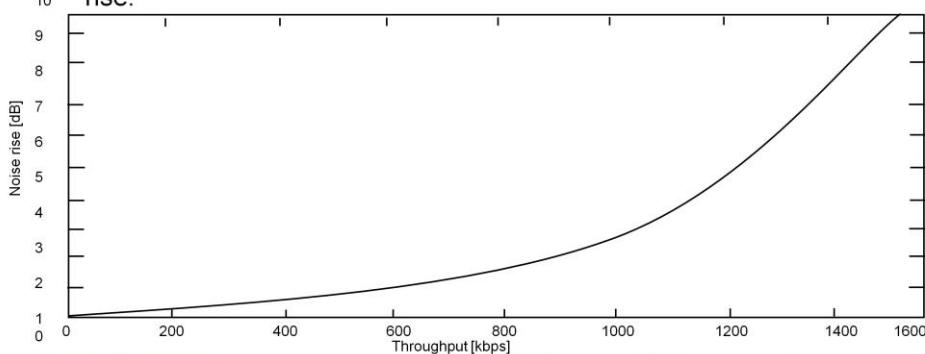
	Definitions	Recommended values
N	Number of users per cell	
ν_j	Activity factor of user j at physical layer	0.67 for speech, assumed 50% voice activity and DPCCH overhead during DTX 1.0 for data
E_b/N_0	Signal energy per bit divided by noise spectral density that is required to meet a predefined Quality of Service (e.g. bit error rate). Noise includes both thermal noise and interference	Speech: 4 dB Data 16-32kbit/s: 3 dB Data 64kbit/s: 2 dB Data 144kbit/s: 1.5 dB
W	WCDMA chip rate	3.84 Mcps
R_j	Bit rate of user j	Dependent on service
i	Other cell to own cell interference ratio seen by the base station receiver	Macro cell with omnidirectional antennas: 55%





Assumptions:

- Eb/N0 requirement of 1.5 dB and $i=0.65$. The noise rise of 3.0 dB corresponds to a 50% load factor, and the noise rise of 6.0 dB to a 75% load factor.
- Instead of showing the number of users N , the total data throughput per cell of all simultaneous users is shown. In this example, a throughput of 860 kbps can be supported with 3.0 dB noise rise, and 1300 kbps with 6.0 dB noise rise.





The downlink load factor, h_{DL} , can be defined based on a similar principle as for the uplink, although the parameters are slightly different:

$$\eta_{DL} = \sum_{j=1}^N v_j * \frac{(E_b / N_0)_j}{W / R_j} * [(1 - \alpha_j) + i_j]$$

α_j Orthogonality factor, typical values 0.4 to 0.9 in multipath channels
Orthogonal codes are used for user separation in downlink.



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Parameters used in downlink load factor calculation

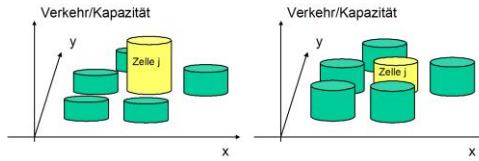


	Definitions	Recommended values for dimensioning
N	Number of connections per cell = number of users per cell * (1+soft handover overhead)	
v_j	Activity factor of user j at physical layer	0.67 for speech, assumed 50% voice activity and DPCCH overhead during DTX 1.0 for data
E_b/N_0	Signal energy per bit divided by noise spectral density that is required to meet a predefined Quality of Service (e.g. bit error rate). Noise includes both thermal noise and interference	Dependent on service, bit rate, multipath fading channel, transmit antenna diversity, mobile speed, etc.
W	WCDMA chip rate	3.84 Mcps
R_j	Bit rate of user j	Dependent on the multipath propagation 1: fully orthogonal 1-path channel 0: no orthogonality
a_j	Orthogonality of channel of user j	Dependent on service
i_j	Ratio of other cell to own cell base station power, received by user j	Each user sees a different i_j , depending on its location in the cell and log-normal shadowing
$\bar{\alpha}$	Average orthogonality factor in the cell	ITU Vehicular A channel: ~ 60% ITU Pedestrian A channel: ~ 90%
\bar{i}	Average ratio of other cell to own cell base station power received by user. Own cell interference is here wideband	Macro cell with omnidirectional antennas: 55%



$$\text{Traffic density [Erlang]} = \frac{\text{Call arrival rate [calls / s]}}{\text{Call departure rate [calls / s]}}$$

$$\text{Soft capacity} = \frac{\text{Erlang capacity with soft blocking}}{\text{Erlang capacity with hard blocking}} - 1$$



$$\begin{aligned} i + 1 &= \frac{\text{other cell interference}}{\text{own cell interference}} + 1 = \frac{\text{other cell interference} + \text{own cell interference}}{\text{own cell interference}} \\ &= \frac{\text{isolated cell capacity}}{\text{multicell capacity}} \end{aligned}$$



