

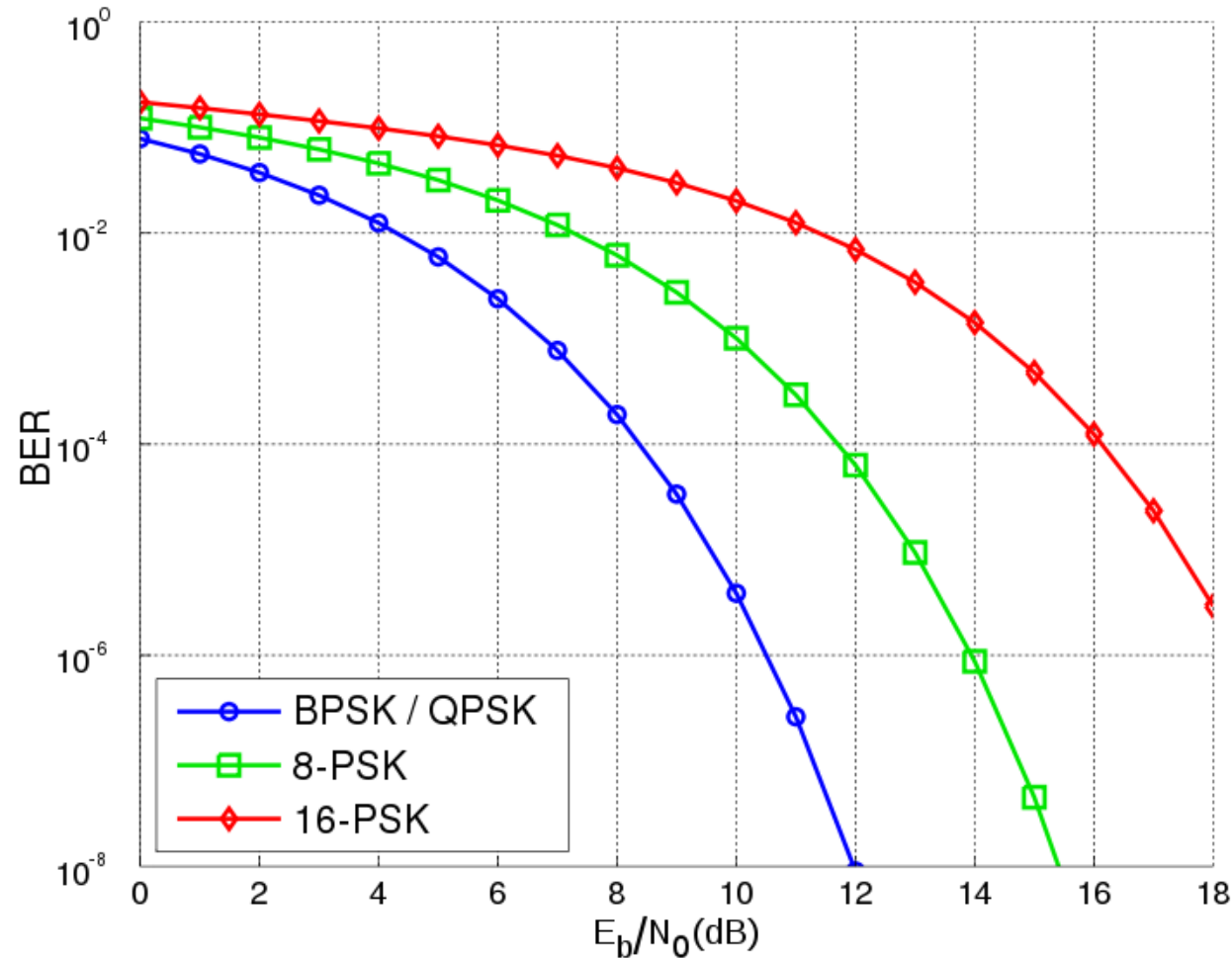
Link Budget & Multiplexing

SPACE
INFORMATICS

Digital Modulation Techniques

BER vs Signal to Noise Ratio

How small should a
BER be? (?)



$$\frac{C}{N} = \frac{E_b}{N_0} \cdot \frac{f_b}{B}$$

Where

C = carrier power

N = noise power

E_b = energy per bit

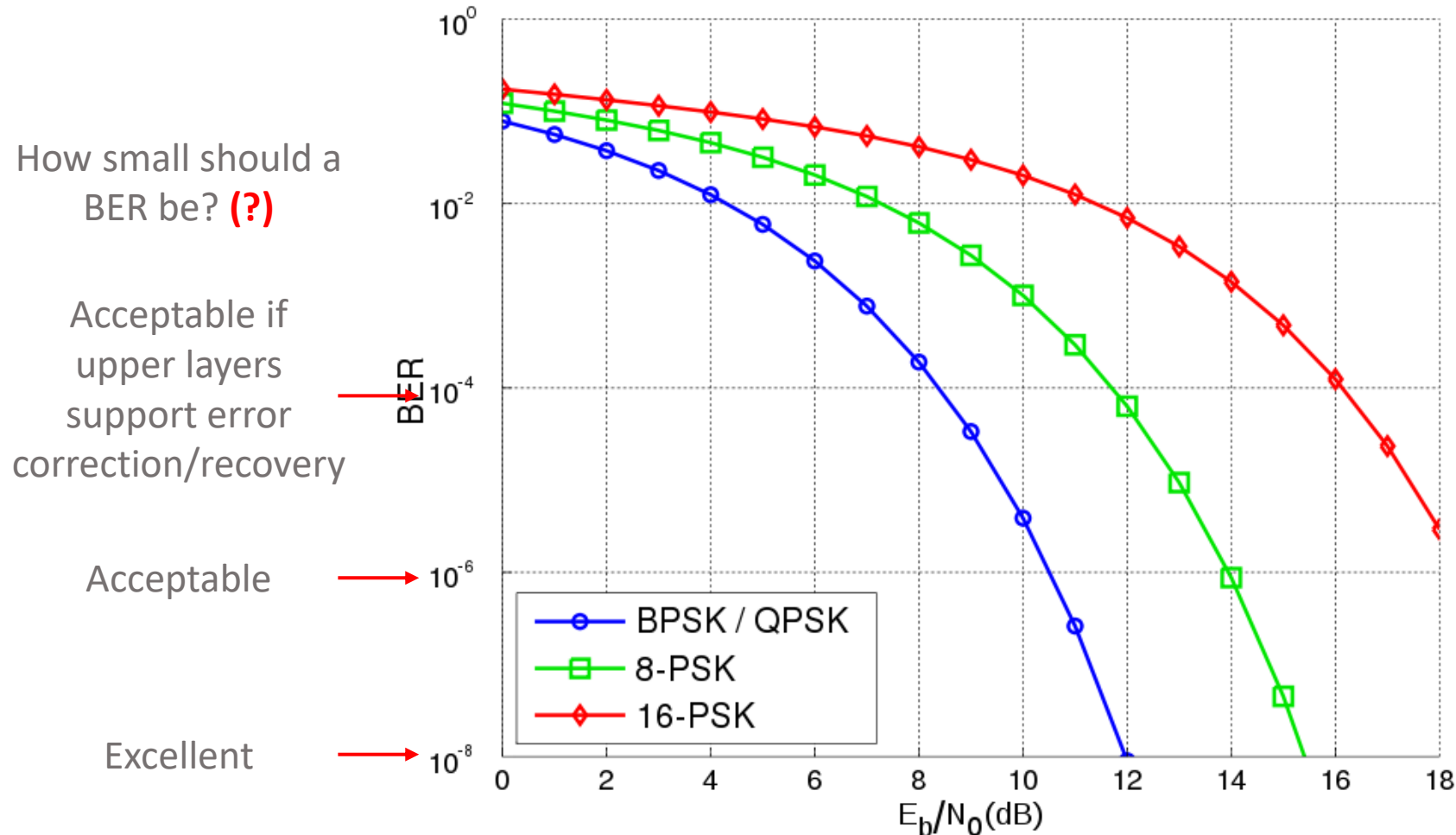
N_0 = noise density/Hz

f_b = bit frequency

B = bandwidth

Digital Modulation Techniques

BER vs Signal to Noise Ratio



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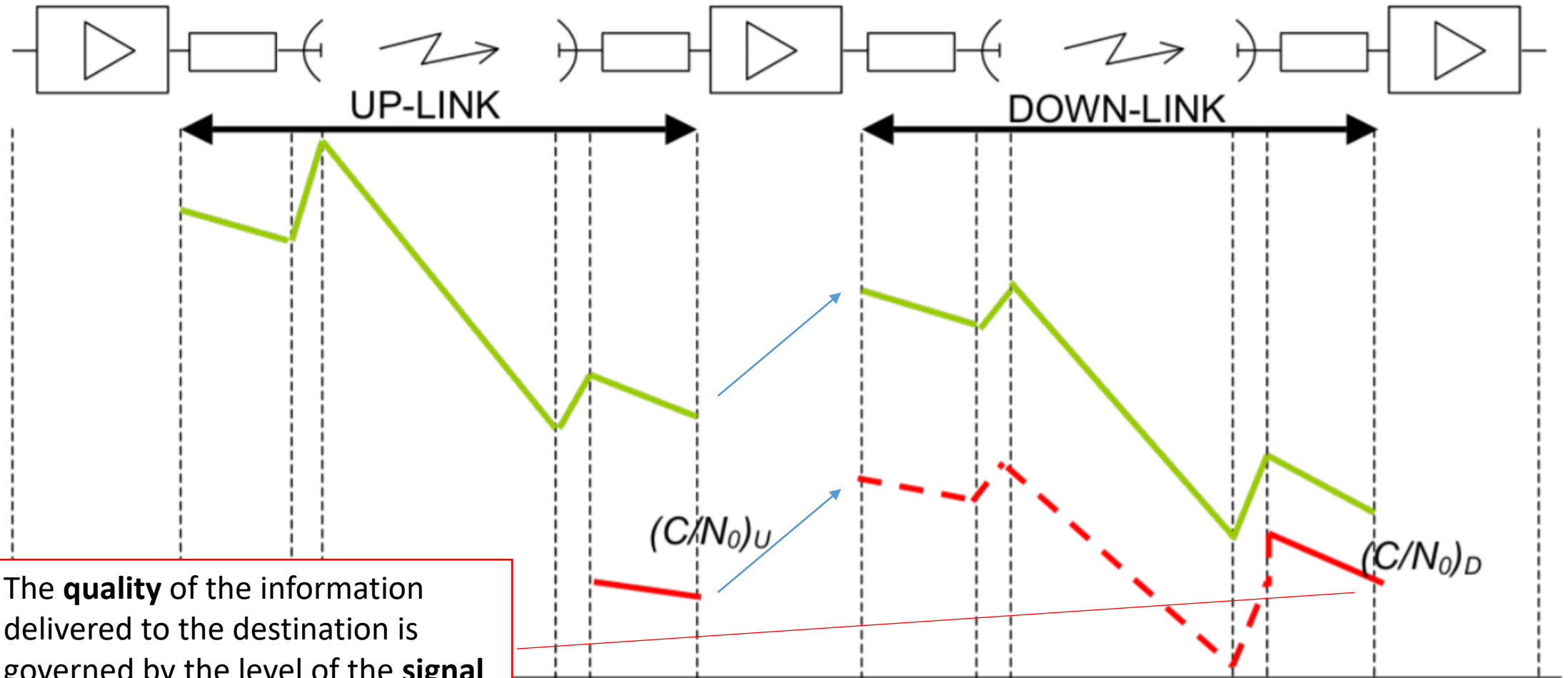
N_0 = noise density/Hz

f_b = bit frequency

B = bandwidth

Link Budget

Radio Link Chain (Repeater case)



The **quality** of the information delivered to the destination is governed by the level of the **signal and noise power received**

Link Budget

Introduction

- The designer must therefore attempt to **optimize the overall link**, giving due attention to each element of the link and the factors associated with its performance
 - **Transmitter** (baseband, modulator, **power amplifier** and antenna)
 - **Channel** (transmission loss, atmospheric losses, noise from external sources)
 - **Receiver** (antenna, **received power**, **received and added noise**, **sensitivity**, low-noise amplifier, demodulator)
 - **Uplink** and **downlink** chains!

Transmission Equation

Power Flux Density

- If a transmitter radiates a power P_T watts with an antenna having a gain G_T (respect the isotropic radiation level), the power flux density (P_{RD} in W/m^2) due to the radiated power in the direction of the **antenna bore-sight** at a distance d in meters is given by

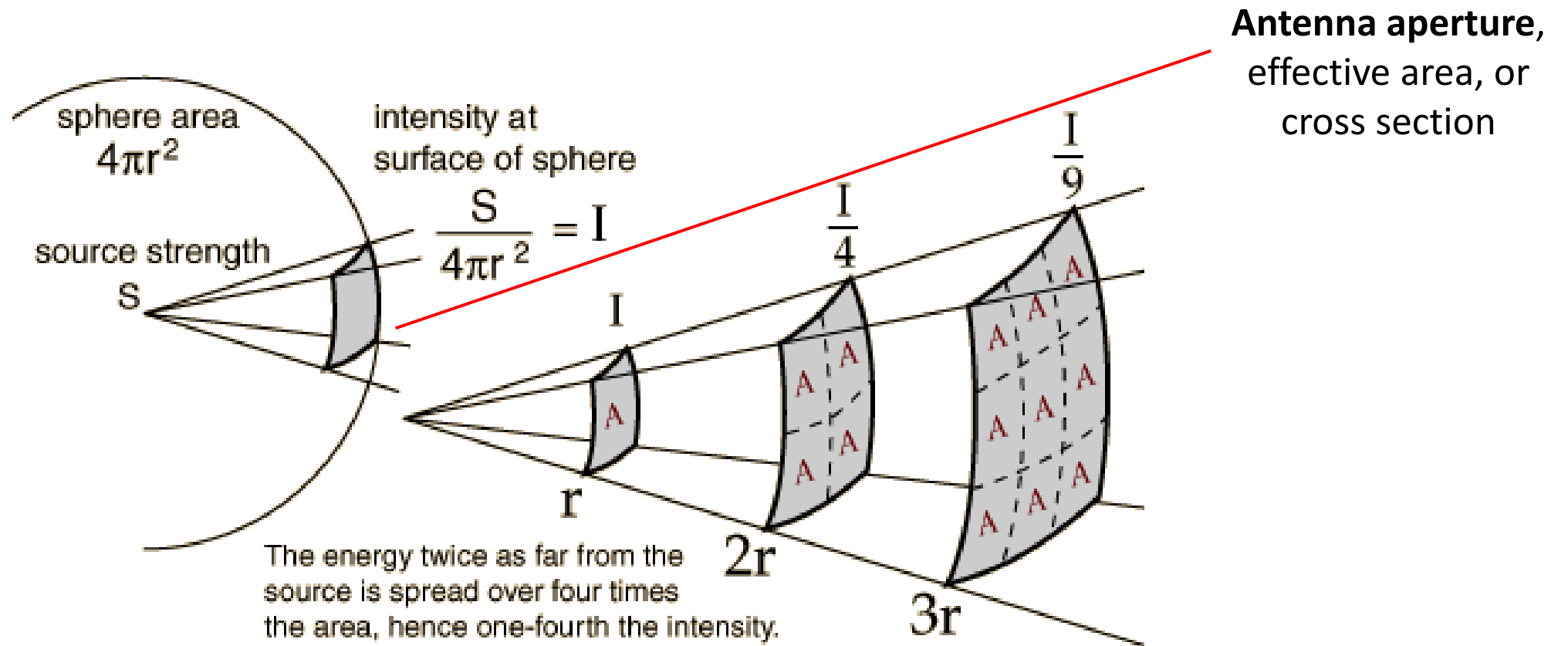
$$P_{RD} \left[\frac{W}{m^2} \right] = \frac{P_T G_T}{4\pi d^2} = \frac{EIRP [W]}{4\pi d^2 [m^2]}$$

- The product $P_T G_T$ is the **Effective Isotropic Radiated Power (EIRP)**

Transmission Equation

Power Flux Density

- The **inverse square law** comes from strictly geometrical considerations



Transmission Equation

Received Power and Free Space Loss

- If A_R is the **aperture of the receiving antenna**, then the received power P_R at the receiver is

$$P_R = P_{RD} A_R = \left(\frac{P_T G_T}{4\pi d^2} \right) A_R$$

- The **antenna gain** is related to the **aperture** as follows

$$G_R = 4\pi A_R / \lambda^2 \text{ and also } c = \lambda \cdot f, \text{ thus...}$$

Transmission Equation

Received Power and Free Space Loss

- The resulting **transmission equation** (a.k.a. Friis equation) is

$$P_R = \frac{P_T G_T G_R \lambda^2}{(4\pi d)^2}$$
$$= \frac{P_T G_T G_R}{(4\pi d / \lambda)^2} = \frac{P_T G_T G_R}{(4\pi d f / c)^2}$$

Where $(4\pi d / \lambda)^2 = (4\pi d f / c)^2$ is known as **free space loss**

This is becoming quite messy already: lets see its expression in decibels...

Decibels

Dealing with Large Numbers

- **Decibel** units are typically used in most link budget calculations
 - Logarithmic scale
 - Conveniently transforms **multiplications** into **additions**
 - Facilitates working with **large ranges** (W down to mW or μ W)
- When working with power units:

$$L_P[\text{dB}] = 10 \cdot \log_{10} \left(\frac{P}{P_0} \right)$$

- If $P = P_0$ then $L_P = 0$
- If $P > P_0$ then $L_P > 0$
- If $P < P_0$ then $L_P < 0$
- What is the value of L_P if P doubles $P_0 \rightarrow L_P = 3\text{dB}$
- What is the value of L_P if P halves $P_0 \rightarrow L_P = -3\text{dB}$

Decibels

Dealing with Large Numbers

- When working with power units, a decibel can be referred to the **milliwatt (mW) unit** $P_0 = 1 \text{ mW}$ in which case it is labeled dBm:

$$L_P[\text{dBm}] = 10 \cdot \log_{10} \left(\frac{P}{1 \text{ mW}} \right)$$

Where P is expressed in mW

- $10 \text{ W} \rightarrow 40 \text{ dBm}$
- $1 \text{ W} \rightarrow 30 \text{ dBm}$, maximum transmission power for a GSM phone
- $500 \text{ mW} \rightarrow 27 \text{ dBm}$, average cellular phone transmission power
- $200 \text{ mW} \rightarrow 23 \text{ dBm}$, maximum transmission power for IEEE 802.11n
- $100 \text{ mW} \rightarrow 20 \text{ dBm}$, maximum transmission power for IEEE 802.11b/g
- $100 \text{ }\mu\text{W} \rightarrow -10 \text{ dBm}$, minimal reception power for IEEE 802.11 variants

Transmission Equation

In Decibels

- The received power P_R expressed in decibels (dB) is thus

$$10 \log(P_R) = 10 \log(P_T) + 10 \log(G_T) + 10 \log(G_R) - 20 \log(4\pi d / \lambda)$$

Free-space loss L_p

$$P_R(\text{in dBW}) = EIRP(\text{in dBW}) + G_R(\text{in dB}) - L_P(\text{in dB})$$

- Other losses could also be considered in the equation

$$P_R = EIRP + G_R - L_P - L_{OTHER}$$

Transmission Equation

Power Flux Density

- Use **Communications** in **STK** to create:
 - A new (default) satellite and facility
 - Add a pointing sensor (2° cone) in the facility
 - Add a complex transmitter in the satellite (5W, 2GHz, 1Mbps, 30° beam-width) and a complex receiver in the ground station (1m diameter)
 - Compute access between transmitter and receiver
 - Study values for the pass (access, link budget report)
 - (?) **EIRP** varies, why?
 - (?) **Frequency** varies slightly, why?
 - (?) How does **free-space loss** and **received power** vary with frequency?
- → **show in STK (Stk_Communications.vdf)**

Transmission Equation

Example

- A GEO satellite (default at 35788 km height), with a 10 W transponder and a 20 dB transmitting antenna

20 dB \rightarrow 100 *times*

$$P_{RD} = \frac{P_T G_T}{4\pi d^2} = \frac{10 \text{ W} \times 100}{4\pi (35788 \text{ km})^2} = 6.213 \times 10^{-14} \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^2}, P_{RD} = -102.1 \frac{\text{dBm}}{\text{m}^2}$$

- If the receiving antenna has an effective aperture of 10 m²

$$P_R = P_{RD} A_R = 6.213 \times 10^{-14} \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^2} \times 10 \text{ m}^2 = 0.6213 \text{ pW} \approx -92.1 \text{ dBm}$$

Satellite Link Parameters

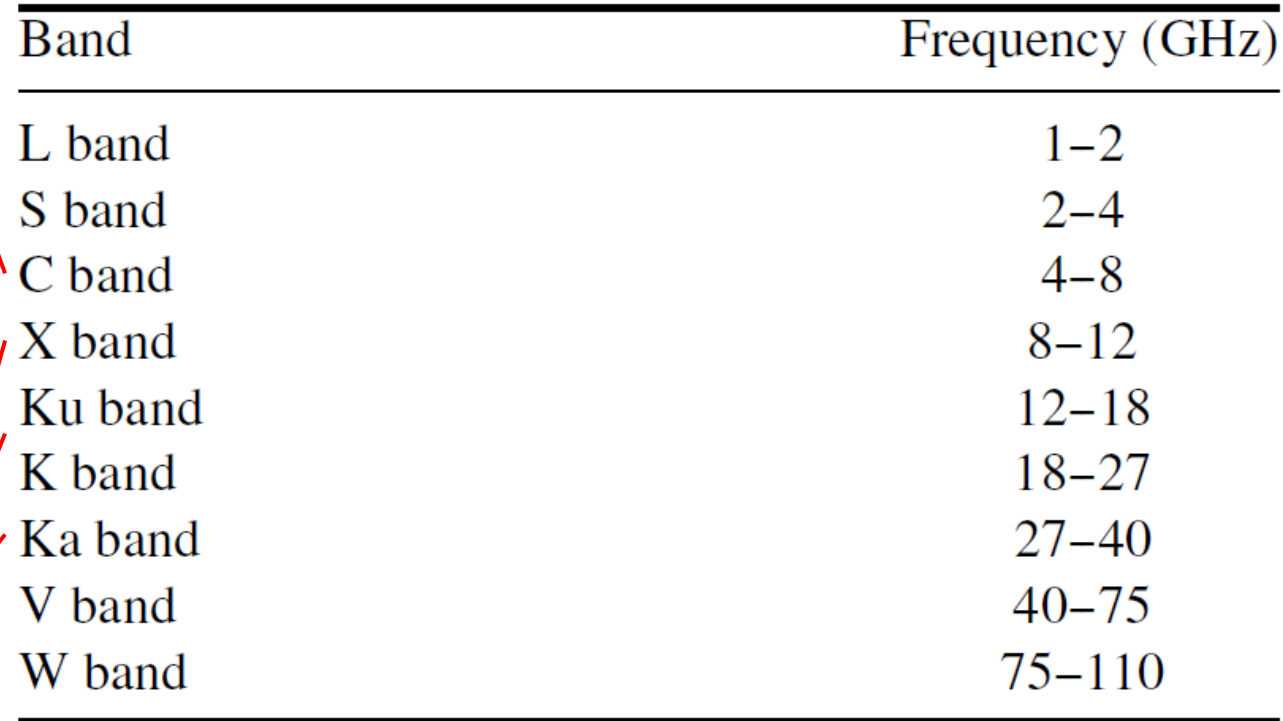
Choices and Considerations

- Choice of **Operating Frequency**
 - **Coexistence** with other services (ITU)
 - **Interference-related** Problems
 - **Technology** state-of-the art
 - **Economical** constraints
 - **Propagation** Considerations
 - Atmospheric effects become an issue beyond 10 GHz

Frequency Considerations

C band was very popular due to low atmosphere attenuation. Now is overcrowded

X band, Ku and Ka are newer bands gaining popularity for satellite systems (more bandwidth)



Band	Frequency (GHz)
L band	1–2
S band	2–4
C band	4–8
X band	8–12
Ku band	12–18
K band	18–27
Ka band	27–40
V band	40–75
W band	75–110

Frequencies are regulated by ITU which organizes assignments into **services** (UL/DL)

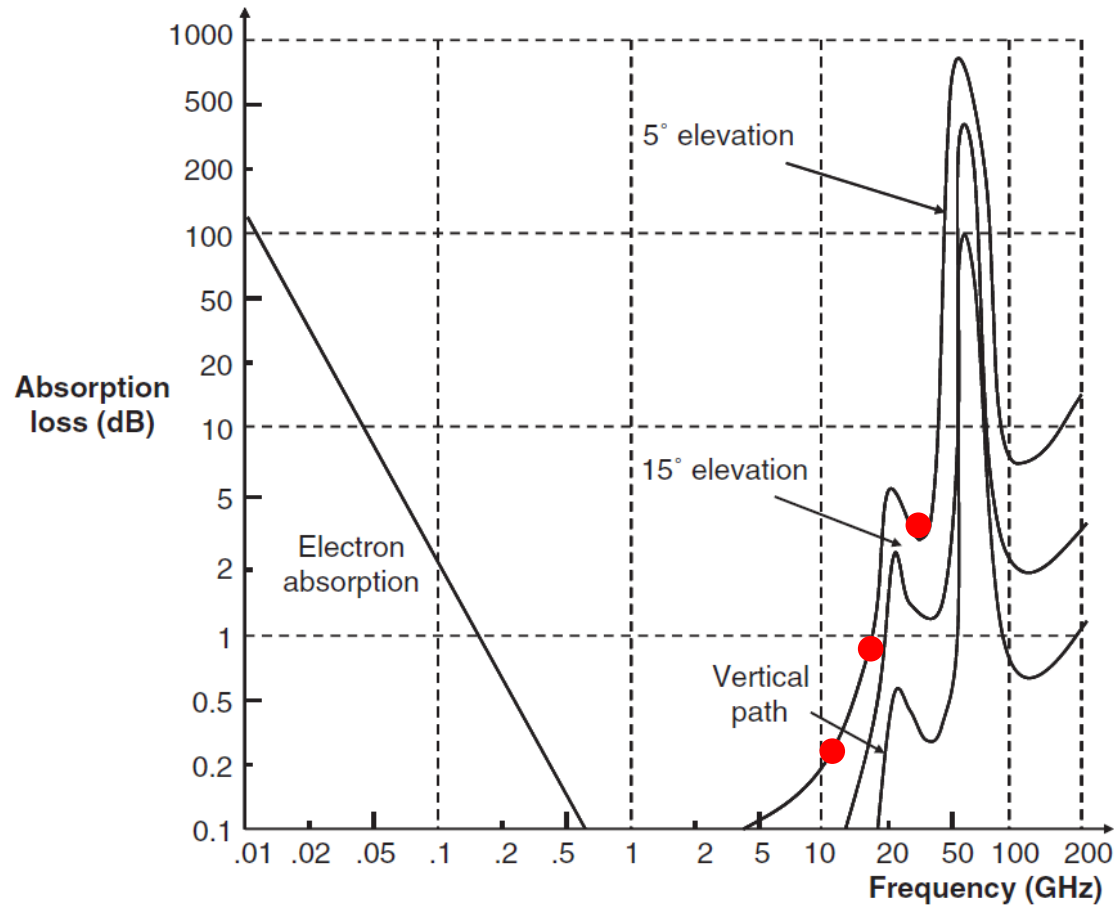
- FSS (fixed)
- ISL (inter-sat)
- MSS (mobile)
- BSS (broadcast)

and **regions**

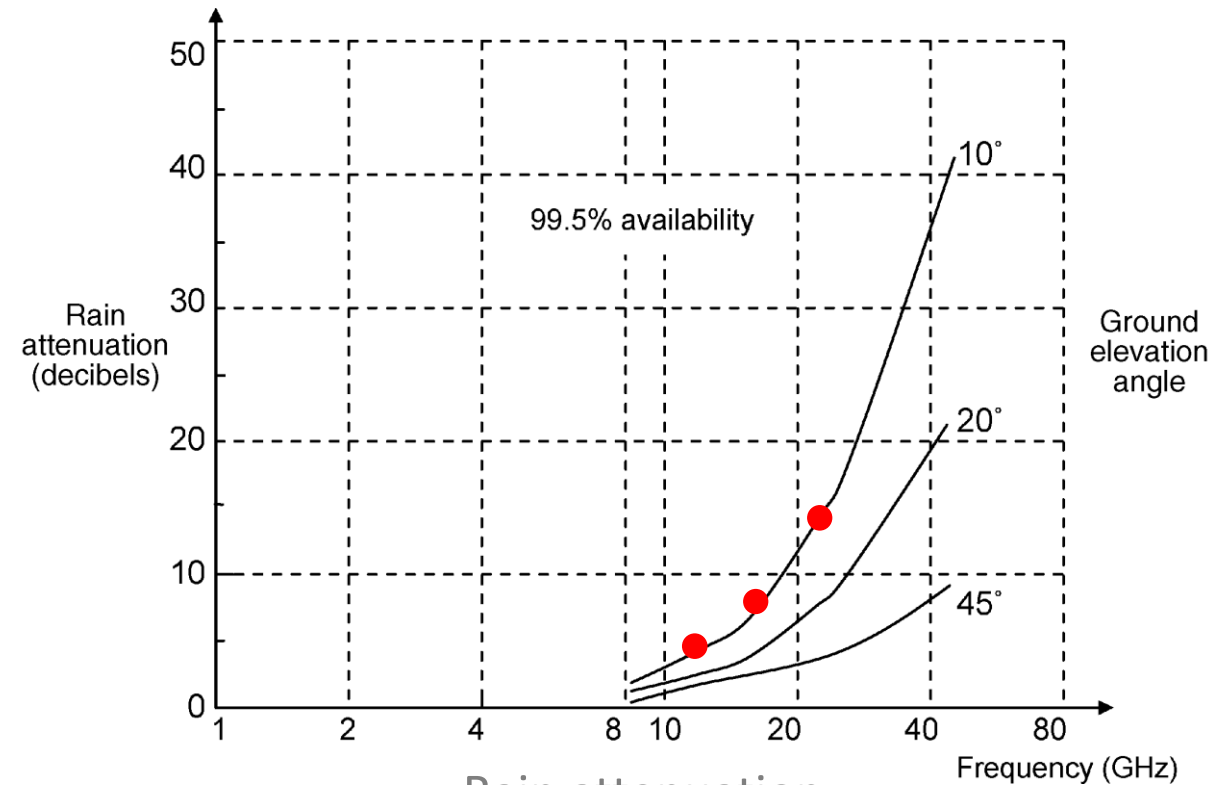
1. Europe, Africa
2. America, Greenland
3. Asia and Australia

Propagation Considerations

Gaseous Absorption and Rain Attenuation



Gaseous absorption



Rain attenuation

(see Recommendation ITU-R P.531 for a dozen of atmospheric effects)

Propagation Considerations

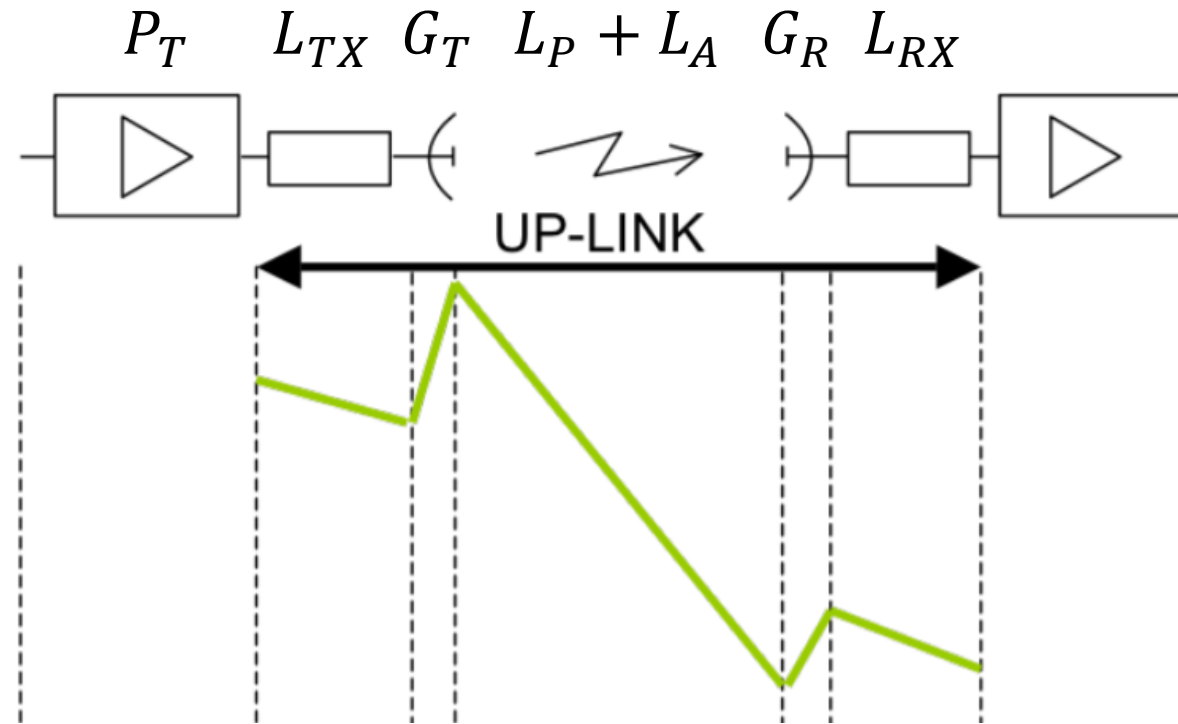
Gaseous Absorption and Rain Attenuation and Other Losses

- Other losses in the channel:
 - Absorption in **atmospheric gases**; **absorption, scattering** and **depolarization** by water especially important at frequencies **above about 10 GHz**
 - Loss of signal due to **beam-divergence** of the earth-station antenna, due to the normal **refraction in the atmosphere**
 - Decrease in effective antenna gain, due to **phase decorrelation** across the antenna aperture and other **cabling losses**
 - For example, considering an atmospheric attenuation L_A , transmitting antenna L_{TX} , receiving antenna L_{RX} :

$$P_R = EIRP + G_R - L_P - L_A - L_{TX} - L_{RX}$$

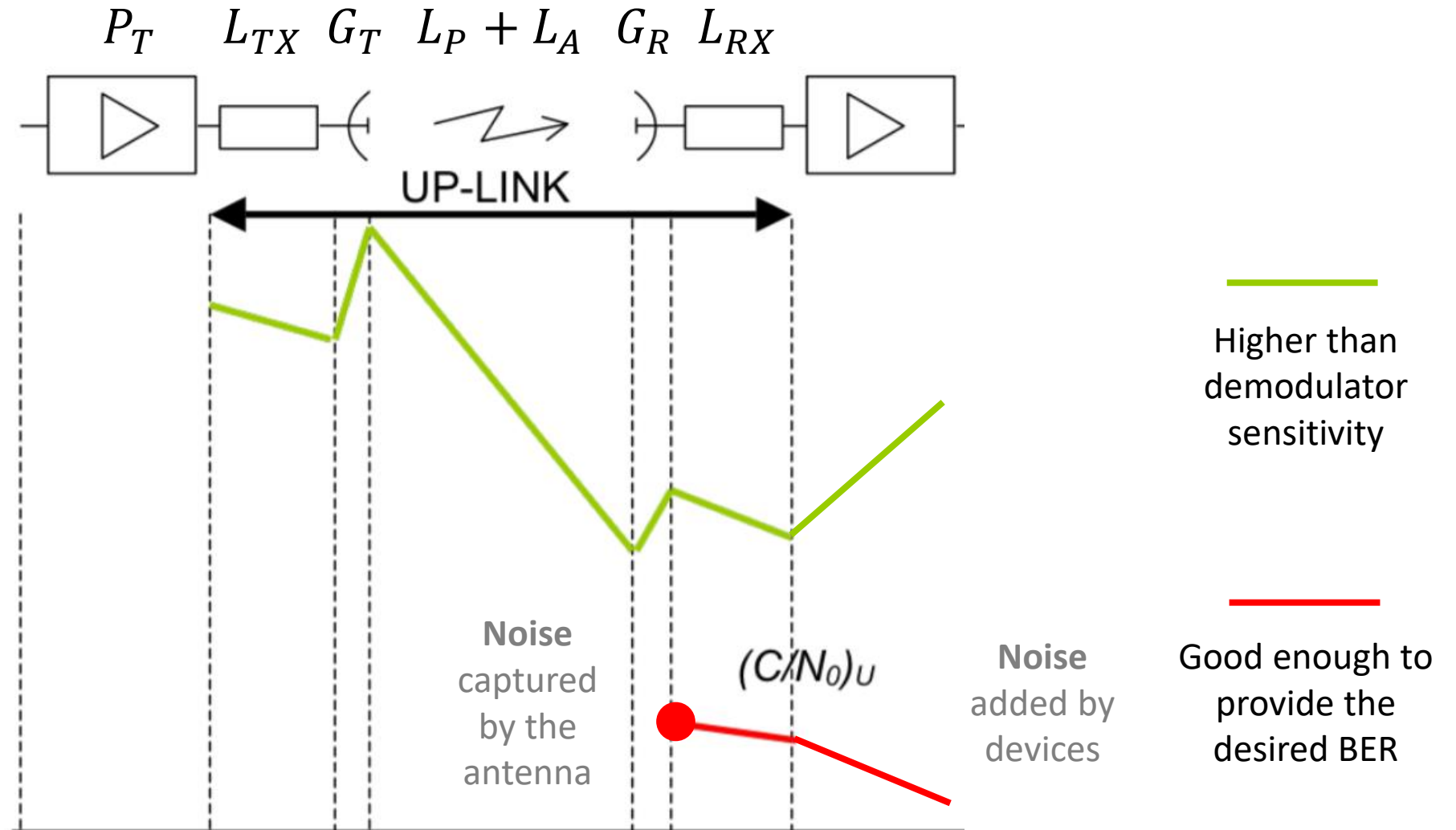
Link Budget

Radio Link Chain



Link Budget

Radio Link Chain



Noise Considerations

Thermal White Noise

■ Thermal White Noise

- Noise is generated in any **resistive component** due to random motion of molecules, atoms and electrons and **captured from other sources**
- Called *thermal* as it depends on the statistical motion of these particles
- Called *white* since it evenly spread over the entire frequency spectrum (N_0)
- Commonly modeled as **Additive white Gaussian Noise (AWGN)**

$$N_n = N_0 B = kTB$$

where

- T = absolute temperature (in K)
- B = bandwidth of interest (in Hz)
- k = Boltzmann's constant = 1.38×10^{-23} J/K
- N_n = noise power output of a resistor (in W)

Noise Considerations

Antenna Noise Temperature

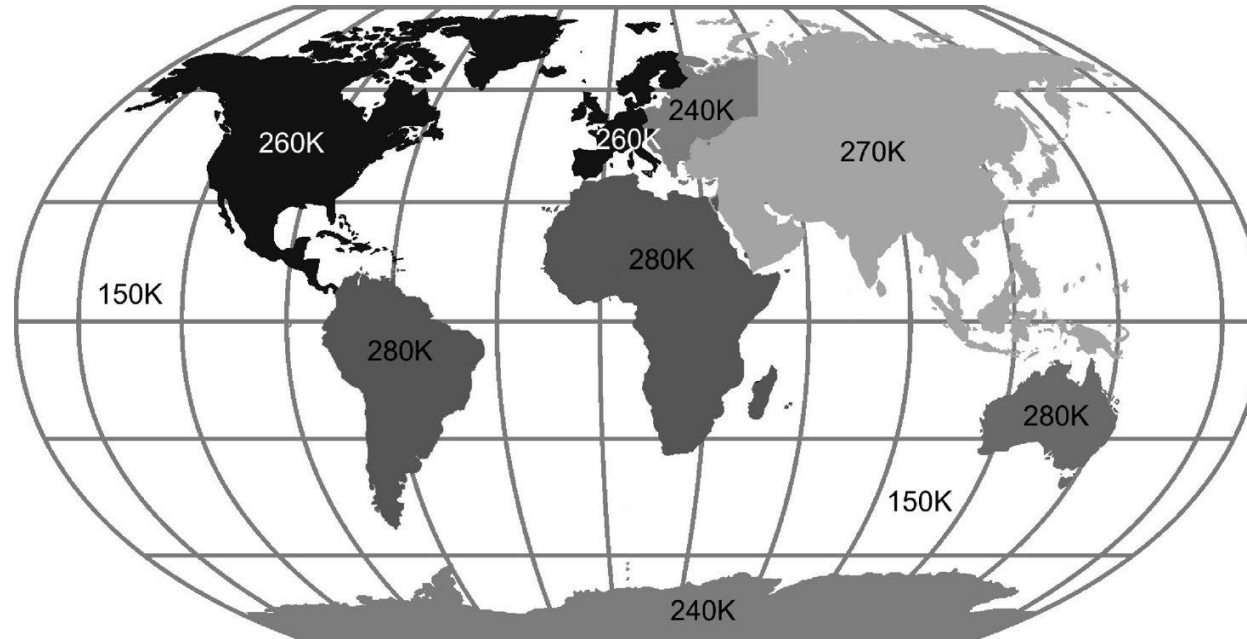
- **Antenna Noise Temperature**

- The antenna picks up noise radiated by sources within its directional pattern
 - **Man-made**
 - Electrical machinery,
 - Electrical and electronic equipment,
 - Power transmission lines,
 - Internal combustion engine ignition
 - **Natural:**
 - Solar radiation,
 - Emissions from atmospheric gases and hydrometeors
 - Radiation from lightning discharges
 - Background noise (celestial radio sources)
- The noise performance of an antenna can be expressed in terms of a noise temperature called the **antenna noise temperature**

Noise Considerations

Antenna Noise Temperature

- **Uplink** (satellite antenna as a receiver)
 - The main sources of noise are Earth and outer space

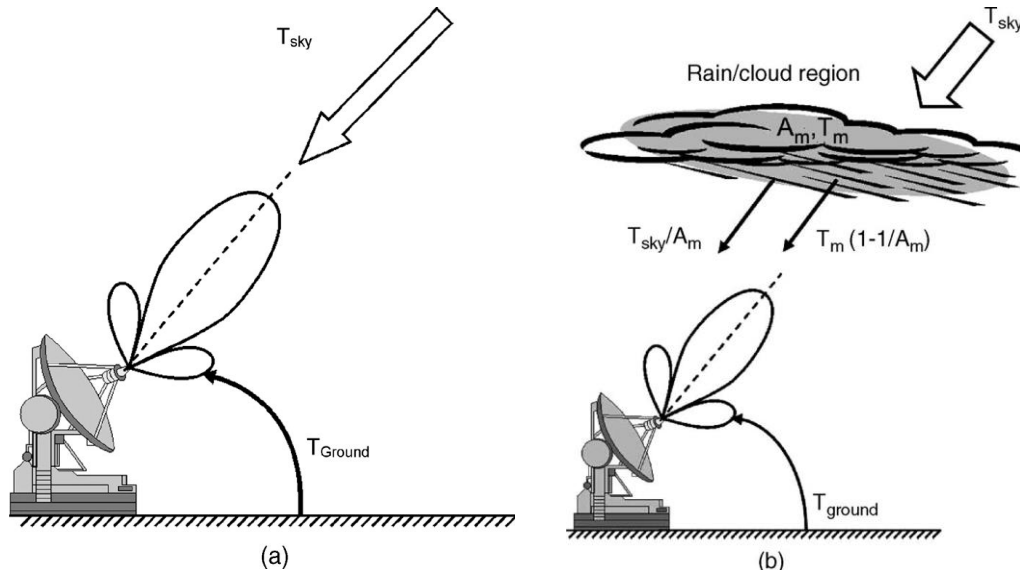


Temperatures of the Earth from space

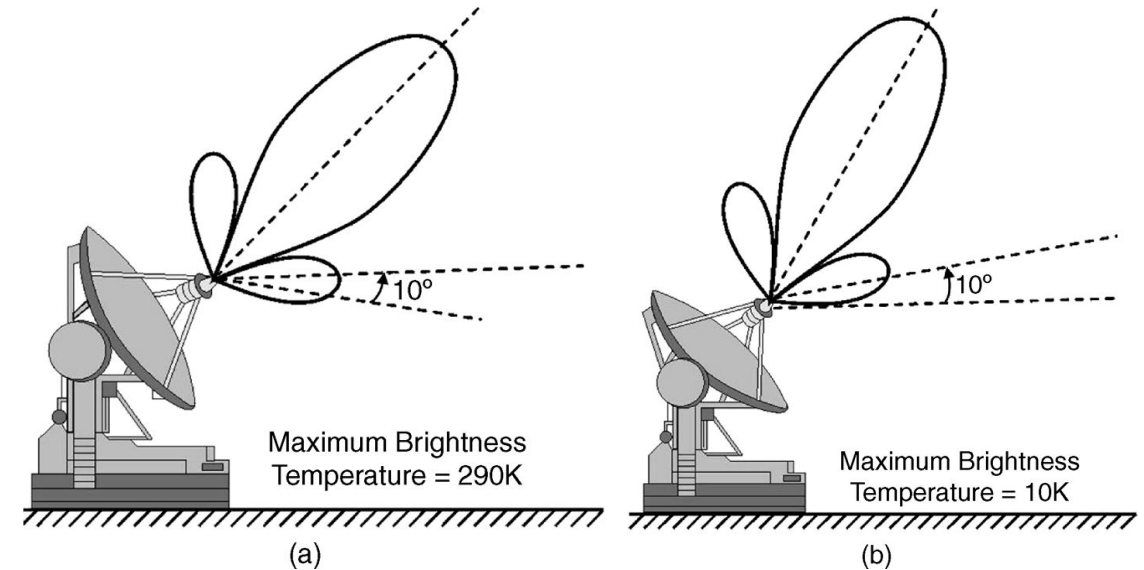
Noise Considerations

Antenna Noise Temperature

- **Downlink** (ground station antenna as a receiver)
 - The main sources of noise are **sky noise** (radiation from the sun and the moon and the absorption by oxygen and water vapor in the atmosphere accompanied by re-emission) and **ground noise**



Sky noise



Ground noise

Noise Considerations

Noise Figure

- The **noise figure** F of a **device** can be defined as the ratio of the input signal-to-noise power and the output signal-to-noise power

$$F = \frac{S_i/N_i}{S_o/N_o} = \left(\frac{N_o}{N_i}\right) \left(\frac{1}{G}\right) [\text{dB}]$$

Where

- S_i = available signal power at the input
- N_i = available noise power at the input
- S_o = available signal power at the output
- N_o = available noise power at the output (in a noiseless device)
- G = power gain over the specified bandwidth = S_o/S_i

Link Budget Design

Wrap-Up

- The link budget determines the antenna size to deploy, power requirements, link availability, bit error rate, etc.
- A link budget is a **tabular method** for evaluating the **power received** and the **noise ratio** in a radio link
- The link budget must be calculated for an individual transponder, and must be recalculated for each of the individual links
- Link budgets are calculated for a **worst-case scenario**, the one in which the link will have the lowest C/N ratio
 - What **distance** and **elevation angle** do we consider in an elliptical orbit (?)

Link Budget Design

Wrap-Up

- Example link budget for a C-Band GEO

Input
parameters

Free space
loss

Received
power

Noise
power and
ratio

C – band satellite parameters	
Transponder saturated output power	20 W
Antenna gain on axis	20 dB
Transponder bandwidth	36 MHz
Downlink frequency band	3.7 – 4.2 GHz
Signal FM – TV analogue signal	
FM – TV signal bandwidth	30 MHz
Minimum permitted overall C/N in receiver	9.5 dB
Receiving C – band earth station	
Downlink frequency	4 GHz
Antenna gain on axis at 4GHz	49.7 dB
Receiver IF bandwidth	27 MHz
Receiving system noise temperature	75 K
Downlink power budget	
Pt – satellite transponder output power, 20 W	13 dB
Bo – transponder output backoff	-2dB
Gt – satellite antenna gain, on axis	20 dB
Gr – earth station antenna gain	49.7 dB
LP – free space path loss at 4GHz	-196.5 dB
Lant = edge of beam loss for satellite antenna	-3 dB
La = clear air atmospheric	-0.2 dB
Lm = other losses	-0.5dB
Pr = <i>received power at earth station</i>	<i>-119.5 dBW</i>
Downlink noise power budget in clear air	
k = Boltzmann's constant	-228.6 dBW/K/Hz
TS = system noise temperature, 75 K	18.8 dBK
Bn = noise bandwidth 27 MHz	74.3 dBHz
N = <i>receiver noise power</i>	<i>-135.5 dBW</i>
C/N ratio in receiver in clear air	
C/N = Pr – N = -119.5 – (-135.5)	16.0 dB

Other Ways of Surviving a Bad Link

Compensating Propagation Effects

■ Power Control

- Varying the EIRP of the signal to enhance the C/N ratio.
- In **open-loop** mode, the fade level on the downlink signal is used to predict one in the uplink signal and vice versa.
- In the **closed-loop** mode, the signal power is detected at the satellite, and it sends a control signal to adjust the transmitted power

■ Signal Processing

- Forward Error Correction (FEC) codes

■ Diversity

- Time diversity: enable packet recovery algorithms (go-back-n)
- Frequency diversity: switch to a less-attenuated frequency
- Site diversity: other sites where weather conditions are better

Interference

- No matter how well your link budget is calculated
- If another signal reaches the receiver at the same frequency range, **interference can hinder the possibility of successfully decoding a signal**
- There is nothing we can do about external sources – (ITU?), but we must not interfere **our own links**

Multiple Communications

Not only Point to Point

- We've said that a typical satellite is composed of several subsystems: many communications simultaneously from a **same source**
 - **Multiplexing Techniques** (point to point)
- We've said a satellite provides data relay services to several users: many comms **from different sources to a same destination**
 - Centralized Multiple Access (point to multi-point)
- We've said we are going to LEO **mega-constellations** configurations: many comms **from different sources to different destinations**
 - Distributed Multiple Access (multi-point to multi-point)

Multiplexing Techniques

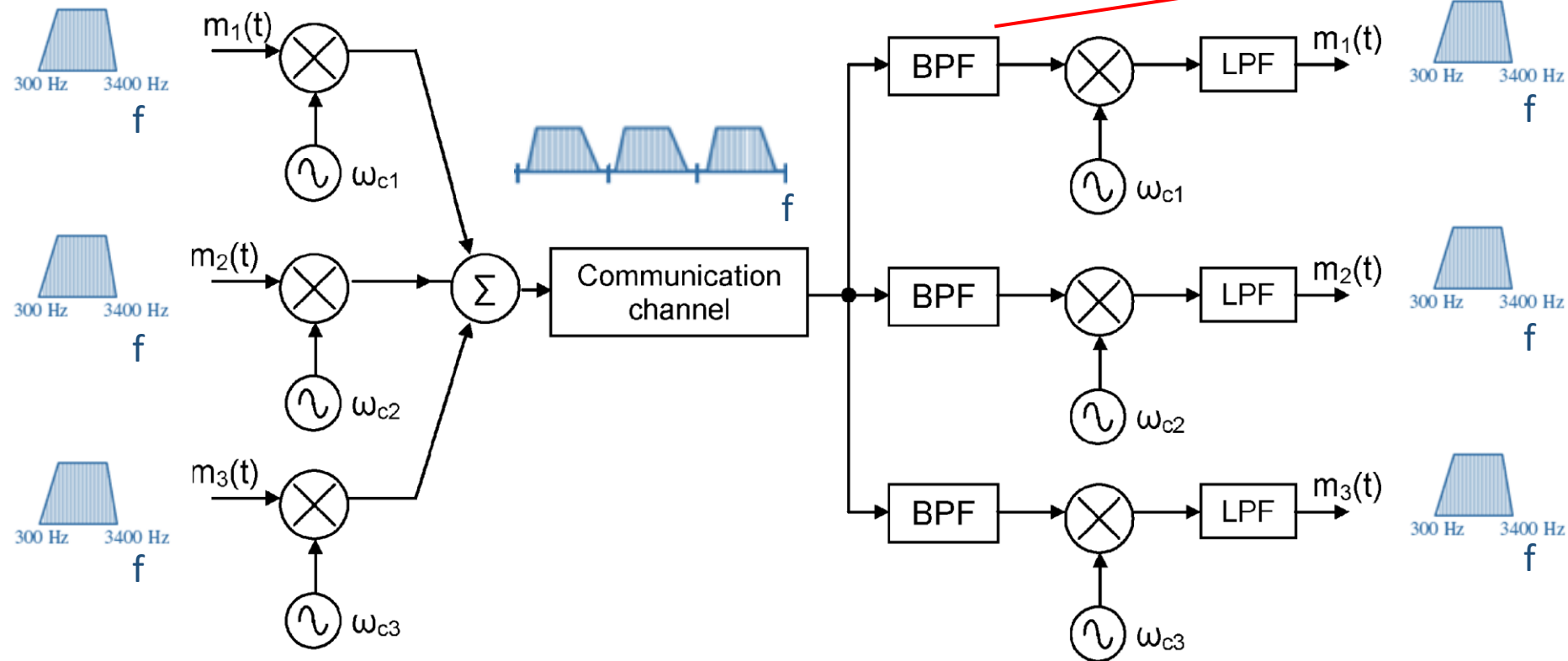
Introduction

- Multiplexing means combining **multiple signals** into one
- Ensures that the different message signals in the composite signal do not interfere with each other and that they **can be conveniently separated out at the receiver** end
- Types
 - Frequency Division Multiplexing (**FDM**)
 - Time Division Multiplexing (**TDM**)
 - Code Division Multiplexing (**CDM**)

Multiplexing Techniques

Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

- Different message signals are separated from each other in the frequency domain

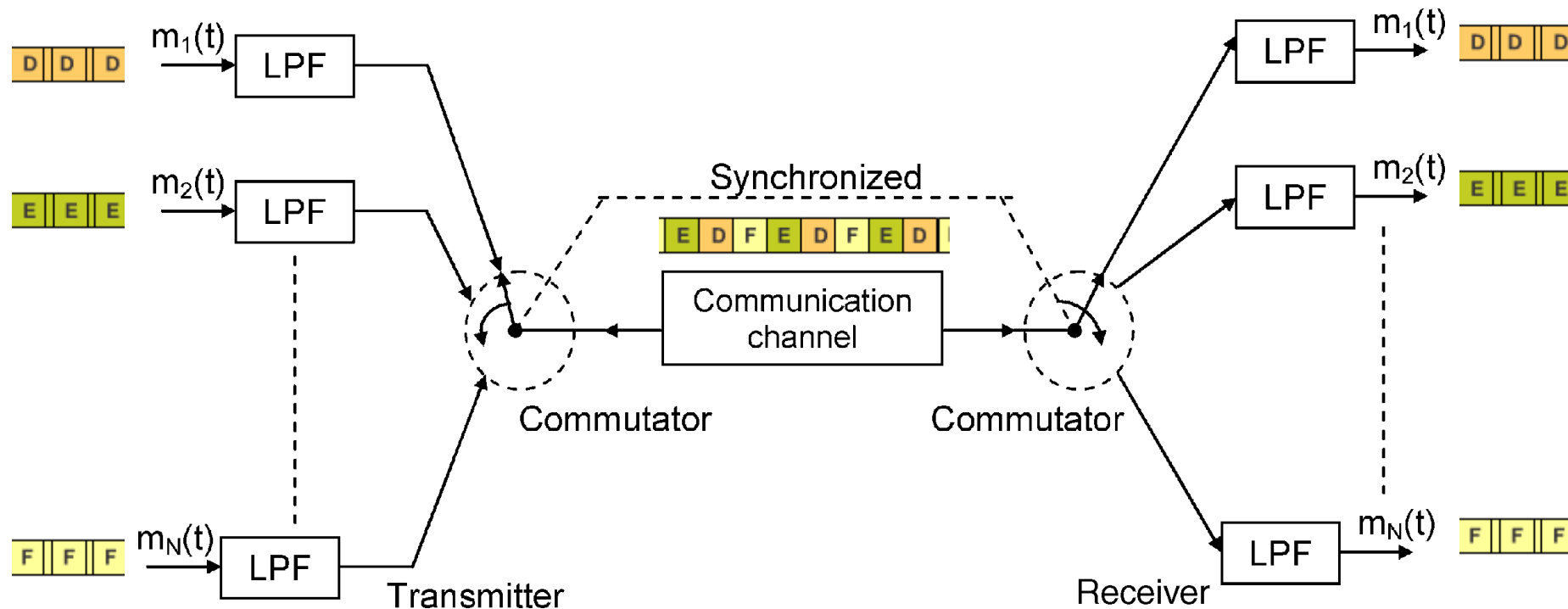


Band
Pass
Filter

Multiplexing Techniques

Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)

- Multiple pulsed signals are fed to a commutator which forms a composite **time-interleaved signal**



Multiplexing Techniques

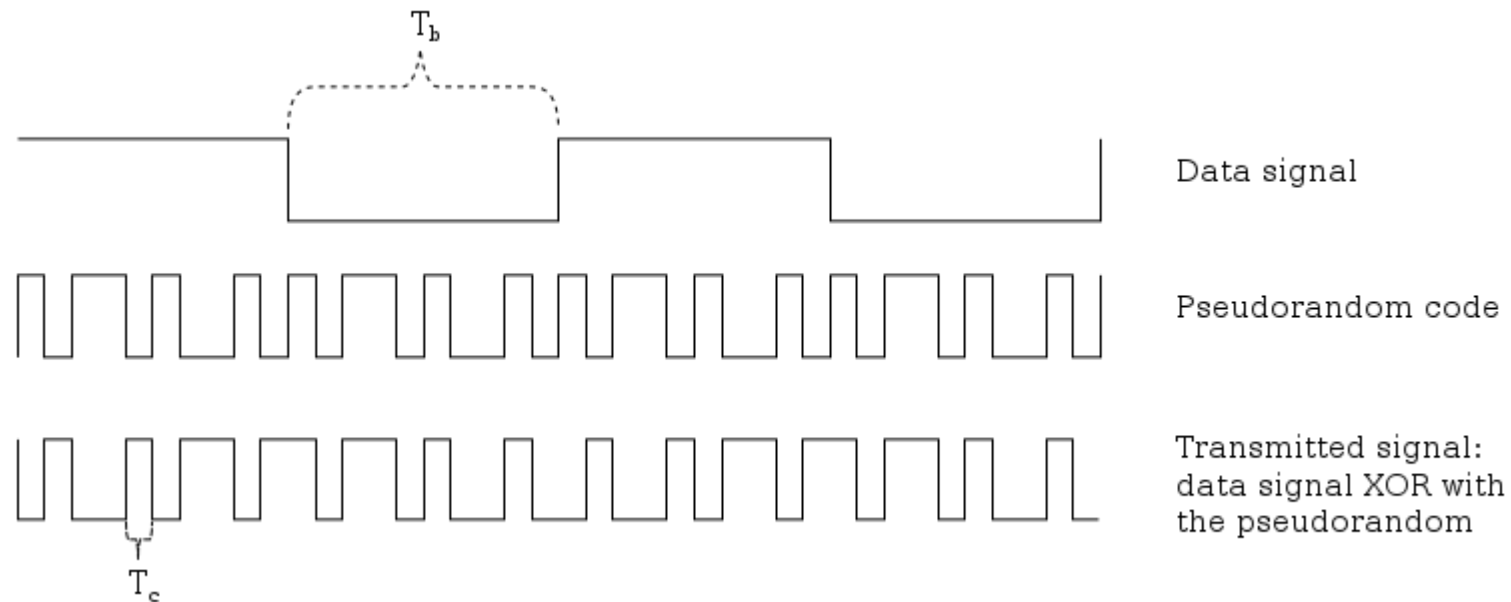
Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)

- **Problem:** A digital telephony system comprises **24 voice channels**, each limited to **3.2 kHz** and using an **8-bit PCM**, transmits over a common communication channel using **TDM**. If the signal is sampled at **1.2 times the Nyquist** rate and a **synchronization bit** is added at the end of each frame, determine: duration of each bit and transmission rate
 - Sampling rate $(2 \times 3.2 \times 1.2) \text{ kHz} = 7.68 \text{ kHz}$
 - Sampling period $1/7.68 \text{ kHz} = 130 \text{ }\mu\text{s}$
 - Bits per sample $24 \times 8 + 1 = 193$
 - Bit duration $130 \text{ }\mu\text{s}/193 = 0.675 \text{ }\mu\text{s}$
 - Transmission rate $1 \text{ bit}/0.675 \text{ }\mu\text{s} = 1.482 \text{ Mbps}$

Multiplexing Techniques

Code Division Multiplexing (CDM)

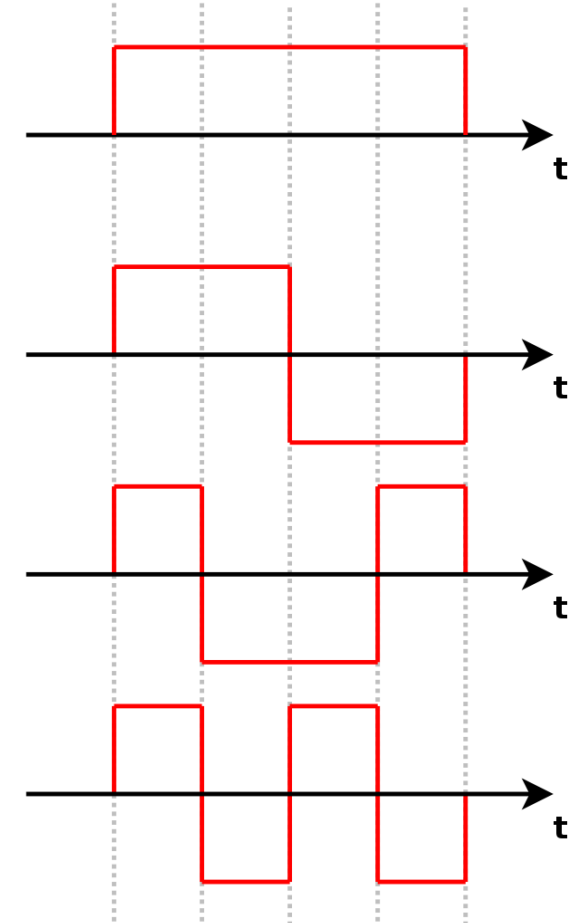
- Multiple signal transmitted over a common frequency band
 - **Truly Orthogonal or Pseudorandom codes (PN)**
 - Spread signal over a large frequency band, larger than bandwidth of the original signal
 - At the receiver, the same orthogonal codes are used to recover the signal



Multiplexing Techniques

Code Division Multiplexing (CDM) - Example

- Start with a set of orthogonal vectors v
- 1 is represented as positive v and 0 as negative $-v$
- **Node Tx-a:** if $v = (1, -1)$, and data to transmit is $d = (1, 0, 1, 1)$, then symbols are
 - $d = (v, -v, v, v) = (1, -1, -1, 1, 1, -1, 1, -1)$
- **Node Tx-b:** if $v = (1, 1)$, and data to transmit is $d = (0, 0, 1, 1)$, then symbols are
 - $d = (-v, -v, v, v) = (-1, -1, -1, -1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$



4 orthogonal vectors,
one to each Tx entity

Multiplexing Techniques

Code Division Multiplexing (CDM) - Example

- Because both signals are transmitted at the same time into the air, they add to produce the raw signal

$$(1, -1, -1, 1, 1, -1, 1, -1) + (-1, -1, -1, -1, 1, 1, 1, 1) = (0, -2, -2, 0, 2, 0, 2, 0)$$

- **Node Rx-a:** $v = (1, -1)$

- $((0, -2), (-2, 0), (2, 0), (2, 0)) \cdot (1, -1) \rightarrow ((0 + 2), (-2 + 0), (2 + 0), (2 + 0))$
- $(2, -2, 2, 2) \rightarrow (1, 0, 1, 1)$

- **Node Rx-b:** $v = (1, 1)$

- $((0, -2), (-2, 0), (2, 0), (2, 0)) \cdot (1, 1) \rightarrow ((0 - 2), (-2 + 0), (2 + 0), (2 + 0))$
- $(-2, -2, 2, 2) \rightarrow (0, 0, 1, 1)$

What happens in Node Rx-b if only signal $(1, -1, -1, 1, 1, -1, 1, -1)$ is transmitted (?)

Multiplexing Techniques

Code Division Multiplexing (CDM) - Example

- If only this signal is transmitted $(1, 0, 1, 1)$ encoded to Rx-a:

$$(1, -1, -1, 1, 1, -1, 1, -1)$$

- **Node Rx-a:** $v = (1, -1)$

- $((1, -1), (-1, 1), (1, -1), (1, -1)) \cdot (1, -1) \rightarrow (1 + 1), (-1 - 1), (1 + 1), (1 + 1)$
- $(2, -2, 2, 2) \rightarrow (1, 0, 1, 1)$

- **Node Rx-b:** $v = (1, 1)$

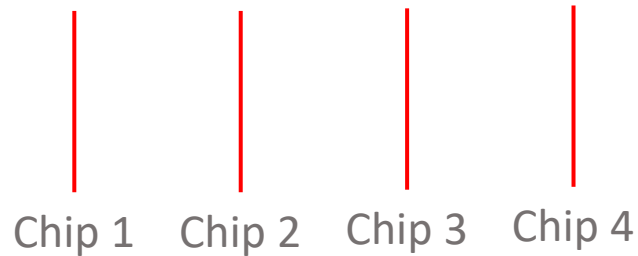
- $((1, -1), (-1, 1), (1, -1), (1, -1)) \cdot (1, 1) \rightarrow ((1 - 1), (-1 + 1), (1 - 1), (1 - 1))$
- $(0, 0, 0, 0) \rightarrow (0, 0, 0, 0) \rightarrow \text{No data!}$

Multiplexing Techniques

Code Division Multiplexing (CDM) - Example

- Transmission is composed of 4 codes words, also called “chip”

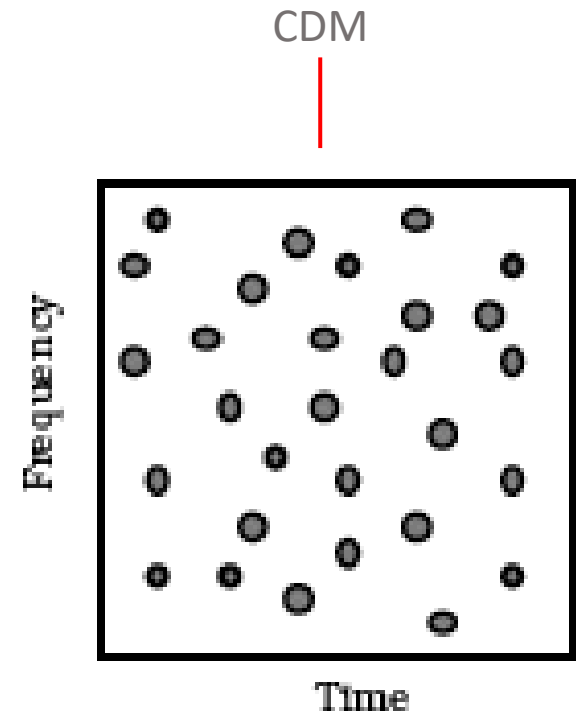
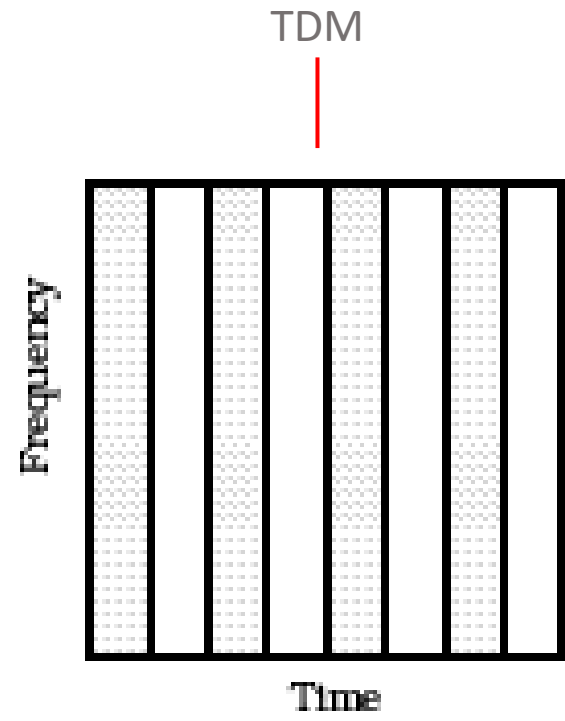
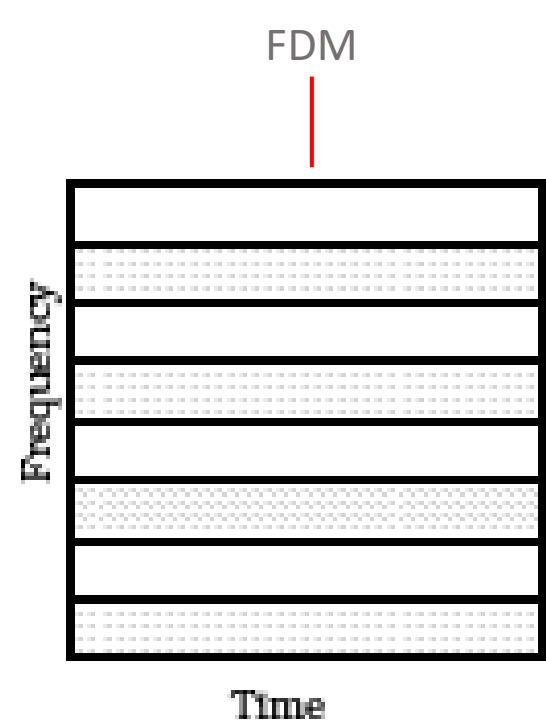
(1, -1, -1, 1, 1, -1, 1, -1)



- CDM signals are typically characterized by a **chip rate** which is equal to the **information bit rate** of the channel.
- The **real bit rate** is equal to the information bit rate times the chip size

Multiplexing Techniques

Wrap-Up



Questions?