

E303: Communication Systems

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Principles of 3G (CDMA), 4G (OFDMA) and 5G

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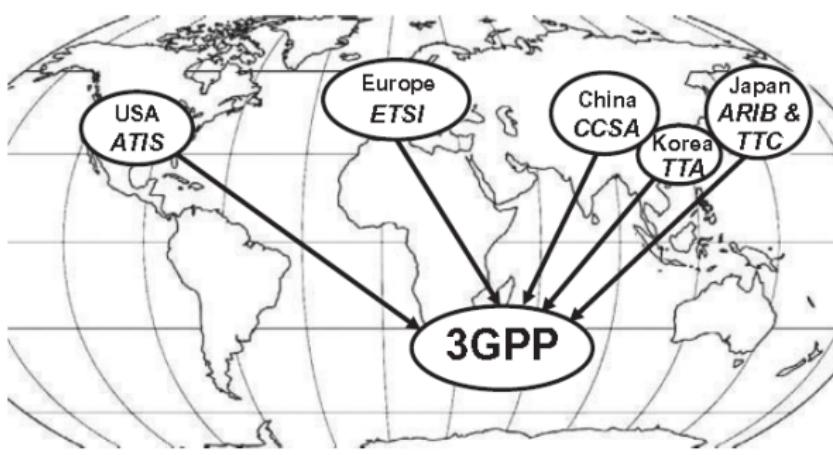
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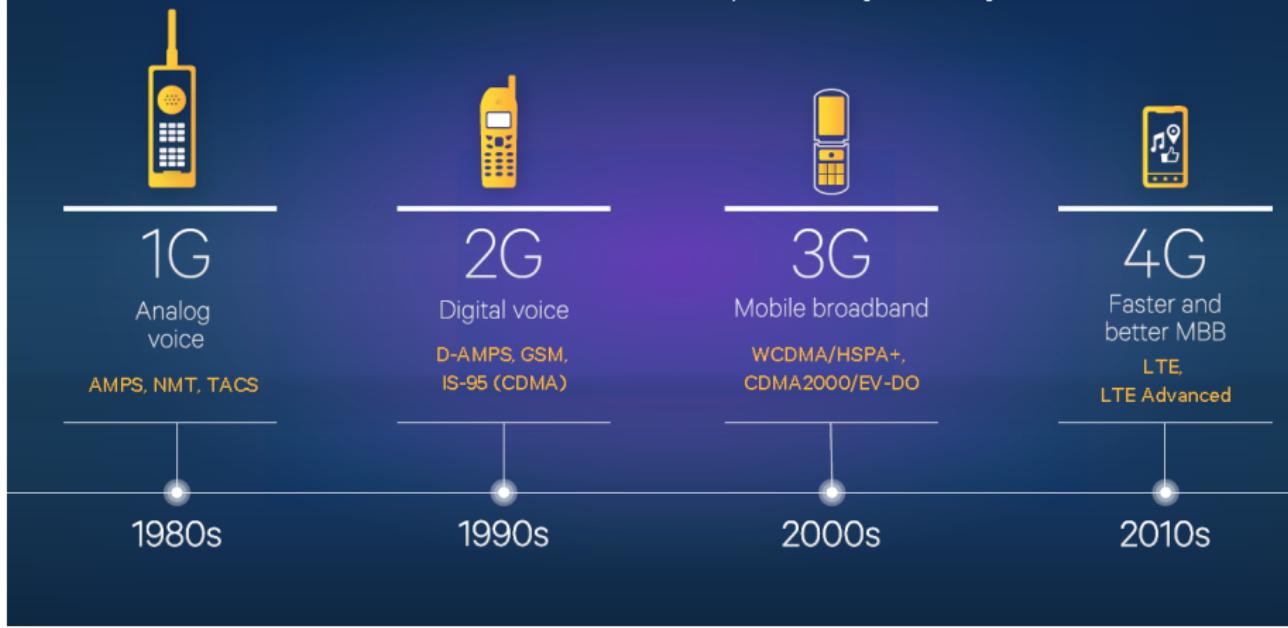
Introduction - 3G, 4G, 5G Mobile Cellular Systems

- The 3GPP (**3'd Generation Partnership Project**)
 - ▶ developed the 3G standards
 - ▶ developed the 4G standards
 - ▶ is developing standards towards next generation (5G)
- 3GPP **expanded in 2011** to include 380 individual member companies and **5 Standards Development Organisations** as shown below



Mobile Evolution - Motivation

Mobile has made a leap every ~10 years



Mobile Evolution - Motivation (cont.)

In parallel: driving 4G and 5G to their fullest potential

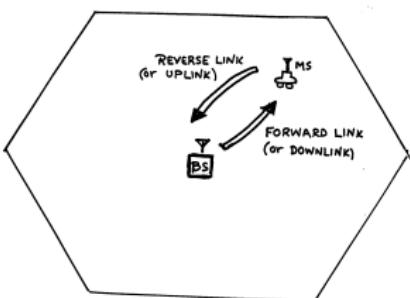
Expanding and evolving LTE Advanced – setting the path to 5G



Basic Elements of Mobile Cellular Systems

- A mobile cellular system consists of
 - ▶ **base stations**,
 - ▶ **cells** (a cell is the area serviced by a base station) and
 - ▶ **mobiles** (subscribers).
- When a call originates, the base station negotiates with the mobile on various aspects (such as the channel used etc.), before establishing communications. After this, as the mobile moves from cell-to-cell, the service is handed (**hand-off or handover**) from one base station to another.
- Only **one base station** (BS) will service a mobile at any one time.
- Note:
 - ▶ base station to mobile is known as **FORWARD LINK (or Downlink)**
 - ▶ mobile to base station is known as **REVERSE LINK (or Uplink)**

- Type of channels:



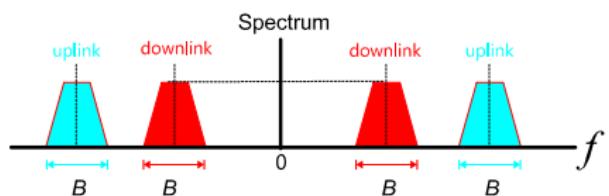
- Examples of uplink and downlink channels:

UPLINK	DOWNLINK
Traffic Channel	Traffic Channel
Access Channel	Pilot Channel
	Synchron. Channel
	Paging Channel

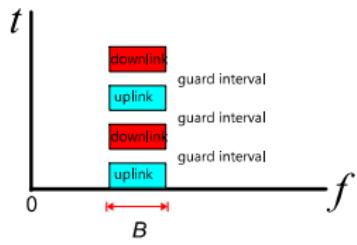
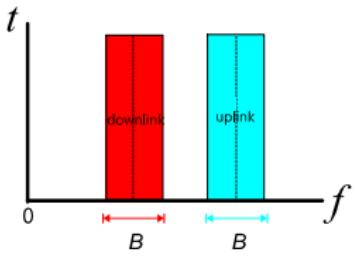
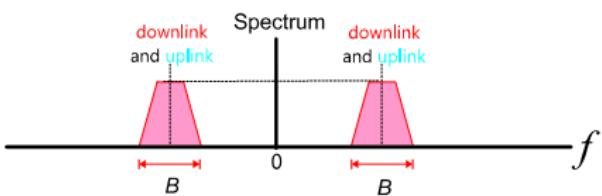
FDD and TDD

- Based on the spectrum used in "uplink" and "downlink", there are two systems
 - FDD (Frequency Division Duplex), and
 - TDD (Time Division Duplex)
 - Definitions:

FDD:



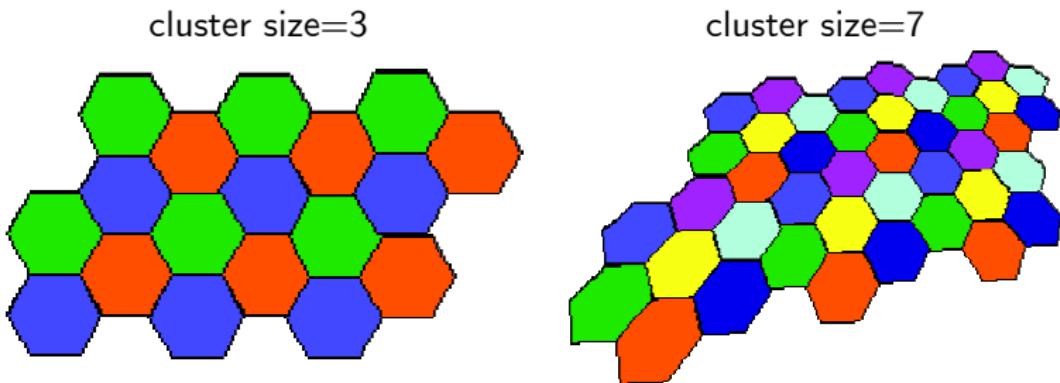
TDD:



Channel Reuse and Reuse Distance

- Most cellular systems use frequency division multiplex access (FDMA) and/or time division multiplex access (TDMA) technique to improve the system capacity.
- Example: 2G cellular systems = FDMA/TDMA
- In these systems, each user is assigned one time/frequency-slot.
 - ▶ When the system gets larger,
time/frequency-slots \neq unique for each and every user
as this will limit the system capacity. Therefore these slots
(time/frequency) have to be reused
 - ▶ This implies that there is **interference from other cells** sharing the same channels.

- Cluster = the number of cells which have unique time/freq-slots for each and every user.
 - ▶ Available cluster sizes: 1,3,4,7,9,12,...



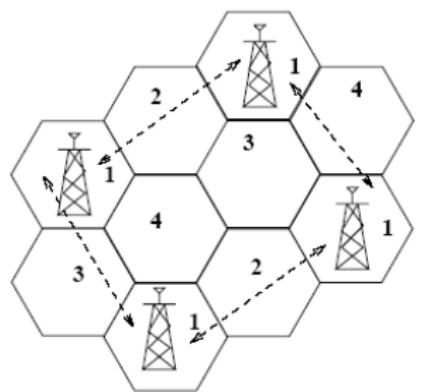
- ▶ The **reuse distance** D , in these systems, is determined by the worst case interference situation.
- ▶ D is defined as the distance between the centers of two co-channel cells.

$$D = R\sqrt{3C} \quad (1)$$

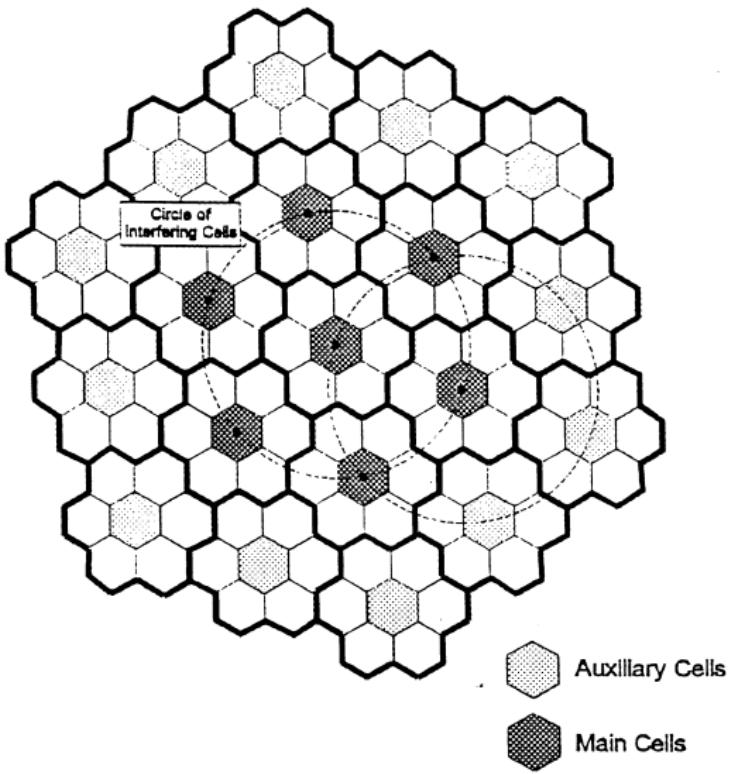
where C = cluster size

R = cell radius

cluster size: 4



cluster size: 7



- D is known as **the reuse distance of the system**.
- Remember: The **system capacity** could be increased by **increasing** the number of channels available in a single cell, i.e. **reducing** the reuse distance D .
- But this reduction is limited by the co-channel interference, (i.e. the interference from other cells sharing the same channels).
- In a **CDMA system**, the available spectrum and time are not split into distinct slots. Instead the whole (available) spectrum is used by each user.
 - ▶ Since the same frequency channel could be used by all the users/subscribers in a cell, the cluster size could be reduced to 1, i.e.

if CDMA then cluster = 1 cell and $D = R\sqrt{3}$

 (2)

Signal Overlay

- The spread spectrum signal, from a CDMA system, has a **very low power spectral density** and, therefore, a **CDMA system can overlay on top of 2G** narrow-band mobile cellular systems (of the same frequency band).
- This is because the interference (due to CDMA signals), added to a narrow-band mobile system channel, is very low and, therefore, the presence of CDMA signal will hardly affect the performance of the narrow-band mobile system.
- The CDMA system, however, needs to perform **some extra processing** to reject the narrowband interference due to the presence of the narrow-band signals.
- Comment:
The capacity and performance of a mobile cellular system could be significantly improved by using CDMA techniques. In the paper "On the Capacity of a Cellular CDMA", IEEE Transactions on Vehicular Technology, Vol.40, 1991 (by Gilhousen et al) the improvement in the capacity is discussed and it is stated that "no other proposed scheme appears to even approach this (CDMA) performance".

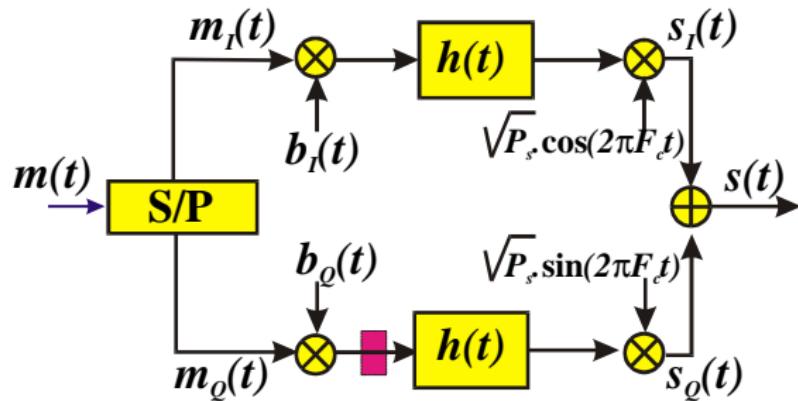
3G: Specifications

	IS-95	UMTS
Generation	2G (USA)	3G (EU)
Type	CDMA	W-CDMA
Frame duration	20msec	10msec
Uplink	25MHz 824 – 849MHz mod:QPSK	60MHz 1920 – 1980MHz mod:balanced QPSK, i.e. QPSK2
Downlink	25MHz 869 – 894MHz mod:oQPSK	60MHz 2110 – 2170MHz mod:dual QPSK, i.e. QPSK1
B_{ss}	1.23MHz	5MHz,10MHz,20MHz
T_c	813.8ns	244ns,122ns, 61ns
$r_c = \frac{1}{T_c}$	$1.2288 \frac{\text{Mchips}}{\text{sec}}$	$4.096 \frac{\text{Mchips}}{\text{sec}}$ (reduced to $3.084 \frac{\text{Mchips}}{\text{sec}}$)
roll-off-factor		$0.22; \text{Note: } B_{ss} = \frac{1}{T_c}(1+\text{roll-off-factor}) = 4.99712 \text{MHz} \simeq 5 \text{MHz}$
Receiver's type	RAKE	RAKE

3G: DS-QPSK implementation No.1 (QPSK1)

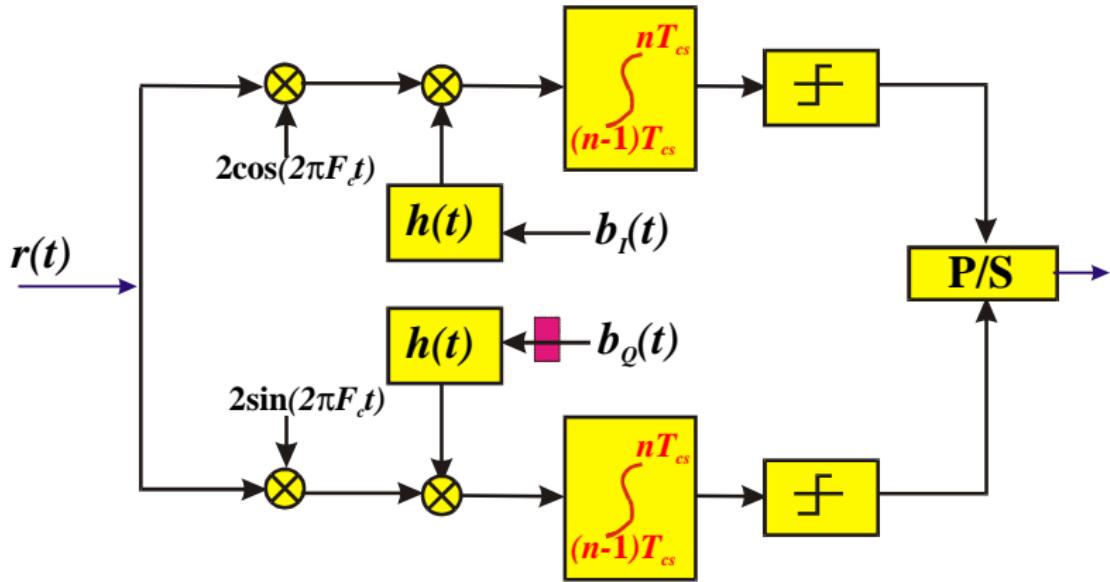
(Note: if $\boxed{\quad} = \frac{T_c}{2}$ delay is inserted then OQPSK1 – offset QPSK1)

- Transmitter:



$$s(t) = \sqrt{2P_s} \cdot \cos \left(2\pi F_c t + \tan^{-1} \frac{b_Q(t) \cdot m_Q(t)}{b_I(t) \cdot m_I(t)} \right)$$

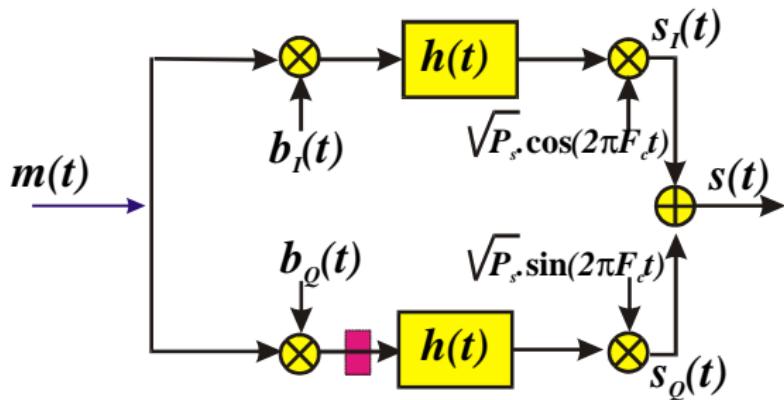
- Receiver:



3G: DS-QPSK implementation No.2 (QPSK2)

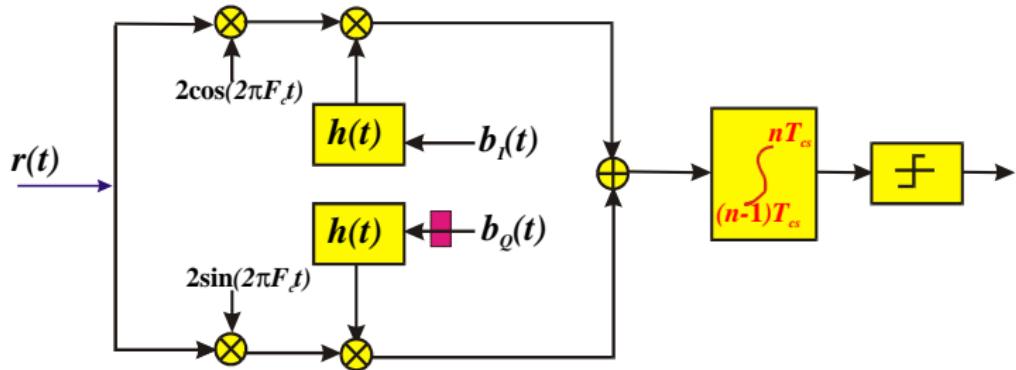
(Note: if $\boxed{\quad} = \frac{T_c}{2}$ delay is inserted then OQPSK2)

- Transmitter:



$$s(t) = \sqrt{2P_s} \cdot \cos \left(2\pi F_c t + \tan^{-1} \frac{b_Q(t) \cdot m(t)}{b_I(t) \cdot m(t)} \right)$$

- Receiver:

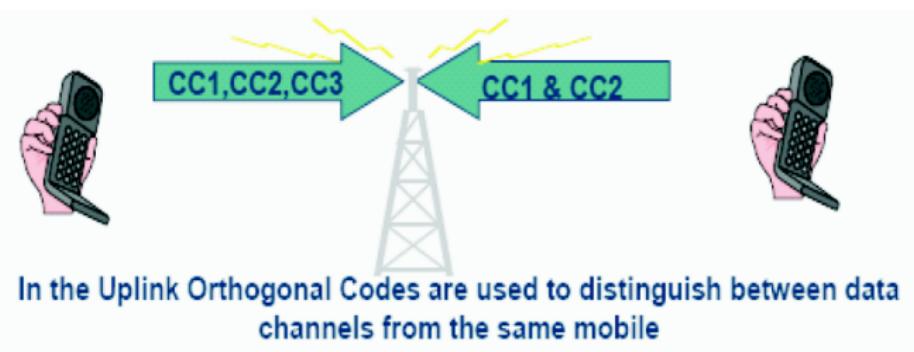


3G: Channelisation Codes & Scrambling Codes

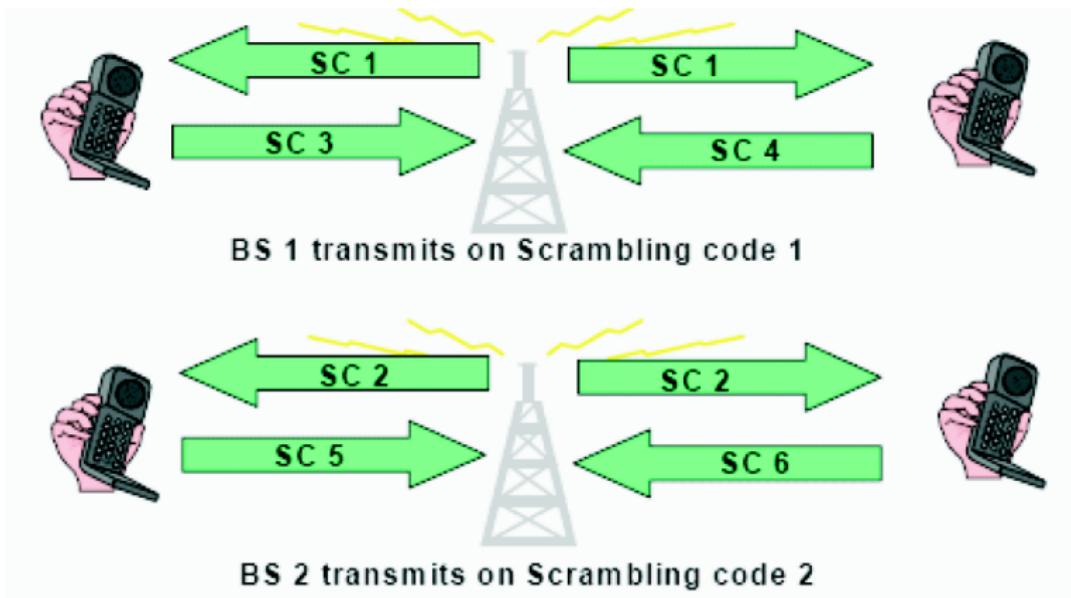
- In 3G WCDMA:
 - ▶ **PN-codes** = **channelisation codes** + scrambling codes
- **Channelisation codes :**
 - ▶ are used to **differentiate between users/channels** within a cell
 - ▶ also known as **OVSF** (Orthogonal Variable Spreading Factor) codes
 - ▶ these are the **Walsh codes** (see next page)
- Scrambling codes:
 - ▶ to **differentiate** between **cells**
 - ▶ these are **m-sequence** or **gold-codes**

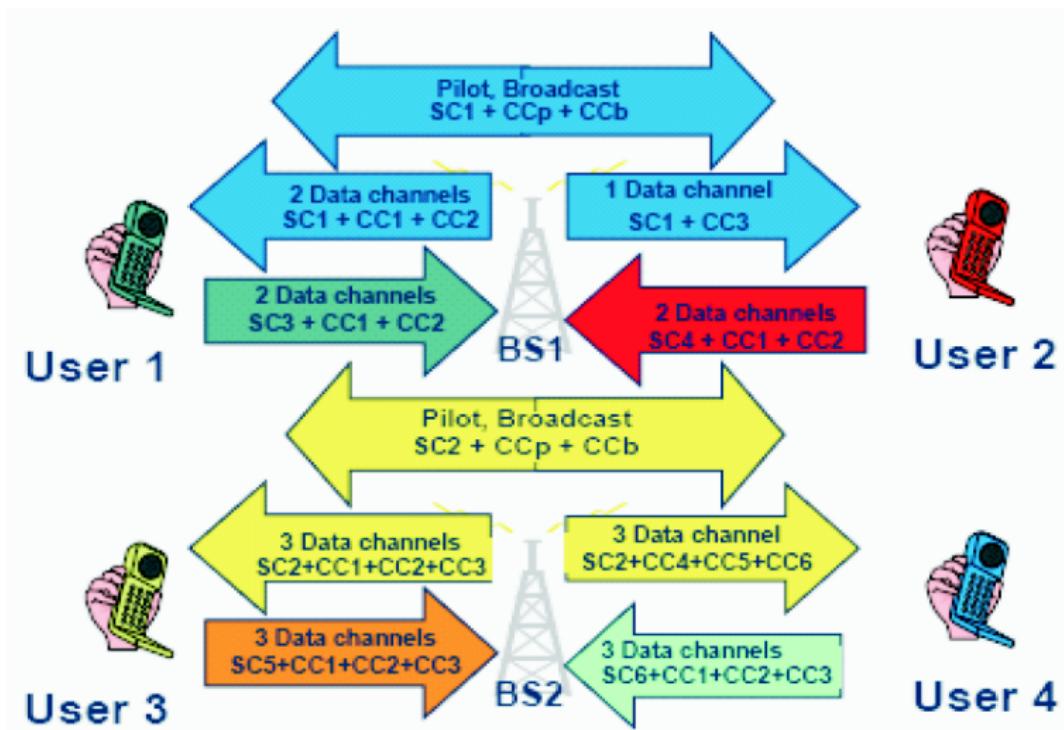


In the Downlink Orthogonal Codes are used to distinguish between data channels from the same Base Station

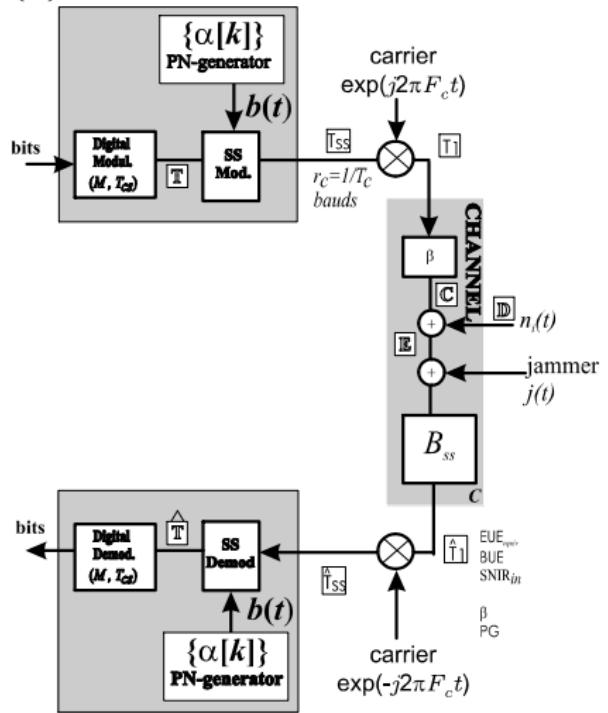
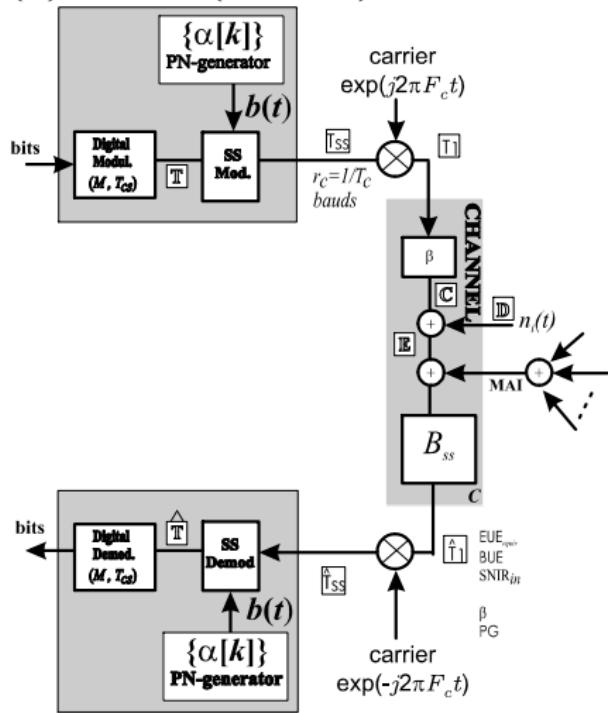


In the Uplink Orthogonal Codes are used to distinguish between data channels from the same mobile





(a) SSS:

(b) CDMA (K users):

Remember

- **DS-SSS** (Examples: DS-BPSK, DS-QPSK):

$$b(t) = \sum_n \alpha[n].c(t - nT_c) \quad (3)$$

where $\{\alpha[n]\}$ is a sequence of ± 1 's;
 $c(t)$ is an energy signal of duration T_c

- **FH-SSS** (Examples: FH-FSK)

$$b(t) = \sum_n \exp \{j(2\pi k[n]F_1 t + \phi[n])\} .c(t - nT_c) \quad (4)$$

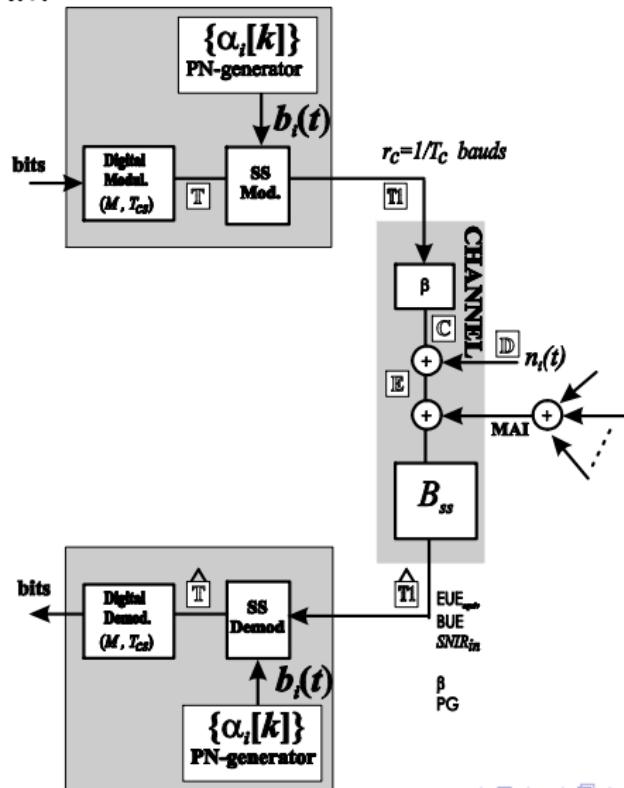
where $\{k[n]\}$ is a sequence of integers such that

$$\{\alpha[n]\} \mapsto \{k[n]\} \quad (5)$$

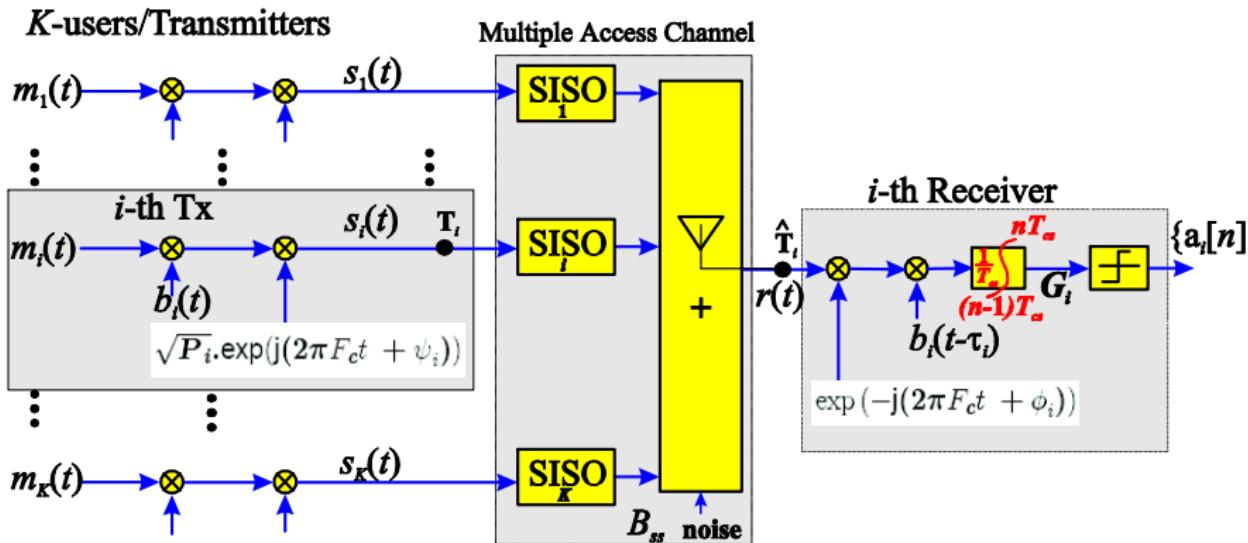
and $\{\alpha[n]\}$ is a sequence of ± 1 's;
 $c(t)$ is an energy signal of duration T_c

Basics of CDMA

- BLOCK DIAGRAM



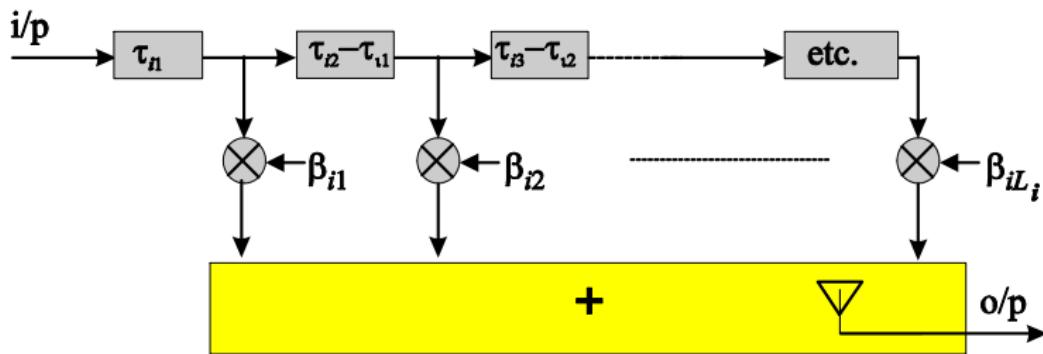
- Example: DS-BPSK CDMA System



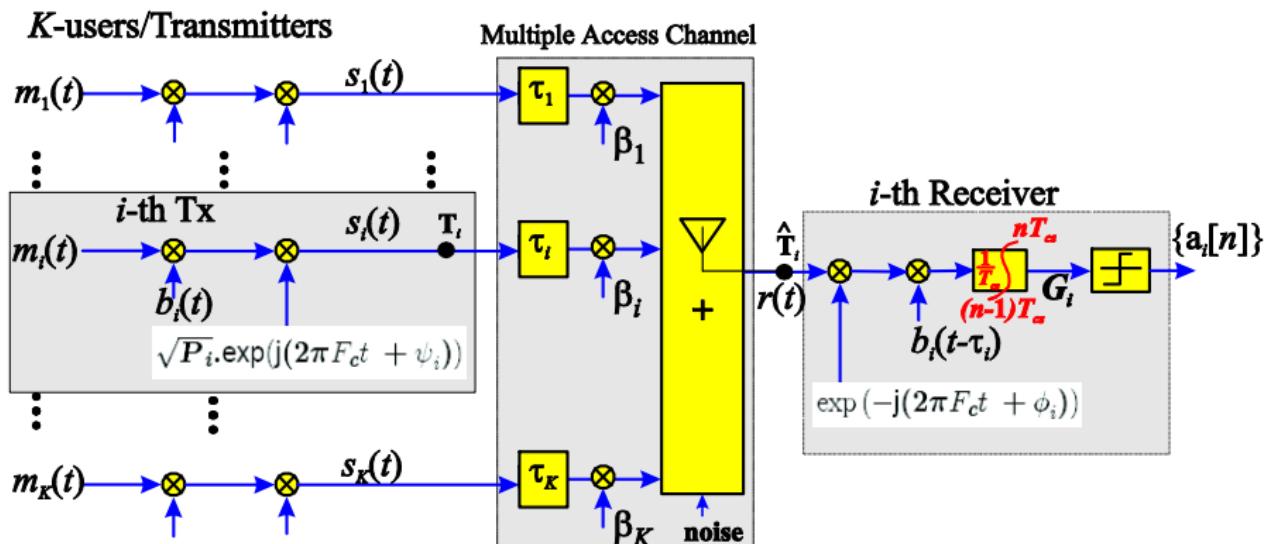
SISO = Scalar-Input Scalar-Output Channel

SISO Multipath Channel

- SISO Multipath channel of the i -th user



- In the absence of multipaths the above diagram has only τ_{i1} and β_{i1} terms.
- For the simplicity we will drop the second subscript and we will use τ_i and β_i , and thus the BPSK/DS-CDMA in the absence of multipaths may be represented as follows:



Basic Properties of CDMA Systems

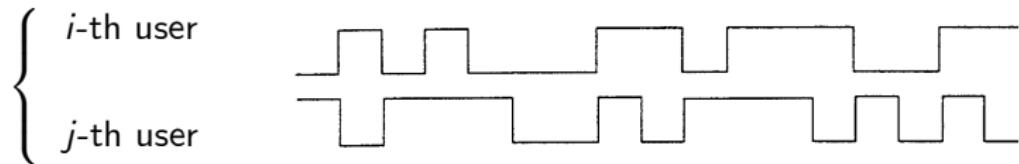
- CDMA is one of the applications of spread spectrum communications which is used in civilian, commercial and military communication.
- Two systems: DS-CDMA (i.e averaging system) and FH-CDMA (i.e. avoidance system).

In this course only DS-CDMA will be considered.

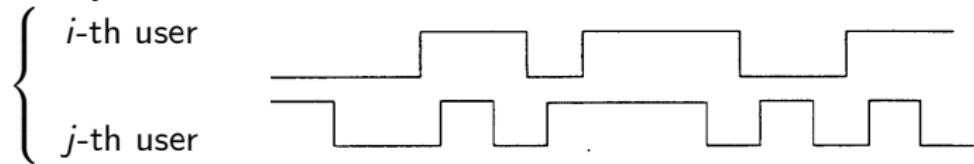
- Assign a specific PN-code to each user
- PN-code (having the status of 'password') acts like a 'channel'
- DS-CDMA: two main cases
 - ▶ PN-signal period = $N_c T_c = T_{cs}$ (known as '**short codes**' CDMA)
 - ▶ PN-signal period = $N_c T_c \gg T_{cs}$ (known as '**long codes**' CDMA)

- DS-CDMA: two main types

- ① synchronous DS-CDMA



- ② non-synchronous DS-CDMA



DS-CDMA: Synchronization

- The Rx requires a replica of the PN code, with the correct clock phase, in order to despread the signal.
- Therefore, Rx = “synchronization circuits” + “demod. circuits”
- The process of synchronizing the receiver to the transmitter’s PN code consists of two stages:
 - ▶ **Acquisition** (coarse synchronization).
 - ▶ Tracking (fine synchronization).



- Operation: **acquisition** ; tracking + demodulation; **loose tracking** ;
acquisition ; tracking+demodulation;etc.....

Analysis of a DS BPSK CDMA System

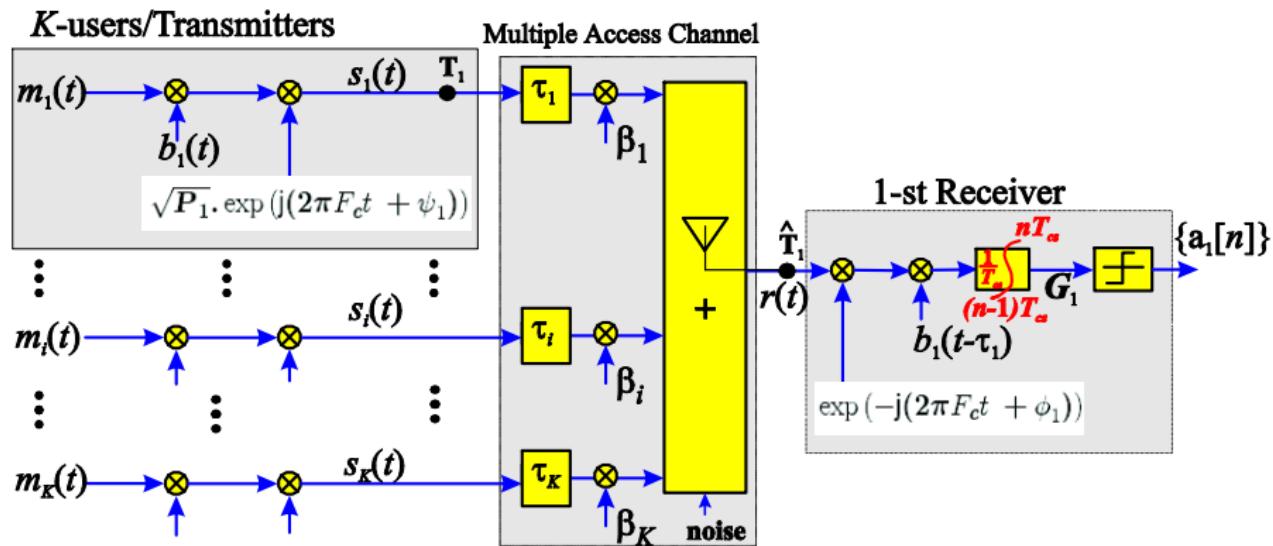
- objective: to relate the BER p_e with the total number of users K as well as with the EUE_{equ} at the receiver.
i.e.

$$p_e = f\{ \text{EUE}_{\text{equ}}, K \} \quad (6)$$

- Main Assumptions

- ▶ single cell system of K users,
- ▶ $\#$ multipaths
- ▶ PN code period $= N_c = \text{PG} = \frac{T_{cs}}{T_c}$
- ▶ System=perfectly power-controlled
(all SS signals arrive at the receiver with the same power)
 - ★ NB: power control can often be implemented in practice with great accuracy.
- ▶ System = totally asynchronous (there is no common timing reference for the transmitters/users)
 - ★ NB: This is actually an advantage of CDMA over other multiple access techniques, because all users can transmit independently and no signalling information is required.

DS/BPSK CDMA System: Modelling and Analysis



- Note that the carrier of i^{th} transmitter is $\sqrt{P_i} \cdot \exp(j(2\pi F_c t + \psi_i))$

- i -th user's data signal $m_i(t)$ and PN-signal $b_i(t)$:

$$\begin{cases} m_i(t) \equiv \sum_n a_i[n] \cdot c_1(t - n \cdot T_{cs}); \quad nT_{cs} < t \leq (n+1)T_{cs} \\ b_i(t) = \sum_k \alpha_i[k] \cdot c_2(t - kT_c); \quad kT_c < t \leq (k+1)T_c \\ \text{with } T_{cs} = N_c T_c; \quad \left\lfloor \frac{k}{N_c} \right\rfloor = n; \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

- The period of each user's PN-sequence is selected as $N_c = \frac{T_{cs}}{T_c}$, and therefore there is one code period per data bit (or N_c chips per bit). Thus, for the BPSK case, the processing gain PG is:

$$PG = N_c = \frac{T_{cs}}{T_c} \quad (8)$$

- The transmitted signal $s_i(t)$ of the i -th user is therefore

$$s_i(t) = \sqrt{P_i} \cdot m_i(t) \cdot b_i(t) \cdot \exp(j(2\pi F_c t + \psi_i)) \quad (9)$$

where F_c is assumed common for all carriers.

SNIR_{out} as a function of EUE, N_c and K

- For a **perfectly synchronised system**, at the output of the correlator (i.e. G_1) we have:

$$\text{SNIR}_{\text{out}} \approx 2.\text{EUE}_{\text{equ}} = 2 \frac{E_b}{N_j + N_0} \quad (10)$$

- However,

$$N_j = (K - 1) \cdot \frac{P}{B_{ss}} = (K - 1) \cdot P \cdot T_c = \frac{(K - 1) \cdot \overbrace{P T_{cs}}^{= E_b}}{N_c} = \frac{(K - 1) \cdot E_b}{N_c} \quad (11)$$

- Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SNIR}_{\text{out}} &\approx 2.\text{EUE}_{\text{equ}} \\ &= 2 \frac{E_b}{\frac{(K-1).E_b}{N_c} + N_0} = \frac{1}{\frac{K-1}{2N_c} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot \text{EUE}}} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

BER as a function of EU, Nc and K

- We have seen that

$$\text{SNIR}_{out} \approx \left\{ \frac{K-1}{2N_c} + \frac{1}{2 \text{ EU}} \right\}^{-1} \quad (13)$$

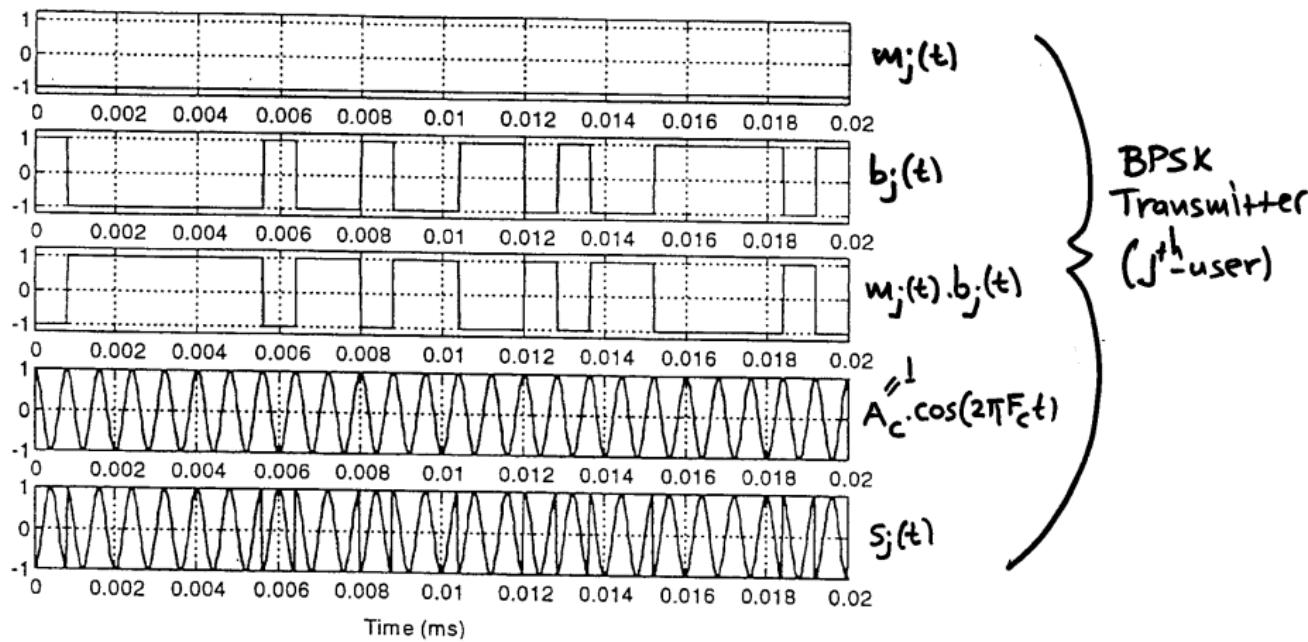
However,

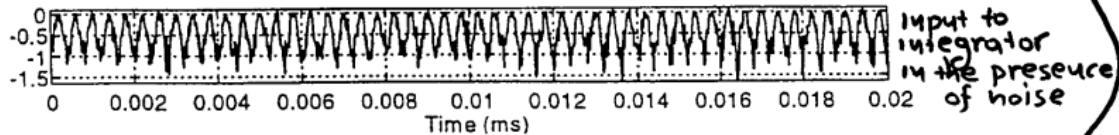
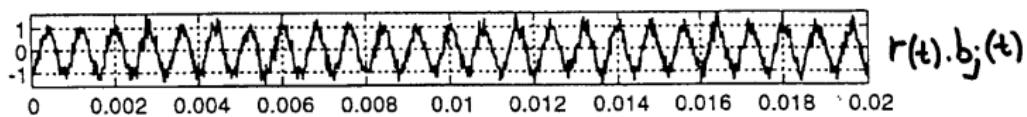
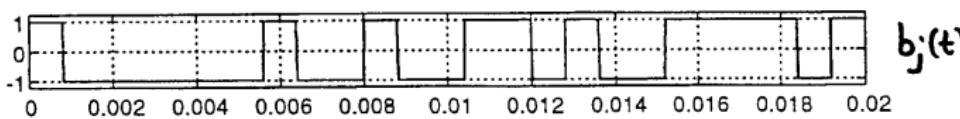
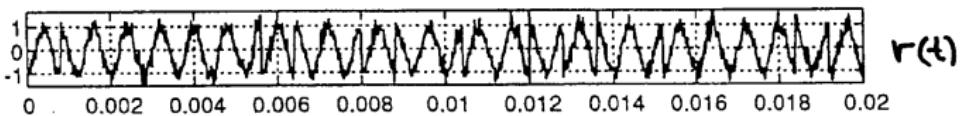
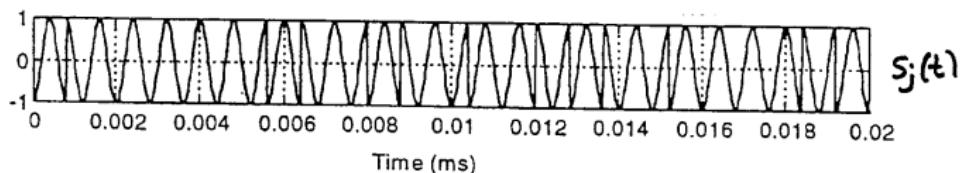
$$p_e = T \left\{ \sqrt{\text{SNIR}_{out}} \right\} \quad (14)$$

which implies that

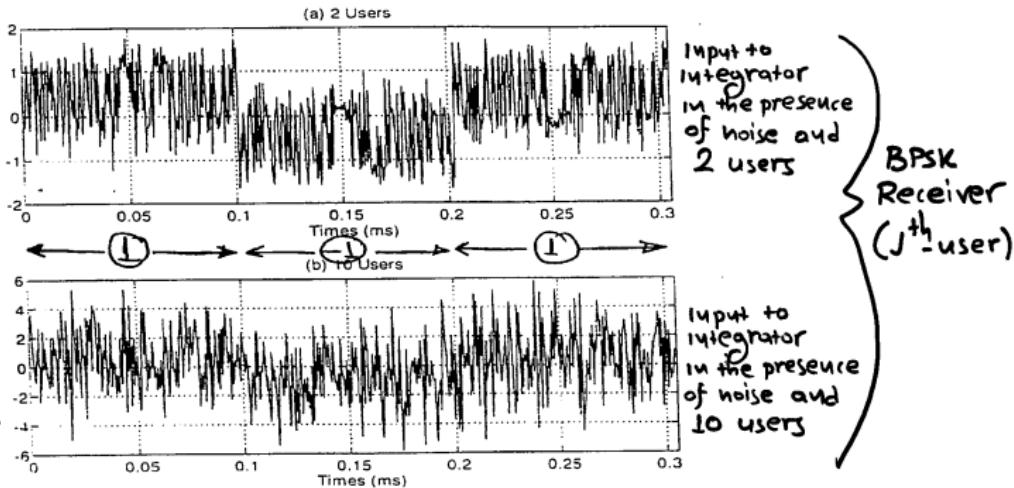
$$p_e = T \left\{ \sqrt{2 \text{ EU} E_{equ}} \right\} = T \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{K-1}{2N_c} + \frac{1}{2 \text{ EU}}}} \right\} \quad (15)$$

BPSK Examples





BPSK
Receiver
(j^{th} -user)



Power Control

- In order to achieve the full benefits of using CDMA, the transmitted signal powers P_{s_i} **should be controlled** in such a way that received signal power, from all the users at a cell, are the same.
This makes **power control** a **key feature** of CDMA mobile systems.

Voice Activity Factor

- Human speech contains a lot of pauses where there is no data to transmit.
Thus a speaker is active for about half the time due to listening and pauses in speech.

The fraction of time that a speaker is active is known as the voice activity factor a

- Extensive studies have shown that $0.35 < a < 0.5$.
A popular value used is $a = 3/8 = 0.375$
- The voice activity feature can be taken into account in a communication system by suppressing the transmission when voice is absent.

Assuming that we have a scheme where **the carrier is turned-off during the speech idle periods** then a reduction in interference (by a factor of the voice activity) can be achieved.

- implementation of voice activity: $\begin{cases} \text{TDMA/FDMA:} & \text{very difficult} \\ \text{CDMA:} & \text{very easy} \end{cases}$
- For a large number of users the **capacity increases** by a factor $1/a$.
- Therefore, using the voice activity monitoring approach the capacity and the performance of a CDMA system will be improved (this improvement cannot be obtained in FDMA/TDMA systems)
- In particular the power of a user's signal at a specific time instant can be expressed $1 \times P_{user}$ with probability a and $0 \times P_{user}$ with probability $(1 - a)$.
- Using voice activity the performance can be improved even more.

$$\text{BPSK} : \text{SNIR}_{\text{out}} = 2 \cdot \text{EUE}_{\text{equ}} = 2 \frac{E_b}{N_j + N_0} \quad (16)$$

$$\text{where } N_j = \frac{(K - 1) \cdot P_s \cdot a}{B_{ss}} \quad (17)$$

- Therefore we can model the “on-off” activity of each user a binomial distribution, which implies that the probability that k user (out of K) are active is given as follows:

$$\Pr(k \text{ users are active}) = \binom{k}{K} a^k (1-a)^{K-k} \quad (18)$$

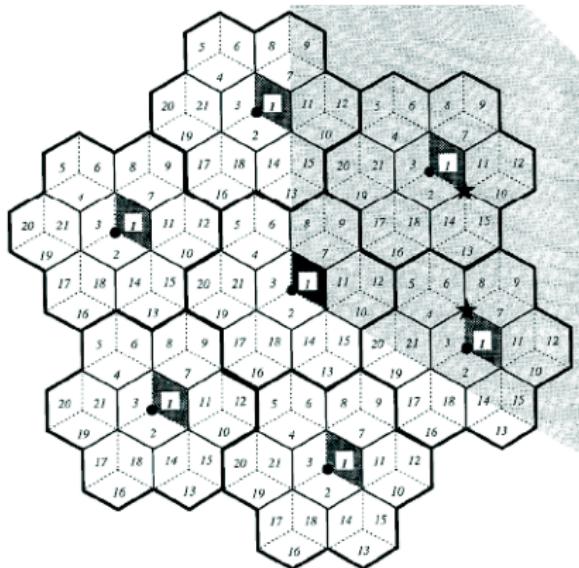
where K is the number of users per cell

- Note that as $K = \uparrow \Rightarrow$ spread of distribution = \downarrow
- Set a threshold K_{th}, ϵ_{th} such that:

$$\Pr(\text{number of active users} > K_{th}) < \epsilon_{th} \quad (19)$$

Sectorization

- It is used in TDMA/FDMA and CDMA systems



Sectorization

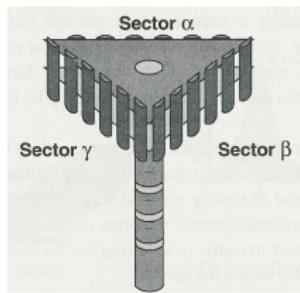
- **Sectorization** is achieved by using directional antennas instead of omnidirectional antennas.
- Each cell is divided to three sectors using **three directional antennas** each having 120° beamwidth.
- Using sectorization the performance can be improved even more.
(The expected value of the total interference is reduced by a factor of $s = 3$ wrt single omnidirectional antenna case)

$$\text{BPSK} \quad : \quad \text{SNIR}_{\text{out}} = 2 \cdot \text{EUE}_{\text{equ}} = 2 \frac{E_b}{N_j + N_0} \quad (20)$$

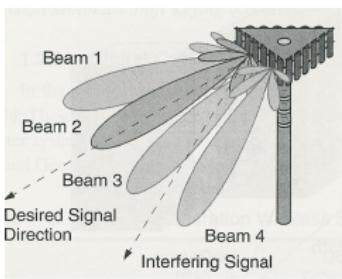
$$\text{where } N_j = \frac{(K - 1) \cdot P_s \cdot s}{B_{ss}} \quad (21)$$

In practice: $3 \text{ dB} < \text{SNIR}_{\text{out}} < 15 \text{ dB}$

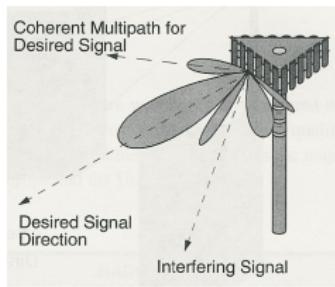
- A better approach is to use **three linear antenna arrays** (smart antennas)



antenna array



switched beam array system



adaptive array system

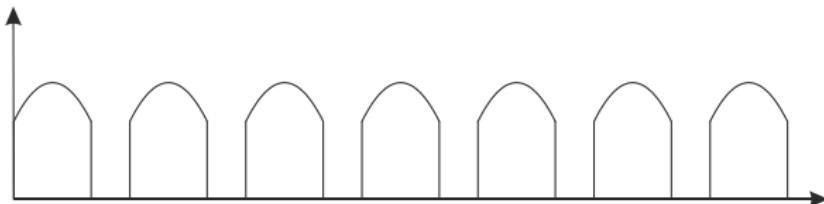
(see MEng 4th Year: E4.01)

4G

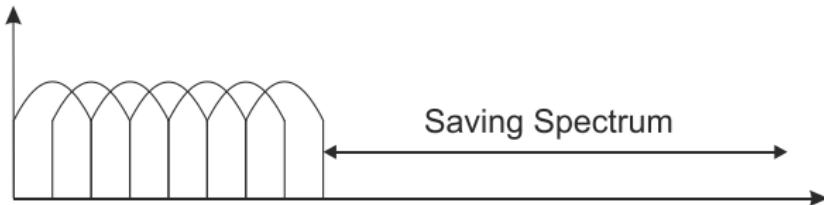
Overview of OFDM

Introduction

- Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplex (OFDM).
- Special case of multicarrier transmission —> overlapping and orthogonal narrowband subchannels.

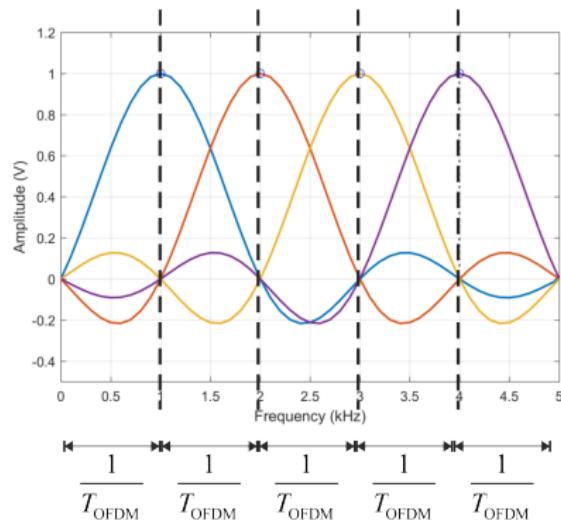
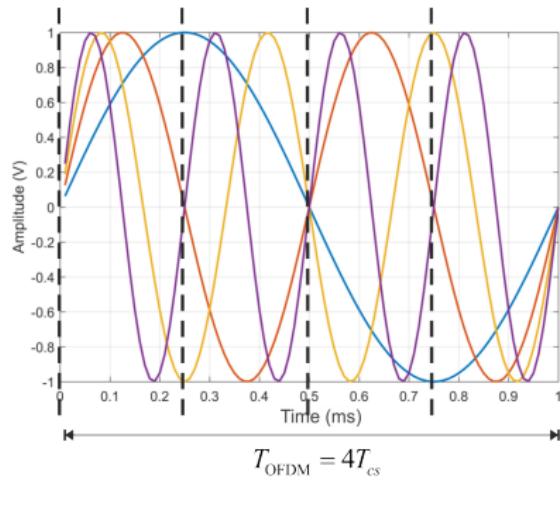


(a) Multicarrier system



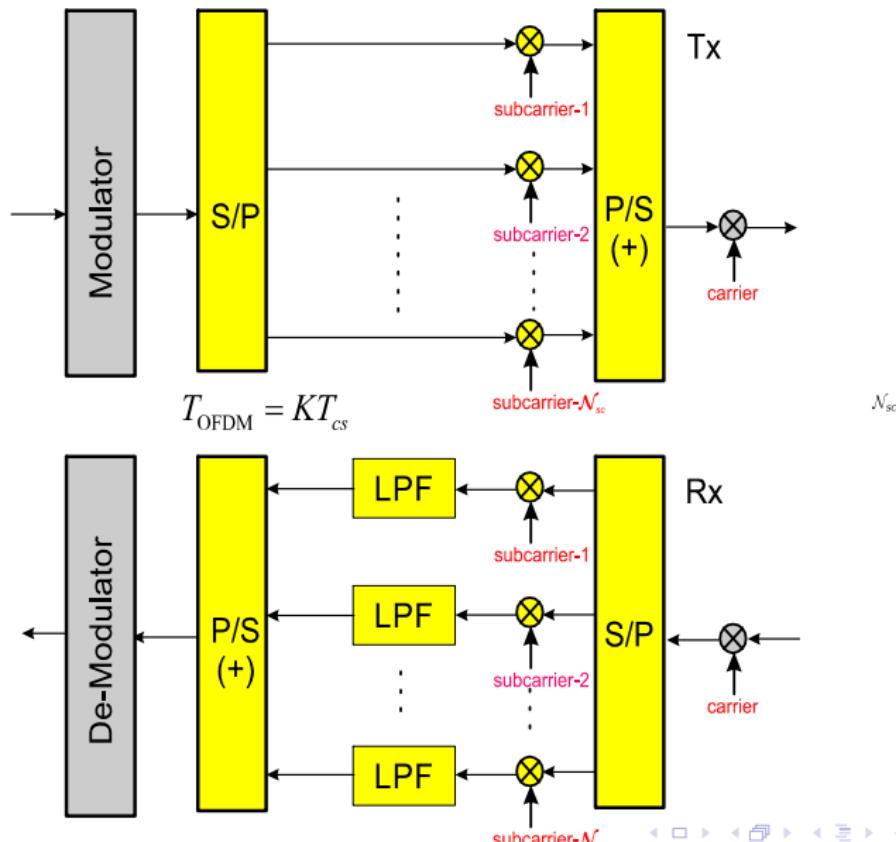
(b) OFDM system

OFDM Subcarriers



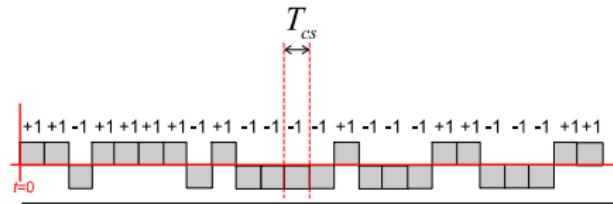
- The chosen subcarriers are harmonics and hence orthogonal to each other.
- No guard band between subcarriers are needed.
- The peak of a subcarrier is precisely at the zero-crossings of its adjacent subcarriers.

OFDM - Analogue Block Diagram

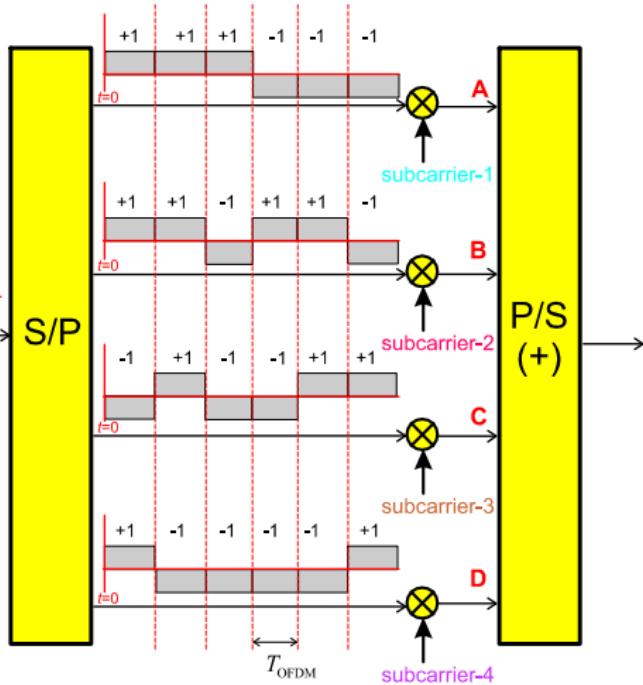


OFDM TX: Example of 4 Subcarriers

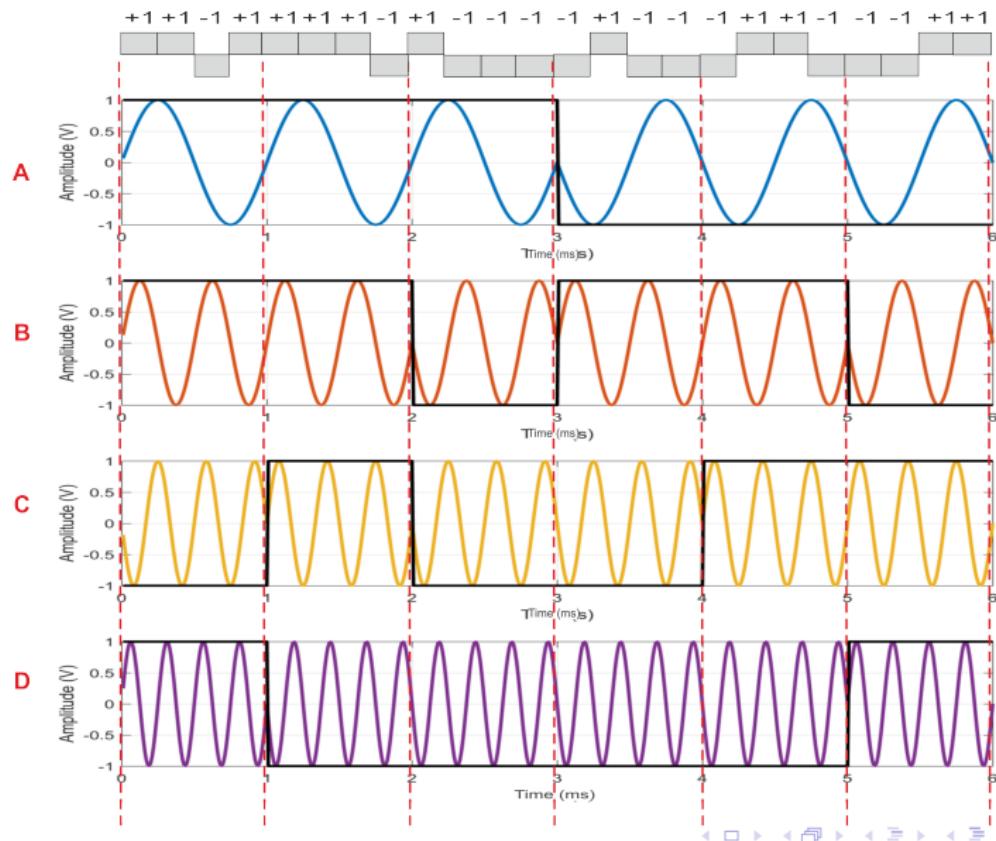
sequence of 24 bits
4 subcarriers



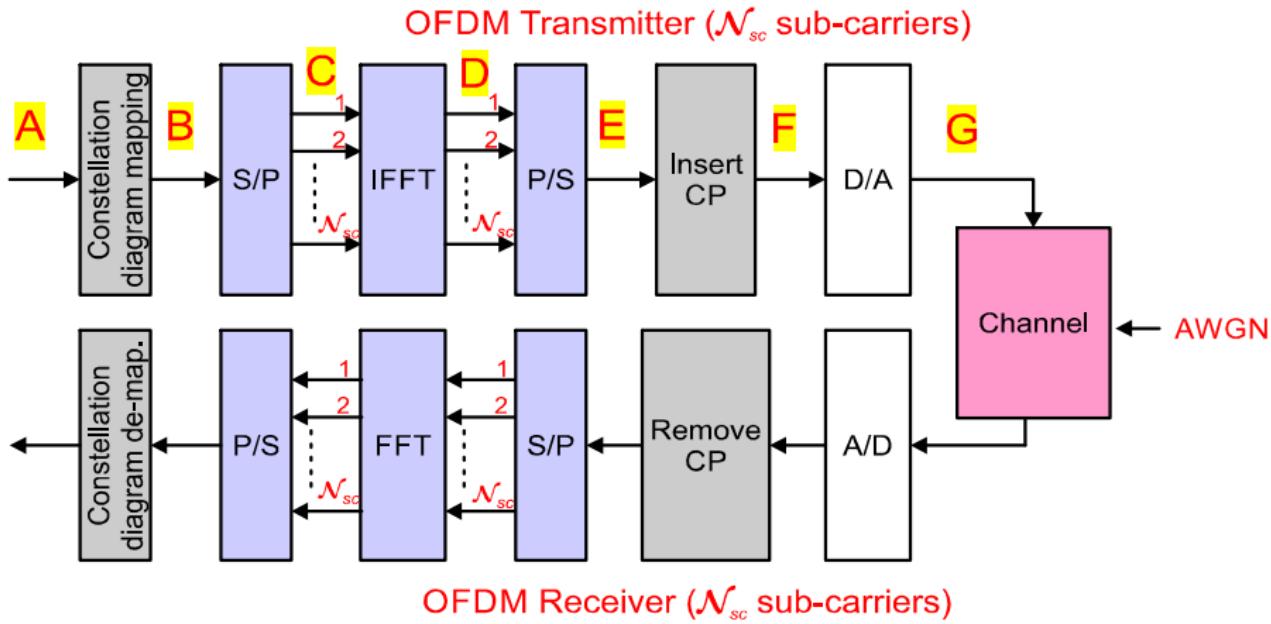
$$T_{\text{OFDM}} = 4T_{\text{cs}}$$



OFDM Tx Output



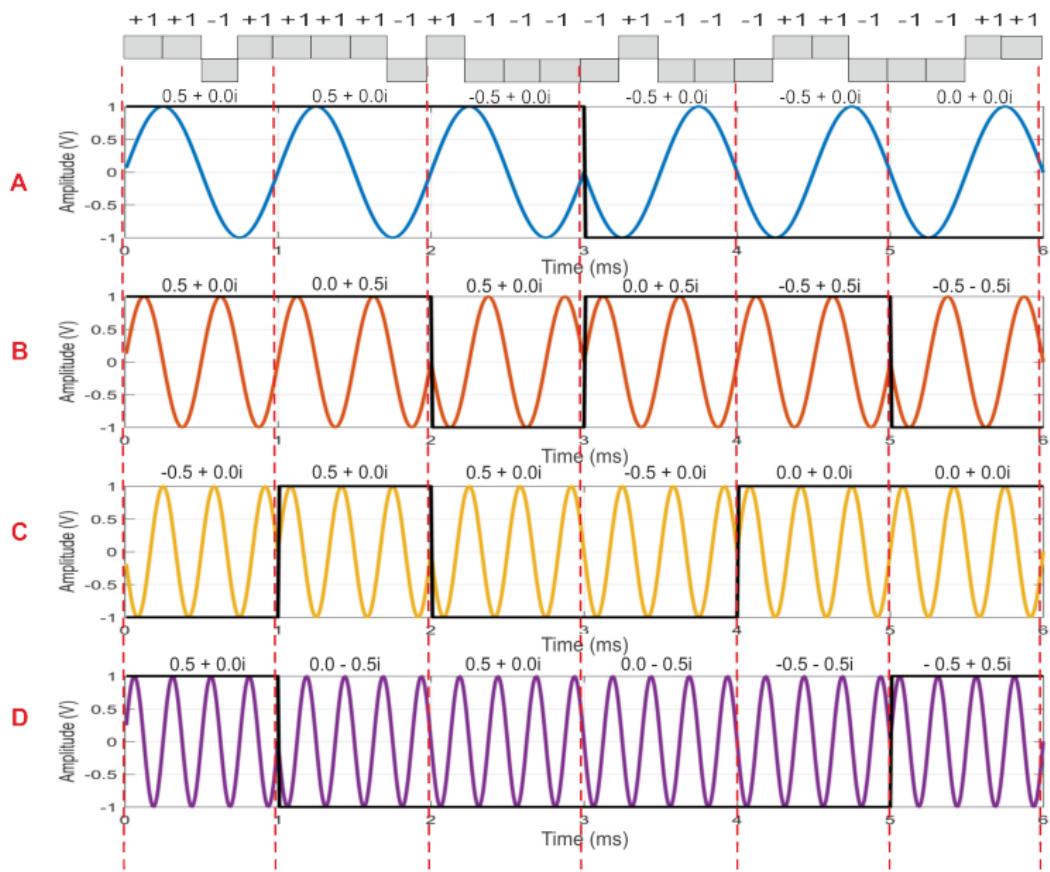
OFDM - Digital Block Diagram (in Practice)



- The stream of modulated symbols is demultiplexed onto \mathcal{N}_{sc} parallel streams (using a S/P converter) - where \mathcal{N}_{sc} is the number of subcarriers
- The \mathcal{N}_{sc} parallel streams are fed to the IFFT .
- Remember :**

Frequency-Domain (FD) samples	Time-Domain (TD) Samples
$X[k]$ $\xrightarrow{\text{iFFT}}$	$x(t_\ell) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{N}_{sc}} \sum_{k=0}^{\mathcal{N}_{sc}-1} X[k] \exp(j2\pi k \frac{\ell}{\mathcal{N}_{sc}})$
$X[k] = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\mathcal{N}_{sc}-1} x(t_\ell) \exp(-j2\pi k \frac{\ell}{\mathcal{N}_{sc}})$	$\xleftarrow{\text{FFT}} x(t_\ell)$
$\forall k = 0, 1, \dots, \mathcal{N}_{sc} - 1$	$\forall \ell = 0, 1, \dots, \mathcal{N}_{sc} - 1$

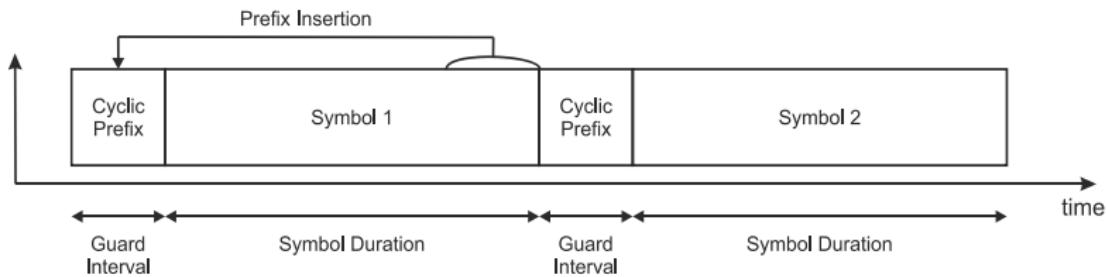
- Orthogonality: $\sum_{\ell=0}^{\mathcal{N}_{sc}-1} \exp(-j(2\pi k \frac{\ell}{\mathcal{N}_{sc}})) \exp(-j(2\pi m \frac{\ell}{\mathcal{N}_{sc}})) = 0, \forall k \neq m$
- The time samples at the output of the iFFT are multiplexed using a **P/S Converter** ,
- Cyclic prefixes** are inserted.



		TS1 (iFFT output)				TS2 (iFFT output)			
1st	+1	0.5+0.0j	0.5	0 °	+1	0.5+0.0j	0.5	0 °	
2nd	+1	0.5+0.0j	0.5	0 °	+1	0.0+0.5j	0.5	90 °	
3rd	-1	-0.5+0.0j	0.5	180 °	+1	0.5+0.0j	0.5	0 °	
4th	+1	0.5+0.0j	0.5	0 °	-1	0.0+0.5j	0.5	-90 °	
		TS3 (iFFT output)				TS6 (iFFT output)			
1st	+1	-0.5+0.0j	0.5	180 °	-1	-0.5+0.0j	0.5	180 °	
2nd	-1	0.5+0.0j	0.5	0 °	+1	0.0+0.5j	0.5	90 °	
3rd	-1	0.5+0.0j	0.5	0 °	-1	-0.5+0.0j	0.5	180 °	
4th	-1	0.5+0.0j	0.5	0 °	-1	0.0+0.5j	0.5	-90 °	
		TS5 (iFFT output)				TS6 (iFFT output)			
1st	-1	0.0+0.0j	0	0 °	-1	0.0+0.0j	0	0 °	
2nd	+1	-0.5+0.5j	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	135 °	-1	-0.5-0.5j	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	-135 °	
3rd	+1	0.0+0.0j	0	-90 °	+1	0.0+0.0j	0	-90 °	
4th	-1	-0.5+0.5j	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	-135 °	+1	-0.5+0.5j	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	135 °	

Cyclic Prefix, CP

- The **cyclic prefix** is a **guard interval (GI)** placed to protect OFDM signals from intersymbol interference in the presence of multipath.



- The last section of a symbol is used as a prefix in the front of the symbol.
- The duration of the guard interval T_{GI} should be

$$T_{GI} > T_{spread}, \quad (22)$$

to minimise **inter-symbol interference (ISI)**.

OFDM: Advantages/Disadvantages

- **Disadvantages:**

- ▶ **High peak-to-average-power-ratio (PAPR) [CR]** . An OFDM signal has a relatively large dynamic range, or PAPR. The RF amplifier is hence required to have a larger linear range resulting in a degraded efficiency level.
- ▶ **Carrier Offset and drift sensitivity** . OFDM is more sensitive to carrier offset and drift than single carrier systems.

- **Advantages:**

- ▶ **High spectrum efficiency** . The closely-spaced overlapping sub-carriers yield high spectrum efficiency.
- ▶ **Less sensitive to frequency selective fading** . The overall channel is divided into multiple narrowband channels that experience flat fading individually.
- ▶ **Easy channel equalisation** . The flat fading narrowband sub-channels are easy to equalise, compared to CDMA.

Where OFDM is Used

Wireless Standards

- **Cellular (Mobile) telecommunications** : LTE and LTE-A
- **Wi-Fi standards** : 802.11a, 802.11g, 802.11n, 802.11ac and HIPERLAN/2
- **Mobile broadband wireless access (MBWA) standard:** IEEE 802.20.
- **Broadcast standards:** DAB Digital Radio, DVB and Digital Radio Mondiale.
- **Mobile TV standard** as DVB-H, T-DMB, ISDB-T and MediaFLO forward link.

Cable Standards

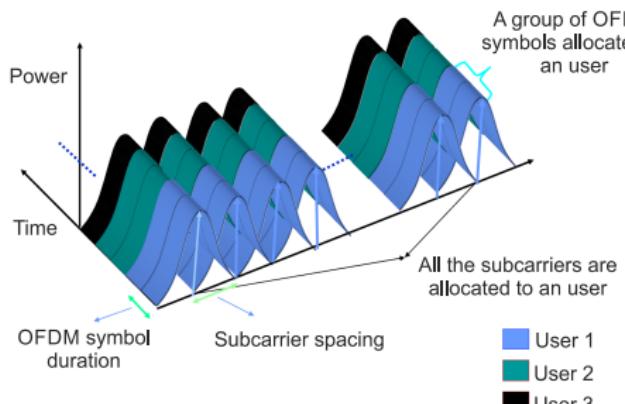
- ADSL and VDSL broadband utilising copper wiring.
- Cable TV, with DVB-C2.
- Power Line Communications
- Data over cable service interface specification (DOCSIS)

Abbreviations

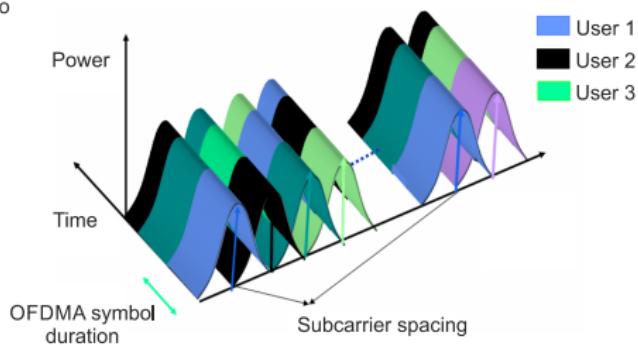
LTE	Long-Term Evolution
DAB	Digital Audio Broadcasting
DVB	Digital Video Broadcasting
DMB	Digital multimedia broadcasting
ISDB	Integrated Services Digital Broadcasting
MediaFLO	Media Forward Link Only
ADSL	Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Line
VDSL	Very-high-bit-rate Digital Subscriber Line

OFDM vs OFDMA

- **OFDMA** is the “**access**” version of OFDM, that is a scheme where the access to resources is shared between users.



(a) OFDM-TDMA Signal



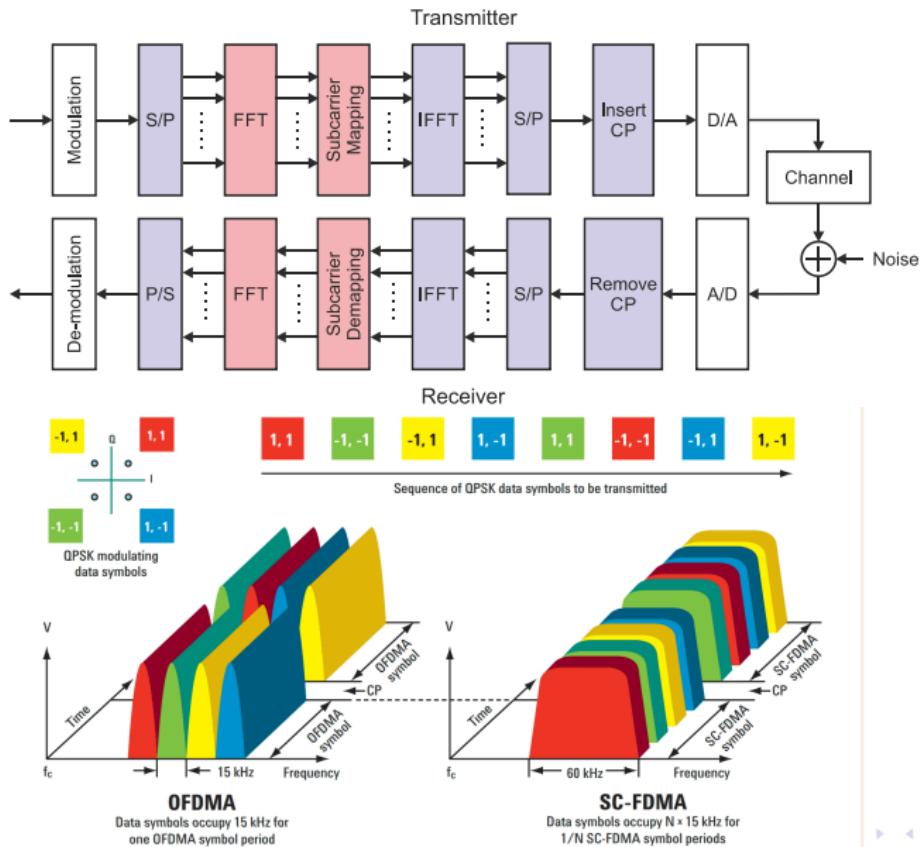
(B) OFDMA Signal

- In **OFDM-TDMA**, time-slots are attributed to each users and the whole OFDM symbol is dedicated to one user.
- In **OFDMA**, both time and frequency are distributed among users.

OFDMA Compared to CDMA

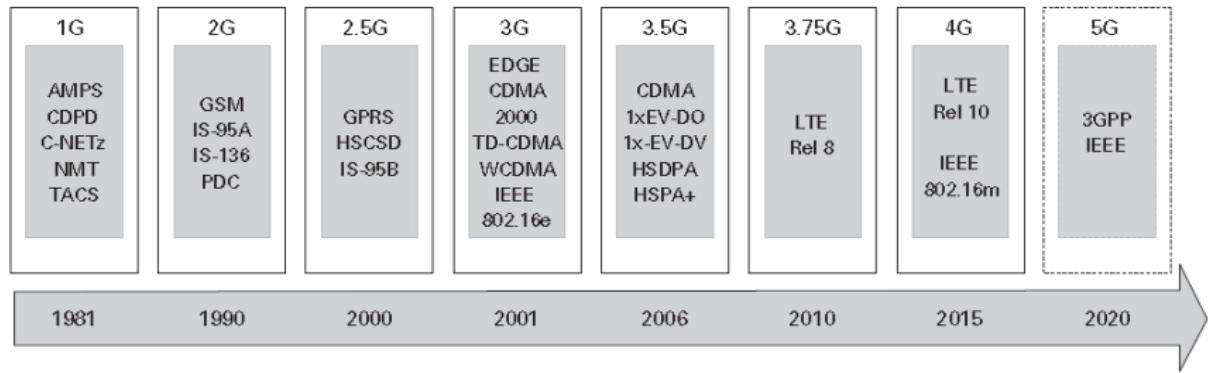
	OFDMA	CDMA
Channel Equalisation	OFDMA chops its large bandwidth into subchannels that are easy to equalise.	CDMA requires a large bandwidth (more difficult to equalise than OFDM).
Mobility	Sensitive to Doppler shift.	Robust to Doppler shift.
Scalability	Easy to aggregate additional spectrum.	Hard to support more users.
Security	May require additional security measures	PN-codes are an additional level of security.

SC-FDMA



5G

Mobile Evolutions from 3G to 5G



Narrowband and Wideband Signals and Systems

US FCC (Federal Communications Commission): Definition

- Fractional Bandwidth B_{fr} :

$$B_{fr} \triangleq \frac{B}{F_c} \quad (23)$$

with B representing the signal bandwidth and F_c denoting the carrier frequency.

- Based on B_{fr} , the **FCC classification** is:

$$0 < B_{fr} < 0.01 \iff \text{Narrow Band} \quad (24)$$

$$0.01 < B_{fr} < 0.25 \iff \text{Wide Band} \quad (25)$$

$$0.25 < B_{fr} < 2.00 \iff \text{Ultra Wide Band} \quad (26)$$

Main Characteristics of 3GPP/ETSI Standards



Bands: 450 MHz, 800 MHz, 900 MHz,
1800 MHz, 1900 MHz

Band width: 200 kHz

Peak data rate: 9.6 kbps

Round trip time: 600 ms



Bands: 850 MHz, 900 MHz,
1700 MHz, 1900 MHz, 2100 MHz

Band width: 5 MHz

Peak data rate: 384 kbps

Round trip time: 75 ms



Bands: 850 MHz, 900 MHz,
1700 MHz, 1900 MHz, 2100 MHz

Band width: 10 MHz

Peak data rate: 42 Mbps

Round trip time: 41 ms



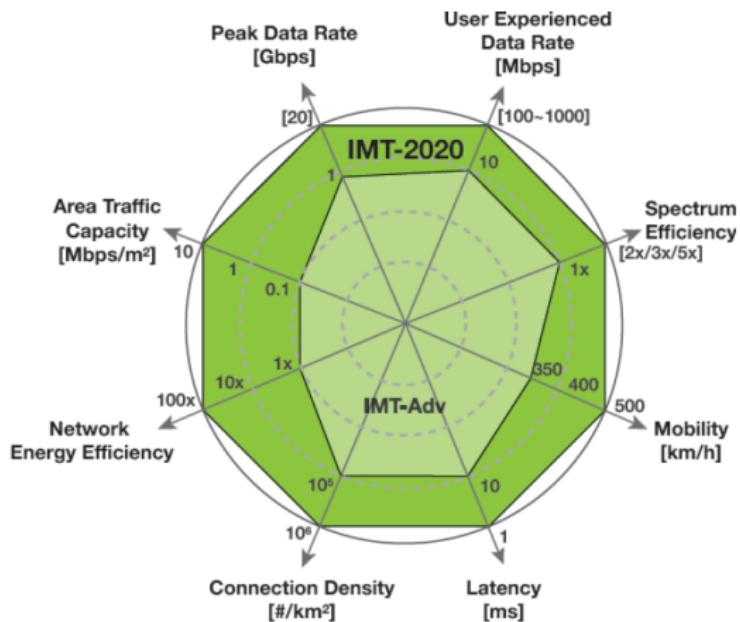
Bands: 700, 800 MHz, 850 MHz, 900 MHz,
1700 MHz, 1800 MHz, 1900 MHz, 2100 MHz,
2300 MHz, 2500 MHz, 2600 MHz, 3500 MHz

Band width: 20 MHz

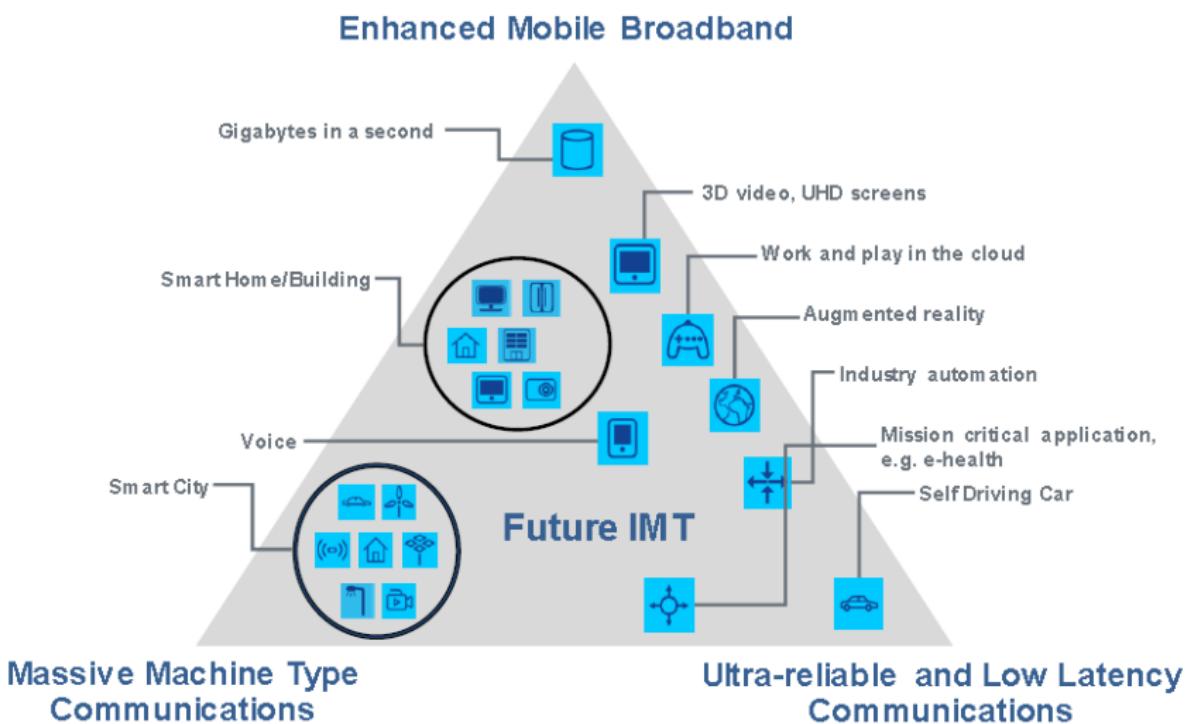
Peak data rate: 326 Mbps

Round trip time: 20 ms

IMT2020 Spinder Diagram



Triangle Diagram



Enhanced Mobile Broadband

Enhanced mobile broadband

Ushering in the next era of immersive experiences and hyper-connectivity



3D/UHD video telepresence



Tactile Internet



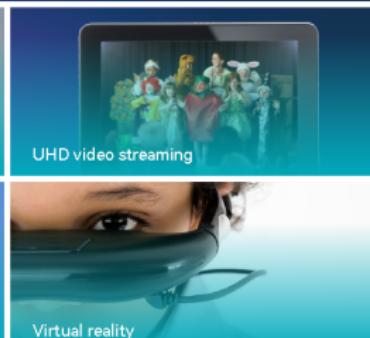
UHD video streaming



Demanding conditions, e.g. venues



Broadband 'fiber' to the home



Virtual reality

Higher throughput

multi-gigabits per second

Lower latency

Significantly reduced e2e latency

Uniform experience

with much more capacity

Wide Area IoT

Wide area Internet of Things Optimizing toward the goal to connect anything, anywhere



Smart cities



Smart homes



Utility metering



Wearables / Fitness



Remote sensors / Actuators



Object tracking

Power efficient

Multi-year battery life

Lower complexity

Lower device and network cost

Longer range

Deeper coverage

Higher Reliability Control

Higher reliability control

Enabling new services with more reliable, lower latency communication links



Autonomous vehicles



Robotics



Energy / Smart grid



Industrial automation



Aviation



Medical

Higher reliability

Significantly reduced packet loss rate

Lower latency

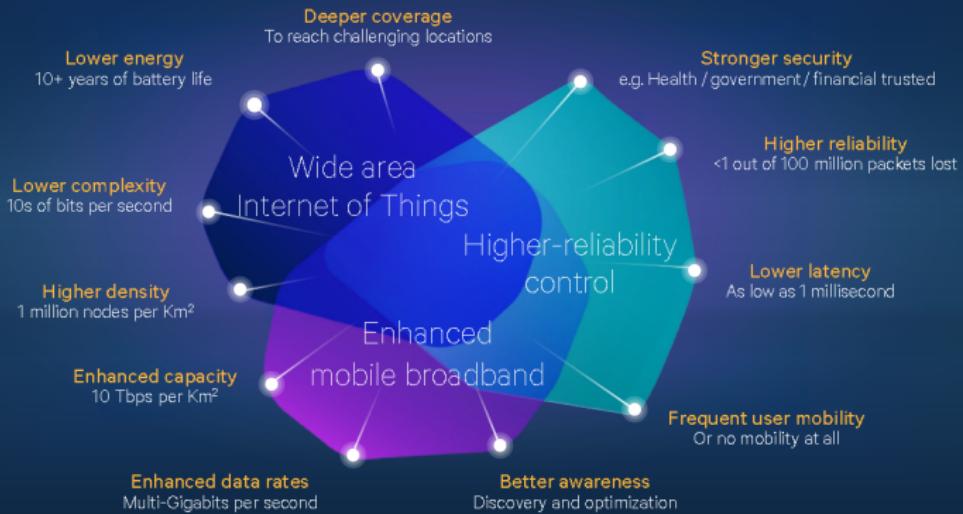
Significantly reduced e2e latency

Higher availability

Multiple links for failure tolerance and mobility

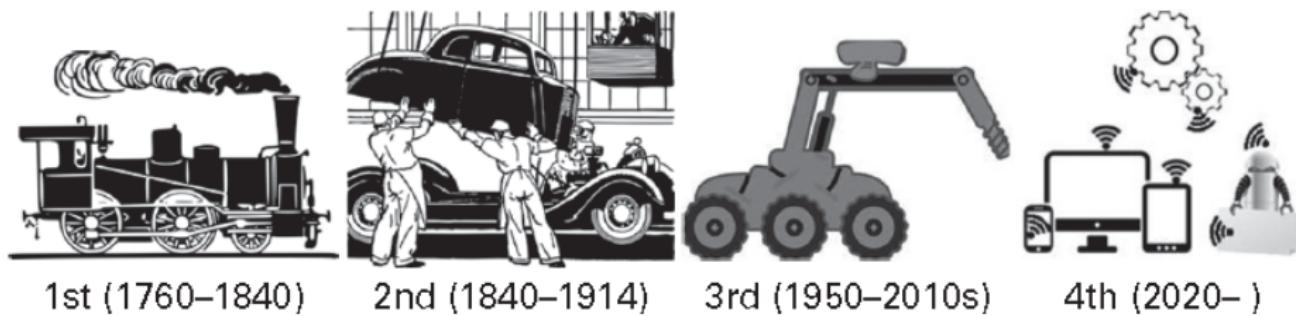
Scalability Across a Broad Variation of Requirements

Scalable across a broad variation of requirements



Course Concluded Remarks: Importance of 5G

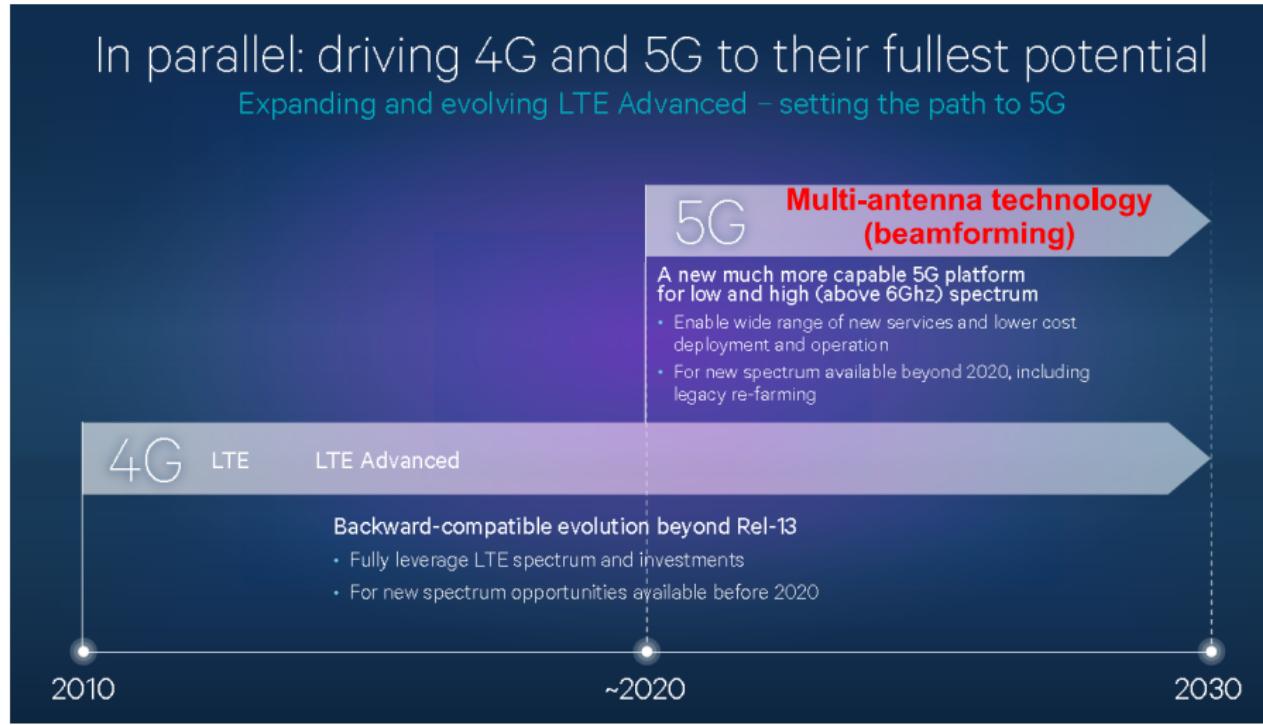
- 5G = 4th stage of Industrial Revolution!!!



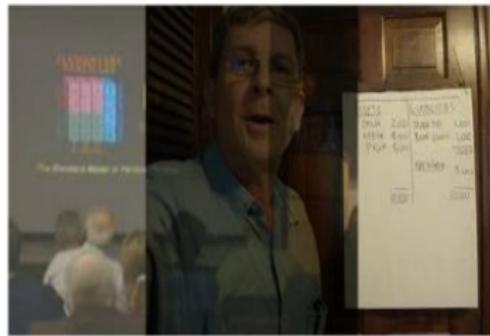
Concluded Remarks: Multi-antenna Technology in 5G

In parallel: driving 4G and 5G to their fullest potential

Expanding and evolving LTE Advanced – setting the path to 5G



Multiple Access Interference Cancellation (ULA, N=5)



Co-Channel Interference Cancellation with Motion (ULA, N=5)

