

# Lecture 2

## Computing Co-Channel Interference

- one co-channel cell every cluster (every  $N$  cells) causes co-channel interference
- consider the case where the mobile is at the cell boundary (worst case)
- for same-size cells with same transmitter powers,  $S/I = SIR$  is determined by ratio  $Q = D/R$  where  $D$  is the distance between centers of co-channel cells and  $R$  is the cell radius.
- if we use a smaller cluster size,  $N$ , we have smaller  $D$  and thus smaller  $Q$
- system designer must choose  $N$  large enough to meet the SIR requirements
- for possible cluster sizes, it turns out that  $Q = \sqrt{3N}$  (from cluster geometry)
- a simple model for the attenuation of the signal with distance is:

$$P_r(d) = P_0 \left( \frac{d}{d_0} \right)^{-n}$$

where  $d$  is the distance,  $P_0$  is the power at distance  $d_0$ , and  $n$  is a value that depends on the environment but is typically around 3 for urban areas.

- if we consider only the first “ring” of  $i_0$  interferers at distance  $D$ :

$$\frac{S}{I} = \frac{S}{\sum_{i=1}^{i_0} I_i} = \frac{R^{-n}}{\sum_{i=1}^{i_0} D_i^{-n}} = \frac{(D/R)^n}{i_0} = \frac{(\sqrt{3N})^n}{i_0}$$

- the assumption that  $Q$  is the same for all interferers is an approximation and more accurate results can be derived for specific cluster sizes.
- for small  $N$  we may need to include more than the first ring of interferers

## Power Control

- base station can command mobile to reduce its power
- increases battery life
- reduces interference on reverse channel

## Trunking Efficiency

- “trunks” are telephone lines linking telephone switches. “trunking” refers to sharing a fixed number of trunks by many telephone system subscribers
- in cellular radio the “trunks” are the radio channels which must be shared among the cellular system subscribers in a cell
- we need to install enough trunks (channels) in each cell to make the probability of all channels being busy (call blocking probability, “Grade of Service”, GOS) acceptably low
- an Erlang is a (unitless) quantity: it is the amount of traffic that can be carried by one trunk (one voice channel)
- traffic intensity per user  $A_u$ , in Erlangs, is the fraction of time that a user requires use of a trunk and is the number of calls per unit time ( $\lambda$ ) times the call holding time (duration) ( $H$ ) specified in the same units:

$$A_h = \lambda H$$

- for  $U$  users, the total traffic is:

$$A = UA_u$$

- a system with  $C$  channels with  $C \leq U$  there will be a finite probability that the all channels will be in use, the *blocking probability*.

- under various assumptions (infinite number of users, random call arrivals, exponentially-distributed call duration, blocked calls are not queued) the GOS of  $C$  trunks is given by the Erlang B formula:

$$Pr[\text{blocking}] = \frac{\frac{A^C}{C!}}{\sum_{k=0}^C \frac{A^k}{k!}}$$

where  $A$  is the total offered traffic

- Exercise: 100 users in a cell generate 2 calls/hour, with average duration of 3 minutes.  $A = 100 \cdot 2 \cdot 3/60 = 10$  Erlangs offered traffic. What GOS do the Erlang-B curves predict for 16 trunks (channels)?
- Exercise: Now we split the users into two cells each with 50 users and 8 trunks. What is the new GOS?
- combining trunks increases the “trunking efficiency” (Erlangs per trunk) at a certain GOS

### Cell Splitting and Sectorization

- cell splitting maintains the same cluster size and re-use factor but reduces the cell radius.
- sectorization places directional antennas (typically 3) at base station
- the channels are split into 3 sets, one for each sector
- the use of directional antennas reduces the interference to (and from) cells in some of the other clusters (e.g. using 3 sectors eliminates 2/3 of the interferers)
- this reduces SIR and allows a smaller cluster size to be used
- unfortunately, it also reduces trunking efficiency

### Log-Distance Path Loss Model

- already described: path loss is proportional to the  $n$ 'th power of distance, or, in dB:

$$\overline{PL}(dB) = \overline{PL}(d_0) + 10n \log \left( \frac{d}{d_0} \right)$$

- $n$  depends on environment
- 2 for free space, 3–5 in urban areas

### Log-Normal Shadowing

- at any given distance from the base, the path loss will vary due to local factors
- this variation can be modelled as a random variable,  $X_G$ , whose logarithm has a normal (Gaussian) distribution
- when  $X_G$  is expressed in dB, it has zero mean and variance  $\sigma^2$  dB
- the probability that a normal random variable,  $z$ , with mean  $m$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  will exceed the value  $\gamma$  is:

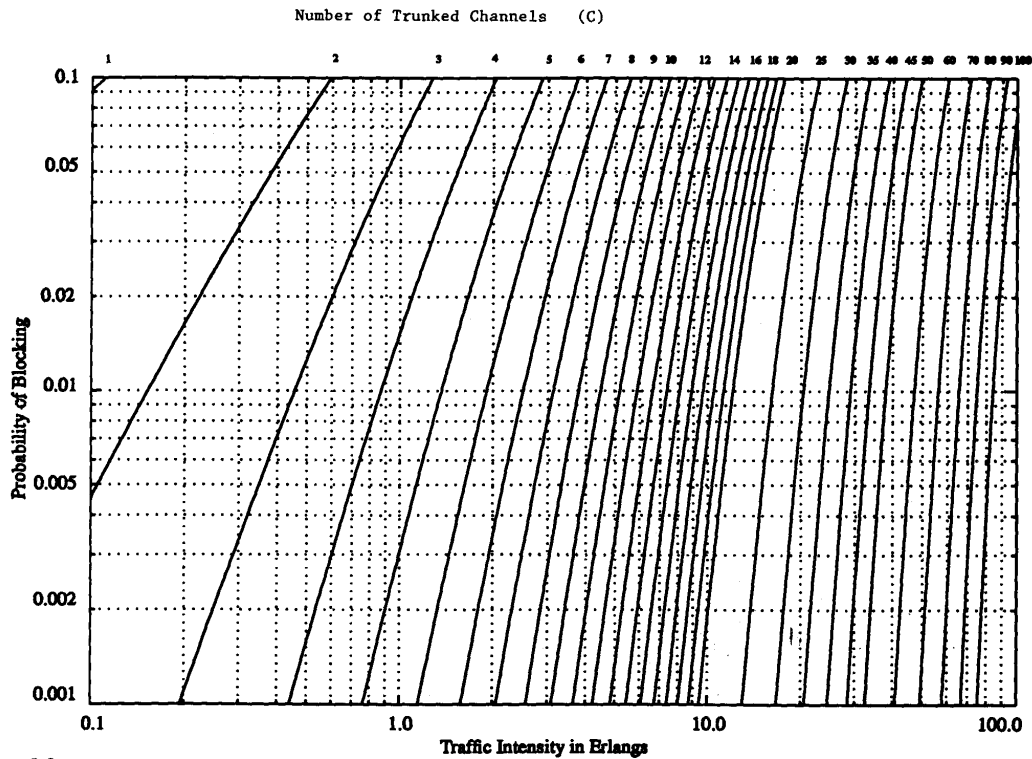
$$Pr[z > \gamma] = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{z - \gamma}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} \right) \right)$$

### Okumura Path-Loss Model

- a method for predicting median path loss for urban mobile radio
- based on extensive measurements in Japanese urban areas in the 60's
- can be used from 150 to 1900 MHz
- distances of 1 to 100 km (large cells)
- base heights 30 to 1000 m
- measurements were reduced to curves showing attenuation relative to free-space loss as function of frequency and distance
- correction factors are used for different antenna heights and type of terrain
- requires reading curves

### Hata Equations

- fit equations to Okumura's curves
- valid from 150 to 1500 MHz



- equation gives estimated median path loss as function of frequency, distance and antenna heights:

$$L_{50}(\text{urban})(\text{dB}) = 69.55 + 26.16 \log f_c -$$

$$13.82 \log h_{te} - a(h_{re}) +$$

$$(44.9 - 6.55 \log h_{te}) \log d$$

where

$f_c$  is frequency (in MHz) from 1500 to 1500,  $h_{re}$  is effective receiver height (m) from 30 to 200,  $h_{te}$  is effective transmitter height (m) from 1 to 10,  $d$  is base-mobile distance (km), and  $a(h_{re})$  is an equation for a correction factor (see text).