Performance Analysis of Fifth-Generation Cellular Uplink

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Abstract—Fifth-generation cellular networks are expected to exhibit at least three primary physical-layer differences relative to fourth-generation ones: millimeter-wave propagation, antenna-array directionality, and densification of base stations. In this paper, the effects of these differences on the performance of single-carrier frequency-domain multiple-access uplink systems with frequency hopping are assessed. A new analysis, which is much more detailed than any other in the existing literature and accommodates actual base-station topologies, captures the primary features of uplink communications. Distance-dependent power-law, shadowing, and fading models based on millimeter-wave measurements are introduced. The beneficial effects of base-station densification, highly directional sectorization, and frequency hopping are illustrated.

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper provides a performance analysis of the uplink of a fifth-generation cellular network in its primary mode of operation. It is assumed that millimeter-wave frequencies will be adopted, but that the basic structure of the fourth-generation (4G) single-carrier frequency-domain multiple-access (SC-FDMA) uplink systems will be maintained. The first assumption is widely supported in the current literature on fifth-generation (5G) systems [1], [2]. The second one is based on the favorable characteristics of SC-FDMA and the critical importance of transmitter power efficiency, which is enabled by the low peak-to-average power ratio of SC-FDMA and similar single-channel modulations [3], [4]. It is further assumed that 5G systems will exploit frequency hopping, as is done in 4G/LTE systems [5].

The analysis in this paper applies the methodology of [6], which we call deterministic geometry. Unlike stochastic geometry, deterministic geometry can accommodate arbitrary topologies with distance-dependent propagation models. The distance dependence of the propagation and fading models accounts for the fact that mobiles close to the base station have a line-of-sight (LOS) path, but the more distant mobiles do not.

The conditional outage probability of a SC-FDMA uplink is derived, where the conditioning is with respect to an arbitrary network topology. In the numerical examples, we use an actual deployment of the base stations. Each simulation trial generates a network realization in which the mobile placements are drawn from the uniform clustering distribution with each mobile having an exclusion zone [6]. For each realization of the network, the outage probability is computed for a reference link. By averaging over many network realizations, the average outage probability and other statistical performance measures are computed.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the system model, which accounts for distance-dependent fading, path loss, and shadowing based on millimeter-wave measurements, and for highly directional antennas and sectorization. Section III provides a closed-form expression for the conditional outage probability. Section IV provides a numerical evaluation of a 5G system. Finally, the paper concludes in Section V.

II. NETWORK MODEL

In the network model, C base stations and M mobiles are confined to a finite area. As an example, Fig. 1 depicts an actual deployment of C = 121 base stations extracted from a database of base-station locations in the United Kingdom. Base stations are represented by large circles, and Voronoi cell boundaries are represented by thick lines. The network occupies 900 km² inside a square.

For practical reasons such as the high propagation loss and the complexity of channel state estimation at millimeter-wave frequencies, the antenna arrays at the base stations and mobiles exploit beamforming rather than spatial multiplexing for uplink transmissions [7]. Densification, high mobility, and
the severe impact of blockages at millimeter-wave frequencies cause frequent handoffs and hence the need for rapid beam alignments. Sectorization, which is the division of base-station coverage into \( \zeta \) fixed angular sector beams centered at the base station, is used to reduce beam-alignment delays and pilot contamination. At millimeter-wave frequencies, the beams can be implemented using many antenna elements, perhaps hundreds, and hence have narrow beamwidths and very small sidelobes and backlobes. Each mobile transmits through an adaptive and highly directional antenna array.

The scalar \( S_l, l = 1, 2, \ldots, \zeta C \), represents the \( l \)th sector or its receiver, and the sector \( X_i, i = 1, 2, \ldots, M \), represents the \( i \)th mobile. The vector \( \mathbf{S}_l \), \( l = 1, 2, \ldots, \zeta C \), represents the location of the \( l \)th sector receiver, and the vector \( \mathbf{X}_i \), \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, M \), represents the location of the \( i \)th mobile. The normalized sector beam pattern associated with sector \( S_l \) is

\[
B_l (\theta) = \begin{cases} 
1, & \psi_l \leq \theta < \psi_l + 2\pi / \zeta \\
\frac{a}{b}, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]  

(1)

where \( \psi_l \) is the offset angle of the beam pattern, and \( b \) is the relative sidelobe and backlobe level.

Let \( X_1 \) denote the set of mobiles served by sector \( S_1 \). Let \( X_r \subset X_1 \) denote a reference mobile that transmits a desired signal to a reference receiver \( S_j \). Let \( g(i) \) denote a function that returns the index of the sector serving \( X_i \) so that \( X_i \subset X_1 \) if \( g(i) = l \). The sector \( S_{g(i)} \) that serves mobile \( X_i \) is assumed to be the one with minimum local-mean path loss when the mainlobe of the transmit beam of \( X_i \) is aligned with the sector beam of \( S_{g(i)} \). Thus, the serving sector has index

\[
g(i) = \arg \max_{x = 1, 2, \ldots, \zeta} \{10^{\xi_{i,x}/10} f(||S_l - X_i)||, \ X_i \in \mathcal{A}_x\}
\]  

(2)

where \( \xi_{i,j} \) is a shadowing factor for the link from \( X_i \) to \( S_j \), \( f(\cdot) \) is the area-mean path-loss function, \( ||\cdot|| \) is the Euclidean norm, and \( \mathcal{A}_x \) denote the set of mobiles covered by the sector beam of \( S_l \). In the absence of shadowing, the serving sector will be the receiver that is closest to \( X_i \). In the presence of shadowing, a mobile may actually be associated with a sector that is more distant than the closest one if the shadowing conditions are sufficiently better.

The area-mean path-loss function is a function of the distance \( d \) between a source and destination and is expressed as the attenuation power law

\[
f(d) = \left( \frac{d}{d_0} \right)^{-\alpha(d)}, \quad d \geq d_0
\]  

(3)

where \( \alpha(d) \) is the attenuation power-law exponent, and \( d_0 \) is a reference distance that is less than or equal to the minimum of the near-field radius and the exclusion-zone radius of a mobile.

The distance-dependent model of the power-law exponent for millimeter-wave frequencies takes into account the area-mean attenuation due to blockages and reflections that occur over network links. This model reflects the empirical fact that \( \alpha(d) \) differs substantially for LOS and non-line-of-sight (NLOS) links, tending toward \( \alpha_{\text{min}} \) for the usually shorter LOS links and tending toward a much larger \( \alpha_{\text{max}} \) for the usually longer NLOS links \([8], [9], [10]\). Empirical data indicates that usually there is a small range of link lengths for which there are both LOS and NLOS links. Therefore, \( \alpha(d) \) is modeled as a monotonically increasing function:

\[
\alpha(d) = \alpha_{\text{min}} + (\alpha_{\text{max}} - \alpha_{\text{min}}) \tanh (\mu d)
\]  

(4)

which indicates that \( \alpha_{\text{min}} \leq \alpha(d) < \alpha_{\text{max}} \). The parameter \( \mu \) controls the transition rate from \( \alpha_{\text{min}} \) to a value close to \( \alpha_{\text{max}} \).

Local-mean large-scale terrain effects are included in the shadowing model. The shadowing factor can be derived from a deterministic terrain model or can be modeled as a random variable in a statistical model. In this paper, we assume lognormal shadowing in which the \( \{\xi_{i,j}\} \) are independent, identically distributed, zero-mean Gaussian random variables with a distance-dependent variance.

For millimeter-wave frequencies, empirical data \([8], [9], [10]\) indicates that the effect of the shadowing increases for the usually longer NLOS links. Since there is a small range of link lengths for which there are both LOS and NLOS links, the standard deviation of the shadowing factor for millimeter-wave frequencies is modeled as a monotonically increasing function:

\[
\sigma_s(d) = \sigma_{\text{min}} + (\sigma_{\text{max}} - \sigma_{\text{min}}) \tanh (\mu d)
\]  

(5)

which indicates that \( \sigma_{\text{min}} \leq \sigma_s(d) < \sigma_{\text{max}} \).

The fading is assumed to have a Nakagami distribution function. Since the fading becomes more severe for the longer links, the distance-dependent Nakagami parameter is modeled as a monotonically decreasing function:

\[
m(d) = m_{\text{max}} - (m_{\text{max}} - m_{\text{min}}) \tanh (\mu d)
\]  

(6)

which indicates that \( m_{\text{min}} \leq m(d) < m_{\text{max}} \).

Frequency hopping \([11]\) is used in SC-FDMA uplink systems to provide the diversity that will mitigate the effects of frequency-selective fading and intersector interference. Because of network synchronization and similar propagation delays for the mobiles associated with a cell sector, synchronous orthogonal frequency-hopping patterns can be allocated so that at any given instant in time, there is no intrasector interference. The frequency-hopping patterns transmitted by mobiles in other sectors are not generally orthogonal to the patterns in a reference sector, and hence produce intersector interference. The varying propagation delays from the interfering mobiles cause their frequency-hopping signals to be asynchronous with respect to the desired signal. Duplexing prevents uplink interference from downlink transmissions.

Each mobile uses a frequency-hopping pattern over a hopset with \( L \) disjoint frequency channels. Let \( L_l, l = 1, 2, \ldots, \zeta C \), denote positive integer divisors of \( L \) such that \( L / L_l \geq 2 \). Each mobile in \( X_l \) is assigned a distinct block of \( L_l \) contiguous frequency channels during each of its hop intervals, and the block may change to any of \( L / L_l \) disjoint spectral regions with every hop. Consider an uplink reference signal that traverses a reference link from a reference mobile \( X_r \) to a reference
receiver \( S_j \). Because of a possible incomplete spectral overlap, the received interference power from mobile \( X_i \) at \( S_j \) when the mobile’s signal collides with the reference signal is reduced by the spectral factor

\[
F_i = \min (L_j/L_l, 1). \tag{7}
\]

Each active mobile points its antenna beam toward its base station. The beam pattern is modeled with two gains: one for the mainlobe and another for the sidelobes and backlobes. The normalized beam gain at the reference receiver \( S_j \) due to the angular offset of this beam pattern, is defined as

\[
b_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 
1, & \frac{(S_j - X_i)^T (S_d - X_i)}{||S_j - X_i|| ||S_d - X_i||} > \cos \left( \frac{\Theta}{2} \right) \\
0, & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases} \tag{8}
\]

where \( \Theta \) is the beamwidth of the antenna mainlobe, superscript \( T \) denotes the transpose, and \( a \) is the sidelobe and backlobe level.

Associated with each potentially interfering mobile is a hop transition time \( t_{i,j} \) at \( S_j \) relative to the hop transition time of a pair of hop intervals of the reference signal. Fig. 2 illustrates the relative timing between the reference mobile and the \( i^{th} \) interfering mobile. The reference mobile transmits a turbo codeword of duration \( 2T \), which is aligned with the subframe. It is assumed that the frequency separation of the two frequency channels of the two slots is sufficient for independent fading of fixed amplitude in each slot. If the base stations and mobiles are synchronized, then

\[
t_{i,j} = \left[ \frac{||S_j - X_r|| - ||S_j - X_i||}{c} \right] \mod T \tag{9}
\]

where \( c \) is the speed of an electromagnetic wave. As illustrated in Fig. 2, the reference signal encounters four time periods of potential interference from an active mobile \( X_i; 0 \leq t \leq t_{i,j}, t_{i,j} \leq t \leq T, T \leq t \leq t_{i,j} + T, \) and \( t_{i,j} + T \leq t \leq 2T \). The generic index \( k \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \), denotes a time period of the subframe with duration that varies with each \( t_{i,j} \). In the example provided in Fig. 2, co-channel interference occurs during the third time period, where the interfering mobile has selected the channels used by the reference mobile. The fractional duration of the each of the four subframe time periods relative to the subframe period \( 2T \) are

\[
C_{i,j,k} = \begin{cases} 
\frac{t_{i,j} + kT}{2T}, & k = 1, 3 \\
\frac{t_{i,j} + kT}{2T}, & k = 2, 4 \end{cases} \tag{10}
\]

The set of indices of potentially interfering mobiles is \( S = \{i : X_i \notin X_j\} \). Let \( N_l \) denote the number of mobiles associated with sector \( S_l \). Because of the required orthogonality of frequency blocks assigned to mobiles within each sector, \( N_l \leq L/L_l \) and any additional mobiles within the sector are reassigned to other sectors. In view of the potential spectral overlaps, the maximum number of interfering mobiles within a sector during a subframe time period is \( \min \{\max (L_j/L_l, 1), N_l\} \). Let \( S_k \subset S \) denote the set of interfering mobiles during subframe time period \( k \). If \( N_l \leq \max (L_j/L_l, 1), \) then all \( N_l \) mobiles in sector \( l \) are in \( S_k \). If \( N_l > \max (L_j/L_l, 1), \) then some of the mobiles in sector \( l \) cannot cause interference during subframe time period \( k \). In that case, we approximate by randomly selecting a subset of the \( N_l \) mobiles to be included in \( S_k \).

Let \( q_{i,k} \) denote the probability that the signal from a potentially interfering mobile collides with the reference signal during subframe time period \( k, 1 \leq k \leq 4 \). The activity probability \( p_i \) is the probability that mobile \( X_i \) is transmitting during time interval \([0, 2T]\). Assuming uniformly distributed frequency-hopping patterns that are orthogonal within each sector,

\[
q_{i,k} = \frac{\max \{N_g(i)L_g(i), L_j\}}{L} p_i, \quad i \in S_k, \quad 1 \leq k \leq 4 \tag{11}
\]

and \( q_{i,k} = 0 \), otherwise.

The instantaneous signal-to-interference-and-noise ratio (SINR) at sector receiver \( S_j \) when the desired signal is from \( X_r \in X_j \) fluctuates because potentially interfering signals do not always coincide with the reference signal in time or frequency. Pilot sequences are used to estimate the complex fading amplitudes in the receiver. Therefore, the performance of the reference receiver is primarily a function of the average SINR defined as the ratio of the average power of the signal to the average power of the noise and interference, where the average is over the time interval of a subframe and turbo codeword. Thus, the average SINR during a subframe is

\[
\gamma_{r,j} = \frac{\overline{p}_{r,j}}{N + \sum_{k=1}^{4} \sum_{i \in S_k} I_{i,k} p_{i,j,k} C_{i,j,k}} \tag{12}
\]

where \( N \) is the noise power, \( \overline{p}_{r,j} \) is the average received power from reference mobile \( X_r \), and \( p_{i,j,k} \) is the received power from an interference signal that collides with the reference signal during subframe time period \( k \). The indicators \( I_{i,k} \) are Bernoulli random variables with probabilities

\[
P[I_{i,k} = 1] = q_{i,k}, \quad P[I_{i,k} = 0] = 1 - q_{i,k} \quad i \in S_k, \quad 1 \leq k \leq 4. \tag{13}
\]
Let \( g_{i,j,k} \) denote the fading gain of the signal from mobile \( X_i \) at \( S_j \) during time interval \( k \). Assuming that the bandwidths of the \( L/L_0 \) and \( L/L_j \) disjoint spectral regions exceed the coherence bandwidth, the \( \{g_{i,j,k}\} \) are independent for each hop with unit-mean, and \( g_{i,j,k} = a_{i,j,k}^2 \), where \( a_{i,j,k} \) has a Nakagami distribution with distance-dependent parameter \( m_{i,j} \). Let \( P_i \) denote the maximum power from \( X_i \) that could be received at the reference distance \( d_0 \) in the absence of fading and shadowing. Allowing for the spectral and beam factors, the received power from \( X_i \) at \( S_j \), \( i \in S_k \), during time interval \( k \) is

\[
\rho_{i,j,k} = P_i g_{i,j,k} 10^{\xi_{i,j,k}/10} f ( ||S_j - X_i|| ) b_{i,j} F_g(i) B_j (\theta_{i,j})
\]

where \( \theta_{i,j} \) is the arrival angle at \( S_j \) of a signal from \( X_i \), and \( B_j (\theta_{i,j}) \) is the gain of the uplink beam pattern at \( S_j \).

Let \( g_{r,j,1} \) and \( g_{r,j,2} \) denote the unit-mean power gains due to the independent fading of the frequency-hopping reference signal in subframe slots 1 and 2, respectively. The power gain of independent Nakagami fading with parameter \( m_0 \) in each slot has the gamma density function:

\[
f_{r,j}(x) = \frac{m_0^{m_0} x^{m_0-1} \exp(-m_0 x)}{\Gamma(m_0)} u(x)
\]

where \( u(x) = 1, x \geq 0 \), and \( u(x) = 0 \), otherwise. The average power gain due to fading is \( \bar{f}_{r,j} = (g_{r,j,1} + g_{r,j,2})/2 \).

Using (14), (17), and (18) into (12), we obtain the density function of \( \rho_{i,j,k} \):

\[
f_{\rho_{i,j,k}}(x) = \frac{2^{m_0} x^{m_0-1} \exp(-2m_0 x)}{\Gamma(2m_0)} u(x)
\]

which is the average power from \( X_i \) at \( S_j \) that arrives at \( S_j \) with reference signal.

Power control ensures that the local-mean power received from each mobile in a sector is equal to a constant \( \beta \). A derivation similar to the one in [6] yields

\[
e = P \left[ \gamma_{r,j} \leq \beta \right]
\]

where

\[
\gamma_{r,j} = \frac{\bar{f}_{r,j}}{\Gamma^{-1}} + \sum_{k=1}^{4} \sum_{i \in S_k} I_{i,k} \Omega_{i,j} g_{i,j,k} C_{i,j,k}
\]

Let \( \beta_0 \) denote the minimum average SINR required for reliable reception of a signal from \( X_r \) at its serving sector receiver \( S_j \), \( j = g(r) \).

An outage occurs when the average SINR of a signal from \( X_r \) falls below \( \beta \). The value of \( \beta \) sets a limit on the code-rate \( R \) of the uplink, which is expressed in units of bits per channel use (bpcu), and depends on the modulation and coding schemes, and the overhead losses due to pilots, cyclic prefixes, and equalization methods. The exact dependence of \( R \) on \( \beta \) can be determined empirically through tests or simulation.

The set of \( \{\Omega_{i,j}\}, i \in S_k \), for reference receiver \( S_j \) is represented by the vector \( \Omega_j \). Conditioning on \( \Omega_j \), the outage probability of a desired signal from \( X_r \) in \( X_j \) that arrives at \( S_j \) is

\[
\epsilon = P \left[ \gamma_{r,j} \leq \beta \right]
\]

where

\[
\gamma_{r,j} = \frac{\bar{f}_{r,j}}{G_{\ell}(i,j,k)} + \sum_{k=1}^{4} \sum_{i \in S_k} I_{i,k} \Omega_{i,j} g_{i,j,k} C_{i,j,k}
\]

The summations in (25) are over all sets of nonnegative indices that sum to \( t \),

\[
G_{\ell}(i,j,k) = \left\{ \frac{1 - q_{i,k}(1 - \Psi_{i,j,k}^{m_{i,j,k}})}{a_{i,k} \Gamma(1/\alpha_{i,j,k})} \left( \frac{\Omega_{i,j} C_{i,j,k}}{m_{i,j,k}} \right)^{\ell} \right\} \Psi_{i,j,k} \]

and

\[
\Psi_{i,j,k} = \left( \frac{\Omega_{i,j} C_{i,j,k}}{m_{i,j,k}} + 1 \right)^{-1}, i \in S_k, 1 \leq k \leq 4.
\]

is the ratio of the interference power from \( X_i \) to the reference-signal power, and

\[
\Gamma_0 = P_i \frac{10^{\xi_{i,j,k}/10} f (d_r)}{N}
\]

is the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) at the sector receiver when the fading is absent.

### III. Outage Probability

The set of \( \{\Omega_{i,j}\}, i \in S_k \), for reference receiver \( S_j \) is represented by the vector \( \Omega_j \). Conditioning on \( \Omega_j \), the outage probability of a desired signal from \( X_r \) in \( X_j \) that arrives at \( S_j \) is

\[
\epsilon = P \left[ \gamma_{r,j} \leq \beta \right] = P \left[ \gamma_{r,j} \leq \beta \right]
\]

where

\[
\gamma_{r,j} = \frac{\bar{f}_{r,j}}{G_{\ell}(i,j,k)} + \sum_{k=1}^{4} \sum_{i \in S_k} I_{i,k} \Omega_{i,j} g_{i,j,k} C_{i,j,k}
\]

The summations in (25) are over all sets of nonnegative indices that sum to \( t \),

\[
G_{\ell}(i,j,k) = \left\{ \frac{1 - q_{i,k}(1 - \Psi_{i,j,k}^{m_{i,j,k}})}{a_{i,k} \Gamma(1/\alpha_{i,j,k})} \left( \frac{\Omega_{i,j} C_{i,j,k}}{m_{i,j,k}} \right)^{\ell} \right\} \Psi_{i,j,k} \]

and

\[
\Psi_{i,j,k} = \left( \frac{\Omega_{i,j} C_{i,j,k}}{m_{i,j,k}} + 1 \right)^{-1}, i \in S_k, 1 \leq k \leq 4.
\]
IV. Numerical Results

In the following examples, performance metrics are calculated by using a Monte Carlo approach with $N$ simulation trials. In each simulation trial, a realization of the network of Fig. 1 is obtained by placing $M$ mobiles within it according to a uniform clustering distribution with each mobile having an exclusion-zone radius set equal to $d_0 = 0.004$ km. Randomly generated shadowing factors are used to associate mobiles with cell sectors and in other computations. The code rate permitted by the threshold is given by

$$ R = \log_2 (1 + l_s \beta) $$

where $l_s = 0.794$ corresponds to a 1 dB loss relative to the Shannon bound for complex discrete-time AWGN channels. The density of mobiles in a network of area $A_{\text{net}}$ is $\lambda = M/A_{\text{net}}$. The outage probability $\epsilon_i$ of the reference link for simulation trial $i$ is computed by applying $\epsilon_i = \bar{\epsilon}_i(1 - \epsilon_i)$. The average outage probability over all the simulation trials is

$$ \bar{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \epsilon_i. $$

The maximum rate of successful data transmissions per unit area is characterized by the area spectral efficiency, defined as

$$ A = \lambda R (1 - \tau) $$

where the units are bits per channel use per unit area.

To avoid edge effects, the performance is measured for mobile stations placed in the yellow shaded area of Fig. 1, which is a 20 km by 20 km square located in the middle of the network. To consider the effect of base-station densification, the base-station deployment and the density of mobiles $\lambda = 20/\text{km}^2$ are maintained while the size of the network is scaled (dimensions redefined). For a fixed number of base stations, each scaling reduces the associated number of mobiles and decreases the transmission distances accordingly. In considering the effects of intersector interference, only the strongest 30 signals were used, as the attenuation of further signals was severe enough to make their individual effects negligible.

The slot duration is $T = 0.5$ ms, $P_r/N = 30$ dB, $L/L_j = L/L_t = 10$, and $\mu = 40/\text{km}$. Each base station has $b = 0.01$ and $\zeta = 24$. Each mobile beamwidth is $\Theta = 0.1\pi$ radians and sidelobe level is $a = 0.1$, and the common activity factor is $p_i = 1$. The propagation parameters are $(m_{\text{max}}, m_{\text{min}}, \alpha_{\text{min}}, \alpha_{\text{max}}, \sigma_{\text{min}}, \sigma_{\text{max}}) = (2, 1, 2.3, 4.7, 6.1 \text{ dB}, 12.6 \text{ dB})$, which are suitable for an urban network. The reference signal has fading parameter $m_0 = 1$ when $d_r = 0.1$ km, and $m_0 = 2$ when $d_r = 0.01$ km. The ratio $C/M$ serves as a measure of the densification of the base stations.

To capture the impact of densification, we need to take into account the decrease in the typical link-length $d_r$ of the reference link and the consequent increase in $\Gamma_0$ as $C/M$ increases. For a fixed density of mobiles, the average cell radius and hence a typical $d_r$ are proportional to $1/\sqrt{C/M}$. For the range of $C/M$ of interest, we consider

$$ d_r = \frac{d_{r0}}{10\sqrt{C/M}}, \quad 0.01 \leq C/M \leq 1 $$

where $d_{r0}$ is the typical link length when $C/M = 0.01$.

Fig. 3 depicts the average outage probability $\tau$ for a typical link as a function of the densification for $d_{r0} = 0.1$ km, $\beta = 3$ dB, $N = 10^5$. The throughputs of the reference uplink for simulation trial $i$ is $R(1 - \epsilon_i)$. The average outage probability over all the simulation trials is

$$ \tau = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \epsilon_i. $$

Fig. 4. Area spectral efficiency for three values of the SINR threshold, $d_{r0} = 0.1$ km, and $N = 10^5$.
importance of frequency hopping in the presence of substantial shadowing because of the decrease in the typical values of $\Gamma_0$. The primary reasons for the monotonic decrease in $\tau$ with densification and the increased importance of the frequency hopping are the increases in $\Gamma_0$ and the reduced shadowing and fading experienced by the reference signal. Calculations show that decreasing $L/L_j$ has a very small detrimental effect, which indicates the minor importance of the intercell interference due to the sectorization and the narrow adaptive beams.

Fig. 4 depicts the area spectral efficiency $A$ as a function of the densification for three values of the SINR threshold, $d_{r0} = 0.1$ km, and $N = 10^5$. Results are shown for both the distance-dependent fading and the more severe Rayleigh fading for which $m_{i,j} = m(d) = m_0 = 1$. Increases in the SINR threshold $\beta$ of the network links increase the outage probability. However, for sufficiently large values of $C/M$ and hence $\Gamma_0$, this effect is minor compared with increased code rate that can be accommodated. As a result, the area spectral efficiency increases significantly.

Fig. 5 shows the outage probability as a function of code-rate $R$ for $C/M = 0.1$, $\beta = 3$ dB, distance-dependent fading, and a single simulation trial. The dashed lines in the figure were generated by selecting eight random uplinks in the network and computing each outage probability. The average over all the uplinks is represented by the solid line. Despite the use of power control, there is considerable variability in the dependence of the outage probability on the code rate due to the irregular network topology.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This paper derives an analytical model for calculating the outage probability and area spectral efficiency. The model includes the effects of millimeter-wave propagation, directional beams, frequency hopping, an arbitrary network topology, and the assignment of frequency blocks to mobiles. Numerical examples illustrate the effects of various features and parameters. Base-station densification improves the network performance significantly. The significance of the intercell interference is greatly reduced because of the highly directional sectorization and beamforming. The frequency hopping more effectively compensates for frequency-selective fading as the shadowing decreases. The area spectral efficiency increases with the code rate despite the increase in the outage probability.

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