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Imperfect Digital-Fiber-Optic-Link-Based Cooperative Distributed Antennas With Fractional Frequency Reuse in Multicell Multiuser Networks

Xinyi Xu, Rong Zhang, *Member, IEEE*, Salman Ghafoor, and Lajos Hanzo, *Fellow, IEEE*

Abstract—The achievable throughput of the entire cellular area is investigated, when employing fractional frequency reuse techniques in conjunction with realistically modeled imperfect optical-fiber-aided distributed antenna systems (DASs) operating in a multicell multiuser scenario. Given fixed total transmit power, substantial improvement of the cell-edge area's throughput can be achieved without reducing the cell center's throughput. The cell edge's throughput supported in the worst-case direction is significantly enhanced by the cooperative linear transmit processing technique advocated. Explicitly, a cell-edge throughput of $\eta = 5$ bit/s/Hz may be maintained for an imperfect optical fiber model, regardless of the specific geographic distribution of the users.

Index Terms—COMP, distributed antennas, fractional frequency reuse, multi-cell networks, multi-user networks, ROF.

I. INTRODUCTION

THE CLASSIC unity frequency reuse (UFR) pattern may be applied by wireless systems to maximize the attainable area spectral efficiency at the cost of increasing the co-channel interference (CCI) level; hence, the UFR typically exhibits low throughput at the cell edge. As a remedy, the fractional frequency reuse (FFR) [1] philosophy may be invoked, which reduced the CCI at the cell edge at the cost of reduced area spectral efficiency. Hence, the FFR scheme is capable of improving the cell-edge signal-to-interference-plus-noise ratio (SINR) [2]. As a result, FFR has also been adopted in the Third Generation Partnership Project's (3GPP) long-term evolution

(LTE) initiative [3] and in the Worldwide interoperability for Microwave Access (WiMAX) [4] system.

By contrast, a DAS improves the cell-edge throughput by placing the remote antennas (RAs) closer to the cell-edge terminals, hence naturally reducing the pathloss [5]. However, the reduced pathloss will increase the interference imposed on the cell-edge terminals served by the neighboring RAs. In practice, only the mobile stations (MSs) can be granted a high throughput, which roam in the vicinity of the RA. When the MS is roaming near the angle halfway between two adjacent RAs [6], [7], its throughput is reduced; hence, we will refer to this as the "worst-case direction" problem. As a potential remedy, cooperative processing techniques, which have been considered for base stations (BSs) [2], [8], may be adopted for the DAS scenario considered to mitigate the inter-RA interference (IRI), particularly in the worst-case direction. The family of BS cooperation techniques is capable of efficiently mitigating the CCI; hence, it was also considered as a candidate for next-generation wireless networks by the 3GPP organization [9]. However, the family of BS cooperation techniques still relies on the classic architecture of a single centralized BS covering the entire cell, where the pathloss- and shadow-fading-induced problem of the cell-edge users may not be readily solved. Hence, to achieve a high throughput for the entire cellular area, particularly for the cell-edge terminals, we propose to combine DASs with cooperative BS processing techniques.

For practical application of DASs, the connection between the BS and RAs may be a coaxial cable, optical fiber, or a radio-frequency (RF) link [10], [11]. The radio over fiber (RoF) [12] and digital fiber optic (DFO)-link-based [13] transmission technique may also be used for the BS to RA links, which is more reliable than a wireless backhaul, albeit also being more costly. In contrast to the RoF family [14], the DFO link is immune to the sideband cancellation phenomenon, which occurs in the RoF system [15], [16], and it is capable of avoiding both the intermodulation distortions of the optical fiber and the nonlinearity imposed by the optical components, but this is typically achieved at an increased complexity and cost [13]. Additionally, optical multilevel signaling transmission techniques [17], [18] may be applied for the DFO link, which are capable of reducing the complexity of the optical receiver at the RA. Hence, in this study, we opted for the DFO link. As a further benefit, DFO techniques also allow us to preprocess the downlink (DL) transmit signal for all the users in the central BS, before it is transmitted to the MS. Hence, the DFO backhaul may also

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support the extension of BS cooperation techniques [19] to the DASs. Furthermore, when aiming to support gigabit transmissions, which is the goal of LTE-Advanced (LTE Release 10) [20], these high-rate systems may suffer from the effects of both the dispersion and nonlinearity imposed by the optical fiber links of the DASs [21]. Hence, jointly considering the effects of the DFO link and wireless links becomes important when analyzing the performance of DAS systems designed for LTE-Advanced applications.

Against this background, in this paper, we quantify the attainable throughput across the entire cellular coverage area in a multicell multiuser scenario, when employing cooperative techniques beneficially combined with both realistically modeled imperfect optical-fiber-aided DASs and FFR. More explicitly, we introduced the split-step Fourier (SSF) method [22] to analyze how the dispersion and nonlinearity of the optical fiber link affect the throughput of the cell-edge area.

- 1) Although the dispersion of the optical signaling pulse may be viewed as an undesirable imperfection of a pure optical fiber system, ironically, it might result in beneficial throughput enhancements in the cell-edge area of the noncooperative RA-aided FFR system. This is because the dispersion-induced attenuation of the optical signaling pulses may be capable of mitigating the IRI in the multicell multiuser scenario. However, we will demonstrate that, due to the worst-case direction problem caused by the IRI, the noncooperative RA-aided FFR system may not always lead to an improved attainable throughput in the entire cell-edge area.
- 2) We will also demonstrate that employing a single omnidirectional transmit antenna at each RA and a single receive antenna at each MS but jointly designing the transmit preprocessing (TPP) matrix of all the cooperative RAs combined with FFR is capable of achieving an increased throughput for the entire cell-edge area, regardless of the specific geographic distribution of the users. Furthermore, even though conventional cooperative signal-processing techniques are unable to directly mitigate the optical fiber receiver's self-inflicted noise, the proposed cooperative RA-aided FFR system exhibits a higher attainable throughput than conventional noncooperative FFR-aided systems, particularly in the worst-case direction.

Our results that were not included here for reasons of space economy suggest that the IRI experienced in the local cell dominates the interference experienced in the DFO-link-aided DAS combined with FFR. We also found that the DAS combined with FFR requires reduced transmit power at each RA, which naturally limits the IRI imposed by the cells using the same frequency band in a tier-two cell. Hence, the IRI inflicted by the tier-two cells will be neglected to simplify our analysis in the multicell multiuser scenario considered.

Our paper is organized as follows: In Section II, we introduce the multicell multiuser topology considered and describe the imperfect optical fiber model. In Section III, we outline the received signal model of the noncooperative DAS with the FFR system (Section III-A), introduce several cooper-

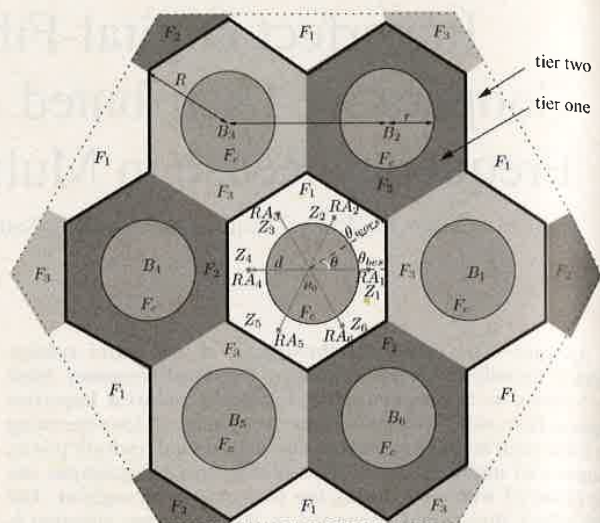


Fig. 1. Topology of two tiers of 19 cells relying on an FFR and DAS arrangement, where $N_r = 6$ RAs are employed. The structure of the cells in tier two is the same as that in tier one.

ative linear processing techniques (Section III-B), and present our link-level results recorded for a range of practical modulation and coding schemes (MCSs, Section III-C), followed by our performance evaluations in Section IV. Finally, we conclude our discourse in Section V.

II. SYSTEM DESCRIPTION AND OPTICAL FIBER MODELING

A. Multicell Multiuser System Topology

The multicell multiuser scenario based on the FFR scheme is shown in Fig. 1, which consists of two tiers of 19 hexagonal cells [23] surrounding the central BS B_0 , where B_0 is assumed to be at the origin. We assume symmetry, where every cell has the same system configuration and focus our attention on cell B_0 of Fig. 1 without any loss of generality. The frequency-partitioning strategy of the total available bandwidth F is characterized by $F_c \cap F_e = \emptyset$, where F_c and F_e represent the cell center's frequency band and the cell edge's frequency band, respectively. F_e is divided into three orthogonal frequency bands F_i , $i \in [1, 3]$, which were exclusively used at the cell edge of one of the three adjacent cells.

To simplify the structure, we assume that the number of active MSs N_m and RAs N_r is the same ($N_m = N_r$), which implies that each RA may support a single MS. The users are assumed to be randomly distributed in the cell-edge area, and a total of N_m MSs are roaming at any point Z_i , as described by the polar coordinates of $[\theta_{Z_i}, L_{Z_i}]$, $i \in [1, N_m]$. A total of N_r RAs are employed in each cell described by its polar coordinates denoted by $[\theta_{R_i}, L_{R_i}] = [2\pi(i-1)/N_r, d]$, $i \in [1, N_r]$. Likewise, the BSs in tier one are described by their polar coordinates of $[\theta_{B_j}, L_{B_j}] = [2\pi(j-1)/6, \sqrt{3}R]$, $j \in [1, 6]$, and the polar coordinates of the BSs in tier two may also be readily obtained from the underlying simple geometry. Fig. 2 shows a single optical fiber link spanning from the BS to the RA.

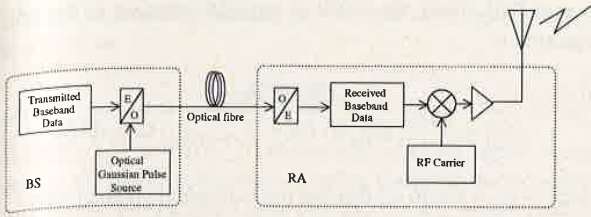


Fig. 2. System architecture of the DFO link, showing a single optical fiber link spanning from the BS to the RA. The transmitted baseband data are used to modulate a stream of optical Gaussian pulses, where an ideal optical modulator is assumed; therefore, it does not impose any chirp on the optical pulse. Then, the Gaussian optical signaling pulses are transmitted through the optical fiber, which imposes both linear and nonlinear distortions. At the RA, after an ideal photodetector, the optical signaling pulses are converted back to the corresponding baseband electronic signals.

B. Imperfect Optical Fiber Model

To investigate the system topology previously introduced, we assume that the links from BS B_0 of Fig. 1 to the RAs are constituted by a realistic imperfect optical fiber, rather than simply assuming a perfect optical fiber. The phase rotation imposed by the optical fiber link on the modulated signal constellation diagram is supposed to be compensated; hence, in this paper, we only considered the fiber-induced imperfections imposed on the modulated signal's amplitude. Hence, the signal received at RA i after passing through the realistically modeled optical fiber may be written as follows:

$$s_i = A_L x_i + n_f \quad (1)$$

where A_L , x_i , and $n_f \sim \mathcal{CN}(0, \sigma_f^2)$ represent the received amplitude of the optical pulse after passing through the optical fiber having a total length of L , the transmitted signal, and the complex-valued additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN), respectively. Furthermore, the so-called *pulse-broadening* (PB) effect caused by dispersion [24] may not impose a significant performance limitation in pure optical fiber links since the interpulse-interference may be negligible for the transmission of the baseband signal through the DFO link. However, the PB additionally imposes an attenuation of the optical signaling pulse, which may affect the attainable throughput of the cell-edge area, when considering our DFO-link-aided DAS combined with FFR in a multicell multiuser scenario.

To elaborate on our optical fiber model a little further, parameter A_L takes into account the fiber's attenuation, its dispersion, and the fiber's nonlinearity characterized by the generalized nonlinear Schrödinger (NLS) equation [22] expressed in the form of

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial z} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\beta_3}{6} \frac{\partial^3}{\partial t^3} - \frac{i\beta_2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right)}_{\hat{D}} A + \underbrace{i\xi \left(|A|^2 + \frac{i}{\omega_0} \frac{1}{A} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (|A|^2 A) - T_R \frac{\partial |A|^2}{\partial t} \right)}_{\hat{N}} A \quad (2)$$

where $A(z, t)$ is the Gaussian signaling pulse envelope as a function of both time t and propagation distance z . The term $\hat{D}$

characterizes the dispersion and fiber loss effects, whereas $\hat{N}$ characterizes the nonlinearity effects, as the pulse propagates along the optical fiber. Still considering (2), in the term $\hat{D}$, α represents the fiber attenuation, β_2 is the group-velocity dispersion (GVD) parameter, and β_3 is the third-order dispersion coefficient, which becomes significant for ultranarrow signaling pulses, as detailed in [24]. Considering the term $\hat{N}$ in (2), ξ describes the fiber's nonlinearity, ω_0 is the angular frequency of the carrier wave, and T_R is related to the slope of the Raman gain spectrum, as detailed in [22]. In the case of having a pulsedwidth of $T_0 > 5$ frame/s, which is typical for telecommunication fibers [22], the first term of $\hat{D}$ and the last two terms of $\hat{N}$ may be neglected [22]. These simplifications allow us to focus our attention on the nonlinearity and dispersion effects in this paper; hence, the fiber loss parameter is assumed to be $\alpha = 0$. Then, (2) may be further simplified to

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial z} = \left(-i\frac{\beta_2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + i\xi |A|^2 \right) A = (\hat{D}' + \hat{N}') A \quad (3)$$

where terms $\hat{D}'$ and $\hat{N}'$ are the simplified forms of the dispersion character $\hat{D}$ and the nonlinear character $\hat{N}$ in (2).

More explicitly, the general formula of (2) or its simplified form in (3) describes the pulse propagation problem [22], but in this form, it is not directly suitable for analyzing how the throughput of the wireless link is affected by the parameters of the imperfect optical fiber backhaul. The more practical SSF may be applied for analyzing the solutions of the NLS equation [22], which has been considered for modeling the optical-fiber communication systems [25]. Hence, we employ the SSF method for jointly analyzing the attainable throughput of the DFO link. The SSF method delivers an approximate numerical solution, where the dispersive and nonlinear effects observed in (3) may be separated into independent phenomena over a small segment length l stretching from z to $(z + l)$ in (3), yielding

$$A(z + l, t) \approx F_T^{-1} \left\{ \exp \left[l \hat{D}'(-i\omega) \right] F_T \left[\exp(l \hat{N}') A(z, t) \right] \right\} \quad (4)$$

where F_T and F_T^{-1} denotes the Fourier-transform and inverse Fourier-transform operation, respectively. First, the exponential nonlinearity-related term $\exp(l \hat{N}')$ of (4) may be directly taken into account in the time domain. Second, before characterizing the dispersive effects, we take the Fourier transform of the term $\exp(l \hat{N}') A(z, t)$ since the exponential dispersion-related term $\exp(l \hat{D}')$ may be evaluated in the frequency domain. The Fourier transform of the dispersion character $\hat{D}'$ is obtained by replacing the operator $\partial/\partial t$ by $-i\omega$ in (3). Then, following the inverse Fourier transform of (4), we obtain the time-domain representation of the received signal after propagating through the l -length fiber. The total optical fiber length satisfies $L = ml$, which suggests that the whole fiber length is decomposed into m consecutive l -length segments. Hence, the optical pulse propagating through an L -length fiber may be obtained by evaluating (4) in m consecutive steps, yielding a solution denoted as A_L .

III. RECEIVED SIGNAL OF DFO-AIDED DAS WITH FFR SYSTEMS

A. DFO-Aided Noncooperative DAS With FFR System

Focusing our attention on the cell B_0 of Fig. 1, when non-cooperative DASs are employed, the transmit power P_B of the BS and the transmit power P_R of each RA should obey the total transmit power constraint of $P_B + N_r P_R = P$, where P is the full power at the BS of the traditional UFR and FFR scheme.

1) *Received Signal in the Cell-Center Area:* The interference at any MS located at point Z_i in the cell-center area is imposed by the direct wireless links of BSs $\{1, \dots, N_b\}$, with N_b being the number of BSs, which we refer to as inter-BS interference (IBI). Hence, the received signal may be written as

$$y_c = \sqrt{P_B} \psi_{B0} h_{B0} x_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{N_b} \sqrt{P_B} \psi_{Bj} h_{Bj} x_j + n \quad (5)$$

where ψ_{Bj} , h_{Bj} , $j \in [0, N_b]$, and $n \sim \mathcal{CN}(0, \sigma_0^2)$ represent the combined pathloss-plus-shadowing-based large-scale signal attenuation, small-scale fast Rayleigh fading, and complex-valued AWGN, respectively. More explicitly, we jointly consider both the pathloss and the lognormal shadowing component, which is formulated as $\psi_{Bj} = [\rho 10^{(\varsigma(\sigma_s)/10)}]^{1/2}$, $j \in [0, N_b]$, where ρ denotes the pathloss that obeys a predefined pathloss model [26], whereas ς denotes a real-valued Gaussian random variable having a standard deviation of $\sigma_s = 8$ dB [26]. Hence, $G_{Bj} = \psi_{Bj} |h_{Bj}|$ denotes the equivalent channel gain, whereas the SINR of any of the MSs near the cell center is given by

$$\gamma_c = \frac{G_{B0}^2 P_B}{2\sigma_0^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{N_b} G_{Bj}^2 P_B} \quad (6)$$

2) *Received Signal in the Cell-Edge Area:* When considering the cell-edge area, we assume that the links spanning from the BS B_0 of Fig. 1 to the RAs are constituted by a realistic imperfect optical fiber, whereas the last-mile connection from the RAs to the MS relies on the wireless link. The signal received at RA i after passing through the realistically modeled optical fiber is introduced in Section II-B.

The noise-contaminated faded signal s_i , $i \in [1, N_r]$, denoted in (1) at the wireless channel's input is normalized by a power-scaling factor and then forwarded through the wireless channel to the destination, i.e., to the MS roaming in the cell-edge area, where the power-scaling factor χ is employed to maintain a constant transmit power at the RAs. As a result, the signal received by MS i at any point Z_i in the cell-edge area in the absence of any cooperative techniques may be written as

$$y_{ei} = \sqrt{P_R} \psi_{Ri} h_{Ri} \chi s_i + \sum_{k=1, k \neq i}^{N_r} \sqrt{P_R} \psi_{Rk} h_{Rk} \chi s_k + n. \quad (7)$$

Let $A = \chi A_L$ and $N_f = 2\sigma_f^2 \chi^2$ denote the equivalent optical-fiber-induced amplitude attenuation and the equivalent power spectral density of the optical fiber noise, respectively. The details of parameters s_i and A_L are introduced in

Section II-B. Then, the SINR at any MS roaming in the cell-edge area is

$$\gamma_{ei} = \frac{G_{Ri}^2 A^2 P_R}{2\sigma_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{N_r} G_{Ri}^2 N_f P_R + \sum_{k=1, k \neq i}^{N_r} G_{Rk}^2 A^2 P_R} \quad (8)$$

where $G_{Ri} = \psi_{Ri} |h_{Ri}|$ denotes the equivalent channel gain.

3) *Idealistic Received Signal in the Cell-Edge Area:* We assume the employment of perfect adaptive beamforming, where each MS is served with the aid of a narrow beam. We also assume that the MSs would be served only by the nearest RAs and that their reception is not contaminated by the other RAs; hence, no IRI is received by the MSs roaming in the cell-edge area. Hence, their reception is only contaminated by the noise N_f imposed at the optical fiber receiver. Then, the interference-free upper bound of the SINR can be rewritten from (8) as

$$\gamma_u = \frac{G_{Ri}^2 A^2 P_R}{2\sigma_0^2 + G_{Ri}^2 N_f P_R} \quad (9)$$

4) *Benchmark Systems:* Finally, when the classic UFR technique is employed, the received signal model is described by (5) but bearing in mind that full power P is transmitted by each BS, instead of P_B . When the FFR technique is employed, similarly to the classic UFR, the signal received in the cell-center area is also described by (5). On the other hand, the signal received in the cell-edge area from both the serving BS and the cells using the same frequency band in tier two obeys (5).

B. DFO-Aided Cooperative DAS With FFR

In a multicell multiuser scenario, cooperative DAS techniques may be used to provide high throughput for the MSs roaming near the cell-edge area, particularly for mitigating the worst-case direction problem caused by IRI. To simplify the entire system, only a single omnidirectional antenna is applied for each RA. Nonetheless, when jointly designing TPP matrix $\mathbf{T}$, the N_r cooperative RAs operate in a concerted action as a virtual multiple-input-single-output or virtual multiple-input-multiple-output system. On the other hand, only a single receiver antenna is applied at the MS. We will show that the proposed system architecture is capable of substantially enhancing the throughput achievable in the cell-edge area with the advent of our cooperative TPP-aided FFR scheme.

Notation: The lower case boldface letters and the upper case boldface letters represent the column vectors and matrices, respectively. The superscript $(\cdot)^T$ and the $(\cdot)^H$ denote the transposition and the conjugate transpose, respectively.

1) *Received SINR:* The principle of cooperative DAS schemes is essentially the same as that of cooperative BSs [8], where the transmit signal destined for the MSs is spread over all the N_r cooperative RAs. In the multicell multiuser scenario, there are N_m MSs roaming in the cell-edge area of Fig. 1, which are simultaneously supported by the N_r RAs ($N_r = N_m$). Provided that the different propagation delays of all the N_r RA links measured with respect to all the served N_m

MSs can be precompensated, the vector of received signal can be written as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{n} \quad (10)$$

where $\mathbf{y}_{N_m \times 1}$ and $\mathbf{n}_{N_m \times 1}$ denote the received signal vector and the circularly symmetric complex Gaussian noise vector, respectively. Furthermore, $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{N_m}]^T_{1 \times N_m}$, and x_i is defined as the signal transmitted from RA i to MS i . More explicitly, $x_i = \chi_i s_i$, $i \in [1, N_r]$, represents the signal passing through the realistic "lossy" optical fiber, where χ_i and s_i are the same as those defined in Section III-A2. If the central BS has an estimate of the channel matrix $\mathbf{H} = [\mathbf{h}_1^T, \mathbf{h}_2^T, \dots, \mathbf{h}_{N_m}^T]_{N_m \times N_r}$, we can design a transmit matrix $\mathbf{T}$ for mitigating the IRI, where $\mathbf{T} = [\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \dots, \mathbf{t}_{N_m}]_{N_r \times N_m}$ is uniquely and unambiguously determined by $\mathbf{H}$. We also have a dedicated TPP matrix $\mathbf{T}$, which obeys the per RA power constraint of

$$\mathbf{T}_{i,\forall} \mathbf{T}_{i,\forall}^H \leq \frac{P - P_B}{N_r} \quad (11)$$

where $\mathbf{T}_{i,\forall}$ is the row vector of matrix $\mathbf{T}$.

Furthermore, $\mathbf{h}_i = [\psi_1 h_{1i}, \psi_2 h_{2i}, \dots, \psi_{N_r} h_{N_r i}]_{1 \times N_r}$, $i \in [1, N_m]$, represents the channel of all the N_m RAs to MS i links, which takes into account both the large-scale signal attenuation and the small-scale fast Rayleigh fading channel, where ψ_i and h_i are the same as those defined in Section III-A2. Hence, a unified discrete-time model for the signal received by MS i may be formulated based on (10) as

$$y_i = \|\mathbf{h}_i \mathbf{t}_i\| x_i + \sum_{k \neq i} \|\mathbf{h}_i \mathbf{t}_k\| x_k + n_i. \quad (12)$$

When we have $k \neq i$, x_k is the IRI imposed by the transmit signal intended for MS k but received at MS i . Hence, the DFO links' SINR encountered at MS i in the cell-edge area may be written as

$$\gamma_i = A^2 \mathbf{h}_i \mathbf{t}_i \mathbf{t}_i^H \mathbf{h}_i^H \times \left[2\sigma_0^2 + \underbrace{N_f \mathbf{h}_i \mathbf{t}_i \mathbf{t}_i^H \mathbf{h}_i^H}_{\text{IRI}_2} \right]^{-1} + \underbrace{(A^2 + N_f) \mathbf{h}_i \left(\sum_{k \neq i} \mathbf{t}_k \mathbf{t}_k^H \right) \mathbf{h}_i^H}_{\text{IRI}_1} \quad (13)$$

where A and N_f represent the equivalent optical fiber attenuation factor and the equivalent power spectral density of the optical fiber noise, respectively, as defined in Section III-A2. It can be seen from (13) that, for MS i , the IRI is composed of two terms. Specifically, the term IRI_1 of (13) is the desired signal of MS $k \neq i$ that is also contaminated by the optical fiber link's noise N_f , which can be mitigated by appropriately designing the corresponding TPP matrix. The other term, i.e., IRI_2 of (13), is the optical fiber link's noise contaminating the desired signal of MS i , which is self-inflicted noise; hence, the TPP matrix is unable to mitigate it.

2) *Linear Transmit Processing*: Again, we assume that there is only a single transmit antenna at each RA and a single receive antenna at each MS; hence, our system is fully described by the number of RAs N_r and the number of MSs N_m served. Hence, our design is based on the $(N_m \times N_r)$ -element channel matrix $\mathbf{H}$ associated with the central BS, and the TPP facilitates a low-complexity matched-filter-based receiver design at each MS. Our linear TPP matrix $\mathbf{T}$ may be written as

$$\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{W} \quad (14)$$

where $\mathbf{W}_{N_m \times N_m}$ is a diagonal matrix representing the power [8] allocated for each RA, and $\mathbf{G}_{N_r \times N_m}$ is the linear TPP matrix jointly designed on the basis of $\mathbf{H}$. The TPP matrix $\mathbf{G}$ can be calculated with the aid of different linear preprocessing algorithms. In this paper, we consider the minimum mean square error (MMSE) beamformer [27] and the eigenbeamformer (egBF) [28] as our design example.

The classic MMSE beamforming technique strikes an attractive tradeoff between the achievable interference cancellation and noise enhancement; hence, it is attractive for practical applications. The TPP weight matrix $\mathbf{G}_{\text{MMSE}} = \mathbf{H}^H (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^H + (2\sigma_0^2/P_R)\mathbf{I})^{-1}$, which is entirely based on channel matrix $\mathbf{H}$, remains unaffected by the transmit signal. The employment of TPP matrix $\mathbf{G}_{\text{MMSE}}$ mitigates the IRI_1 component in (13), eliminating the interference inflicted on the desired signal.

In cooperative egBF, the TPP matrix $\mathbf{G}_{\text{BF}} = [\mathbf{g}_1, \mathbf{g}_2, \dots, \mathbf{g}_{N_m}]$ is used, where $\mathbf{g}_i$, $i \in [1, N_m]$ is the right-hand-side singular vector of $\mathbf{H}$, which only achieves a power gain, whereas the mitigation of the term IRI_1 in (13) is dependent on the instantaneous geographic distribution of the users. Hence, the mitigation of the IRI_1 cannot always be achieved by appropriately selecting the direction of the transmitted beam, unless we employ an idealistic infinitesimally narrow beam for each MS. The associated performance will be characterized in Section IV-E.

However, in contrast to the IRI_1 , the link's self-noise imposed by the optical fiber receiver's noise contribution, i.e., the IRI_2 terms of (13) cannot be mitigated by the TPP matrix employed, regardless of whether the cooperative MMSE or the cooperative egBF is used. In fact, the self-interference may even be boosted when the desired signal of MS i is amplified.

C. System Throughput

Let us now demonstrate how these SINR expressions may be mapped to the ultimate system performance metric formulated in terms of the achievable throughput η . The throughput may be characterized by the maximum *successfully transmitted* information rate, which is referred to as the system's *goodput*, i.e.,

$$\eta(\gamma) = R_M R_C [1 - P_{\text{bl}}(b, \gamma)] \quad (15)$$

where γ may represent γ_c of (6), γ_{ei} of (8), or γ_u of (9); R_M denotes the "rate," i.e., the throughput of the modulation scheme; and R_C is that of the channel code. Still referring to (15), $P_{\text{bl}}(b, \gamma)$ represents the BLock Error

Ratio (BLER) corresponding to the particular MCS employed. In this paper, we assume that bit-interleaved coded modulation (BICM) [29] is employed, which relies on Gray-mapped M -ary quadrature amplitude modulation (QAM) [30], where we have $M = 2^b$ and $b = 2, 4, 6$ represents the number of bits per QAM symbol. Hence, the modem's throughput is $R_M = b$. In our paper, we employ 2^b -ary QAM combined with rate-compatible punctured codes (RCPCs) [31] having six selected MCSs, i.e., Mode $[1, \dots, 6]$ of $[R_M, R_C] = [(2, 1/2), (2, 3/4), (4, 1/2), (4, 3/4), (6, 2/3), (6, 6/7)]$.

In practice, obtaining the BLER curves for all the MCSs by simulation is time consuming, particularly in our multicell multiuser system-level evaluations. Let us hence circumvent this time-consuming process with the aid of a more efficient semianalytical process. We commence by briefly highlighting the derivation of the BLER $P_{bl}(b, \gamma)$ of a 2^b -ary QAM-aided BICM scheme based on the BLER $P_{bl}(b = 1, \gamma_0)$ of a binary phase-shift keying (BPSK) modulated BICM scheme transmitting over an AWGN channel, where only $P_{bl}(b = 1, \gamma_0)$ is evaluated by simulation. To this effect, we first define the appropriate *baseline* SINR γ_0 as that of a binary BPSK scheme, at which we have the same BLER as an arbitrary b -bit/symbol modem, which would typically require an SINR of $\gamma > \gamma_0$, i.e., where we have $P_{bl}(b, \gamma) = P_{bl}(b = 1, \gamma_0)$. We note that the aforementioned BLER equality holds only when the mutual information (MI) per bit output by the demodulator obeys the relation of $I(b, \gamma) = I(b = 1, \gamma_0)$. This is because I serves as the input of the channel decoder, and as long as I remains the same, the ultimate BLER also remains the same. Hence, the MI I per bit may be expressed as [29]

$$I(b, \gamma) = 1 - \frac{2^{-b}}{b} \sum_{i=1}^b \mathbb{E}_w \left\{ \ln \left[1 + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^b \exp \left(-\frac{|u_j - u_i + w|^2 - |w|^2}{1/\gamma} \right) \right] \right\} \quad (16)$$

where $w \sim \mathcal{CN}(0, 1/2\gamma)$ is the complex-valued zero-mean Gaussian noise process, and $u \in \mathcal{A}$ represents the constellation points in the QAM alphabet, with the i th bit $\mathcal{A}$ being represented by u_i , $i \in [1, b]$. When fixing the MI per bit as $I(b, \gamma) = I(b = 1, \gamma_0)$, we may find the *baseline* SINR γ_0 for $b = 1$, where this BPSK modulated scheme achieves the same per-bit MI I as a higher throughput 2^b -ary QAM-aided BICM scheme. More explicitly, the MI per bit $I(b = 1, \gamma_0)$ is a monotonically increasing function of γ_0 , and its unique inverse exists. Hence, this *baseline* SINR γ_0 may be expressed as the inverse function $\gamma_0 = I^{-1}[b = 1, I(b, \gamma)]$. This reveals the relation between γ and γ_0 , allowing us to find the BLER $P_{bl}(b, \gamma)$ of a 2^b -ary QAM-aided BICM scheme from that of the simulated BLER of a BPSK modulated BICM scheme, i.e., from $P_{bl}(b = 1, \gamma_0)$, which may be formulated as

$$P_{bl}(b, \gamma) = P_{bl} \{b = 1, I^{-1}[b = 1, I(b, \gamma)]\}. \quad (17)$$

As a result, the BLER $P_{bl}(b, \gamma)$ of the aforementioned MCSs may be obtained with the aid of (17), where $P_{bl}(b = 1, \gamma_0)$ is

obtained from the Monte Carlo simulation of a BPSK modulated BICM scheme employing the aforementioned RCPC having constituent code rates of $R_C = [1/2, 3/4, 2/3, 6/7]$ in an AWGN channel. Finally, the associated effective throughput $\eta(\gamma)$ of (15) expressed in terms of "bits per second per hertz" may be obtained by assuming a Nyquist rolloff factor of zero. Owing to space limitations, the detailed link-level simulation results are not explicitly shown here.

IV. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

A. Simulation Assumptions

The system topology considered is shown in Fig. 1, where each hexagonal cell has a radius of R , and the distance between the two adjacent BSs is $D = \sqrt{3}R$, e.g., $\overline{B_2 B_3} = \sqrt{3}R$. We considered the Urban-Macro propagation scenario of [26], where we have $D = 3$ km and the distance-dependent pathloss expressed in decibels is $34.5 + 35 \log_{10}(d_0)$, with d_0 being the distance between any transmitter and receiver in meters. We assume furthermore that the total transmitter power is $P = 46$ dBm and that the noise power at the MS is -174 dBm/Hz, when operation in a bandwidth of 10 MHz is considered [26]. Moreover, the optical fiber link's normalized signal-to-noise ratio is assumed to be 50 dB and the length of the optical fiber is assumed to be five times the distance between the BS and RA, where we have $L = 5d$ and d is the line-of-sight distance. We opted for $d = 0.7R$, $\forall i$.

The cell-center area's radius r may be defined as the maximum radius, where a throughput of at least $\eta = 2$ bit/s/Hz may be maintained in a conventional cellular system employing the classic UFR technique, but beyond this coverage radius, it drops below $\eta = 2$ bits/s/Hz. When employing DASs in an FFR-based cellular system, the transmit power of the BS should be sufficiently high to ensure that the average throughput maintained at a distance of r remains exactly as high as that of the classic UFR technique, whereas the rest of the power is evenly allocated to the RAs. Hence, when considering the $N_r = 6$ RAs operating in a noncooperative DAS-aided FFR scenario, the resultant power sharing regime of all the transmitters obeys $P_B = 2P/5$, whereas, for the relay, we have $P_R = P/10$. By contrast, when considering the $N_r = 6$ RAs operating in a cooperative DAS-assisted FFR scenario, the power constraint of (11) is applied. Finally, the ultimate throughput is obtained by averaging the SINR over 4000 simulation runs and then substituting it into (15) and (17).

B. Propagation Regimes in the DFO Link

Before detailing our results, the propagation scenario encountered has to be introduced. When the pulses propagate along the optical fiber, both the nonlinearity and the dispersion depend on the peak power P_0 and on the initial width T_0 of the incident pulse. The critical fiber lengths L_N and L_D quantify the length of fiber over which either the nonlinear or the dispersive effects become dominant during the signaling

TABLE I
PROPAGATION REGIMES

Curve	P_0	T_0	l	L_D	L_N
1	10mW	10ps	5m	5km	50km
2	160mW	10ps	5m	5km	3km
3	10mW	10ps	10m	5km	50km
4	10mW	20ps	5m	20km	50km
5	10mW	50ps	5m	125km	50km

pulse's propagation. The relations between L_N and P_0 , and L_D and T_0 are calculated as follows [22]:

$$L_N = \frac{1}{\xi P_0}, L_D = \frac{T_0^2}{|\beta_2|}. \quad (18)$$

The typical values of the GVD parameter β_2 and the nonlinearity parameter ξ at a wavelength of $1.55 \mu\text{m}$ are [22] $|\beta_2| \approx 20 \text{ ps}^2/\text{km}$ and $\xi \approx 2 \text{ W}^{-1}\text{km}^{-1}$ for standard telecommunication fibers. For a given optical fiber length of L , we have four conditions that hold.

- 1) If $L \ll L_N$ and $L \ll L_D$, neither the nonlinear nor the dispersive effects impose a significant performance degradation during the pulse's propagation.
- 2) If $L \ll L_N$ and $L \sim L_D$, the nonlinear effects may be ignored, and the dispersion will play the dominant role.
- 3) For $L \sim L_N$ and $L \ll L_D$, the dispersion is negligible compared to the nonlinear distortion.
- 4) For $L \sim L_N$ and $L \sim L_D$, both of the nonlinear and dispersion effects are nonnegligible.

In this paper, according to the Urban-Macro cell scenario introduced in Section IV-A, we assume the set of P_0 and T_0 values shown in Table I to investigate how the nonlinear and dispersion effects of the optical fiber influence the attainable throughput of the wireless channel in the cell-edge area.

C. Throughput of Cell-Center Area

The attainable throughput of both the noncooperative DAS combined with FFR system (Figs. 3 and 4) and the cooperative DAS combined with FFR (Fig. 6) in the cell-center area relies on the same SINR of (6) introduced in Section III-A. Hence, both of them have the same throughput performance. Explicitly, upon assigning a transmit power of $P_B = 2P/5$ in the cell-center area, the throughput of the noncooperative DAS combined with FFR system and that of cooperative DAS combined with FFR become similar to that of the traditional UFR and FFR systems, provided that the latter two systems assign the full transmit power to the BS.

D. Cell-Edge Area of Noncooperative DAS With FFR

Figs. 3 and 4 compare the throughput of the classic UFR system, the traditional FFR system, and the noncooperative RA-aided FFR-assisted systems using $N_r = 6$ and $N_m = 6$ in the best and worst directions in a two-tier scenario. The four sets of optical fiber parameters shown in Table I were used.

1) *Throughput Along Best Direction:* By contrast, when the cell-edge area is considered, observe in Figs. 3 and 4 that the throughput of the conventional UFR scheme becomes

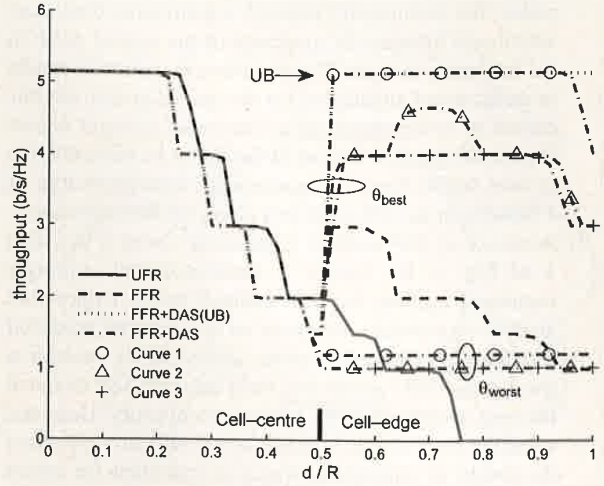


Fig. 3. Throughput comparison of the traditional UFR system, FFR system, and the $N_r = 6$ noncooperative DAS-aided FFR system in two-tier scenarios along the θ_{best} and θ_{worst} directions recorded for characterizing the nonlinear effects of the optical fiber and the accuracy of the SSF method.

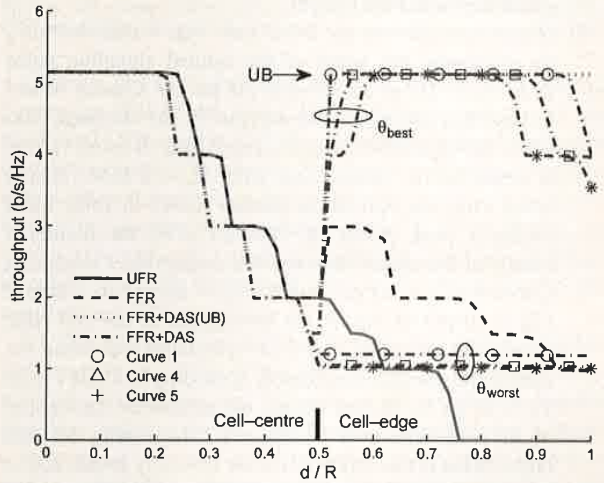


Fig. 4. Throughput comparison of the traditional UFR system, FFR system, and the $N_r = 6$ noncooperative DAS-aided FFR system along the θ_{best} and θ_{worst} directions for characterizing the dispersion effects of the optical fiber.

lower than $\eta = 2 \text{ bit/s/Hz}$, whereas that of the conventional FFR scheme is in the range of $\eta \in [1, 3] \text{ bit/s/Hz}$. When the noncooperative RA-aided FFR-assisted system is employed in conjunction with $N_r = 6$ RAs, a throughput in the range of $\eta \in [3, 5] \text{ bit/s/Hz}$ is achieved along the best direction.

More explicitly, when using the parameters of Table I, Curves 1–5 in Figs. 3 and 4 suggest three conditions.

- 1) *Nonlinear effect of the DFO link:* The comparison of Curve 1 ($P_0 = 10 \text{ mW}$) and Curve 2 ($P_0 = 160 \text{ mW}$) in Fig. 3 shows how the power assigned to the optical pulses affects the throughput of the wireless link, which was demonstrated by setting $P_0 = 10 \text{ mW}$ and 160 mW of peak power for the optical signaling pulse. Again, the corresponding optical parameters are shown in Table I. Observe by comparing Curves 1 and 2 of Fig. 3 that assigning a $P_0 = 160 \text{ mW}$ power to the optical pulse

makes the nonlinearity-induced impairments dominant, which will broaden the spectrum of the optical pulse in the frequency domain. The nonlinearity indirectly results in an increased attenuation for the optical pulses, but this cannot be compensated by an increased transmit power. Hence, this leads to a boost of the IRI. As a net result, the system suffers from an approximate throughput loss of 1 bit/s/Hz in the cell-edge area along the best direction.

- 2) *Accuracy of SSF method:* Comparing Curve 3 to Curve 1 of Fig. 3, the former is associated with a longer segment l used by the SSF method, which reduces the analysis complexity. However, as a result, the predicted throughput is reduced by about 1 bit/s/Hz. By contrast, a shorter segment l results in a more accurate SSF model at the cost of higher offline analysis complexity. However, selecting the probable segment length will strongly affect the results of simulation, which is important for whom doing the relative research. For a typical urban cell size, our Monte Carlo simulation results suggest that $l = 5$ m is an appropriate compromise, which may be trusted as the real attainable throughput of our DFO-aided DAS combined with FFR system.
- 3) *Dispersion effect of the DFO link:* Fig. 4 demonstrates, by increasing the width of the optical signaling pulse from $T_0 = 10$ ps to 20 and 50 ps for Curves 4 and 5, how this affects the throughput of the wireless link, when the noncooperative RA-aided FFR-assisted system is employed in conjunction with $N_r = 6$ RAs. Again, when using the optical parameters shown in Table I and setting a peak power of $P_0 = 10$ mW, the nonlinear effects of the optical fiber become negligible. Comparing Curve 4 ($T_0 = 20$ ps) and 5 ($T_0 = 50$ ps) to Curve 1 ($T_0 = 10$ ps) of Fig. 4, the throughput at the cell edge remains in the range of $\eta \in [4, 5]$ bit/s/Hz, but when the optical pulsewidth is increased, according to Table I from $T_0 = 10$ ps to 20 and 50 ps, the attainable throughput of the cell-edge area is reduced. The reason for this observation is that wide pulses are typically broadened to a lesser relative degree along the optical fiber, which also leads to a reduced attenuation at both the optical receiver of the serving RA and the interfering RAs.

2) *Throughput Along Worst Direction:* When considering the worst direction in both Figs. 3 and 4, regardless of the specific choice of the five parameter sets of Table I, we only achieve a throughput of about $\eta = 1$ bit/s/Hz. This is due to the aforementioned worst-case direction problem [6], which becomes the limiting factor in the case of the conventional noncooperative RA-aided FFR-assisted system.

3) *Comparison of the Entire Cell's Throughput:* Fig. 5 shows the attainable throughput across the entire cell for the different configurations of our noncooperative RA-aided FFR-assisted system associated with Curve 1 of Table I. More explicitly, the cell-center area's throughput contours recorded in Fig. 5 for both configurations are similar. However, the throughput distribution of the $N_r = 6$ RA-aided configuration recorded for the cell-edge area tends to be more "patchy," whereas that of the $N_r = 12$ RA-assisted configuration tends

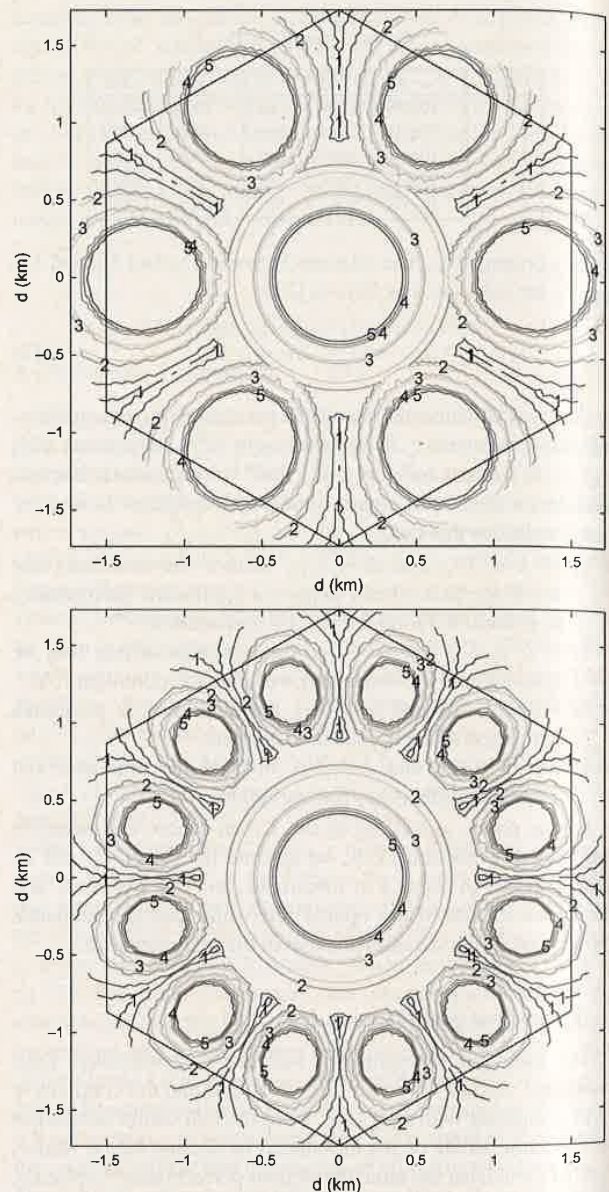


Fig. 5. Throughput contours for the $N_r = 6$ and $N_r = 12$ noncooperative DAS-aided FFR system.

to more evenly cover the entire outer ring. As a result, the general conclusion emerging for the comparison of these two configurations is that the optimum positioning of DASs should take into account the expected user distribution and user load. However, the "worst-case direction" problem persists in both of these two configurations.

E. Cell-Edge Area of Cooperative DAS With FFR

Fig. 6 compares the throughput of the classic UFR-based arrangement and the traditional FFR-aided system, as well as that of the cooperative RA-aided FFR-assisted system using $N_r = 6$, which was evaluated along both the best and worst

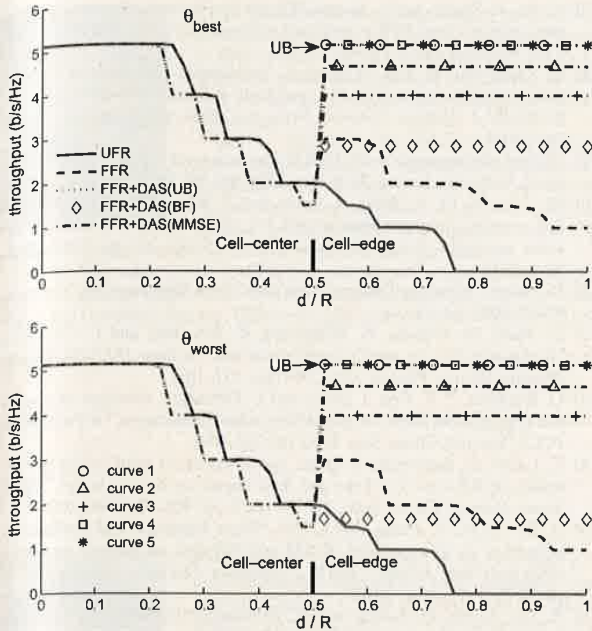


Fig. 6. Throughput comparison of the traditional UFR system, FFR system, and the $N_r = 6$ cooperative DAS-aided FFR system along the best direction with five sets of optical parameters in Table 1 a multicell multiuser scenario. The legends are shared between the top and bottom graphs.

angular directions, respectively, and employing the five sets of parameters seen in Table I for the optical fiber link. We consider supporting $N_m = 6$ MSs roaming in the cell-edge area, where MS i is close to RA i . The N_m MSs are simultaneously served by the N_r cooperative RAs, and they are randomly distributed around the point Z_i , $i = 1, \dots, N_m$, of Fig. 1, where Z_i belongs to the corresponding 60° -sector surrounding RA i . The MSs are allowed to randomly cross the cell-edge area, but only once, to investigate the histogram of the attainable throughput for the N_m MSs.

1) *Throughput Along the Best Direction:* When the cell-edge area is considered, observe the upper figure in Fig. 6 that the throughput of the conventional UFR scheme becomes lower than $\eta = 2$ bits/s/Hz, whereas that of the conventional FFR scheme is in the range of $\eta \in [1, 3]$ bits/s/Hz. When the cooperative RA-aided FFR-assisted system using the parameters associated with Curves 1, 4, and 5 of Table I is considered, observe in Fig. 6 that linear TPP achieves a throughput of $\eta = 5$ bit/s/Hz, which is similar to the throughput upper bound of the RA-aided FFR-assisted system. Hence, when the nonlinearity effects can be ignored, the dispersion does not overly affect the throughput of the wireless channel.

Comparing Curves 2 and 1 in Fig. 6, when using a peak power of $P_0 = 160$ mW for the signaling pulses, the MMSE TPP techniques achieve a slightly higher throughput than 4 bit/s/Hz. Since the term IRI_1 in (13) is mitigated by the MMSE TPP, the throughput reduction is imposed by further attenuation of the received optical signaling pulses inflicted by the fiber's nonlinearity. When employing the parameters associated with Curve 3 with a segment length of $l = 10$ m for the SSF method, a throughput reduction of $\Delta\eta = 1$ bit/s/Hz is encountered.

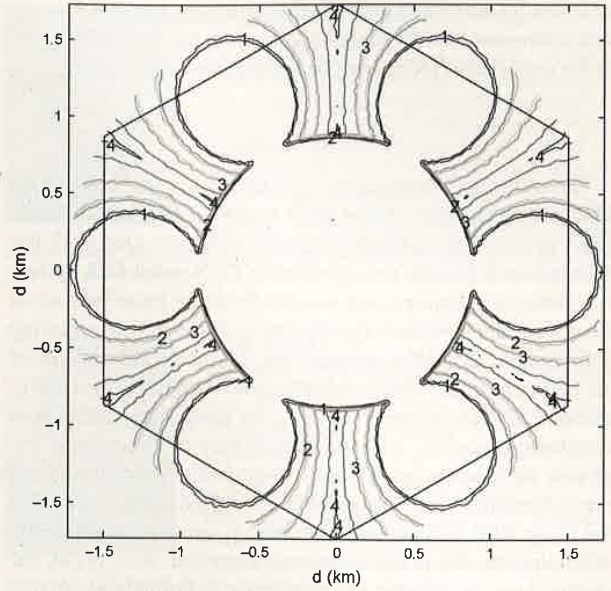


Fig. 7. Enhancement of throughput $\Delta\eta$ contours for the $N_r = 6$ cooperative DAS-aided FFR systems, comparing with the noncooperative DAS-aided FFR.

Observe in Fig. 6 that the throughput of cooperative egBF is between that of the linear TPP techniques and that of the traditional UFR system, and it is not always higher than that of the conventional FFR scheme. The reason for this phenomenon is that the performance of the cooperative egBF is also dependent on the geographic distribution of the N_m users. Hence, the served MS may suffer from an increased interference, which imposes increased throughput erosion in comparison to the conventional FFR scheme.

2) *Throughput Along Worst Direction:* It is demonstrated in the lower figure of Fig. 6 that the cooperative RA-aided FFR-assisted system does not suffer from the worst-case angular direction problem; hence, the linear TPP techniques achieve a throughput of $\eta = 5$ bit/s/Hz, which is the upper bound of the RA-aided FFR-assisted system. The other curves exhibit the same throughput performance as that shown in the upper figure of Fig. 6. The cooperative egBF does not solve the worst-case angular direction problem; hence, its throughput is lower than that of the traditional FFR.

F. Enhancement of Throughput Across the Entire Cell

To observe the attainable throughput improvement $\Delta\eta$ achieved by the cooperative RA aided FFR-assisted systems over their noncooperative counterparts across the entire cell, the resultant throughput contour profile associated with Curve 1 of Table I is shown in Fig. 7. We configured the cooperative techniques for enhancing the attainable throughput in the cell-edge area; hence, in the cell-center area, we have $\Delta\eta = 0$. In the cell-edge area, when considering the cooperative MMSE arrangement for example, there is a significant throughput improvement in the worst-case angular direction since we have $\Delta\eta = 4$ bit/s/Hz in the direction θ_{worst} . By contrast, when the MS is roaming close to the RA, the throughput improvement

achieved by the cooperative MMSE technique remains limited. When however the MS is roaming far from the RA, the benefits of the cooperative techniques become more pronounced.

V. CONCLUSION

The achievable throughput of a DFO-aided DAS relying on FFR and a realistic optical fiber backhaul has been investigated in practical multicell multiuser scenarios. Our work has demonstrated that the noncooperative DAS-aided FFR system is capable of gleaning some benefits from the imperfections of the optical fiber, because the dispersion of the optical signaling pulse might indirectly increase the attainable throughput of the cell-edge area. More explicitly, when applying the configurations of $N_r = 6$ and $N_r = 12$, the geographic throughput distribution becomes different, which may be beneficially exploited for supporting different geographic user distributions. Correspondingly, the cooperative RA-aided FFR relying on the linear TPP techniques¹ advocated is capable of efficiently mitigating the IRI in the worst-case direction. As a result, the system may be capable of supporting a throughput of $\eta = 5$ bits/s/Hz, regardless of the specific geographic user distribution encountered. Furthermore, the cooperative RA-aided FFR system may become tolerant to the dispersion of the optical pulse but sensitive to fiber-induced nonlinearity, if the optical pulse has a high power.

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¹ Indeed, efficient TPP requires efficient feedback control, which involves accurate and frequent channel estimation, quantization, and feedback process, where sophisticated signal processing improvements may result in increased throughput. The overhead associated with this cooperative transmission, or closed-loop design in general, is constituted by the Doppler-dependent channel-sounding pilot overhead and the feedback quantization overhead, where the latter potentially depends on not only the quantization method performed but also the specific cooperative structure employed, i.e., whether centralized or distributed cooperation is used. Regarding the effect of the numbers of RAs, an intuitive observation is that the more cooperative the RAs, the more the overhead that will be incurred. However, no simple quantitative relationship may be established. Furthermore, since the amount of overhead imposed may offset the potential gain achieved, we have to strike an attractive tradeoff, as discussed in [32]. The rate of change of the channel will indeed significantly decrease the resultant performance gains since the feedback may become more outdated and the preprocessing matrix will be subject to strong mismatch. Hence, closed-loop designs in general may not be suitable for high-velocity applications, where, in addition to an increased normalized feedback delay, the channel estimation becomes more challenging in the downlink.



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