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Abstract	<p>This chapter turns to evaluation of techno-economic aspects of CR development and regulation, considering both the attractiveness of existing regulatory frameworks and the benefits of creating the new ones. This is important since it may be shown that the regulatory framework may have significant impact on economic benefits and viability of CR market adoption. Section 4.1 offers discussion of the potential for new business cases centred on the use of white space spectrum in the context of cellular networks. Section 4.2 is focusing on business scenarios and models for use of GDBs in TV white spaces. The following Sect. 4.3 provides a primer regarding the dynamics of the wireless communication market and how these can strongly influence the success or failure of a new technology. Section 4.4 considers potential business scenarios for spectrum sensing based on a set of parameters—ownership, exclusivity, tradability and neutrality. Section 4.5 looks at the prospects of business case for CR against the uncertainties of the spectrum market and opportunistic spectrum access circumstances. The chapter is concluded with the techno-economic analysis and case study in Sect. 4.6 that contemplates economic value of CR and secondary access. This builds a solid basis for answering the ultimate questions about business viability of CR, including considerations of cost versus capacity, investments, uncertainty and risk.</p>	

Chapter 4

Economic Aspects of CR Policy and Regulation

Keith Nolan and Vânia Gonçalves

Abstract This chapter turns to evaluation of techno-economic aspects of CR development and regulation, considering both the attractiveness of existing regulatory frameworks and the benefits of creating the new ones. This is important since it may be shown that the regulatory framework may have significant impact on economic benefits and viability of CR market adoption. [Section 4.1](#) offers discussion of the potential for new business cases centred on the use of white space spectrum in the context of cellular networks. [Section 4.2](#) is focusing on business scenarios and models for use of GDBs in TV white spaces. The following [Sect. 4.3](#) provides a primer regarding the dynamics of the wireless communication market and how these can strongly influence the success or failure of a new technology. [Section 4.4](#) considers potential business scenarios for spectrum sensing based on a set of parameters—ownership, exclusivity, tradability and neutrality. [Section 4.5](#) looks at the prospects of business case for CR against the uncertainties of the spectrum market and opportunistic spectrum access circumstances. The chapter is concluded with the techno-economic analysis and case study in [Sect. 4.6](#) that contemplates economic value of CR and secondary access. This builds a solid basis for answering the ultimate questions about business viability of CR, including considerations of cost versus capacity, investments, uncertainty and risk.

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4.1 The Emergence of Whitespace Network-Based Business Cases

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4.1.1 Introduction

The emergence of whitespace networks, and whitespace communications in general, provides an opportunity to, at least partially, meet the ever-growing demand for mobile data communication and to support new business cases. Many whitespace network solutions proposed so far realise coordination and rendezvous over licensed or unlicensed spectrum. In this chapter we explore a protocol for networks that rely solely on whitespace spectrum.

This work builds on [1], to where the reader is guided for further information beyond this chapter.

The proposed protocol allows both communication to the broader network (via the access point) and direct device-to-device links over whitespaces. To showcase the capabilities of the proposed solution we investigate a proof-of-concept software defined radio experiment. Using the experimental platform, we have evaluated the overheads of whitespace operation, which come in the form of an extra delay in association and a throughput loss of approximately 15 % of that achievable with licensed spectrum. The goal is to provide the groundwork for new business cases based on the use of wireless communications systems operating in whitespace spectrum.

Studies show that 100 and 58.6 % of Internet traffic generated by smartphones and PCs, respectively, is carried over wireless interfaces. 69 and 57 % accounts for Wi-Fi, which operates in unlicensed spectrum, and 31 and 1.6 %, respectively, accounts for cellular interfaces operating in licensed spectrum [2]. These numbers show that licence-exempt (or unlicensed) spectrum already plays a vital role in meeting the capacity challenge related to the mobile data crunch. The amount of transmitted mobile data will continue to grow, at an estimated compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 78 % from 2011 to 2016 [3]. To support this demand we need even more pervasive Wi-Fi deployments, which are, however, limited by interference stemming from unlicensed operation.

Another possible solution to meet this demand is to increase the cellular network's density, which comes in the form of small cells (e.g. femtocells) that operate in a licensed spectrum underlay to macro cells. However, there is an alternative at hand—whitespace spectrum and CR technologies.

Whitespaces are defined by the Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF), as portions of the frequency spectrum that are assigned to a particular use but are

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unoccupied at specific locations and times [4]. This definition implies the existence of incumbent services, which have prioritised access to the spectrum and whose signals should be protected from harmful interference stemming from other whitespace-operating services. An example of whitespaces are TV whitespaces (TVWS), which are portions of the frequency spectrum made available after the digital TV switchover in the UHF/VHF spectrum in certain geographical locations. To protect incumbent services of the UHF/VHF spectrum, such as Digital Video Broadcasting—Terrestrial (DVB-T), communications regulators in the US and Europe selected a GDB (GDB) technique as the most feasible, and, thus, the only mandatory solution [5, 6]. Hence, devices that desire to operate in the TVWS will have to interact with GDBs to obtain complete information about spectrum availability.

One of the objectives of the TVWS regulation in Europe was to allow high efficiency and flexibility in spectrum usage at the widest possible ranges of uses and technologies [5]. CRs are ideally crafted for this purpose, as they are wireless communication systems aware of their environment, which learn from this environment and adapt to any statistical variations in it, to achieve, for example, higher reliability or spectral efficiency [7]. A number of scenarios are envisaged for CRs operating in TVWS, for example, remote sensing and machine to machine communications, indoor/outdoor local area networks or ad-hoc (direct) communication between portable devices [5]. Realisation of these scenarios will require a certain level of control and coordination between CR devices; in other words, the formation of a network. In [8], networks over TVWS are formed based on an enriched Wi-Fi protocol and spectrum availability information determined based on local spectrum sensing. The latter, however, does not conform to the subsequent decisions made by the regulators to mandate GDBs as a mean for protection of incumbent services. A more conservative approach to formation of networks operating over TVWS is to rely on out-of-band control messages using existing radio access technologies in licensed or unlicensed spectrum, e.g. [9, 10].

Drawbacks of this approach include the need for additional channels in some licensed band, or reliance on the congested ISM band. Having in mind these problems and the recent decisions of the major communications regulators, our goal is to design a network that relies solely on whitespace spectrum.

This section focuses on the design, development and evaluation of a spontaneously created whitespace network, i.e. a network which relies solely on whitespace spectrum and an outline of potential business cases.

In Fig. 4.1, we depict an example instance of a whitespace network where control channels are deployed dynamically whenever and wherever possible to enable coordination and rendezvous between devices operating in whitespaces. Some of these devices, which have the capability to directly query the GDBs, may self-select to become whitespace access points, to arbitrate and control whitespace communications of other devices (subordinate devices). The subordinate devices, which could be, for example, sensors that belong to a home automation system, would typically have no means of communication with the GDBs. Moreover, these subordinate devices would use whitespace spectrum intermittently to connect to

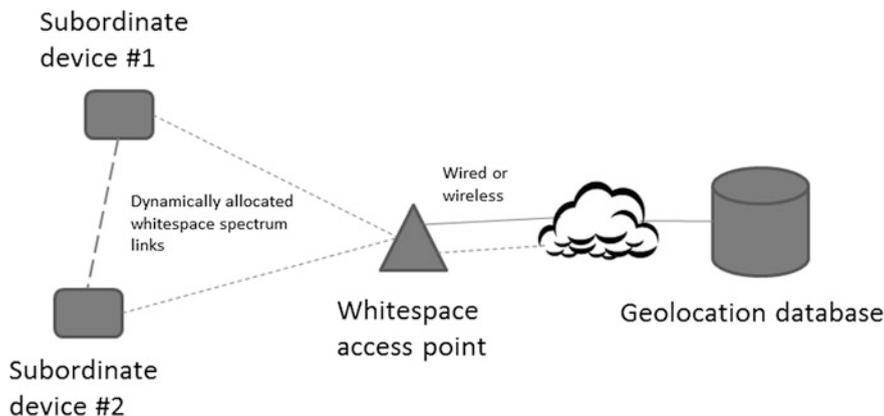


Fig. 4.1 Example instance of a whitespace network

109 the internet (via the access point's backhaul), or to perform direct device-to-device
 110 communications.

111 Specifically, we examine a protocol that enables operation of whitespace net-
 112 works with the use of GDBs, dynamic control channels deployed depending on the
 113 whitespace spectrum availability, cyclostationary signatures used for control
 114 channel identification, and performance monitoring to improve the whitespace
 115 allocation. The proposed protocol allows both communication to the broader
 116 network (via the access point) and direct device-to-device links. As part of our
 117 work, we have implemented a proof-of-concept software defined radio experiment
 118 that showcases the capabilities of the proposed solution. Using the experimental
 119 platform we have evaluated the trade-offs related to operating exclusively in
 120 whitespaces, without relying on licensed spectrum for control channels. These
 121 trade-offs come in the form of an extra delay in the order of hundreds of milli-
 122 seconds and a throughput of up to 85 % of that achievable with licensed spectrum
 123 links.

124 ***4.1.2 Key Enablers of Dynamically Created Whitespace*** 125 ***Networks***

126 In order to build a network that solely operates in whitespace spectrum one needs
 127 to overcome a challenge related to the protection of incumbent services and to
 128 ensure coordination and rendezvous among the whitespace devices. In our work
 129 we overcome these challenges by relying on: GDBs, dynamic control channels,
 130 and cyclostationary signatures. In the following we give a brief introduction to
 131 each of the above mentioned concepts.

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4.1.2.1 GDBs

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In principle, a GDB is a database that contains up-to-date information on the spectrum available at any given location and time instance, enriched with other types of related information, such as the duration of availability, maximum effective radiated power permitted, or adjacent channel leakage ratio [4]. GDBs are populated with information created by modelling the propagation of known incumbent transmitters (for example as in [11]), where the model's parameters and algorithms are selected by the authority operating the database. Such whitespace information is provided to the devices on a temporal basis, and whitespace devices need to periodically request the information, where the period is set according to the requirements of the local regulator. Whitespace devices are not allowed to transmit until they have successfully received up to date information on the available channels. When a device has no possibility to directly (without the use of whitespaces) connect to the database, another whitespace device may act as a proxy for the device's queries [4]. In recent years, communication regulators world-wide have mandated GDBs as the only required solution to protect the incumbent services in the TV whitespaces, e.g. [5, 6]. Hence, in our work, we rely solely on GDBs to protect incumbent services and to provide information on the whitespace spectrum opportunities.

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4.1.2.2 Dynamic Control Channels

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In general, control channels are deployed to organise mobile devices and convey network control information, for example, identification, synchronisation, channel allocations (restrictions) or network policies. In order to facilitate the distribution of control channels for CRs the European Telecommunications Standards Institute Reconfigurable Radio Systems Technical Committee (ETSI TC RRS) has recommended two ways forward: (1) out-of-band, where the control channels are distributed over a globally dedicated physical channel, (2) in-band, where the control channels are transported over a specific radio access technology using separate or an existing control channel. The former has the disadvantage of requiring additional spectral resources and global harmonisation.

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The latter is a viable solution for systems operating in licensed bands with fixed operational frequency and high level of coordination, which use whitespaces only temporally to extend network capacity. However, for systems that intend to rely solely on whitespaces it poses some difficulties, as the allocated operational frequency may change depending on the incumbent user behaviour. Herein, we propose a reliable solution for an in-band control channel in whitespaces, which is dynamically deployed depending on the whitespace availability. The centre frequency of this control channel is allocated based on the GDB information. Subordinate whitespace devices will acquire this centre frequency through the detection of a physical layer signature inserted in the transmitted waveform of the control channel, as described in the following subsection.

4.1.2.3 Cyclostationary Signatures

Communication signals of contemporary radio systems have many inherent periodicities which come as a consequence of coupling stationary signals with, for example, periodical waveforms or training sequences. These periodicities may also arise as a consequence of typical communications procedures, such as sampling or multiplexing. One way to observe them is to perform first order and second order cyclostationary analysis to discover specific correlation patterns in time or in the spectral domain of the signal, respectively. However, these periodicities may also be intentionally embedded into the physical signal as so called cyclostationary signatures. A cyclostationary signature can be inserted in an OFDM signal by mirroring one or more selected subcarriers. The arising periodicities can be observed through the spectral correlation function (SCF), at a cyclic frequency that corresponds to the ratio of the spectral distance between the mirrored subcarrier set and the useful symbol duration. Cyclostationary signatures can be detected by sweeping across the bands of interest and performing circular correlations on the received signal samples. When the signature is present in the received signal, a spike in the SCF is observed and the receiver can start decoding the received signal. In case the signature can no longer be detected, the receiver will start sweeping the band until the signature is found again and a new centre frequency is determined. The cyclostationary signatures can be used to identify specific radio systems, specific access networks in coalitions of access networks or to enable rendezvous in dynamic spectrum access networks.

4.1.3 Addressing the Technical and Business Challenges

In order to meet the challenges discussed above, we have designed a dynamic spectrum access and allocation protocol (DSAAP). This allows for the coordinated operation of a dynamic spectrum access network deployed in whitespaces for OFDM-based systems. In general, the DSAAP operations are performed as follows (the subsequent steps are also depicted in Fig. 4.2):

- (1) When a new whitespace device that is able to connect to the Internet is switched on, it checks with the GDB for any available frequency channels;
- (2) If a channel is found, the device locally reserves this particular channel for secondary spectrum operation and becomes a whitespace access point. A whitespace access point periodically transmits a broadcast signal, which announces the availability of the whitespace access point in the specific frequency channel to any other whitespace devices. The transmitted broadcast signal has an embedded unique cyclostationary signature, which can be assigned as in [12] and detected with a cyclostationary feature detector

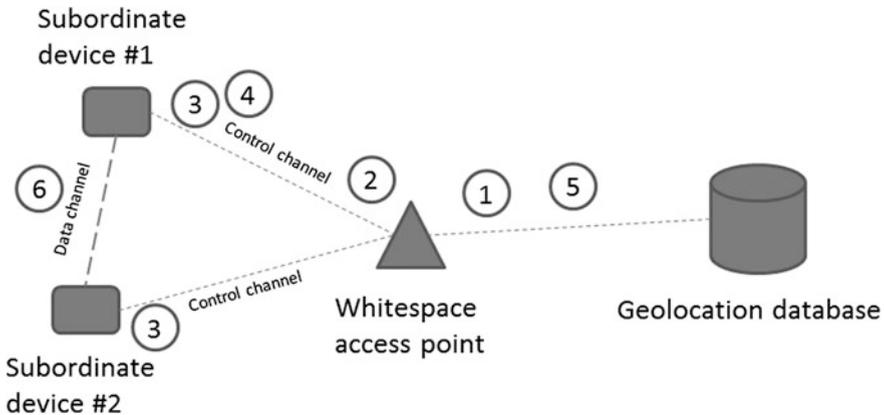


Fig. 4.2 Steps involved in the DSAAP operation

- 210 described earlier. The broadcast signal carries information required to coordi-
 211 nate the cell's operation, such as the rendezvous channel or temporal
 212 spectrum allocations for whitespace devices;
- 213 (3) When another whitespace device, which has no Internet connectivity, arrives
 214 in the coverage region of the whitespace access point, it sweeps the whitespace
 215 bands to detect the broadcast signal. If the broadcast signal is detected, the
 216 device decodes it and reads the cell's information. Then, using the rendezvous
 217 channel it associates with the access point and stays on the detected channel
 218 listening to the broadcast signal, becoming a subordinate device. If another
 219 whitespace device arrives, a similar procedure follows;
- 220 (4) Whenever one of the subordinate devices requires transmission to another
 221 local device (or to the Internet), it requests (using the rendezvous channel)
 222 whitespace operation;
- 223 (5) The access point queries the database and allocates a whitespace channel that
 224 meets the demands of the requested transmission, indicating to both the
 225 whitespace devices the centre frequency, assigned bandwidth, spectrum
 226 availability determination period, and the peer device's MAC address for
 227 direct device-to-device transmission;
- 228 (6) The information is embedded to the control channel and both devices
 229 receiving the information reconfigure their radio front-ends to operate on the
 230 specific centre frequency and start the data transmission. During the data
 231 transmission, the subordinate devices constantly monitor the connection
 232 quality. If the connection quality is sufficient and the spectrum availability
 233 determination time elapses, both devices leave the transmission channel and
 234 repeat the whole procedure. However, if during the transmission one of the
 235 devices observes a significant drop in the connection quality (by means of, for
 236 example, an increase in the frame error rate), then that device reconfigures to

the rendezvous channel and sends a report to the access point. The access point will use the measurement information conveyed in the report to improve any subsequent data channel allocations.

The use of licenced spectrum on a nationwide basis can introduce significant cost overheads due to licencing fees in exchange for exclusivity. The other extreme is licence-exempt usage for type-certified devices and non-exclusivity however the trade-offs include low transmission power restrictions, narrow spectrum segments, and uncoordinated usage potentially resulting in interference. A rules-based approach based on TVWS relaxes the requirement for type certification. Coupled with dynamic control channels and database coordination, the viability of new business cases relying on a flexible and scalable wireless communications architecture can be increased.

If pitched as complementary technologies to cellular network deployments, TVWS-based network deployments can support long range, latency-tolerant applications and short range/high building penetration applications. Examples include machine to machine communications, remote sensing, and telematics, wireless data storage and backups where periodic high-bandwidth data transfers can be performed over short ranges, security in remote areas, mobile healthcare e.g. conveying in-ambulance image and patient monitoring information to the emergency ward.

4.1.4 Conclusion

In this section we presented a wireless network, where all the control and data communications occur using whitespace spectrum. We have outlined a number of potentially viable market opportunities for TVWS networks and have described an access method and spectrum allocation protocol to help enables reliable control channel deployment and efficient data communication over whitespaces. Moreover, our discussion focuses on the use of direct device-to-device links over whitespaces. The goal of our work was to examine how networks relying solely on whitespaces could be used to build the groundwork for future radio systems thus helping to increase the attractiveness of this approach to the market.

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4.2 Business Scenarios and Models for Use of GDB in TV White Spaces

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Geolocation Databases (GDB) as enabler of CR operation is one of the major elements of Dynamic Spectrum Access Information Infrastructure (DSA II). Regulators across the globe have been showing a preference towards a GDB approach for the so-called TV White Spaces (TVWS), as it becomes essential to ensure overall efficiency of radio spectrum for the existing and emerging wireless communication services. Unfortunately, despite the recent advancements in TVWS GDB business scenarios, uncertainties exist with regard to the future technologies and value network configurations for GDB use and access in TVWS spectrum range and elsewhere, for. e.g. in some specific spectrum bands such as bands that are allocated for public Digital Audio Broadcasting (DAB) services (e.g. VHF T-DAB band), 1452–1492 MHz (e.g. L band), radar bands and fixed service bands.

Thus, while future business models are a common concern of private operators and regulatory frameworks are under discussion in e.g. European Commission and the major Standards Development Organizations (SDOs), such as ETSI, CEPT, CEN, it becomes important to analyze the economic feasibility of GDB use and access from different points of view within the future DSA II architectures and services. It remains to be seen how collaboration among different stakeholders can be established around the use of GDB, for example:

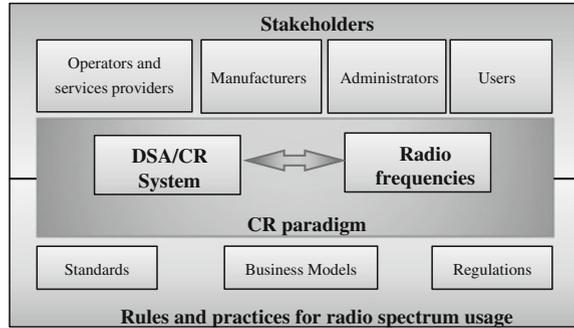
- For the development of which (novel) services GDB will play a crucial/enabling role?
- How the standardization of GDB access protocols for different wireless services will be unfolding?
- How acceptable to different stakeholders business models for GDB operation and access can be found/developed?

All these questions require both technology-oriented and business-oriented analysis and modeling.

4.2.1 The Concept of DSA II

The concept of Dynamic Spectrum Access (DSA) stands for the opposite of the current static spectrum management policy for particular users in particular geographic areas, and has a large potential to become the crucial enabler of the

Fig. 4.3 DSA II infrastructure [14]



spectrum reform. Although DSA has broad connotations that encompass various approaches, there are only few ways to get more spectrum: to reallocate it or to allocate unused spectrum for more efficient use, as spectrum is of fixed nature and cannot be grown, manufactured or imported. In this context, DSA could be considered as enabler of R capability to access and transmit in unoccupied spectrum (white spaces) while minimizing interference with other signals in the spectral vicinity [13].

Development of DSA II requires creating a functional techno-economic model, which describes and analyzes the different stakeholders' interrelationships as well as the technologies, policies, and services, as depicted in Fig. 4.3 [14]:

- At the top of Fig. 4.3, possible stakeholders (directly and indirectly impacted by DSA II) and their roles within the wireless telecommunication services, such as: operators and services providers, manufacturers, administrators and users;
- At the bottom of Fig. 4.3, elements which define the rules and practices (principles) for radio spectrum usage, such as: standards, business models and regulations;
- In the centre of Fig. 4.3, the main elements of the CR paradigm, such as: DSA/CR system and its opportunistic access to radio frequencies.

The Fig. 4.4 depicts the potential relationships among different elements of DSA II, for e.g. one of the ways in which relationships between different elements within DSA II could be established is described below:

- direct relationships (wide double arrows) between CR paradigm and radio frequencies, regulations and standards, administrators and operators, service providers. For instance, incorporation of CR technology into existing frequencies, such as TV White Space (TVWS), radar bands, etc.;
- co-dependence (double arrows) between business models and telecommunication operators (e.g. DNA, Elisa, Tele2), service providers (e.g. Wireless Internet Service Providers, WISP), and users (e.g. primary and secondary users), and wireless device manufacturers (e.g. Microsoft, Motorola);

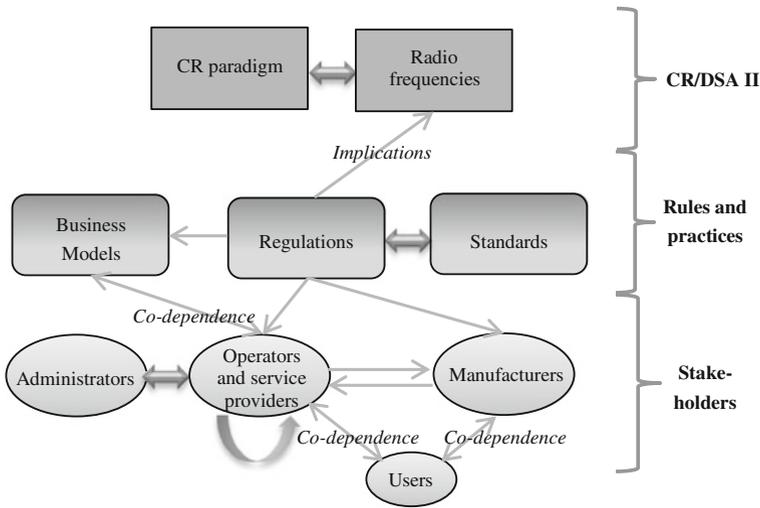


Fig. 4.4 Relationships among different elements of DSA II

- implications of regulations to radio frequencies: the need for the use and assessment of frequencies to be guided by various rules in order not to interfere with services operating on adjacent frequencies. For example, large portions of VHF/UHF TV bands become available on a geographical basis and regulatory entities are already moving towards CR allowance to operate in licensed television spectrum bands but it must not interfere with primary users.

4.2.1.1 Standards and Regulations Within DSA II

In this way, as described above, standards and regulations can be identified as one of the major element of DSA II, as they somehow relate with all other elements of DSA II as shown in Fig. 4.4. This also can be seen in the standardization domain, where three major groups have emerged to work on relevant technologies and architectures [13]:

- IEEE 802.22 and related research that aim to provide DA to vacant TV spectrum;
- SCC41 (formally P1900) working groups;
- ETSI's Reconfigurable Radio Systems Technical Committee on CRs and SDRs.

In general, there are many regulatory bodies that show interest in developing standards or defining norms and regulation for one or another aspect of CR-related telecommunications [15], as reviewed in detail in Sect. 1.4.

4.2.2 The Concept of GDB Within DSA II

Geolocation Database (GDB) access can be defined as the capability of a device to know its geographical position and transmit this information to a database which identifies the suitable channels and transmit powers that the device can use in its current location—other essential element of DSA II [16]. In this way GDB:

- administers principles of spectrum use among regulators, broadcasters, TVWS industry (e.g. TV White Space Devices, TV WSDs), and other users (e.g. Program Making and Special Events, PMSE) in practice.
- controls the frequencies used by TV WSDs and their transmission power so that they do not interfere other wireless communication systems, such as terrestrial TV or radio microphones [17].

Recognizing the importance of the GDB within DSA II (see Table 4.1), business scenarios for GDB for the operation of CR are proposed (Fig. 4.5), as they stand as a basis for further research on DSA and business model related issues (e.g. GDB that is not a big component of the DSA II itself but it is in the center of the market structure), taking into account both technical and business-oriented parameters:

- *Restricted market scenario* (on the top-left corner of Fig. 4.5): it refers to out-source-based business model configuration [18]. The main role here is played by a third party, which is aided by administrator/operator who develops and operates GDBs. It is a solution of generalized GDB that supports all databases.
- *Flexible market scenario* (on the top-right corner of Fig. 4.5): it refers to the user-based and operator-based business model configurations [18]. The main roles here are played by the user and operator, although the available channels are managed by GDB: flexible bands (flexible operators), flexible services (flexible user).
- *Competitive market scenario* (on the bottom-right corner of Fig. 4.5): it refers to the user-based business model configuration [18]. The main role here is played by the users' devices (TV WSDs) in handling available channels. Although it could benefit while introducing the concept of GDB for the operation of CR in TVWS, it could create problem to the existing communication patterns.
- *Hybrid market scenario* (on the bottom-left corner of Fig. 4.5): it refers to the broker-based business model configuration [18]. The main role here is played by TVWS broker by distributing available channels to various service providers.

The business scenarios matrix (Fig. 4.5) is based on two dimensions: technical architecture and industry architecture, (also is relates with previous work [18]):

- *technical architecture* refers to the technology which determines the differences between existing and future architectures: what is the role of GDB in enabling various wireless communication services, how clients/devices of different wireless services will be accessing the same/shared GDB. Based on this parameter GDB scenarios could be split between: centralized technical architecture scenario, and decentralized technical architecture scenario.

Table 4.1 SWOT analysis of GDB

Strengths	Weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interference control • Global view on a radio environment • Followed primary spectrum usage activities • Sufficient computing power to make complex computations • Identification of secondary user's location and available frequency on that location • Lower cost-per-bit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The changes of the primary spectrum usage have to be updated • Spectrum allocation and radio resource management must be balanced • Band identification, management, control and cost allocation must be standardized to support successful development of CR • Reduced barriers to entry for smaller operators • Higher costs of devices, to validate hardware to meet specific regulatory requirements
Opportunities	Threats
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improved access to wireless services and applications • New market opportunities • Start of commercial utilization of WS • Realization of the CR paradigm for WS in other bands • Greater competition that could lead to value-added services and lower costs • Introduce realization of the CR paradigm for WS in other bands 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Additional information security issues in traditional wireless communication • Lower communication QoS because of possible interference • Reduction in battery life for the new technologies • Market shift from hardware to software manufacturers • More complex regulatory regime

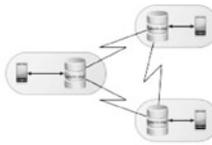
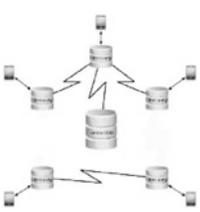
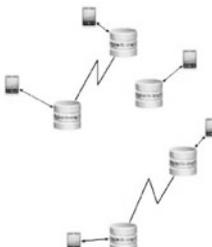
		Industry architecture	
		Vertical industry structure	Horizontal industry structure
Technical architecture	Centralized	 <p>1. Restricted market scenario - central GDB; - unnecessary interoperability between third party GDB</p>	 <p>2. Flexible market scenario - no central GDB; - all third party GDBs are interoperable</p>
	Decentralized	 <p>3. Competitive market scenario (internal) - no central GDB; - not all third party GDBs are interoperable</p>	 <p>4. Hybrid market scenario - central GDB; - not all third party GDB are interoperable</p>

Fig. 4.5 Business scenarios matrix

- 401 • *industry architecture* relates to the scope of the GDB in terms of markets and

402 industries in which it competes as well as to the ways in which their roles are

403 combined. The main question here is how GDB business model that would be

404 acceptable/make sense to different stakeholders can be found. Based on this

405 parameter all GDB scenarios could be split between: vertical industry structure

406 scenario, and horizontal industry structure scenario.

407 Therefore, the *scenarios* of centralized technical architecture refer to the

408 standardized technologies which offer good performance and can scale different

409 use cases and environments there large access network operators are preferred who

410 integrates local area networks into their existing network infrastructure.

411 On the contrary to scenarios of centralized technical architecture, the *scenarios*

412 of decentralized technical architecture refer to the situation where the access

413 providers may be small and even local. This may lead to the more complex

414 deployments of DSA II.

415 The *scenarios of vertical industry structure* refer to the situation when there is

416 one entity (or a group of entities that serve specialized needs to each other) which

417 supports GDB business activity that meets specialized needs of one specific

418 industry, and also is involved in other parts of communication process. This could

419 help eliminating some of the complexity related to the linking of two technologies

420 and business issues related to that technologies, as each generation of technology

421 is as an outcome of tinkering with and meshing together previously unrelated and

422 untried technological combination [19].

423 Finally, the *scenarios of horizontal industry structure*, by comparison with
424 scenarios of vertical industry structure, are focused on a wider range of GDB
425 business activities of broader range of services and applications grouped according
426 to common requirements to the larger group of customers.

427 Specific scenarios also encounter specific issues which require specific regu-
428 lation and standardization as development of DSA II requires creating a functional
429 techno-economic system.

430 **4.2.3 Techno-Economic Studies of Business Scenarios**

431 Techno-economic studies can be conducted using a “bottom-up” approach. This
432 approach firstly focuses on analyzing either new technology architectures (e.g.
433 CR) or industry architectures, from a small group of established stakeholders’
434 point of view, and then the analysis is expanded to create the whole environment
435 of the new evolving technologies and industry architectures. The purpose of the
436 “bottom-up” paradigm is to express more complex variety of detailed business
437 concepts and problems areas from a set of strictly defined concepts of technology,
438 thus for e.g. firstly technology is chosen and after that deciding how to create the
439 whole environment of new evolving technologies and industry architectures.

440 In general, techno-economic modelling case studies could be classified into two
441 types [20]:

- 442 • *Technology-oriented case studies*: analysis and comparison of emerging tech-
443 nologies (focus on network investments and network related OPEX, and less
444 focus on business models, competition, services);
- 445 • *Business model-oriented case studies*: analysis and comparison of alternative
446 business models (focus on value network configurations and revenue sharing
447 models, and less focus on technology as proper business models are essential).

448 In this light, since DSA II is a highly complex phenomenon, as the starting
449 point in the following paragraphs the techno-economic modelling method is used
450 only for evaluating restricted market scenario from the operator point of view
451 (business model-oriented case studies), where GDB is provided. In this model, the
452 responsibility of protecting incumbent’s users from interference is taken by third
453 parties, while the central GDB operation is kept under surveillance by the
454 administrator/operator who is aided by the regulatory body, as described in ECC
455 Draft report 185 [21]. In this case, each geographical area can be controlled by its
456 own database enabling a distributed operation, as well as allowing specific bands
457 to be tradable under the operating and communications on different CR protocols
458 and standards.

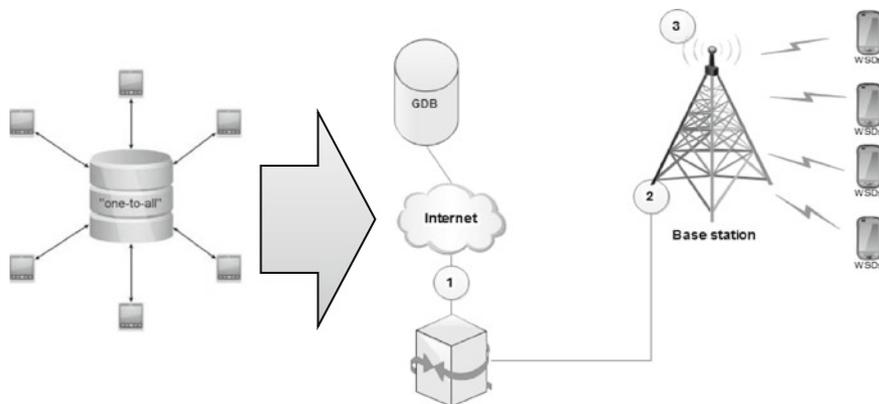


Fig. 4.6 Restricted Market Scenario from the operator point of view

4.2.3.1 The Case of Operator and Service Provider

The main research question is whether operators have direct relationship with the users or not. There is the threat for operators that they may miss their strong position in the market because virtual operators may become real network operators [22]. Due to this, it becomes important to analyze which role has a GDB operator and service provider in the value network. Nevertheless, one thing is clear: the stake of the existing and new operators, as well as service providers, is if they can reach the most positive value through DSA II enabled services that promise a wide range of new opportunities to consumers [14].

To start with, within restricted market scenario (from the operator point of view), there can be two ways (business models) in which GDB exchanges spectrum information with WSDs (see Fig. 4.6):

1. Mobile Network Operators (MNO) offers GDB-based mobile services.
2. GDB operator offers services to end-users utilizing MNO's network.

In the first case, the GDB operator (or spectrum operator) is not a threat to MNO, but instead they are cooperators, because spectrum operator "gives" frequencies to MNO who provides access to WSDs (end-users) in order to get GDB information. In this way, the role of spectrum operator is to connect to the MNO's network for offering GDB services to potential users who are also the current mobile subscribers using services such as voice, messaging, internet based video streaming, voice over IP, value added services and other.

Regarding to the cost of the service, there is no need for end-users to pay directly the spectrum operator, because the MNO could charge the required amount of money through the customer's bill without knowing about buying access to GDB. However, the spectrum operator needs to find the way how to charge the service from MNO and how to offer the new services using mobile network.

486 In the second case the GDB operator is a threat to the MNO, because when the
487 GDB operator asks to use MNO's infrastructure in order to offer services, the
488 MNO loses some resources. But it becomes too difficult to define the access price
489 to the MNO network because in this way the big fixed provider should charge new
490 players.

491 In both cases there will be the need for extra investments for upgrading the
492 network (see numbers in Fig. 4.6):

- 493 • extra gateway in MNO's network (1);
- 494 • base station software upgrade (2);
- 495 • base station and antenna system hardware upgrade (3).

496 All these three points encompass CAPEX for GDB implementation:

- 497 • connection to the Internet;
- 498 • DB costs (server, database).

499 In addition, there are also OPEX for deploying GDB, and all these costs need to
500 be covered from MNOs by charging them in some way:

- 501 • operation and maintenance (O&M);
- 502 • electricity;
- 503 • personnel costs;
- 504 • transmission line of GDB to Internet, etc.

505 **4.2.4 Conclusion**

506 The purpose of this section is to contribute to the on-going discussion on techno-
507 economic analysis of business scenarios, and on classification of business sce-
508 narios and identification for business models for the use of GDB in TVWS by
509 narrowing down from general (different stakeholders) to concrete (one stake-
510 holder) point of view.

511 The final results of this work will allow applying the GDB business scenarios
512 analysis in the future studies, taking into account the same method for modelling
513 new business scenarios for others groups of established stakeholders' of DSA II
514 and then seeing if there can be any common business model derived from the
515 multitude of different models. The results will lead to a model of cost and revenues
516 in which different GDB architectures (centralized/decentralized, horizontal/verti-
517 cal) are compared from different point of views in order to get very specific view
518 of impact of CR paradigm to the wireless telecommunication services.

519
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526 **4.3 Underlying Market Dynamics in a Cognitive Radio Era**

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529
530

531 **4.3.1 Introduction**

532 This section explores the possibilities of how the value system around wireless
533 networks could be organised in the future and what would be the underlying
534 market dynamics given the introduction of CR and dynamic spectrum access
535 technologies. Using a combination of systems thinking tools and platform theory,
536 four value system configurations around the future radio platform are introduced
537 and the corresponding underlying dynamics are characterised. Based on this a
538 feedback model using system dynamics and agent based modelling is built, con-
539 figured with historical market data and used to evaluate future evolution possi-
540 bilities both for GSM based mobile cellular and Wi-Fi based wireless local area
541 radio platform paths. We explore how the value system could continue on
542 established evolution paths but also deal with the transition to a so called complex
543 adaptive system. Furthermore, for policy makers, we discuss threats associated
544 with winner-takes-all and fragmentation type of scenarios, and highlight the
545 possible importance of aligning the underlying market dynamics with the natural
546 allocation and assignment cycle of spectrum frequency bands. This material is
547 based on works published in [23], to where the reader is guided for further
548 information beyond this chapter.

549 CR and DSA technologies have the potential to disrupt the current value system
550 and usher in a new era in wireless communications. Under the new paradigm the
551 management of radio resources would be decentralised to the edges of wireless
552 networks where devices would together collaborate and provide wireless services
553 [24]. The paradigm shift could potentially direct the market towards a horizontal
554 and open structure enabling many new service applications and entrants [25] and
555 could thus fundamentally change the underlying dynamics of the market as
556 illustrated in Fig. 4.7. However, established path dependencies on current spec-
557 trum management models are strong and it is uncertain whether they can, or even
558 should, be broken. Therefore, as it relates to the deployment of CR and DSA, there
559 is a need to understand the underlying dynamics of the market in addition to the
560 technology itself.

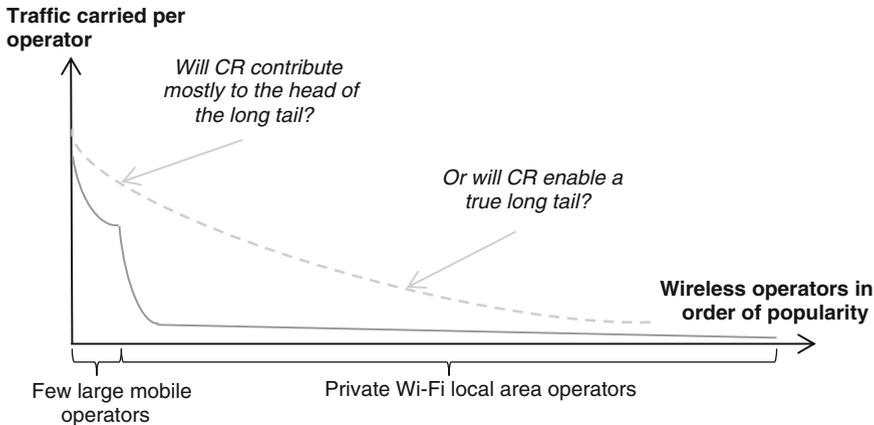


Fig. 4.7 An illustration of the head and long tail of potential application areas and market opportunities enabled by CR/SDR (A long tail results when the tools of production and distribution are democratized and supply and demand are connected [48])

561 Regarding how actors in the current value system around the radio spectrum
 562 resource are organised, one can distinguish different models. Historically, spec-
 563 trum licenses were given to one actor who was in charge of service provisioning
 564 and network deployment and controlled the whole value system from infrastruc-
 565 ture to devices (e.g. government monopoly operators) which in turn led to ineffi-
 566 cient legacy allocations [25]. Improvements have been made e.g. after
 567 telecommunications liberalisation with the introduction of digital cellular mobile
 568 communications where licenses have been assigned to a group of operators and
 569 where ownership of devices and selection of network (i.e. with the help of SIM-
 570 cards) have been given to the end-users [26, 27]. This in turn has fuelled com-
 571 petition between operators and has forced them to use the spectrum resources more
 572 efficiently and improve the availability of their networks (both in terms of cov-
 573 erage and capacity). On the other hand, the usage of harmonised technology
 574 standards, as was done in Europe following the GSM Memorandum of Under-
 575 standing of 1987 [28], has enabled large international economies of scale, device
 576 circulation and roaming which in turn has been a key ingredient that has enabled
 577 the more than six billion mobile subscriptions we currently have in the world. As
 578 mobile operators around the world are converging to LTE and LTE-A, CR and
 579 DSA technologies could be naturally embedded to this technology path.

580 As it relates to wireless computer networking, the unlicensed model has diffused
 581 widely where access points and base stations can be deployed and services can be
 582 provisioned by anybody, provided they follow a simple spectrum etiquette. Wi-Fi
 583 certified IEEE 802.11 has become the de-facto standard whose origins can be traced
 584 back to FCC's 1985 decision to allow the unlicensed use of spread spectrum tech-
 585 niques on ISM bands [29, 30]. Subsequently, many private enterprises and house-
 586 holds have become wireless service providers where the cumulative number of Wi-

587 Fi chipsets sold has surpassed the one billion mark and the installed base of Wi-Fi
588 access points is already in the order of hundreds of millions.

589 On the other hand public Wi-Fi has remained somewhat limited where e.g.
590 roaming solutions are still rather fragmented and typically proprietary. Further-
591 more, given the limitations of the scalability of the IEEE 802.11 MAC protocol the
592 unlicensed model is able to scale and grow in a bottom-up manner only up until a
593 point. Since most of the demand arises from indoor locations [31], more
594 co-ordination and spectrum is needed to enable bottom-up type of growth for
595 which CR and DSA in turn could provide a solution. An example of bottom-up
596 type of infrastructure growth can be observed e.g. with the wide spread diffusion of
597 the Internet Protocol (IP) which has become the generic protocol to interconnect
598 all computers [32]. In a similar manner CR and DSA could enable roaming and
599 mobility between all devices on all possible frequencies which in turn could lead
600 to an open and global network of wirelessly connected devices through which
601 everyone could provide and receive public wireless services on any access point
602 (AP) or device. As it relates to the future of CR and DSA various scenario studies
603 have been conducted [31, 33–36]. In many of these the core question is to what
604 degree the future system (e.g. CR spectrum database structure) is a centralised or
605 decentralised one and to what degree an open (i.e. horizontal) or closed (i.e.
606 vertical) one, a typical pattern that has been identified also on a more generic level
607 [37–39]. However, while static descriptions have been made, the underlying
608 dynamics of these scenarios have not been described. Given the introduction of CR
609 and DSA technologies, the purpose of this paper is to explore the possibilities of
610 how the value system around wireless access provisioning could be organised in
611 the future and what would be the underlying dynamics. Due to the interdependent
612 nature of the problem we take a holistic approach by using a combination of
613 systems thinking tools and platform theory to understand the underlying structures.
614 Based on historical evolution and prior scenario analysis work we introduce four
615 value system configurations around radio platforms and characterise the under-
616 lying dynamics for each. Based on this we build a feedback model using
617 qualitative system dynamics and quantitative agent based modelling (ABM),
618 configure it with historical data and use it to evaluate future evolution possibilities
619 both for GSM based mobile cellular and Wi-Fi based wireless local area radio
620 platform paths.

621 **4.3.2 Framework for Underlying Structure of Value Systems**

622 **4.3.2.1 Value System Configurations**

623 Systems thinking studies, how things influence one another within a whole, where
624 a core principle is that underlying structure gives rise to observed trends, patterns
625 and events [40]. The structure between actors and their business (and technical)
626 interfaces can be described as a value system [41]. A value system in turn can be
627 characterised as being organised around a mediating technical platform [42–44]

operated by a platform manager [45, 46]. Here we define a radio platform (e.g. a mobile network) as being managed by an operator that provides a wireless service and mediates interactions (facilitated e.g. by a database) between two user groups: end-users using devices and entities hosting base stations (BS) (or access points) who both can create affiliations to the platform. The service itself is delivered through technical interfaces and components (devices and access points) and therefore the other side of the platform (e.g. BS host) might not be directly visible to the other (e.g. end-user).

Based on historical evolution and prior scenario analysis work we define four value system configurations around radio platforms. The platform typology follows the closed or open and centralised or decentralised categorisation.

First, in the centralised and closed value system configuration the radio platform is centred around one actor that controls the spectrum resource and the interactions (and signalling) between end-user devices and base station or access point sites, which would e.g. correspond to old government monopoly operators. In such a system there is only one platform manager with whom everyone has to collaborate since there is no other platform to switch to.

Second, in the centralised and open value system configuration the value system consists of a small set of connected radio platforms managed by a small group of platform managers that both collaborate and compete. The platform managers control the spectrum resource and the interactions between end-user devices and BSs or APs (typically operators operate the BSs and site owners only provide horizontal and value system independent resources for site space and electricity etc.). Since a standardised technology is used the platform users can rather easily switch between platforms. This would e.g. correspond to the competition and collaboration model of mobile operators using GSM based technologies where the end-users can use the same device and switch between mobile networks.

Third, in the decentralised and open value system configuration the value system consists of a large set of small connected radio platforms. Anybody can become a radio platform manager and start providing wireless services for other users. There exists a great heterogeneity of technologies and services with plenty of local innovation and competition. However, actors also collaborate, technologies are made interoperable and radio resources are quickly reassigned between platforms so that valuable services that have high demand are able to flexibly scale bottom-up. End-users can freely switch and roam between platforms and can easily become wireless service providers themselves. Such radio systems do not currently exist, although some open Wi-Fi roaming solutions bear some resemblance (e.g. *Eduroam* and *openWTS3*). Still, examples of decentralised and open systems exist in other fields, such as e.g. IP networks in computer networking.

Fourth, in the decentralised and closed value system configuration the value system consists of a large set of small radio platforms that are isolated from each other where all compete over the radio resources and no (or very limited) coordination exists. Isolation and intense competition can lead to the erosion of radio resources where nobody is able to scale their services bottom-up. Anybody can start providing wireless services, but typically only for a closed user group. This

673 would e.g. correspond to private Wi-Fi deployments and fragmented roaming and
674 authentication solutions.

675 4.3.2.2 Underlying Dynamics of Value Systems

676 Next we will describe the underlying dynamics of each value system configuration
677 using basic concepts from dynamical systems theory [47]. A dynamical system can
678 be characterised with an attractor, whose type can roughly be divided into four
679 groups: fixed point, limit cycle, strange and no attractor.

680 First, centralised and closed value system can be seen as being directed by a
681 fixed point attractor which evolves towards a static state (like a damped
682 pendulum).

683 Second, centralised and open value system can be seen as following the
684 dynamics of a limit cycle attractor which produces periodic and somewhat regular
685 change (like a continuously swinging pendulum).

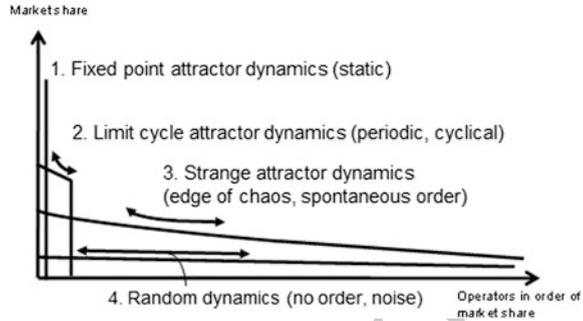
686 Third, decentralised and open value system can be seen as following the
687 dynamics of a strange attractor which produces deterministic irregular change and
688 functions on the edge of chaos.

689 Fourth, decentralised and closed value system can be seen as being charac-
690 terised as a system that does not have an attractor that would give it structure and
691 thus exhibits complete disorder and random behaviour.

692 The market share of each operator, i.e. radio platform manager, in each value
693 system configuration is depicted in Fig. 4.8. The dynamics are influenced by the
694 adaptation speed of the actors and the system overall, i.e. how often decisions
695 about platform switches are made, how often resources are re-allocated and re-
696 assigned, and how quickly competitors respond to market changes. In a centralised
697 and closed value system configuration following the fixed attractor dynamics, one
698 actor carries all traffic, as was the case with government monopoly operators. The
699 system is very slow to adapt to changes with long resource allocation and
700 assignment delays where users cannot switch to another provider and can overall
701 be seen as corresponding to the inefficient legacy spectrum assignment model.

702 In a centralised and open value system configuration following the limit cycle
703 attractor dynamics, few actors carry the traffic, as is typically the case with mobile
704 operator competition today. Here the system adapts to changes cyclically where
705 end-users are able to switch to more valuable networks thus inducing competition
706 and more efficient use of resources. Overall the system allocates and assigns
707 resources in a cyclical manner. In a decentralised and open value system config-
708 uration following the strange attractor dynamics, traffic is carried by many actors.
709 The value system is quick to adapt to changes with short delays for resource
710 allocation and assignment and low switching costs for end-users. Here actors form
711 a long tail distribution where actors from the tail can quickly grow and reach the
712 top and vice versa. Such a value system corresponds to the observations of
713 Anderson [48] who states that a long tail distribution results when the tools of
714 service production and distribution are democratised and supply and demand are

Fig. 4.8 The market share of each operator, i.e. radio platform manager, in each value system configuration



715 connected. Overall, the value system would correspond to a so called complex
 716 adaptive system [49] where large number of agents interact using simple rules and
 717 which is characterised by self-organisation, emergence, and scale-free network
 718 structures with long tail distributions [50]. This has been observed e.g. in the
 719 Internet in terms of routers [51] and web pages [50].

720 Finally, in a decentralised and closed value system configuration following the
 721 no attractor dynamics, traffic is carried by many actors but no actor is able to get
 722 ahead of others, get more resources and scale up. There is no delay for resource
 723 allocation and assignment (as is the case with the unlicensed spectrum licensing),
 724 resources do not accumulate and no structure is formed. Overall the system adapts
 725 randomly and seems like noise to an outside observer.

726 *4.3.3 Feedback Model of the Underlying Dynamics* 727 *of the Value System*

728 The above described underlying dynamics are generated by a large set of actors
 729 and encompass a large number of feedback connections. Our next goal is to build a
 730 model of these underlying dynamics using two feedback modelling tools: quali-
 731 tative system dynamic modelling [52] and quantitative agent based modelling [53].
 732 As background for the modelling work eight expert interviews were conducted
 733 including representatives of device and network equipment vendors, mobile
 734 operators, regulators and academia.

735 As it relates to the modelling approach, it is important to make a distinction
 736 between detailed and dynamic complexity. Simply put, dynamic complexity is
 737 modelled with feedback structure, whereas detailed complexity is modelled by
 738 increasing the number of variables [40]. System dynamics focuses more on
 739 dynamic complexity and can easily encompass a wide range of feedback effects,
 740 but typically aggregates agents into a relatively small number of states [53]. Agent
 741 based modelling, on the other hand, puts more focus on detailed complexity where
 742 individuals and their interactions are explicitly represented, which in turn makes it
 743 more difficult to link model behaviour to its structure. Therefore, modellers must

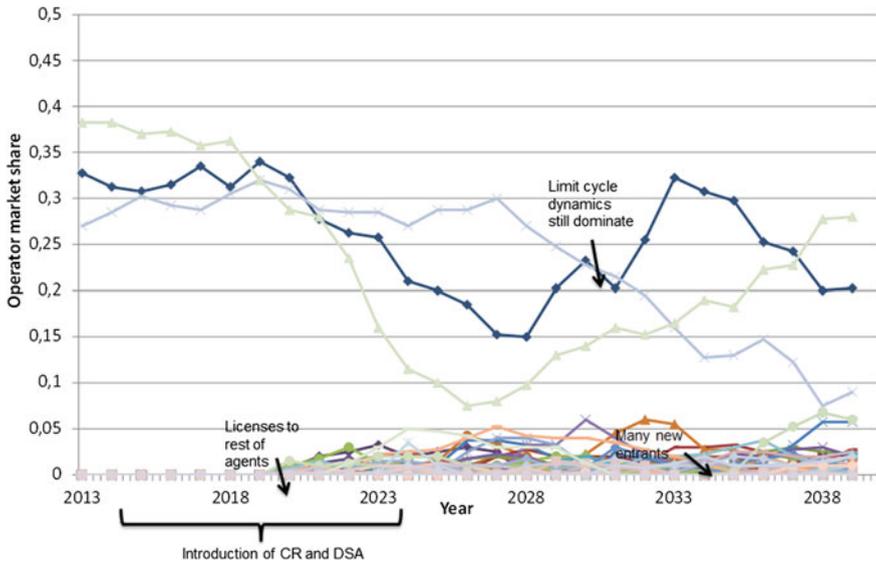
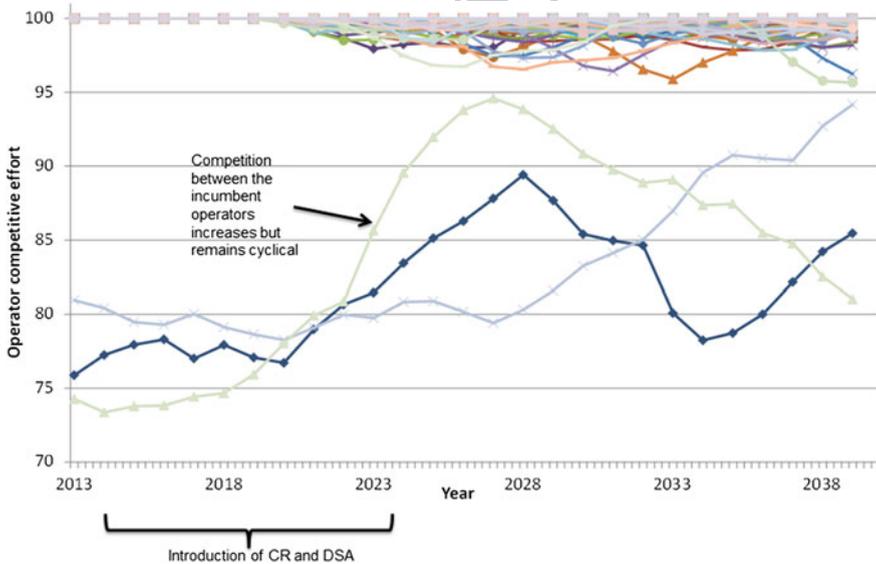
744 trade off disaggregate detail and breadth of boundary [53]. Our goal here is to use a
745 combination of detailed and dynamic complexity, i.e. leverage the strength of both
746 system dynamics and agent-based modelling. We start out by characterising the
747 underlying dynamics of the value system configurations with simple system
748 archetype feedback structures [54] and after that use ABM to assimilate the large
749 number of feedback relationships between individual agents simultaneously, i.e.
750 integrate detailed and dynamic complexity together [40].

751 4.3.3.1 GSM Evolution Path

752 We now envisage future mobile cellular networking scenarios. CR spectrum
753 licenses to operate mobile networks will be given to all agents during the CR and
754 DSA introduction period (year 2020). We assume that competitive reaction speed
755 (SC) will remain low since rather long term investments are still needed. Fur-
756 thermore, we conduct sensitivity analysis by adjusting the resource accumulation
757 speed (SR) which reflects the overall spectrum licensing model. In the base case it
758 will correspond to regulated exclusive licenses, i.e. the currently dominant
759 licensing model with large spectrum bands and long license times. In the first
760 sensitivity case SR will be considerably slower and correspond to license-exempt,
761 i.e. unlicensed spectrum. In the second sensitivity case SR will be only slightly
762 slower and reflect light or secondary licensing, where small bands are assigned
763 dynamically with shorter cycles while ensuring that competition prevents exten-
764 sive resource accumulation. In the third sensitivity case SR is considerably faster
765 and corresponds to unregulated exclusive licenses where all resources can
766 cumulate or be assigned to one operator and no spectrum caps are enforced.

767 Figure 4.9 shows the market shares of agents in the base case. As can be
768 observed, after the introduction of CR and DSA technologies and the entrance of
769 new smaller operators, competition between the large operators intensifies and
770 they lose some market share. However overall, the underlying dynamics of the
771 value system continue to follow the limit cycle dynamics, i.e. although some
772 additional competition is present the majority of resources still accumulates to and
773 circulates between the incumbent operators and the strength of the success to
774 successful mechanism between the agents remains rather strong.

775 Changes in competitive efforts are shown in Fig. 4.10 where before the intro-
776 duction of CR and DSA the competitive efforts of the three large operators are
777 quite close to one another and evolve cyclically (in the model competitive effort
778 ranges from a minimum of 30 to a maximum of 100). After the introduction of CR
779 and DSA and the entrance of new operators, competitive activity between the large
780 operators increases but still, the value system continues to evolve in a cyclical
781 manner, i.e. it has some positive feedback but is still dominated by negative
782 feedback. Nevertheless, this new competition leads to more efficient use of
783 resources and more value overall. One can also observe that the increased


Fig. 4.9 Market share of agents in the base case

Fig. 4.10 Changes in competitive efforts between agents

784

possibility for end-users to switch between operator networks increases volatility in the system since the system still remains slow to react to changes.

785

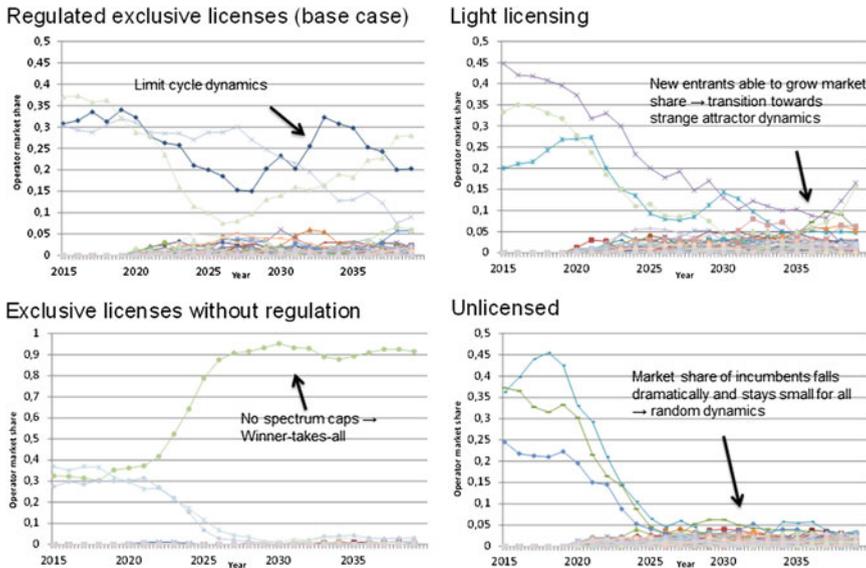


Fig. 4.11 Sensitivity analyses results

Next Fig. 4.11 shows results from the sensitivity analysis. As can be observed, introducing an unlicensed model dramatically reduces the market shares of large operators and leads to a situation where the market share of all operators remains small and thus the value system transitions to follow the no attractor dynamics. With a light licensing model incumbent operators are able to sustain some market share but are joined by new entrants who have been able to grow their market share and thus the value system starts transitioning towards strange attractor dynamics. The use of exclusive licenses without regulation leads to a winner-takes-all situation where all resources accumulate to one actor who starts dominating the whole market and thus the value system transitions to follow the fixed attractor dynamics.

In terms of competition, with the unlicensed model all agents compete fiercely, resources do not accumulate and the individual platforms remain limited in value. With the light licensing model competition is less intense and resources are directed to valuable services which in turn are able to grow and scale up but not enough to gain a significant share of the market. With unregulated exclusive licenses competitive effort by the dominating agent drops to a minimum value and therefore, although it controls almost all of the resources, the value of the platform does not increase.

4.3.3.2 Wi-Fi Evolution Path

We now focus on potential future scenarios involving the evolution of Wi-Fi based wireless local area access. We assume that all agents have the existing unlicensed spectrum resources and that competitive reaction speed (SC) will remain the same

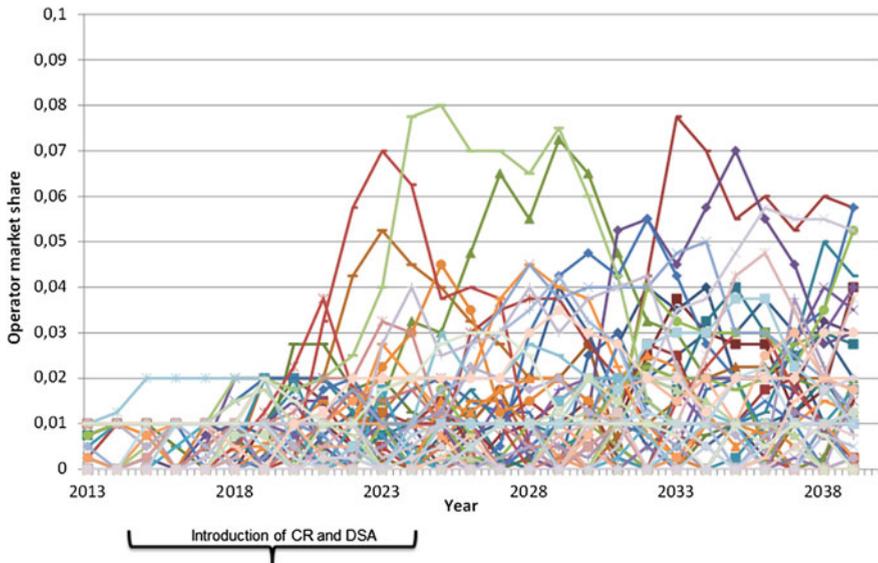


Fig. 4.12 Market shared in the Wi-Fi evolution base case

807 reflecting local and instantly adaptive behaviour and small scale investments. In
 808 terms of the sensitivity analysis the resource accumulation speed (SR), corre-
 809 sponding to the spectrum licensing model, will grow to be somewhat faster in the
 810 base case (i.e. light and secondary licensing), and in other sensitivity cases will
 811 remain the same (i.e. continuation with the unlicensed model), grow to be still
 812 somewhat faster (i.e. regulated exclusive licenses), and considerably faster (i.e.
 813 unregulated exclusive licenses).

814 Figure 4.12 shows the market shares of agents in the base case. As can be
 815 observed, after the introduction of CR and DSA technologies and light licensing,
 816 some operators with valuable services are able to scale up, get more resources and
 817 market share. However, the system adapts quickly to changes and resources are re-
 818 assigned to wherever new innovations and locally relevant services are created and
 819 therefore no single actor or group of actors starts to dominate the value system.
 820 Therefore, the value system transitions to follow strange attractor dynamics, where
 821 the strength of the success to successful mechanism is low and competition is high.
 822 The value system evolves chaotically, i.e. has some negative feedback but is
 823 dominated by positive feedback. Overall, the system can be characterised as a
 824 complex adaptive system that operates at the edge of chaos.

825 Changes in competitive effort are illustrated in Fig. 4.13 where one can observe
 826 that before CR and DSA, and light licensing are introduced competition between
 827 agents is fierce. After the introduction of CR and DSA and light licensing, co-
 828 ordination increases but competition remains still high and fuelling new services
 829 and local innovation. However, competition is not so intense that resources erode,

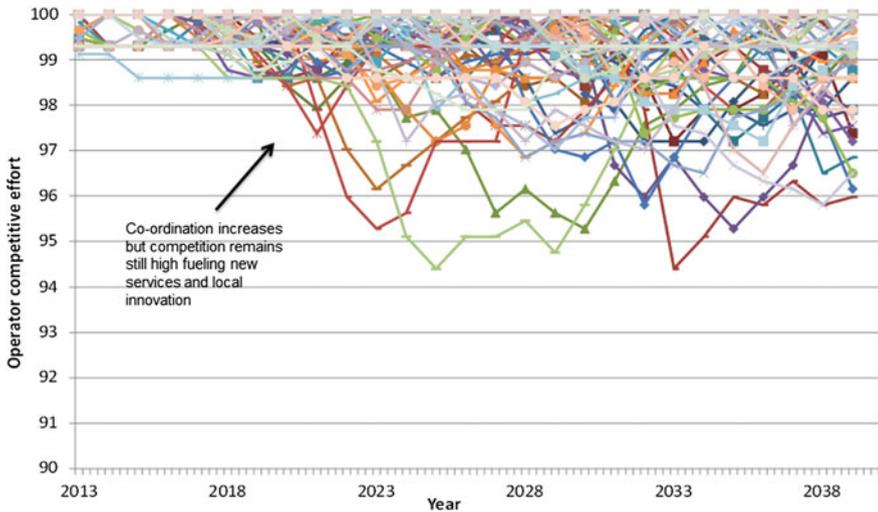


Fig. 4.13 Competitive efforts in the Wi-Fi evolution base case

830 leading to more efficient use of resources and more value overall as compared to
 831 the unlicensed model.

832 Following Fig. 4.14 shows results from the sensitivity analysis of this case. As
 833 can be observed, continuation with an unlicensed model leads to a situation where
 834 the market share of all operators remains very small and thus the value system
 835 continues to follow the no-attractor dynamics. This would also correspond to the
 836 fragmentation of CR technologies and spectrum databases in a similar manner as is
 837 the case with Wi-Fi roaming and authentication today.

838 With a regulated exclusive licensing model, resources accumulate so that two
 839 operators start controlling the market and thus the value system transitions to
 840 follow the limit cycle dynamics. In the case of unregulated exclusive licenses,
 841 resources accumulate to one actor leading to a winner-takes-all situation and fixed
 842 attractor dynamics. The dominant actor or actors in both of these cases could come
 843 from the group of incumbent mobile operators but could also come from outside
 844 the value system e.g. if a large internet player controlled the spectrum database and
 845 leveraged network externalities arising from elsewhere.

846 In terms of competition, with the unlicensed model all agents compete fiercely
 847 and the individual platforms remain limited in value, with the regulated exclusive
 848 licenses model the two dominant actors that get most of the resources slow down
 849 and start competing cyclically and with unregulated exclusive licenses competitive
 850 effort by the dominating agent drops to a minimum value. Figure 4.15 shows the
 851 top 30 operators in order of market share at the end of the historical simulation
 852 (year 2012) and at the end of the simulation in the different sensitivity cases.

853 When comparing the base case to the historical situation the market shares of
 854 wireless service providers especially in the head have increased. With the unlicensed

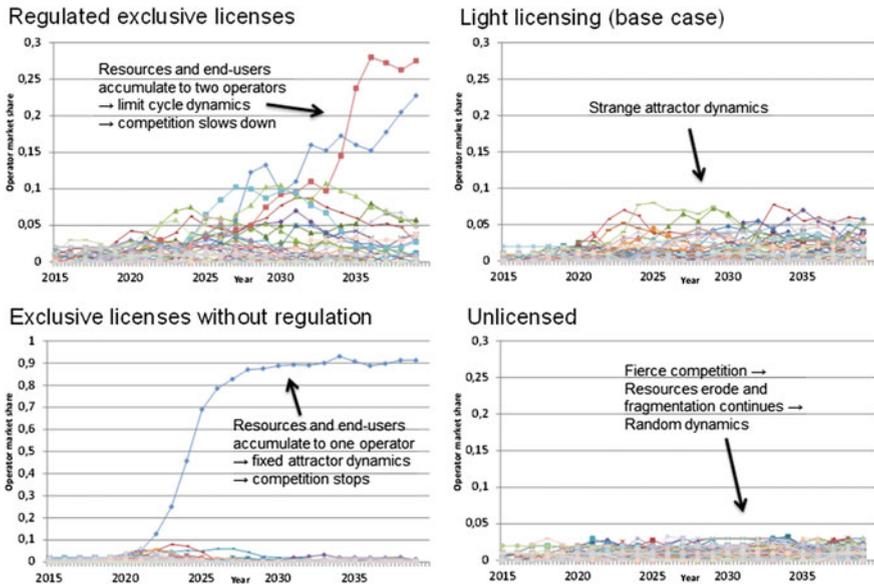


Fig. 4.14 Market shares in the Wi-Fi evolution sensitivity analyses

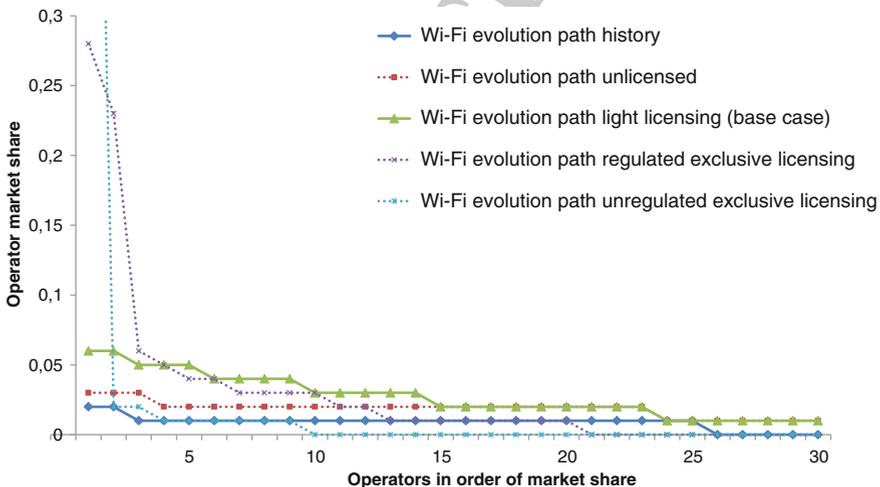


Fig. 4.15 Top 30 operators in order of market share year 2012 and at the end of the simulation in the different Wi-Fi evolution sensitivity cases

855 model the head has also grown slightly but the tail has become considerably longer
 856 than with light licensing and the number of active wireless service providers
 857 stabilises to roughly 70 agents. This would correspond e.g. to a situation where most of

858 the agents are operating their smartphones as Wi-Fi access points for themselves.
859 With the regulated exclusive licensing model the two operators in the head have
860 taken most of the market share where the tail in turn has lost market share and most
861 of the operators have become passive. With unregulated exclusive licenses one agent
862 in the head gets all of the traffic and practically no long tail exist.

863 *4.3.4 Discussion*

864 The implications of the underlying dynamics of future CR scenarios and the
865 corresponding spectrum database structure also highlight issues specifically rele-
866 vant for policy makers. As it relates to the GSM evolutionary path, the value
867 system continues to follow the limit cycle dynamics and to be dominated by few
868 incumbent operators. In such a case CR and DSA technologies are likely to be
869 embedded to the technology standards used by the mobile operators (i.e. LTE-A
870 and its future versions). The possible spectrum databases and indoor sites would
871 also be mostly controlled by mobile operators.

872 In terms of the Wi-Fi evolutionary path, the value system evolves to a complex
873 adaptive system where the CR and DSA technologies would establish themselves
874 as an independent technology standard enabling roaming and mobility between all
875 devices on many frequency bands. The database infrastructure would follow an
876 open and decentralised architecture (resembling that of IP) and be operated by
877 many entities. Furthermore, as shown in the sensitivity analysis, it is also possible
878 that a collision occurs between the two evolution paths and that the overall value
879 system transitions from a centralised to a decentralised one or vice versa corre-
880 sponding to the more general level descriptions of [37, 39]. The value system
881 around the mobile cellular network platform could evolve towards strange attractor
882 dynamics (i.e. entrance of many small operators and a diminishing role for
883 incumbent operators) and vice versa the Wi-Fi path could evolve towards limit
884 cycle dynamics (e.g. Wi-Fi access points controlled by incumbent mobile opera-
885 tors or other large actors).

886 From a policy maker perspective the results also point out future threats. There is
887 a possibility that CR and the corresponding database technologies will become
888 fragmented, much like Wi-Fi roaming and authentication now, and the roles of CR
889 databases will remain very limited, isolated and local. Yet another threat is a winner-
890 takes-all type of situation where one of the existing operators, or another strong
891 player outside the value system, controls the CR database infrastructure and uses
892 closed proprietary technologies which might in turn slow down diffusion overall.
893 The results could also have implications as it relates to different spectrum frequency
894 bands and their characteristics. As discussed by [47], dynamical systems tend to
895 naturally synchronise with one another and transition to follow the same dynamics.
896 For example, roughly put, one can say that low frequency bands propagate far and
897 need more centralised co-ordination and long assignment cycles whereas high bands
898 in turn do not propagate far, remain as a local resource (especially in indoor

locations) and thus need less co-ordination. Therefore, one could pose a question whether there is a natural allocation and assignment cycle for the spectrum frequency bands and if so, how would these characteristics relate to the described underlying dynamics. For example in terms of the GSM evolution path, the usage of standardised technologies, cellular network planning and competition following the limit cycle market dynamics has led to rather efficient use of 900 and 1800 MHz bands. Subsequently, one can question, to what degree should CR and DSA technologies even be used to disrupt these underlying dynamics. Still, one can argue that there exists an upper limit for frequencies after which building cellular networks becomes inefficient. Unlicensed private Wi-Fi deployments, on the other hand, have led to rather efficient use of use of the 2.4 GHz ISM band and correspondingly one can question are the unlicensed and light licensing models more naturally aligned with higher spectrum bands and short range sites.

Since the policy maker can influence the underlying dynamics of the market with the spectrum licensing model it could be beneficial if the value system would be orchestrated so that the underlying market dynamics are aligned with the natural allocation and assignment cycle of the radio resources. This would correspond to a few core applications (such as mobile voice, text messages and managed mobile internet connectivity) enabled by mobile cellular technologies and governed by cyclical competition.

Strange attractor dynamics and light and secondary licensing models would be aligned with high spectrum bands and base stations and access points working on sites with short range with instantly adaptive behaviour and small scale investments needed where somewhat unreliable assets, e.g. light or secondary licenses, would be sufficient. This would correspond to many different types of applications, locally relevant public services enabled by CR and DSA technologies and be governed by chaotic competition with just enough co-ordination to ensure system operation. No attractor dynamics and the unlicensed model would be aligned with very high frequency bands and with access points and devices working on very short range sites. This would correspond to private and personal use and applications, enabled by low power levels, simple spectrum etiquette and decentralised medium access protocols with collision avoidance mechanisms (e.g. CSMA/CA) but otherwise isolated governance. In reality such alignment is of course difficult (if not impossible) to reach and therefore the dynamics could work on all frequency bands (such as CR devices on TV white spaces) and on all site types. Nevertheless, as a general rule, one can argue that this would be the most natural alignment, which in turn would mean that CR and DSA technologies could reach their highest potential if they were used with short range sites and high spectrum bands.

Furthermore, what is interesting to note is these underlying dynamics might be better aligned with the market characteristics of particular countries. For example the limit cycle dynamics are commonly observed in many European countries with a strong harmonisation legacy, such as e.g. Finland, where only GSM based technologies have been used, three network operators compete using the same technology and SIM-card based post-paid subscriptions are common leading to moderate churn rates (e.g. annualised churn typically above 10 % in Finland [55]).

944 Markets in countries such as e.g. India are already more decentralised and follow
945 strange (or no) attractor type of dynamics where many operators are present and pre-
946 paid subscriptions and multi-SIM phones are common leading to very high churn
947 rates (e.g. annualised churn roughly 40 % in India [34]) which in turn could make
948 the market better compatible with CR and DSA systems as pointed out by [56].

949 On the other hand, in countries with vertical market structures, such as e.g.
950 Japan, operators have traditionally had tight control of the technologies deployed,
951 each operator having their own application stack, where the operators can inter-
952 nally be seen as following the fixed attractor dynamics with dedicated operator
953 devices and high switching costs leading to low churn rates (e.g. annualised churn
954 well below 5 % in Japan [55]). Although in our simulations it was assumed that
955 CR and DSA increase device flexibility and the probability of switching between
956 operators, this might not be the case if operators are in a position to limit and
957 control the deployment of CR and DSA technologies in the devices.

958 Overall, these simulations show that only small changes in some parameters
959 might change the market dynamics significantly. Therefore, as it relates to tech-
960 nology standardisation, it is important to preserve the opportunity to manage the
961 market dynamics during the entire lifetime of the system technology and to avoid
962 undesirable deadlocks and market failures. Since it is not possible to define all the
963 parameters precisely right today it would be beneficial to preserve flexibility and
964 configurability in standards and technologies in order to be able to control and
965 adapt to the market dynamics later. The right architectural technology decisions
966 are therefore very important for CR and DSA technologies.

967 **4.3.5 Conclusion**

968 In this section, we have studied value system evolution around future radio plat-
969 forms given the introduction of CR and DSA technologies. We have used a
970 combination of systems thinking tools and platform theory to characterise four
971 value system configurations around the future radio platform and the corresponding
972 underlying dynamics and have built a feedback model to evaluate future evolution
973 possibilities both for GSM based mobile cellular and Wi-Fi based wireless local
974 area radio platform paths. The results showed how the value system could continue
975 on established evolution paths but also how it could transition to a so called
976 complex adaptive system. For policy makers, the results have pointed out threats of
977 winner-takes-all and fragmentation type of scenarios. The results also highlighted
978 the possible importance of aligning the underlying market dynamics with the
979 natural allocation and assignment cycle of the spectrum frequency bands, a
980 hypothesis that could be explored more in future research. Furthermore, the overall
981 framework introduced here, could in the future also be used to model the evolution
982 of value systems around other technologies and e.g. explore the relationship of
983 CR and DSA to other ICT technologies, e.g. Internet and cloud computing.

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988 framework.

989 **4.4 Business Scenarios for Spectrum Sensing-Based DSA**

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993

994 **4.4.1 Introduction**

995 The scarcity of spectrum that is experienced and/or anticipated today, is caused by
996 the ever-growing use of wireless applications and by the way in which spectrum is
997 managed. The long-term allocation of spectrum blocks to specific radio access
998 technologies (RATs), specific services and specific operators is often cited as an
999 inflexible spectrum management mechanism leading to suboptimal results. It is
1000 well known that most of these blocks of spectrum are not fully utilised.

1001 Therefore, it is widely expected that measures allowing more efficient use of
1002 radio spectrum will include a shift from classic “command-and-control” to more
1003 dynamic forms of spectrum management and access will be a crucial part of the
1004 future telecommunications [57, 58]. In many markets, significant moves towards
1005 such dynamic spectrum management have already been made, including the
1006 introduction of selling and leasing of frequencies, collective use of spectrum and
1007 technologically neutral spectrum licenses. A technological advance that supports
1008 this objective is the development of CR and spectrum sensing prototypes. In its
1009 Report on Cognitive Technologies [33], the Radio Spectrum Policy Group defines
1010 spectrum sensing as follows: “[Spectrum sensing] provides a real-time ‘map’ of
1011 the radio environment. The main focus is on identifying unused areas in the
1012 intended frequency range that can be used by [Cognitive Radios].” The intended
1013 frequency range of our concept of spectrum sensing is considered to cover the
1014 entire spectrum, resulting in a RF tuning range of 100 Hz to 6 GHz. Furthermore,
1015 the spectrum sensing concept used for this research can sense very fast
1016 (29.5–88.5 ms) and requires low power amounts (7.8 mJ), making it ideal for
1017 implementation in terminals.

1018 Spectrum sensing research often takes as point of departure a limited number of
1019 use cases, in order to sketch out a number of typified actors and their interactions.
1020 However, it is seldom addressed whether the conclusions drawn from such anal-
1021 ysis are valid for other implementations of spectrum sensing. The hypothesis put
1022 forward here is that many contexts in which spectrum sensing technologies may be

1023 applied are so distinct from a business and regulatory point of view, that the
1024 characteristics and viability of one use case cannot be determined from analysing
1025 other use cases. It is therefore essential to determine which parameters are critical
1026 for distinguishing fundamentally different business scenarios. Four of such fun-
1027 damental variables are identified and discussed below.

1028 In order to test this hypothesis, the following research questions will be dis-
1029 cussed: are there important differences in spectrum sensing scenarios that have to
1030 be considered in any business or regulatory analysis? If so, what are the business
1031 parameters that explain these differences? Is it possible to construct a business
1032 classification based on these business parameters? What added value would such a
1033 classification have and who would benefit from it? The results presented here
1034 could be used as a starting point for future research and decision-making related to
1035 spectrum sensing.

1036 4.4.2 Business Parameters

1037 The business parameters proposed below are the main differentiators between
1038 distinct classes of spectrum sensing business scenarios. They have been derived
1039 from an analysis of the use cases currently outlined in a variety of academic and
1040 consultancy research and industry white papers on spectrum sensing (see a.o. the
1041 references below). Based on these differences, four fundamental business variables
1042 have been derived, namely: ownership, exclusivity, tradability and neutrality.

1043 4.4.2.1 Ownership

1044 The main differentiator between spectrum sensing business scenarios is ownership.
1045 The concept of ownership used points out to ownership of a license and thus, the
1046 right of use for a given frequency band conferred by a regulatory authority, which
1047 still differs from ownership of spectrum. Using this business parameter in the
1048 classification, two major groups of business scenarios arise: the *unlicensed* spec-
1049 trum business scenarios and the *licensed* spectrum business scenarios. The latter
1050 ones include every business scenario in which a regulator has issued licenses for a
1051 certain band of spectrum, independent of the way it is used and whether or not this
1052 license grants exclusivity rights to a dedicated frequency band.

1053 4.4.2.2 Exclusivity

1054 Drilling down within the group of licensed spectrum business scenarios, the
1055 exclusivity business parameter addresses the question whether or not frequency
1056 bands are exclusively assigned to a licensee. A regulator can decide to assign a
1057 specific frequency band for every licensee, thus making the frequency band

1058 *exclusive*. If the regulator would decide to group multiple frequency bands in a
1059 spectrum pool and make it available for multiple licensees, there would be *no*
1060 *exclusivity*. Note that the concept of exclusivity does not imply that only the licensee
1061 can have access to the frequency band. In some cases, users that do not have a license
1062 for the specific frequency band can utilise some (or all) of the frequencies in that
1063 band. The following business parameter will further discuss this topic.

1064 4.4.2.3 Tradability

1065 A third business parameter that is bound to affect future business models and
1066 regulatory consequences is tradability. This business parameter questions whether
1067 or not it is permitted for terminals to switch between different operators' frequency
1068 bands. If tradability is allowed, an operator can buy or lease a licensee's frequency
1069 band. Motivations for an operator to do so could include (but are not limited to)
1070 offloading of its own over-utilised bands, better coverage for its clients on the
1071 competitor's network, better quality of service, etc. In return, the primary user can
1072 be compensated. However, if tradability is either not allowed, or impossible, the
1073 use of the frequency band is restricted to the licensee itself.

1074 4.4.2.4 Neutrality

1075 A final differentiator is technology neutrality in licensed spectrum bands. Some
1076 frequency bands may be open to a variety of radio access technologies (RATs),
1077 while others only allow one specific technology. It is obvious that the latter case
1078 limits the efficient use of spectrum, but in terms of regulatory consequences, it can
1079 be assumed that a technology neutral frequency band would need to address more
1080 issues, such as setting technical conditions to access the band and coordinating the
1081 cooperation between multiple technologies.

1082 4.4.3 Business Classification

1083 Based on the aforementioned parameters, it is possible to derive a variety of
1084 distinct spectrum sensing business scenarios as shown in Fig. 4.16. Each category
1085 of business scenarios entails different regulatory issues and approaches. Further-
1086 more, different roles and main beneficiaries can be identified in different cases.

1087 This classification differs from other classifications, such as [59] and [60],
1088 because (as far as the specific scenarios go) it is focused on spectrum sensing, it is
1089 not a technical classification and it uses a very detailed level of scenario groups.

1090 For every class of the proposed classification, an exemplary business scenario
1091 has been chosen for discussion. In the following subsections, examples of the
1092 Unlicensed business scenario, the Single RAT Pool business scenario, the

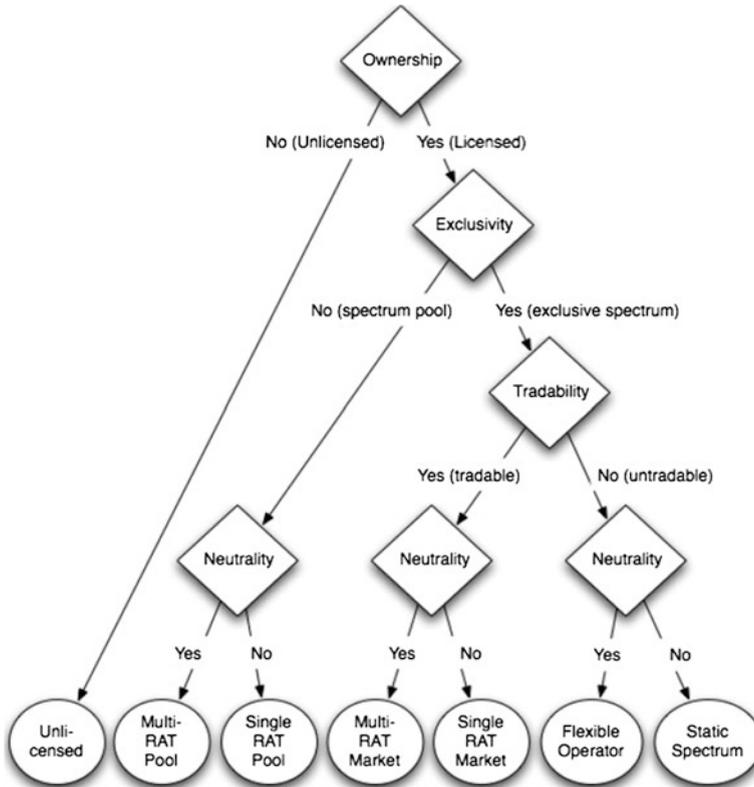


Fig. 4.16 Classification of spectrum sensing business scenarios

1093 Multi-RAT Market business scenario, the Single RAT Market business scenario
 1094 and the Flexible Operator business scenario will be discussed. The Static spectrum
 1095 business scenario will not be discussed, as there is no use for spectrum sensing in a
 1096 frequency band with restricted use for the licensee and one specified technology
 1097 only. Furthermore, the Multi-RAT Pool business scenario will not be reviewed, as
 1098 it can be argued that there is presently no realistic scenario in which a frequency
 1099 band would be awarded in the near future with full flexibility as described by the
 1100 four business parameters.

1101 4.4.3.1 Unlicensed

1102 The unlicensed case is different from most other business scenarios because there
 1103 is no ownership of a license involved. Examples of business scenarios are mostly
 1104 found in the unlicensed bands or ISM bands. Like many other technologies, both
 1105 Zigbee and Wi-Fi (802.11 g/n) operate in the 2.4 GHz ISM band. This may cause
 1106 problems of interference, resulting in a failure for the radio access technologies to

1107 send and receive data. Since Zigbee's data loss is more apparent, it is up to Zigbee
1108 to adapt and move to another frequency. In order to choose the optimal frequency
1109 or channel, Zigbee can use spectrum sensing. This way, it can dynamically detect
1110 the ideal location that provides the least risk of interference. By moving away from
1111 the Wi-Fi signals, both technologies are able to coexist.

1112 The main benefit of spectrum sensing for this case is the fact that multiple
1113 technologies and users can coexist in the same band. This is achieved by avoiding
1114 interference. For unlicensed business scenarios, the most important actors are the
1115 unlicensed users and the regulator. The unlicensed users are allowed to share
1116 unlicensed spectrum, but they need to comply with certain rules put forward by the
1117 regulator. Most importantly, the bands accessible without license are defined by
1118 ITU-R and national radio authorities. Additional rules mainly contain technical
1119 requirements for the devices, accepted power levels, field strength limits and
1120 regulations regarding interference. Every potential unlicensed user should comply
1121 with these rules before accessing the ISM band.

1122 The above describes the current workings and regulations for the business
1123 scenario. A question that can be asked is whether the implementation of spectrum
1124 sensing in unlicensed devices would change this situation. It can be assumed that
1125 additional regulations will not be needed. On the contrary, some technological
1126 device requirements that have the purpose of limiting and avoiding spectrum could
1127 be redeemed by spectrum sensing, since it could by itself solve all interference
1128 issues. In order for this to work, however, an additional condition a regulator might
1129 set, is that every device that wants to enter the unlicensed band should be equipped
1130 with spectrum sensing engines.

1131 Additionally, a regulator might have issues with the fact that spectrum sensing
1132 could also lead to frequency hoarding. Since everyone will be able to sense the
1133 ISM bands for available frequencies, some users may block all of these frequen-
1134 cies, just in case they might need more bandwidth. If the regulator is aware of this
1135 sort of behavior, it is very likely it would act against it.

1136 4.4.3.2 Single RAT Pool

1137 If license ownership is a fact, but no exclusive frequency bands are assigned to
1138 every single licensee, then those licensees will have to share spectrum from a
1139 spectrum pool. In case different radio access technologies could operate in this
1140 spectrum pool, while sensing for appropriate frequencies, spectrum efficiency
1141 would theoretically be maximised, although some experts argue that the diversity
1142 of technologies and their propagation characteristics would make interference
1143 mitigation measures so stringent that parts of the gained spectrum efficiency would
1144 again be lost, for example due to excessive 'largest common denominator' guard
1145 bands and spectrum masks. This Multi-RAT Pool business scenario is still rather
1146 unrealistic at this moment. Therefore, the focus will be on spectrum pool in which
1147 all licensees of just one technology share spectrum by sensing the pool and
1148 occupying appropriate and available frequencies.

1149 To assess business and regulatory issues, the Open spectrum LTE business
1150 scenario has been chosen; in which all LTE licensees share all available LTE
1151 bands. If this scenario is compared to the unlicensed one, the huge differences
1152 immediately become clear. This is an operator-based scenario, which does not
1153 require off the shelf equipment, but expensive industrial scale networks that need
1154 to be used more efficiently because of the huge investments. This being said, it is
1155 incomparable to most other scenarios. For spectrum sensing, it is important to
1156 know that LTE can operate on multiple frequencies, in a variety of frequency
1157 bands and even in various slices of bandwidth ranging from 1.4 MHz up to
1158 20 MHz. Considering that this variety of frequency bands is to be found in the
1159 spectrum pool, spectrum sensing becomes essential in rapidly finding available
1160 frequencies. Furthermore, spectrum sensing could lead to more efficient use of the
1161 spectrum pool, by optimally filling it.

1162 One of the apparent downsides of this model comes down to the willingness to
1163 fairly share between competitors. Imagine five mobile network operators all uti-
1164 lising the same LTE “spectrum pool”. The regulator must guarantee access for all
1165 operators and a fair distribution of the spectrum. A first issue to address here is
1166 how such a fair distribution could be defined. Among other options, the regulator
1167 might take into account the number of mobile subscriptions, and set bandwidth
1168 boundaries accordingly.

1169 A second issue the regulator may struggle with is the actual use of frequencies
1170 for the right purposes. In other words, how can the regulator control whether or not
1171 occupied frequencies are actually used for serving the customers? Furthermore,
1172 how can it act if occupied frequencies are not used for serving customers? It is
1173 needless to say that these issues still have to be resolved on a regulatory level,
1174 before spectrum sensing could ever be implemented in a spectrum pooling busi-
1175 ness scenario.

1176 4.4.3.3 Multi-RAT Market

1177 In this scenario licenses are issued, specific bands are exclusively assigned to
1178 every single licensee and tradability is allowed. In this case secondary users can,
1179 under specific conditions, access the licensee’s frequency band. Again, this is a
1180 very prominent difference with the previously discussed scenarios. Since the
1181 context is again entirely different, different conclusions can be drawn from this
1182 group of scenarios.

1183 For this scenario, two business cases will be explored below: emergency and
1184 public services and TV White Spaces business scenarios.

1185 4.4.3.4 Emergency and Public Services

1186 Every European country has a designated emergency band, for which the emer-
1187 gency operator has an exclusive license. This is the 380–400 MHz band. For
1188 routine situations, this band offers more than an adequate amount of frequencies.

1189 However, in crisis situations, the need for bandwidth exceeds the available band.
1190 Summarised, the emergency operator usually has excess and occasionally experi-
1191 ences a shortage of spectrum. Obviously, the latter could have serious conse-
1192 quences as all radios would have to queue before being able to communicate.

1193 Spectrum sensing could offer two main benefits to solve these problems. First of
1194 all, secondary users could sense the emergency band, looking for available fre-
1195 quencies during routine situations. In return, the emergency operator could receive
1196 compensation. Second, the emergency operator itself could sense for available
1197 frequencies in other bands during times of crisis, when the need for bandwidth is
1198 exceeding the emergency band. Again, the emergency operator would also have to
1199 compensate the primary user (licensee) for utilising its frequencies.

1200 Since crisis situations are impossible to predict, it is crucial that in these rare
1201 cases, the emergency operator can push all secondary users from its frequency
1202 band. The emergency operator would thus require guarantees concerning the
1203 availability of spectrum before opening up its band. Even though most agreements
1204 are bilateral (between the primary and secondary user), the emergency operator
1205 would still want the regulator to be involved. An emergency operator for example,
1206 would want the regulator to first check whether the sensing technology works.
1207 Second, the emergency operator wants regulatory guarantees that the technology
1208 would never fail. Third, the technology for 'pushing' secondary users during crisis
1209 situation should be examined, and lastly, the emergency operator would want the
1210 regulator to do some research on correct pricing and negotiation platforms.

1211 Even if all these conditions are met, the question of which secondary users
1212 would put up with the occasional push, still remains. It is rather unlikely that
1213 mobile operators would risk offering a bad quality of service, with a bad reputation
1214 as a consequence, for a minor spectrum gain in return.

1215 4.4.3.5 TV White Spaces

1216 The TV White Spaces scenario is distinct from the emergency and public services
1217 scenario as the latter is using public spectrum, while this scenario will focus on
1218 commercial spectrum. As the context differs, it becomes clear that these scenarios
1219 cannot be treated equally.

1220 The analog to digital switch over in television broadcasting has had some
1221 positive consequences on spectrum use. As digital signals require less bandwidth
1222 to provide the same or even better quality of television, previously occupied
1223 frequencies become available. Moreover, in many places empty channels exist
1224 between channels used for broadcasting, in order to avoid interference. These so-
1225 called TV White Spaces could be used for other, licensed or unlicensed, services.
1226 Because they are situated in the lower areas of the radio spectrum, these available
1227 channels have very good propagation characteristics, making them well suited for
1228 long range broadband access technologies (e.g. WiMax), particularly in areas
1229 where fixed broadband access is hard to realise. In order to make use of this
1230 potential without refarming the frequencies altogether, the TV band can be opened

up to secondary users, which would scan the licensed band, looking for available channels. If the secondary user wants to make use of the available channel, it has to adhere to certain conditions (such as avoiding interference) and possibly compensate the primary user for using its spectrum band. Not only will sensing allow the secondary user to identify available channels, it will also allow the secondary user to (dynamically) avoid interference [61]. In case the license holder starts to make use of frequencies previously lying idle, the secondary user can again detect this through sensing—possibly aided by a database, as in the U.S.—and move away to other, available channels. Summarised, spectrum sensing would enable efficient use of abundant spectrum. In return, the licensee could receive compensation [62].

It can be assumed that the licensee would be willing to open up its band if correct compensation is foreseen and if the broadcasting of its content does not experience any interference. Secondary users, from their side, would be very willing to access the TV band. They could lease the excess frequencies to deploy mobile services, such as last mile broadband city coverage using IP-based Wi-MAX. For many of these secondary users, spectrum sensing is crucial to find available spectrum portions to operate. Without the existence and detection of these available portions, most of these operators would not be able to transmit any data, as they do not have appropriate frequencies or licenses at their disposal.

Given the fact that licensees would trade frequencies with secondary users, this business scenario deals with the secondary market principle. In the RSPG paper [58] it is proposed that the conditions for such a secondary market should be set by the regulator. However, in case there is only one licensee, a “marketplace model” would be unlikely to be deployed in the future. On the contrary, bilateral contractual agreements between the licensee and the secondary users would be more likely to occur. This also implies less control of the regulator over the trade process. The licensee will most likely be the actor deciding on the different conditions, such as compensation, technical requirements and interference issues. However, the current general regulatory framework should always be taken into consideration, even in case of bilateral contractual agreements.

4.4.3.6 Single RAT Market

For this group of scenarios, a *Secondary Market LTE* scenario is discussed. In this business scenario, only the use of LTE is allowed. As opposed to the *Open spectrum LTE* business scenario discussed earlier, this business scenario does not deal with a spectrum pool, but with exclusively assigned frequency bands that can be conditionally accessed by secondary users. As a consequence, this Single RAT Market should also be regarded as a separate group of scenarios.

The rights of spectrum use, acquired by the primary user, can be traded or leased. In other words, the licensee of a frequency band for LTE use would be allowed to be remunerated by a secondary user, in return for opening up a certain portion of its frequency band. The secondary user would sense this band, looking



1273 for available frequencies. The primary user's motivations would be the compen-
1274 sation it would receive from the secondary user, making up for the high fee paid to
1275 acquire the license to operate in the frequency band. The secondary user's
1276 objectives could be offloading of its own over-utilised bands, better coverage to its
1277 clients on the competitor's network, better quality of service, etc.

1278 On a regulatory note, there has been some discussion about regulatory reform to
1279 be able to allow this secondary market. In the RSPG paper [58] it is proclaimed
1280 that the national regulator can decide on the conditions for such a secondary
1281 market. It is even expected that in the future, a real-time marketplace and nego-
1282 tiation platform could come into place.

1283 Another question that arises in this secondary market model is whether or not
1284 this will create new actors in the telecommunications industry. If a marketplace
1285 would come into place, who would be in control of this market? Would this be the
1286 regulator? Would this be an LTE operator? Or would this even be a third party,
1287 acting as a broker? Would there even be a marketplace accessible for all operators,
1288 or would the secondary market just exist in bilateral relations, when one operator
1289 privately contacts another operator to buy or sell?

1290 In any case, it is believed that the need for a regulator would be less stringent
1291 than in the *Open spectrum LTE* business scenario. Contracts not only set the
1292 technical conditions for entering the primary user's spectrum between operators,
1293 but they also decide on other conditions (such as compensation, duration, inter-
1294 ference limits, Quality of Service guarantees, etc.).

1295 4.4.3.7 Flexible Operator

1296 A last business scenario can be situated in the licensed and exclusively assigned
1297 bands that are not tradable. In other words, the assigned frequency band can never
1298 be accessed by other users. If only one access technology can be used in such a
1299 band, spectrum is used in a static way, similar to the situation today. Since
1300 spectrum sensing would make no sense in such a business scenario, it is of no use
1301 to elaborate on it. However, if multiple technologies can be used, spectrum sensing
1302 could do its part. For this case, an LTE—femtocell handover business scenario will
1303 be analysed.

1304 Femtocells are smart cellular access point base stations that use the Internet as
1305 backhaul. The femtocells are designed to solve the problem of reduced coverage
1306 and data rates, when using cellular technology indoors. Multiple femtocell 'heads'
1307 connect to a base station controller, which performs the handover (between
1308 macrocell and femtocell) and radio resource management. Besides better quality of
1309 service (higher data rates and increased coverage), the use of femtocells can be
1310 advantageous because they are cheap, in terms of CAPEX and OPEX, and require
1311 less power.

1312 Spectrum sensing in mobile phones could be used to connect to better per-
1313 forming networks (femtocells). The network operator would encourage this,
1314 because it can offload its macrocell networks. Furthermore, the operator can save

1315 on OPEX and enjoys customer lock-in, as the bond between end-user and network
1316 operator has tightened, considering the purchase of an operator's femtocell. On the
1317 other hand, the end-user will enjoy better quality of service, guaranteed coverage
1318 and higher data rates, enabling innovative services. Additionally, it could be
1319 possible that he has to pay less for service through femtocells.

1320 The most important actors in this business scenario are, without any doubt, the
1321 mobile network operator and the end-user. Presumably, the end-user already has a
1322 mobile subscription with the mobile network operator.

1323 From a regulatory perspective, not much has to change vis-à-vis the current
1324 regulatory framework. The end-user and network operator play by the rules that
1325 were agreed in their contract. Still, one consideration can be made: a mobile
1326 network operator would want the femtocell to only operate in its own frequency
1327 bands. As a consequence, the operator enjoys customer lock-in. This may be in
1328 conflict with the general regulatory preference of interoperability. A few years ago,
1329 number portability came into place to ensure end-users the freedom to switch
1330 between operators. Therefore, it can be assumed that the regulator would want a
1331 femtocell to serve not for one operator only, but for all operators in the market.

1332 **4.4.4 Conclusion**

1333 The idea that a set of spectrum sensing business classes can be distinguished which
1334 refer to strongly divergent actors and interactions, and subsequently also to dif-
1335 ferent consequences and conclusions, has been tested in this paper. Four business
1336 parameters have been proposed, which are the basis of a business classification of
1337 distinct spectrum sensing classes and scenarios. The purpose of such a classifica-
1338 tion is providing a starting point for future research of spectrum sensing and CR
1339 implementation. Furthermore, such a classification could be of value to business
1340 actors and regulators, as they could use this classification for further analysis and
1341 decision-making.

1342 It is clear that spectrum sensing cannot be managed and regulated as a whole.
1343 Because different business scenarios have different actors, roles and consequences,
1344 this paper indicates that the proposed scenario groups are fundamentally distinct
1345 and incomparable. As a result, conclusions for one set of scenarios should be
1346 assumed to be potentially widely different from other spectrum sensing business
1347 scenarios. In other words, every scenario should be analysed separately to evaluate
1348 its viability and the way spectrum sensing can contribute to this. Future research
1349 will further detail and analyse the fundamentally different business and regulatory
1350 logics behind the proposed classes and scenarios in real-life cases.

1351
1352 **Acknowledgments** The findings presented in this paper are based on research performed in the
1353 IWT ESSENCES project (Flanders, Belgium). Contributions from colleagues and project partners
1354 are here acknowledged, with special contribution from Matthias Barrie.

4.5 Possible Business Opportunities for CR

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It may be assumed that the regulatory regime and the fundamental choices that will have to be made on the use of CR technology will create certain business opportunities and at the same time will pose limitations on other business opportunities for CR and dynamic access to spectrum (see Sect. 5.2 for in-depth discussion on this). There needs to be a fit between the regulatory regime, the fundamental choices on technology and a perceived business opportunity.

Opportunistic spectrum access based on sensing will always have a likelihood of interference and there are no guarantees that an OSA-device can find an opportunity to communicate. This will depend on the amount of OSA-devices and their communication needs in relation to the amount of capacity available. This sets limitations to the use and on the types of applications that can be supported. Since there is no need to build infrastructure there is a match with a device oriented open access regime of a commons. OSA based on sensing is expected to be restricted to low-end applications involving low power devices.

Opportunistic spectrum access can be used to share bands between licensed users and unlicensed short-range devices in bands that were difficult in the classic scenario. A good example of this is the use of the 5 GHz band. RLANs use sensing to detect and avoid incumbent radar systems.

OSA is also of interest to military users but for a completely different reason. A true OSA-device acts solitary without the need for coordination with the outside world. This makes it possible to communicate without making the whereabouts and communication needs of the military radios known to others. This will make their communications less vulnerable.

Since sensing in its present form is not reliable enough, regulators around the world have turned their focus from sensing towards a GDB. This will require investments in a database and related infrastructure that need to be recouped. Entrepreneurs will only invest in this infrastructure if there is long-term assurance for access to spectrum and willingness to pay from customers. This shifts the orientation from a device centric approach to a service centric approach. Such a business case is better supported by a regulatory regime based on property rights.

A possibility to ease the problem of the (un)reliability of sensing is to focus sensing in a band that is not too-wide in a completely unlicensed environment to create a true commons for short range devices. The regulator should pinpoint a band for dynamic spectrum access in cooperation with industry. To reach economies of scale this band could be designated on a regional level, for example on a European level.

A very promising application for a true commons whereby unlicensed devices pool their spectrum is in-house networking. An in-house network is an ad-hoc

network by its very nature. No two in-house networks are exactly alike and devices are turned on and off during the day, new devices are brought in, devices leave the house and the neighbouring houses have the same ad-hoc way of working. The number of wireless devices in a household is rising while the users want to have new equipment that is “plug and play”. A new device that is put into service should be able to find its own possibilities to communicate within the in-house network. OSA can be used to realise this goal. A new OSA device senses its environment and coordinates its use within the local in-house network. A possible band to start is e.g. the 60 GHz band.

A second example of ad-hoc networking is the radio network between vehicles as part of Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITS). Restricting access to the pool for certain applications with a polite cognitive protocol, may alleviate the tragedy of the commons. In that case, the number of devices outnumbers the available spectrum in such amount that the spectrum is of no use to all. However, even if a polite cognitive protocol is used and the band is restricted to a certain type of applications, the amount of spectrum that is made available must be enough to cater for the intended business case.

Another possibility is to use sensing in a more controlled environment between licensed users. This will give more control over the environment, because the users are known. This type of sharing could be used to broaden the amount of accessible spectrum for temporarily users who need a guaranteed Quality of Service. This makes this type of sharing a perfect fit for e.g. Electronic News Gathering and other Programme Making and Special Events services. Electronic News Gathering only requires spectrum for short periods of time and for a restricted local area but it requires guaranteed access during the operation.

Another service that needs guaranteed access to spectrum but only in a very local area and for a short period of time is public safety. Public safety organisations have their own network for day-to-day operations. However during an emergency situation they have a huge demand for communications on the spot [63]. A public safety organisation might make an agreement to alleviate their urgent local needs with other frequency users. In the agreement sharing arrangements are covered but the actual spectrum usage can be based on the local conditions and spectrum sensing of the local use of the primary user.

A good opportunity to start this form of sharing is in bands of the military. The military already have a longstanding practice of sharing with both the ENG community and public safety organisations. This may raise the level of trust to a level that is high enough to start an experiment.

In a true property rights regime dynamic access to spectrum is obtained through buying, leasing or renting access rights from the owners of the spectrum. This regime provides the possibility for active coordination between the incumbent user and the cognitive user about the likelihood of interference, and on guarantees about access to spectrum. If the barriers to instant trading are removed, the opportunity to buy and sell rights to access spectrum can be based on the actual demand for spectrum. This creates the opportunity to use DSA systems for higher valued services, such as mobile telephony, and for a spot market to be introduced.

1443 A spot market is a perfect means to acquire or sell rights to spectrum access based
1444 on the actual demand at any given moment in time.

1445 This property rights regime can be used among operators to pool the spectrum
1446 in such a way that the rights to spectrum access are based on the actual demand for
1447 spectrum by their respective users. One of the suggested implementation scenarios
1448 is that mobile operators use a part of their spectrum to provide the basic services to
1449 their respective customers and pool the rest of their spectrum to facilitate tem-
1450 porarily high demands for spectrum. However, cooperation between mobile
1451 operators that are in direct competition to each other is not likely to happen [64].

1452 This kind of sharing spectrum might be a more viable option for implement-
1453 ation in border areas to ease the problem of border coordination. Nowadays the
1454 use of spectrum in border areas is based on an equal split of the use of spectrum
1455 between neighbouring countries through the definition of preferential rights.
1456 However, there is no relationship with the actual demand for spectrum at either
1457 side of the border. A prerequisite is that the spectrum market is introduced at both
1458 sides of the border or in a region, e.g. the European Union.

1459 Pooling spectrum between different services that are not in direct competition to
1460 each other might be a more promising approach. A property rights regime can help
1461 to make licensed spectrum that is not fully used available to others users. In this
1462 case access to spectrum is based on an negotiable acceptable level of interference,
1463 instead of the worst case scenarios based on harmful interference that are used by
1464 regulators to introduce a new service in an already used band. This may open
1465 bands for alternative use which might otherwise be kept closed. The incumbent
1466 licensee may now have an incentive to open its spectrum for other, secondary,
1467 users. The incumbent licensee is in full control because it can earn money with
1468 unused spectrum, whilst the access to its spectrum of the secondary user is on the
1469 incumbents own conditions.

1470 Licensed owners of spectrum can also grant access to parts of their spectrum
1471 that they do not need in a certain geographic area and/or for a certain period of
1472 time to secondary devices. These devices can get access to this spectrum after an
1473 explicit request for permission to the owner of the spectrum. The owner will need a
1474 mechanism to facilitate requests from secondary devices for permission to use
1475 spectrum. Cellular operators can use their existing infrastructure to handle these
1476 requests. E.g. a mobile operator can set aside a mobile channel for this purpose.
1477 The owner of the spectrum and the secondary user can negotiate their own terms
1478 under which the secondary user may have access to spectrum. This provides
1479 possibilities for active coordination between the incumbent and the secondary user
1480 about the acceptable level of interference and guarantees to access spectrum.

1481 A spectrum market can only function if information about the actual ownership
1482 of the spectrum property rights is readily available to facilitate trading. The reg-
1483 ulator is ideally positioned to perform the task to keep a record of the ownership of
1484 these rights. Inclusion of monitoring information about actual usage of spectrum
1485 can further facilitate trading by giving more insights in the possibilities for sec-
1486 ondary usage.

1487 A second incentive might be to introduce easements in spectrum property
1488 rights. In other words, if a spectrum owner is in possession of spectrum that (s)he
1489 actually does not use, everybody is entitled to use this spectrum in an opportunistic
1490 way as long as the transmissions of the rightful owner are not subject to inter-
1491 ference from this opportunistic spectrum access. This is an incentive which might
1492 prevent market players from hoarding spectrum [65].

1493 A special case of licensed spectrum pooling is pooling whereby a single operator
1494 who is the exclusive owner of the spectrum uses CR technology to perform a flexible
1495 redistribution of resources among different radio access technologies within its own
1496 licensed frequency bands to maximize the overall traffic by an optimum use of
1497 spatial and temporal variations of the demand. This could be used by mobile
1498 operators to realise a flexible spectrum allocation to the various radio access tech-
1499 nologies in use or to have an optimal distribution of spectrum between the different
1500 hierarchical layers of the network. For example to realise an optimal allocation of
1501 spectrum to femto-cells that takes account of the actual user demand without
1502 affecting the macro network. The prime requisite for such a scenario is that the
1503 license from the operator is flexible enough and is technology neutral.

1504 **4.5.1 Conclusion**

1505 CR holds an interesting promise for improved utilisation of the radio spectrum.
1506 However, there is a considerable degree of uncertainty regarding the potential
1507 application of CR. In addressing these uncertainties the business case for the CR is
1508 to be considered as centre point.

1509 Both the regulatory regime under which the CR will operate and the specific
1510 characteristics of the CR technology will pose limitations to the business oppor-
1511 tunities for the CR. Successful introduction of CR will require alignment between
1512 the characteristics of the CR and the regulatory regime under which the CR will
1513 operate. This is further discussed in [Chap. 5](#).

1514 **4.6 Value of TVWS Spectrum and Analysis of Business** 1515 **Feasibility of CR for Mobile Broadband Services**

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1520
1521 In this section we present an overview of approaches for valuation of spectrum and
1522 describe characteristics and differences between valuation of licensed and non-
1523 licensed spectrum. Cost and cost structure for CR are introduced. The impact of
1524 deployment costs and spectrum prices on total costs are illustrated for a number of

1525 business scenarios where deployment using CR is compared to conventional
1526 mobile broadband. Finally we look into uncertainty and risk in terms of control of
1527 spectrum and availability of CR equipment.

AQ3

1528 **4.6.1 Value of Licensed Spectrum and Approaches** 1529 **for Valuation of Spectrum**

1530 **4.6.1.1 Introduction: Industry Transition Push Up Demand** 1531 **for Spectrum**

1532 The on-going transition from a voice to a data centric business is challenging for
1533 mobile operators as it undermines the established business model. This could be
1534 illustrated by the fact that mobile voice generates the equivalent of EUR 240 per
1535 GB while mobile data generates around EUR 5 per GB. This forces operators' to
1536 launch efficiency programs, cut operational expenditures, like network operational
1537 cost. However, in order to cope with the steep traffic growth and capacity con-
1538 strains operators are forced to continue investing despite declining revenues
1539 (Fig. 4.17).

1540 In order to increase capacity spectrum is essential, as spectrum could be seen as
1541 a substitute to additional sites, and secondary spectrum, like CR, could potentially
1542 provide operator with a cost efficient addition of capacity.

AQ4

1543 **4.6.1.2 Valuation of Spectrum and Network Deployment**

1544 The necessity to release more spectrum is at the heart of the most countries digital
1545 agendas. However, Plum Consulting¹ underscores that the majority of spectrum
1546 suitable for mobile communications have been allocated which implies that it is
1547 required to transfer it from other applications in order to make it available for mobile
1548 communications. In order to make these decisions valuation of spectrum is essential.
1549 Consequently, the area of valuation of spectrum generates a growing interest from
1550 industry, operators, consultants, academia, regulators and governments.

1551 Plum presents a review of the value of spectrum licenses, model values based
1552 on expected revenues and costs for a hypothetical operator [66]. The Australian
1553 government (ACMA) applies an opportunity cost modeling, which it defines as the
1554 highest value alternative forgone, but underscores that the opportunity cost pricing
1555 differs according to circumstances [67]. Doyle state that it is necessary to take
1556 account of the opportunity cost values associated with alternative uses and across
1557 different frequency bands used by different users [68]. Yeo estimates spectrum

¹ Plum Insight, August 2013, available at: http://www.plumconsulting.co.uk/pdfs/Plum_Insight_August_2013_The_role_of_spectrum_valuation.pdf

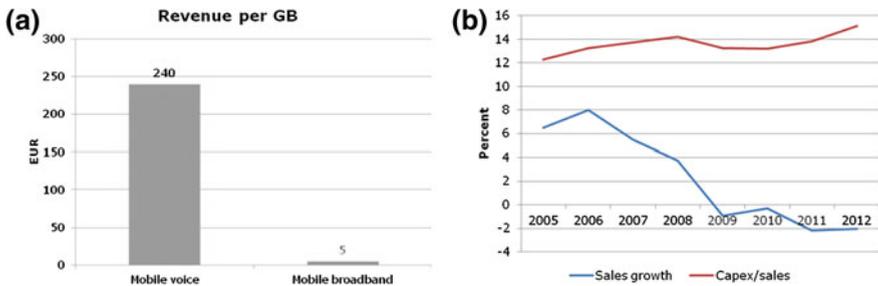


Fig. 4.17 **a** Revenue per GB for mobile in Sweden 2012; **b** Average CAPEX-to-sales and sales growth for European operators 2005–2012, based on an average on company ratios for operators: BT, DT, FT, KPN, Swisscom, Telefonica, and TeliaSonera. **a** Source PTS statistics and authors calculation **b** Source Bloomberg

values based on calculations from auction data and with an analysis of observed bidding behavior through an econometric model [69].

Ard-Paru captures the value of spectrum commons in Thailand through a cost and benefit analysis, in combination with an engineering valuation which could be used as an indicator for the regulator to decide to license spectrum or not [70]. ITU presents an approach to valuation of spectrum in order to facilitate for spectrum regulators to determine reasonable expectations on market-based revenues for the spectrum in beauty contest or administrative distribution processes, and for spectrum auctions to determine reserve prices [71].

Altogether, the valuation of spectrum could be based on the opportunity cost approach as it builds on the fundamental idea to capture the value of the alternative use, or expressed as what have to be forgone when one alternative is chosen rather than another one [72]. Moreover, Doyle [68] underscores that it is challenging to calculate opportunity cost values of spectrum and that it will generate a wide range of estimates.

Given that the value of spectrum is a function of network capacity as spectrum and base stations sites could be regarded as substitutes it is motivated to highlight the fundamentals for network deployment, which is followed in the next section.

4.6.1.3 Coverage, Capacity and Cost

Capacity in mobile networks can be increased by replacing existing radio equipment with more efficient technology, by deploying new base stations or by adding more radio equipment to existing base station sites using additional spectrum. The relation between network costs, capacity, bandwidth and service area has been established by Zander [73], which stipulates that for a specific amount of spectrum and for a specific radio access technology the following relation holds for capacity limited systems: “the deployment of N times more capacity requires N times more base stations”.

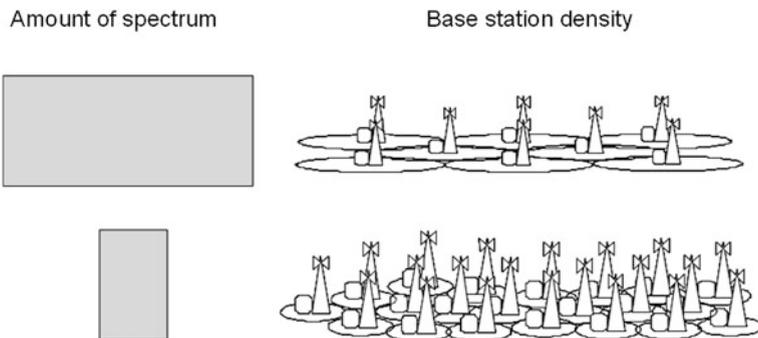


Fig. 4.18 Higher capacity can be provided by more sites or with a larger amount of spectrum

1585 Operators that are unable to obtain additional spectrum are forced to deploy
 1586 more base stations which require more investments compared to competitors who
 1587 can add more spectrum and re-use existing base stations sites. Zander describes
 1588 basic relationships that can be used for comparing different network deployment
 1589 options [9]. For example, if a mobile operator with a 3G network at 2.1 GHz wants
 1590 to expand the capacity one option is to build a denser network using the 2.1 GHz
 1591 band. Another option is to acquire new frequencies in the 1.8 or 2.6 GHz band and
 1592 reuse existing sites. This is feasible since these bands have almost similar prop-
 1593 agation characteristics. Analysis of network deployment and sharing strategies for
 1594 operators with different amount of spectrum and existing number of base stations
 1595 are presented in [74, 75] (Fig. 4.18).

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1596 4.6.1.4 Cost Structure Modeling and Analysis

1597 For macro cellular network deployment the main components in the cost structure
 1598 of the Radio Access Network (RAN) are the base station sites, the radio equipment
 1599 and transmission. It is, however, not the cost of radio equipment that is the
 1600 dominating component in the cost structure. The largest costs are associated with
 1601 the base station sites, including costs for towers, masts, non-telecom equipment,
 1602 power, installations and site leases [76].

1603 When 3G and HSPA system was deployed the costs for the radio equipment (and
 1604 the capacity) were comparable with the site costs. The fierce competition among
 1605 equipment manufacturers in combination with technology advancement has pressed
 1606 down prices on network equipment during the last decade, improving the cost-
 1607 capacity ratio significantly. This enables operators to replace existing radio equip-
 1608 ment with new equipment (LTE) for approximately EUR 10K per base station. This
 1609 can be compared to typical costs of EUR 100K in Europe for deployment of a new
 1610 site and EUR 20–30K for upgrading an existing site with fiber connection [75], see
 1611 Fig. 4.19 for a comparison of site capacity and costs. The most recent base station
 1612 equipment supports three sectors, bandwidths up to 20 MHz and multi-standard
 1613 solutions, e.g. GSM, WCDMA and LTE.

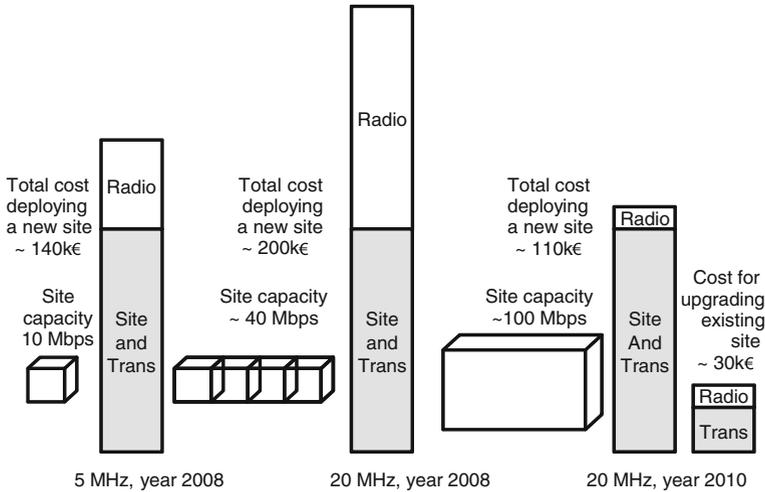


Fig. 4.19 Site capacity and costs illustrating cost reduction by re-use of existing sites [75]

1614 The main driver for network costs is the amount of new sites that needs to be
 1615 deployed. Hence, this is a key aspect when alternative deployment options are
 1616 investigated. The capacity is related to the amount of radio equipment. Additional
 1617 spectrum means that operators can re-use existing sites and hence capitalize on
 1618 existing infrastructure investments.

1619 4.6.1.5 The Overall Approach

1620 The estimation of the opportunity cost of spectrum is based on an analysis of
 1621 network capacity and cost for different network deployment options which use
 1622 different amounts of spectrum. The cost comparison is the basis of the opportunity
 1623 cost of spectrum and represented by the cost savings facilitated by additional
 1624 spectrum bands compared to building out existing networks that provide the same
 1625 capacity as the network with additional spectrum. The approach applied below,
 1626 which is a high system level analysis, builds on [77–79].

1627 The approach has been explored in several papers [80–83] and the applied
 1628 analysis consists of three steps: (1) Selection of the network deployment and
 1629 spectrum allocation cases to compare, (2) Analysis of the deployment cases
 1630 including user demand, capacity and cost structure, and (3) Comparison of net-
 1631 work costs for the options resulting in the opportunity cost.

1632 If operators do not obtain additional spectrum they need to deploy a denser
 1633 network in order to enhance capacity in areas with capacity constraints. The
 1634 operators' strategies for network deployment and spectrum portfolio management
 1635 are vital parts of overall business strategies, which varies between operators
 1636 depending upon regulatory and market conditions and operators' market position.

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4.6.1.6 Calculation of Opportunity Cost

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The user demand expressed as capacity per area unit (Mbps per km²) is based on user density and the data usage per subscriber. It is based on monthly user demand (GB/month) and an approximation on how the usage is spread out over the day. For example, a usage of 5 GB per month spread out over 8 h per day is equal to a continuous demand of 0.05 Mbps per user.² By calculating the demand of all users in the area an estimate is obtained of the total area demand (Mbps per km²). This is compared with the capacity per area unit provided by the base stations, calculated as follows:

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*Site capacity = bandwidth (MHz) * spectral efficiency (bps/Hz) * number of cells/sectors per site.*

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With a LTE system and a re-use factor of 1, i.e. all the frequencies can be used in all cells (or sectors), translating into that with 20 MHz and an average spectral efficiency of 1.7 bps/Hz the capacity for a three sector site is 100 Mbps.

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Total investments to deploy a mobile network are calculated by taking the capital expenditures (CAPEX) for electronics and civil works per site multiplied with the total number of sites. The total cost per site for the active equipment (electronics, radio) is currently around EUR 10K. The cost for civil works is depending upon cost for material and labour implying that the CAPEX is determined by national cost levels. The opportunity cost of spectrum is estimated by analyzing substitution between spectrum and base station sites, and calculating cost savings provided by additional spectrum bands compared to increase the number of sites. The basis is operators' current spectrum holding, and the geographical coverage of the network. It is followed by an estimation of the number of existing sites, and the range of the cell radius. The spectral efficiency gives the basis to calculate network capacity for the different deployment options providing the similar amount of capacity per km².

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4.6.2 Aspects and Approaches for Valuation of Non-licensed Spectrum

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The objective of this section is to highlight the differences between the valuation of licensed and non-licensed spectrum as the "valuation logic" differs substantially. Basically, it makes no sense to apply the opportunity cost approach if the non-licensed spectrum is the only type of spectrum that an actor has. On the other hand it is relevant if the actor has other types of spectrum.

² The estimate of 0.05 Mbps per user is based on a usage of 5 GB per month: $5 * 1024 * 1024 * 8 = 4194304000/30 = (1398101333/24/3600) * 24/8 = 49$ kbps.

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4.6.2.1 Key Differences in Valuation of Licensed and Non-licensed Spectrum

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The valuation of licensed spectrum is based on the opportunity cost approach where the key idea is substitution between spectrum and base station sites. The basic assumption is that the value of the alternative use, or expressed as what have to be forgone when one alternative is chosen rather than another one [72]. The used assumption is that the resulting capacity and availability of spectrum is well defined and stable, this is the case considering licensed spectrum.

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If there is just one type of spectrum used, no opportunity cost analysis is possible. If the actor can use more than one type of non-licensed spectrum a modified opportunity cost approach based on substitution between sites and spectrum could be used. For example TV white space spectrum can be used as replacement or complement to a LTE wide area network or to a WiFi network, i.e. instead of deploying a denser LTE or WiFi network. Estimation the value of non-licensed spectrum applying the opportunity cost approach makes sense if other spectrum resources are available for the operator under study.

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With just one single type of non-licensed spectrum, open access (like WiFi), secondary access (like TV WS) and shared access (some type of LSA), the value is that it enables operators to offer services “at all”. Hence the value of the non-licensed spectrum depends on potential revenues in relation to the costs for exploiting the non-licensed spectrum bands. The costs are both related to the network deployment and to the overall business. Network costs are e.g. to build base station sites and transmission, to rent space in existing sites, to buy and install CR equipment and maybe to develop CR solutions. The overall costs are those typical for an operators business, e.g. to build up and maintain a customer base (i.e. marketing & sales, CRM) and to provide service and billing platforms.

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For the cases where the approach with opportunity costs and substitution of sites and amount of spectrum can be used another type of aspect needs to be considered—different types of uncertainties. Unlike licensed spectrum the use of non-licensed spectrum is uncertain in many aspects, availability, interference level and resulting quality for end-users. In addition, the complexity and implications for cost of the CR equipment is associated with large uncertainties. For LTE base station equipment both the performance and costs are well known, see Fig. 4.20 for a comparison.

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4.6.2.2 How to Estimate Spectrum Value for Non-licensed Spectrum Bands?

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In order to estimate value of non-licensed bands different approaches are used depending on what kind of actor we consider and if that actor can make use of other types of spectrum resources. In the rest of this section we will discuss this situation considering mobile broadband (MBB) services using licensed band and

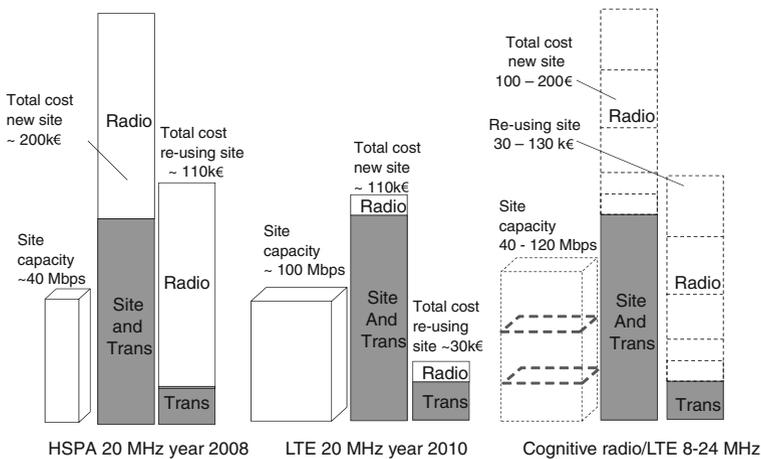


Fig. 4.20 Example of capacity and cost structure for different types of radio access technologies (For the CR solution the indicated variations for capacity and radio costs depend on the amount of available bandwidth and uncertainty about radio complexity and implementation, picture modified from [88])

conventional LTE systems and compare this to a system using TV white space spectrum and CR equipment.

The analysis approach is outlined in Fig. 4.21. It is applicable to both actors with licensed spectrum, i.e. mobile operators, and actors with making use of non-licensed spectrum only. The first steps are common and include: (i) estimation of spectrum availability, (ii) estimation of capacity that can be provided for a specified type of deployment and inter-site distance, and (iii) a check if the supplied capacity can meet the estimated demand. If not, another (larger) site density needs to be applied. When the demand is satisfied the analysis is split into two branches depending on what actor that is considered.

For an actor with just non-licensed spectrum the next step is to estimate the willingness to pay by end-users. The resulting revenues are then compared with the estimated investments for networks and for other components in the operator overall cost structure.

For a mobile operator with licensed spectrum the opportunity costs approach can be used. The two following build out approaches are compared:

1. Build new sites using existing LTE technology and licensed spectrum
2. Re-use exiting sites and deploy new (CR) radio technology using non-licensed spectrum

Below we will in more detail describe the approach in Fig. 4.21 with focus on the common steps and how a mobile network operator can exploit TV WS. For a new actor the spectrum value depends on the potential revenues and the overall business case, this is beyond the scope of the section.

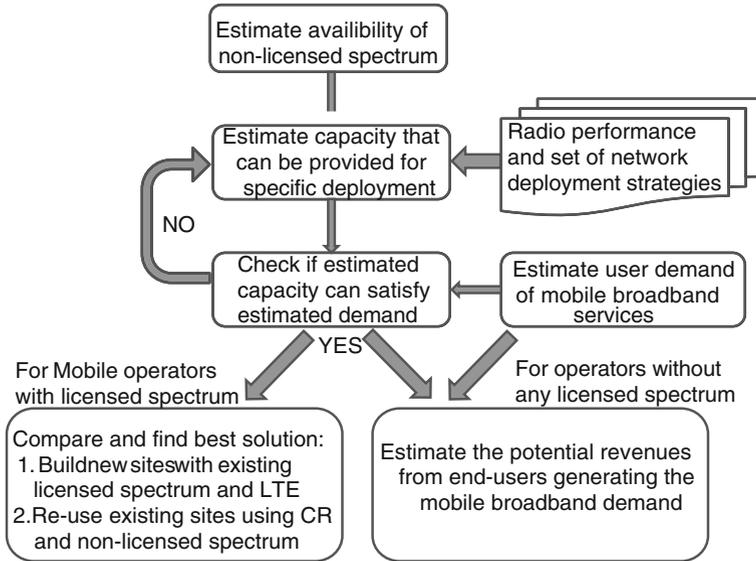


Fig. 4.21 Overall work flow for estimation of value of non-licensed spectrum

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4.6.2.3 Network and Capacity Modeling and Analysis

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Radio access technology

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In order to see if the use of TV WS is feasible we need to do some general modeling of capacity. In this case where we consider “cellular use” of TV white spaces (TV WS) we mean mobile broadband access (MBBA) services. One motivation for this choice is the increasing demand for MBBA services and the relatively low amount of bandwidth that is currently allocated to mobile operators in the 800 or 900 MHz band. For mobile operators TV WS can be used as a complement to licensed spectrum possibly offering improved cost-efficiency. In the 800 and 900 MHz bands TV WS could be used as complement to or as replacement for licensed spectrum.

We assume that the MBBA service will be provided by a radio access technology like LTE with varying system bandwidth up to 20 MHz. We will compare the deployment of networks using the TV WS with deployment of MBBA using LTE in the 800 MHz band. In the analysis we consider cases with a relatively low number of available TV channels, 1–4 TV channels corresponding to a bandwidth of approximately 8–32 MHz.

Availability of TV white space spectrum

In the Quasar project³ the number of available TV channels has been estimated for a number of countries. The number of “un-used” TV channels is very low in most part the country. “Many” TV channels are available in rural areas in northern Sweden, areas where the population density (and demand) is low [84–86].

Please note that the availability of spectrum for secondary use depends on the type of services and the type of network deployment that is used. By using macro base stations with high towers the mobile broad band will cause interference over large distances, hence the spectrum availability is low. If the spectrum is used for indoor deployment using low power base stations then the secondary usage will cause interference in limited area and hence the number of “available” TV channels will be much larger.

For Sweden less than five channels are available in most parts of the country [85]. Only in some rural areas in northern Sweden more than 20 channels are available, in these areas the demand is very low. One and four TV channels correspond to in total 8 and 32 MHz respectively. This can be compared with the spectrum allocation for the frequency bands intended for LTE in Sweden.

- At 800 MHz the operators have 10 MHz (downlink and uplink);
- At 2.6 GHz the operators have 10–20 MHz (downlink and uplink).

Offered capacity

The offered capacity for the mobile broadband access service depends on the available bandwidth and the spectral efficiency. The offered cell capacity in Mbps equals bandwidth (MHz) * spectral efficiency (bps per Hz). The bandwidth depends on the number of TV channels available for secondary access, the spectral efficiency depends on the network deployment and interference from other secondary users. In our estimates we will use cell average values although we know that the spectral efficiency for MBBA depends on the location of the end-user. In Fig. 4.22 the ITU target data rates are shown for the peak, average and cell border values.

The estimated capacity for a base station site with three sectors is $3 * \text{the spectral efficiency} * \text{the bandwidth}$ ($3 * SE * BW$). Both the spectral efficiency and the bandwidth in terms of number of TV channels can vary according to Fig. 4.23. With this model the key parameter is the product $SE * BW$ with the dimension “bits per second”.

The parameter set $\{SE = 1; BW = 8\}$ gives the same results as $\{SE = 0.50; BW = 16\}$ and $\{SE = 0.25; BW = 32\}$. The impact of interference and different cell sizes can be reflected in the spectral efficiency. For deployment in urban and rural areas we can assume spectral efficiency values in the range 0.50–2.0 and 0.25–0.50 bps per Hz respectively. The lower spectral efficiency for deployment in rural areas combined with a larger bandwidth (more available TV channels) results in values of the product “ $SE * BW$ ” in the same range as for urban deployment.

³ <http://www.quasarspectrum.eu/>

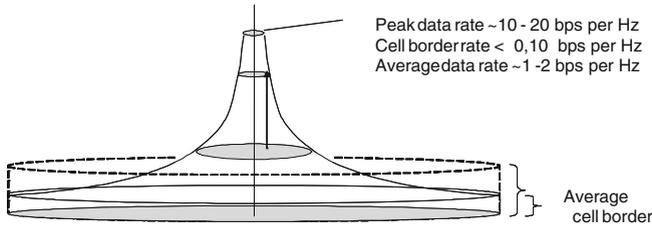


Fig. 4.22 Spectral efficiency target values for LTE

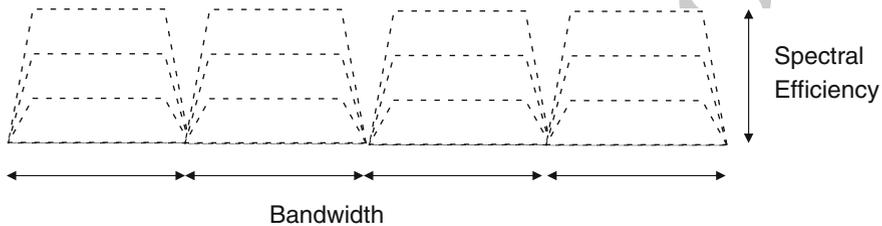


Fig. 4.23 Bandwidth and spectral efficiency

Modeling of user demand

For dimensioning of mobile broadband access we define the user demand as the capacity needed per area unit expressed as Mbps per km². This equals the average usage per user times the number of users per area unit. Mobile data usage is the amount of data sent and received per user during one month and usually expressed in GB. For Europe the smartphone users typically consume 0.1–1 GB per month and laptop users with dongle consume 1–10 GB. The usage needs to be expressed in terms of data rates. Assuming that the data is consumed during 8 h per day all days a monthly demand of 10.8 GB corresponds to an average data rate of 0.1 Mbps. Hence, a monthly usage of 0.1 GB, 1 GB and 10 GB per month roughly corresponds to 1, 10 and 100 kbps respectively.

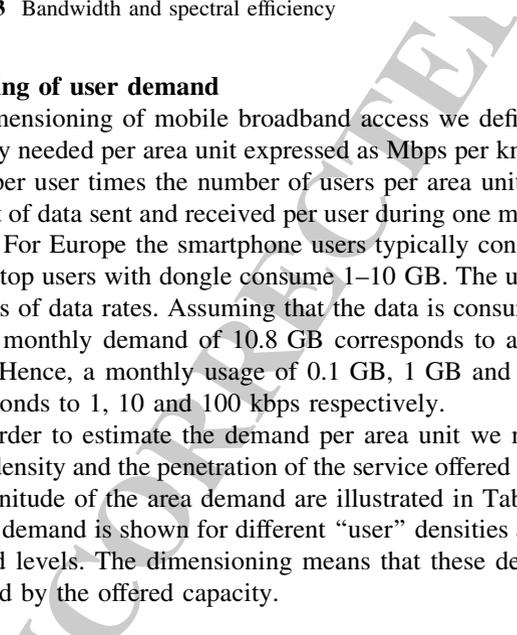
In order to estimate the demand per area unit we need to consider the population density and the penetration of the service offered by the provider. The orders of magnitude of the area demand are illustrated in Table 4.2.

The demand is shown for different “user” densities and for users with different demand levels. The dimensioning means that these demand numbers need to be matched by the offered capacity.

Analysis of demand and offered capacity

We consider cases where quite few TV channels are available. One and four TV channels correspond to 8 and 32 MHz which can be compared to the deployment of 800 MHz networks with bandwidth in the range of 5 MHz–20 MHz.

In Table 4.2 we presented examples of the user demand depending on the number of users per area unit and the usage level per user. The user demand in



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Table 4.2 Examples of required capacity as function of number of users and usage level

Geotype	Users per km ²	Area demand for different usage levels (Mbps/km ²)		
		0.1 GB/month	1 GB/month	10 GB/month
Rural	10	0.01	0.1	1.0
Suburban	100	0.1	1.0	10
Urban	1,000	1	10	100
Metro	10,000	10	100	1,000

Table 4.3 Examples of user demand and offered capacity per area unit assuming different coverage areas per site and spectral efficiency * bandwidth (SE * BW)

	Number of users per km ²	Area demand (Mbps/km ²)	Coverage area per site (km ²)	Capacity (Mbps/km ²) for varying SE * BW		
				2	8	32
Rural	10	0.1–1.0	100	0.06	0.24	0.96
Suburban	100	1.0–10	10	0.60	2.4	9.60
Urban	1,000	10–100	1.0	6.0	24	96
Metro	10,000	100–1,000	0.1	60	240	960

1815 these scenarios, expressed as Mbps per km², is compared to the offered capacity.
 1816 The assumed bandwidth (BW) is in the range one to four TV channels and the
 1817 spectral efficiency (SE) is in the range 0.25–1.0. As mentioned elsewhere, the key
 1818 parameter for the capacity estimates is the product SE * BW, see Table 4.3. We
 1819 have assumed deployment scenarios where the cell size differ an order of mag-
 1820 nitude when it comes to coverage area.

1821 The comparison indicates that for the assumed usage and user densities and
 1822 coverage areas of sites the demand can reasonably well be met with bandwidth
 1823 corresponding to a few TV channels. With 32 MHz quite high demand levels can
 1824 be met. When demand and supply can be matched the deployment strategy needs
 1825 to be examined in more depth. The cell size and the site density need to be
 1826 considered from a cost perspective.

1827 The conclusion of this analysis is that since the offered capacity can meet the
 1828 estimated demand the assumed type of deployment can be used for further
 1829 assessment. The actor using on TV WS needs to look into revenues and the overall
 1830 business cases. A mobile network operator needs to investigate what deployment
 1831 options that is best, to make use of the TV WS spectrum re-using existing sites or
 1832 to build a denser network using licensed bands. This is to be discussed next.

1833 **4.6.2.4 A Trade-Off for Mobile Operators: To Build a Denser Network** 1834 **or to Use More Spectrum**

1835 For addition of more capacity mobile operators have two main options. To use
 1836 more spectrum and upgrade existing base stations sites with new radio equipment
 1837 or to use existing spectrum bands and to build a more dense network, i.e. to add

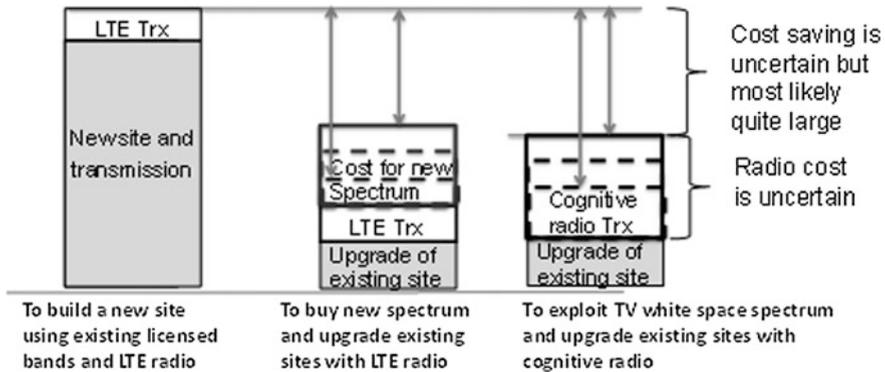


Fig. 4.24 Illustration of cost relations for mobile operators that want to add more capacity using existing licensed spectrum, new licensed bands or TV white space bands

1838 more base station sites. As an alternative to buying licensed spectrum operators
 1839 may use secondary spectrum access and hence some type of CR.

1840 To add more sites are more costly since towers etc. dominates the cost structure
 1841 of base station sites. The value of more spectrum in general is illustrated in
 1842 Fig. 4.24. The price of licensed spectrum can vary a lot [81]. For cases in Europe
 1843 an estimated “spectrum cost per site” is equal to or less than the cost of the radio
 1844 equipment. Hence, operators can make substantial cost savings by using more
 1845 spectrum, no matter if it licensed bands or bands exploiting secondary access are
 1846 used.

1847 Also for use of secondary access to spectrum the major cost savings result from
 1848 the fact that no new base station sites are needed. It is not the zero spectrum costs
 1849 that it is the main issue even if this has a larger impact for cases where the
 1850 spectrum prices are very high. The costs for CR equipment are uncertain but
 1851 anyway costs savings can be substantial as illustrated in Fig. 6.18. The use of
 1852 secondary access would be interesting for mobile operators for another reason.
 1853 This type of added capacity is used as complement to licensed spectrum bands.
 1854 Actors using secondary access to spectrum as the only resources are much more
 1855 vulnerable. On the other hand mobile operators may hesitate to include yet another
 1856 type of solution and technology, this will be discussed more below in the section
 1857 investments and risk.

1858 The impact of network deployment and spectrum costs will be illustrated in the
 1859 next section. The total network costs are studied both for fixed used demand and
 1860 varying amount of spectrum as well as for fixed amount of spectrum and varying
 1861 user demand.

1862 **4.6.3 Case: Impact of Deployment Costs and Spectrum** 1863 **Prices on the Business Viability of Mobile Broadband** 1864 **Using TVWS**

1865 In this subsection spectrum valuation will be illustrated by looking into the
1866 business feasibility of mobile broadband access services using secondary access of
1867 spectrum in the TV bands. The capacity-cost analysis considers costs for radio
1868 equipment, base station sites and radio spectrum comparing network deployment
1869 by a market entrant and an existing mobile operator using either licensed spectrum
1870 or TV white spaces. In addition, the impact of high and low spectrum prices is
1871 considered. The analysis shows that market entrants will be in a more difficult
1872 position than the established actors. No matter the cost-capacity performance of
1873 CR equipment, a new operator needs to invest in a new infrastructure with sites
1874 and transmission. Only for cases where the spectrum costs are “high” (compared
1875 to other cost components) use of TW white spaces turn out to be more cost
1876 efficient for both existing operators and new operators [87].

1877 **4.6.3.1 Case Description, Models and Assumptions**

1878 We consider cases for urban and rural network deployment where we compare the
1879 overall network costs for a market entrant and an existing mobile operator using
1880 either licensed spectrum or TV white spaces. The impact of spectrum prices is
1881 illustrated using examples from Europe and India.

1882 **Spectrum costs**

1883 It is often claimed that one driver for secondary use of spectrum is that the cost of
1884 spectrum can be avoided. This is only partly true; it depends on the spectrum price
1885 in relation to other network costs. Comparing recent auctions in different countries
1886 we can identify large differences. The spectrum cost per site for the Swedish case
1887 is in the same range as the radio equipment whereas in India the spectrum cost per
1888 site is as large as the costs for base station sites, see Table 4.4.

1889 **4.6.3.2 Coverage and Capacity of Base Station Sites**

1890 The assumptions regarding coverage are shown in Table 4.5. The user demand is
1891 satisfied by adding sufficient capacity to each site. When the demand cannot be
1892 met with the available amount of spectrum new sites need to be deployed, i.e. the
1893 more bandwidth the fewer number of sites. In the analysis we will show how the
1894 overall network cost depends on: (i) the amount of available spectrum (for a fixed
1895 demand) and (ii) the user demand (for a fixed amount of spectrum). For both the
1896 licensed spectrum and the TV white spectrum we assume that we use a LTE type

Table 4.4 Example of spectrum prices, data from [84]

Case	Bandwidth (MHz)	Spectrum price (€/MHz/pop)	Cost/Site (k€)
Germany 2.6 GHz	20	~0.05	~1
Sweden 800 MHz	10	~0.50	~10
India metro areas 2.1 GHz	5	~5	~100

Table 4.5 Network assumptions

	Urban environment	Rural environment
(Coverage Area [km ²], Radius [km])	(1; 0.56)	(100; 5.65)
Sectors/base station site	3	3
Bandwidth [MHz]	20	20

Table 4.6 Assumptions of user demand

	Urban area Sweden/India	Rural area Sweden/India
#Users/km ²	2,000/20,000	100/1,000
Usage GB/month/user	10/1	10/1
Demand (Mbps/km ²)	200/200	10/10

of radio access technology with an average spectral efficiency of 1 bps per Hz. For the capacity estimates we assume three-sector sites and a re-use factor of 1.

User demand

The dimensioning is based on the estimated user demand per area unit (Mbps/km²). We assume that the data is “consumed” during 8 (equally) busy hours 30 days per month, see Table 4.6.

Costs for radio equipment and base station sites

We can compare mobile broadband systems using TV white space with deployment in the 800 MHz band. Although the uncertainty is high when estimating costs for CR equipment, some insights can be gained if we consider the overall cost structure for the network deployment. In Fig. 4.25 we consider two main components of the cost structure for a radio access network; the radio equipment and “the sites and transmission”. In Sweden the cost for deployment of a macro base station site is typically in the range 50–200 k€, we assume a cost of 100 k€ for deployment of a new site. According to Telenor the cost for upgrading existing sites with a fibre connection is estimated to 20 k€ per site [75].

The cost-capacity ratio of commercial radio equipment has improved more than 20 times the last few years. This is illustrated in Fig. 4.25 where HSPA and LTE are compared. For CR we still do not have any cost numbers, in then analysis we assume twice the cost for the same spectral efficiency as LTE, i.e. 20 k€. Factors that may drive costs for CR are: large system bandwidth, additional systems for sensing, interference management, need to add data bases, and no large scale production. Even if the cost for CR equipment would be the same as for standard

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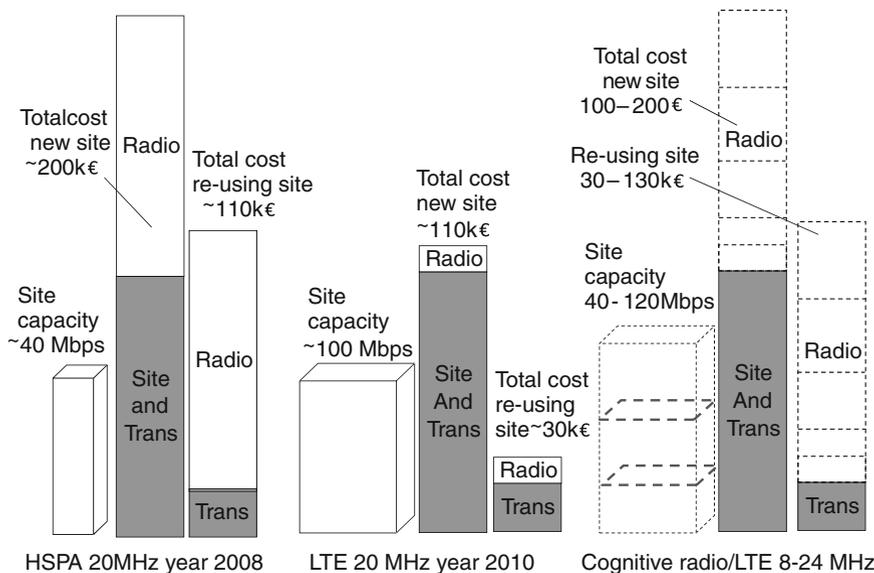


Fig. 4.25 Example of capacity and cost structure for different radio access technologies, for the CR the variations for capacity and radio costs depends on the amount of available bandwidth and uncertainty about radio complexity and implementation, from [87]

1921 LTE base stations, the key issue is if new sites need to be deployed or not. In this
 1922 case the problem is mostly a matter of market entry. In addition to deploying a
 1923 totally new infrastructure, a new actor needs to invest in and build up marketing,
 1924 customer base, service and billing platforms.

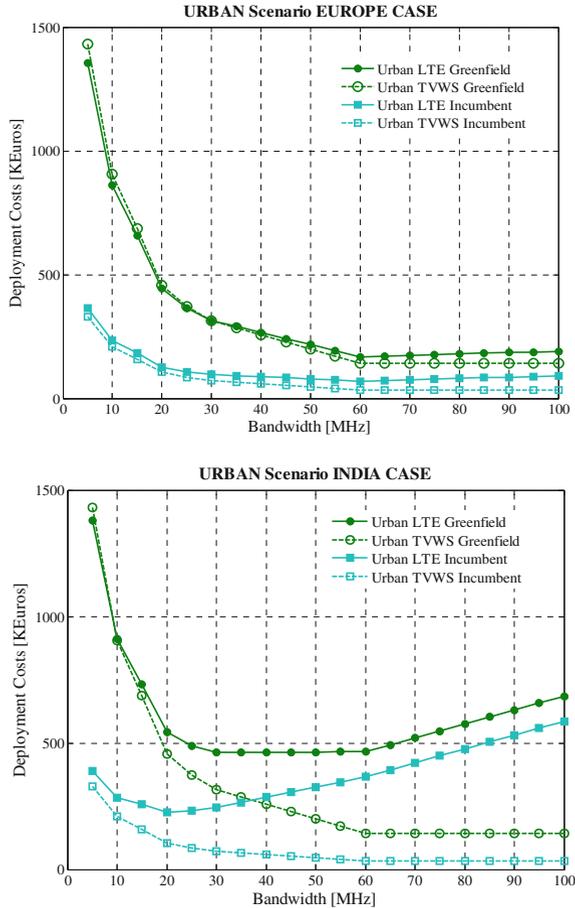
1925 4.6.3.3 Performance Analysis: Impact of Cost Structure

1926 We have assumed scenarios where a Greenfield and an Incumbent operator deploy
 1927 networks in order to provide mobile broadband services. Two options are available
 1928 for the operators; first, it is to run their networks by using licensed spectrum (this
 1929 means to acquire new spectrum licenses) and second, to use TVWS and only
 1930 upgrade the network sites with CR equipment. Assuming a fixed demand and
 1931 varying the amount of bandwidth that each operator gets, we show the impact of
 1932 this additional spectrum bandwidth on deployment costs.

1933 The more spectrum the less sites are needed. Hence the costs decrease with
 1934 increasing bandwidth, this is clearly visible for low bandwidths. The impact of
 1935 spectrum price can be seen for higher levels of bandwidth, see Fig. 4.26. For the
 1936 low spectrum price levels (European case) a small increase can be observed but for
 1937 the high price levels (India case) the networks costs increase dramatically. With
 1938 the used assumption there is minimum for a specific amount of licensed spectrum.

1939 Besides the costs for sites, radio equipment and spectrum the result depends on
 1940 the demand levels and the assumed coverage areas. Hence, we present a sensitivity

Fig. 4.26 The costs are shown as a function of system bandwidth assuming *low* and *high* spectrum prices (Europe and India respectively) and an urban environment with demand of 200 Mbps/km² and a base station coverage area of 1 km²



1941 analysis where we vary the user demand and the base station coverage. In Fig. 4.27
 1942 we illustrate the impact of lower demand and here the same cost minimum can be
 1943 observed. In Fig. 4.28 we show the cost assuming a smaller coverage area for “high”
 1944 spectrum prices. In this case a large number of sites are needed and hence the site
 1945 cost is dominating. For lower spectrum prices, the graphs with lower demand levels
 1946 and smaller coverage areas are similar to Fig. 4.28.

1947 Now we will vary the demand for a fixed bandwidth of 20 MHz. The costs will
 1948 increase with demand but the interesting thing is to identify the differences
 1949 between the deployment cases. Figure 4.29 illustrates how a Greenfield operator
 1950 building up its network from scratch has higher costs than the incumbent operator.
 1951 The difference is largest for the low demand levels where the incumbent can make
 1952 use of existing sites. For the assumed levels of site costs, radio costs and spectrum
 1953 price the Greenfield operator always has higher network costs, even when CR and
 1954 TV white spaces are used. For the case where the spectrum prices are “high”, the
 1955 situation is different, see Fig. 4.30. Use of TV white spaces (no spectrum cost)

Fig. 4.27 Examples of deployment costs illustrating “Fixed demand and varying amount of spectrum”, The costs are shown as function of system bandwidth assuming *low* spectrum prices (Europe) and an urban environment with demand of 50 Mbps/km² and *large* base station coverage area (1.0 km²)

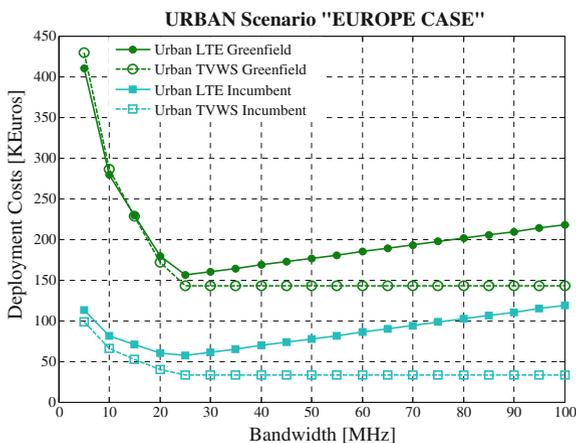
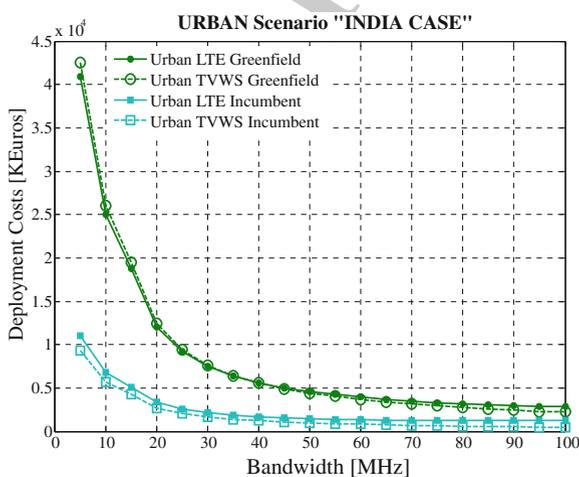


Fig. 4.28 Examples of deployment costs illustrating “Fixed demand and varying amount of spectrum”. The costs are shown as function of system bandwidth assuming *high* spectrum prices (India) and an urban environment with demand of 50 Mbps/km² and a *small* base station coverage area (0.2 km²)



1956 results in lower costs for both the incumbent and the Greenfield operator but the
 1957 incumbent has lower costs.

1958 4.6.4 Uncertainties and Risks

1959 This subsection elaborates on risk and uncertainties in the deployment of new
 1960 technologies, such as CR. The perspective is techno-economic implying that all
 1961 parts of the system have to be available in order for the system to function. This is
 1962 illustrated by the introduction of new standards and the significance of investments
 1963 in terminals for how it influences the development of the mobile technology
 1964 system.

Fig. 4.29 Examples of deployment costs illustrating “Fixed amount of spectrum and varying demand”. Network costs as a function of a varying demand in an urban environment assuming *low* level of spectrum cost, 20 MHz of spectrum and coverage area of 1 km² per site

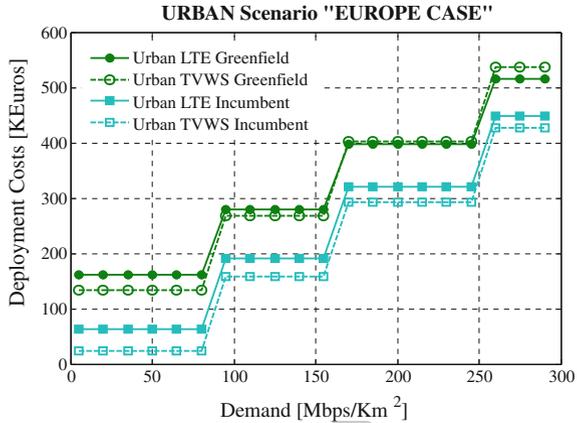
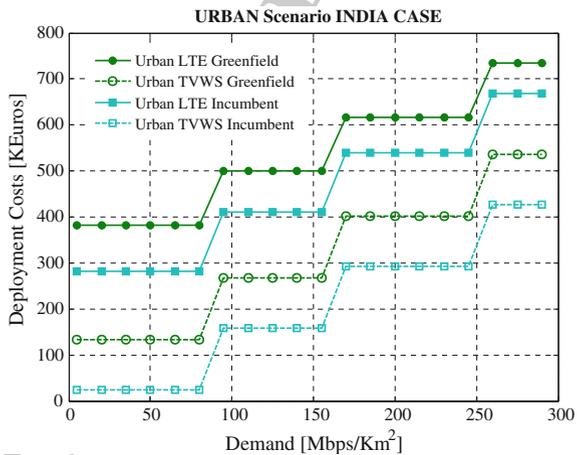


Fig. 4.30 Examples of deployment costs illustrating “Fixed amount of spectrum and varying demand”. Network costs as a function of a varying demand in an urban environment assuming the *high* Indian level of spectrum cost, 20 MHz of spectrum and coverage area of 1 km² per site



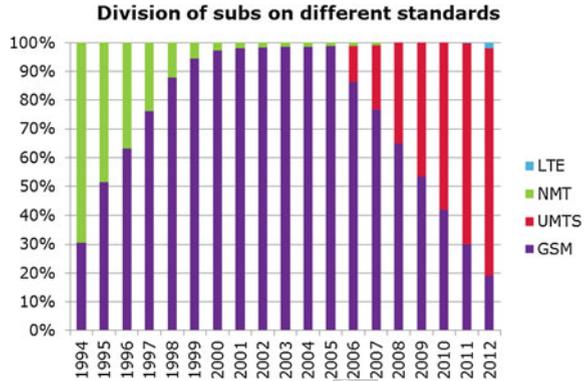
4.6.4.1 It Takes Time to Establish New Mobile Standards on the Market

As mobile communication is a network technology it consists of a number of subsystems. Focus is predominately on network equipment, provided by equipment manufacturers, which have transferred specifications of radio technology standards into the equipment that are manufactured. The advancement of the technology has facilitated multi-band radio enabling operators to easily migrate to new system technologies. But the commercial migration to new technologies requires that end customers have access to appropriate terminals. The historical development of mobile communication has demonstrated that it takes time for new technologies to be established on the market, see Fig. 4.31.

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Fig. 4.31 Distribution of the total mobile subscriber base in Sweden. *Source* Svensk telemarknad, PTS



An illustration of this is that NMT, the analogue Nordic Mobile Telephone system, which was launched in the 1980's had its peak in 1995, 3 years after the official launch of GSM. But as handsets for GSM were not available in commercial volumes when GSM networks were completed it took another couple of years before GSM took off.

UMTS (3G) was initially planned to be launched in Europe in 2001, but the lack of terminals delayed the market introduction and the sales of GSM terminals peaked in 2005. The fact is that it was not until 2009–2010 that 3G made up more than half of the handset market in Sweden. Moreover, TeliaSonera was among the first operators in world to launch LTE when it opened its network in December 2009, but the inflow of 4G subscribers was minimal due to limited availability of dongles and terminals was an issue for the future .

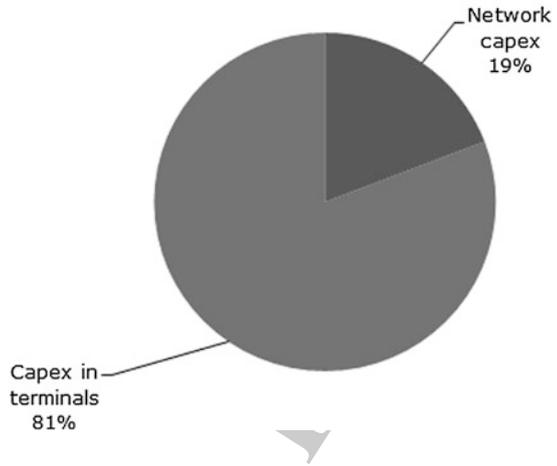
The initial growth of 4G in Sweden has been slow, although TeliaSonera got competition on 4G in 2012 when a new network opened, and the total share of 4G subscribers were 0.2 % 2011 and 1.9 % 2012.

Although the major focus is on investments (capital expenditures) made by operators the requirement on end-customers is that they have to purchase new terminals in order for a new technology to be established on the market. Based on reported CAPEX made by operator during 2012 and the value of the terminal market, which is derived from the number of sold handsets in Sweden multiplied with the average selling price we can relate these numbers it is possible to obtain the figure for the total investments. The comparison demonstrates that the consumers' investments in terminals surpass CAPEX provided by operator with four times, see Fig. 4.32. Altogether, the data illustrates that the implementation of new standards is commonly a stretched out process impacted by the introduction of terminals, and determined by the end consumers' willingness to pay for new equipment.

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Fig. 4.32 Comparison between network CAPEX and consumers investments of terminals 2012. *Source* operator reports, authors calculations and MTB, the mobile telephone industry

Network capex compared to terminal capex



4.6.4.2 Four Factors that Have Implications on CR

Although mobile communication is a technology driven industry investment decisions taken by operators is nowadays governed by financial targets and scrutinized by investment committees and top management in order to safeguard appropriate return on investments. This means that investments and thereby deployment of CR face a number of challenges of which we have identified four factors which we analyse in the following.

Factor 1—It takes time to establish new standards on the market

The introduction of mobile standards, such as GSM, WCDMA, LTE, takes time and the migration from older to newer standards is a stretched out process as the life cycle for older technologies often is prolonged and reach its peak after the new technology has been introduced, as elaborated in the previous section. Given that the mobile industry has matured and operators nowadays are managed with financial targets as a key priority it would be challenging to persuade management to invest and launch CR.

Factor 2—Multiple standards increase complexity

Operators in Europe are currently operating networks with at least three parallel standards—GSM, WCDMA and LTE—which are not optimal for an efficient operator. Although CR could contribute with additional capacity it would add more complexity rather than to streamline the current operation. It also requires a long-term commitment as history show that it takes long time to establish a new standard on the market. This implies that management has to see the merits in CR and be determined that it could contribute with something that the other standards are not able to, which is a challenging task.

Factor 3—Financial commitments calling for additional CAPEX

It requires a financial commitment for operators to deploy a new technology demanding extensive capital expenditures over a number of years. Investments into a new network are irreversible and thereby sunk which implies that management has to be convinced that investments in CR will pay off and deliver a return of investments in line with the financial targets. With declining revenues operators are scrutinizing their investments decision very carefully and make prioritizations meaning that investments in CR come on top of other investments.

The price deflation on network equipment, which has been driven by competition, technology advancement and economy scale, facilitates for operators to acquire network equipment for the established standards for around EUR 10K per site. The cost for civil works and passive infrastructure makes up the larger part of CAPEX budgets. Given the uncertainty for the volumes of equipment for CR it would rather cost more compared to standardized equipment. This implies that CAPEX budgets has to be extended and accepted in investment committees, which could be challenging as management would rather see higher cash flow than to explore new technologies and increase CAPEX budgets.

Factor 4—Consumers' are the biggest investors

The operator business of today is characterised by standardised products, marketing of services and competition on attracting new customers. The basic principle is to have a large and growing customer base in order to generate a cash flow. The previous section has demonstrated that the end customers' investment in terminals represents the majority of the total investments for mobile systems.

This implies that operators have to persuade the end-customers to not only sign up as subscribers but also to pay for terminals. Although operators could provide various financing options for the acquisition of terminals the end customers has to be convinced by the merits of the offers. The global smartphone trend has demonstrated that economy of scale is essential as its offers customers' good value and enables them to reach internet and unlimited amount of applications while being on the move.

Altogether, this underscores that terminals play a decisive role in the mobile communications system and the availability of terminals that could handle CR is a prerequisite for establishing a business case for the new technology. But given that it will take time before economy of scale could be reached the case for CR could be difficult as end-customers have to be persuaded to pay substantially more for CR terminals compared to standardised smartphones, which are now falling in price.

4.6.4.3 Concluding with an Example

We illustrate the reasoning with a case where we have two operators, of which one is using licensed spectrum and the other is using CR. The case concerns a network for a country with 10 million inhabitants, a mobile penetration rate of 90 % and

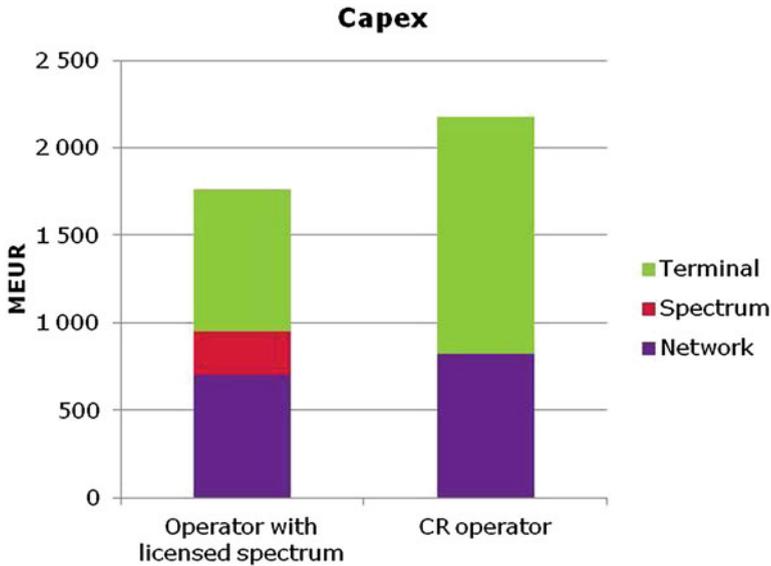


Fig. 4.33 CAPEX for standardized mobile network compared with an operator with CR

Table 4.7 Summary of different spectrum access options, selection building on [89]

Aspect	Access using licensed bands	Unlicensed open access	Secondary spectrum access	Licensed shared access
Availability for use	Full	Good	Varying	Full
Radio complexity	LTE type	WiFi type	>LTE	=LTE
Radio cost	LTE type	WiFi Type	>LTE	=LTE
Availability of base station equipment	Standardized, available	Standardized, available	Unclear, low availability	Standardized, available
Availability of user devices/equipment	Standardized, available	Standardized, available	Not available	Standardized, availability
Risk for operators	Low	Medium	High	Quite low

2071 market share of 30 % for the operator, where the operator using exclusively
 2072 allocated spectrum has paid the equivalent of EUR 0.50 per MHz/pop for
 2073 2×50 MHz, while the operator with CR has no cost for spectrum. We calculate
 2074 with 10K sites where half is green field sites and the other half is using existing
 2075 sites.

2076 Capex for the green field sites is EUR 100K, while the CAPEX for radio
 2077 equipment is EUR 10K for the standardised radio and EUR 20K for CR. More-
 2078 over, we estimate the cost for smartphones to be in the mid of the range of EUR
 2079 200–400 while the range for CR capable smartphones is estimated to be EUR
 2080 400–800 for smartphones for CR. The aggregated CAPEX is EUR 1760 m for the
 2081 operator with licensed spectrum and EUR 2175 m for the CR operator (Fig. 4.33).

2082 Altogether, this reinforces the conclusion that the cost for spectrum make up the
2083 least part of the CAPEX budget while the cost for terminals is majority of the total
2084 investment. This underscores that the success of CR really has to contribute to the
2085 consumers benefits and they have to be persuaded that the standardised smart-
2086 phone is not sufficient and that they rather should choose terminals that have a CR
2087 capability. This requires that the price points make sense for the end-consumers
2088 and that are persuaded to invest more than what they otherwise would have done.
2089 This will be very challenging as the end customers as well as operators are pri-
2090oritising low cost and low risks.

2091 *4.6.5 Summary Assessment of Spectrum Access Options*

2092 When we summarize the business feasibility characteristics for CR solutions the
2093 result is not that encouraging. The cost of CR currently would be larger than
2094 similar commercial LTE or WiFi systems due to larger complexity. In addition the
2095 low level of usage and availability of CR equipment contribute to higher risk for
2096 operators using this technology. Other solutions for use of non-licensed spectrum
2097 band, WiFi and Licensed Shared Access (LSA), make use of existing technology
2098 and hence mean lower risk for operators, see Table 4.7.

2099 We can also see that that the value and the usefulness of CR solutions are
2100 different for different types of actors. Existing mobile operators (with licensed
2101 spectrum too) that use secondary access and CR have an advantage over new
2102 actors. First, exiting operators can re-use the existing base station sites whereas a
2103 new actor needs to deploy a new infrastructure. Second, a mobile operator using
2104 secondary spectrum access as a complementing resource, new actors using CR
2105 usually only the secondary access as the main spectrum resources and hence are
2106 more vulnerable.

2107 Although a mobile operator may see potential savings in overall network costs a
2108 number of potential drawbacks can be identified. The mobile operator may hesitate
2109 to include a new type of technology in the networks. The option to use an existing
2110 standard (e.g. LTE) in another licensed band may see as a more straight-forward in
2111 order reduce the number of standards. In addition, new user terminals and devices
2112 with CR need to be developed marketed and adopted by consumers. Since CR
2113 equipment is more complex and produced in smaller quantities than existing radio
2114 technologies the products will be more expensive which would be a major obstacle.

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