

# PROPAGATION MEASUREMENTS USING SYNTHETIC APERTURE RADAR TECHNIQUES

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*Abstract:* Measured complex impulse responses at 1 GHz in mountainous terrain is processed as data from a synthetic aperture array, thus identifying the power reflected from the terrain at various bearings and distances from the receiver. Thus we assign a reflection coefficient and corresponding intensity to each of the triangular faces in the terrain data base. A 3-D plot of the terrain thus shows a "radio eyes" (bistatic radar) view of the mountainside.

The reflection coefficient from each triangular face has also been determined theoretically using the generalized Lambertian rough surface scattering model of [4], and agrees well with the measured data (correlation coefficient 0.88).

Using this scattering model, we have estimated the impulse response (multipath delay profile) in mountainous terrain directly from topographical map data. The estimated impulse response agrees well with the measured response, thus establishing confidence in the model. Such estimates can help to select cell site locations and antenna configurations to minimize the delay spread.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Our objective is to use topographic data bases to obtain cell site coverage maps which includes the multipath delay profile as well as the signal strength. Such maps may be used to predict the signal quality (bit error rate) or outage probability as a function of receiver location for digital cellular radio systems. The best cell layout may thus be determined by computer experiment rather than actual measurements.

This objective may be achieved by using a scattering model to establish a reflection coefficient to each triangular face (surface element) in the terrain data base, and tracing all rays from transmitter via each face to receiver. The reflection coefficient will depend on the angles of incidence and reflection, surface roughness and other parameters of the surface element, and may be characterized statistically [1][2][3].

A generalized Lambertian scattering model defined by Oren [4] is found to yield results which correspond with measured data in Vancouver, Canada. The topography includes steep mountain slopes to the north, causing significant power in long delay multipaths at 1 GHz [5][6][7][8]. The data was recorded at 100 locations forming a crossed synthetic aperture array, using a 10 Mb/sec sliding correlator, thereby yielding complex impulse responses for the multipath channel with time resolution of 50 nsec.

The data was processed using minimum variance distortionless response (MVDR, also referred to as Linear Constrained Minimum Variance (LCMV)) as described in [5][12]. Details of the cross-array signal processing are given in Appendix A. The LCMV angle versus distance results are converted into distance versus distance results plots to coordinate the actual points of reflection with the topographical data.

## II. SCATTERING MODELS

The terrain is represented by a geographical data base of elevations  $z$  as a function of position  $(x, y)$ . The points  $(x, y, z)$  define the vertices of triangular regions or patches of terrain  $S_k$  with known orientation. Following [5][6], the channel impulse response is

$$h(t) = \sum_k \rho_k e^{j\phi_k} \delta(t - \tau_k) \quad (1)$$

where  $\tau_k = (r_{TS_k} + r_{S_kR})/c$  is the absolute delay of the path from  $T$  via the  $k$ -th scatterer  $S_k$  to  $R$ , and

$$|\rho_k|^2 = \frac{\lambda^2}{(4\pi)^3} \frac{\sigma_k^0 dA_k}{r_{TS_k}^2 r_{S_kR}^2} \quad (2)$$

where  $\sigma_k^0$  is the normalized scattering cross-section of the patch  $S_k$  with area  $dA_k$ .  $\sigma_k^0$  is related to the albedo  $R$  of  $S_k$ . In practice, the contributions to  $\rho_k$  from all patches for which  $\tau_k$  is constant within the resolution (bandwidth) of the system are summed together.

For a mountainous region, all  $S_k$  are modelled as rough surface scatterers or diffuse reflectors. We consider both the Lambertian scattering model and the generalized non-Lambertian model of [4] for the  $S_k$ .

Other models for  $\sigma_k^0$  are described in [9][10][11]. The Lambertian model assumes

$$\sigma_k^0 = \frac{R}{\pi} \cos\theta_{i,k} \quad (3)$$

where  $\theta_{i,k}$  is the angle of incidence relative to the normal vector  $\hat{n}_k$  which defines the orientation of the  $S_k$ .  $R$  is assumed constant for all  $S_k$ . For fixed  $\theta_{i,k}$ , the reflectance does not change as the observer moves.

The generalized model of [4] (Oren model) assumes that each  $S_k$  with area  $dA_k$  is comprised of many Lambertian facets  $da$  with different orientations  $\theta_a$  (V-cavity model, Figure 1a) such that  $\lambda^2 \ll da \ll dA$ . This assumption is appropriate for  $S_k$  on mountain slopes with vertices on a 100 meter grid and a wavelength  $\lambda \simeq 33$  cm. For isotropic surface roughness, the Oren model assumes that the fraction of area that is occupied with facets with orientation  $\theta_a$  with respect to  $\hat{n}_k$  is Gaussian distributed with mean 0 and variance  $\sigma^2$ . In this model, the reflectance of the surface increases as the observer approaches the source direction. This may be seen by considering a single V-cavity (Figure 1b) with two Lambertian facets and an arbitrary source direction  $\theta_i$ . The difference in reflectance between the brighter and darker of the two facets increases with  $\theta_i$ . As the observer moves towards the source direction ( $\theta_r \rightarrow \theta_i$ ), the fraction of brighter area increases while that of the darker area decreases. Consequently, the total brightness increases. This illustrates that a rough Lambertian surface modeled as Figure 1a is non-Lambertian in reflectance, i.e. for fixed  $\theta_i$ , the reflectance DOES change as the observer moves.

Thus in the Oren model, the reflectance of each  $S_k$  depends on  $R$ , the angles of incidence ( $\theta_i, \phi_i$ ) and reflection ( $\theta_r, \phi_r$ ),  $\sigma^2$ ,  $\alpha = \max[\theta_r, \theta_i]$ ,  $\beta = \min[\theta_r, \theta_i]$ , and statistical fitting parameters  $\delta = 0.33$ ,  $\epsilon_1 = 0.09$  and  $\epsilon_2 = 0.13$ . These parameters were obtained via a functional approximation as described in [4]. The model includes a factor  $K_1$  which accounts for direct reflection from the facets and  $K_2$  for the interreflection between adjacent facets. The result in [4] (dropping subscripts  $k$  on the angles) is

$$\sigma_k^0 = \frac{R}{\pi} \cos\theta_i (K_1 + K_2) \quad (4)$$

where

$$K_1 = C_1 + \cos(\phi_r - \phi_i) C_2 \tan\beta \quad (5)$$

$$+ (1 - |\cos(\phi_r - \phi_i)|) C_3 \tan\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right) \quad (6)$$

and the coefficients  $C_i$  are defined as:

$$C_1 = 1 - 0.5 \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \delta} \quad (7)$$

$$C_2 = 0.45 \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \epsilon_1} \sin\alpha \quad (8)$$

if  $\cos(\phi_r - \phi_i) \geq 0$ ,

$$C_2 = 0.45 \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \epsilon_1} (\sin\alpha - (2\beta/\pi)^3) \quad (9)$$

if  $\cos(\phi_r - \phi_i) < 0$ ,

$$C_3 = 0.125 \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \epsilon_1} \frac{4\alpha\beta}{\pi^2} \quad (10)$$

$$K_2 = 0.17 \frac{R^2}{\pi} \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \epsilon_2} \left[ 1 - \cos(\phi_r - \phi_i) \left( \frac{2\beta}{\pi} \right)^2 \right] \quad (11)$$

A simplified model neglects  $K_2, C_3$  and uses one equation for  $C_2$  to obtain

$$K_1 = C_1 + C_2 \tan\beta \max[0, \cos(\theta_r - \theta_i)] \quad (12)$$

Note that when the variance  $\sigma^2 = 0$ , the model of [4] reduces to the Lambertian model.

From numerical evaluations in [4], we see that  $\sigma_k^0$  increases as the viewing direction approaches the source direction. In the backward (source) direction  $\sigma_k^0$  is maximum and gets cut off due to strong masking effects when  $\theta_r > \theta_i$ . In the forward direction, interreflections dominate since most facets are self-shadowed so that the visible facets receive radiation primarily from adjacent facets.

### III. RESULTS FROM MODEL AND MEASUREMENTS

In this section, we compare  $\sigma_k^0$  obtained by measurement with those predicted by the two models. The measured results were obtained using the data and methods of [5]. The model results assume that all facets on the mountain slope have a constant value of  $R$  which was chosen for best fit with the measurements.

Figure 2 shows a perspective view of the topography. The map covers locations  $(x, y) = (-6310, 4500)$  to  $(4290, 9500)$  meters with transmitter and receiver coordinates off the map at locations  $(x, y) = (0, 0)$  and  $(2035, -1272)$  respectively. The values of  $\theta_i, \theta_r, \phi_i, \phi_r$  are determined for each  $S_k$ . The measured reflectivity of each  $S_k$  is represented by the grey scale of the boundary lines. The main reflection is seen to be the steep mountain slope where the angle of incidence and reflection are approximately equal. A figure for the model reflectivity is similar.

The differences between model and measurements are difficult to see without color, since the folds in the terrain compete with the reflection intensity grey scale. Thus we consider a top view of the topography looking straight down where the  $S_k$  appear uniformly spaced on the  $(x, y)$  grid. Figure 3 shows the contour lines of the topography viewed from above, and Figure 4 shows the corresponding measured reflectivity. The scale is relative, and has not been calibrated to absolute values of  $\sigma_k^0$ . The reflectance predicted using the Oren

scattering model is shown in Figure 5, and using the Lambertian model in Figure 6. In Figures 4 and 5, the white areas are not visible from the transmitter or receiver. It is clear that the Oren model results correspond more closely with the measurements than the Lambertian model.

We also compare the measured and model reflectivities of each  $S_k$  as a function of  $\theta_i$ . Figure 7 shows that the Oren reflectivities are spread over a range of values due to the dependence on  $\theta_r$  and  $\phi_r - \phi_i$  in (4)-(11). This spread is narrowed with decreasing  $\sigma^2$  to become a single Lambertian curve (3) for  $\sigma^2 = 0$ . Figure 8 shows that the measured results are spread in a fashion similar to the Oren model. The correlation coefficient of the  $\sigma_k^0$  of the measurements and model is 0.80 for the Lambertian model and 0.88 for the Oren model.

The predicted impulse response  $|h(t)|^2$  for the Oren model is compared with the measured response in Figure 9. These preliminary results, over a limited range of delays determined by the map area of Figure 3, show that the Oren model prediction agree well with the measurements.

#### IV. SUMMARY

The results show that the Oren scattering model [4] can be used successfully to predict the impulse response in mountainous terrain using only two parameters: the albedo of a triangular patch of terrain, and the variance of the orientation of the facets within the patch with respect to its normal. The Oren model with a variance of zero reduces to the Lambertian model. The results show good agreement using only a single value of these parameters for all terrain patches. Thus, in mountainous terrain, it may not be necessary to further refine the model by choosing different parameters for each patch, depending on the ground cover and mineral content. However, it remains to be determined if objects on the mountain slopes such as buildings or metal objects have a significant effect on the predicted impulse response.

#### APPENDIX A CROSS-ARRAY SIGNAL PROCESSING

Consider two set of linear arrays crossing each other, the centers of the horizontal and vertical sub-arrays being coincident and consisting of  $M$  and  $N$  sensors spaced equally at a distance  $d$ .

The wavelength is equal to  $\lambda = \frac{c}{f_0}$ , where  $c$  is the speed of light and  $f_0$  is the frequency of the wave. Assuming the reference phase of the center sensor  $x_{\frac{M-1}{2}}$  or  $y_{\frac{N-1}{2}}$  is taken to be zero, the wavefront reaches the element  $x_0$  before element  $x_1$  by a distance equal to  $d \cos \alpha$ , and the difference in the phase is  $\frac{2\pi d \cos \alpha}{\lambda}$ . The phase of  $y_{\frac{N-1}{2}}$  advances the phase of the center sensor by  $\frac{2\pi d \sin \alpha}{\lambda}$ .

Let  $s$  be a directional vector corresponding to the DOA of the wavefront be  $\alpha$ , then we have

$$s(\alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-j \frac{\pi d \cos \alpha}{\lambda} (M-1)} \\ e^{-j \frac{\pi d \cos \alpha}{\lambda} (M-3)} \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ e^{j \frac{\pi d \cos \alpha}{\lambda} (M-3)} \\ e^{j \frac{\pi d \cos \alpha}{\lambda} (M-1)} \\ e^{-j \frac{\pi d \sin \alpha}{\lambda} (N-1)} \\ e^{-j \frac{\pi d \sin \alpha}{\lambda} (N-3)} \\ \vdots \\ e^{j \frac{\pi d \sin \alpha}{\lambda} (N-3)} \\ e^{j \frac{\pi d \sin \alpha}{\lambda} (N-1)} \end{bmatrix} \quad (13)$$

Let  $w$  be a weight vector  $w = [w_0, w_1, \dots, w_{M+N-1}]^H$ , and let  $u$  be a received vector

$$u = [x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{M-1}, y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{N-1}]^H$$

For the conventional beamforming method the power spectrum as a function of DOA  $\alpha$  is given by

$$S_{BF}(\alpha) = s^H(\alpha) R s(\alpha) \quad (14)$$

where  $R$  is the  $(N+M) \times (N+M)$  correlation matrix  $R = E[uu^H]$ .

For the MVDR technique we introduce a constraint condition

$$w^H s(\alpha_0) = 1$$

The optimization criterion is to minimize the average energy of the array output  $z = w^H u$ . It is easy to show that the optimum weight  $w$  is

$$w = \frac{R^{-1} s(\alpha_0)}{s^H(\alpha_0) R^{-1} s(\alpha_0)}$$

The MVDR spectrum for the cross-array is given by

$$S_{MVDR} = \frac{1}{s^H(\alpha) R^{-1} s(\alpha)} \quad (15)$$

Spatial smoothing and phase drift corrections are described in [12].

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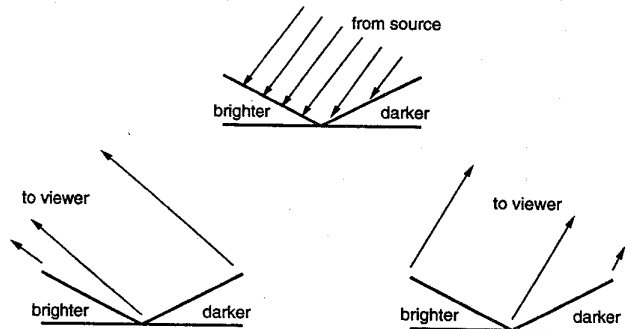
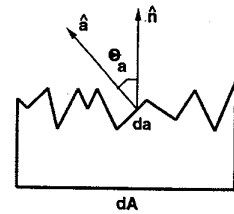


Figure 1  
Surface modeled as a collection of V-cavities

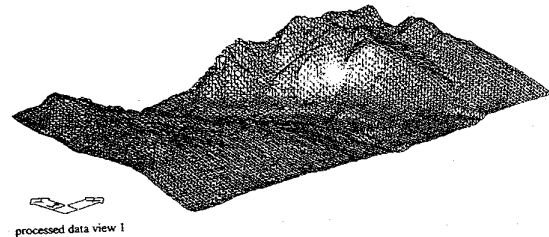


Figure 2  
Perspective view of terrain

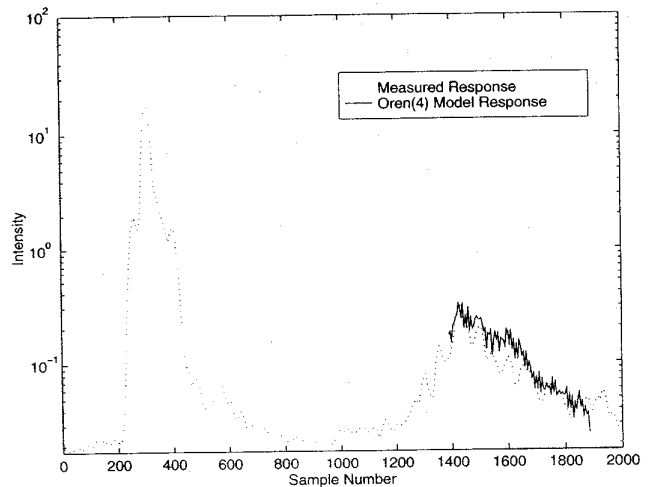


Figure 9  
Measured and predicted impulse response

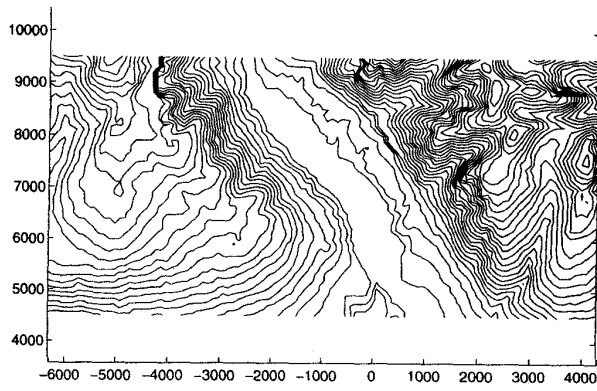


Figure 3  
Terrain contours

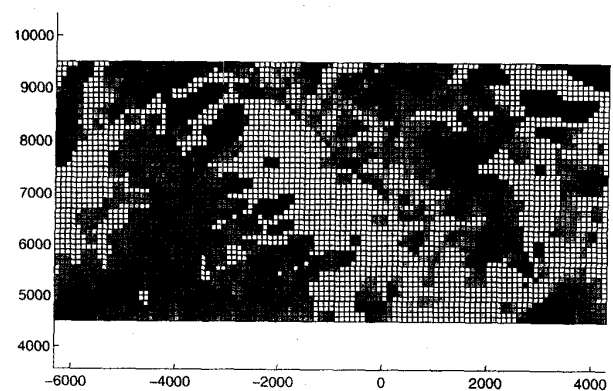


Figure 4  
Measured reflectivities

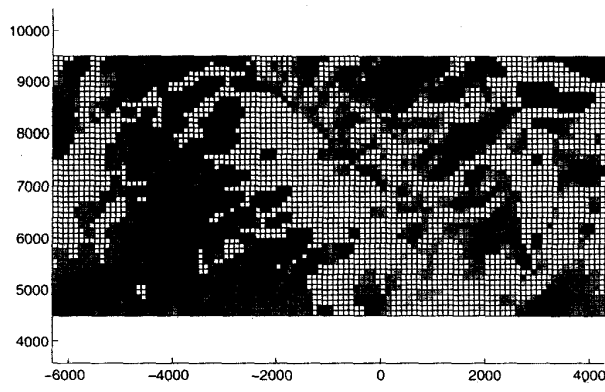


Figure 5  
Oren model reflectivities

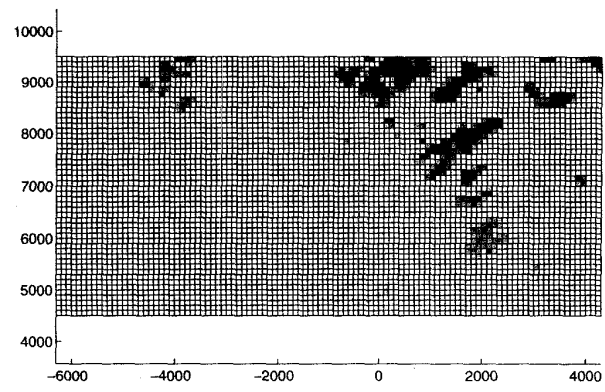


Figure 6  
Lambertian model reflectivities

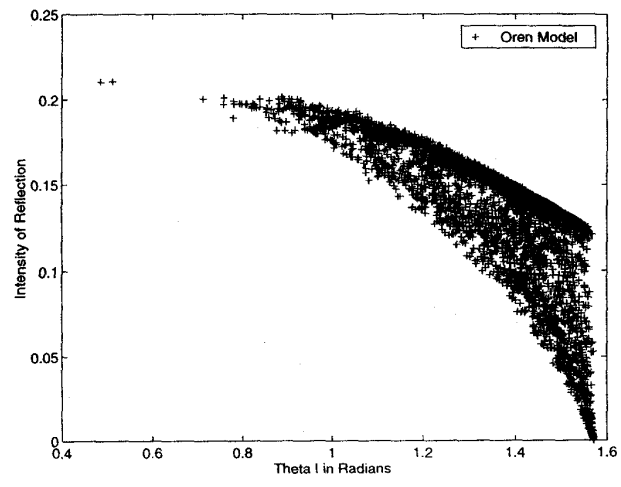


Figure 7  
Oren model reflectivities versus angle of incidence  $\theta_i$

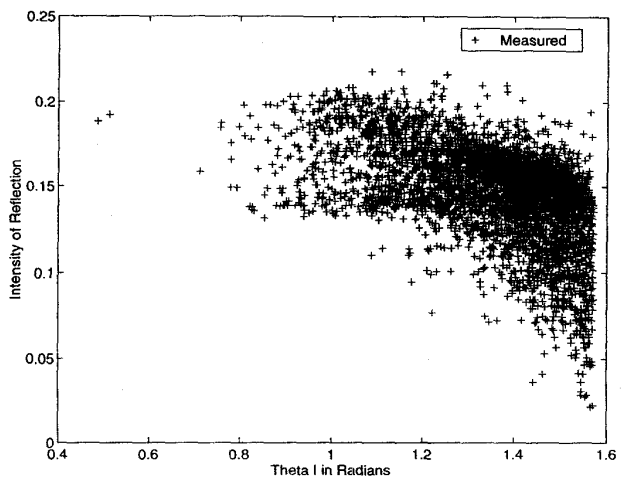


Figure 8  
Measured reflectivities versus angle of incidence  $\theta_i$