



# Sonar Implementation Concepts

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#### **Outline**

- The sonar environment
- Typical sonar block diagram
- Brief tour of some topics covered in much greater depth in other courses:
  - signal representation
  - beamforming
  - signal detection
- Passive processing
- Active processing







#### References

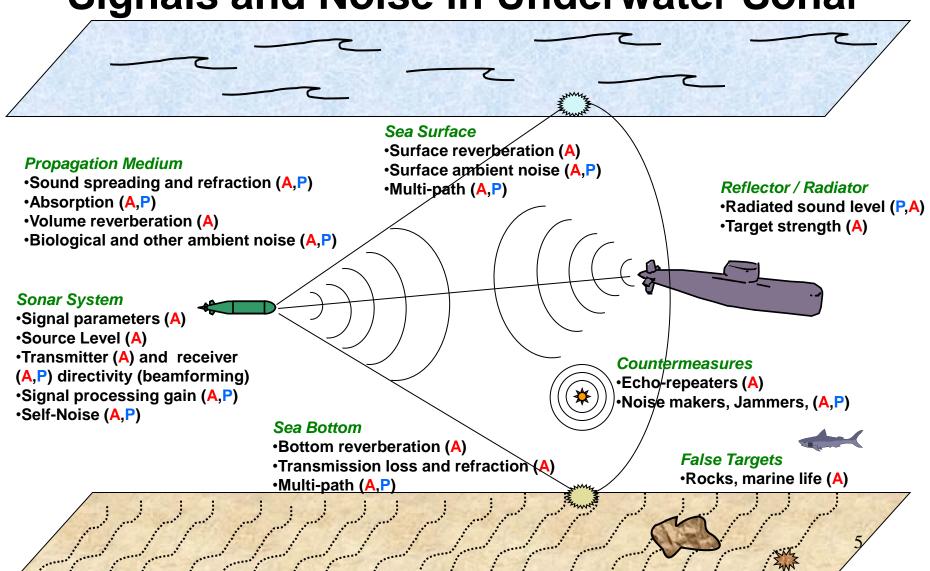
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# The Sonar Environment and the Sonar Equation

# Signals and Noise in Underwater Sonar







#### **The Sonar Equation**

- The Sonar Equation represents our confidence about our ability to decide if a signal is present or not.
- Details of the equation are derived using our knowledge of physics, signal processing and statistical decision theory.
- The Sonar Equation, in its simplest form, is:

Signal Power > Decision Threshold





#### **Decibels**

- Sound power per unit area in an acoustic wave is sound intensity.
- For progressive plane waves, sound intensity is proportional to the square of sound pressure.
- Sound power is often expressed in decibels, and is always given in relation to some reference. So a signal level ("sound pressure level"), in dB, is related to the signal pressure:

 $S = 20^* log_{10}(Signal Pressure/Reference Pressure)$ 

 The reference pressure most often used in underwater acoustics is 1 micro Pascal.



## The Sonar Equation (Cont'd)

- Signal-to-Noise ratio SNR is sometimes referred to the input to the sonar system (i.e. "in the water").
- The sonar equation is usually expressed in decibels as a difference:

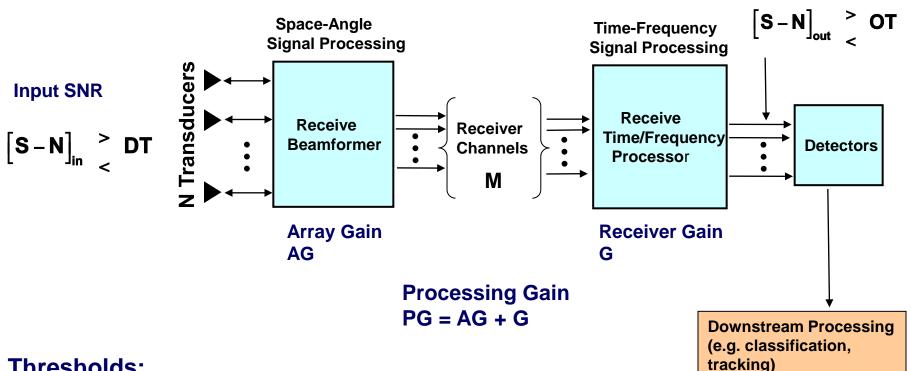
- In the above,
  - [S N]<sub>in</sub> is the signal to noise ratio, expressed in dB, at the input to the sonar system.
  - DT is called the input Detection Threshold.
- The sonar equation can also be written relative to the receiver output at the point where a detection decision is made.





# Sonar Signal Processing Gain

#### **Channel Output SNR**



#### Thresholds:

**DT = Input Detection Threshold** 

OT = Receiver Output Threshold

OT = DT + PG





## **Sonar System Gains and Losses**

- An active sonar transmits sound, or a passive source radiates sound, at a given source level.
- Sonar equation usually expressed in terms of SNR at some point internal to sonar system (beamformer output or receiver input).
- In analyzing the radiated or reflected sound, gains and losses intrinsic to the sonar system must be accounted for:
- Losses may include
  - Transmit and receive beam pointing errors' effects on signal
  - Signal processing losses ("mismatches" of all kinds)
- Gains may include
  - Beamforming reduction of noise ("array gain")
  - Receiver signal processing gain





## The Sonar Equation (Cont'd)

#### With

Receiver Output Threshold (OT) = Input DetectionThreshold (DT) +
Sonar Processing Gain (PG)

- OT depends on desired statistical reliability of receiver and its design characteristics.
- PG generally depends on the sonar array characteristics, the characteristics of the particular signal being received, and the type of noise that predominates.
- The Sonar Equation at the receiver output becomes

$$[S - N]_{out} - OT > 0$$

$$[S - N]_{out} = [S - N]_{in} + PG$$





## **Sonar Equations (Continued)**

Active Sonar:

```
S = TL - (20*log_{10}(R) + \alpha*R) + TS - (20*log_{10}(R) + \alpha*R)
      = TL - (40*log_{10}(R) + 2*\alpha*R) + TS
      where TL = transmitted level;
              TS = target strength;
               \alpha = absorption loss coefficient
   N = 20*log_{10}(N_{ambient} + N_{reverb} + N_{self} + N_{target})

    Passive Sonar:

   S = SL - (20*log_{10}(R) + \alpha*R)
      where SL = radiated level of passive source
   N = 20*log_{10}(N_{ambient} + N_{self})
```





## Signal Sources

#### Active:

- Received signal is an attenuated and distorted version (echo) of the transmitted signal
- "False targets" and reverberation are echoes of the transmitted signal off of discrete and distributed environmental reflectors

#### Passive

 Sound radiated from a target can be from machinery, flow noise, target sonar, and other sources





#### **Attenuation**

- Sound is attenuated by spreading and absorption
  - Sound spreads out geometrically from its source and again upon reflection
  - Absorption in salt water is frequency dependent.
    - Higher frequencies suffer greater absorption loss.
    - Absorption loss is negligible in fresh water
- Active sonar suffers a two-way attenuation loss





#### **Noise Sources: Ambient**

- Ambient noise is the noise that exists in a particular part of the water irrespective of the presence of the sonar or the target
- Sources:
  - Thermal
  - Biological
  - Noise from the surface: wind, waves, rain
  - Shipping
- Ambient noise is location, depth, wind speed, and frequency dependent
- Simplest ambient noise model is isotropic; real ambient noise is often direction dependent





#### **Noise Sources: Reverberation**

- Reverberation is the echo of the transmitted signal off of the environment:
  - boundaries surface and bottom reverberation
  - scatterers in the water volume reverberation
- Reverberation is directly proportional to signal energy and duration.
- Reverberation varies as 20\*log(r) + 2αr (volume);
   30\*log(r) + 2αr (boundary)
- Due to scatterer motion, spectrum of reverberation is spread in relation to signal spectrum





#### **Noise Sources: Self Noise**

- Self Noise is the noise that the sonar and its vehicle make
- Sources:
  - Electrical usually the lowest noise in the system
  - Machinery may be coherent from channel to channel
  - Flow through the water incoherent from channel to channel
- Flow noise is usually the dominant source of self noise for a moving sonar system
- Flow noise varies as 70\*log(v/v<sub>ref</sub>) (where v is the sonar platform's velocity and v<sub>ref</sub> is a reference velocity)





## **Noise Sources: Target Radiated Noise**

- Target radiated noise can interfere with active reception. Is often the means of detecting a target passively
- Noise varies widely in strength with source type
- Noise can have a wide variety of spectral shapes
- Noise varies as 20\*log(r) + αr





## **Target Echo**

- The target reflects a replica of the transmitted signal
- The echo level is proportional to the transmitted source level.
- The proportionality "constant" is target strength (TS), a complex measure of the sound reflecting attributes of the target.
- Target echo varies as 40\*log(r) + 2αr
- Target echo spectrum of a moving target is doppler shifted relative to transmitted signal 19



# Sonar System Block Diagram





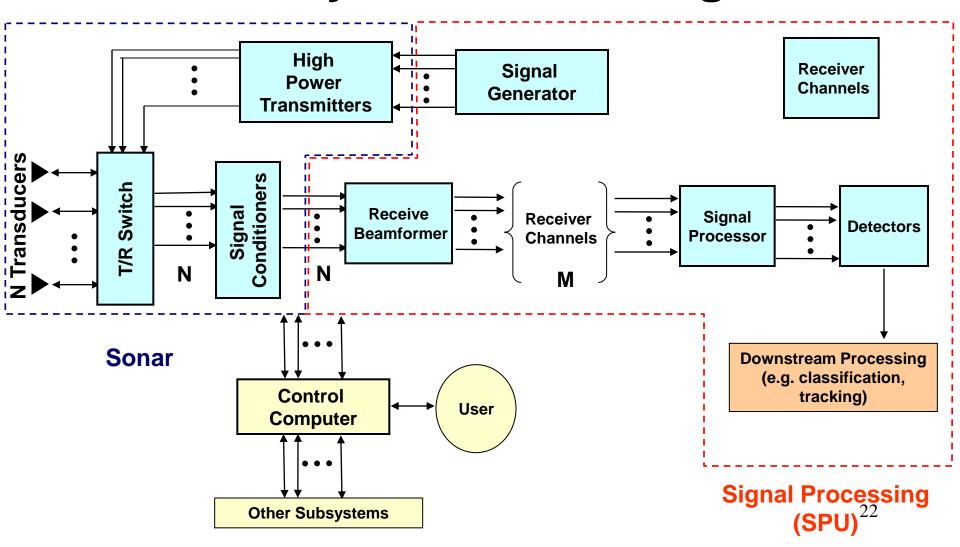
# **Sonar System**

- A sonar system may be part of a larger system, say an autonomous vehicle, with other subsystems (autopilot, propulsion, etc.)
- Sonar systems can contain both a transmitter and receiver, sometimes using the same transducer hardware.
- Often broken down into units of the sonar hardware itself, and a signal processing unit (SPU).





# Sonar System Block Diagram







# **Control Computer**

- Maintains control of all sonar subsystems
- Works in concert with other subsystems,
   e.g. tactical, autopilot, propulsion
- Receives and executes commands from the user. These "commands" may be a suite of programmed behaviors for autonomous vehicles.





## **Transducers**

- Interface between the ocean and the sonar electronics
- Converts sound to electrical impulses and vice-versa
- Can be a linear, planar, or volumetric array
- Transducer functions:
  - Transmit
  - Receive
- Many transducers perform both functions





# **Transducer Transmit Properties**

- Converts electrical signals to acoustic signals
  - Response given as:

pressure at a distance for a given voltage or current drive dB re 1uPa @ 1m re 1 volt. Generally a function of frequency

- Requirements/Considerations:
  - High power → low impedance
  - High efficiency
  - Amplitude and phase matched and stable for use in arrays
  - Low 'Q' for wideband operation





## **Transducer Receive Properties**

- Converts acoustic signals to electrical signals
  - Response given as:

voltage out for a given pressure at the transducer dBv re 1uPa. Generally a function of frequency

- Requirements/Considerations:
  - High sensitivity
  - Low noise
  - Amplitude and phase matched and stable for use in arrays
  - Low 'Q' for wideband operation



# Transmit/Receive (T/R) Switch

- Connects the transmitter to the transducer for active transmissions
- Receiver must be protected from the high transmit power
- T/R switch accomplishes this via switching and isolation circuitry
- Receiver can still be susceptible to transmitter noise coupling through T/R switch





# **Transmit: Signal Generator**

- Provides drive signals to the high power transmitter
- Controls:
  - Signal waveform generation
    - amplitude
    - phase (frequency)
  - Multiple transmit sequencing
  - Transmit beam shaping
  - Transmit beam steering
  - Own-Doppler nullification (ODN)





# **Transmit: High Power Transmitters**

- Converts low level input signals to high power drive signals
  - Input from the signal generator
  - Output drives the transducer elements
- Considerations:
  - High power output
  - High efficiency
  - Variable load impedance when used in arrays





# **Receive: Signal Conditioners**

- Peak signal limiting
- Impedance matching
- Pre-amplification
- Band pass filtering





## Receive Beamformer

- Combines conditioned transducer signals to form beams
- Each beam acts as a spatial filter
- Uses beam shading and beam steering to form beam sets
- Each receive beam processed in its own channel
- Typical beam types:
  - Multiple narrow detection beams
  - Sum-difference beams
  - Offset phase center beams





## **Receiver Channels**

- Each receive beam has a receiver channel
- Receiver channel functions:
  - Band pass filtering
  - Gain control (historic progression in order of sophistication)
    - Fixed gain
    - Time varying gain
    - Automatic gain control
  - Detection processing within the angular space that defines that channel





# **Receive: Signal Processor**

- Processes beam signals to enhance their signal to noise ratio (SNR)
- Matched filter processing
  - Active
  - Passive
- Performs target angle calculations





## **Receive: Detectors**

- Applies a threshold to the signal processor output signals
- Fixed threshold:
  - Constant probability of detection (CPOD)
- Variable threshold:
  - Constant false alarm rate (CFAR)
    - Requires background estimation





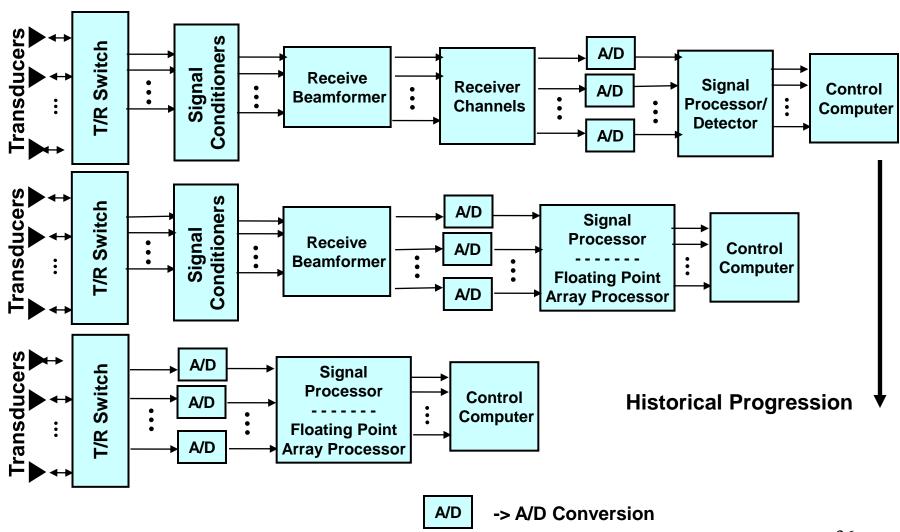
## **Digital Receiver Goals**

- Stable performance
- Flexible design
- Smaller size
- Lower cost
- Historical progression:
  - Replace analog receiver circuits with digital signal processor



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## **Digital Receiver Configurations**







## Digital Receiver Design Considerations

- Operating Frequency
  - Plays into beamwidth, coverage, absorption loss, detection range
- Receiver bandwidth
  - Trend today is wideband signals and receivers
- Dynamic range
  - Instantaneous (Size of A/D)
  - Long term (Gain adjustment over mission).
- Out-of-band signals





#### **Downstream From Detectors**

(Beyond Scope of This Course)

- Clustering Can the signal that passed the threshold be associated with detections from other channels?
- Classification Does the clustered object have the characteristics of the type of target we are interested in?
- Data Fusion Can the object be associated with a similar object from another sensor?
- Tracking Does the object persist in time?
   Can we estimate its motion?





# **Signal Representation**





## What Is A Signal?

- A signal is a change or disturbance in the normal "background" environment that conveys information
- The disturbance can be electrical, optical, mechanical, acoustical, etc.
- The information is contained in the way the disturbance changes
  - with time
  - with frequency
  - in space
  - in direction
- Acoustical signals are disturbances in the background pressure level in the medium (air, water, etc.)



## Real and Complex Signals

- A real-valued function of time, f(t), or space, f(x), or both, f(x,t), is
  often called a "real signal".
- It is sometimes useful for purposes of analysis to represent a signal as a complex valued function of space, time, or both:

$$s(t) = u(t) + i \cdot v(t)$$

More often, such a function is written in polar form:

$$s(t) = R(t) \cdot e^{i\phi(t)}$$
 where 
$$R(t) = \sqrt{u^2(t) + v^2(t)} \qquad (magnitude)$$
  $\phi(t) = \arctan\left(\frac{v(t)}{u(t)}\right) \qquad (phase)$ 

 The real-world signal f(t) represented by s(t) is just the real part of s(t):

 $f(t) = \Re\{s(t)\} = u(t) = R(t)\cos(\phi(t))$ 





## What Is Signal Processing?

- Signal processing is altering the properties of a signal to achieve some effect. In sonar, signal processing generally done to enhance the signal-to-noise ratio in order increase the probability of detection of a target, or to continue detecting a target.
- Signal processing can be done on the temporally or spatially varying signal, or on its spectrum (see the following).
- Most modern signal processing is done digitally. A time signal is sampled and converted to a set of numbers using an analog-to-digital (A/D) converter. Signal processing is then done by mathematical operations on the set of numbers.





## **Spectral (Fourier) Analysis**

- Any signal, real or complex, that varies with time can be "broken up into its spectrum" in a way similar to that in which light breaks up into its constituent colors by a prism
- The mathematical operation by which this is accomplished is the Fourier transform
- The Fourier transform of a time signal yields the "frequency content" of a signal
- Much signal processing is done in the "frequency domain" by means of mathematical operations (filters) on the Fourier transforms of the signals of interest
- The result of the processing can be converted back to a filtered time signal by means of the inverse Fourier transform





## **Frequency Domain Signal Processing**

- Frequency domain signal processing, or "filtering" alters the frequency spectrum of a time signal to achieve a desired result.
- Examples of filters: band pass, band stop, low pass, high pass, "coloring",
- Analog filters are electrical devices that work directly on the time signal and shape its spectrum electronically.
- Most filtering nowadays is done digitally. The spectrum of a sampled, digitized time signal is calculated using the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). The FFT is a sampled version of the signal's spectrum. Mathematical operations are performed on the sampled spectrum.
- Samples of the filtered signal are recovered using the inverse FFT.



# **Beamforming**





## What Is Beamforming?

- Beamforming is spatial filtering, a means of transmitting or receiving sound preferentially in some directions over others.
- Beamforming is exactly analogous to frequency domain analysis of time signals.
- In time/frequency filtering, the frequency content of a time signal is revealed by its Fourier transform.
- In beamforming, the angular (directional) spectrum of a signal is revealed by Fourier analysis of the way sound excites different parts of the set of transducers.
- Beamforming can be accomplished physically (shaping and moving a transducer), electrically (analog delay circuitry), or mathematically (digital signal processing).





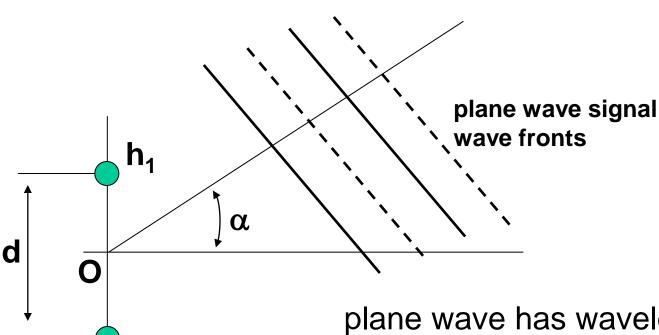
### **Beamforming Requirements**

- Directivity A beamformer is a spatial filter and can be used to increase the signal-to-noise ratio by blocking most of the noise outside the directions of interest.
- Side lobe control No filter is ideal. Must balance main lobe directivity and side lobe levels, which are related.
- Beam steering A beamformer can be electronically steered, with some degradation in performance.
- Beamformer pattern function is frequency dependent:
  - Main lobe narrows with increasing frequency
  - For beamformers made of discrete hydrophones, spatial aliasing ("grating lobes") can occur when the the hydrophones are spaced a wavelength or greater apart.





#### A Simple Beamformer



h<sub>1</sub> h<sub>2</sub> are two omnidirectionalhydrophones spaced a distance dapart about the origin O

h<sub>2</sub>

plane wave has wavelength  $\lambda = c/f$ ,

where f is the frequency c is the speed of sound



#### **Analysis of Simple Beamformer**

Given a signal incident at the center O of the array:

$$s(t) = R(t) \cdot e^{i\omega(t)}$$

Then the signals at the two hydrophones are:

$$s_i(t) = R(t) \cdot e^{i\omega(t)} e^{i\phi_i(t)}$$

where

$$\phi_n = (-1)^n \frac{\pi d}{\lambda} \sin \alpha$$

• The pattern function of the dipole is the normalized response of the dipole as a function of angle:

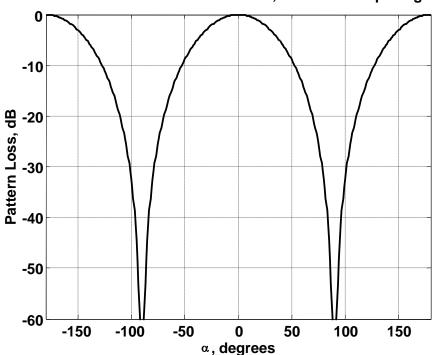
$$b(\alpha) = \frac{s_1 + s_2}{s} = \cos\left(\frac{\pi d}{\lambda}\sin\alpha\right)$$



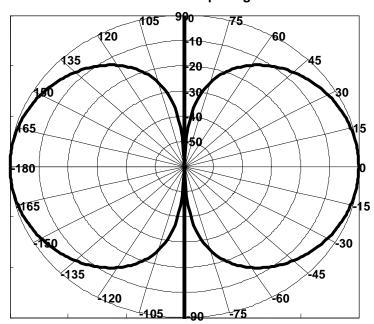


#### **Beam Pattern of Simple Beamformer**

Pattern Loss vs. Angle of Incidence of Plane Wave For Two Element Beamformer,  $\lambda/2$  Element Spacing



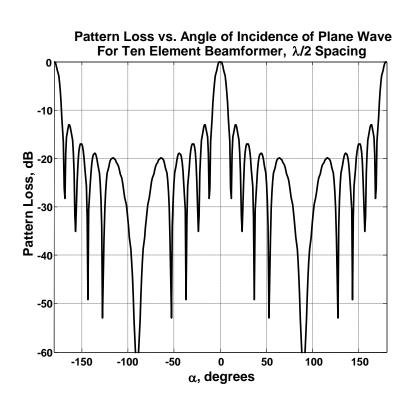
Polar Plot of Pattern Loss For 2 Element Beamformer  $\lambda/2$  Element Spacing

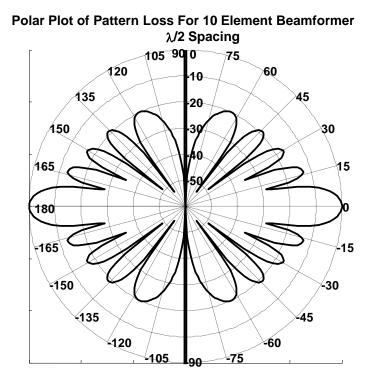






#### **Beam Pattern of a 10 Element Array**









## Beamforming – Amplitude Shading

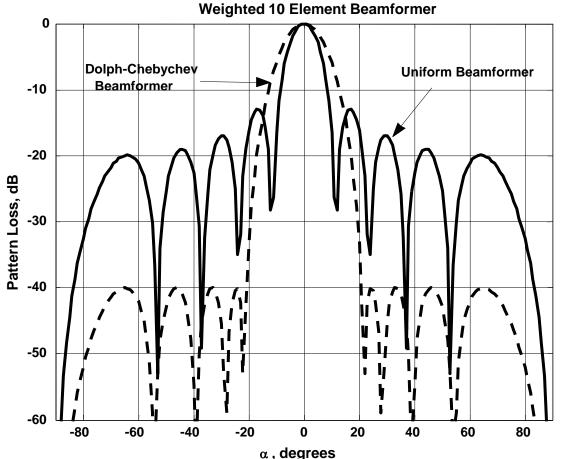
- Amplitude shading is applied as a beamforming function, usually to the received signal.
- Each hydrophone signal is multiplied by a "shading weight"
- Effect on beam pattern:
  - Used to reduce side lobes
  - Results in main lobe broadening





# **Beam Pattern of a 10 Element Dolph-Chebychev Shaded Array**

Comparison Beam Pattern Of A 10 Element Dolph-Chebychev Beamformer With -40 dB Side Lobes And λ/2 Element Spacing With A Uniformly







## **Beamforming – Receive Beam Steering**

- To electronically steer a beam to a specific angle, the hydrophone signals must add so that a plane wave received at the desired angle would add in-phase.
- Beam steering implementations:
  - Time delay
  - Phase shift





## **Beamforming – Transmit**

- High power
  - Transmit the maximum power on each hydrophone
  - Maximum power limited by cavitation
- Desire broad beamwidth for search, narrow beamwidth for homing
  - Desire maximum output power for both types of transmits -> Generally do not use amplitude shading on transmit
  - Transmit beamforming accomplished by phase shading of transmit hydrophones



# **Signal Detection**





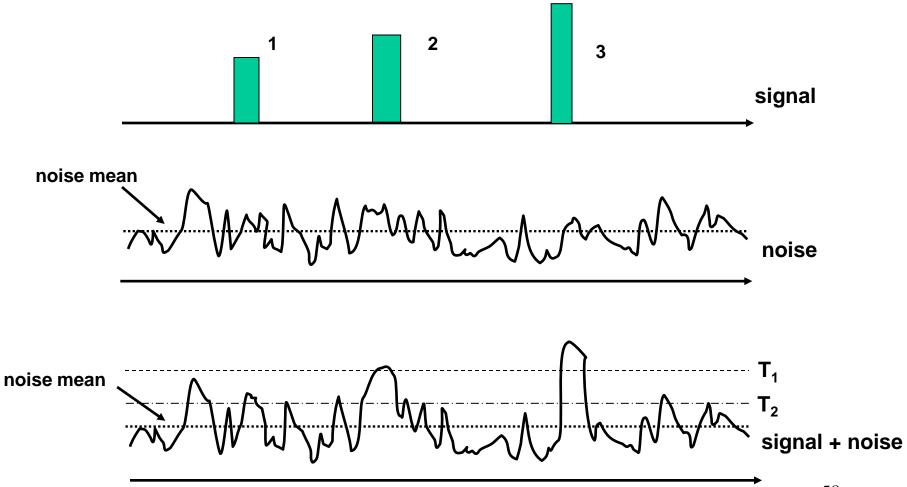
## **Signal Detection**

- Input to detector is signal plus noise.
- Requirements expressed in terms of
  - probability of detection
  - probability of false alarm
- Threshold for declaring detection is set based on models for signal and noise
- Noise background estimation can be performed on data to improve model.
- Outputs of detector are threshold crossings
- Performance defined by receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve – probability of detection vs. probability of false alarm for a particular SNR.





#### **Detection In Noise**



**Time** 





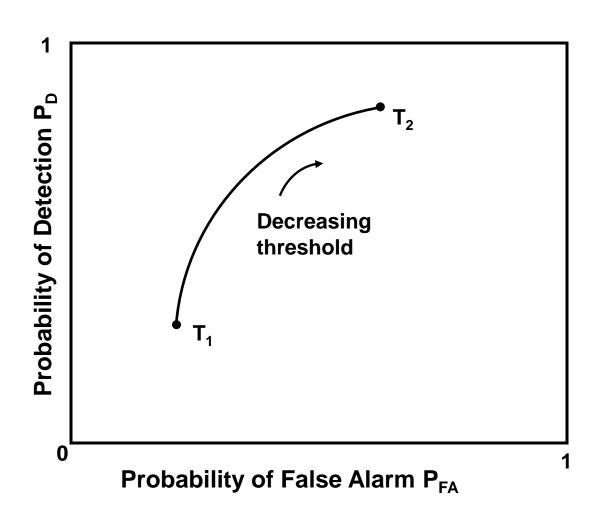
#### **Detection Threshold**

- Performance Criteria:
  - Probability of detection P<sub>D</sub>
  - Probability of false alarm P<sub>FA</sub>
- These criteria are not independent: a lower threshold increases P<sub>D</sub>, but also increases P<sub>FA</sub>.
- Theoretical ROC is used to set thresholds.
- True test is performance in water.





#### **Receiver Operating Curve (ROC)**





### **Noise Background Estimation**

- A moving average of the received signal is calculated. This average is used to estimate the background noise level.
- Against noise that changes rapidly with time –
  e.g. reverberation, noise level must be
  continually re-estimated for the entire listening
  interval. -> Use moving average.
- Care must be taken not to average over desired echo, but still get a useful average. Window is usually taken to be the length of the transmitted pulse.
- Higher order statistics can also be estimated this way.



# **Passive Processing**





## **Passive Processing Requirements**

#### Targets:

- Surface ships
- Submarines
- Other sources, e.g. pipeline leaks

#### Target Characteristics:

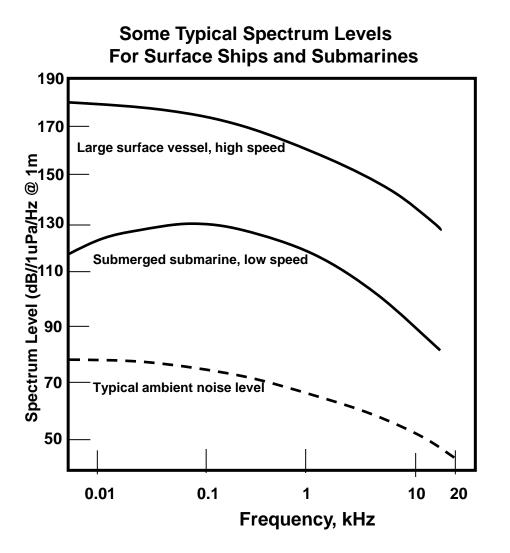
- Broad band
  - Level and spectrum dependent on target speed
- Narrow band
  - Spectral lines
    - Propulsion system
    - Propeller cavitation
    - Auxiliary machinery
- Spatially compact



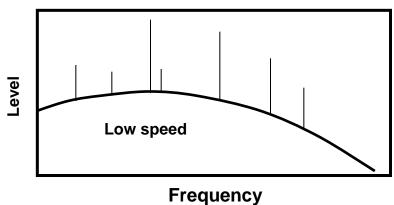


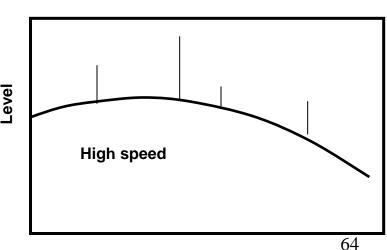
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#### **Target Emissions**



## **Broadband and Narrowband Components Of a Submarine Signature at Low and High Speeds**





Frequency





#### **Passive Sonar Requirements**

#### Target Detection

 Passive sonar has an advantage over active for detection range - less spreading and absorption loss.

#### Target Localization

- Angle to target
- Precise localization, especially in range and velocity, is more difficult with passive sonar

#### Target Characterization

- Target signatures help identify target
- Passive sonar won't mistake a rock for a target
- Active is much more useful for discerning size, shape and structural features





#### **Passive Sonar Capabilities**

#### Beamforming

- Spatial filter
- Increased signal-to-noise directivity
- Reduces unwanted (out of beam) signals

#### Receiver

- Bandpass filter reduces out of band signals and noise
- Gain adjust adjust to receiver circuitry, does not increase SNR
- Signal processor
- Detector





#### **Passive Multibeam**

- Increases detection capabilities
  - Wide angle coverage
  - Directivity of individual beams increase SNR
  - Detection processing
    - Beam power comparison among beams
- Localization
  - Provides bearing to target to within beam resolution
- Target identification if spectral processing is used.





# Passive Narrowband Signal Processing

- FFT (Spectral Processing)
  - Used to detect tones
  - Improves detection
  - Aids localization by estimating Doppler using frequency changes in the signal
- · Can identify target if its signature is known





#### **Passive Short Baseline Localization**

- Useful for small sonar arrays
- Technique offset phase center beams
  - Uses the correlation between the inputs of two subarrays of a beamformer to estimate the angle to the target.
  - The subarrays are closely spaced 3/2  $\lambda$  or 1/2  $\lambda$  are often used.
  - Useful for enhancing passive detection performance by allowing fine estimate of angle to detection.





## **Passive Long Baseline Localization**

- Useful for arrays of widely spaced hydrophones
- Technique Correlation processing with variable time shift
  - Time shift with highest correlation gives time delay for reception between each hydrophone.
  - Useful for enhancing passive detection performance.
  - Can be used to estimate angle to target. Multiple hydrophones (3 or more) can be used to triangulate.





# **Active Processing**





### **Active Sonar Requirements**

- Target Detection
- Target Localization
  - Range
  - Angle
  - Doppler -> line-of-sight velocity
- Target Characterization
  - Size
  - Shape
  - Orientation
  - Finer details





# **Typical Active Beamformer Configurations**

#### Transmit

- Wide angle search volume coverage
- Narrow angle homing
- Source level increases as beam narrows

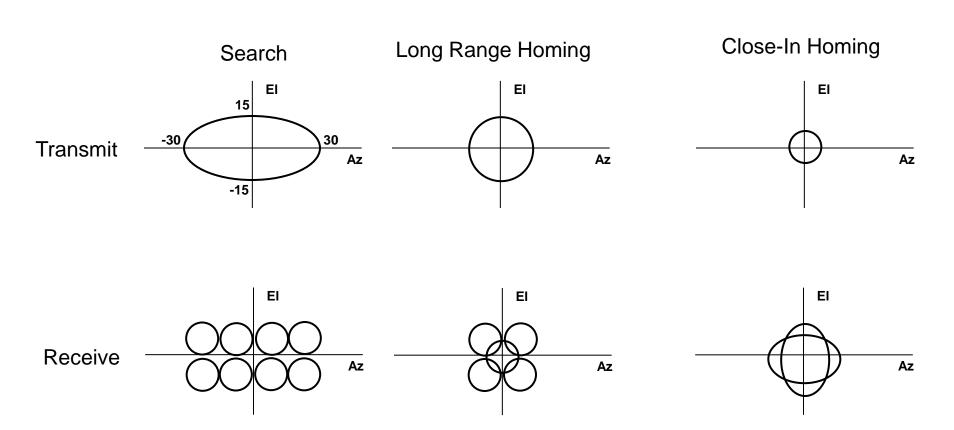
#### Receive

- Search Multiple narrow beams for high directivity
- Homing Narrow detection beam with offset phase beams





### **Active Sonar Beamsets**



3 dB Beamformer Contours





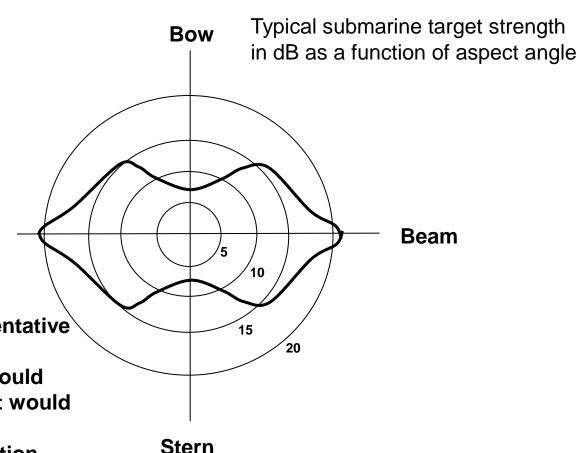
# **Target Properties**

- After accounting for propagation losses, the target echo level is proportional to the transmitted source level
- The proportionality "constant" is the target strength
  - Depends on sound reflecting properties of the target
  - Function of frequency, signal resolution, and aspect angle
  - Target highlights (echoes from reflecting surfaces) add with random phase.





### Variation of Target Strength



#### **Notes:**

TS is a function of frequency

Graph at right is more representative of a low frequency

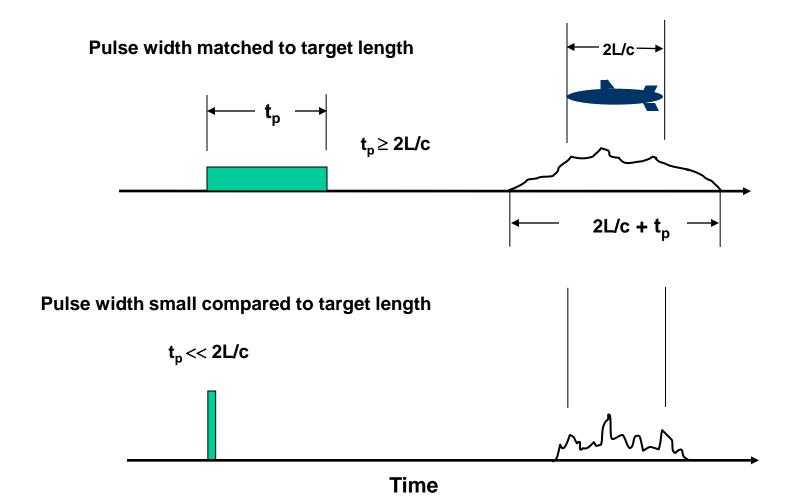
 High frequency graph of TS would have similar rough shape, but would have significantly more detail

 "Spikier" due to higher resolution of target features





### **Target Echo and Signal Resolution**







### **Effect of Motion on Echo**

- For stationary sonar and target:
  - Echo spectrum ≈ Signal spectrum
- For moving sonar or target, spectrum of echo is shifted and spread.
- Shift is "Doppler shift". Doppler shift is due to:
  - Target motion
  - Sonar motion
- Doppler shift due to sonar motion can be somewhat negated by shifting the transmit or receive frequency to account for sonar motion – own-Doppler nullification (ODN).
- Spectral spreading is due to numerous factors, in particular the fact that different parts of the target move with different speeds relative to line-of-sight vector.





### **Effect of Reverberation**

- For stationary conditions ("quiet sea"):
  - Reverberation spectrum ≈ Signal spectrum
- Spectrum of reverberation is more generally shifted and spread.
- Spectral shift and spreading is due to:
  - Scatterer motion
    - Surface reverb scatterer motion dependent on sea state
    - Volume reverb scatter motion depends, e.g., on presence of fish, suspended bubbles or solid material, currents, etc.
  - Sonar motion
    - Off-axis scattering





### **Active Detection Processing**

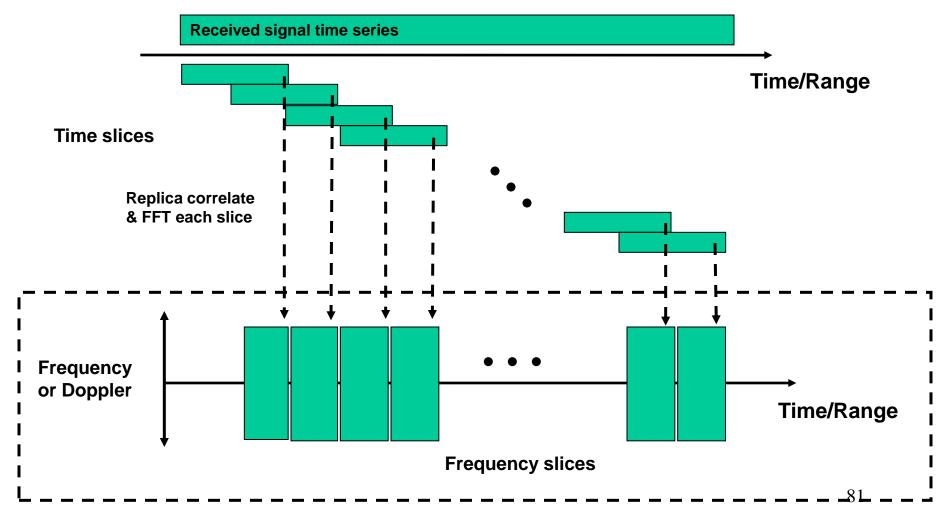
- One of the most common active detectors is the matched filter.
  - Peak output SNR is optimized against additive white Gaussian noise with a matched filter.
- Can be implemented by correlating received signal with replica of transmitted signal at varying time shifts.
  - Time shift with peak output above threshold yields target range,
- To account for frequency (Doppler) shift in received signal due to target motion, the detector is usually implemented in the frequency domain frequency shifted detections can be located on "Range-Doppler map.

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### **Matched Filter Implementation**







# Range-Doppler Maps

- A Range-Doppler map is a representation of the power spectral level of an acoustic echo as a function of time.
- The time axis is usually converted to range, while the frequency axis is converted to equivalent Doppler shift.
- The resulting surface is reduced to a two dimensional plot for presentation using colors to represent level.
- The levels in each Range-Doppler cell can be processed to find detections.

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# **Effect of Reverberation (Continued)**

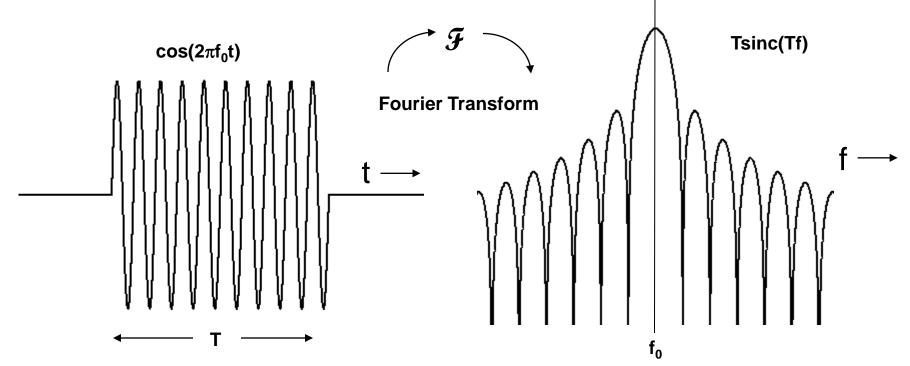
- Reverberation is an echo of the transmitted signal.
- When ODN is used, the reverberation spectrum is centered at about the transmit frequency (zero frequency when basebanded).
- The spectrum continues as long as the reverberation can be detected. ("Reverb ridge")
- Even though target echo level falls off faster than reverberation with range, targets off of the reverb ridge (high Doppler targets) can be detected at long range.
- Signal design for low Doppler targets attempts to mitigate effects of reverb ridge.





# **Example of Range Doppler Map**

 Unwindowed tone pulse has sinc-function frequency spectrum



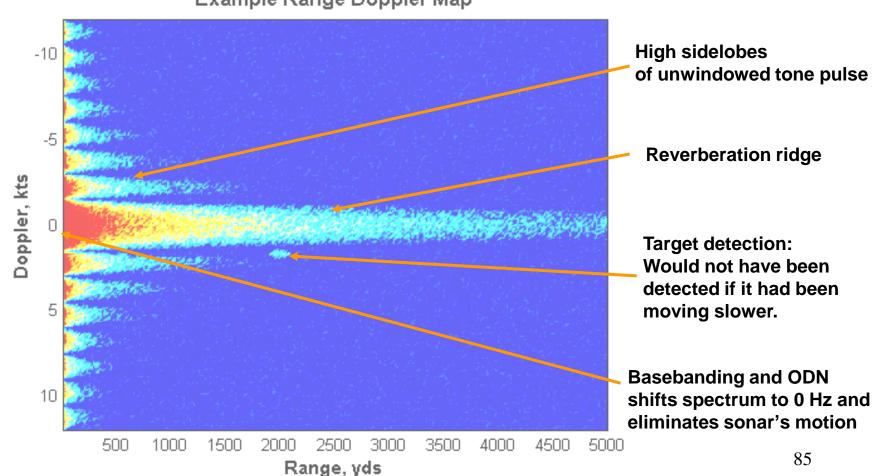
Tone pulse in time domain

Spectrum of tone pulse in frequency domain  ${}^{\rm 84}$ 



### **Example Of A Range-Doppler Map** (Volume Reverberation, Stationary Sonar)

Example Range Doppler Map







# **Signal Selection**

- Range resolution is inversely proportional to signal bandwidth.
  - For tone pulses, this translates to range resolution is proportional to pulse length:
    - Pulse bandwidth is inversely proportional to tone pulse duration, so
    - Short pulses => Short ("high") range resolution
  - For linear FM sweeps, range resolution is inversely proportional to width of sweep.
    - Wide frequency sweep => Short ("high") range resolution
- Doppler resolution is inversely proportional to pulse length.
  - Short pulse duration => Wide ("low") Doppler resolution 86





# **High Doppler Targets**

- Tone pulses can be good choices for high Doppler targets:
  - Target is out of the reverberation ridge
  - Longer pulses used for detection have excellent Doppler resolution
  - Short pulses used for close-in homing have excellent range resolution.

### Drawbacks:

- Targets that are changing aspect can be lost in reverberation ridge
- As sonar closes in on target, short pulses are used.
   Reverberation spectrum is very wide for short pulses.
   Can loose even high Doppler targets





### **Low Doppler Targets**

- Processing gains can be attained against low Doppler targets by using linear sweep FM pulses.
- Advantages: spreads (and hence lowers)
   reverberation power over bandwidth of
   frequency sweep, but coherently processes
   echo => Processing gain ~ 10·log(TW), where T
   is pulse length and W is signal bandwidth

### Drawbacks:

Increasing T to increase PG is not viable when target is very close or target position is changing rapidly.
 But short T means less Doppler resolution.