



7th Advanced Training Course on Radar Polarimetry

Toulouse, 2023

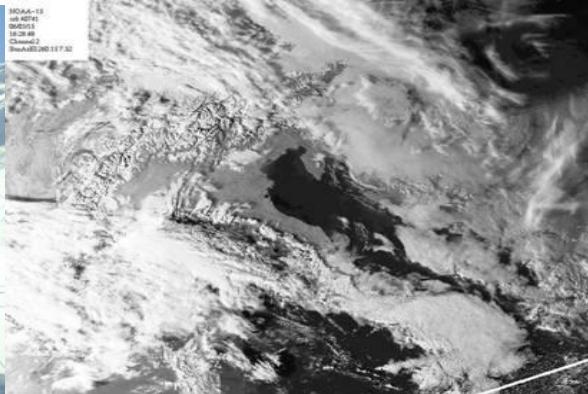
SAR BASICS & SAR TOMOGRAPHY THEORY

Stefano Tebaldini
Politecnico di Milano

RADAR (***Radio Detection And Ranging***) is a technology to detect and study far off targets by transmitting EM pulses at radiofrequency and observing the backscattered echoes

Some relevant features:

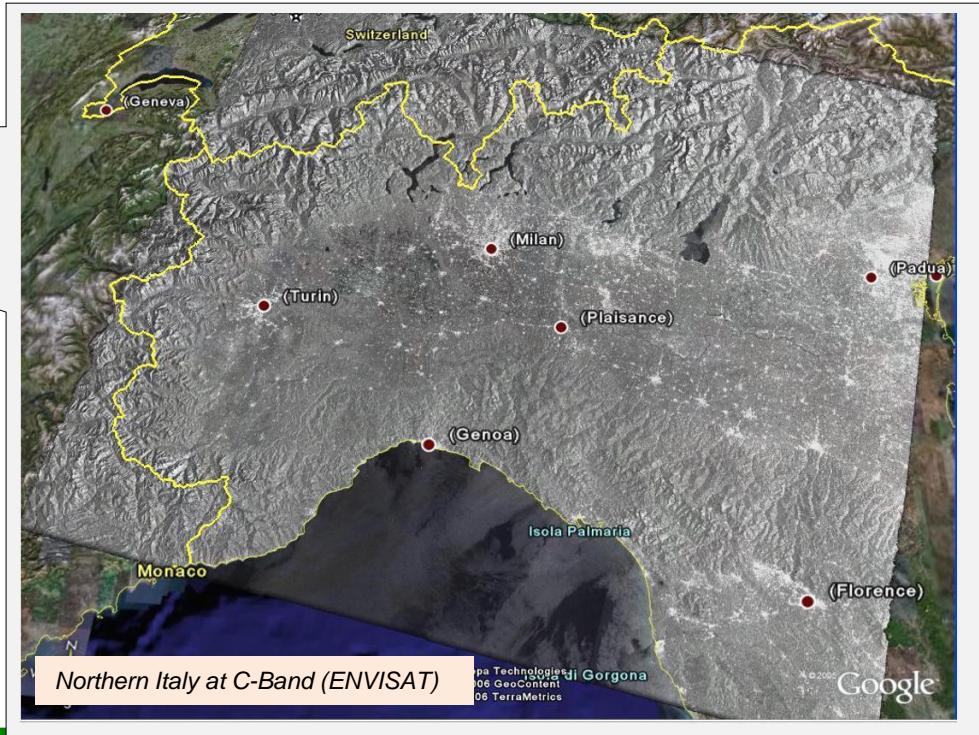
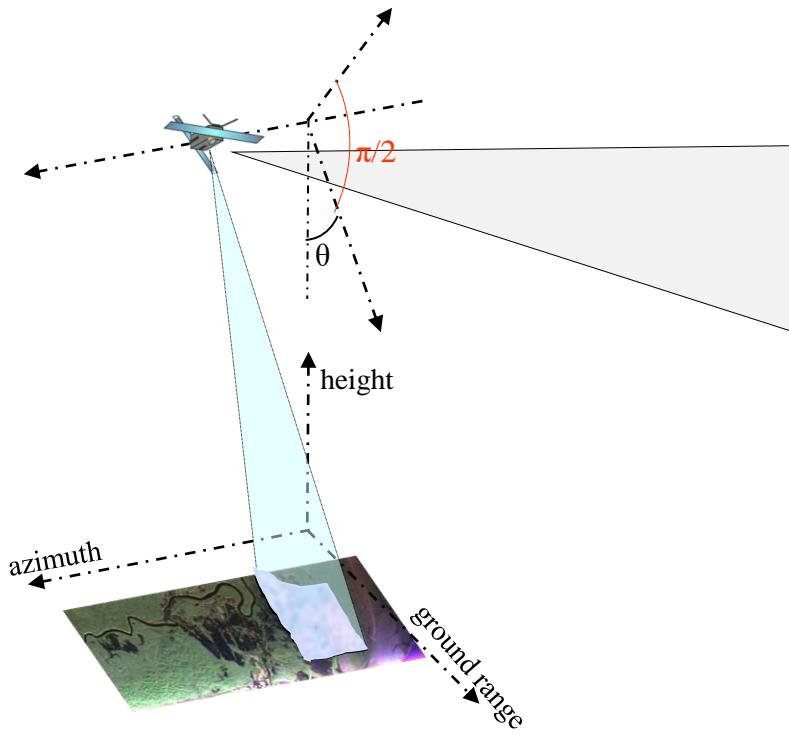
1. Active instrument: \Leftrightarrow no need for external illumination source
2. Delay-based measurement \Leftrightarrow target distance is obtained based on pulse two-way travel time
3. Microwaves penetrate through rain and clouds \Leftrightarrow visibility in all weather conditions
4. Microwaves can penetrate into some natural media, like forests, snow, ice, sand \Leftrightarrow sensitivity to the 3D structure of illuminated media



SAR Imaging

SAR systems employ a RADAR sensor flown onboard a satellite platform to synthesize an antenna aperture as long as several kilometers

- Accurate measurement of Radar echoes backscattered from the targets as the system is flown along the satellite trajectory
 - Image formation by Digital Processing techniques
- ⇒ The result is a high resolution **two-dimensional** map of the imaged scene

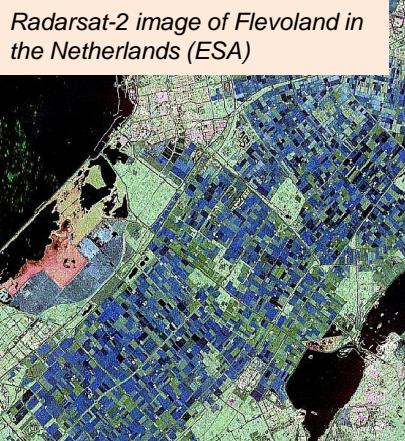


Key features:

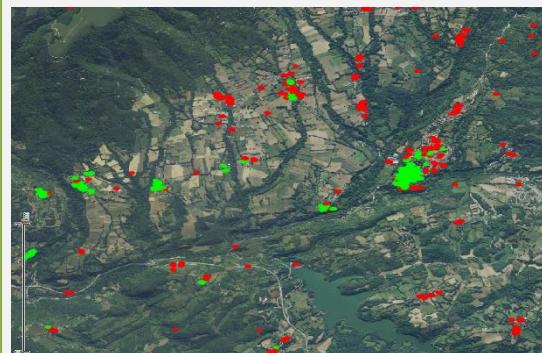
- Microwaves penetrate through rain and clouds \Leftrightarrow *visibility in all weather conditions*
- Aperture Synthesis \Leftrightarrow *fine spatial resolution*
- Phase preserving \Leftrightarrow *millimeter accuracy about distance variations*

→ Spaceborne SARs provide *accurate and continuous* information about the Earth's surface and its evolution over time

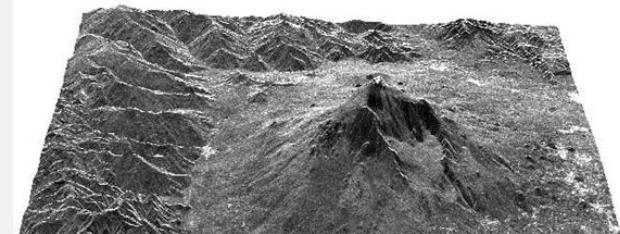
Land mapping



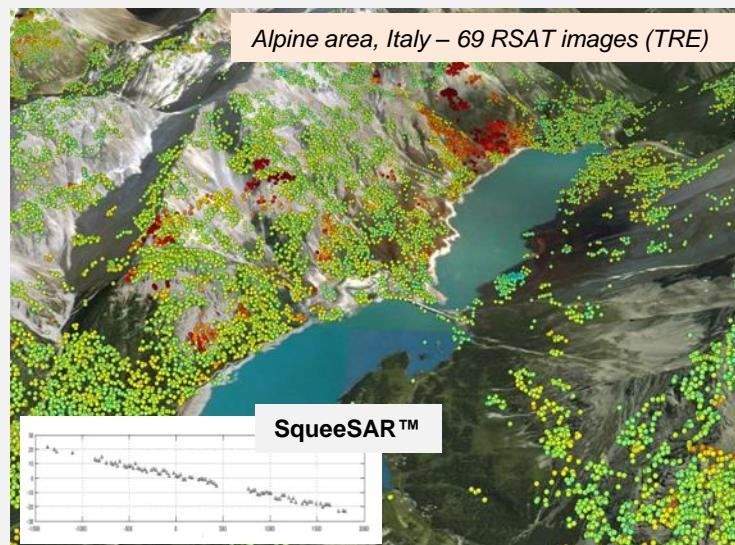
Change detection



Topographic mapping



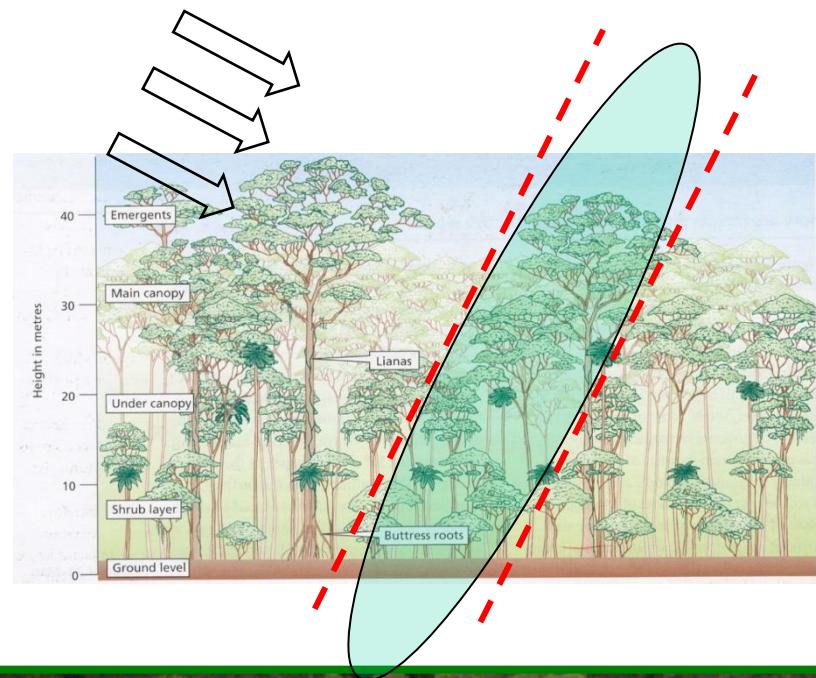
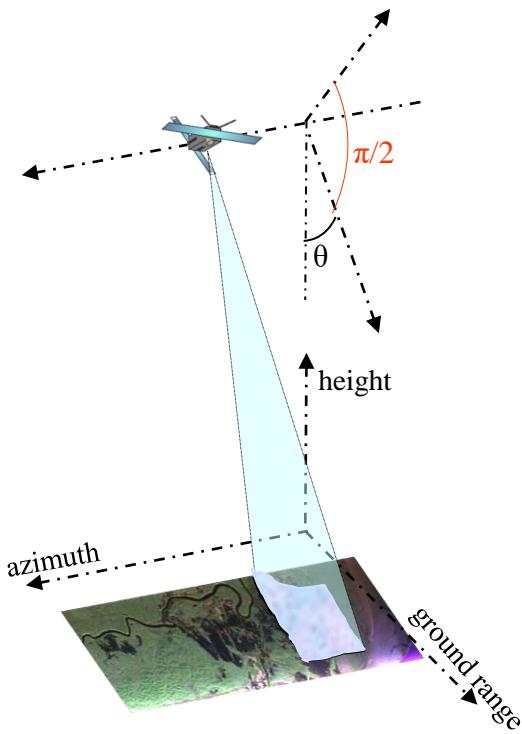
Deformation monitoring



SAR Imaging

Another key feature:

- Microwaves **penetrate** into natural media, like forests, snow, ice, sand \Leftrightarrow *sensitivity to the three-dimensional structure of illuminated media*
- ⇒ A single pixel within a SAR image is actually a mixture of different scattering mechanisms distributed over height

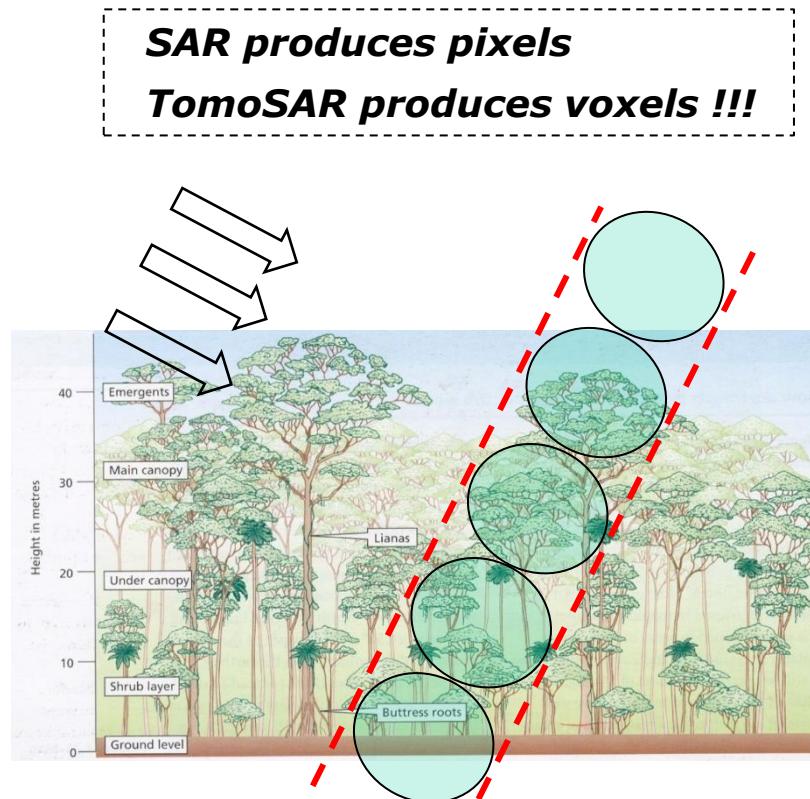
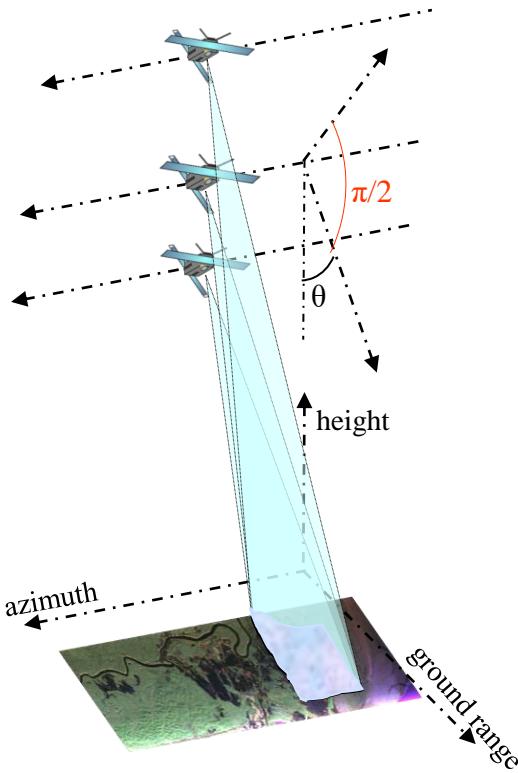


Tomographic SAR Imaging

TomoSAR systems employ a RADAR sensor flown along **multiple** trajectories

- Image formation by Digital Processing techniques

⇒ ***Three dimensional representation*** of Radar intensity at a given wavelength

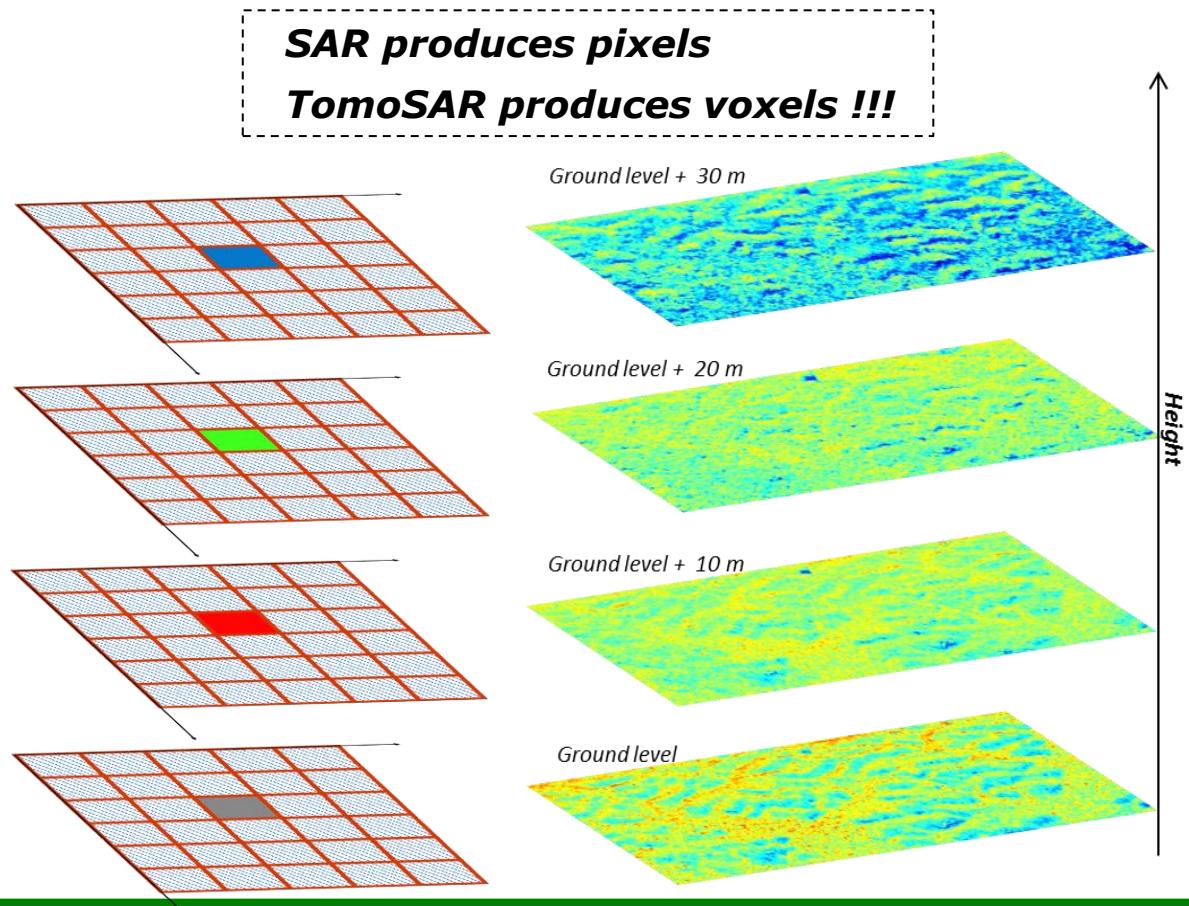
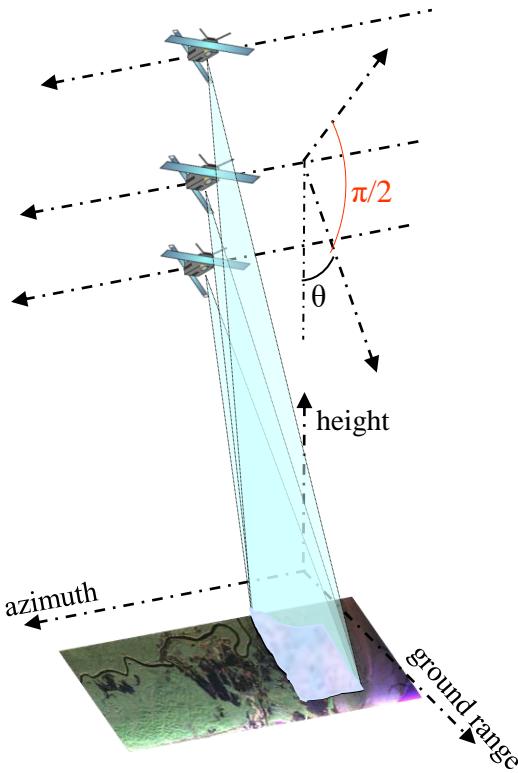


Tomographic SAR Imaging

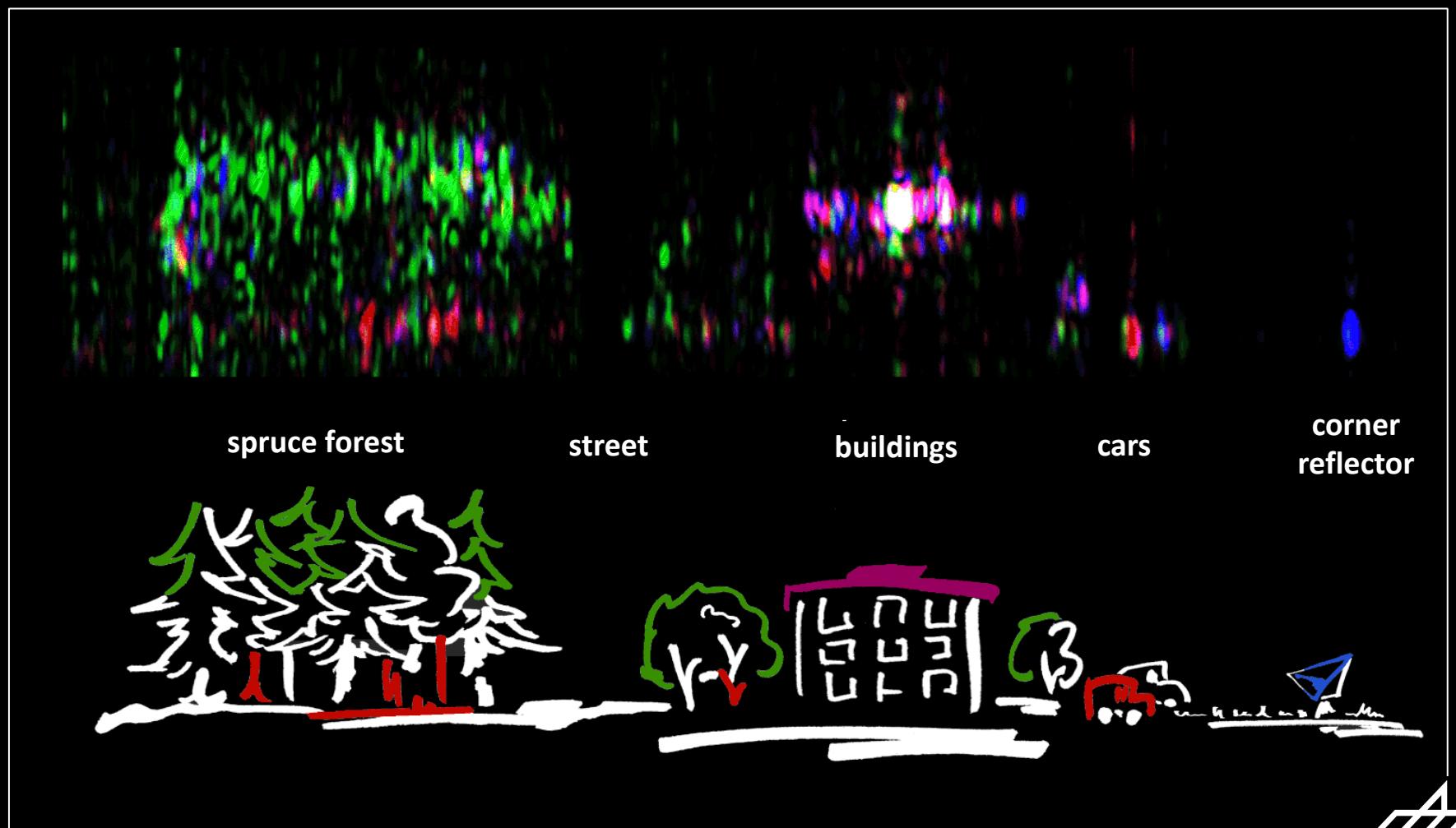
TomoSAR systems employ a RADAR sensor flown along **multiple** trajectories

- Image formation by Digital Processing techniques

⇒ ***Three dimensional representation*** of Radar intensity at a given wavelength



2000: First airborne demonstration (Reigber & Moreira, TGRS)



TomoSAR is today an emerging remote sensing technology for imaging the interior structure of natural media from above by using electromagnetic (EM) waves

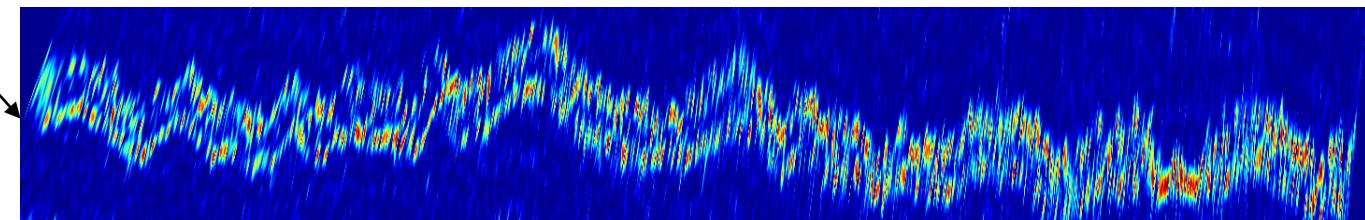
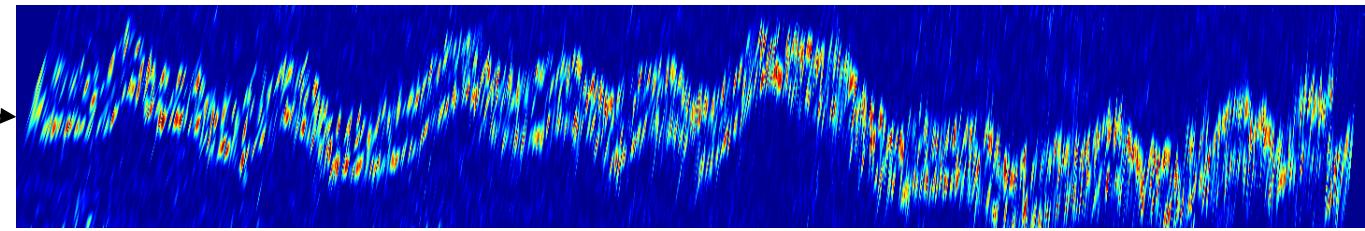
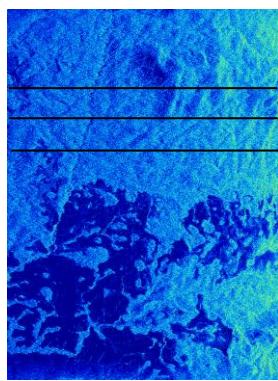
Timeline

- Mid 90's: principle formulated (Knaell and Cardillo) & first experiment (Pasquali et al, Fortuny et al)
- 2000: First airborne demonstration (Reigber and Moreira, TGRS)
- 2007 – today: experimentation by Space Agencies (ESA, DLR, JPL) in the context of airborne and ground based campaigns, in view of future spaceborne applications on:
 - ✓ Forests
 - ✓ Agriculture
 - ✓ Ice sheets/glaciers
 - ✓ Snow
- 2024: launch date of the ESA P-Band Mission **BIOMASS** – global tomographic coverage of forested areas
- *near future (?)*: spaceborne L-, C-, X-Band Tomography by future bistatic SAR systems

TomoSAR & Forested areas

Forest scenarios: separation of backscatter from different heights within the vegetation

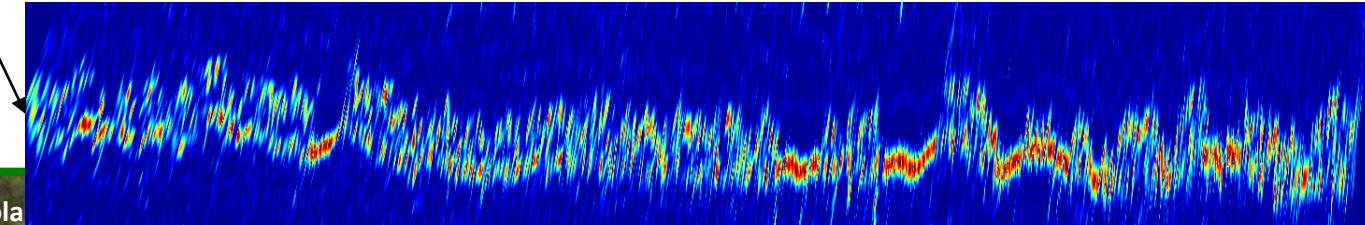
- ⇒ Forest height
- ⇒ Sub-canopy terrain topography
- ⇒ Classification of forest structure
- ⇒ Improved forest biomass retrieval



**Tomographic data from AfriSAR
2016 (ESA)**

Site: Gabon

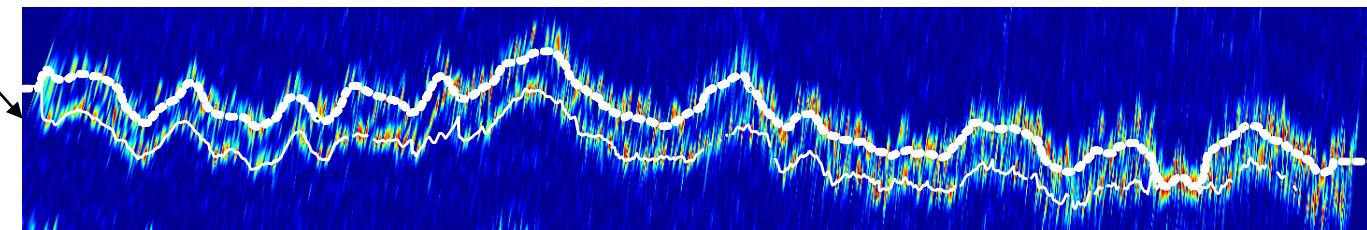
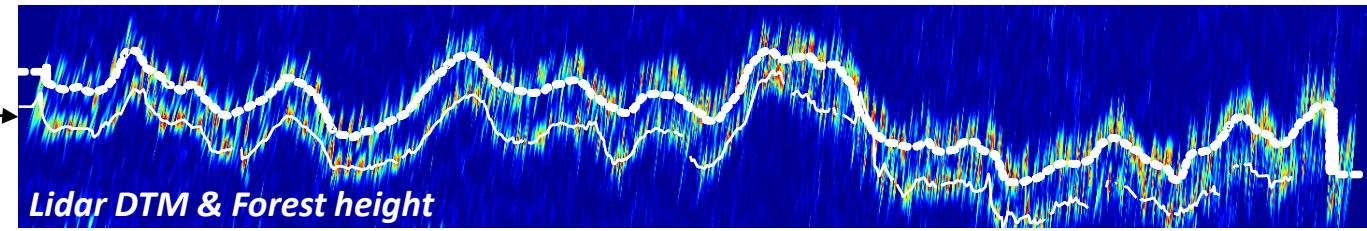
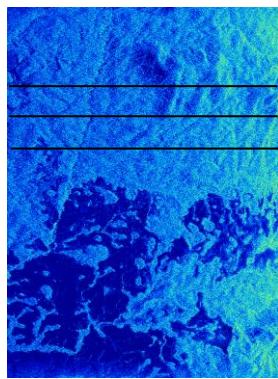
Acquisition by DLR & ONERA



TomoSAR & Forested areas

Forest scenarios: separation of backscatter from different heights within the vegetation

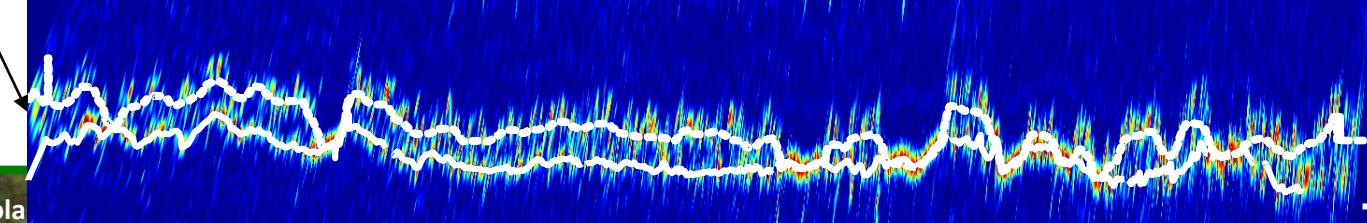
- ⇒ *Forest height*
- ⇒ *Sub-canopy terrain topography*
- ⇒ *Classification of forest structure*
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**Tomographic data from AfriSAR
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TomoSAR & Forested areas

Forest height

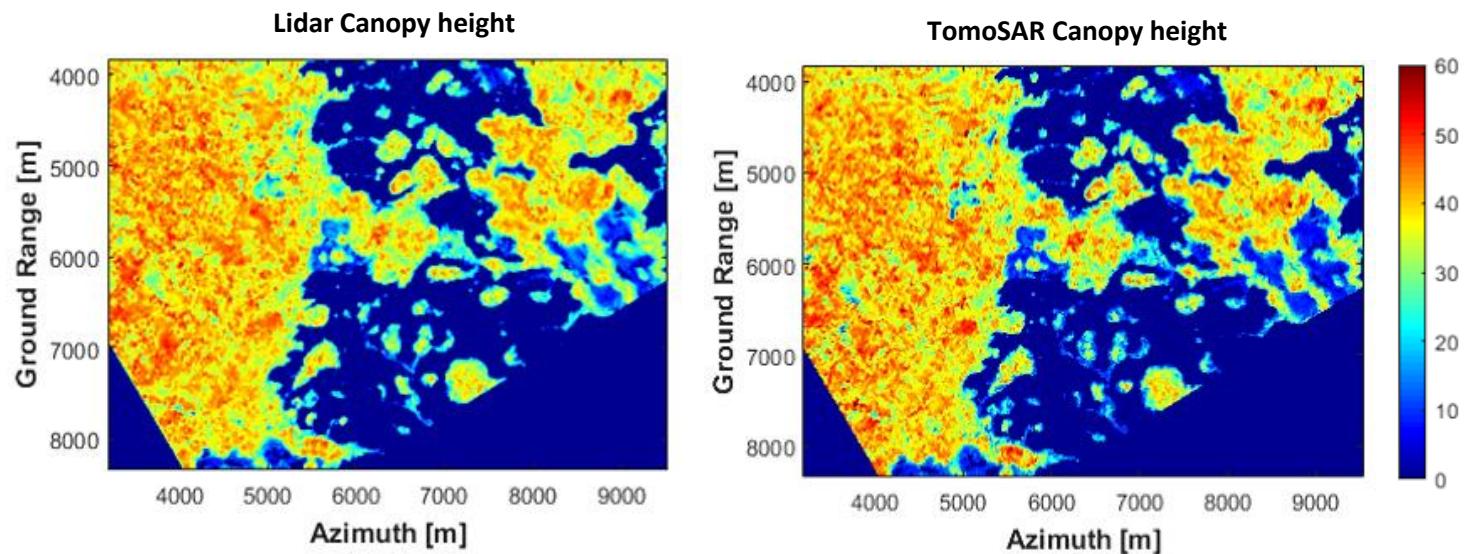
Site: Lopé, Gabon

Data-set: AfriSAR (ESA)

Frequency: P-Band

$\sigma_{\text{SAR-LIDAR}} \approx 3 \text{ m}$

@ 25 m



Sub-canopy terrain topography

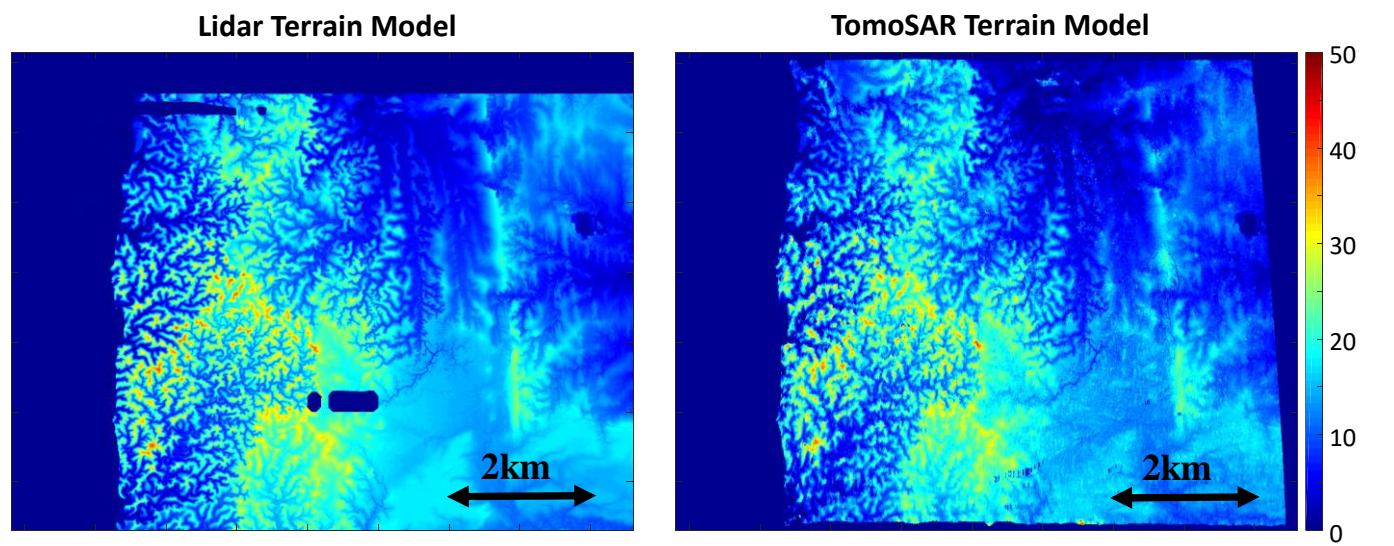
Site: Mondah, Gabon

Data-set: AfriSAR (ESA)

Frequency: P-Band

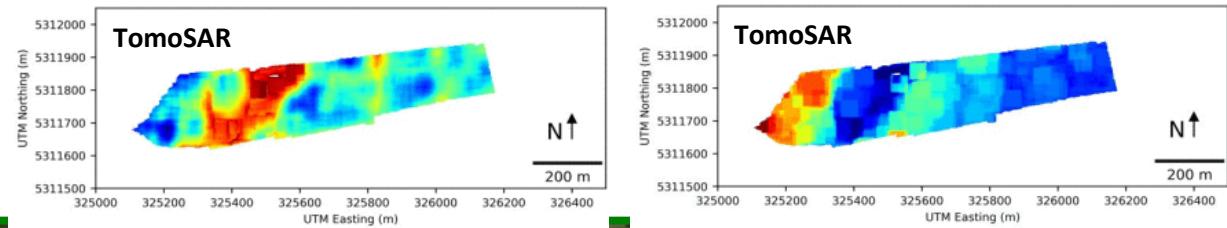
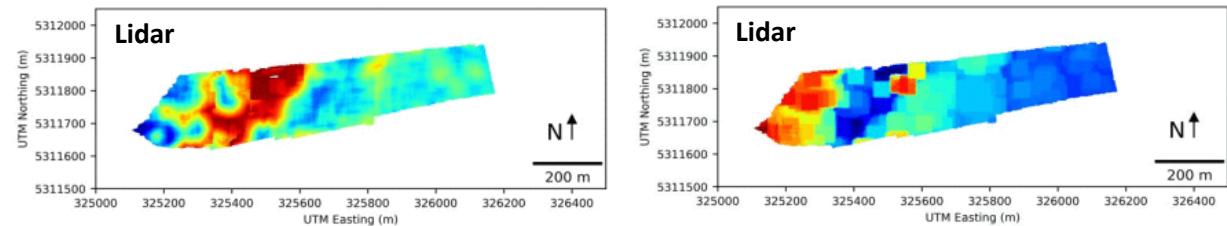
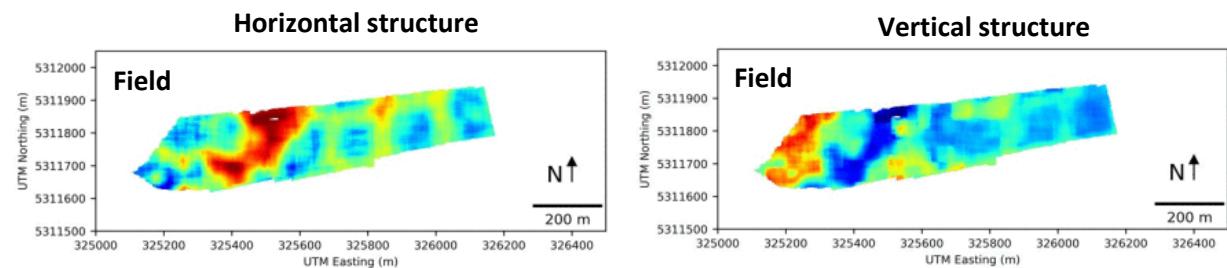
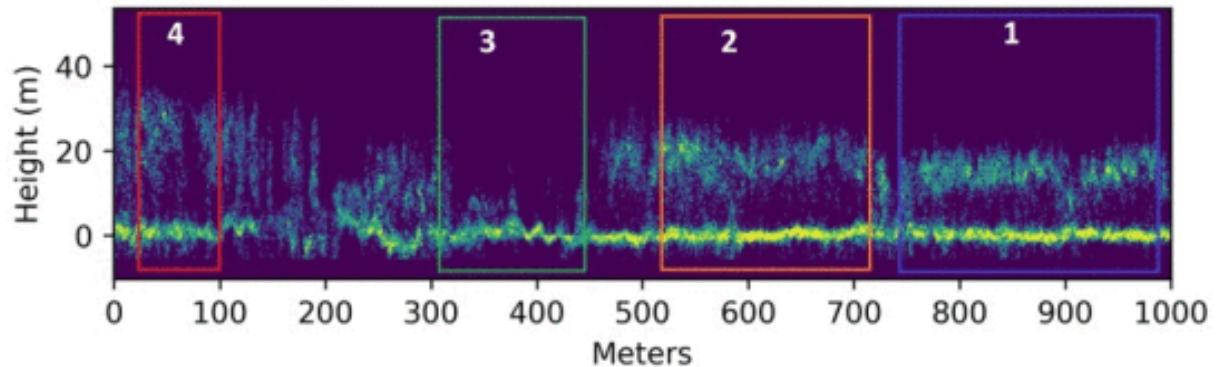
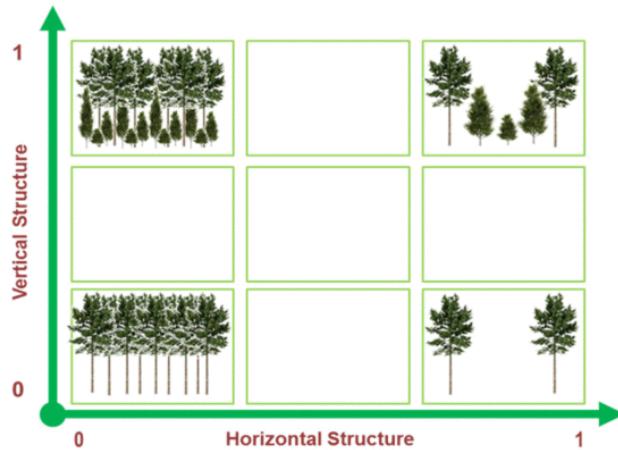
$\sigma_{\text{SAR-LIDAR}} \approx 2.8 \text{ m}$

@ 15 m



TomoSAR & Forested areas

Classification of forest structure



Site: Traunstein, Germany

Frequency: L-Band

Data-set by DLR

Tello et al., Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth Observations and Remote Sensing, 2018

TomoSAR & Forested areas

Correlation between Radar intensity and Above Ground Biomass (AGB)

- 2D SAR intensity is poorly correlated to AGB
- TomoSAR intensity at 0 m is poorly and negatively correlated to AGB
- TomoSAR intensity at main canopy height is highly correlated to AGB (≈ 50 Mg/ha per dB)

Sites: Paracou, Nouragues
(French Guiana)

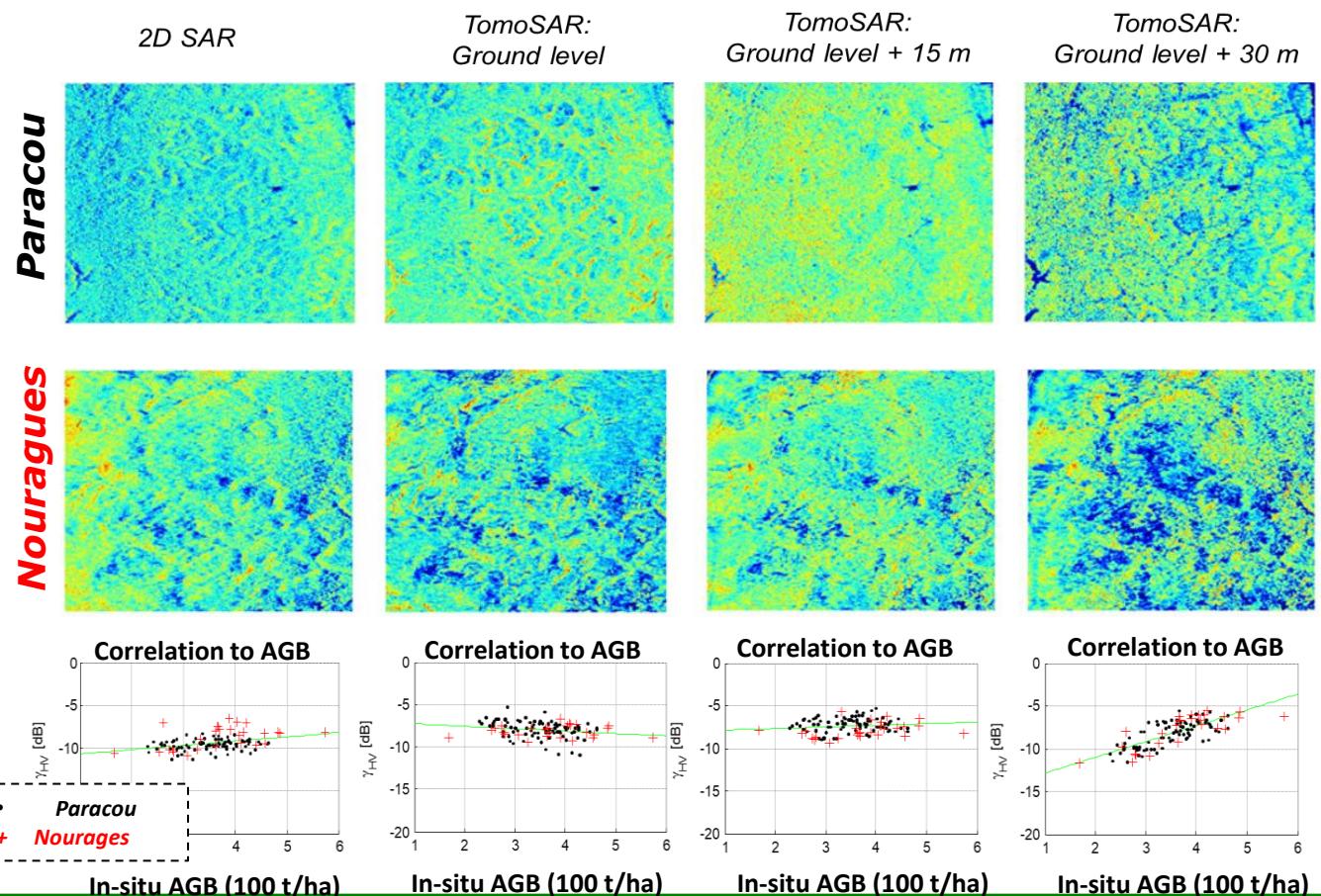
Frequency: P-Band

Data-set: TropiSAR (ESA)

Data-set by ONERA

Ho Tong Minh et al., TGRS, 2014

Ho Tong Minh et al., Remote Sensing of Environment, 2016



TomoSAR & Forested areas

Results were confirmed for three African forest sites.....

Sites: Paracou, Nouragues (French Guiana)

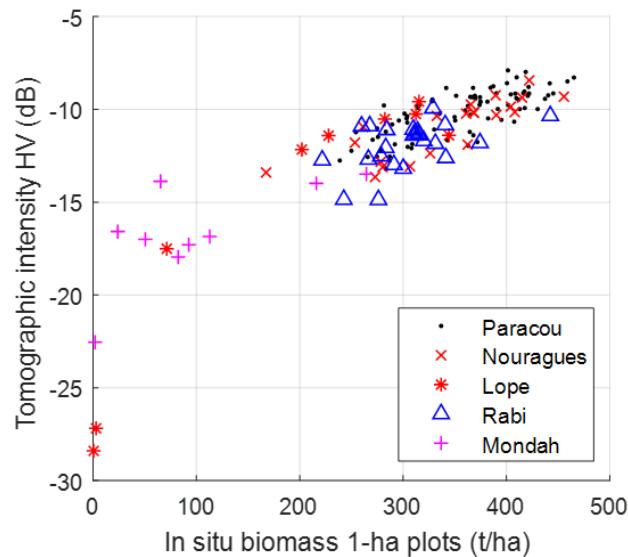
Lopé, Rabi, Mondah (Gabon)

Frequency: P-Band

Data-sets: TropiSAR and AfriSAR (ESA)

Data-set by ONERA

Tebaldini et al., Geophysical Surveys, accepted



.... and for a boreal site at L-Band

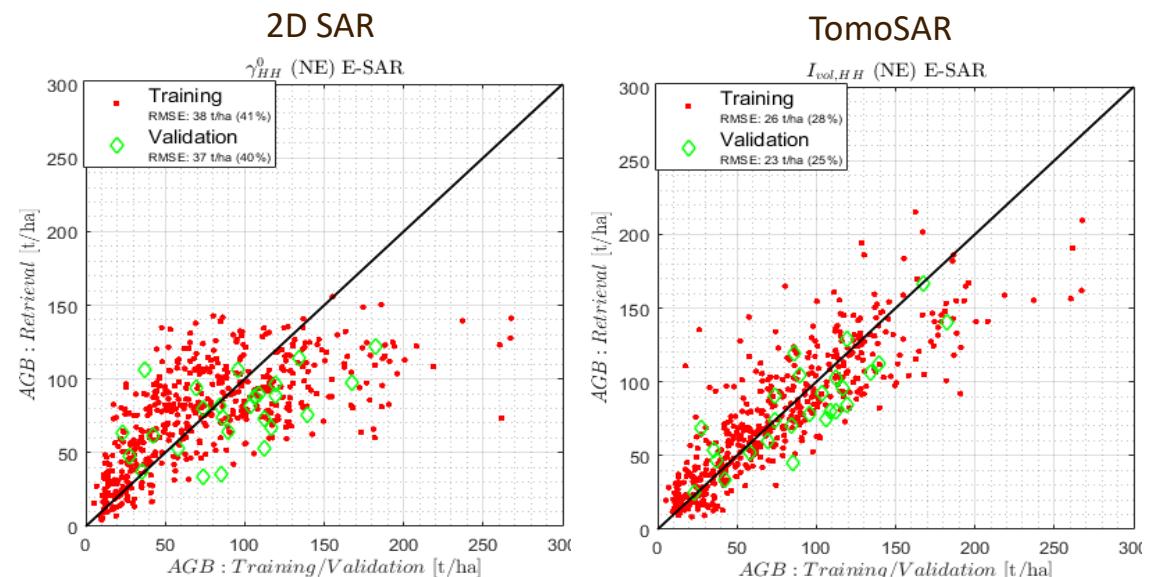
Site: Krycklan (Sweden)

Frequency: L-Band

Data-set: BioSAR 2 (ESA)

Data-set by DLR

Blomberg et al., GRSL, 2018

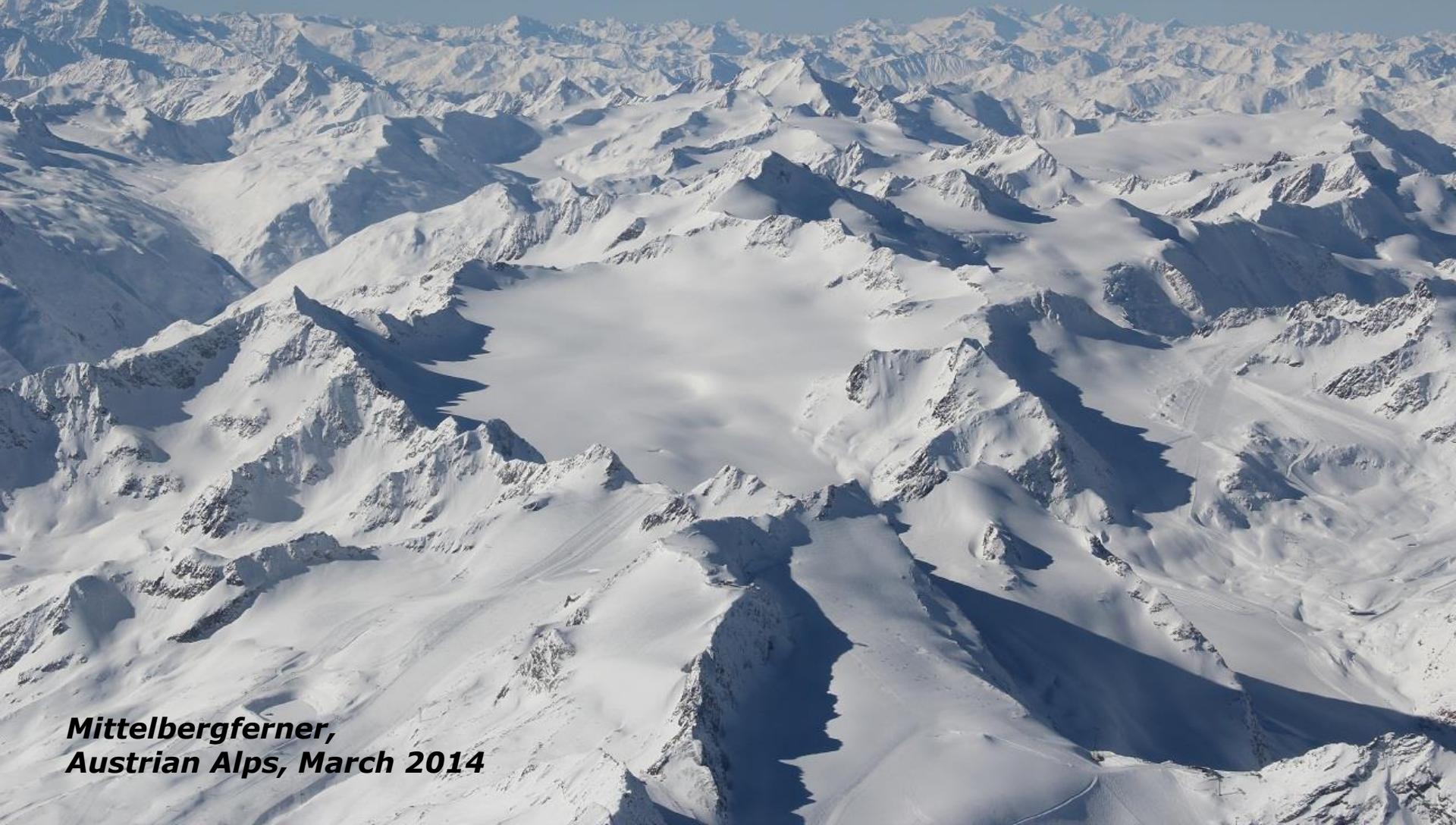


TomoSAR & Glaciers/ Ice sheets



Glaciers: inside view of the ice body

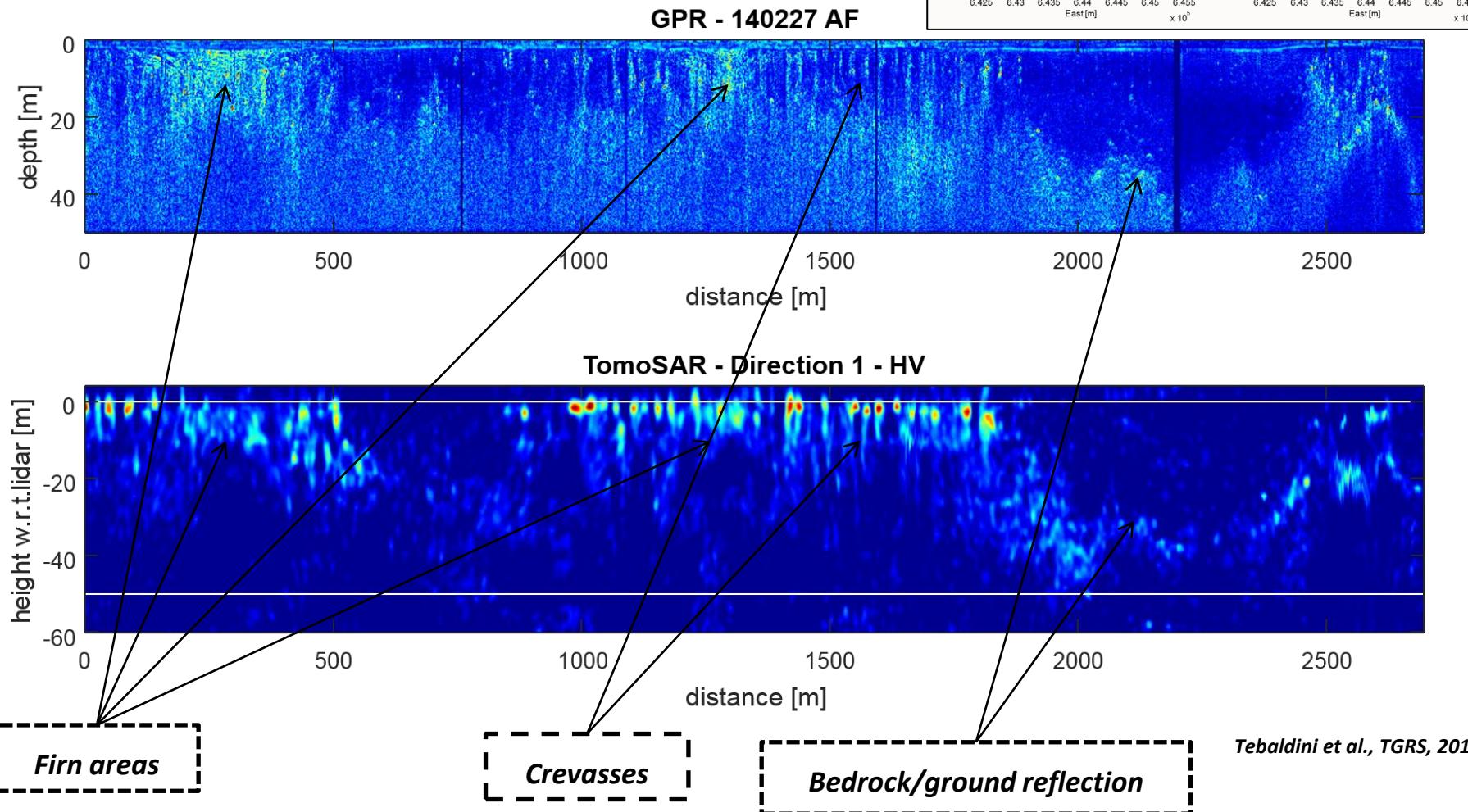
- ⇒ *Bedrock detection below the ice surface*
- ⇒ *Imaging of internal structures*



**Mittelbergferner,
Austrian Alps, March 2014**

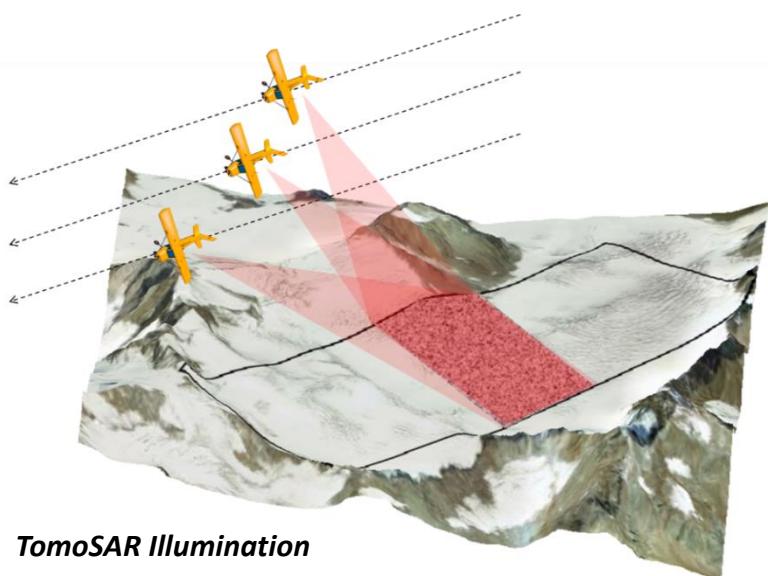
TomoSAR & Glaciers/ Ice sheets

Comparison between 200 MHz Ground Penetrating Radar and L-Band TomoSAR

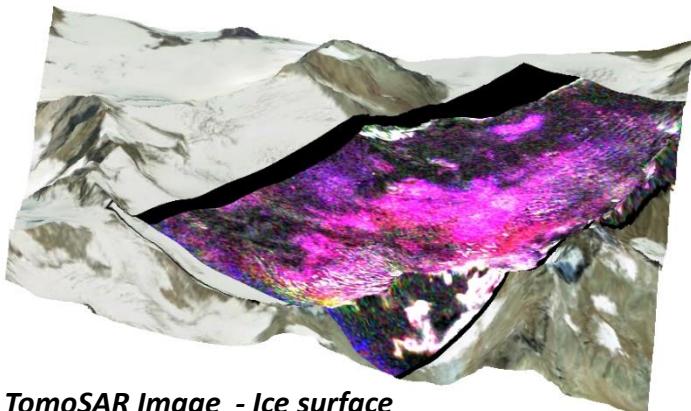


Tebaldini et al., TGRS, 2016

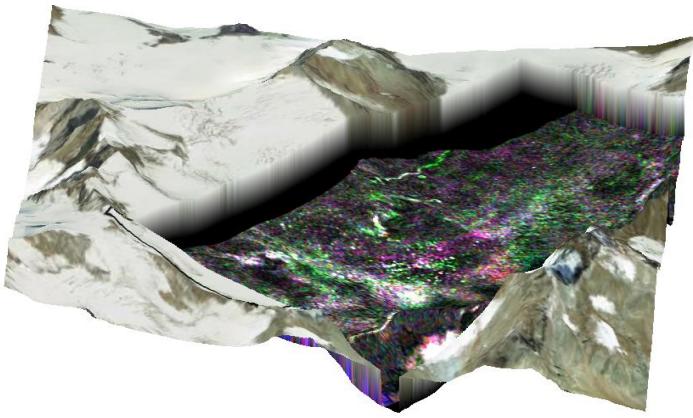
TomoSAR & Glaciers/ Ice sheets



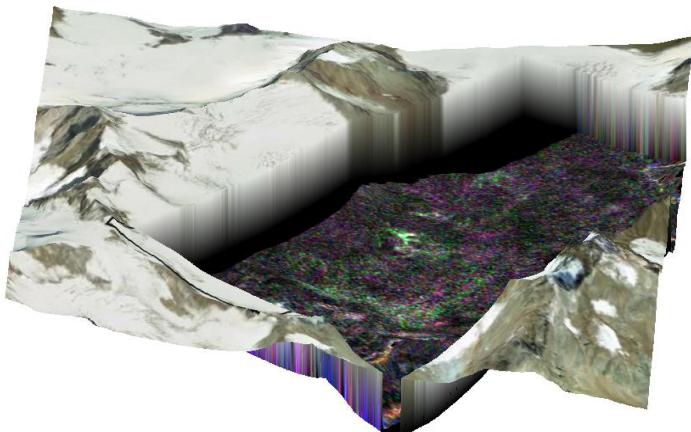
TomoSAR Illumination



TomoSAR Image - Ice surface



TomoSAR Image - 25 m below the Ice surface



TomoSAR Image - 50 m below the Ice surface

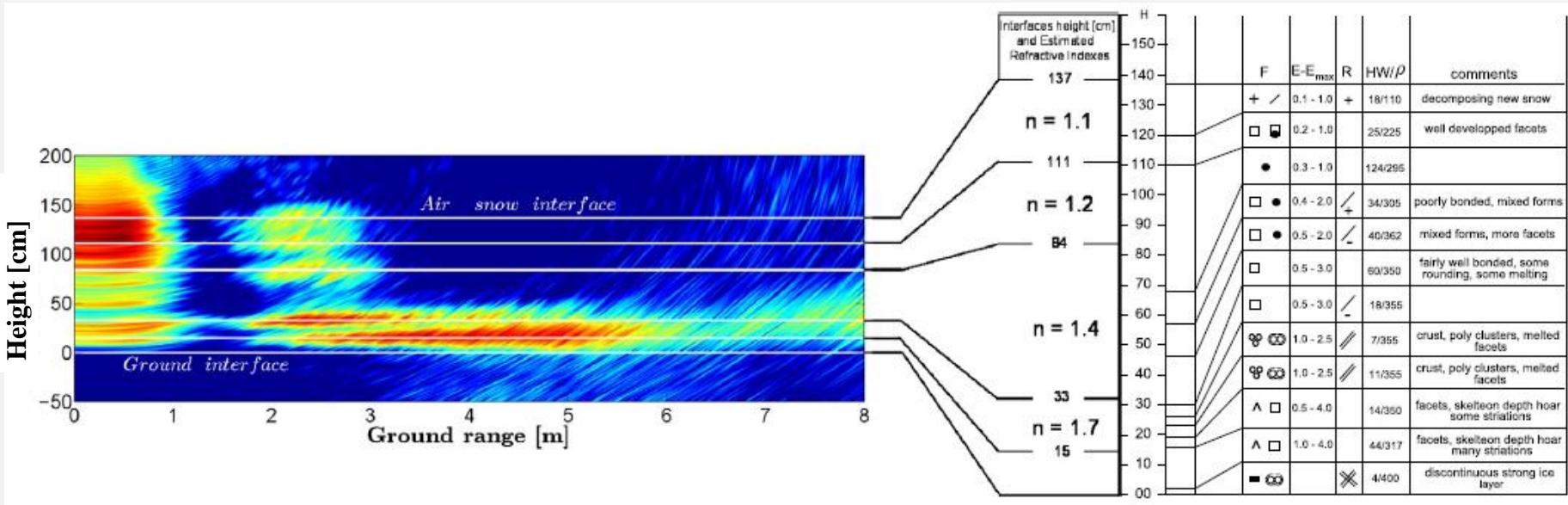
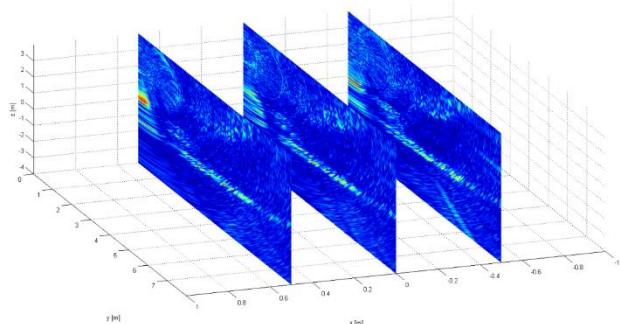
The Mittelbergferner @ L-Band



TomoSAR & Snow

Snow: fine structure of snowpack layering

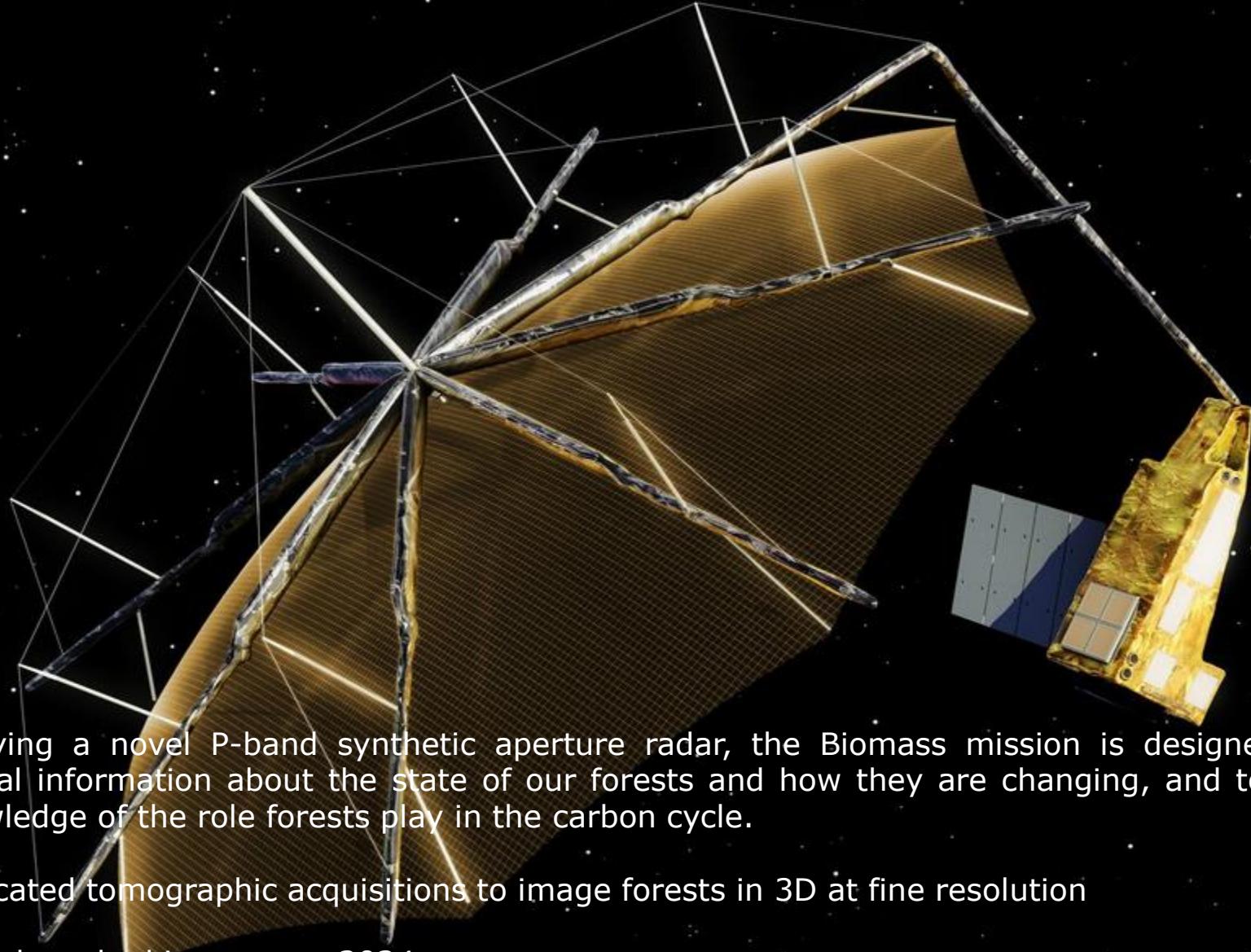
- ⇒ Total Snow depth
- ⇒ Refractive index
- ⇒ Internal layering



Data from AlpSAR 2013 (Rennes 1, ESA)

Rekioua et al., Comptes Rendus Physique , 2017

BIOMASS



Carrying a novel P-band synthetic aperture radar, the Biomass mission is designed to deliver crucial information about the state of our forests and how they are changing, and to further our knowledge of the role forests play in the carbon cycle.

Dedicated tomographic acquisitions to image forests in 3D at fine resolution

To be launched in summer 2024

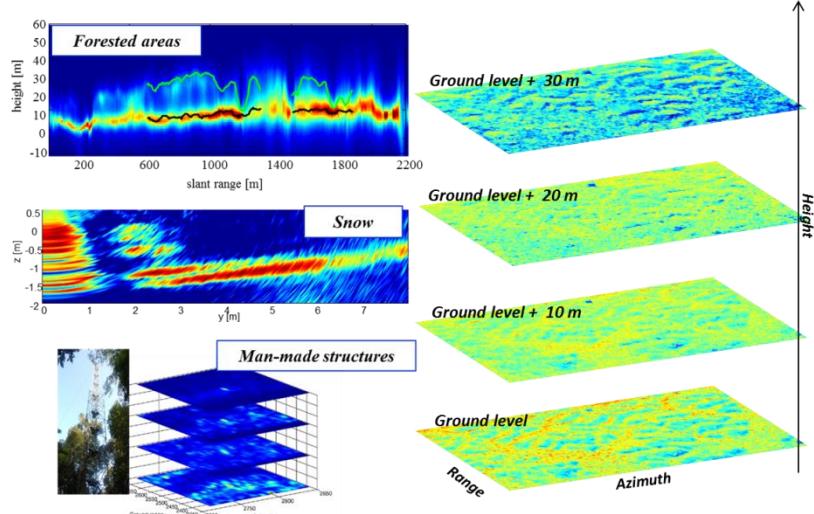
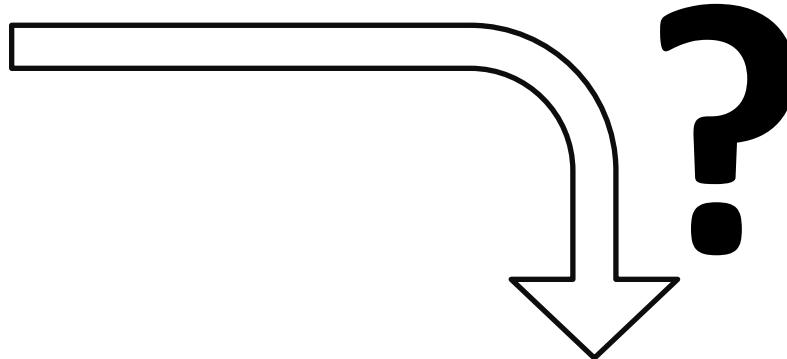
Site: Kourou, French Guiana

Rocket: Vega

A step back...

RADAR (**R**adio **D**etection **A**nd **R**anging) is a technology to detect and study far off targets by transmitting EM pulses at radiofrequency and observing the backscattered echoes

- Some relevant features:*
1. Active instrument: \Leftrightarrow no need for external illumination source
 2. Delay-based measurement \Leftrightarrow target distance is obtained based on pulse two-way travel time
 3. Microwaves penetrate through rain and clouds \Leftrightarrow visibility in all weather conditions
 4. Microwaves can penetrate into some natural media, like forests, snow, ice, sand \Leftrightarrow sensitivity to the 3D structure of illuminated media

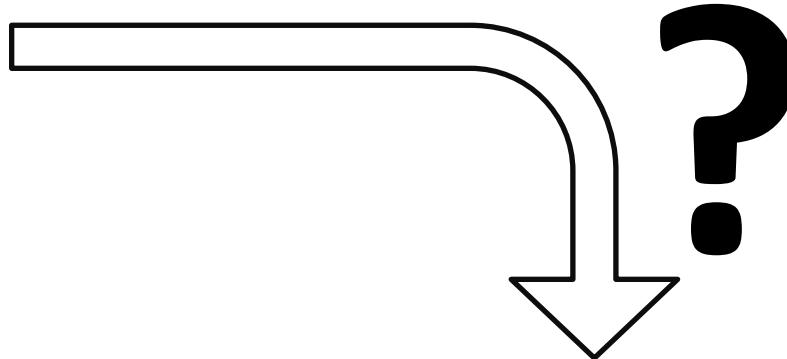


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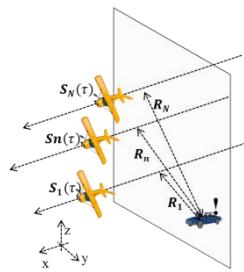
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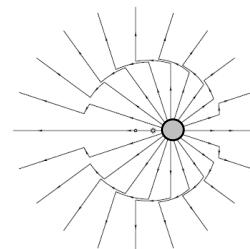


Answer:

Yes (☺), with some efforts concerning

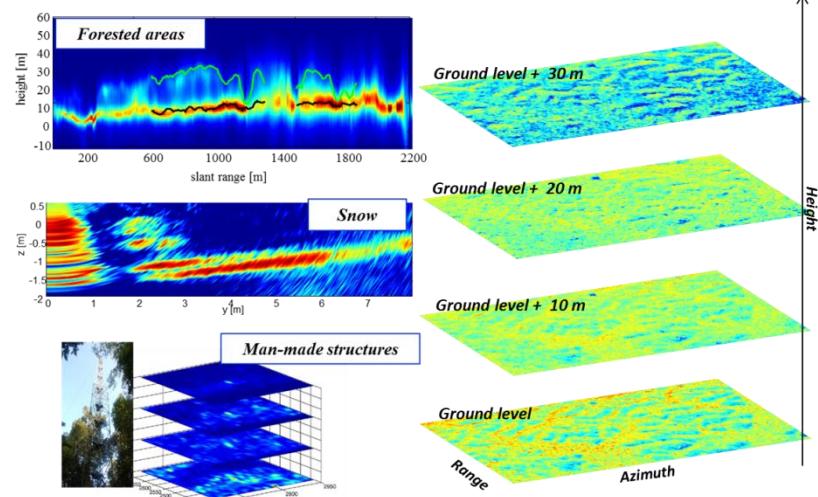
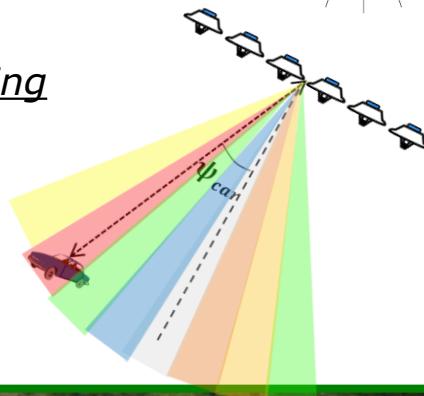


Geometry



Waves

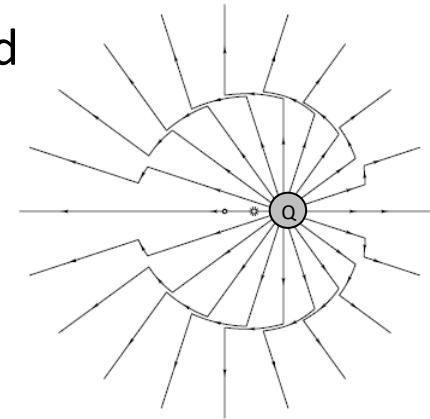
Radar Processing



Waves

Electromagnetic waves

- EM wave = perturbation in the intensity of the static EM field
- Effect of the universal speed limit
- Triggered by charges in non-uniform motion
- Propagation velocity in free space: $c \approx 3 \cdot 10^8$ m/s



Representation

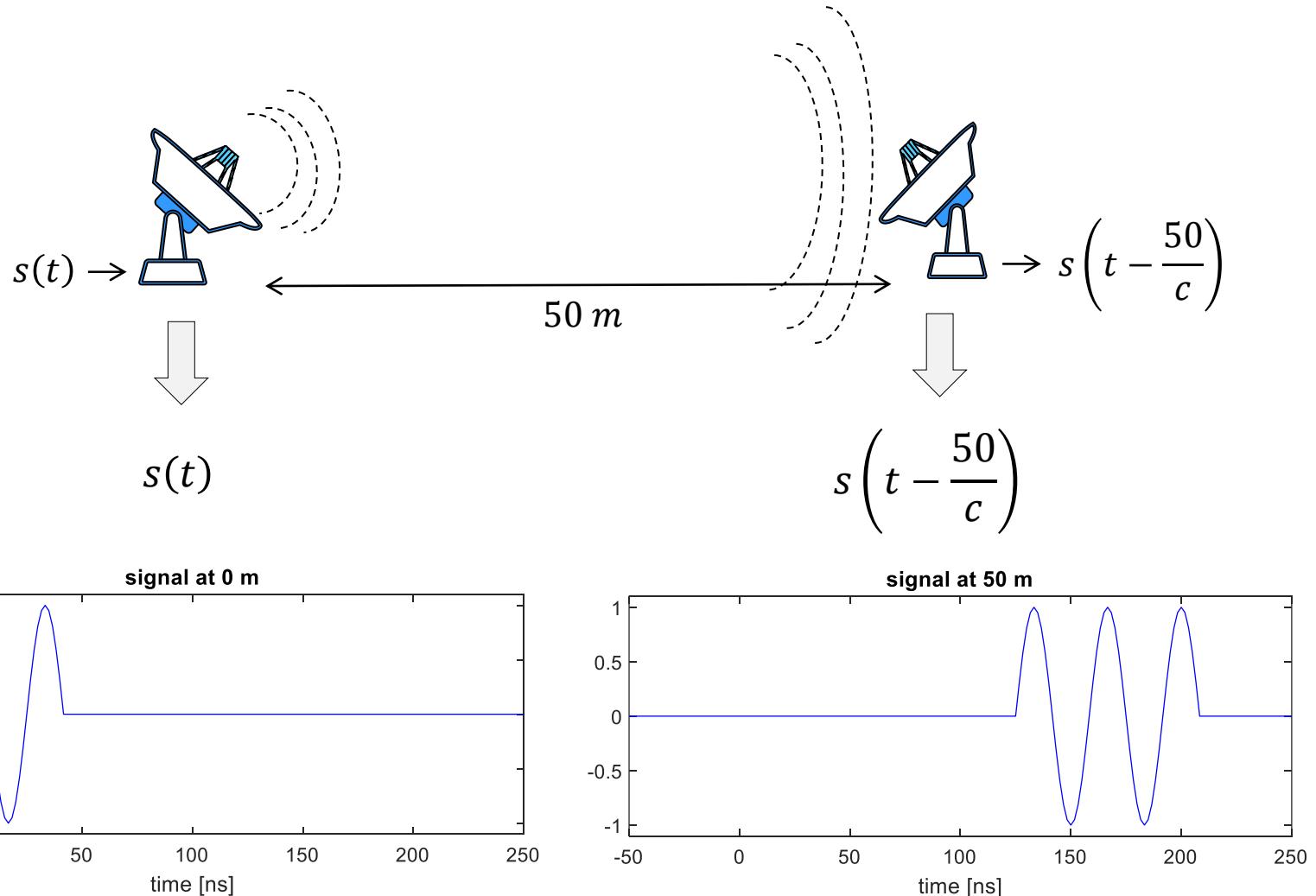
We can describe waves as signals that vary over **time** and **space** as:

$$s\left(t - \frac{z}{c}\right)$$

with $s(t)$ some waveform

Must knows about waves (at least for today)

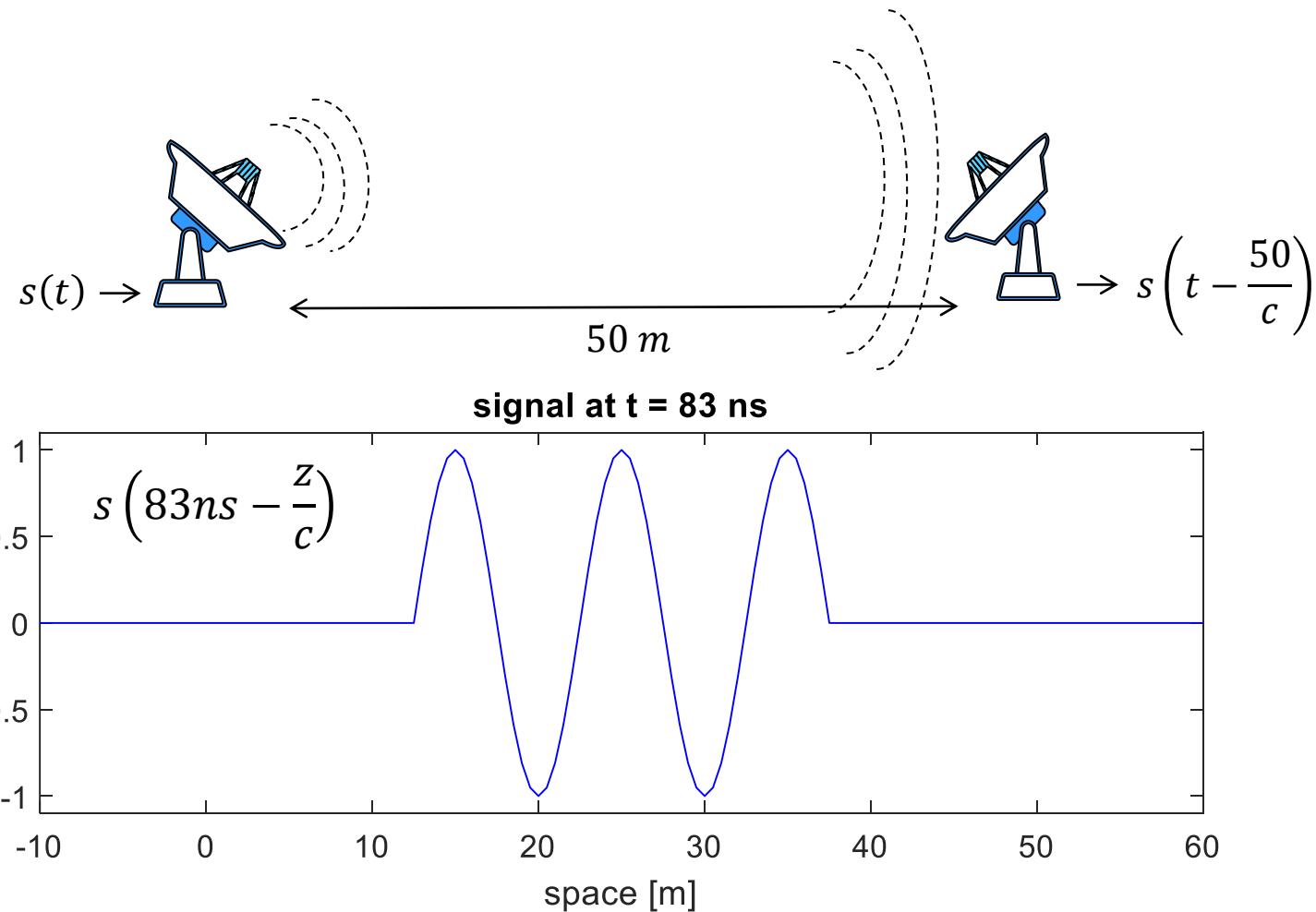
When we express a signal as a function of time, we are implicitly assuming that the signal is measured at a **fixed point in space**



Must knows about waves (at least for today)

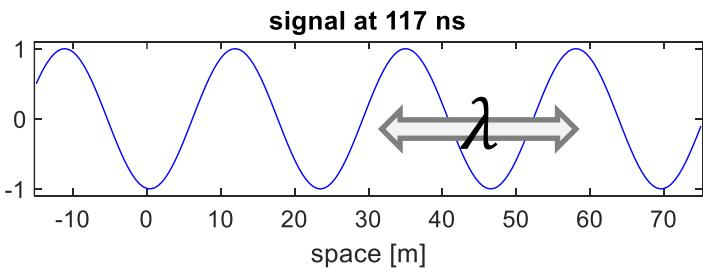
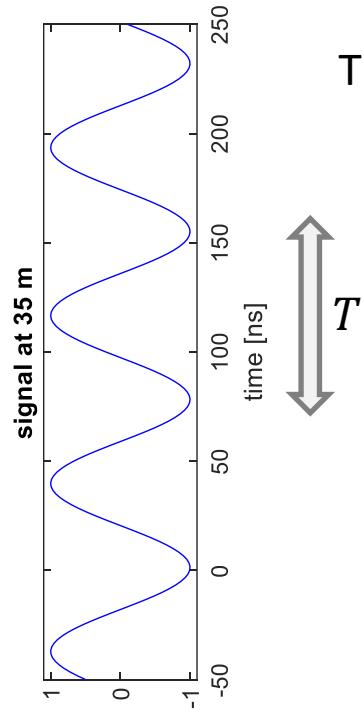
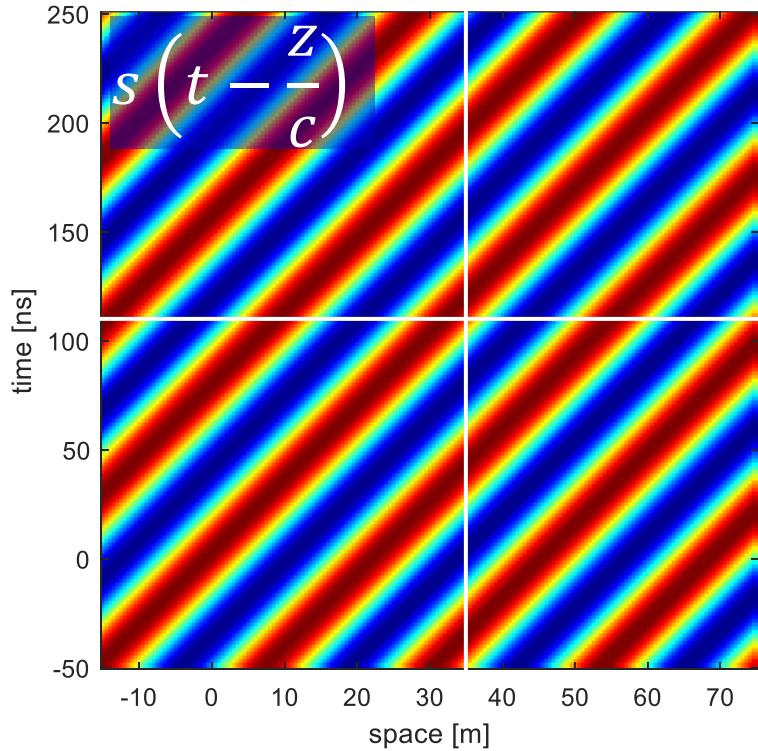


Equivalently, we can express a signal as a function of space by imaging that we can freeze the time at a **fixed instant** and take a snapshot of the signal distribution over space



Must knows about waves (at least for today)

For the case of a monochromatic wave we have $s(t) = \cos(2\pi f_0 t)$



The temporal period is obtained as

$$T = \frac{1}{f_0}$$

The spatial period, a.k.a. **the wavelength**, is obtained as

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{f_0}$$

Geometric principles of target localization

Radio detection and ranging



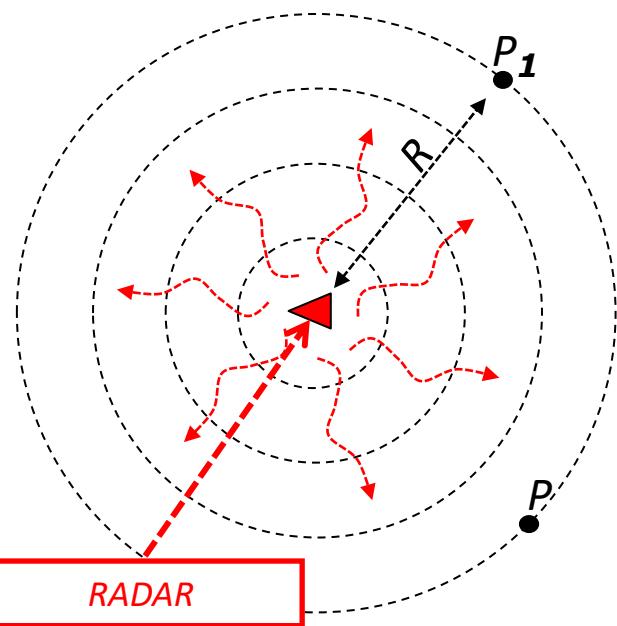
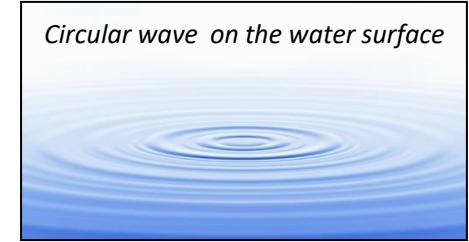
RADAR (**Radio Detection And Ranging**) is a technology to detect and study far off targets by transmitting EM pulses at radiofrequency and observing the backscattered echoes

Simplified description

- I) The transmitted signal propagates away from the RADAR sensors in all directions^(*) in the form of a **spherical wave**

^(*)Note: real antennas actually radiate over an angular sector, depending on size and wavelength

Circular wave on the water surface



$s_{Tx}(t) = s(t)$ = transmitted signal

$s_1(t)$ = signal received at point P_1

$$s_1(t) = s\left(t - \frac{R}{c}\right)$$

R = distance between P_1 and the RADAR

c = speed of light

The received signal depends on distance only

⇒ Any antenna at distance R from the RADAR receives the same signal $s_1(t)$

Radio detection and ranging

Simplified description

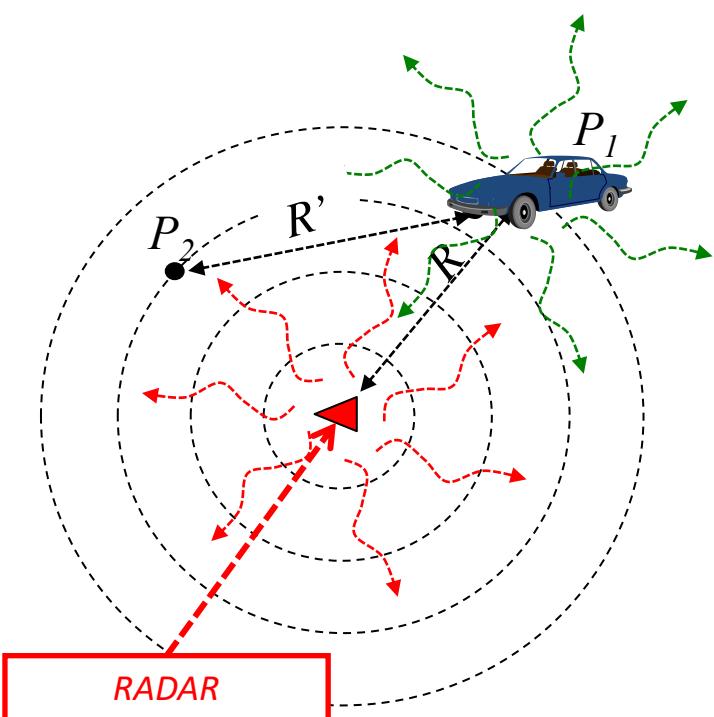
II) The signal interacts with surrounding objects (targets) \Leftrightarrow backscattered echoes

As a first approximation the backscattered echo can be represented by imaging the target as a new source of spherical waves

$s_1(t)$ = signal received at point P_1

$$s_1(t) = s \left(t - \frac{R}{c} \right)$$

R = distance between P_1 and the RADAR
 c = speed of light



$s_2(t)$ = backscattered signal received at point P_2

$$s_2(t) = A \cdot s_1 \left(t - \frac{R'}{c} \right) = A \cdot s \left(t - \frac{R'+R}{c} \right)$$

R' = distance from P_1 to P_2

A = constant accounting for the interaction of the impinging signal with the target

Radio detection and ranging

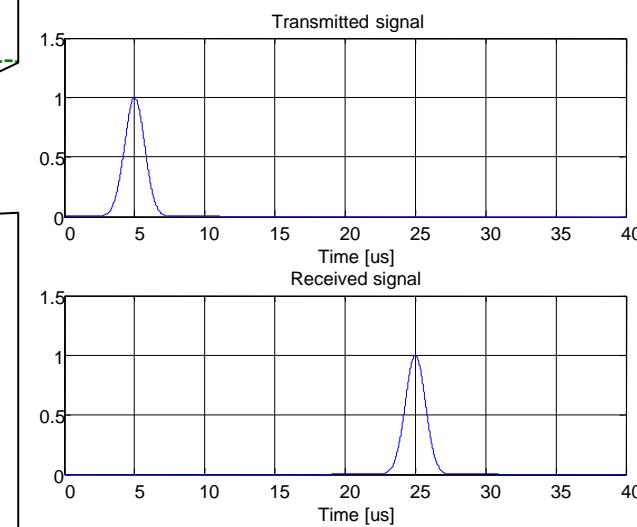
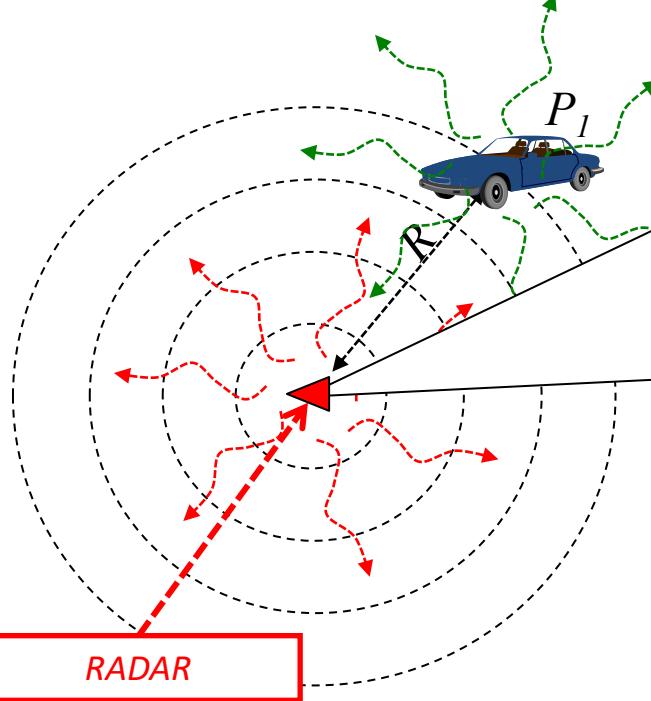
Simplified description:

III) The backscattered echo is received by the RADAR sensor

$s_{Rx}(t)$ = backscattered signal received by the RADAR

$$s_{Rx}(t) = A \cdot s_1\left(t - \frac{R}{c}\right) = A \cdot s\left(t - \frac{2R}{c}\right)$$

The distance of a target from the RADAR is known by measuring the pulse round-trip time



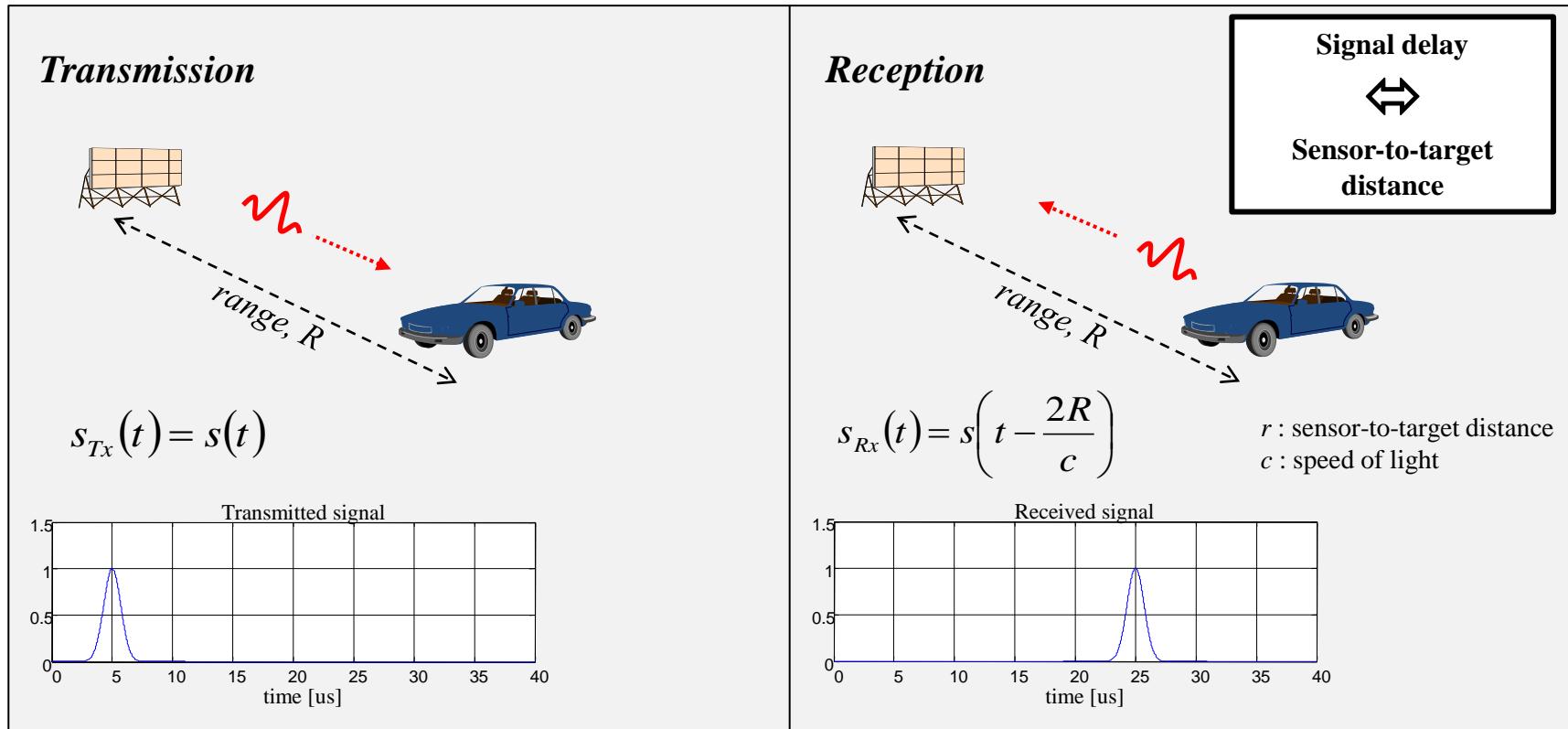
Example

Measured delay: $\tau = 20$ microseconds

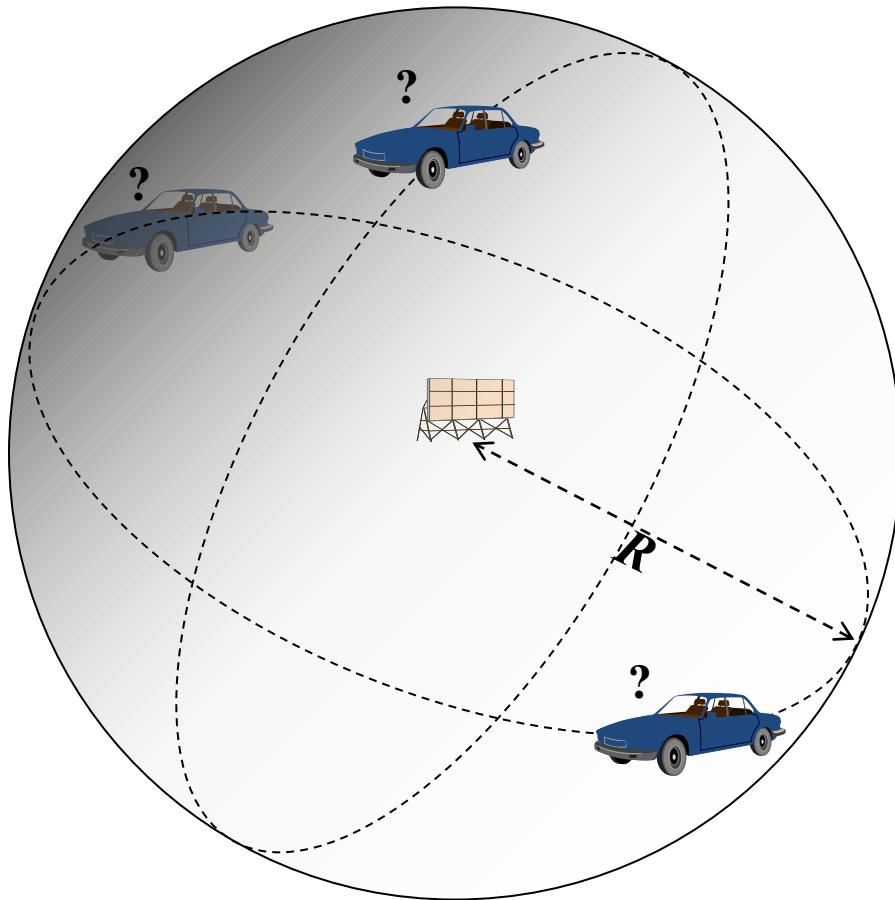
Propagation velocity: $c = 300000$ Km/s

\Rightarrow Range: $R = c \cdot \tau/2 = 3$ Km

Delay measurement



Delay measurement \Leftrightarrow Localization on the surface of a sphere



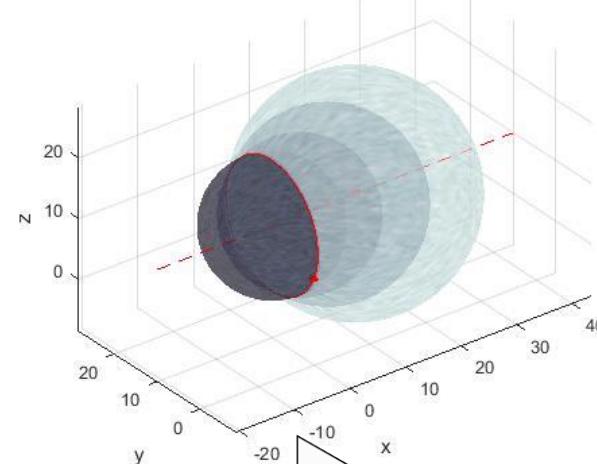
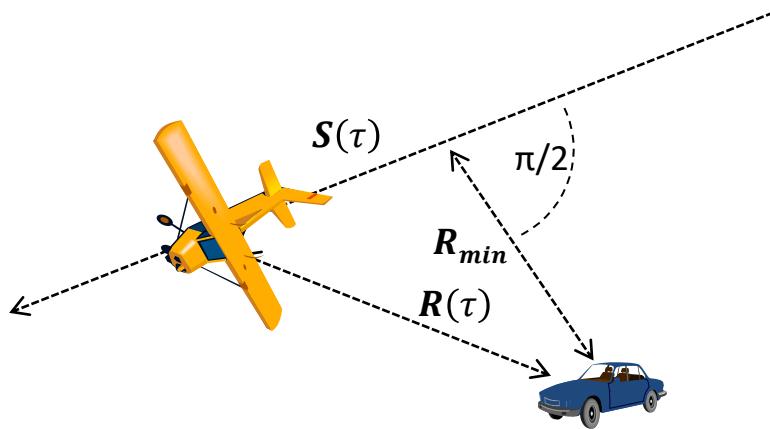
The target is bound to lie on a sphere

- Centered on the RADAR
- Of radius R

$\Rightarrow \textbf{1D Localization}$

Localization in 2D (SAR)

Flying a RADAR along a straight line = measuring the distance from the target to each point on the line

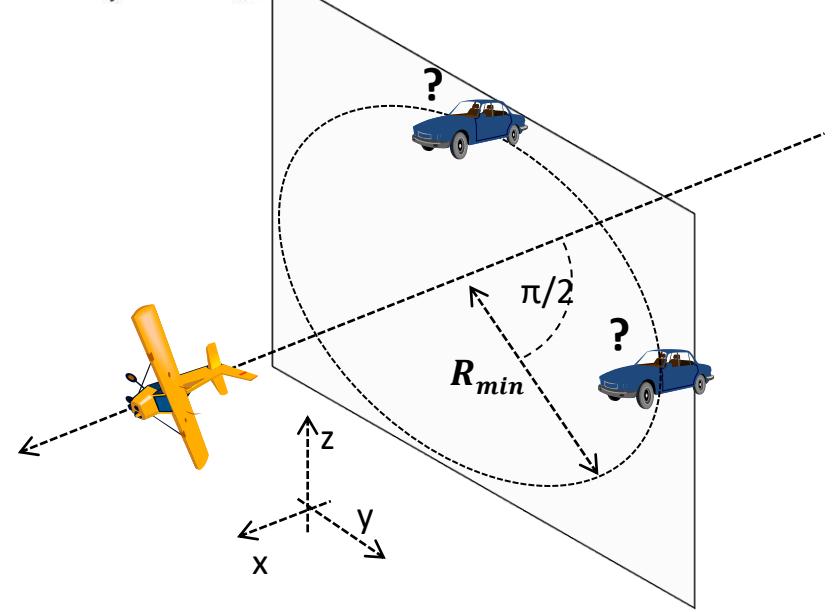


The target is bound to lie on the intersection of all the spheres:

- Centered in $S(\tau)$
- Of radius $R(\tau)$

⇒ The target is bound to lie on the circle:

- Centered on the trajectory
 - Perpendicular to the trajectory (yz plane)
 - Of radius R_{min}
- ⇒ 2D Localization

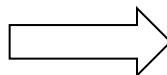


Localization in 3D (TomoSAR)

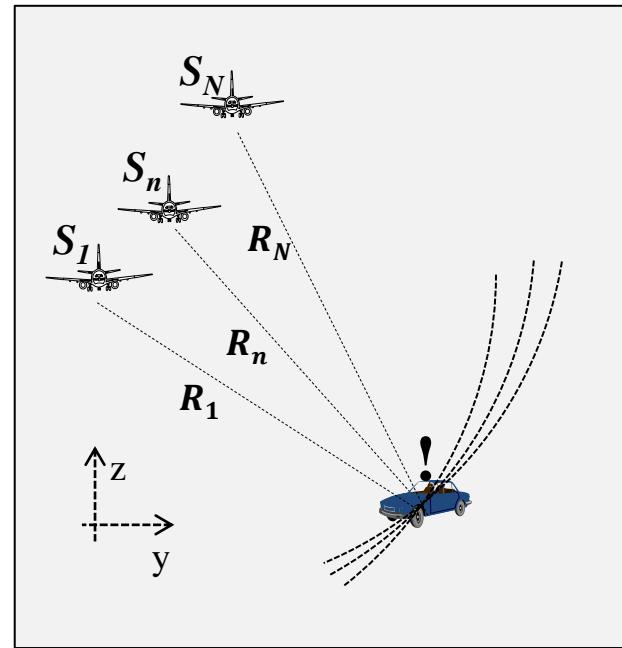
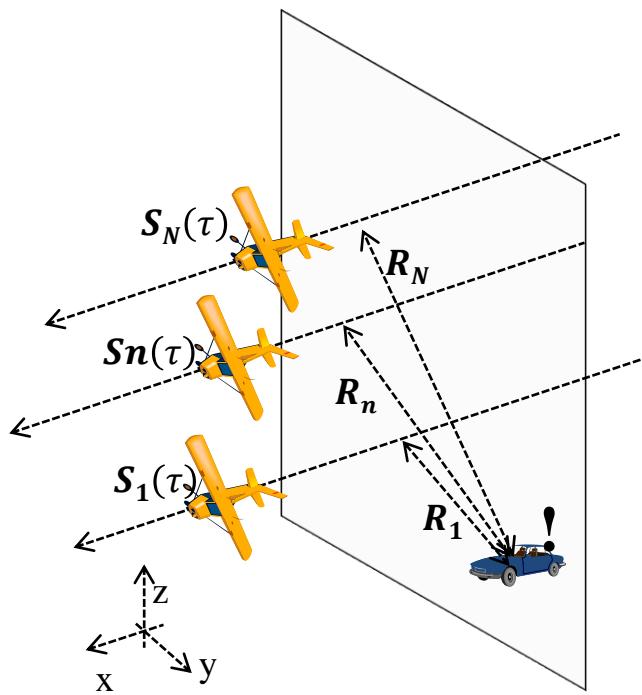
Flying a RADAR along multiple lines = measuring the distance from the target to multiple lines

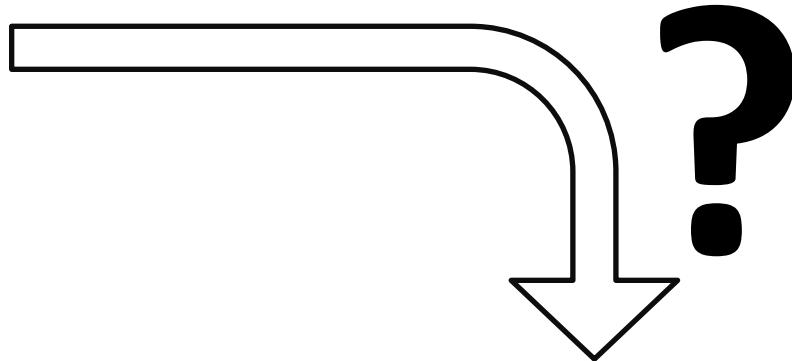
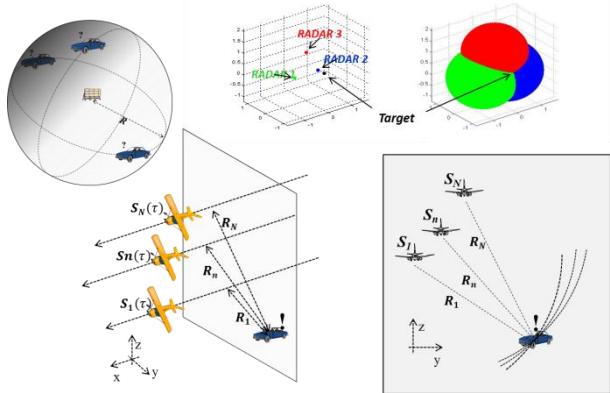
The target is bound to lie on the circles:

- Centered on each trajectory
- Perpendicular to the trajectory ,
- Of radius $R_1 \dots R_n \dots R_N$

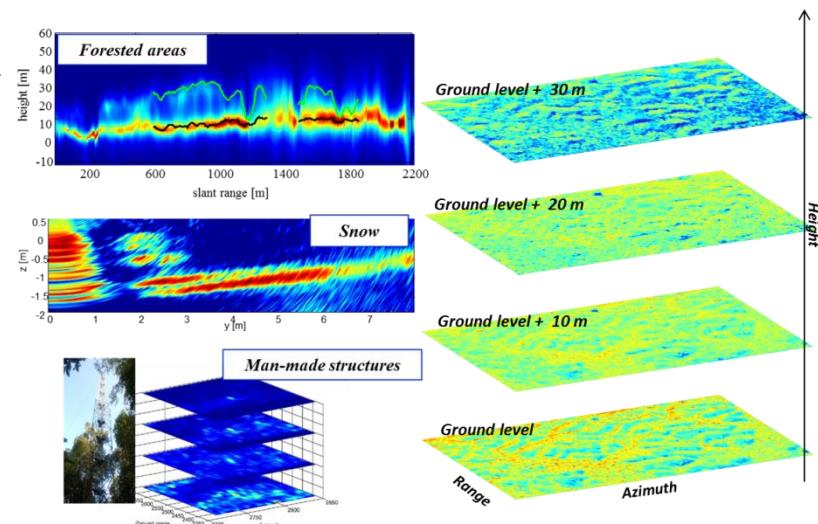


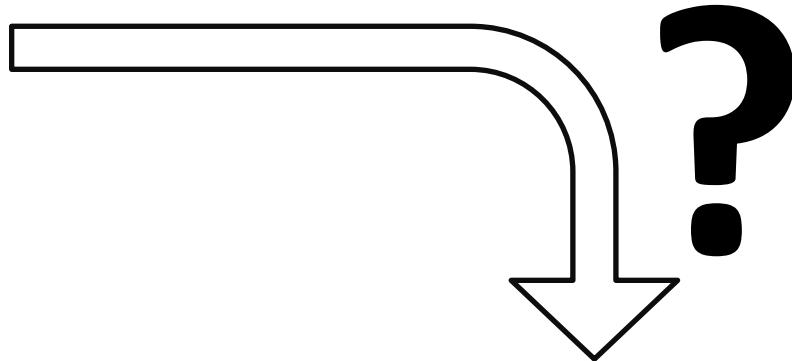
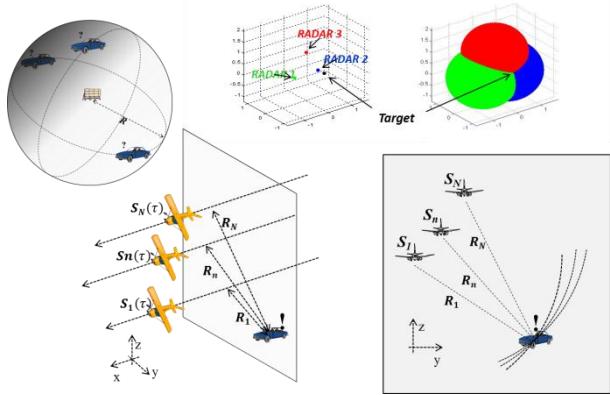
⇒ Only 1 solution in the 3D space !
⇒ 3D localization





Geometry unveils the principle why flying multiple trajectories results in the capability to localize a target in the 3D space

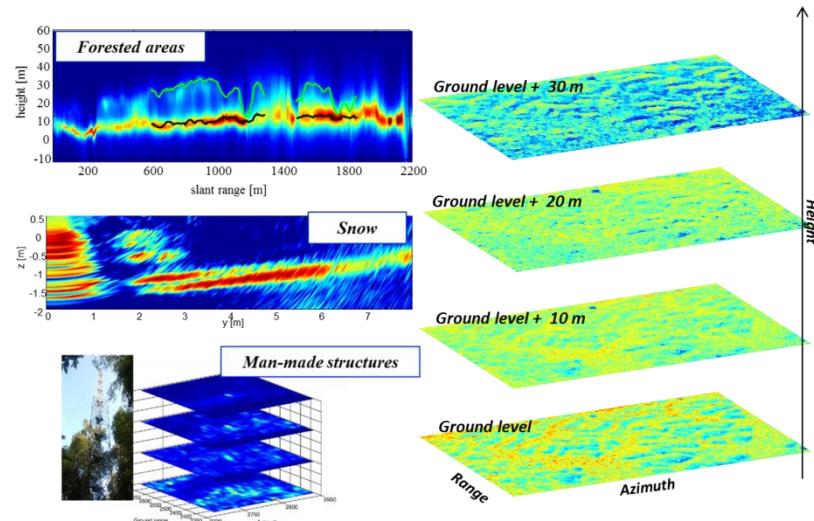




Geometry unveils the principle why flying multiple trajectories results in the capability to localize a target in the 3D space

Missing elements:

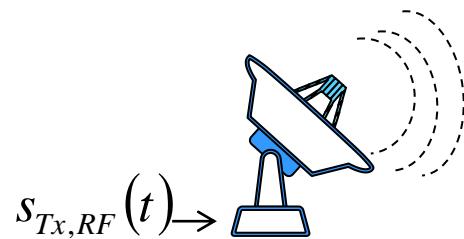
- **Resolution**
- **What if there are many targets ???**



RADAR signals

Radar signals

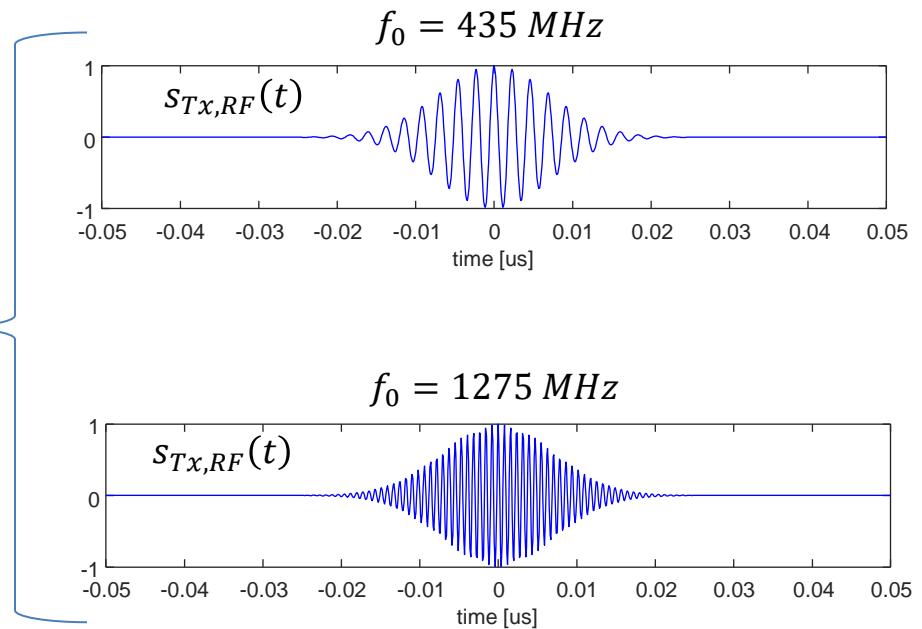
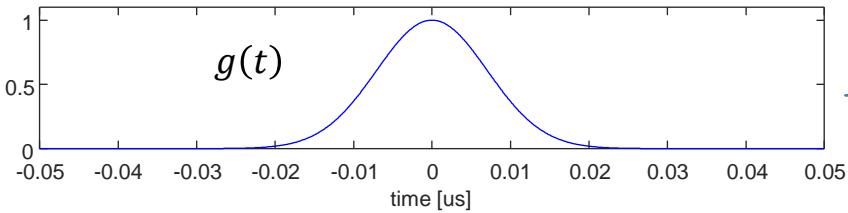
RADARs transmit and receive Radiofrequency (RF) pulses



$$s_{Tx,RF}(t) = g(t) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_0 t)$$

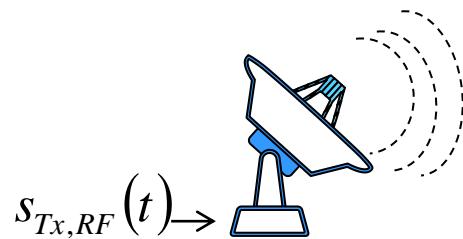
$g(t)$ = short EM pulse

f_0 = carrier frequency



Radar signals

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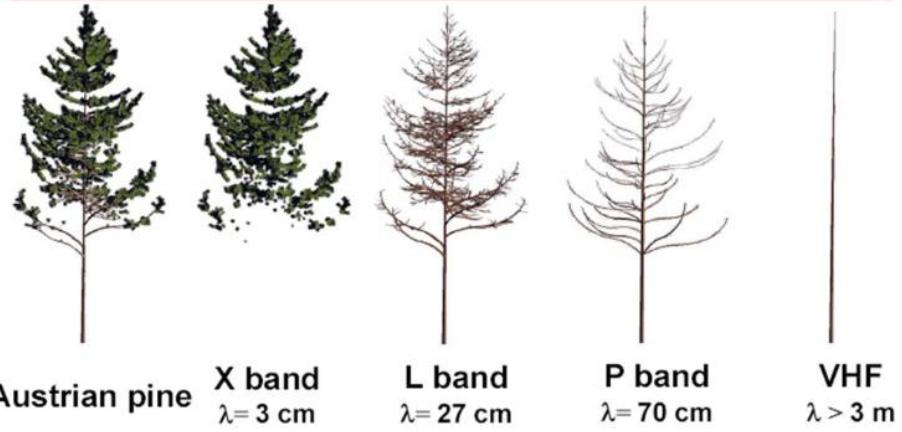
$g(t)$ = short EM pulse

f_0 = carrier frequency

The carrier frequency (or wavelength $\lambda = \frac{c}{f_0}$) is perhaps the most important parameter in the design of a Radar sensor, as it determines:

- The antenna to be used
- The RF hardware to be used
- **The features of the observed targets which the signal is sensitive to**

What are the scatterers in the volume scattering?

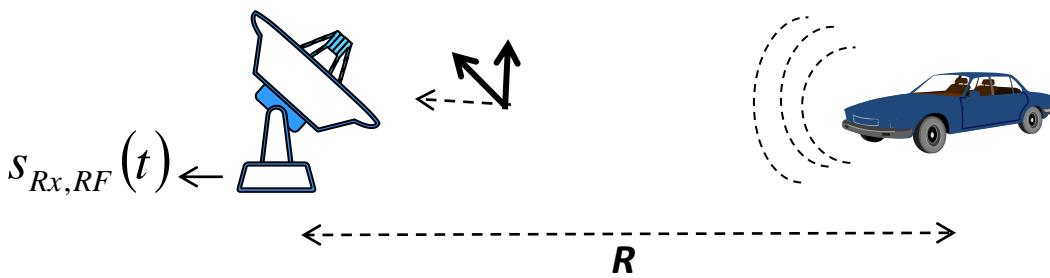
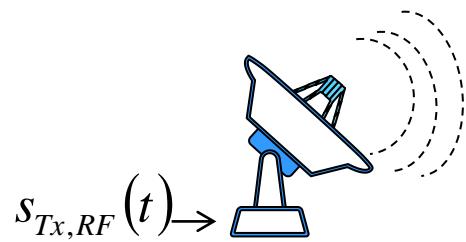


Austrian pine	X band $\lambda = 3 \text{ cm}$	L band $\lambda = 27 \text{ cm}$	P band $\lambda = 70 \text{ cm}$	VHF $\lambda > 3 \text{ m}$
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The main scatterers in a canopy are the elements having dimension of the order of the wavelength

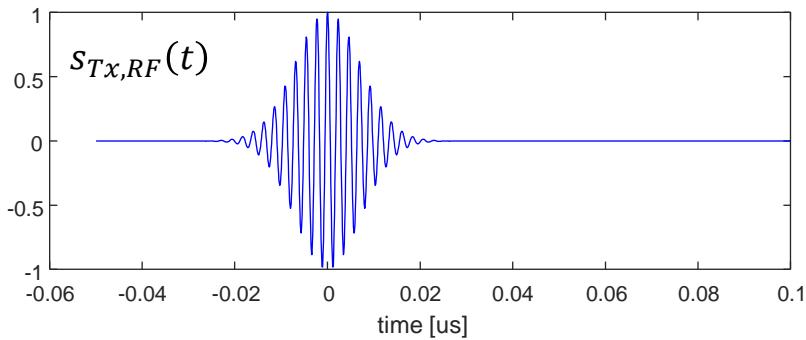
Radar signals

On a mathematical ground, the signal backscattered by a target is represented as a delayed version of the transmitted signal

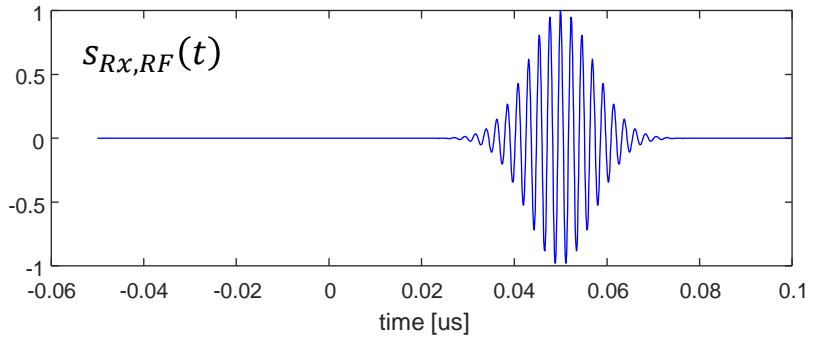


$$s_{Rx,RF}(t) = A \cdot s_{Tx,RF}(t - d)$$

$$d = \frac{2R}{c}$$



$$\text{delay} = \frac{2R}{c}$$



Radar signals

Following basic trigonometry, the received signal is expressed as:

$$s_{Rx,RF}(t) = A \cdot g(t - d) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_0 d) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_0 t) - A \cdot g(t - d) \cdot \sin(2\pi f_0 d) \cdot \sin(2\pi f_0 t)$$



In phase component $I(t)$



Quadrature component $-Q(t)$

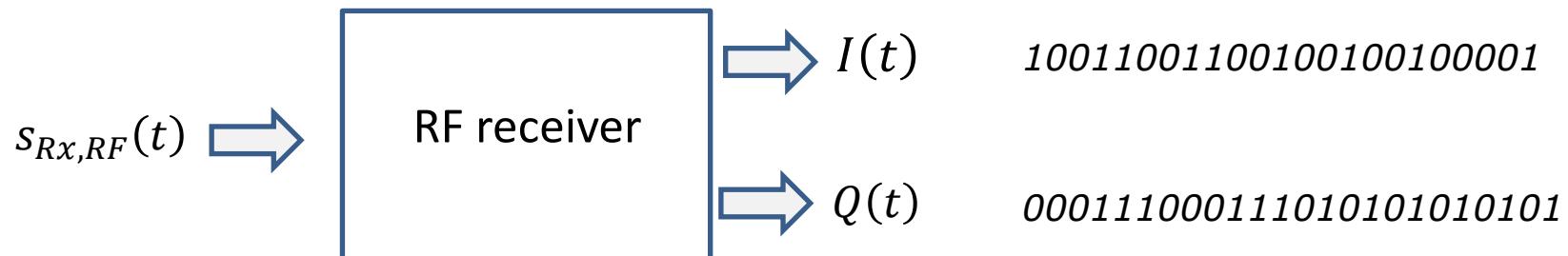
Where we define the in-phase and quadrature signals as:

- $I(t) = A \cdot g(t - d) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_0 d)$
- $Q(t) = -A \cdot g(t - d) \cdot \sin(2\pi f_0 d)$

The **information** about the target is carried by the amplitude and delay parameters A and d , which are embedded in the in-phase and quadrature signals $I(t)$ and $Q(t)$
 (we already know the value of the carrier, so no new info in it)

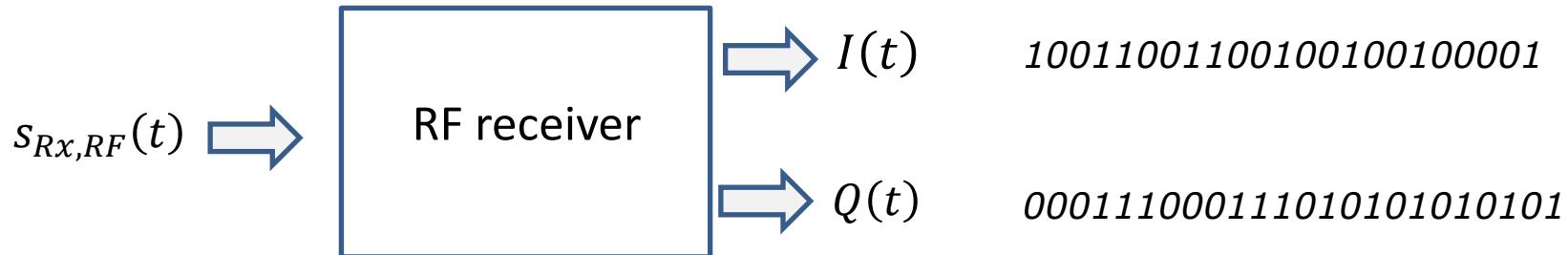
Radar signals

The $I(t)$ and $Q(t)$ of RF signals are extracted by RF circuitry, stored as numerical signals...



Radar signals

The $I(t)$ and $Q(t)$ of RF signals are extracted by RF circuitry, stored as numerical signals...



... and represented as a single **complex** signal, simply referred to as the (complex envelope of the) received signal

$$s_{Rx}(t) = I(t) + jQ(t) \quad j = \text{imaginary unit}$$

The complex representation is ubiquitous in the study of all wave phenomena

One good reason why it is used: it allows to make large use of the properties of complex exponentials (easy!)

⇒ ***noticeable simplification!***

Radar signals

Going back to the case of the received signal, we have:

$$s_{Rx,RF}(t) = A \cdot g(t - d) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_0 d) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_0 t) - A \cdot g(t - d) \cdot \sin(2\pi f_0 d) \cdot \sin(2\pi f_0 t)$$



In phase component $I(t)$



Quadrature component $-Q(t)$

$$s_{Rx}(t) = I(t) + jQ(t) = A \cdot g(t - d) \cdot e^{-j2\pi f_0 d}$$

Radar signals

Finally, recalling that:

- The delay is obtained as $d = \frac{2R}{c}$
- The wavelength is obtained is $\lambda = \frac{c}{f_0}$

we obtain the usual expression of the received signal used in large part of the Radar literature:

$$s_{Rx}(t) = A \cdot g\left(t - \frac{2R}{c}\right) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R}$$

Radar signals

Finally, recalling that:

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we obtain the usual expression of the received signal used in large part of the Radar literature:

$$s_{Rx}(t) = A \cdot g\left(t - \frac{2R}{c}\right) e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R}$$

Amplitude:

this term is related to the strength of the wave backscattered by the target

Delayed pulse:

this term allows for the determination of a target's distance from the Radar

Phase:

this is where the magic starts...

The frequency domain

Frequency domain

The signals presented in the last section were represented by drawing their variation over time, or by writing equations where the signal amplitude depends on the time like $g(t)$

This particular representation is referred to as ***time domain***

An alternative representation is built by representing a signal as a collection of **sinusoids** (either real or complex), i.e.:

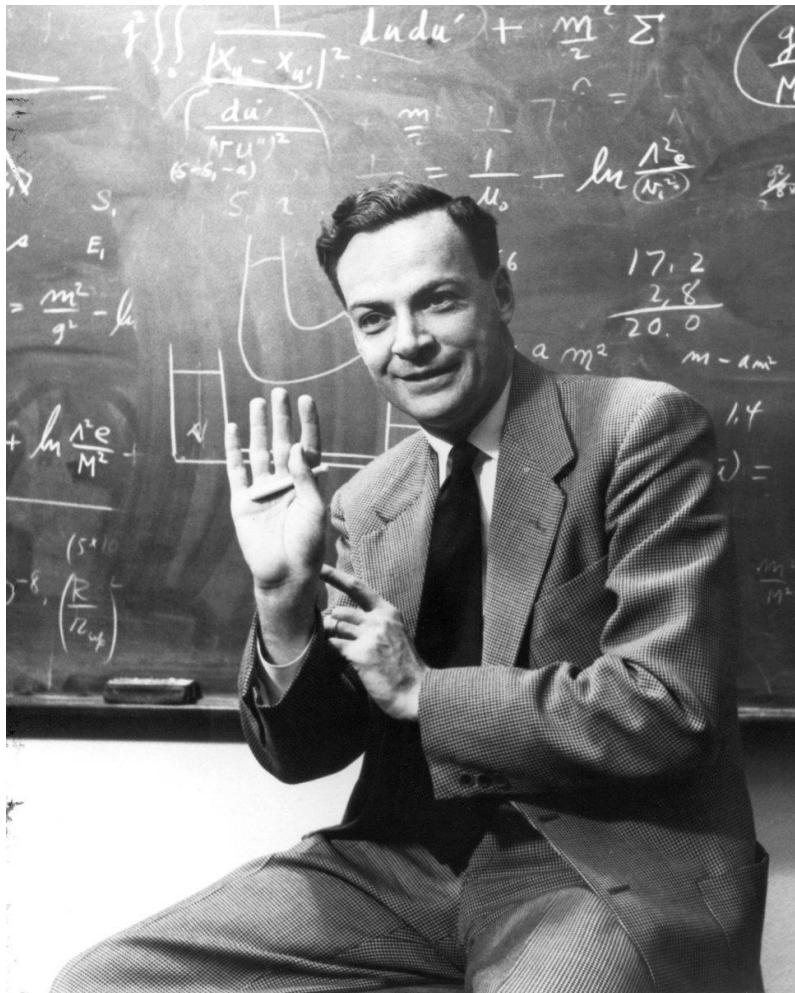
$$g(t) = G_1 e^{j2\pi f_1 t} + G_2 e^{j2\pi f_2 t} + G_3 e^{j2\pi f_3 t} + \dots$$

we say that the signal $g(t)$ "contains" the sinusoids at frequency $f_1, f_2, f_3\dots$ and the amplitudes G_1, G_2, G_3 represent the "strength" of each of those sinusoids.

Question: can we represent any signal in the frequency domain?
In other terms, can we always represent a signal as a collection of sinusoids?

Frequency domain

We answer with the help of Richard Feynman:



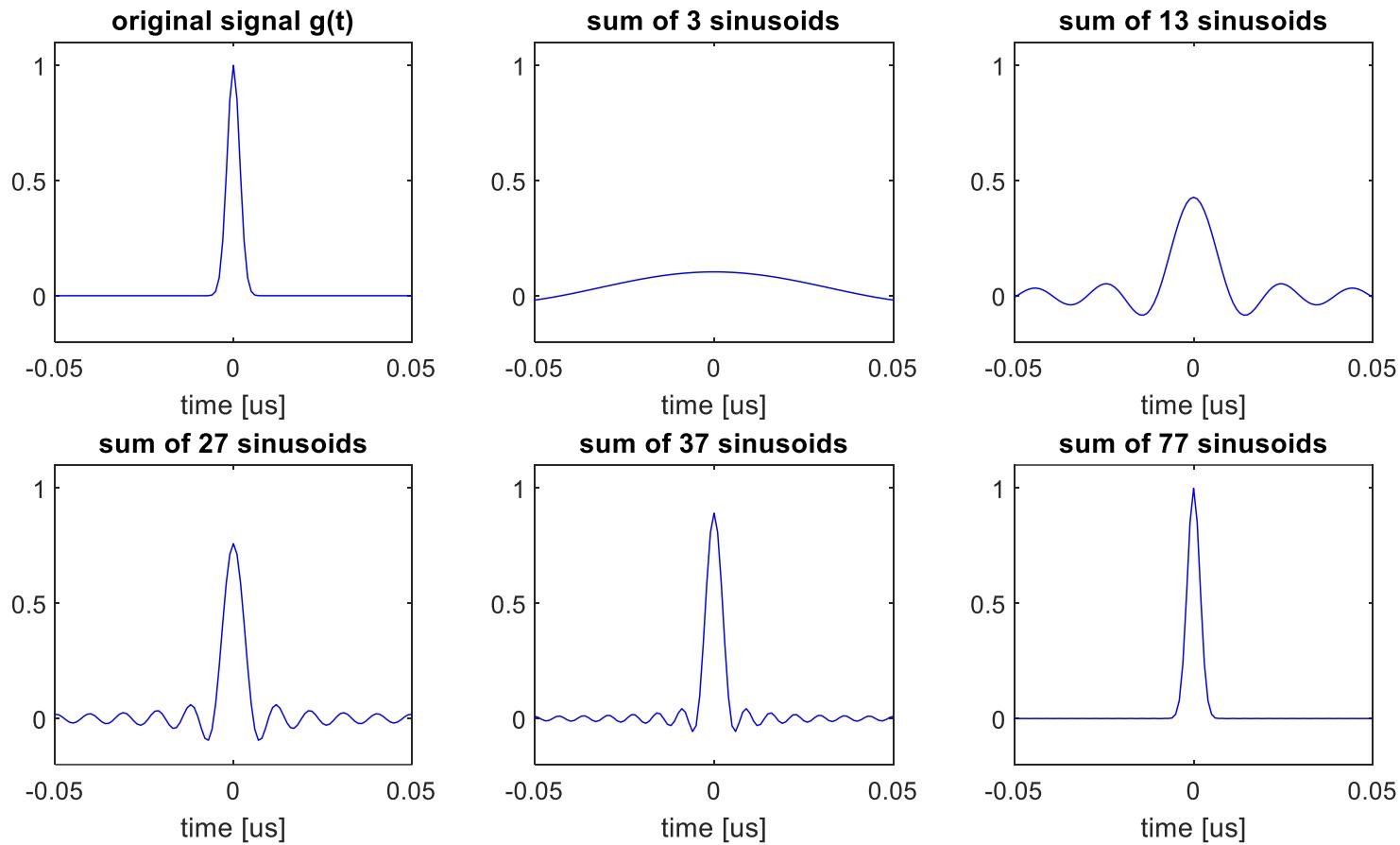
In what circumstances can a curve be represented as a sum of a lot of cosines?

Answer:

In all ordinary circumstances, except for certain cases the mathematicians can dream up. Of course, the curve must have only one value at a given point, and it must not be a crazy curve which jumps an infinite number of times in an infinitesimal distance, or something like that. But aside from such restrictions any reasonable curve (one that a singer is going to be able to make by shaking her vocal cords) can always be compounded by adding cosine waves together.

Frequency domain

Practically, this means we can **always** represent a signal in terms of a sum of sinusoids, as long as we consider a sufficient number of sinusoids



Frequency domain

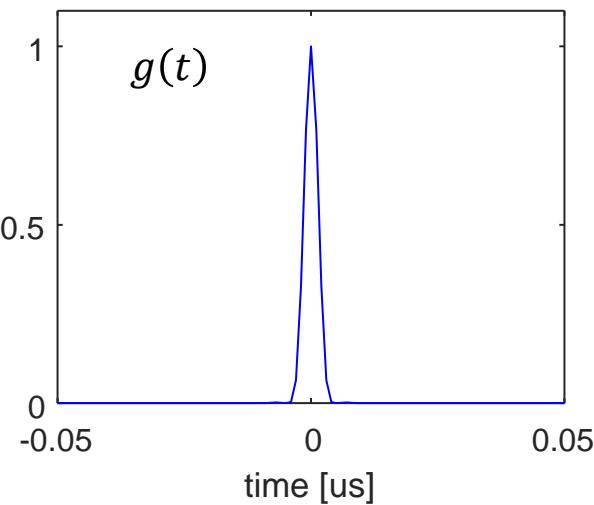


Practically, this means we can **always** represent a signal in terms of a sum of sinusoids, as long as we consider a sufficient number of sinusoids

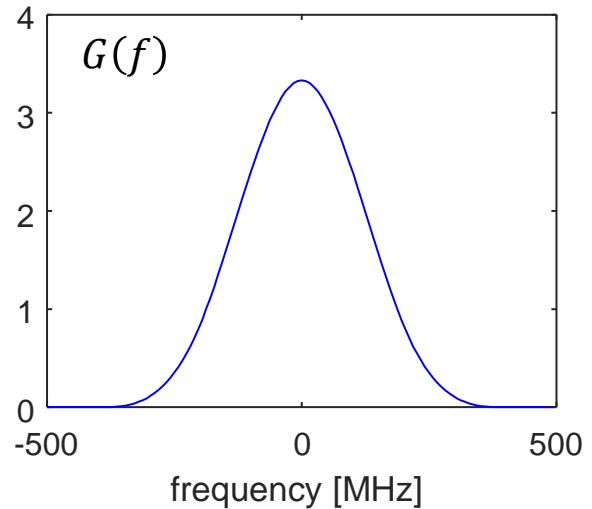
In this way, we can represent the signal g by drawing (or writing) the series of the amplitudes as a function of the frequency of the associated sinusoid, i.e.: $G(f)$

$$g(t) = G_1 e^{j2\pi f_1 t} + G_2 e^{j2\pi f_2 t} + G_3 e^{j2\pi f_3 t} + \dots$$

This particular representation is referred to as **frequency domain**



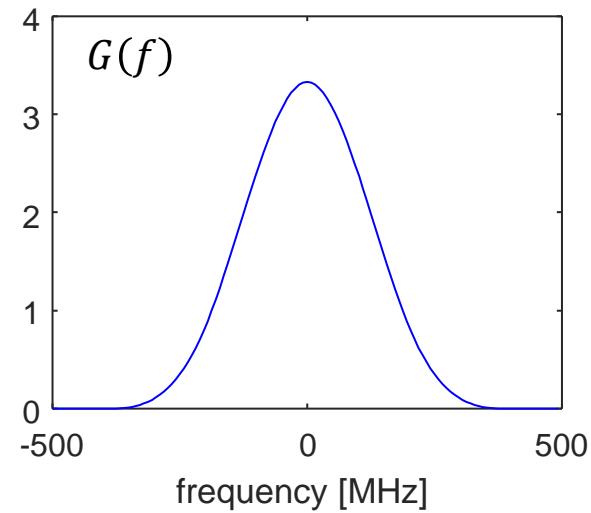
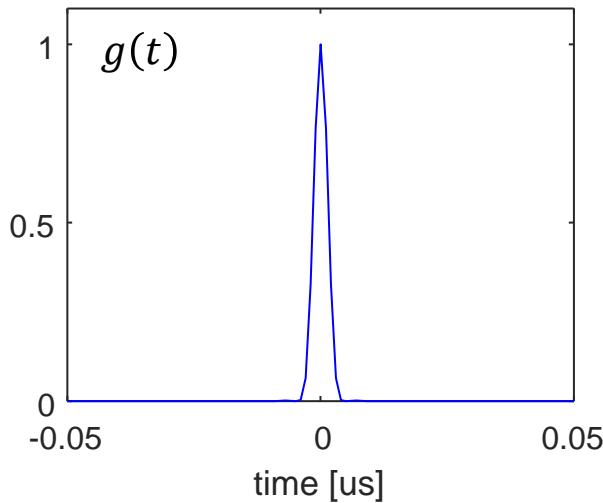
Time domain representation



Frequency domain representation

Bandwidth

The **bandwidth** of a signal is defined as the “length” of the interval where we find the frequencies that are contained in it

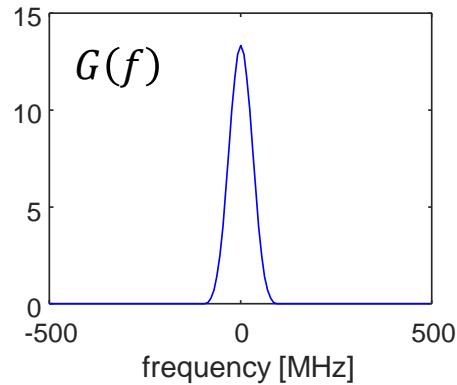
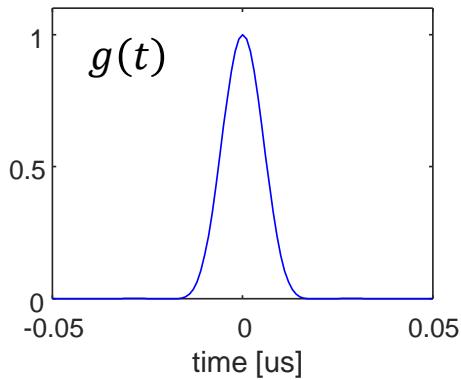


Bandwidth B

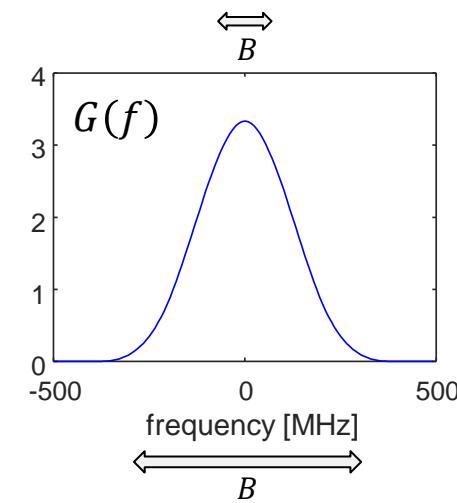
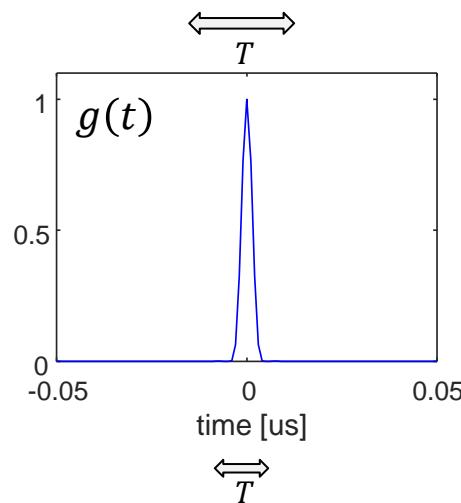
Bandwidth

For Radar pulses we can state the rule that (with some exceptions we will not discuss):

signal bandwidth is inversely proportional to signal duration



$$T \approx \frac{1}{B}$$



$$T \approx \frac{1}{B}$$

Question: how do we get to know which frequencies contribute to a signal?
How do we compute their amplitudes $G(f)$?

Answer: we calculate the ***Fourier Transform*** of the signal

For a signal represented as a sequence of time samples in our computer, the Fourier Transform is expressed as:

$$G(f) = \sum_n g(t_n) \cdot e^{-j2\pi f t_n}$$

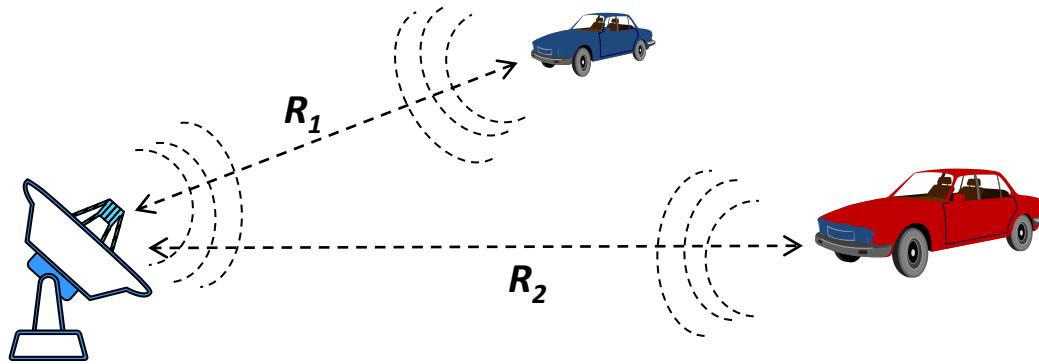
Which states a simple recipe:

- Choose (at will) a particular frequency f
- Take the original signal $g(t_n)$ and multiply its time samples times $e^{-j2\pi f t_n}$
- Sum over all samples
- Repeat for any frequency f we want to evaluate

Range resolution

Range resolution

The concept of bandwidth leads us to directly to the important concept of **range resolution**, intended as the capability to distinguish (resolve) two targets found at slightly different distances from the Radar

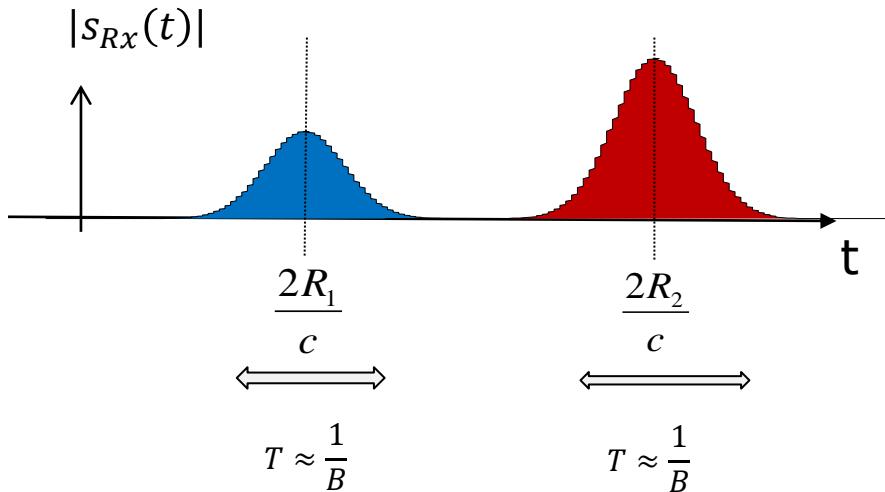


The received signal is now expressed as the sum of two signals associated with the two targets

$$s_{Rx}(t) = A_1 \cdot g\left(t - \frac{2R_1}{c}\right) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_1} + A_2 \cdot g\left(t - \frac{2R_2}{c}\right) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_2}$$

Range resolution

If we plot signal magnitude, we obtain the following graph



⇒ We can tell there are two targets as long as the received signal exhibits **two distinct peaks**
 This occurs upon the condition that:

$$\frac{2|R_2 - R_1|}{c} \geq T \iff |R_2 - R_1| \geq \frac{c}{2B} = \Delta R$$

Where $\Delta R = \frac{c}{2B}$ is referred to as the **range resolution** of the Radar

Range resolution



B	ΔR	Typical SAR case
6 MHz	25 m	P-Band (≈ 400 MHz carrier) spaceborne SAR (due to ITU regulations)
40 MHz	3.75 m	L-Band (≈ 1300 MHz carrier) spaceborne SAR
150 MHz – 500 MHz	1 m – 0.3 m	Low frequency airborne SAR (hundreds of MHz to few GHz) X-band (≈ 10 GHz carrier) spaceborne SAR
1 GHz – 5 GHz	0.15 m – 0.03 m	Higher frequency (≥ 10 GHz carrier) airborne SAR (some cases) Higher frequency (≥ 70 GHz carrier) automotive Radar

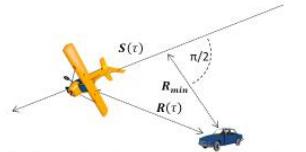
Angular resolution

Angular resolution



Localization in 2D (SAR)

Flying a RADAR along a straight line = measuring the distance from the target to each point on the line

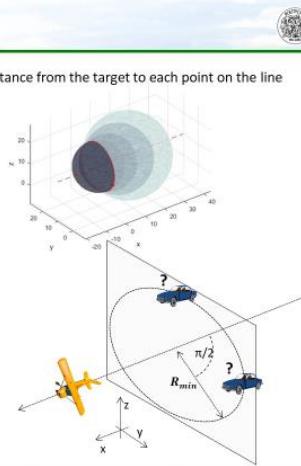


The target is bound to lie on the intersection of all the spheres:

- Centered in $S(t)$
- Of radius $R(t)$

⇒ The target is bound to lie on the circle:

- Centered on the trajectory
 - Perpendicular to the trajectory (yz plane)
 - Of radius R_{min}
- ⇒ 2D Localization



Moving a RADAR along a straight line = measuring the distance from the target to each point on the line
↔ 2D Localization

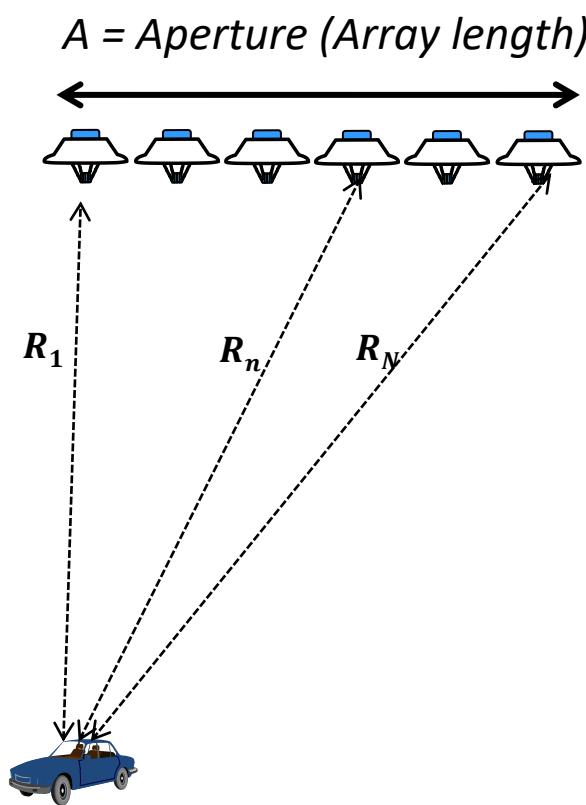
How ?

Let's take a step back....

Angular resolution

Consider an array of N antennas, sequentially emitting a **monochromatic wave**

Note: Monochromatic wave $\Leftrightarrow 0$ bandwidth $\Leftrightarrow g(t) = 1 \Leftrightarrow$ no range resolution



Transmitted signal

$$s_{Tx}(t) = \exp(j2\pi f_0 t)$$

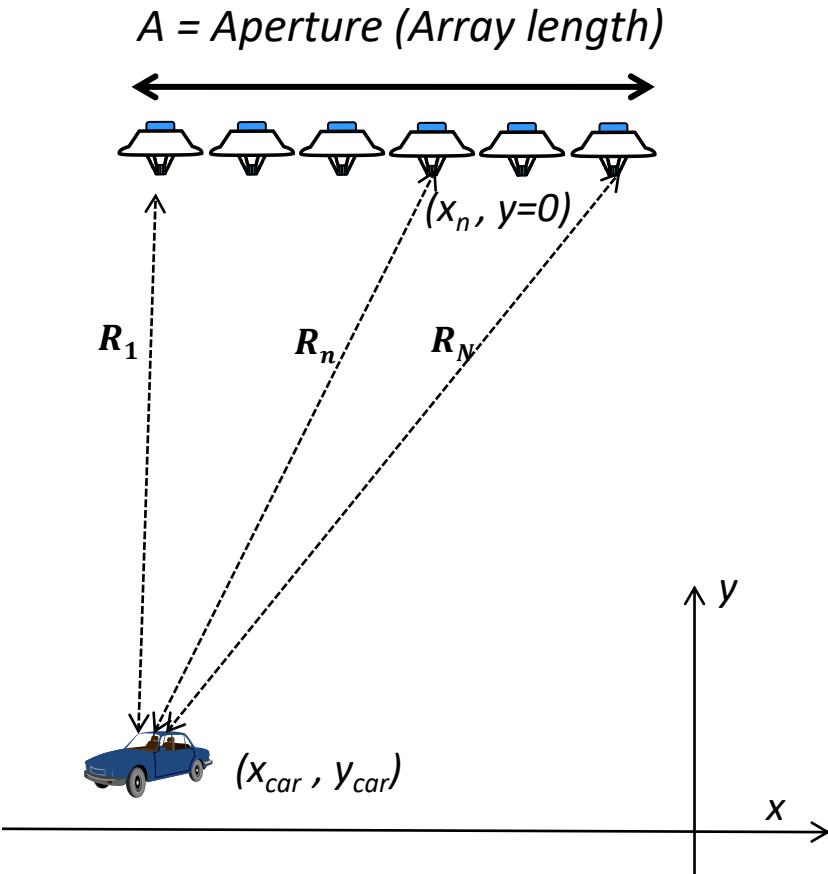
Received signal

$$s_{Rx}(n) = A_{car} \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_n}$$

Angular resolution

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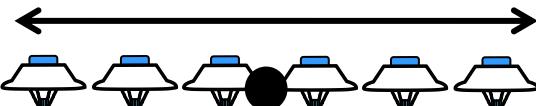
$$R_n = \sqrt{(x_n - x_{car})^2 + (y_{car})^2}$$

Angular resolution

Consider an array of N antennas, sequentially emitting a **monochromatic wave**

Note: Monochromatic wave $\Leftrightarrow 0$ bandwidth $\Leftrightarrow g(t) = 1 \Leftrightarrow$ no range resolution

$A = \text{Aperture (Array length)}$



R_{car}

ψ_{car}

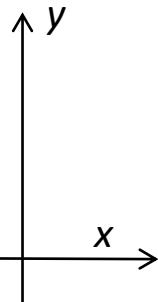


Received signal

$$s_{Rx}(n) = A_{car} \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_n}$$

$$R_n \cong R_{car} + \sin(\psi_{car}) \cdot (x_n - x_0)$$

Valid for $R_{car} \gg A$

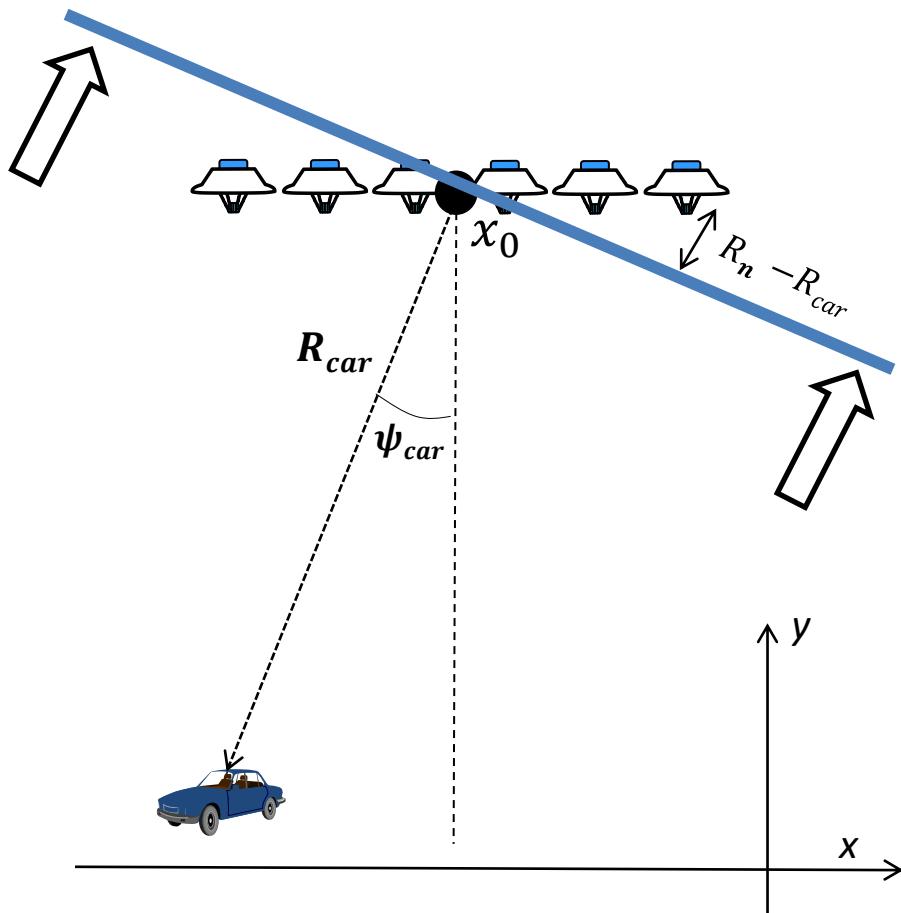


Angular resolution



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Received signal

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$$R_n \cong R_{car} + \sin(\psi_{car}) \cdot (x_n - x_0)$$

Valid for $R_{car} \gg A$

Equivalent to a planar wavefront from the car to the antenna array

Angular resolution

Plane wavefront approximation

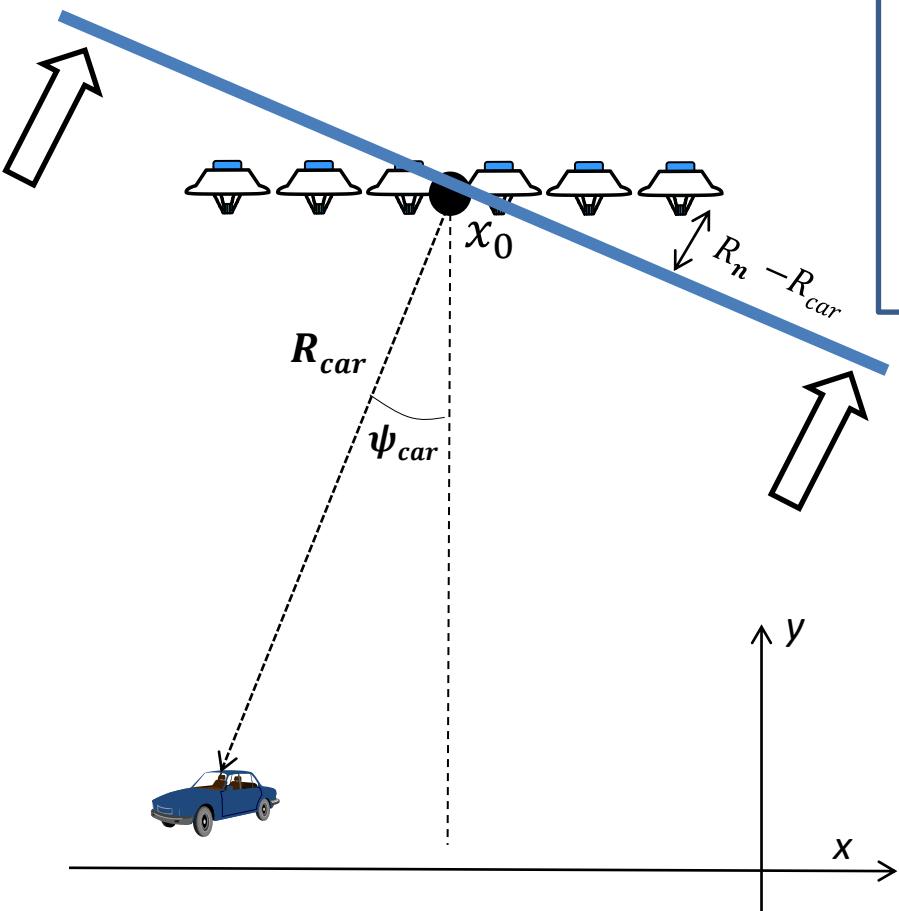
$$R_n \cong R_{car} + \sin(\psi_{car}) \cdot (x_n - x_0)$$

Received signal

$$s_{Rx}(n) \cong A_{car} e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_{car}} \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}\sin(\psi_{car}) \cdot x_n}$$

Complex sinusoid with spatial frequency

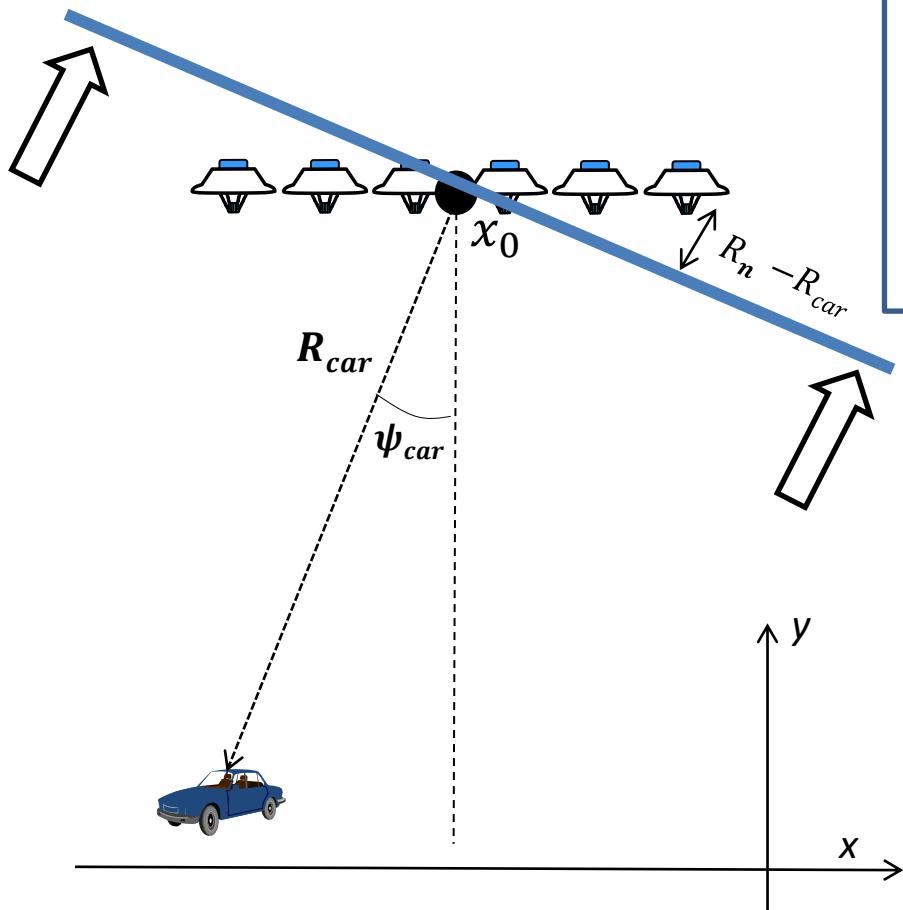
$$f_{car} = \frac{2}{\lambda} \sin(\psi_{car})$$



The Direction of Arrival (DoA) of the wavefront impinging on the array can be found by measuring the spatial frequency along the array

Plane wavefront approximation

$$R_n \cong R_{car} + \sin(\psi_{car}) \cdot (x_n - x_0)$$



Received signal

$$s_{Rx}(n) \cong A_{car} e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_{car}} \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}\sin(\psi_{car}) \cdot x_n}$$

Complex sinusoid with spatial frequency

$$f_{car} = \frac{2}{\lambda} \sin(\psi_{car})$$

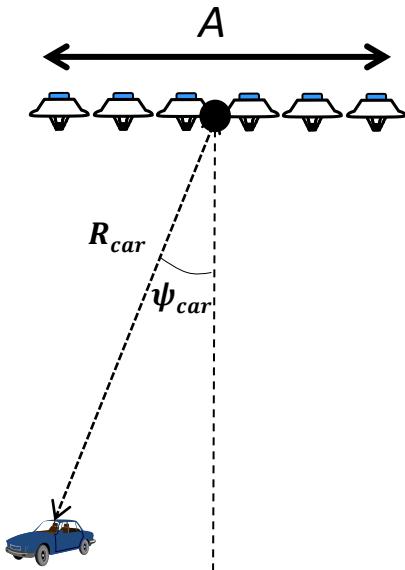
The Direction of Arrival (DoA) of the wavefront impinging on the array can be found by measuring the spatial frequency along the array

We need a Fourier Transform!

Signal along the array

$$s_{Rx}(n) \cong A_{car} e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_{car}} \cdot e^{-j2\pi f_{car} \cdot x_n}$$

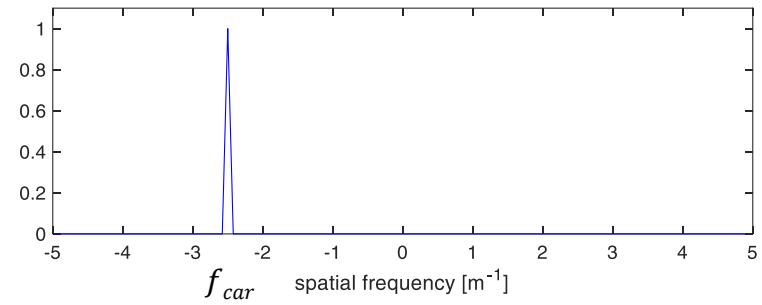
$$f_{car} = \frac{2}{\lambda} \sin(\psi_{car})$$



Fourier Transform

The signal to be transformed contains a single sinusoid at frequency f_{car}

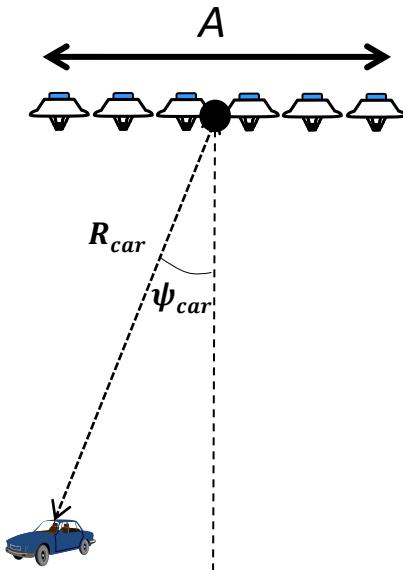
⇒ We would expect its Fourier Transform to show a single peak at frequency $f_x = f_{car}$



Signal along the array

$$s_{Rx}(n) \cong A_{car} e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_{car}} \cdot e^{-j2\pi f_{car} \cdot x_n}$$

$$f_{car} = \frac{2}{\lambda} \sin(\psi_{car})$$

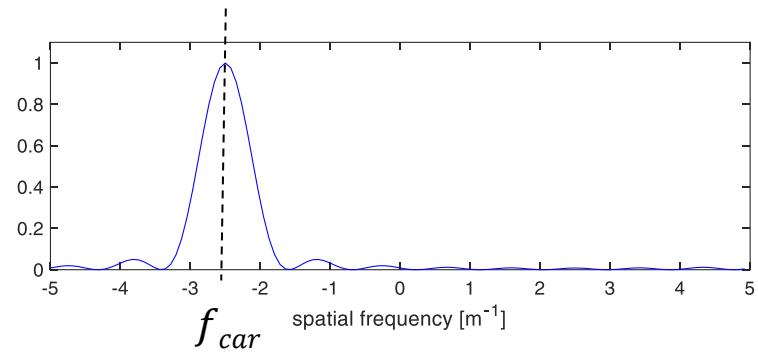


Fourier Transform

The signal to be transformed contains a single sinusoid at frequency f_{car}

However, we find something *quite different*

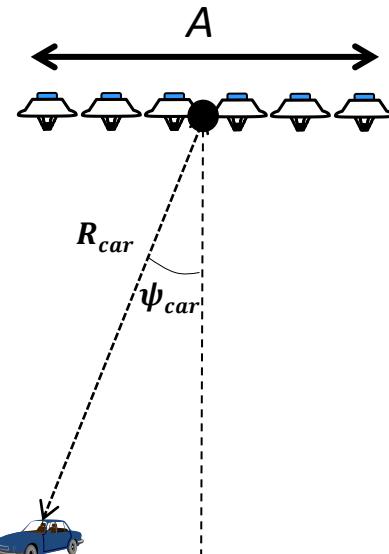
- A peak is present at the right position ($f_x = f_{car}$)...
- ... but is spread across an interval of frequencies



Signal along the array

$$s_{Rx}(n) \cong A_{car} e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_{car}} \cdot e^{-j2\pi f_{car} \cdot x_n}$$

$$f_{car} = \frac{2}{\lambda} \sin(\psi_{car})$$

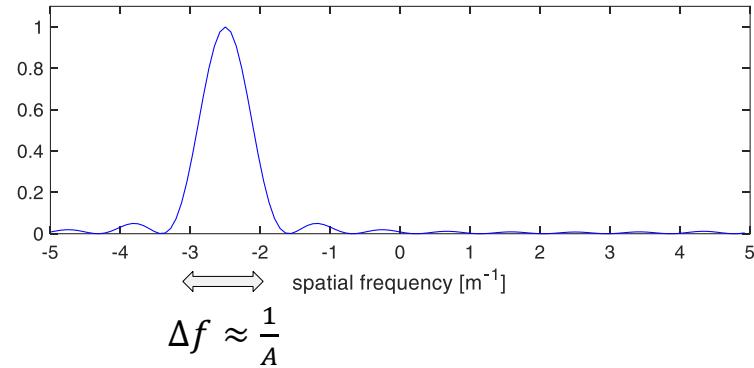


Fourier Transform

The signal to be transformed contains a single sinusoid at frequency f_{car}

However, we find something *quite different*

- A peak is present at the right position ($f_x = f_{car}$)...
- ... but is spread across an interval of frequencies



The reason for the spread is the inverse proportionality between signal duration and bandwidth

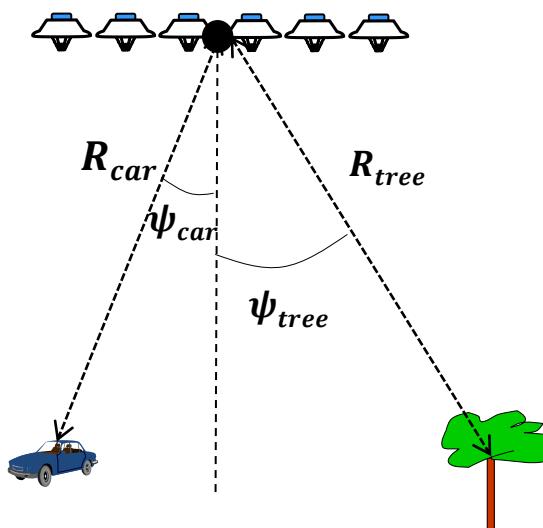
The signal along the array has a “duration” of A meters hence its FT has a bandwidth $\Delta f \approx \frac{1}{A}$

Angular resolution

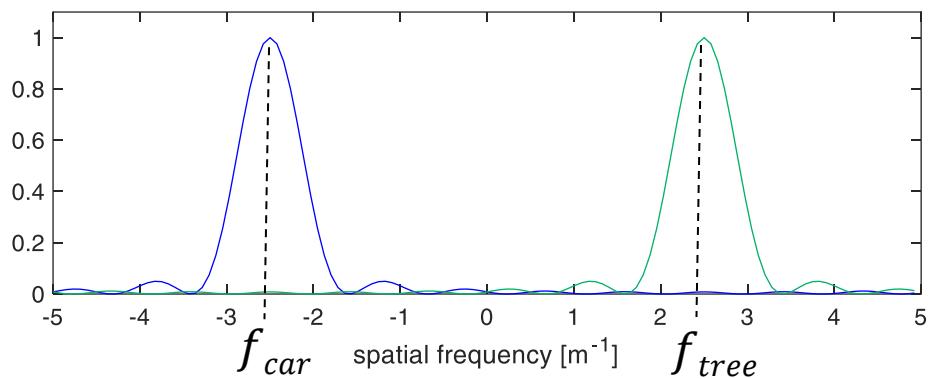
The link between array aperture and spatial bandwidth leads us directly to the important concept of **angular resolution**, intended as the capability to distinguish (resolve) two targets found at slightly different angles w.r.t. the Radar

Signal along the array

$$s_{Rx}(n) \cong A_{car} e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_{car}} \cdot e^{-j2\pi f_{car} \cdot x_n} + A_{tree} e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_{tree}} \cdot e^{-j2\pi f_{tree} \cdot x_n}$$
$$f_{car} = \frac{2}{\lambda} \sin(\psi_{car}) \quad f_{tree} = \frac{2}{\lambda} \sin(\psi_{tree})$$



Fourier Transform

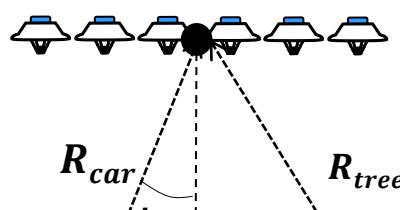


Angular resolution

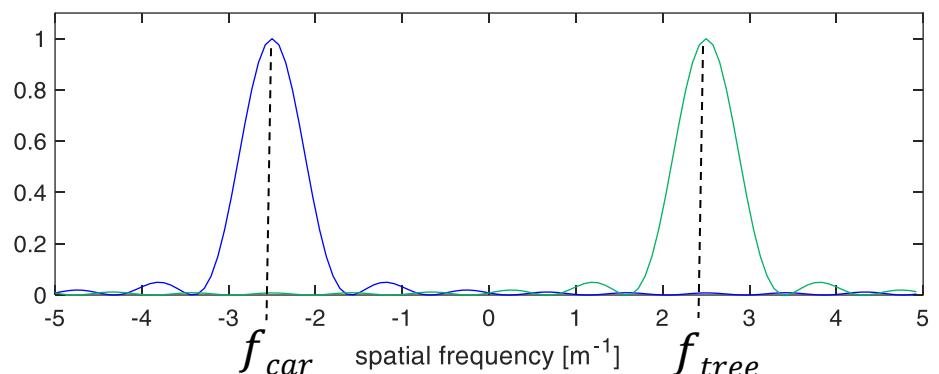
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Fourier Transform



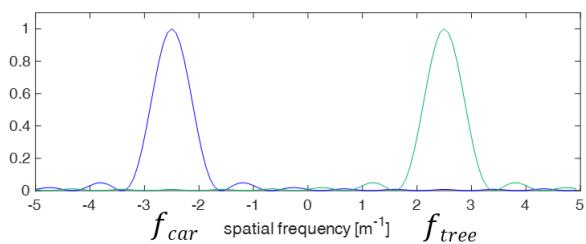
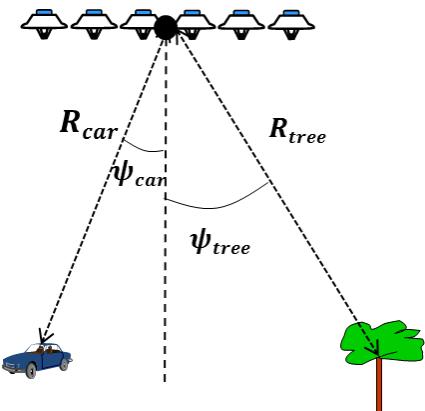
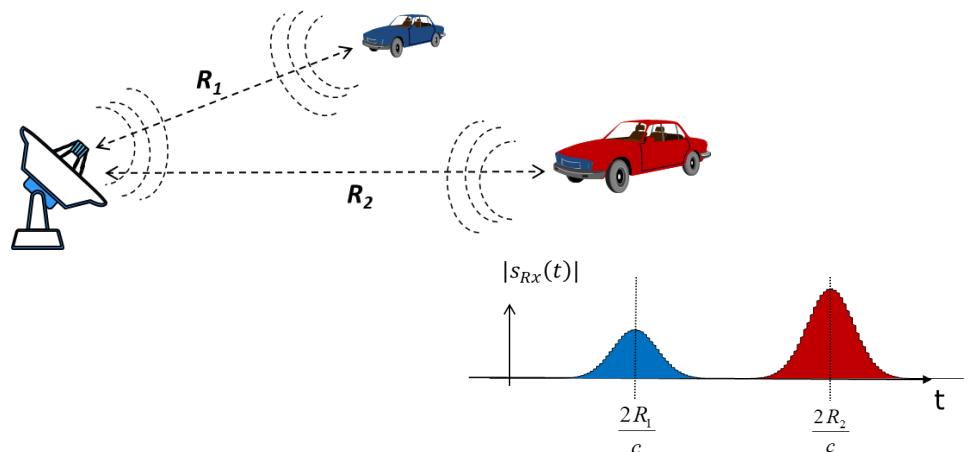
⇒ We can tell there are two targets as long as the received signal exhibits **two distinct peaks**
This occurs upon the condition that:

$$|f_{car} - f_{tree}| \geq \Delta f \approx \frac{1}{A} \implies |\psi_{car} - \psi_{tree}| \geq \Delta\psi \approx \frac{\lambda}{2A}$$

Where $\Delta\psi = \frac{\lambda}{2A}$ is referred to as the **angular resolution** of the array

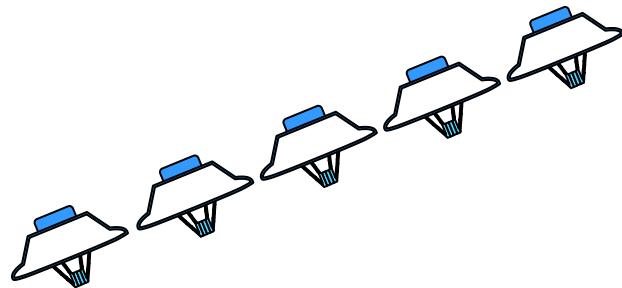
2D resolution

Bandwidth
 \Leftrightarrow
 Range resolution



Antenna array emitting a monochromatic wave
 \Leftrightarrow
 Angular resolution

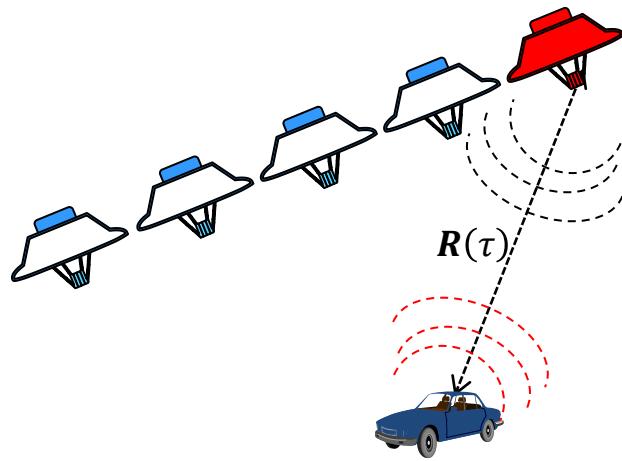
Antenna array emitting RF pulses



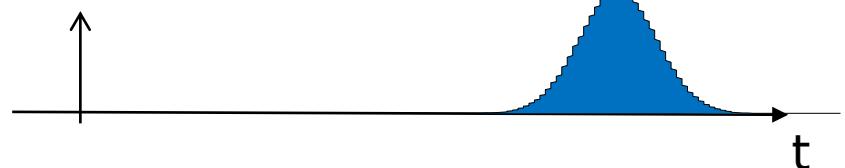
2D resolution

τ = flight time (or *slow time*, in jargon)

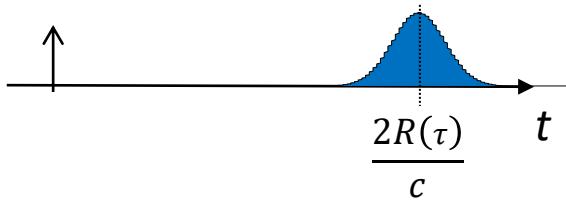
t = time w.r.t. transmission (or *fast time*, in jargon)



$$|s_{Rx}(t, \tau)|$$



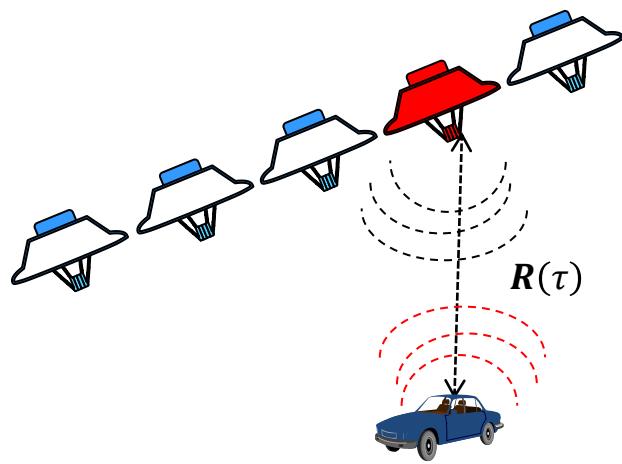
$$s_{Rx}(t, \tau) = A_{car} g\left(t - \frac{2R(\tau)}{c}\right) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R(\tau)}$$



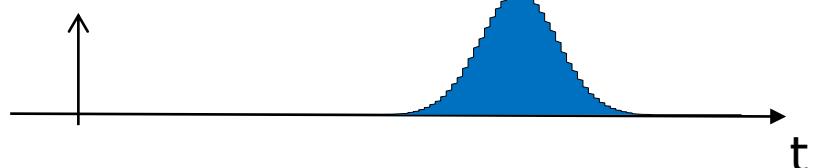
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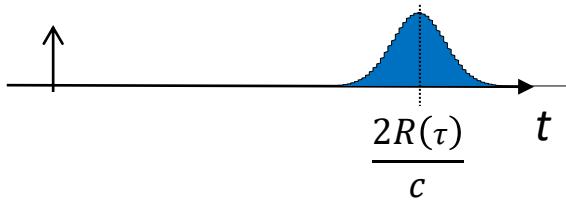
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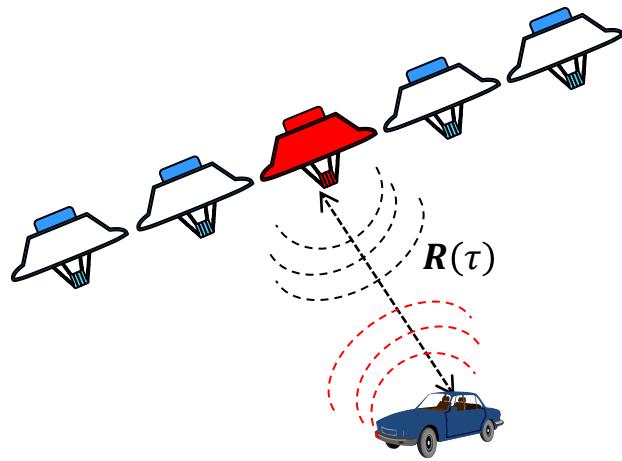
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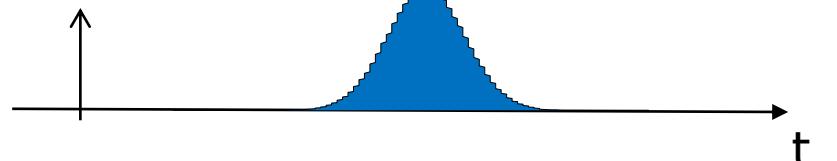
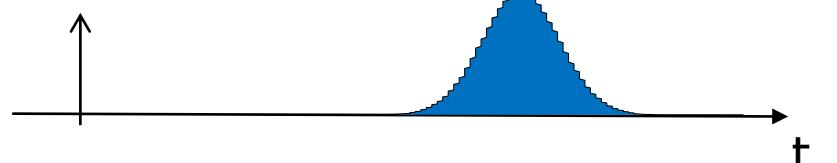
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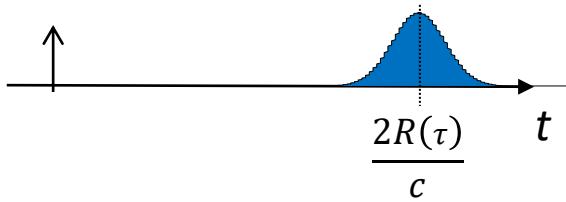
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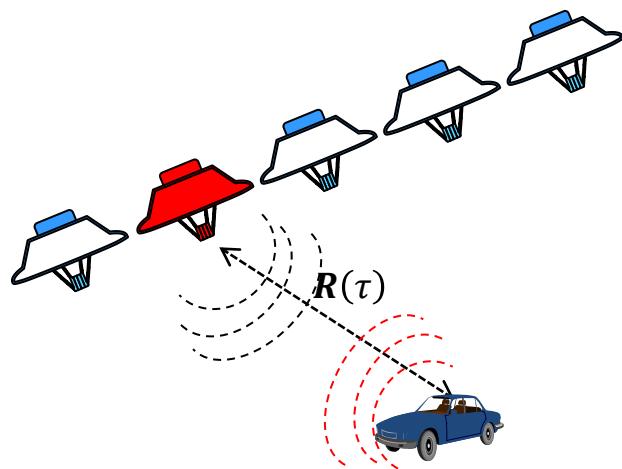
$$s_{Rx}(t, \tau) = A_{car} g\left(t - \frac{2R(\tau)}{c}\right) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R(\tau)}$$



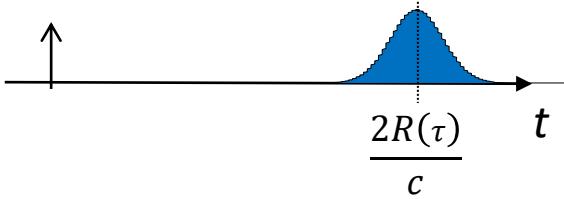
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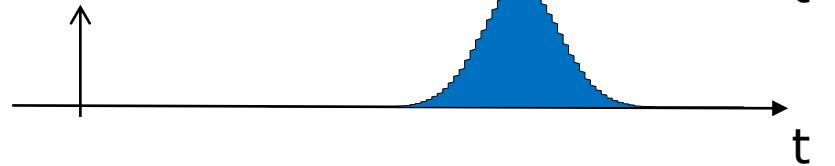
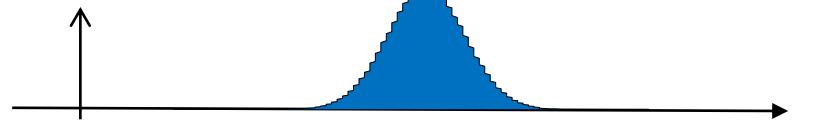
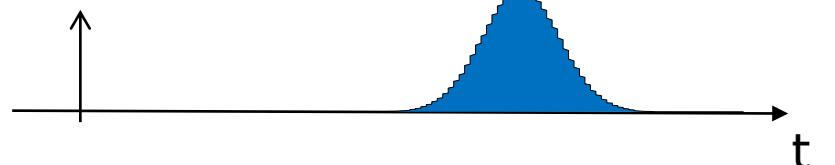
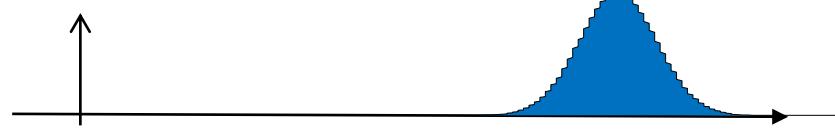
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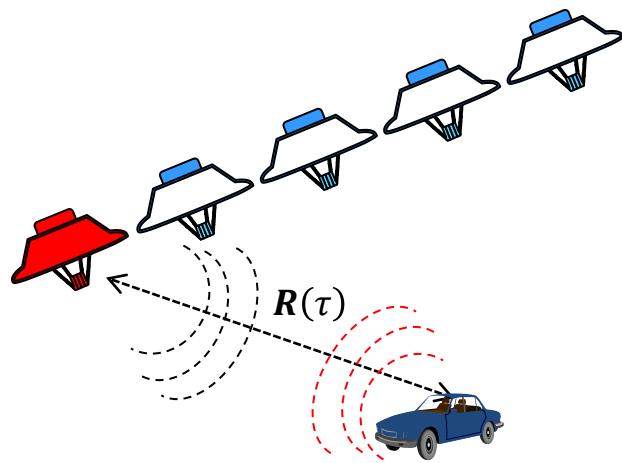
$$|s_{Rx}(t, \tau)|$$



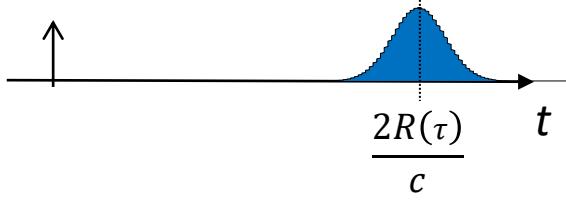
2D resolution

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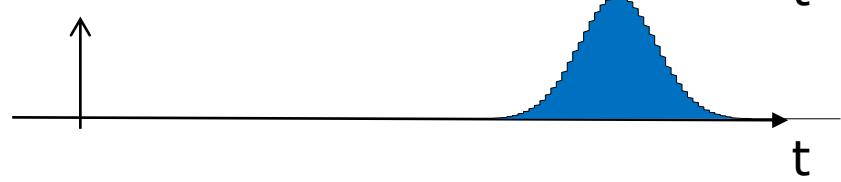
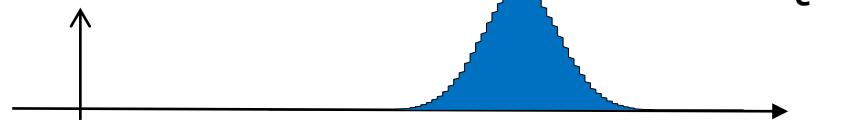
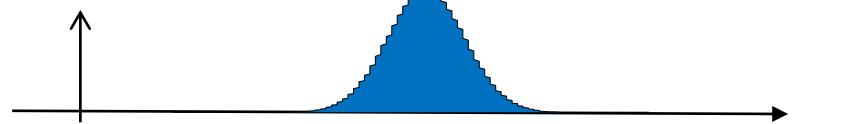
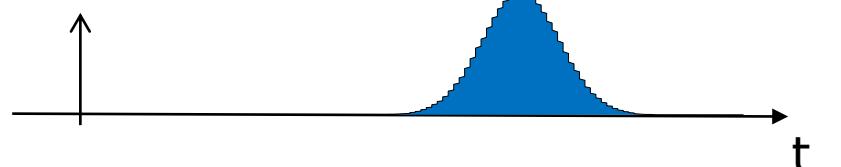
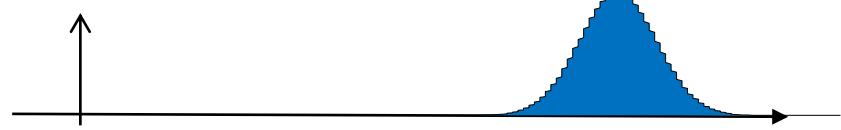
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$$s_{Rx}(t, \tau) = A_{car} g\left(t - \frac{2R(\tau)}{c}\right) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R(\tau)}$$



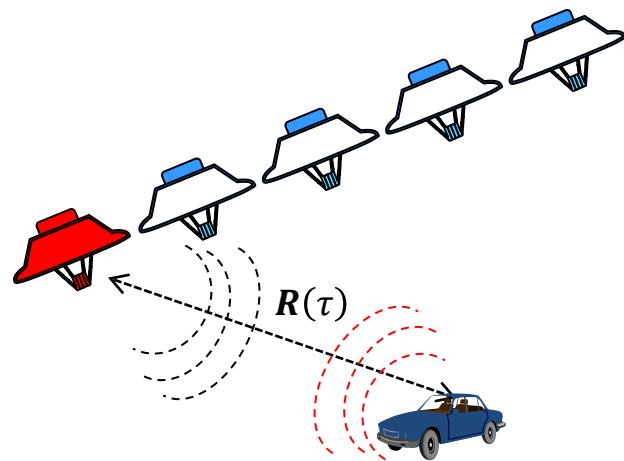
$$|s_{Rx}(t, \tau)|$$



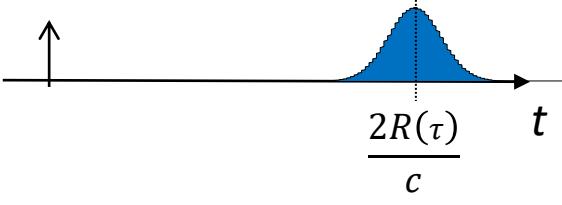
2D resolution

τ = flight time (or *slow time*, in jargon)

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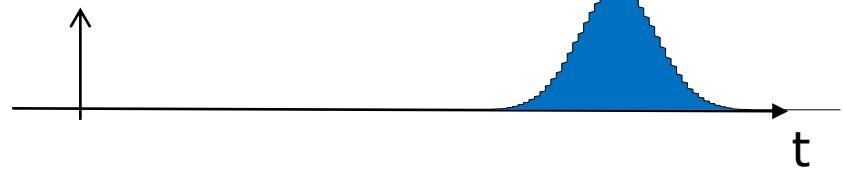
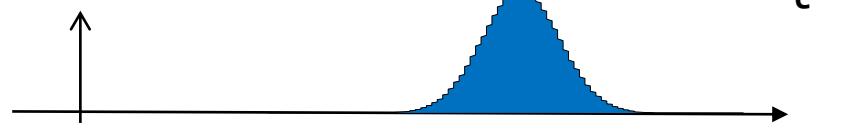
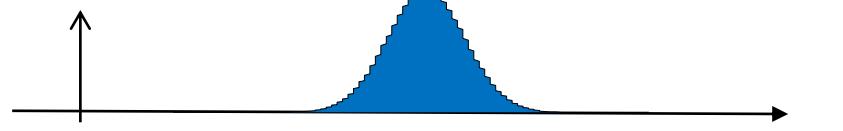
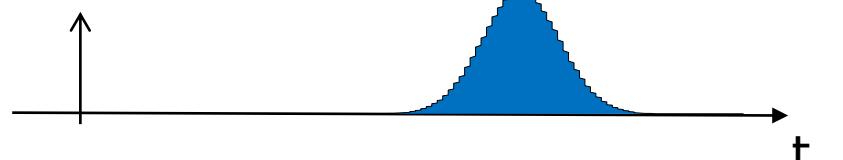


$$s_{Rx}(t, \tau) = A_{car} g\left(t - \frac{2R(\tau)}{c}\right) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R(\tau)}$$



The delay variation is referred to as **range migration**

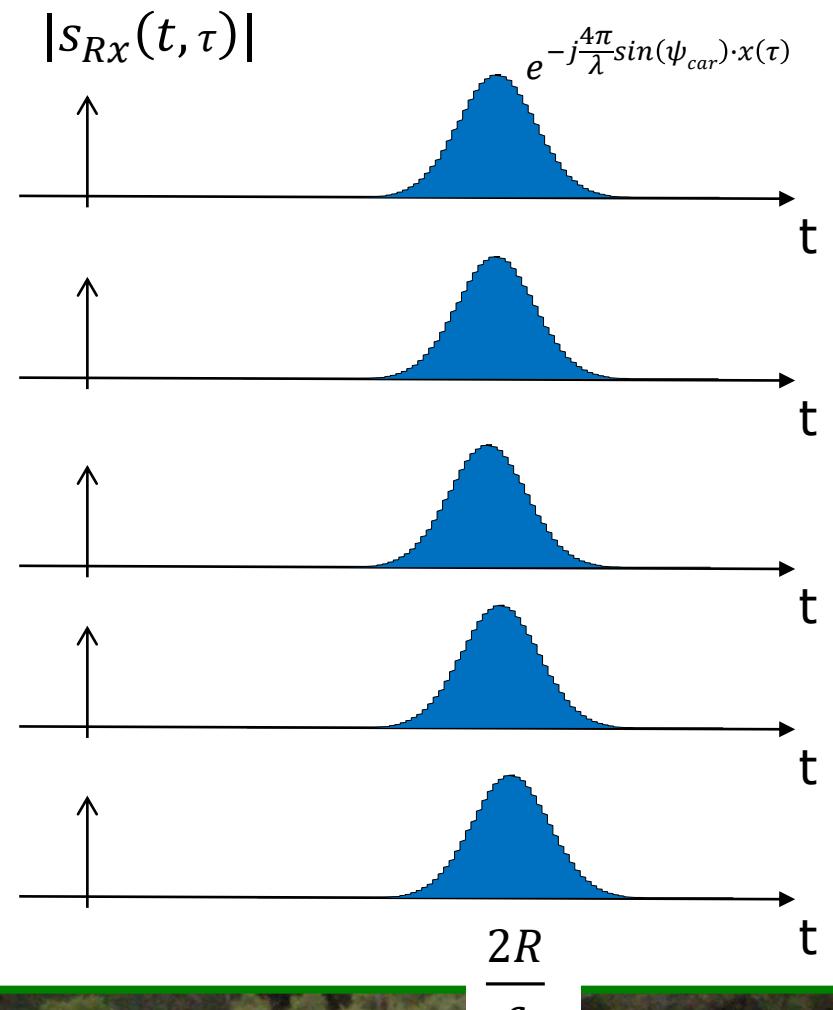
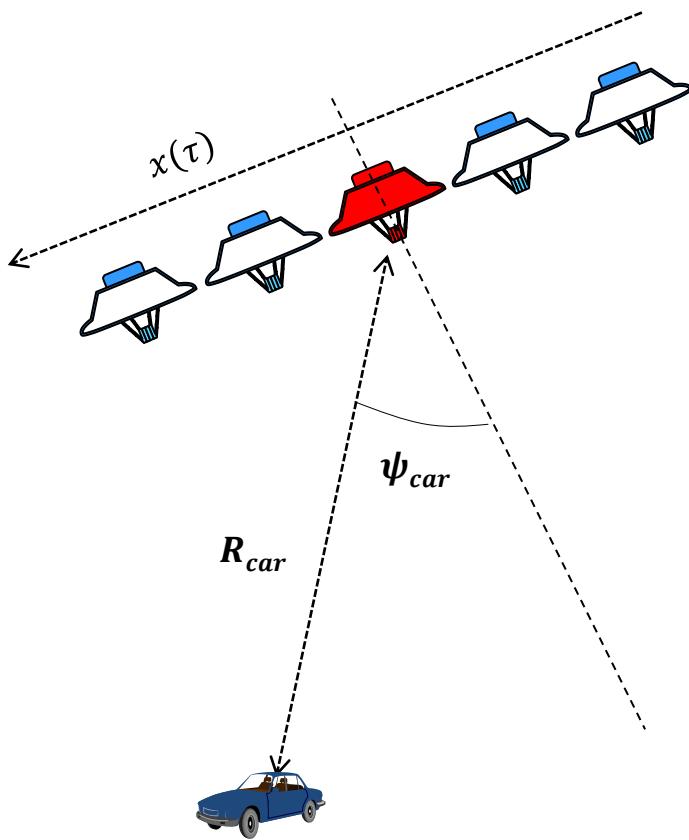
$$|s_{Rx}(t, \tau)|$$



2D resolution

Hp1: range migration is negligible \Leftrightarrow we can tell the range from the delay (along t)

Hp2: plane wavefront approximation \Leftrightarrow we can tell the angular position from the frequency (along τ)

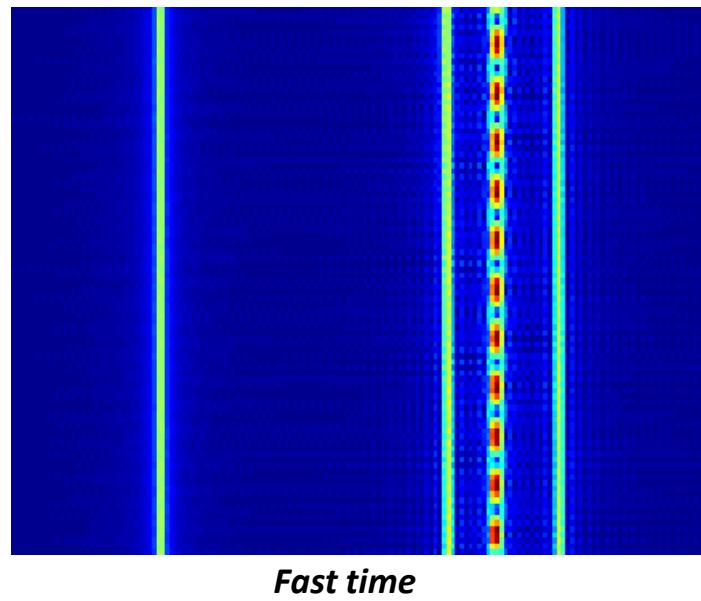


2D resolution

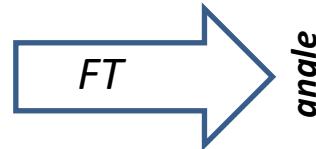
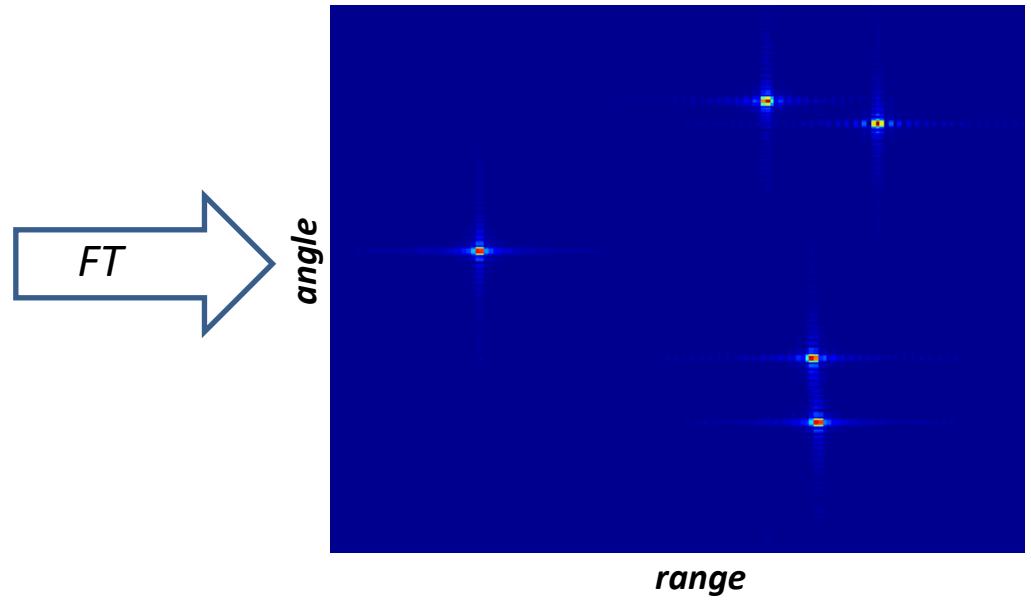
Practically, we compute a FT for any value of the fast time

$$S_{Rx}(R, \psi) = \sum_{\tau} s_{Rx}\left(t = \frac{2R}{c}, \tau\right) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \sin(\psi) x(\tau)}$$

Raw data matrix



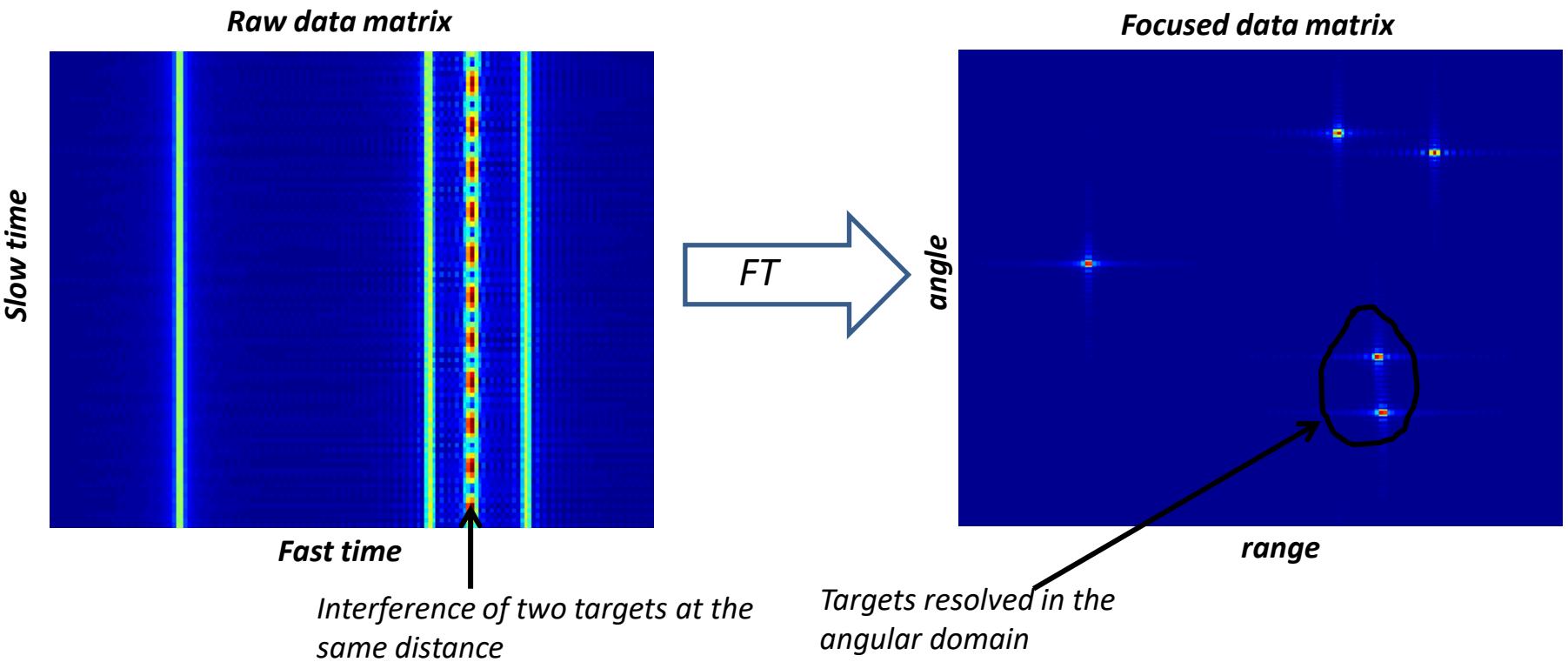
Focused data matrix



2D resolution

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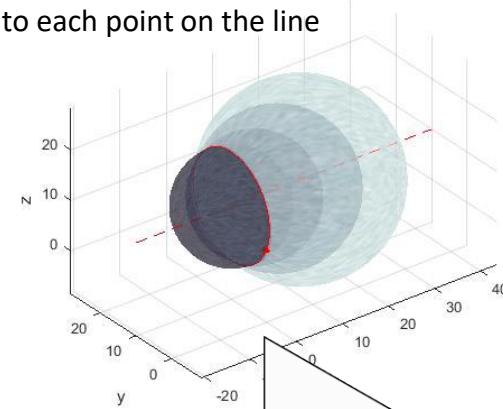
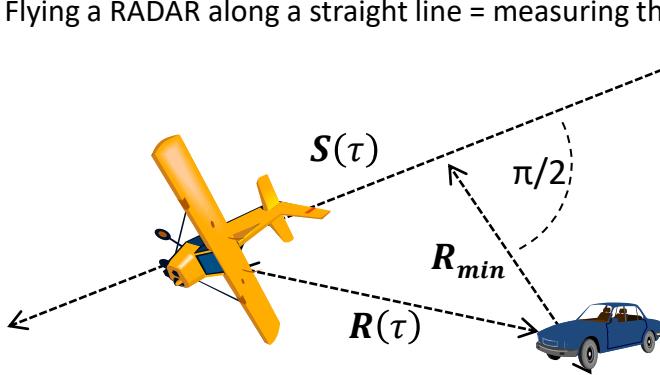


SAR Imaging

SAR imaging – geometrical interpretation

Synthetic Aperture Radars (SAR) employ a moving RADAR sensor, flown onboard a satellite or an aircraft, in order to synthesize an antenna as long as several kilometers

Flying a RADAR along a straight line = measuring the distance from the target to each point on the line



The target is bound to lie on the intersection of all the spheres:

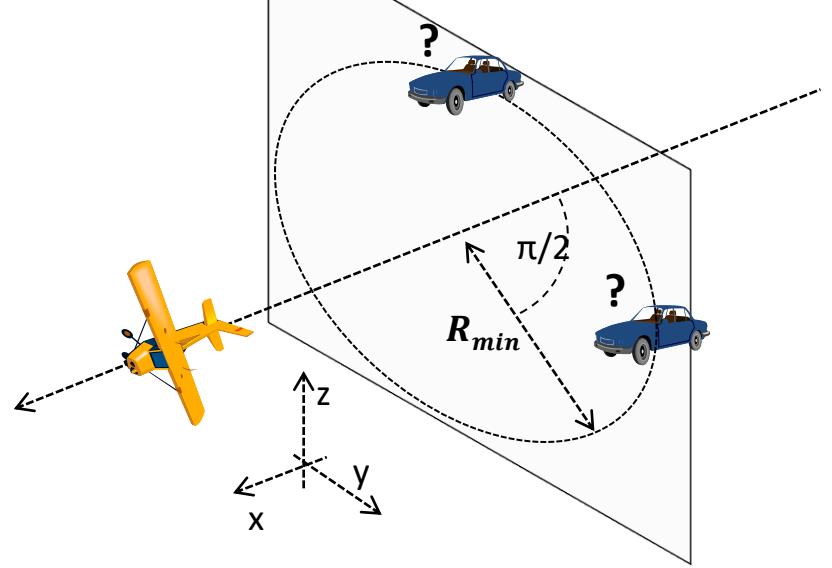
- Centered in $S(\tau)$

- Of radius $R(\tau)$

⇒ The target is bound to lie on the circle:

- Centered on the trajectory
- Perpendicular to the trajectory (yz plane)
- Of radius R_{min}

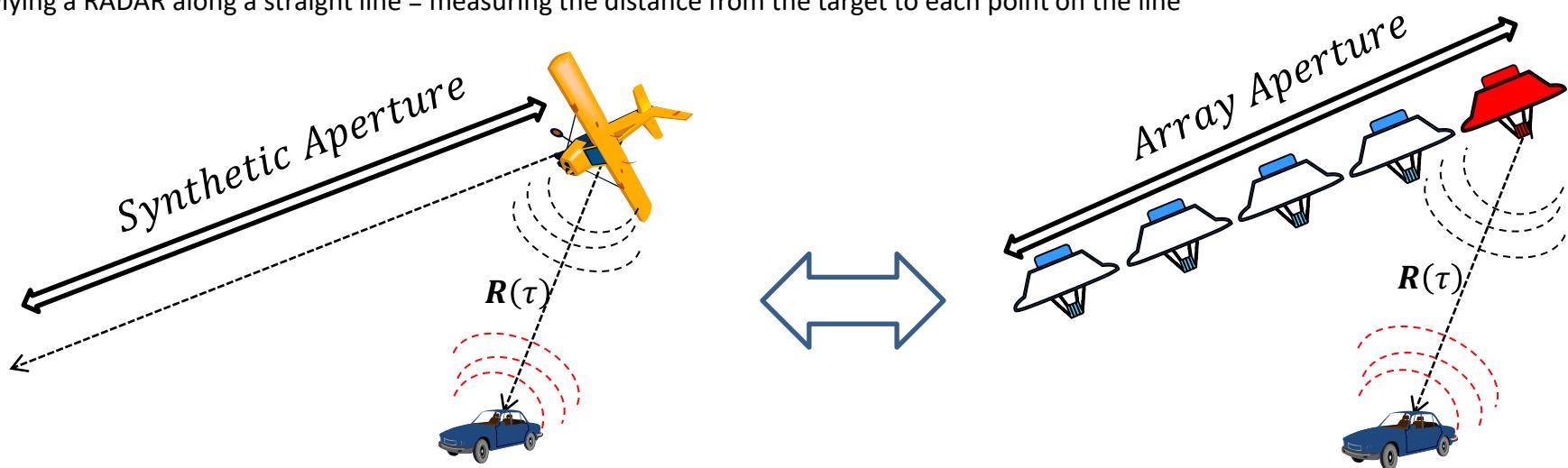
⇒ 2D Localization



SAR imaging

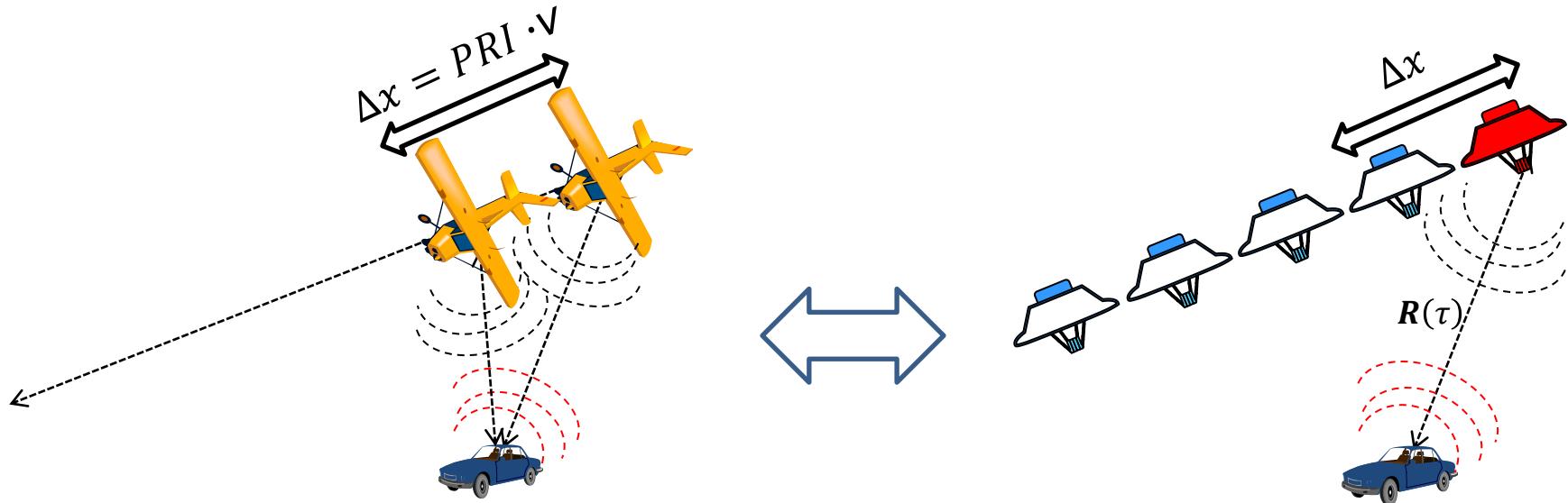
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Flying a RADAR along a straight line = measuring the distance from the target to each point on the line



Start-stop approximation:

the platform is assumed to be completely still in air (or in space) during pulse transmission and reception



⇒ **Equivalent to an antenna array !**

PRI = Pulse Repetition Interval [s]

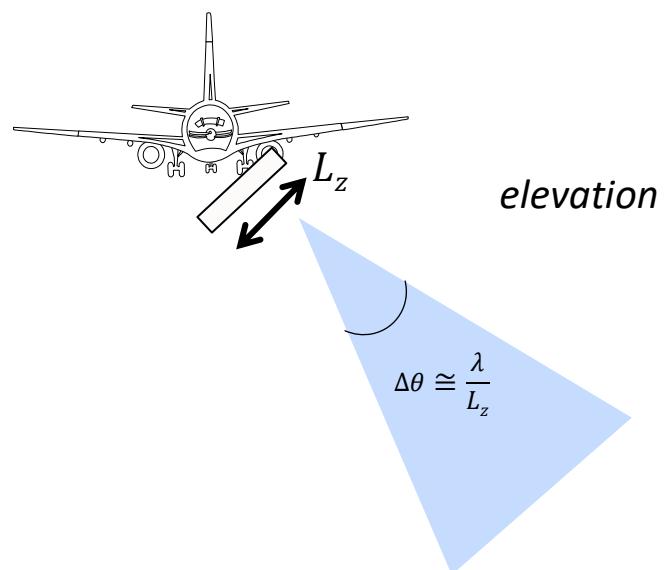
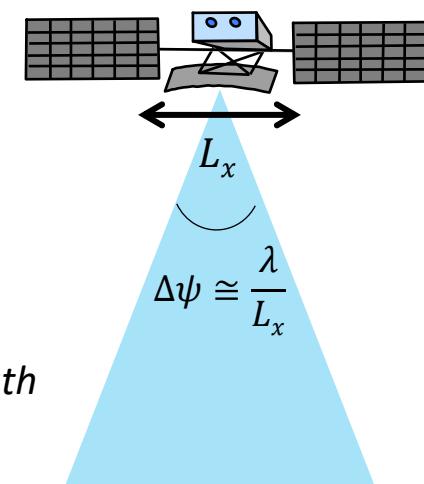
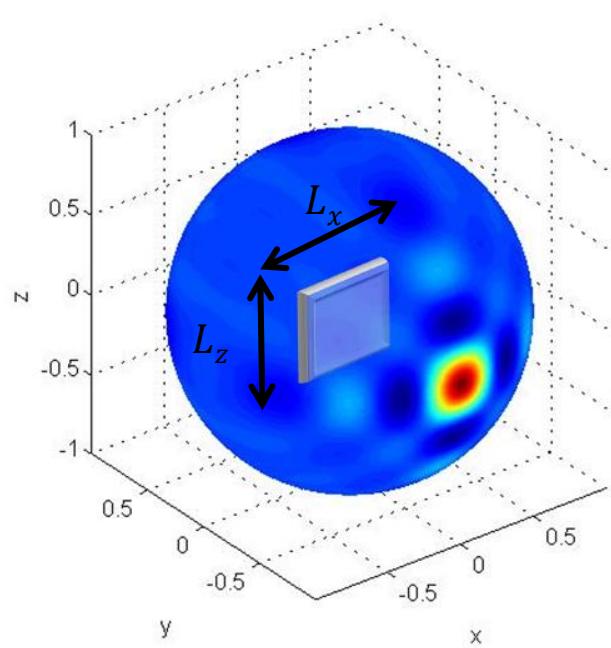
PRF = Pulse Repetition Frequency [Hz]

v = Platform speed [m/s]

How long is the synthetic aperture ?

Target illumination is limited to an angular sector, depending on wavelength and antenna size

$$\Delta\psi \cong \frac{\lambda}{L_x} \quad \Delta\theta \cong \frac{\lambda}{L_z}$$



SAR imaging

How long is the synthetic aperture ?

Target illumination is limited to an angular sector, depending on wavelength and antenna size

$$\Delta\psi \cong \frac{\lambda}{L_x}$$

$$\Delta\theta \cong \frac{\lambda}{L_z}$$



Spaceborne SAR at C-Band

$$L_x = 10-15 \text{ m}$$

$$\lambda = 5.6 \text{ cm}$$

$$\Delta\psi \cong 0.5^\circ$$

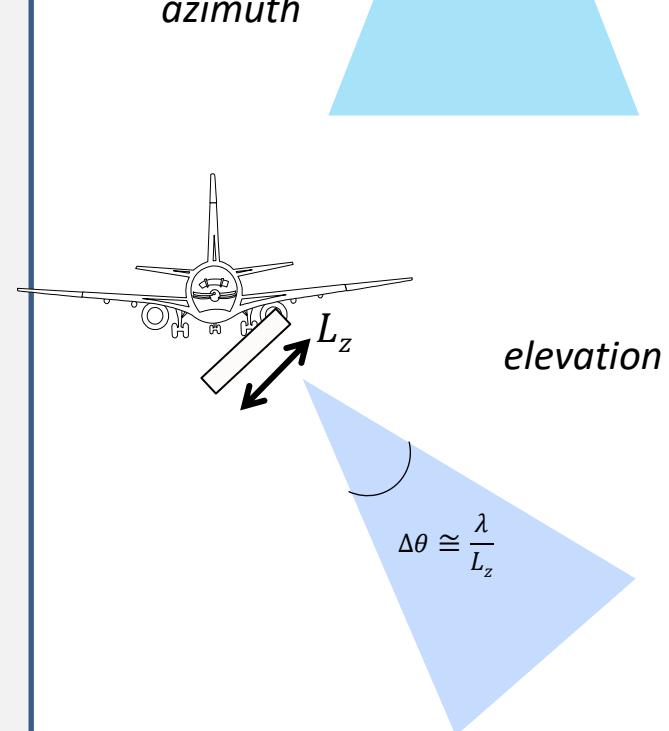
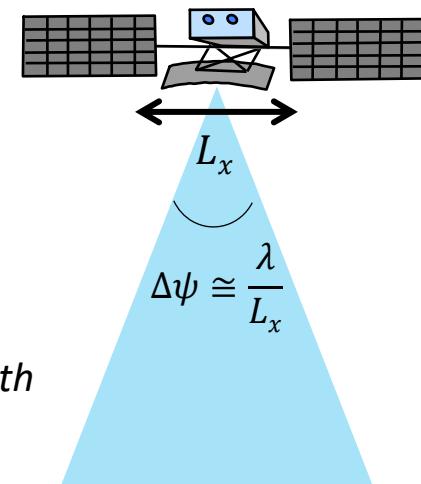


Airborne SAR at

P-Band

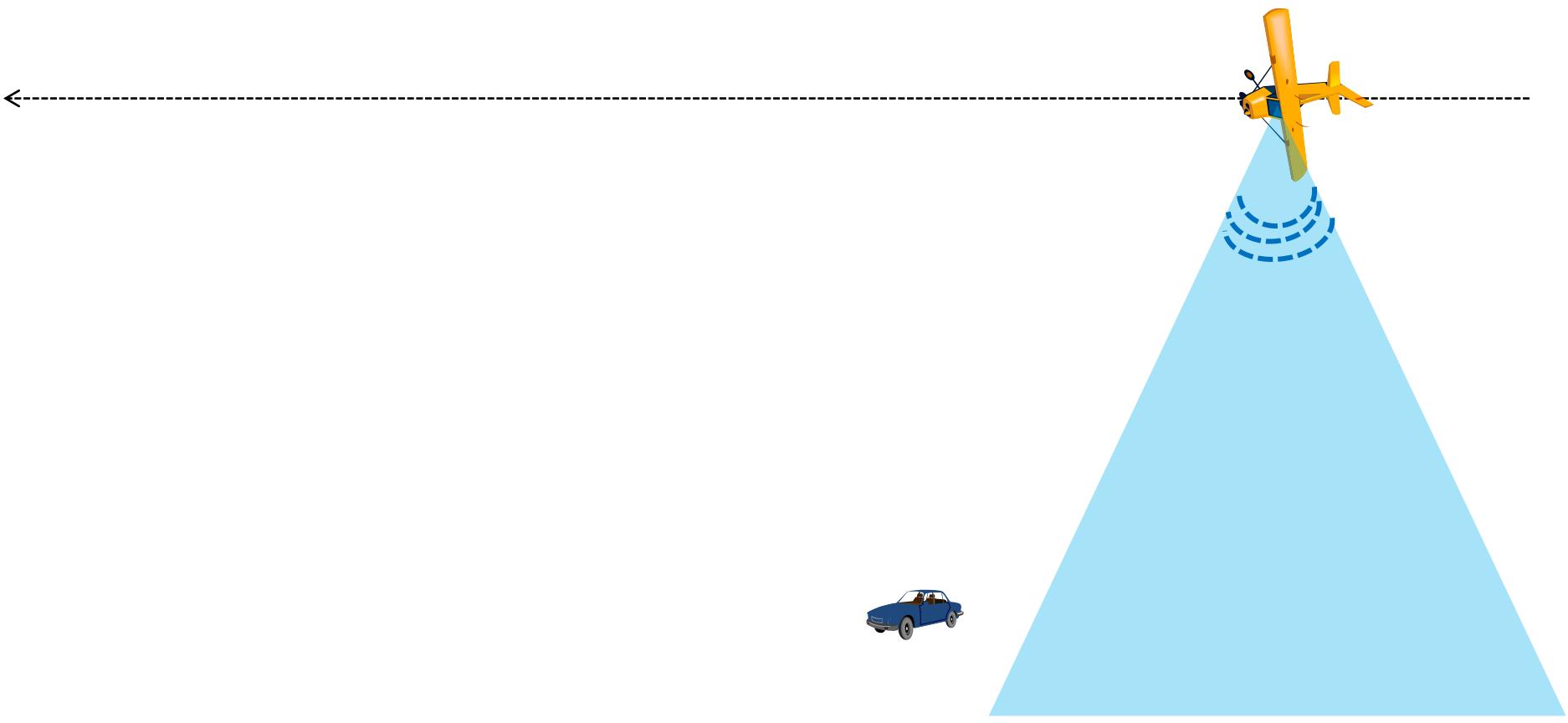
$$\lambda = 0.7 \text{ m}$$

$$\Delta\psi \cong 20^\circ$$

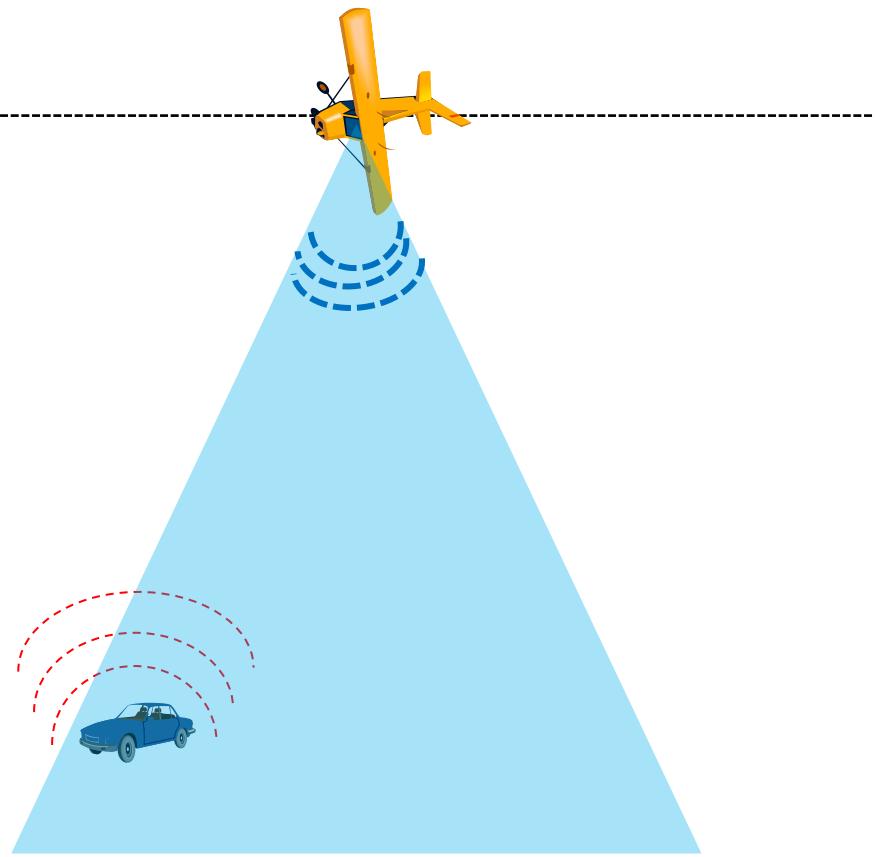


SAR imaging

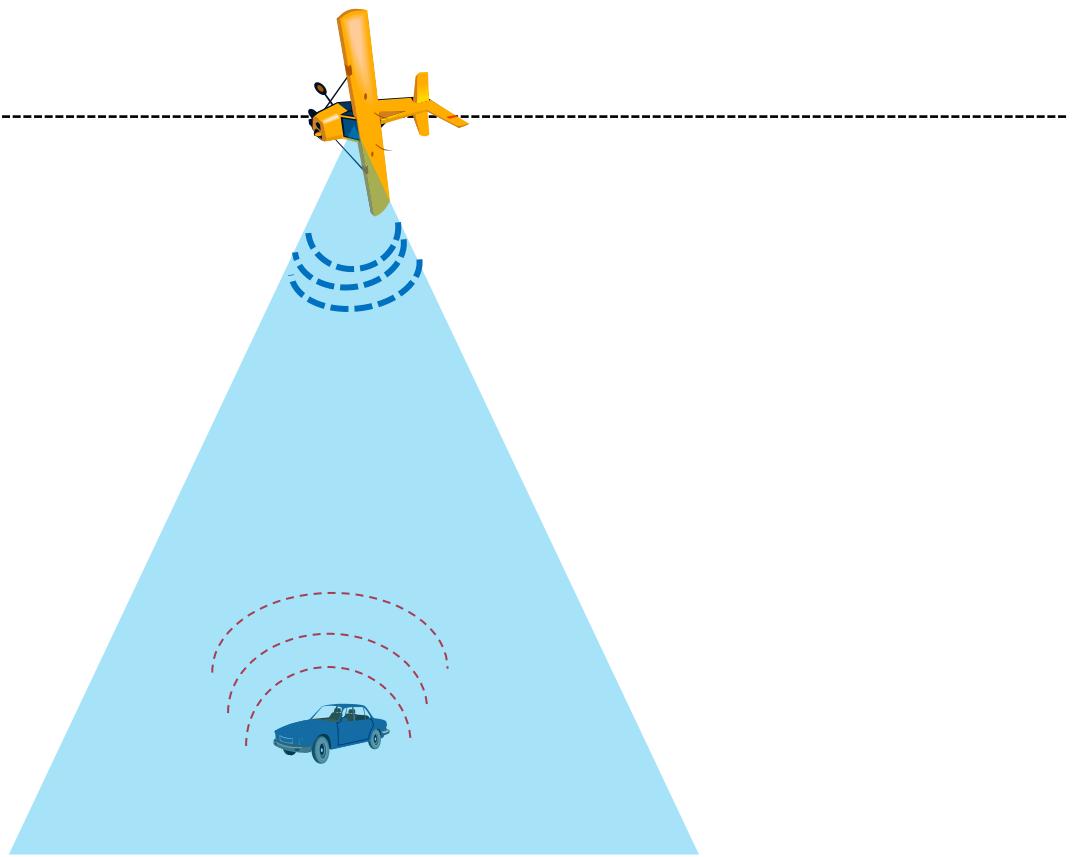
⇒ ***Targets are illuminated only a fraction of the time***



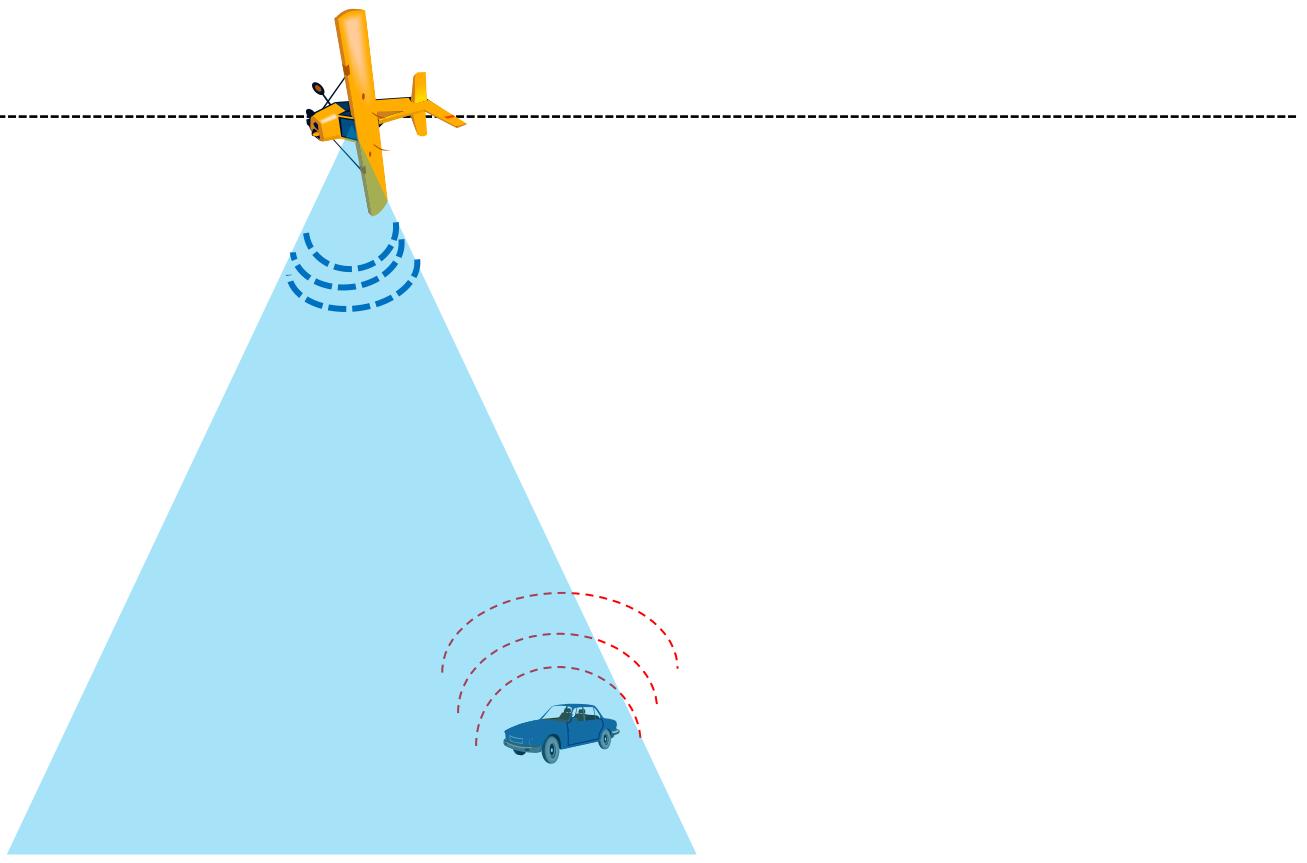
⇒ **Targets are illuminated only a fraction of the time**



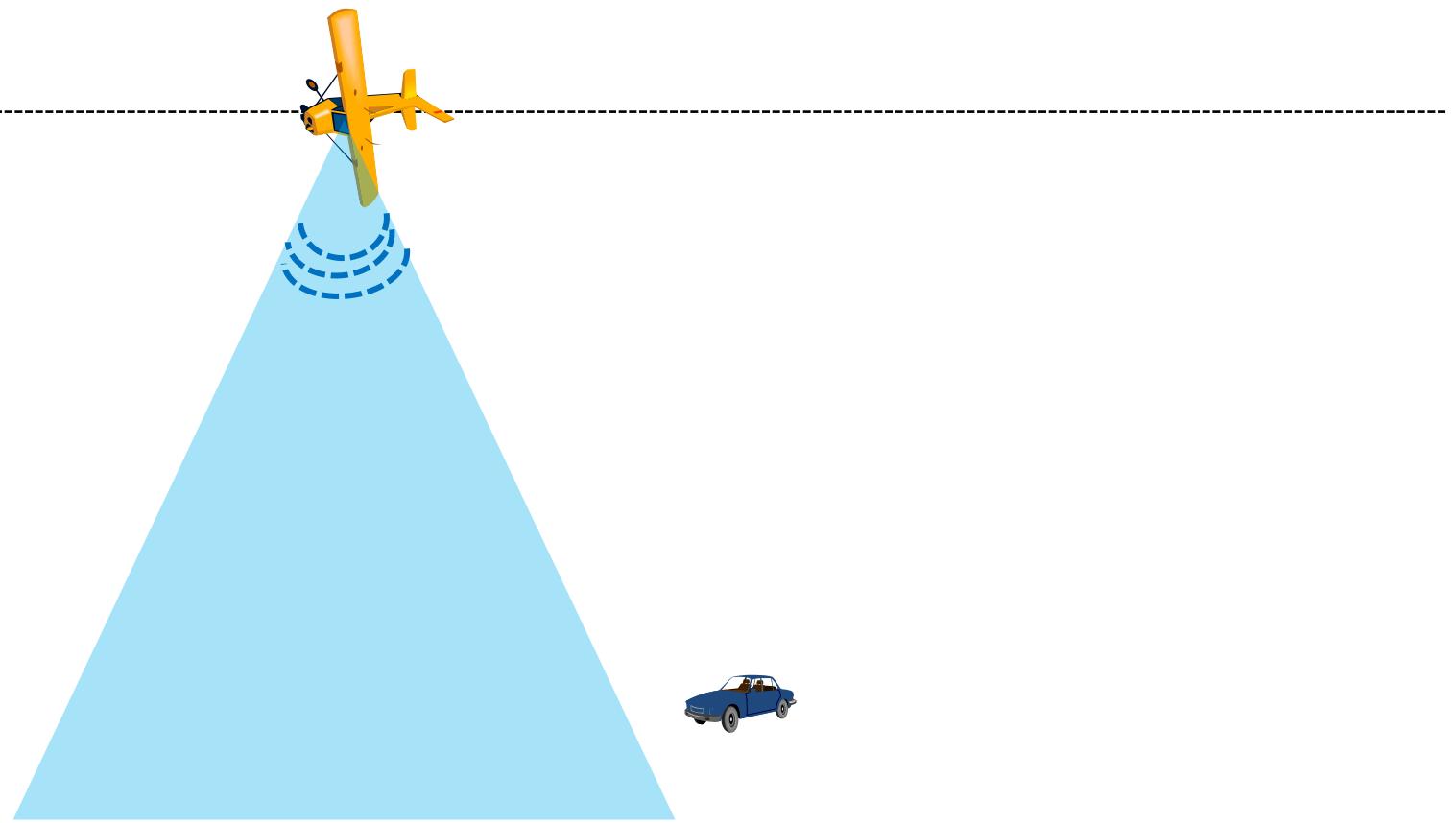
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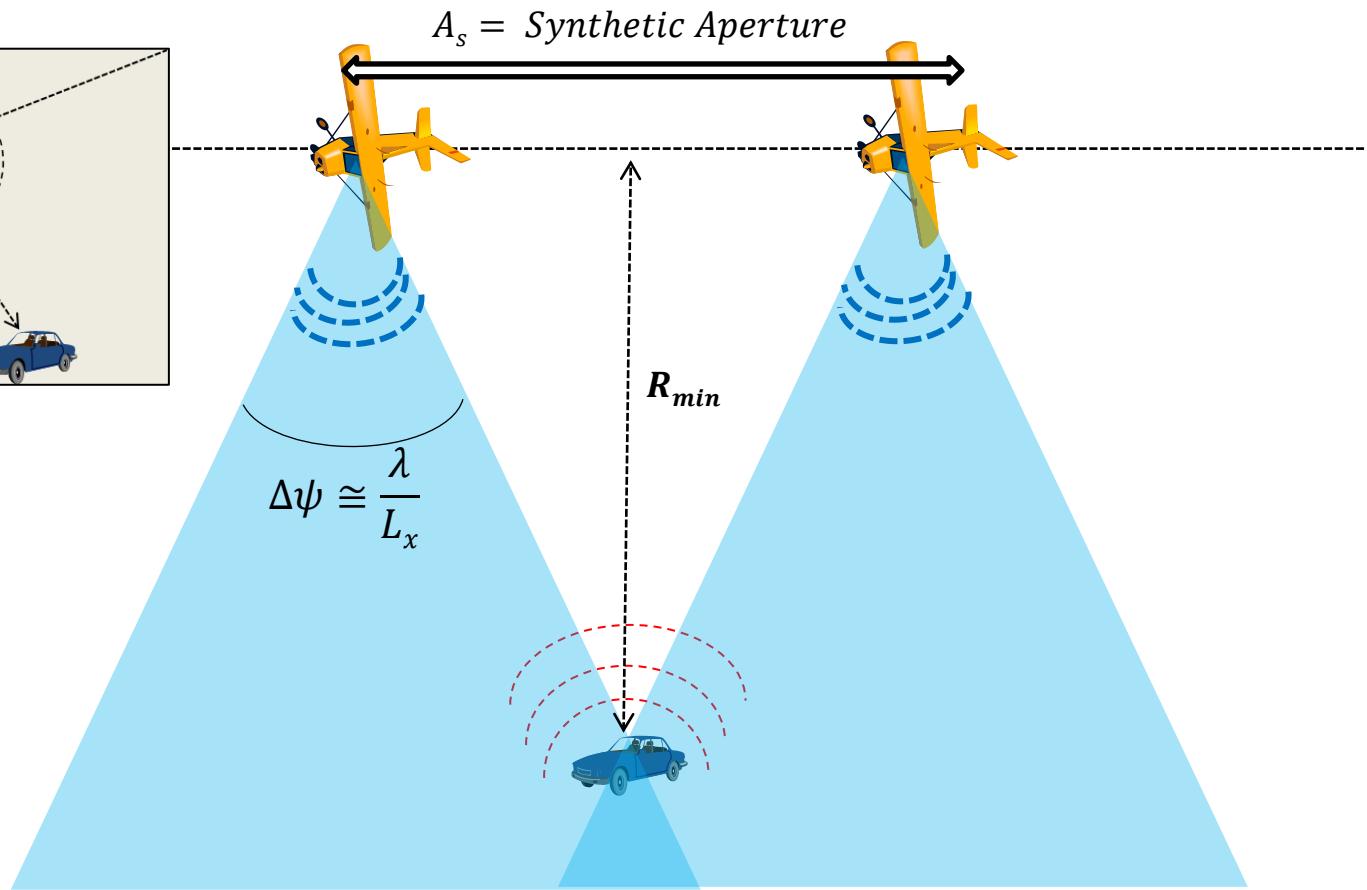
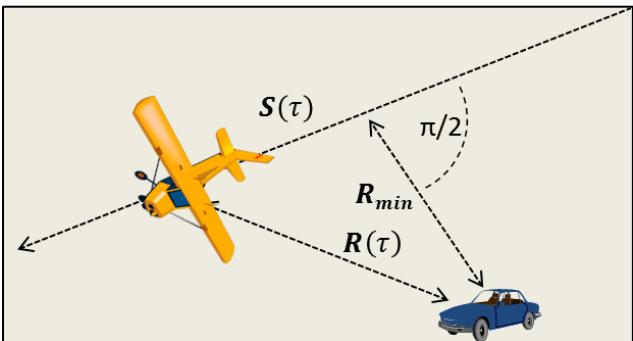


⇒ **Targets are illuminated only a fraction of the time**



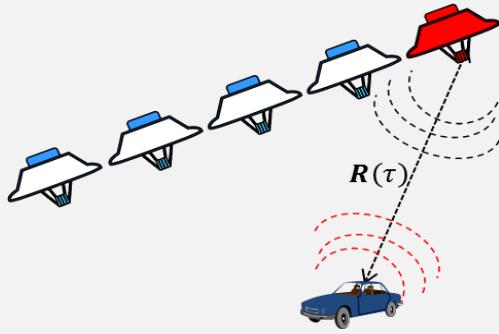
Length of the synthetic aperture

$$A_s \cong \Delta\psi \cdot R_{min}$$



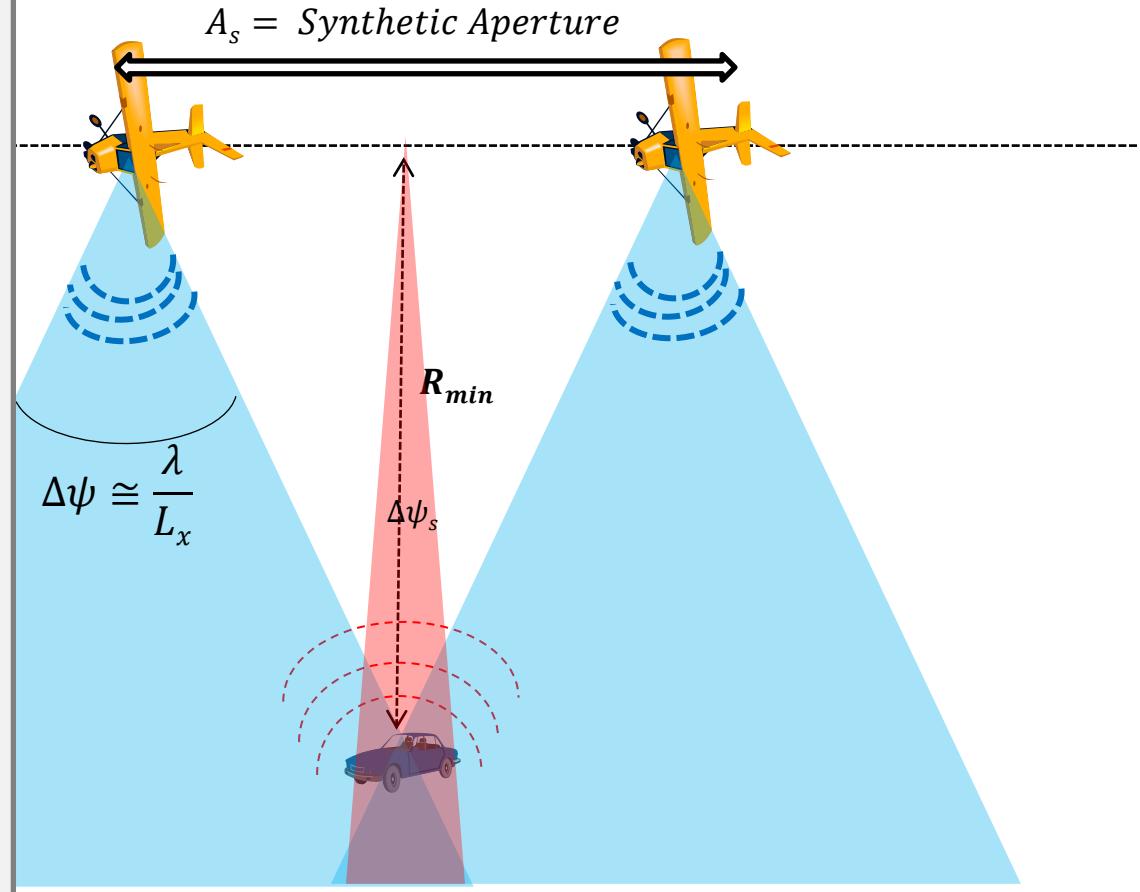
SAR imaging

Result from array theory



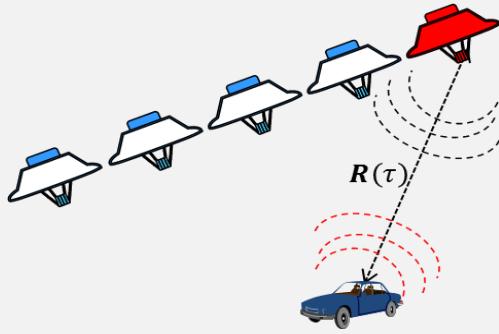
Aperture length translates to angular resolution according to

$$\Delta\psi_s \cong \frac{\lambda}{2A_s}$$



SAR imaging

Result from array theory

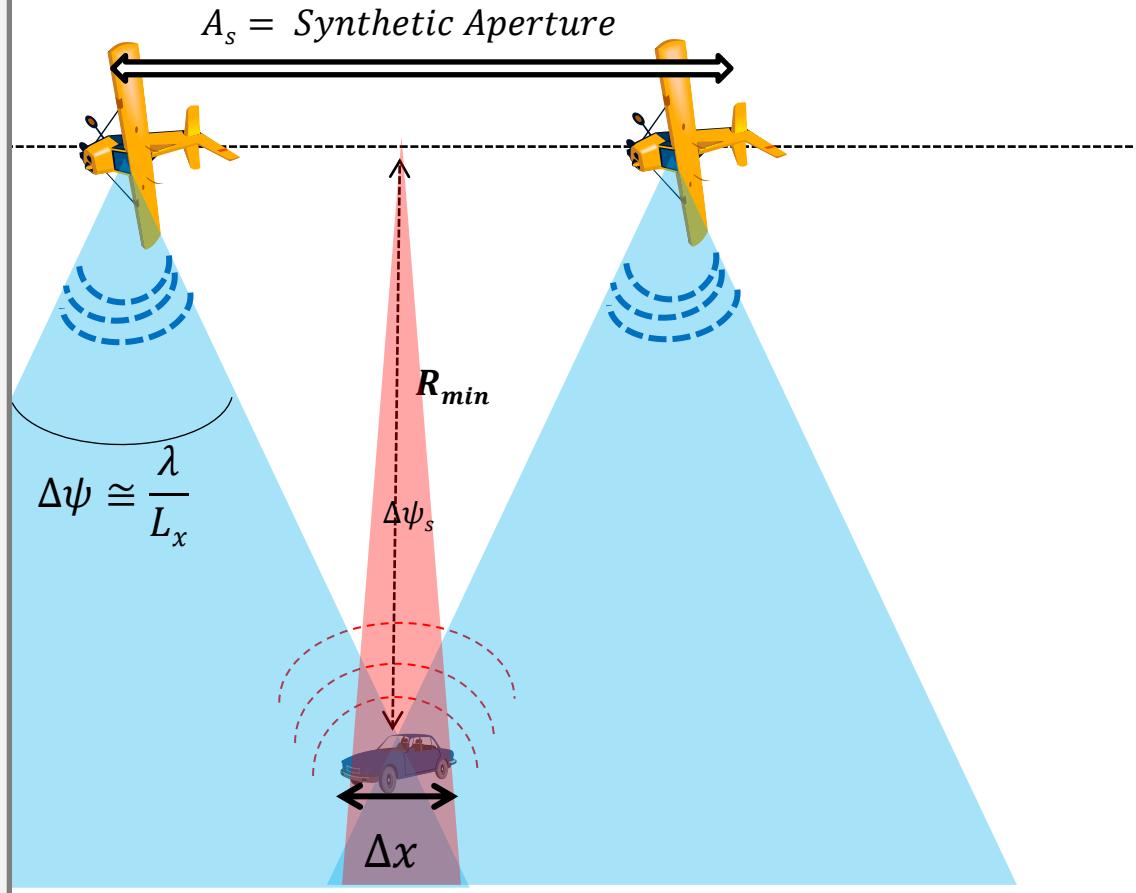


Aperture length translates to angular resolution according to

$$\Delta\psi_s \cong \frac{\lambda}{2A_s}$$

Angular resolution translates into horizontal resolution according to

$$\Delta x \cong \Delta\psi_s \cdot R_{min}$$



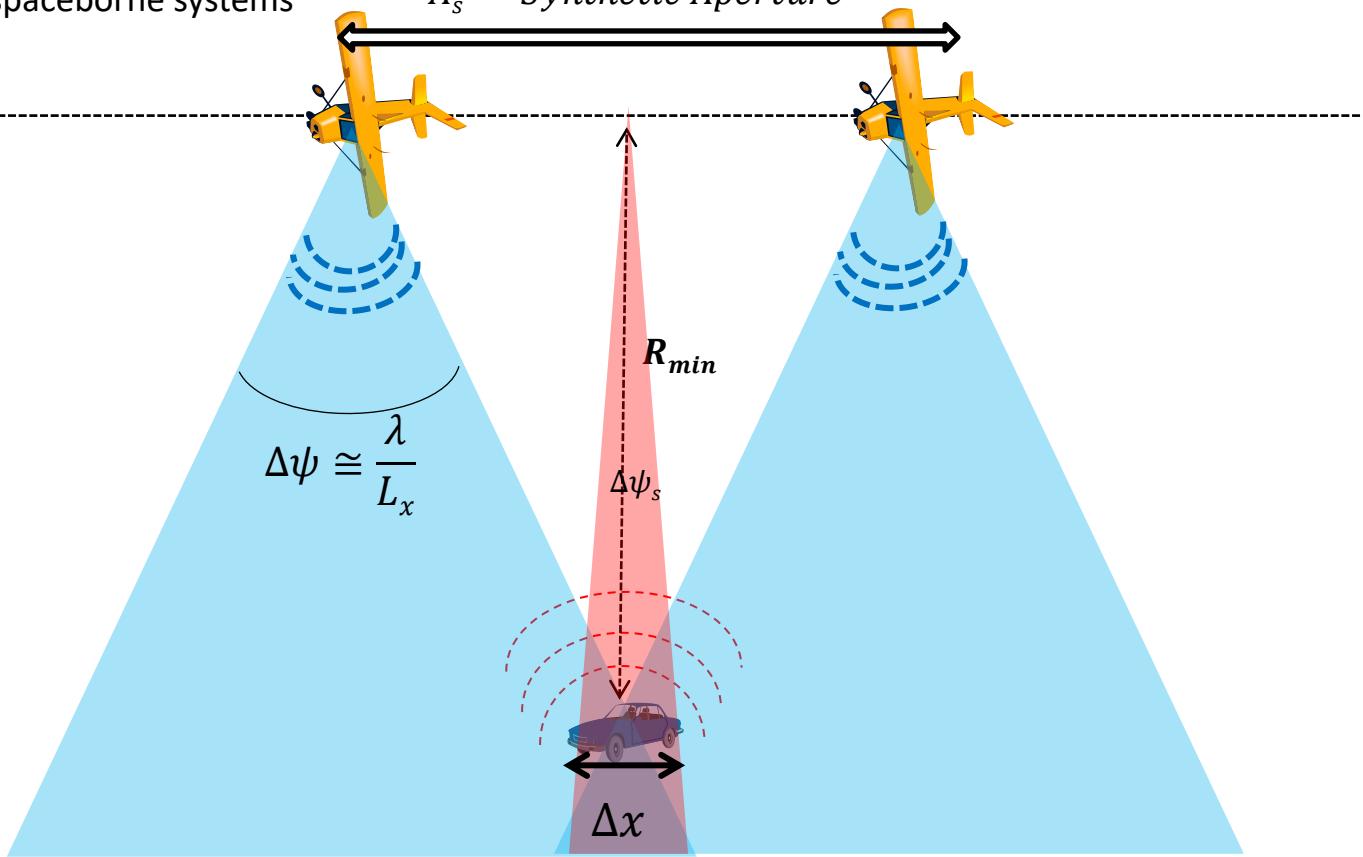
SAR imaging

Horizontal (along-track) resolution = half the antenna length

$$\Delta x \cong \frac{L_x}{2}$$

- Independent on target's distance from the trajectory
- Good approximation for spaceborne systems

$A_s = \text{Synthetic Aperture}$



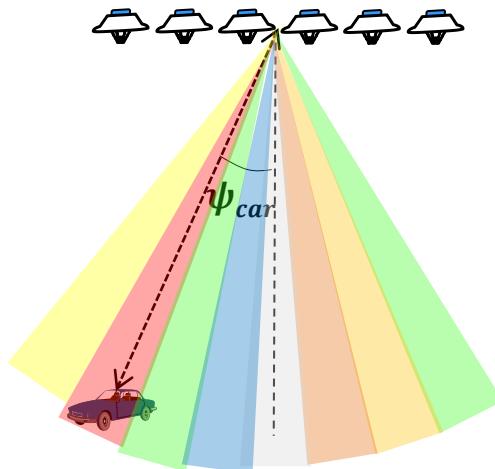
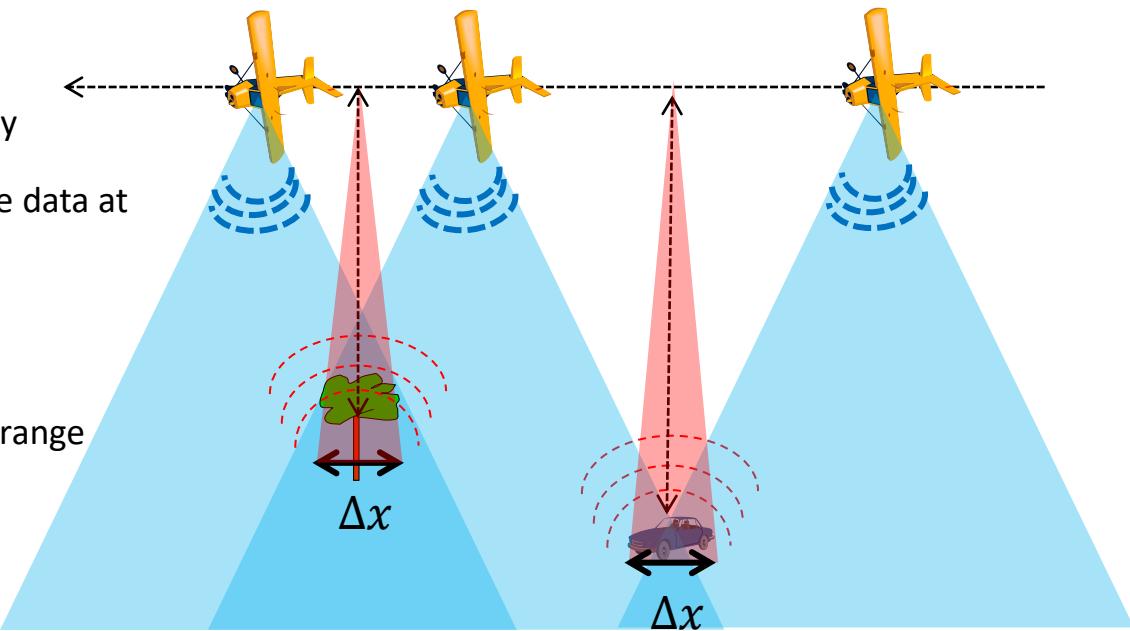
SAR imaging

Synthetic Aperture Radar

- Synthetic Aperture sliding along the trajectory
- Angular resolution is obtained by focusing the data at a **fixed angle**

Typical choice: $\psi = 0$ (Zero-Doppler)

- Synthetic aperture length depends on target range
- Same **horizontal resolution** for all targets



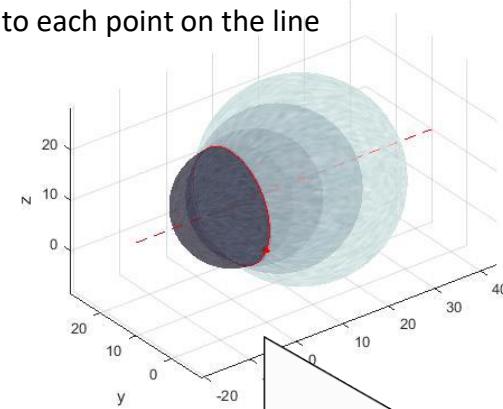
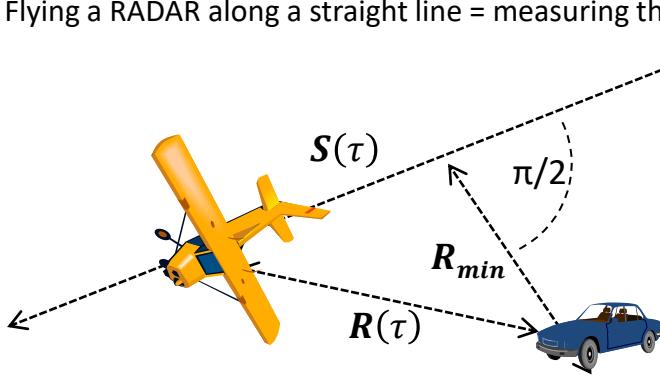
Antenna array

- Real aperture in a fixed position
- Angular resolution is obtained by focusing the data at **different angles**
- Same **angular resolution** for all targets

SAR imaging – geometrical interpretation

Synthetic Aperture Radars (SAR) employ a moving RADAR sensor, flown onboard a satellite or an aircraft, in order to synthesize an antenna as long as several kilometers

Flying a RADAR along a straight line = measuring the distance from the target to each point on the line



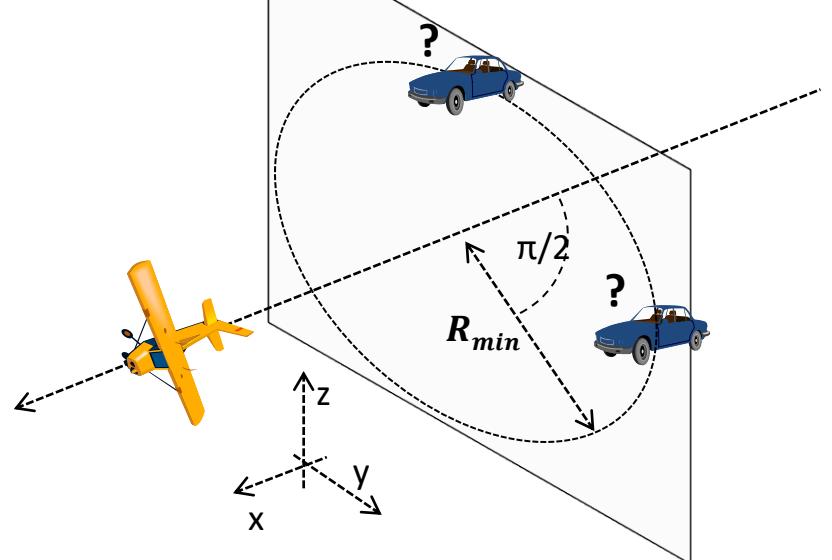
The target is bound to lie on the intersection of all the spheres:

- Centered in $S(\tau)$
- Of radius $R(\tau)$

⇒ The target is bound to lie on the circle:

- Centered on the trajectory
- Perpendicular to the trajectory (yz plane)
- Of radius R_{min}

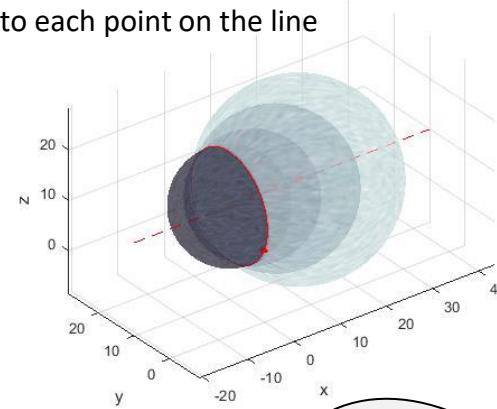
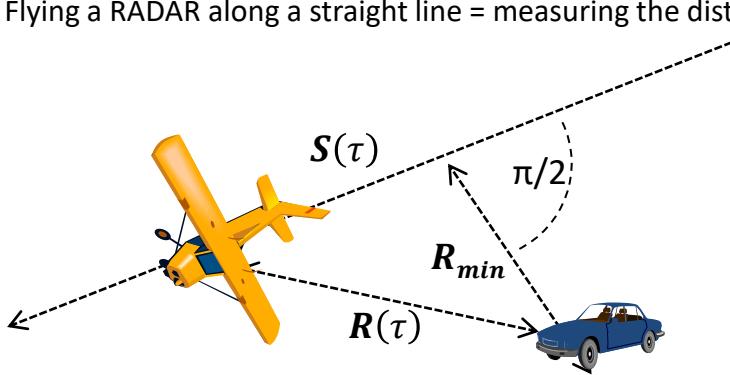
⇒ 2D Localization



SAR imaging – physical interpretation

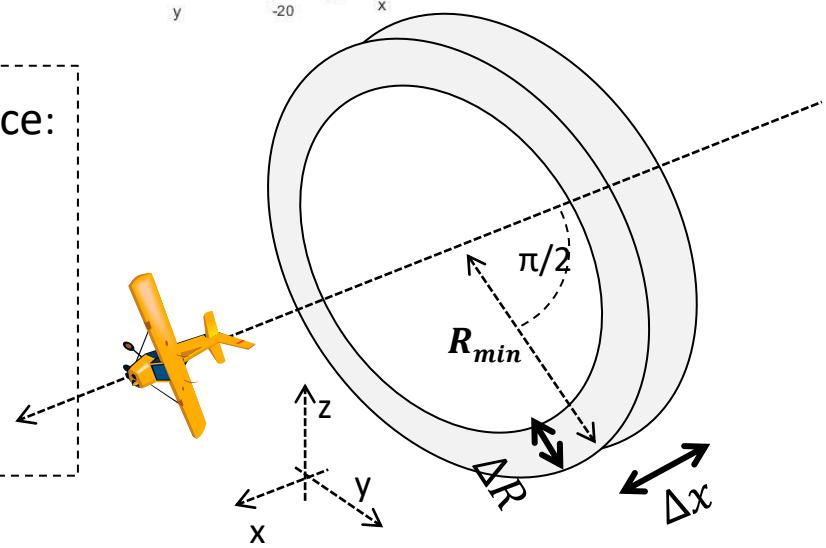
Synthetic Aperture Radars (SAR) employ a moving RADAR sensor, flown onboard a satellite or an aircraft, in order to synthesize an antenna as long as several kilometers

Flying a RADAR along a straight line = measuring the distance from the target to each point on the line

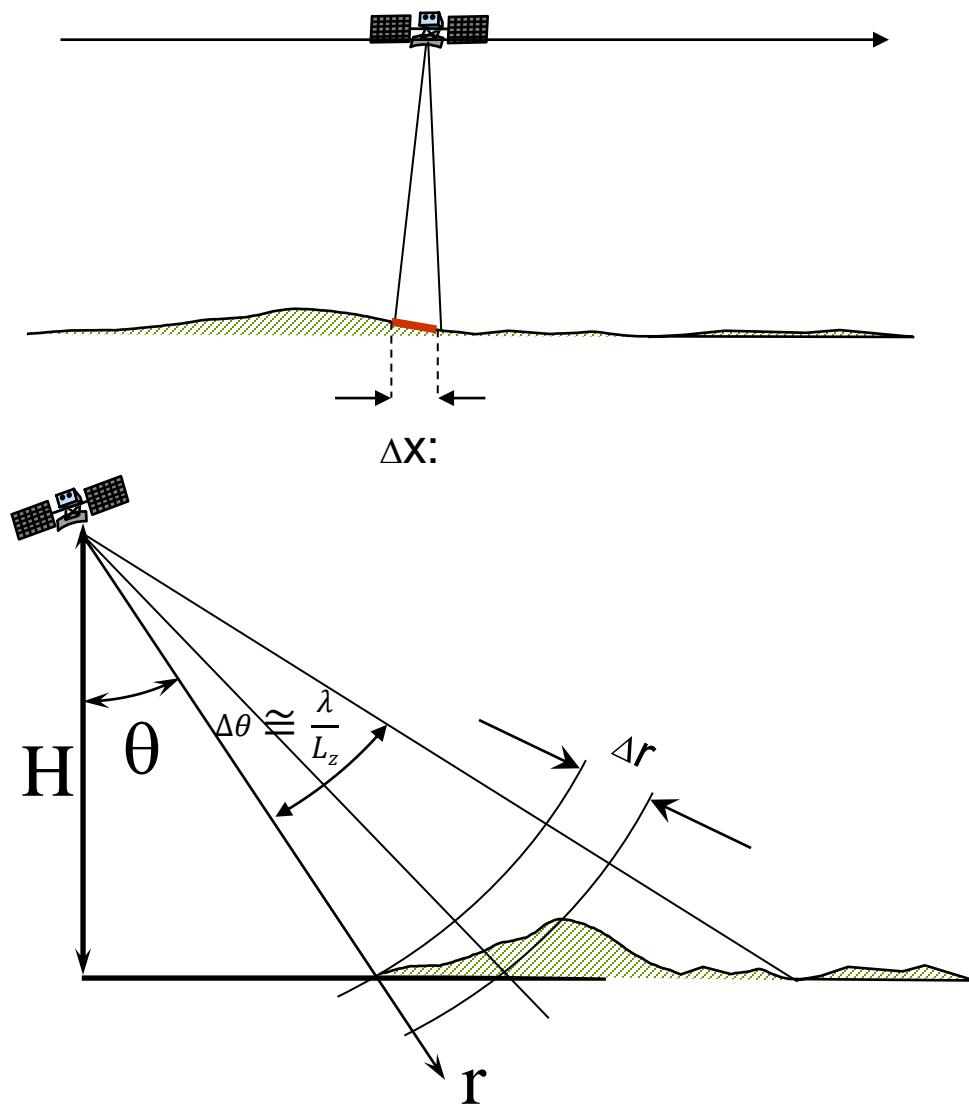


⇒ The target is bound to lie in the region of space:

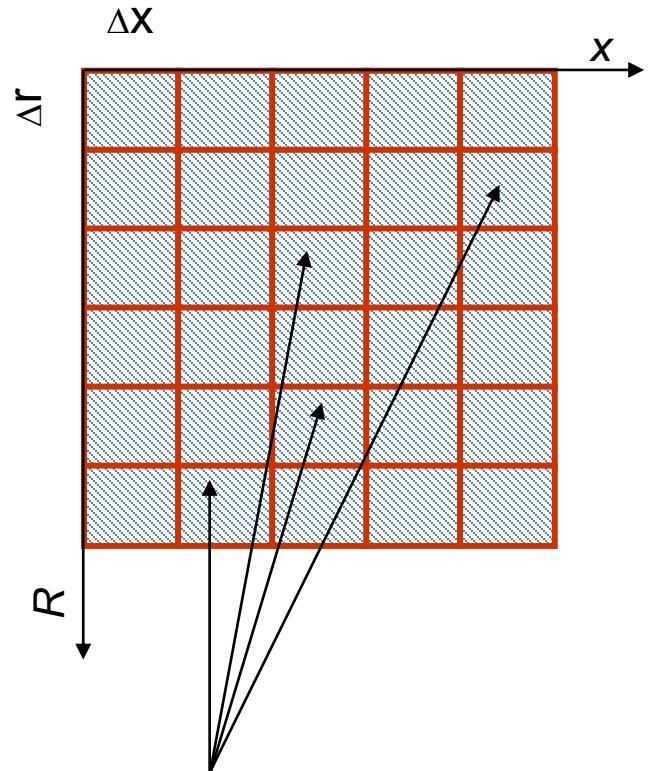
- Centered on the trajectory
- Perpendicular to the trajectory (yz plane)
- Range thickness $\Delta R = \frac{c}{2B}$
- Along-track thickness $\Delta x = \frac{\lambda R}{2A_s} \cong \frac{L_x}{2}$



SAR imaging



SAR image

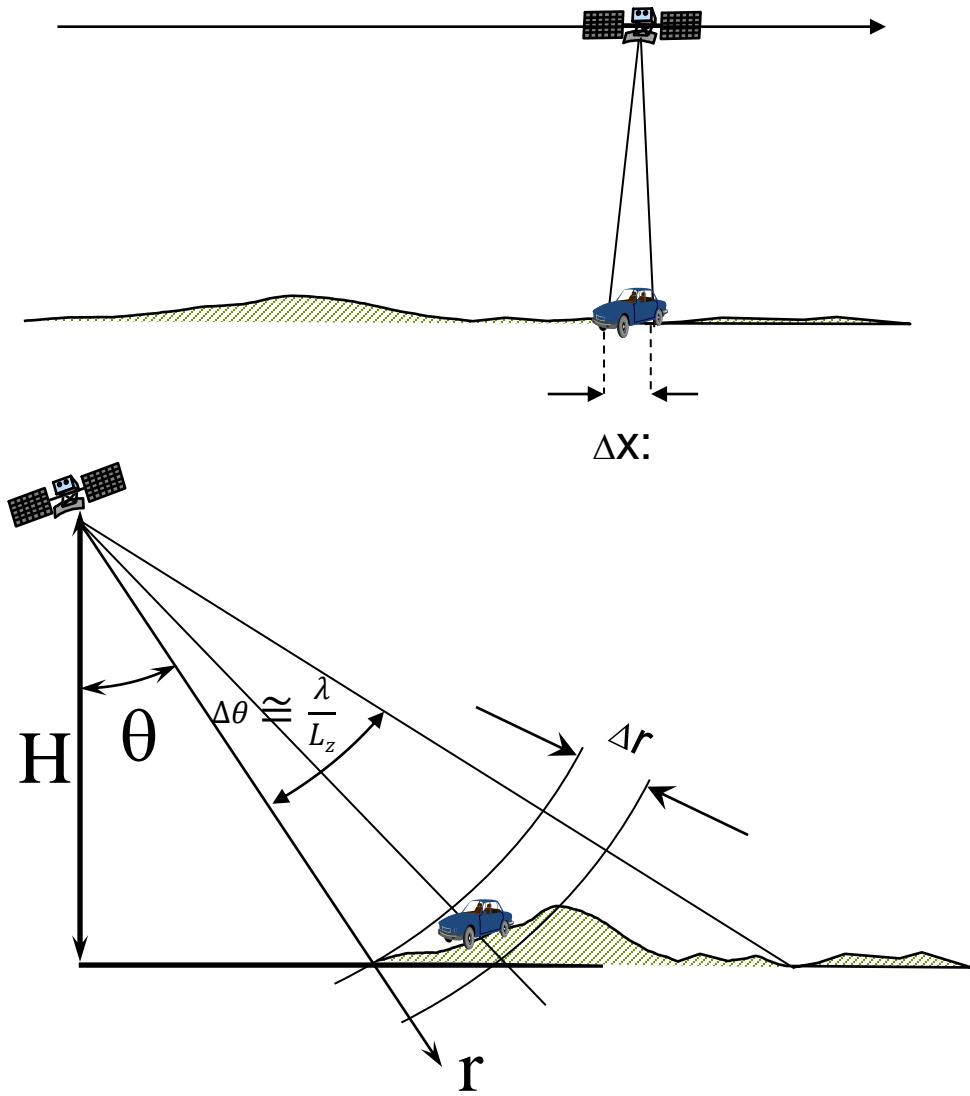


Each pixel is associated with a range/azimuth resolution cell

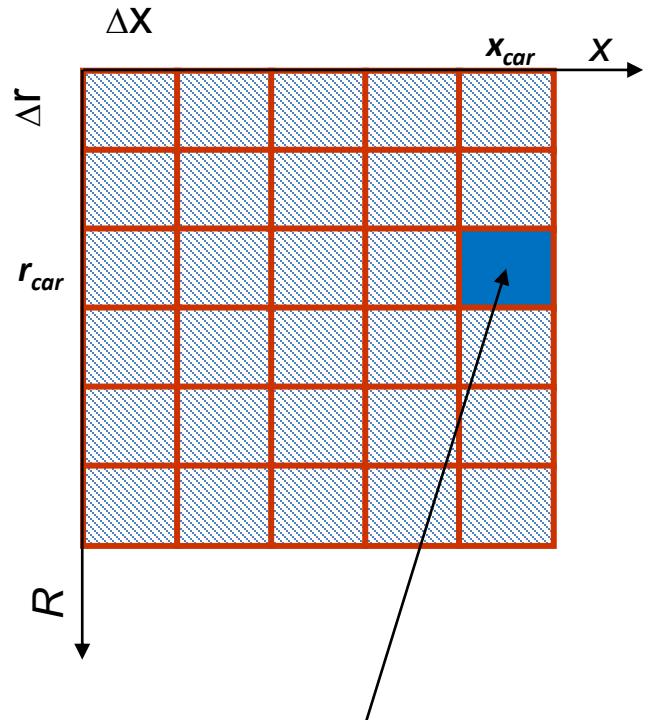
SAR jargon

- R = (slant) range
- x = azimuth

SAR imaging



SAR image

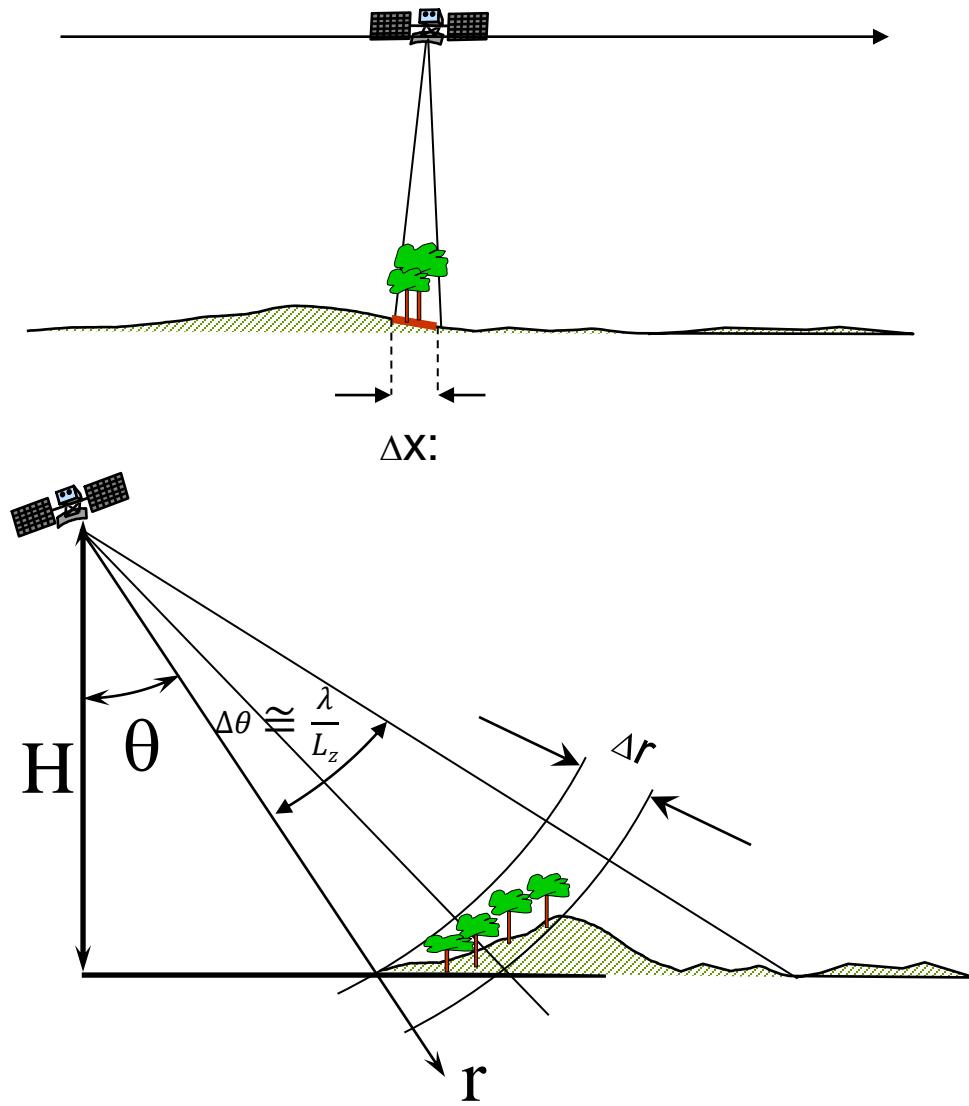


This pixel value corresponds to the target at position x_{car}, r_{car}

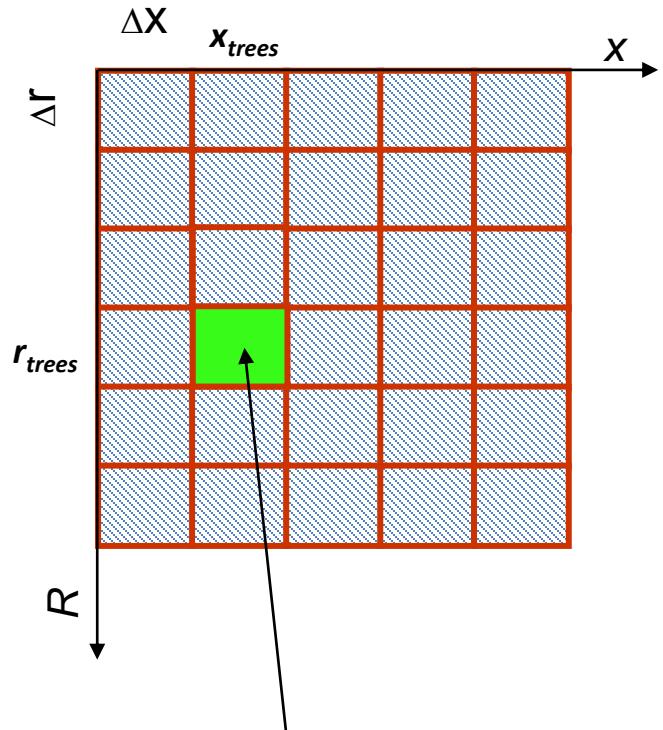
SAR jargon

- R = (slant) range
- x = azimuth

SAR imaging



SAR image



This pixel value is arises from the interference of all trees within the resolution cell

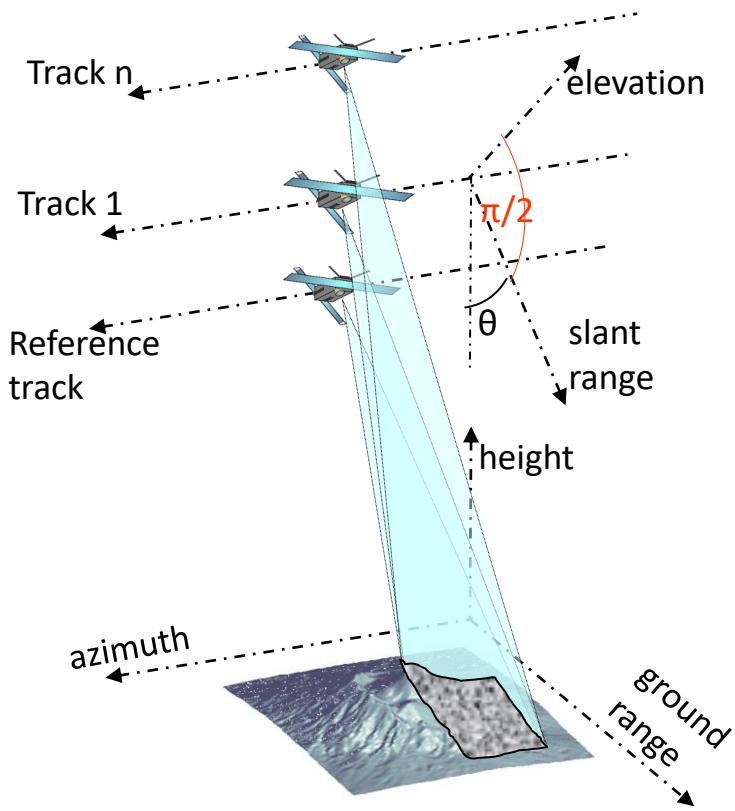
SAR jargon

- R = (slant) range
- x = azimuth

TomoSAR Imaging

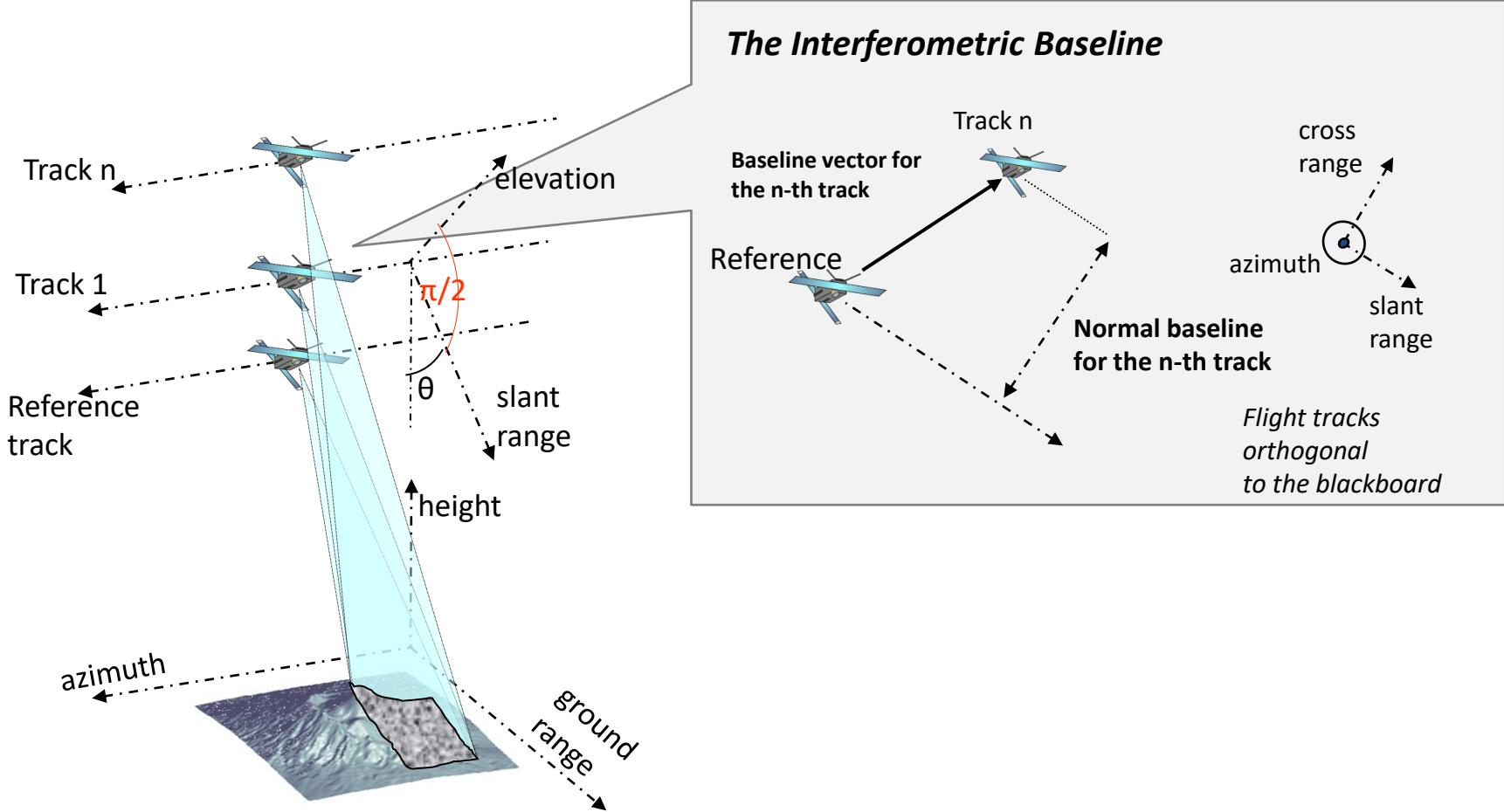
TomoSAR Imaging

Multiple baselines \Leftrightarrow Illumination from multiple points of view



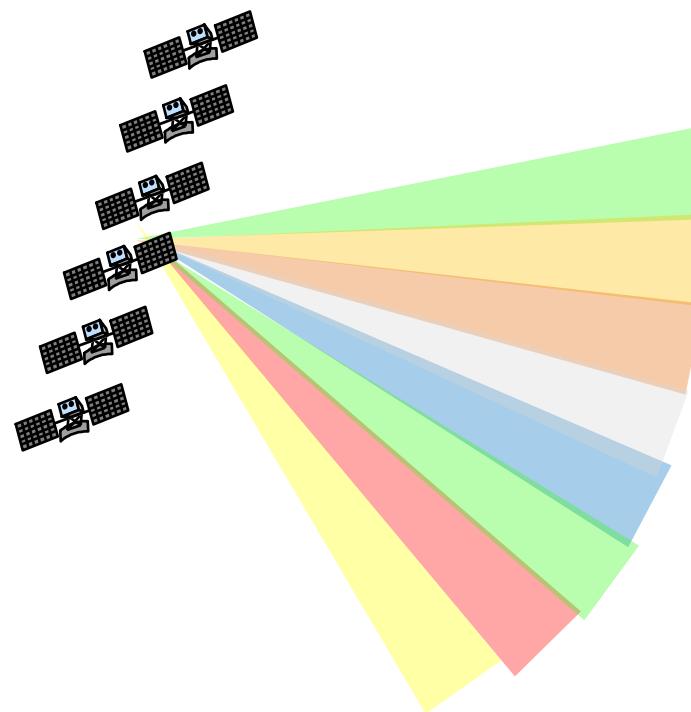
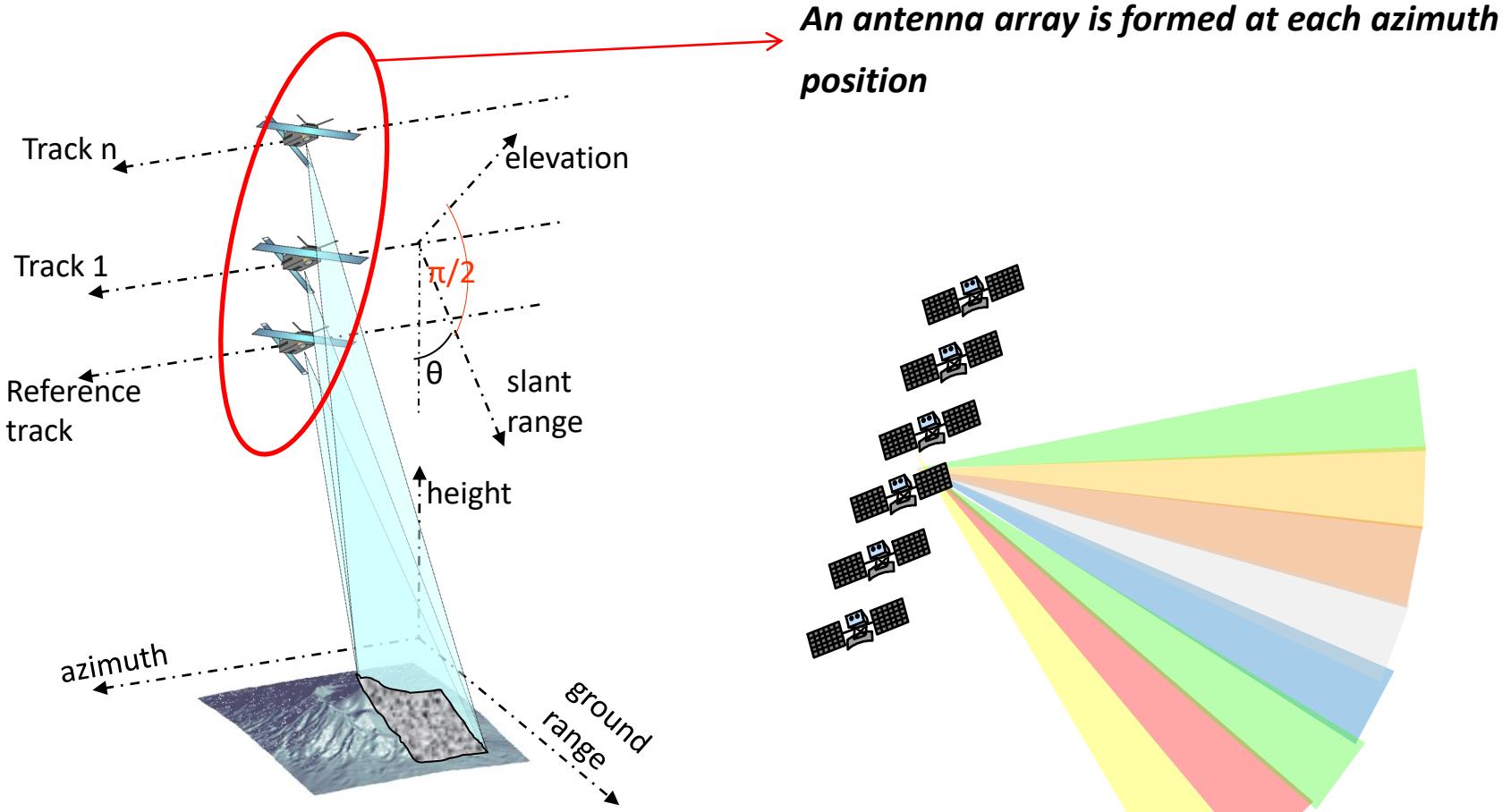
TomoSAR Imaging

Multiple baselines \Leftrightarrow Illumination from multiple points of view



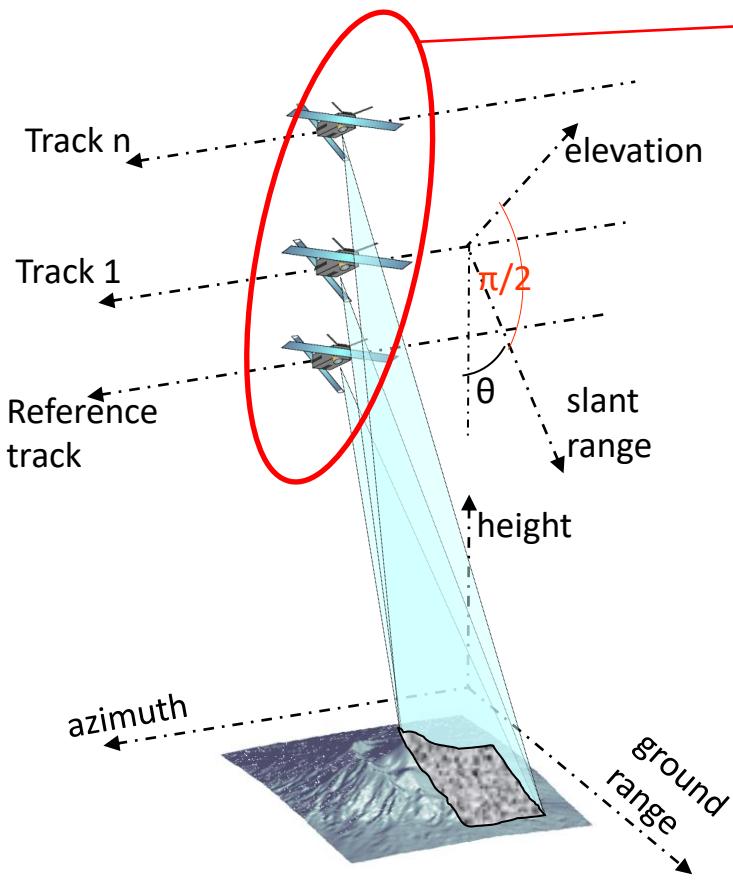
TomoSAR Imaging

Multiple baselines \Leftrightarrow Illumination from multiple points of view

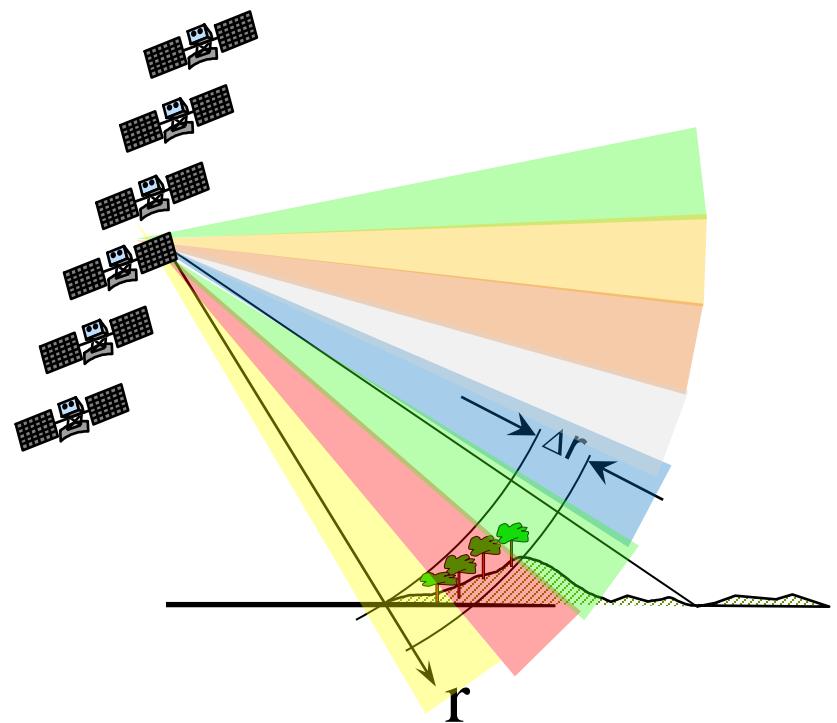


TomoSAR Imaging

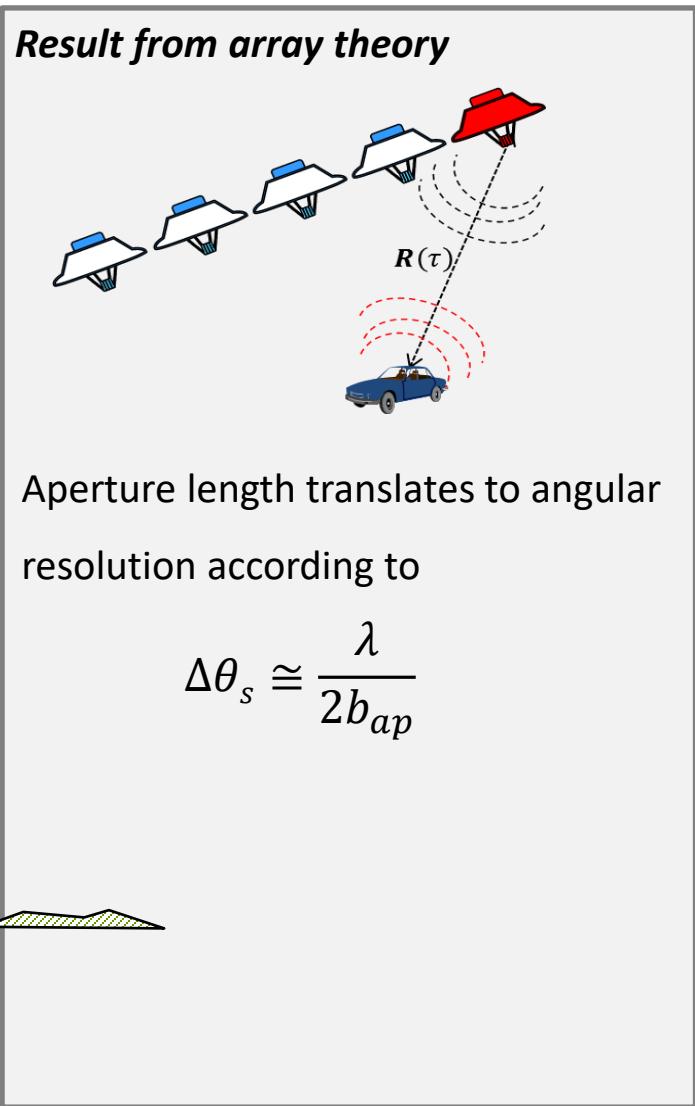
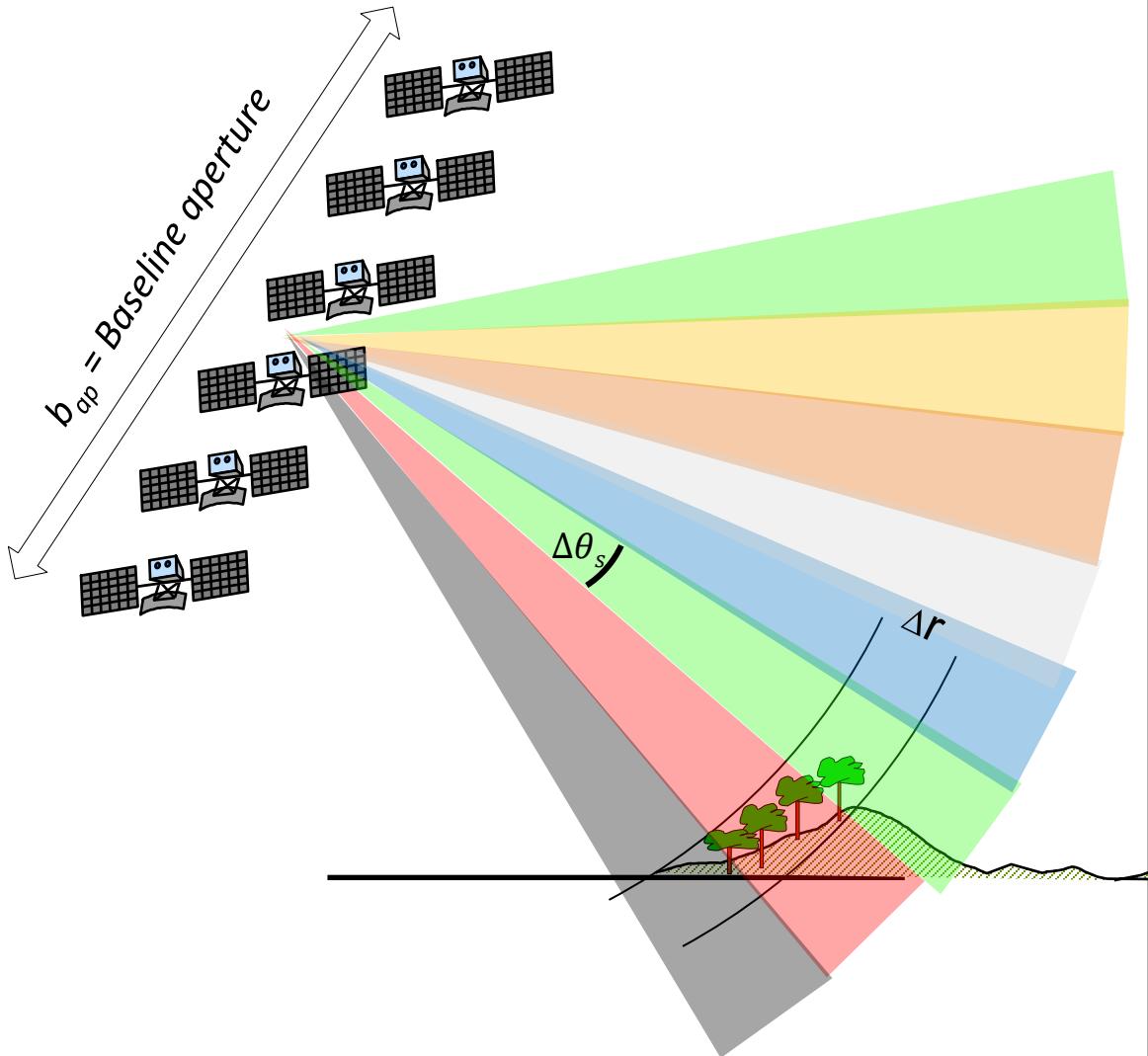
Multiple baselines \Leftrightarrow Illumination from multiple points of view



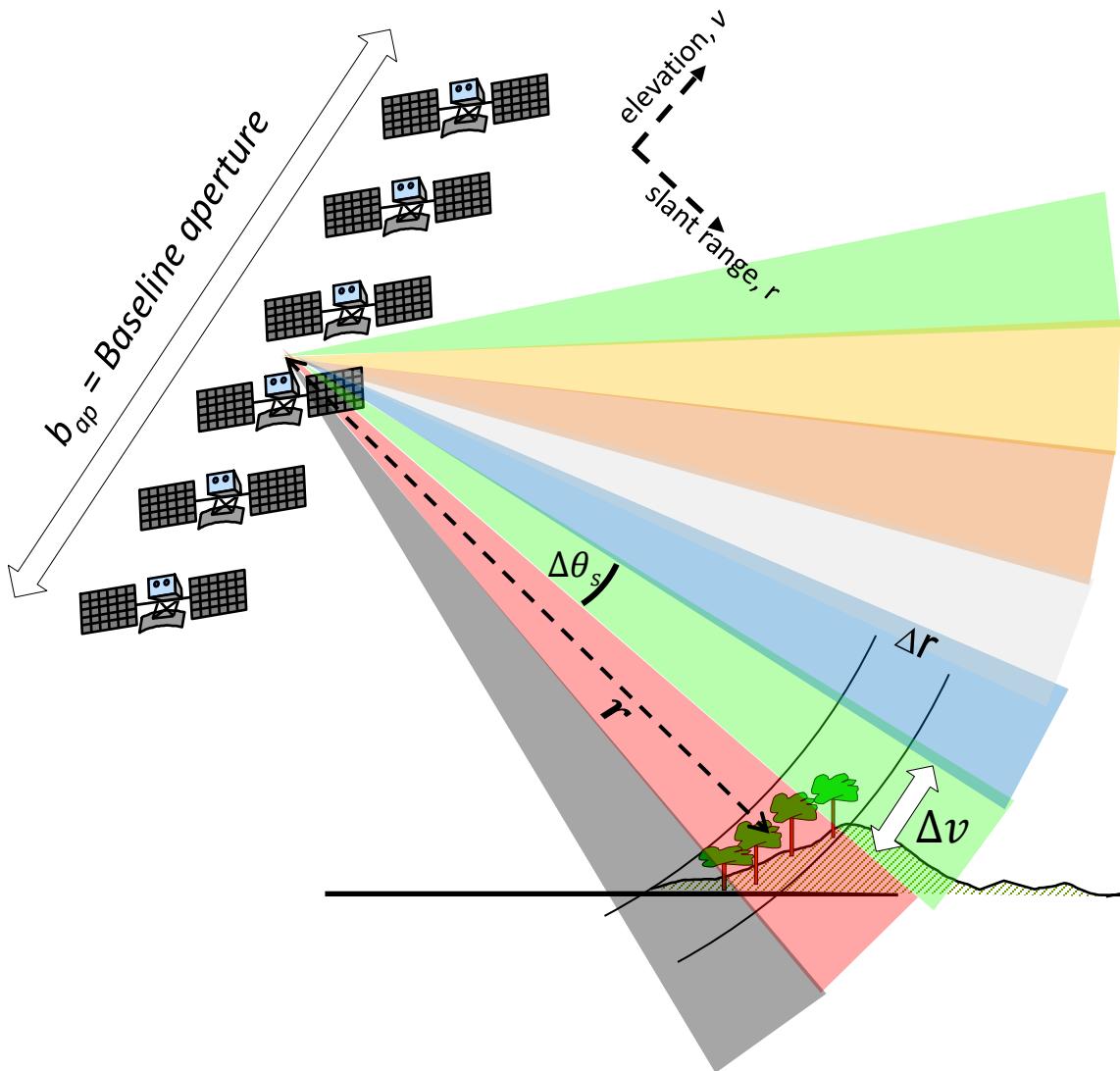
An antenna array is formed at each azimuth position
 \Leftrightarrow **Resolution of targets at different elevation within each SAR range/azimuth resolution cell**



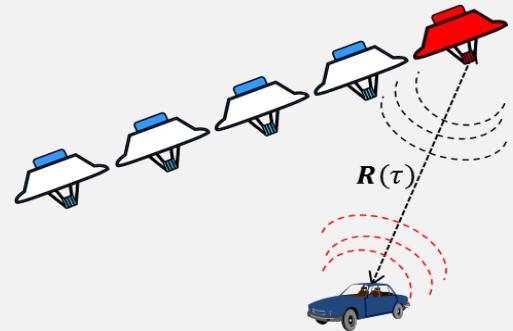
TomoSAR Resolution



TomoSAR Resolution



Result from array theory



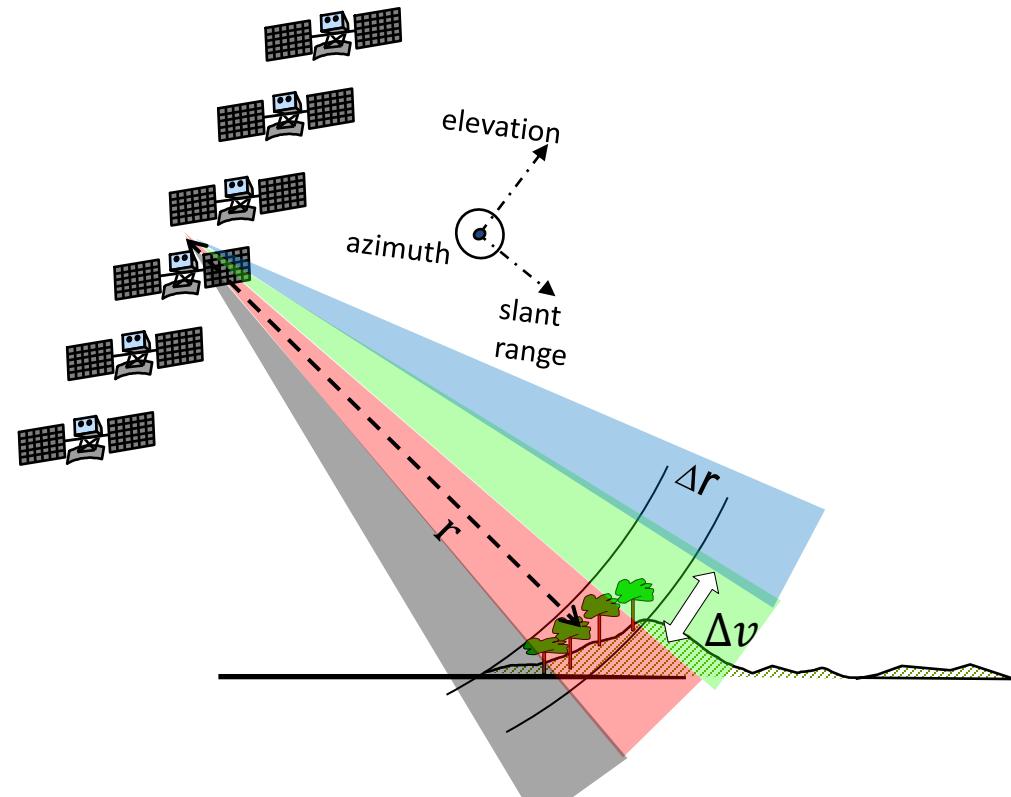
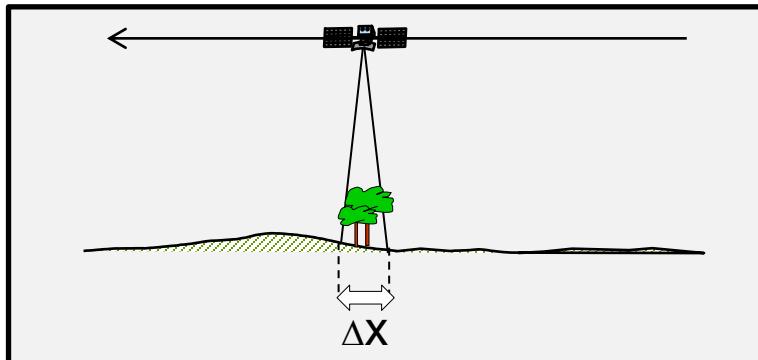
Aperture length translates to angular resolution according to

$$\Delta\theta_s \cong \frac{\lambda}{2b_{ap}}$$

Angular resolution translates into **elevation** resolution according to

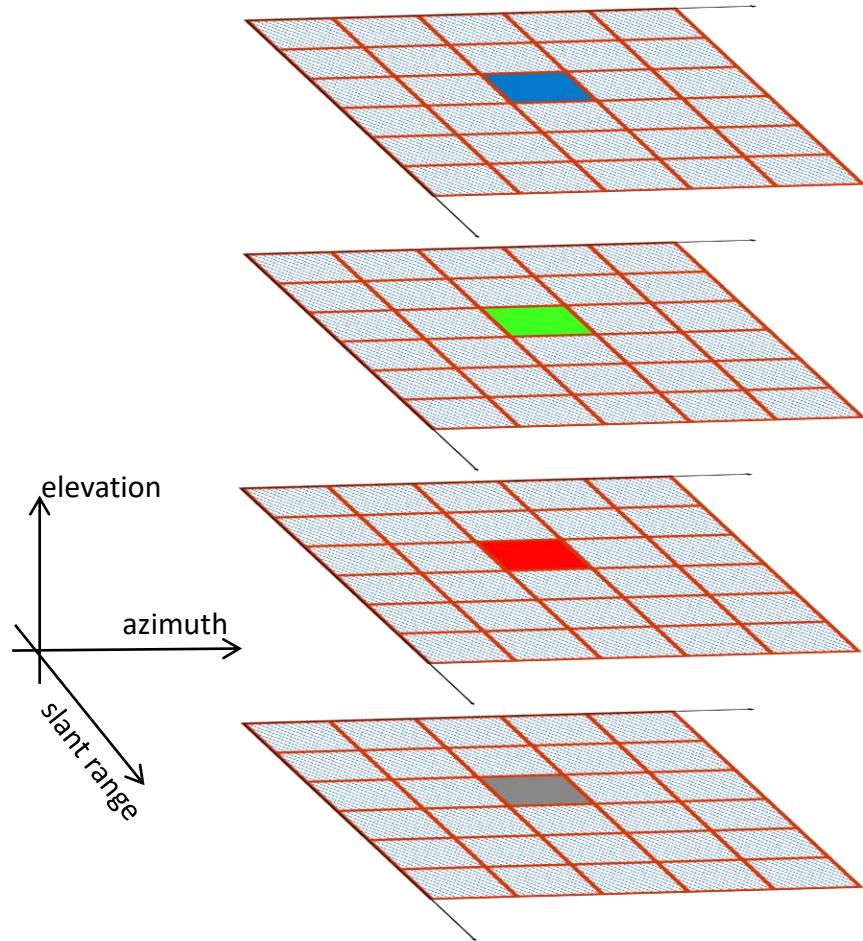
$$\Delta v \cong \Delta\theta_s \cdot r$$

TomoSAR Resolution Cell



TomoSAR cube

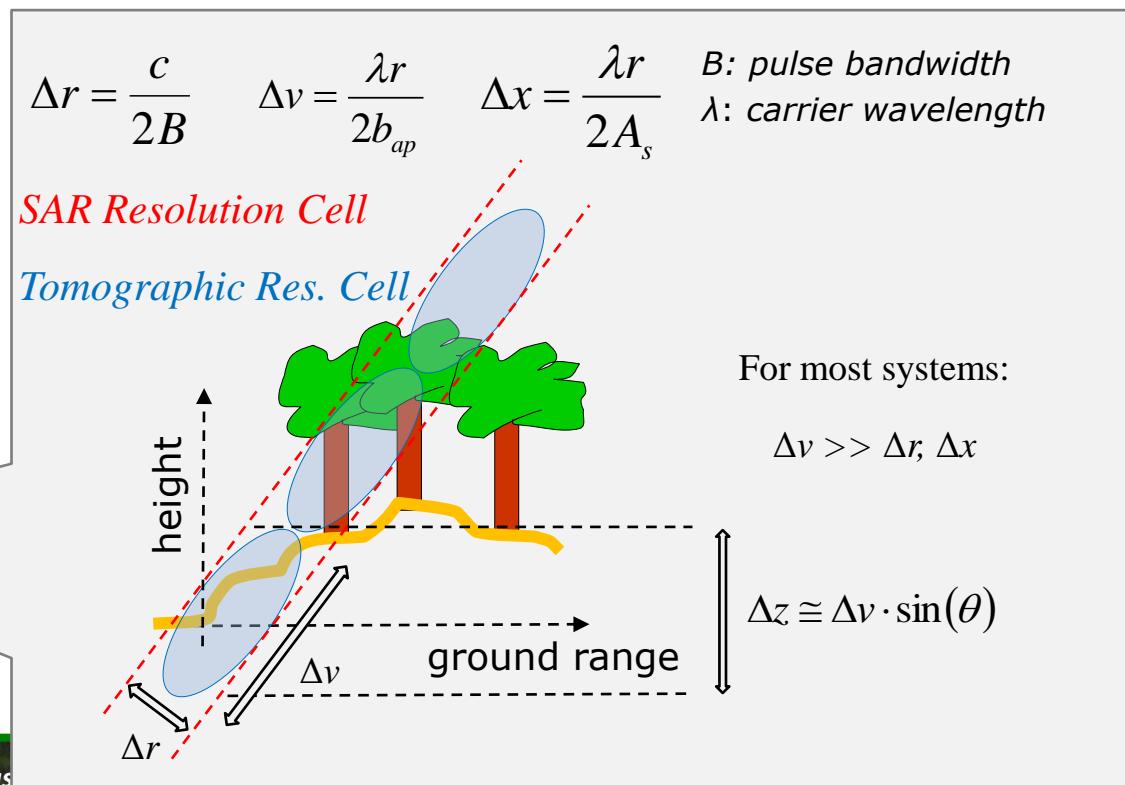
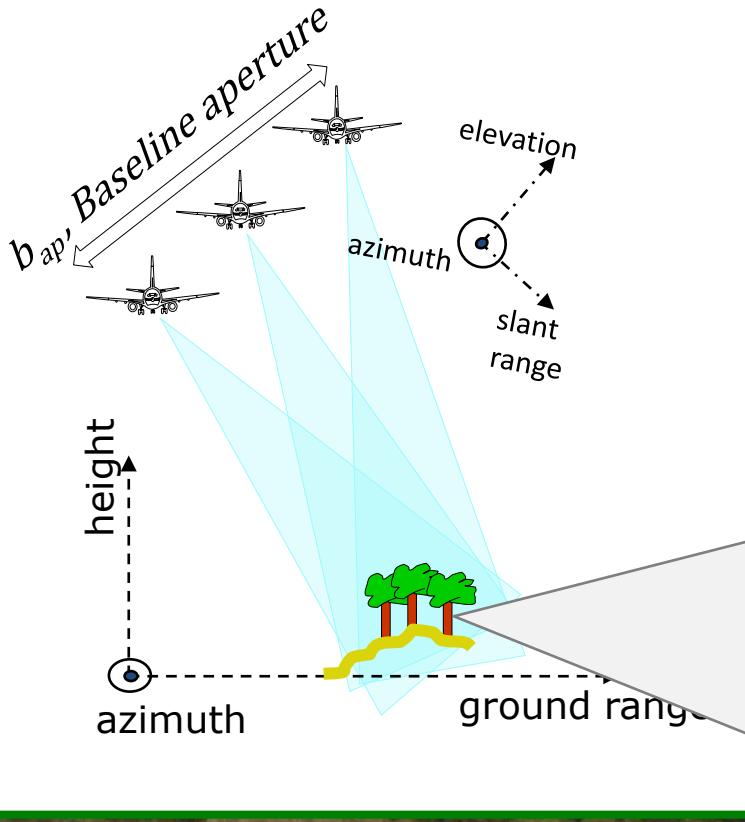
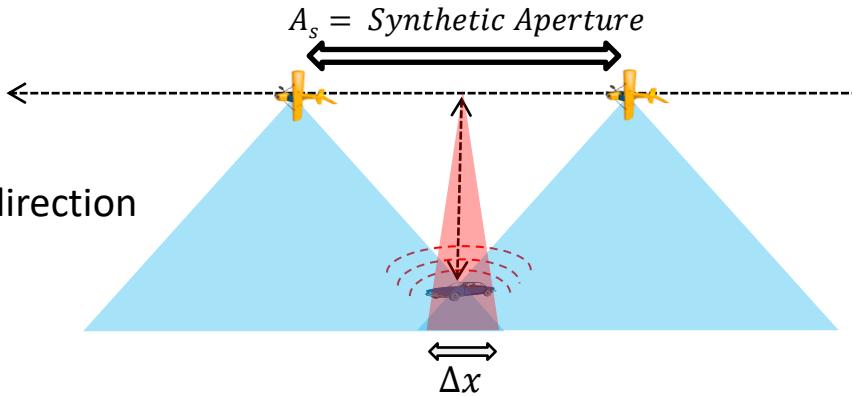
Each voxel is associated with a range/azimuth/elevation resolution cell



TomoSAR Resolution Cell

Resolution is determined by

- Pulse bandwidth along the slant range direction
- Along-track synthetic aperture length in the azimuth direction
- Baseline aperture in the elevation direction



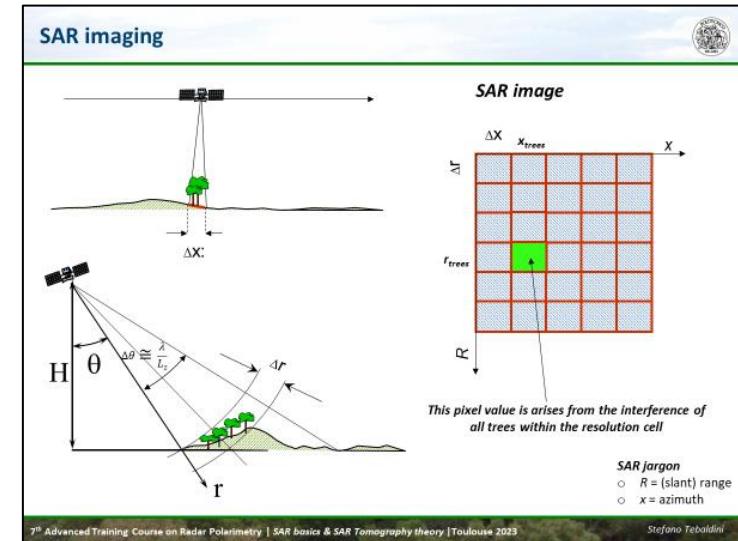
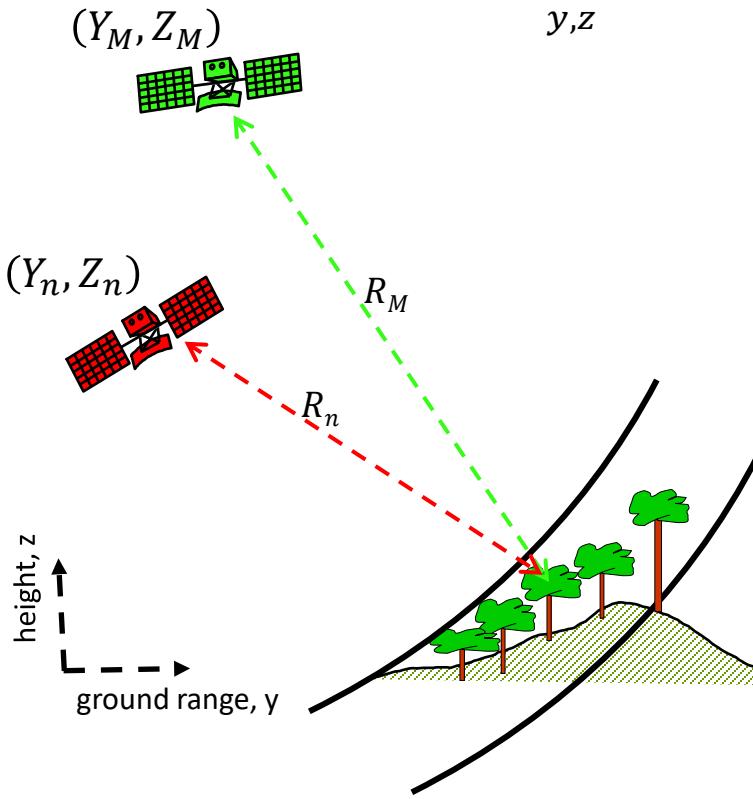
TomoSAR Processing

SAR pixel – multiple baseline model

SAR pixel = Sum of all elementary scatterer at different elevations within the same range/azimuth resolution cell

- Each elementary scatterer is phase-rotated according to its distance from the Radar

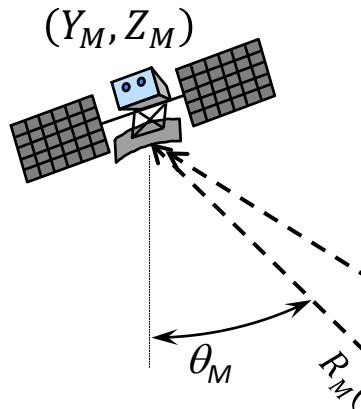
$$I_n(r, x) = \sum_{y,z} A(y, z) \cdot e^{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(y, z)}$$



$$R_n = \sqrt{(Y_n - y)^2 + (Z_n - z)^2}$$

$$R_M = \sqrt{(Y_M - y)^2 + (Z_M - z)^2}$$

SAR pixel – multiple baseline model

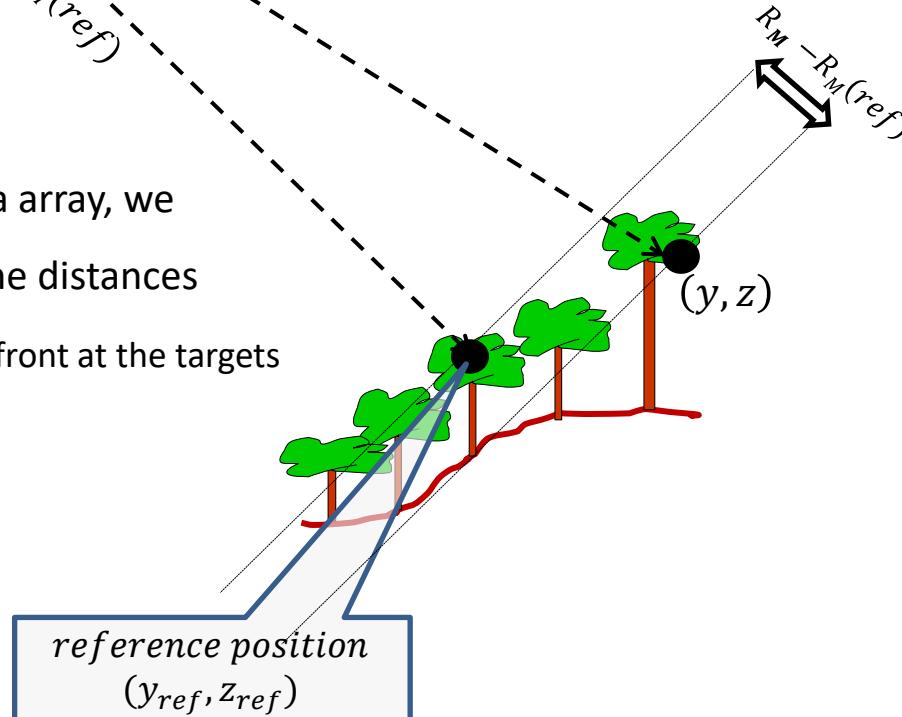


Distance w.r.t. a reference position

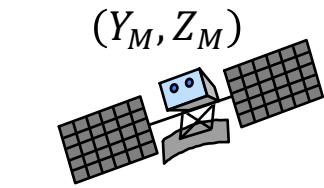
$$R_M - R_M(\text{ref}) \cong \sin(\theta_M) \cdot (y - y_{\text{ref}}) - \cos(\theta_M) \cdot (z - z_{\text{ref}})$$

As in the case of the antenna array, we linearize the expression of the distances

↔ Assumption of a planar wavefront at the targets



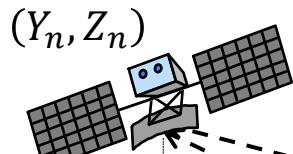
SAR pixel – multiple baseline model



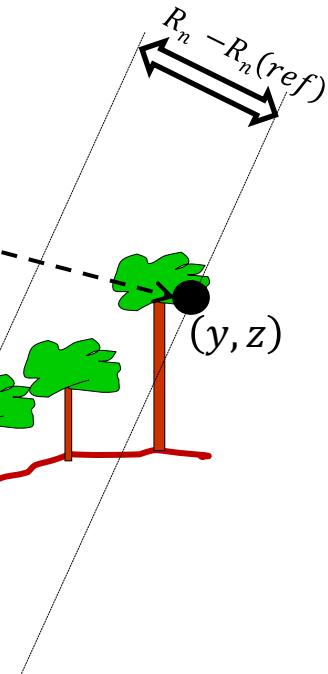
Distance w.r.t. a reference position

$$R_M - R_M(\text{ref}) \cong \sin(\theta_M) \cdot (y - y_{\text{ref}}) - \cos(\theta_M) \cdot (z - z_{\text{ref}})$$

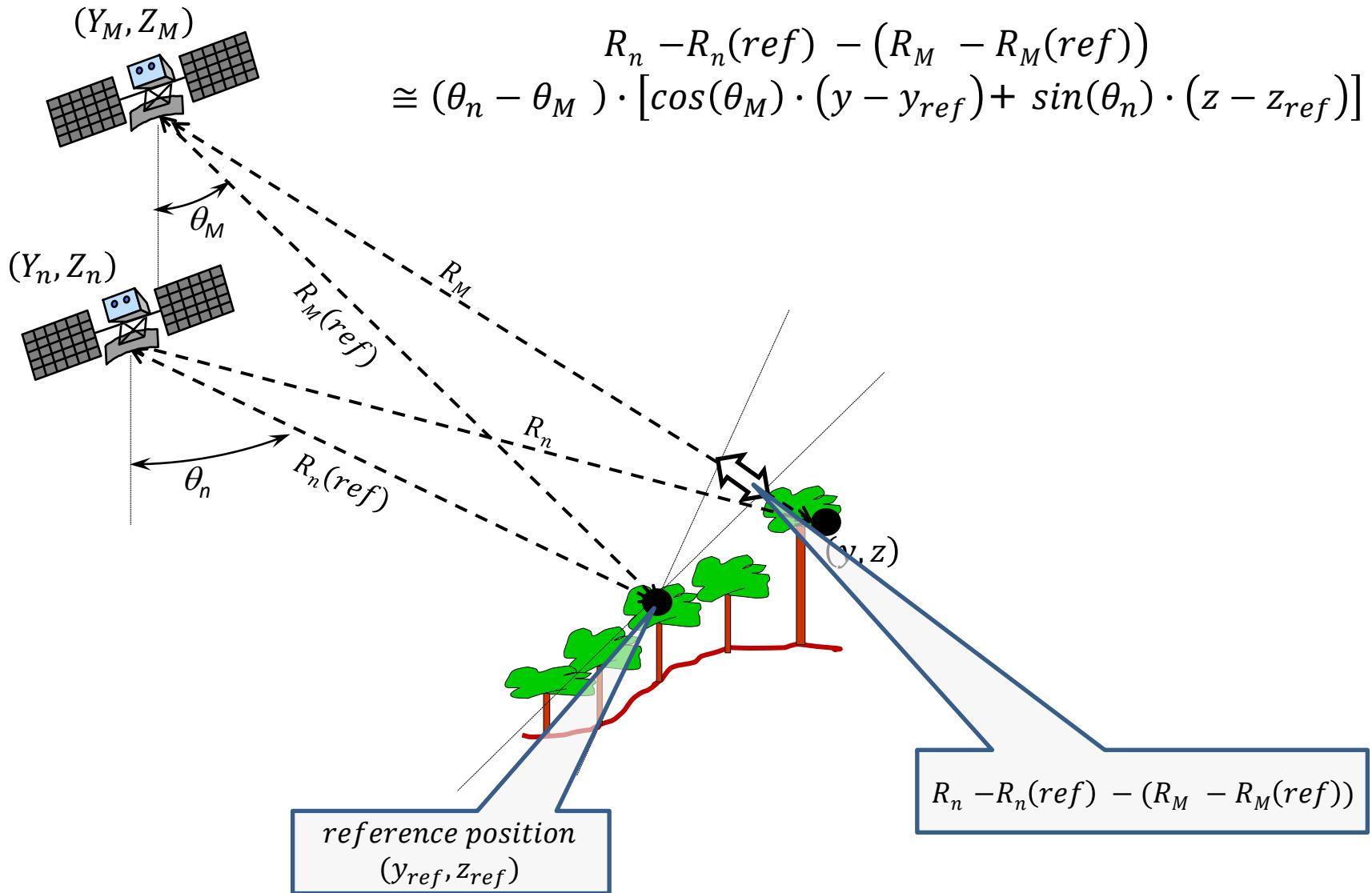
$$R_n - R_n(\text{ref}) \cong \sin(\theta_n) \cdot (y - y_{\text{ref}}) - \cos(\theta_n) \cdot (z - z_{\text{ref}})$$



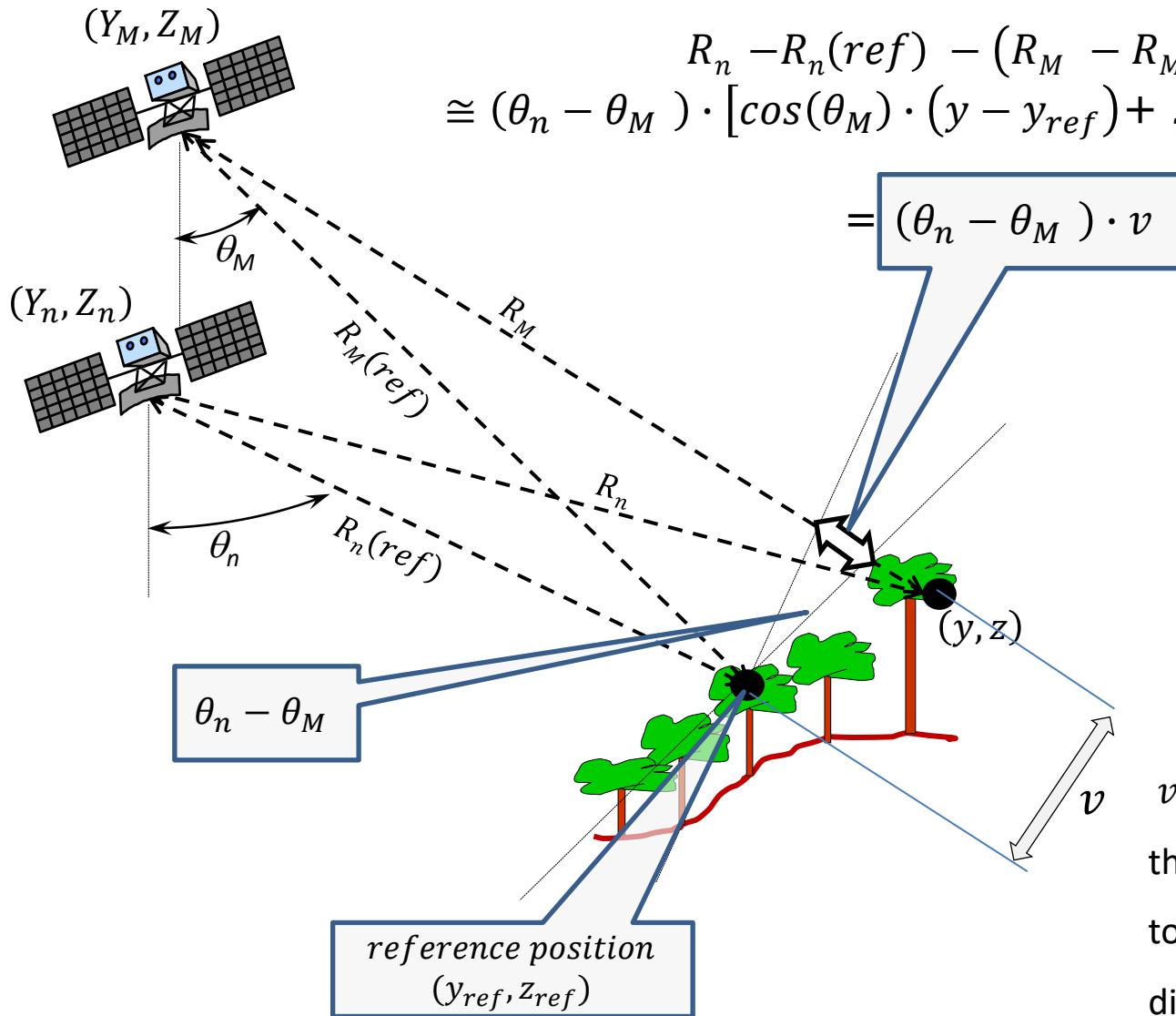
*reference position
(y_{ref}, z_{ref})*



SAR pixel – multiple baseline model



SAR pixel – multiple baseline model

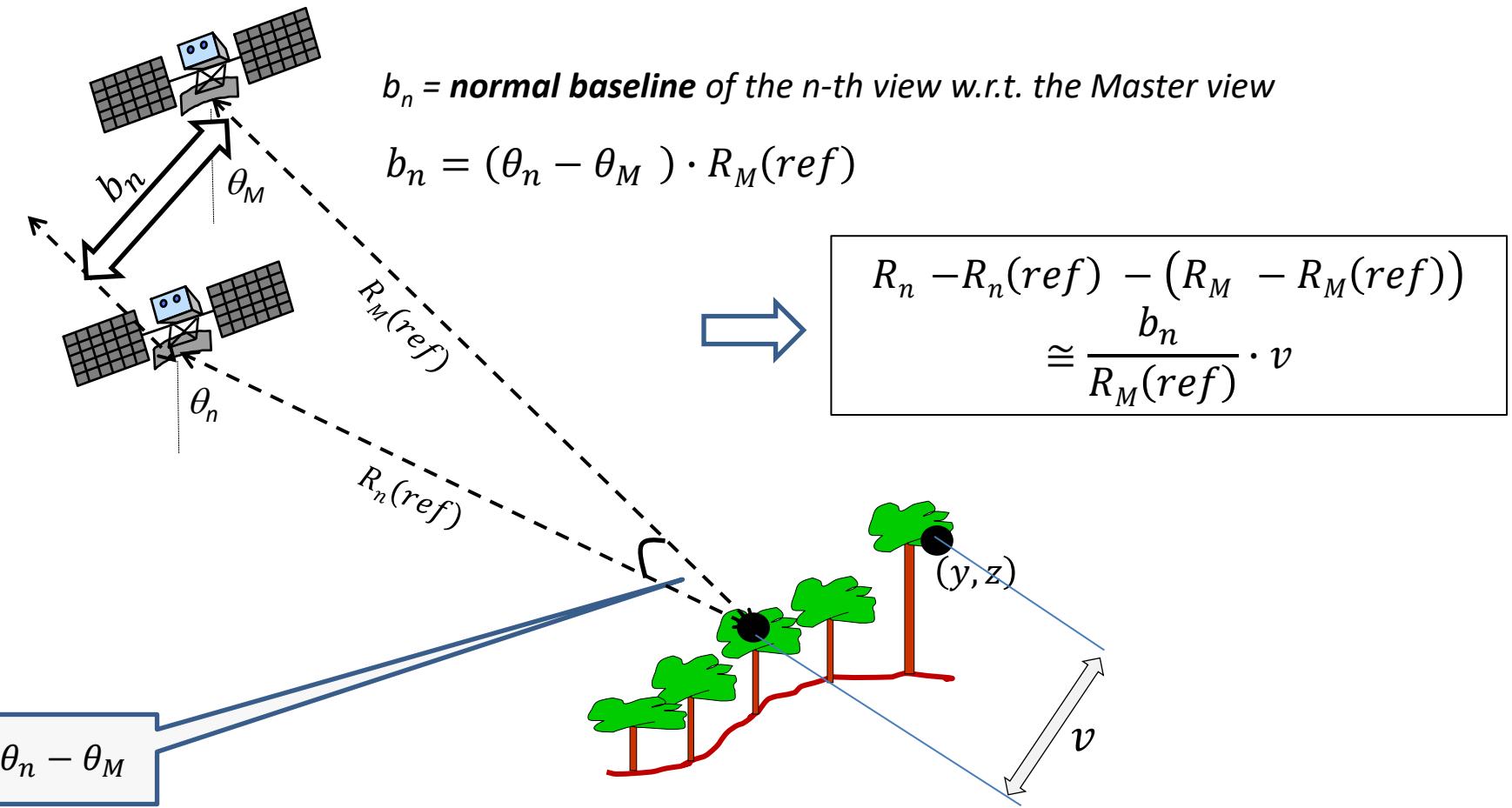


$$R_n - R_n(\text{ref}) = (R_M - R_M(\text{ref})) \\ \cong (\theta_n - \theta_M) \cdot [\cos(\theta_M) \cdot (y - y_{\text{ref}}) + \sin(\theta_n) \cdot (z - z_{\text{ref}})]$$

$$= (\theta_n - \theta_M) \cdot v$$

v is the displacement of the target at (y, z) w.r.t. to $(y_{\text{ref}}, z_{\text{ref}})$ in the direction of elevation

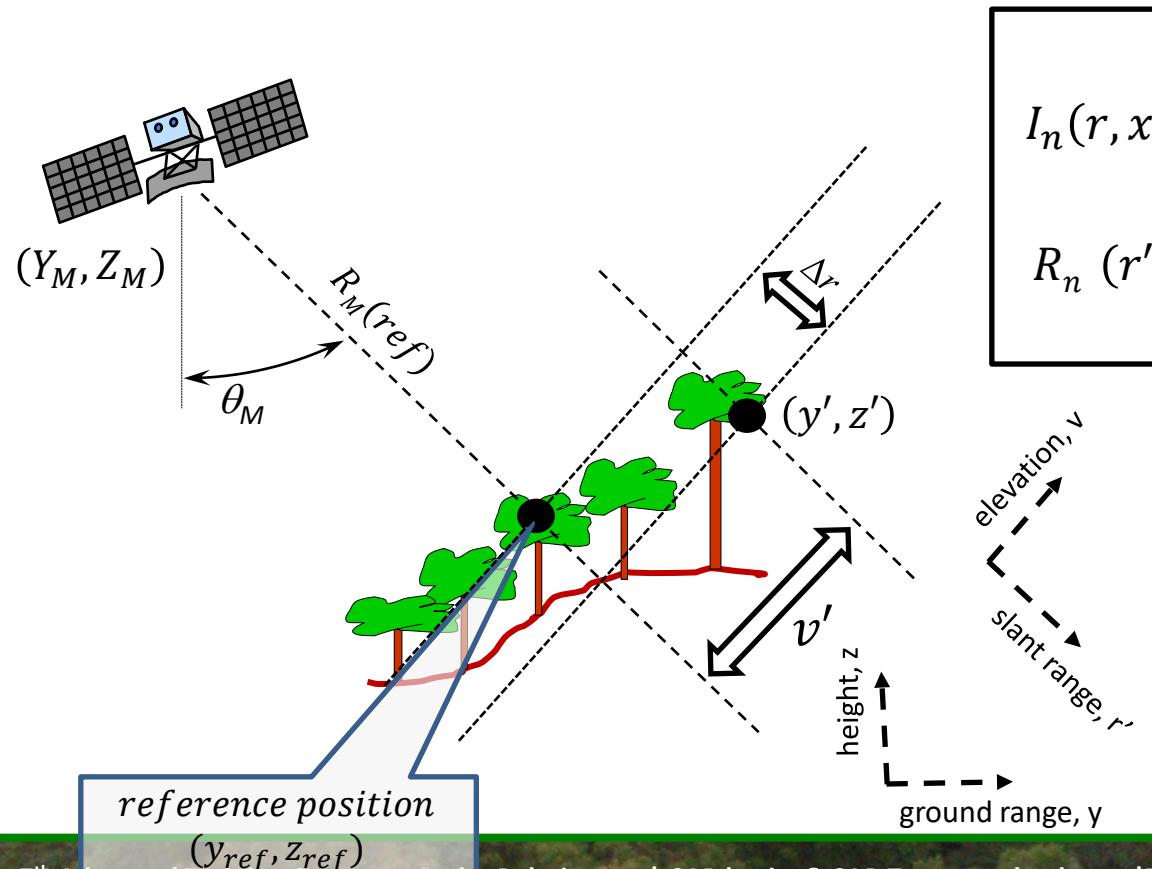
SAR pixel – multiple baseline model



SAR pixel – multiple baseline model

The approximations above allow restating the SAR model in a new Cartesian coordinate system defined by *slant range, elevation with respect to a reference point and a reference orbit*

- The reference position is typically taken as the (x,y,z) position of the SAR pixel when projected onto a given Digital Terrain Model
- The choice of the reference orbit is largely arbitrary



$$I_n(r, x) = \sum_{r', v} A(r', v) \cdot e^{-j\frac{4\pi}{\lambda}R_n(r', v)}$$

$$R_n(r', v) \cong R_n(\text{ref}) + r' + \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} \cdot v$$

SAR pixel – multiple baseline model



$$I_n(r, x) = \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref}) \right\} \cdot \sum_{r', v} A(r', v) \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} r' \right\} \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v \right\}$$

SAR pixel – multiple baseline model



$$I_n(r, x) = \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref}) \right\} \cdot \sum_{r', v} A(r', v) \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} r' \right\} \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v \right\}$$

Common terms
for all baselines

SAR pixel – multiple baseline model



$$I_n(r, x) = \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref})\right\} \cdot \sum_{r', v} A(r', v) \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} r'\right\} \cdot \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v\right\}$$

Summing over r' we get

Common terms
for all baselines

$$I_n(r, x) = \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref})\right\} \cdot \sum_v s(v) \cdot \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v\right\}$$

SAR pixel – multiple baseline model



$$I_n(r, x) = \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref})\right\} \cdot \sum_{r', v} A(r', v) \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} r'\right\} \cdot \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v\right\}$$

Summing over r' we get

Common terms
for all baselines

$$I_n(r, x) = \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref})\right\} \cdot \sum_v s(v) \cdot \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v\right\}$$

Phase offset to be removed based on knowledge
of the acquisition geometry (terrain flattening)

SAR pixel – multiple baseline model



$$I_n(r, x) = \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref})\right\} \cdot \sum_{r', v} A(r', v) \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} r'\right\} \cdot \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v\right\}$$

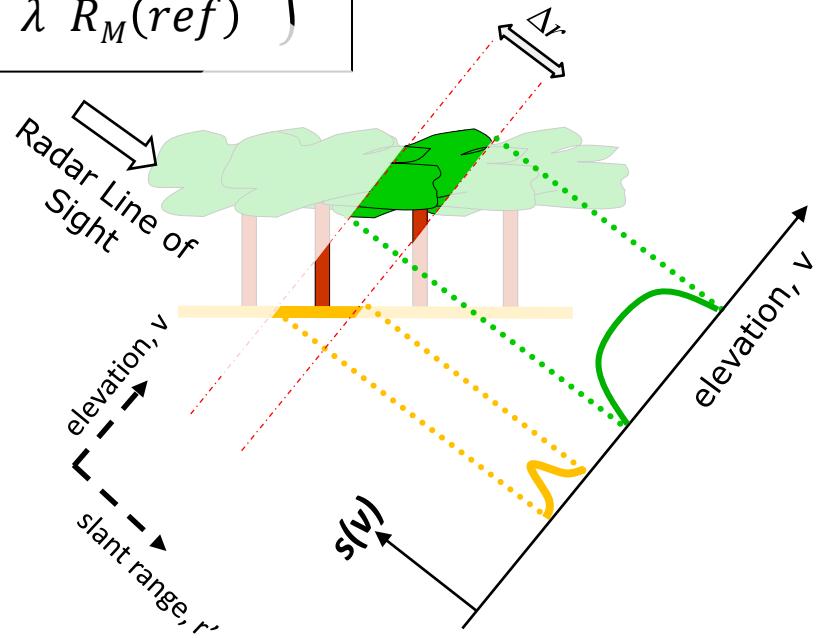
Summing over r' we get

Common terms
for all baselines

$$I_n(r, x) = \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref})\right\} \cdot \sum_v s(v) \cdot \exp\left\{-j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v\right\}$$

Phase offset to be removed based on knowledge
of the acquisition geometry (terrain flattening)

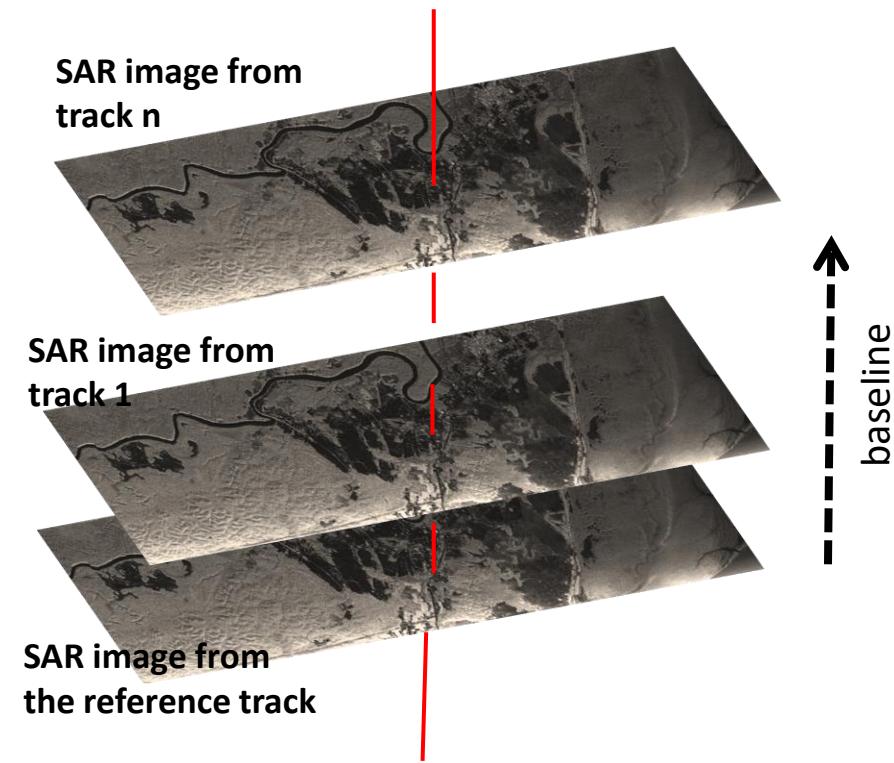
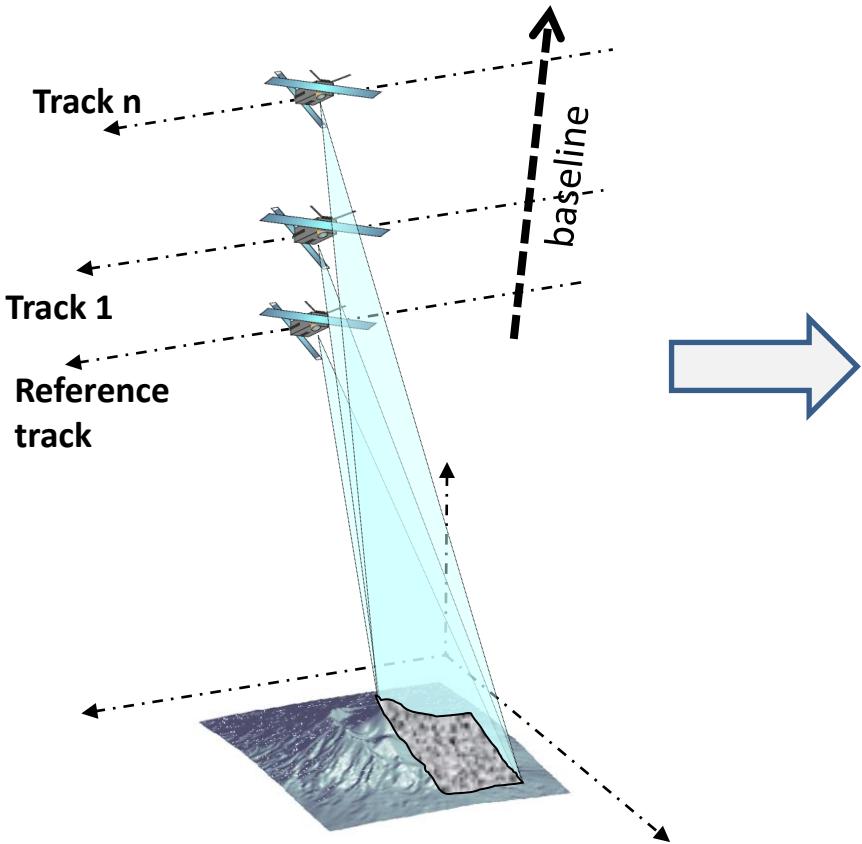
$s(v)$ = projection of the scatterers along elevation



TomoSAR forward model

The SAR pixel in the n -th image can finally be expressed in a simple form as follows:

$$I_n(r, x) = \sum_v s(v) \cdot \exp\{-j2\pi f_v b_n\} \quad \text{with } f_v = \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{v}{R_M(\text{ref})}$$



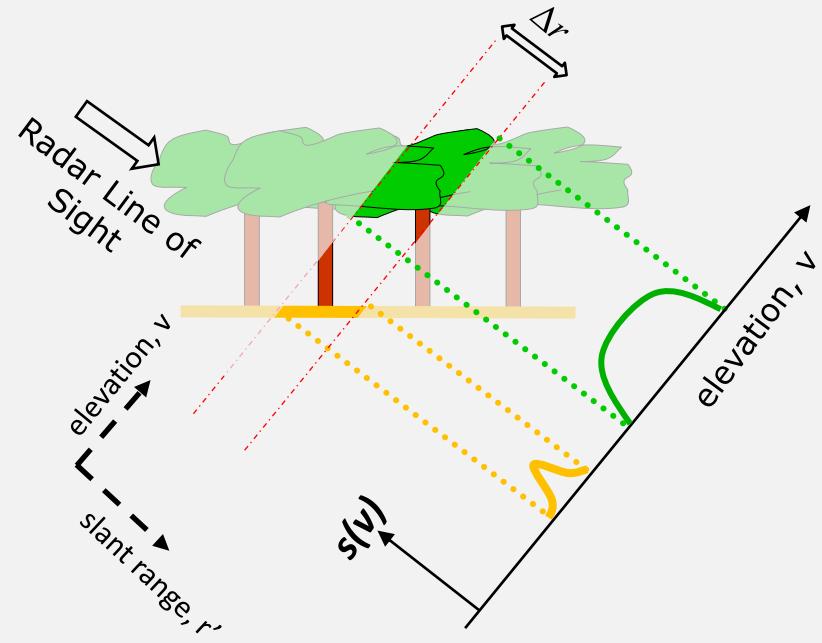
TomoSAR forward model

The SAR pixel in the n -th image can finally be expressed in a simple form as follows:

$$I_n(r, x) = \sum_v s(v) \cdot \exp\{-j2\pi f_v b_n\} \quad \text{with } f_v = \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{v}{R_M(\text{ref})}$$

The signal obtained by taking the pixels at the same (r, x) location in a stack of SAR images is contributed by a sum of complex sinusoids

- The frequencies of the sinusoids correspond to the elevations v at which the targets are found
- The complex amplitude of the sinusoids are obtained by projecting the scatterers within the SAR resolution cell along elevation



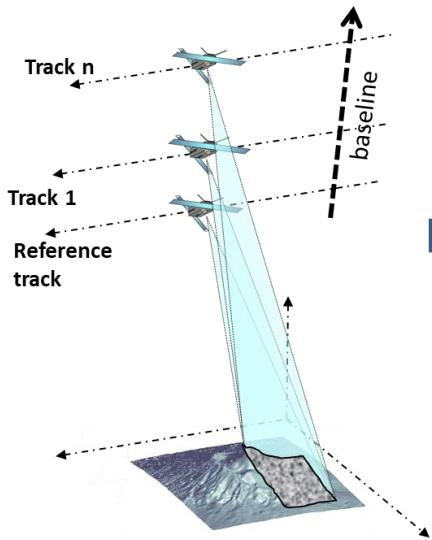
TomoSAR focusing algorithm

Tomographic focusing consists in retrieving the amplitudes $s(v)$ from the signal $I_n(r, x)$

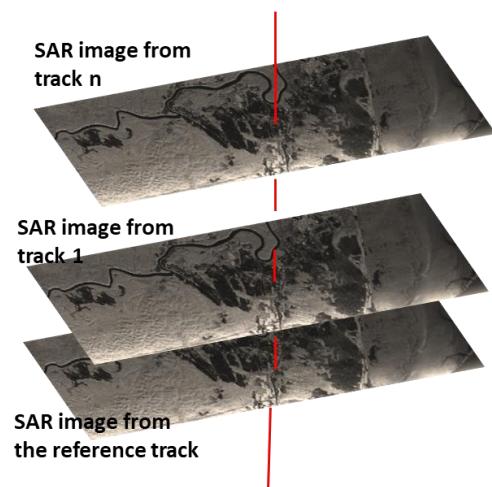
⇒ As always, this is done by computing a Fourier Transform

$$T(r, x, v) = \sum_n I_n(r, x) \cdot \exp \left\{ j \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{v}{R_M(\text{ref})} \right\}$$

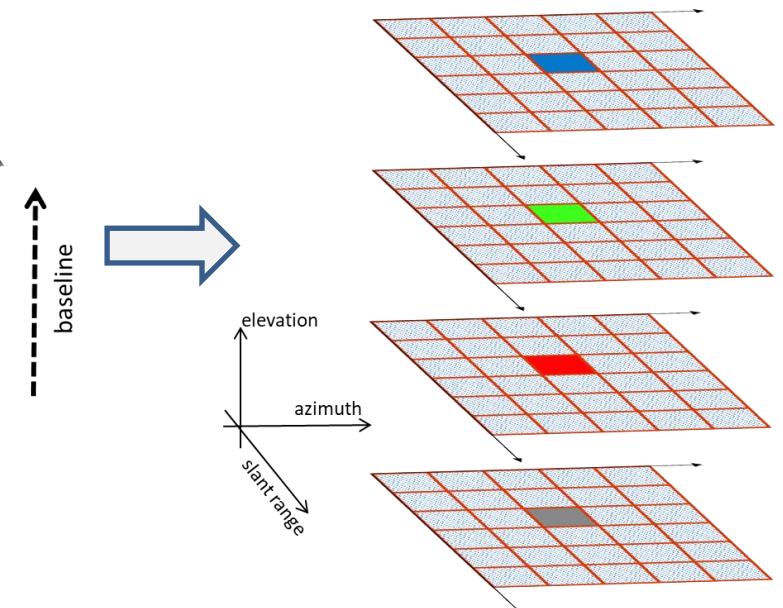
Acquisition



Stack of SAR images



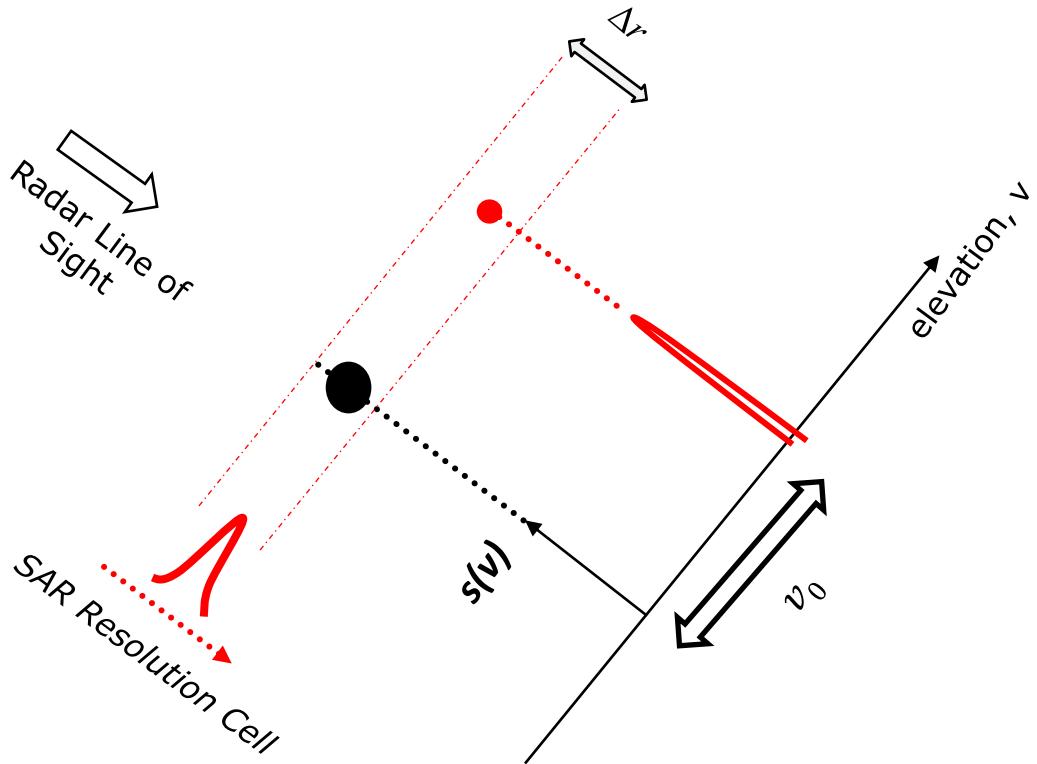
Tomographic voxels



TomoSAR – examples

Case 1: a single point target

$$I_n(r, x) = s_0 \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v_0 \right\}$$



$s(v) = \text{projection of the scatterers}$
along elevation

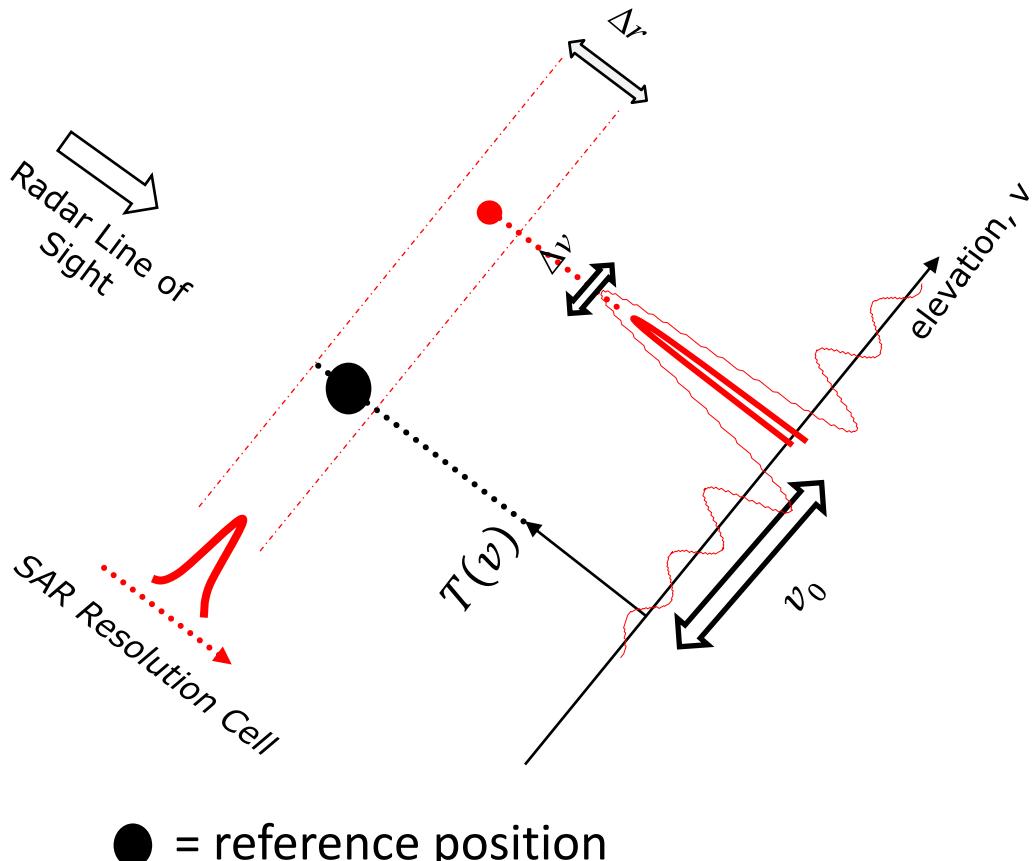
● = reference position

TomoSAR – examples

Case 1: a single point target

$$I_n(r, x) = s_0 \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v_0 \right\}$$

$$T(r, x, v) = \sum_n I_n(r, x) \cdot \exp \left\{ j \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{v}{R_M(\text{ref})} \right\}$$



● = reference position

$T(v)$ = reconstruction by SAR

Tomography

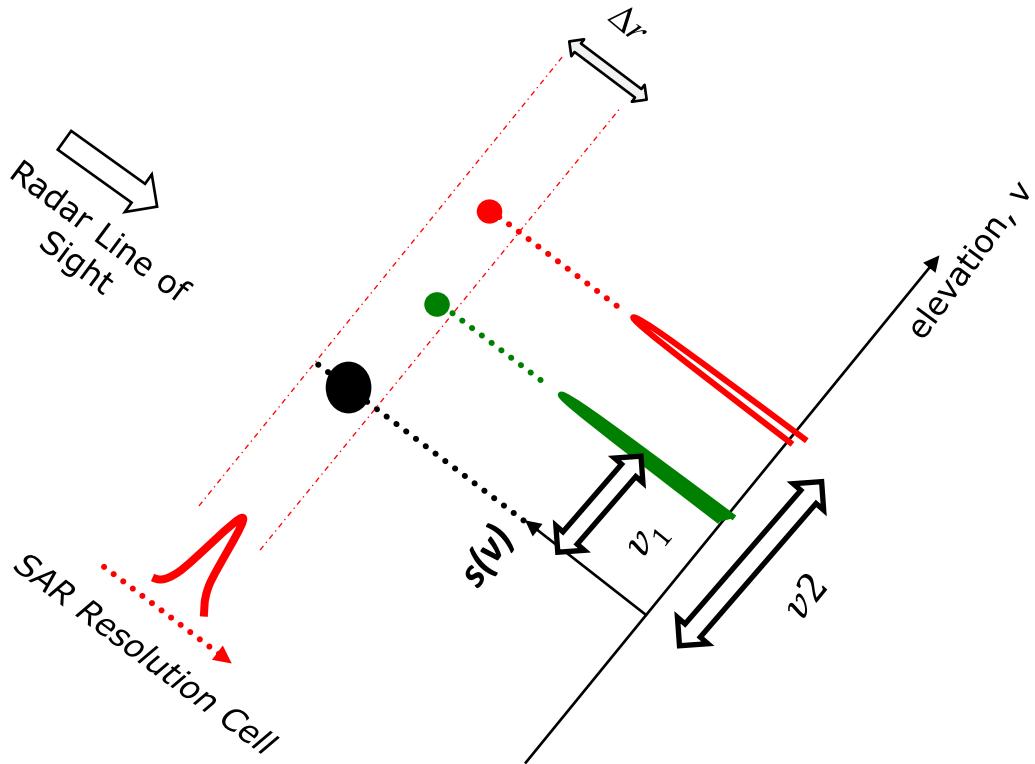
Elevation resolution is

$$\Delta v = \frac{\lambda R_M(\text{ref})}{2 b_{ap}}$$

TomoSAR – examples

Case 2: two point targets

$$I_n(r, x) = \sum_{p=1}^2 s_p \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v_p \right\}$$



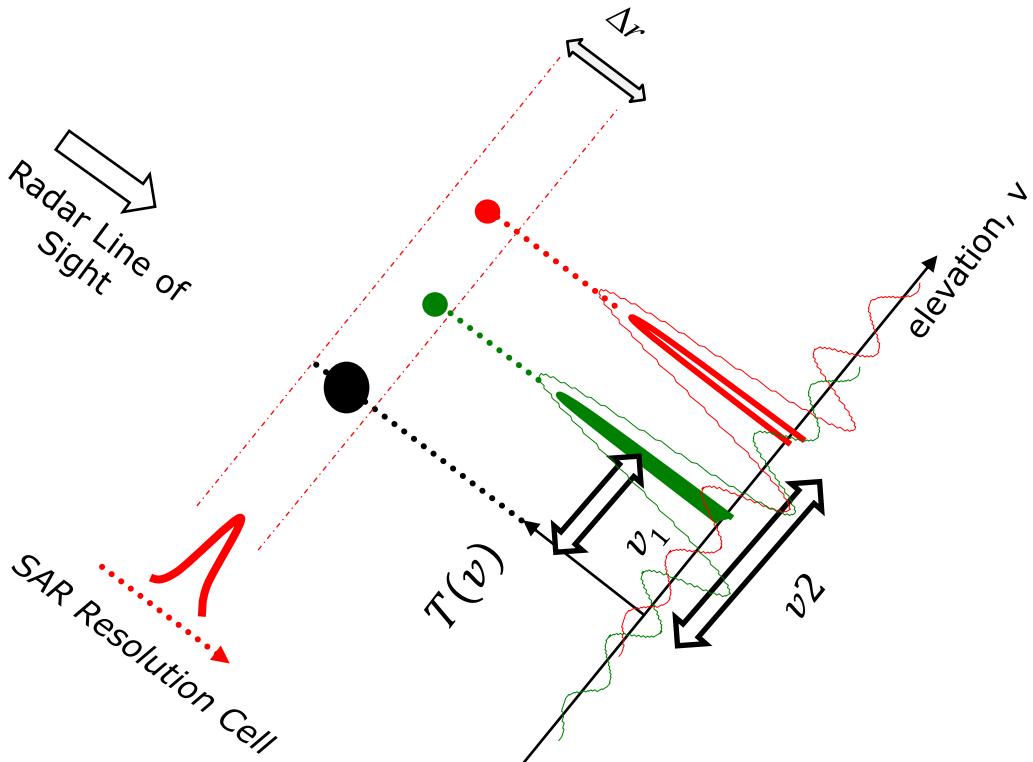
● = reference position

$s(v)$ = projection of the scatterers
along elevation

TomoSAR – examples

Case 2: two point targets

$$I_n(r, x) = \sum_{p=1}^2 s_p \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v_p \right\}$$



● = reference position

$$T(r, x, v) = \sum_n I_n(r, x) \cdot \exp \left\{ j \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{v}{R_M(\text{ref})} \right\}$$

$T(v)$ = reconstruction by SAR

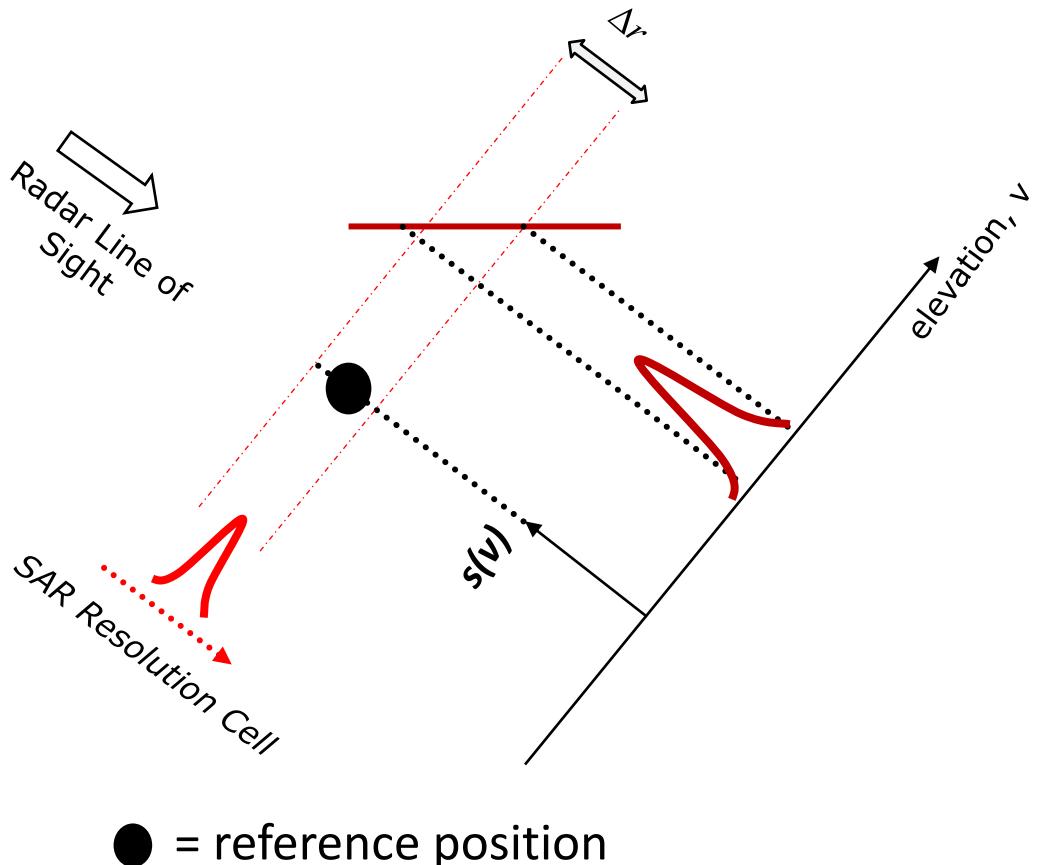
Tomography

Elevation resolution is

$$\Delta v = \frac{\lambda R_M(\text{ref})}{2 b_{ap}}$$

TomoSAR – examples

Case 3: terrain



$s(v)$ = **projection of the scatterers along elevation**

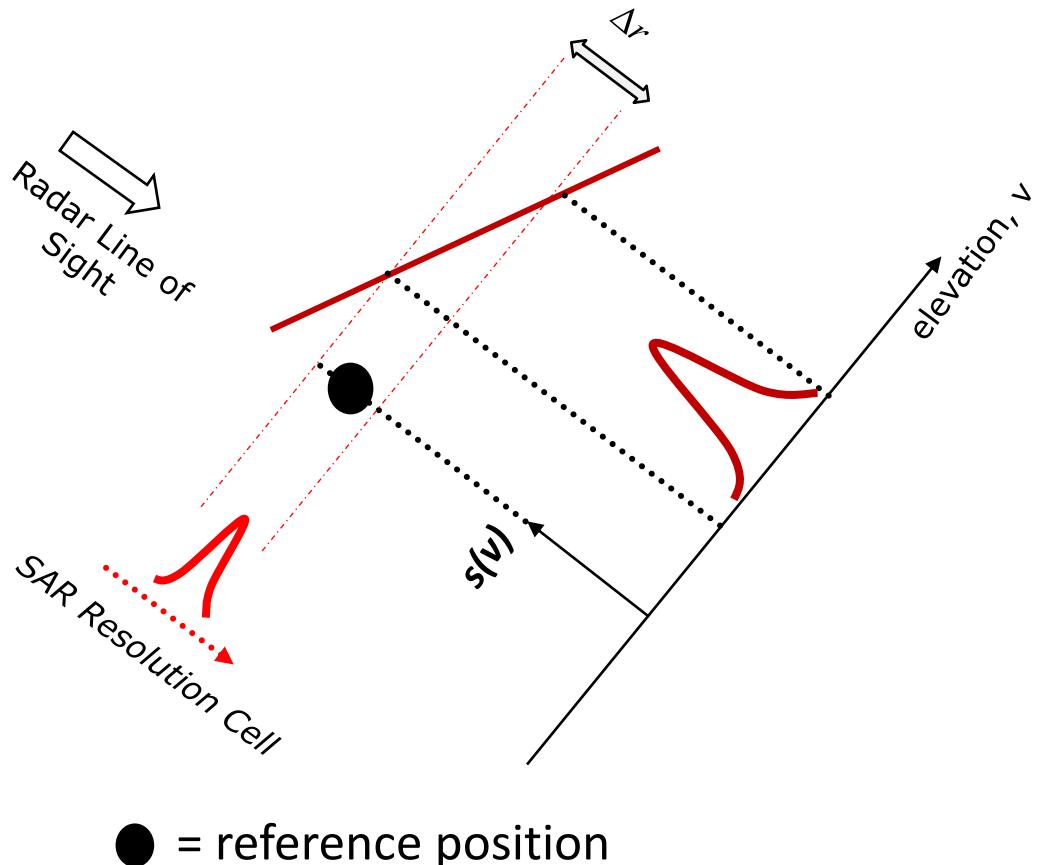
Terrain = extended target

\Leftrightarrow *It does not project into a peak*

\Leftrightarrow *Spread along elevation*

TomoSAR – examples

Case 3: terrain



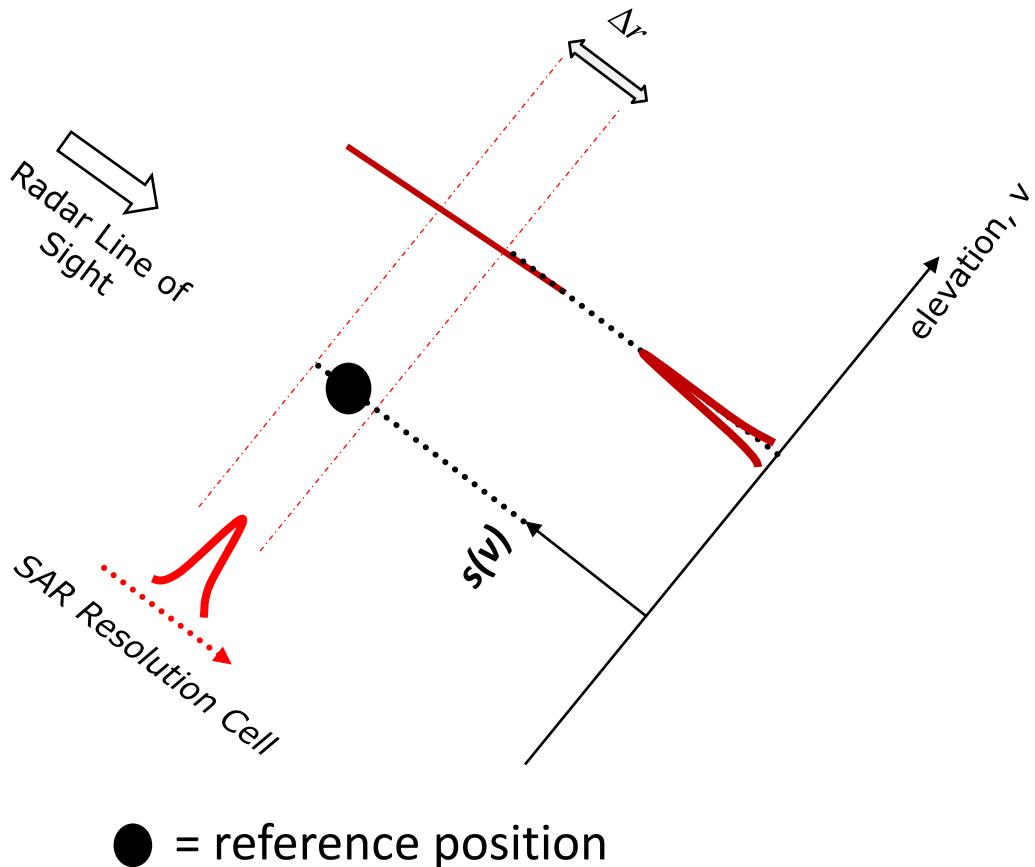
$s(v)$ = **projection of the scatterers
along elevation**

Terrain = extended target

- ↔ *It does not project into a peak*
- ↔ *Spread along elevation
(depending on terrain slope)*

TomoSAR – examples

Case 3: terrain



$s(v)$ = **projection of the scatterers
along elevation**

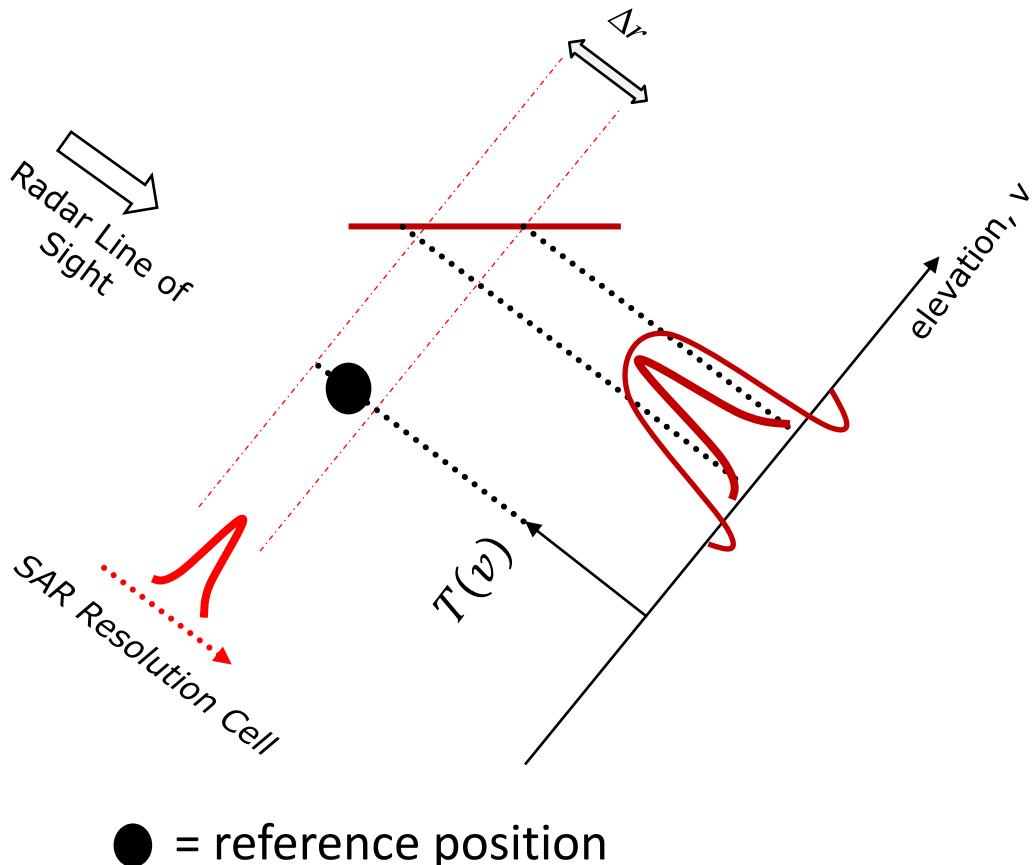
Terrain = extended target

- \Leftrightarrow *It does not project into a peak*
- \Leftrightarrow *Spread along elevation
(depending on terrain slope)*

TomoSAR – examples

Case 3: terrain

$$T(r, x, v) = \sum_n I_n(r, x) \cdot \exp \left\{ j \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{v}{R_M(\text{ref})} \right\}$$



$T(v)$ = reconstruction by SAR

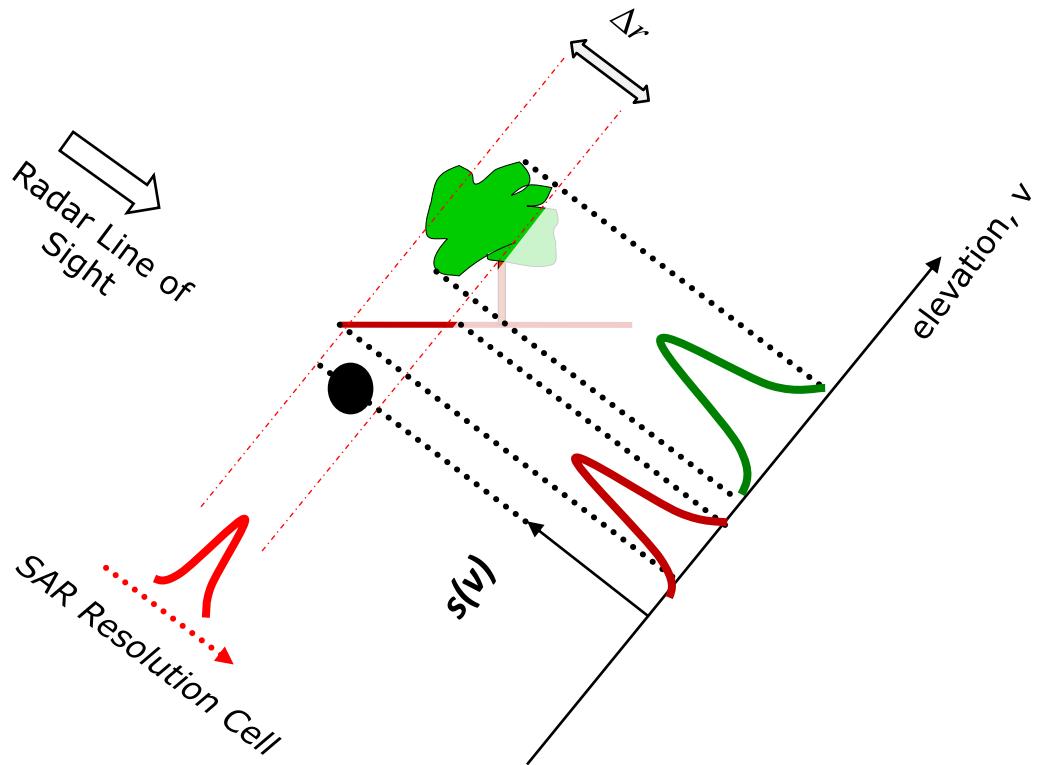
Tomography

Elevation resolution is

$$\Delta v = \frac{\lambda R_M(\text{ref})}{2 b_{ap}}$$

TomoSAR – examples

Case 4: terrain + forest



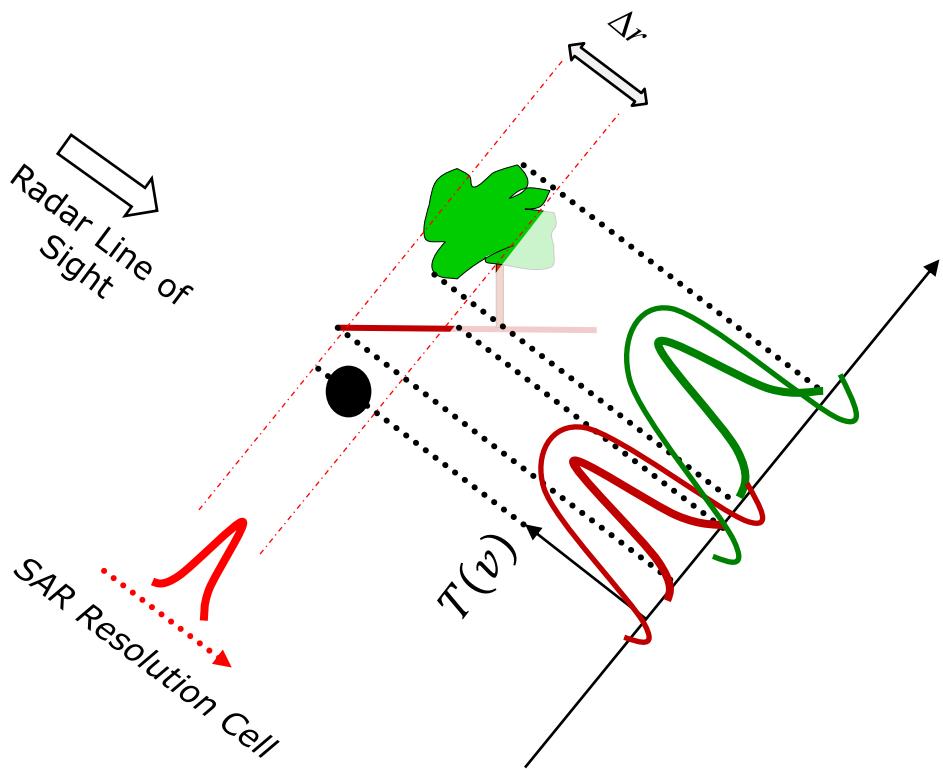
$s(v)$ = *projection of the scatterers
along elevation*

● = reference position

TomoSAR – examples

Case 4: terrain + forest

$$T(r, x, v) = \sum_n I_n(r, x) \cdot \exp \left\{ j \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{v}{R_M(\text{ref})} \right\}$$



● = reference position

$T(v)$ = reconstruction by SAR

Tomography

Elevation resolution is

$$\Delta v = \frac{\lambda R_M(\text{ref})}{2 b_{ap}}$$

TomoSAR inversion w.r.t. height

TomoSAR forward model

$$I_n(r, x) = \sum_v s(v) \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v \right\}$$

$I_n(r, x)$: SLC pixel in the n -th image

$s(r, x, v)$: projection of the scatterers along elevation

b_n : normal baseline for the n -th image

λ : carrier wavelength

Change of variable from cross range to height

$$z = v \cdot \sin \theta$$

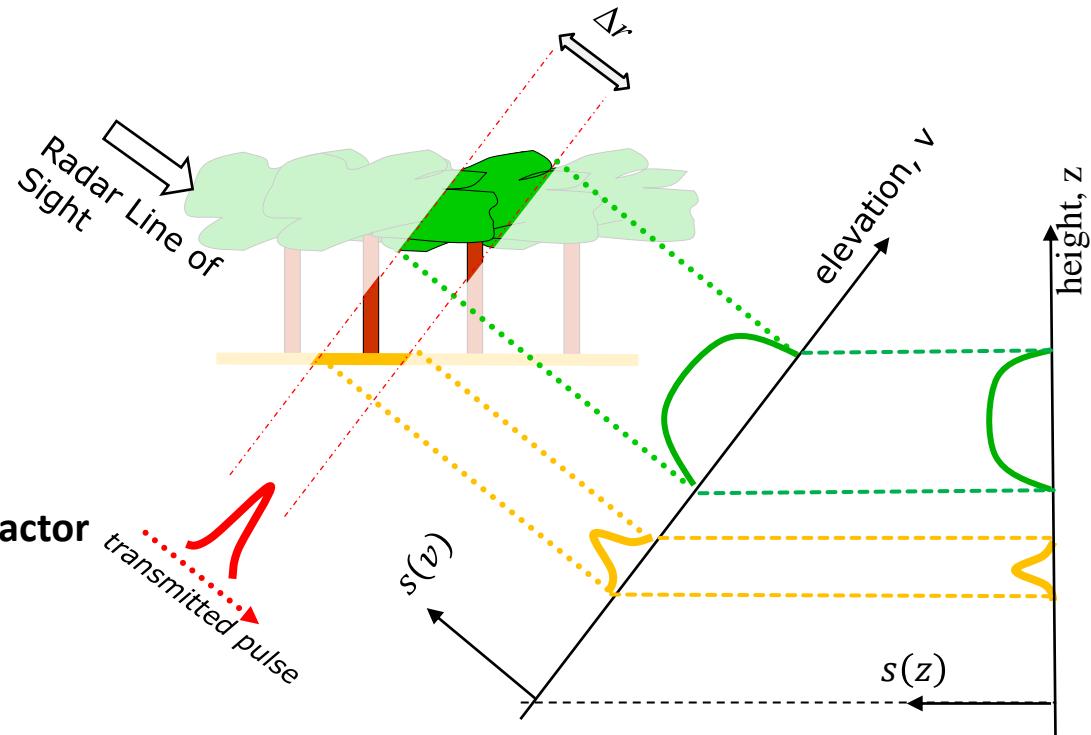


$$I_n(r, x) = \sum_z s(z) \cdot \exp \{-jk_z(n)z\}$$

k_z is usually referred to as **interferometric**

wavenumber or phase to height conversion factor

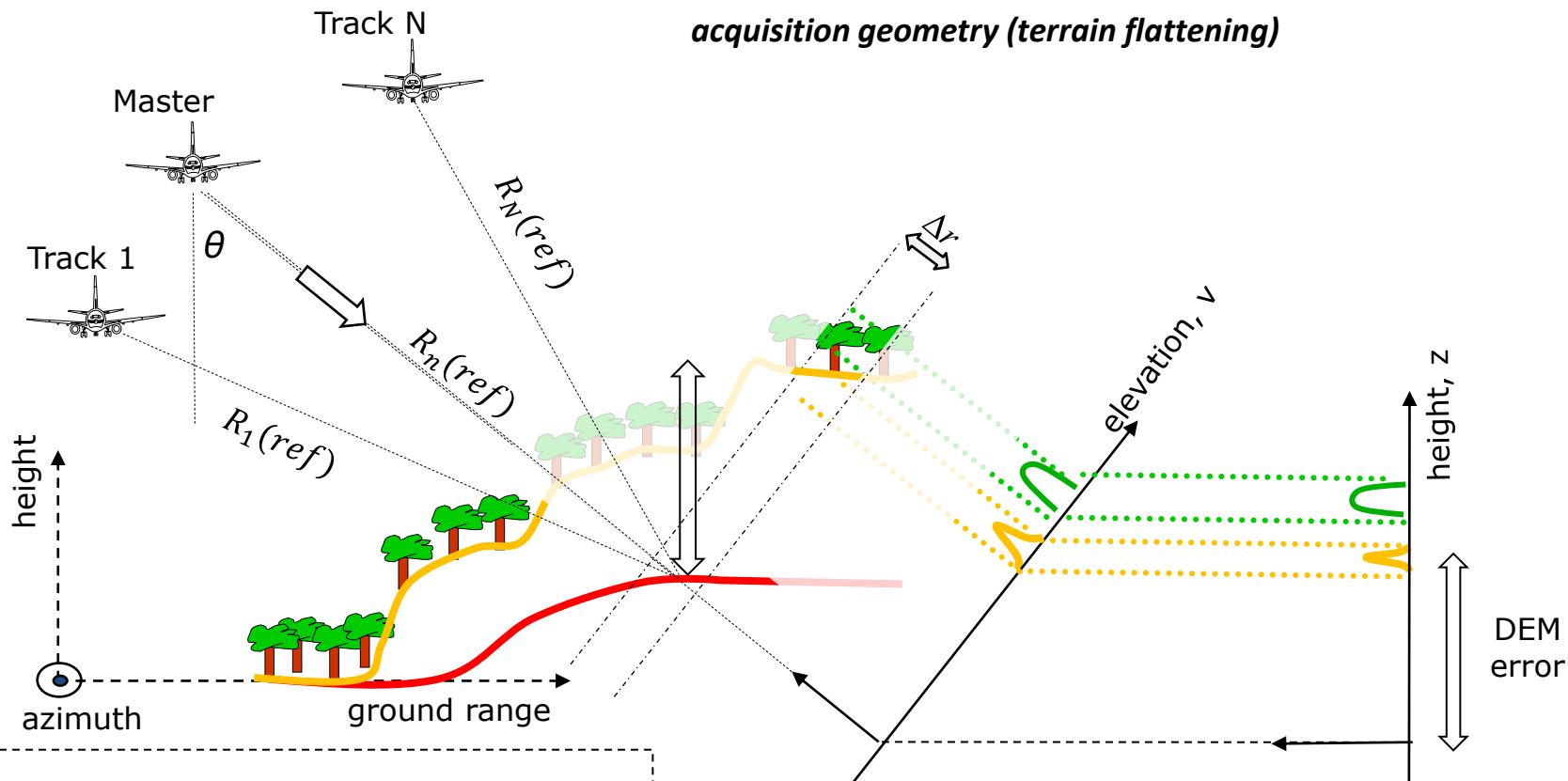
$$k_z(n) = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda R_M(\text{ref})} \frac{b_n}{\sin \theta}$$



Terrain flattening

$$I_n(r, x) = \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref}) \right\} \cdot \sum_z s(z) \cdot \exp \{-jk_z(n)z\}$$

Phase offset to be removed based on knowledge of the acquisition geometry (terrain flattening)



Red = Reference terrain elevation

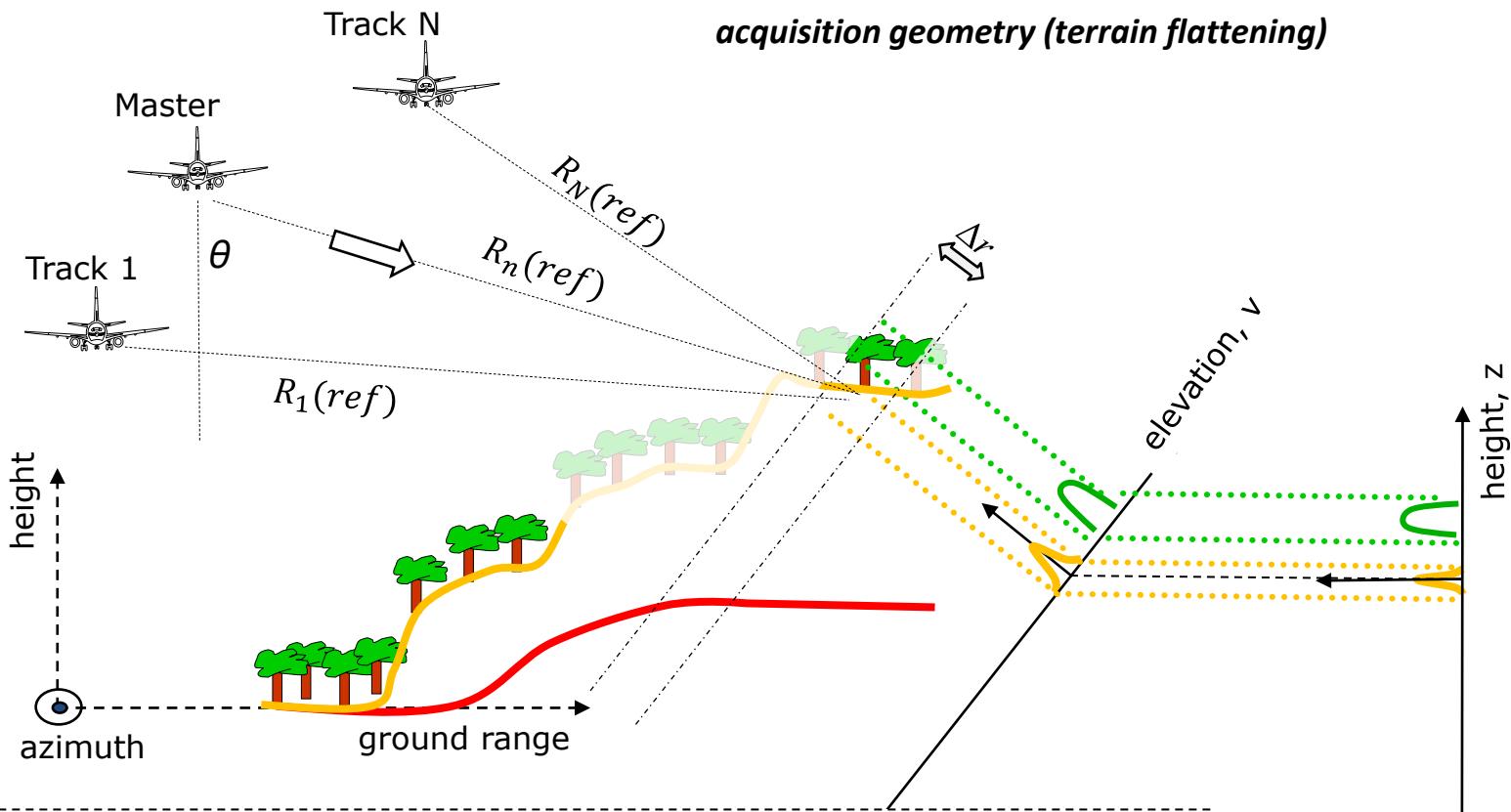
Orange = True terrain elevation

Terrain flattening

$$I_n(r, x) = \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R_n(\text{ref}) \right\} \cdot \sum_z s(z) \cdot \exp \{-jk_z(n)z\}$$

Phase offset to be removed based on knowledge of the

acquisition geometry (terrain flattening)



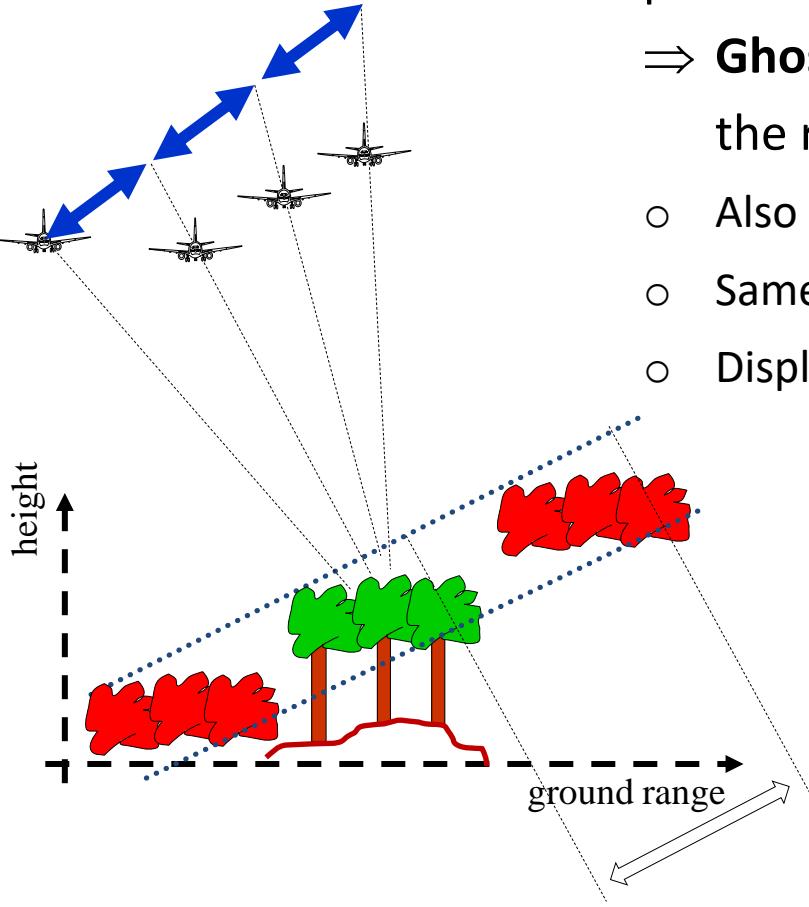
Orange = Reference terrain elevation = True terrain elevation

Ambiguity

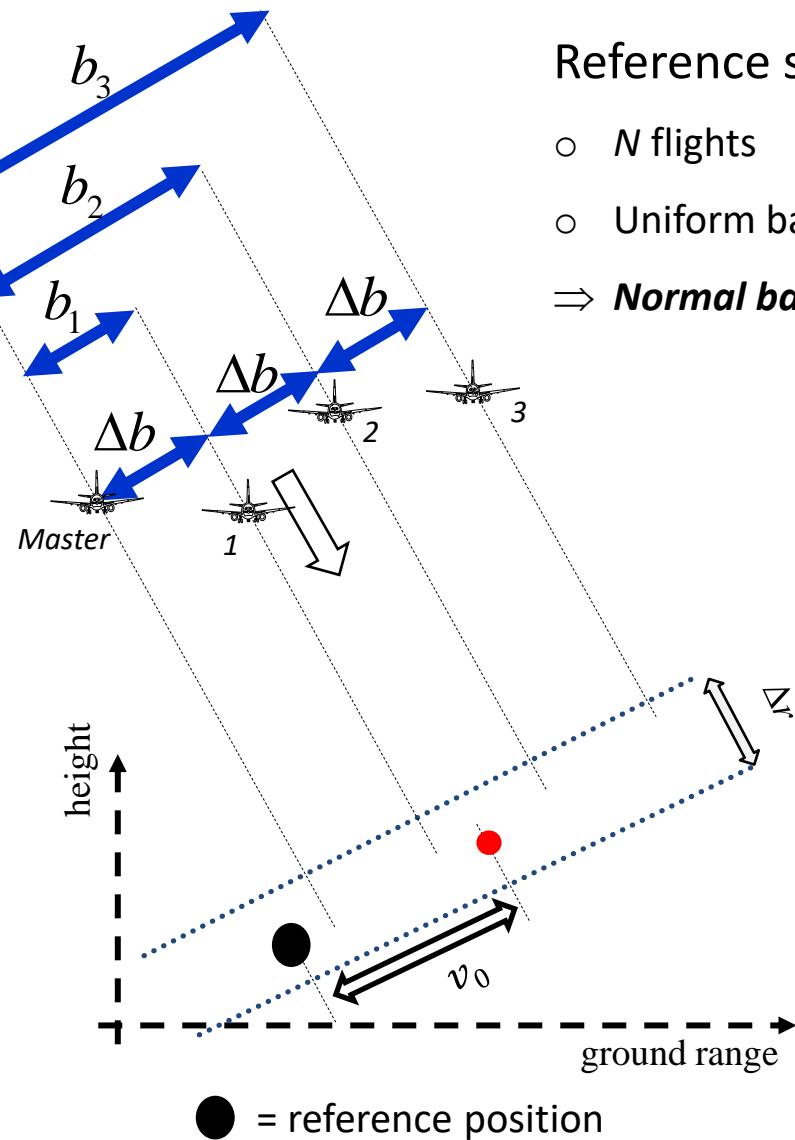
Warning! The algorithm we have just seen produces periodic results

⇒ **Ghost** targets appearing at known position w.r.t. the real one

- Also referred to as ambiguous targets, or replicas
- Same range as the real target
- Displaced along elevation



Ambiguity



$$I_n(r, x) = s_0 \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v_0 \right\}$$

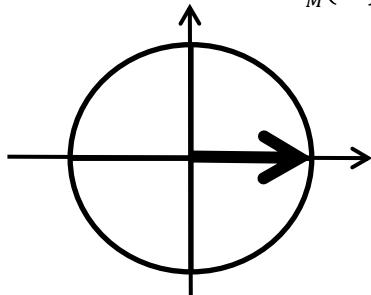
$$= s_0 \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} n \cdot v_0 \right\}$$

Ambiguity

$$I_n(r, x) = s_0 \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} n \cdot v_0 \right\}$$

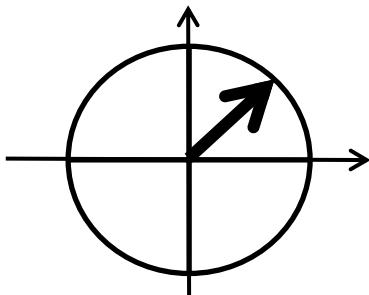
Phases

$$\varphi_0 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 0 \cdot v_0$$



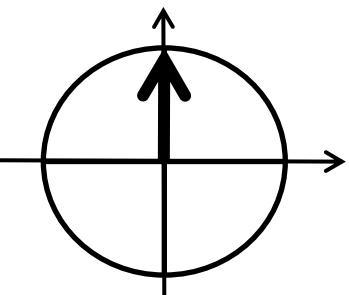
Reference flight

$$\varphi_1 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 1 \cdot v_0$$



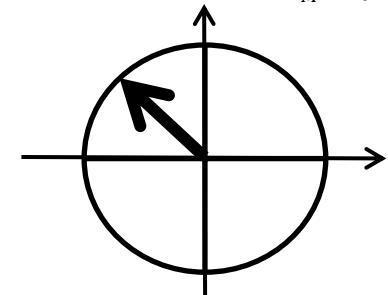
Flight 1

$$\varphi_2 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 2 \cdot v_0$$



Flight 2

$$\varphi_3 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 3 \cdot v_0$$



Flight 3

Let's now consider another elevation v_a such that $v_a = \frac{\lambda R_M(\text{ref})}{2\Delta b}$

Then $\frac{4\pi \Delta b}{\lambda} \frac{n}{r} (v_0 + v_a) = \frac{4\pi \Delta b}{\lambda} \frac{n}{r} v_0 + 2\pi n \equiv \frac{4\pi \Delta b}{\lambda} \frac{n}{r} v_0$

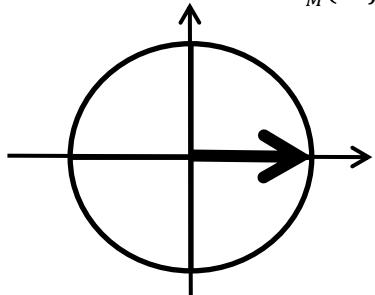
⇒ The two elevations v_0 and v_a produce the same phase in all SAR images

Ambiguity

$$I_n(r, x) = s_0 \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} n \cdot v_0 \right\}$$

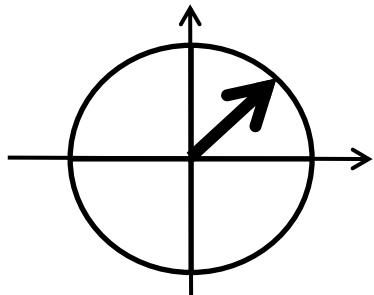
Phases

$$\varphi_0 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 0 \cdot v_0$$



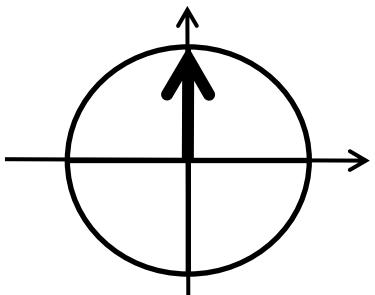
Reference flight

$$\varphi_1 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 1 \cdot v_0$$



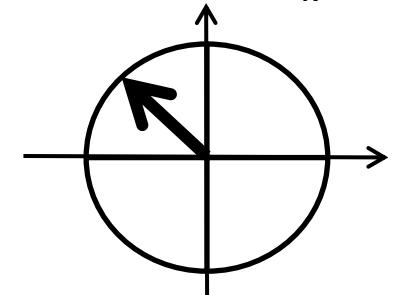
Flight 1

$$\varphi_2 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 2 \cdot v_0$$



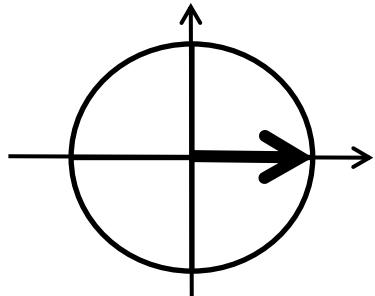
Flight 2

$$\varphi_3 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 3 \cdot v_0$$



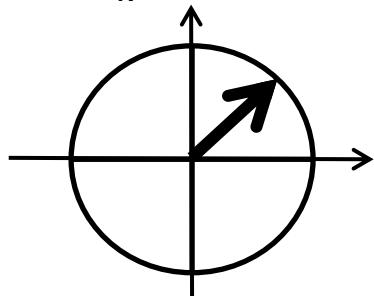
Flight 3

$$\varphi_0 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 0 \cdot (v_0 + va)$$



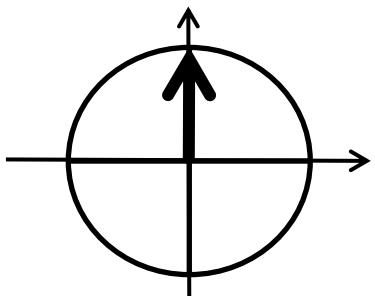
Master

$$\varphi_1 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 1 \cdot (v_0 + va)$$



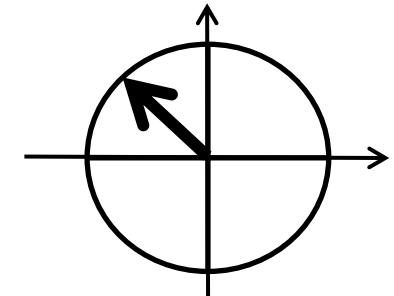
Flight 1

$$\varphi_2 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 2 \cdot (v_0 + va)$$



Flight 2

$$\varphi_3 = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{\Delta b}{R_M(\text{ref})} 3 \cdot (v_0 + va)$$

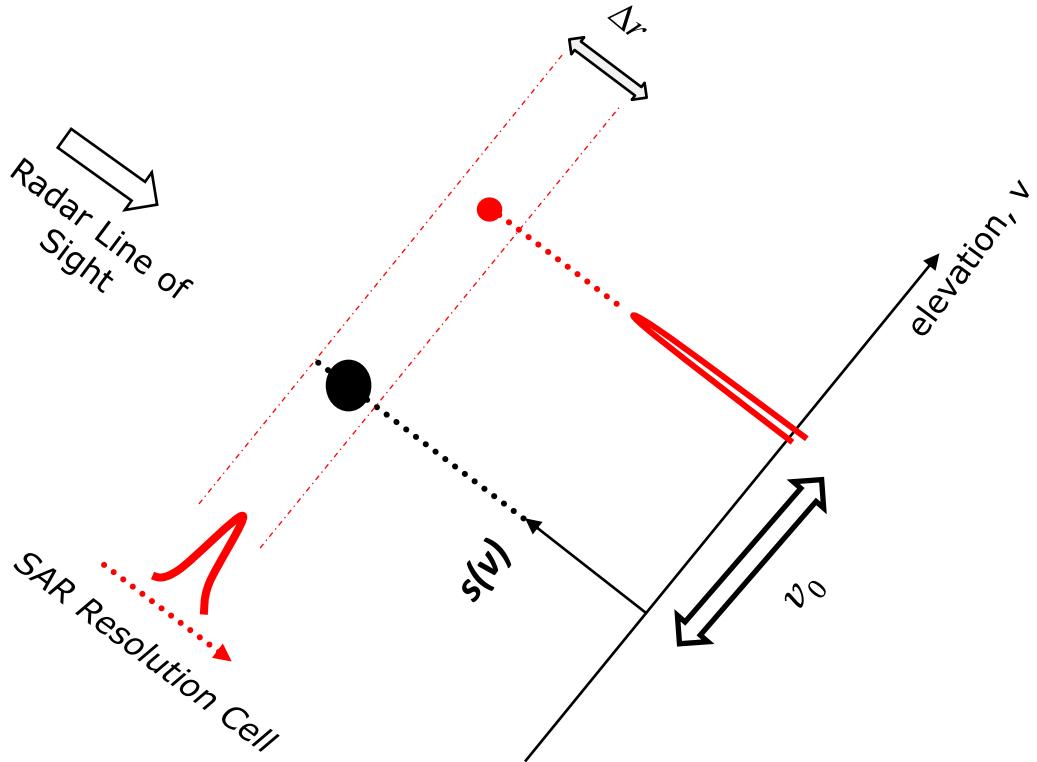


Flight 3

TomoSAR – examples (II)

Case 1: a single point target

$$I_n(r, x) = s_0 \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v_0 \right\}$$



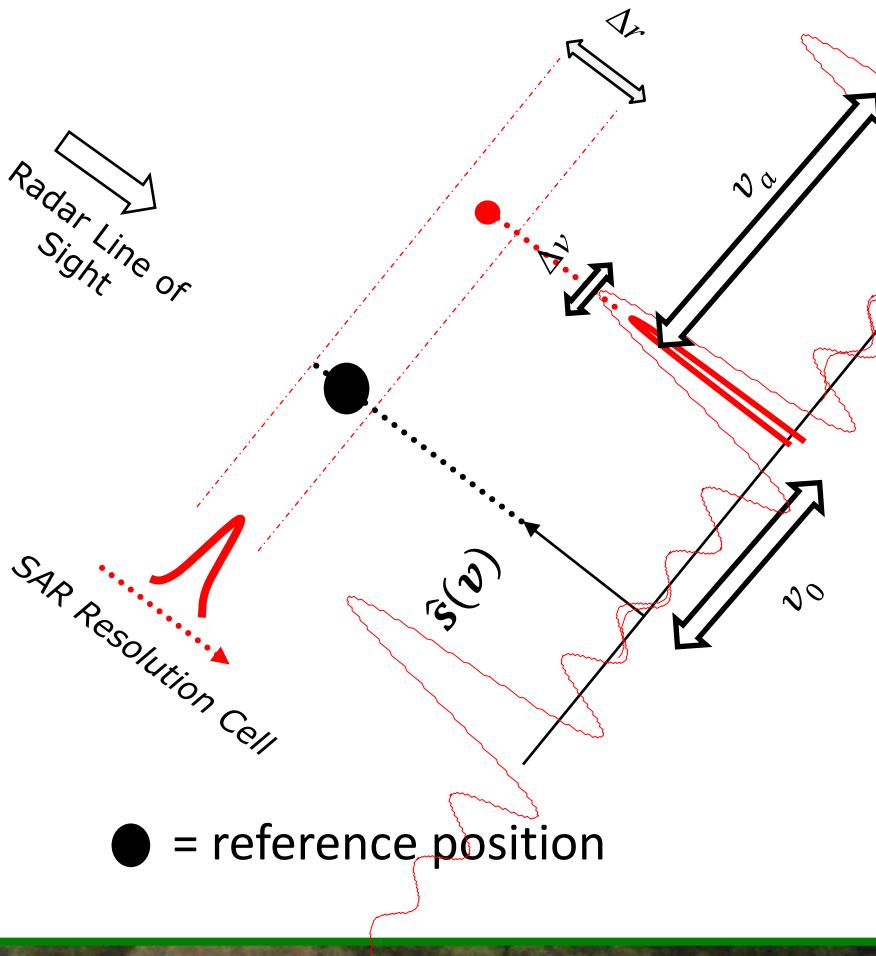
$s(v)$ = projection of the scatterers
along elevation

● = reference position

TomoSAR – examples (II)

Case 1: a single point target

$$I_n(r, x) = s_0 \cdot \exp \left\{ -j \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \frac{b_n}{R_M(\text{ref})} v_0 \right\}$$



$$T(r, x, v) = \sum_n I_n(r, x) \cdot \exp \left\{ j \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{v}{R_M(\text{ref})} \right\}$$

$T(v)$ = reconstruction by SAR Tomography

Elevation resolution is

$$\Delta v = \frac{\lambda R_M(\text{ref})}{2 b_{ap}}$$

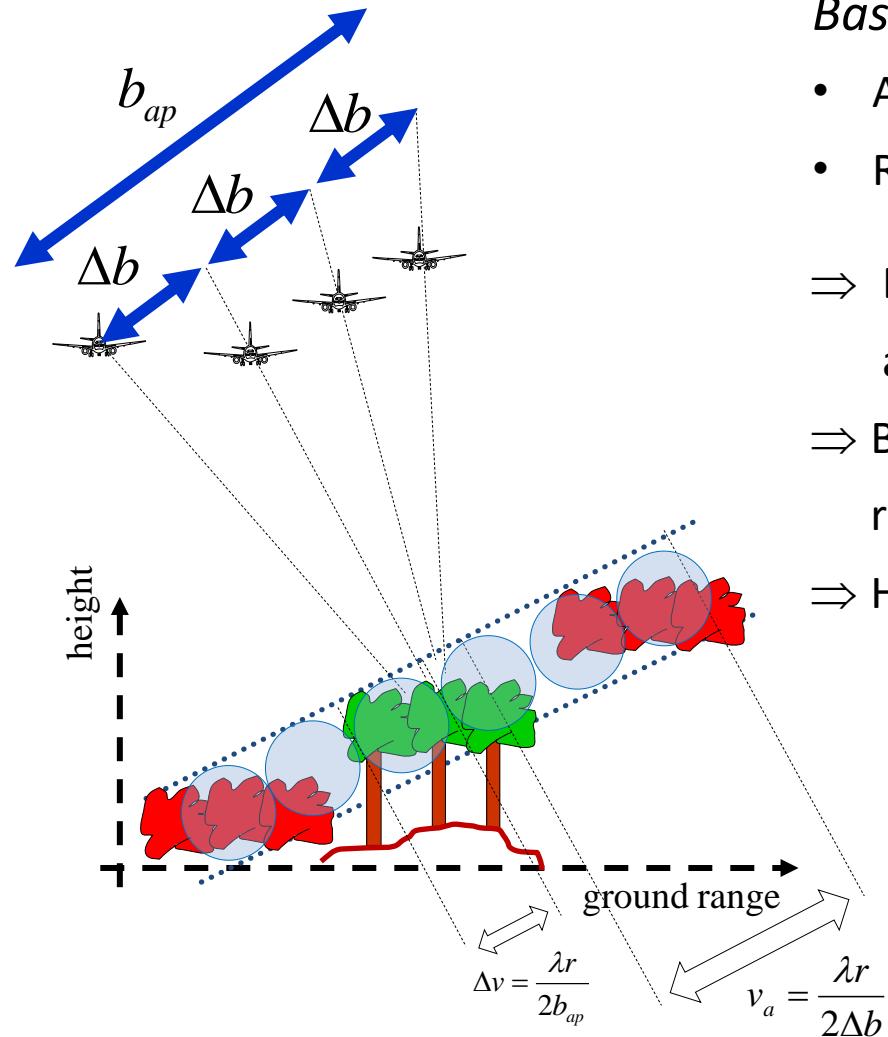
The elevation of ambiguity is

$$v_a = \frac{\lambda R_M(\text{ref})}{2 \Delta b}$$

The corresponding height of ambiguity is

$$z_a = \frac{\lambda R_M(\text{ref}) \sin \theta}{2 \Delta b}$$

Baseline design tips

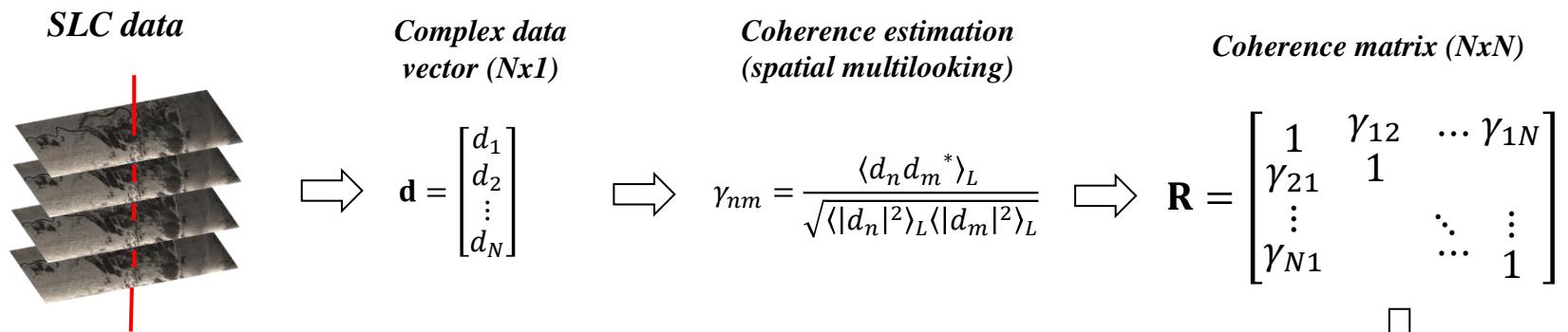


Baseline design tips

- Ambiguity \Leftrightarrow baseline spacing
 - Resolution \Leftrightarrow baseline aperture
- \Rightarrow Baseline spacing: small enough to ensure that ambiguous targets stay away from the real ones
- \Rightarrow Baseline aperture: large enough to meet resolution requirement
- \Rightarrow How many passes ? $N \geq \frac{b_{ap}}{\Delta b} = \frac{v_a}{\Delta v}$

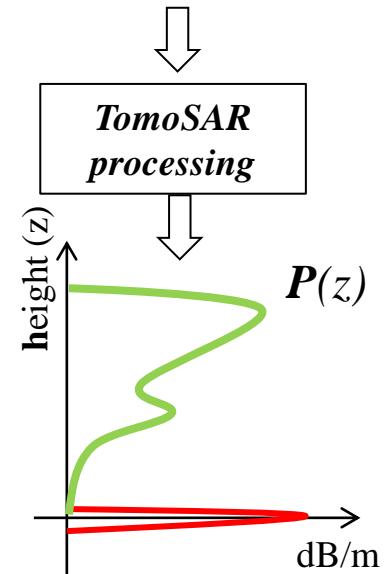
Advanced TomoSAR

Current paradigm for forested areas: **retrieve the vertical distribution of backscattered power based on the observed InSAR coherences**



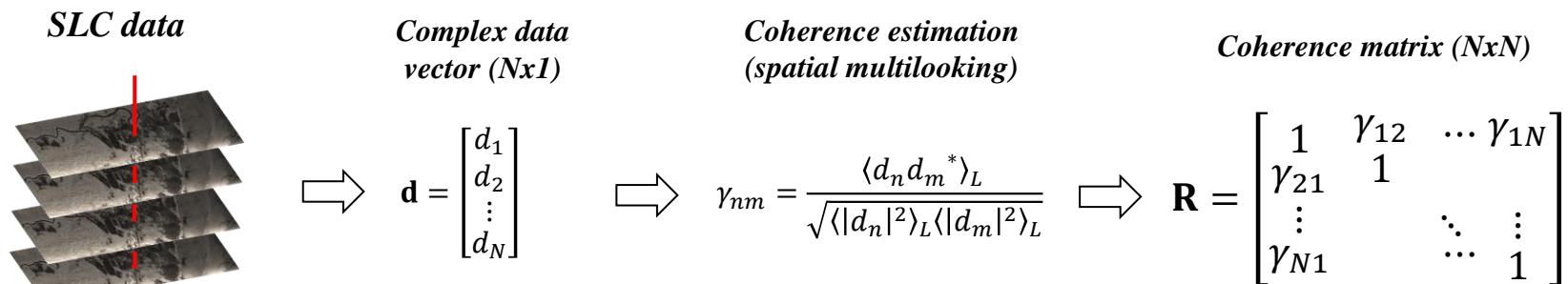
Why ?

- Equivalent to DFT if inversion is carried out using linear methods
- **Non-linear methods can be used to achieve:**
 - **Super-resolution** (super = finer than the limit from baseline aperture)
 - **Rejection of ambiguous targets** (using irregular baseline spacing)



Advanced TomoSAR

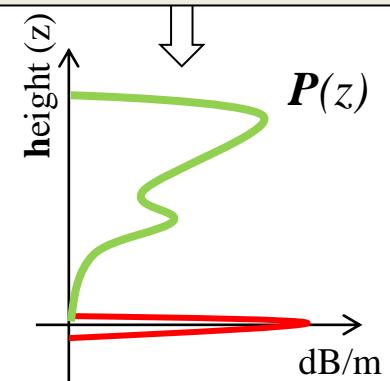
Current paradigm for forested areas: **retrieve the vertical distribution of backscattered power based on the observed InSAR coherences**



Later on today

With

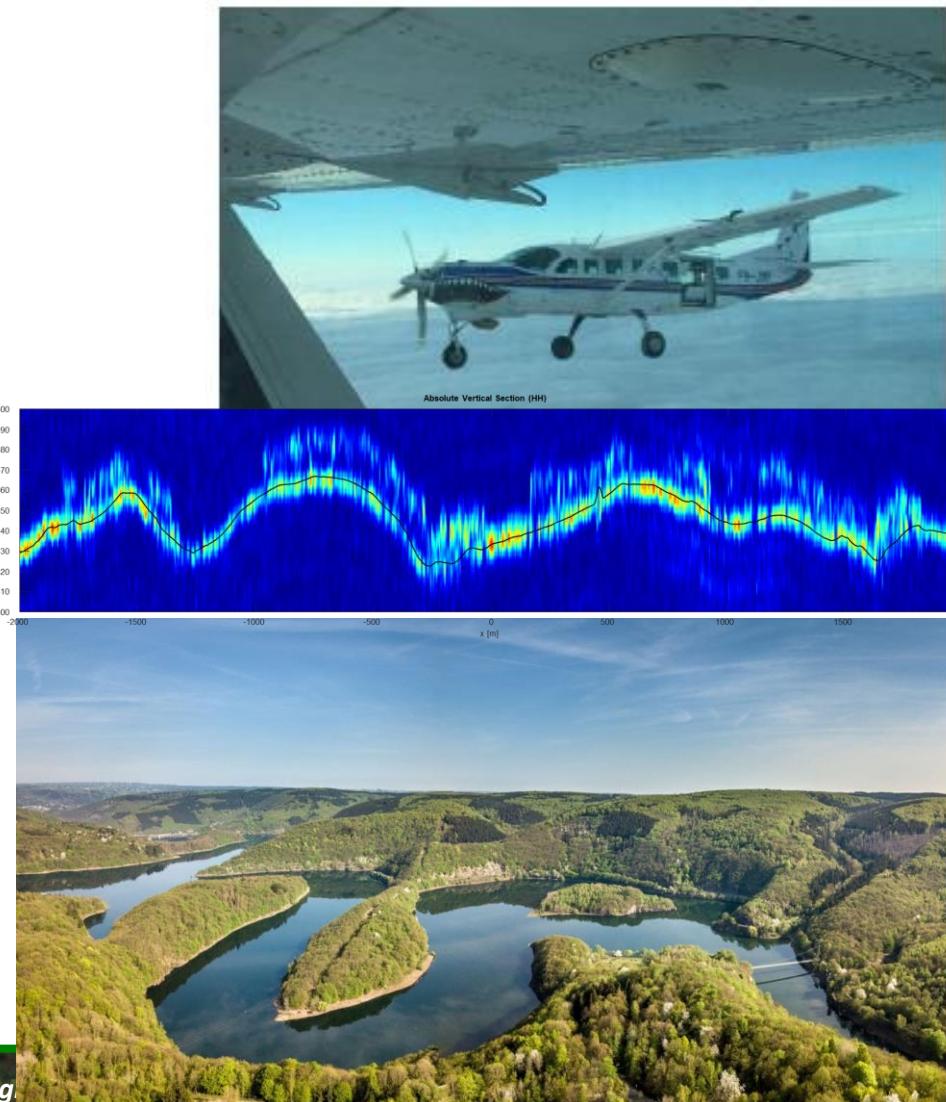
- Equivalent to DFT if inversion is carried out using linear methods
- Non-linear methods can be used to achieve:
 - **Super-resolution** (super = finer than the limit from baseline aperture)
 - **Rejection of ambiguous targets** (using irregular baseline spacing)



TomoSense

The airborne campaign took place in 2020/21 at the Kermeter site in the Eifel National Park in North-Rine Westphalia in Germany. The campaign includes:

- Bistatic airborne SAR surveys at L- and C-Band collected by flying two aircraft in close formation, with one following the other at a nominal distance of approximately 20/30 m.
- The flights were programmed in synergy with the P-Band campaign BelSAR-P.
- In-situ collection of relevant forest parameters at approximately 80 plots.
- Collection of TLS data at a scale of 1 ha at 10 plots.
- Installation of 5 m trihedral reflectors for P-Band calibration



TomoSense

The TomoSense data-set is intended to serve as an important basis for studies on microwave scattering from forested areas in the context of future studies on Earth Observation missions.

The data-set includes:

- Calibrated SAR images and tomographic cubes at different levels of processing
- ALS-derived maps of forest height and AGB
- Forest census
- TLS profiles.

Complex SAR images are already finely coregistered, phase calibrated, and ground steered, in such a way as to enable future researchers to directly implement any kind of interferometric or tomographic processing without having to deal with the subtleties of airborne SAR data.

In addition to that, the data-base comprises tomographic cubes representing forest scattering in 3D both in Radar and geographical coordinates, which are intended for use by non-Radar experts.

TomoSense

The TomoSense data-set is intended to serve as an important basis for studies on microwave scattering from forested areas in the context of future studies on Earth Observation missions.

The data-set includes:

- C
- A
- F
- T

The whole data-set (Radar+Lidar) is public and free to use for scientific purposes

Just contact me at

stefano.tebaldini@polimi.it

Comprehensive data-set, including raw data, pre-processed data, and documentation, intended for scientific purposes. The data-set is designed to facilitate the analysis of microwave scattering from forested areas, providing a valuable resource for future studies on Earth Observation missions.

In addition to that, the data-base comprises tomographic cubes representing forest scattering in 3D both in Radar and geographical coordinates, which are intended for use by non-Radar experts.