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### **ArcSAR: Theory, Simulations, and Experimental Verification**

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# ArcSAR: Theory, Simulations, and Experimental Verification

Massimiliano Pieraccini, *Member, IEEE*, and Lapo Miccinesi

**Abstract**—ArcSAR is a ground-based synthetic aperture radar (GBSAR) that has recently been receiving increasing interest in the scientific literature. While the conventional GBSAR exploits the movement of an antenna along a linear rail to synthesize a large aperture, an ArcSAR exploits the spatial diversity of the data acquired by an antenna fixed to a rotating arm. The great advantage of ArcSAR is its capability to synthesize images at  $360^\circ$  with a constant resolution in azimuth. In this paper, the authors propose and test a new focusing algorithm that does not require to operate in the far field and neither with narrow beam antennas; moreover, it is flexible enough to focus on any plane (not necessarily on the rotation plane) as well as in the whole 3-D space. Furthermore, the authors demonstrate theoretically and experimentally that ArcSAR images can be affected by a “defocusing effect” of the targets far from the rotation plane, which has to be taken into consideration when designing such radars.

**Index Terms**—Ground-based synthetic aperture radar (GBSAR), radar, remote sensing, synthetic aperture radar (SAR).

## I. INTRODUCTION

GROUND-BASED interferometric synthetic aperture radar (SAR) systems are popular remote sensing instruments able to provide radar images and detect small displacements at a great distance [1], [2]. The scientific literature reports a large number of applications: landslide monitoring [3], [4], glacier monitoring [5], open pit monitoring [6], bridges [7]–[9], and buildings [10] testing. The most common implementation of this kind of a radar is based on a linear mechanical guide (usually named “rail”). A radar head moving step-by-step on the guide is able to synthesize a radar aperture equivalent to twice the physical length of the rail [11]. This geometry is directly inspired by airborne or satellite SAR for which the trajectory can be locally considered linear [12]. Klausling [13] was the first to propose a SAR able to exploit the rotatory movement of the blades of a helicopter to synthesize a large aperture. He named it ROSAR. Jeon and Kim [14] developed a focusing algorithm able to take into account the migration. Bara *et al.* [15] proposed a fast algorithm. More recently, Lee *et al.* [16] tested an ArcSAR system set on a truck. Luo *et al.* [17] tested a less bulky equipment to detect changes on a slope and Ali *et al.* [18] designed a navigation

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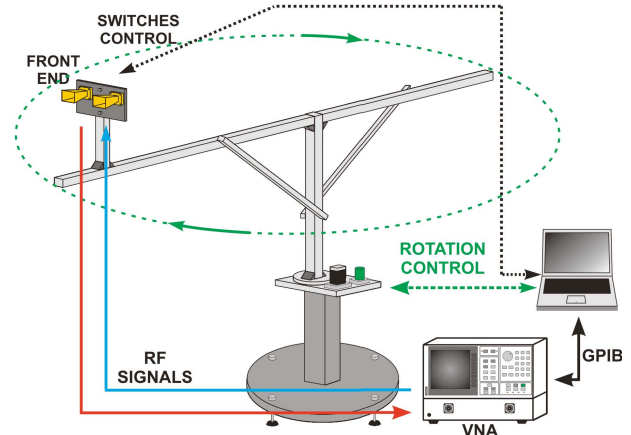


Fig. 1. ArcSAR prototype.

radar for robot based on the ArcSAR, able to exploit both the rotational movement of an omnidirectional antenna and the linear translation of the robot.

In the opinion of the authors of this paper, the great advantage of the ground-based ArcSAR, with respect to conventional ground-based linear SAR, is the capability to obtain radar images at  $360^\circ$  with a constant angular resolution. This could be a very attractive feature to monitor large slopes or open pits [19]. Hence, the aim of this paper is a theoretical and experimental assessment of this radar technique.

## II. ArcSAR PROTOTYPE

The ArcSAR prototype we have assembled for testing the ArcSAR principle is shown in Fig. 1. It is a modified version of a radar already used in [20]–[22] for the proof of concept on another radar configuration: the RotoSAR.

A couple of antennas have been fixed on a rotating arm controlled by a step motor. The distance between the center of rotation and the median point of the centers of phase of antennas is  $r_0 = 1.15$  m. A vector network analyzer (VNA) HP8720D operates as transceiver providing a continuous wave stepped frequency signal (CWSF) in X-band with central frequency  $f_c = 10$  GHz and bandwidth  $B = 200$  MHz. Two RF cables link the VNA to the frontend fixed at the rotating arm. The antennas are two horns whose details will be discussed in Section V.

With reference to Fig. 2, the VNA output power is 0 dBm, the one-way cable loss is  $-5$  dB, and the TX amplifier gains 10 dB. Two single-pole double-throw switches provide a direct

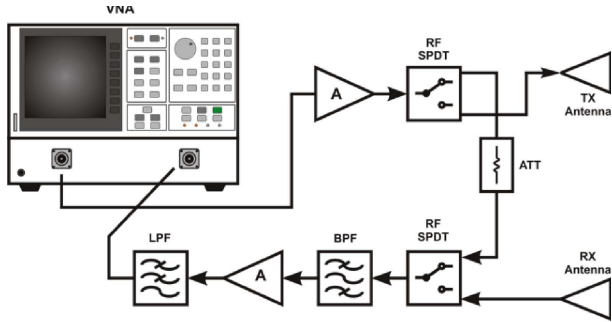


Fig. 2. Block scheme of radar.

path (through a 40 dB attenuator) between the transmitter and the receiver in order to perform calibrated measurements. The aim of the calibration is to avoid the movements of the cables from affecting the phase measurement. The gain of the RX amplifier is 20 dB.

The prototype operates step-by-step both in frequency and rotation. The number of frequencies  $N_f$  and the number of angular steps  $N_p$  in the circle have been set for avoiding range and angular ambiguity in the radar image. The unambiguous range  $R_u$  is given as [7]

$$R_u = \frac{c}{2B}(N_f - 1) \quad (1)$$

with  $c$  as the speed of light. Therefore, setting  $N_f = 401$  results in  $R_u = 300$  m, which is a reasonable value for the scenario where the prototype has been used.

The unambiguous azimuth  $\varphi_u$  is given as [7]

$$\frac{2\pi r_0}{N_p} \sin\left(\frac{\varphi_u}{2}\right) = \frac{\lambda}{4}. \quad (2)$$

For an omnidirectional antenna,  $\varphi_u$  should be  $2\pi$ , but for a directional antenna, it is sufficient for  $\varphi_u$  to be considerably larger than the angular aperture of the antenna. As described in detail in Section V, the full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) of the pattern of the horn antenna we used is  $20.88^\circ$ . Therefore, considering a margin factor of 3, we have set  $N_p = 500$ .

### III. FOCUSING ALGORITHM

The basic idea of the ArcSAR is to synthesize a large aperture exploiting the spatial diversity of data acquired by an antenna fixed to a horizontally rotating arm. Several algorithms have been proposed in [13]–[16]. The tradeoff of all these methods is between the accuracy and computational weight: algorithms that do not make approximations are too slow to be applied in operating radars; on the other hand, any approximation limits the field of applicability. Some approximated SAR formulations rely on the supposition of narrow beam antenna [16], but this can be a very strict limitation for exploiting the full resolution potential of ArcSAR. The novel algorithm we propose in this paper is able to operate in the near field as well as in the far field, it is not limited to narrow beam antennas, and it is flexible enough to focus on any plane (not necessarily the rotation plane) as well as in the whole 3-D space.

Generally speaking, an ArcSAR (also named ROSAR [13] or C-SAR [15]) is a system acquiring SAR images from the  $360^\circ$  (or a smaller angle) surrounding environment with an antenna fixed to a rotating arm. In the case of a system, operating step-by-step both in the frequency (CWSF) and rotation angle the result of a measurement is a matrix  $N_f \times N_p$  of complex numbers

$$E_{i,k} = I_{i,k} + jQ_{i,k} \quad (3)$$

where  $I_{i,k}$  and  $Q_{i,k}$  are the in-phase and the quadrature components acquired at  $i$ th frequency ( $1 < i < N_f$ ) in the  $k$ th position ( $1 < k < N_p$ ). The basic formula for focusing on a generic point  $(x, y, z)$  of the space surrounding the radar is [7]–[22]

$$I(x, y, z) = \sum_{i,k} E_{i,k} e^{j\frac{4\pi}{c} f_i R_k} \quad (4)$$

where  $R_k$  is the distance between the  $(x, y, z)$  image point and the  $k$ th position on the antenna on the circle. Equation (4) is computationally heavy, so the key point of any focusing algorithm is to reduce its computational cost without a significant loss of generality and accuracy. The first step in the algorithm we propose is to focus the matrix  $E_{ik}$  in range (i.e., along the  $i$ -index). A suitable window has to be applied to measured data for lowering the sidelobes (in particular we used a Kaiser window with  $\beta = 5$  that gives sidelobes in range lower than  $-40$  dB), afterwards the matrix  $E_{ik}$  has to be zero-padded of a factor  $F$  (it means that each column will have  $FN_f$  elements of which the last  $(F - 1)N_f$  zeroes). Finally, the matrix is focused in range as follows:

$$u(n, k) = \frac{1}{FN_f} \sum_{i=1}^{i=FN_f} E_{i,k} e^{j\frac{4\pi}{c} (f_1 + (i-1)\Delta f)(n-1)\Delta R} \quad (5)$$

where  $f_1$  is the first frequency of the bandwidth  $B = f_{N_f} - f_1$ ,  $\Delta f$  is the frequency step, and  $\Delta R$  is the range step.

By imposing

$$\Delta R = \frac{c}{2N_f F \Delta f} = \frac{N_f - 1}{N_f F} \frac{c}{2B} \quad (6)$$

(5) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} u(n, k) &= e^{j\frac{4\pi}{c} f_1 (n-1)\Delta R} \frac{1}{FN_f} \sum_{i=1}^{i=FN_f} E_{i,k} e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N_f} (i-1)(n-1)} \\ &= e^{j\frac{4\pi}{c} f_1 (n-1)\Delta R} \text{IFFT}_i(E_{i,k}, FN_f) \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where  $\text{IFFT}_i(E_{i,k}, FN_f)$  is the inverse fast Fourier transform of  $E_{i,k}$  with a padding factor  $F$ .

With reference to Fig. 3, the focused image in a generic point  $(x, y, z)$  is given as

$$I(x, y, z) = \sum_k u(n(x, y, z, k), k) \quad (8)$$

with

$$n(x, y, z, k) = \text{integer}\left(\frac{R(x, y, z, k)}{\Delta R}\right). \quad (9)$$

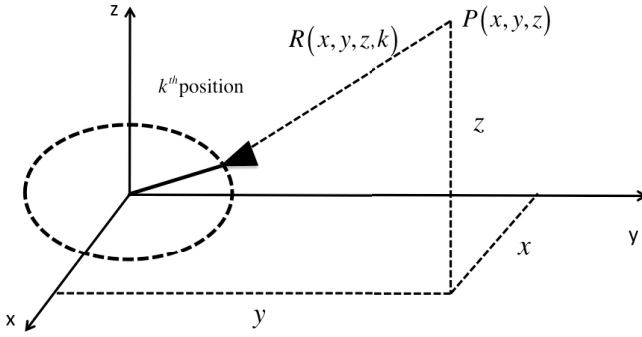


Fig. 3. Geometry of ArcSAR focusing algorithm.

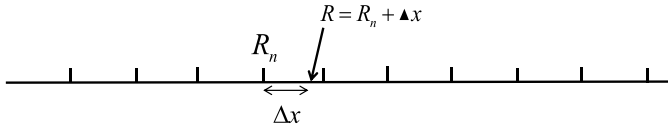


Fig. 4. Interpolation in range.

Obviously, if the antenna is not omnidirectional, the summation has to be limited to the  $k$ -indices where the antenna sees the image point  $P(x, y, z)$ .

The critical point of this approach is that the fractional part discharged in (8) must be negligible with respect of the wavelength ( $\lambda = c/f_c$  with  $f_c$  central frequency). This means that  $\Delta R$  should be  $\ll \lambda$ , and therefore the padding factor ( $F$ ) should be

$$F \gg \frac{1}{\lambda} \frac{c}{2B}. \quad (10)$$

In the practical case,  $F$  could be of the order of several hundreds and this can give impractical matrices to manage to nullify the computational advantage of IFFT.

For this reason, it is convenient to implement an interpolation procedure as follows.

With reference to Fig. 4, the range focusing of the  $E_{i,k}$  matrix at range  $R$  is

$$u(R, k) = \frac{1}{FN_f} \sum_{i=1}^{i=FN_f} E_{i,k} e^{j\frac{4\pi}{c}(f_1 + (i-1)\Delta f)(R + \Delta x)} \quad (11)$$

which, for  $B/f_c \ll 1$ , becomes

$$u(R, k) = e^{j\frac{4\pi}{c}f_1 R} \text{IFFT}_i(E_{i,k}, FN_f) e^{j\frac{4\pi}{c}\frac{B}{2}(R - (n-1)\Delta R)} \quad (12)$$

or with a further approximation

$$u(R, k) = e^{j\frac{4\pi}{c}f_1 R} \text{IFFT}_i(E_{i,k}, FN_f). \quad (13)$$

In order to evaluate the performances of the algorithm in a simulated (but realistic) case, we consider a target at a 50 m distance as  $f_c = 10$  GHz,  $B = 200$  MHz,  $N_f = 401$ , and  $F = 10$ . Fig. 5 shows the amplitude of the peak in range at  $R = 50$  m. The trace in blue is calculated without approximations using (4), while traces (A), (B), and (C) are relative, respectively, to (8), (13), and (12). The three traces are perfectly overlapping.

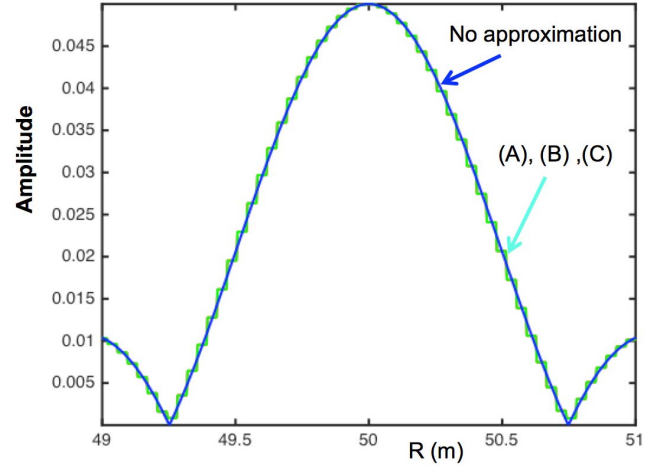


Fig. 5. Amplitude in range using algorithms (A), (B), and (C).

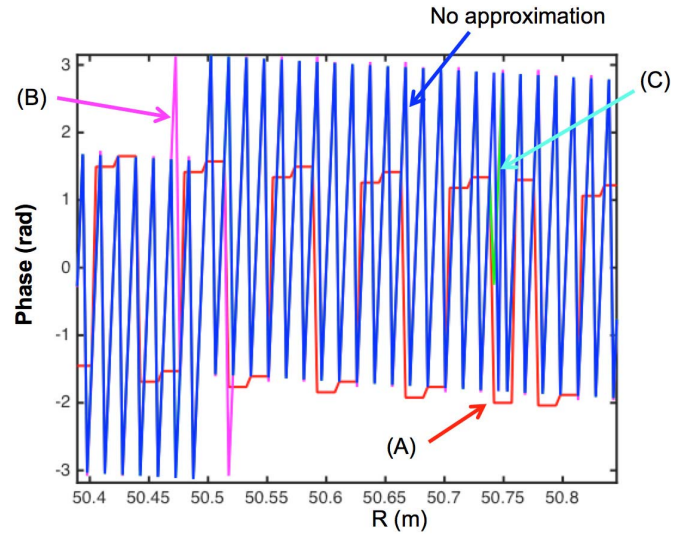


Fig. 6. Phase in range using algorithms (A), (B), and (C).

Although in amplitude the three algorithms (A), (B), and (C) are equivalent, their performances on phase are dramatically different. Fig. 6 shows the calculated phase. It is evident that algorithm (A) is surely unsatisfactory as it loses the phase waveform completely; algorithm (B) appears more satisfactory, but sometimes gives notable errors; (C) is the best with very small phase errors.

In order to evaluate the impact of the phase error in the focused complex image, we calculated the modulus of the difference (in the complex numbers domain) between (A), (B), and (C) and the trace calculated without approximation using (4). The plots shown in Fig. 7 confirm that (A) results unsatisfactory, (B) looks satisfactory, but (C) is the best.

These results obviously depend on the padding factor  $F$ . As it increases, all the algorithms should improve their performances. In order to confirm and quantify this statement, we calculated the maximum error (in the whole range) of the three algorithms by varying the padding factor. The results are shown in Fig. 8.

We can conclude as expected that all the algorithms converge to the right value increasing  $F$ , but

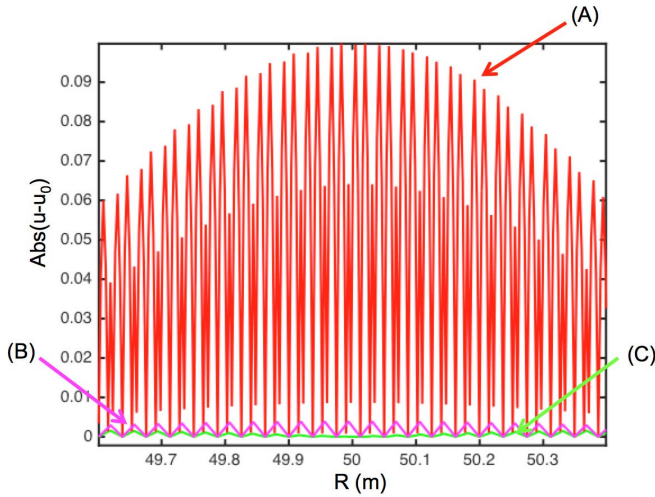


Fig. 7. Modulus of the error in range (calculated as difference between complex numbers) using algorithms (A), (B), and (C).

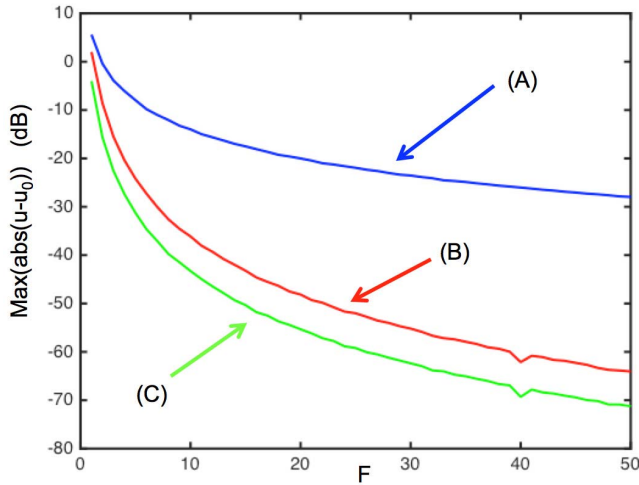


Fig. 8. Maximum error of algorithms (A), (B), and (C), varying the padding factor  $F$ .

algorithms (B) and (C) converge much faster. For example for  $F = 25$ , (B) is about 30 dB better than (A), and (C) is about further 10 dB better.

#### IV. AZIMUTH RESOLUTION

A great advantage of the ground-based ArcSAR, with respect to the conventional ground-based linear SAR, is its capability to obtain radar images at  $360^\circ$  with a constant angular resolution. This is an obvious consequence of the circular symmetry of the geometry.

With reference to Fig. 9, if  $\varphi_0$  is the angular aperture of the antenna, the portion of the arc that contributes to the synthesis of the image at point P is AB.

On the other hand, the azimuth resolution ( $\Delta\varphi$ ) of the SAR image depends on the linear length  $d$  of the chord of arc as seen from the image point, through the following equation [11]:

$$d \sin\left(\frac{\Delta\varphi}{2}\right) = \frac{\lambda}{4}. \quad (14)$$

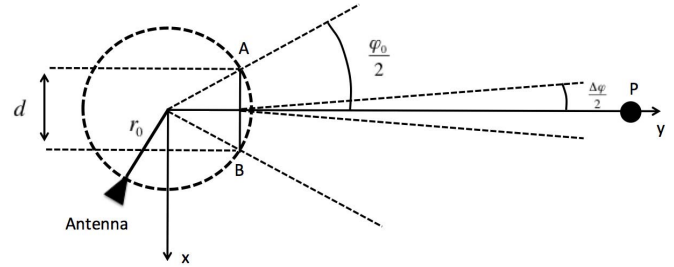


Fig. 9. Geometry of ArcSAR in  $xy$  plane.

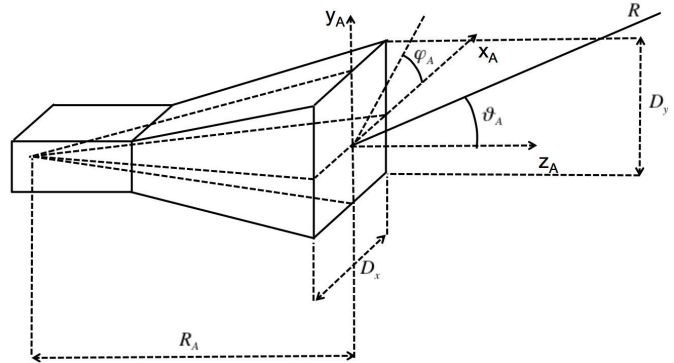


Fig. 10. Horn antenna.

From Fig. 9,  $d$  is given as

$$d = 2r_0 \sin\left(\frac{\varphi_0}{2}\right). \quad (15)$$

The angular aperture of the physical antenna is given as [11]

$$D_x \sin\left(\frac{\varphi_0}{2}\right) = \frac{\lambda}{2} \quad (16)$$

with  $D_x$  width of the antenna. Substituting (15) and (16) into (14) we obtain the notable equation

$$\sin\left(\frac{\Delta\varphi}{2}\right) = \frac{D_x}{4r_0} \quad (17)$$

where the azimuth resolution depends only on the antenna width and on the radius of ArcSAR. Obviously, (17) is just a rough evaluation of the azimuth resolution. For a more accurate assessment, it is necessary to model the antenna pattern.

#### V. ANTENNA MODELING

As seen before, the azimuth resolution on an ArcSAR depends on the antenna pattern [contrary to linear ground-based SAR (GBSAR)]. Hence, for a realistic evaluation of the performances of an ArcSAR, a suitable antenna model is necessary.

The ArcSAR prototype we assembled makes use of horn antennas linearly polarized in the  $y$ -direction. With reference to Fig. 10 their radiated pattern can be calculated as follows

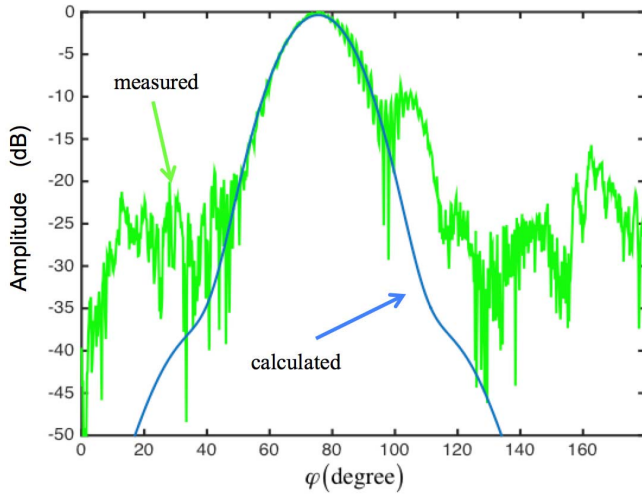


Fig. 11. Antenna lobe.

[23]:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\vartheta_A, \varphi_A) &= \frac{1}{2\lambda}(1 + \cos \vartheta_A) \times \int_{x_A=-\frac{D_x}{2}}^{x_A=\frac{D_x}{2}} \int_{y_A=-\frac{D_y}{2}}^{y_A=\frac{D_y}{2}} \\
 &\times E_A(x_A, y_A) e^{j\frac{2\pi}{c} f_c (x_A \sin \vartheta_A \cos \varphi_A + y_A \sin \vartheta_A \sin \varphi_A)} dx_A dy_A
 \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

with

$$E_A(x_A, y_A) = E_0 \cos\left(\frac{\pi x_A}{D_x}\right) e^{-\frac{2\pi}{c} f_c \left(\frac{x_A^2}{R_A} + \frac{y_A^2}{R_A}\right)}. \quad (19)$$

The angles  $\theta_A$  and  $\varphi_A$  define the direction of the electromagnetic wave with respect to the reference system fixed by the  $x_A$ -axis,  $y_A$ -axis, and  $z_A$ -axis;  $D_x$  and  $D_y$  are the physical sizes of the horn mouth;  $R_A$  is the distance between the horn mouth and the phase center; and  $f_c$  is the central frequency.

In order to evaluate the agreement between the mathematical model and the antennas we used, a corner reflector (CR) of side  $0.4 \text{ m} \times 0.4 \text{ m}$  has been put on the plane of rotation of the ArcSAR at a distance of 22 m. The angle  $\varphi_{\text{CR}}$  between the  $x$ -axis of ArcSAR and the CR direction was  $75^\circ$ . By rotating the arm it has been possible to measure the amplitude of the pattern to be compared with the calculated one. Note that in this geometric arrangement,  $\varphi_A = 0$  and  $\vartheta_A = \varphi - \varphi_{\text{CR}}$ . The physical dimensions of the horn were  $D_x = 75 \text{ mm}$ ,  $D_y = 50 \text{ mm}$ , and  $R_A = 125 \text{ mm}$ . The obtained results are shown in Fig. 11. The two traces have been normalized to their maximum. The FWHM of the main peak is  $20.88^\circ$ . The small peak on the right side is due to the residual of a target at a larger distance. By considering that this measurement has not been performed in an anechoic chamber, the agreement between the measured and calculated traces appears surely satisfactory for our purposes.

## VI. EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION OF AZIMUTH RESOLUTION

The experimental arrangement for the measurement of the antenna pattern can also be used for experimentally validating

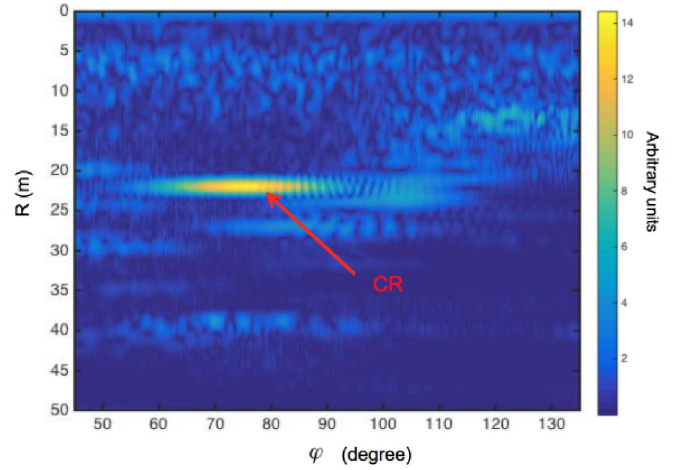


Fig. 12. Range focused image.

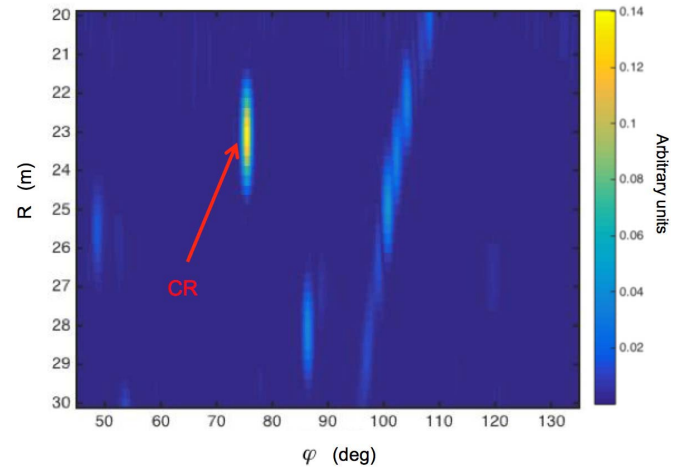


Fig. 13. Range and azimuth focused image.

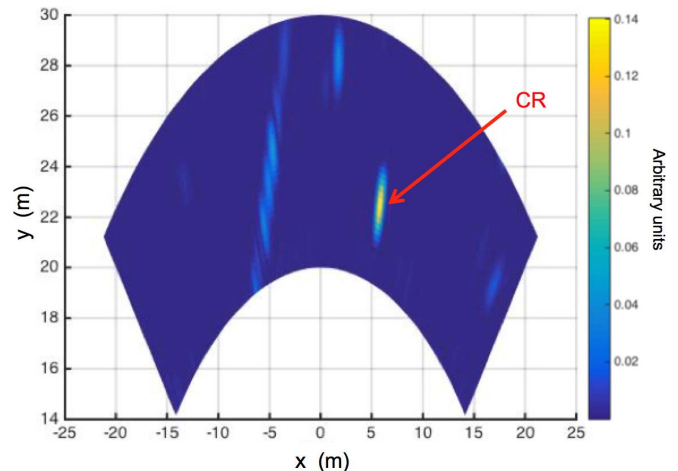


Fig. 14. Focused image in Cartesian coordinates.

the theory and the focusing algorithm described before. The obtained range-focused image is shown in Fig. 12. The CR is well evident.

By focusing on the  $(x, y)$  plane using (8) with the approximation (C), we obtained the amplitude image in Fig. 13.

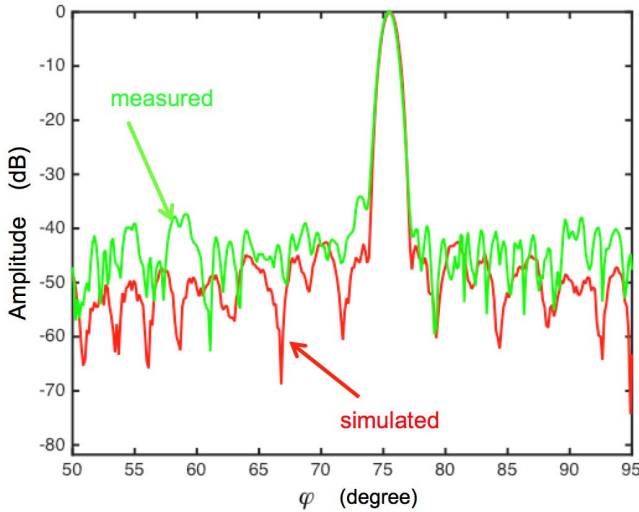


Fig. 15. Simulated and measured PSFs in azimuth of a CR at range  $R = 22$  m.

The image in Fig. 13 can also be represented in Cartesian coordinates as shown in Fig. 14.

Finally, Fig. 15 shows the direct comparison of the measured and simulated peaks at the range of the CR, i.e., the measured and simulated point spread functions (PSFs) in azimuth. The agreement is very satisfactory.

The FWHM of the peak (measured and simulated) is  $1.39^\circ$ . The angular resolution roughly estimated with (17) was  $1.87^\circ$ .

### VII. TRADEOFF BETWEEN AZIMUTH RESOLUTION AND SIDELOBES

Generally speaking, the wider the antenna pattern the better the azimuth resolution. An omnidirectional antenna can synthesize an aperture equal to the diameter, i.e., the largest possible aperture. Unfortunately, the wider the antenna pattern the higher the side lobes in the focused image. As an extreme case, the PSF of an omnidirectional antenna that rotates for  $360^\circ$  is the Bessel function [13], with side lobes at  $-6$  dB with respect to the main lobe. Images affected by such side lobes are unusable in most applications.

By limiting the analysis to the horn antennas, we have simulated the PSF for a target at 10 m using the following parameters:  $f_c = 10$  GHz,  $B = 200$  MHz,  $D_y = 50$  mm,  $R_A = 112$  mm, and varying  $D_x$ . For example, for  $D_x = 10$  mm the simulated PSF is shown in Fig. 16.

Fig. 17 shows the plot of the azimuth resolution versus the width of antenna ( $D_x$ ) and the calculated ratio between the side lobes and the main lobe.

The plot appears to show a simple rule-of-thumb: when the width of antenna is about twice the wavelength the side lobes do not lower significantly further.

### VIII. “DEFOCUSING” EFFECT

A peculiar characteristic of ArcSAR (that does not have a linear SAR) is providing a resolution also in elevation for image points with  $z \neq 0$ . Indeed, as shown in Fig. 18, the antenna movement has a component along the  $y$ -axis (the

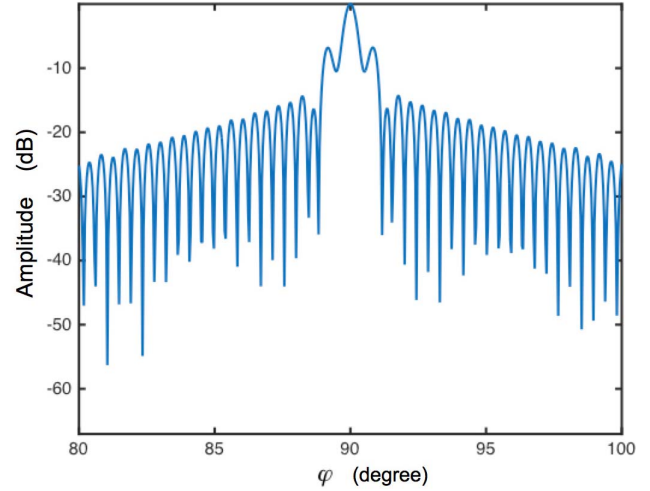


Fig. 16. Simulated PSF for  $D_x = 10$  mm.

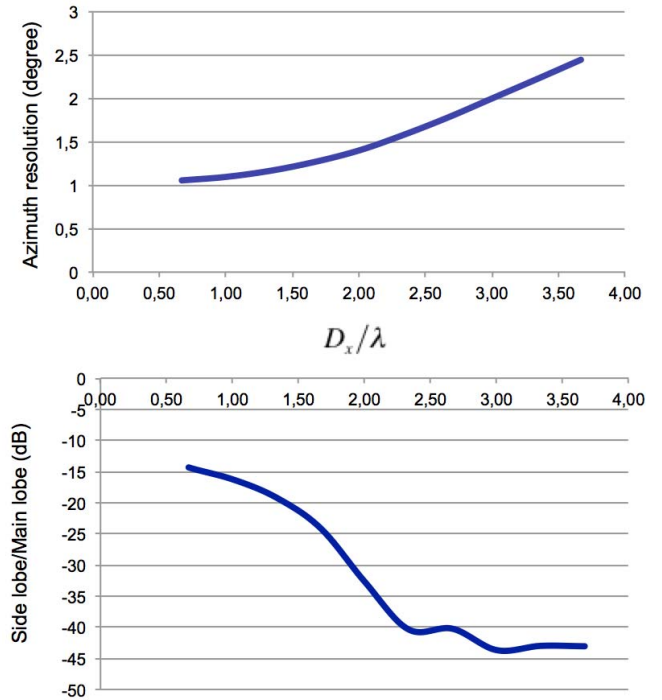


Fig. 17. Azimuth resolution and side lobes amplitude.

segment  $\Delta r_0$ ), which in turn has a projection ( $\Delta d$ ) in the plane that is orthogonal to the view direction.

Unfortunately, this resolution is not high enough to be exploited to synthesize 3-D imaging but it could be enough to give an annoying “defocusing effect” when an image is focused on the rotation plane.

The experimental setup shown in Fig. 19 has been arranged in order to experimentally verify this effect.

The CR was positioned on the tip of a wood beam. Its height with respect to the rotation plane was 3.5 m. The distance between the radar and the base of the beam was 11.61 m. In this configuration the ArcSAR should have an angular resolution also in elevation ( $\theta$ ), in order to verify that the focusing algorithm has been applied on the vertical plane

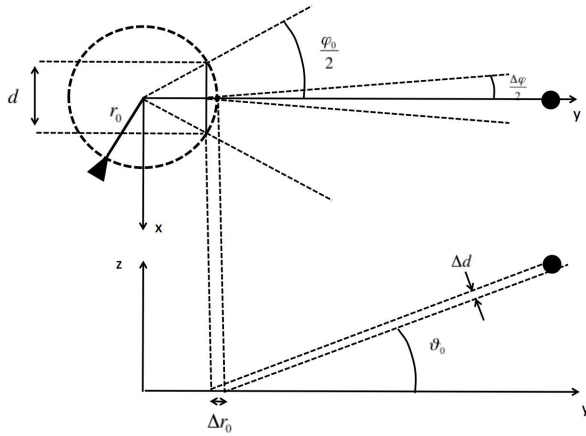


Fig. 18. Geometry of ArcSAR in  $xy$  and  $yz$  planes.

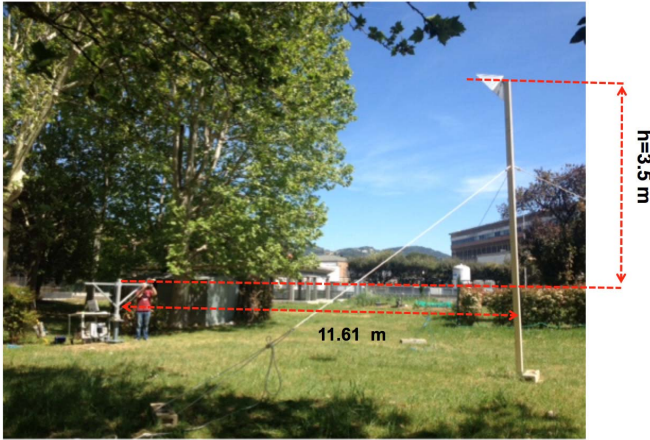


Fig. 19. Measurement setup.

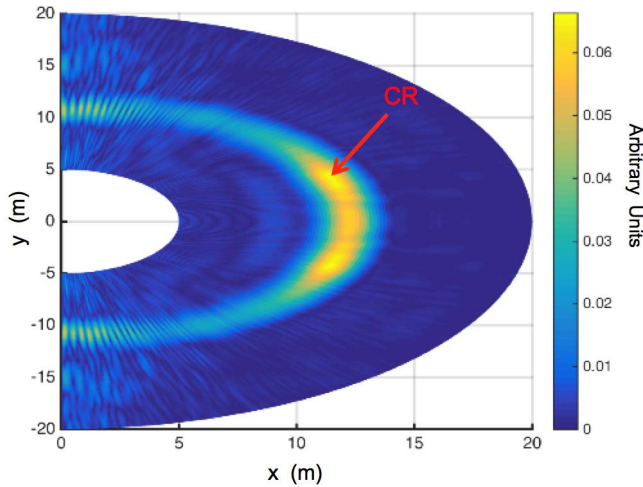


Fig. 20. Image focused in the  $yz$  plane.

$yz$  that crosses the rotation center of the radar and the CR. The obtained image is shown in Fig. 20

Fig. 21 shows the plot of the PSF in elevation at  $R = 12.1$  m. The green line is the image focused using the experimental data while the red line is the simulated image.

It is interesting to note the image is symmetric with respect to the plane  $xy$ . This is a consequence of the symmetry of the radar geometry that does not allow to discriminate between

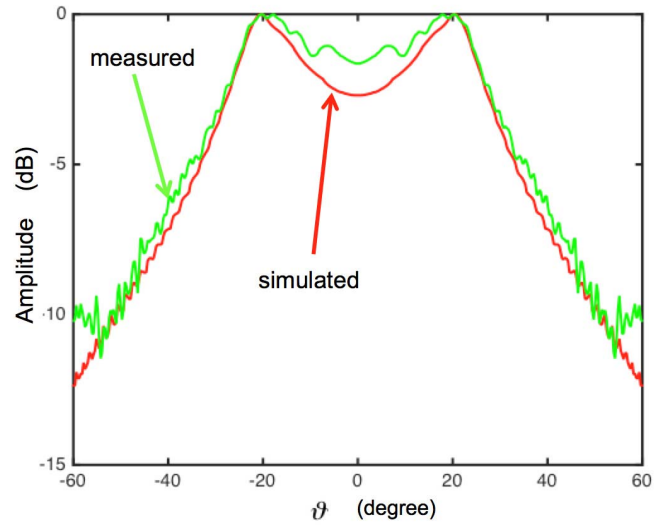


Fig. 21. PSF in elevation at  $R = 12.1$  m.

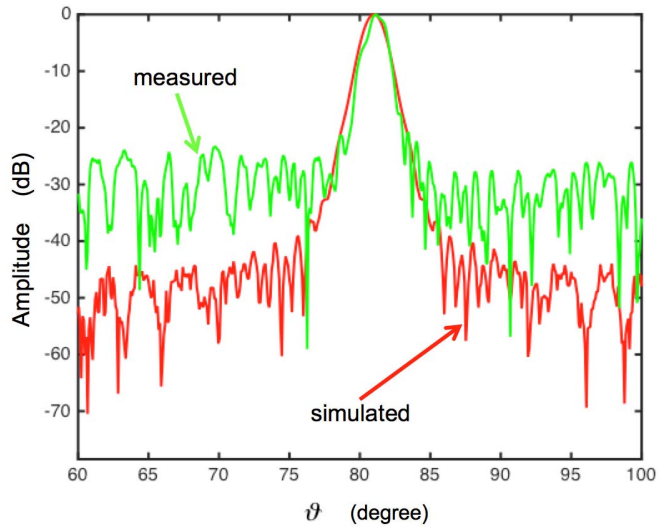


Fig. 22. Azimuth resolution of a target far from the  $xy$  plane.

up and down. Fig. 21 clearly shows that ArcSAR has a resolution (although low) in elevation. As a consequence, when a target far from the  $xy$  plane is focused in the  $xy$  plane, its resolution is degraded. This can be seen directly from Fig. 22 where the simulated and measured plots of PSF in azimuth at  $R = 12.1$  m is shown. The angular resolution results in  $2.12^\circ$ , sensibly larger than  $1.39^\circ$  obtained for a target in the  $xy$  plane.

Considering the good agreement between the measured and simulated plots, the only simulation can be effectively used for assessing the degradation of resolution. The plot in Fig. 23 shows the increase in the azimuth resolution with the elevation of the target. The plot has been obtained through simulation.

## IX. 360° RADAR IMAGING AND INTERFEROMETRY

In order to verify the unique capability of ArcSAR to obtain 360° images, the radar has been positioned in a garden as shown in Fig. 24. The height of the antennas from the soil was 1.62 m.



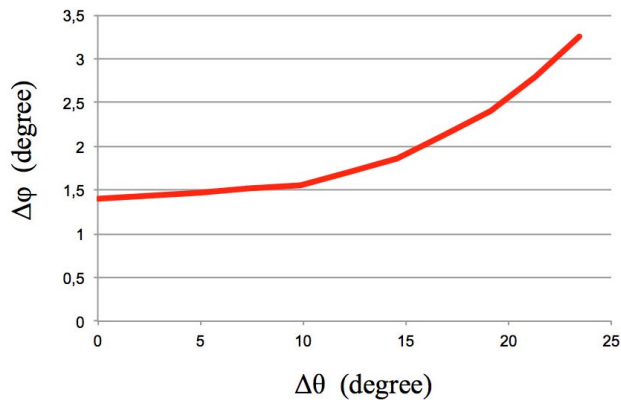


Fig. 23. Azimuth resolution in function of the target elevation.

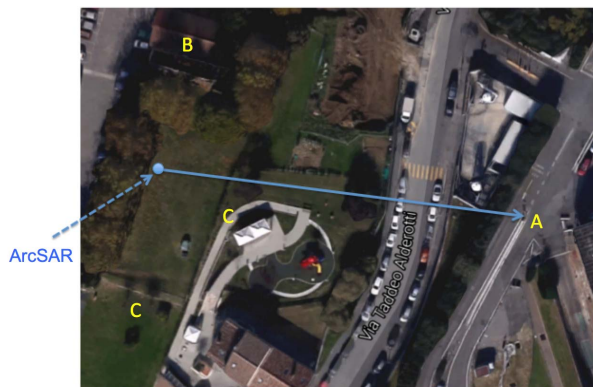


Fig. 24. Measurement scenario.

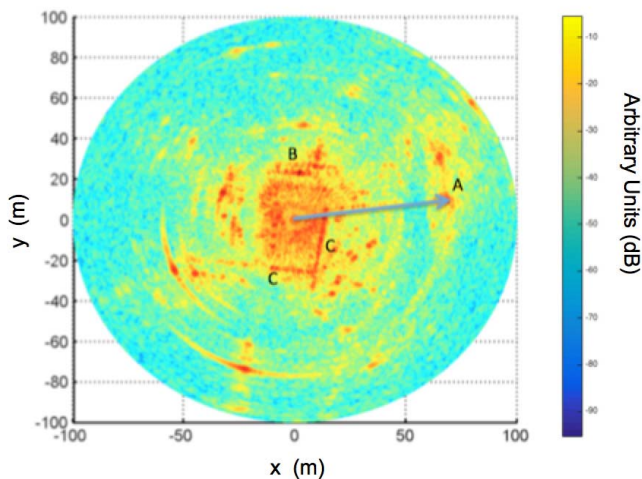


Fig. 25. Radar image of the scenario in Fig. 24.

The acquired data has been focused with method (B) and the obtained radar image (in logarithmic scale) is shown in Fig. 25.

There are features well evident: the pylon (A), the wall and the roof of a two-story building in masonry (B), and the metallic fence (C).

As the GBSAR is often used for detecting small displacements at a distance through differential interferometry [1], [2] we also verified experimentally this capability of ArcSAR.



Fig. 26. Differential interferometry with a micrometric positioner.

With this aim, a CR was fixed on a holder able to provide calibrated displacements along the range direction with an accuracy of 0.1 mm (the micrometric positioner shown in Fig. 26). It was positioned at a 15 m distance from the radar and two measurements were performed before and after a nominal displacement of 4.0 mm. The experimentally detected displacement was 4.01 mm, in complete agreement with the nominal value

## X. CONCLUSION

A focusing algorithm for ArcSAR has been proposed and tested with experimental data. As its working principle is based on the compensation of the phase history of each path between the measurement points and the image point, the ArcSAR focusing algorithm does not require to operate in far field and neither with narrow beam antennas; moreover, it is flexible enough to focus on any plane (not necessarily on the rotation plane) as well as in the whole 3-D space.

Furthermore, it has been identified a possible problem of ArcSAR consisting in the “defocusing” of targets far from the rotation plane. Since this problem is due to the resolution in elevation of the ArcSAR, it can be solved by just focusing on the effective 3-D shape, i.e., the digital elevation model (DEM) of the scenario where the radar is operated. In addition, the proposed algorithm can be used to focus on the DEM as it does not make assumptions on the shape of the focalization surface.

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