IMPROVED DETECTION OF A TARGET ON A RANDOM ROUGH SURFACE USING ANGULAR CORRELATION FUNCTION

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1. INTRODUCTION

Detection of a target in cluttered environment based on electromagnetic wave scattering has been considered for many years [1-3]. In this work, we consider detection of a target situated on top of a random rough surface, whereby the scatter component from the surface is considered to be background clutter. Detector design is traditionally based on the difference in the characteristics of the returned signal from background clutter alone versus target plus clutter, and usually only exploits the differences in the observed wave intensity (or equivalently, radar cross section or RCS) [4,5]. Our primary contribution is the analysis of detection probability when using the angular correlation function (ACF) for enhanced detection which correlates the scattered signal at two different angles. The ACF has been used in subsurface detection [6,7], but there is no analysis of the improvement in detection in terms of probability of detection and false alarm. In our previous work, we exploited the strong correlation from rough surface scattering for sea-ice [8] and snow thickness determination [9]. However, for target detection on random rough surface, the effect from rough surface scattering is to be minimized. The scattered signal from the background as a function of elevation angle exhibits strong peaks at certain combination of frequencies and incident and observed angles. Hence, by careful choice of transmitting frequencies and incident and observed angles, we should be able to reduce the effects of rough surface scattering. Here, we derive the statistical properties of the ACF of a scattered wave from a random rough surface and its relationship to the physical parameters of the rough surface and observation system geometry. Then we analyze the probability of detection versus probability of false alarm using ACF and RCS which shows that the receiver operating characteristics (ROC) of the detector using ACF is conclusively superior to that using RCS.

2. FORMULATION AND NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS USING FDTD

In our geometry (Fig. 1), the medium 1 is free space \( (\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_o, \mu_1 = \mu_o) \) while medium 2 is a lossy dielectric. We define the intrinsic propagation constant of medium 2 by \( \alpha_2 + j\beta_2 = j\pi f/\sqrt{\varepsilon_2\mu_2} \) where \( \varepsilon_2 \) is the complex relative dielectric constant of medium 2. \( \alpha_2 \) represents a loss constant while \( \beta_2 \) represents a phase constant. The wave number is given by \( k_i = 2\pi f/\sqrt{\varepsilon_2\mu_2}, f \) is the frequency of the wave, \( c \) is the speed of light and \( \beta_1 = k_1 \). The far-field scattered wave is given by [10]

\[
\psi_{inc}^{(1)}(K_{inc}, K_{inc}) = \frac{k_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)}}{(2\pi k_1 R_{inc})^{1/2}} \exp \left( -j k_1 R_{inc} + j \frac{\pi}{4} \right) S(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) \psi_{inc}^{(1)}
\]

where \( R_{inc} \) is the distance from the illuminated area to the observation point, \( S(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) = \gamma(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) H(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) \),

\[
\gamma(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{j K_{z}^{(1)} A/\varepsilon_r + B}{j K_{z}^{(1)} \varepsilon_r + j K_{z}^{(1)}}
\]

where \( A = \left( j K_{inc}^{(1)} - j K_{z}^{(1)} \Gamma - j K_{inc}^{(1)} T \right) \), \( B = \left( -j K_{inc}^{(1)} \varepsilon_r - j K_{inc}^{(1)} \varepsilon_r \right) (1 + \Gamma) + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_r} \left( K_{inc}^{(1)} K_{obs}^{(1)} - K_{inc}^{(1)} \right) T \).

If \( \varepsilon_r = \frac{\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_2}, K_{inc}^{(1)} = \beta \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(2)} = \beta \cos \theta_{inc}^{(2)}, K_{inc}^{(1)} = \sqrt{k_1^2 - \left( K_{inc}^{(1)} \right)^2}, K_{inc}^{(2)} = \sqrt{k_2^2 - \left( K_{inc}^{(2)} \right)^2}, K_{obs}^{(1)} = \beta \sin \theta_{inc}^{(1)}, K_{obs}^{(2)} = \beta \sin \theta_{inc}^{(2)} \),

\( \Gamma \) is the reflection coefficient, and \( T \) the transmission coefficient. For TE waves \( \Gamma = \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)} - \sqrt{\varepsilon_2 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(2)}}}}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)} + \sqrt{\varepsilon_2 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(2)}}}}, \)

\[
T = \frac{2 \sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)}}}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)} + \sqrt{\varepsilon_2 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(2)}}}}, \text{ and for TM waves } \Gamma = \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon_2 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)} - \sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(2)}}}}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_2 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)} + \sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(2)}}}}, \quad T = \frac{2 \sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)}}}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_2 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(1)} + \sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \cos \theta_{inc}^{(2)}}}}. \]

The relationship between \( \theta_{inc}^{(1)} \) and \( \theta_{inc}^{(2)} \) can be found using Snell’s law: \( \sqrt{\varepsilon_1 \sin \theta_{inc}^{(1)} = \sqrt{\varepsilon_2 \sin \theta_{inc}^{(2)}}}. \) Define
\[ H(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) = \int h(x) \exp\left(-j(K_{obs}^{(1)} - K_{inc}^{(1)})x\right) dx \] where \( h(x) \) is the vertical displacement or height relative to a baseline of the random surface. The angular correlation function of the observed complex amplitude is now given by

\[
\langle \psi_{obs}^{(1)}(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) \psi_{obs}^{(2)}(K_{obs}^{(2)}, K_{inc}^{(2)}) \rangle = \frac{k_i^2 \cos \theta_{obs}^{(1)} \cos \theta_{obs}^{(2)} \exp(-j(k_i R^{(1)} - k_i R^{(2)}))}{2 \pi k_i (R^{(1)} R^{(2)})^{1/2}} \exp\left(-j(k R^{(1)} - k R^{(2)})\right) \gamma(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)})
\]

(2)

\[
\gamma'(K_{obs}^{(2)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) = \langle H(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)})H'(K_{obs}^{(2)}, K_{inc}^{(2)}) \psi_{obs}^{(1)} \psi_{inc}^{(1)} \rangle
\]

where \( \langle H(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)})H'(K_{obs}^{(2)}, K_{inc}^{(2)}) \psi_{obs}^{(1)} \psi_{inc}^{(1)} \rangle = \iiint \langle h(x)h(x') \rangle \exp\left(-j(K_{obs}^{(1)} - K_{inc}^{(1)})x\right) \exp\left(+j(K_{obs}^{(2)} - K_{inc}^{(1)})x'\right) dx \ dx'.
\]

For a Gaussian random surface with tapered plane wave with illumination \( W(x) = \exp(-x^2 / 2L_{eq}^2) \) and Gaussian autocorrelation as above. We obtained

\[
\langle H(K_{obs}^{(1)} - K_{inc}^{(1)})H'(K_{obs}^{(2)} - K_{inc}^{(2)}) \rangle = \sigma_s^2 \pi L_{eq} \exp\left(-\frac{A_{eq}^2}{4}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{A_{eq}^2 L_{eq}^2}{4}\right)
\]

(3)

where \( A_{eq} = (A + B) / 2 \), \( A = K_{obs}^{(1)} - K_{inc}^{(1)} \), \( B = K_{obs}^{(2)} - K_{inc}^{(2)} \). \( l \) = correlation length, \( \sigma_s \) = rms height, and \( L_{eq} \) = illumination length. We employ the RCS definition [11] of RCS = \( \lim_{R \to \infty} 2\pi R \langle \psi_{obs}^{(1)} \psi_{inc}^{(1)} \rangle / \langle \psi_{inc}^{(1)} \rangle^2 \). Note from (1), \( \psi_{obs} \) in the far-field is a function of \( 1/ \sqrt{R} \) and the RCS thus does not depend on \( R \). For our two-dimensional geometry, RCS is the scattering width or the radar cross section per unit length (and has units of length) [12]. For a fair comparison, we employ the ACF definition \( ACF = \lim_{K \to \infty} 2\pi R \langle \psi_{obs}^{(1)}(K_{inc}) \psi_{obs}^{(2)}(K_{obs}) \psi_{inc}^{(1)}(K_{obs}) \psi_{inc}^{(2)}(K_{inc}) \rangle / \langle \psi_{inc}^{(1)} \rangle^2 \) which also has units of length.

We investigate the behavior of the angular correlation function and the radar cross section for the scattered waves in two cases where (1) a target is present on a random rough surface and (2) no target is present (rough surface only). Previously, we derived the analytical solution for ACF for rough surface scattering. However, when a target is present, the analytical solution for a scattered wave is not tractable because of the complex interaction between the target and the random rough surface. Therefore, we employ numerical simulations using the two-dimensional finite-difference time-domain (FDTD) method. The geometry of the simulations is illustrated in Fig. 1. Wave scattering is simulated and the observed wave is calculated in the situation where the perfect electric conductor (PEC) target is present and when there is no target. The rough surface interface has a Gaussian correlation function with the rms height of 2.4 cm and correlation length of 12 cm. The PEC target has a radius of 10 cm, the center frequency of the incident wave is 1.5 GHz, the ground dielectric constant is 3.7 ± 0.1.

The surface length of the simulation is 200 wavelengths. The incident wave is a tapered plane wave with an incident angle of 20°. The grid resolution in the simulation is 50 points per wavelength. PML is used to absorb out-going wave and prevent erroneous scattering.

3. PROBABILISTIC MODEL OF RCS AND ACF

The p.d.f. for the RCS of the Gaussian random surface was derived by [14] and is in the form of an exponential distribution

\[
f_u(u) = \frac{1}{2 \sigma_s^2 \left| K_1 \right|^2} \exp\left(-\frac{u}{2 \sigma_s^2 \left| K_1 \right|^2}\right); \quad u \geq 0
\]

(4)

where the parameter \( u \) relates to the RCS by \( u = RCS \lambda / L_{eq} \),

\[
\left| K_1 \right| = j2k \cos \theta_{obs}^{(1)} \cos \theta_{obs}^{(2)} \sqrt{\cos^2 \theta_{obs}^{(1)} - \sin^2 \theta_{obs}^{(1)}} \sqrt{\cos^2 \theta_{obs}^{(1)} + \sin^2 \theta_{obs}^{(1)}}
\]


and \( \tilde{S}_{aa}(\tilde{z}) = \frac{\sigma_s^2 l}{2 \sqrt{\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{l^2}{4}\right) \) where \( l \) = correlation length, \( \sigma_s \) = rms height, and \( L_{eq} \) = illumination length.

Consider the p.d.f. of the ACF, using the definition of ACF, we get

\[
ACF = k_i \cos \theta_{obs}^{(1)} \cos \theta_{obs}^{(2)} \gamma_1(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)})H(K_{obs}^{(1)}, K_{inc}^{(1)}) \gamma_2(K_{obs}^{(2)}, K_{inc}^{(2)})H(K_{obs}^{(2)}, K_{inc}^{(2)}) = k_i \cos \theta_{obs}^{(1)} \cos \theta_{obs}^{(2)} \left| F_1 \right| \left| F_2 \right|
\]

(5)
Note that function \( H(K^{(1)}_{\text{obs}}, K^{(3)}_{\text{inc}}) \) is a random function that is the Fourier transform of the random height \( h(x) \). The functions \( F_1 = \gamma_1(K^{(1)}_{\text{obs}}, K^{(3)}_{\text{inc}})H(K^{(1)}_{\text{obs}}, K^{(3)}_{\text{inc}}) \) and \( F_2 = \gamma_2(K^{(2)}_{\text{obs}}, K^{(3)}_{\text{inc}})H(K^{(2)}_{\text{obs}}, K^{(3)}_{\text{inc}}) \) are, in general, complex. If the rough surface height has Gaussian characteristics, the real and imaginary parts of these functions are also Gaussian distributed since \( \gamma_1 \) and \( \gamma_2 \) are both complex constants [12]. By transforming to polar coordinates, the real and imaginary parts are converted to magnitude and phase. With the large illumination area \( (L_{\text{eq}} \to \infty) \), we can assume that the magnitude and phase of functions \( F \)'s are independent [13]. Thus, we find the p.d.f of the magnitude of the function \( F_1 \) in the form of Rayleigh distribution as [13].

The p.d.f of ACF is therefore the p.d.f of multiplication of two Rayleigh-distributed random variables with two different parameters and a purely real number scaling. With a large illumination area \( (L_{\text{eq}} \to \infty) \), we can assume that \( F_1 \) and \( F_2 \) are independent, the distribution of the product of two independent Rayleigh random variables. We obtain the p.d.f of \( V = |F_1| |F_2| \) as the double-Rayleigh distribution [14],[15], i.e.,

\[
f_V(v) = \frac{v}{\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2} K_0 \left( \frac{v}{\sigma_1 \sigma_2} \right)
\]

where \( K_0 \) is the modified Bessel function of the second kind and zeroth order. \( \sigma_i^2 = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \hat{S}_{\text{int}}(\xi_i) + \frac{\sin(\xi_i L_{\text{eq}})}{\xi_i L_{\text{eq}}} \hat{S}_{\text{int}}(0) \right] \), \( \xi_i = k_i (\sin \theta^{(i)}_{\text{inc}} - \sin \theta^{(i)}_{\text{obs}}) \), and the expression of \( \hat{S}_{\text{int}} \) is given previously for RCS case. From Eq. (5), the parameter \( V \) relates to the ACF by \( V = \frac{\text{ACF}}{k_1 \cos \theta^{(1)}_{\text{inc}} \cos \theta^{(1)}_{\text{obs}}} \). The numerical simulations using FDTD are compared to the analytical solution given in Fig.2. In this particular example, the RCS is calculated where the incident and observation angles equal \(-20^\circ\). The ACF is calculated in the case where the incident wave is \(-20^\circ\) and the observed waves are at \(-20^\circ\) (backscattering) and at \(-10^\circ\).

4. TARGET DETECTION PERFORMANCE

In the previous section, we analytically determined the p.d.f of ACF and RCS for a scattered wave from a random rough surface which can be used to obtain the probability of false alarm. The determination of the probability of detection requires the p.d.f of the scattered wave when a target is present. However, the complex interaction between the target and the random rough surface precludes any analytical solution for the p.d.f for either the RCS and the ACF, and we resort to FDTD computations to numerically estimate the p.d.f. FDTD calculations of 500 ensembles were used to produce histograms of the RCS magnitude and ACF magnitude. We computed the probability of detection versus probability of false alarm for both the RCS and ACF methods by varying the detection threshold resulting in the receiving operation curve (ROC) shown in Fig. 3. This shows that the ACF method exhibit better performance over RCS in term of probability of detection versus false alarm.

5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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6. REFERENCES

Fig. 1. Left: Geometry of the circular target detection problem. Right: Geometry of FDTD simulations.

Fig. 2. The p.d.f of magnitude of RCS and ACF comparison between an analytical model and FDTD simulations. Left: P.d.f of RCS comparison between Eq. (4) and FDTD. Right: P.d.f of ACF comparison between Eq. (6) and FDTD.

Fig. 3. Probability distribution of RCS and ACF. In this comparison, the incident wave is $-20^\circ$. (a) P.d.f of RCS is calculated from the backscattering wave with $\theta_{\text{inc}}^{(1)} = -20^\circ$, (b) P.d.f of ACF is calculated from correlation of the observed wave 1 at backscattering direction $\theta_{\text{obs}}^{(1)} = -20^\circ$ with the observed wave 2 at $\theta_{\text{obs}}^{(2)} = -10^\circ$, and (c) ROC result.