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WiFi-based imaging for ground penetrating radar applications: fundamental study and experimental results

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Abstract: As a fundamental research step for subsurface target imaging by passive ground penetrating radar, some simulation and experimental results of passive bistatic radar imaging for short-range targets by using IEEE 802.11 Wireless Fidelity (WiFi) wave as the source of illumination have been presented. As the WiFi signal only penetrates shallow layers and yet lacks bandwidth for high resolution subsurface structure mapping, the interrogation of cooperative targets with the passive bistatic radar approach is demonstrated. This strategy is achieved by inserting surface acoustic wave (SAW) delay lines acting as dedicated reflectors allowing for subsurface tagging (identification) or sensing (temperature measurement) through the fine measurement of echo delays. Experimental results show that short-range targets, such as cars and metallic plates located within 10 m, can effectively be detected and imaged. The response of the SAW delay lines can also be well probed.

1 Introduction

Ground penetrating radar (GPR) is a safe and cost-effective tool for subsurface exploration. It works by transmitting electromagnetic waves into subsurface and receiving the reflected waves to acquire various information of the subsurface feature. The depth, size, shape and other parameters of the subsurface reflectors can be derived. Therefore, GPR has been used for many applications, such as cultural-heritage management, humanitarian demining, civil engineering etc. [1, 2].

A GPR system is composed of three main components, which includes transmitter, receiver, and control unit. Due to the regulation limitation, the transmitters of most GPR systems should be placed close to the ground surface to avoid generating additional electromagnetic pollution to the environment. To overcome this limitation, in our research, non-cooperative transmitters, such as digital terrestrial television broadcasting signal, global system for mobile communications (GSM) signal, and IEEE 802.11 Wireless Fidelity (WiFi) signal, are considered to be the source of illumination to replace the dedicated transmitter of GPR [3, 4]. Unlike active radar, using existing non-cooperative sources is advantageous since there is no requirement of the specific frequency allocation.

In this paper, we present some simulation and experimental results of WiFi-based passive bistatic radar imaging for GPR applications. Although WiFi signal based range-Doppler mapping, through-the-wall imaging, and object localisation have been well addressed in the last decade [5-9], we show some different considerations specific to subsurface target mapping. WiFi waves with IEEE 802.11n standard, 2.4 GHz frequency, and 40 MHz bandwidth and WiFi waves with IEEE 802.11 ac standard, 5 GHz frequency, and 80 MHz bandwidth are employed for short-range target imaging by using synthetic aperture radar (SAR) technique [10-12]. It is noticed that, in [9], high-resolution SAR imaging with IEEE 802.11 ac signal with 160 MHz bandwidth has been studied by numerical simulations. However, we show the practical implementations of WiFi radar imaging in this paper. Being aware of the fact that the range solution is insufficient for GPR subsurface shallow target imaging (such as concrete monitoring), a passive and wireless cooperative sensor designed by surface acoustic wave (SAW) delay lines [13] is also tested. Our experiments show that

cars and metallic plates located within 10 m can be effectively detected and imaged. The response of the SAW delay lines is probed at a bistatic range of up to 1.5 m and allows recovering the identity as well as temperature of the sensor.

2 WiFi-based bistatic SAR imaging

2.1 Signal model

In this subsection, the signal model for WiFi-based bistatic SAR imaging is established. Since the WiFi transmitter is always stationary, in order to achieve high azimuth resolution, a measurement antenna is assumed to be moved linearly to form a synthetic aperture. Normally, the non-cooperative transmitted signal cannot directly be obtained. Therefore, a reference antenna is required to sample the reference signal for cross-correlation based range compression. When the measurement antenna is at the *l*th position (x_l , 0), without considering the multipath echoes in the reference channel, the received reference signal and the measurement signal can be expressed as

$$s_{\text{ref}}^{l}(t) = A_{\text{ref}}^{l} s_0(t - t_{\text{ref}}) + n_{\text{ref}}^{l}(t)$$
(1)

and

$$s_{\rm sur}^{l}(t) = s_{\rm dirc}^{l}(t) + \sum_{i=1}^{l} \alpha_i s_0(t - t_i^{l}) + n_{\rm sur}^{l}(t), \tag{2}$$

where t_{ref} is the time delay between the reference antenna and the WiFi transmitter, which is constant for l = 1, ..., N, and $s_{\text{dirc}}^{l}(t) = A_{\text{sur}}^{l}s_{0}(t - t_{\text{sur}}^{l})$ is the direct-path signal received by the measurement antenna, α_{i} is the reflection coefficient of the *i*th target, i = 1, 2, ..., I, *I* is the number of targets, and t_{i}^{l} is the time delay of *i*th target from the WiFi transmitter to the measurement antenna at the *l*th position.

In practice, the direct-path signal is much stronger than the echoes of the targets. In this paper, we use the extensive cancellation algorithm (ECA) [14] to suppress its influences. For the *l*th position of measurement antenna, the refined measurement signal is given by



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Fig. 1 Signal processing chain for WiFi-based passive SAR imaging



Fig. 2 Spectrum of real IEEE 802.11n signal with 40 MHz bandwidth used in the simulations

$$s_{\text{sur}}^{\sim l}(t) = (\boldsymbol{I} - \boldsymbol{P}\boldsymbol{P}^{\dagger})s_{\text{sur}}^{l}(t), \qquad (3)$$

where **I** denotes an identity matrix, $(\cdot)^{\dagger}$ denotes the pseudoinversion, and **P** is a matrix formed by the delayed copies of the reference signal $s_{ref}^{l}(t)$, i.e.

$$\boldsymbol{P} = \begin{bmatrix} s_{\text{ref}}^{l}(0) & 0 & \cdots & 0\\ s_{\text{ref}}^{l}(1) & s_{\text{ref}}^{l}(0) & \cdots & 0\\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots\\ s_{\text{ref}}^{l}(N-1) & s_{\text{ref}}^{l}(N-2) & \cdots & s_{\text{ref}}^{l}(N-M) \end{bmatrix},$$
(4)

where M is the number of time delays to properly model the maximum range of the direct-path signal.

Then, the *i*th range-compressed profile can be obtained by the cross-correlation process as

$$\chi^{l}(\tau) = \int_{0}^{T_{\text{int}}^{-l}} s_{\text{sur}}(t) [s_{\text{ref}}^{l}(t-\tau)]^* \,\mathrm{d}t, \qquad (5)$$

where T_{int} denotes the integration time that determines the system signal to noise ratio and the Doppler resolution.

At last, by using back projection (BP) algorithm, the reflection coefficients of targets can be estimated by

$$\widetilde{\alpha}(x, y) = \sum_{l=1}^{L} \chi^{l} \left(\frac{\sqrt{(x_{l} - x)^{2} + (y_{l} - y)^{2} + R_{AP}(x, y)}}{c} - t_{ref} \right),$$
(6)

where $R_{AP}(x, y) = \sqrt{(x_{AP} - x)^2 + (y_{AP} - y)^2}$ is the distance between the target and the WiFi transmitter, and $\tilde{\alpha}(x, y)$ is the estimated amplitude of the target at (x, y).



Fig. 3 Imaging result of three targets obtained by the BP algorithm



Fig. 4 Imaging result of three targets obtained by the cross-correlation based BP algorithm

To suppress the sidelobes caused by the coherent summation of the range-compressed signal from all the antenna positions, the cross-correlation based BP algorithm [15] is further applied, which can be expressed as

$$\tilde{\alpha}(x, y) = \sum_{l_1=1}^{L-1} \sum_{l_2=l_1}^{L} \alpha_{l_1}(x, y) \alpha_{l_2}(x, y),$$
(7)

where $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{l_o}(x, y) = \chi^{l_o}(\tau_{x, y})$, and o = 1, 2.

In summary, the signal processing chain for passive bistatic WiFi SAR imaging is presented in Fig. 1.

In order to test the established signal model and the proposed WiFi-based bistatic SAR imaging method, several semi-experiment simulations are conducted. In the simulation, the reference signal is obtained by directly sampling the IEEE 802.11n signal with 40 MHz bandwidth from a WiFi access point (AP), whose spectrum is shown in Fig. 2. The measurement signal at each position is generated by delaying the reference signal with corresponding distance. The synthetic aperture length is simulated to 3 m and three targets located at (0, 10), (-5, 5) and (5, 5) are simulated. The imaging results obtained by the BP algorithm and the crosscorrelation based BP algorithm are shown in Figs. 3 and 4, respectively. It can be observed that these three targets can be well focused by both algorithms. However, the sidelobes are much reduced by the cross-correlation based BP algorithm. Therefore, in the practical implementation, the cross-correlation based BP algorithm is used.

2.2 Experimental result

Two experiments are further conducted to validate the WiFi-based bistatic SAR imaging technique. The diagram of the designed system used in the experiments is shown in Fig. 5. The system mainly includes an oscilloscope, a positioner, a WiFi AP used to transmit the signal, two horn antennas, and two PCs that communicate with each other by sending a big file. One PC is used to remotely control the positioner and oscilloscope and process the received data. A horn antenna is facing to the AP and provides the



Fig. 5 Configuration of the designed WiFi-based bistatic SAR system



Fig. 6 Experiment setup for passive bistatic SAR imaging



Fig. 7 Imaging result of the car using IEEE 802.11n signal with 40 MHz bandwidth

reference signal, and the second horn antenna is sled on the positioner and faced to the target to provide the measurement signal.

In the first experiment, an IEEE 802.11n signal with 40 MHz bandwidth is used to image a car at a distance of about 9 m. The AP is located at (0, -1), the reference antenna is located at (0, 0), and the measurement antenna is sled on the rail from (1, 0) to (4, 0) steps with 5 cm. The data sampling frequency of the oscilloscope is set to 10 GSamples/s and the integration time is about 1.6 μ s. The experiment set up is shown in Fig. 6, where the metallic plate is not added in this experiment. With cross-correlation based BP algorithm, the imaging result is shown in Fig. 7. It can be seen that the car can be well focused with correct distance and azimuth, yet with a range resolution 3.75 m limited by the available bandwidth.

In the second experiment, an IEEE 802.11ac signal with 80 MHz bandwidth is applied to increase the range solution of the designed passive bistatic radar system. In such a case, due to the higher signal frequency (5 GHz), the data sampling frequency of the oscilloscope and the integration time are changed to 20 GSamples/s and 0.8 μ s, respectively. Besides, the moving step of the measurement antenna is reduced to 2 cm to avoid aliasing. Apart from the car, a metallic plate is added as an additional target. The imaging result is shown in Fig. 8, where the car and plate can be effectively imaged and separated. Compared to the result in Fig. 7, more details of the car can be observed, the range solution is also increased. Furthermore, some parts of a wall can also be imaged in this experiment.



Fig. 8 Imaging result of the car and metallic plate using IEEE 802.11ac signal with 80 MHz bandwidth



Fig. 9 Configuration of WiFi-based passive sensor detection



Fig. 10 Experiment setup for WiFi-based passive sensor detection

3 Detection of passive SAW sensors

It can be learned from the previous results shown in Section 2 that, although the short-range targets (car and plate) can be effectively detected and imaged, the limited range resolution caused by the limited bandwidth of the WiFi signal is the main obstacle met for using WiFi-based GPR in the practical mapping of shallow targets such as the underground gas pipes and the rebars inside the concrete. Although several bands of IEEE 802.11ac waves with 160 MHz bandwidth can be combined to increase the range resolution as suggested by [9], the acquisition of such wide bands may be impossible in practice because the precious frequency resources and the penetration depth of 5 GHz WiFi signal may cause another problem.

Therefore, in order to apply WiFi signal into practical GPR applications, we propose to attach a passive sensor designed by SAW delay lines on the underground or inside-wall targets. In the sensor, a piezoelectric substrate converts an incoming electromagnetic signal into an acoustic signal whose velocity depends on the surrounding physical properties of the transducer [13]. The acoustic wave is reflected by mirrors patterned on the piezoelectric substrate back to the electrodes that convert the acoustic wave back to the electromagnetic wave, yielding an echo signal which has enough delay to be distinguished from the clutters. In this case, although the range resolution is not changed, the passive sensor can be effectively detected. Then, by simple calculations, the position of the target can be derived.

In order to verify the proposed method, several fundamental experiments are carried out. The configuration and the experiment setup including four measurement antennas are shown in Figs. 9 and 10, respectively. Since the surroundings of the experiment induce much stronger echoes than the response of the passive sensor, we also use ECA algorithm to reduce their influences. The range compression result obtained by the cross-correlation process is shown in Fig. 11, where the responses of the passive sensor can be well probed. Eight responses with delays ranging from 1 to 2.2 μ s are detected, which are separated from the clutters that always have time delays in nanosecond scale. The 8-echoes are designed



Fig. 11 WiFi-based measurement of a passive sensor using IEEE 802.11n signal with 20 MHz bandwidth



Fig. 12 Temperature variation observed on the four antennas facing a SAW delay line cooled twice by a freezing spray at times 20 and 300 s

as 8-bits allowing for identifying which structure is being observed.

In addition to tagging, fine acoustic velocity measurement allows for recovering the subsurface physical environmental property of the cooperative target. In this example, the strong temperature sensitivity S = 60 ppm/K of the lithium niobate piezoelectric substrate allows for detecting temperature variations. Indeed, a temperature variation $d_{\rm T}$ induces a phase variation $d\psi = 2\pi\tau f_0 S d_T$ with τ the delay difference between two echoes and $f_0 = 2.422$ GHz the central operating frequency. Echo time delay differences must be considered to get rid of the source to cooperative target delay dependence and measure a time delay only related to the acoustic velocity v since $\tau = D/v$ with D the geometric distance of the acoustic path, typically in the 3 mm range for a 1 µs delay. A one to one relation exists between phase and temperature as long as the temperature variation remains small enough to prevent 2π phase rotations, i.e. $\tau < 1/(Sd_{T}f_{0})$. In our case, considering a temperature range of 50 K, then two echoes separated by <138 ns must be selected. Such a condition is met by selecting any two adjacent pair of the echoes seen in the returned response of Fig. 11. Since the correlation is a linear process, the phase introduced by the acoustic delay line is also found on the cross-correlation output, allowing for the recovery of a temperature variation information as shown in Fig. 12.

Furthermore, the bistatic time delay plus direction of arrival (DOA) estimation of the SAW delay line is also conducted. Two case studies are presented, where the passive sensor is placed in different azimuth position but with the same bistatic range. In order to increase the angle estimation accuracy and resolution, the MUSIC algorithm [16] is applied in this case. As shown in Fig. 13, the position of the SAW delay line can be well detected.

4 Conclusion

We proposed and validated several WiFi-based passive bistatic q3 [11] radar imaging methods as the fundamental researches for GPR applications. The experimental results show that, combined with the passive cooperative sensor, it is possible to use WiFi as the transmitting source of GPR. Therefore, there is no need of frequency allocation, and it can save the system cost, increase the measurement flexibility, and reduce the electromagnetic pollution to the environment.



Fig. 13 Bistatic time delay and angle estimation of the SAW delay line which is located at left (top) and right (bottom)

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