



SDR-implemented passive bistatic SAR system using Sentinel-1 signal and its experiment results

4 Weike Feng¹, Jean-Michel Friedt^{2,*}, and Pengcheng Wan¹

- 5 ¹ Early Warning and Detection Department, Air Force Engineering University, Xi'an, China.
- 6 ² FEMTO-ST, Time & Frequency department, Besançon, France.
- 7 * Correspondence: J-M. Friedt (jmfriedt@femto-st.fr)

8 Received: date; Accepted: date; Published: date

9 Abstract: A fixed-receiver mobile-transmitter passive bistatic synthetic aperture radar (MF-PB-10 SAR) system, which uses the Sentinel-1 SAR satellite as its noncooperative emitting source, has 11 been developed by using embedded software defined radio (SDR) hardware for high-resolution 12 imaging of the targets in a local area in this study. Firstly, Sentinel-1 and the designed system are 13 introduced. Then, signal model, signal pre-processing methods, and effective target imaging 14 methods are presented. At last, various experiment results of target imaging obtained at different 15 locations are shown to validate the developed system and the proposed methods. It has been 16 found that targets in a range of several kilometers can be well imaged. 17 Keywords: Passive bistatic radar; Synthetic aperture radar; High-resolution imaging; Sentinel-1;

- 18 Software defined radio.
- 19

1

Article

20 1. Introduction

21 Passive bistatic radar (PBR), which uses noncooperative emitting sources for target illumination, 22 has attracted increasing attentions in the last decades, owing to its unique remote sensing capabilities 23 [1]: 1) no need for frequency allocation; 2) no pollution to the crowded radio frequency environment; 24 3) working well without using self-designed radar transmitter; and 4) obtaining the target scattering 25 information from a particular bistatic angle. Along with its development, various applications have 26 been realized by PBR, including moving target detection and range-Doppler mapping, synthetic 27 aperture radar (SAR) imaging, air/sea target inverse SAR (ISAR) imaging, displacement estimation, 28 and coherent change detection [2-7].

29 Among these applications, passive bistatic SAR (PB-SAR) imaging has been used for providing 30 abundant information (e.g., size, shape, and scattering intensity) of stationary targets. Depending on 31 the type of emitting source, the majority of PB-SAR systems can be divided into two categories: fixed-32 transmitter mobile-receiver PB-SAR (FM-PB-SAR) and mobile-transmitter fixed-receiver bistatic PB-33 SAR (MF-PB-SAR). In FM-PB-SAR, the emitting source is stationary while the receiver is mobile to 34 get a high cross-range resolution. Different noncooperative signals with a certain bandwidth can be 35 used for FM-PB-SAR [8-11], such as broadcasting digital TV signal (either terrestrial or satellite) and 36 communication WiFi signal. If properly designed, the FM-PB-SAR systems can achieve well-focused 37 image of the targets in a local area. However, in spite of the range resolution determined by the signal 38 bandwidth, the cross-range resolution of FM-PB-SAR is closely related to the receiver motion, which 39 may be restricted in practical implementations (such as the rail length in [8] and [11]). In MF-PB-SAR, 40 the employed noncooperative source is mobile while the receiver is fixed on the ground, thus the 41 system can be more convenient to implement than FM-PB-SAR to get a high cross-range resolution 42 (if no transmitter-receiver synchronization is considered). For example, TerraSAR-X has been used 43 for MF-PB-SAR as the noncooperative emitting source in [12-13] and GNSS signal has been applied

44 for target imaging in [14-15].

45 In recent years, advanced C-band SAR satellites, Sentinel-1 A/B, launched by European Space 46 Agency (ESA) in 2014/2016, have become a burgeoning focus for MF-PB-SAR studies. For example, 47 the COBIS system is presented in [16-17], demonstrating the feasibility of Sentinel-1 signal for MF-48 PB-SAR imaging. In these works, with specially designed receiver and accessories, timing, frequency, 49 and position synchronization between satellite transmitter and ground receiver has been conducted 50 and the back projection (BP) imaging algorithm has been employed to obtain the image of targets. 51 Besides, via the Terrain Observation with Progressive Scans SAR (TOPSAR) technique, Sentinel-1 can 52 cover three different sub-swaths with a scanning beam, thus the pulse repetition intervals (PRIs) and 53 amplitudes of the received signal pulses will change in a long data-receiving period. In such a case, 54 to improve the cross-range resolution, a multiple-aperture focusing method based on the auto-55 regressive (AR) model is proposed in [18] and a compressive sensing (CS) based azimuth profile 56 reconstruction method is proposed in [19].

57 Although having been well validated, there are still some problems of current Sentinel-1 based 58 MF-PB-SAR studies: 1) the specialized and exquisite ground receiver makes the system expensive 59 and difficult to implement; 2) the requirement of exact satellite information needs accurate and 60 complicated transmitter-receiver synchronization, reducing the system flexibility; 3) existing target 61 imaging methods, such as the BP and CS based methods presented in [17] and [19], induce high 62 computational costs. Recently, software defined radio (SDR) hardware has been applied to radar 63 applications with an increasing interest, such as the multichannel digital weather radar in [20], the 64 high-range-resolution radar in [21], and the ground-based multiple-input multiple output (MIMO) 65 radar in [22], which shows a low-cost and flexible solution for MF-PB-SAR development because of 66 its reconfigurability and structural universality. Therefore, in this study, to reduce the development 67 cost and improve the system flexibility, we demonstrate the use of commercial-off-the-shelf (COTS) 68 SDR hardware to implement an MF-PB-SAR system using Sentinel-1 as its emitting source, making 69 the system handheld and deployable on remote field areas. Besides, without the requirement of exact 70 satellite information, an effective approach and its high-resolution version realized based on efficient 71 2D CS algorithm are proposed for target imaging with reduced computing complexity.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, Sentinel-1 and the designed MF-PB-SAR system are introduced. In Section 3, signal model, signal pre-processing methods, and target imaging methods are presented. In Section 4, various experiment results of target imaging at different locations are presented to show the effectiveness of the developed system and the proposed methods. Finally, Section 5 concludes this paper.

77 2. Sentinel-1 and system overview

78 Sentinel-1 is a set of two SAR satellites at an altitude of 693 km launched by ESA to provide 79 continuous, all-weather, and day-and-night imagery of the Earth surface at C-band. Its resolution, 80 area coverage, and revisit time are more advanced than some others, such as ERS-1/2 and ENVISAT 81 ASAR. The satellites are in a near-polar and sun-synchronous orbit, sharing the same orbit plane with 82 a 180° orbital phasing difference. The repeat cycle of each satellite is 12-day, so the maximal repeat 83 cycle at the equator is 6 days and the revisit rate is greater at higher latitudes, e.g., the Sentinel-1 A/B 84 can be observed at least every three days above 45°N latitude and twice each day at Arctic latitudes. 85 As opposed to dedicated observations as planned for RADARSat or TerraSAR, the continuous 86 monitoring of the Earth by Sentinel-1 allows for accurately predicting its flight time from its orbit 87 period and the observations published on the ESA Copernicus web site [23] with a sub-minute 88 resolution. Knowing the ground station location, its flight geometry can be collected from orbital 89 parameter computation, in our case obtained from the Heavens Above web site [24].

To get a large swath width and a moderate resolution at the same time, the interferometric wide swath (IW) mode is used as the default data acquisition mode of Sentinel-1 when scanning the land by using the TOPSAR technique. In IW mode, the satellite transmitted signal is a set of chirp pulses with three different PRIs corresponding to three overlapped sub-swaths on the land, as shown in Fig. I. In such a case, since the satellite moves and periodically steers its antenna beam from sub-swath 1 to sub-swath 3, the PRI and amplitude of the IW signal received by a directional antenna fixed on the

- 96 ground will change along with time, as shown in Fig. 2. It can be seen that three IW signals have 97 different PRIs, i.e., 582.37 μ s (IW 1), 688.88 μ s (IW 2), and, 593.18 μ s (IW 3), as identified from the 98 signal autocorrelation or decoding the level-0 raw data provided by ESA on the Copernicus web site. 99 Futhermore, due to the gains of the satellite antenna and the ground receiving antenna, the ampliudes 100 of different IW signals change greatly and the signal to noise ratio (SNR) is relatively low in some 101 parts. Over sea or remote areas, such as the North Pole, larger swath width and lower resolution in 102 the so-called Extra Wide (EW) measurement mode will be used by Sentinel-1 with different PRIs from 103 the IW measurement mode. The developed system can receive either IW or EW signal by simply 104 changing its corresponding software parameters, making the implementation of the system feasible
- 105 over most ground covered areas of the Earth.
- 106



- 108 Fig. 1. The scanning process in the IW mode of Sentinel-1 using the TOPSAR technology, where each 109 sub-swath corresponds to individual IW signal, designated by IW 1, IW 2, and IW 3.
- 110



111

Fig. 2. The Sentinel-1 signal received by a directional antenna fixed on the ground: three differentPRIs and amplitude differences of these IW signals can be observed.

114

The center frequency and bandwidth of the Sentinel-1 signal are 5.405 GHz, corresponding to a wavelength of about 5.55 cm, and up to 100 MHz programmable, respectively. In this study, the bandwidth of the system received signal is limited by the adopted SDR receiver. Considering highprecision data acquisition and transmission in the dual channels of the SDR receiver, the upper signal bandwidth is 30 MHz, providing a bistatic range resolution of 10 m, as shown in Fig. 3, where Fig. 3 (a) shows the real part of a received IW 3 signal pulse and Fig. 3 (b) shows its corresponding range ambiguity function.

As shown in Fig. 4, the SDR implemented MF-PB-SAR system is mainly composed by two helical antennas (one is used for directly receiving the Sentinel-1 signal, acting as the reference, and another is used for receiving the target reflections in the observed scene, named as surveillance), a SDR receiver (Ettus B210), a single board Raspberry Pi 4 (RPi 4) used to collect and store the data, and a

- 126 host computer for signal processing and result displaying. Detailed information of these components
- 127 is given as follows.
- 128



131 Fig. 3. (a) Real part of a received signal pulse (IW 3) and (b) its range ambiguity function, showing a bistatic range resolution of 10 m with the SDR receiver setup limited to a 30 MHz bandwidth.



130



134

135 Fig. 4. The general structure of the developed MF-PB-SAR system, including one SDR receiver (Ettus 136 B210), a host computer, a RPi 4, and two antennas (reference and surveillance antennas).

137

138 (1) Antennas. The helical antennas are designed according to [25] by winding 4 turns of 139 enameled copper wire around a 15 mm hollow teflon tube, providing a frequency band from 4.8 to 140 8.5 GHz, including the Sentinel-1 signal band. The low antenna gain design of 5 dB is selected for a 141 wide beam to observe a broad imaging scene. The reference antenna is set at an angle matching the 142 satellite elevation during its pass and the surveillance antenna is set pointing to the targets in the 143 observation scene.

144 (2) SDR Receiver. The 70 MHz-6 GHz COTS Ettus B210 dual channel SDR hardware is chosen 145 as the receiver of the developed MF-PB-SAR system due to its high performance and low cost. Two 146 receiving channels share a local oscillator (LO), setting as 5405 MHz, and the parameters (e.g., gain 147 and offset) of each channel are adjusted according to the practical condition. As mentioned above, 148 the data sampling frequency of Ettus B210 is set as 30 MS/s considering the dual channel high-149 precision data acquisition and transmission.

150 (3) RPi 4: The single board computer RPi 4 fitted with a USB 3.0 port collects the data from the 151 B210 and stores them in its RAM. Data collection duration and communication speed are maximized 152 by reducing the sample resolution to a single byte/sample. Hence, at a rate of 30 MS/s, the complex

153 dual channel sample will require 7.2 GB/minute. The 8 GB RAM version of the RPi4 can hence hold 154 1-minute worth of data or twice the pass duration of the satellite, allowing sample flexibility in data 155 acquisition starting time.

156 (4) Host computer: Once the 7.2 GB of data have been collected in RPi 4, they are transferred to 157 the host computer. Signal pre-process and process, as will be introduced in the next Section, will be 158 then conducted and the target imaging results will be finally displayed.

159 The overall working flow of the developed MF-PB-SAR system can be summarized as:

160 1) The reference antenna orientation is set to ensure maximum reception of the direct satellite 161 signal on the foundation of its relative position to Sentinel 1, where the scheduled pass geometry of 162 the satellite is queried in public information, such as the Heavens Above web site. The surveillance 163 antenna is set to face the targets, and, to reduce the direct-path interference (DPI) in the surveillance 164 channel, it is placed properly to make the satellite within its side lobe during the measurement.

- 165 2) The time window for data acquisition is determined from past datasets made available on the 166 ESA Copernicus web site, whose file name includes the beginning and ending of the data sampling 167 with one second resolution. While a horizon-to-horizon satellite pass lasts 9 minutes, a given area is 168 only illuminated for a few seconds. As introduced before, the satellite repeats its pattern over a period 169 of 12 days. By searching the pattern over the scheduled site in the previous public raw data, the future 170 accurate acquisition time within several seconds can be determined.
- 171 3) The signal of two channels will be collected and converted into complex format by Ettus B210 172 and transmitted to RPi 4. RPi 4 stores the data in its RAM and later transfer them to the host computer, 173 which will finally analyze and process the data by the proposed methods.
- 174 With a current consumption of 1.55 A at 5 V supply when running at full speed in performance 175 mode (1.5 GHz) as needed to collect and store the data, the setup will allow for collecting up to 85 176 datasets autonomously on a single 2200 mAh battery pack as used in the system.
- 177 3. Signal model and processing methods

178 3.1. Signal modeling and pre-processing

179 In this sub-Section, the signal modeling and pre-processing methods for the developed MF-PB-180 SAR system are presented.

181 Firstly, assume the signals received by the reference and surveillance antennas (as shown in Fig. 182 4) are defined as reference signal and surveillance signal and expressed as $s_{ref}(n)$ and $s_{sur}(n)$ in the 183 discrete time domain, respectively. Here, $n = f_s t$, t denotes time, and f_s denotes the system sampling 184 frequency. Since the SNR of the received signals will change along with time, the first signal pre-185 processing step we conducted is to select a specific IW (EW) signal fragment and then determine its 186 corresponding PRI for the following process. Here, we select the IW (EW) signal fragment sampled 187 when the satellite just flies above and its beam just steers to the experiment site. As shown in Fig. 2, 188 the corresponding IW (EW) signal fragment can be selected according to the amplitude of the 189 received reference signal. If the satellite is above the experiment site, the SNR of the reference signal 190 will be the high. Thus, given an amplitude threshold χ , set according to practical conditions, the 191 starting and ending points of the selected IW (EW) signal fragment can be obtained as n_s and n_e 192 with $s_{ref}(n_s) \ge \chi$ and $s_{ref}(n_e) \ge \chi$. We note that, out of the collected data samples, the selected signal 193

fragment will last typically a few hundred milliseconds at most.

194 For the selected signal fragment, a 2D reference signal matrix can be formed by 195

$$\boldsymbol{S}_{ref} = [\boldsymbol{s}_{ref}^1, \boldsymbol{s}_{ref}^2, ..., \boldsymbol{s}_{ref}^P] \in C^{N_r \times P}$$
(1)

196 where N_r denotes the number of selected sampling points in each pulse, determining the system

197 maximal detection range, P denotes the number of selected pulses, determined by n_s and n_e as 198 $P = \lfloor (n_e - n_s) / N_0 \rfloor$, and $s_{ref}^p (p = 1, 2, ..., P)$ can be expressed as

199
$$\boldsymbol{s}_{ref}^{p} = [\boldsymbol{s}_{ref} (n_s + (p-1)N_0), \boldsymbol{s}_{ref} (n_s + (p-1)N_0 + 1), \dots, \boldsymbol{s}_{ref} (n_s + (p-1)N_0 + N_r - 1)]^{\mathrm{T}} \in C^{N_r \times 1}$$
(2)

200 with $(\cdot)^{T}$ as matrix transpose, $N_0 = \lfloor f_s T \rfloor \ge N_r$ as the number of sampling points corresponding to 201 the PRI *T*, depended on the IW or EW, and $|\cdot|$ as the floor function.

202 Only when the correct PRI is adopted for the selected signal fragment, the signal matrix in (1) 203 can be used for following process. Besides, to ensure the signal matrix in (1) contains all samples of 204 each IW (EW) signal pulse, the starting and ending points n_s and n_e should be fine-tuned after the 205 initial detection. For example, for the reference signal shown in Fig. 2 with an amplitude threshold of 206 $\chi = 60$, the obtained signal matrix is presented in Fig. 5 with the number of sampling points in each 207 pulse as $N_r = 2401$, corresponding to a maximal detection range of 24 km given $f_s = 30$ MS/s. It can 208 be seen from Fig. 5 that the IW 3 signal fragment with a PRI of 593.18 μs is selected with P = 251209 pulses, and, in order to contain all the samples of each pulse, some reserved sample points are 210 included at the beginning of each pulse. If an incorrect PRI is used, the signal matrix will not be well 211 aligned, as shown in Fig. 5 (b) and (c).

212

213 214

215

216

217 218 219

221



Fig. 5. The obtained 2D reference signal matrices with (a) PRI = 593.18 μ s (IW 3), (b) PRI = 582.37 μ s (IW 1), and (c) PRI = 688.88 μ s (IW 2).

Similarly, a 2D surveillance signal matrix can also be generated, expressed as
$$S_{sur} = [s_{sur}^1, s_{sur}^2, ..., s_{sur}^P] \in C^{N_r \times P}$$
(3)

220 where

$$\boldsymbol{s}_{sur}^{p} = [\boldsymbol{s}_{sur}(n_{s} + (p-1)N_{0}), \boldsymbol{s}_{sur}(n_{s} + (p-1)N_{0} + 1), \dots, \boldsymbol{s}_{sur}(n_{s} + (p-1)N_{0} + N_{r} - 1)]^{\mathrm{T}} \in C^{N_{r} \times 1}$$
(4)

In this study, as shown in Fig. 6, we assume the ground target is located at (x, y) with the height of 0, the reference and surveillance antennas are collocated at (0,0,0), and, the satellite is at $(-H \cot \varphi, y_{sat}^p, H)$ with *H* as its height (693 km) and φ as its incident angle (depending on the satellite beam) for the *p*-th pulse in the selected IW (EW) signal fragment (i.e., the *p*-th columns in (1) and (3)). To make it simple, we assume the satellite moves horizontally during the short data acquisition period, i.e., the satellite moves along the *y* axis, as indicated by the red dotted line in Fig. 6.

228 For imaging process, a plane (i.e., α - σ - β) is formed by the satellite moving trajectory and the 229 antenna position, as indicated by the yellow plane in Fig. 6. On the α - σ - β plane, the antennas are at 230 (0,0), the target is at (α,β) , and the satellite position corresponding to the *p*-th signal pulse is 231 $(\alpha_{sat}^p, \beta_{sat})$ with $\alpha_{sat}^p = y_{sat}^p$ and $\beta_{sat} = -H / \sin \varphi$, where $\alpha_{sat}^p = \alpha_{sat}^c + [p - 1 - (P - 1)/2]d$, d = vT, and 232 v denotes the linear speed of the satellite, which is estimated to be 7.49 km/s based on the satellite 233 altitude and the orbit period. Since the SNR of the reference signal will be the highest when the 234 satellite is just above the antennas, the center satellite position will be the same with the antenna, i.e., 235 $\alpha_{sat}^{c} = 0$, if the IW (EW) signal fragment is ideally selected.

Assuming the satellite transmitted signal at the *p*-th pulse in the selected IW (EW) signal fragment is $g_0^p(\tau)$ in the continuous time domain with $\tau \in [0,T]$, the received signals by the reference and surveillance antennas can be expressed as

239
$$g_{ref}^{p}(\tau) = A^{p}g_{0}^{p}(\tau - \tau_{ref}^{p}), \quad g_{sur}^{p}(\tau) = \sigma(\alpha, \beta)g_{0}^{p}[\tau - \tau_{sur}^{p}(\alpha, \beta) - \tau_{sur}(\alpha, \beta)] + g_{dpi}^{p}(\tau)$$
(5)

- 240 where A^p denotes the amplitude of the reference signal in the *p*-th pulse, affected by the gains of 241 satellite and reference antennas, $\sigma(\alpha, \beta)$ denotes the target reflection coefficient, $g^p_{dni}(\tau)$ denotes
- the DPI signal (i.e., the satellite signal received directly by the surveillance antenna), and
- 243 $\tau_{p}^{p} = \sqrt{(\alpha_{p}^{p})^{2} + \beta_{p}^{2}}/c, \ \tau_{p}(\alpha,\beta) = \sqrt{\alpha_{p}^{2} + \beta_{p}^{2}}/c, \ \tau_{p}(\alpha,\beta) = \sqrt{(\alpha_{p}^{p})^{2} + (\beta_{p}^{2} \beta_{p}^{2})^{2}}/c$

$$\tau_{ref}^{p} = \sqrt{(\alpha_{sat}^{p})^{2} + \beta_{sat}^{2}} / c, \ \tau_{sur}(\alpha, \beta) = \sqrt{\alpha^{2} + \beta^{2}} / c, \ \tau_{sat}^{p}(\alpha, \beta) = \sqrt{(\alpha_{sat}^{p} - \alpha)^{2} + (\beta_{sat} - \beta)^{2}} / c \tag{6}$$

244 denote the delays from the satellite to the reference antenna, from the target to the surveillance 245 antenna, and from the satellite to the target, with *c* as the speed of light.

Based on (5) and according to the signal matrix formation procedure, the n_r -th ($n_r = 1, 2, ..., N_r$) elements of s_{ref}^p and s_{sur}^p can be expressed as

248
$$s_{ref}^{p}(n_{r}) = g_{ref}^{p} \{ \tau = (n_{r} - 1 - n^{p}) / f_{s} + \tau_{ref}^{p} \}, \ s_{sur}^{p}(n_{r}) = g_{sur}^{p} \{ \tau = (n_{r} - 1 - n^{p}) / f_{s} + \tau_{ref}^{p} \}$$
(7)

- 249 where n^{p} denotes the number of reserved sampling points as shown in Fig. 5 (a).
- 250



251 252

Fig. 6. Imaging geometry of the developed SDR MF-PB-SAR system with the satellite height H = 693km and the incident angle φ of the satellite obtained from the Heavens Above web site. The target in the *x-o-y* plane has been projected on the α - σ - β plane for imaging process.

In practice, the DPI component is always much stronger than the target reflections and thus may make some targets undetectable in the imaging result. To solve this problem, the second signal preprocessing step we conducted is to suppress the DPI while keeping the target reflections. In this study, the LS-based method [11] is used to do so, giving

260

263

265

$$\boldsymbol{s}_{sur}^{p} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{s}_{sur}^{p} - \boldsymbol{U}_{p} (\boldsymbol{U}_{p}^{H} \boldsymbol{U}_{p})^{-1} \boldsymbol{U}_{p}^{H} \boldsymbol{s}_{sur}^{p}$$

$$\tag{8}$$

- 261 where $(\cdot)^{\text{H}}$ denotes conjugate transpose, $(\cdot)^{-1}$ denotes matrix inverse, and U_p is constructed by the 262 delayed copies of s_{ref}^p , expressed as
 - $\boldsymbol{U}_{p} = [\boldsymbol{u}_{p}^{1}, \boldsymbol{u}_{p}^{2}, ..., \boldsymbol{u}_{p}^{L}] \in \boldsymbol{C}^{N_{r} \times L}$ $\tag{9}$

264 where

$$\boldsymbol{u}_{p}^{l} = [s_{ref}(n_{s} + (p-1)N_{0} - l), s_{ref}(n_{s} + (p-1)N_{0} + 1 - l), \dots, s_{ref}(n_{s} + (p-1)N_{0} + N_{r} - 1 - l)]^{\mathrm{T}} \in C^{N_{r} \times 1}$$
(10)

with l = 1, 2, ..., L as the discrete time delays used to properly model the DPI.

Furthermore, in order to reduce the influence of amplitude difference of the signals in different pulses on target imaging, the last signal pre-processing we conducted in this study is to proportionally estimate $A = [A^1, A^2, ..., A^P] \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times P}$, based on which the received reference signals will be compensated. It should be noted that, because the target reflection signals are much smaller and

272 not be compensated in order to avoid increasing the noise level. 273 To proportionally estimate A, the amplitude maximum of the reference signal in each pulse is 274 calculated firstly to get $|S_{ref}|_{\max} = [|s_{ref}^1|_{\max}, |s_{ref}^2|_{\max}, ..., |s_{ref}^P|_{\max}] \in R^{1 \times P}$ 275 (11)Then, a cubic polynomial curve fitting method is used to get the estimation of A^{p} , expressed as 276 $|\mathbf{S}_{ref}|_{\max}(p) \simeq \sum_{i=1}^{3} a_i p^i \rightarrow \mathbf{A}^p = \sum_{i=1}^{3} a_i p^i$ 277 (12)At last, the received reference signals can be compensated by 278 $\boldsymbol{S}_{ref} \leftarrow [\boldsymbol{s}_{ref}^1 / \boldsymbol{A}^1, \boldsymbol{s}_{ref}^2 / \boldsymbol{A}^2, ..., \boldsymbol{s}_{ref}^P / \boldsymbol{A}^P]$ 279 (13)280 Based on (8) and (13), 2D reference and surveillance signal matrices can be obtained, establishing 281 the signal model used in this study and laying the foundation for the following imaging process. 282 3.2. Effective imaging methods 283 In this sub-Section, effective target imaging methods are proposed for the developed system. 284 Firstly, for the *p*-th pulse of the obtained signal matrices, the reference and surveillance signal vectors 285 s_{ref}^{p} and s_{sur}^{p} are transformed to the discrete frequency domain, giving $\left(s_{ref}^{p}(f_{n_{r}}) = G_{0}^{p}(f_{n_{r}}) \exp(-j2\pi f_{n_{r}}n^{p}/f_{s})\right)$ 286 (14) $\left\{s_{sur}^{p}(f_{n_{r}}) = \sigma(\alpha,\beta)G_{0}^{p}(f_{n_{r}})\exp(-j2\pi f_{n_{r}}n^{p}/f_{s})\exp\{j2\pi f_{n_{r}}[\tau_{ref}^{p}-\tau_{sar}^{p}(\alpha,\beta)-\tau_{sur}(\alpha,\beta)]\}\right\}$ where $f_{n_r} = f_c + [n_r - 1 - (N_r - 1)/2]f_s / N_r$ denotes the n_r -th frequency $(n_r = 1, 2, ..., N_r)$, f_c denotes 287 288 the center frequency, and $G_0^p(f_{n_r})$ denotes the spectrum of the transmitted signal $g_0^p(\tau)$. 289 Then, a signal vector in the discrete frequency domain can be obtained by combing the reference 290 and surveillance vectors, as 291 $s^{p}(f_{n}) = s^{p}_{sur}(f_{n})[s^{p}_{ref}(f_{n})]^{*} = \sigma(\alpha,\beta)\exp\{-j2\pi f_{n}[\tau^{p}_{sur}(\alpha,\beta) - \tau^{p}_{ref} + \tau_{sur}(\alpha,\beta)]\}$ (15)292 where $[\cdot]^*$ denotes conjugate and, since the signal spectrum $G_0^p(f_{n_r})$ is flat, we set $|G_0^p(f_{n_r})|^2 = 1$ 293 for simplification in (15). 294 As the satellite is far from the antennas and the targets, the following approximations can be 295 used based on the second-order Taylor expansions $\tau_{ref}^{p} \simeq \left[-\beta_{sat} - (\alpha_{sat}^{p})^{2} / (2\beta_{sat})\right] / c, \quad \tau_{sat}^{p}(\alpha,\beta) \simeq \left[(\beta - \beta_{sat}) - (\alpha_{sat}^{p} - \alpha)^{2} / (2\beta_{sat} - 2\beta)\right] / c$ 296 (16)297 and thus $\tau_{sat}^{p}(\alpha,\beta) - \tau_{ref}^{p} \simeq \left[\beta + (\alpha_{sat}^{p}\alpha - \alpha^{2}/2)/(\beta_{sat} - \beta)\right]/c$ 298 (17)299 where the term related to the square of α_{sat}^{p} is ignored considering it is relatively much smaller. 300 According to (17), the signal vector given in (15) can be approximated by $s^{p}(f_{n_{-}}) \simeq \sigma(\alpha, \beta) \exp[-j2\pi f_{n_{r}}(\beta_{I} / c + \alpha_{sat}^{p}\alpha_{I} / c)]$ 301 (18)302 where $\beta_I = (\alpha^2 + \beta^2)^{1/2} + \beta - \alpha^2 / (\beta_{sat} - \beta) / 2$ and $\alpha_I = \alpha / (\beta_{sat} - \beta)$. 303 Furthermore, as the signal bandwidth is much smaller than the signal center frequency, the 304 following approximation can be used 305 $\exp\{-j2\pi f_{n_r}\alpha_{sat}^p\alpha/c\} \simeq \exp\{-j2\pi\alpha_{sat}^p\alpha_I/\lambda_c\}$ (19)306 where λ_c denotes the signal wavelength corresponding to the center frequency f_c . 307 Therefore, (18) can be approximated by 308 $s^{p}(f_{n_{r}}) \simeq \sigma(\alpha, \beta) \exp[-j2\pi f_{n_{r}}\beta_{I}/c] \exp[-j2\pi \alpha_{sat}^{p}\alpha_{I}/\lambda_{c}]$ (20)309 For a local imaging scene, the phase difference between (20) and (15) is always small. For example, 310 given $\beta_{sat} = -1000 \text{ km}$, satellite moving length as 1350 m (corresponding to P = 301 and d = 4.5 m, 311 longer than those used in the field experiments), center satellite position as $\alpha_{sat}^{c} = 0$, and an imaging 312 scene with $\alpha \in [-5 \text{ km}, 5 \text{ km}]$ and $\beta \in [0, 10 \text{ km}]$, which is the maximal imaging size in the various 313 experiments conducted in different locations by the developed system, the maximal phase difference

thus more affected by noise, amplitude differences of the surveillance signals in different pulses will

- 314 between (20) and (15) for all satellite positions and all frequencies of different targets in the imaging
- 315 scene is shown in Fig. 7 (a). Besides, as the center satellite position will deviate from 0 if the IW (EW) 316 signal fragment is not ideally selected, Fig. 7 (b) shows the maximal phase difference between (20) and
- 317 (15) of all the targets in the imaging scene with respect to $\alpha_{sat}^c \in [-100 \text{ } m, 100 \text{ } m]$. It can be learned from
- 318 Fig. 7 that, for the given parameters, the phase difference between (20) and (15) is always smaller than
- 319
- $\pi/2$, verifying the feasibility of applying (20) for the following target imaging process [26-27].
- 320

330



323 Fig. 7. (a) Maximal phase difference for all satellite positions and all frequencies of different targets in 324 the imaging scene with the satellite center position as 0 and (b) maximal phase difference of the 325 imaging scene with different satellite center positions. 326

327 It can be observed from (20) that its exponential terms form the kernels of a 2D Fourier transform 328 (FT) with respect to α_1 and β_1 . Therefore, 2D inverse fast FT (IFFT) can be used to get a focused 329 image as

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{IR} = \boldsymbol{F}_1^H \boldsymbol{S} \boldsymbol{F}_2^* \in \boldsymbol{C}^{O \times L} \tag{21}$$

331 where
$$S = [s^1, s^2, ..., s^P] \in C^{N_r \times P}$$
, $F_1 \in C^{N_r \times O}$ and $F_2 \in C^{P \times L}$ denote the FT matrices, given by

332
$$\boldsymbol{F}_{1} = \exp[-j2\pi \boldsymbol{f}_{r}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{l}^{\mathrm{T}}/c], \quad \boldsymbol{F}_{2} = \exp[-j2\pi \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{sat}\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{l}^{\mathrm{T}}/\lambda_{c}]$$
(22)

with $\boldsymbol{f}_r = [f_1, f_2, ..., f_{N_r}]^{\mathrm{T}} - f_c$, $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{sat} = [\alpha_{sat}^1, \alpha_{sat}^2, ..., \alpha_{sat}^P]^{\mathrm{T}} - \alpha_{sat}^c$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}_I \in R^{1 \times O}$ and $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_I \in C^{1 \times L}$ set according 333 334 to the imaging scene size.

335 Based on (20), it can be derived that the [o, l]-th element of Σ_{LR} can be expressed as

336
$$\Sigma_{LR}(\beta_I^o, \alpha_I^l) = \sigma(\alpha, \beta) e^{-j2\pi(\beta_I - \beta_I^o)/\lambda_c} e^{-j2\pi\alpha_{sar}^c(\alpha_I - \alpha_I^l)/\lambda_c} \operatorname{sinc}[B_r(\beta_I - \beta_I^o)/c] \operatorname{sinc}[B_a(\alpha_I - \alpha_I^l)/\lambda_c]$$
(23)

337 where $B_r = f_s$ and $B_a = Pd$ denotes the signal bandwidth in the β_1 and α_1 directions, respectively.

338 By formulating the imaging process as Fourier transform, the computational cost can be much 339 reduced compared to the typical BP algorithm and no exact satellite information is needed. However, 340 in spite of its efficiency, the imaging process based 2D IFFT has the same problem with the BP 341 algorithm, i.e., the imaging resolution is limited and high-level imaging sidelobes will be generated. 342 To suppress sidelobes and improve resolution, a CS based imaging method is proposed by exploiting 343 the sparsity of the scene [28-29]. For the proposed method, the following minimization problem is 344 established to achieve a high-resolution target image

 $\boldsymbol{\varSigma}_{\scriptscriptstyle HR} \leftarrow \min_{\boldsymbol{\varSigma}} \frac{1}{2} \parallel \boldsymbol{S} - \boldsymbol{F}_{1} \boldsymbol{\varSigma} \boldsymbol{F}_{2}^{\mathrm{T}} \parallel_{F}^{2} + \boldsymbol{\xi} \parallel \boldsymbol{\varSigma} \parallel_{1}$ 345 (24)

346 where $\|\cdot\|_{F}$ denotes the Frobenius norm, $\|\cdot\|_{L^{1}}$ denotes the L_{1} norm, representing the sparsity of Σ , 347 and ξ denotes the regularization parameter.

348 An effective way to solve (24) is to use the 2D fast iterative soft thresholding algorithm (FISTA) 349 [30], whose [k+1]-th iteration can be expressed as

350
$$\begin{cases} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k+1} = \operatorname{soft} \left[\boldsymbol{Z}_{k} + \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{F}_{1}^{\mathrm{H}} (\boldsymbol{S} - \boldsymbol{F}_{1} \boldsymbol{Z}_{k} \boldsymbol{F}_{2}^{\mathrm{T}}) \boldsymbol{F}_{2}^{*}, \boldsymbol{\theta} \right] \\ \boldsymbol{\eta}_{k+1} = (1 + \sqrt{1 + 4 \boldsymbol{\eta}_{k}^{2}})/2 \\ \boldsymbol{Z}_{k+1} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k+1} + (\boldsymbol{\eta}_{k} - 1)(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k+1} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{k})/\boldsymbol{\eta}_{k+1} \end{cases}$$
(25)

351 where soft $[x,\theta] = x/|x| \max(|x|-\theta,0)$ denotes the soft thresholding function with θ as the 352 threshold, η_{k+1} denotes a variable, and $\mu \in (0,1/||F_1||_F^2 ||F_2||_F^2)$ denotes the step size.

- In summary, the high-resolution imaging method based on 2D FISTA for the developed SDR MF-PB-SAR system is shown in Table I.
- 355 356

Table I. Procedure of the proposed high-resolution imaging method based on 2D FISTA

Input: S, F_1 , F_2 , μ , θ , the maximal iteration number K, and the stop parameter ς . Initial: $\Sigma_0 = 0$, $Z_0 = 0$, and $\eta_0 = 1$. for k = 0 to K - 1 do $J_k = F_1^{\text{H}}(S - F_1Z_kF_2^{\text{T}})F_2^{*}$; $\Sigma_{k+1} = \text{soft} [Z_k + \mu J_k, \theta]$; $\eta_{k+1} = (1 + \sqrt{1 + 4\eta_k^2})/2$; $Z_{k+1} = \Sigma_{k+1} + (\eta_k - 1)(\Sigma_{k+1} - \Sigma_k)/\eta_{k+1}$; if $||\Sigma_{k+1} - \Sigma_k||_F / ||\Sigma_k||_F < \varsigma$ then $K_0 = k + 1$; stop iteration. end if end for Return: $\Sigma_{HR} = \Sigma_K$ or $\Sigma_{HR} = \Sigma_{K_0}$.

357

367

Based on Σ_{LR} or Σ_{HR} , the reflection coefficient of the target at (α, β) can be obtained by the interpolation process, expressed as

360
$$\sigma(\alpha,\beta) = \Sigma[\alpha/(\beta_{sat}-\beta), (\alpha^2+\beta^2)^{1/2}+\beta-\alpha^2/(\beta_{sat}-\beta)/2]$$
(26)

361 which forms the imaging method on the α - σ - β plane.

362 At last, in order to achieve the target image on the *x*-*o*-*y* plane, the following approximated 363 relationships of (x, y) and (α, β) are applied in this study

364
$$\alpha = y, \quad \tau_{sat}^{z}(\alpha, \beta) + \tau_{sur}(\alpha, \beta) = \tau_{sat}^{z}(x, y) + \tau_{sur}(x, y)$$
(27)

where the superscript 'z' denotes that the satellite is at the position with $\alpha_{sat} = y_{sat} = 0$, based on which the second equation in (27) can be simplified to

$$\sqrt{y^2 + (H/\sin\varphi + \beta)^2} + \sqrt{y^2 + \beta^2} = \sqrt{(H\cot\varphi + x)^2 + y^2 + H^2} + \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$
(28)

368 Therefore, given the target at (x, y) on the ground, its corresponding point (α, β) on the α -o- β plane 369 can be obtained based on the first equation in (27) and the solution of (28), providing the image on 370 the *x*-o-*y* plane achieved by interpolation according to the process in (26).

371 4. Experiment results

Thanks to the transportable capability of the developed SDR MF-PB-SAR system, various experiments were conducted at different locations. In this Section, some imaging results are presented to validate the system and the proposed methods.

The first experiment we conducted is at a mountainous area in Besançon, France, as shown in Fig. 8, where the aerial picture of the scene is also shown as the reference for imaging, provided by OpenStreetMap. The observation is during the ascending pass of Sentinel-1 so that the scene is illuminated from the West and the surveillance antenna is oriented to the East to collect the signals reflected by the targets. Here, the IW 3 signal is selected and processed, where the incident angle is set as $\varphi = 43^\circ$ and all other parameters are the same as Fig. 5 (a), i.e., $\chi = 60$, $N_r = 2401$, P = 251, and T 381 = 593.18 μ s. It should be noted that the dataset used to draw Figs. 2, 3, and 5 are obtained by this 382 experiment.

The imaging results with respect to α_1 and β_1 obtained by 2D IFFT based method and 2D FISTA based method are shown in Fig. 9 with a 40 dB dynamic range. It can be seen that both methods can achieve well-focused images of the scene and display some clear features, while the sparsity-based method enjoys higher imaging resolution and low sidelobe level, which is more clearly shown in Fig. 10. In Fig. 10, two cuts along the abscissa of Fig. 8 (a) and (b) for an ordinate with two isolated targets are compared, demonstrating the sidelobe reduction and resolution improvement achieved by the

- 389 2D FISTA based imaging method.
- 390

391 392



Fig. 8. (a) Setup of the experiment conducted in Besançon, France at the Fort Chaudanne location and
(b) the aerial picture of the observed scene with the experiment site indicated by the red nail.



396 397

Fig. 9. Imaging results of the mountainous area in Besançon obtained by (a) 2D IFFT and (b) 2D FISTA,







- 402 (a) and (b) for an ordinate with two isolated targets.
- 403

404 To show the functions of DPI suppression as that in (8) and amplitude compensation as that in 405 (13), the imaging results obtained by 2D IFFT without DPI suppression and by 2D FISTA without 406 amplitude compensation are shown in Fig. 11. It can be observed by comparing Fig. 9 (a) and Fig. 11 407 (a) that the DPI has negative influence on target imaging. As indicated by the red rectangle in Fig. 11 408 (a), some artifacts will be generated by the DPI. It can also be observed by comparing Fig. 9 (b) and 409 Fig. 11 (b) that, as the signal obtained without amplitude compensation is not exactly consistent with 410 the model established in (20), although the influence is not obvious, the imaging result has more 411 artifacts than that obtained with amplitude compensation.

412 Based on the image obtained by 2D FISTA as shown in Fig. 9 (b), the MF-PB-SAR images on the 413 α - σ - β plane (the scene size is included in Fig. 7 (a), hence the feasibility of signal approximations) and 414 on *x-o-y* plane are obtained by solving (26) and using the linear interpolation method, as shown in 415 Fig. 12. It can be observed that the abscissa/ordinate of Fig. 12 are magnified/minified as compared 416 to Fig. 9 (b), matching the ground scale of the actual scene. To assess the imaging performance, the 417 obtained MF-PB-SAR image on the *x-o-y* plane is overlaid above the aerial picture and the digital 418 elevation model (DEM), as illuminated in Fig. 13, where the abscissa of the obtained image is rotated 419 to be parallel to the satellite flight path. It can be seen that the obtained image matches well with the 420 real scene: the mountains, man-made structures in the rive shores (as indicated by rectangles), and 421 cliff (as indicated by the arrow) can be identified.

422





426

427

Fig. 11. Imaging results of the mountainous area in Besançon obtained by (a) 2D IFFT without DPI suppression as that in (8) and (b) 2D FISTA without amplitude compensation as that in (13).



430 Fig. 12. MF-PB-SAR images of the mountainous area in Besançon on (a) the α -o- β plane and (b) the *x*-431 *o*-*y* plane, obtained by the linear interpolation process.

432

428



(a) (b)
Fig. 13. MF-PB-SAR image of the mountainous area in Besançon during an ascending pass with the satellite beam facing East, overlaid with (a) the aerial picture provided by OpenStreetMap and (b) the digital elevation model (DEM).

The second experiment we conducted is at an urban area in Paris, France, as shown in Fig. 14. This aera contains abundant targets, e.g., building, street, and park, for imaging and the landmark of Paris, Eiffel Tower, is about 5.73 km from the experiment site, as indicated by the red star in Fig. 14 (b). During the measurement, the ascending pass of Sentinel-1 illuminates the city from the West, so that the surveillance antenna is facing Eastward. The IW-2 signal is selected here and the processing parameters are: $\varphi = 52^{\circ}$, $\chi = 60$, $N_r = 2401$, P = 275, and $T = 688.88 \ \mu s$ (i.e., the IW 2 signal fragment is selected in this experiment).





Figure 15 (a) and (b) show the imaging results obtained by 2D FISTA on the α -o- β plane (the scene size is still included in Fig. 7) and the *x*-o-*y* plane, respectively. It can be seen that the images are well focused and different ground features can be easily observed. By overlaying the MF-PB-SAR image on the *x*-o-*y* plane with the aerial picture provided by OpenStreetMap, as shown in Fig. 16, the imaging result can be verified: long street (indicated by the rectangle), tall buildings (indicated by the circles), river-shore man-made structure, park (indicated by the polygon), and the Eiffel Tower match well with the actual scene.

459



462 Fig. 15. MF-PB-SAR images of the urban area in Paris (a) on the α -o- β plane and (b) on the *x*-o-*y* plane, 463 obtained by the 2D FISTA based imaging method.

464



465
466
467
467
467

The third experiment we conducted is at Spitsbergen, Norway, close to the North Pole, as shown in Fig. 17. Different from previous two experiments, EW illumination signal with a PRI of T = 613.25 μs are sampled and used for target imaging in this case. Other processing parameters are: $\varphi = 45^\circ$, χ 471 = 60, $N_r = 3201$ (to achieve a longer detection range than $N_r = 2401$), and P = 201. Besides, to verify the stability and repeatability of the developed system, two datasets were sampled with an interval of 12 days (i.e., the period of the satellite) at Sept. 22 and Oct. 4, 2021.

474 The imaging results at two different dates obtained by the 2D FISTA based imaging method on 475 the α -o- β plane (the scene size is still included in Fig. 7) and the *x*-o-y plane are shown in Fig. 18. It 476 can be seen that multiple snow mountains can be well imaged and the imaging results correspond to 477 two different dates are similar to each other, demonstrating the stability of the developed system. Fig. 478 19 shows the overlay between the MF-PB-SAR image (colorful) and the SAR image (grey) generated 479 by Sentinel1 during a pass at Oct. 3. It can be learned that the match is reasonable and the obtained 480 image can show different scattering properties of the mountains from a bistatic angle. It should be

- 481 mentioned that, although the measurements at two different dates allow for phase comparison in the
- 482 context of differential interferometry analysis, detailed analysis is ongoing.
- 483



485 Fig. 17. Setup of the experiment conducted in Spitsbergen, Norway. The system is fixed on the same

486 position for a period of 12 days to show its stability and repeatability. 487



490 491

492 Fig. 18. MF-PB-SAR images of the snow mountains in Spitsbergen (a-b) on the α -o- β plane and (c-d) 493 on the *x-o-y* plane. The left sub-figures and right sub-figures correspond to the data sampled in Sept.

494 22 and Oct. 4, respectively.



497 Fig. 19. Overlay between the MF-PB-SAR image obtained in Spitsbergen and the SAR image498 generated by Sentinel-1.

499 5. Conclusions

500 By using commercial-off-the-shelf software defined radio hardware, a passive bistatic synthetic 501 aperture radar using the C-band SAR satellite, Sentinel-1, as its emitting source has been developed 502 and validated, with no need for accurate time and position synchronization between the satellite in 503 space and the fixed receiver on the ground. Its system structure, signal model, imaging geometry, 504 signal pre-processing method, and approximation based effective target imaging methods have been 505 introduced in this paper. Experiments in mountainous and urban aeras have been conducted and the 506 imaging results shown that the developed system and the proposed methods can get well-focused 507 images that match the actual local scene in a range of several kilometers. Running the full data 508 acquisition on a Raspberry Pi 4 single board computer makes the system deployable for autonomous 509 remote sensing measurements. Data acquisition and processing software is available at https:// 510 github.com/jmfriedt/sentinel1_pbr. In future, high-resolution target imaging methods that combine 511 multiple signal fragments and differential interferometry processing methods will be studied and the 512 application of the developed MF-PB-SAR system, such as the displacement monitoring of mountains, 513 buildings, and towers, will be carried out.

514 Author Contributions: J.-M. Friedt proposed the idea, conducted the experiments, analyzed the data, and 515 helped to write the manuscript; W. Feng established the signal model, proposed the processing methods, and 516 wrote the manuscript; P. Wan helped to write the manuscript and gave suggestions on the processing methods.

517 Funding: This work was supported in part by National Natural Science Foundation of China and Young Talent 518 fund of University Association for Science and Technology in Shaanxi, China under Grant Nos. 62001507, 519 61901511, and 20210106. The SDR hardware was partly funded by the French Space Agency CNES under grant 520 R-S18/LN-0001-036. The trip to Spitsbergen was funded by the French Paul Emile Victor Polar Institute IPEV as 521 part of the PRISM grant.

Acknowledgement: The antennas were fabricated at the mechanical workshop of FEMTO-ST (Besançon, France)
 by P. Abbe and V. Tissot.

524 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

525 References

526 1. Griffiths, H.D.; Baker, C.J. An Introduction to Passive Radar. Norwood, MA, USA: Artech House, 2017.

- Huang, C.; Li, Z.; Lou, M.; Qiu, X.; An, H.; Wu, J.; Yang, J.; Huang, W. BeiDou-Based Passive Radar Vessel
 Target Detection: Method and Experiment via Long-Time Optimized Integration. Remote Sens., 2021, 13,
 3933. https://doi.org/10.3390/rs13193933.
- 530 3. Feng, W.; Friedt, J.M.; Cherniak, G.; Sato, M. Batch Compressive Sensing for Passive Radar Range-Doppler
 531 Map Generation. IEEE Trans. Aerosp. Electron. Syst., 2019, 55(6), pp. 3090-3102.
- Fang, Y.; Atkinson, G.; Sayin, A.; Chen, J.; Wang, P.; Antoniou, M.; Cherniakov, M. Improved Passive SAR
 Imaging with DVB-T Transmissions. IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens., 2020, 58, pp. 5066-5076.
- 5. Qiu, W.; Giusti, E.; Bacci, A.; Martorella, M.; Berizzi, F.; Zhao, H.; Fu, Q. Compressed Sensing-Based
 535 Algorithm for Passive Bistatic ISAR with DVB-T Signals. IEEE Trans. Aerosp. Electron. Syst., 2015, 51(3),
 536 pp. 2166-2180.
- Feng, W.; Friedt, J.-M.; Nico, G.; Wang, S.; Martin, G.; Sato, M. Passive Bistatic Ground-Based Synthetic
 Aperture Radar: Concept, System, and Experiment Results. Remote Sens., 2019, 11, 1753. https://doi.org
 /10.3390 /rs11151753
- 540 7. Liu, F.; Antoniou, M.; Zeng, Z.; Cherniakov, M. Coherent Change Detection using Passive GNSS-Based
 541 BSAR: Experimental Proof of Concept. IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens., 2013, 51(8), pp. 4544–4555.
- Feng, W.; Friedt, J.M.; Cherniak, G.; Sato, M. Passive Radar Imaging by Filling Gaps Between ISDB Digital
 TV Channels. IEEE J. Sel. Topics Appl. Earth Observ. Remote Sens., 2019, 12(7), pp. 2055-2068.
- 544 9. Gromek, D.; Kulpa, K.; Samczyński, P. Experimental Results of Passive SAR Imaging using DVB-T
 545 Illuminators of Opportunity. IEEE Geosci. Remote Sens. Lett., 2016, 13(8), pp. 1124-1128.
- 546 10. Gromek, D.; Radecki, K.; Drozdowicz, J.; Samczyński, P.; Szabatin, J. Passive SAR Imaging using DVB-T
 547 Illumination for Airborne Applications. IET Radar, Sonar & Navigation, 2019, 13(2), pp. 213-221.
- 548 11. Feng, W.; Friedt, J.-M., Cherniak, G.; Hu, Z.; Sato, M. Direct Path Interference Suppression for Short-Range
 549 Passive Bistatic Synthetic Aperture Radar Imaging Based on Atomic Norm Minimisation and
 550 Vandermonde Decomposition. IET Radar, Sonar & Navigation, 2019, 13(7), pp. 1171-1179.
- Krysik, P.; Maslikowski, L.; Samczynski, P.; Kurowska, A. Bistatic Ground-Based Passive SAR Imaging
 Using TerraSAR-X as An Illuminator of Opportunity. In Proc. IEEE International Conference on Radar,
 Adelaide, SA, Australia, Sept. 2013, pp. 39-42.
- Shang, H.; Deng, Y.; Wang, R.; Li, N.; Zhao, S.; Hong, F.; Wu, L.; Loffeld, O. Spaceborne/Stationary Bistatic
 SAR Imaging with TerraSAR-X as an Illuminator in Staring-Spotlight Mode. IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote
 Sens., 2016, 54, pp. 5203-5216.
- Ma, H.; Antoniou, M.; Cherniakov, M. Passive GNSS-Based SAR Resolution Improvement Using Joint
 Galileo E5 Signals. IEEE Geosci. Remote Sens. Lett., 2015, 12(8), pp. 1640-1644.
- Liu, F.; Fan, X.; Zhang, T.; Liu, Q. GNSS-Based SAR Interferometry for 3-D Deformation Retrieval:
 Algorithms and Feasibility Study. IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens., 2018, 56(10), pp. 5736-5748.
- Anghel, A.; Cacoveanu, R.; Datcu M. Repeat-Pass Spaceborne Transmitter-Stationary Receiver Bistatic SAR
 Interferometry-First Results. in Proc. IEEE Int. Geosci. Remote Sens. Symp., Valencia, Spain, Jul. 2018, pp. 3651-3654.
- Anghel, A.; Cacoveanu, R.; Moldovan, A. S.; Rommen, B.; Datcu, M. COBIS: Opportunistic C-band bistatic
 SAR differential interferometry. IEEE J. Sel. Topics Appl. Earth Observ. Remote Sens., 2019, 12(10), pp. 3980-3998.
- 18. Rosu, F.; Anghel, A.; Cacoveanu, R.; Rommen, B.; Datcu, M. Multiaperture Focusing for Spaceborne
 Transmitter/Ground-Based Receiver Bistatic SAR. IEEE J. Sel. Topics Appl. Earth Observ. Remote Sens.,
 2020, 13, pp. 5823-5832.
- 570 19. Focsa, A.; Anghel, A.; Datcu, M. A Compressive-Sensing Approach for Opportunistic Bistatic SAR Imaging
 571 Enhancement by Harnessing Sparse Multiaperture Data. IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens., 2021. https:
 572 10.1109/TGRS.2021.3071861.
- 573 20. Meier, J.; Kelley, R.; Isom, B.M.; Yeary, M.; Palmer, R.D. Leveraging Software-Defined Radio Techniques
 574 in Multichannel Digital Weather Radar Receiver Design. IEEE Trans. Instrum. Meas., 61, pp. 1571-1582.
- 575 21. Prager, S.; Thrivikraman, T.; Haynes, M.S.; Stang, J.; Hawkins, D.; Moghaddam, M. Ultrawideband
 576 Synthesis for High-Range-Resolution Software-Defined Radar. IEEE Trans. Instrum. Meas., 2019, 69, pp.
 577 3789-3803.
- 578 22. Feng, W.; Friedt, J.M.; Wan, P. SDR-Implemented Ground-Based Interferometric Radar for Displacement
 579 Measurement. IEEE Trans. Instrum. Meas., 2021, 70, 1-18.
- 580 23. https://www.esa.int/Applications/Observing_the_Earth/Copernicus

- 581 24. https://heavens-above.com/
- 582 25. Balanis, C.A. Antenna theory: analysis and design; John wiley & sons: 2015.
- 583 26. Fortuny-Guasch, J. A fast and Accurate Far-Field Pseudopolar Format Radar Imaging Algorithm. IEEE
 584 Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens., 2009, 47(4), pp. 1187-1196.
- 585 27. Han, K.; Wang, Y.; Chang, X.; Tan, W.; Hong, W. Generalized Pseudopolar Format Algorithm for Radar
 586 Imaging with Highly Suboptimal Aperture Length. Sci. China Inf. Sci., 2015, 58(4), pp. 1-15.
- 587 28. Bi, H.; Bi, G.; Zhang, B.; Hong, W.; Wu, Y. From Theory to Application: Real-Time Sparse SAR Imaging.
 588 IEEE Trans. Geosci. Remote Sens., 2019, 58(4), pp. 2928-2936.
- 589 29. Fang, J.; Xu, Z.; Zhang, B.; Hong, W.; Wu, Y. Fast Compressed Sensing SAR Imaging Based on Approximated Observation. IEEE J. Sel. Topics Appl. Earth Observ. Remote Sens., 2013, 7(1), pp. 352-363.
- 591 30. Li, S.; Zhao, G.; Li, H.; Ren, B.; Hu, W.; Liu, Y.; Sun, H. Near-Field Radar Imaging via Compressive Sensing.
 592 IEEE Trans. Antennas Propag., 2014, 63(2), pp. 828-833.
- 593



© 2019 by the authors. Submitted for possible open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

