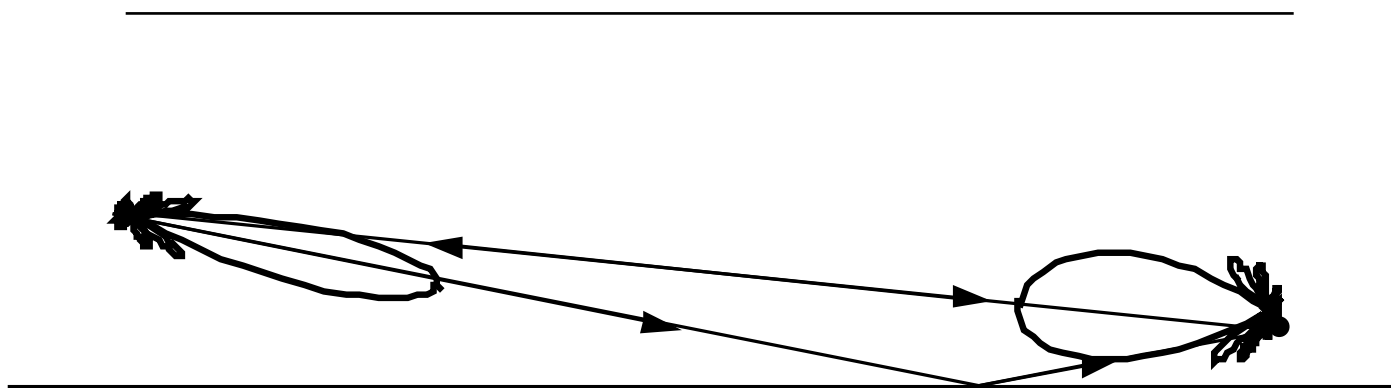


EC3630 Radiowave Propagation

**PROPAGATION NEAR THE
EARTH'S SURFACE**

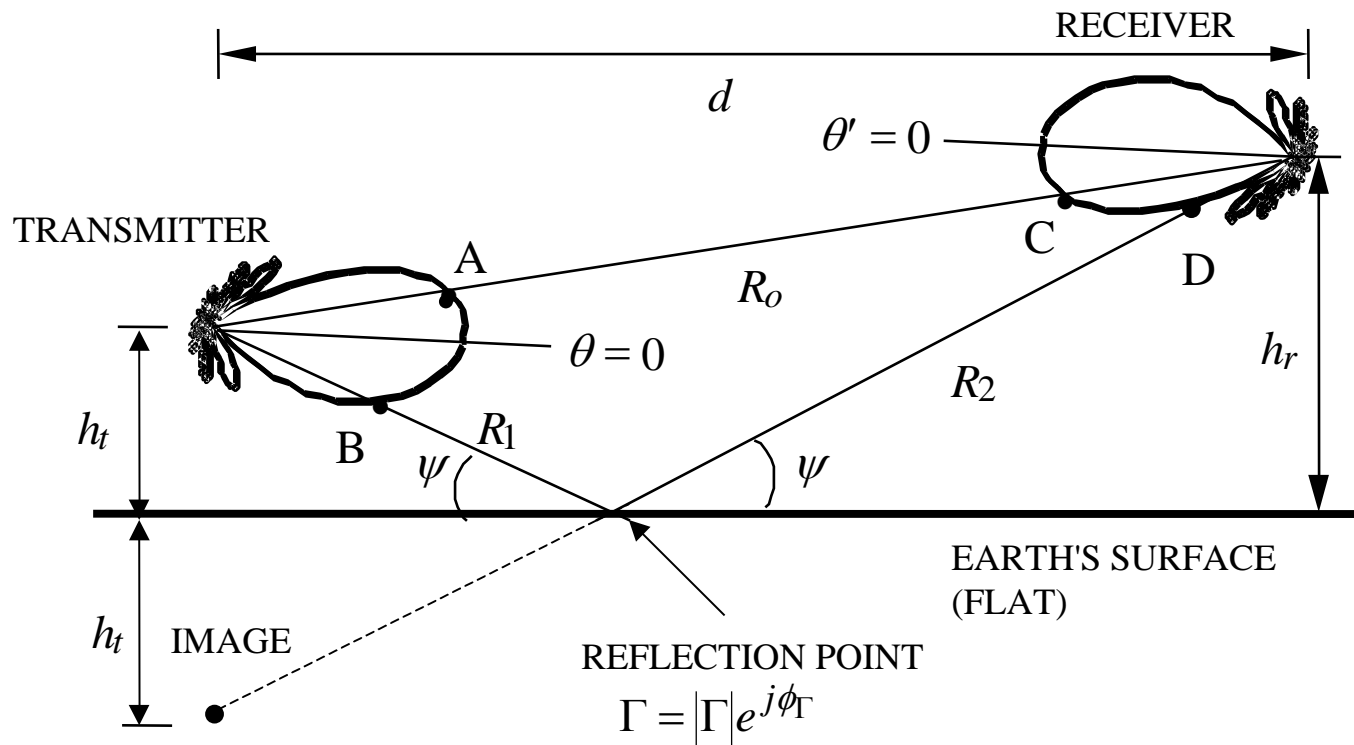
by Professor David Jenn



(version 1.8.4)

Multipath From a Flat Ground (1)

When both a transmitter and receiver are operating near the surface of the earth, multipath (multiple reflections) can cause fading of the signal. We first examine the reflection from the ground assuming a flat earth. These mirror like reflections that obey Snell's law are called specular reflections. The reflected wave appears to originate from an image.



Multipath From a Flat Ground (2)

Multipath parameters:

1. Reflection coefficient, $\Gamma = |\Gamma|e^{j\phi_\Gamma}$. For low grazing angles, $\psi \approx 0$, the approximation $\Gamma \approx -1$ is valid for both horizontal and vertical polarizations.
2. Transmit antenna gain: $G_t(\theta_A)$ for the direct wave; $G_t(\theta_B)$ for the reflected wave.
3. Receive antenna gain: $G_r(\theta_C)$ for the direct wave; $G_r(\theta_D)$ for the reflected wave.
4. Path difference: $\Delta R = \underbrace{(R_1 + R_2)}_{\text{REFLECTED}} - \underbrace{R_0}_{\text{DIRECT}}$

Gain is proportional to the square of the electric field intensity. For example, if G_{to} is the gain of the transmit antenna in the direction of the maximum ($\theta = 0$), then

$$G_t(\theta) = G_{to} \left| E_{t_{\text{norm}}}(\theta) \right|^2 \equiv G_{to} f_t(\theta)^2$$

where $E_{t_{\text{norm}}}$ is the normalized electric field intensity. Similarly for the receive antenna with its maximum gain in the direction $\theta' = 0$

$$G_r(\theta') = G_{ro} \left| E_{r_{\text{norm}}}(\theta') \right|^2 \equiv G_{ro} f_r(\theta')^2$$

Multipath From a Flat Ground (3)

Total field at the receiver

$$|E_{\text{tot}}| = \underbrace{E_{\text{ref}}}_{\text{REFLECTED}} + \underbrace{E_{\text{dir}}}_{\text{DIRECT}} \quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\equiv F}$$

$$= \left| f_t(\theta_A) f_r(\theta_C) \frac{e^{-jkR_o}}{4\pi R_o} \left[1 + \Gamma \frac{f_t(\theta_B) f_r(\theta_D)}{f_t(\theta_A) f_r(\theta_C)} e^{-jk\Delta R} \right] \right|$$

The quantity in the square brackets is the path-gain factor (PGF) or pattern-propagation factor (PPF). It relates the total field at the receiver to that of free space and takes on values $0 \leq F \leq 2$.

- If $F = 0$ then the direct and reflected rays cancel (destructive interference)
- If $F = 2$ the two waves add (constructive interference)

Note that if the transmitter and receiver are at approximately the same heights, close to the ground, and the antennas are pointed at each other, then $d \gg h_t, h_r$, $f_t(\theta_A) \approx f_t(\theta_B)$ and $f_r(\theta_C) \approx f_r(\theta_D)$. Therefore

$$|F| = |1 + \Gamma e^{-jk\Delta R}|$$

Multipath From a Flat Ground (4)

An approximate expression for the path difference is obtained from a series expansion:

$$R_o = \sqrt{d^2 + (h_r - h_t)^2} \approx d + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(h_r - h_t)^2}{d}$$

$$R_1 + R_2 = \sqrt{d^2 + (h_t + h_r)^2} \approx d + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(h_t + h_r)^2}{d}$$

Therefore,

$$\Delta R \approx \frac{2h_r h_t}{d}$$

and

$$|F| = \left| 1 - e^{-jk2h_r h_t / d} \right| = \left| e^{-jkh_r h_t / d} \left(e^{jkh_r h_t / d} - e^{-jkh_r h_t / d} \right) \right| = 2 \left| \sin(kh_r h_t / d) \right|$$

The received power depends on the square of the path gain factor

$$P_r = P_{\text{dir}} |F|^2 = P_{\text{dir}} 4 \sin^2 \left(\frac{kh_t h_r}{d} \right) \approx P_{\text{dir}} 4 \left(\frac{kh_t h_r}{d} \right)^2$$

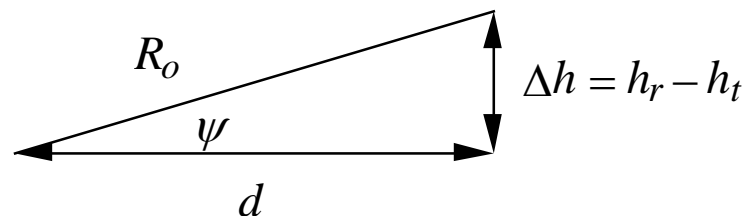
where P_{dir} is the direct free space received power. The last form is based on the small angle approximation.

Multipath From a Flat Ground (5)

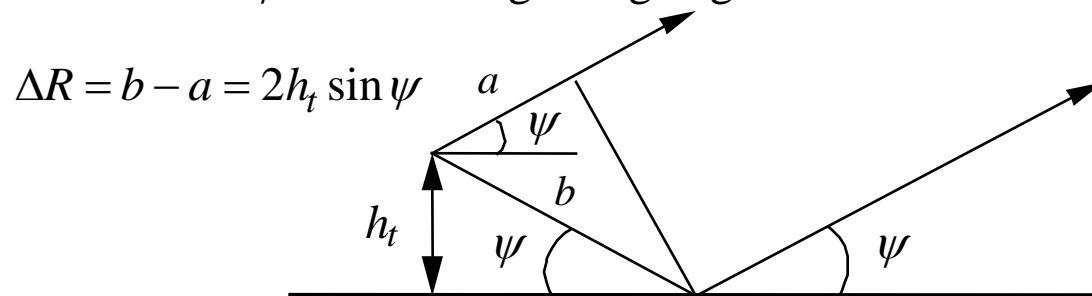
Two different forms of the argument are frequently used.

1. Assume that the transmitter is near the ground $h_t \approx 0$ and use its height as a reference. The elevation angle is ψ where

$$\tan \psi = \frac{h_r - h_t}{d} \equiv \frac{\Delta h}{d} \approx \frac{h_r}{d}$$



2. If the transmit antenna is very close to the ground, then the reflection point is very near to the transmitter and ψ is also the grazing angle:



If the antenna is pointed at the horizon (i.e., its maximum is parallel to the ground) then $\psi \approx \theta_A$.

Multipath From a Flat Ground (6)

Thus with the given restrictions the PPF can be expressed in terms of elevation angle ψ

$$|F| = 2 \sin(kh_t \tan \psi)$$

The PPF has minima at: $kh_t \tan \psi = n\pi \quad (n = 0, 1, \dots, \infty)$

$$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} h_t \tan \psi = n\pi$$

$$\tan \psi = n\lambda / (2h_t)$$

Maxima occur at:

$$kh_t \tan \psi = m\pi / 2 \quad (m = 1, 3, 5, \dots, \infty)$$

$$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} h_t \tan \psi = \frac{2n+1}{2} \pi \quad (n = 0, 1, \dots, \infty)$$

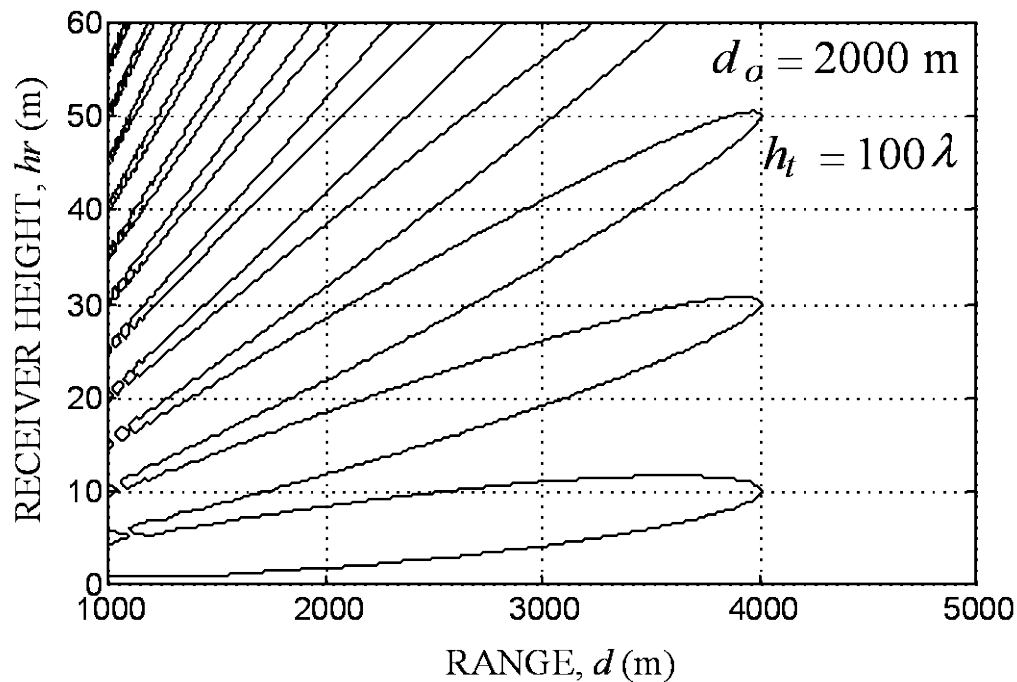
$$\tan \psi = \frac{(2n+1)\lambda}{4h_t}$$

Plots $|F|$ are called a coverage diagram. The horizontal axis is usually distance and the vertical axis receiver height. (Note that because $d \gg h_r$, the angle ψ is not directly measurable from the plot.)

Multipath From a Flat Ground (7)

Coverage diagram: Contour plots of $|F|$ in dB for variations in h_r and d normalized to a reference range d_o . Note that when $d = d_o$ then $E_{tot} = E_{dir}$. The solid lines are free space values at range d_o ($|F|=1$).

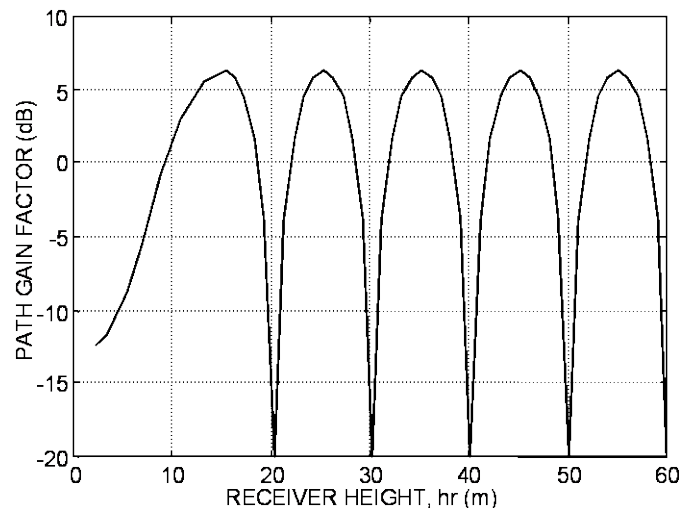
$$|F| = \left| 2 \left(\frac{d_o}{d} \right) \sin(kh_t \tan \psi) \right|$$



Multipath From a Flat Ground (8)

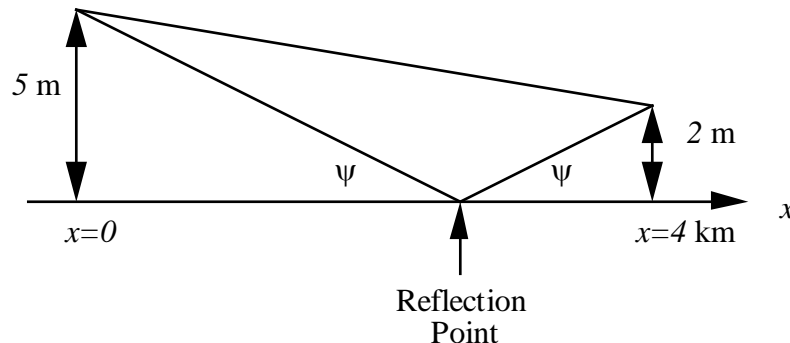
Another means of displaying the received field is a height-gain curve. It is a plot of $|F|$ in dB vs. h_r at a fixed range.

- The constructive and destructive interference as a function of height can be identified.
- At low frequencies the periodicity of the curve at low heights can be destroyed by the ground wave.
- Usually there are many reflected wave paths between the transmitter and receiver, in which case the peaks and nulls are distorted.
- This technique is often used to determine the optimum tower height for a broadcast radio antenna.



Multipath Example

A radar antenna is mounted on a 5 m mast and tracks a point target at 4 km. The target is 2 m above the surface and the wavelength is 0.2 m. (a) Find the location of the reflection point on the x axis and the grazing angle ψ . (b) Write an expression for the one way path gain factor $|F|$ when a reflected wave is present. Assume a reflection coefficient of $\Gamma \approx -1$.



(a) Denote the location of the reflection point by x_r and use similar triangles

$$\tan \psi = \frac{5}{x_r} = \frac{2}{4000 - x_r}$$

$$x_r = 2.86 \text{ km}$$

$$\psi = \tan^{-1}(5/2860) = 0.1^\circ$$

(b) The restrictions on the heights and distance are satisfied for the following formula

$$\begin{aligned} |F| &= 2 \left| \sin \left(\frac{kh_t h_r}{d} \right) \right| = 2 \left| \sin \left(\frac{2\pi(2)(5)}{(0.2)(4000)} \right) \right| \\ &= (2)(0.785) = 0.157 \end{aligned}$$

The received power varies as $|F|^2$, thus

$$10 \log(|F|^2) = -16.1 \text{ dB}$$

The received power is 16.1 dB below the free space value.

Field Intensity From the ERP

The product $P_t G_t$ is called the effective radiated power (ERP, or sometimes the effective isotropic radiated power, EIRP). We can relate the ERP to the electric field intensity as follows:

The Poynting vector for a TEM wave:

$$\vec{W} = \text{Re}\{\vec{E} \times \vec{H}^*\} = \frac{|\vec{E}_{\text{dir}}|^2}{\eta_o}$$

For the direct path:

$$|\vec{W}| = \frac{P_t G_t}{4\pi R_o^2}$$

Equate the two expressions: (and note that $\eta_o \approx 120\pi$)

$$\frac{|\vec{E}_{\text{dir}}|^2}{\eta_o} = \frac{P_t G_t}{4\pi R_o^2} \Rightarrow \boxed{|\vec{E}_{\text{dir}}| = \frac{\sqrt{30 P_t G_t}}{d} \equiv \frac{E_o}{d}}$$

where E_o is called the unattenuated field intensity at unit distance.

Wave Reflection at the Earth's Surface (1)

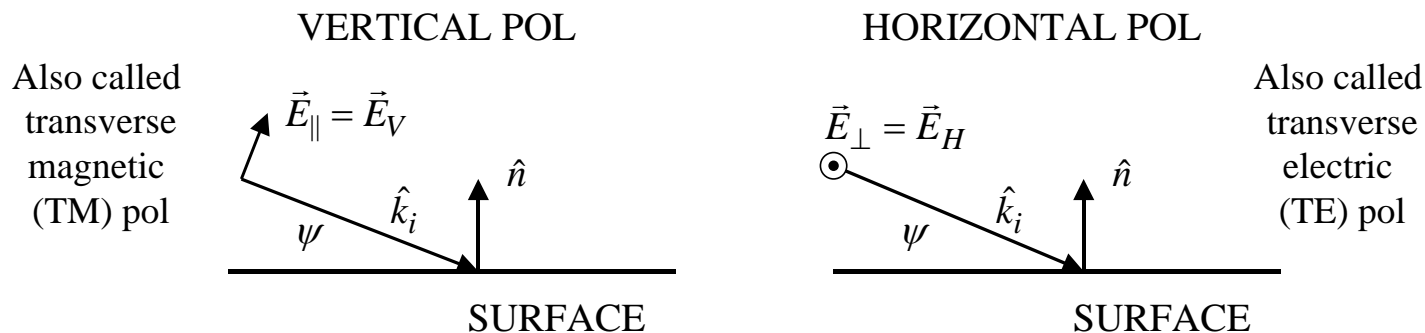
Fresnel reflection coefficients hold when:

1. the Earth's surface is locally flat in the vicinity of the reflection point
2. the surface is smooth (height of irregularities $\ll \lambda$)

Traditionally, the grazing angle $\psi = 90^\circ - \theta_i$ is used. The grazing angle is usually very small ($\psi < 1^\circ$). The complex dielectric constant is expressed as

$$\epsilon_c = \epsilon_r \epsilon_o - j \frac{\sigma}{\omega} = \epsilon_o \left(\epsilon_r - j \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_o \omega} \right) \equiv \epsilon_o \underbrace{(\epsilon_r - j\chi)}_{\epsilon_{rc}}, \text{ where } \chi = \frac{\sigma}{\omega \epsilon_o}$$

Near the surface the reference for polarization is horizontal and vertical.



Wave Reflection at the Earth's Surface (2)

Reflection coefficients for horizontal and vertical polarization:

$$\begin{aligned}
 -\Gamma_{\parallel} \equiv R_V &= \frac{(\epsilon_r - j\chi) \sin \psi - \sqrt{(\epsilon_r - j\chi) - \cos^2 \psi}}{(\epsilon_r - j\chi) \sin \psi + \sqrt{(\epsilon_r - j\chi) - \cos^2 \psi}} \\
 \Gamma_{\perp} \equiv R_H &= \frac{\sin \psi - \sqrt{(\epsilon_r - j\chi) - \cos^2 \psi}}{\sin \psi + \sqrt{(\epsilon_r - j\chi) - \cos^2 \psi}}
 \end{aligned}$$

For transmitters below ground, the phenomenon of total reflection can occur. Assuming the more dense medium is lossless ($\chi = 0$) and nonmagnetic ($\mu_r = 1$)

$$\sqrt{\epsilon_r} \cos \psi = \sqrt{\epsilon_r} \sin \theta_i = \sin \theta_t$$

The critical angle of incidence occurs when $\sin \theta_t = 1$ or $\sin \theta_c = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_r}$. There is no physical reason why $\sin \theta_t$ cannot be greater than 1. Let θ_t be complex such that

$\theta_t = \frac{\pi}{2} + j\theta$, where θ is real. Then,

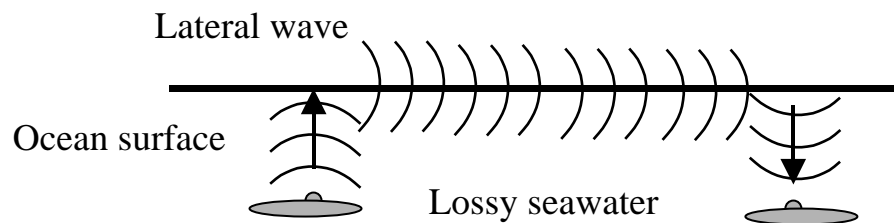
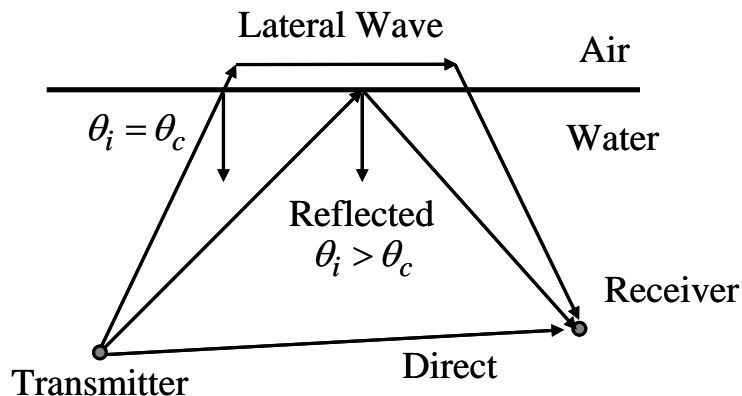
$$\sin \theta_t = \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + j\theta \right) = \cos(j\theta) = \cosh \theta$$

$$\cos \theta_t = -\sin(j\theta) = -j \sinh \theta$$

Wave Reflection at the Earth's Surface (3)

Using the above identities in the Fresnel formulas, the reflection coefficients have a magnitude of 1 for all incidence angles greater than the critical angle, $|R_V| = |R_H| = 1$. The wavefronts follow the boundary, but all of the power flow is confined to the denser medium. The wave decays exponentially with distance into the less dense medium.

The wave may have sufficient amplitude along the surface to provide a useful signal. An example where this might occur is communication between submerged submarines near the surface. The ray traveling along the surface is called a lateral wave. The displacement of the incident ray at the critical angle θ_c is a form of the Goos-Hanchen shift of optics. For submarines, the direct and reflected rays are strongly attenuated by the longer paths in water, leaving only the lateral wave for communication.

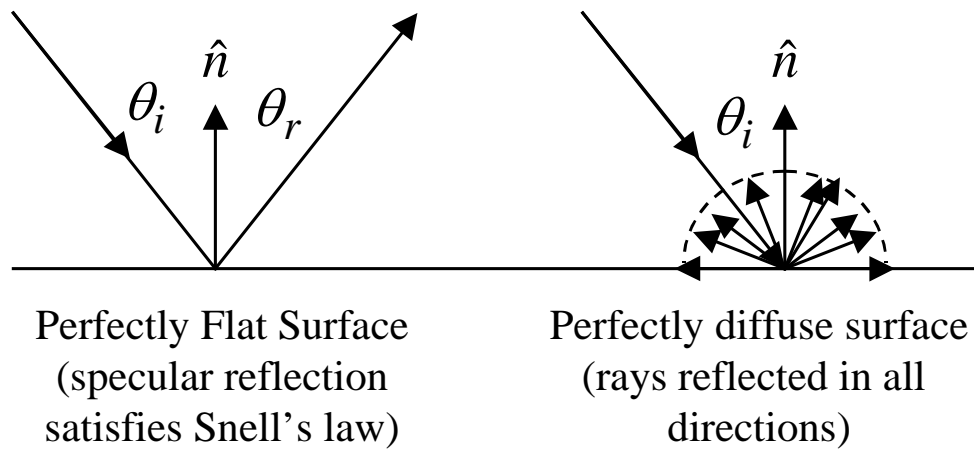


Rough Surface Reflection (1)

When waves are reflected by the Earth, the deviation from a perfectly flat surface causes waves to be scattered diffusely. An ideal diffuse surface scatters (reflects) uniformly in all directions independent of the angle of incidence. Snell's law does not apply to diffuse reflection.

At radio and microwave frequencies surfaces usually fall in between these two limiting cases. Both specular and diffuse components are present.

The traditional measure of surface roughness is the Rayleigh criterion, which is a measure of the phase error introduced by the surface deviations, relative to phase of the reflection from the mean surface.



Rough Surface Reflection (2)

The phase error due to the displacement of the reflection point a distance h from the mean surface is

$$g = k\Delta R = 2kh \sin \psi$$

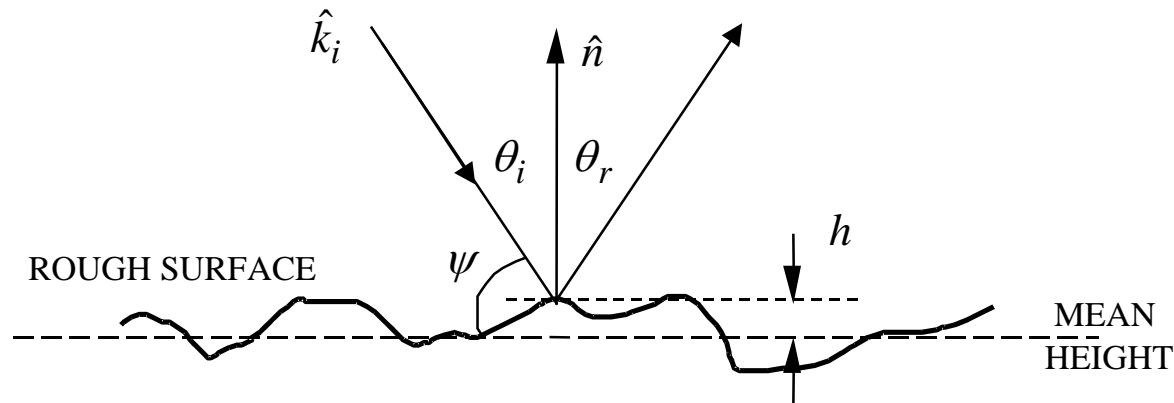
The 2 is because the path difference occurs both on

incidence and reflection. The Rayleigh condition (arbitrarily) chooses $\pi / 2$ as the limiting value of the phase difference:

$$h \sin \psi < \lambda / 8$$

For small surface deviations, the diffuse component is ignored and the specular reflection coefficient is reduced. An approximate formula for the reduction of the Fresnel reflection coefficient for a rough surface is

$$|\Gamma| \rightarrow |\Gamma| \sqrt{\frac{1 + \left(\frac{1}{2} g^2\right)}{1 + 2.35\left(\frac{1}{2} g^2\right) + 2\pi\left(\frac{1}{2} g^2\right)^2}}$$



Atmospheric Refraction (1)

Refraction by the lower atmosphere causes waves to be bent back towards the earth's surface. The ray trajectory is described by the equation: $n R_e \sin \theta = \text{CONSTANT}$

Two ways of expressing the index of refraction $n (= \sqrt{\epsilon_r})$ in the troposphere:

1. $n = 1 + \chi \rho / \rho_{SL}$ + HUMIDITY TERM

$R_e = 6378 \text{ km} = \text{earth radius}$

$\chi \approx 0.00029 = \text{Gladstone-Dale constant}$

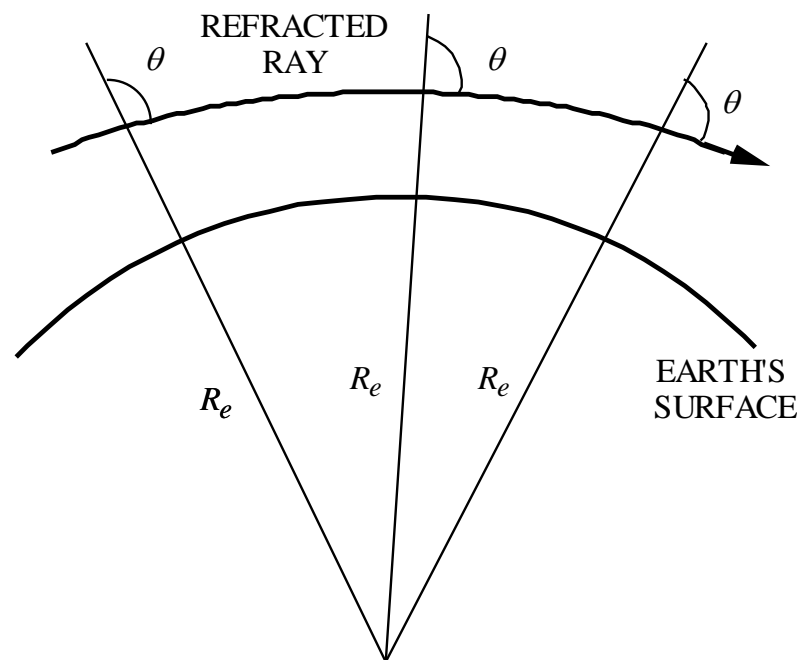
$\rho, \rho_{SL} = \text{mass densities at altitude and sea level}$

2. $n = \frac{77.6}{T} (p + 4,810 e / T) 10^{-6} - 1$

$p = \text{air pressure (millibars)}$

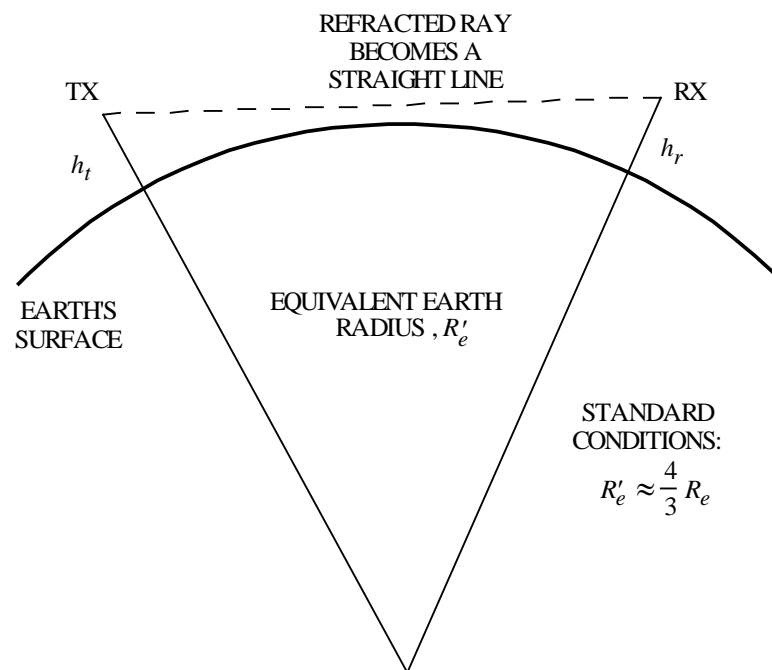
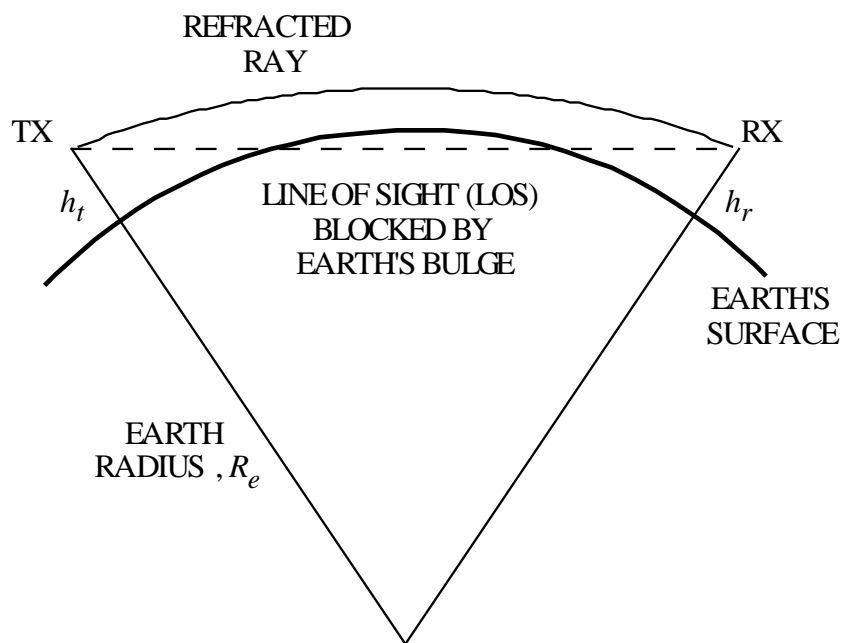
$T = \text{temperature (K)}$

$e = \text{partial pressure of water vapor (millibars)}$



Atmospheric Refraction (2)

Refraction of a wave can provide a significant level of transmission over the horizon. A bent refracted ray can be represented by a straight ray if an equivalent earth radius R'_e is used. For most atmospheric conditions $R'_e = 4R_e / 3 \approx 8500 \text{ km}$



Atmospheric Refraction (3)

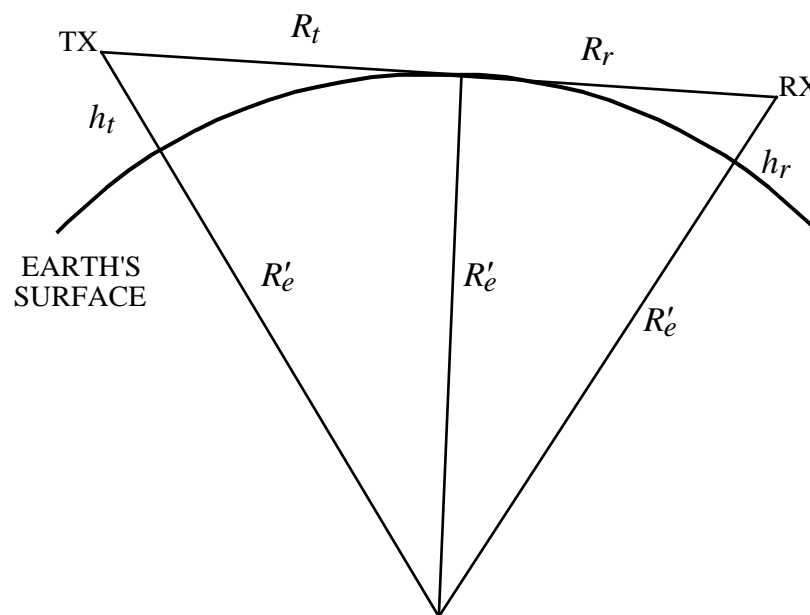
Distance from the transmit antenna to the horizon is $R_t = \sqrt{(R'_e + h_t)^2 - (R'_e)^2}$ but $R'_e \gg h_t$ so that $R_t \approx \sqrt{2R'_e h_t}$. Similarly $R_r \approx \sqrt{2R'_e h_r}$. The radar horizon (or radio horizon) is the sum

$$R_{RH} \approx \sqrt{2R'_e h_t} + \sqrt{2R'_e h_r}$$

Example: A missile is flying 15 m above the ocean towards a ground based radar. What is the approximate range that the missile can be detected assuming standard atmospheric conditions?

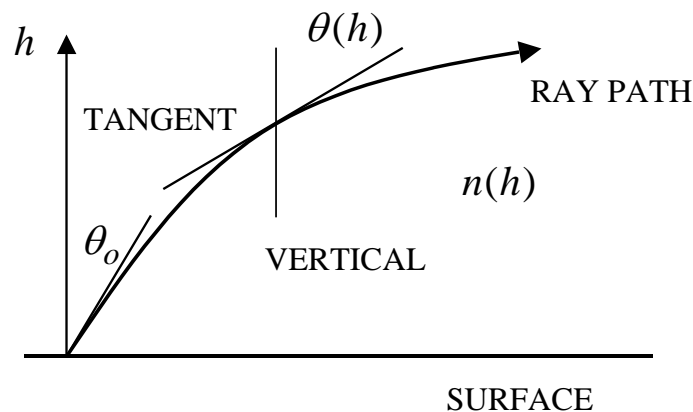
Using $h_t = 0$ and $h_r = 15$ gives a radar horizon of

$$\begin{aligned} R_{RH} &\approx \sqrt{2R'_e h_r} \\ &\approx \sqrt{(2)(8500 \times 10^3)(15)} \\ &\approx 16 \text{ km} \end{aligned}$$

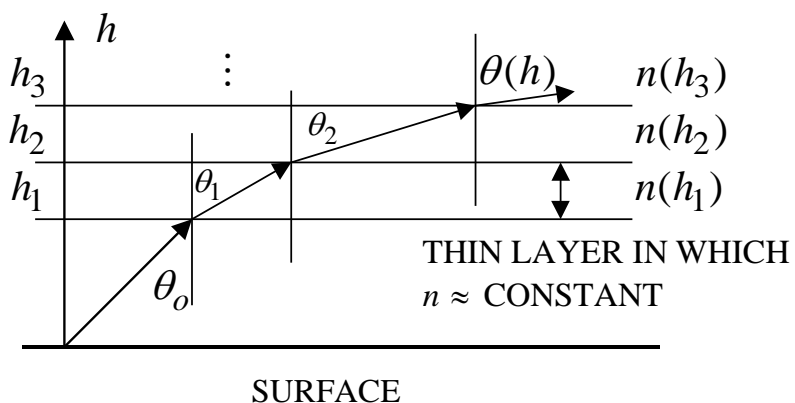


Atmospheric Refraction (4)

Derivation of the equivalent Earth radius



Break up the atmosphere into thin horizontal layers. Snell's law must hold at the boundary between each layer, $\sqrt{\epsilon(h)} \sin[\theta(h)] = \sqrt{\epsilon_0} \sin \theta_0$



Atmospheric Refraction (5)

Snell's law for spherically stratified layers is,

$$\underbrace{R_e \sqrt{\varepsilon_o} \sin \theta_o}_{\text{AT THE SURFACE}} = \underbrace{R \sqrt{\varepsilon(R)} \sin[\theta(R)]}_{\text{AT RADIUS } R=R_e+h}$$

Using the grazing angle, and assuming that $\varepsilon(h)$ varies linearly with h

$$R_e \sqrt{\varepsilon_o} \cos \psi_o = (R_e + h) \left\{ \sqrt{\varepsilon_o} + h \frac{d}{dh} \sqrt{\varepsilon(h)} \right\} \cos[\psi(h)]$$

Expand and rearrange

$$R_e \sqrt{\varepsilon_o} \{ \cos \psi_o - \cos[\psi(h)] \} = \left\{ \sqrt{\varepsilon_o} + R_e \frac{d}{dh} \sqrt{\varepsilon(h)} \right\} h \cos[\psi(h)] + h^2 \frac{d}{dh} \sqrt{\varepsilon(h)} \cos[\psi(h)]$$

If $h \ll R_e$ then the last term can be dropped, and since ψ is small, $\cos \psi \approx 1 + \psi^2 / 2$

$$[\psi(h)]^2 \approx \psi_o^2 + \frac{2h}{R_e} \left[1 + \frac{R_e}{\sqrt{\varepsilon_o}} \frac{d}{dh} \sqrt{\varepsilon(h)} \right]$$

The second term is due to the inhomogeneous index of refraction with altitude.

Atmospheric Refraction (6)

Define a constant κ such that

$$[\psi(h)]^2 \approx \psi_o^2 + \frac{2h}{\kappa R_e} = \psi_o^2 + \frac{2h}{R'_e}$$

where

$$\kappa = \left[1 + \frac{R_e}{\sqrt{\epsilon_o}} \frac{d}{dh} \sqrt{\epsilon(h)} \right]^{-1}$$

$R'_e = \kappa R_e$ is the effective (equivalent) Earth radius. If R'_e is used as the Earth radius then rays can be drawn as straight lines. This is the radius that would produce the same geometrical relationship between the source of the ray and the receiver near the Earth's surface, assuming a constant index of refraction. The restrictions on the model are:

1. Ray paths are nearly horizontal
2. $\sqrt{\epsilon(h)}$ versus h is linear over the range of heights considered

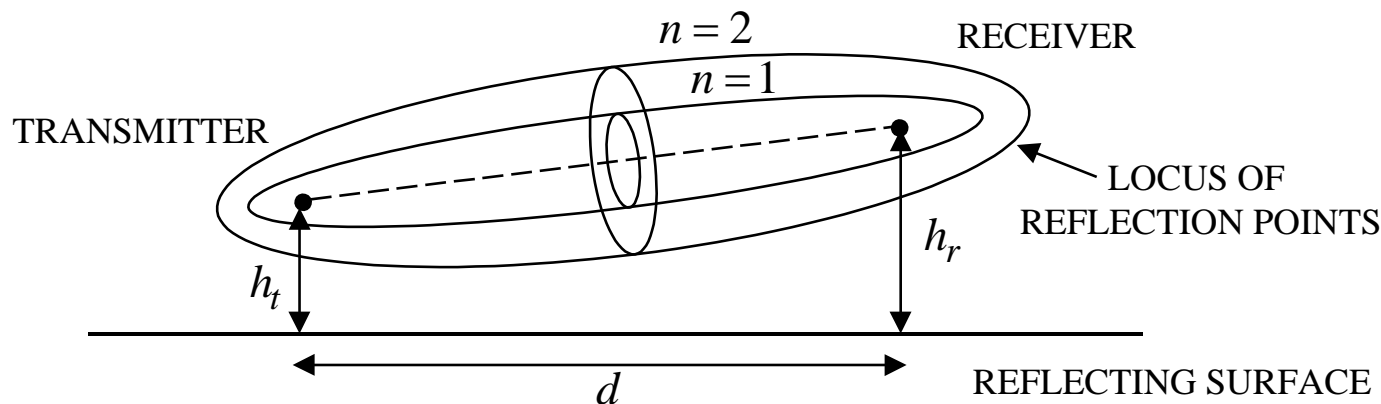
Under standard (normal) atmospheric conditions, $\kappa \approx 4/3$. That is, the radius of the Earth is approximately $R'_e = \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)6378 \text{ km} \approx 8500 \text{ km}$. This is commonly referred to as “the four-thirds Earth approximation.”

Fresnel Zones (1)

For the direct path phase to differ from the reflected path phase by an integer multiple of 180° the paths must differ by integer multiples of $\lambda/2$

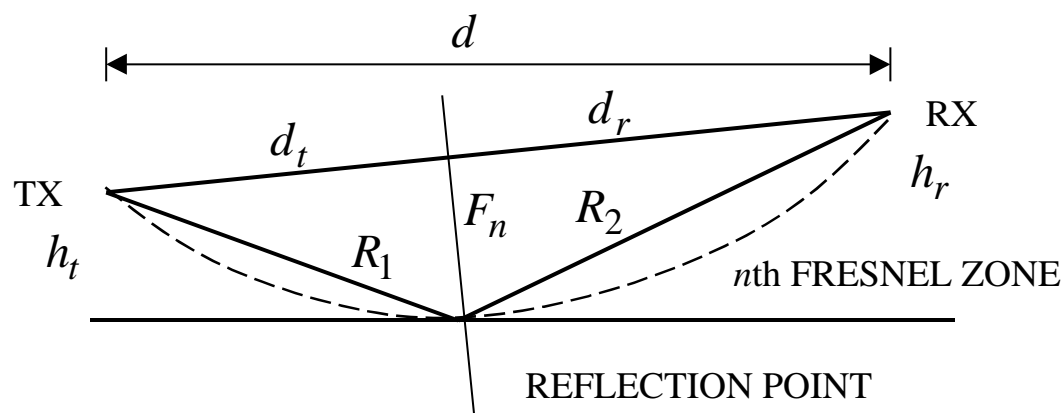
$$\Delta R = n\lambda/2 \quad (n = 0, 1, \dots)$$

The collection of points at which reflection would produce an excess path length of $n\lambda/2$ is called the n^{th} Fresnel zone. In three dimensions the surfaces are ellipsoids centered on the direct path between the transmitter and receiver.



Fresnel Zones (2)

A slice of the vertical plane gives the following geometry



For the reflection coefficient $\Gamma = |\Gamma| e^{j\pi} = -|\Gamma|$:

- If n is even the two paths are out of phase and the received signal is a minimum
- If n is odd the two paths are in phase and the received signal is a maximum

Because the LOS is nearly horizontal $R_o \approx d$ and therefore $R_o = d_t + d_r \approx d$. For the n th Fresnel zone $R_1 + R_2 = d + n\lambda/2$.

Fresnel Zones (3)

The radius of the n th Fresnel zone is

$$F_n = \sqrt{\frac{n\lambda d_t d_r}{d}}$$

or, if the distances are in miles, then

$$F_n = 72.1 \sqrt{\frac{nd_t d_r}{f_{\text{GHz}} d}} \text{ (feet)}$$

Transmission path design: the objective is to find transmitter and receiver locations and heights that give signal maxima. In general:

1. reflection points should not lie on even Fresnel zones
2. the LOS should clear all obstacles by $0.6F_1$, which essentially gives free space transmission

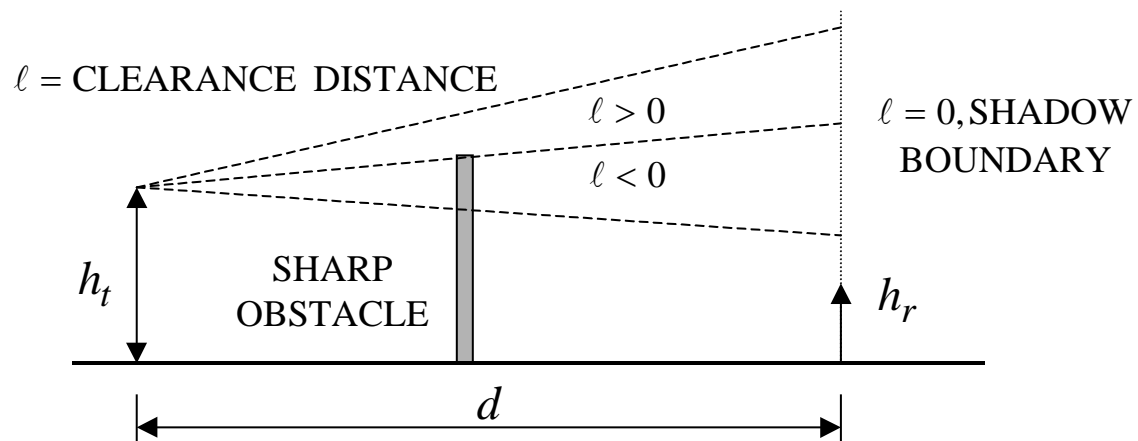
The significance of $0.6F_1$ is illustrated by examining two canonical problems:

- (1) knife edge diffraction and
- (2) smooth sphere diffraction.

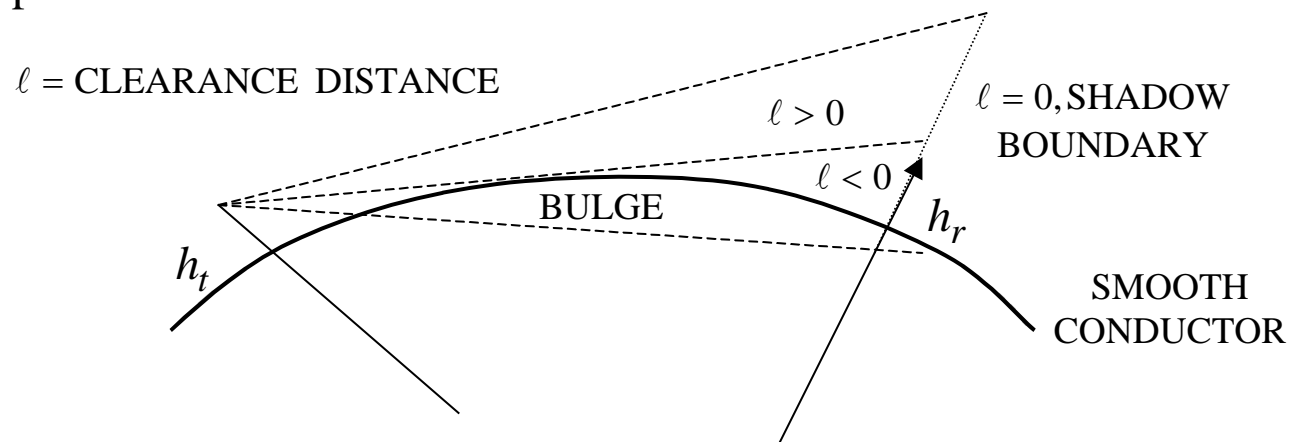
Conversions: 0.0254 m = 1 in; 12 in = 1 ft; 3.3 ft = 1 m; 5280 ft = 1 mi; 1 km = 0.62 mi

Diffraction (1)

Knife edge diffraction

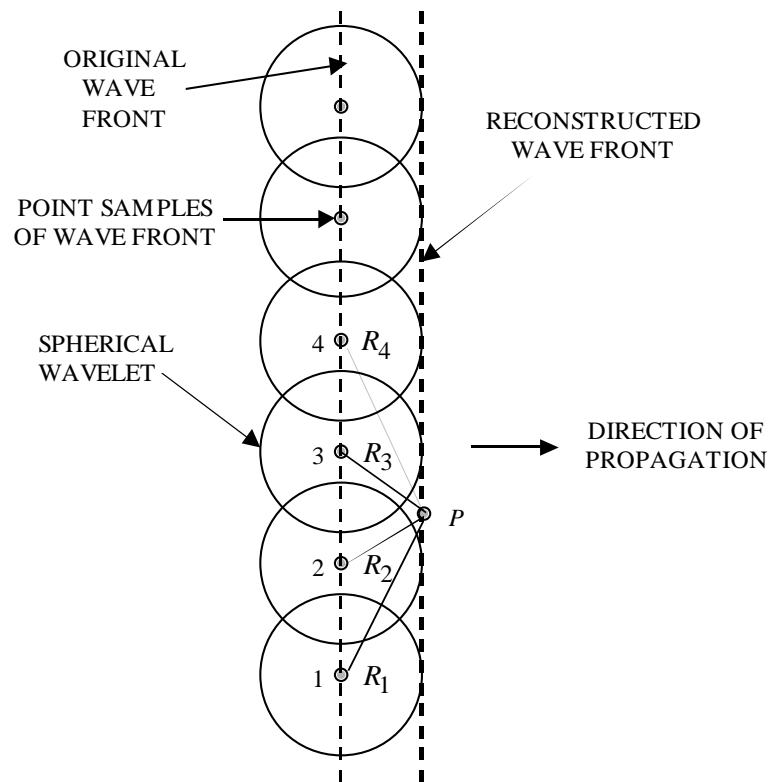


Smooth sphere diffraction



Huygen's Principle (1)

Huygen's principle states that any wavefront can be decomposed into a collection of point sources. New wavefronts can be constructed from the combined "spherical wavelets" from the point sources of the old wavefront.

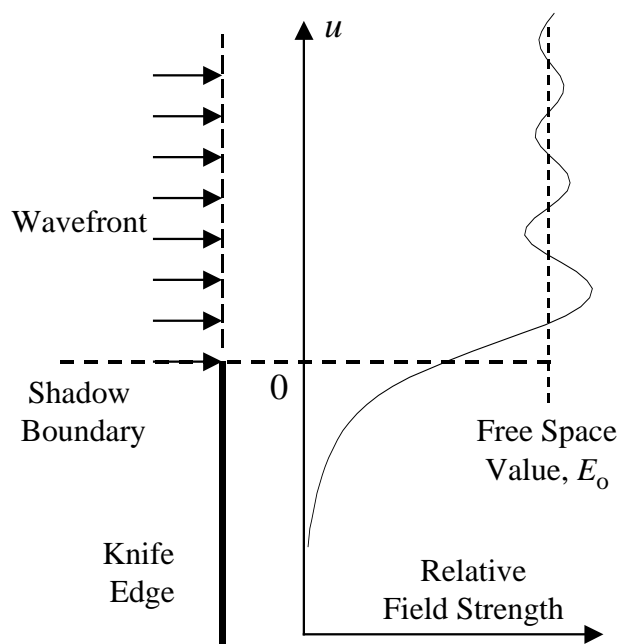


$$E(P) \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-jkR_n}}{R_n} \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-jkR_P}}{R_P}$$

where R is the distance from a wavelet source to the observation point, P . Sources closest to P will contribute most to the field

Knife Edge Diffraction (1)

The perturbation of a plane wave due to the presence of a knife edge can be examined using Huygen's principle. The edge blocks the spherical wavelets below the shadow boundary. The electric field decays to zero deep in the shadow (far from the edge). Far from the edge in the lit region, the plane wave is not disturbed.



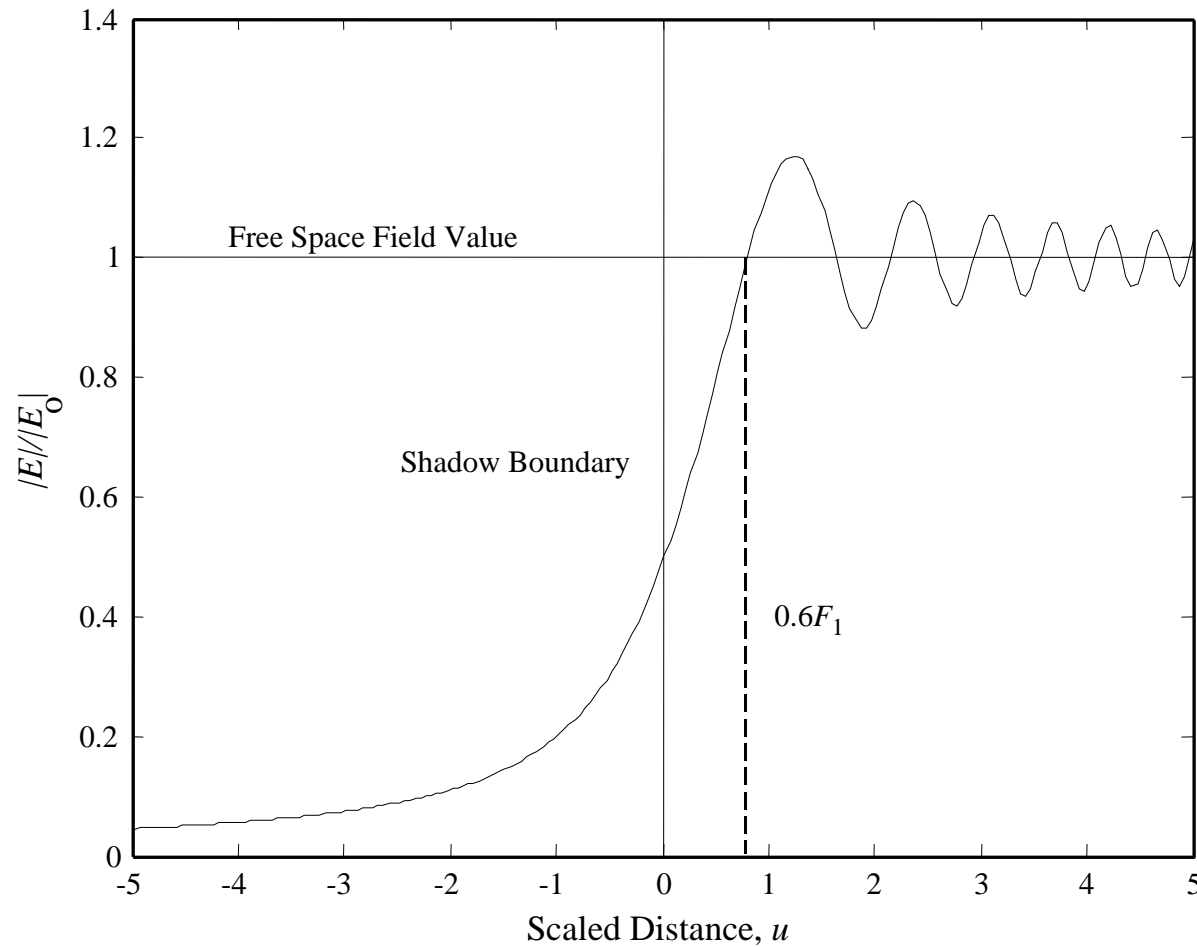
Based on Huygen's principle, the normalized electric field intensity is given by

$$\frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1+j}{2} \int_0^{-u} \exp(-j\pi\alpha^2 / 2) d\alpha$$

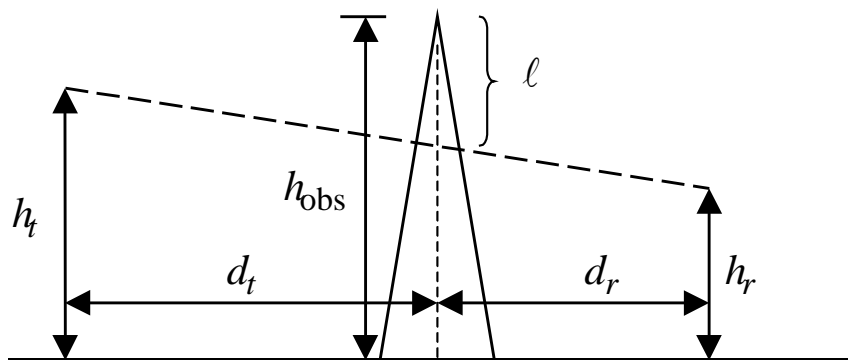
where u is a scaled distance parameter. The shadow boundary is at $u = 0$.

Knife Edge Diffraction (2)

A plot of $|E/E_0|$ shows that at $0.6F_1$ the free space (direct path) value is obtained.



Knife Edge Diffraction Example

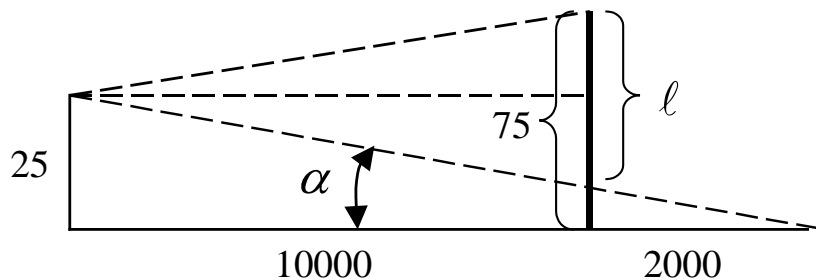


Scaled distance parameter:

$$u = \ell \sqrt{\frac{2d}{\lambda d_t d_r}}$$

where $\ell < 0$ (i.e., u negative) when the obstacle extends above the direct path.

Example: $h_t = 50$ m, $h_r = 25$ m, $d_t = 10$ km, $d_r = 2$ km, $h_{\text{obs}} = 100$ m, $f = 900$ MHz



$$\frac{75 - \ell}{2000} = \frac{25}{12000} \rightarrow \ell = 75 - 4.167 = 70.8 \text{ m}$$

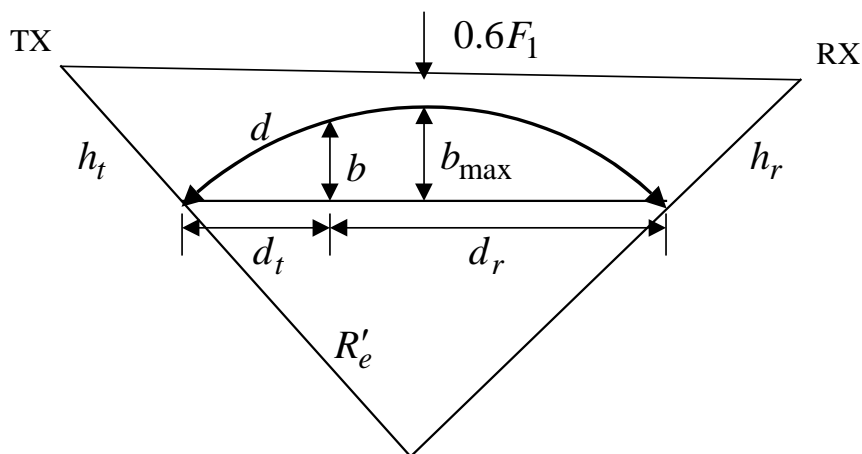
$$u = -70.8 \sqrt{\frac{24 \times 10^3}{(0.33)20 \times 10^6}} = -4.27$$

From the diffraction plot for $u = -4.27$, $|E/E_o| \approx 0.053 \rightarrow 25.5$ dB excess loss (over and above free space loss)

Path Clearance Example

Consider a 30 mile point-to-point communication link over the ocean. The frequency of operation is 5 GHz and the antennas are at the same height. Find the lowest height that provides the same field strength as in free space. Assume standard atmospheric conditions.

The geometry is shown below (distorted scale). The bulge factor (in feet) is given approximately by $b = \frac{d_t d_r}{1.5\kappa}$, where d_t and d_r are in miles.



The maximum bulge occurs at the midpoint.

$$d \approx d_t + d_r$$

$$b_{\max} = \frac{(15)(15)}{(1.5)(4/3)} = 112.5 \text{ ft}$$

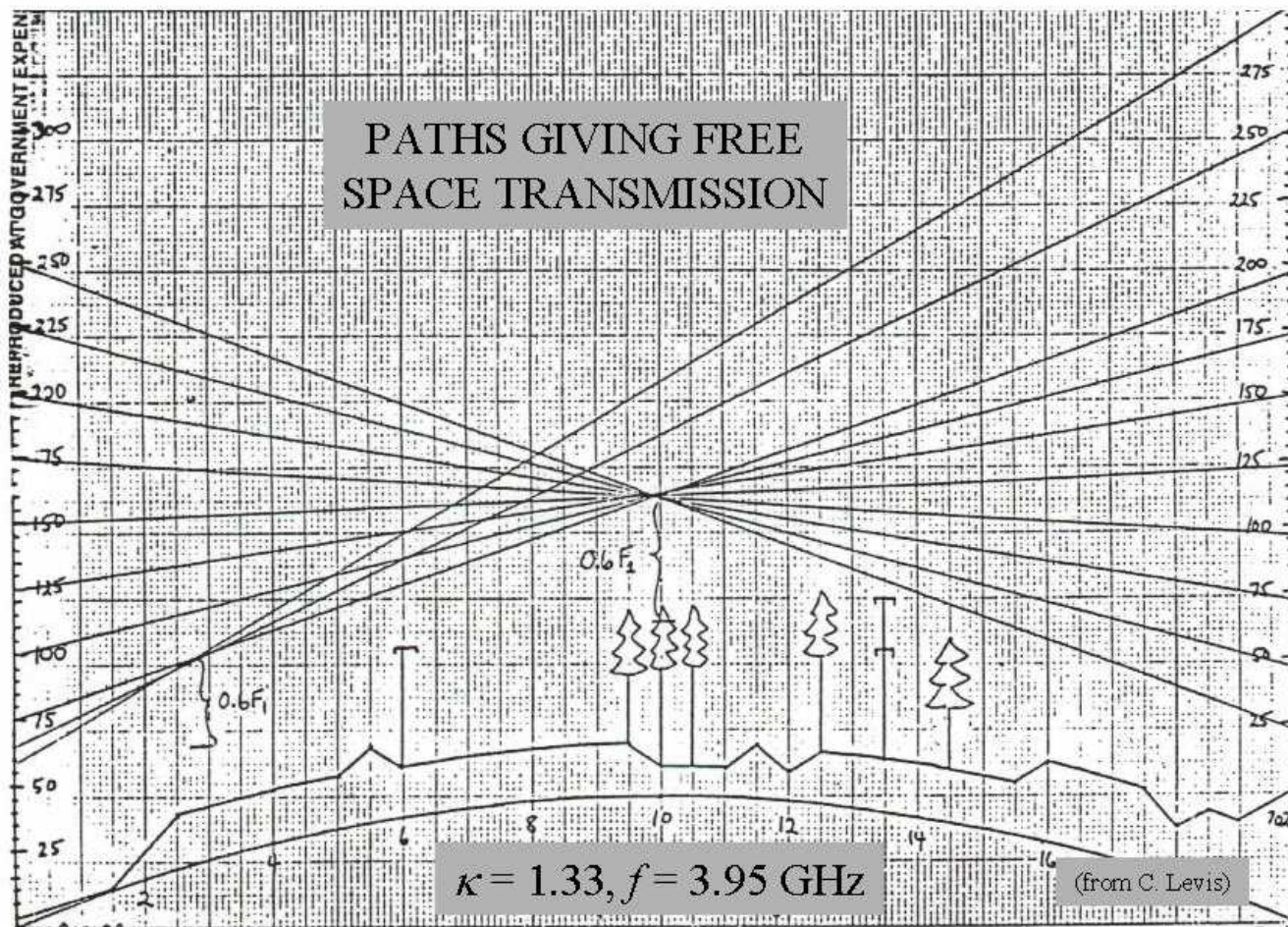
$$F_n = 72.1 \sqrt{\frac{nd_t d_r}{f_{\text{GHz}} d}} \text{ ft}$$

$$0.6F_1 = 53 \text{ ft}$$

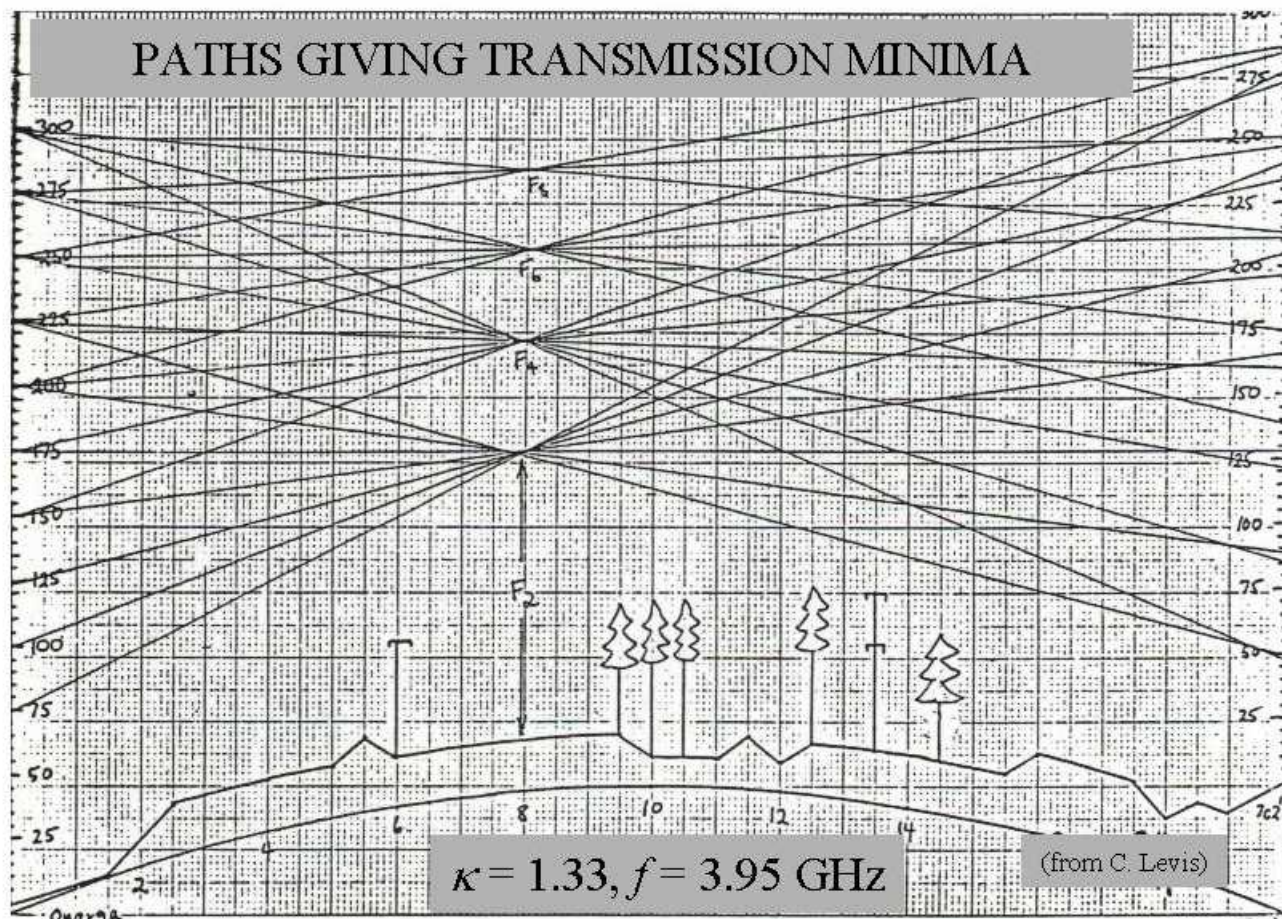
Compute the minimum antenna height:

$$h = b_{\max} + 0.6F_1 = 112.5 + 53 = 165.5 \text{ ft}$$

Example of Link Design (1)



Example of Link Design (2)



Antennas Over a Spherical Earth

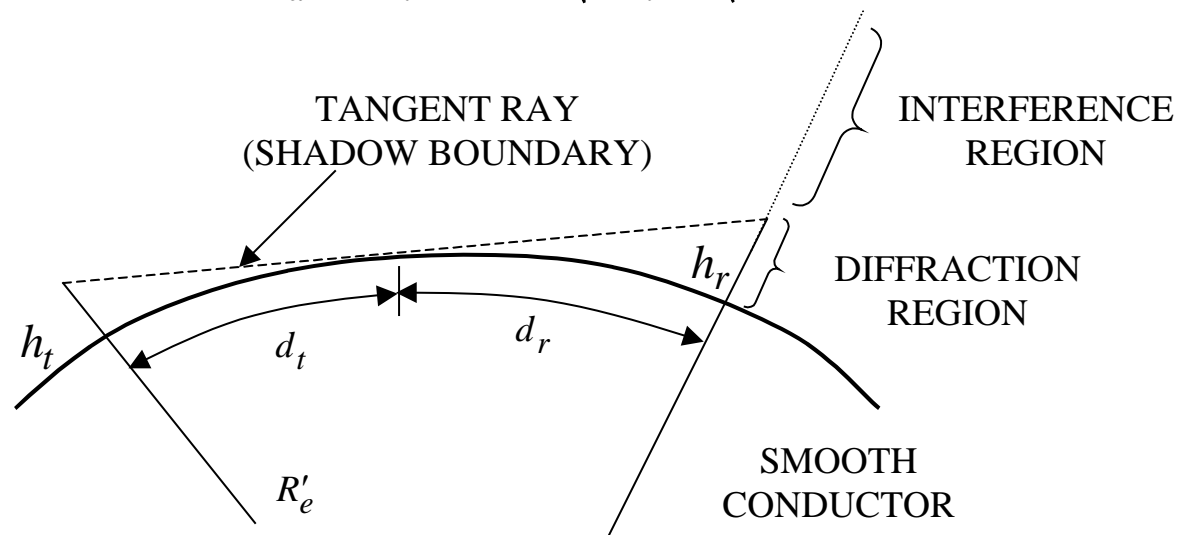
When the transmitter to receiver distance becomes too large the flat Earth approximation is no longer accurate. The curvature of the surface causes:

1. divergence of the power in the reflected wave in the interference region
2. diffracted wave in the shadow region (note that this is not the same as a ground wave)

The distance to the horizon is $d_t = R_{RH} \approx \sqrt{2R'_e h_t}$ or, if h_t is in feet, $d_t \approx \sqrt{2h_t}$ miles.

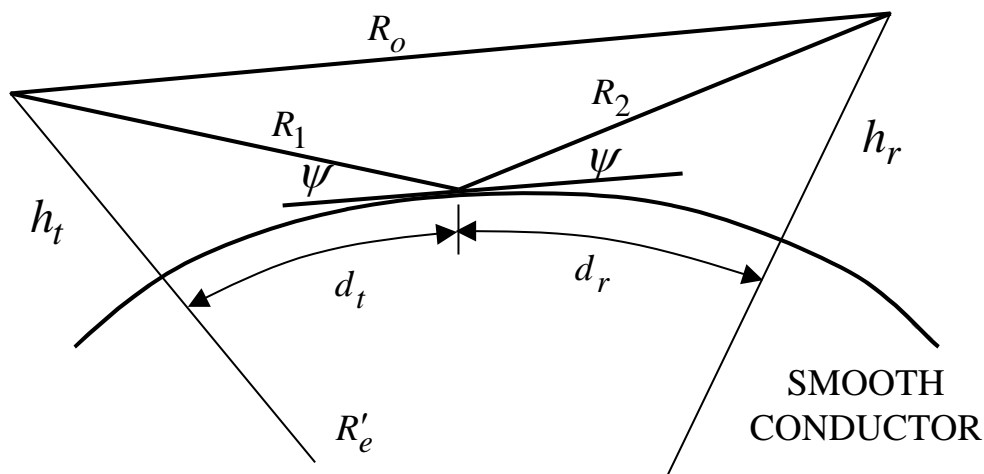
The maximum LOS distance between the transmit and receive antennas is

$$d_{\max} = d_t + d_r \approx \sqrt{2h_t} + \sqrt{2h_r} \quad (\text{miles})$$



Interference Region Formulas (1)

Interference region formulas



The path-gain factor is given by

$$|F| = \left| 1 + |\Gamma| e^{j\phi_\Gamma} e^{-jk\Delta R} \sqrt{D} \right|$$

where D is the divergence factor (power) and $\Delta R = R_1 + R_2 - R_o$.

Interference Region Formulas (2)

Approximate formulas¹ for the interference region:

$$|F| = \left\{ \left(1 + |\Gamma| \sqrt{D} \right)^2 - 4 |\Gamma| \sqrt{D} \sin^2 \left[\frac{\phi_\Gamma - k \Delta R}{2} \right] \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where $d_1 = d_t$, $d_2 = d_r$ and

$$\Delta R = \frac{2h_1 h_2}{d} J(S, T), \quad \tan \psi = \frac{h_1 + h_2}{d} K(S, T), \quad D = \left[1 + \frac{4S_1 S_2^2 T}{S(1 - S_2^2)(1 + T)} \right]^{-1} \quad (\text{power})$$

$$S_1 = \frac{d_1}{\sqrt{2R'_e h_1}}, \quad S_2 = \frac{d_2}{\sqrt{2R'_e h_2}} \quad \text{where } h_1 \text{ is the smallest of either } h_t \text{ or } h_r$$

$$S = \frac{d}{\sqrt{2R'_e h_1} + \sqrt{2R'_e h_2}} = \frac{S_1 T + S_2}{1 + T}, \quad T = \sqrt{h_1 / h_2} \quad (< 1 \text{ since } h_1 < h_2)$$

$$J(S, T) = (1 - S_1^2)(1 - S_2^2), \quad \text{and} \quad K(S, T) = \frac{(1 - S_1^2) + T^2(1 - S_2^2)}{1 + T^2}$$

¹D. E. Kerr, *Propagation of Short Radio Waves*, Radiation Laboratory Series, McGraw-Hill, 1951 (the formulas have been reprinted in many other books including R. E. Collin, *Antennas and Radiowave Propagation*, McGraw-Hill, 1985).

Interference Region Formulas (3)

The distances can be computed from $d = d_1 + d_2$ and

$$d_1 = \frac{d}{2} + p \cos\left(\frac{\Phi + \pi}{3}\right), \quad \Phi = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{2R'_e(h_1 - h_2)d}{p^3}\right),$$

and

$$p = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \left[R'_e(h_1 + h_2) + \frac{d^2}{4} \right]^{1/2}$$

Another form for the phase difference is

$$k\Delta R = \frac{2kh_1h_2}{d} (1 - S_1^2)(1 - S_2^2) = \nu\zeta\pi$$

where

$$\nu = \frac{4h_1^{3/2}}{\lambda\sqrt{2R'_e}} = \frac{h_1^{3/2}}{1030\lambda}, \quad \zeta = \frac{h_2/h_1}{d/d_{RH}} (1 - S_1^2)(1 - S_2^2),$$

and $d_{RH} = \sqrt{2R'_e h_1}$ (distance to the radio horizon).

Interference Region Formulas (4)

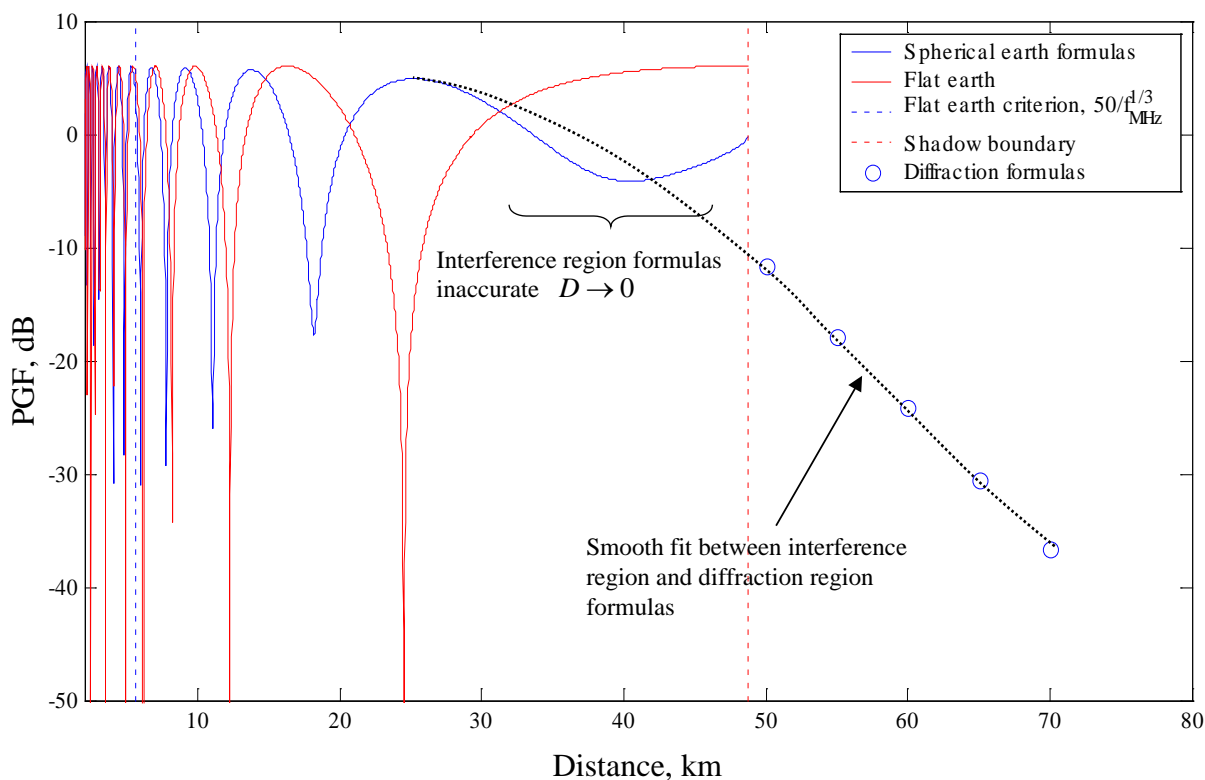
When can we use the flat Earth formulas?

1. The phase of the flat earth formula should be within 0.1π of the spherical earth value:

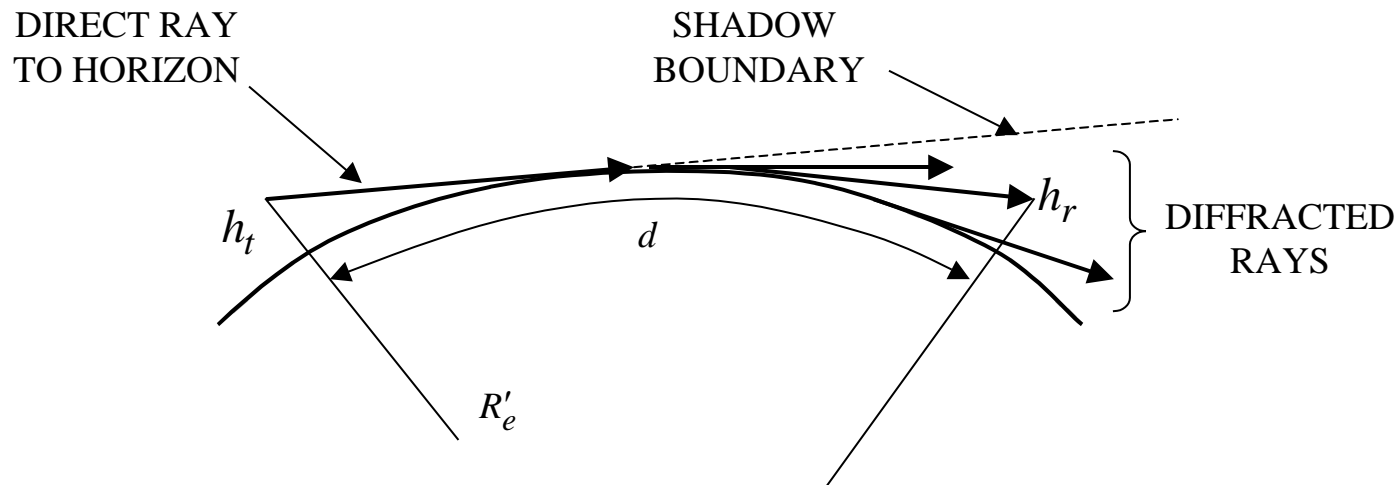
$$2kh_1h_2/d - \nu\zeta\pi \leq 0.1\pi$$

2. The divergence factor should be close to unity: typically $D \geq 0.9$.
3. The grazing angle should be small: $\psi \rightarrow 0$ and $K(S,T) \geq 0.9$.

There is no simple answer, but usually the distance d is considerably less than the radio horizon, d_{RH} , and frequently the two models disagree at distances as small as $d/d_{RH} \approx 1/3$. A comparison of the two models is shown.



Diffraction Region Formulas (1)



Approximate formulas for the diffraction region when $f > 100$ MHz:

$$F = V_1(X)U_1(Z_1)U_1(Z_2)$$

where U_1 is available from tables or curves, $Z_i = h_i / H$ ($i = 1, 2$), $X = d / L$, and

$$V_1(X) = 2\sqrt{\pi X} e^{-2.02X}, \quad L = 2\left(\frac{(R'_e)^2}{4k}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} = 28.41\lambda^{1/3}(\text{km}), \quad H = \left(\frac{R'_e}{2k^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} = 47.55\lambda^{2/3}(\text{m})$$

Diffraction Region Formulas (2)

A plot of $U_1(Z)$

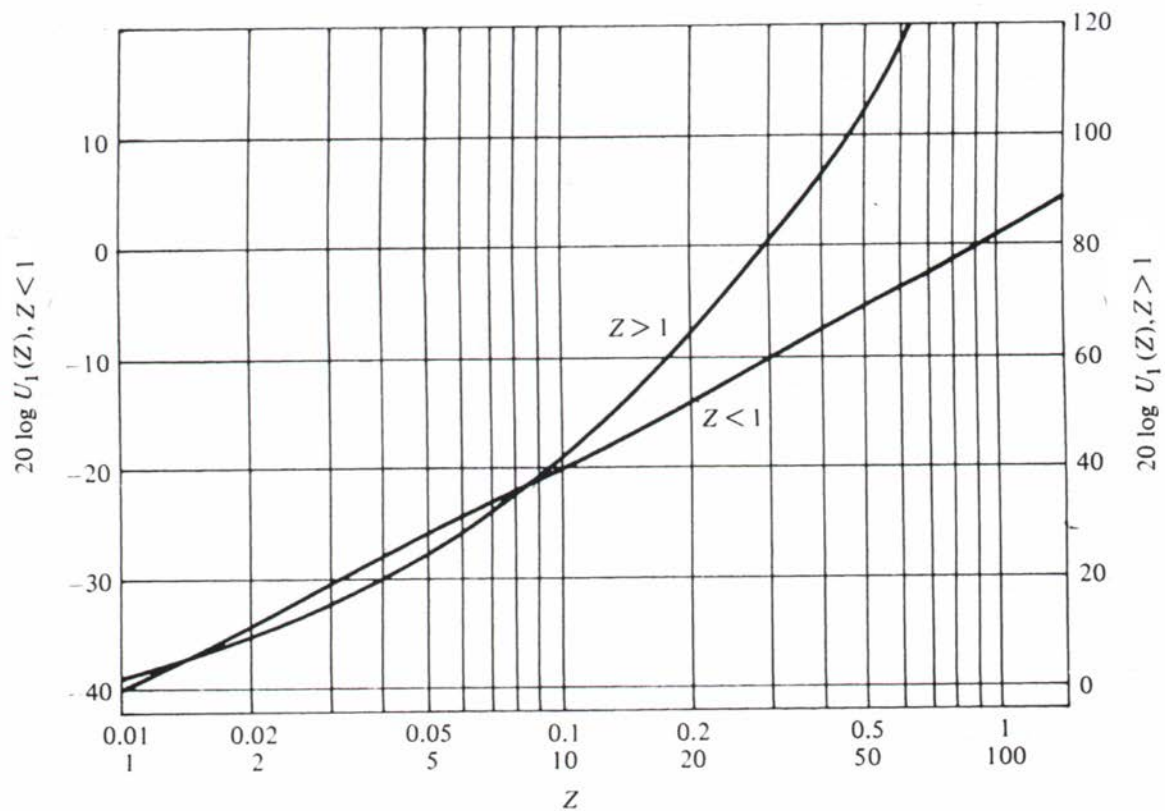


Fig. 6.29 in R. E. Collin, *Antennas and Radiowave Propagation*, McGraw-Hill, 1985 (axis labels corrected)

Surface Waves

The behavior of electromagnetic waves at the Earth's surface is a complex function of frequency, polarization, ground characteristics, curvature of the surface, atmospheric conditions, and antenna height.

Collectively the direct and Earth reflected waves are called the space wave. At ground level the direct and reflected waves nearly cancel. They do not completely cancel because the Earth is not a perfect conductor, and hence the antenna image current is not as intense as the source current.

At low frequencies (between about 1 kHz and 3 MHz) surface waves along the ground can be excited. Surface waves are solutions to the wave equation and the boundary conditions and, as the name implies, are guided along the boundary between two dissimilar materials. This fact is often used in designing surface waveguides that use a dielectric layer over a conducting ground plane. When the Earth's surface is involved, the waves are also called ground waves because the guiding surface is the ground.

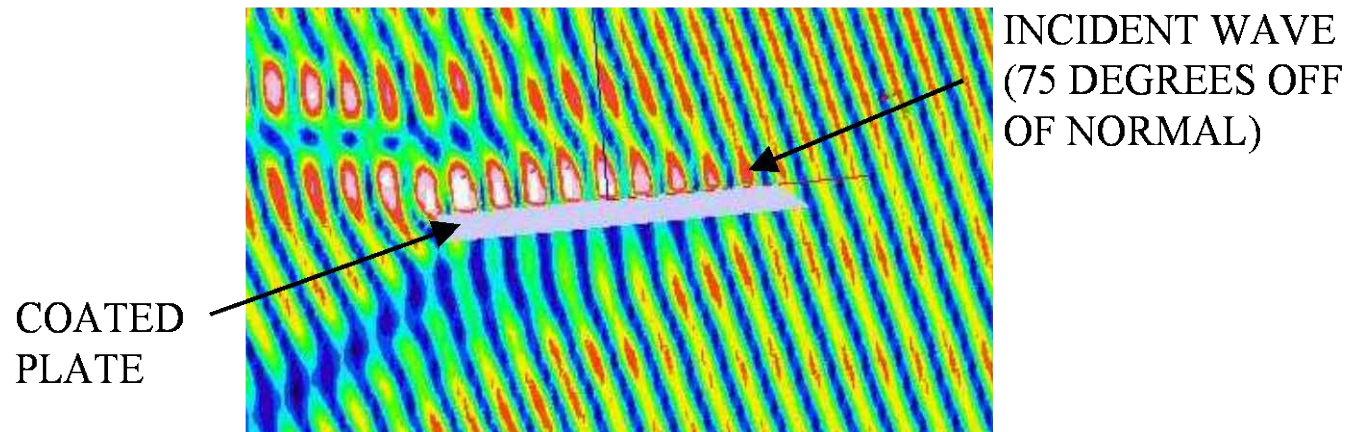
At low frequencies and vertical antennas near the ground (e.g., AM broadcast), the propagation at short distances (up to several hundred miles) is primarily via the ground wave. The rigorous solution for a dipole radiating over a lossy flat Earth was done by Sommerfeld, and later evaluated in a more convenient form by Norton¹.

¹ K. Norton, "The Propagation of Radio Waves over the Surface of the Earth and in the Upper Atmosphere," *Proc. IRE*, v. 24, 1936

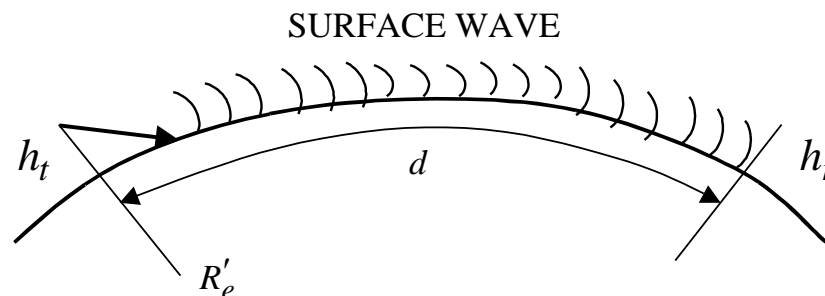
Surface Wave Illustration

Shown here is an example of a surface wave induced by an incident plane wave is shown traveling along a coated conducting plate

- 5λ plate
- 15 degree grazing angle
- TM (vertical) polarization
- the total field is plotted (incident plus scattered)
- surface waves will follow curved surfaces if the radius of curvature $\gg \lambda$



Ground Waves (1)



Simple formulas were derived by Norton. The power density at the receiver is the free space value times an attenuation factor

$$P_r = P_{\text{dir}} |2A_s|^2$$

where the factor of 2 is by convention. The surface wave attenuation factor is

$$A_s = 1 - j\sqrt{\pi\Omega} e^{-\Omega} \text{erfc}(j\sqrt{\Omega})$$

where $\Omega = -jk \frac{d}{2\epsilon_r} (\sqrt{\epsilon_r} - 1)$ and erfc is the complementary error function. This

calculation is for a surface wave along a flat interface which applies for $d \leq 50/(f_{\text{MHz}})^{1/3}$ miles. Beyond this distance the received signal attenuates more quickly.

Ground Waves (2)

The parameter Ω is usually expressed as $\Omega = pe^{jb}$, where p is the numerical distance

$$p = \frac{kd}{2\sqrt{\epsilon_r^2 + (\sigma/\omega\epsilon_o)^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad b = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\epsilon_r\epsilon_o\omega}{\sigma}\right)$$

A convenient formula is $\sigma/\omega\epsilon_o = \frac{1.8 \times 10^4 \sigma}{f_{\text{MHz}}}$. The attenuation factor for the ground wave

is approximately

$$|A_s| = \frac{2 + 0.3p}{2 + p + 0.6p^2} - \sqrt{p/2} e^{-0.6p} \sin b \quad (b \leq 90^\circ)$$

Example: A CB link operates at 27 MHz with low gain antennas near the ground. The following parameters hold: $P_t = 5$ W; $G_t = G_r = 1$; ground parameters, $\epsilon_r = 12$ and $\sigma = 5 \times 10^{-3}$ S/m. Find the received power at the maximum flat Earth range.

The maximum flat Earth distance is: $d_{\text{max}} = 50/(27)^{1/3} = 16.5$ miles

Ground Waves (3)

Check b to see if the formula for p applies

$$b = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{(12)(8.85 \times 10^{-12})(2\pi)(27 \times 10^6)}{5 \times 10^{-3}} \right) = 74.5^\circ \text{ (yes)}$$

$$p = \frac{\pi d / \lambda}{\sqrt{12^2 + (90/27)^2}} = 0.25 d / \lambda = 0.0225 \left(\frac{16.5}{0.62} \right) (1000) \approx 601$$

From the above expression we also get $d / \lambda = 4p$. The surface wave attenuation coefficient is

$$|A_s| = \frac{2 + 0.3p}{2 + p + 0.6p^2} - \sqrt{p/2} e^{-0.6p} \sin b \approx 8.33 \times 10^{-4}$$

The received power for the ground wave is

$$P_r = P_{\text{dir}} |2A_s|^2 = \frac{P_t G_t A_{er}}{4\pi d^2} |2A_s|^2 = \frac{P_t (1) (\lambda^2 / 4\pi)}{4\pi d^2} |2A_s|^2$$

$$= \frac{(5)(8.33 \times 10^{-4})^2}{(4\pi)(4)^2 (601)^2} = 1.52 \times 10^{-14} \text{ W}$$

Ground Waves (4)

FLAT EARTH

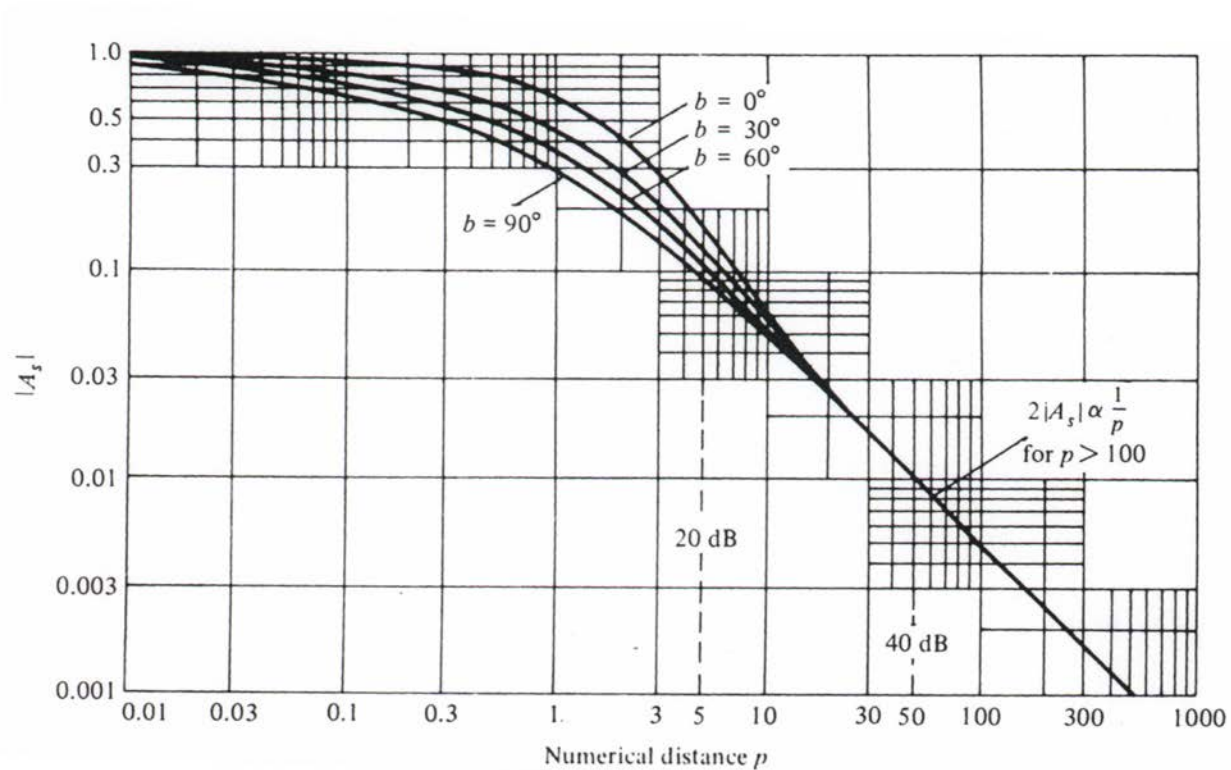


Fig. 6.35 in R. E. Collin, *Antennas and Radiowave Propagation*, McGraw-Hill, 1985

Ground Waves (5)

SPHERICAL EARTH ($\epsilon_r = 15$ and $\sigma = 10^{-2}$ S/m)

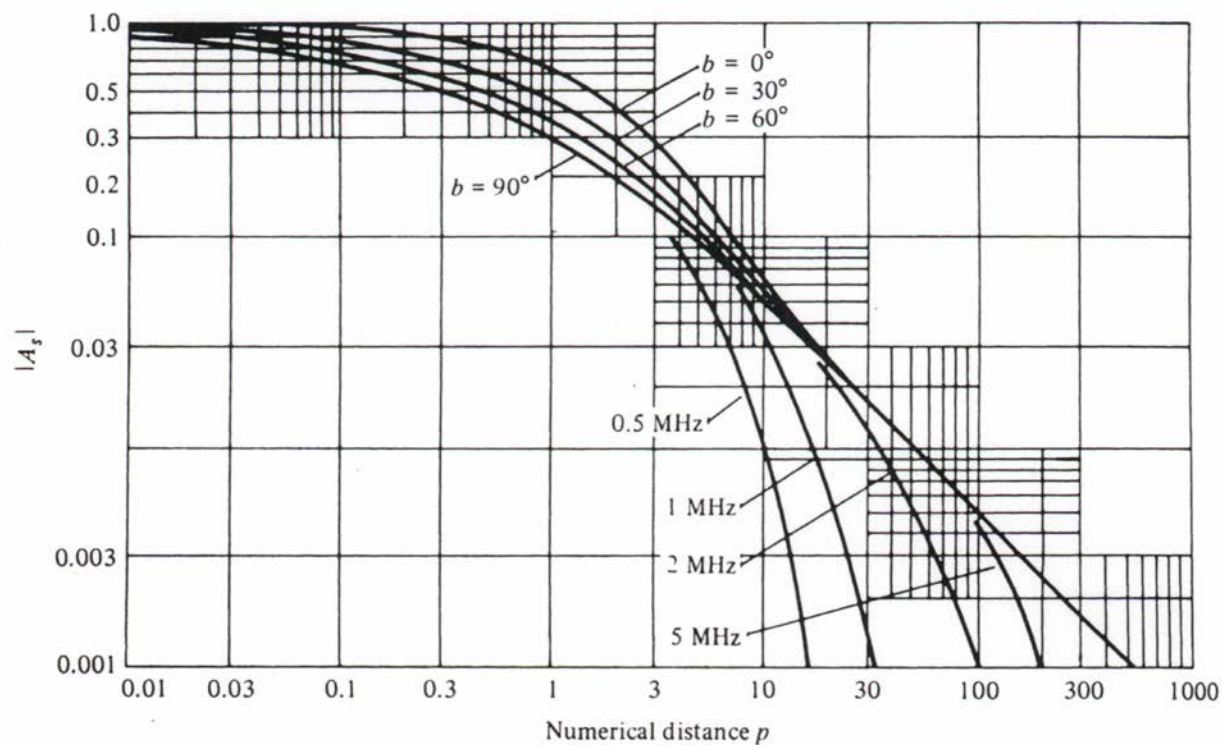
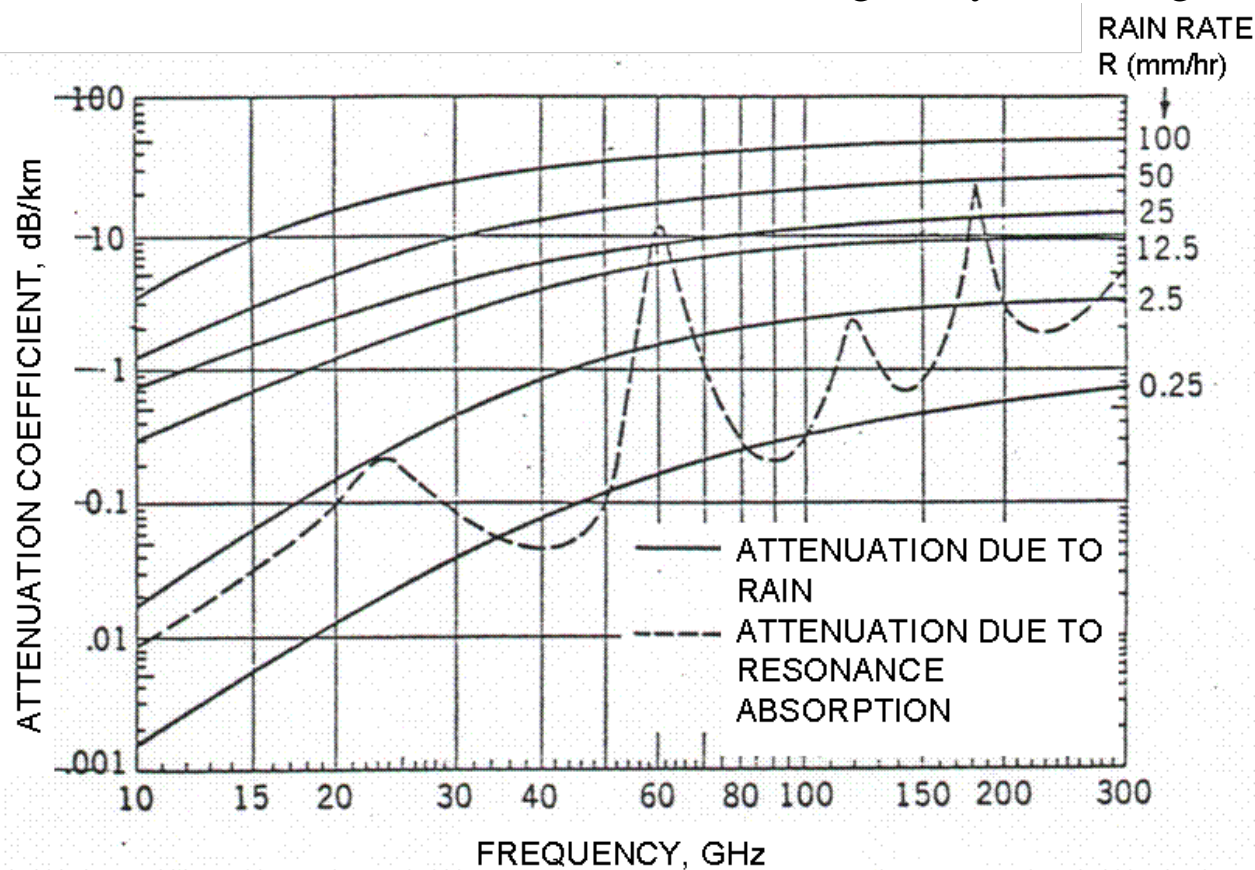


Fig. 6.36 in R. E. Collin, *Antennas and Radiowave Propagation*, McGraw-Hill, 1985

Attenuation Due to Rain and Gases (1)

Sources of signal attenuation in the atmosphere include rain, fog, water vapor and other gases. Most loss is due to absorption of energy by the molecules in the atmosphere. Dust, snow, and rain can also cause a loss in signal by scattering energy out of the beam.



Attenuation coefficient in dB/km predicted from precipitation rate assuming a Laws & Parsons drop size distribution

Attenuation Due to Rain and Gases (2)

There is no complete, comprehensive macroscopic theoretical model to predict loss. A wide range of empirical formulas exist based on measured data. A typical model:

$$A = aR^b, \text{ attenuation in dB/km}$$

R is the rain rate in mm/hr

$$a = G_a f_{\text{GHz}}^{E_a}$$

$$b = G_b f_{\text{GHz}}^{E_b}$$

where the constants are determined from the following table:

$G_a = 6.39 \times 10^{-5}$	$E_a = 2.03$	$f_{\text{GHz}} < 2.9$
$= 4.21 \times 10^{-5}$	$= 2.42$	$2.9 \leq f_{\text{GHz}} < 54$
$= 4.09 \times 10^{-2}$	$= 0.699$	$54 \leq f_{\text{GHz}} < 180$

$G_b = 0.851$	$E_b = 0.158$	$f_{\text{GHz}} < 8.5$
$= 1.41$	$= -0.0779$	$8.5 \leq f_{\text{GHz}} < 25$
$= 2.63$	$= -0.272$	$25 \leq f_{\text{GHz}} < 164$

Foliage Attenuation (1)

International Telecommunications Union (ITU) recommendation P.833-3 gives the following model for calculating the excess loss due to attenuation from trees and foliage.

Case 1: One antenna in the open, the other in the woodlands

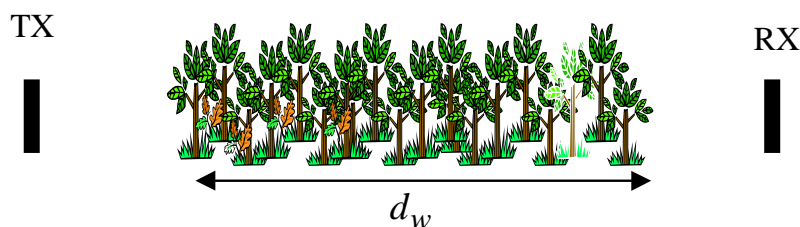


where d_w is the path length in the wooded area and α_w is the attenuation in dB/m for the foliage. The attenuation factor takes on a wide range of values, but can often be approximated by $\alpha_w = 0.2 f_{GHz}$. A_m is the maximum attenuation for one terminal within a specific type and depth of vegetation. For moderate tropical growth (i.e., measurements taken in a park in a tropical climate), in dB:

$$A_m = 32.5 \left(f_{GHz} \right)^{0.752}, \quad 0.9 \leq f_{GHz} \leq 1.8$$

Foliage Attenuation (2)

Case 2: Both ends of the link are in the open



Parameter	In Leaf	Out of Leaf
a	0.2	0.16
b	1.27	2.59
c	0.63	0.85
K_o	6.57	12.6
R_f	0.0002	2.1
A_o	10	10

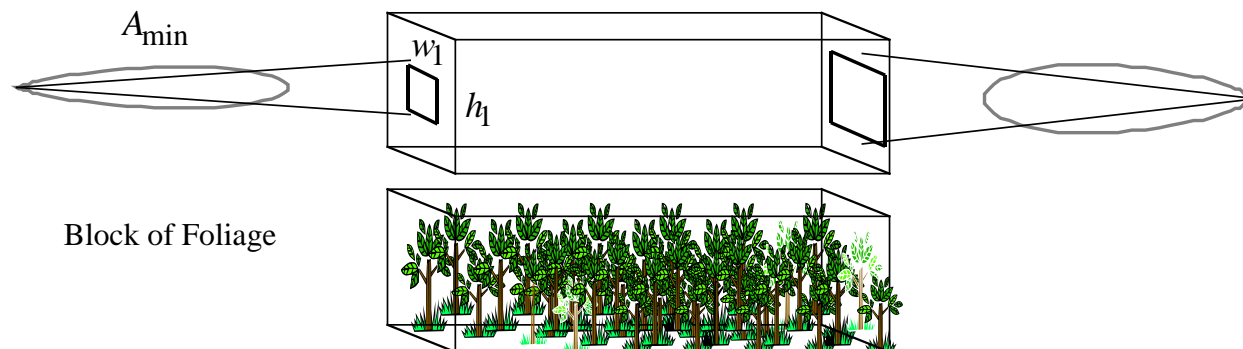
$$A_m = \begin{cases} d_w \alpha_w, & f_{GHz} \leq 3 \\ R_\infty d_w + K \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{R_o - R_\infty}{K} d_w\right) \right], & f_{GHz} > 5 \end{cases}$$

where $K = K_o - 10 \log_{10} \left\{ A_o \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{A_{min}}{A_o}\right) \right] \left[1 - \exp(-R_f f_{GHz}) \right] \right\}$, $R_o = a f_{GHz}$ and

$$R_\infty = b / f_{GHz}^c.$$

Foliage Attenuation (3)

A_{\min} is the minimum area “window of illumination” on the front and rear faces of the vegetation, which is determined by the spot sizes of the two antenna beams and their distances from the faces.



Examples:

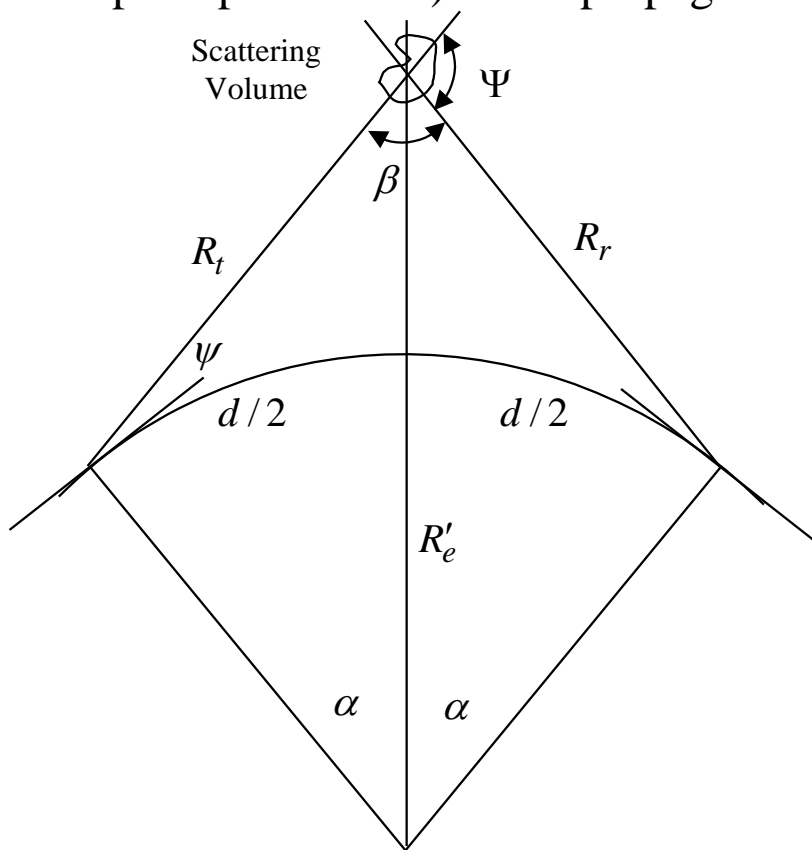
Case 1: $f_{GHz} = 1.0$ gives 2 dB of loss for 10 m and 32.4 dB of loss for 1000 m. The latter case can be decisive in the link design.

Case 2: In leaf, $d_w = 3$ m, $w_1 = 3$ m, $h_1 = 10$ m ($A_{\min} = 30$ m²) gives 3 dB at 5 GHz and 8.7 dB at 18 GHz

Tropospheric Scatter Propagation (1)

Tropospheric scatter propagation (troposcatter) exploits fluctuations in the dielectric constant of the atmosphere due to variations in temperature and pressure (typically only a few parts per million). This propagation mechanism was one of the few methods

available for communicating long distances over the horizon (along with ionospheric hops) before the advent of satellite communications. A few troposcatter systems are still in use today.



A common geometry is shown in the figure. High gain narrow beam antennas are used. For maximum range the scattering volume is midway between the transmitter and receiver. The antenna pointing angle above the horizon ψ is small so that $R_t = R_r \approx d/2$. β is called the bistatic angle. From geometry

$$\Psi + \beta = \pi \text{ and } \alpha = d/(2R'_e)$$

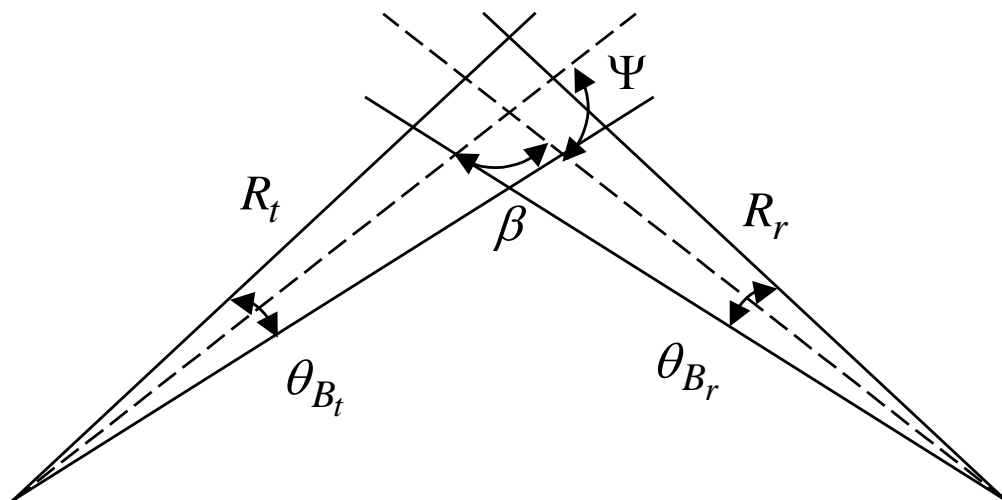
Tropospheric Scatter Propagation (2)

The received power is given by the bistatic radar range equation

$$P_r = \frac{P_t G_t G_r \sigma_V \lambda^2}{(4\pi)^3 R_t^2 R_r^2} = \frac{P_t G^2 \sigma_V}{4\pi k^2 (d/2)^4}$$

where $k = 2\pi / \lambda$ and σ_V is the scattering cross section of the volume of the intersection of the beams. The scattering volume is the cross sectional area of a parallelogram (shown in the elevation cut below), times the thickness in azimuth. If all of the beamwidths are

the same, then the volume between the beamwidths is



$$V_c = \frac{(R\theta_B)^2}{\sin \beta} R\theta_B \approx \left(\frac{d\theta_B}{2}\right)^3 \frac{1}{\sin \beta}$$

The maximum scattering occurs in the forward direction, $\Psi = 0$. In other directions it falls off as $\cos^2 \Psi$.

Tropospheric Scatter Propagation (3)

The scattering cross section (m^2) can be expressed as

$$\sigma_V = \frac{\pi^5}{\lambda^4} V_c S \cos^2 \Psi$$

where S is the spatial scattering spectrum. It is related to the correlation function of the time varying index of refraction. The λ^{-4} dependence is characteristic of Rayleigh scattering, which occurs when the scattering particles are much less than a wavelength.

An approximation for S is

$$S = 32\pi^3 C_n^2 (3.3 \times 10^{-2}) (2k \sin(\Psi/2))^{-11/3} \text{ m}^3$$

C_n is called the structure constant for the index of refraction fluctuations. At a height of 1.5 km it takes on values $2 \times 10^{-8} \leq C_n \leq 5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}^{-1/3}$. Two further approximations are also valid: $2 \sin(\Psi/2) \approx \Psi \approx d/R'_e$ and $\sin \beta \approx \beta \approx d/R'_e$. Therefore the radar range equation becomes

$$P_r = \frac{P_t G^2}{4\pi k^2 (d/2)^4} \frac{\pi^5}{\lambda^4} 32\pi^3 C_n^2 (3.3 \times 10^{-2}) (kd/R'_e)^{-11/3} \left(\frac{d\theta_B}{2}\right)^3 \frac{\cos^2 \Psi}{d/R'_e}$$

$$P_r \approx 2.23 \times 10^{32} P_t G^2 C_n^2 k^{-5/3} d^{-17/3} \theta_B^3 \cos^2 \beta$$

Tropospheric Scatter Propagation (4)

Example: A tropospheric communication link operates at 10 cm with a transmit power of 30 dB, parabolic reflector antenna gains of 50 dB (50% efficiency), and a transmit/receive distance of 400 km. Find the received power for $C_n = 10^{-8} \text{ m}^{-1/3}$.

The antenna diameter is related to the gain

$$G = 4\pi \left(\frac{\pi D^2}{4} \right) e / \lambda^2 \rightarrow D = \left[10^5 (0.1)^2 / (\pi^2 0.5) \right]^{1/2} = 14.2 \text{ m}$$

The HPBW can be estimated from the product of the beamwidths

$$G = 4\pi e / \Omega_A \approx 4\pi e / \theta_B^2 \rightarrow \theta_B = \left[4\pi e / 10^5 \right]^{1/2} = 0.008 \text{ rad}$$

The received power is

$$P_r \approx 2.23 \times 10^{32} 10^3 10^{10} (10^{-8})^2 \left(\frac{2\pi}{0.1} \right)^{-5/3} (400 \times 10^3)^{-17/3} 0.008^3 = 2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ W}$$

Note that for a LOS free space propagation link $\frac{P_t G^2 \lambda^2}{(4\pi)^2 d^2} = 6.3 \times 10^{-2} \text{ W}$. The troposcatter link has an additional 105 dB of loss.

Tropospheric Scatter Propagation (5)

In practice, more simple models of troposcatter links are used. Empirical or measured loss factors are applied to the Friis equation. For example,

$$P_r = P_t G_t G_r \left(\frac{\lambda}{4\pi R} \right)^2 L_c L_s L_f \rightarrow P_{r\text{dB}} = P_{t\text{dB}} + G_{t\text{dB}} + G_{r\text{dB}} - L_{p\text{dB}} - L_{c\text{dB}} - L_{s\text{dB}} - L_{f\text{dB}}$$

where: $L_p = \left(\frac{4\pi R}{\lambda} \right)^2 = \text{path loss}$

$L_s = \text{scatter loss}$

$L_c = \text{antenna to medium coupling loss}$

$L_f = \text{feeder loss (transmission line or plumbing loss)}$

The losses are defined such that they are positive quantities in dB. Empirical formulas for the coupling and scattering losses are:

$$L_{s\text{dB}} = 83 + 0.57\Psi_{\text{mrad}} + 10\log f_{\text{MHz}} - 0.2N$$

$$L_{c\text{dB}} = 0.07 \exp\left[0.055(G_{t\text{dB}} + G_{r\text{dB}})\right]$$

N is the surface refractivity, a quantity that will be discussed in more detail in the lectures on ducting and nonstandard refraction.

Tropospheric Scatter Propagation (6)

Example: Rework the last example using the simplified model (50 dB gains, 30 dB power, 3 GHz, and $d = 400$ km). Assume a refractivity of 320.

The angle Ψ must be determined in milliradians. From geometry $\alpha = d / (2R'_e)$, $\beta = \pi - d / R'_e$ and $\Psi = \pi - \beta = d / R'_e = 0.0468$ rad = 46.8 mrad

$$L_{s_{\text{dB}}} = 83 + 0.57(46.8) + 10 \log 3000 - 0.2(320) = 80.5 \text{ dB}$$

$$L_{c_{\text{dB}}} = 0.07 \exp[0.055(100)] = 17.1 \text{ dB}$$

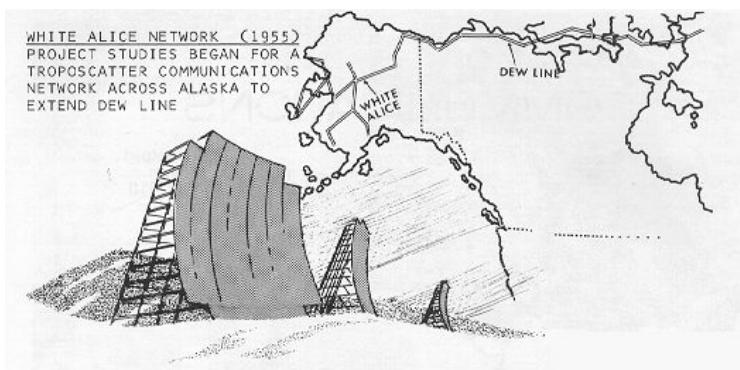
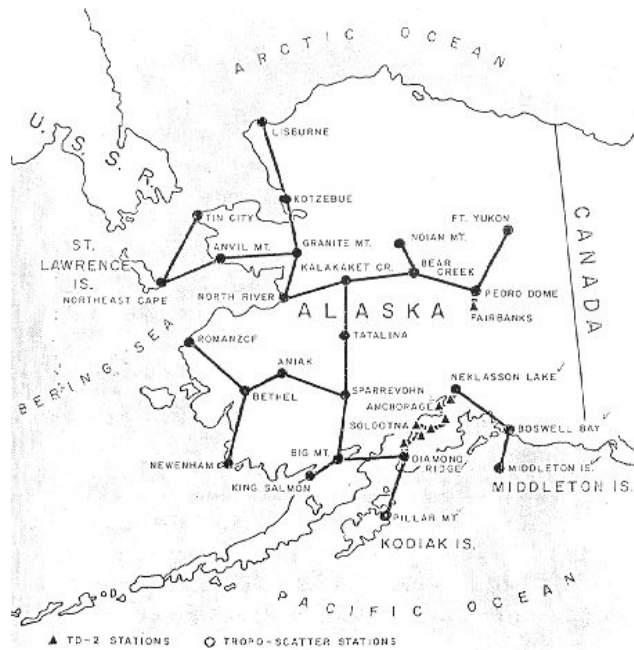
$$L_{p_{\text{dB}}} = -20 \log \left[0.1 / (4\pi 400 \times 10^3) \right] = 154 \text{ dB}$$

The received power is

$$P_{r_{\text{dB}}} = 30 + 50 + 50 - 154 - 17.1 - 80.5 = -121.6 \text{ dB} = 6.9 \times 10^{-13} \text{ W}$$

This is a difference of 4.6 dB from the previous result. For this application it can be considered good agreement. Variations in the atmosphere cause the signal strength to vary by perhaps tens of dB over relatively short periods of time.

White Alice Troposcatter Link



Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (1)

Nonstandard propagation takes place when the index of refraction deviates significantly from the linear decrease with height assumed for the standard atmosphere. Relatively large changes over short heights (10s to 100s of meters) result in ducts. Rays launched at

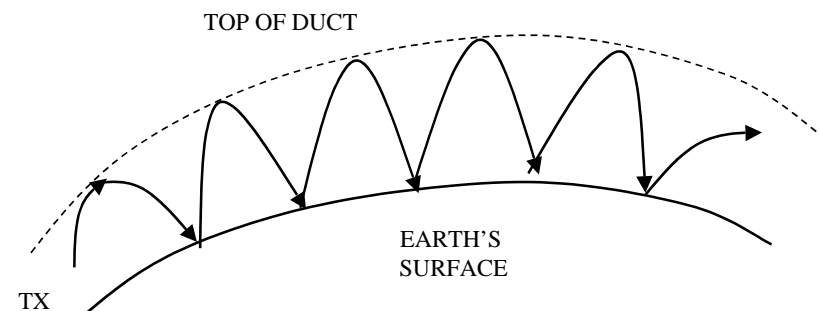
the proper angle and frequency

will be confined to the duct.

Similar to a waveguide, waves in

a duct do not suffer a $1/R^2$

isotropic spreading loss.



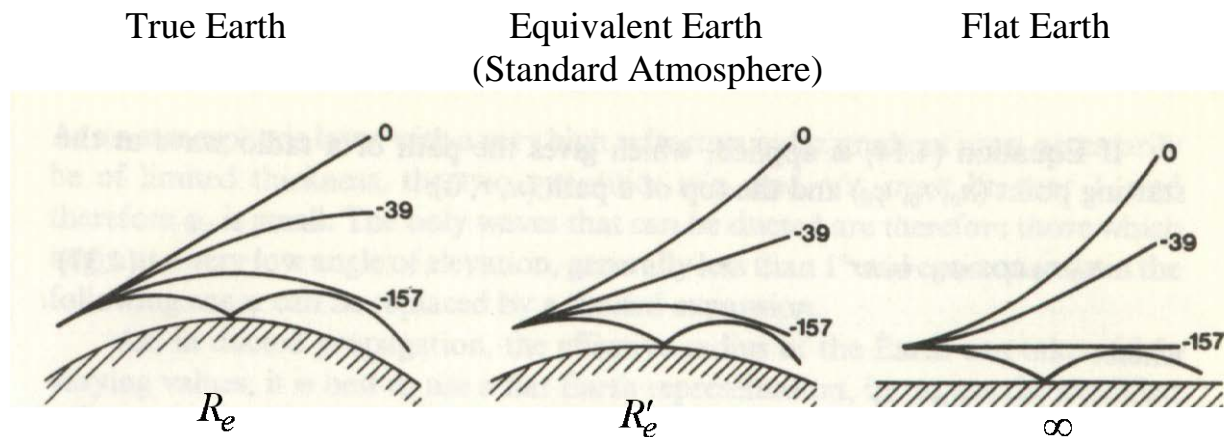
- The formation of ducts is due primarily to water vapor, and therefore they tend to occur over bodies of water (but not land-locked bodies of water)
- They can occur at the surface or up to 5000 ft (elevated ducts)
- Thickness ranges from a meter to several hundred meters
- The trade wind belts have a more or less permanent duct of about 1 to 5 m thickness
- Efficient propagation occurs for UHF frequencies and above if both the transmitter and receiver are located in the duct
- If the transmitter and receiver are not in the duct, significant loss can occur before coupling into the duct

Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (2)

Because variations in the index of refraction are so small, a quantity called the refractivity is used

$$N(h) = [n(h) - 1]10^6 \quad n(h) = \sqrt{\epsilon_r(h)}$$

In the normal (standard) atmosphere the gradient of the vertical refractive index is linear with height, $dN/dh \approx -39$ N units/km. If $dN/dh < -157$ then rays will return to the surface. Rays in the three Earth models are shown below.



From *Radiowave Propagation*, Lucien Boithias, McGraw-Hill

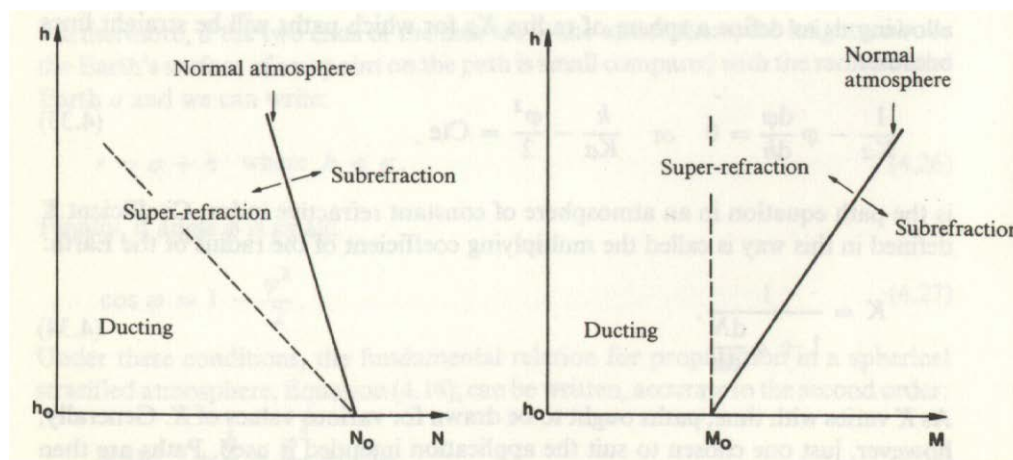
Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (3)

Another quantity used to solve ducting problems is the modified refractivity in M units per meter is

$$M(h) = N(h) + 10^6 (h / R_e)$$

The ratio $10^6 / R_e$ with h converted to km is 157. Therefore, the condition for ducting is $dM/dh = dN/dh + 157$. Other values of dN/dh (or dM/dh) lead to several types of refraction as summarized in the following figure and table. They are:

1. Super refraction: The index of refraction decrease is more rapid than normal and the ray curves downward at a greater rate.
2. Substandard refraction (subrefraction): The index of refraction decreases less rapidly than normal and there is less downward curvature than normal.



From *Radiowave Propagation*, Lucien Boithias, McGraw-Hill

Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (4)

Summary of refractivity and ducting conditions (after Boithias)

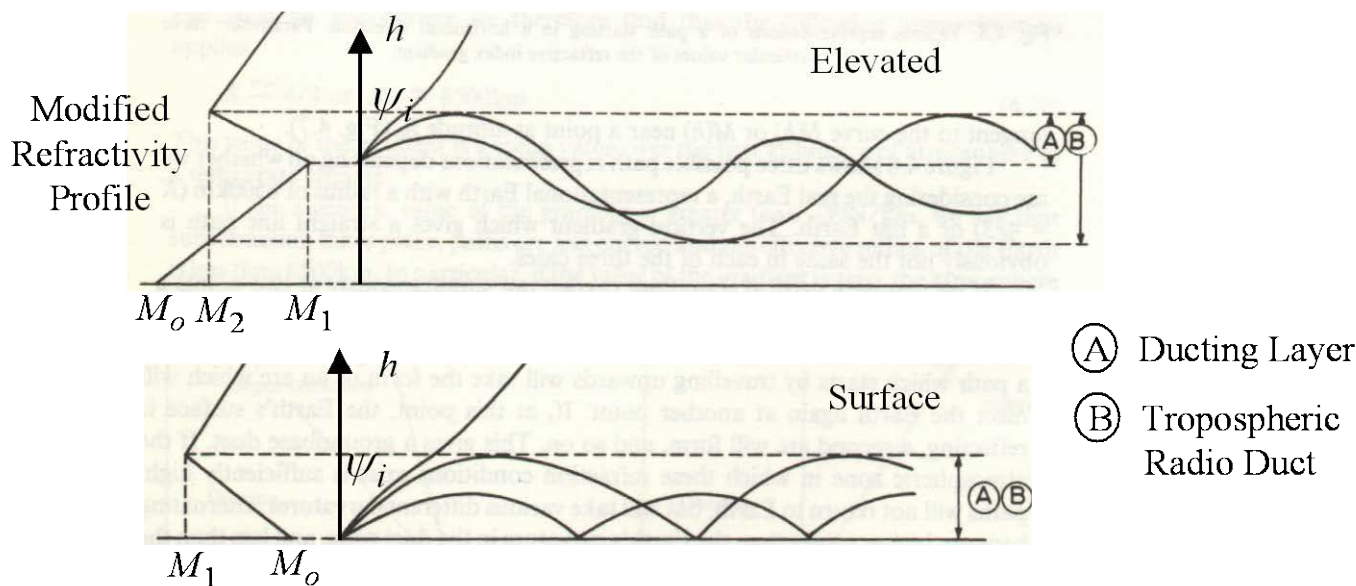
dN / dh	Ray Curvature	κ	Atmospheric Refraction	Virtual Earth	Horizontally Launched Ray
> 0	up	< 1	below normal	more convex	moves away from Earth
0	none	1		actual	
$0 > \frac{dN}{dh} > -39$	down	> 1	normal	less convex	
-39		$4/3$			
$-39 > \frac{dN}{dh} > -157$		$> 4/3$	above normal	plane	parallel to Earth
-157					
< -157			super-refraction	concave	draws closer to Earth

Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (5)

Using a stratified model for the duct, the spherical form of Snell's Law must hold at the top and bottom. Let (ψ_i, R_i, n_i) be the launch angle, distance to the Earth center, and index of refraction at the bottom, and similarly $(90^\circ, R, n)$ at the top. Then

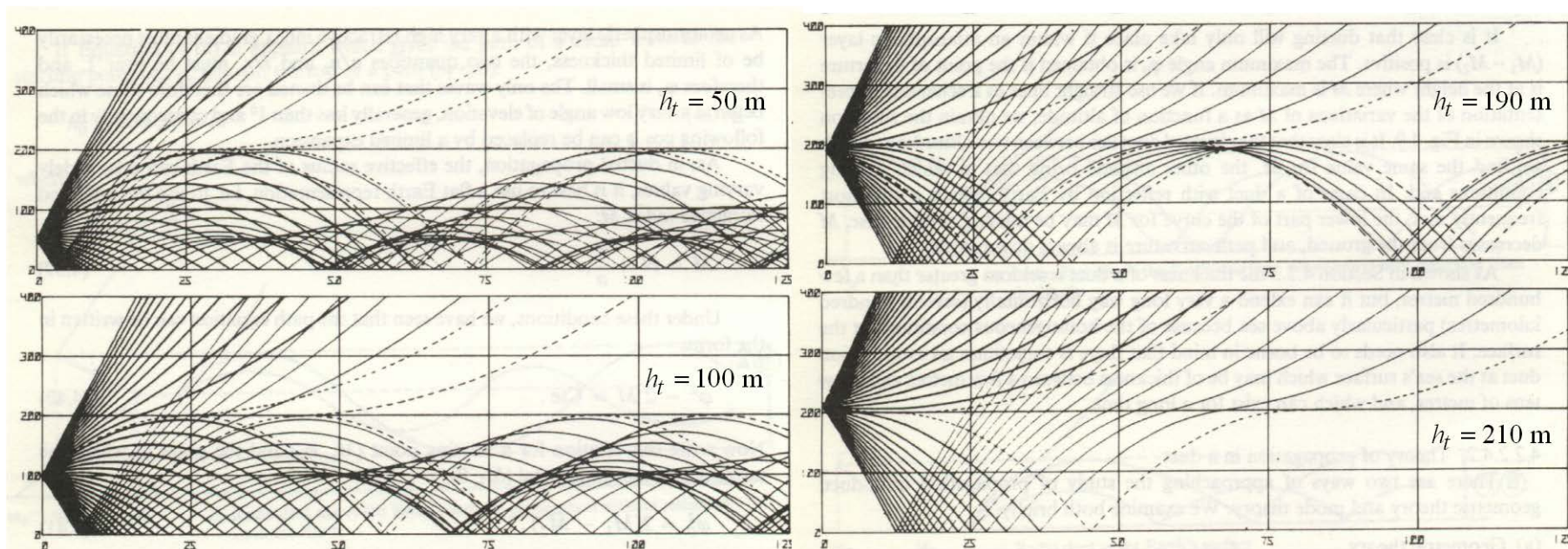
$$n_i R_i \sin \psi_i = n R \sin 90^\circ \rightarrow \sin \psi_i = \frac{n R}{n_i R_i} \approx 1$$

Thus the incidence angle must also be very close to 90° (generally $< 89^\circ$). Some examples of paths in a duct are shown below.



Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (6)

Some examples of ray trajectories in ducts for various transmitter heights (gradient of the duct -500 N/km, thickness 200 m).



From *Radiowave Propagation*, Lucien Boithias, McGraw-Hill

Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (7)

Approximate cutoff frequency of the duct is

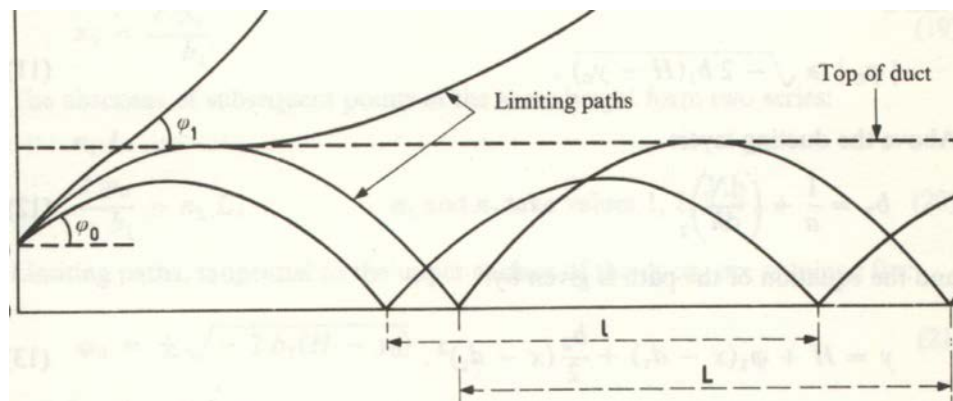
$$\lambda_{\max} = 2.5(\Delta h)\sqrt{\Delta n} \rightarrow f_{\min} = c / \lambda_{\max}$$

Δh = depth of the duct, and Δn = variation of the index inside of the duct. Note that the cutoff is not abrupt, as in a waveguide with conducting walls. As the frequency falls below cut-off the duct lets more and more energy escape. Refractive index variations near the top of the duct make the cutoff frequency even less definite.

The lengths of the arcs of a ducted path are approximately

$$L = 2\sqrt{\frac{2000(\Delta h)}{-(dN/dh + 157)}} \text{ km}$$

where Δh is in meters and dN/dh is in N/km.



Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (8)

Example: A duct near the ground with a thickness of 30 m and $\Delta n = 4 \times 10^{-6}$ (4 N units), a typical case at middle latitudes.

$$\lambda_{\max} = 2.5(30)\sqrt{4 \times 10^{-6}} = 0.15 \text{ m} \quad \rightarrow \quad f_{\min} = \frac{c}{\lambda_{\max}} = 2000 \text{ MHz}$$

Example: Find the values of L for duct heights of 100, 200 and 300 m and $dN/dh = -160$, -200 and -500 N/km.

Using the formula on the previous page gives the following results:

dN/dh	$\Delta h = 100$	$\Delta h = 200$	$\Delta h = 300$
-160	516	730	894
-200	136	192	236
-500	48	68	84

Ducts and Nonstandard Refraction (9)

From the definition of refractivity: $N(h) = [n(h) - 1]10^6$ so

$$\frac{dN}{dh} = \frac{dn}{dh}10^6 \text{ N/m} = \frac{dn}{dh}10^9 \text{ N/km}$$

Note that from p. 22:

$$\kappa = \left[1 + \frac{R_e}{\sqrt{\epsilon_0}} \frac{d\sqrt{\epsilon}}{dh} \right]^{-1} = \left[1 + R_e \frac{dn}{dh} \right]^{-1} = \left[1 + 10^{-9} R_e \frac{dN}{dh} \right]^{-1}$$

Example: At what range could a target at a height of 1 km be detected by a radar at sea level if $\frac{dN}{dh} = -20$ N/km?

$$\kappa = \left[1 + 10^{-9} R_e \frac{dN}{dh} \right]^{-1} = \left[1 + 10^{-9} (6375 \times 10^3)(-20) \right]^{-1} = 1.146$$

$$d = \sqrt{2\kappa R_e h} = \sqrt{2(1.146)(6375)(1)} = 120.9 \text{ km}$$

AREPS Simulation of a Radar in a Duct

AREPS (Advanced Refractive Effects Prediction) software available from SPAWAR PMW-155 (San Diego)

