# A Virtual Environment Software to Position Corner Reflectors for Assisting in SAR Sensor Calibration

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- Keywords: Remote Sensing, Virtual Reality, Unity, Software, Satellite, SAR, Corner Reflector, Calibration, Coding, Radar Cross Section.
- Abstract: Synthetic aperture radars (SAR) have been used for decades to observe activity and changes on the Earth's surface. This type of satellite imaging can be used under any weather and light condition as it does not depend on the Sun's illumination and is not obstructed by clouds, water vapours, etc. As any other instrument, SAR systems need to be calibrated. External calibration can be applied, for example, to SAR sensors on spaceborne platforms. In this case, an external target point, such as a corner reflector (CR) is placed in the location of imaging and its Radar Cross Section (RCS), the physical property measured by SARs, is recorded with the final aim of comparing it with its expected theoretical value and calculate then the calibration constant. Deploying a CR correctly requires experience and knowledge of theoretical conditions to maximize its RCS (that range from the selection of the site and shape of the CR to specific values for the azimuth and elevation angles). In this paper, a Virtual Reality (VR) environment has been developed in Unity to assist students/users in visualising the process mentioned above and being able to find the optimal CR orientation and placement. The program currently works with SAR data from the Copernicus constellation

# **1** INTRODUCTION

Earth observation with satellites, and its teaching in university classes, is becoming more popular, especially when accomplished with Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR). SAR can penetrate through most clouds, precipitation and in some cases, dense vegetation canopy (Molthan, Bell & Schultz, 2017). SAR images require calibration in the majority of applications in order to relate the digital number in the image to the physical property measured which is the signal backscattered from the scene under study. There are a few methods for calibrating the sensors, like internal and external calibration (Freeman, 1992). This paper will focus on external calibration and how virtual reality can support its teaching.

External calibration is normally performed by using target points, such as corner reflectors (CR). These can be positioned at the desired location and with specific orientation to increase the backscattered signal. Given the dimensions of CRs and the need of moving them around, deploying such objects is not an easy task.

Normally, external calibration requires a survey of places where the CR would be deployed. If the planning is inaccurate, i.e. the type of corner reflector is inefficient or the angle of placement is off, then the whole calibration might be unsuccessful. To offer remote sensing students an opportunity to get acquainted with external calibration of SARs, a Virtual Reality (VR) program has been developed and is here presented. Based in Unity, the program simulates the activity of positioning corner reflectors and calculate the best setup for the optimal results.

By using such program, the planning can be preliminarily handled which is more advantageous compared to practical work since it allows for constant readjustment of the results to find the most efficient setup before the mere deployment is needed. Of the different types of VR (Matthews, 2020), this paper deals with the non-immersive type.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 presents the background and the theory behind SAR calibration; Section 3 will detail the VR environment developed in Unity and the benefits to the user before Conclusions can be drawn.

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## **2** BACKGROUND AND THEORY

To better understand the VR environment presented in Section 3, it is necessary to introduce some topics such as SAR sensor calibration and the radar cross section. A subsection explaining reasons in favour for an adoption of VR in learning environment is also provided.

### 2.1 SAR Calibration

There are different types of SAR calibration and, in the following, the "external" one is covered. With the latter, the echo signal expected by a SAR system (the Radar Cross Section) for a target of known characteristics is compared with a real measurement or, better, with the Digital Number (DN) of the pixels corresponding to the position of the known target. From this comparison, the calibration constant is calculated and applied to any other pixel in the image. The external calibration requires deployment of such structures with known characteristics, called Corner Reflectors, which are described in the following section.

## 2.2 Corner Reflectors and Radar Cross Section Measurement

The main reason for using corner reflectors is for their high reflectivity against electromagnetic (EM) waves.

To determine how bright a corner reflector appears in the image, it is important to consider the radar cross section (RCS). The typical measurement of brightness within a SAR image, the backscattering coefficient "Sigma Nought", is equal to the RCS (in dBm<sup>2</sup>) normalised to the area A of the illuminated resolution cell (Freeman, 1992):

$$\sigma_{pq}^{o} = \frac{\langle \sigma_{pq}^{n} \rangle}{A} \tag{1}$$

where  $\sigma_{pq}^o$  = normalised RCS,  $\sigma_{pq}^n$  = RCS of nth RCS measurement with  $\sim$  denoting the ensemble average, A = illuminated area (projected onto the ground).

$$A = \frac{p_a p_r}{\sin \theta_i} \tag{2}$$

 $p_a, p_r = \text{SAR}$  image pixel dimensions in the azimuth and slant range directions, respectively.

 $\theta_i$  = local incidence angle at the scattering surface.

In ideal conditions, the SAR image is fully described by its scattering matrix element in complex representation,  $S_{pq}$ , with p describing the transmit polarization and q the receiving one, or the same but

in intensity representation through the RCS as the equations below show (Freeman, 1992):

$$\begin{pmatrix} E_h^s \\ E_v^s \end{pmatrix} = \frac{e^{jk_o R}}{R} \begin{pmatrix} S_{hh} & S_{vh} \\ S_{hv} & S_{vv} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E_h^i \\ E_v^i \end{pmatrix}$$
(3)

$$s_{pq} = 4\pi \left| S_{pq} \right|^2 \tag{4}$$

with  $\sigma_{pq}$  = non-normalised RCS,  $\begin{pmatrix} E_h^s \\ E_v^s \end{pmatrix}$  = scattered electric field,  $k_o$  = wave number, R = radial distance between scatterer and radar antenna,  $\begin{pmatrix} E_h^i \\ E_v^j \end{pmatrix}$  = incident electric field, and h and v subscripts denoting the horizontal and vertical polarisations, respectively.

The RCS of the target would need to be much larger than its surrounding area, as the surfaces nearby will be made of non-zero radar backscatterers. It is also important for the targets to coherently interact as little as possible with the terrain, at the same time maintaining wide and stable RCS patterns. For calibration, it is most common to use trihedral corner reflectors as they are one of the most optimal shapes to achieve the conditions above and the RCS pattern has a 3 dB beamwidth of approximately 40° in the azimuth orientation. The size of these reflectors also depends on the frequency bands of the radar, with lower frequencies requiring larger CRs. This project will focus on data from the Sentinel-1B which carrier is in C-Band, around 5GHz.

For the program, the selected target reflectors were the triangular, square, and circular trihedral corner reflectors. The approximate expression for a triangular CR is given in Eq. (5):

$$\sigma(\theta,\psi) \approx \frac{4\pi}{\lambda^2} a^4 \times \{\cos\theta + \sin\theta(\sin\psi + \cos\psi) - 2 \times [\cos\theta + \sin\theta(\sin\psi + \cos\psi)]^{-1}\}^2$$
(5)

Where a = inner edge length of trihedral CR,  $\theta =$  azimuth angle of CR relative to radar direction,  $\psi =$  elevation angle of CR relative to radar direction.

The theoretical maximum RCS equations of each shape is given below in Eq. (6), (7), (8).

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$$\sigma_{triangle} = \frac{4\pi a^4}{3\lambda^2} \tag{6}$$

$$\sigma_{square} = \frac{12\pi a^4}{\lambda^2} \tag{7}$$

$$\sigma_{circular} = \frac{0.507\pi^3 a^4}{\lambda^2} \tag{8}$$

The RCS of the square CR is the highest and is a factor of 9 greater than the triangular CR, and the circular CR is a factor of 3.8 greater than the triangular CR.

### 2.3 Virtual Reality in Academic Learning and Training

At the present day, there are five main categories of virtual reality (Sultan, 2020):

- 1. Non-immersive
- 2. Fully Immersive
- 3. Semi-Immersive
- 4. Augmented Reality
- 5. Collaborative VR

The program described in this paper is based on non-immersive VR that can be commonly found in most daily devices. This type of VR refers to an environment within which users can interact with the characters, objects, or the scene itself. This VR does not involve wearing any equipment to immerse the user into the virtual world. For instance, any gaming devices such as Xbox, PlayStation, computers, or mobile phones would use this type of VR. This kind of VR well suits also the calibration task previously described as it is conceived for a Windows Operating System computer.

Many studies investigated the benefits of virtual reality in education and training. For example, in Pantelidis (2009) it was found that:

1. Immersive VR provide first-person experiences that are specifically designed to help students learn material which cannot be obtained in any other way in formal education.

2. This experience makes up the bulk of our daily interaction with the world, although schools promote third-person experiences.

3. "The convergence of theories of knowledge construction with VR technology permits learning to be boosted by the manipulation of the relative size of objects in virtual worlds, by the transduction of otherwise imperceptible sources of information, and by the reification of abstract ideas that have so far defied representation."

According to Hu Au & Lee (2017), often students consider classroom-based learning irrelevant and find that there is a disconnection between theory learnt in the class and practical work done in the real world. However, VR provides the bridge between these two areas and help promote student satisfaction and engagement. By increasing these factors, the student's learning and personal development is further increased (Hu Au & Lee, 2017). Another important advantage of using VR is to give student a sense of identity. For example, virtual fieldtrips could inspire a student to head into a STEM or a medical career by showing the workplace and job roles in a first-person experience (Hu Au & Lee, 2017). To further enhance the experience, students can be placed into fully immersive VR or use augmented reality (AR). As shown later, the VR environment here presented can be advantageous to students studying a course in satellite remote sensing as would enable a better understanding of SAR sensor calibration and corner reflector deployment, without the need to engage in field surveys.

To sum up, the quality of the education can be improved due to the more accurate illustration of certain features, processes, and so forth. VR allows close examination of certain objects in the virtual environment and provides complete safety than if it would be conducted in a real world. This can build up the students' strengths and decrease their weaknesses. VR allows anyone to participate due to its flexible setup. It enables users to create anything from their imagination and allows easy visualisation and manipulations of objects to grasp difficult concepts (Hu Au & Lee, 2017).

# 3 DEVELOPING THE PROGRAM ON UNITY

In this section, a brief explanation of the program will be provided.

Overall, the program has three main scenes: The start menu, the virtual Earth environment and the virtual landscape at the surface. Briefly, the start menu will allow users to select their desired satellite data. The second scene will allow the user to get a visual of the geographic area where the data is acquired from, along with the flight direction of the satellite. The last scene will allow the user to be on a virtual surface to choose the corner reflector shape, size, orientation, and place it onto the ground, with the resulting values of RCS being displayed.

#### 3.1 Scene 1: Start Menu

Right at the beginning of the program, a start menu scene is shown to allow the user to select the satellite metadata they are interested in. An 'Open File' button opens the file explorer on the user's personal computer. For the current version of the program,



Figure 1: Scene 2 - Virtual Earth scene from space, once "Locate Coordinates" button is pressed.

only Sentinel-1B data, from the European Copernicus constellation, has been tested in the development and the metadata can be found in the '/Products' folder as a file type of '.xml'.

In an XML file, there are many parent nodes and children nodes which carry the relevant information. Therefore, it is necessary to write a script that allows the XML file to be efficiently read and extract data from the useful nodes.

Once the file is selected, the "Start" button can be pressed to simultaneously read the file and to transition onto the next scene.

### 3.2 Scene 2: Virtual Earth from Space

The second scene that appears is the virtual environment of the Earth as seen from space (shown in figure 1). In this scene, the user gets a visual representation of the geographical location from which the satellite captured an image. The relevant information it gives are the following: the coordinates of the area, the direction of ascendance of the satellite, the side it is looking at and the radar frequency.

Since the information is based on Sentinel-1B data, it will always be side-looking right. The primary script for this scene is locating the coordinates on Earth itself. This involved taking the saved data from scene 1 and transforming it from latitude and longitude to ECEF (Earth-centred earth-fixed reference frame). The reason for this is because

plotting using ECEF points would line up with the Unity coordinate system which also uses X, Y and Z coordinates.

It was found that the general equations (shown Eq. 9-11) to convert GPS coordinates to Cartesian coordinates would result in different outputs compared to what was expected.

$$x = (R_E + h)cos\phi cos\lambda \tag{9}$$

$$y = (R_E + h)cos\phi sin\lambda \tag{10}$$

$$z = \left(\frac{b^2}{a^2}R_E + h\right)sin\phi \tag{11}$$

Where  $R_E$  is the radius of the Earth, *h* is the geographic height above the surface,  $\phi$  is the latitude,  $\lambda$  is the longitude and  $\frac{b^2}{a^2}$  is equal to  $1-e^2$ , where *e* is the eccentricity of the Earth, assumed to be zero in this program. The height is also assumed to be zero.



Figure 2: Terrain seen from afar.

Another solution was found by a Unity user online (mgear, 2016), where the sine and cosine functions were switched around. The Y and Z coordinates were also swapped to correspond to the Unity world coordinates. The new equations created are the following:

$$x = R_E sin\phi cos\lambda \tag{12}$$

$$y = R_E \sin\phi \sin\lambda \tag{13}$$

$$z = R_E \cos\phi \tag{14}$$

### 3.3 Scene 3: Virtual Earth Surface to Place Corner Reflectors

The last scene for the program is the most important one. It provides the user the ability to move around in the virtual environment and place the corner reflectors. Although it must be noted that the environment does not match the actual geographical location which the satellite captures and is an open flat plain terrain with trees and hills. The terrain was generated with Unity's Terrain generator. This lets the developer to easily create an open virtual world by allowing the raise and descend of the ground to create hills or holes. It also allows mass placement of trees models. As seen in figure 2, the terrain does not expand infinitely but is a large square-shaped generated land.

The user interface, shown in figure 3, gives multiple options for the setup. This includes a dropdown menu to select the shape for the CR, the inner edge length, and the azimuth and elevation angle of the CR relative to the boresight of the radar.

The flight direction and incidence angle has been visualised in the figure 3. Students can get an idea of how the electromagnetic waves are beamed to the surface and towards the CR. The orbital positions of the satellite were given in ECEF coordinates; therefore, it was necessary to convert it to an ENU (East-North-Up) coordinates to project the flight direction onto the surface (figure 4).

#### 3.3.1 Assumptions

As shown in figure 2, the ground is assumed for now to be perfectly flat. If someone were to replicate results given from the simulation, the user should also find ground as flat as possible at the location. The other assumption is that the satellite incidence angle is equal at all positions within the landscape and uses the mid swath incidence angle from the orbital data. It will later be explained in the future works section how the results can be more accurate.

#### 3.3.2 ECEF to ENU Conversion

To convert ECEF to ENU coordinates, the following transformation is applied (Subirana, Zornoza & Hernández-Pajares, 2011):

$$\begin{bmatrix} E \\ N \\ U \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{R_1} [\pi/2 - \psi] \mathbf{R_3} [\pi/2 + \lambda] \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix}$$
(15)

where  $\psi$  is the latitude (represented as  $\phi$  in figure 4),  $\lambda$  is the longitude and [x y z] represent the ECEF coordinates.

#### 3.3.3 Deploying the Corner Reflectors

The important part of deploying the CR is to make sure the RCS output is at the highest and this highly depends on the setup parameters, as stated already. To start this step, first the shape of the CR must be selected and by default has an inner edge length of 1 metre. The lower panel has been set to be parallel with the ground surface.

As seen in figure 3, the wave beam (represented by the pink line) allows users to visualise how the waves will hit the CR. The program is easy to use, especially with the "Controls" panel which teaches how to interact with the scene and the on-screen indicators that help the user navigate the program. The "Help Guide" button provides a couple of steps in utilising the program information to perform the steps necessary to position the CR in the real world. It provides images showing examples of a satellite and its beam reaching a CR and labelling the different angles in the path.

It provides images showing examples of a satellite and its beam reaching a CR and labelling the different angles in the path. It also describes the process of using a compass to determine the flight direction of the satellite and be able to place the CR correctly relative to the radar beam.

For this scene, there were two important script methods to allow the positioning of the corner reflectors. The first method allows to move the CR model and place it by using the mouse and the second method allows the rotation of the model to match the azimuth and elevation angle in input.



Figure 3: User interface with flight angle and direction with incidence EM waves visualised.



Figure 4: Diagram showing the ECEF and ENU coordinates system for the Earth, (Wang, Huynh & Williamson, 2013).

In Unity, rotation of objects relies on rotating their Euler angles which help orientate a rigid body (the CR) relative to a fixed coordinate system (the Unity world coordinates).

To change the orientation angles of the CR, both azimuth and elevation angles have a slightly different approach. For the azimuth angle, it was important to check the flight direction to make sure whether the satellite was looking towards the west or east side. To make sure that the rotation of the CR is correctly relative to the radar boresight direction, the local rotation of the model had to include the flight direction angle. For example, if the satellite orbit was from south to north, then the rotation would be equal to:

 $\Delta \theta = 45$  + the flight direction angle – the input azimuth angle

where  $\Delta \theta$  is the change in the azimuth angle.

For the elevation, it did not have to consider the flight direction of the satellite but only the incidence angle and tilt the CR according to:

 $\Delta \psi = 90$  – incidence angle – the input elevation angle

Where  $\Delta \psi$  is the change in the elevation angle.

Outputting the RCS values were also another important script and, as shown in the background, the formulae for the RCS for all three shapes were mentioned.

## **4** CONCLUSIONS

In this paper it has been shown how to create a program with a virtual environment to position corner

reflectors and how users, such as students, can use it to develop their understanding in the field by experiencing the process on a computer screen. It can also for example be used in university lectures to reinforce the understanding of practical techniques with the support of visualisation. At the moment the prototype code is available at the University of Surrey, and as students also improve their VR and Unity skills, they have options to improve the source code by adding new corner reflector designs or new environments.

In the future the following could be addressed to further expand the current version of the program:

Expand the support for more satellite datasets to allow for a larger spectrum of data;

Improve the virtual surface environment with actual local slope and surrounding habitats to increase accuracy of the results by matching reality;

Provide a wider range of corner reflector options thus including different materials and reflector types;

Validate RCS results with ground data to check for the margin of error and improve the proposed solution;

Move to/implement an immersive virtual reality version of the current program and allow for a better first-hand experience.

The development and validation of the present code is continuing at the University and a fully working solution is in progress.

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