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## High Frequency Methods for Simulation of High Resolution Imaging in Terahertz Regime

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**Abstract** High resolution imaging in the terahertz (THz) frequency range is investigated theoretically in this paper through the use of the high frequency methods in computational electromagnetics (CEM). Physical optics (PO), shooting and bouncing ray (SBR) and truncated-wedge incremental length diffraction coefficients (TW-ILDCs) methods are combined together to compute the scattered fields, which are then used to construct the inverse synthetic aperture radar (ISAR) images through two dimensional fast Fourier transform (2D-FFT). The corresponding ISAR images clearly show that high range and bearing resolution can be easily realized for THz carrier waves with broad bandwidth.

**Keywords** THz imaging · High frequency method · TW-ILDCs

### 1 Introductions

In the past decade, researchers and technicians around the world have paid much attention to the theoretical and experimental investigation of THz technology [1]. Most of them focus on THz wave production [2], detection [3], spectroscopy [4], communication, imaging [5] and so on. THz imaging is the most active one for its existent and potential applications, such as security sensing, quality control inspection, biomedical imaging, *etc.* Since the first raster scanning THz image was reported in 1995 [6], many THz imaging technologies have been developed and many imaging methods have been proposed on how to enhance the resolution. Far-field imaging techniques with resolutions close to the diffraction limit have been demonstrated on biological tissues and semiconductors [5, 7]. Subwavelength resolutions require near-field techniques or new materials. Resolutions down to  $7\mu\text{m}$  were achieved using metallic subwavelength apertures [8, 9] or optically gated apertures [10, 11].

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However, exact numerical computation and simulation of the THz waves transmission characteristics still impede further theoretical study of THz imaging. In the real world, many physical small objects cannot be regarded as electrical small ones as the frequency goes into THz regime. So the full wave analysis methods, such as the method of moments (MoM), the multi-level fast multiple algorithm (MLFMA) [12, 22] and the finite element method (FEM), which can be used to solve many electromagnetic (EM) problems precisely, become disabled for the prohibitively increasing memory requirements (MR) as well as computational complexity and time (CCT) [13–16]. Alternatively, high frequency (HF) methods, such as geometrical optics (GO), physical optics (PO), geometrical theory of diffraction (GTD), physical theory of diffraction (PTD), equivalent electric current (EEC) and incremental length diffraction coefficients (ILDCs) can be implemented to solve the HF problems asymptotically. And the higher the frequency is, the more accurate result of HF methods we can obtain. This is due to the fact that HF methods are based on the asymptotic expansions with respect to inverse powers of  $\omega$  (or a large parameter proportional to  $\omega$ ) of solutions to boundary value problems for homogeneous or inhomogeneous Helmholtz's equation (or wave equation derived from Maxwell's equations) [17]. So in this work, HF methods including PO, SBR [18] and TW-ILDCs [19] are combined together in the numerical simulations and ISAR imaging in the THz frequency range. Small angle rotation imaging or the so called Range-Doppler imaging method is implemented to construct the ISAR image. Simulations show that high bearing and range resolution can be easily realized for THz carrier waves with broad bandwidth. In the following sections, HF frequency methods and imaging principle are first outlined, then the correctness and applicability of PO, SBR and TW-ILDCs to the scattering problem in THz frequency range are discussed and analytical models are built, finally some numerical results are given to verify our analysis and conclusions.

## 2 Principles

In the THz frequency range, an  $1\text{ mm} \times 1\text{ mm} \times 1\text{ mm}$  metallic cube must be regarded as an electrical large object whose EM feature could be computed in terms of MoM or MLFMA with high MR and CCT. When the cube's size changes to  $1\text{ cm} \times 1\text{ cm} \times 1\text{ cm}$ , these so-called exact methods become disabled. But the HF methods can easily handle this kind of problems without losing much precision, which are commonly used in the analysis of electrical large EM scattering and radiation problems for its low MR and CCT. So in this article, PO, SBR and TW-ILDCs methods are employed for computing the EM scattered field of PEC targets.

As we know, the PO method is a well-known and widely used HF approximation technique for the calculation of EM field scattered from perfect electrical conducting (PEC) structures. Its essential idea is based on the assumption that the induced current density  $\mathbf{J}_{PO}$  is only localized on the illuminated surface in connection with the incident magnetic field  $\mathbf{H}$  in terms of the equation

$$\mathbf{J}_{PO}(\mathbf{r}) = 2\delta\hat{\mathbf{n}} \times \mathbf{H}^{Incident}(\mathbf{r}), \quad (1)$$

where the coefficient  $\delta$  accounts for the shadowing effects. If the point of observation  $\mathbf{r}$  lies in the shadowed region  $\delta$  must be set to zero. Otherwise  $\delta$  equals 1. This implies that in practical applications the contributions from edges, corners and all mutual interactions such as multiple reflections are neglected. This kind of treatment evidently cuts off a lot of

memory requirement and running time as opposed to MoM and MLFMA. SBR technique is a combination of GO with multi-reflections and PO. It was first proposed by H. Ling [18] to calculate the backward RCS of structures with cavity and then extended to arbitrary complex scattering problems. Also the diffraction contribution of edges and creeping waves, which are very important for precision improvement in HF methods, are not considered in SBR. Among the wedge diffraction computation techniques, the TW-ILDCs method [19] is a high precision and robust one. During 2002–2004, the TW-ILDCs and the shadow boundary incremental length diffraction coefficients (SB-ILDCs) [20] method are both integrated in the SBR tracing code suited in Xpatch [21] to consider higher-order diffraction phenomena such as the creeping waves and the truncation effects due to the diffraction from finite sized wedge faces. For detailed formulas and manipulations of PO, SBR and TW-ILDCs, one can refer to Ref. [18, 19]. Then the small angle rotation imaging is implemented through small rotation of the incident plane wave to obtain high bearing resolution and broad bandwidth to obtain high range resolution. We remark that although we rotate the direction of the incident plane wave we can consider that the object is rotated instead because their relative position can be exchanged. As we know, when the rotation angle is small and the bandwidth is narrow, the imaging data can be approximated as a rectangular spectral window. In such circumstances, the two dimensional data are decoupled and the image can be constructed through 2D-FFT directly. When the rotation angle is large and the bandwidth is broad, the two dimensional data do not satisfy the decoupling condition. So the polar coordinate data must be first transformed to the rectangular coordinate form through interpolation and then used to construct images through 2D-FFT. In this paper, small angle rotation is assumed that the two dimensional data can be viewed as decoupled and the 2D-FFT is directly used to construct the final ISAR images. The transformation formula can be simplified as

$$\tilde{f}(x, y) = \int_{\phi_{\min}}^{\phi_{\max}} \int_{k_{\min}}^{k_{\max}} kF(k, \phi) \exp[j2\pi k(y \cos \phi - x \sin \phi)] dk d\phi, \tag{2}$$

in which  $F(k, \phi)$  is the radar echo information and  $\theta$  is the rotation angle,  $k$  is the wavenumber in free space.  $\phi_{\min}$  and  $\phi_{\max}$  are the initial and final rotation angle respectively.  $k_{\min}$  and  $k_{\max}$  are the minimum and maximum wavenumber according to the scanning frequency from  $f_{\min}$  to  $f_{\max}$ .  $k_{\min} = 2\pi f_{\min}/C$ ,  $k_{\max} = 2\pi f_{\max}/C$ .  $C$  is the velocity of light in free space.  $\tilde{f}(x, y)$  is the corresponding estimation value of the image. For this two fold integration we always transform it into progression and choose a series of angle and frequency sampling points to give an approximation, from which the ISAR image value can be finally obtained for each coordinate  $(x, y)$ .

Now we briefly explain how these ISAR images are constructed and how these sampling points are chosen to make the whole image range accommodate the whole real object. If we denote the bearing resolution as  $\delta_r = C/2B$ , in which  $C$  is the velocity of light in the vacuum and  $B = f_{\max} - f_{\min}$  is the transmission bandwidth. Also we can denote the range resolution as  $\delta_c = \lambda/2\phi$ , in which  $\lambda$  is the wavelength according to the scanning center frequency  $f_c = (f_{\max} + f_{\min})/2$  and  $\phi = \phi_{\max} - \phi_{\min}$  is the scanning angle range. Under normal circumstances, in order to make the image look more like the real target, the bearing and range resolution is assumed to be equal, that is  $\delta_r = \delta_c = \delta$ . And then we must choose the sampling points  $N$  in both the bearing and range direction according to the resolution  $\delta$  and the actual maximum length  $L$  of the target or the whole scene being simulated. Actually, if  $2^{x-1} < L/\delta \leq 2^x$ , then  $N=2^x$ . For an example, if  $\delta=0.1m$  and  $L=10m$ , then  $x=7$

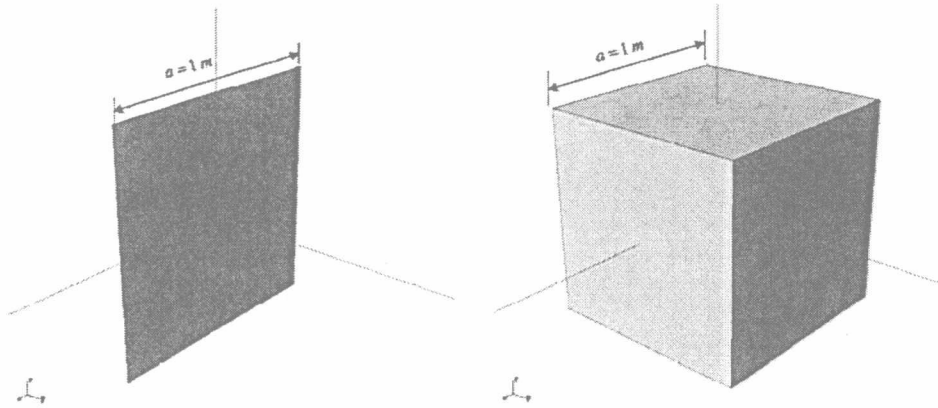


Fig. 1 The plate and cube model.

and  $N = 2^7 = 128$ . In addition, the radar echo information  $F(k, \phi)$  of the whole target or scene is simulated for each sampling point according to different frequency  $f_i$  and angle  $\phi_i$ , in which

$$f_i = f_{\min} + \frac{f_{\max} - f_{\min}}{N - 1} (i - 1), \quad i = 1, \dots, N \quad (3)$$

and

$$\phi_i = \phi_{\min} + \frac{\phi_{\max} - \phi_{\min}}{N - 1} (i - 1), \quad i = 1, \dots, N \quad (4)$$

Finally the ISAR images can be computed according to Eq. 2.

### 3 Simulations and analysis

First we compute the magnitude and phase of the electric field in the far field region of a plate and a cube shown in Fig. 1 in terms of PO/PO + TW-ILDCs compared with MLFMA

Fig. 2 The magnitude of the scattered electric field of a plate in the far field.

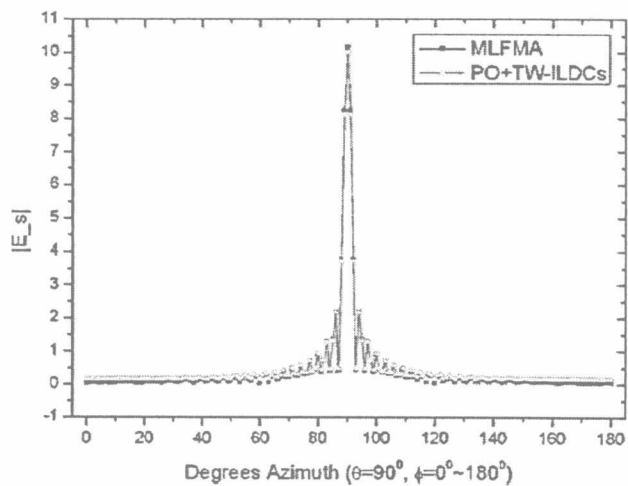
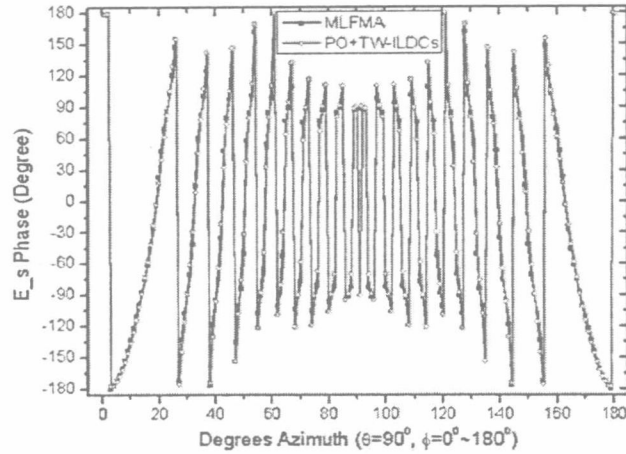


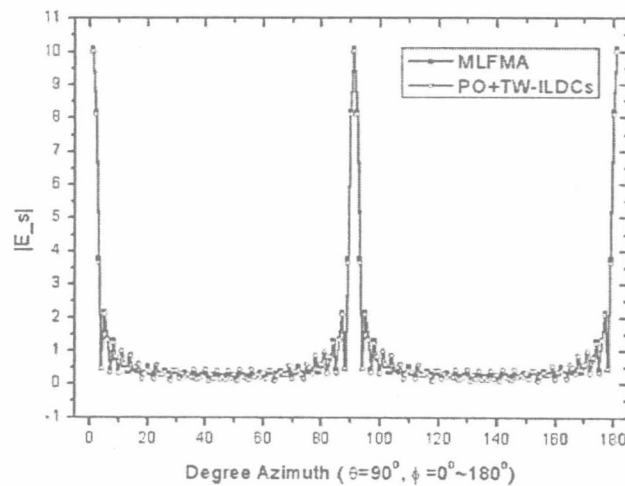
Fig. 3 The phase of the scattered electric field of a plate in the far field.



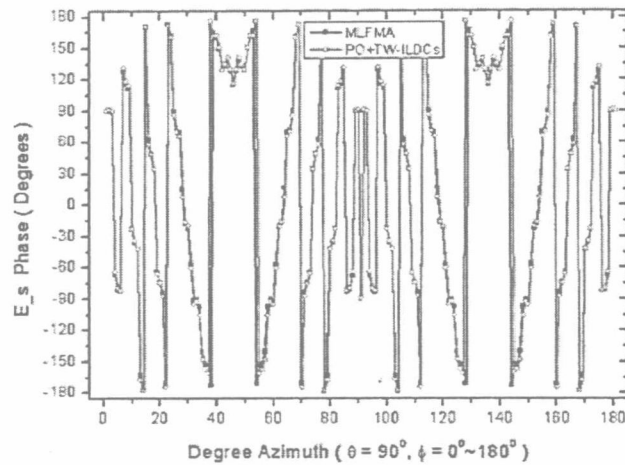
to verify that HF methods can be utilized for radar imaging simulations. For calculating both the magnitude and phase of the far field, we neglect the factor  $e^{-jkr}/r$ . The plate has the size of  $1m \times 1m$  and the cube has the size of  $1m \times 1m \times 1m$ . The frequency is set as 3 GHz. The magnitude and phase are given in Fig. 2 (Fig. 4) and Fig. 3 (Fig. 5) respectively, which clearly show that the HF methods are effective and adequate in the EM field computation in the high frequency range. We also have verified in Ref. [23] that with the frequency goes into the THz regime, these so-called high frequency methods are still effective for simple PEC objects with flat planes.

These far field value including the amplitude and the phase are called the echo information, which can be used to construct the ISAR images through 2D-FFT. The generation of a two-dimensional (2-D) ISAR image can be constructed by plotting the intensity of the echoes as a function of frequency (that equates to the range) and angle. The term resolution refers to both the bearing resolution of the radar as determined by the object's rotation angle and the range resolution as determined by the transmitted bandwidth. The definition of high-resolution depends on the context, and in this instance is deemed to be the resolution that is required to identify natural and manmade features useful for autonomous applications. The THz signals,

Fig. 4 The magnitude of the scattered electric field of a cube in the far field.



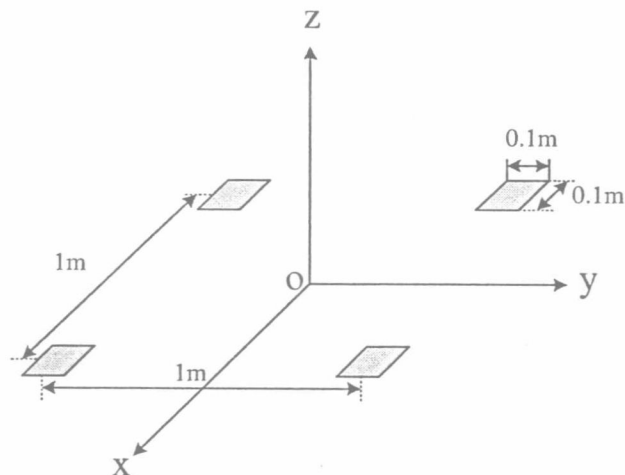
**Fig. 5** The phase of the scattered electric field of a cube in the far field.



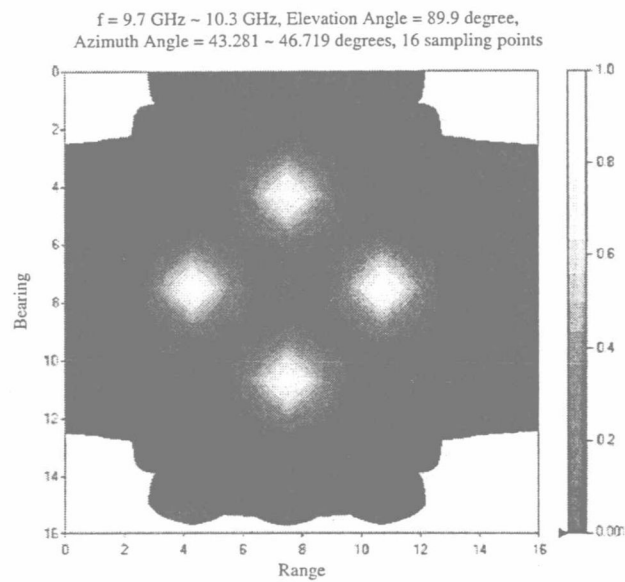
which have large transmission bandwidth, can be used to generate high-resolution ISAR images.

In order to illustrate the difference between GHz wave and THz wave, we first test a simple structure which has four  $0.1\text{m} \times 0.1\text{m}$  rectangular plates with the distance of  $1\text{m}$  shown in Fig. 6 and generate the ISAR images from GHz frequency range to THz frequency range in Figs. 7 and 8 respectively. The elevation angle is chosen as  $\theta=89.9^\circ$  that the image can be constructed from the plane perpendicular to the  $z$  axis. The azimuth angle starts from  $\phi=43.281^\circ$  to  $\phi=46.719^\circ$  in the GHz frequency range and from  $\phi=44.7^\circ$  to  $\phi=45.3^\circ$  in the THz frequency range to give a small rotation of the structure. The transmission bandwidth  $B$  is chosen as  $B=0.6\text{ GHz}$  starting from  $9.7\text{ GHz}$  to  $10.3\text{ GHz}$  in the GHz frequency range and  $B=10\text{ GHz}$  starting from  $0.995\text{ THz}$  to  $1.005\text{ THz}$  in the THz frequency range. The imaging results indicate that as the frequency rises and the bandwidth increases, the range resolution becomes higher and the four plates' corners can be clearly figured out. So from GHz to THz both the bearing and range resolution are enhanced.

**Fig. 6** Four  $0.1\text{m} \times 0.1\text{m}$  rectangular plates with the distance of  $1\text{m}$ .

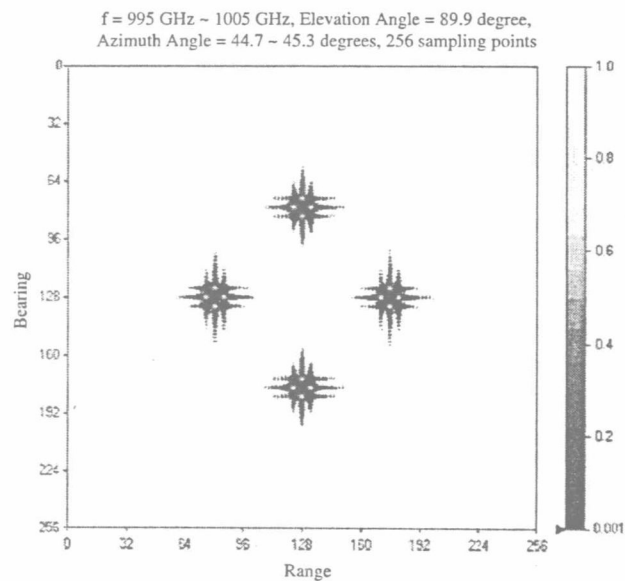


**Fig. 7** The ISAR image of the four plates structure in the GHz frequency range.

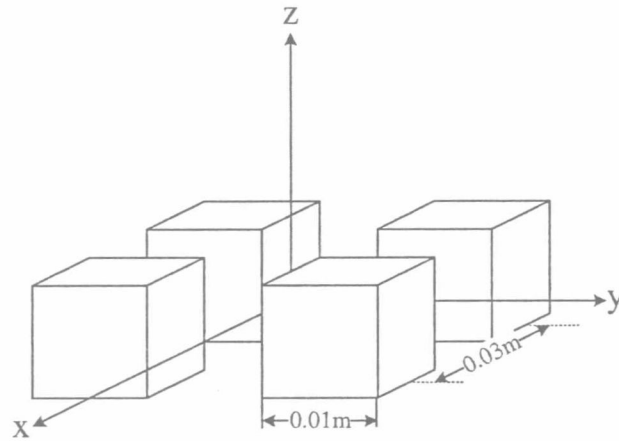


Then a more complex structure composed of four cubes is considered in Fig. 9 and SBR + TW-ILDCs method is chosen to calculate the scattered field for increasing the accuracy. Up to 3 time multi-reflections are considered in SBR for this complex structure and TW-ILDCs is implemented to compute the diffracted field. Finally these two fields are added together to give the total scattered field, which is then used to construct the ISAR image shown in Fig. 10. The elevation angle is chosen as  $\theta=60^\circ$  and the azimuth angle starts from  $\phi=40.703^\circ$  to  $\phi=49.297^\circ$ . And the transmission bandwidth  $B$  is chosen as  $B=150$  GHz starting from 0.925 THz to 1.075 THz that the relative bandwidth is further increased. For each cube there

**Fig. 8** The ISAR image of the four plates structure in the THz frequency range.



**Fig. 9** Four  $0.01\text{ m} \times 0.01\text{ m} \times 0.01\text{ m}$  cubes with the distance of  $0.03\text{ m}$ .

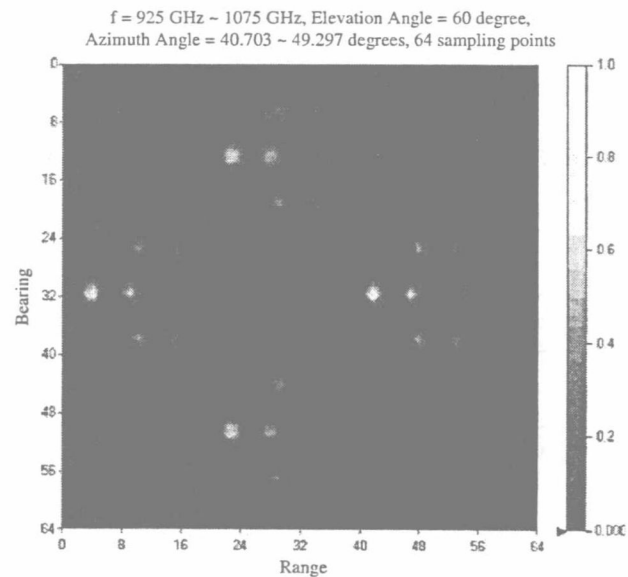


are seven bright points in the ISAR image, which indicate the cube's seven corners and strong scattering points. Only one point is lost for each cube in the image because this point is invisible to the incoming wave.

#### 4 Conclusions

In this paper, the ISAR images of two 3D real targets in the THz frequency range are investigated via the HF methods. The reliability and correctness of the analysis have been verified by numerical results, from which we observe that a great enhancement of bearing and range resolution is obtained from GHz to THz frequency ranges. Hence we can fully use this high resolution in the target identification and detection.

**Fig. 10** The ISAR image of the four cubes structure.



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# Three-Level Dual Buck Inverter With Coupled-Inductance

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**Abstract**—Dual Buck inverter (DBI) is a new topology with characteristics of high frequency and high efficiency. Just like half bridge inverter, the output voltage is a bipolar PWM waveform and voltage stress is high. To overcome these problems, a novel three-level dual Buck inverter, which has uni-polar PWM waveforms output and low voltage stress, is proposed. And the half load-cycle mode of DBI remains in the new inverter. However, it may lead to over-voltage when the inductor current is discontinuous. Thus, two inductors of the inverter are coupled together, and the bridge voltage can be clamped, and the size of magnetic component and filter is reduced simultaneously. The topology remains the characteristics of high efficiency and high reliability. Experimental result verifies the analysis described.

**Keywords**—inverter; three-level; half bridge; integrated magnetics.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Compared with the conventional bridge-inverter, DBI has special characteristics of no shoot-through problem and no reverse-recovery of the parasitic diode of the switch and realizes high frequency and high efficiency. There are many similarities between DBI and half bridge inverter. Bus voltage surpasses twice of the maximum of output voltage. The voltage stress of the device is high, the utilization rate of the direct voltage is low, and works at bipolar modulating mode and harmonic contents of the output voltage is high[1]. Furthermore, too large volume of magnetic component still exists in DBI.

Recently, multilevel technology is greatly concerned and researched. Because of the limitation of the manufactory technology, voltage endurance is inadequate. For high-voltage converter, the power switch can be in series. However, due to the inconsistency of the parameters and the asynchrony of the power switches, it is difficult to achieve the balance of voltage and it also brings about over-voltage of power switches so as to lose reliability. Multilevel technology is a good method to solve the problem of the series of power switches and ensures the voltage stress of the power switches to clamp to the voltage of capacitor both in transient and steady stage. The three-level double buck half bridge inverter can change the

output voltage of arm bridge into uni-polar voltage. All of these will be discussed in detail in the following.

## II. THE NOVEL THREE-LEVEL DUAL BUCK INVERTER

The circuit topology of DBI is shown in Fig.1. DBI adopts half period work mode[2] [3]. During the positive half cycle, the circuit Buck 1 works, which is composed by the power transistor  $VT_1$ , freewheel diode  $VD_1$ , filter inductance  $L_1$  and filter capacitor  $C_f$ ; during the negative half cycle, the circuit Buck 2 works, which is composed by the power transistor  $VT_2$ , freewheel diode  $VD_2$ , filter inductance  $L_2$  and filter capacitor  $C_f$ .  $u_o$  is output voltage,  $i_L$  is inductor current: in the positive half cycle, it is  $i_{L1}$ , the current of inductor  $L_1$ ; in the negative half cycle, it is  $i_{L2}$ , the current of inductor  $L_2$ ;  $u_A$  is the voltage of A,  $u_B$  is the voltage of B. The type waves are shown in fig.2 ( $t=5\text{ms/div}$ ).

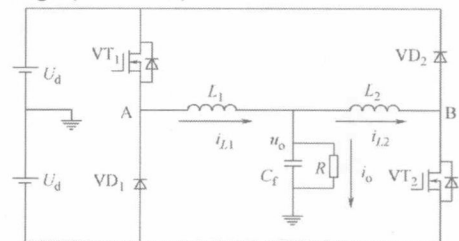


Fig.1 Dual Buck half bridge inverter

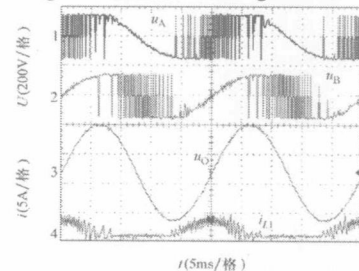


Fig.2 Typical waveforms of DBI

However the voltage stress of power switch of DBI is high, if the input direct bus voltage is  $\pm U_d$ , the voltage stress

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