RADAR CROSS SECTION
LECTURES
by
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RADAR CROSS SECTION LECTURES

by

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INTRODUCTION

These notes were developed while the author was on Sabbatical at NASA Ames Research Center during FY 1982. The lectures were presented to engineers and scientists at NASA Ames in March–April 1982. In August 1982, the RCS lectures were presented at General Dynamics Fort Worth Division.

To thoroughly cover the content the following time schedule is required:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LECTURE</th>
<th>HOURS</th>
<th>LECTURE TIME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
LECTURE I. INTRODUCTION TO ELECTROMAGNETIC SCATTERING

1. Level of Complexity
2. Features of EM Wave
3. What Is RCS?
4. Magnitude of Radar Cross Section
5. Polarization and Scattering Matrix
6. Inverse Scattering
7. Geometrical Versus Radar Cross Section
8. Polarization and RCS for Conducting Cylinder
9. Far Field vs Near Field
10. Influence of Diffraction on EM Waves
11. Relation of Gain to RCS
12. Antenna Geometry and Beam Pattern
13. Radar Cross Section of a Flat Plate
14. Wavelength Regions
15. Rayleigh Region
16. Optical Region
17. Mie or Resonance Scattering
Before discussing RCS, a perspective is given on the complexity of problems to be encountered. A measure of complexity is the tool required for numerical solution. The tools span from slide rule to CRAY computer.

Since these lectures are prepared mainly for the aerodynamicist, typical aerodynamics problems are given along with classes of RCS problems. The lectures provide sufficient information which allows back-of-envelope calculations in the "Southwest" corner of the graph. The lectures discuss in a descriptive way the scientific problems in the "Northeast" corner.
Mie Scattering
Complex Shape
3-D, viscous, transonic, turbulent, unsteady, e.g., helicopter blade

Rayleigh Scattering
Complex Shapes

Optical Region
Multiple Scatters
No Interaction

Potential Flow, Complex Shapes

Any Scattering
Where Separation of Variables Can Be Used

Simple Shapes
E.g., Spheres
Optical or Rayleigh
Prau-Di-Meyer Flow
Oblique Shocks

Type of Problem
FEATURES OF EM WAVE

0 Wavelength
\[ \lambda = \frac{c}{f} \]
- \( c \) = speed of EM wave = \( 3 \times 10^8 \) m/sec
- \( f \) = frequency, Hz

0 Electric and Magnetic Fields*
- orientation related to antenna (source)
  - \( E = ZH \); \( Z = (\mu/c)^{1/2} \) ohms

0 Polarization
- orientation of the electric vector \( \vec{E} \)
- polarization may be important in determining magnitude of RCS

0 Energy and Power*
- energy density = energy/volume = \( \frac{1}{2}(eE^2 + \mu H^2) \) = Joules/m\(^3\)
- flux of energy = power/area = \( \mathbf{\hat{S}} = \mathbf{\hat{E}} \times \mathbf{\hat{H}} \) = Watts/m\(^2\)
- power \~ (amplitude squared)

0 Interference
- field vectors add vectorially; may cause cancellation of waves

ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION

POYNTING VECTOR
\[ \vec{S} = \vec{E} \times \vec{H} \text{ watts/m}^2 \]

\[ \lambda = \frac{c}{f} \quad \text{POWER} \sim (\text{AMPLITUDE})^2 \]

CURRENTS

VERTICAL POLARIZATION

DIRECTION OF PROPAGATION

MAGNETIC FIELD

ELECTRIC FIELD

AMPLITUDE

E = ZH

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What is RCS?

The RCS of any reflector may be thought of as the projected area of equivalent isotropic (same in all directions) reflector. The equivalent reflector returns the same power per unit solid angle.

RCS is an area.

Meaning of RCS can be seen by arranging $\sigma$ in form:

$$\frac{\sigma I_t}{4\pi} = I_r R^2$$

- $\sigma I_t$ = power intercepted and scattered by target, Watts
- $\sigma I_t / 4\pi$ = power scattered in $4\pi$ steradians solid angle, Watts/steradian
- $I_A / \Omega$ = power into receiver of area $A_r$, Watts
- $\Omega = A_r / R^2$ = solid angle of receiver as seen from target, steradian
- $I_A / \Omega$ = power reflected to receiver per unit solid angle, Watts/steradian
- $I_A / (A_r / R^2) = I_r R^2$ = power reflected to receiver per unit solid angle, Watts/steradian

Meaning of limit

$R$ is distance from target to radar receiver.

$E_t$, $H_t$, and $I_t$ are fixed.

$E_r$ and $H_r$ vary as $1/R$ in far field.

$I_r$ varies as $1/R^2$ in far field.

Hence, $\sigma$ has a limit as $R \to \infty$. 

What is Radar Cross Section, RCS?

\[
\sigma = \lim_{R \to \infty} \frac{E_r}{E_i} \left( \frac{H_r}{H_i} \right)^2
\]

\[
0 = \lim_{R \to \infty} \frac{I_r}{I_i}
\]

\[
\sigma = \frac{4\pi R^2}{4\pi R^2} = \frac{1}{R^2}
\]

\[
I_i = \text{irradiance} = \text{power density}
\]

\[
I_r = \frac{\text{power reflected to receiver}}{4\pi R^2}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{R^2} = \frac{\text{incident power density}}{\text{steradian area}}
\]

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RCS can be expressed in terms of area.

Since RCS is an area, you can check your formulas for RCS for dimensions; the formulas should always have dimensions of length squared.

The square meter is usually used as a reference to express $\sigma$ as a relative value using decibels. An example of calculation:

Given $\sigma = 28 \text{ db}_{\text{sm}}$, what is $\sigma$ in $\text{m}^2$?

$$
\sigma(\text{m}^2) = \frac{28 \text{db}_{\text{sm}}}{10} = 631 \text{ m}^2
$$

Given $\sigma = 0.34 \text{ m}^2$, what is $\sigma$ in $\text{db}_{\text{sm}}$?

$$
\sigma(\text{db}_{\text{sm}}) = 10 \log_{10}(0.34) = -4.7 \text{ db}_{\text{sm}}
$$

Some typical values are shown for various objects. Also the magnitude of creeping waves or traveling waves from an aircraft is shown.

When the RCS due to direct reflection is reduced, RCS from other wave scattering phenomena may become important.
MAGNITUDE OF RADAR CROSS SECTION

Magnitude in terms of area

\( \sigma \) in units of meter\(^2\)

Relative magnitude in terms of \( \text{dB} \),

\( \text{dB} \) = \( 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{m^2 \text{RCS}}{1.0 \text{ m}^2} \right) \)

Typical values of RCS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RCS</th>
<th>dB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.0001</td>
<td>-40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.001</td>
<td>-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000 m(^2)</td>
<td>40 dB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INSECTS  BIRDS  CREEPING WAVE  TRAVELING WAVE  FIGHTER AIRCRAFT  BOMBER: TRANSPORT AIRCRAFT  SHIPS
POLARIZATION AND SCATTERING MATRIX

0 The elements of scattering matrix have both phase and amplitude

\[ a_{HH} = |a_{HH}| \exp j \phi_{HH} \]

0 For monostatic radar (transmitter and receiving antennas are colocated or very close together)

\[ a_{VH} = a_{HV} \]

The expression is not true for bistatic radar.

0 Polarization of wave is specified by stating orientation of electric field vector \( E \).

0 Cross polarization occurs when target changes the polarization of reflected wave compared to incident wave.

0 Polarization may be specified by orientation of \( E \) relative to a long distance of target, e.g., a wire. In this case, the notation \( \sigma_\parallel \) and \( \sigma_\perp \) is used.

0 Usually \( \sigma_\parallel > \sigma_\perp \).
Polarization and Scattering Matrix

\[
\begin{align*}
E^s_v &= a_{vv} E^i_v \\
E^s_h &= a_{hv} E^i_v \\
E^s_h &= a_{vh} E^i_v \\
E^s_v &= a_{vv} E^i_v
\end{align*}
\]

Cross Polarization

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
E^s_h \\
E^s_v
\end{pmatrix} =
\begin{pmatrix}
a_{hh} & a_{hv} \\
a_{vh} & a_{vv}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
E^i_h \\
E^i_v
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\sigma_{hh} = 4\pi R^2 |a_{hh}|^2
\]

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H Horizontal
V Vertical
To quote from Professor Kennaugh* on the subject of inverse scattering:

"One measure of electromagnetic scattering properties of an object is the radar cross section (RCS) or apparent size. In the early days of radar, it was found that rapid variation of RCS with aspect, radar polarization, and frequency complicate the relation between true and apparent sizes. As measurement capabilities improved, investigations of the variation of RCS with these parameters provided the radar analyst with a plethora of data, but few insights into this relation. In the present context, such data are essential in determining the physical features of a distant target, rather than an annoying radar anomaly."

Inverse scattering provides a nonimaging method to determine target size, shape, etc.

By appropriately processing the backscattered waveforms or target signature observed in radar receivers, different target shapes may be discriminated and classified.

Stealth implies denial of detection; an expanded concept for stealth implies control of backscattered waveform, thereby denying information about target size, shape, etc.

INVERSE SCATTERING

\{
\text{BODY SIZE, SHAPE, AND MATERIALS}\}
\xrightarrow{\text{INVERSE DIRECT RCS}}
\{\text{SCATTERED WAVE}\}

A. E. FUHS

\begin{align*}
\text{TRANSMITTED WAVE} & \quad \text{WAVE FRONT} \\
\text{REFLECTED WAVE} &
\end{align*}
GEOMETRICAL VERSUS RADAR CROSS SECTION

0 Sphere. The two areas are drawn to scale. For a sphere,

\[ \sigma = \pi a^2 \] independent of wavelength in optical region. Solve for \( a \):

\[ a = \sqrt{\sigma / \pi} = 0.56 \text{ meter} \]

0 Square Flat Plate. Consider a frequency of 8.5 GHz which corresponds to \( \lambda = 0.035 \text{ m} = 3.5 \text{ cm} \). The cross section for a flat plate is

\[ \sigma = \frac{4\pi a^2}{\lambda^2} = \frac{4\pi [(0.1 \text{ m})^2]^2}{(0.035)^2} = 1 \text{ m}^2 \]

0 Aircraft Broadside. The aircraft may have a panel which is normal to the wave vector \( \hat{z} \). A large RCS results due to reflection from the panel.

0 Low RCS Aircraft Broadside. By a combination of RCS reduction methods, the aircraft has a smaller RCS than projected area.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geometrical Versus Radar Cross Section</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Projected Area</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 m²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Aircraft Broadside</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 m²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. E. Fuhs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spherical</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 m²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Square Flat Plate</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 m²</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** The table and diagram are illustrative of the relationship between geometrical and radar cross section (RCS) for different objects and aircraft orientations.
When $\lambda$ is smaller than $a$, polarization is not important for magnitude of RCS.

The three regions based on relative size of $\lambda$ compared to $a$ are shown.

In both Rayleigh and optical regions, the RCS varies smoothly with changing $\lambda$.

In the Mie region, also known as resonance region, the RCS varies rapidly with changing $\lambda$. In optical region, $\sigma_0$ and $\sigma_1$ converge to $k\lambda^2$.

Cylinders with small $ka$ are used for radar chaff.

A cylinder can be used as a model for estimating RCS of the leading edge of a wing or rudder.

Mie region occurs where circumference of cylinder, i.e., $2\pi a$, is nearly equal to wavelength, $\lambda$.

The values of $ka$ for which cylinder diameter, $d$, equals $\lambda$ and for which cylinder radius, $a$, equals $\lambda$ are shown in the graph.
POLARIZATION AND RCS FOR CONDUCTING CYLINDER

\[ \sigma = k a L^2 \quad \text{OPTICAL} \]

\[ k a = \frac{2 \pi a}{\lambda} \]

SEE ALSO VIEWGRAPH 2-15

RAYLEIGH MIE OPTICAL

\[ \frac{\sigma}{k a L^2} \]

\[ \sigma_1 \]

\[ \sigma_\parallel \]

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The symbol \( f \) refers to a fraction of a wavelength. In far field, the variation in phase is small over a distance \( L \).

In far field, the incident wave can be considered to be a plane wave.

The radiation from a dipole illustrates far field and near field for microwaves.

\[
E_\theta = \frac{Mk^3}{4\pi\epsilon} \exp[j(\omega t - kr)] \sin \theta \left[-\frac{1}{kr} + \frac{1}{2kr} + \frac{1}{3kr^3}\right] \quad \text{NEAR FIELD}
\]

\[
E_\theta = -\frac{Mk^3}{4\pi\epsilon} \exp[j(\omega t - kr)] \sin \theta \frac{1}{kr} \quad \text{FAR FIELD}
\]

\( M \) = dipole moment

\( \epsilon \) = electric inductive capacity

\( k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \)

\( \omega = 2\pi f \) (\( f \) is frequency here)

\( \theta \) = polar angle in polar coordinates

\( j = \sqrt{-1} \)
**FAR FIELD vs NEAR FIELD**

**Radar Cross Section Applies to Far Field**

**Far Field and Near Field Have Similar Meanings in Optics and Radar**

In optics, Fresnel diffraction occurs in near field. Fraunhofer diffraction occurs in far field.

For microwaves, field vectors decay as 1/\(R\) in far field.

Complexity of EM fields is less in far field.

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INFLUENCE OF DIFFRACTION ON EM WAVES

0 On the left-hand side is a barrier with a small hole D. The waves are moving toward the right. The diffracted waves are nearly circular with center at hole.

0 A large value of \( \lambda/D \) yields a beam which diverges.

0 On the right-hand side, the hole D is much larger than a wavelength. The beam is transmitted through the barrier with little divergence.

0 A small value of \( \lambda/D \) yields a narrow beam from an antenna.
INFLUENCE OF DIFFRACTION ON EM WAVES

DIFRACTED WAVES

LARGE $\lambda/D$

WIDE DIVERGING BEAM

SMALL $\lambda/D$

NARROW BEAM

$D$

$\theta \sim \frac{\lambda}{D}$

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ANTENNA

ANTENNA

$\theta$
RELATION OF GAIN TO RCS

In the optical region, i.e., where $ka$ is large, a formula can be written for RCS involving gain and reflecting area. The formula is given in the viewgraph.

Gain is a ratio of two solid angles. For a sphere, the solid angle is $4\pi$ steradians. If the wave is confined to a beam due to an antenna, the power is concentrated in the beam. Gain indicates the extent the power is concentrated in the beam.

To find the solid angle of the beam, the relation $\theta = C\lambda/D$ is used. $C$ is a constant and usually has value $2/\pi$.

The reflecting area is the surface area between two wavefronts spaced $\Delta \lambda$ apart. Surface area outside the volume defined by the two wavefronts does not return radiation in a direction toward the radar antenna.

Derivation of the equation for gain:

Consider the beam from an antenna to be a cone with half angle $\theta = 2\lambda/\pi D$.

At a range $R$, the cone has a base with radius $r$. The value of $r$ is given by

$$r = \theta R$$

The area of the beam, $A_b$, at range $R$ is $\pi r^2$. In terms of $\theta$ and the diffraction formula

$$A_b = \frac{4\lambda^2 R^2}{\pi D^2}$$

The solid angle of the beam is

$$\Omega = \frac{A_b}{R^2} = \frac{4\lambda^2}{\pi D^2}$$

By definition

$$G = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega} = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda^2} \cdot \frac{\pi D^2}{4} = \frac{4\pi A}{\lambda^2}$$

where $A$ is the area of the antenna.
RELATION OF GAIN TO RCS

\[ \sigma = GA \]

\[ \text{RCS} = \text{GAIN} \cdot \text{REFLECTING AREA} \]

**GAIN**

\[ G = \frac{4\pi}{\Omega} \text{ steradians} \]

\[ G = \frac{4\pi A}{\lambda^2} \]

\[ \mathcal{J} = \frac{4\pi A^2}{\lambda^2} \]

**REFLECTING AREA**

\[ \frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda} \ll 1 \]

\[ \Delta \lambda \]

REFLECTING AREA IS SURFACE AREA BETWEEN TWO WAVEFRONTS SPACED \( \Delta \lambda \)
A circular antenna produces a circular beam of radius r.

An elliptical antenna produces an elliptical beam. Due to diffraction, the long dimension of the antenna, $L_a$, is at right angles to long dimension of the beam, $\theta_e R$. The long dimensions of the antenna and beam are crossed. Note that $\theta_e > \theta_a$ and $L_a > L_e$.

The reason antennas are important to RCS is that the circular antenna is equivalent to a circular disc. The circular antenna is the source for a plane wave from an aperture in the form of a circle. Consider an incident plane wave reflected from a circular disc. The result is a plane wave from an aperture (the disc) in the form of a circle. Hence, the reflecting area is equivalent to an antenna. Antennas have side lobes. The radiation reflected by a flat plate or a disc has the same side lobes as an antenna of same shape.
ANTENNA GEOMETRY AND BEAM PATTERN

\[ r = \theta R \]
\[ r = \frac{2\lambda R}{\pi D} \]

\[ \theta_a \sim \frac{\lambda}{L_a} \]
\[ \theta_e \sim \frac{\Delta}{L_e} \]

\( \theta_a \) azimuth
\( \theta_e \) elevation
Radar Cross Section of a Flat Plate

The RCS of a flat plate is obtained from

$$\sigma = GA$$

where $A$ equals the plate area, $A_p$.

Three different geometries leading to a series of wavefronts moving to the right are illustrated. The beam in the far field is identical for the three cases illustrated.

The shape of the flat plate does not influence the value of $\sigma$ so long as the smallest dimension of the plate is much longer than a wavelength.

A test for whether or not the formula applies is accomplished by comparing $\lambda$ and the square root of $A_p$. The result must be

$$\lambda \ll \sqrt{A_p}$$
$A_p = \text{Area of flat plate}$

$\sigma = \frac{4\pi A_p^2}{\lambda^2}$

\text{VALID IN OPTICAL REGION}

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Recall $k = 2\pi/\lambda$; consequently

$$ka = \frac{2\pi a}{\lambda}$$

$a$ is a characteristic dimension of the body.

A complex shape such as an aircraft may have components spanning all three regions. For example, the wing leading edge may be in the optical region while a gun muzzle may be in the Rayleigh region.

The region where $ka \approx 1$ is known as Mie region or as the resonance region. Resonance may occur between creeping waves and the specular reflected waves. The numerous wiggles characteristic of the resonance region may be due to the resonance.

The resonance region is difficult to analyze. In the Rayleigh region, series expansions using $ka$ as an expansion parameter can be accomplished. In the optical region, the expansion parameter is $1/ka$. The series expansion technique is not useful for the Mie region. For Rayleigh scattering, the leading term in an expansion may be the electrostatic field.
# Wavelength Regions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$ka$</th>
<th>Phenomenon</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$&lt;&lt; 1$</td>
<td>Rayleigh</td>
<td>$\sigma \sim \lambda^{-4}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\sigma$ vs $ka$ smooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\sigma \sim (\text{Volume})^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\approx 1$</td>
<td>MIE (Resonance)</td>
<td>$\sigma$ vs $ka$ many wiggles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>difficult theoretically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$&gt;&gt; 1$</td>
<td>Optical</td>
<td>$\sigma$ vs $ka$ smooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\sigma$ may be independent of wavelength</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An oblate ellipsoid of revolution is shown in the figure. When the distance in the axial direction is small, the oblate ellipsoid models a disc like a penny. For this case, \( F \) is not near unity.

A prolate ellipsoid of revolution is shown in the viewgraph. When the distance along the axis is emphasized, a wire can be modelled. In that case, \( F \) is not near unity.

For smooth bodies which do not deviate too much from a sphere, the RCS is independent of polarization or aspect angle.

The formula for \( \sigma \) can be tested for a sphere. For a sphere

\[
\frac{\sigma}{\pi a^2} = 0.1 \quad \text{when} \quad ka = 0.33
\]

Assume \( F = 1.0 \). Then, since \( V = \frac{4\pi a^3}{3} \)

\[
\sigma = \frac{4}{\pi} k^4 \left( \frac{4\pi}{3} a^3 \right)^2 = \frac{64}{9} (ka)^4 \pi a^2
\]

Inserting the value for \( ka \), one finds

\[
\frac{\sigma}{\pi a^2} = 0.084
\]

which is close to the accurate value.
RAYLEIGH REGION

\[ \sigma = \frac{4}{\pi} k^4 V^2 F^2 \]

\( V = \) volume of target

\( k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \)

\( F = \) shape factor

\( F \approx 1.0 \) for ellipsoids which are not flat

\( F \approx 1.0 \) for rounded smooth objects

\( F \neq 1.0 \) for any body where one dimension greatly exceeds another

\( \sigma = \sigma(\text{aspect angle, polarization}) \) when one dimension greatly exceeds another
One can apply the formula $\sigma = \pi \rho_1 \rho_2$ to a sphere. In that case $\rho_1 = \rho_2 = a$. Hence,

$$\sigma = \pi a^2$$

which is the anticipated result.

Optical approximation has the greatest use to calculate specular returns and the associated sidelobes.

Optical approximation may fail when there is a surface singularity such as an edge, a shadow, or a discontinuity in slope or curvature. Surface singularities may cause second-order effects which include creeping and traveling waves. When specular returns are weak, the RCS may be dominated by creeping or traveling waves.
OPTICAL REGION

RAY TRACING CAN BE USED TO ESTIMATE $\sigma$

A SMOOTH CURVED SURFACE NORMAL TO THE INCIDENT WAVE VECTOR $\vec{k}$ WILL GIVE SPECULAR REFLECTION (MIRROR LIKE)

AN EQUATION FOR CROSS SECTION IS

$$\sigma = \pi \rho_1 \rho_2$$

WHERE $\rho_1$ AND $\rho_2$ ARE RADII OF CURVATURE OF SURFACE.

REFLECTIONS OCCUR WHERE $\vec{k}_i \cdot \vec{n} = -k_i$.

GEOMETRICAL THEORY OF DIFFRACTION APPLIES IN OPTICAL REGION.
MIE OR RESONANCE SCATTERING

To satisfy electrical boundary conditions on a body, a grid with nodes spaced at a small fraction of a wavelength, say $\lambda/6$, is needed. For the optical region where $\lambda \ll a$, the number of grid points is very large. However, for the resonance or Mie region, the value of $\lambda$ is near a dimension of the body. Fewer grid points are needed in the resonance region than in the optical region.
MIE SCATTERING

Simple generalizations for $\sigma$ are not possible favorable for numerical techniques; fewer grid points needed

Impulse-response technique may be applicable

May obtain results in Mie-region by taking more terms in $1/\kappa a$ series expansion; extend optical region toward Mie-region

Geometry of body is critical factor

Very few analytical solutions in resonance-region
LECTURE II. RADAR CROSS SECTION CALCULATIONS; RADAR RANGE EQUATION

1. Physical Optics
2. Radar Range Equation 1
3. Radar Range Equation 2
4. Radar Range Equation 3
5. Burnthrough Range
6. RCS for Simple Shapes
7. Calculation of "Flat Plate" Area
8. Why RCS for Sphere Does Not Depend on \( \lambda \)
9. Wavelength Dependence of Specular Reflection
10. Wavelength Dependence Using Flat Plate \( \sigma \)
11. Wavelength Dependence Using P. O. Integral
12. Radar Cross Section of a Sphere
13. Addition of Specular and Creeping Waves
14. Derivation of \( \sigma = \pi \rho_1 \rho_2 \)
15. Radar Cross Section for Wires, Rods, Cylinders and Discs
16. Radar Cross Section of Circular Disc of Radius, \( a \)--Linear Scale
17. Radar Cross Section of Circular Disc of Radius, \( a \)--Decibel Scale (\( f = 12 \text{ GHz} \))
18. Radar Cross Section of Circular Disc of Radius, \( a \)--Decibel Scale (\( f = 2 \text{ GHz} \))
19. RCS of Dihedral
20. Determination of RCS for Dihedral
21. Sample Calculation of RCS for a Dihedral
22. Calculated Dihedral RCS for \( 30^\circ < \theta < 120^\circ \)
23. Data for a Dihedral at 5.0 GHz
24. Creeping Waves
25. Traveling Waves
26. RCS of Cavities
27. Retroreflectors
28. RCS of Common Trihedral Reflectors
29. Vector Sum for Radar Cross Section
30. Radar Cross Section for Two Spheres
31. Sample Output for Two-Spheres Model
32. Radar Cross Section and Antennas

A. E. FUHS
The symbol $I$ is irradiance, Watts/m$^2$.

The value of $I_0$ is $I$ at $\theta = 0$.

$$\lim_{\theta \to 0} \frac{I}{I_0} = \left( \frac{k\theta}{k\theta^2} \right)^2 = 1$$

Using the Kirchhoff Integral, which is a technique used in physical optics, the radar cross section is obtained.

A vocabulary guide is given since optics people use different words than microwave people.

References are as follows:


APPLICATION OF KIRCHHOFF INTEGRAL TO FRAUNHOFER DIFFRACTION GIVES

\[ \frac{I}{I_0} = \left( \frac{\sin(ka \cdot \sin \theta)}{ka \cdot \sin \theta} \right)^2 \]

Radar Cross Section for Square Flat Plate

\[ \frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} = \left( \frac{\sin(ka \cdot \sin \theta)}{ka \cdot \sin \theta} \right)^2 \]
RADAR RANGE EQUATION 1

By using the dimensions, one can understand the various steps in the derivation.

Symbols have the following definitions:

- $P =$ radar transmitter power, Watts
- $G =$ antenna gain
- $R =$ range, i.e., distance from radar to target, meters
- $\Omega =$ solid angle

Note that atmospheric attenuation is neglected.
**RADAR RANGE EQUATION 1**

\[
\frac{\text{Power}}{\text{Steradian}} = \frac{P}{4\pi}
\]

**ISOTROPIC RADIATION**

**POWER THROUGH A IS**

\[
\frac{\text{Power}}{\text{Steradian}} = \frac{PG}{4\pi R^2}
\]

**POWER PER UNIT AREA IS**

\[
\left( \frac{\text{Power}}{\text{Steradian}} \right) \left( \frac{\text{Steradian}}{\text{Area}} \right) = \frac{PG}{4\pi R^2}
\]

**POWER CONCENTRATED BY ANTENNA**
Note that RCS has units of an area and is used as the area which intercepts outgoing radar power.

The signal, $S$, has units of power.

Note that $1/R^2$ is (steradian/unit area).
RADAR RANGE EQUATION 2

\[
R = \frac{\sigma}{\frac{P_g \sigma}{4\pi R^2}}
\]

\[
\text{POWER REFLECTED} = \frac{P_g \sigma}{4\pi R^2} \frac{1}{R^2}
\]

\[
\text{POWER REFLECTED} = \frac{P_g \sigma}{4\pi R^2} \frac{1}{4\pi}
\]

\[
A_o = \frac{A_o}{R^2}
\]

\[
S_o = \frac{A_o}{R^2}
\]

\[
\text{ANTENNA GAIN AND AREA}
\]

\[
\text{ANTENNA AREA AS SEEN FROM TARGET}
\]

\[
\text{ANTENNA GAIN AND AREA}
\]

\[
\text{POWER RECEIVED (TYP)} = \left(\frac{\text{POWER REFLECTED}}{\text{STERADIAN}}\right)
\]

\[
\text{SIGNAL} = \frac{P_g \sigma}{4\pi R^2} \frac{1}{4\pi}
\]

\[
A_o = \frac{6\pi^2}{4\pi^2}
\]
Detection range does not necessarily equal R₀.

Using logarithmic differentiation, one can show that

$$\frac{\Delta R_0}{R_0} = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\Delta P}{P} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta A}{A} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{\Delta \sigma}{\sigma} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda} - \frac{1}{4} \frac{\Delta N}{N}$$

A 40 per cent reduction in \( \sigma \) causes only a 10 per cent reduction in range.

The formula for relative detection ranges is useful. An example:

Radar power is doubled. How much does the reference range increase?

$$\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)^{1/4} = (2)^{1/4} = 1.189$$

Range increases by 19 per cent for a 100 per cent increase in power.
A. E. Fuhls  

**RADAR RANGE EQUATION 3**

\[
S = \frac{P G \sigma}{4\pi} \frac{G}{R^2} \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{G \lambda^2}{4\pi}
\]

\[
S = \frac{P G^2 \lambda^2 \sigma}{(4\pi)^3 R^4}
\]

Express \( S \) in terms of antenna area:

\[
G = \frac{4\pi A}{\lambda^2}
\]

\[
S = \frac{P}{(4\pi)^3} \frac{(4\pi)^2 A^2}{\lambda^4} \frac{\lambda^2 \sigma}{R^4}
\]

\[
S = \frac{P A^2 \sigma}{4\pi \lambda^2 R^4}
\]

Introduce noise \( N \) to form signal-to-noise ratio:

\[
\frac{S}{N} = \frac{P A^2 \sigma}{4\pi \lambda^2 R^4 N}
\]

A reference range is that range at which \( S/N = 1.0 \):

\[
R_0 = \{\text{range for unity } S/N\} = \left[\frac{P A^2 \sigma}{4\pi \lambda^2 N}\right]^{1/4}
\]

Relative detection ranges:

\[
\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \left[\frac{P_2 A_2^2 \sigma_2 \lambda^2 N_1}{P_1 A_1^2 \sigma_1 \lambda^2 N_2}\right]^{1/4}
\]
Symbols have definitions as follows:

- $A_r$ radar antenna area, m$^2$
- $A_j$ jammer antenna area, m$^2$
- $A_{br}$ area of radar beam at jammer, m$^2$
- $A_{bj}$ area of jammer beam at radar, m$^2$
- $\theta_j$ angle of jammer beam, radians
- $\theta_r$ angle of radar beam, radians
- $S_j$ signal at radar due to jammer, Watts
- $S_r$ Signal at radar due to reflected power from target which is carrying jammer, Watts
- $P_r$ radar power, Watts
- $P_j$ jammer power, Watts
- $R$ range, meters
- $\lambda$ wavelength, meters
- $\sigma$ RCS of target which is carrying jammer, m$^2$

Obviously both radar and jammer must be on same $\lambda$.

Note that $S_j$ varies as $R^{-2}$.

Note that $S_r$ varies as $R^{-4}$.

A narrow beam for jammer is not practical since this implies jammer must be aimed. Hence $A_j$ is small.

Note that $R_b$ varies as $\text{SQR}($should be $\sigma$).

For penetrating aircraft, a small value of $R_b$ is desired.
**BURNTHROUGH RANGE**

**Radar**

\[
\theta_j = \frac{2\lambda}{\pi D_j} ; \quad \theta_r = \frac{2\lambda}{\pi D_r}
\]

**Beam Areas**

\[
A_{bj} = \pi r_j^2 = \pi (\theta_j R)^2 = \frac{4\lambda^2 R^2}{\pi D_j^2} = \frac{\lambda^2 R^2}{A_j}
\]

\[
A_{br} = \frac{\lambda^2 R^2}{A_r}
\]

**Signal Due to Jammer**

\[
S_j = \frac{P_j A_r A_j}{A_{bj}} = \frac{P_j A_r A_j}{\lambda^2 R^2}
\]

**Jammer**

**Signal Due to Radar Operation**

\[
S_r = \frac{P_r A_r^2 \sigma}{4\pi \lambda^2 R^4}
\]

**Burnthrough Definition**

\[
S_r = S_j
\]

**Burnthrough Range**

\[
R_b = \left[ \frac{P_r A_r}{P_j A_j} \frac{\sigma}{4\pi} \right]^{1/2}
\]
RCS FOR SIMPLE SHAPES

The direction of the incident wave is specified by \( \hat{k} \) which is usually parallel to an axis for the simple cases considered here.

The equations are valid only in optical region where \( ka \gg 1 \).

The cone and paraboloid extend to infinity. \( \sigma \) is due to scattering at the tip for a cone and blunt nose for a paraboloid.

Compare the RCS for a sphere and a paraboloid. What do you notice?

The prolate (cigar shaped) ellipsoid of revolution has a RCS less than a sphere of radius \( b \). Rewrite formula for \( \sigma \) as

\[
\sigma = (\pi b^2)(b/a)^2 = (\text{RCS OF SPHERE OF RADIUS } b)(b/a)^2
\]

As ratio \( b/a \) decreases, the radius of curvature at the nose decreases; \( \sigma \) decreases. Interpret the result in terms of

\[
\sigma = \pi \rho_1 \rho_2
\]

The circular ogive is tangent to a cylinder. The cylinder must extend to infinity. Note RCS is same for a cone and an ogive. RCS is due to scattering by the tip.
RCS FOR SIMPLE SHAPES

\[ \text{SPHERE} \]
\[ \sigma = \pi a^2 \]

\[ \text{CONE} \]
\[ \sigma = \frac{\lambda^2}{16\pi} + \pi a^4 \delta \]

CONE EXTENDS TO INFINITY

\[ \text{PARABOLOID} \]
\[ 2g = \text{APEX RADIUS OF CURVATURE} \]
\[ \sigma = 4\pi g^2 \]

PARABOLOID EXTENDS TO INFINITY

\[ \text{PROLATE ELLIPSOID OF REVOLUTION} \]
\[ \sigma = \frac{\pi b^4}{a^2} \]

\[ \text{CIRCULAR OGVeE} \]
\[ \sigma = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi} \tan^4 \delta \]

CIRCULAR DISC; RADIUS a

\[ \sigma = \pi a^2 \left[ \frac{J_1(2ka\sin\theta)}{\tan\theta} \right]^2 \]
To use the formula

\[ \sigma = \frac{4\pi A^2}{\lambda^2} \]

one must evaluate \( A_p \).

The method for determining \( A_p \) is shown for two cases, a sphere and a cylinder.

The quantity \( F \) is a small number, and \( F\lambda \) is a small fraction of a wavelength.

The cross section for a sphere does not depend on wavelength.

The cross section for a cylinder decreases as \( \lambda \) increases.

One can understand the dependence of \( \sigma \) on \( \lambda \) in terms of diffraction.

The reflecting area, \( A_p \), is much smaller than the projected area of the body.
CALCULATION OF "FLAT PLATE" AREA

\[ \alpha^2 = (a - F\lambda)^2 + r^2 \]
\[ r = \sqrt{2Fa\lambda} \]
\[ A_P = \pi r^2 \]
\[ \sigma = \frac{4\pi A_P^2}{\lambda^2} = 4\pi (4\pi^2 F^2 a^2) = \pi a^2 \]

**THEREFORE**

\[ F = \frac{1}{4\pi} \]

\[ A_P = 2rL = 2L \sqrt{2Fa\lambda} \]
\[ \sigma = \frac{4\pi \left[2L \sqrt{2Fa\lambda}\right]^2}{\lambda^2} \]
\[ \sigma = 16Fk\alpha L^2 = k\alpha L^2 \]

**THEREFORE**

\[ F = \frac{1}{16} \]
The symbols have the following meaning:

\[ r \] = radius of reflecting area, meters
\[ A \] = reflecting area, \( m^2 \)
\[ \theta \] = angle of reflected beam
\[ \Omega \] = solid angle of reflected beam
\[ P \] = reflected power, Watts

In words the result, \( \sigma_2 = \sigma_1 \), can be expressed as follows:

As \( \lambda \) decreases, the reflected power decreases. However, the angle of the reflected beam, which is due to diffraction, decreases also. The changes in reflected power and solid angle of the reflected beam compensate for each other. As wavelength decreases, the reflected power is in a smaller reflected beam.

Exercise for the Motivated Reader.

Using viewgraphs 7 and 8, repeat the analysis for a cylinder. Show that

\[
\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} = \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}
\]
WHY RCS FOR SPHERE DOES NOT DEPEND ON $\lambda$

RAII OF REFLECTING AREAS
\[
\frac{r_2}{r_1} = \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}
\]

ANGLE OF REFLECTED BEAM
\[
\frac{\theta_2}{\theta_1} = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \frac{D_1}{D_2} = \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} \frac{r_1}{r_2} = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}
\]

FROM DEFINITION OF RCS
\[
\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} = \frac{P_2}{P_1} \frac{S_{\lambda_1}}{S_{\lambda_2}} \quad \sigma \sim \theta^2
\]

SOLID ANGLE VARIES AS SQUARE OF BEAM ANGLE, REFLECTED POWER VARIES AS THE REFLECTING AREA
\[
\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} = \frac{A_2}{A_1} \frac{\theta_1^2}{\theta_2^2} = \frac{r_2^2}{r_1^2} \frac{\theta_1^2}{\theta_2^2} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \left(\frac{2}{2}\right)^2 = 1.0
\]

THEREFORE $\sigma$ DOES NOT DEPEND ON $\lambda$
In the optical region, the RCS for various geometrical shapes varies with $\lambda$. The variation is due to specular reflection.

The variation for a sphere was discussed by viewgraph 7.

The variation of $\sigma$ with $\lambda$ can be understood by using

$$\sigma = \pi \rho_1 \rho_2$$

The flat plate, cylinder, and ellipsoid can be understood in terms of

$$\sigma = \frac{4\pi A^2}{\lambda^2}$$

The variation of $A_p$ with $\lambda$ determines variation of $\lambda$. 
# Wavelength Dependence of Specular Reflection

\[ \sigma \sim \lambda^n \]  

*Use \( \sigma = \pi r_1 p_2 \) to organize cases*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value of ( n )</th>
<th>Value of ( p_1 )</th>
<th>Value of ( p_2 )</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>Infinite</td>
<td>Infinite</td>
<td>Flat plate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>Infinite</td>
<td>Nonzero, Finite</td>
<td>Cylinder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Infinite</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>Wedge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Nonzero, Finite</td>
<td>Nonzero, Finite</td>
<td>Ellipsoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Nonzero, Finite</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>Curved edge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>Tip of cone</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*E. Fuchs*
WAVELENGTH DEPENDENCE USING FLAT PLATE 

0 For a flat plate, \( \rho_1 = \rho_2 \rightarrow \infty \). Hence \( A_p \) does not change with \( \lambda \).

0 For a cylinder, \( \rho_1 \rightarrow \infty \) and \( \rho_2 \) is finite and nonzero.

0 For a sphere, \( \rho_1 = \rho_2 \) and both are finite and nonzero.
WAVELENGTH DEPENDENCE USING FLAT PLATE

\[ \sigma = \frac{4\pi A_p^2}{\lambda^2} \]

A_p does not depend on \( \lambda \)
\( \sigma \sim \lambda^{-2} \)

L does not depend on \( \lambda \)
W varies as \( \sqrt{\lambda} \)
\( A_p \sim \sqrt{\lambda} \)
\( 0 \sim \lambda^{-1} \)

\[ a^2 = (a - \frac{\lambda}{4\pi})^2 + \left(\frac{w}{w}\right)^2 \]
\( w \sim \sqrt{\lambda} \)

A. E. FURS
A. E. FUHS

WAVELENGTH DEPENDENCE USING P. O. INTEGRAL

0 P. O. = Physical Optics

0 The wedge, curved wedge, and cone have at least one zero value for radius of curvature. These can be understood in terms of the formula for which is based on an integration of $\partial A/\partial \rho$ along the direction of incident wave motion.

0 In this viewgraph, $\rho$ is the distance along the direction of incident wave propagation.

0 The equation for $\sigma$ is somewhat analogous to the equation for supersonic potential function. See page 237 of Liepmann and Roshko.*

WAVELENGTH DEPENDENCE USING P.O. INTEGRAL

$$\sigma = \frac{k^2}{\pi} \left[ \int e^{2ik\rho} \frac{dA}{d\rho} d\rho \right]^2$$

EQUATION (1) PAGE 299 CRISPIN AND SIEGEL "METHODS OF RADAR CROSS SECTION ANALYSIS", ACADEMIC PRESS, 1961

WEDGE
$\frac{dA}{d\rho} = \omega p^0 \sin \theta$

CURVED WEDGE
$\frac{dA}{d\rho} \sim \rho^m \sin \theta$

CONE
$\frac{dA}{d\rho} = 2\pi \rho^m \sin \theta$

\[ \frac{dA}{d\rho} = C \rho^n \]

$$\sigma = \frac{k^2}{\pi} \left[ \int e^{2ik\rho} C \rho^n d\rho \right]^2$$

$$\sigma = \frac{k^2}{\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{k^{n+1}} \int e^{2ik\rho} C (k\rho)^n d(k\rho) \right]^2$$

$$\sigma = \frac{k^{-2n}}{\pi} \left[ \int e^{2iz} C z^n dz \right]^2 \quad z = k\rho$$

\[ k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \]

$$\sigma \sim \lambda^{-2n}$$

A. E. FUR
The formula valid in Rayleigh region

\[ \frac{\sigma}{\pi a^2} = \frac{64}{9} (ka)^4 \]

comes from Lecture 1, Viewgraph 15.

In the optical region, \( \sigma_o \) is independent of \( ka \); subscript "o" refers to optical region.

In the MIE or RESONANCE region, the cross section is the sum of two contributions. Electric fields add vectorially; power does not add. Hence the formula

\[ \sigma = [\sqrt{\sigma_o} \pm \sqrt{\sigma_c}]^2 \]

applies only at maxima or minima of the curves. At other locations a phase angle is required.

The meaning of the word "resonance" now becomes apparent. When the specular and creeping waves have the correct relative phase, one gets "resonance" or an addition of the two waves.

At point 1, which is a maximum in Mie region, \( ka \) is nearly 1.0. Hence

\[ \frac{\sigma_c}{\pi a^2} = 1.03 \]
Radar Cross Section of a Sphere

A. E. Fuhs

Rayleigh

\[ \sigma = (\pi a^2) \left( \frac{64}{9} (ka)^4 \right) \]

\[ \frac{\sigma}{\pi a^2} = \frac{64}{9} (ka)^4 \]

Optical

\[ \sigma_0 = \pi a^2 \]

Mie

Creeping Wave (Crispin Page 128)

\[ \frac{\sigma_0}{\pi a^2} \approx 1.03 (ka)^{-5/2} \]

At Max or Min

\[ \sigma = \left[ \sqrt{\sigma_0} \pm \sqrt{\sigma_c} \right]^2 \]
ADDITION OF SPECULAR AND CREEPING WAVES

One can calculate \( \sigma \) for the maximum at point 1 of RCS wave

\[
\frac{\sigma_c}{\pi a^2} = 1.03
\]

\[
\frac{\sigma_o}{\pi a^2} = 1.00
\]

\[
\frac{\sigma}{\pi a^2} = \left(\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_c}{\pi a^2}} + \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_o}{\pi a^2}}\right)^2 = 4.06
\]

In terms of dB, precise calculations show that the cross section is 5.7 dB higher at point 1. For the calculations here

\[
\sigma_{db} = 10 \log_{10}(4.06) = 6.09
\]

which is close.

At the minimum at point 2 on the curve \( ka = 1.8 \)

\[
\frac{\sigma_c}{\pi a^2} = 1.03(1.8)^{-2.5} = 0.237
\]

\[
\frac{\sigma}{\pi a^2} = \left(\sqrt{1.0} - \sqrt{0.237}\right)^2 = 0.263
\]

which is close to a value of 0.28.

In summary, the wiggles in the RCS curve in the Mie region are due to constructive or destructive interference between specular reflected and creeping waves.
ADDITION OF SPECULAR AND CREEPING WAVES

SPECULAR

CREEPING

CONSTRUCTIVE INTERFERENCE GIVES MAX

SPECULARLY REFLECTED WAVE

CREEPING

DESTRUCTIVE INTERFERENCE GIVES MIN

BACKSCATTERED CREEPING WAVE

A. E. FUHS
DERIVATION OF $\sigma = \pi \rho_1 \rho_2$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta S$</td>
<td>arclength along the reflecting surface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta \theta$</td>
<td>angle subtended by $\Delta S$ from center for radius $R$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta S_r$</td>
<td>arclength along the reflected wavefront</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathbf{k}_i$</td>
<td>propagation vector for incident wave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mathbf{k}_r$</td>
<td>propagation vector for reflected wave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R$</td>
<td>radius of curvature of the reflected wavefront</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\rho$</td>
<td>radius of curvature of reflecting surface</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Omega$</td>
<td>solid angle formed by reflected wavefront</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_i$</td>
<td>incident power, Watts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_r$</td>
<td>reflected power, Watts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fact that the angle associated with $\rho$, i.e., $\Delta \theta_1/2$, is one-half of the angle associated with $R$, i.e., $\Delta \theta_1$, is an important fact.

In the derivation of the equation, one uses the definition of RCS.
DERIVATION OF $\sigma = \pi p_1 p_2$

\[
\sigma = \frac{P_r}{P_i / 4\pi A}
\]

\[
A = \Delta S_1 \Delta S_2
\]

\[
S_i = \frac{\Delta S_{ir}}{R^2}
\]

\[
P_r = P_i
\]

\[
\sigma = \frac{P_r R^2}{\Delta S_{ri} \Delta S_r}
\]

\[
\Delta S_1 = \rho \frac{\Delta \theta_1}{2}
\]

\[
\Delta S_{ri} = R \Delta \theta
\]

\[
\sigma = \pi p_1 p_2
\]

$\rho = \text{RADIUS OF CURVATURE}$

A: E. FISHER
The problem has three characteristics lengths, i.e., a, L, and λ, and two ratios, i.e., ka = 2πa/λ and L/λ.

The values of L/λ and ka determine the RCS.

Consider a reference square area which is λ on each side. The various geometrical figures have the λ-square drawn to indicate relative sizes of ka and L/λ.

The (L/λ) - (ka) plane has been divided into three regions. In the upper left where L/λ >> 1 and ka >> 1, the polarization of the wave is not important. In the corner near the origin where L = a and ka << 1, polarization is not important. In between these two regions, polarization is important, and one needs both σ∥ and σ⊥ to be complete.
Radar Cross Section for Wires, Rods, Cylinders and Discs

\[ \sigma_{||} = \frac{\pi L^2}{(\pi^2 a^2 + \ln(\lambda/1.78\pi a))^2} \]

\[ \sigma_{\perp} = \frac{9}{4} \pi L^2 (ka)^4 \]

\[ \sigma = kaL^2 \]

Much Larger Than Unity

Near Unity \[ \frac{L}{\lambda} \]

Much Smaller Than Unity

Rayleigh \[ \lambda \]

Mie \[ \lambda \]

Optical \[ \lambda \]

PI = Polarization Important

PNI = Polarization Not Important

A. E. Fuchs

See Also Viewgraph 1-8

Disc Edge On

\[ \sigma_{||} / \pi a^2 < -40 \text{ db} \]

\[ \sigma_{\perp} \sim \frac{a}{k} \]
The RCS of a circular disc has been calculated.

To evaluate the formula, one needs to know frequency and disc radius. These values are given.

A disc with an area of

\[ A = \pi r^2 = \pi (0.4572)^2 = 0.66 \text{ m}^2 \]

yields a cross section of almost 9000 m\(^2\) at 12 GHz.

The linear scale of \(\sigma\) illustrates the big change in \(\sigma\) as frequency increases. The width of the reflected beam becomes much narrower as frequency increases.
RADAR CROSS SECTION OF CIRCULAR DISC OF RADIUS, a

LINEAR SCALE

\[ f_1 = 2 \times 10^9 \text{ Hz} \]
\[ f_2 = 12 \times 10^9 \text{ Hz} \]
\[ k_1 = 41.9 \text{ 1/m} \]
\[ k_2 = 251.3 \text{ 1/m} \]
\[ \text{disc radius, } a, 0.4572 \text{ m} \]
\[ k_1a = 19.151 \]
\[ k_2a = 114.907 \]

\[ \sigma = \pi a^2 \left[ \frac{J_1(2ka \sin \theta)}{\tan \theta} \right]^2 \]

\[ \theta, \text{ Angle Between Disc Normal, } \hat{n}, \text{ and Propagation Vector, } \hat{k}, \text{ Degrees} \]
When $\text{db}_m$ is used as a value for RCS, the sidelobes become more apparent.

For $f = 12$ GHz, the main lobe of the beam is about $2^\circ$ wide.
RADAR CROSS SECTION OF CIRCULAR DISC OF RADIUS, $a$

DECIBEL SCALE

$a = 36$ inches $= 0.457$ meter

$f = 12$ GHz

$\theta$, Angle Between Disc Normal, $\hat{n}$, and Propagation Vector, $\hat{k}$, Degrees
The side lobes at $f = 2$ GHz cannot be seen in the plot using a linear scale; see viewgraph 16. However, with the decibel plot, the side lobes are evident. At 2 GHz, the main lobe is almost $12^\circ$ wide.
RADAR CROSS SECTION OF CIRCULAR DISC OF RADIUS, a

DECIBEL SCALE

\[ a = 36 \text{ inches} = 0.457 \text{ meters} \]
\[ f = 2 \text{ GHz} \]

\[ \theta, \ \text{Angle Between Disc Normal, } \hat{n}, \ \text{and Propagation Vector, } \hat{k}, \ \text{Degrees} \]
RCS OF DIHEDRAL

0 The radar cross section is due to different surfaces when viewing angle changes. Starting at $\theta = 0^\circ$, the surfaces contributing to the RCS will be noted.

0 Near $0^\circ$. The plate $P_2$ and the edge $E_1$ are the main contributors. Consider $\mathbf{E}$ perpendicular to edge $E_1$. The RCS for $E_1$ can be modelled as a wire using RCS from viewgraph 15. The flat plate $P_2$ can be modelled using RCS from viewgraph 1.

0 Between $0^\circ$ and $90^\circ$. The dihedral forms a retroreflector. In this region, use formula for the retroreflector.

0 Near $90^\circ$. Ditto for $0^\circ$; however, use $E_2$ and $P_1$.

0 Between $90^\circ$ and $135^\circ$. Both plates $P_1$ and $P_2$ contribute to RCS. Once again, use RCS formula from viewgraph 1.

0 Between $135^\circ$ and $180^\circ$. In this region the fact that the two plates $P_1$ and $P_2$ form a $90^\circ$-wedge becomes important. The symbol $FW_{s}$ means use the finite wedge formulas with plate $P_1$ in shadow.

0 Near $180^\circ$. Plate $P_2$ is (almost) normal to incident wave. A large RCS results due to flat plate $P_2$.

0 Between $180^\circ$ and $270^\circ$. Use formulas for finite wedge with both surfaces of wedge exposed. Subscript $e$ means both surfaces are exposed.

0 Between $270^\circ$ and $360^\circ$. Already discussed due to symmetrically located regions.
DETERMINATION OF RCS FOR DIHEDRAL

The largest RCS occurs when $\theta$ is $45^\circ$ as seen in left-hand side of viewgraph.

One uses the flat plate formula to calculate RCS.

When $\theta$ is not equal to $45^\circ$, $A_p$ can be found by a topological trick. Rotate the dihedral about an axis parallel to $\hat{k}$ and passing through the dot on the corner line. Area common to both the initial and rotated dihedral is $A_p$.

The angle $\theta$ is identical to $\theta$ used in the preceding viewgraph.
DETERMINATION OF RCS FOR DIHEDRAL

\[ \sigma_{45} = \frac{4 \pi A^2}{\lambda^2} = \frac{4 \pi \left( \sqrt{2} a \right)^2}{\lambda^2} \]

\[ \sigma_{45} = \frac{8 \pi a^4}{\lambda^2} \]

\[ \overline{bd} = a \sin \theta \]

\[ A_p = (2a \sin \theta)(a) \]

\[ \sigma(\theta) = \frac{16 \pi a^4 \sin^2 \theta}{\lambda^2} \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 45^\circ \]

Use \((90^\circ - \theta)\) for \(45^\circ < \theta < 90^\circ\)

\[ \frac{\sigma(\theta)}{\sigma_{45}} = 2 \sin^2 \theta \]
The cross section due to retroreflection from dihedral, i.e., $\sigma(\theta)$, and the cross section from flat plate, i.e., $\sigma_{pp}$, were added using the formula shown. The formula implies both reflected waves have the same phase angle.
SAMPLE CALCULATION OF RCS FOR A DIHEDRAL

\[ \sigma = \left[ \sqrt{\sigma(\theta)} + \sqrt{\sigma_{fp}} \right]^2 \quad -30^\circ \leq \theta \leq 120^\circ \]

A. E. FÜHS

\[ \sigma(\theta) = \frac{16 \pi a^4 \sin^2 \theta}{\lambda^2} \]

\[ \sigma_{fp} = \frac{4 \pi a^4}{\lambda^2} \left[ \frac{\sin(ka \sin \theta)}{ka \sin \theta} \right]^2 \]

\[ \sigma_E = \frac{9}{4} \pi a^2 (kt)^2 \]

INPUT VALUES

\[ f = 5.0 \text{ GHz} \]
\[ a = 0.914 \text{ meters} \]
\[ t = \lambda/85 \]
\[ \lambda = 0.06 \text{ m} \]

\[ \sigma_E \text{ was found to be much smaller than } \sigma(\theta) \text{ or } \sigma_{fp}. \]
\[ \sigma_E \text{ was not included in the calculation.} \]
The peak at $\theta = 0^\circ$ is due to flat plate $P_2$. The peak at $\theta = 45^\circ$ is due to retroreflection by the dihedral. The peak at $\theta = 90^\circ$ is due to flat plate $P_1$. For $90^\circ < \theta < 120^\circ$, the cross section is due to plates $P_1$ and $P_2$.

This curve should be compared with the curve in the following viewgraph.
CALCULATED DIHEDRAL RCS FOR \(-30^\circ < \theta < 120^\circ\)
DATA FOR A DIHEDRAL AT 5.0 GHz

The simple model given in viewgraph 21 provides accurate results except for the dip at $45^\circ$. 
DATA FOR A DIHEDRAL AT 5.0 GHz

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BLACK DOTS ARE A FEW CALCULATED POINTS

THE CALCULATED CURVE AGREES WELL WITH THE CURVE TO THE LEFT EXCEPT FOR THE RCS AT $\theta = 45^\circ$.

THE WIGGLES, THE TRENDS, THE MAGNITUDES, THE SPIKES AT $0^\circ$ AND $90^\circ$ ALL AGREE. HENCE CORRECT PHENOMENA ARE INCORPORATED IN MODEL. THE DIP AT $45^\circ$ INDICATES SOMETHING MISSING IN THE MODEL.

$E$ PERPENDICULAR TO DIHEDRAL EDGES $E_1$ AND $E_2$
0 Creeping waves usually yield smaller RCS than specular reflection.

In case of sphere, \( \sigma_c \) was as large as the specular return for \( ka = 1 \).

0 Creeping waves are important for smooth blunt bodies such as spheres, cylinders, and ellipsoids.
Creeping waves are associated with currents in the shadow region. A smooth object at the surface of a liquid or optical region is encountered by creeping waves. Creeping waves are launched at the shadow boundary (rays are tangent to the surface of an object). Creeping waves emerge at the opposite shadow boundary. As shown, creeping waves propagate clockwise and counterclockwise.
TRAVELING WAVES

0 Body acts like a traveling wave antenna.

0 Formula for RCS due to wire for $L = 39\lambda$ and $a = \lambda/4$.

$$\frac{c}{\lambda^2} = (8.5E - 4) \left[ \frac{\sin \theta}{1 - \cos \theta} \sin[124.5(1 - \cos \theta)] \right]^4$$

$\theta = 0$ is for $\vec{k}$ parallel to wire. At $\theta = 8^\circ$, the value of $\sigma/\lambda^2$ attains a value of about 10.

0 The conditions for excitation of traveling waves are noted, namely long, thin bodies with near nose-on incidence of waves.

0 Bodies with dielectrics favor excitation of traveling waves.
LONG THIN BODY SUCH AS WIRES, PROLATE ELLIPSOIDS, AND OGIVES
NEAR NOSE-ON INCIDENCE
\[ \vec{E} \text{ VECTOR IN-PLANE OF PAPER} \]
BACK SCATTERED WAVES EMANATE FROM REAR OF BODY
RCS OF CAVITIES

0 The flat plate model gives an order-of-magnitude estimate of the inlet, exhaust, or radar cavity.

0 Fenestrated radomes may be opaque at some radar frequencies avoiding problem of transparent radome and exposure of radar cavity.
RCS OF CAVITIES

Radome may be transparent at radar frequencies

Radome

Engine inlet

Engine exhausts

Area A of hole

- Problem is complex
- RCS is determined by what is in the hole
- CAVITIES HAVE INTRINSIC HIGH RCS

A. Z. FURS

As a simple model use flat plate

$$\sigma = \frac{4\pi A^2}{\lambda^2}$$

For variation with angle $\theta$

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} = \left[ \frac{\sin(kd\sin\theta)}{kd\sin\theta} \right]^2$$
RETROREFLECTORS

0 Use of retroreflectors
drones
sail boats
navigation buoys

0 Looking at retroreflectors, RR, on sail boats in Monterey Bay showed that almost every one was installed wrong if the radar was on another ship. One plate of the RR usually was mounted horizontally which is wrong.

0 Retroreflectors are inadvertently designed into a vehicle causing very large RCS.

0 Retroreflectors were left on the moon by the astronauts.
RETROREFLECTORS

A. E. FUHS

\[ \sigma = \frac{4 \pi A^2}{\lambda^2} \]

Problem is to find \( A \).

Use rotation about \( \vec{r} \) for incident wave. Common area after rotation is \( A \).

In Figure "A" is cross-hatched area.

Rays are reflected from all three surfaces.

Retroreflectors do not work with bistatic radar.
Consider the corner to form x, y, z coordinate system.

The angle of a symmetrically located vector can be found by

\[ \cos^2 \theta_x + \cos^2 \theta_y + \cos^2 \theta_z = 1.0 \]

\[ \theta_x = \theta_y = \theta_z = \theta \]

\[ \theta = \arccos(1/\sqrt{3}) = 54.736^\circ \]
RCS OF COMMON TRIHEDRAL REFLECTORS

\( \sigma = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 4\pi \frac{x^4}{\lambda^2} \)

\( \sigma = 15.611 \frac{x^4}{\lambda^2} \)

\( \sigma = 3 \cdot 4\pi \frac{x^4}{\lambda^2} \)

Square reflector has 9 times larger \( \sigma \) than triangular reflector.

One can derive the RCS using methods outlined.

Position a vector in the corner so that the three direction cosines are equal. Mount the reflector so that the vector points toward radar.
The radar cross section for multiple scatterers can be found using the equation. In the equation, the sum is from first to m-th scattering object.

The equation contains phase information which may lead to cancellation.

The symbols have the following definitions:

- $\sigma_k$: radar cross section of k-th object
- $d_k$: distance from k-th object to radar receiver
- $\lambda$: wavelength of radar
- $E_r$: electric field in reflected wave
- $E_{rk}$: electric field in reflected wave due to k-th object

Since radar waves make round trip, a difference $\Delta d = \lambda/4$ gives a phase change of $\lambda/2$ which is $180^\circ$ phase. A $180^\circ$ phase causes cancellation. A difference $\Delta d = \lambda/2$ yields a phase of $\lambda$; the reflected waves are in phase and add.
VECTOR SUM FOR RADAR CROSS SECTION

\[ \sigma = \left[ \sum_{k=1}^{m} \sqrt{\sigma_k} \ exp\left( \frac{j4\pi d_k}{\lambda} \right) \right]^2 \]

**Origin of \( \sqrt{\sigma_k} \)**

\[ 0^1 = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{power reflected} \\ \text{sterad} \\ \text{incident power/4\pi Area} \end{array} \right\} \]

Reflected power \( \propto E_r^2 \)

RCS \( \propto E_r^2 \propto \sigma \)

\( E_{rk} \propto \sigma_k^{1/2} \)

\( E_r = \text{reflected electric field vector} \)

\( E_r \) has amplitude and phase

at receiver, electric fields, \( E_{rk} \)

add vectorially

**Origin of 4\pi**

Initial:

- \( d_1 \rightarrow \)
- \( E_{r1} \)

Target:

- \( d_2 \rightarrow \)
- \( E_{r2} \)

\( d_1 = d_2 \) **ADD**

Antenna:

- \( d_1 \rightarrow \)
- \( \frac{\lambda}{4} \)

Target:

- \( E_{r1} \rightarrow \)
- \( \frac{\lambda}{4} \)

\( d_1 = d_2 + \frac{\lambda}{4} \) **CANCEL**

Radar waves make round trip

\( d_1 = d_2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \) **ADD**
A variety of features of RCS can be illustrated with the two-sphere model.

Vector addition of $E$

Assume $f = 1$ and $\theta = 90^\circ$; then $\sigma = 4\sigma_1$.

The cross section is 4 times that of one sphere.

Influence of $\sigma$ relative to $\lambda$. Assume $f = 1$.

$$\frac{8\pi}{\lambda} \cos \theta = 0 \text{ or } 2n\pi \quad \text{a maximum occurs}$$

$$\frac{8\pi}{\lambda} \cos \theta = (2n - 1)\pi; \ n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \ldots \quad \text{a minimum (zero) occurs}$$

As $\ell/\lambda$ increases, the number of maxima increases.

Influence of unequal RCS for scattering centers (i.e., spheres not same size)

$$f = 1/4 \quad E_2 = 1 \quad E_1 = 1/4$$

$$E_{max} = 1 + 1/4 = 5/4 \quad E_{min} = 1 - 1/4 = 3/4$$

$$\sigma_{max} = (5/4)^2 = 1.56 \quad E_{min} (0.75)^2 = 0.56$$

Influence when $\lambda/\ell$ or $\ell/\lambda$ are not integers

- interference still occurs
- angular location of interference peaks are shifted
- large $\sigma$ at $\theta = 0^\circ$ is modified

When spheres are broadside to wave, the greatest sensitivity of RCS to a change in $\theta$ occurs, i.e.

$$\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \theta} \text{ is largest}$$

When spheres are on a line parallel to $\mathbf{k}$, the least sensitivity of RCS to a change in $\theta$ occurs, i.e.

$$\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \theta} \text{ is smallest}$$
RADAR CROSS SECTION FOR TWO SPHERES

\[ d_1^2 = d^2 + l^2 - 2dl \cos \theta \]
\[ d_1 \approx d - l \cos \theta \]
\[ d_2 \approx d + l \cos \theta \]

DIFFERENT SIZE SPHERES CAN BE USED.
\[ \sigma_1 = f^2 \sigma_2 \]

FOR CASE ILLUSTRATED ABOVE, \( f > 1.0 \)
\[ \sigma = \sigma_1 \left[ e^{\frac{i \pi}{\lambda} (d-l \cos \theta)} + 2f e^{\frac{i 4\pi}{\lambda} (d_1+l)} + f^2 e^{\frac{i 8\pi}{\lambda} (d_2+l \cos \theta)} \right] \]

\[ \frac{\sigma}{\sigma_1} = \left\{ \frac{R^2 + I^2}{\sigma_1} \right\}^{1/2} \]
\[ R = 2f + (1+f^2) \cos \left[ \frac{8\pi l}{\lambda} \cos \theta \right] \]
\[ I = (f^2-1) \sin \left[ \frac{8\pi l}{\lambda} \cos \theta \right] \]
SAMPLE OUTPUT FOR TWO-SPHERES MODEL

0 The RCS due to two spheres was calculated. Plotted is $\sigma/\sigma_1$ as a function of $\theta$. When $\theta$ is $90^\circ$, the spheres are broadside to the waves. The spheres are oriented as shown in the drawing. A non-integer spacing was selected; $2\lambda = 0.714\lambda$.

0 The figure on the left-hand side is for $f = 1$, i.e., both spheres are the same size. Broadside to the incident waves, $\sigma/\sigma_1$ is equal to 4. When $\theta = 0^\circ$, the RCS does not decrease to zero. At $\theta = 0^\circ$, the phase angle between the electric vectors is

$$(2)(0.71)(360) - 360 = 151.2^\circ$$

Since the phase angle is not $180^\circ$, the RCS does not vanish.

0 The figure on the right side has the same spacing for the spheres. However, the relative sphere size has been changed since $f = 1/2$. In fact, the RCS of one sphere is only $f^2$ or 1/4 as large. The RCS does not vanish at any value of $\theta$ due to destructive interference.
SAMPLE OUTPUT FOR TWO-SPHERES MODEL

f = 1

θ, DOES NOT VANISH WHEN θ = 0°.
When the flat plate is illuminated at an angle $\alpha$ off the normal, the (monostatic) radar does not see the main lobe.

The (monostatic) radar receives the $N = 3$ sidelobe for the case illustrated.

Note that the angle off the normal $\alpha$ is one-half of the angle of the $N = 3$ lobe from the main lobe, i.e.

$$\beta = 2\alpha$$
Radar Cross Section and Antennas

Diffraction Wave

Reflected Diffraction Waves

2α = β = 2θ

Bistatic Radar with Angle β Sees Main Lobe

Monostatic Radar Sees N=3 Lobe
LECTURE III. AIRCRAFT DESIGN AND RADAR CROSS SECTION

1. Origin of Electromagnetic Wave Scattering
2. Contributors to Aircraft Radar Cross Section
3. Relative Size of Contributors to RCS
4. Aircraft at Visible and Microwave Frequencies
5. Fire Fox MIG-31
6. Plan Form Fire Fox MIG-31
7. Gross Features of RCS for Fire Fox MIG-31
8. Antenna Scattering
9. Radar Cross Section Reduction
10. Impedance Loading
11. Shaping to Reduce Radar Cross Section
12. Do's and Don't's for Shaping to Achieve Low RCS
13. Radar Absorbing Material, RAM
14. Practical Aspects of RAM
15. Construction Materials
16. Radar "Hot Spots"
17. Payoff of Reduced Radar Cross Section

A. E. FUHS
ORIGIN OF ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVE SCATTERING

SPECULAR. Mirror-like reflection. Lobes occur due to diffraction. Main contribution occurs when \( \hat{k}_i \cdot \hat{n} = -k_i \), i.e., wavefronts are tangent to surface. \( \hat{k}_i \) is wave propagation vector which is normal to incident wavefront.

DIFFRACTION. A discontinuity occurs, and electromagnetic (EM) boundary conditions must be satisfied. The scattered wave is necessary to satisfy the boundary conditions.

TRAVELING WAVE. A long thin body with near nose-on incidence may cause traveling waves. Along the body, EM scattering may occur due to surface discontinuity
change in material, e.g., metal to plastic
end of body

CREEPING WAVE. Waves which propagate in the shadow region of smooth bodies are creeping waves.

CHANGES IN EM BOUNDARY CONDITIONS. As the incident wave propagates along the surface of the body, the EM boundary conditions are satisfied by currents in body. Whenever a change in EM boundary conditions occurs, scattering results. Examples are:
gaps and edges
surface discontinuities in slope, curvature, etc.
change in surface materials
ORIGIN OF ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVE SCATTERING

SPECULAR
MIRROR LIKE

DIFFRACTION
TIP OF CONE, EDGE OF WEDGE

TRAVELING WAVE
CURRENTS IN EXPOSED REGION CARRY OVER TO SHADOW

CREeping WAVE
CHANGE IN MATERIAL
GAP
SURFACE SLOPE DISCONTINUITY

CHANGES IN EM BOUNDARY
CONTRIBUTORS TO AIRCRAFT RADAR CROSS SECTION

(1) RADOME. If radome is transparent, then radar wave "sees" inside the cavity containing A/C radar. Black boxes inside may form retroreflectors. If radome is opaque, then tip diffraction may occur.

(2) A smooth rounded surface may have a creeping wave for the $k_1$ shown.

(3) Cockpit is a cavity and may be a large contributor to RCS.

(4) The propagation vector $k_1$ is about tangent to surface. The incident wave encounters an edge which is a scattering device.

(5) Multiple reflections may occur. This may be more important for bistatic radar.

(6) Large flat areas may cause glints. "Flat" is in quotes because a surface may have $\rho \gg \lambda$ and appear to be flat. $\rho$ is radius of curvature.

(7) Ordnance and drop tanks contribute to RCS.

(8) Edge diffraction (like a wedge) occurs at sharp leading edges and trailing edges. Sharp is $\rho \ll \lambda$. Blunt is $\rho = \lambda$ or $\rho > \lambda$. Blunt edges use a cylinder as model.

(9) Inlet cavities may give very large RCS.

(10) The rudder and elevator may form a right angle dihedral which acts as retroreflector.
CONTRIBUTORS TO AIRCRAFT RADAR CROSS SECTION

THINK OF AIRCRAFT AS A PORCUPINE WITH NORMAL VECTORS \( \mathbf{n} \). \( \mathbf{n} \) IS NORMAL TO SURFACE. WHEREEVER \( \mathbf{n} \) AND \( \mathbf{k} \) ARE PARALLEL EXPECT BIG RCS.

1. RADOME
   Tip Diffraction if Opaque to EM Waves, Otherwise Cavity Is Transparent

2. CREEPING WAVE

3. COCKPIT IS A CAVITY

4. SCATTERING DUE TO EDGE

5. MULTIPLE BOUNCE

6. GLINT FROM LARGE "FLAT" PLATE AREAS

7. TRAVELING WAVES ALONG ORDNANCE

8. EDGE DIFFRACTION FROM SHARP LEADING EDGES. SHARP \( \rho \ll \lambda \)

9. INLET CAVITY

10. DIHEDRAL

Cavities Are Primary Source of RCS
RELATIVE SIZE OF CONTRIBUTORS TO RCS

ORDNANCE. Missile may have own radar which can have large RCS.

RUDDER-ELEVATOR DIHEDRAL may be big due to action of retroreflector.

EXHAUST. Waves can propagate within the cavity and reflect from internal parts.

RUDDERS. RCS is small except for glint at broadside.

WING. RCS is small except when viewed so as to see "flat" area.

INLET FOR APU. The inlets for APU, air conditioning ducts, and gun exhaust gas ports can be large in certain direction.

COCKPIT. Big contributor to RCS.

GUN MUZZLE. Scattering is due to surface discontinuities.

RADOME. Big antenna inside acts like a cat's eye in the dark.

FUSELAGE. Recall \( \sigma = \pi \rho_1 \rho_2 \). Usually \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_2 \) are small compared to \( \rho \) of wing upper or lower surface.
Relative Size of Contributors to RCS

Size of RCS depends on aspect angle. Magnitude stated is for maximum RCS from the item.

- Inlet for APU or air conditioning (small)
- Cockpit (big)
- Gun muzzle (small)
- Radome (big)
- Fuselage (small)
- Inlet cavity (big)
- Engine face (big)
- Leading edge (big if straight)
- Drop tank (big)
- Engine exhaust (big)
- Afterburner (big)
- Rudder - elevator dihedral (big)
- Ordinance (seeker may be big)

A. E. Fuhs
AIRCRAFT AT VISIBLE AND MICROWAVE FREQUENCIES

0 The EM boundary conditions and the wave equations are shown. The equation for free space is

\[ \nabla^2 \mathbf{E} + k_0^2 \mathbf{E} = 0 \]

For propagation inside dielectrics, change \( k_0 \) to \( k_1 \).

0 Three major cavities are illustrated:

- aircraft radar cavity
- engine inlet cavity
- cockpit cavity
AIRCRAFT AT VISIBLE AND MICROWAVE FREQUENCIES

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Canopy (dielectric)

As seen by your eyeball

B.C. for dielectric

- Radiative
  \( \nabla^2 E + k_1^2 E = 0 \)

Waves in dielectric

Waves inside cockpit

Waves inside cavity

- Boundary Conditions for Conductor

- Boundary Conditions for Dielectric

Engine face

- Transparent radome
  \( \nabla^2 E + k_0^2 E = 0 \)

Free space

Inlet cavity

Waves inside radome (scattered by antenna)

\( \nabla^2 E + k_0^2 E = 0 \)
FIRE FOX MIG-31

As an example of estimating RCS for an aircraft, the MIG-31 Fire Fox will be used.

Some of the gross features of the RCS for the aircraft can be obtained from formulas discussed earlier.

The Fire Fox was designed, not for Mach 6, but for movie audiences. Low RCS and good L/D were not requirements. The design requirement was to look "mean."

Note: The comments for viewgraph 6 start here.

PLAN FORM FIRE FOX MIG-31

The assumed plan form is shown. The plan form can be verified now that the MIG-31 is in U. S. hands.

Assume the following:
- wing span, 30 m
- length, 28 m
- radar frequency, 12 GHz
- Wavelength, 0.025 m

The RCS will be estimated in the plane of the plan form. One views the aircraft from nose-on (θ = 0°) moving clockwise to starboard wing tip (θ = 90°). The various scattering components are identified.
Dazzling New Technology
Creates A Mach 6
Russian Fighter For A
Gripping Spy-Adventure
Film, And This Dramatic
Break-Through In
Believable Special Effects
May Be The Key To
Producing Future Aviation
Epics!
Tip Diffraction: The tip of the fuselage appears to be a wedge. Formulas for finite wedges are quite complex and are outside the realm of a back-of-an-envelope calculation. Based on calculations for tip diffraction for cones, \( \sigma \) may not be too important. However, this should be verified.

Engine Inlets: There are four engine inlets which will be modelled as flat plates with size 0.7 m x 1.8 m for each.

\[
\sigma_1 = \frac{4\pi a^2}{\lambda^2} = \frac{4\pi (0.7 \times 1.8)^2}{(0.025)^2} = 32000 \text{ m}^2 = 45 \text{ db}
\]

One can estimate the width of the main lobe from

\[
\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} = \left(\frac{\sin(ka \sin \theta)}{ka \sin \theta}\right)^2
\]

The first zero occurs when \( ka \sin \theta = \pi \).

\[
\theta = \arcsin(\pi/ka) = 1.02^0
\]

The lobe is very narrow. To add the four inlets, use the equation from Lecture 2, viewgraph 29. If phase angles for the waves returned from the four inlets are all zero, then the addition formula becomes

\[
\sigma = 16\sigma_1
\]

The RCS for all four inlets is 57 db.

LEADING EDGE OF STARBOARD CANARD

The LE has a sweep of 20°. The LE can be modelled as a wire. The assumed dimensions are \( L = 3.8 \text{ m} \) (length of LE on MIG-31) and radius of \( a = 0.01 \text{ m} \). For these values

\[
\sigma_a = \frac{9}{4} \pi (3.8)^2 (251.3 \times 0.01)^4
\]

\[
\sigma_a = 4072 \text{ m}^2 = 36 \text{ db}_{\text{sm}}
\]

The preceding equation appears in viewgraph 15 of Lecture 2. To estimate width of main lobe, one can use the same formula as used for the inlet. Wires have a lobe structure similar to a flat plate.

\[
\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} = \left(\frac{\sin(kL \sin \theta)}{kL \sin \theta}\right)^2
\]

The first zero in RCS occurs when

\[
kL \sin \theta = \pi
\]

or where \( \theta = 0.2^0 \) when \( L = 3.8 \text{ m} \). The second peak occurs at

\[
\theta = \arcsin(3\pi/(2kL)) = 0.28^0
\]

The value of the second peak is 34 db_{sm}.

The other comment is that the lobes are very, very narrow.
Continuing the calculations, the other leading edges were evaluated as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sweep</th>
<th>L, m</th>
<th>a, m</th>
<th>$\sigma$, m$^2$</th>
<th>$\sigma$, db$_{sm}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33°</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>55300</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40°</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>450000</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70°</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>366000</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90° (wing tip)</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FUSELAGE**

The fuselage has a normal vector at an angle of $\theta = 85^\circ$. Assume $\rho_1 = 3\ m$ and $\rho_2 = 10\ m$. From

$$\sigma = 4\rho_1\rho_2 = 94\ m^2 = 20\ db$$

one finds the RCS for fuselage.

**TRAILING EDGE OF PORT WING**

The TE of port wing is normal to the incident waves from $\theta = 170^\circ$.

Modelling the TE as a wire with $L = 12\ m$ and $a = 0.01\ m$, the following results were obtained

$$\sigma = 404000\ m^2 = 46\ db_{sm}$$

The large RCS is due to high radar frequency.

**4-ENGINE EXHAUSTS AT $\theta = 180^\circ$**

The calculation for inlet was repeated with assumed dimensions of $0.8\ m \times 2.0\ m$.

The result is

$$\sigma = 823550\ m^2 = 47\ db_{sm}$$

The RCS have been plotted. The various $\sigma_k$ should be added using the formula given in Lecture 2, viewgraph 29.

**NOTE**

A note about values of RCS is appropriate. The leading edges scale as

$$\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} = \left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}\right)^2$$

Since the wavelength is small, the value of RCS is large. At $\lambda = 1.0\ m$, the cross sections would be reduced by a factor of $(0.025/1.0)^2 = 6.25E-4$ or $-32\ db$. One could subtract $32\ db_{sm}$ from each value shown for LE or TE if $\lambda$ were $1.0\ m$. 
GROSS FEATURES OF RCS FOR FIREFOX MIG-31

Angle θ
ANTENNA SCATTERING

0 Structural Scattering Term is due to currents induced in the antenna surface and is independent of antenna load impedance.

0 Antenna Scattering Term is due to currents induced at the antenna load terminals. An antenna launches a plane wave from the antenna focus when radiating. The power moves outward from focal point to beam. When radar illuminates the antenna with plane waves, the power moves to the focus. The antenna feed system has a certain impedance. Depending on the impedance of the feed, the waves may or may not be re-radiated.

0 The RCS of an antenna is given by

$$\sigma = [\sqrt{\sigma_s} + \sqrt{\sigma_e} \exp i\psi]^2$$

where $$\sigma_s$$ is RCS of structural scattering term and $$\sigma_e$$ is the effective echo area of antenna. The phase angle between $$\sigma_s$$ and $$\sigma_e$$ is $$\psi$$. The value for $$\sigma_e$$ is, for certain specific conditions,

$$\sigma_e = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi} G^2$$

where $$G$$ is antenna gain at $$\lambda$$. As an estimate, one can use

$$\sigma = \frac{\lambda^2 G^2}{\pi}$$

for antenna RCS.

0 As an example, consider an antenna with a gain $$G$$ of 100 at $$\lambda = 0.5$$ m. The RCS of the antenna is estimated to be

$$\sigma = \frac{(0.5)^2(100)}{\pi} = 8 \text{ m}^2$$
ANTENNA SCATTERING

THE RADOME MAY BE TRANSPARENT TO THE INCIDENT RADAR WAVES.

THE ANTENNA OF AIRCRAFT RADAR MAY HAVE LARGE RCS

THE REFLECTION FROM AN ANTENNA IS ANALOGOUS TO REFLECTION OF LIGHT FROM CAT'S EYES AT NIGHT.

TWO TERMS IN CROSS SECTION OF AN ANTENNA
- STRUCTURAL SCATTERING TERM
- ANTENNA SCATTERING TERM

SCATTERING PATTERN FOR ANTENNA SCATTERING TERM IS PRECISELY THE SQUARE OF THE ANTENNA RADIATION PATTERN.
RADAR CROSS SECTION REDUCTION

0  SHAPING implies control of geometry so as to reduce RCS.

0  RAM is material used to match wave impedance of free space or to absorb the EM wave energy.

0  IMPEDANCE LOADING consists of passive or active elements added at appropriate locations to control RCS.
On the left-hand side is the case of a loaded pair of cylinders. By correct choice of $Z_l$, the load impedance, the RCS is reduced by 35 db.

On the right-hand side is the case of a pair of circular ogives back-to-back. The incident waves are arriving from the left when $\theta = 0^\circ$. A wire with length $\lambda/4$ is added to the tail end of the body. The wire causes a major reduction in RCS for $0 < \theta < 45^\circ$. This is an example of scattering by traveling waves when $\theta$ is small. A relatively minor change makes a very large change in RCS.

For simple cases, one may be able to exploit the method. Application of impedance loading to complex shapes may not be obvious.
THEORETICAL CURVES SHOWN. EXPERIMENTAL DATA CLOSE.

S DECREASED BY 35dB
SHAPING TO REDUCE RADAR CROSS SECTION

1. The direction of incident radar waves is an important consideration. If the aircraft will be illuminated from below, put engines on top of the wing.

2. SHIELD INLETS. The inlets can be shielded by the fuselage. Locating the engines on top when radar is below A/C will help. If engine performance permits the use of wire mesh over the inlet, the RCS can be reduced. Mesh spacing is small fraction of \( \lambda \).

3. CANT RUDDERS INWARD. The surface normal vector \( \hat{n} \) is moved upward. The big RCS which occurs when \( \mathbf{k} \) and \( \hat{n} \) are parallel will occur only when radar is above the A/C. Also when a rudder–elevator combination is used, the retroreflector of the dihedral is avoided.

4. SHIELD NOZZLES. The comments for inlets apply.

5. ROUND WING TIPS. Use the formula \( \sigma = \pi \rho_2 \rho_1 \). A rounded wing tip has small \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_2 \).

6. BLEND COMPONENTS. Waves are scattered by discontinuities in slope, curvature, etc. Blending minimizes the geometrical discontinuities.

7. MINIMIZE BREAKS AND CORNERS. Any shape resembling a retroreflector is bad. As shown in viewgraph 1, gaps scatter EM waves.

8. PUT ORDNANCE LOAD INSIDE AIRCRAFT. This would make both the aerodynamicists and radar engineers happy. However, internal storage may not be possible. Drag equals \( q_C A \). Internal storage may give large \( A \).

9. ELIMINATE BUMPS AND PROTRUSIONS. The comments of items (6) and (7) apply here. Use retractable covers over gun parts.

10. USE BANDPASS RADOME. An opaque radome at the search radar wavelength eliminates this problem.

11. USE LOW PROFILE CANOPY. Ever since the SPAD, aviators want to see. Dog-fights require good visibility. Having said that, a low profile canopy with gold plating will have much lower RCS. The thin layer of gold (or other metal) plated on the canopy screens out microwaves.

12. SWEEP LE. The A/C is frequently illuminated by a search radar from nose-on aspect. A swept LE is one way to reduce RCS. There are two philosophies in regard to LE shape. A straight LE concentrates a big RCS in a narrow lobe. If the search radar is never in that lobe, the A/C cannot be detected because of LE return. A curved LE spreads a smaller RCS over a wide angle. Although RCS is spread over a large angle, RCS is small.

FINAL NOTE: Think of A/C as a porcupine with surface normal vectors \( \hat{n} \) as quills. Don't have any quills pointing toward radar!
The aircraft designer may not be able to heed all the advice.

Ship superstructures are classic examples of built-in retroreflectors.
DO'S AND DON'TS FOR SHAPING TO ACHIEVE LOW RCS

DO'S

- Do consider: are you designing for monostatic or bistatic radar?
- Do (for L/\lambda > 10) make body like an isotropic scatterer. This avoids RCS spikes.
- Do make surfaces convex with double curvature. Think \( \sigma = \pi P_1 P_2 \)

DON'TS

- Don't make any retroreflectors inadvertently.
- Avoid large flat areas.
- Avoid 90° intersections of flat areas.
- Avoid cavities exposed to radar.
- Avoid discontinuities in conducting path. EM waves induce currents in vehicle skin. Don't concentrate currents by having electrical discontinuities.

A. E. Fuchs
The probability of achieving the stated goal for RAM is rather remote.

The book of Ruck, et al.*, provides a detailed discussion of RAM.

RADAR ABSORBING MATERIAL, RAM

**ABSORB MICROWAVES**
- Convert wave energy to heat
- Similar to $I^2R$ loss

**RADAR ABSORBING MATERIALS**
- Narrow band (resonant)
- Wide band

**PERFECT RAM**
- Has impedance of freespace
  
  \[ Z_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_0}{\varepsilon_0}} = 377 \text{ Ohms} \]
  
  - If $Z = Z_0$, waves are not reflected

**A. Z. FURS**

**TYPES OF ABSORBING MATERIALS**
- Lossy dielectrics with finite conductivity (microwave oven)
- Lossy magnetic; ferrites are an example

**REDIRECTION OF INCIDENT WAVE**
- Some RAM do not absorb but redirect the incident waves

**GOAL FOR RAM**
- Paint like
- Broad band
- Insensitive to polarization
- Insensitive to aspect angle
PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF RAM

In addition to electromagnetic properties, RAM must have other favorable physical properties.
PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF RAM  A.E. FUHS

WEIGHT
weight reduces A/C performance

COSTS
   costs to design
   costs to install
   costs to maintain

THICKNESS
   RAM robs volume from volume-limited vehicles

STRUCTURAL STRENGTH
   adequate strength to withstand rigors
   (e.g. RAM on helicopter blade)

ENVIRONMENT
   is RAM hygroscopic?
   does RAM peel off in rain?
CONSTRUCTION MATERIALS

- EMP is electromagnetic pulse from exoatmospheric nuclear explosions.
- The attrition rate for Mosquito bomber was low. Factors, such as speed and twin-engines as well as low RCS, may have contributed to the low rate.
- The trend is toward composite materials. Mixed structures, such as wings with composite skins and aluminum spars, may have high RCS due to reflection from spars.
CONSTRUCTION MATERIALS

METALS HAVE HIGH ELECTRICAL CONDUCTIVITY
- high conductivity means high reflectivity
- high conductivity, protection for EMP

LOW CONDUCTIVITY MATERIALS
- plywood Mosquito bomber in WWII had low RCS
- internal metal parts reflect (e.g. engine, wiring, pumps)
- composite materials have low electrical conductivity

MIXTURE OF MATERIALS
- mixture of metals and nonconductive scatter at joints
- examples include canopy, window parts, radomes
Many of the sources of "hot spots" have been discussed already.

Estimate the RCS of the trihedral corner reflector in the cockpit. Use the formula from Lecture 2, viewgraph 28:

\[ \sigma = \frac{12\pi X^4}{\lambda^2} \]

Assume \( X = 0.2 \text{ m} \) and \( \lambda = 0.5 \text{ m} \).

\[ \sigma = \frac{12\pi (0.2)^4}{(0.5)^2} = 742 \text{ m}^2 = 29 \text{ db sm} \]

BIG!
"Hot spot" is a localized area where retrodirective reflection occurs. Examples include air inlets, engine nacelles, pylons, cockpits, radar antennas.

"Hot spots" may not be anticipated. The example above was not anticipated.

A. E. Fuhs
PAYOFF OF REDUCED RADAR CROSS SECTION

An air search radar may have a specification to be able to search so many m³/sec of space. If the RCS is reduced, the volume search rate decays rapidly.
PAYOFF OF REDUCED RADAR CROSS SECTION

CREASE DETECTION PROBABILITY

RANGE

\[
\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \left( \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \right)^{1/4} = (10)^{1/4} = 0.56
\]

SEARCH AREA

\[
\left( \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \right)^{1/2} = (0.56)^2 = 0.32
\]

SEARCH VOLUME

\[
\left( \frac{R_2}{R_1} \right)^3 = \left( \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \right)^{3/4} = (0.56)^{3/4} = 0.18
\]

JAMMING POWER FOR FIXED BURNTTHROUGH

\[
\frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} = 0.10
\]

CREASE IN BURNTTHROUGH RANGE

\[
\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \left( \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \right)^{1/2} = (0.10)^{1/2} = 0.32
\]

A SURFACE SEARCH RADAR HAS A FIGURE-OF-MERIT OF HOW MUCH AREA/TIME CAN BE SEARCHED. A DECREASE OF 0.1 BY 0.1 DECREASES THE SURFACE SEARCH RADAR FIGURE-OF-MERIT TO 32%.

AN AIR SEARCH RADAR SEARCHES VOLUME/TIME. REDUCING IT TO 0.1X5 REDUCES VOLUME SEARCH TO 18%.

A. E. FURS
LECTURE IV. SOLUTION TECHNIQUES

1. Maxwell's Equations
2. Solution for Scattered Field
3. Solutions to Maxwell's Equations
4. Separation of Variables
5. Geometric Optics
6. Geometrical Theory of Diffraction
7. Physical Optics
8. Impulse Approximation
10. Applicability of Sum-of-Components Model for RCS Calculation

A. E. FUHS
MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS

The symbols have the following definitions:

- $E$: electric field intensity, volts/m
- $H$: magnetic field intensity, ampere-turn/m
- $D$: electric displacement, coulomb/m$^2$
- $B$: magnetic induction, webers/m$^2$
- $\rho$: charge density, coulomb/m$^3$
- $J$: current density, amperes/m$^2$
- $\varepsilon_0$: permittivity of free space, farad/m
- $\mu_0$: permeability of free space, henry/m
- $k_0$: free space propagation constant, 1/m
MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS

GENERAL

\[ \nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \quad (1) \]
\[ \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad (3) \]

\[ \nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{J} + \frac{\partial \vec{D}}{\partial t} \quad (2) \]
\[ \nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho \quad (4) \]

TIME DERIVATIVES HAVE BEEN REPLACED BY \( \partial \vec{J} / \partial t = -i \omega \). ALSO

\[ k_0^2 = \omega^2 \mu_0 \varepsilon_0 \quad (9) \]

THE OPERATOR \( \vec{n}(\cdot) \) IS

\[ \vec{n}(\vec{F}) = \nabla (\nabla \cdot \vec{F}) - \nabla \times \nabla \times \vec{F} \]

TARGETS ARE LOCATED IN FREE SPACE WHICH IS ASSUMED TO BE CHARGE-FREE, ISOTROPIC, AND HOMOGENEOUS

RELATE \( \vec{D} \) AND \( \vec{B} \) TO \( \vec{E} \) AND \( \vec{H} \)

\[ \vec{D} = \varepsilon_0 \vec{E} \quad \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{H} \quad (5-6) \]

MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS IN FREE SPACE CAN BE MANIPULATED INTO WAVE-EQUATION FORM

\[ \nabla^2 \vec{E} + k_0^2 \vec{E} = 0 \quad (7) \]
\[ \nabla^2 \vec{H} + k_0^2 \vec{H} = 0 \quad (8) \]

IN CARTESIAN COORDINATES, THE VECTOR EQUATIONS (7) AND (8) BECOME THREE SCALAR EQUATIONS.

AN EXAMPLE

\[ \nabla^2 E_x + k_0^2 E_x = 0 \quad (10) \]
WHERE \( E_x \) IS \( X \)-COMPONENT OF ELECTRIC FIELD.

A. E. FURS
SOLUTION FOR SCATTERED FIELD

- The symbols have the following definitions:
  - \( q_s \) surface charge density, coulomb/m\(^2\)
  - \( K \) surface current density, amperes/m

- Additional boundary conditions apply at infinity.
SOLUTION FOR SCATTERED FIELD

TOTAL FIELD IS SUM OF INCIDENT PLUS SCATTERED FIELD
\[ \vec{E}_t = \vec{E}_i + \vec{E}_s \]  \hspace{1cm} (11)

TOTAL FIELD MUST SATISFY ELECTROMAGNETIC BOUNDARY CONDITIONS ON SURFACE OF BODY. FOR PERFECT CONDUCTOR THE ELECTROMAGNETIC BOUNDARY CONDITIONS (EMBC) ARE
\[ \vec{n} \cdot \vec{H}_t = 0 \hspace{1cm} (12) \]
\[ \vec{n} \cdot \vec{E}_t = \frac{\sigma}{\varepsilon_0} \hspace{1cm} (14) \]
\[ \vec{n} \times \vec{H}_t = \vec{K} \hspace{1cm} (13) \]
\[ \vec{n} \times \vec{E}_t = 0 \hspace{1cm} (15) \]

LOOK AT (15). LET \( \vec{n} = \vec{e}_z \) AND \( \vec{E}_t = \vec{e}_x E_{xt} + \vec{e}_y E_{yt} + \vec{e}_z E_{zt} \).

ONE FINDS
\[ -\vec{e}_x E_{yt} + \vec{e}_y E_{xt} = 0 \]
 WHICH LEADS TO
\[ E_{yt} = E_{ys} + E_{yi} = 0 \]
 AT SURFACE
\[ E_{ys} = -E_{yi} \]
Scattering of electromagnetic waves is a haven for the applied mathematician!
SOLUIONS TO MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS

EXACT SOLUTIONS
- Separation of variables; boundary value problems
- Orthogonal coordinates

INTEGRAL FORMS OF MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS
- Stratton-Chu integrals
- Vector Green's function

APPROXIMATE TECHNIQUES
- Geometrical optics
- Geometrical theory of diffraction
- Physical optics and stationary phase
- Impulse
- Fock

NUMERICAL TECHNIQUES
- Direct solution of Maxwell's equations
- Sum-over-components
- Hybrid
SEPARATION OF VARIABLES

More than a dozen orthogonal coordinate systems have been discovered.
SEPARATION OF VARIABLES

ONE COORDINATE SURFACE OF BODY

CARTESIAN   SPHERICAL   SPHERICAL

PRODUCT SEPARATES FUNCTION INTO THREE FUNCTIONS. IN THE PROCESS

\[
\begin{align*}
\{ \text{PARTIAL DIFF.EQ.} \} & \rightarrow \{ \text{ORDINARY DIFF.EQ.} \} \\
\end{align*}
\]

MANY DOUBLE INFINITE SUMS OF SERIES RESULTS

\[
E(x,y,z) = \sum \sum (\text{TERMS})_{nm}
\]

COMPLETE USEFUL TO EVALUATE BIG SUMS.

A. E. FUKS
Geometrical optics accounts for transmission through radomes by using Snell's laws.
GEOMETRIC OPTICS

As name implies technique adapted from optics.

Requirement for geometric optics

$L \gg \lambda$

Where $L$ is size of scattering object, also called target.

Corresponds to "optical region."

Geometrical optics deals with rays and wavefronts.

Diffraction does not occur in geometrical optics.

Specular reflection is a geometrical optics concept.

Wavefronts

Ray

The equation

$\sigma = \pi \rho_1 \rho_2$

comes from geometrical optics. Techniques to calculate $\rho_1$ and $\rho_2$ become important.

A. E. Fuhs
GEOMETRICAL THEORY OF DIFFRACTION

By introducing phase angle as well as amplitude, the features of diffraction can be incorporated into the theory.

Geometrical theory of diffraction is an ad hoc method without firm theoretical foundation; it does work, however.
GEOMETRICAL THEORY OF DIFFRACTION

GEOMETRICAL OPTICS FAILS TO ACCOUNT FOR EDGES, TIPS, CORNERS, WEDGES, TANGENT POINTS, AND SHADOW REGIONS.

PHASE ANGLES ARE ASSOCIATED WITH RAYS.

TECHNIQUE GIVES GOOD RESULTS FOR PROBLEMS ENUMERATED ABOVE.

SCATTERING BY TIP CAN BE HANDLED BY GEOMETRICAL THEORY OF DIFFRACTION.

A. E. FUHS
PHYSICAL OPTICS

Physical optics involves integrals. The solutions are in terms of integrals.
PHYSICAL OPTICS RECOGNIZES WAVE NATURE OF EM RADIATION.

DIFFRACTION AND INTERFERENCE ACCOUNTED FOR.

PHYSICAL OPTICS SYNONYMOUS WITH "KIRCHHOFF INTEGRAL" 
"HUYGENS PRINCIPLE"

PHYSICAL OPTICS PROVIDES THE INTENSITY OF RADIATION, WATTS/m², IN EITHER NEAR FIELD OR FAR FIELD.

VARIATION OF INTENSITY IS DUE TO DIFFRACTION AND INTERFERENCE. FLAT PLATE, DISC, WIRT, OFF-NORMAL CAN BE SOLVED USING PHYSICAL OPTICS.
Impulse approximation is important to the problem of inverse scattering.
IMPULSE APPROXIMATION

Other techniques use monochromatic wave. Variation of scattering is not exploited.

Incident wave in impulse method is a delta function in time.

Backscattered wave has all frequency components. The scattered wave is measured as a function of time.

By Fourier transform in time, the response as a function of frequency is obtained.

\[ \vec{E}_i(w) \rightarrow \text{scattering transfer function} \rightarrow \vec{E}_s(w) \]

Linear-system viewpoint

The scattering matrix elements are determined leading to radar cross section

A. E. Fuhs
NUMERICAL METHODS FOR RADAR CROSS SECTION

0 Numerical Methods are either in primary role or in secondary role.
0 The most common approach to machine calculation of RCS is the Sum-of-Components.
0 Direct solution of Maxwell's equations is handicapped by computer capability.
NUMERICAL METHODS FOR RADAR CROSS SECTION

PRIMARY ROLE
(Solution of Maxwell's Equations or Sum Components)

SUM-OF-COMPONENTS

ACCOUNT FOR
SPECULAR
DISCONTINUITIES
CREEPING WAVES
TRAVELING WAVES
CONCAVE
MULTIPLE SCATTER

MODEL SHAPE IN TERMS
OF LOOPS, SPHERES,
ELLIPSOIDS, ETC.

CALCULATE RCS FOR
EACH COMPONENT

ADD RCS (1) PHASE \( \phi \)
(2) RANDOMIZE \( \phi \)

SECONDARY ROLE
(Analytical Solution Exists, e.g., Sphere)

MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS

INTEGRAL FORMULATION

DIFFERENTIAL EQUATIONS

TOTAL FIELD = INCIDENT + SCATTERED

BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

SURFACE CURRENTS

FAR FIELD

CALCULATE RCS

HIBRID ANALYTICAL/MAXWELL EQ.

SUM DOUBLE SERIES

\[ \text{RCS} = \sum \]

GENERATE VALUES
FOR BESSEL, HANKEL,
ETC., FUNCTIONS

SOLVE \( \nabla^2 \phi = 0 \) IN
ELECTROSTATICS

NUMERICALLY INTEGRATE
PHYSICAL-OPTICS INTEGRAL

A. E. FUHS

Applicable in OPTICS Region
Use Analytical Solutions for Portions of Surface
Even though $kL > 1.0$, where $L$ is for overall aircraft size, for parts of the aircraft $kL \approx 1.0$ or $kL << 1.0$ may occur. Hence, solutions must span all three frequency ranges. $\ell$ is the size of a subcomponent of the aircraft.
A.E. Fuhs

\[ kd = \frac{2\pi f d}{c} \]

- **OPTICS**
  - Low Frequency Oth
  - Overall
  - Fuselage
  - Nacelle
  - Wing Tank
  - Rudder
  - Tip
  - Mie
  - Resonance
  - Rayleigh

**Radar Frequency, Hz**

**Applicability of Sum-of-Components Model for RCS Calculation.**