## Galileo Masterclass Brazil (GMB) 2022

Lecture 5 - Propagation Aspects

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## Outline

#### Introduction and Motivation

**Doppler Effect** 

lonosphere

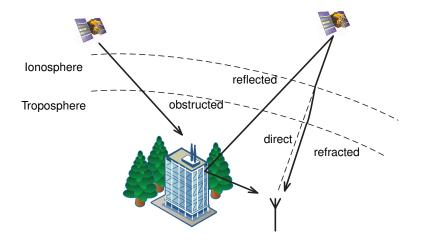
Troposphere

**Multipath Propagation** 





## **Propagation Effects**







## Passband Signal

The passband signal of one satellite can be given as

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathbf{s}}(t) &= \sqrt{2} \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \mathbf{s}(t) \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{j} 2 \pi f_{c} t} \right\} \\ &= \sqrt{2} \mathbf{s}_{l}(t) \cos(2 \pi f_{c} t) - \sqrt{2} \mathbf{s}_{Q}(t) \sin(2 \pi f_{c} t) \end{split}$$

with carrier frequency  $f_c$  and the equivalent baseband signal

$$\boldsymbol{s}(t) = \boldsymbol{s}_l(t) + j \boldsymbol{s}_Q(t).$$

- In the following we do not consider free space loss (the link budget was discussed in lecture 6)
- The different effects are discussed separately, but in reality are to be considered in a cascaded form





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#### Introduction and Motivation

#### **Doppler Effect**

Ionosphere

Troposphere

**Multipath Propagation** 





# Frequency Shift (1)

The Doppler effect (or the Doppler shift) is the change in frequency or wavelength of a wave (or other periodic event) for an observer moving relative to its source.

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\mathsf{Rx} & & \\
\mathbf{O} \\
\overrightarrow{v_r} & & \overleftarrow{c} \\
\end{array}
\left| \left( \left( \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Tx} \\ \mathbf{O} \\ \overleftarrow{v_t} \end{array} \right) \right) \right| \\
\end{array}$$

In case a receiver and a transmitter are moving towards each other the shift between emitted frequency f and observed frequency  $\tilde{f}$  for an electromagnetic wave in vacuum can be given as

$$\tilde{f} = f \frac{\sqrt{1 - \frac{(v_r + v_t)^2}{c^2}}}{1 - \frac{(v_r + v_t)}{c}} = f \frac{\sqrt{1 - \frac{\Delta v^2}{c^2}}}{1 - \frac{\Delta v}{c}}$$





### Frequency Shift (2)

In case  $\Delta v \ll c$  and  $\frac{\Delta v}{c} < 1$  we can write

$$\tilde{f} = f \frac{\sqrt{1 - \frac{\Delta v^2}{c^2}}}{1 - \frac{\Delta v}{c}} \approx f \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\Delta v}{c}} = f \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)^n$$

using

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n , \ \forall_x |x| < 1$$

As  $\Delta v \ll c$  we get

$$\tilde{f} = f \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)^n \approx f(1 + \frac{\Delta v}{c})$$

Thus, the Doppler shift can be given as

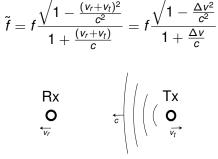
$$f_D = f \; \frac{\Delta v}{c}$$





# Frequency Shift (3)

In case a receiver and a transmitter are moving away from each other the shift between emitted frequency f and observed frequency  $\tilde{f}$  of a electromagnetic wave in vacuum can be given as







#### Frequency Shift (4)

In case  $\Delta v \ll c$  and  $\frac{\Delta v}{c} < 1$  we can write

$$\tilde{f} = f \frac{\sqrt{1 - \frac{\Delta v^2}{c^2}}}{1 + \frac{\Delta v}{c}} \approx f \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\Delta v}{c}} = f \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left(\frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)^n$$

using

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n , \; \forall_x |x| < 1$$

As  $\Delta v \ll c$  we get

$$\tilde{f} = f \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left(\frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)^n \approx f(1 - \frac{\Delta v}{c})$$

Thus, the Doppler shift can be given as

$$f_D = -f \; rac{\Delta v}{c}$$



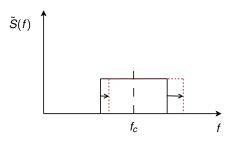


## Doppler Effect on a Passband Signal

Doppler shift of complete frequency support of signal  $\tilde{s}(t)$ 

$$\left| \frac{1}{1 \pm \frac{\Delta v}{c}} \right| s\left(\frac{t}{1 \pm \frac{\Delta v}{c}}\right) \quad \longrightarrow \quad \tilde{S}\left(f\left(1 \pm \frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)\right)$$
$$|a| \tilde{s}(at) \quad \longrightarrow \quad \tilde{S}\left(\frac{f}{a}\right)$$

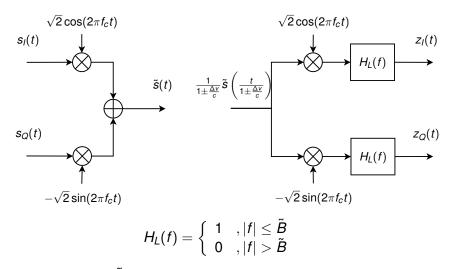
Thus, higher frequencies are affected more than lower frequencies







## Transmitter and Baseband Receiver Model



The bandwidth  $\hat{B}$  needs to be sufficiently large to cover the signal bandwidth B plus the Doppler effect

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Transmitter and Baseband Receiver Model, cont'd We can derive the inphase and quadrature component of the baseband received signal as

$$z_{I}(t) = |a| s_{I}(at) \cos(2\pi f_{c}t(a-1)) - |a| s_{Q}(at) \sin(2\pi f_{c}t(a-1))$$
  
$$z_{Q}(t) = |a| s_{I}(at) \sin(2\pi f_{c}t(a-1)) + |a| s_{Q}(at) \cos(2\pi f_{c}t(a-1))$$

with

$$a = \frac{1}{1 \pm \frac{\Delta v}{c}}$$

Thus, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} z(t) &= z_{l}(t) + j z_{Q}(t) = |a| s_{l}(at) e^{j2\pi f_{c}t(a-1)} + j|a| s_{Q}(at) e^{j2\pi f_{c}t(a-1)} \\ &= |a| s_{l}(at) e^{j2\pi \left(\pm f_{c} \frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)at} + j|a| s_{Q}(at) e^{j2\pi \left(\pm f_{c} \frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)at} \\ &\approx s_{l}(t) e^{j2\pi \left(\pm f_{c} \frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)t} + j s_{Q}(t) e^{j2\pi \left(\pm f_{c} \frac{\Delta v}{c}\right)t} \end{aligned}$$

However, this approximation is only valid iff  $1 \pm \frac{\Delta v}{c} \approx 1$  and the observation interval of the signal is short enough

## Outline

Introduction and Motivation

**Doppler Effect** 

#### Ionosphere

Troposphere

**Multipath Propagation** 





# Structure of the lonosphere (1)

- The ionosphere is a shell of electrons, electrically charged atoms, and molecules that surrounds the earth, stretching from a height of about 50 km to more than 1000 km
- Ultraviolet radiation of the sun breaks the bonds relating the electrons to the atoms when traversing the upper atmosphere
- Thus, there is a large number of free electrons and ions in the ionosphere
- The free electrons in the ionosphere affect propagation of radio waves
- An (partially) ionized gas is called plasma





## Structure of the lonosphere (2)

- ► At frequencies below about 30 MHz the ionosphere acts like a mirror reflecting radio waves back to earth → long distance communication
- The speed of a radio wave in the ionosphere is determined by the density of the electrons
- Electron density is quantified by counting the number of electrons in a vertical column with a cross-sectional area of 1 m<sup>2</sup> → this number is called total electron content (TEC)
- TEC is a function of the amount of incident solar radiation
- On the night side of earth free electrons have a tendency to recombine with ions → reducing TEC
- TEC above a particular location of the earth has strong diurnal variation





## Structure of the lonosphere (3)

- Changes in the TEC can also occur on much shorter time scales
- One of the phenomena responsible for such changes is the traveling ionospheric disturbance (TID)
- TIDs are manifestations of waves in the upper atmosphere believed to be caused in part by severe weather fronts and volcanic eruptions
- There are also seasonal variations in TEC and variations that follow the sun ´s 27-day rotational period and the 11-year cycle of the solar activity

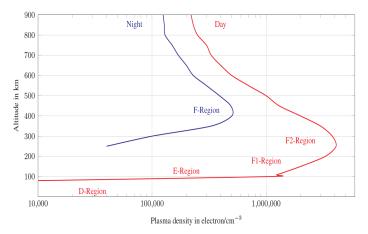




# Layers of the lonosphere

km

Brazil



- D-Region: 50-90 km, very low electron density
- E-Region: 90-125 km, vanishes rapidly after dark
- F-Region: 125-1000 km, peak electron density at 200 -400



# Propagation Through the lonosphere

Propagation of the signal through the ionosphere can be approximated by the transfer function

$$H_i(f) = A_i e^{-j2\pi f(\tau_i(f) + \tau_v)} = A_i e^{j\phi_i(f)}$$

- A<sub>i</sub>: amplitude response (attenuation of the signal is negligible for frequencies way above 30 MHz)
- $\phi_i(f)$ : phase response
- $\tau_{v}$ : delay of the signal in vacuum
- $\tau_i(f)$ : delay introduced by the ionosphere

In a first order approximation we can write

$$au_i(f) pprox - rac{r_e c^2}{\pi} rac{\int N_e dl}{c f^2} pprox - rac{40.3 \, \mathrm{m}^3 \mathrm{s}^{-2}}{c \, f^2} rac{\int N_e dl}{c \, f^2}$$

c: speed of light

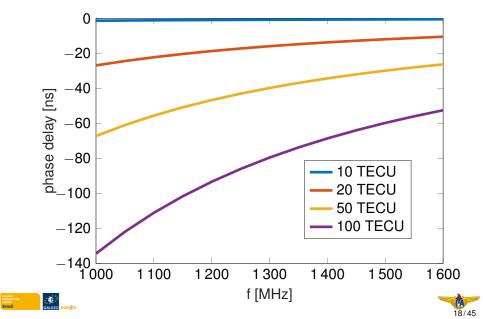
- *r<sub>e</sub>*: electron radius
- $N_e$ : electron density (electrons m<sup>-3</sup>)

The integral of  $N_e$  along the raypath / defines slant total electron

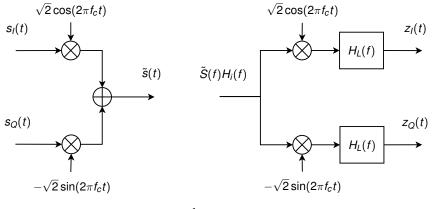
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content (STEC) in units of TEC (UTEC,  $10^{16}$  electrons  $m^{-2}$ )

## Phase Delay



## Transmitter and Baseband Receiver Model (1)



$$H_L(f) = \begin{cases} 1 & , |f| \le B \\ 0 & , |f| > B \end{cases}$$

The baseband equivalent signal of  $\tilde{s}(t)$  is assumed to be strictly bandlimited to *B*.

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## Transmitter and Baseband Receiver Model (2)

We can derive the inphase and quadrature component of the baseband received signal as

$$z_{I}(t) \circ - \frac{1}{2} (S_{I}(f) - jS_{Q}(f))H_{i}(f - f_{c}) + \frac{1}{2} (S_{I}(f) + jS_{Q}(f))H_{i}(f + f_{c})$$
  
$$z_{Q}(t) \circ - \frac{j}{2} (S_{I}(f) - jS_{Q}(f))H_{i}(f - f_{c}) - \frac{j}{2} (S_{I}(f) + jS_{Q}(f))H_{i}(f + f_{c})$$

Thus, the complex baseband equivalent signal can be written

$$z(t) = z_l(t) + jz_Q(t) \circ - \bullet(S_l(t) + jS_Q(t))H_l(t + f_c)$$





## Narrowband Approximation (1)

Suppose a quasi-sinusoidal signal  $\tilde{s}(t) = a(t) \cos(2\pi f_c t + \varphi)^1$  is propagating through the ionosphere. At the output of  $H_i(f)$  we get

$$\hat{S}(f)H_i(f)$$
•— $\circ Z(t) \approx A_i a(t - \tau_g)\cos(2\pi f_c(t - \tau_p) + \varphi)$ 

where the group delay for  $\tau_v = 0$  is given as

$$\tau_g = -\frac{\partial \phi_i(f)}{2\pi \ \partial f} \bigg|_{f=f_c} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial f} \frac{40.3 \ \mathrm{m}^3 \mathrm{s}^{-2} \ \int N_e dl}{c \ f} \bigg|_{f=f_c} = -\tau_i(f_c)$$

and the phase delay is given as

$$\tau_{p} = -\frac{\phi_{i}(f_{c})}{2\pi} \frac{1}{f_{c}} = -\frac{40.3 \,\mathrm{m^{3}s^{-2}} \int N_{e} dl}{c \, f_{c}^{2}} = \tau_{i}(f_{c})$$

<sup>1</sup>its amplitude envelop a(t) is changing slowly in relation to the frequency the sinusoid,  $|\partial \log(a(t))/\partial t| << 2\pi f_c$ 

# Narrowband Approximation (2)

- The carrier of the signal undergoes an apparent phase advance while the complex envelope of the signal undergoes an apparent delay with respect to propagation in vacuum
- The carrier appears to be propagating faster while the complex envelope appears to propagate slower than it would through vacuum
- ► Since TEC varies over time and the signal eventually passes through different paths in the ionosphere the signal experiences variations of phase delay and group delay → this phenomenon in satellite navigation is called code-carrier divergence





# Estimation of STEC

The difference in phase delay for two signals at two different frequencies ( $f_1$  and  $f_2$ ) passing through the same path (channel)  $h_i(t)$  is

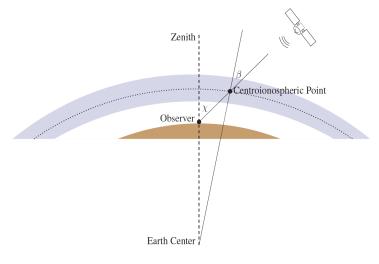
$$\Delta_{f_1 - f_2} = \frac{40.3 \,\mathrm{m}^3 \mathrm{s}^{-2} \,\int N_e dl}{c} \left(\frac{1}{f_2^2} - \frac{1}{f_1^2}\right)$$
$$= \frac{40.3 \,\mathrm{m}^3 \mathrm{s}^{-2} \,\int N_e dl}{c} \left(\frac{f_1^2 - f_2^2}{f_1^2 f_2^2}\right)$$

Knowing the two frequencies  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  and measuring the difference in phase delay  $\Delta_{f_1-f_2}$  we can estimate  $\int N_e dl$  or STEC  $\rightarrow$  correction of ionosphere effects (phase and group delay)





# **Ionospheric Mapping Function**



courtesy of Friederike Fohlmeister, German Aerospace Center (DLR)





# Ionospheric Mapping Function, cont 'd

Based on the measured STEC and assuming that the ionosphere is a thin layer at 400 km height, one can derive vertical TEC by

$$\mathsf{N}_{e}^{\mathsf{v}} = \mathsf{N}_{e}\sqrt{1-rac{\sin^{2}(\chi)}{(1+h/R)^{2}}}$$

with

$$\sin(\beta) = \frac{\sin(\chi)}{(1+h/R)}$$

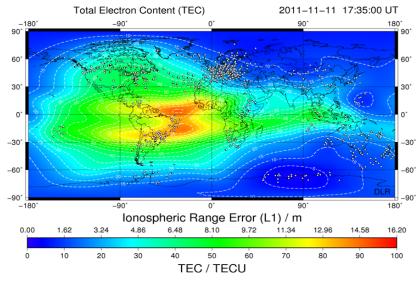
- h: height above Earth (400 km)
- R: Earth radius (average earth radius: 6371 km)





# **TEC Maps**

Brazil







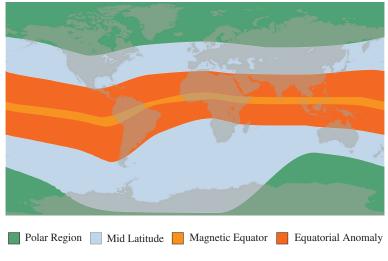
# **Ionospheric Scintillation Effects**

- Equatorial region: Flow inversion of the equatorial plasma during evening hours (dusk) leads to Rayleigh-Taylor instabilities (RTI) and plasma bubbles cause amplitude and phase scintillations
- Strong amplitude fading with deep fades of up to 15 20dB are possible (amplitude scintillations)
- Polar region: geomagnetic storms cause phase scintillation
- Both amplitude and phase scintillations can cause outage or errors in positioning (loss of lock signal tracking) or data transmission





# Intensity of Ionospheric Scintillations



courtesy of Friederike Fohlmeister, German Aerospace Center (DLR)





## Outline

Introduction and Motivation

**Doppler Effect** 

lonosphere

Troposphere

**Multipath Propagation** 





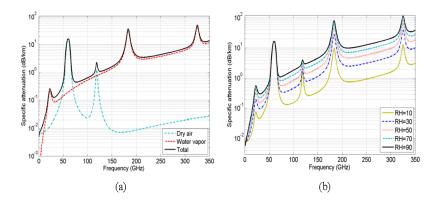
# Structure of the Troposphere

- Propagation in the troposphere for L-band signals (ca. 1000 - 1800 MHz) is mainly characterized by the tropospheric delay
- Attenuation of L-band signals is rather small
- Delay is caused by natural gases in the atmosphere
- Gases extend beyond the boundary of the troposphere at 9-16 km above see level
- Tropospheric propagation is non-dispersive for L-band signals, i.e. phase and group delay of the signal stay the same when propagation through the troposphere
- The propagation speed of the complex envelop and the carrier of the signal are lower than that in vacuum
- Tropospheric delay is dependent on the dry gases and water vapor





## Attenuation



#### RH: relative humidity

Taken from A. Mohammed Al-Saegh, A. Sali, J. S. Mandeep, A. Ismail, A. H.J. Al-Jumaily and C. Gomes,"Atmospheric Propagation Model for Satellite Communications", in "MATLAB Applications for the Practical Engineer", K. Bennett (Ed.), InTech, 2014.





# Propagation Through the Troposphere (1)

Propagation of the signal through the troposphere can be approximated by the transfer function

$$H_t(f) = A_t e^{-j2\pi f(\tau_t + \tau_v)} = A_t e^{j\phi_t}$$

- ► *A<sub>t</sub>*: amplitude response
- $\phi_t$ : phase response
- $\tau_{v}$ : delay of the signal in vacuum
- $\tau_t$ : delay introduced by the troposphere

For the zenith (elevation  $\vartheta = 90^{\circ}$  wrt horizon) delay  $\tau_t^z$  we can write

$$\tau_t^z = \tau_h^z + \tau_w^z$$

- $\tau_h^z$ : hydrostatic zenith delay
- $\tau_w^z$ : wet zenith delay



#### Propagation Through the Troposphere (2) Where following the derivation of Leick<sup>2</sup> we get

$$\tau_h^z = 10^{-6} \int N_d(h) dh$$
  
$$\tau_w^z = 10^{-6} \int N_w(h) dh$$

with

$$N_d(h) \approx k_1 \frac{p(h)}{T(h)}$$
$$N_w(h) \approx k_2 \frac{p_w(h)}{T(h)} + k_3 \frac{p_w(h)}{T^2(h)}$$

- p(h): total atmospheric pressure at height h [mbar]
- T(h): absolute temperature in Kelvin [K]
- *p<sub>w</sub>(h)*: partial pressure of water vapor [mbar]
- k<sub>1</sub>, k<sub>2</sub>, k<sub>3</sub>: physical constants based on theory and on experiments<sup>3</sup>

<sup>2</sup>Leick, A., 1994. GPS Satellite Surveying. Wiley-Interscience Publication, USA.

 $k_{1} = 77.60$  K/mbar,  $k_{2} = 22.10$  K/mbar,  $k_{3} = 370100$  K<sup>2</sup>/mbar



## Model Zenith Delay

Saastamoine's model<sup>4</sup> for  $\tau_h^z$  can be given as

$$\tau_h^z = \frac{1}{c} \frac{2.2768 \cdot 10^{-3} \,\mathrm{m} \,\mathrm{mbar}^{-1} \,\rho_0}{1 - 2.66 \cdot 10^{-3} \cos(2\theta) - 2.8 \cdot 10^{-7} \,\mathrm{m}^{-1} \,h}$$

*p*<sub>0</sub>: total pressure at orthometric height h [mbar]
 *θ*: latitude

Following the model of Mendes and Langley<sup>5</sup> for  $\tau_w^z$  we get

$$\tau_w^z = \frac{1}{c} 1.22 \cdot 10^{-2} \,\mathrm{m} + 9.43 \cdot 10^{-3} \mathrm{m} \,\mathrm{mbar}^{-1} p_{w,0}$$

*p<sub>w,0</sub>*: surface partial water vapor pressure [mbar]

<sup>5</sup>V. B. Mendes and R. B. Langley,"Tropospheric Zenith Delay Prediction Accuracy for High-Precision GPS and Navigation", Navigation, 46: 25–34, 1999.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> J. Saastamoinen, "Atmospheric Correction for the Troposphere and Stratosphere in Radio Ranging of Satellites," in The use of Artificial Satellites for Geodesy, Geophys. Monogr., AGU vol. 15, pp. 247-251, 1972.

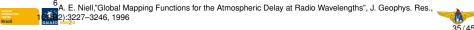
# Tropospheric Mapping Function (1)

Using a mapping  $m_h(\vartheta)$  for the hydrostatic delay and a mapping function  $m_w(\vartheta)$  we can write for the wet delay

$$\tau_t = \tau_h + \tau_w = m_h(\vartheta)\tau_h^z + m_w(\vartheta)\tau_w^z$$

Applying Niell's <sup>6</sup> mapping function we get

$$m_{h}(\vartheta) = \frac{1 + \frac{a}{1 + \frac{b}{(1+c)}}}{\cos(\vartheta) + \frac{a}{\cos(\vartheta) + \frac{b}{\cos(\vartheta) + c}}} + \frac{h}{1000} \left(\frac{1}{\cos(\vartheta)} - \frac{1 + \frac{a_{h}}{1 + \frac{b_{h}}{(1+c_{h})}}}{\cos(\vartheta) + \frac{a_{h}}{\cos(\vartheta) + \frac{a_{h}}{\cos(\vartheta) + c_{h}}}}\right)$$



# Tropospheric Mapping Function (2)

and

$$m_{w}(\vartheta) = \frac{1 + \frac{a}{1 + \frac{b}{(1+c)}}}{\cos(\vartheta) + \frac{a}{\cos(\vartheta) + \frac{b}{\cos(\vartheta) + c}}}$$

where before substitution the coefficients *a*, *b*, and *c* in  $m_h(\vartheta)$  they must be corrected for periodic terms following the general formula

$$a(\vartheta, D) = \tilde{a} - a_p \cos\left(2\pi rac{D-D_0}{365.25}
ight)$$

D: day of the year

 D<sub>0</sub>: 28 or 211 for stations/users in the Southern or Northern Hemisphere





# **Tropospheric Mapping Function (3)**

θ	ã · 10 <sup>3</sup>	$\tilde{b} \cdot 10^3$	$\tilde{c} \cdot 10^3$	<i>а</i> <sub>р</sub> · 10 <sup>5</sup>	<i>bp</i> · 10 <sup>5</sup>	$c_{p} \cdot 10^{5}$
15°	1.2769934	2.9153695	62.610505	0	0	0
30°	1.2683230	209152299	62.837393	1.2709626	2.1414979	9.0128400
45°	102465397	209288445	63.721774	2.6523662	3.0160779	4.3497037
60°	102196049	209022565	63.824265	3.4000452	7.2562722	84.795348
75°	102045996	2.9024912	64.258455	4.1202191	11.723375	170.37206
	<i>а<sub>h</sub></i> · 10 <sup>5</sup>	$b_{h} \cdot 10^{5}$	$c_{h} \cdot 10^{5}$			
	2.53	5.49	1.14			

#### The coefficients for $m_h(\vartheta)$ are

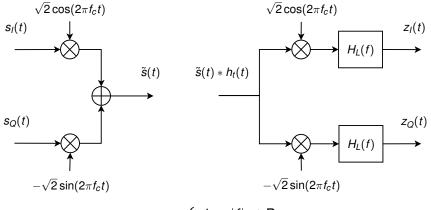
and for  $m_w(\vartheta)$  are

θ	a · 10 <sup>4</sup>	b · 10 <sup>3</sup>	c · 10 <sup>2</sup>
15°	5.8021897	1.4275268	4.3472961
30°	5.6794847	1.5138625	4.6729510
45°	5.8118019	1.4572752	4.3908931
60°	5.9727542	1.5007428	4.4626982
75°	6.1641693	1.7599082	5.4736038





## Transmitter and Baseband Receiver Model (1)



$$H_L(f) = \begin{cases} 1 & , |f| \le B \\ 0 & , |f| > B \end{cases}$$

The baseband equivalent signal of  $\tilde{s}(t)$  is assumed to be strictly bandlimited to *B*.

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## Transmitter and Baseband Receiver Model (2)

We can derive the inphase and quadrature component of the baseband received signal as

$$z_{l}(t) = [(s(t) * h_{t}(t)) \cos(2\pi f_{c}t)] * h_{L}(t)$$

$$\circ - \bullet \frac{1}{2}(S_{l}(f) - jS_{Q}(f))H_{t}(f - f_{c}) + \frac{1}{2}(S_{l}(f) + jS_{Q}(f))H_{t}(f + f_{c})$$

$$z_{Q}(t) = -[(s(t) * h_{t}(t)) \sin(2\pi f_{c}t)] * h_{L}(t)$$

$$\circ - \bullet \frac{j}{2}(S_{l}(f) - jS_{Q}(f))H_{t}(f - f_{c}) - \frac{j}{2}(S_{l}(f) + jS_{Q}(f))H_{t}(f + f_{c})$$

Thus, the complex baseband equivalent signal can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} z(t) &= z_l(t) + jz_Q(t) \\ &= (s_l(t) + js_Q(t)) * h_t(t) e^{-j2\pi f_c t} \\ &= (s_l(t) + js_Q(t)) * A_t \delta(t - (\tau_t + \tau_v)) e^{-j2\pi f_c(\tau_t + \tau_v)} \\ \circ & \longrightarrow \bullet (S_l(t) + jS_Q(t)) H_t(t + f_c) \end{aligned}$$



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# Multipath Characteristics (1)

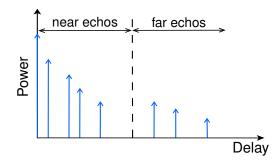
- Reflected or diffracted replicas of the desired signal
- The path traveled by a reflection is always longer than the direct path (line-of-sight, LOS)
- Multipath arrivals are delayed relative to the LOS signal and they usually have less power than the LOS signal
- In case the multipath delay is large (e.g. greater than twice the spreading code symbol period), a GNSS receiver can readily resolve the multipath
- The direct path can be strongly attenuated (shadowing), e.g. when the direct path propagates through foliage or a structure
- In such cases multipath power could be even stronger than LOS signal power (indoor or outdoor)





# Multipath Characteristics (2)

- Multipath signals with shorter relative delay with respect to the LOS signal will be influencing the ranging performance
- Multipath signals with longer delay will not influence the ranging performance







# **Multipath Propagation**

Multipath propagation can be characterized by the transfer function

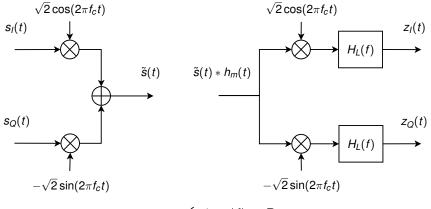
$$H_m(f) = 1 * \delta(f - \tilde{f}_0) + \sum_{m=1}^M \alpha_m e^{-j2\pi f \tau_m} * \delta(f - \tilde{f}_m)$$

- $\tilde{f}_0$ ,  $\tilde{f}_m$ : Doppler shift for LOS and multipath signals
- α<sub>m</sub>: relative amplitude of multipath with respect to LOS signal
- $\tau_m$ : relative delay of multipath with respect to LOS signal





## Transmitter and Baseband Receiver Model (1)



$$H_L(f) = \begin{cases} 1 & , |f| \le B \\ 0 & , |f| > B \end{cases}$$

The baseband equivalent signal of  $\tilde{s}(t)$  is assumed to be strictly pandlimited to *B*.

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## Transmitter and Baseband Receiver Model (2)

We can derive the inphase and quadrature component of the baseband received signal as

$$z_{l}(t) = [(s(t) * h_{m}(t)) \cos(2\pi f_{c}t)] * h_{L}(t)$$
  

$$\circ - \bullet \frac{1}{2}(S_{l}(f) - jS_{Q}(f))H_{m}(f - f_{c}) + \frac{1}{2}(S_{l}(f) + jS_{Q}(f))H_{m}(f + f_{c})$$
  

$$z_{Q}(t) = -[(s(t) * h_{m}(t)) \sin(2\pi f_{c}t)] * h_{L}(t)$$
  

$$\circ - \bullet \frac{j}{2}(S_{l}(f) - jS_{Q}(f))H_{m}(f - f_{c}) - \frac{j}{2}(S_{l}(f) + jS_{Q}(f))H_{m}(f + f_{c})$$

Thus, the complex baseband equivalent signal can be written

$$\begin{aligned} z(t) &= z_l(t) + jz_Q(t) \\ &= (s_l(t) + js_Q(t)) * h_m(t) e^{-j2\pi f_c t} \\ &= (s_l(t) + js_Q(t)) * \left( \delta(t) e^{-j2\pi \tilde{f}_0 t} + \sum_{m=1}^M \alpha_m \delta(t - \tau_m) e^{-j2\pi (\tilde{f}_m t + f_c \tau_m)} \right) \\ & \circ \longrightarrow \bullet (S_l(f) + jS_Q(f)) H_m(f + f_c) \end{aligned}$$