Ear-to-Ear Propagation Model based on Geometrical Theory of Diffraction

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Abstract—An ear-to-ear propagation model based on geometrical theory of diffraction is presented. The model uses the creeping wave loss along the geodesic paths that connect the ears. It is the first model to investigate which geodesic paths that link the ears. The model uses geometrical theory of diffraction expressions for a lossy dielectric material, which is a much better approximation of the human body than the perfect electric conductor approximation often used. The model is validated for the industrial, scientific and medical band at 2.45 GHz. The model is valid at any frequency range as long as the propagation loss through the head is significantly higher than the propagation loss around the head. Likewise, the model could be used for other areas of the body. The comparison with simulations show strong correlation. The antenna orientation and frequency sweeps were performed to further investigate the model. The sweeps change the radiation pattern of the antenna to utilize different paths around the head, but the model still correlates with the simulation. This validates the models division of the ear-to-ear propagation into different geodesic paths around the head.


I. INTRODUCTION

Body-worn antennas and the area of on-body propagation have been a major research area in recent years. The continuous decrease in size and power consumption in modern electronics, together with improved receiver sensitivity, has enabled the implementation of wireless communication in more and more body-worn devices. Wireless communication is now a key part of, for example, smart watches, hearing instruments (HIs) and so-called ‘truly’ wireless headsets. In modern HIs, connectivity to off-body accessories and smart phones is becoming a must-have feature. The connectivity enables the HI user to receive phone calls, listen to music, or watch TV seamlessly. In most cases the Industrial, Scientific and Medical (ISM) band at 2.45 GHz is used for several reasons. It is available worldwide and license free. Also, the BlueTooth® protocol is located in this band and is implemented in virtually all smart phones.

Besides connectivity with off-body devices it is desirable to achieve ear-to-ear (E2E) connectivity between the HIs on either side of the head. The E2E communication between the HIs enables acoustic algorithms that improve the directionality of the sound amplification. It also improves the HI’s ability to coordinate and adjust the acoustic settings to the current acoustic environment. Furthermore, the E2E communication can be used to improve the range of the off-body communication [1].

In the recently emerged headset category of ‘truly’ wireless headsets, the E2E communication is also very important. The ‘truly’ refers to the fact that the headset consists of two separate devices in each ear that can only communicate with each other wirelessly. The E2E communication is crucial to the synchronization of the devices. Furthermore, in the current BlueTooth® protocol, streaming can only be done to one device. Therefore, the master of the two ear pieces needs to relay the received audio signal to the other device.

The many applications of the E2E channel illustrate the importance of a good understanding and modeling of the E2E propagation. Furthermore, the principles of the E2E channel are the same for other on-body propagation channels such as the pocket-to-ear channel between an audio streaming device in the pocket and a headset or HI in the ear. General on-body propagation models are numerous, for example [2]–[8]. Only a few models specific to the head exist [9, 10]. Many of these models use a perfect electric conductor (PEC) approximation of the human body [5]–[10], which is a rather crude model of the human body at 2.45 GHz, as discussed in [11]. Especially models of the head, but also many of the general models, do not clearly investigate or explain which paths the on-body propagation follows. In [10] two paths around the head are included, one around the front and one around the back. In [9] infinitely many paths are included. Many of the presented propagation models use geometrical theory of diffraction (GTD) as the approximation. It will also be applied here. In GTD it is well known that the propagation follows the geodesic lines on the surface of the object.

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the geodesic paths around the head that the on-body propagation follows. Combined with more exact approximations of the on-body propagation by a lossy dielectric GTD approximation [12], the on-body paths will be used to create a new E2E propagation model. The model will be the first to determine and make use of the geodesic lines on the head. At the same time it will be the first E2E model to use a lossy dielectric GTD approximation of the head instead of a PEC approximation.

In Section II the theoretical parts of the model will be presented. In Section III the simulation setup used to validate the model is described. The numerical challenges of implementing the model is discussed in Section IV. The results of the model as well as the simulations are presented and discussed in Section V. Finally, the conclusion is found in Section VI.

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II. EAR-TO-EAR ON-BODY PROPAGATION MODEL

In [12] it was shown how to calculate the diffracted fields from a point source on any given lossy dielectric convex opaque structure. The diffracted fields from an electric point source \( \mathbf{J}_p \) on the surface of the structure along a given geodesic line are given by:

\[
E^a \sim \frac{j k_0 \eta_0}{4\pi} \mathbf{J}_p \cdot \hat{r} e^{-jk_0 r} \sqrt{\frac{\mathrm{d} v_0}{\mathrm{d} \chi}} \tag{1}
\]

where \( \eta_0 = \sqrt{\epsilon_0 / \mu_0} \) is the intrinsic impedance of free space, \( \mu_0 \) and \( \epsilon_0 \) are the permeability and permittivity of free space, respectively, \( k_0 = \omega \sqrt{\epsilon_0 \mu_0} \) is the wavenumber of free space and \( \omega \) the angular frequency, \( t \) is the distance from the source along the geodesic line, \( \mathrm{d} v_0 / \mathrm{d} \chi \) is the distance between adjacent rays at the observation point, and \( \mathbf{J}_p \) is the input current density at the point source.

For the tangential and binormal contribution the summation over \( \alpha \) of the electric field transmitted by an antenna, \( \mathbf{A}^e \), is expressed through the gain, \( G \), as:

\[
\mathbb{V} \sim \sum_{p=1}^{\infty} \left( \hat{\mathbf{t}} L_{p,b}^e + \hat{\mathbf{n}} L_{p,n}^e + \hat{\mathbf{b}} L_{p,b}^e \right) \left( \mathbf{A}^e_{p,t} \hat{\mathbf{t}} + \mathbf{A}^e_{p,n} \hat{\mathbf{n}} + \mathbf{A}^e_{p,b} \hat{\mathbf{b}} \right) e^{-\jmath k_0 \alpha t} \hat{r} \mathrm{d} t \tag{2}
\]

where \( \left( \hat{\mathbf{t}}, \hat{\mathbf{n}}, \hat{\mathbf{b}} \right) \) are the tangential, normal, and binormal unit vectors at the source point, and \( \mathbf{A}^e_{p,t}, \mathbf{A}^e_{p,n}, \mathbf{A}^e_{p,b} \) are the unit vectors at the observation point. The \( L_{p,b}^e \) and \( \mathbf{A}^e_{p,b} \) are launching and attachment coefficients for electric point sources of specific polarizations, and \( \alpha \) the attenuation of the creeping wave. Exact expressions are found in [12], but the coefficients depend on frequency, constitutive parameters, and geometric factors. The subscript \( p \) refers to different modes, but in the deep shadow the first mode is the most dominant and the summation over \( p \) will not be done in the remainder of the paper. Instead only the first mode will be used. Furthermore, the tangential and binormal contribution will be ignored since the magnitude of the launching and attachment coefficients for the first mode on the human body are more than 20 dB lower than the normal.

The electric field transmitted by an antenna in the polarization normal to the surface of the body of interest, \( E^n_0 \), can be expressed through the gain, \( G \), and the transmit power, \( P_T \), as:

\[
E^n_0 = \sqrt{\frac{2 \eta_0 P_T G_T}{4\pi} e^{j \phi} e^{-j k_0 r} } \tag{3}
\]

where \( r \) is the distance from the antenna. Note that the angle of the electric field transmitted by an antenna, \( \phi \), is only meaningful when the polarization is given. The transmitted electric field multiplied by \( e^{j \phi} \) will take the place of the term \( \frac{2 \eta_0 P_T}{4\pi} \) in Equation 1. This makes sense since the term \( \frac{2 \eta_0 P_T}{4\pi} \) is exactly the magnitude of the electric fields radiated from a unit strength electric dipole source. For convenience, the reference to the normal component, \( n \), will be suppressed throughout the rest of the paper, e.g., \( E_T \) and \( E_R \).

The received electric field normal to the surface, \( E_R \), can then be calculated for a geodesic path:

\[
E_R = \sqrt{\frac{2 \eta_0 P_T G_T}{4\pi} e^{j \phi} L\mathbf{A} e^{-j k_0 t} \hat{r} \hat{r} \mathrm{d} t} \tag{4}
\]

By adding all the contributions from each of the geodesic paths that connect the transmitting and receiving antennas, the total open-circuit voltage at the terminals of the receiving antenna can be found:

\[
V_{OC} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} E_{R,i} e_{c,i} \tag{5}
\]

where \( N \) is the total number of geodesic paths that connect the transmitting and receiving antennas and \( e_c \) is the electrical length of the receiving antenna assuming perfect match given by:

\[
e_c = \sqrt{\frac{G_R \lambda_0^2 R_{ant}}{\pi \eta_0} e^{j \phi} L_{En}} \tag{6}
\]

where \( \lambda_0 \) is the free space wave length and \( R_{ant} \) is the resistive part of the antenna input impedance.

The received power can be calculated as:

\[
P_R = \frac{|V_{OC}|^2}{8 R_{ant}} \tag{7}
\]

By combining Equations 4, 5 and 7 the E2E path gain can be expressed as:

\[
P_R \frac{P_T}{P_T} = \left( \frac{\lambda_0}{4\pi} \right)^2 \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{N} G_{R,i} G_{T,i} \frac{\mathrm{d} v_0 / \mathrm{d} \chi}{\mathrm{d} \chi} \right\} e^{j \phi} \left( \mathbf{E}_{R,i} \hat{\mathbf{b}} + \mathbf{E}_{T,i} \hat{\mathbf{n}} \right) e^{-j k_0 t} \frac{\mathrm{d} t}{\mathrm{d} \chi} \right\}^2 \tag{8}
\]

III. SIMULATION SETUP

The model was validated by the use of Ansys HFSS 18.2 simulations. The on-body radiation patterns were exported from the simulations for use in the model. The gain along the surface of the head in the directions of the different geodesics from the on-body radiations patterns are used as the gains, \( G_{R,i} \) and \( G_{T,i} \). The simulations were run with extremely strict convergence criteria to ensure correct results. The main convergence criterion was that the maximum achievable path gain (MAPG) should not change more than 0.1 dB, equivalent to a change of 2.27%. The MAPG \( |S_{21}^{\max}| \) is used to avoid the impact of the impedance match. It is the path gain \( |S_{21}| \) obtained when both antennas are perfectly matched and can be calculated using [13]. Since the path gain \( |S_{21}| \) is very low, the antenna matching on one side does not impact the antenna impedance on the other side in practice. Therefore, the MAPG \( |S_{21}^{\max}| \) can be approximated by:

\[
|S_{21}^{\max}| \approx \frac{|S_{21}|^2}{1 - |S_{11}|^2 (1 - |S_{22}|^2)} \tag{9}
\]

For the reflection coefficient the same absolute change of 0.02. Four consecutive converged passes were required before the simulation was considered converged.

The simulations were done on an Ansys HFSS version (faceted) of the Specific Anthropomorphic Mannequin (SAM), which had been modified with realistic ears, neck and shoulders. The neck and shoulders were included to ensure that no energy could creep around the bottom of the head. The
simulation model is seen in Fig. 1. The antenna simulated has been presented in detail in [14], where the simulation results were also validated against measurements. The antenna is visible in Fig. 1b. The simulations were all done at 2.45 GHz or for a frequency range with 2.45 GHz in the middle of the band. Therefore, the constitutive parameters used to model the human body were $\epsilon_r = 39.2$ and $\sigma = 1.8 \, \text{S/m}$ as specified in [15] as standard parameters for the human body. With the orientation of the coordinate system shown in Fig. 1a, the XY-plane is the relevant to consider for the gains to use in 8.

To investigate if the energy propagating through the head has significant importance for the results, a simulation with absorbers all around the head was run. It was found that the MAPG becomes $-103.6 \, \text{dB}$ which is well below the $-78.3 \, \text{dB}$ of the equivalent simulation without absorbers. However, the level is enough to cause a variation of up to $\pm 0.5 \, \text{dB}$ dependent on the phase.

IV. MODEL IMPLEMENTATION

The main challenging part of implementing the proposed model is finding the geodesic lines on the given object, in this case the head. The geodesic lines are sometimes referred to as the shortest paths, although this can be a bit misleading. It is the generalization of straight lines to the surface of 3D objects. On a sphere the geodesic lines are the great circles, and on a cylinder they are helices. The formal definition is, that geodesic lines are lines on the surface that in their unit-speed parametrization only have acceleration perpendicular to the surface [16].

Here the geodesic lines were found on the head used for the simulations. The head is faceted to reduce the mesh complexity in Ansys HFSS. Therefore, the computation of the geodesic lines is very simple. On a facet, the geodesic line is naturally a straight line. When a geodesic line crosses from one facet to the next, the angle between the geodesic line and the edge separating the facets needs to stay constant. If one imagines
that the two facets are flattened so they were in the same plane, the geodesic line would simply be a straight line.

When the geodesic lines were found on the original head seen in Fig. 1 the lines had a tendency to group together. There was a large gap between the lines that exit a facet on one or the other edge. This was caused by the large facets. To overcome this, the facet size was reduced. One could say that the head was up-sampled. This was done in the freely available software Blender used for 3D editing. The up-sampling was done with a setting to maintain the total volume. The result can be seen in Fig. 2. It would of course be better to have a mathematical description of the head, that is smooth and differentiable, but it would then be a mathematical challenge in it self to find the geodesic lines. It would be desirable to use the up-sampled head in the simulation, but this creates issues with the meshing of the complex geometry. Here the underlying assumption is that the faceted head does not make a significant difference from a smooth head, neither in simulations nor in the model.

In a few areas the head is concave. This is only in areas in the front of the head, mostly around the nose. The geodesic lines are found as simple straight lines across the concave areas. One could potentially calculate the diffraction at the point where the line escapes the surface of the head and again when it contacts the surface. To reduce the complexity, and on the assumption of low impact on the result, this was not done. Instead, in the calculation of the loss, it has simply been included as a straight piece over the head.

It is noted that when finding the geodesic lines the ears had been removed. The ears are viewed as part of the antenna and the effect from the ears is included in the simulated radiation pattern that is put into the model.

In Fig. 2 geodesic paths originating from the right ears with a length of 200 mm is shown. It is seen that the geodesic lines create a wavefront, which has travelled 200 mm in the different directions around the head. The paths around the back and over the top of the head are smoothly distributed. The paths around the front of the head is diffracted in different directions, but they still constitute a relatively uniform wavefront. In Fig. 3 only the geodesic lines that reach the antenna
on the opposite side of the head are shown. These were found by extending the lines from Fig. 2 until they pass the point of closest proximity to the left antenna. The lines that, at the closest point, are within 10 mm of the left antenna have been included. It is clear that there is one path around the back, one over the top and four paths around the front. The four paths in the front run over the tip of the nose, the mouth, the chin and the transition from the head to the neck. There is possibly a path in the front at the root of the nose, mouth, the chin and the transition from the head to the neck. The four paths in the front run over the tip of the nose, the mouth, the chin and the transition from the head to the neck. The four paths in the front run over the tip of the nose, the mouth, the chin and the transition from the head to the neck.

Each of the paths are approximated by 100 points. These are uniformly distributed along the path. To get estimates of the curvature and the torsion, the 100 points are smoothed. This is done with a local regression with a second degree polynomial. For each of these 100 points the attenuation is found. The numerical integration of the total loss is done with the trapezoidal method over the 100 points.

The final numerical challenge is to approximate the derivative $\frac{d\psi_0}{d\chi}$. Since the head model is faceted, the distance between lines is not continuous. Therefore the derivative for each of the six paths have been approximated as:

$$\frac{d\psi_0}{d\chi} = \sqrt{\frac{\Delta\psi_0 n_{\text{lim}}}{2\chi_{\text{lim}}}} \quad (10)$$

where $\Delta\psi_0 = 0.25^\circ$ is the discrete angle between adjacent lines at the source and $n_{\text{lim}}$ is the number of lines for a given path that get within a certain distance, $\chi_{\text{lim}} = 10$ mm of the observation point.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Various simulations were run to compare with the model. First, the antenna presented in [14] was simulated at 2.45 GHz. In [14] the measurements of the prototype antennas are found. In Fig. 4 the electric field vectors just above the surface of the head is shown. It is clearly seen that wavefronts similar to those in Fig. 2 are present. It is also seen from Fig. 4d that the wavefronts launched from the source have different phases. This justifies the use of the phase of the electric fields in the model. In Fig. 5 the magnitude of the gain of the right antenna in the XY-plane is seen. The antenna has two lobes, one towards the front and one towards the back. In Fig. 6 the phase of the antenna is seen. Compared to Fig. 4d it is seen to explain the phase differences between the lobes.

A simulation in the frequency range of 2 GHz to 3 GHz was done. The gain and phase of the antennas were exported and applied to the model. In Fig. 7 the magnitude of the simulated and modeled path gain is shown. The general trend of the curves are clearly the same; the path gains stay within 6 dB of each other over the entire frequency span. It is noted that even though strict convergence criteria were used, the convergence far away from the resonance frequency of the antenna and below –100 dB can not be completely guaranteed. Small changes in the mesh setup can change the simulation results with a few decibels at the edges of the frequency range, whereas the level at 2.45 GHz stays within 1 dB. In Fig. 8 the phase of the simulated and modeled path gain is shown. Good correspondence between the simulated and modeled results are seen here as well. The difference is again more pronounced at the edges of the frequency range.

To investigate if the common trends of the path gains are only caused by the effect of the reflection coefficient, the MAPG as given by Equation 9 was calculated. The simulated
and modeled MAPG is shown in Fig. 9. It is seen that the trends of the two path gains remain the same even without the "windowing" effect of the reflection coefficient, which has been removed by Equation 9. Similarly, in order to see if the effect of the efficiency is the cause of the trend of the MAPG, the propagation gain, $S_{21}^{\text{prop}}$, was calculated. The propagation gain is given as the maximum achievable path gain divided by the radiation efficiency, $\epsilon_{\text{cd}}$, squared:

$$S_{21}^{\text{prop}} = \frac{S_{21}^{\text{max}}}{\epsilon_{\text{cd}}^2}$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

The radiation efficiency is squared to remove the effect from the transmitting and the receiving antenna. The propagation gain is shown in Fig. 10. Even though the differences between the simulated and modeled result are seen more clearly here, the general trend remains the same.

The contribution of the different paths around the head to the total modeled MAPG is seen in Fig. 11. The four paths around the front of the head have been aggregated. The main contributions clearly come from the front and back path. It is seen that the destructive interference of these two paths is the cause of the dip in the propagation gain around 2.2 GHz. The MAPG of both the front and the back path alone is higher than the total MAPG. The two paths are also seen to have increasing destructive interference towards 3 GHz since both path MAPGs are getting close to the total MAPG.

Here the modeled results use the radiation pattern from a full E2E simulation with a radiation surface defined around the ear and transformed to the far-field. An additional simulation was done where only a small rectangular cut-out including the right ear with the antenna inside was included. If the radiation pattern from that simulation is used, the modeled results remain the same within less than 1 dB. This enables the use of the model where only a cut-out simulation has been made. This is a much simpler and faster simulation to do than the full E2E simulation.

Another set of simulations were done at 2.45 GHz. The
antenna was rotated in the ear in steps of 10° as done in [17]. Measurements can be found in that article as well. The simulated and modeled MAPG can be seen in Fig. 12. It is clear that the simulated and modeled results correlate well. The simulated and modeled propagation gain is seen in Fig. 13. The trends are still the same although the model does not replicate the entire dip in propagation gain at 300°.

In Fig. 14 the contributions of the different paths to the total MAPG is shown. At around 0° the main contribution comes from the front path. At around 180° almost no energy comes from the front path. The total MAPG is made up almost entirely of the back path contribution. This change in "main" path is not seen in Fig. 12, which confirms that the model captures the E2E propagations correctly.

VI. CONCLUSION

The first E2E propagation model to use the geodesic lines around a head has been presented. Furthermore, it is the first E2E model to utilize a lossy dielectric GTD approximation. The model shows good correlation with simulation, especially at the resonance frequency of the antenna. The correlation remains visible even when the envelope effect of the reflection coefficient as well as the efficiency is removed. Simulation of a small cut-out box around the ear combined with the model enables faster results for the E2E path gain. It has been shown that the model captures the transition between different 'main' paths. This validates the model’s assumption of the division of the propagation into the different geodesic paths around the head.
REFERENCES


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