

This is a repository copy of *Self-Interference Channel Modeling for In-Band Full-Duplex Underwater Acoustic Modem*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/166001/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Zhao, Yunjiang, Qiao, Gang, Liu, Songzuo et al. (2 more authors) (2020) Self-Interference Channel Modeling for In-Band Full-Duplex Underwater Acoustic Modem. *Applied Acoustics*. 107687. ISSN 0003-682X

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apacoust.2020.107687>

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.

Self-Interference Channel Modeling for In-Band Full-Duplex Underwater Acoustic Modem

Yunjiang Zhao^{a,b,c}, Gang Qiao^{a,b,c}, Songzuo Liu^{a,b,c,*}, Yuriy Zakharov^d, Niaz Ahmed^{a,b,c}

^aAcoustic Science and Technology Laboratory, Harbin Engineering University, Harbin 150001, China

^bKey Laboratory of Marine Information Acquisition and Security (Harbin Engineering University), Ministry of Industry and Information Technology, Harbin 150001, China

^cCollege of Underwater Acoustic Engineering, Harbin Engineering University, Harbin 150001, China

^dDepartment of Electronic Engineering, University of York, U.K

Abstract

In-band full-duplex (IBFD) underwater acoustic (UWA) communication can significantly improve the throughput of UWA communication networks. In this paper, we focus on the self-interference (SI) channel modeling which is essential for SI cancellation in an IBFD modem. The SI consists of direct self-loop interference (SLI) and self multi-path interference (SMI) due to reflections from water surface and bottom. Therefore, we first propose a simplified finite element model for SLI in an IBFD UWA modem. Then we model the underwater vertical channel to obtain the SMI path loss and propagation delays. Simulation results show that the SLI signal is composed of diffraction and scattering components, and it is greatly affected by the modem housing material and shape. The SLI channel has a long (several tens of ms) impulse response. To verify the proposed model, based on the IBFD UWA communication modem developed by our team, we conducted a lake experiment in December 2019 at Qiandao Lake in Hangzhou, China. The simulated results match well with the experimental results in time/frequency features and transmission loss. This study reveals the complexity of SI channel in IBFD UWA communication.

Keywords: Channel model, Full-duplex, Self-loop interference, Self-interference, Underwater acoustic communication.

1. Introduction

Underwater acoustic (UWA) communication technology has been widely studied and applied in many fields, such as underwater sensor networks, observation of marine environment, oceanographic engineering construction, etc. [1, 2]. Due to the narrow available frequency bandwidth and complex UWA propagation, the spectral efficiency of UWA communication systems is limited [3–5]. Full-duplex (FD) communication technology was introduced to improve the spectral efficiency of radio communication systems [6–8], and it can also be used for UWA communication systems.

A series of research work has been devoted to exploring the feasibility of FD technology in UWA communication systems [9, 10], especially the in-band full-duplex (IBFD) technology as it can double the utilization of frequency band and greatly improve the performance of UWA communication networks [11–16]. In general, the research has been focused on self-interference (SI) cancellation, which is the basis and major challenge of FD communications, and can be implemented as analog SI cancellation and digital SI cancellation. The performance of SI cancellation can be improved with more accurate estimates of the SI channel [11–13]. Therefore, it is of great significance to study the SI signal and SI propagation channel. In [13], a sparse adaptive constraint algorithm for estimation of the SI channel and power amplifier (PA) nonlinearity is proposed. An improved maximum likelihood (ML) algorithm for the SI channel estimation is proposed in [14], which introduces a penalty that favors sparsity in the cost function to obtain better SI channel

*Corresponding author

Email addresses: zhaoyunjiang@hrbeu.edu.cn (Yunjiang Zhao), qiaogang@hrbeu.edu.cn (Gang Qiao), liusongzuo@hotmail.com (Songzuo Liu), yury.zakharov@york.ac.uk (Yuriy Zakharov), ahmed@hrbeu.edu.cn (Niaz Ahmed)

estimates. In [11], the SI channel estimates are obtained by using the recursive least-squares (RLS) algorithm with dichotomous coordinate descent (DCD) iterations, which achieves 69 dB SI cancellation performance with the PA output being used as the regressor in the adaptive filter to deal with the non-linear distortions.

It should be noted that the SI signal between transducer and receiver is composed of self-loop interference (SLI) and other self-multi-path interference (SMI). The SLI component propagated through the modem housing is much stronger than the SMI component caused by reflections from the seabed and sea surface. A hybrid design proposed in [12] includes analog, digital cancellation and directional transmission. It can be used for the SLI cancellation in the deep ocean environment. Real sea measurements of SI for FD UWA communication systems are presented in [17], which demonstrate that the SMI can last more than 1 second in shallow water environments.

In practice, the SI cancellation algorithms will run in a communication modem like the one described in [9], so it is essential to consider the influence of the equipment (housing) on the SLI signal. The SMI channel can be modeled by combining some empirical formulas and models [3, 18]. In contrast, it is hard to describe and model the SLI channel realistically at sound propagation distances of only tens of centimeters. Furthermore, the SLI acoustic channel is different from the SLI in IBFD radio channel [19, 20]. The scattering component [21] caused by the IBFD UWA modem housing vibration will also be received by the near-end receiver in the form of interference. With a high transmission power, the far-end signal can not fit within the limited dynamic range of analog to digital converter (ADC). This requires an analog SI interference cancellation to enable the ADC to convert the far-end signal and further cancel the residual SI by a digital SI canceler [22]. Meanwhile, if some prior information about the SLI channel can be obtained, the complexity of analog interference cancellation can be reduced by digitally assisted analog interference cancellation [23]. Therefore, it is very important to model the SI channel, especially the SLI channel to obtain the prior information.

Hence, in order to better understand the SI channel in practice, especially characteristics of the SLI channel, such as the channel impulse response (CIR), in this work, we develop models for the SLI and SMI channels. First, to focus only on the SLI characteristics and channel modeling, the short distance sound propagation is simulated in infinite space without any interference from multipath components caused by boundaries. We

establish a simplified finite element model of an IBFD UWA modem to simulate the sound propagation from the transmitter to the near-end receiver. Then we model the underwater vertical channel to obtain the SMI path loss and arrival time. The simulation results are verified in a lake experiment.

This paper is structured as follows: In section 2, we describe the modeling of SLI and SMI, the finite element model and parameter configuration. Analysis of the SLI signal is given in section 3. In section 4, the simulation results are verified by experiments. Finally, some conclusions and discussions concerning the use of IBFD UWA communication systems in practice are provided in section 5.

2. Modeling Method and Parameter Configuration

Normally, the conventional UWA communication modem can be roughly divided into two parts: the transceiver transducer and the housing. However, for the IBFD UWA communication modem, in order to transmit and receive signals at the same time, it is composed of three parts: transmitting transducer, receiving transducer and housing as shown in the left side of Fig. 1. The housing contains the digital, analog circuit boards and battery packs. The housing between the transmitting end and the receiving end will block the sound propagation path. Due to the complexity of the SLI propagation, it is difficult to obtain an analytical expression of the SLI channel model. Therefore, we use the finite element model of the IBFD UWA communication modem to simulate the propagation process. On this basis, we obtain characteristics of the SLI channel. For the SMI channel, we mainly calculate the arrival delay and attenuation of each path based on the spreading loss, absorption loss and reflection loss.

2.1. Simplified model of IBFD UWA communication modem

When the IBFD UWA communication modem transmits a signal through a transducer, the emitted sound wave will first interact with the housing. This interaction will produce an echo reflected by the housing and make the housing enter the vibration state causing the coupled vibrio-acoustics phenomenon. The housing under vibration will radiate elastic waves, which will be scattered into surrounding water and received by a receiving transducer.

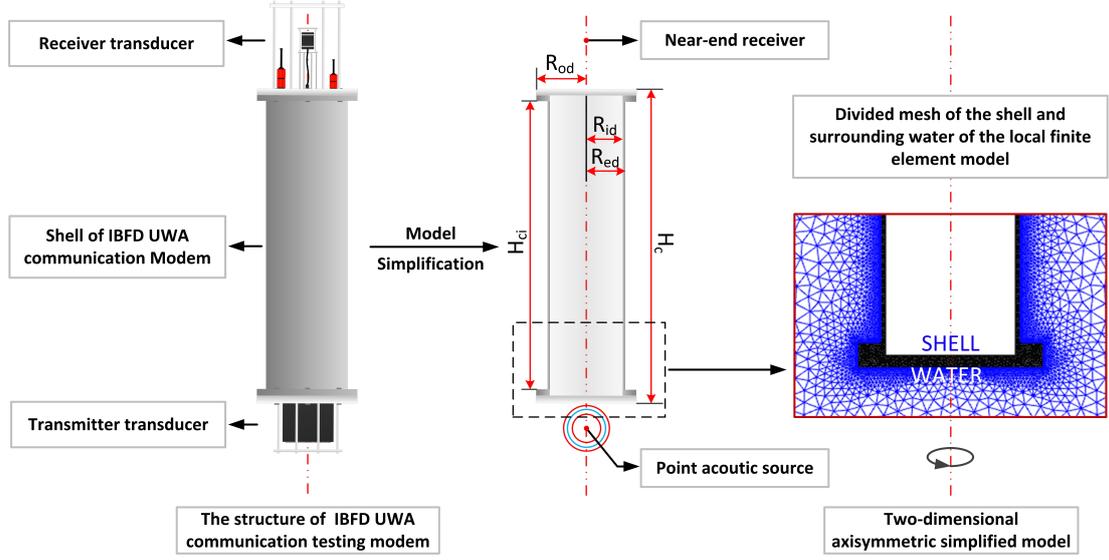


Figure 1: The simplified structure of IBFD UWA communication testing modem and its finite element model.

The above process can be represented as [24, 25]

$$\frac{1}{\rho_w c^2} \frac{\partial^2 p_t}{\partial t^2} - \frac{\nabla^2 p_t}{\rho_w} = \frac{4\pi}{\rho_w c} S(\delta(x)), \quad (1)$$

$$\rho_s \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} = \nabla \cdot C_{au} + F_v, \quad (2)$$

where p_t is the total acoustic pressure, ρ_w and ρ_s are the density of the water and the housing respectively, c is the sound speed in water, S is the amplitude of monopole source, $\delta(x - x_0)$ is the unit-impulse function at coordinate x_0 , C_{au} is the Cauchy stress, u is the displacement vector as the inertia item and F_v is the volume force vector.

The numerical simulation of the coupling between acoustic wave and the housing is conducted by using a time-dependent solver in two-dimensional axisymmetric model. We use the coupling model of multi physical fields software COMSOL [26] to establish the boundary of acoustic-housing. As the perfect matching layer cannot completely eliminate the influence of the simulation space boundary, we simulate the vibro-acoustics coupling phenomenon in infinite space by setting the simulation space range far greater than the housing size, so as to ensure that there is no influence of the simulation boundary echo during the observation time. In this way, the simulation result in the observation time only contains the SLI, and there is no other interference.

In the finite element calculation, especially for the propagation problem in transient time, high time resolution is needed. Hence, we use the Courant-Friedrichs-Lewy (CFL) [27] and mesh size to calculate the time-step for controlling the simulation error. As we want to observe the short-range propagation, a smaller CFL is needed as it describes how many mesh elements can propagate per time-step.

The specific calculation process is as follows

$$\Delta t = \frac{CFL \cdot h}{c}, \quad (3)$$

where Δt is the time-step size, c is the sound velocity, and h is the mesh size. In this study, the frequency range of transmitted signal is 6-12 kHz, and CFL is set to 0.2. To ensure the accuracy of simulation, the maximum size of mesh elements of water and the housing-structure interface were about one-sixth and one-sixtieth of the minimum wavelength of transmitted signal, respectively. Due to the irregular shape of the housing, the model uses free triangle elements to deal with the irregular shape as shown on the right side of Fig. 1. The specific values of other parameters are shown in Table 1. The distance between the point sound source and the shell is 5 cm, while the distance between the receiving end and the shell is 10 cm as shown in fig. 1.

We use the broadband short-pulse transmitting signal in simulation. A window function is applied to

Table 1: Parameters of the simulation model.

Parameter	Value
Material	Aluminum 6063-T83
Transmitted signal	Broadband short-pulse signal $S(t)$
Water Density	1000 kg/m ³
Sound velocity in water	1500 m/s
R_{od}	105 mm
R_{id}	74 mm
R_{ed}	80 mm
H_c	530 mm
H_{ci}	500 mm

180 reduce the energy leakage and make it easier to
 181 identify the diffraction and scattering components in the
 182 experimental and simulation results [28].

The transmitted signal is given by

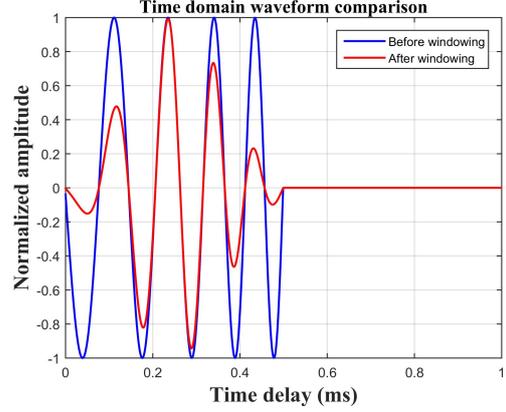
$$S(t) = A \cos \left[2\pi f_l t + \frac{\pi(f_h - f_l)t^2}{T_B} \right] \cdot W_H(t), (0 \leq t < T_B), \quad (4)$$

183 where A is the amplitude of the transmitted signal,
 184 $W_H(t)$ is the Hamming window, $T_B=0.5ms$ is the signal
 185 duration, $f_l = 6kHz$ and $f_h = 12kHz$. The transmitted
 186 signal and its spectrum before and after the windowing
 187 are shown in Fig. 2.

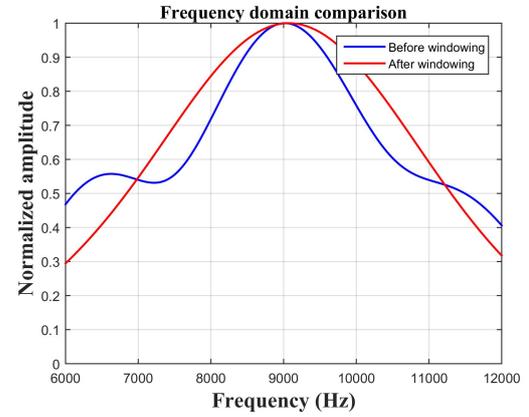
188 In this simplified model, we used a point source
 189 instead of the transducer transmitting sound waves.
 190 We also used a basic electroacoustic transducer model,
 191 but the results are almost the same. To reduce the
 192 computational complexity of the model further, we
 193 ignore the internal equipment of the housing and deal
 194 with it as air. Due to the large difference between
 195 the acoustic impedance of the air and housing, the air
 196 part can be further omitted. Note that it is difficult
 197 to extract the scattering waves and diffraction waves
 198 independently due to their heavy overlap in time.
 199 Therefore, to obtain the diffraction wave we set the
 200 housing to be absolutely rigid in an auxiliary simulation.
 201 In this auxiliary simulation, the configuration of other
 202 parameters was completely consistent with the above
 203 simulation parameters.

204 2.2. Simplified model of vertical acoustic channel

205 When the modem is working underwater, the
 206 near-end receiver will receive not only the SLI, but also
 207 the SMI. Compared with the far-end expected signal,
 208 this interference component cannot be ignored. To
 209 fully understand characteristics of the SMI channel,
 210 we consider arrival delay, spreading loss, absorption



(a)



(b)

Figure 2: Comparison of signal before and after windowing: (a) Time domain; (b) Frequency domain.

211 loss and reflection loss to make a simple modeling of
 212 a vertical channel. For this model, the layout of the
 213 modem is shown in Fig. 3.

214 The modeling is based on a scenario in which the
 215 modem is placed vertically underwater. Considering
 216 two kinds of reflection, the blue line indicates that
 217 the first reflection is from the sea surface, and the red
 218 line indicates that the first reflection is from the sea
 219 bottom. The distances from the transducer and the receiver
 220 to sea surface are represented by D_t and D_r . The depth
 221 of the sea is expressed by D_p .

222 The arrival delay of reflections can be approximately
 223 computed as

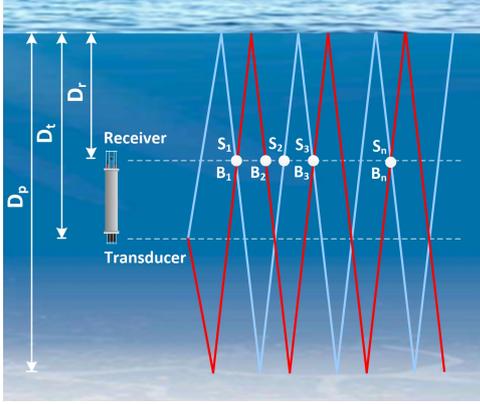


Figure 3: Reflections in a vertical channel.

$$T_{sn} = \frac{D_t + 2D_p \cdot \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor + D_r \cdot [2 \cdot (n \bmod 2) - 1]}{c}, \quad (5)$$

$$T_{bn} = \frac{-D_t + 2D_p \cdot \left\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \right\rfloor - D_r \cdot [2 \cdot (n \bmod 2) - 1]}{c}, \quad (6)$$

where T_{sn} is the arrival time after n reflections (for paths with the first reflection from the surface), T_{bn} is the arrival time after n reflections (for paths with the first reflection from the bottom), and c is the speed of sound. The spreading loss will increase with distance and can be obtained by the following formula [3]

$$S_{prd} = k \cdot 10 \cdot \log_{10}(l_d), \quad (7)$$

where S_{prd} is the spreading loss, k is the spreading factor taken to be 1.5 in this study, and l_d is the distance of propagation.

The absorption loss is a frequency-dependent function. Combined with the spreading loss, it can be expressed by the following formula [29]

$$A(l_d, f) = A_r l_d^k a(f)^{l_d}, \quad (8)$$

where A_r is a scale constant, $a(f)$ is the absorption factor, and it can be calculated by using the Thorps empirical formula [30]

$$a(f) = 0.11 \frac{f^2}{1 + f^2} + 44 \frac{f^2}{4100 + f^2} + 2.75 \times 10^{-4} f^2 + 0.003, \quad (9)$$

where f represents the transmitting signal frequency (in kHz).

For the reflection loss, we assume that the sea surface is flat and it can be modeled by a reflection coefficient $\gamma_s = -1$, and the bottom reflection loss R_{fb} and the bottom reflection coefficient γ_b can be expressed by [31]

$$R_{fb} = -20 \log_{10} \left| \frac{p_r}{p_i} \right| = -20 \log_{10} |\gamma_b|, \quad (10)$$

where p_r and p_i are the reflected and incident sound pressure amplitude, respectively. In this study, $\gamma_b = -0.97$ is adopted. Therefore, the overall path loss of the SMI can be represented in decibels by

$$PL_{all} = 10 \log_{10} A(l_d, f) + \eta R_{fb}. \quad (11)$$

where η represents the number of times the path has reflected off the seafloor.

It should be noted that when the sea surface is calm, the coherence time of vertical acoustic channel is quite long. However, when the sea surface fluctuates due to wind and waves, the arrival time T_{sn} and T_{bn} in Eq.(5) and Eq.(6) will change with D_r , D_t and D_p . At the same time, due to the change of propagation time, the propagation distance l_d of each path will also change under the assumption of constant sound velocity. According to Eq.(7) and Eq.(8), the spreading loss and the absorption loss will also change. In addition, the sea surface fluctuations also affects the sea surface reflection coefficient γ_s , which will affect the overall path loss of the SMI. Therefore, the coherence time of shallow water acoustic vertical channel will be shorter. In practical applications, it is necessary to use the algorithm with certain adaptive processing ability to track the time-varying CIR of the SMI.

3. Analysis of simulation results

In this section, we use the simplified finite element model to simulate the sound propagation process and obtain the SLI at the near-end receiver. To investigate the influence of the housing on the SLI signal, we also simulate the short-range propagation without the housing for comparison.

3.1. Waveform analysis

Fig. 4 shows simulation results for the SLI signal in time and frequency domains. It can be seen in Fig. 4a and Fig. 4b that the received SLI waveform is quite different in the cases with and without the housing.

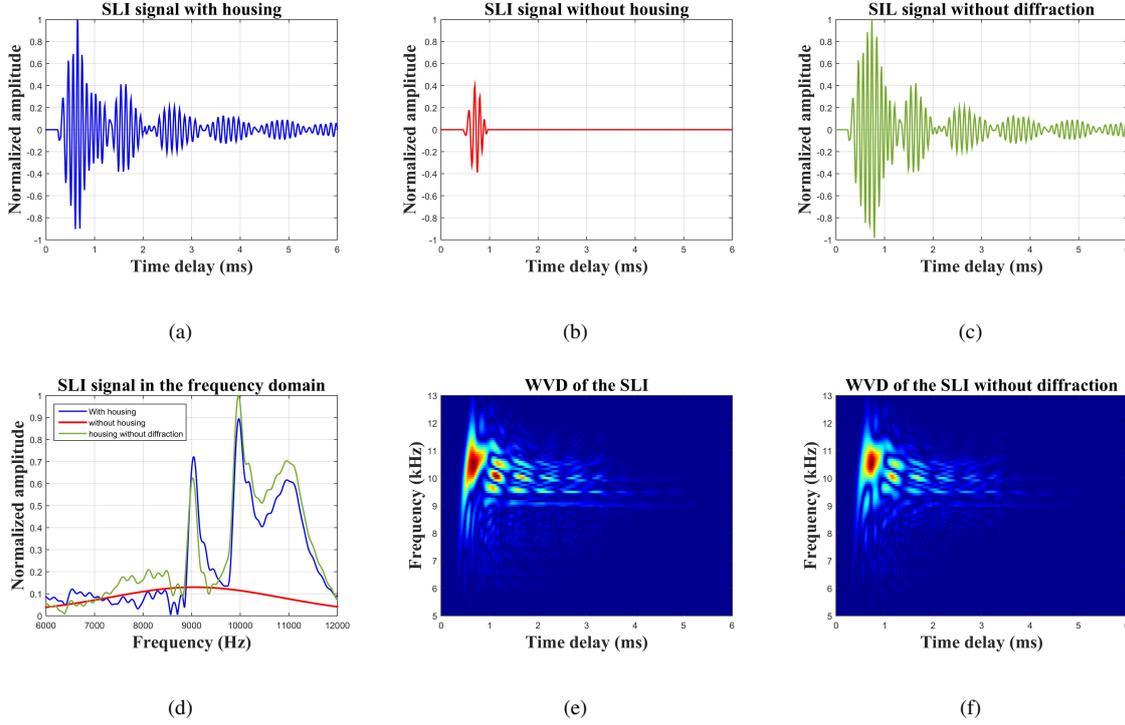


Figure 4: The SLI components. (a) Time domain. (b) Time domain (without housing). (c) Time domain (housing without diffraction). (d) Frequency domain. (e) WVD of the SLI signal. (f) WVD of the SLI signal without diffraction.

280 Amplitude with housing is significantly higher than that
 281 without it. This is due to the housing vibration and
 282 re-radiation. The complex form of the SLI signal is
 283 caused by the superposition of scattering and diffracted
 284 sound waves at the receiving point.

285 In addition, the peak amplitude of sound pressure
 286 before removing the housing is about twice that after
 287 removing the housing, that is to say, the existence of
 288 the housing increases the SLI by almost 6dB. The SLI
 289 signal without the diffraction is shown in Fig.4c. Fig.4d
 290 shows the SLI signal in the frequency domain. There
 291 are seen resonance peaks at about 9 kHz, 10 kHz and
 292 11 kHz, which are defined by the housing material and
 293 its thickness. The SLI signal is equivalent to passing
 294 the transmitted signal through a frequency-selective
 295 channel, which needs to be considered in the SI
 296 cancellation process.

297 Fig.4e and Fig.4f show the time-frequency
 298 representations of the SLI signal before and after
 299 removal of the diffraction component. Here, we use the
 300 Wigner-Ville distribution (WVD) [32]. The difference
 301 between them is small, which shows that the main
 302 component of the SLI signal is the housing scattering
 303 component. In order to describe this process more

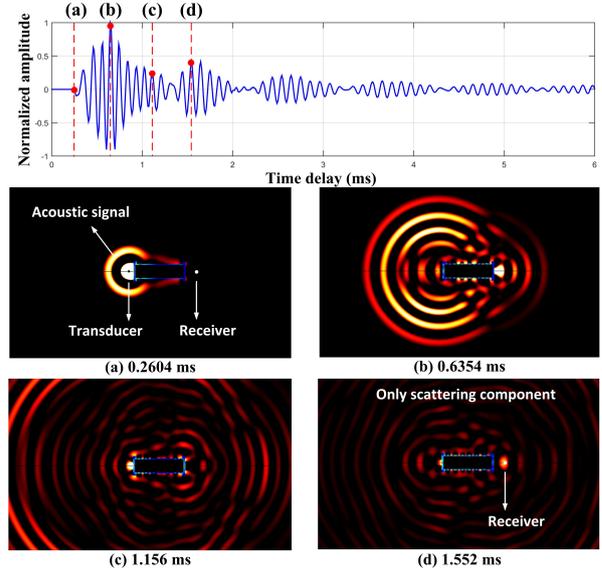


Figure 5: Snapshots of the propagation process: (a) 0.2604 ms; (b) 0.6354 ms; (c) 1.156 ms; (d) 1.552 ms.

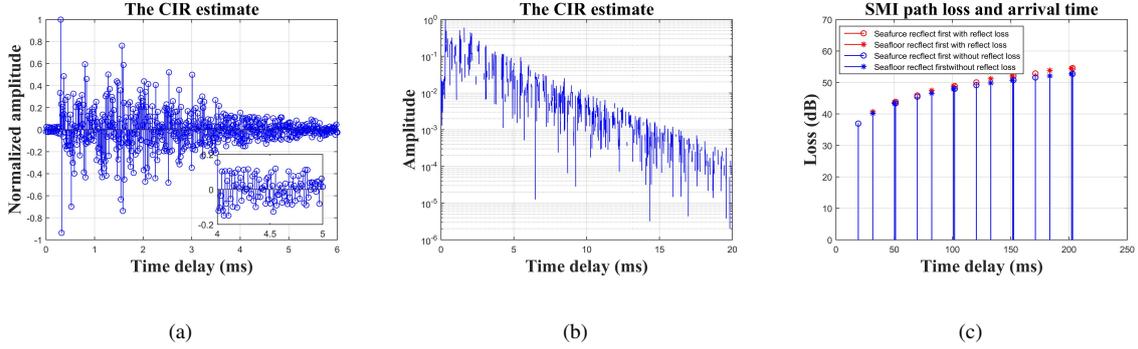


Figure 6: Channel simulation results. (a) The SLI channel within the first 6 ms. (b) The SLI channel estimate in logarithmic scale. (c) Path loss and arrival time of SMI channel taps.

clearly, Fig.5 shows snapshots of the SLI signal in space at different time instants.

As shown in Fig.5a that shortly after the acoustic signal is emitted from the transmitting transducer, the sound pressure changes at the near-end receiver, and the diffraction component has not yet reached there. At initial time period, the fluctuation of the sound pressure is caused by the sound scattering of the housing. At 0.6354 ms (see Fig.5b), the diffracted component arrives at the near-end receiver and overlaps with the scattering component. After the arrival of the diffraction component, the housing vibrates and radiates waves into the surrounding water. Fig.5d shows the subsequent scattering process, and only the scattering components remain in the simulation space.

3.2. CIR between the transducer and hydrophone

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that the SLI signal received by the near-end receiver contains diffraction and scattering components. We obtain the channel estimate in the process of the SLI propagation by using the recursive least-squares (RLS) algorithm. For the RLS algorithm, the forgetting factor is set to 0.998. The adaptive filter taps are the SLI channel estimate. The SLI CIR is shown in Fig.6a and Fig.6b, with different observation times. Fig.6a shows the complexity of the SLI channel for the first 6 ms, and it cannot be described as a sparse channel. From the simulation results, it can be seen that it is difficult to cancel the SLI by conventional SI interference cancellation just in analog domain, as the number of taps is too high. In Fig.6b, the 20 ms channel estimate is expressed in logarithmic scale. If we want to achieve certain interference cancellation effect, especially when it is more than 60dB, it means that the magnitudes of the adaptive filter taps that affect the SI performance

could be as low as 10^{-3} to 10^{-4} with respect to the CIR maximum. Therefore, in practice, for the SI cancellation, the filter length should be set longer than 20ms.

3.3. SMI channel

We set here the simulation parameters similar to the one observed in the lake experiment. The distances from the transducer and the receiver to the sea surface are set to $D_t = 14.7$ m and $D_r = 14$ m. The water depth is set to $D_p = 38$ m and the frequency is set to be 9 kHz as the center frequency of the test signal. The overall path loss and arrival time of the SMI are shown in Fig.6c. It can be seen that after multiple reflections, at 200ms, the energy of the SMI decreases by about 50dB, which is still very strong for the expected far-end signal. Such a long channel would be a substantial problem for the SI canceller.

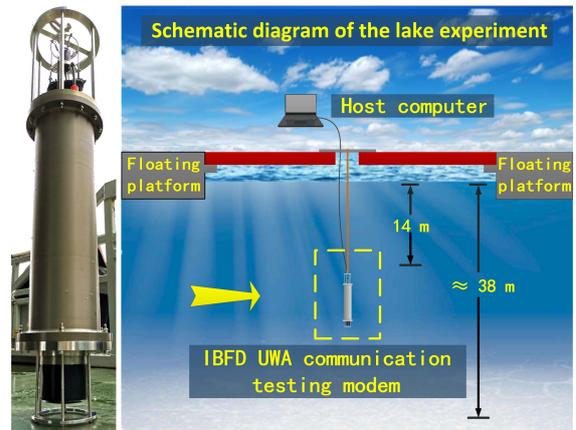


Figure 7: The lake experimental setup.

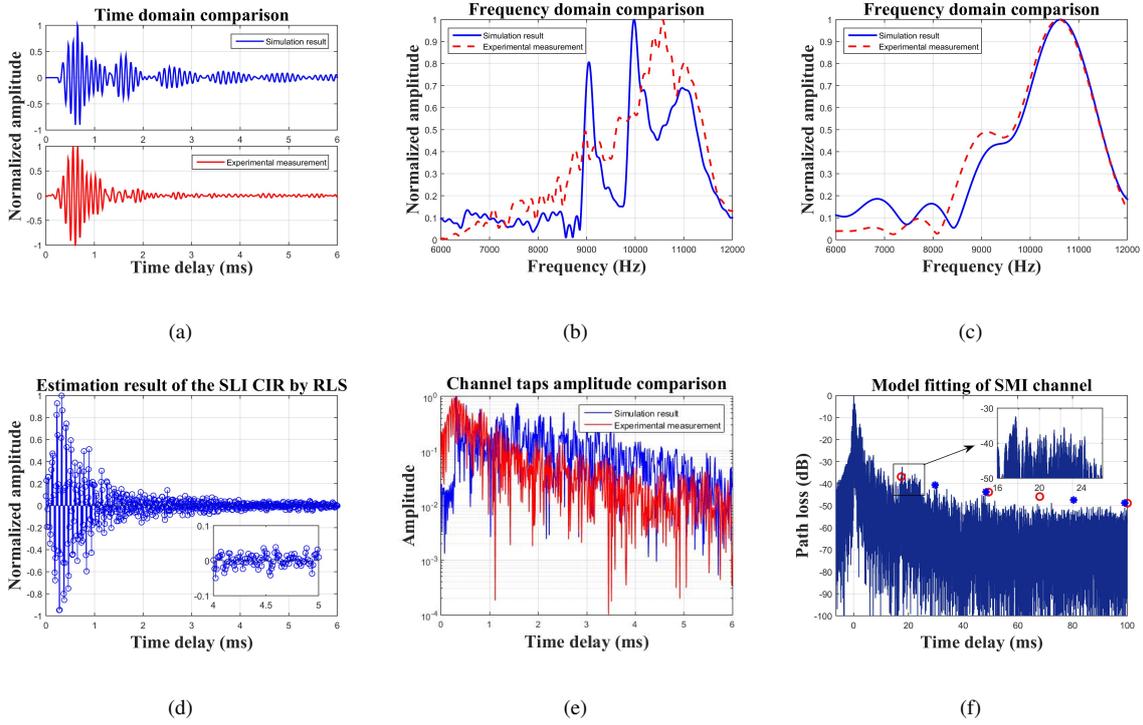


Figure 8: Comparison of simulation and measurement results. (a) Time domain. (b) Frequency domain. (c) Frequency domain comparison of the first 1.2 ms of the SLI signal. (d) Impulse response estimate with the measurement results. (e) Channel tap amplitude comparison. (f) The fitting of SMI channel model with the measurement results.

4. Lake experiment

The lake experimental setup is shown in Fig. 7. It was conducted in the Qiandao Lake, Hangzhou China. It was carried out on a large floating platform more than 100m away from the shore. The depth of the lake water is about 38 m. In order to verify the SLI and SMI channel, we put the hydrophone at a depth of 14 meters, so that the receiving end was not affected by the reflection of lake surface and bottom in a certain observation time (about 18 ms which is much longer than the duration of the transmitted signal).

4.1. Comparison of experimental and simulation

The test transmitting signal is the same as in the simulation. The comparison between the SLI signal received in the experiment and in the simulation is given in Fig. 8. It can be seen from Fig. 8a that the simulation of the first 1.2 ms is in good agreement with the measurement results, but after 1.2 ms, the scattering component of the SLI signal decays more rapidly in the practical measurement. The cross-correlation

coefficient between the two signals was 0.94 for the first 1.2 ms and 0.79 for the first 6 ms.

The reason is that during the measurement, the housing was pulled by the rope, which is different from the state of the housing in the simulation. Under the action of the tensile force, the vibration of the housing decreases faster. Due to the lack of backscattering components, the fit of the SLI obtained by simulation and experiment is not high in frequency domain as shown in Fig. 8b. In contrast, as shown in Fig. 8c, the SLI of the first 1.2 ms has a better fit in the frequency domain, but there are still some differences due to the influence of the frequency responses of the transducer and the hydrophone. In Fig. 8d, the result of the SLI channel estimation in the lake experiment is plotted. Compared with the simulation result, it has faster decay but is also complex as shown in Fig. 8e. This may be due to the fact that in the actual measurement, due to the existence of the gravity of the housing and the tension on the tension rope, the vibration of the housing is restrained to a certain degree, which weakens the scattering process. These multi-path components cannot be ignored when compared to the expected

399 far-end signal and need to be eliminated. The fit
400 between the SMI channel model and the measurement
401 is shown in Fig. 8f. Due to the difference between the
402 bottom reflection coefficient setting and the real one,
403 and other effects like non-frequency-flat transducer and
404 hydrophone responses, there are several dB discrepancy
405 between the simulation and measured values, but the
406 overall trend is the same. In addition, it can be observed
407 that there are a large number of small taps following
408 the first path as shown in the enlarged figure in Fig.
409 8f, which is caused by the reflection of some housing
410 scattering components from the surface to the near-end
411 receiver. Therefore, the existence of the housing can
412 also affect the SMI channel. In terms of the complexity
413 of the SLI and SMI channel, in practice, we need to
414 consider how to reduce the SLI component, e.g. by
415 properly positioning the transducers.

416 5. Conclusions and discussions

417 In this study, we used a simplified finite element
418 model of the IBFD UWA communication modem to
419 simulate the influence of the housing on the SI at
420 near-end receiver. The simulation results show that the
421 SLI signal received by the near-end receiver contains
422 diffraction component and scattering component, and
423 the scattering component is more intensive. We also
424 modeled the SMI channel and obtained the path loss and
425 arrival time of different taps. The simulation results are
426 verified in the lake experiment by using an IBFD UWA
427 communication testing modem in December 2019. The
428 experimental and simulation results showing the SLI
429 waveform, its frequency spectrum and CIR of the
430 SLI channel and the influence of housing on the SMI
431 channel are given for the first time. It should be noted
432 that when the IBFD UWA communication modem
433 interacts with other nodes underwater, the duration of
434 communication signal will be longer than the test signal
435 used in this experiment. It means that the scattering
436 components continuously generated by the housing will
437 always be superposed with the transmitted signal at the
438 near-end receiver. These effects make it difficult for SI
439 cancellation.

440 In view of the simulation and experimental results,
441 some discussions for the implementation of the IBFD
442 UWA communication are given as follows:

443 - Compared with the case without the housing,
444 the housing amplifies the SLI. Considering the good
445 agreement between the simulation and experimental
446 results, it can be inferred that in practice, the SLI
447 will also increase under the influence of the housing.

This makes us need to cancel a stronger SLI in the
interference cancellation stage.

- Before the realization of the equipment, it is
necessary to simulate the sound propagation process
based on the housing structure and materials. We can
reduce the influence of the scattering component on the
SLI by changing the housing material and structure.
For example, materials whose resonant frequencies do
not coincide with the same frequency band may be
selected for the housing. After the same excitation,
housing materials with weak scattering components can
be selected.

- More generally, the proposed SLI model can be
useful for designing the modem housing and positioning
the transducers with reduced self-interference.

463 6. Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Key R&D
Program of China(Grant Nos. 2018YFC0308500),
National Natural Science Foundation of China under
(Grant Nos. 61771152, 11974090, 11774074
and 11704090), the Natural Science Foundation
of Heilongjiang Province of China (Grant No.
YQ2019F002). The Key Laboratory of Acoustic
Environment, Institute of Acoustics, Chinese Academy
of Sciences (Grant No. SHHJKFKT-1801) and
Innovation Special Zone of National Defense Science
and Technology.

The work of Y. Zakharov was partly supported by the
UK EPSRC through the USMART (EP/P017975/1) and
Full-Duplex (EP/R003297/1) projects.

The author wish to thank Xinyu Liu, Hanbo Jia,
Shuyong Pang and others who participated in the lake
experiment.

481 References

- [1] J. Heidemann, M. Stojanovic, M. Zorzi, Underwater sensor
networks: applications, advances and challenges, *Philosophical
Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical
and Engineering Sciences* 370 (1958) (2012) 158–175,
doi:10.1098/rsta.2011.0214.
- [2] I. Akyildiz, D. Pompili, T. Melodia, Challenges for
efficient communication in underwater acoustic sensor
networks, *ACM Sigbed Review* 1 (2) (2004) 3–8,
doi:10.1145/1121776.1121779.
- [3] M. Stojanovic, J. Preisig, Underwater acoustic communication
channels: Propagation models and statistical characterization,
IEEE Communications Magazine 47 (1) (2009) 84–89,
doi:10.1109/mcom.2009.4752682.
- [4] M. C. Domingo, Overview of channel models for underwater
wireless communication networks, *Physical Communication*
1 (3) (2008) 163–182, doi:10.1016/j.phycom.2008.09.001.

- 498 [5] D. E. Lucani, M. Stojanovic, M. Medard, On the
499 relationship between transmission power and capacity
500 of an underwater acoustic communication channel, in:
501 OCEANS 2008 - MTS/IEEE Kobe Techno-Ocean, 1–6,
502 doi:10.1109/OCEANSKOB.2008.4531073, 2008.
- 503 [6] D. Bliss, P. Parker, A. Margetts, Simultaneous transmission
504 and reception for improved wireless network performance, in:
505 2007 IEEE/SP 14th Workshop on Statistical Signal Processing,
506 478–482, doi:10.1109/SSP.2007.4301304, 2007.
- 507 [7] Z. Zhang, K. Long, A. V. Vasilakos, L. Hanzo, Full-duplex
508 wireless communications: Challenges, solutions, and future
509 research directions, *Proceedings of the IEEE* 104 (7) (2016)
510 1369–1409, doi:10.1109/JPROC.2015.2497203.
- 511 [8] K. E. Kolodziej, B. T. Perry, J. S. Herd, In-band full-duplex
512 technology: Techniques and systems survey, *IEEE Transactions*
513 *on Microwave Theory and Techniques* 67 (7) (2019) 3025–3041,
514 doi:10.1109/TMTT.2019.2896561.
- 515 [9] G. Qiao, S. Liu, Z. Sun, F. Zhou, Full-duplex, multi-user
516 and parameter reconfigurable underwater acoustic
517 communication modem, in: 2013 OCEANS-San Diego,
518 1–8, doi:10.23919/OCEANS.2013.6741096, 2013.
- 519 [10] J. Zhang, Xuefei Ma, G. Qiao, C. Wang, A full-duplex
520 based protocol for underwater acoustic communication
521 networks, in: 2013 OCEANS - San Diego, 1–6,
522 doi:10.23919/OCEANS.2013.6741129, 2013.
- 523 [11] L. Shen, B. Henson, Y. Zakharov, P. Mitchell, Digital
524 self-interference cancellation for full-duplex underwater
525 acoustic systems, *IEEE Transactions on Circuits and*
526 *Systems II: Express Briefs* 67 (1) (2019) 192–196,
527 doi:10.1109/TCSII.2019.2904391.
- 528 [12] L. Li, A. Song, L. J. Cimini, X. Xia, C. Shen, Interference
529 cancellation in in-band full-duplex underwater acoustic
530 systems, in: OCEANS 2015-MTS/IEEE Washington, 1–6,
531 doi:10.23919/OCEANS.2015.7404411, 2015.
- 532 [13] G. Qiao, S. Gan, S. Liu, Q. Song, Self-interference
533 channel estimation algorithm based on maximum-likelihood
534 estimator in in-band full-duplex underwater acoustic
535 communication system, *IEEE Access* 6 (2018) 62324–62334,
536 doi:10.1109/ACCESS.2018.2875916.
- 537 [14] G. Qiao, S. Gan, S. Liu, L. Ma, Z. Sun, Digital self-interference
538 cancellation for asynchronous in-band full-duplex underwater
539 acoustic communication, *Sensors* 18 (6) (2018) 1700–1716,
540 doi:10.3390/s18061700.
- 541 [15] L. Zhang, J. Huang, C. Tang, LUT based self
542 interference cancellation (L-SIC) in bidirectional relaying
543 underwater acoustic communication system, in: 2015
544 IEEE International Conference on Signal Processing,
545 Communications and Computing (ICSPCC), 1–5,
546 doi:10.1109/ICSPCC.2015.7338972, 2015.
- 547 [16] F. Qu, H. Yang, G. Yu, L. Yang, In-Band
548 Full-Duplex Communications for Underwater Acoustic
549 Networks, *IEEE Network* 31 (5) (2017) 59–65,
550 doi:10.1109/MNET.2017.1600267.
- 551 [17] C. T. Healy, B. A. Jebur, C. C. Tsimenidis, J. Neasham,
552 J. Chambers, Experimental Measurements and Analysis of
553 In-Band Full-Duplex Interference for Underwater Acoustic
554 Communication Systems, in: OCEANS 2019 - Marseille, 1–5,
555 doi:10.1109/OCEANSE.2019.8867454, 2019.
- 556 [18] J. Pires, M. Colombo, J. Gallardo, C. De Maziani,
557 R. Alcoleas, Vertical Underwater Acoustic Channel
558 Model in Sensor Networks for Coastal Monitoring, *IEEE*
559 *Latin America Transactions* 11 (1) (2013) 382–388,
560 doi:10.1109/TLA.2013.6502834.
- 561 [19] B. Chun, E. Jeong, J. Joung, Y. Oh, Y. Lee, Pre-nulling
562 for self-interference suppression in full-duplex relays, in:
Proceedings: APSIPA ASC 2009: Asia-Pacific Signal and
Information Processing Association, 2009 Annual Summit and
Conference, 91–97, 2009.
- [20] T. Riihonen, S. Werner, R. Wichman, E. B. Zacarias, On
the feasibility of full-duplex relaying in the presence of
loop interference, in: 2009 IEEE 10th Workshop on Signal
Processing Advances in Wireless Communications, 275–279,
doi:10.1109/SPAWC.2009.5161790, 2009.
- [21] G. Maze, Acoustic scattering from submerged cylinders. MIIR
Im/Re: Experimental and theoretical study, *The Journal of the*
Acoustical Society of America 89 (6) (1991) 2559–2566,
doi:10.1121/1.400684.
- [22] T. Riihonen, R. Wichman, Analog and digital self-interference
cancellation in full-duplex MIMO-OFDM transceivers
with limited resolution in A/D conversion, in: 2012
Conference Record of the Forty Sixth Asilomar Conference
on Signals, Systems and Computers (ASILOMAR), 45–49,
doi:10.1109/ACSSC.2012.6488955, 2012.
- [23] Y. Liu, X. Quan, W. Pan, Y. Tang, Digitally assisted
analog interference cancellation for in-band full-duplex radios,
IEEE Communications Letters 21 (5) (2017) 1079–1082,
doi:10.1109/LCOMM.2017.2652444.
- [24] P. Filippi, *Theoretical acoustics and numerical techniques*, vol.
277, Springer, 1983.
- [25] P. M. Morse, K. U. Ingard, *Theoretical acoustics*, Princeton
university press, 1986.
- [26] R. W. Pryor, *Multiphysics modeling using COMSOL®: a first*
principles approach, Jones & Bartlett Publishers, 2009.
- [27] R. Courant, K. Friedrichs, H. Lewy, On the partial
difference equations of mathematical physics, *IBM Journal*
of Research and Development 11 (2) (1967) 215–234,
doi:10.1147/rd.112.0215.
- [28] D. Alleyne, P. Cawley, A two-dimensional Fourier transform
method for the measurement of propagating multimode signals,
The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America 89 (3) (1991)
1159–1168, doi:10.1121/1.400530.
- [29] P. Qarabaqi, M. Stojanovic, Statistical characterization
and computationally efficient modeling of a class of
underwater acoustic communication channels, *IEEE*
Journal of Oceanic Engineering 38 (4) (2013) 701–717,
doi:10.1109/JOE.2013.2278787.
- [30] L. M. Brekhovskikh, Y. P. Lysanov, R. T. Beyer, *Fundamentals*
of ocean acoustics, Acoustical Society of America, 1991.
- [31] F. B. Jensen, W. A. Kuperman, M. B. Porter, H. Schmidt,
Computational ocean acoustics, Springer Science & Business
Media, 2011.
- [32] B. Barkat, B. Boashash, Design of higher order polynomial
Wigner-Ville distributions, *IEEE Transactions on Signal*
Processing 47 (9) (1999) 2608–2611, doi:10.1109/78.782225.