



**COMPUTATIONAL EME COMPLIANCE ASSESSMENT OF THE XTL5000
UHF MOBILE RADIO, MODEL # M20SSS9PW1AN, FCC ID AZ492FT4867**

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Introduction

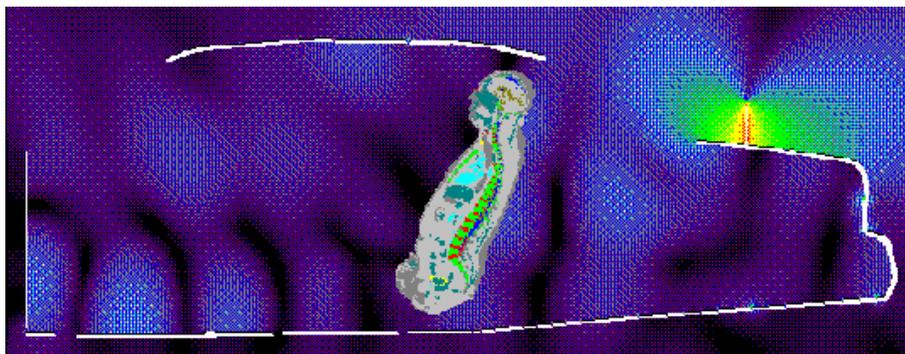
This report summarizes the computational [numerical modeling] analysis performed to document compliance of the XTL5000 UHF, Model Number M20SSS9PW1AN, Mobile Radio and vehicle-mounted antennas with the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) guidelines for human exposure to radio frequency (RF) emissions. The radio operates in the 450 - 520 MHz frequency band.

This computational analysis supplements the measurements conducted to evaluate the FCC *maximum permissible exposure* (MPE) limits for this mobile device. The only test conditions that did not conform with applicable MPE limits were analyzed to determine whether those conditions complied with the *specific absorption rate* (SAR) limits for general public exposure (1.6 W/kg averaged over 1 gram of tissue) set forth in FCC guidelines, which are based on the IEEE standard [1]. To this end a commercial code based on Finite-Difference-Time-Domain (FDTD) methodology was employed to carry out the computational analysis. It is well established and recognized within the scientific community that SAR is the primary dosimetric quantity used to evaluate the human body's absorption of RF energy and that MPEs are in fact derived from SAR. Accordingly, the SAR computations provide a scientifically valid and more accurate estimate of human exposure to RF energy.

Method

The simulation code employed is XFDTD™ v5.3, by Remcom Inc., State College, PA. This computational suite features a heterogeneous full body standing model (High Fidelity Body Mesh), derived from the so-called Visible Human [2], discretized in 5 mm voxels. The dielectric properties of 23 body tissues are automatically assigned by XFDTD™ at any specific frequency. The “seated” man model was obtained from the standing model by modifying the articulation angles at the hips and the knees. Details of the computational method and model are provided in the Appendix to this report, following the structure outlined in Appendix B.III of the Supplement C to the FCC OET Bulletin 65.

The car model has been imported into XFDTD™ from the CAD file of a sedan car having dimensions 4.98 m (L) x 1.85 m (W) x 1.18 m (H), and discretized in 5mm voxels. The wheels and part of the hood were omitted in order to fit within the computational memory (3 GB) available. These omissions would not be expected to affect the exposure calculations in any event. The antenna position is in the center of the trunk and 85 cm from the passenger when the passenger is in the center of the back seat, so as to replicate the experimental condition used in MPE measurements. Figures 1, 2 and 3 show cross-sectional images of the XFDTD computational model.



**Figure 1: Car passenger model exposed to a quarter wave antenna operating at 450 MHz
Lateral view including a time snapshot of the H-field distribution.**

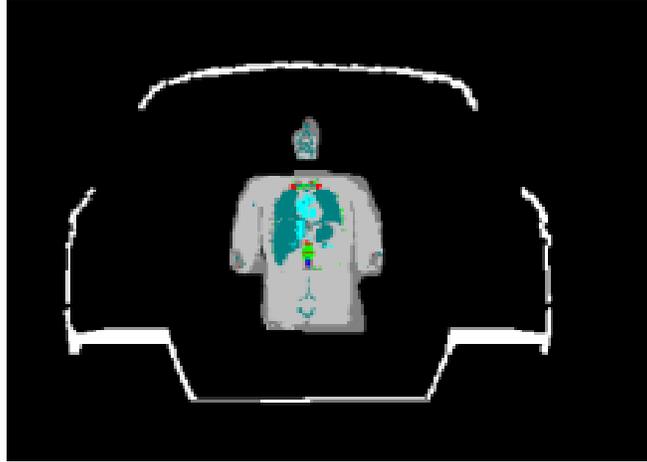


Figure 2: Car passenger model exposed to a quarter wave antenna. Front view.



Figure 3: Car passenger model exposed to a quarter wave antenna. Top view.

The computational code employs a time-harmonic excitation to produce a steady state electromagnetic field in the exposed body. Subsequently, the corresponding SAR distribution is automatically processed in order to determine the whole-body and 1-g average SAR. The product maximum output power is 54 W *rms*. Since the ohmic losses in the cable and in the car materials, as well as the mismatch losses at the antenna feed-point, are neglected, and source-based time averaging (50% talk time) is employed, all computational results are to be normalized to half of it, i.e., 27 W *rms* net output power.

Results of SAR computations for car passengers

The test conditions requiring SAR computations are reported in Table I, together with the antenna data and the SAR results. The passenger model is located in the center of the rear seat, where the maximum equivalent power density was measured. The transmit frequency, antenna length, and passenger location combinations reported in Table I have been simulated. The maximum peak 1-g SAR is 0.201 W/kg, while the maximum whole-body average SAR is 0.011 W/kg. The 1-g averaged SAR distributions in the cut-plane where this peak 1-g SAR occurs in the passenger model located at the center of the rear seat at 450 MHz and 460 MHz are reported in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5.

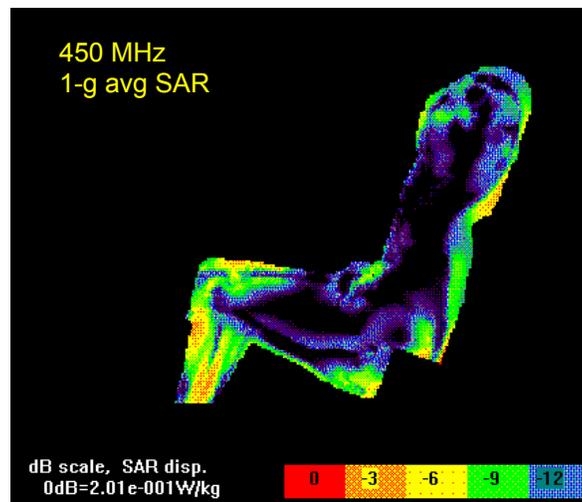


Figure 4: SAR distribution in the passenger model placed in the center of the rear seat, with a trunk-mount HAE6015A antenna operating at 450 MHz.

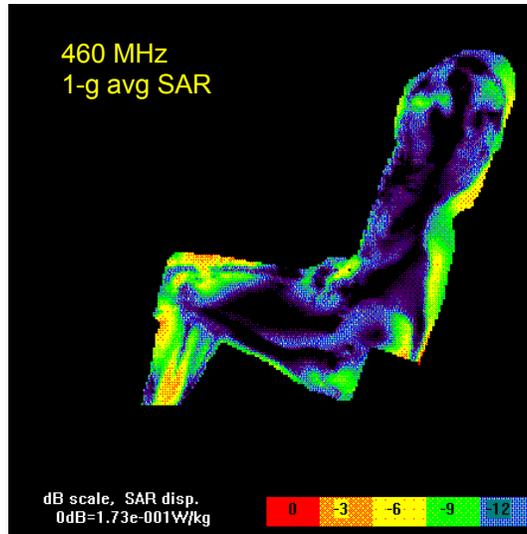


Figure 5: SAR distribution in the passenger model placed in the center of the rear seat, with a trunk-mounted HAE4003A antenna operating at 460 MHz.

Table I: Results of SAR computation for passenger in the back seat exposed (50% talk-time) from a trunk-mounted antenna.

Freq	Antenna		Passenger SAR	
MHz	Kit #	Act/Sim Length	1-g SAR	WB-SAR
450	HAE4003A	16 cm	0.166 W/kg	0.009 W/kg
460	HAE4003A	16 cm	0.173 W/kg	0.010 W/kg
450	HAE6015A	26 cm	0.201 W/kg	0.011 W/kg

Conclusions

Under the test conditions described for evaluating passenger exposure to the RF electromagnetic fields emitted by vehicle-mounted antennas used in conjunction with this mobile radio product, the present analysis shows that the computed SAR values are compliant with the FCC exposure limits for the general public.

References

- [1] IEEE Standard C95.1-1999. *IEEE Standard for Safety Levels with Respect to Human Exposure to RF Electromagnetic Fields*, 3 kHz to 300 GHz.
- [2] http://www.nlm.nih.gov/research/visible/visible_human.html

APPENDIX: SPECIFIC INFORMATION FOR SAR COMPUTATIONS

This appendix follows the structure outlined in Appendix B.III of the Supplement C to the FCC OET Bulletin 65. Most of the information regarding the code employed to perform the numerical computations has been adapted from the XFDTD™ v5.3 User Manual. Remcom Inc., owner of XFDTD™, is kindly acknowledged for the help provided.

1) Computational resources

- a) A four-processor server (Mod. PowerEdge 6650, by Dell Computers Inc.) equipped with four 1.4 GHz Xeon microprocessors and 4 GB D-RAM (3 GB available for running applications) was employed for all simulations.
- b) The memory requirement was between 2 GB and 3 GB in all cases. Using the above-mentioned server with all four processors operating concurrently, the typical simulation would run for 8 hours.

2) FDTD algorithm implementation and validation

a) We employed a commercial code (XFDTD™ v5.3, by Remcom Inc.) that implements the classical Yee's FDTD formulation [1]. The solution domain was discretized according to a rectangular grid with a uniform 5 mm step in all directions. Sub-gridding was not used. Liao's absorbing boundary conditions [2] are set at the domain boundary to simulate free space radiation processes. The excitation is a lumped voltage generator with 50-ohm source impedance. The code allows selecting *wire objects* without specifying their radius. We used a wire to represent the antenna. The car body is modeled by solid metal. We did not employ the "thin wire" algorithm in XFDTD™ since the antenna radius was never smaller than one-fifth the voxel dimension. In fact, the XFDTD™ manual specifies that

"Thin Wire materials may be used in special situations where a wire with a radius much smaller than the cell size is required... However, in cases where the wire radius is important to the calculation and is less than approximately 1/5 the cell size, the thin wire material may be used to accurately simulate the correct wire dimensions."

The voxel size in all our simulations was 5 mm, and the antenna radius is always at least 1 mm (1 mm for the short quarter-wave antennas), so there was no need to specify a "thin wire" material. Because the field impinges on the passenger model at a distance of several tens of voxels from the antenna, the details of antenna wire modeling are not expected to have significant impact on the exposure level. Pictures of the HAE6015A and HAE4003A antennas are presented below.



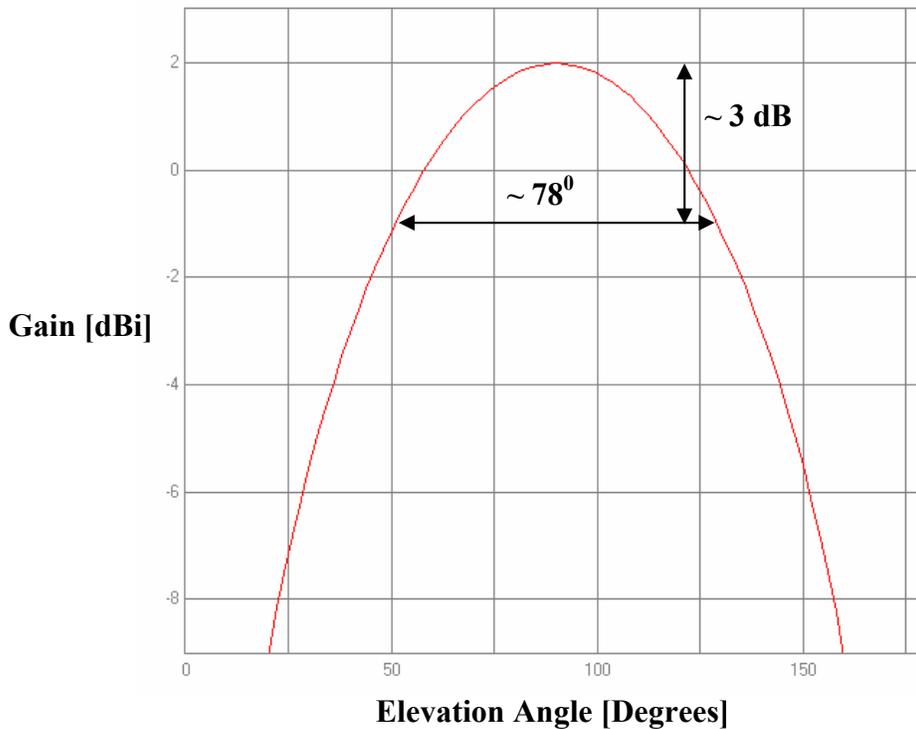
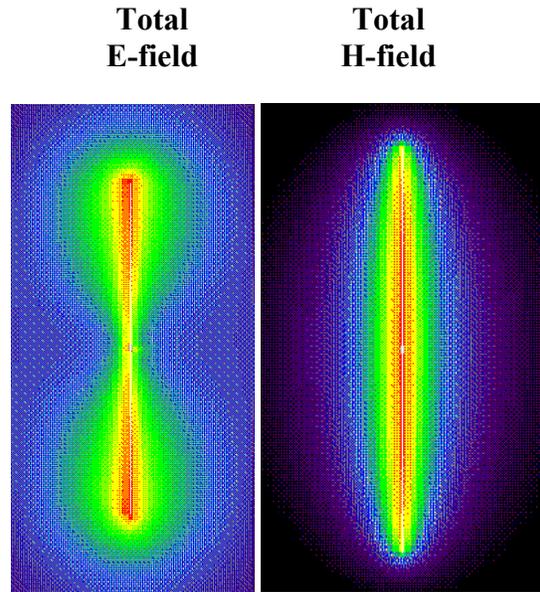
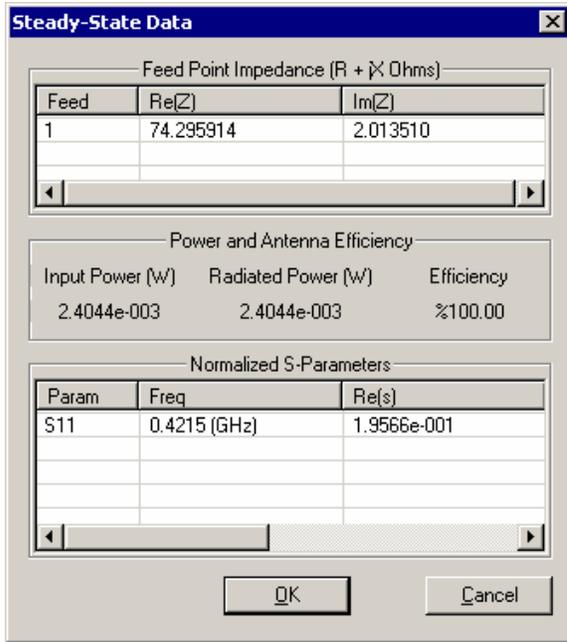
HAE4003A



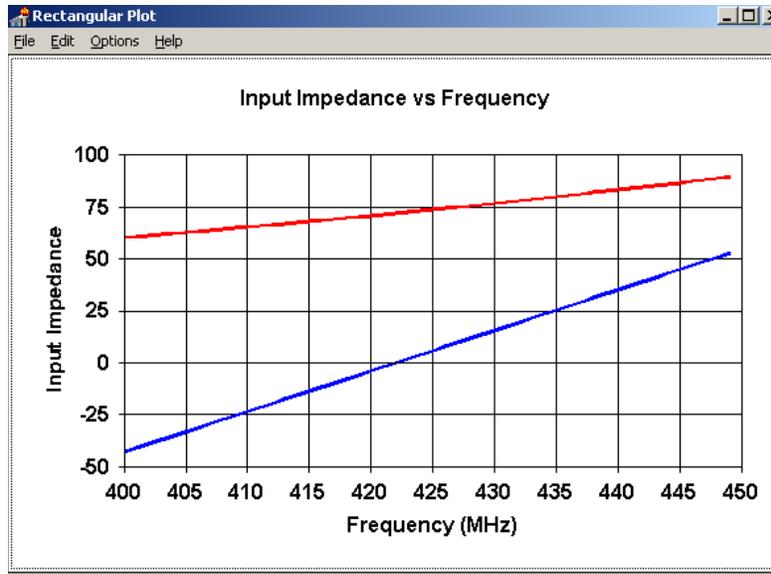
HAE6015A

b) XFDTD™ is one of the most successful commercial codes for electromagnetic simulations. It has gone through extensive validation and has proven its accuracy over time in many different applications. One example is provided in [3].

We carried out a validation of the code algorithm by running the canonical test case involving a half-wave wire dipole. The dipole is 0.47 times the free space wavelength at 421.5 MHz, i.e., 33.5 cm long. The discretization used in the model was uniform in all directions and equal to 5 mm, so the dipole was 67 cells long. Also in this case, the “thin wire” model was not needed. The following picture shows XFDTD™ outputs regarding the antenna feed-point impedance ($74.3 + j 2.0$ ohm), as well as qualitative distributions of the total E and H fields near the dipole. The radiation pattern is shown as well (one lobe in elevation). As expected, the 3 dB beamwidth is about 78 degrees.



We also compared the XFDTD™ result with the results derived from NEC [4], which is a code based on the method of moments. In this case, we used a dipole with radius 1 mm, length 33.5 cm, and the discretization is 5 mm. The corresponding input impedance at 421.5 MHz is 71.7-j1.0 ohm. Its frequency dependence is reported in the following figure.



This validation ensures that the input impedance calculation is carried out correctly in XFDTD™, thereby enabling accurate estimates of the radiated power. It further ensures that the wire model employed in XFDTD™, which we used to model the antennas, produces physically meaningful current and fields distributions. Both these aspects ensure that the field quantities are correctly computed both in terms of absolute amplitude and relative distribution.

3) Computational parameters

a) The following table reports the main parameters of the FDTD model employed to perform our computational analysis:

PARAMETER	X	Y	Z
Voxel size	5 mm	5 mm	5 mm
Domain size for passenger computations (in voxels)	398	727	281
Time step	Exactly equal to Courant limit (typically 10 ps at this frequency, with the body model)		
Objects separation from FDTD boundary (voxels)	>10	>10	>10
Number of time steps	4000 in all simulations		
Excitation	Sinusoidal (approx. 18 periods)		

b) In order to fit the model within a grid size that would not use up the available memory, we chopped the hood of the car.

4) Phantom model implementation and validation

a) The FDTD mesh of a male human body was created using digitized data in the form of transverse color images. The data is from the *visible human project* sponsored by the

National Library of Medicine (NLM) and is available via the Internet (http://www.nlm.nih.gov/research/visible/visible_human.html). The male data set consists of MRI, CT and anatomical images. Axial MRI images of the head and neck and longitudinal sections of the rest of the body are available at 4 mm intervals. The MRI images have 256 pixel by 256 pixel resolution. Each pixel has 12 bits of gray tone resolution. The CT data consists of axial CT scans of the entire body taken at 1 mm intervals at a resolution of 512 pixels by 512 pixels where each pixel is made up of 12 bits of gray tone. The axial anatomical images are 2048 pixels by 1216 pixels where each pixel is defined by 24 bits of color. The anatomical cross sections are also at 1 mm intervals and coincide with the CT axial images. There are 1871 cross sections. The XFDTD™ High Fidelity Body Mesh uses 5x5x5 mm cells and has dimensions 136 x 87 x 397. Dr. Michael Smith and Dr. Chris Collins of the Milton S. Hershey Medical Center, Hershey, Pa, created the High Fidelity Body mesh. Details of body model creation are given in the *methods* section in [5]. The body mesh contains 23 tissues materials. Measured values for the tissue parameters for a broad frequency range are included with the mesh data. The correct values are interpolated from the table of measured data and entered into the appropriate mesh variables. The tissue conductivity and permittivity variation vs. frequency is included in the XFDTD™ calculation by a multiple-pole approximation to the Cole-Cole approximated tissue parameters reported by Camelia Gabriel, Ph.D., and Sami Gabriel, M. Sc. (<http://www.brooks.af.mil/AFRL/HED/hedr/reports/dielectric/home.html>).

One example of the accuracy of XFDTD™ for computing SAR has been provided in [6]. The study reported in [6] is relative to a large-scale benchmark of measurement and computational tools carried out within the IEEE Standards Coordinating Committee 34, Sub-Committee 2.

5) Tissue dielectric parameters

a) The following table reports the dielectric properties used by XFDTD™ for the 23 body tissue materials in the High Fidelity Body Mesh at 450 MHz.

#	Tissue	ϵ_r	σ (S/m)	Density (kg/m ³)
1	skin	41.5	0.57	1125
2	tendon, pancreas, prostate, aorta, liver, other	50.3	0.76	1151
3	fat, yellow marrow	5.02	0.05	943
4	cortical bone	13.4	0.11	1850
5	cancellous bone	21.0	0.23	1080
6	blood	57.2	1.72	1057
7	muscle, heart, spleen, colon, tongue	63.5	0.99	1059
8	gray matter, cerebellum	54.1	0.88	1035.5
9	white matter	39.7	0.54	1027.4
10	CSF	68.9	2.32	1000
11	sclera/cornea	54.4	1.04	1151

12	vitreous humor	68.3	1.56	1000
13	bladder	17.6	0.31	1132
14	nerve	35.5	0.50	1112
15	cartilage	43.4	0.66	1171
16	gall bladder bile	76.5	1.62	928
17	thyroid	59.8	0.82	1035.5
18	stomach/esophagus	74.4	1.13	1126
19	lung	52.8	0.72	563
20	kidney	57.0	1.16	1147
21	testis	65.2	1.13	1158
22	lens	51.9	0.71	1163
23	small intestine	73.7	2.07	1153

b) The tissue types and dielectric parameters used in the SAR computation are appropriate for determining the exposure expected for normal device operation, because they are derived from measurements performed on real biological tissues (<http://www.brooks.af.mil/AFRL/HED/hedr/reports/dielectric/home.html>).

c) The tabulated list of the dielectric parameters used in phantom models is provided at point 5(a). The car model is constituted by perfect electric conductor. The passenger model is surrounded by air, as the seat, which is made out of poorly conductive fabrics, is not included in the computational model.

6) Transmitter model implementation and validation

a) The essential features that must be modeled correctly for the particular test device model to be valid are:

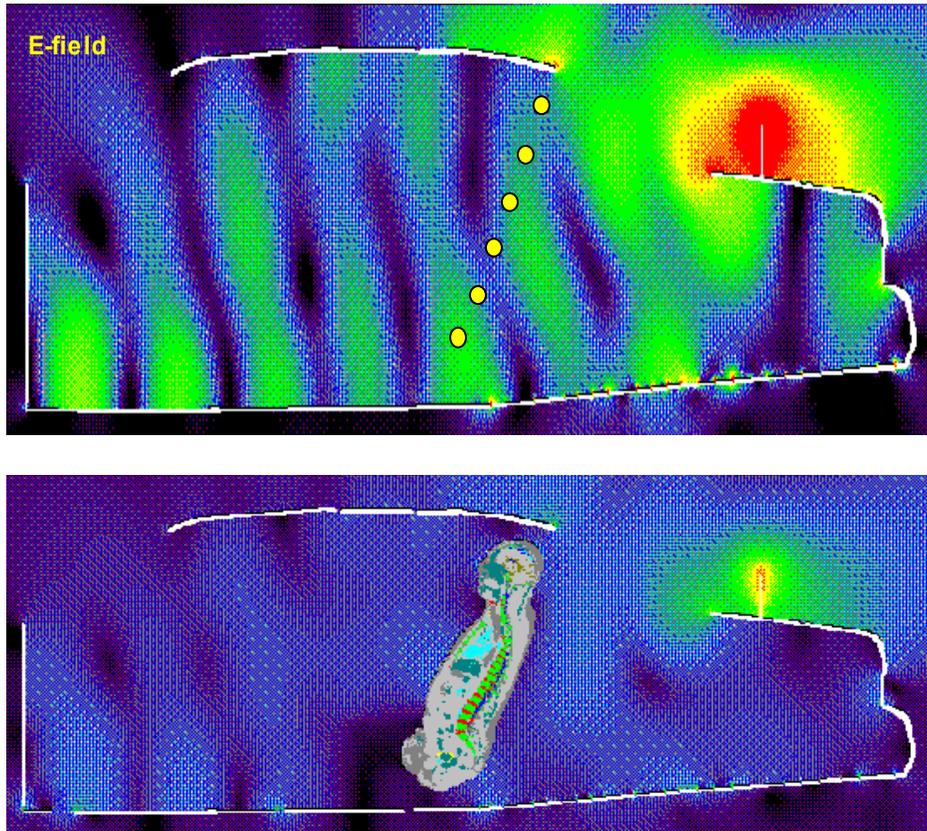
- Car body. We developed one very similar to the car used for MPE measurements, so as to be able to correlate measured and simulated field values. The model was imported in XFDTD™ from a CAD model that is commercially available at <http://www.3dcadbrowser.com/>
- Antenna. We used a straight wire in all cases.
- Antenna location. We used the same location used in the MPE measurements.

The car model does not include wheels in order to reduce its complexity. The pavement has not been included in the model. The passenger model was validated for similar antenna and frequency conditions by comparing the MPE measurements at one UHF frequency (421.5 MHz). The results are presented below, following definitions for the equivalent power densities (based on E, H, or B-field).

$$S_E = \frac{|\mathbf{E}|^2}{2\eta}, \quad S_H = \frac{\eta}{2} |\mathbf{H}|^2 = \frac{\eta}{2\mu_0^2} |\mathbf{B}|^2, \quad \eta = 377 \Omega, \mu_0 = 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7} H / m$$

Passenger with 17.5 cm monopole antenna (HAE4002A 421.5 MHz)

The following figure of the test model shows the car model, where the yellow dots individuate the back seat, as it can be observed from the other figure showing the cross section of the passenger. The comparison has been performed by taking the average of the computed steady-state field values at the six dotted locations, corresponding to the head, chest, and legs along the yellow dots line, and comparing them with the average of the MPE measurements performed at the head, chest and legs locations. Such a comparison is carried out at the same rms power level (22 W, including the 50% duty factor) used in the MPE measurements.



The equivalent power density (S) is computed from the E-field and the H-field separately. The following table reports the E-field values computed by XFDTD™ at the six locations, and the corresponding power density.

Location Number	E-field, V/m	Eq. Power Density 1.0 V source	Scaled Power Dens. 22 W output, mW/cm ²
1	5.83E-01	4.51E-04	4.41E-01

2	6.31E-01	5.28E-04	5.16E-01
3	6.50E-01	5.60E-04	5.48E-01
4	5.50E-01	4.01E-04	3.92E-01
5	4.50E-01	2.69E-04	2.63E-01
6	7.80E-01	8.07E-04	7.89E-01
Equivalent average Power Density			4.92E-01

Location Number	B-field, Weber/m2	Eq. Power Density 1.0 V source	Scaled Power Dens. 22 W output, mW/cm ²
1	2.26E-09	0.00061	5.96E-01
2	9.00E-10	0.00010	9.45E-02
3	1.20E-09	0.00017	1.68E-01
4	2.20E-09	0.00058	5.65E-01
5	1.90E-09	0.00043	4.21E-01
6	9.00E-10	0.00010	9.45E-02
Equivalent average Power Density			3.23E-01

The input impedance is $36.2+j24.8$ ohm, therefore the radiated power (considering the mismatch to the 50 ohm unitary voltage source) is $2.25E-3$ W, therefore a factor equal to 9779 is required to scale up to 22 W radiated. The corresponding scaled-up power densities are reported in the tables above, which show that the simulation overestimates the average power density from the MPE measurements (0.289 mW/cm²).

The simulations tend to overestimate the average power density levels, which is understandable since there are no ohmic losses and perfect impedance matching is enforced in the computational models. Based on these results, we conclude that the simulation will produce slight exposure overestimates (about 12%).

b) Descriptions and illustrations showing the correspondence between the modeled test device and the actual device, with respect to shape, size, dimensions and near-field radiating characteristics, are found in the main report.

c) Verification that the test device model is equivalent to the actual device for predicting the SAR distributions descends from the fact that the car and antenna size and location in the numerical model correspond to those used in the measurements.

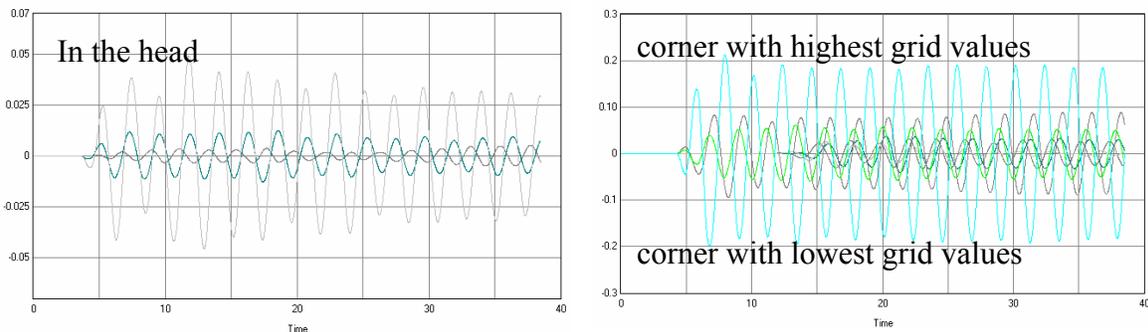
d) The peak SAR is in the neck region for the passenger, which is in line with MPE measurements and predictions.

7) Test device positioning

- a) A description of the device test positions used in the SAR computations is provided in the SAR report.
- b) Illustrations showing the separation distances between the test device and the phantom for the tested configurations are provided in the SAR report.

8) Steady state termination procedures

a) The criteria used to determine that sinusoidal steady-state conditions have been reached throughout the computational domain for terminating the computations are based on the monitoring of field points to make sure they converge. We placed the “field sensor” between the car and the domain boundary at different locations, and one inside the head of the model. We used isotropic E and H field “sensors”, meaning that all three components of the fields are monitored at these points. The following figures show an example of the time waveforms at the field point sensors in the head and in two opposite points in the computational domain. In the latter case, we selected points near the lowest and highest grid index points. They are shown together in the figure. The highest field levels are observed for the higher index point, as it is closer to the antenna. In all cases, the field reaches the steady-state after a few cycles.



- b) 4000 time steps were used, with a time step approximately equal to 10 ps (meeting the Courant criterion), which corresponds to approximately 18 wave cycles at 450 MHz.
- c) The XFDTD™ algorithm determines the field phasors by using the so-called “two-equations two-unknowns” method. Details of the algorithm are explained in [7].

9) Computing peak SAR from field components

- a) The twelve E-field phasors at the edges of each Yee voxel are combined to yield the SAR associated to that voxel. In particular, the average is performed on the SAR values

computed at the 12 edges of each voxel. Notice that in XFDTD™ the dielectric tissue properties are assigned to the voxel edges, thereby allowing said averaging procedure.

b) The IEEE Standards Coordinating Committee 34, Sub-Committee 2 draft standard P1529 (June 2000) discusses several algorithms for volumetric SAR averaging. It states that “It is observed that while the 12 components algorithm is the most appropriate from the mathematical point of view, the differences in 1g SAR calculated with either the 12 or 6 component methods are negligible for practical mesh resolutions (below 5mm). On the other hand, it is shown that the 3 components approach may lead to significant errors.” XFDTD™ employs the 12-component method, which is the one recommended in the draft standard, thus providing the best achievable accuracy.

10) One-gram averaged SAR procedures

a) XFDTD™ computes the Specific Absorption Rate (SAR) in each complete cell containing lossy dielectric material and with a non-zero material density. To be considered a complete cell, the twelve cell edges must belong to lossy dielectric materials. The averaging calculation uses an interpolation scheme for finding the averages. Cubical spaces centered on a cell are formed and the mass and average SAR of the sample cubes are found. The size of the sample cubes increases until the total mass of the enclosed exceeds either 1 or 10 grams. The mass and average SAR value of each cube is saved and used to interpolate the average SAR values at either 1 or 10 grams. The interpolation is performed using two methods (polynomial fit and rational function fit) and the one with the lowest error is chosen. The sample cube must meet some conditions to be considered valid. The cube may contain some non-tissue cells, but some checks are performed on the distribution of the non-tissue cells. A valid cube will not contain an entire side or corner of non-tissue cells.

b) The sample cube increases in odd-numbered steps (1x1x1, 3x3x3, 5x5x5, etc) to remain centered on the desired cell. Since the visible human model employed herein has 5 mm resolution, the one-gram SAR is computed by averaging first over 1x1x1 voxels, corresponding to 0.125 cm³ (not enough yet), and then over a 3x3x3 voxel cube, corresponding to about 3.4 cm³, which is enough to include 1-g, and finally over a 5x5x5 voxel cube, corresponding to about 15.6 cm³, which includes 10-g. The 1-g average SAR is computed by interpolating these three data points. This procedure is repeated in the surroundings of each voxel that is constituted by lossy materials, so as to determine the 1-g and/or 10-g SAR distributions.

c) As mentioned at points 10(a) and 10(b), the 1- gram average SAR is determined by interpolating the average SAR for the 1x1x1, 3x3x3, and the 5x5x5 data points, corresponding to 0.125 cm³, 3.4 cm³, and 15.6 cm³, respectively. Because the interpolation is carried out across three data points, the error introduced should be negligible because the interpolating curve crosses exactly the data points.

11) Total computational uncertainty – We derived an estimate for the uncertainty of FDTD methods in evaluating SAR by referring to [6]. In Fig. 7 in [6] it is shown that the

deviation between SAR estimates using the XFDTD™ code and those measured with a compliance system are typically within 10% when the probe is away from the phantom surface so that boundary effects are negligible. In that example, the simulated SAR always exceeds the measured SAR.

As discussed in 6(a), a conservative bias has been introduced in the model so as to reduce concerns regarding the computational uncertainty related to the car modeling, antenna modeling, and phantom modeling. The results of the comparison between measurements and simulations presented in 6(a) suggest that the present model produces an overestimate of the exposure. Such a conservative bias should eliminate the need for including uncertainty considerations in the SAR assessment.

12) Test results for determining SAR compliance

a) Illustrations showing the SAR distribution of dominant peak locations produced by the test transmitter, with respect to the phantom and test device, are provided in the SAR report.

b) The input impedance and the total power radiated under the impedance match conditions that occur at the test frequency are provided by XFDTD™. XFDTD™ computes the input impedance by following the method outlined in [8], which consists in performing the integration of the steady-state magnetic field around the feed point edge to compute the steady-state feed point current (I), which is then used to divide the feed-gap steady-state voltage (V). The net *rms* radiated power is computed as

$$P_{XFDTD} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Re} \{VI^*\}$$

Both the input impedance and the net rms radiated power are provided by XFDTD™ at the end of each individual simulation.

We normalize the SAR to such a power, thereby obtaining SAR per radiated Watt (*normalized SAR*) values for the whole body and the 1-g SAR. Finally, we multiply such normalized SAR values times the max power rating of the device under test. In this way, we obtain the exposure metrics for 100% talk-time, i.e., without applying source-based time averaging.

c) For mobile radios, 50% source-based time averaging is applied by multiplying the SAR values determined at point 12(b) times a 0.5 factor.

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