

**Communications  
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**MICROWAVE RADIOMETRY FOR SURVEILLANCE  
FROM SPACECRAFT AND AIRCRAFT**

by  
**A.W. Adey**

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATIONS  
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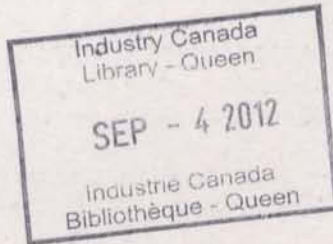
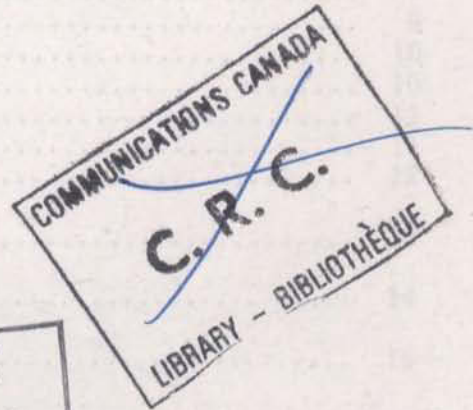
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# M I C R O W A V E   R A D I O M E T R Y   F O R   S U R V E I L L A N C E F R O M   S P A C E C R A F T   A N D   A I R C R A F T

by

A.W. Adey

## ABSTRACT

The report reviews the status of current air-borne and satellite remote-sensing programmes based on microwave radiometers. It provides details of instrumentation capabilities and limitations and outlines some research areas and problems where these devices appear to have application.

A bibliography is included.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The primary aim of this report is to draw the microwave radiometer, in the role of a remote-sensing device, to the attention of those concerned with surveys of the earth and near-earth environment. The method adopted has been to identify a number of major application areas and to provide information on some primary sources of published literature. While the review should not be considered to be exhaustive in depth or scope of coverage, it should still comprise a very useful statement of the status of an important and rapidly-developing area of remote-sensing activity and should serve as a broad basis for any planned more-comprehensive and detailed study.

Radiometers operating in the microwave region of the frequency spectrum possess a number of inherent advantages as remote-sensing devices. They can function during periods of darkness and, if the frequencies are chosen appropriately, can operate through meteorological obscurants and precipitation such as fog, snow and rain, and can be used to study the sub-surface properties of structures and terrain.

Angular resolution is inferior to that normally obtained in the case of sensors operating in the visible and IR parts of the frequency spectrum because of limitations in terms of the maximum practical antenna dimensions at the longer wavelengths.

This report first presents a short discussion of some basic principles of radiometry. A number of general radiometer design factors based on those principles then follow. The report continues with a review of the status of current airborne and satellite remote-sensing programmes based on microwave radiometers. It provides details of instrumentation capabilities and limitations and outlines some research areas and problems where these devices appear to have application.

The final section comprises a bibliography. In the choice of the references the emphasis has been on details of programmes, applications, operational factors and results, rather than on specific hardware.

## 2. GENERAL RADIOMETRY PRINCIPLES\*

All matter radiates electromagnetic energy. The microwave radiometer combines a sensitive receiver and a directive antenna designed to accept that energy contained in a certain range of frequencies and from a specific set of directions as determined by the characteristics of the antenna. By Kirchoff's law a body in thermal equilibrium emits or radiates energy at the same rate as that at which it absorbs energy. A 'black' body, or one which is perfectly absorbing (i.e. all the energy incident on it is absorbed) radiates as a function of frequency in accordance with the following relation -

$$P_{\lambda} = \frac{c\psi_{\lambda}\Delta\lambda}{4\pi} \quad \dots(1)$$

where  $P_{\lambda}$  is the power (in watts) emitted, in the wavelength range  $\Delta\lambda$  meters about the wavelength  $\lambda$ , per steradian per square meter of surface area;  $c$  is the velocity of light in meters per second and  $\psi_{\lambda}$  expresses Planck's radiation law -

$$\psi_{\lambda} = \frac{8\pi ch}{\lambda^5 [\exp(ch/\lambda kT) - 1]} \quad \dots(2)$$

where  $k$  is Boltzmann's Constant,  $h$  is Planck's Constant and  $T$  is the temperature of the body in °K.

The curve of radiation intensity vs. wavelength for any temperature has a maximum at a wavelength  $\lambda_m$  given by the Wien relation -

$$\lambda_m T = 0.00294 \text{ meter degrees} \quad \dots(3)$$

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\* The references listed on p. 14 are especially useful in providing background to this section.

For the relatively-long wavelengths exploited in microwave radiometry, and except when extremely-low temperatures are involved,

$$\frac{ch}{\lambda k} \ll T$$

An approximation of the series expansion of the right side of (2) is then given by the Rayleigh-Jeans equation -

$$\psi_{\lambda} = \frac{8\pi kT}{\lambda^4} \quad \dots\dots(4)$$

Then (1) becomes -

$$P_{\lambda} = \frac{2 kT c \Delta\lambda}{\lambda^4} \quad \dots\dots(5)$$

By use of the standard relations for the effective area and the power gain ( $G(\theta, \phi)$ ) of an antenna, (5) can be transformed to give -

$$P = \frac{kt \Delta f}{4\pi} \int_{\Omega} G(\theta, \phi) d\Omega \quad \dots\dots(6)$$

for the power in watts (in the frequency interval  $\Delta f$ ) received by an antenna, from a source at temperature  $T$  and subtending an angle  $\Omega$  at the antenna. This is seen to be independent of frequency except for the frequency - dependence of  $G$ .

Three special cases of the general situation covered by (6) can be recognized -

- (a) If the source is much smaller than the main beam of the antenna, so that the gain is essentially constant over the solid angle  $\Omega$ , equation (6) reduces to -

$$P = kT \Delta f G\Omega \quad \dots\dots(7)$$

- (b) If the source completely encloses the antenna, (6) becomes -

$$P = kT \Delta f \quad \dots\dots(8)$$

When the antenna has high gain, so that the beam is confined almost entirely to a small solid angle about the forward direction, (8) holds as long as the angle subtended at the antenna by the source is two or three times that of the main beam.

- (c) When the angle subtended by the source is comparable to that of the beam, the antenna is less efficient than in (8), and (6) becomes -

$$P = E kT \Delta f \quad \dots\dots(9)$$

where E is of the order of 0.5 for a tapered-feed paraboloid antenna. It is seen that the received energy is independent of the gain of the antenna for the cases given by (b) and (c).

Thus far we have considered only "black" bodies. Most bodies are not perfect absorbers, and for them the right-hand side of all the above relations must be multiplied by the factor  $\eta$ , an overall emission factor, which is a function of not only the material of the body but also the boundary geometry, and is always less than unity.

If energy is incident on a body, then by the principle of the conservation of energy the material emissivity,  $e$ , is given by -

$$e = P_{\alpha} = 1 - P_r - P_t \quad \dots\dots(10)$$

where  $P_{\alpha}$  = the fraction of energy absorbed (absorption coefficient)

$P_r$  = the fraction of energy reflected (reflection coefficient)

$P_t$  = the fraction of energy transmitted (transmission coefficient).

The absorbing (and emitting) properties of a medium are a volume, or bulk, phenomenon, while the reflection from the medium depends on both the bulk properties and the state of the surface. For a diffuse medium such as the atmosphere (or one for which there is impedance matching at the boundary),  $P_r = 0$ , and -

$$P_{\alpha} = 1 - P_t \quad \dots\dots(11)$$

For such a medium, with an attenuation constant  $\alpha$  and a thickness  $\ell$ ,

$$P_{\alpha} = 1 - e^{-2\alpha\ell} \quad \dots\dots(12)$$

Similarly, for a semi-infinite medium such as the earth, for which all the incident power is either reflected or absorbed,  $P_t = 0$ , and

$$P_{\alpha} = 1 - P_r \quad \dots\dots (13)$$

From the relations (8) and (10) - (13) we can now determine the energy received in the bandwidth  $\Delta f$  from a source that fills the antenna pattern, when an absorbing medium that also fills the antenna pattern lies between the source and the antenna.

If the absorption coefficient and temperature of the source are  $P_{\alpha 1}$  and  $T_1$  and of the absorbing medium are  $P_{\alpha 2}$  and  $T_2$ , the energy emitted by the



source into the acceptance angle of the main beam of the antenna is -

$$P_1 = k P_{\alpha 1} T_1 \Delta f \quad \dots\dots(14)$$

where  $k$  is Boltzmann's Constant. After passage of the wave through the absorbing medium (e.g. the atmosphere, so that  $P_r = 0$ ),

$$P_1 = k P_{\alpha 1} (1 - P_{\alpha 2}) T_1 \Delta f \quad \dots\dots(14b)$$

The absorbing medium itself radiates (into the same solid angle as that appropriate to (14)) the energy -

$$P_2 = k P_{\alpha 2} T_2 \Delta f \quad \dots\dots(15)$$

The total energy received by the antenna is thus given by -

$$P_R = P_1 + P_2 = k \Delta f [P_{\alpha 1} (1 - P_{\alpha 2}) T_1 + P_{\alpha 2} T_2] \quad \dots\dots(16)$$

Corrections have to be made if the absorbing medium has reflecting surfaces or if either the source or the absorbing medium does not fill the antenna pattern.

The discussion on which Equations (10) - (16) are based can be used to determine the effect of other lossy instrumentation components, such as transmission lines, attenuators, etc.

For convenience, it is customary to express the received power in units of temperature and to designate it as the antenna temperature. Thus in equation (8) the temperature would be -

$$T_B = T = \frac{P}{k \Delta f} \quad \dots\dots(17)$$

for a 'black' body, and -

$$T_B = \eta T = \frac{P}{k \Delta f} \quad \dots\dots(18)$$

for a "non-black", or "grey" body.  $T_B$  is the brightness temperature, or antenna temperature. It is the temperature that a "black" body would have in order to radiate the same power as the "grey" body.

In practice, an antenna will have side and back lobes, and one must therefore be prepared to correct experimental data for known spurious background radiation, such as certain types of sky noise, and to accept possible intermittent interference.

Interfering or spurious background noise is made up of five factors. These are as follows -

- (1) A nominally steady background of galactic noise with a dependence on direction and with a spectrum that decreases in intensity with frequency. The levels at 200 MHz and 1500 MHz are approximately  $100^{\circ}\text{K}$  and  $10^{\circ}\text{K}$  respectively.
- (2) Noise from discrete sources, such as the sun and radio stars. The noise can be thermal or non-thermal and, particularly in the case of the sun, the level can vary with time.
- (3) Noise due to atmospheric components such as rain, snow, water vapour and oxygen.
- (4) Ionospheric noise, including the aurora.
- (5) Manmade interference which is seldom predictable and can vary over wide ranges in level and frequency. It is often of paramount importance in choosing a measuring site.

### 3. RADIOMETER DESIGN FACTORS

Microwave radiometers possess certain inherent advantages in surveillance. These include (a) enhanced ability (over devices operating in the visible and IR parts of the frequency spectrum) to operate through meteorological obscuring agents such as clouds, fog, snow and rain, (b) operation through darkness, (c) capability of providing information on sub-surface characteristics, (d) passive operation and (e) lower power consumption (no transmitter required). The emission factor of terrain and other targets is generally dependent on frequency, angle of incidence, polarization and surface geometry and structure, providing the designer and operator with additional degrees of freedom for the detection of, and discrimination among, various targets, and in the interpretation of data. However, certain of these advantages can be exploited only by careful selection of frequencies. In the same manner, ambiguities in the interpretation of data can be eliminated or minimized. In general, frequencies should be as low in the microwave range as possible to minimize absorption and scattering by the atmospheric components. It is also necessary to avoid the resonance frequencies of water vapour and oxygen (i.e. 22 and 60 GHz respectively), unless one is specifically attempting to measure or identify these components. For lower frequencies, limitations are imposed by the large antennas required for adequate angular resolution and by the increased levels of galactic noise. One chooses frequencies, whenever possible, in the radio astronomy bands, where interference from extraneous operations is likely to be a minimum.

Two further factors involved in the choice of frequencies when designing a radiometer for a particular application should be stressed. First, if one wishes to interpret radiometric data in terms of the sub-surface properties of a medium, the electric and magnetic properties of the medium must be considered when the frequencies are being chosen. The reason for this is that the received radiation will, in most cases, contain information about

the sub-surface regions only if the radiation from those regions can penetrate to the surface with sufficiently low attenuation to be detected by the radiometer. The correct choice of frequencies implies that the electro-magnetic properties of the medium, particularly of the absorption coefficient, are adequately known. Secondly, determination of a particular property or characteristic of a terrain or body is enhanced if data on a number of appropriately-spaced frequencies are available. This is particularly true if there are other properties which influence the radiation but whose values are known only approximately.

The design of the antenna involves a number of factors that are important in both the gathering and the interpretation of radiometric data. The design must always represent a compromise between the weight and volume constraints imposed by the vehicle carrying the antenna and the requirements for sufficient gain to provide the necessary angular resolution. The level of the side and back lobes must be made as low as practicable to reduce the power received from extraneous sources such as the sun. In some cases measurements may have to be corrected for interference from these extraneous sources.

Even with the antenna pointed vertically downward there will be some reception at oblique angles. The magnitude of this extraneous power will depend on the beamwidth and the polarization of the antenna, the variation of the transmission coefficient of the material-air interface with angle of incidence and polarization and the propagation properties of the terrain material itself.

As examples of frequency considerations, a moderate rain that would result in an attenuation of 5 - 10 db/km at 30 GHz would produce an attenuation of only 0.01 db/km at 3 GHz. For a heavy fog the corresponding losses might be 1 and 0.01 db/km respectively. Furthermore, both the depth in a given lossy material or structure from which emissions can be effectively monitored, and the antenna dimension required for a specified angular resolution, show an approximately inverse dependence on frequency.

A potentially-useful concept that warrants more-extensive investigation is that of integrating the radar and the radiometer into a single remote-sensing system. Each device has advantages that can complement the other. Thus, the radar can provide range information, while the radiometer can take advantage of the wide range of emission factors of terrestrial materials to aid in detection and identification. Applications include precipitation studies in meteorology and studies of targets against a water background, particularly under conditions of high sea state. Some specific possible applications are suggested in Section 6.

Radiometers are normally operated in the single-antenna and single-receiver mode. However, other configurations, such as interferometers and various forms of correlation radiometers, have proved to be powerful devices in the field of radio astronomy in studying the direction, extent and movement of radiating sources and of the existence, movement and the reflecting and scattering properties of bodies in the source-earth space. Related applications have been exploited in ionospheric physics. The potential of such special radiometer configurations should be examined, for possible application in surveillance and other terrain and atmospheric remote-sensing investigations.

#### 4. SATELLITE INSTRUMENTATION

The U.S. has not yet flown an unclassified spacecraft microwave radiometer for Earth studies, although a 2-channel set operating at 1.35 and 1.90 cms. was flown on Mariner II in a Venus flyby in the early 1960's. Extensive operations have, however, been conducted on the ground and from aircraft. The USSR started their satellite operations in November 1968, with a 4-channel system on Cosmos 243. The wavelengths are 0.8, 1.35, 3.4 and 8.5 cms. Sensitivities are 2 K° at 0.8 and 1.35 cms. and 0.7 k° at 3.4 and 8.5 cms. Antenna beamwidths are 9 degrees at 8.5 cms. and 3.5 degrees at the other wavelengths. The orbit is inclined at 71.3 degrees, with major and minor axes of 319 and 210 Km, respectively.

It is not planned to include a microwave radiometer in either the ERTS A or B satellites. They are both terrain-oriented. ERTS E and F, however, which are oceanographic-oriented and scheduled for the mid-70's, will employ mainly microwave and visible-optics instrumentation. An L-band radiometer is planned for the first SKYLAB, scheduled for the 1973-74 period. A 1.55 cm. scanning radiometer, which has been flown extensively for several years in an aircraft programme (primarily in an oceanographic role), is being considered for a NIMBUS installation. The prototype of a 5-channel microwave spectrometer, scheduled for installation in NIMBUS E, has been undergoing aircraft flight tests. It operates at frequencies of 22.2, 31.4, 53.7, 54.9 and 58.8 GHz and is designed to determine atmospheric temperature and water content.

#### 5. AIRCRAFT INSTRUMENTATION

Both the US and the USSR have had extensive programs using airborne and ground-based radiometers and, from the published results and from theoretical considerations, a fairly good understanding of the limitations and potential is becoming established.

The main US aircraft program is now based on a series of multi-frequency radiometers with wavelengths covering the range 0.31 - 21.2 cms. The NASA P3A and CONVAIR 990 are the main sensor aircraft. The projects are designed to gather basic ground (or near-ground) data and to test and evaluate equipment and techniques. Radiometer operation is being extended to still lower and higher frequencies. The lowest frequencies in current use are still too high to permit significant penetration of lossy materials such as sea ice. Polarization flexibility and scanning capability are incorporated in some of the current radiometers.

The USSR have reported research results from several comprehensive aircraft programs (including a 4-channel radiometer on 0.8, 1.35, 1.6 and 3.2 cms and another on 3, 10 and 30 cms). The aircraft is an Il-18 with measurement altitudes reported up to 30,000 ft. The former studies included determination of precipitation cells, thick cloud cover, water surface temperature - in the Baltic and Caspian Seas and in Lake Ladoga -, terrain material emissivities and the distribution of ice cover. The latter equipment was used mainly for lake and sea-ice studies, with thicknesses up to 2 meters. Sensitivities were in the range 1 - 2 K°.

## 6. ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES

This section will provide details of microwave radiometric studies of a number of important parameters of the environment. These illustrate the state of development, the limitations and the wide range of application of the technique and suggest both areas for further exploitation and those where operational and interpretation difficulties justify increased research and development effort.

Environmental parameters being studied include -

### 6.1 SEA STATE

One attempts to interpret the radiometer data in terms of sea state and then to infer wind speed. The measurement is based on the increase in brightness temperature with sea roughness or sea state (a temperature change of the order of  $1\text{ K}^\circ$  per knot change in wind speed). There are a number of complicating factors that require further clarification before data can be properly interpreted -

- (1) Clouds can cause a brightness temperature rise equivalent to that of a rough sea (e.g.,  $30 - 50\text{ K}^\circ$ ).
- (2) Foam and spray on rough seas can cause spurious rises in brightness temperature. The error due to a specific area of foam is determined by the angular resolution of the radiometer antenna.
- (3) The brightness temperature rise is sensitive to not only the sea state but also the spectra of the waves (i.e., to the fetch or to the presence of shoals, small islands, etc.).

When one is designing a radiometer experiment to determine sea state, there are some precautions to be taken, and phenomena that can be exploited. They include -

- (a) Frequencies should be chosen outside of those ranges where brightness temperature is sensitive to changes in ocean temperature and salinity (i.e., frequencies in the region of 5 GHz and 1 GHz are to be avoided).
- (b) Measurements should be made at as many frequencies as possible, and preferably at both orthogonal polarizations, to take advantage of the dispersive and polarization characteristics of the emitting medium as an aid in the interpretation of data.
- (c) Vertically polarized emissions are relatively insensitive to sea state changes for incidence angles near  $40^\circ$ .
- (d) Horizontally polarized emissions are sensitive to changes in sea state and incidence angle, but not to ocean temperature.
- (e) Foam and atmospheric losses are not polarization-sensitive.

## 6.2 OIL POLLUTION

Laboratory measurements have been made at wavelengths of 0.8 and 2.2 cms, on a variety of oil types. The shorter wavelength was more sensitive to the presence of a surface oil film. Films of the order of 0.1 mm thickness could be detected at a wavelength of 0.8 cm. Measurements were made at sea at 0.8 cm wavelength. The oil signature (the effect on the antenna temperature of the presence of the oil) appeared to intensify with higher sea states. Time of day and aging did not affect the oil-to-water contrast. All the types tested, except gasoline which is essentially transparent at these frequencies, gave a positive brightness temperature signature (an increase).

More experience is needed to assess the technique, particularly with regard to the effect of wavelength, sea roughness, aging and film thickness. A 0.3 cm radiometer for this application is under development in the USA, since the preliminary measurements suggest that still shorter wavelengths might be more appropriate.

## 6.3 SURFACE TEMPERATURE AND MAPPING

Microwaves have potential advantages for this role, not so much for determining the thermometric temperature, as for discriminating among surface materials on the basis of varying emission factors and sensitivities to polarization. In principle, ocean surface temperature can be determined if a proper choice of frequency is made, but variations in apparent temperature can be masked by a number of other effects, such as foam, clouds, sea roughness, etc.

Terrain materials vary widely in emission factor, and some discrimination and identification is possible from temperature anomalies, given sufficient background emission data. Grain size is a characteristic of materials that affects the brightness temperature and therefore could be used as a basis for discrimination among materials, such as, for example, sand and gravel, etc. Surface roughness is another relevant characteristic, somewhat related to graininess, with smoother surfaces (such as roads) appearing colder than rougher areas (grass fields, shrubbery, rough hillsides, etc.). The sensitivity of brightness temperature to both grain size and surface roughness is accentuated for the shorter wavelengths. Some interesting results, with good spatial resolution, have been obtained with a 3 mm. scanner for terrestrial targets such as cars, roads, etc. Good penetration of 900 feet of fog, which obscured the view in the visible and IR regions, was achieved.

The mapping of snow cover is an important potential application area that has received very little attention. The measured characteristics include the density, water content and graininess of the snow. Some analytical work has been done on the microwave emission from metallic structures covered by layers of snow, soils, etc., and some field data have been obtained, mainly from ground-based measurements.

Theoretical studies suggest that the radiation from ocean surfaces in the VHF-UHF bands should be sensitive to the water salinity and relatively insensitive to water temperature. There has been some experimental verification of the prediction from 1.4 GHz data. But the experiments should be extended to lower frequencies.

## 6.4 ICE MAPPING

This role is an attractive one for a microwave device, on an essentially day-night and all-weather basis. A sea ice-water boundary exhibits a significant emissivity change, such that a brightness temperature change of the order of 100 K° is expected at the boundary for a measurement at 15 GHz. A very thin sea-ice sheet (a few mm thick) shows this behaviour for the shorter wavelengths (approximately 1 - 2 cm). Such short wavelengths have very little potential for measuring the thickness of sea ice, although they are useful for the measurement of the thickness of relatively transparent, fresh-water ice. Operation at lower frequencies (of the order of 300 - 1000 MHz) is necessary if the thickness of sea ice is to be measured. For measurement of the thickness of either fresh-water or sea ice, the radiometer should have a multi-frequency capability.

The microwave radiometer has been used for some time in an aircraft installation as an iceberg-detecting device. The contrast between water and ice is expected to be better in the passive mode than in the radar mode, particularly for rough seas and smooth ice, and there is some evidence to support this. In addition, because of the wide difference between the emission factors of ice and metal structures, the radiometer should provide an effective capability of discriminating between icebergs and ships. But experience in this area is limited and the problem deserves further study.

This general problem of detecting, locating and identifying structures in a water-ice environment illustrates an area where a complementary radar-radiometer sensor should possess a special effectiveness. The radar provides range and direction measurement capability and the radiometer offers special potential detection and identification advantages.

Determination of the presence of melt water on the surface of permafrost, and of the fraction of ice in permafrost, are subjects of current interest and study. The former application of the microwave radiometer depends on the marked difference in emission factors of water and ice. The latter application depends on penetration of the sub-surface structure by the radiation or emission from depth and thus on some knowledge of the dielectric constant at microwave frequencies. Such data are scarce.

## 6.5 SEA ICE THICKNESS

There have been extensive US laboratory and, more recently, aircraft studies of the application of microwave radiometers to this role. But the results have been very limited, and confined mainly to ice sheets for which the thickness did not exceed 20 - 30 cms, because of the short wavelengths used and the correspondingly small depth penetration. The USSR workers have been more successful, with their airborne surveys using wavelengths up to 30 cms. Their most recent ground work has involved wavelengths up to 100 cms. Canadian workers have recently reported promising results from initial airborne and ground tests of a multi-channel radiometer operating in the wavelength range of 14 - 75 cms. A multi-frequency system with a shortest wavelength range of about 20 cms is necessary to achieve penetration and to provide sufficient channels of independent data to ensure a fair probability of resolving the ambiguities due to the unknown and uncertain factors such as snow cover, profiles of temperature and salinity, boundary conditions, etc.

The implementation of such a radiometer concept in a spacecraft installation raises severe technological problems with respect to the antennas that would be necessary to achieve a satisfactory directivity and surface resolution for wavelengths as large as 75 - 100 cms. This would be so particularly in the case of the smaller, ERTS-type satellites intended for polar orbit. A current discussion involves putting a 21 cms radiometer on the larger SKYLAB or AAP satellites. Unfortunately, these spacecraft will be in low-inclination orbits, thus severely limiting their application for Arctic surveying.

## 6.6 METEOROLOGY

A number of important problem and application areas in meteorology have been identified, in which the remote-sensing potential of the microwave radiometer has been, or could be, exploited. These include the detection, measurement and classification as rain, snow or hail of precipitation cells, the determination of the elevation profiles of water vapor and temperature in the atmosphere and the location and determination of the water content of clouds. The data have direct application not only in meteorology but in the design of radio communication systems.

This is another research area where the radar and the radiometer complement each other in a powerful fashion as remote-sensing devices, in enhancing the value of data and in easing many of the problems of interpretation.

## 7. SUMMARY

A considerable background of experience and information has evolved from microwave radiometer programs so that, for many purposes, the requirements in terms of optimum wavelengths, minimum sensitivity and resolution, etc. are becoming established. The principal problems remaining in designing hardware, making measurements and processing and interpreting data have been defined.

One can identify a class of less-demanding roles involving a gross discrimination with a less-rigorous requirement for spatial and temperature resolution. These include the identification of water-land or water-ice boundaries. When closer discrimination is required in determining the type of terrain cover, structures - covered and otherwise -, cloud vs rain cells vs sea roughness vs sea surface temperature, etc, the problem of data interpretation is more complicated. This is due not only to limitations of instrumentation, but also to a limited knowledge of relevant signature data. The experience with spacecraft, although limited, has been encouraging.

It is feasible to instrument a spacecraft with a multi-channel instrument for a broad range of frequencies, with the lowest frequency such that information can be expected on sub-surface characteristics of low-loss materials and structures. Further extension of the low-frequency limit through significant developments in scanning antenna design and signal processing techniques should be expected in the next five years or so.



The most promising areas for investigation in the near future appear to include -

- (a) oil pollution detection and mapping
- (b) distribution and thickness of sea ice
- (c) sea state
- (d) snow cover, including density and water content
- (e) detection of surface and, to a lesser extent, sub-surface, anomalies such as roads, metal structures, under-ground excavations, objects under snow cover, etc.
- (f) presence of rain cells and moist clouds
- (g) salinity of ocean water.

The microwave radiometer is not an exclusive, all-powerful device. Neither is any other sensor. Thus complementary information will often be necessary to aid in data interpretation including visible, IR, radar and lidar methods. It does possess the advantages of full-time operation, except for the intense absorbing conditions, with no transmitter and hence low power requirements and no identifying signal and capability of discrimination between targets on the basis of angle of incidence, polarization, emissivity and frequency. Because of its close relation in operation to the microwave radar, it has been suggested that the active and passive microwave sensors be combined in one instrument.

Spatial resolution is usually envisaged solely in terms of the frequency, the antenna dimensions and scanning rates. This is probably a restricted point of view when considering the maximum spatial resolution possible with an aircraft or spacecraft radiometer. Signal processing and, to some extent, antenna developments, have enabled workers in radio astronomy and radar to achieve higher resolutions. Considerations such as the maximum allowable integration time, the requirement to work with incoherent signals, and restrictions on the space available for mounting hardware tend to invalidate the complete analogy between radiometry and radio astronomy and radar. However, there is sufficient common ground to justify the expectation that certain relevant developments in the latter areas might result in the improvement of the spatial resolution in radiometry.

Much more research is required on the emitting properties of terrestrial materials, atmospheric components and meteorological elements. These properties are related to the complex dielectric constant and structure (anisotropy, graininess, roughness, etc.) of the material. The structure influences the scattering behaviour of the material or surface.

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89. Rabinovich' Yu. I. *et al.* *The determination of the meteorological characteristics of the atmosphere and the earth's surface from airborne measurements of passive microwave radiation.* Proc. of the 7th International Symposium on Remote Sensing of Environment, University of Michigan, May 1971.

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95. Hruby, R.J. and A.T. Edgerton. *Subsurface discontinuity detection by microwave radiometry.* Proc. of the 7th International Symposium on Remote Sensing of Environment, University of Michigan, May 1971.

Describes tests performed at wavelengths of 0.8, 2.2 and 21 cm, to determine the possibility of detecting the presence of under-ground voids such as tunnels and caverns on the basis of changes in surface radiation.

Some correlation is indicated between the 21 cm data and near-surface moisture level, but none for the shorter wavelengths. There is no correlation between the existence of voids and the moisture content or the brightness temperature. It is emphasized that the results might be sensitive to local precipitation history.

96. Meier, M.F. and A.T. Edgerton. *Microwave emission from snow - a progress report.* Proc. of the 7th International Symposium on Remote Sensing of Environment, University of Michigan, May 1971.

Involves a program for theoretical modelling of radiation from snow-packs, measurements on natural and artificial snow and studies of snow electrical properties. (The field measurements were made at wavelengths of 0.8, 2.2, 6 and 21 cm, with snow depth, temperature and water content as variables.)

97. Kazel, S. and R.J. Serafin. *Sidelooking radiometry: A new approach to passive mapping of terrain.* Proc. of the IEEE National Aerospace Elect. Conference, Dayton, Ohio, May 1971.

Describes an approach that is somewhat analogous to that of synthetic aperture radar. Range resolution is enhanced by data storage and subsequent optical processing.

98. Hodarev, Yu. K., *et al.* *Some possible uses of optical and radio-physical remote measurements for earth investigations.* Proc. of the 7th International Symposium on Remote Sensing of the Environment, University of Michigan, May 1971.

This review paper discusses the role of the radio-frequency radiometer in earth resources studies from both aircraft and spacecraft and presents data from USSR programs. Application to determination of ice thickness, sea surface temperature and vertical profiles of atmospheric temperature and water content receives special mention.

The desirability of obtaining data simultaneously in a number of spectral bands, the potential role of the radar-radiometer sensor and problems involved in developing radio-frequency scanning (mapping) systems for spacecraft operations are among the points raised.

99. Basharinov, A.E., *et al.* *Features of microwave passive remote sensing.* Proc. of the 7th International Symposium on Remote Sensing of Environment, University of Michigan, May 1971.

The paper provides data obtained with the USSR multifrequency radiometer (apparently from Cosmos 243), and other results for ice at longer wavelengths of 30 and 50 cms. Data are provided for the shorter wavelengths (0.8 - 8.5 cms) on ice cover, sea surface temperatures, soil moisture and atmospheric water content.

100. Paris, J.F., *Transfer of thermal microwaves in the atmosphere.* Texas A&M University (Dept. of Meteorology) Report, 2 Volumes, May 1971. NASA Grant No. NASA NGR-44-001-098; ONR Contract No. NOnr 2119(04); Water Resources Inst. Proj. No. 5013 and DoD.

An expansion and extension of his January 1969 review.

101. Hollinger, J.P. *Passive microwave measurements of sea surface roughness.* IEEE Trans. on Geosci. Elec., GE-9, p. 165, July 1971.

Radiometer data are presented for frequencies in the range 1.4 - 19.3 GHz and for wind speeds in the range 0 - 15 meters/sec.

102. Wermund, E.G. *Remote sensors for hydrogeologic prospecting in arid terrains.* IEEE Trans. on Geosci. Elec., GE-9, p. 120, July 1971.

Reviews remote sensing work in water prospecting. Presents results of an aerial survey using an IR scanner, a 13 GHz microwave radiometer and multi-band photographic system.

103. Edgerton, A.T., *et al.* *A study of the microwave emission characteristics of sea ice.* Tech. Rep. No. 1741 R-2, Aerojet-General Corp., July 1971.

The report discusses the mathematical modelling of the emission from a sea-ice sheet and presents calculations for a range of the ice dielectric properties, of the ice temperature and of frequency. Aircraft observations for a number of frequencies in the range 9-60 GHz are presented. The main result from these observations is the fact that the younger ice gives a significantly higher brightness temperature than the older, and weathered ice.

104. Strong, A.E. *Mapping sea-surface roughness using microwave radiometry.* Jour. Geophys. Res., 76, p. 8641, 20 December, 1971.

The paper reviews the application of the technique to this problem area and presents further 1.55 cm experimental data. These tend to emphasize the significance of capillary-wave effects and the sensitivity of this radiometer to short-wave surface roughness. It is concluded that both points need further theoretical and experimental study. The potential roles of the multi-frequency radiometer and the radar-radiometer are noted.





