

Radar and Satellite Remote Sensing

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Outline

Background – ice sheet characterization

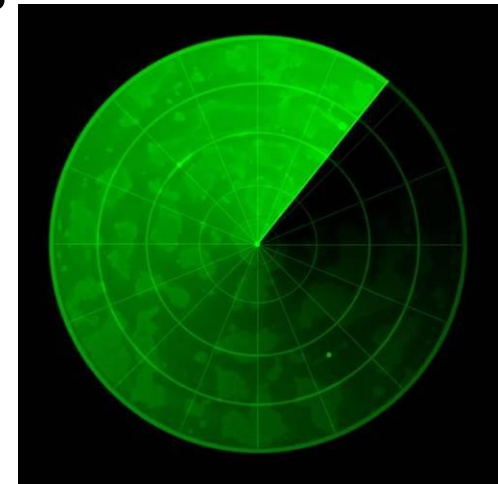
Radar overview

- Radar basics
- Radar depth-sounding of ice sheets
- Example of capabilities of modern radars
- Synthetic-aperture radar (SAR)

Satellite sensing

- Spaceborne radars
- Satellite radar data products

Future directions



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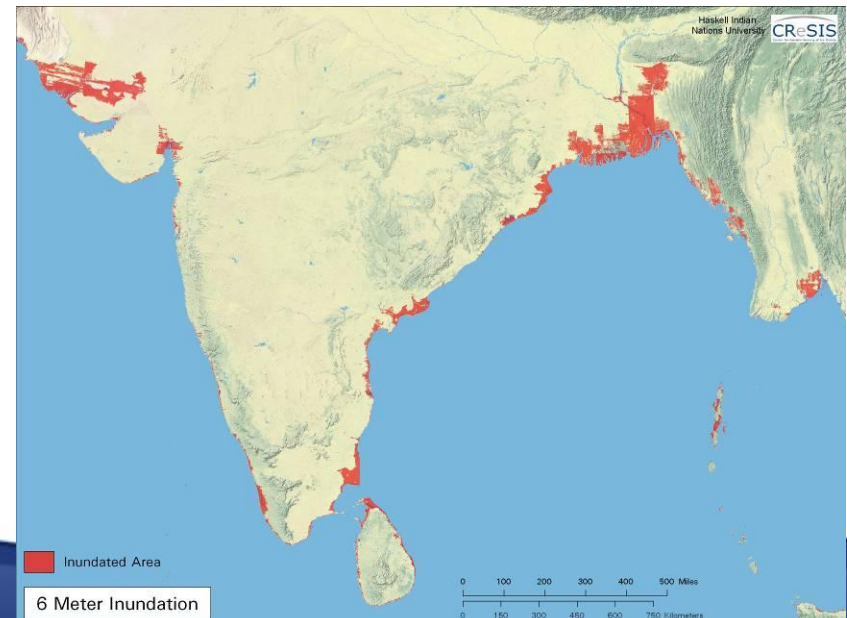
Background

Sea-level rise resulting from the changing global climate is expected to directly impact many millions of people living in low-lying coastal regions.

Accelerated discharge from polar outlet glaciers is unpredictable and represents a significant threat.

Predictive models of ice sheet behavior require knowledge of the bed conditions, specifically basal topography and whether the bed is frozen or wet.

The NSF established CReSIS (Center for Remote Sensing of Ice Sheets) to better understand and predict the role of polar ice sheets in sea-level change.



CReSIS technology requirements: Radar

Technology requirements are driven by science, specifically the data needed by glaciologists to improve our understanding of ice dynamics.

The radar sensor system shall:

- measure the ice thickness with 5-m accuracy to 5-km depths
- detect and measure the depth of shallow internal layers (depths < 100 m) with 10-cm accuracy
- measure the depth to internal reflection layers with 5-m accuracy
- detect and, if present, map the extent of water layers and water channels at the basal surface with 10-m spatial resolution when the depth of the water layer is at least 1 cm
- provide backscatter data that enables bed roughness characterization with 10-m spatial resolution and roughness characterized at a 1-m scale

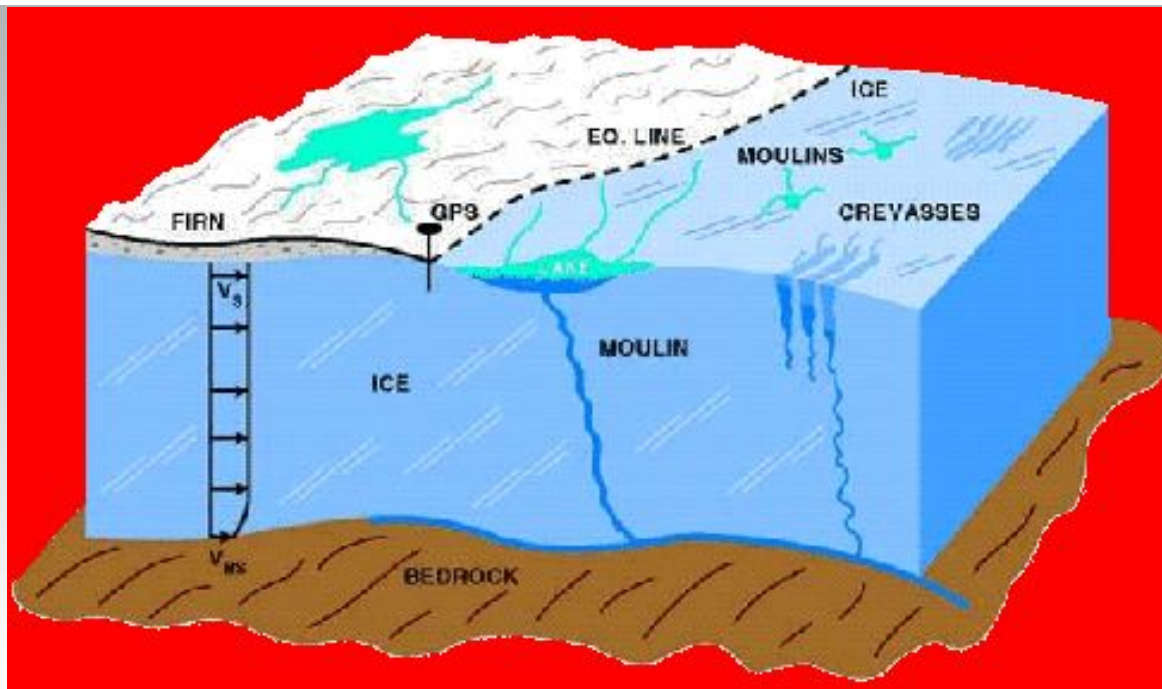


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CReSIS technology requirements: Radar

The radar sensor system shall:

- detect and, if present, measure the anisotropic orientation angle within the ice as a function of depth with 25° angular resolution
- measure ice attenuation with 100-m depth resolution and radiometric accuracy sufficient to estimate englacial temperature to an accuracy of 1°C
- detect and, if present, map the structure and extent of englacial moulines



A brief overview of radar

Radar – radio detection and ranging

Developed in the early 1900s (pre-World War II)

- 1904 Europeans demonstrated use for detecting ships in fog
- 1922 U.S. Navy Research Laboratory (NRL) detected wooden ship on Potomac River
- 1930 NRL engineers detected an aircraft with simple radar system

World War II accelerated radar's development

- Radar had a significant impact militarily
- Called “The Invention That Changed The World” in two books by Robert Buderi

Radar's has deep military roots

- It continues to be important militarily
- Growing number of civil applications
- Objects often called ‘targets’ even civil applications



A brief overview of radar

Uses electromagnetic (EM) waves

- Frequencies in the MHz, GHz, THz
 - Shares spectrum with FM, TV, GPS, cell phones, wireless technologies, satellite communications
- Governed by Maxwell's equations
- Signals propagate at the speed of light
- Antennas or optics used to launch/receive waves

Related technologies use acoustic waves

- Ultrasound, seismics, sonar
 - Microphones, accelerometers, hydrophones used as transducers



A brief overview of radar

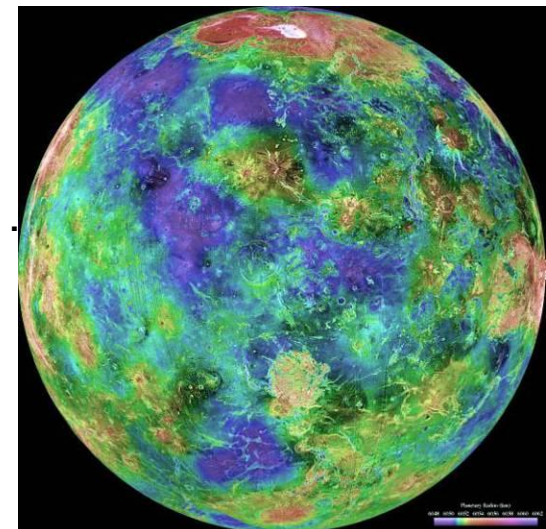
Active sensor

- Provides its own illumination
 - Operates in day and night
 - Largely immune to smoke, haze, fog, rain, snow, .
 - Involves both a transmitter and a receiver
- Related technologies are purely passive*

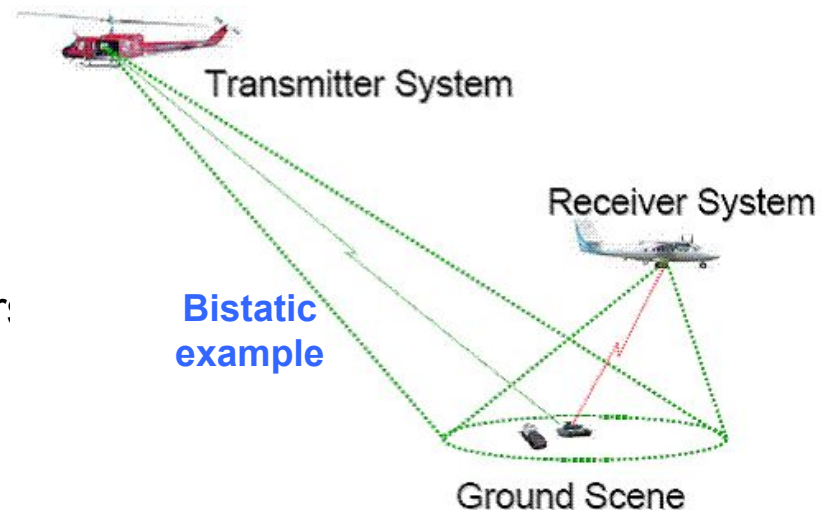
- Radio astronomy, radiometers

Configurations

- Monostatic
 - transmitter and receiver co-located
- Bistatic
 - transmitter and receiver separated
- Multistatic
 - multiple transmitters and/or receiver
- Passive
 - exploits non-cooperative illuminator



Radar image of Venus



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A brief overview of radar

Various classes of operation

- Pulsed vs. continuous wave (CW)
- Coherent vs. incoherent

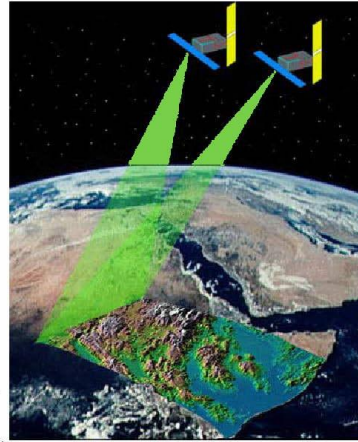
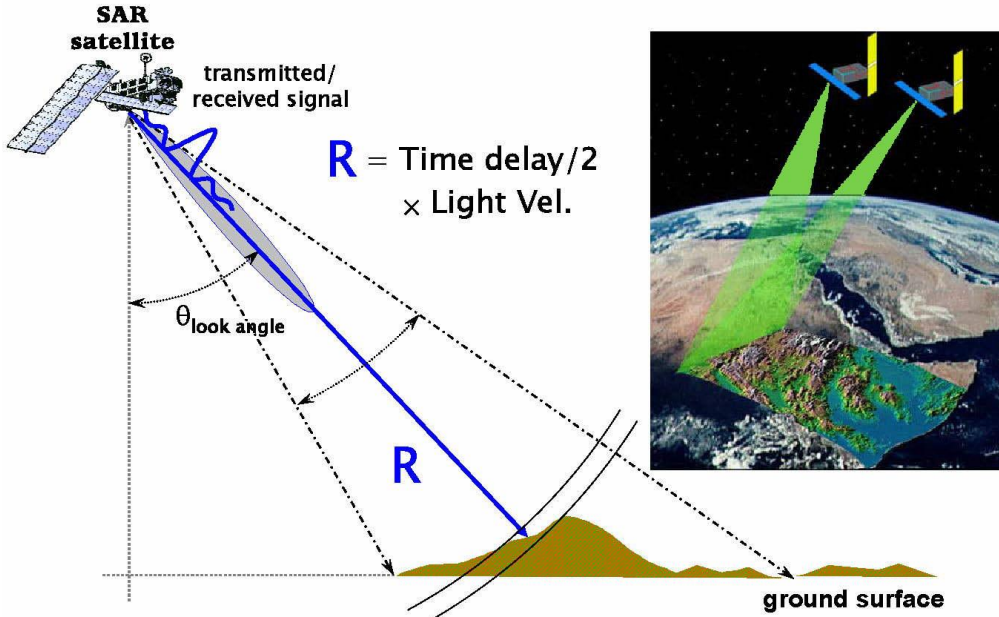
Measurement capabilities

- Detection, Ranging
- Position (range and direction), Radial velocity (Doppler)
- Target characteristics (radar cross section – RCS)
- Mapping, Change detection



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Radar basics



Transmitted signal propagates at speed of light through free space,

$$v_p = c.$$

Travel time from antenna to target

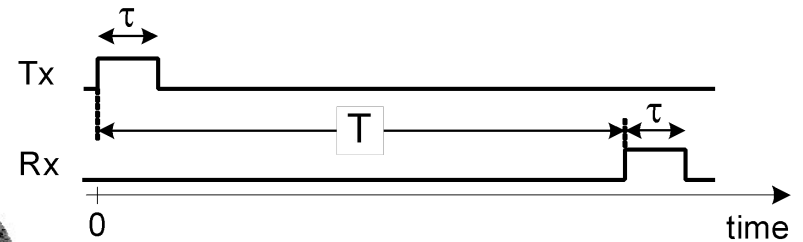
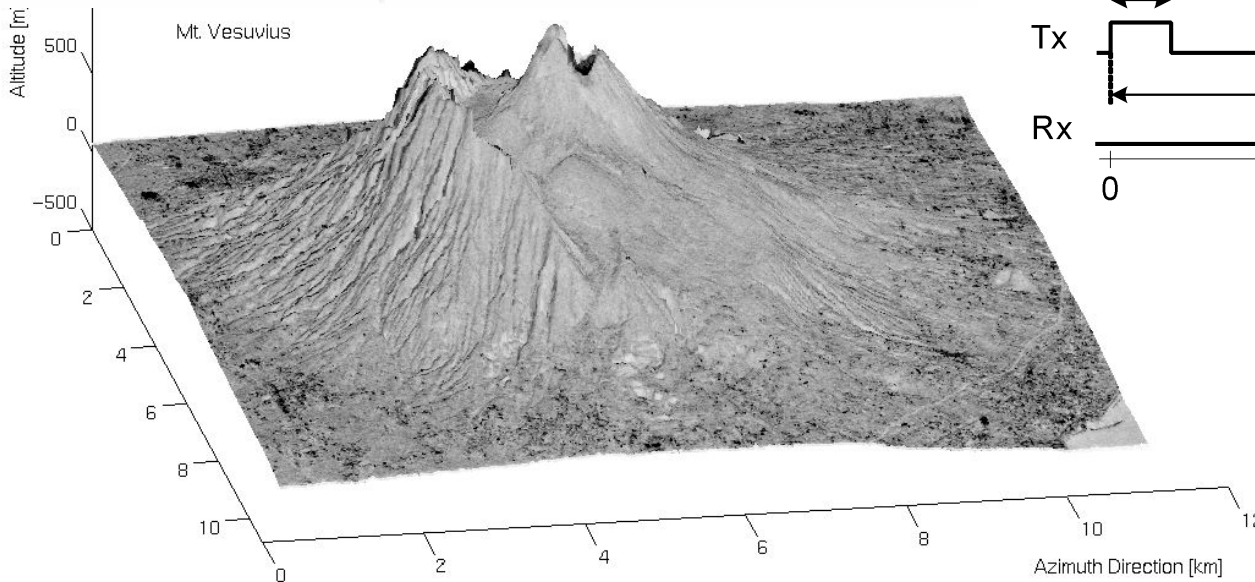
$$R/c$$

Travel time from target back to antenna

$$R/c$$

Total round-trip time of flight

$$T = 2R/c$$



$$T = \frac{2R}{c}$$

Tx: transmit
Rx: receive

Radar basics

Range resolution

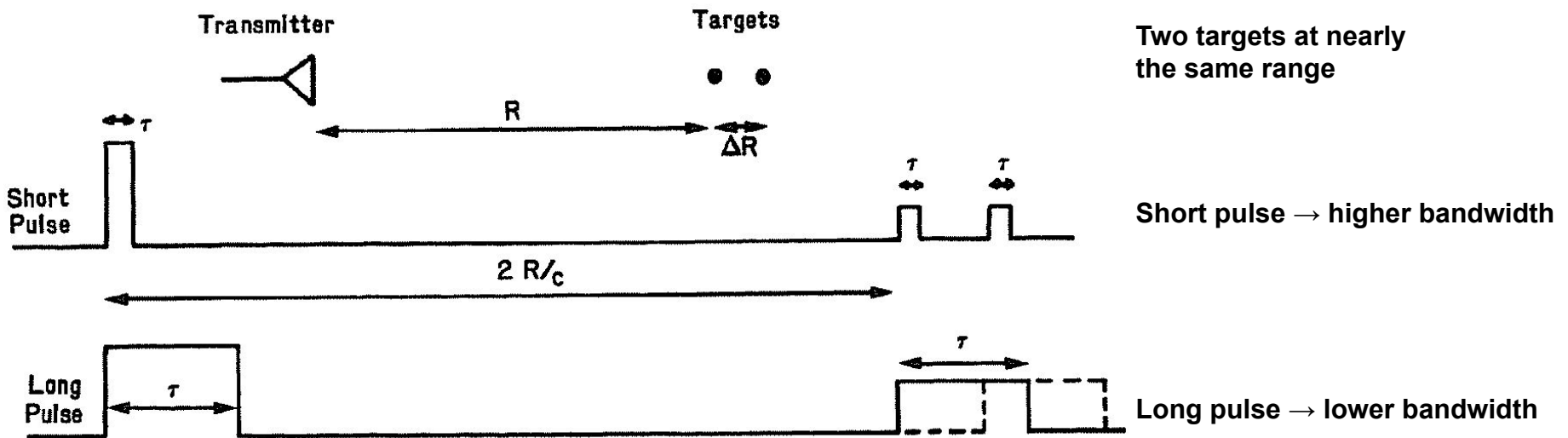
The ability to resolve discrete targets based on their range is range resolution, ΔR .

Range resolution can be expressed in terms of pulse duration, τ [s]

$$\Delta R = \frac{c \tau}{2} \text{ [m]}$$

Range resolution can be expressed in terms of pulse bandwidth, B [Hz]

$$\Delta R = \frac{c}{2B} \text{ [m]}$$



Radar basics

Doppler frequency shift and velocity

Time rate of change of target range produces Doppler shift.

Aircraft flying straight and level

$x = 0, y = 0, z = 2000$ m

$v_x = 0, v_y = 100$ m/s, $v_z = 0$

$f = 200$ MHz

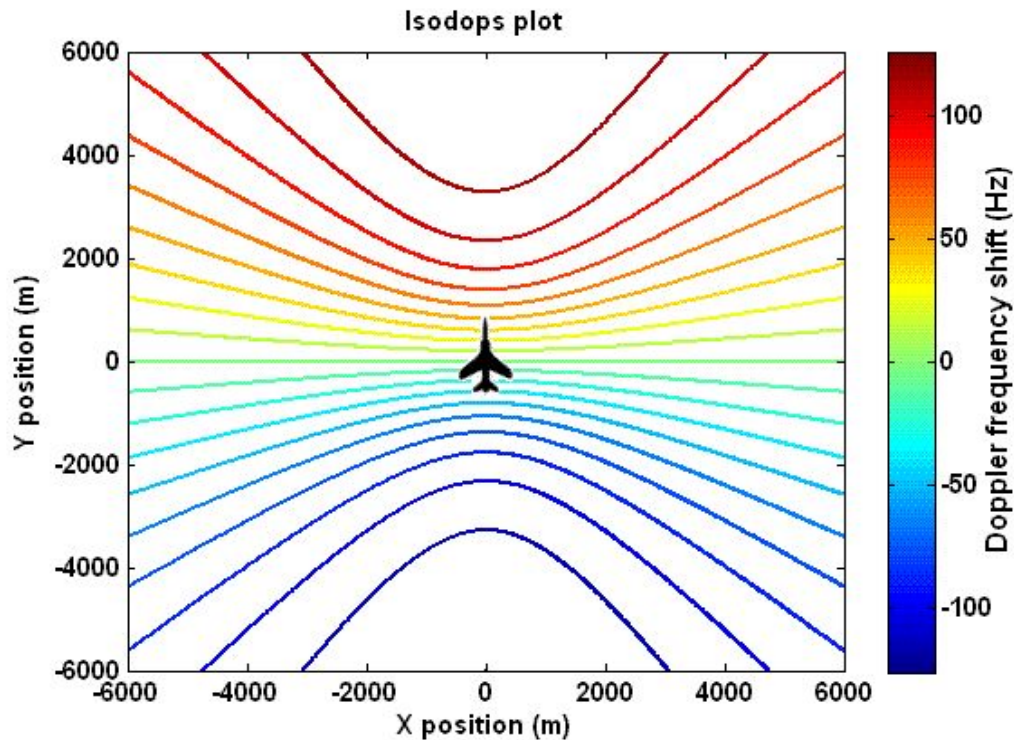
Electrical phase angle, ϕ

Doppler frequency, f_D

Radial velocity, v_r

Target range, R

Wavelength, λ



$$\phi = 2\pi \frac{2R}{\lambda} \quad [\text{rad}]$$

$$\frac{d\phi}{dt} = 2\pi \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{dR}{dt} \quad [\text{rad / s}]$$

$$f_D = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d\phi}{dt} = \frac{2}{\lambda} \frac{dR}{dt} \quad [\text{Hz}]$$

$$f_D = \frac{2v_r}{\lambda} \quad [\text{Hz}]$$



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Radar basics

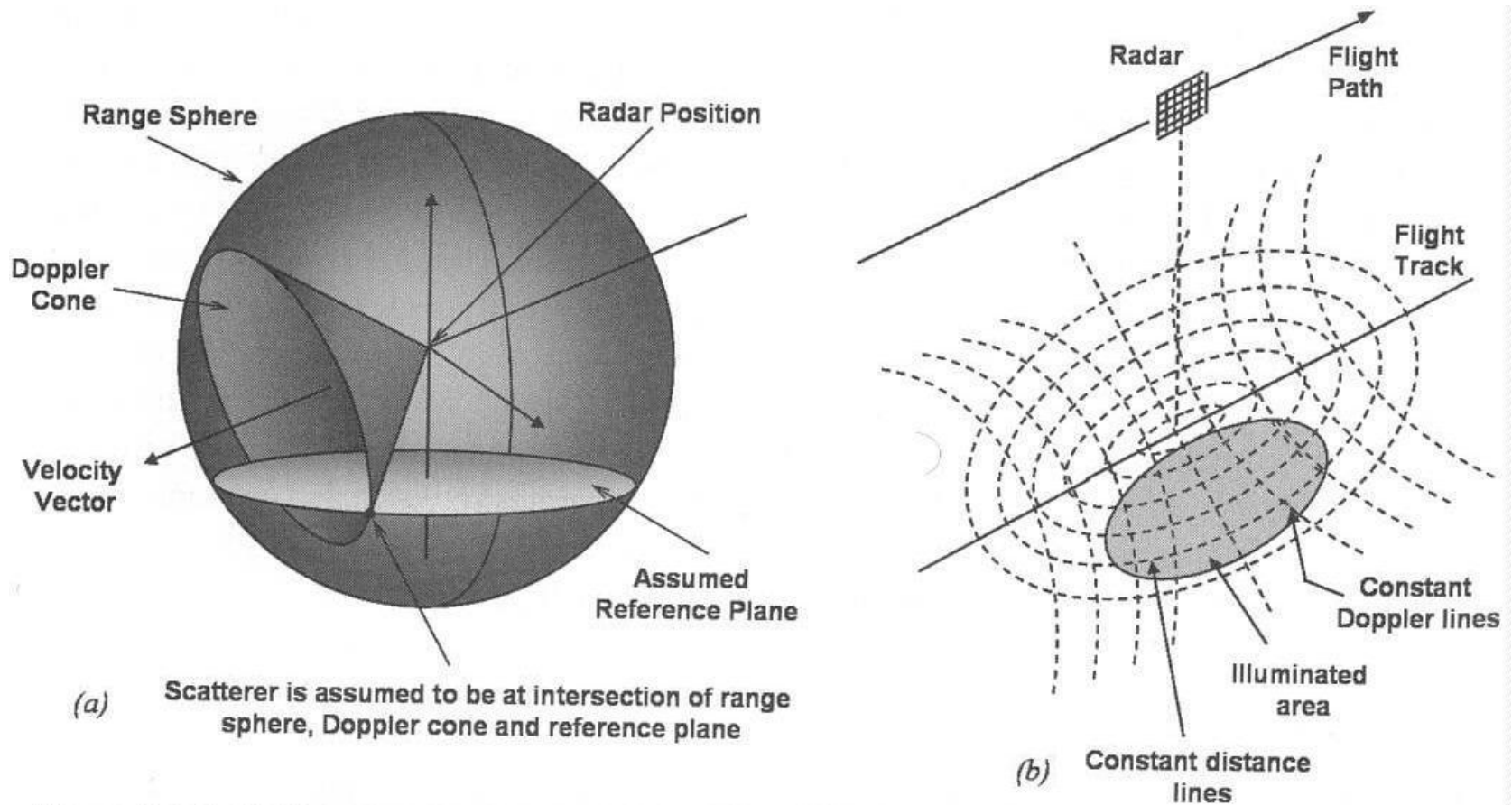
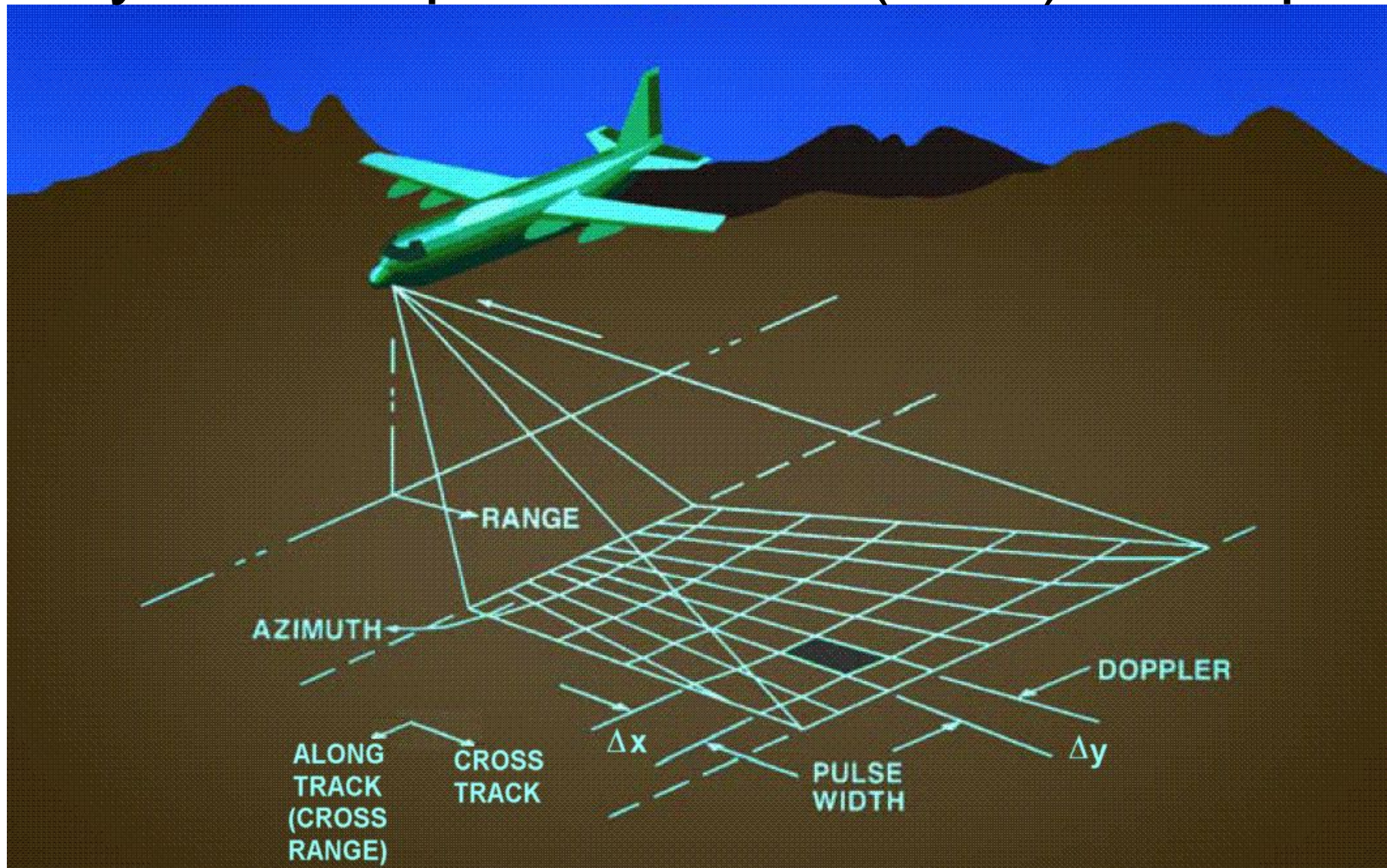


Figure 6-36. (a) The geometry assumed in traditional SAR processing. The scatterer is assumed to be at the intersection of the range sphere, the Doppler cone, and an assumed flat reference plane. The case shown is for a left-looking SAR. (b) Coordinate system (equi-Doppler and equirange lines) for synthetic-aperture radar imaging.

Synthetic-aperture radar (SAR) concept



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Ka-band, 4" resolution Helicopter and plane static display



f: 35 GHz



SAR image perception

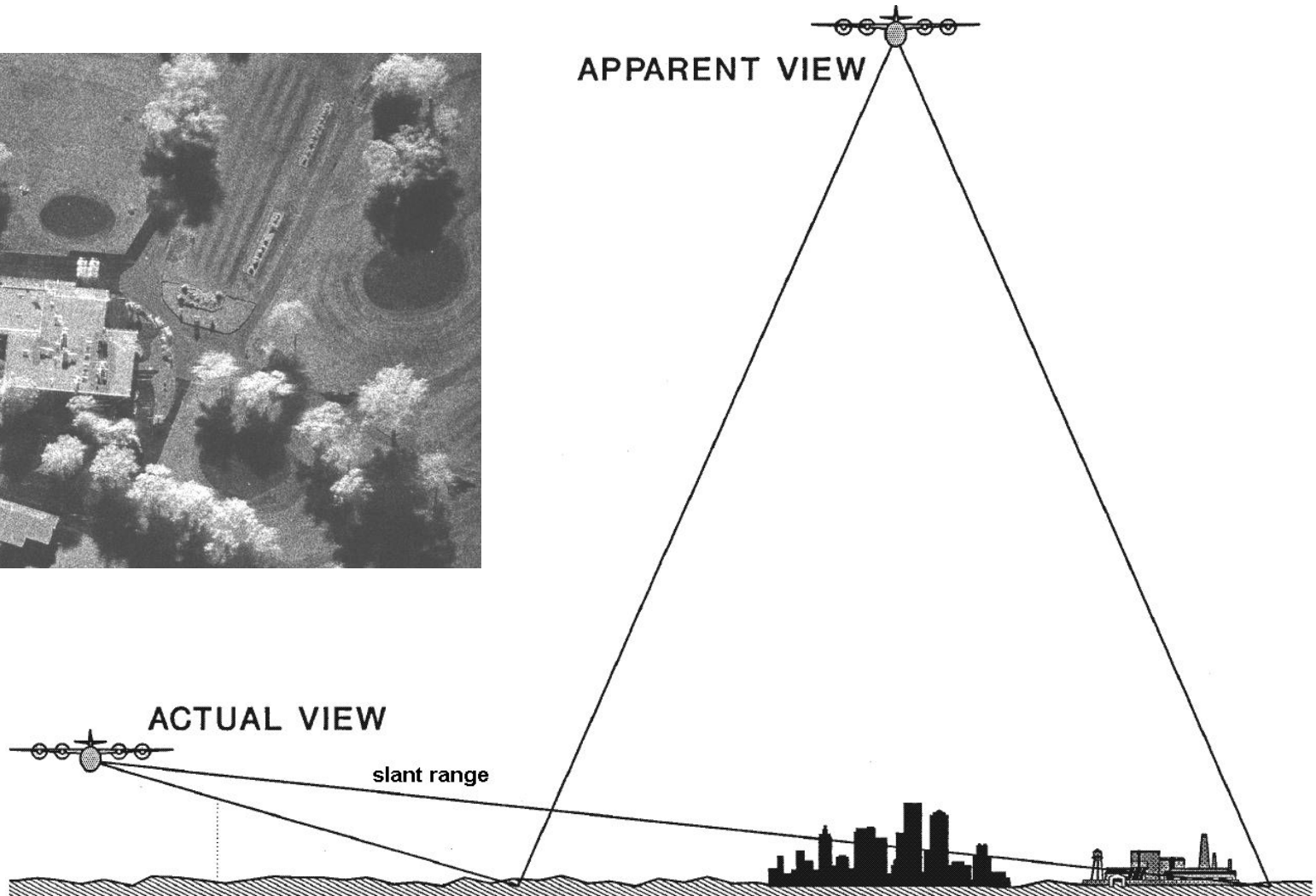


Figure 5-10. Perceptual confusion in synthetic aperture radar (SAR) images – images obtained from the side appear like images obtained from overhead.

Radar development timeline

Continuous improvements on depthsounder system. Annual measurement campaigns of Greenland ice sheet.

1993 - 2001

More advanced and compact radar systems developed as part of the PRISM project.

2001 - 2005

New radar systems developed to meet science needs. Radar systems modified and miniaturized for UAV use.

2005 - 2010

Radar system size and weight reduction continues. Imaging radars developed.

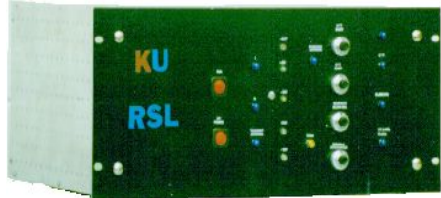
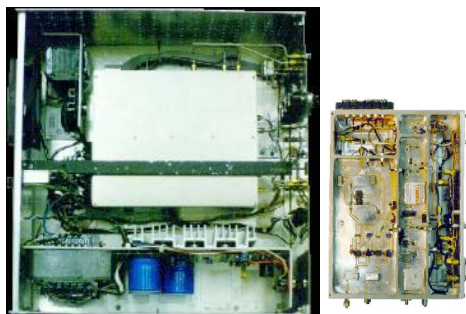
2010 - 2015

2000

2005

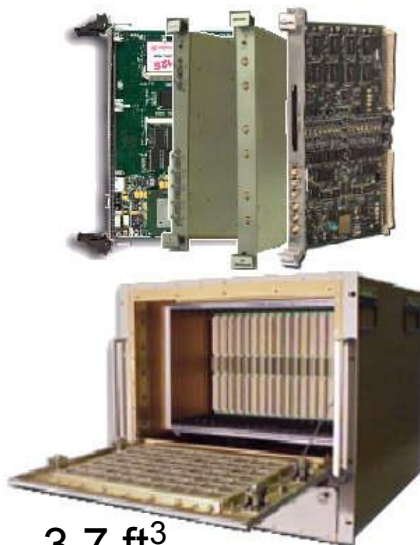
2010

2015



7.1 ft³

2001



3.7 ft³

2004



0.23 ft³

2010



stacked ICs or MCMs

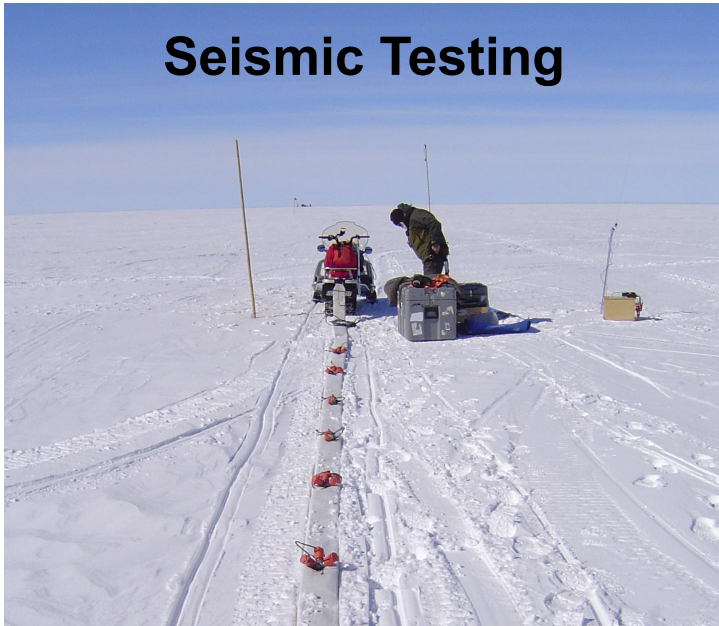


< 0.01 ft³

2015

Recent field campaigns: Greenland 2007

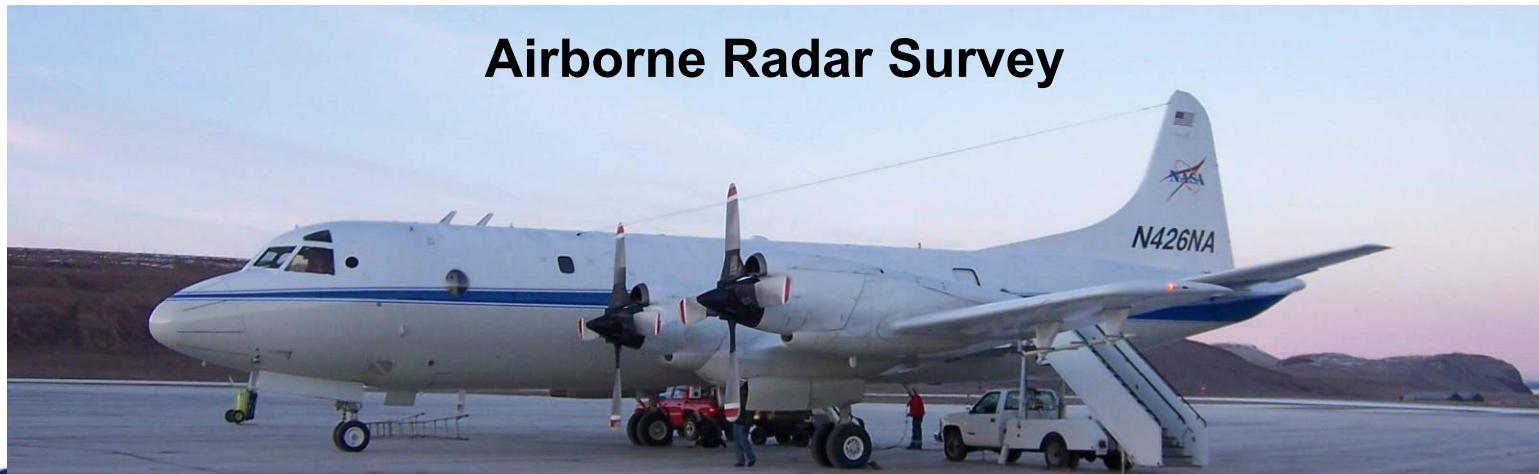
Seismic Testing



Ground-Based Radar Survey



Airborne Radar Survey



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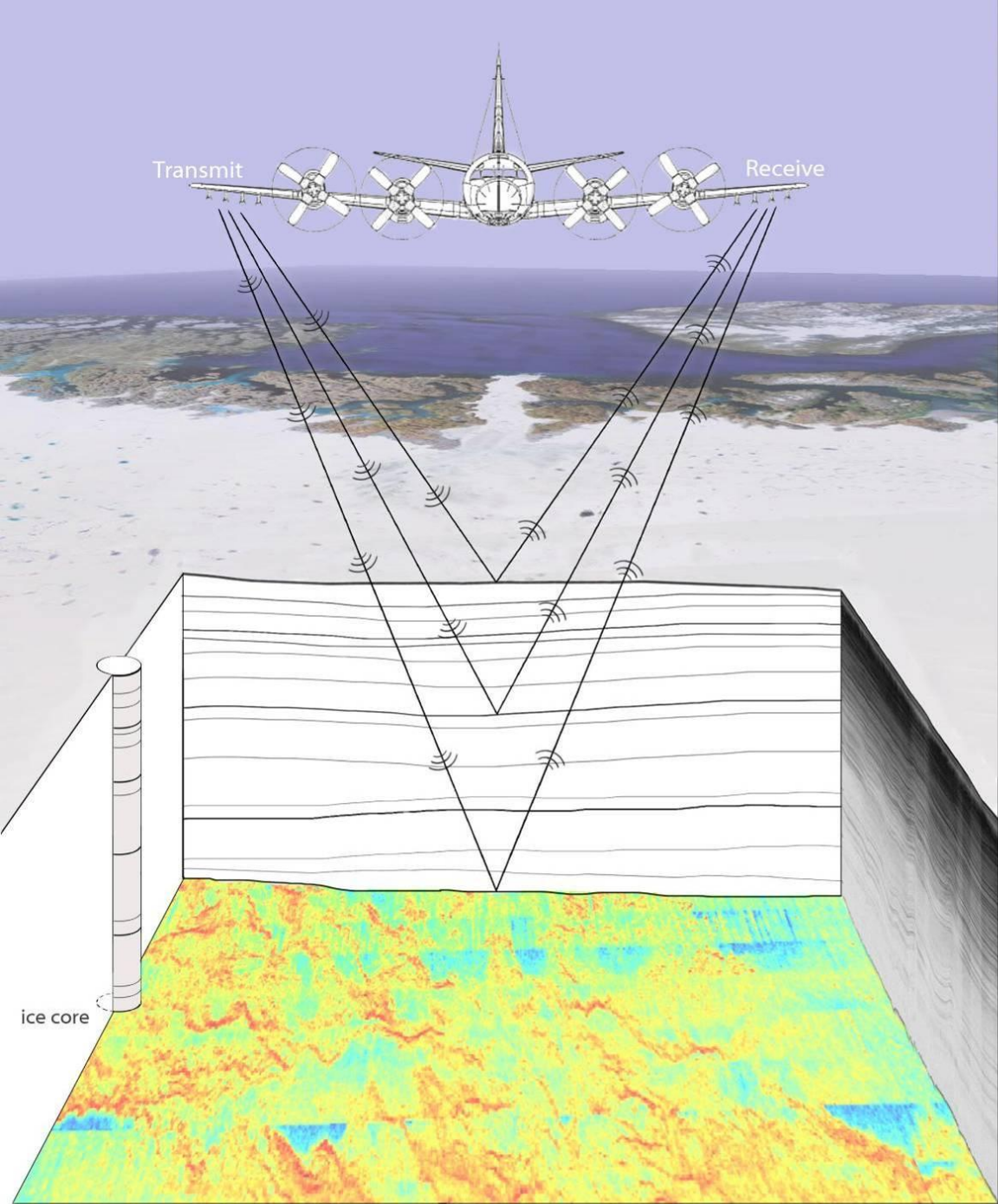
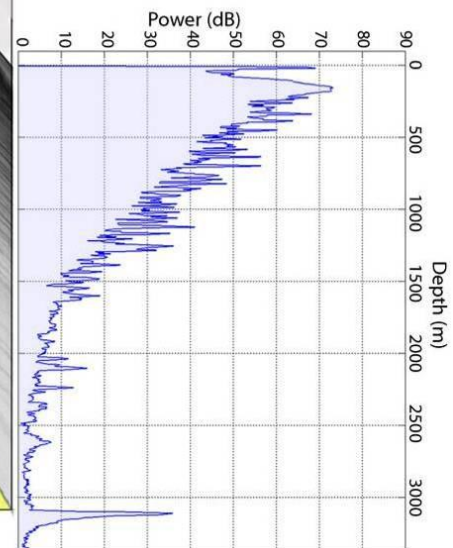


Illustration of the airborne depth-sounding radar operation



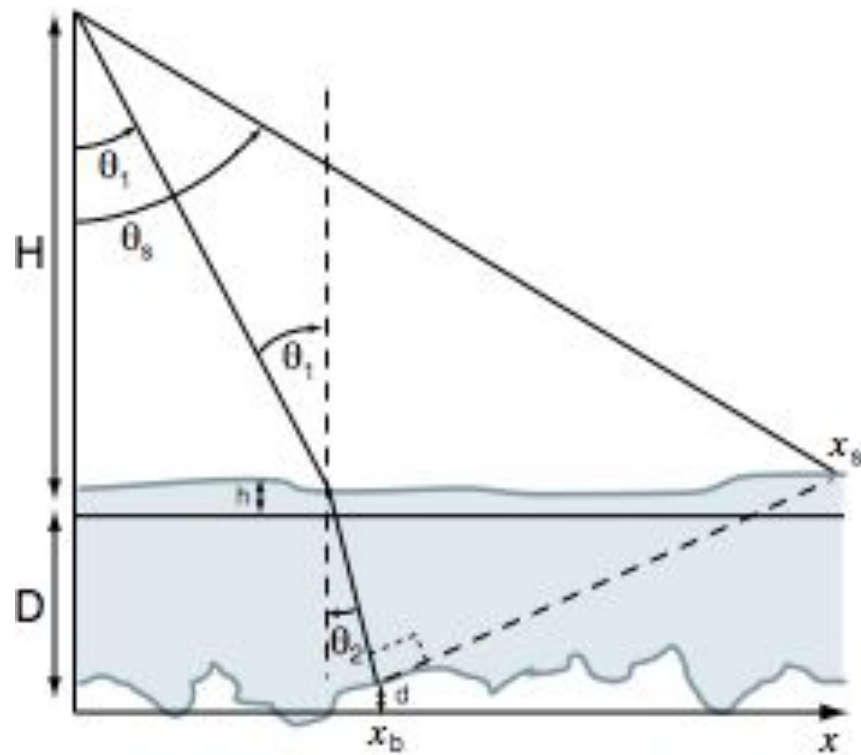
Surface clutter

For airborne (or spaceborne) radar configurations, radar echoes from the surface of the ice and mask the desired internal layer echoes or even the echo from the ice bed.

These unwanted echoes are called *clutter*.

Clutter refers to actual radar echoes returned from targets which are by definition uninteresting to the radar operators.

System geometry determines the regions whose clutter echo coincide with the echoes of interest.



Radar height (H); ice surface height (h); Depth of the basal layer (D); topographic variations of the basal layer (d); cross-track coordinate of the basal layer point under observation (x_b); and, x_s is the cross-track coordinate of the surface point whose two-way travel time is the same as the two-way travel time for x_b .



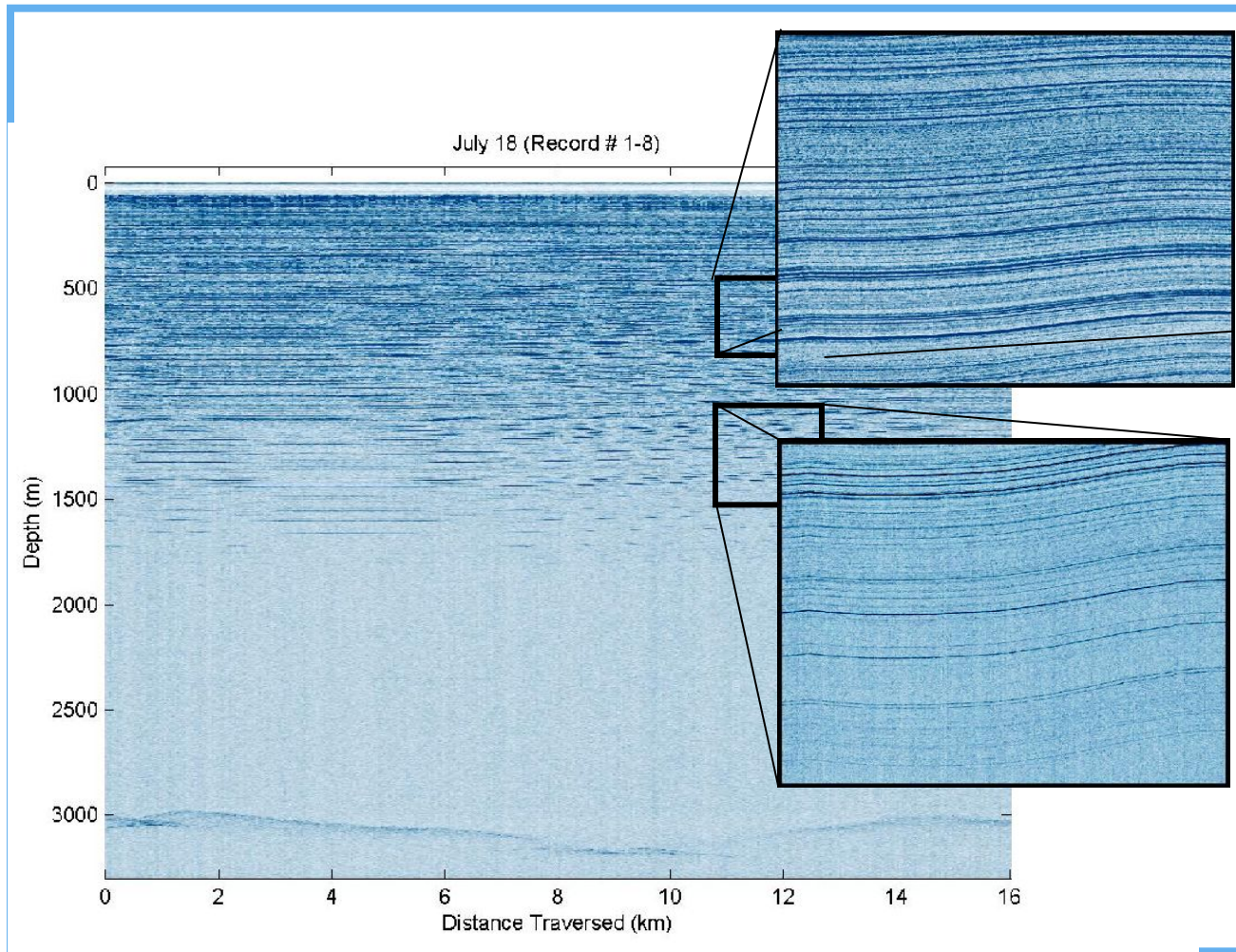
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Wide bandwidth depthsounder

$B = 180 \text{ MHz}$
 $\lambda = 1.42 \text{ m}$



Compact PCI module
(9" x 6.5" x 1")

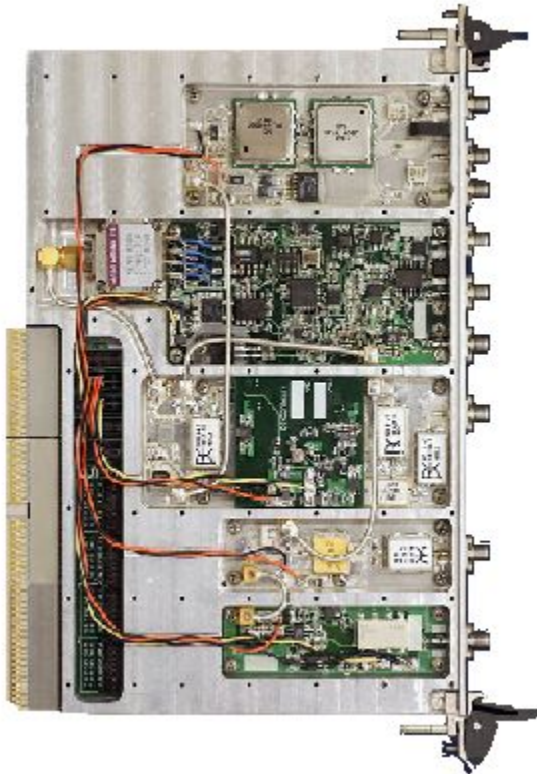


Radar echogram collected at Summit, Greenland in July 2004

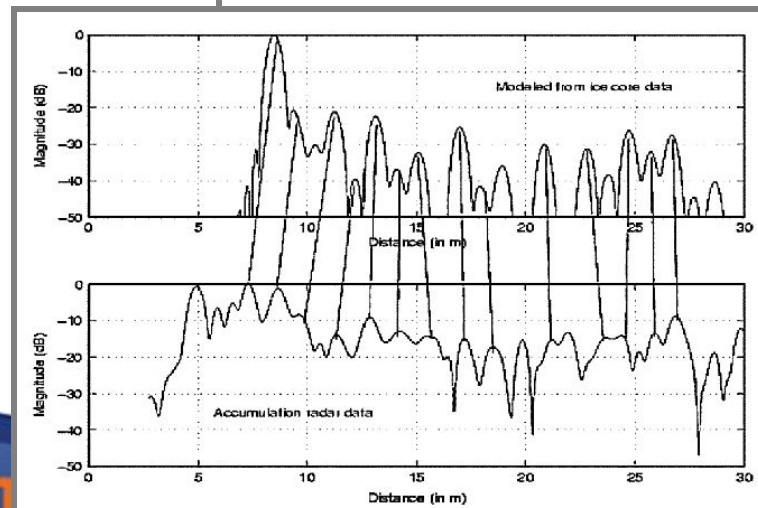
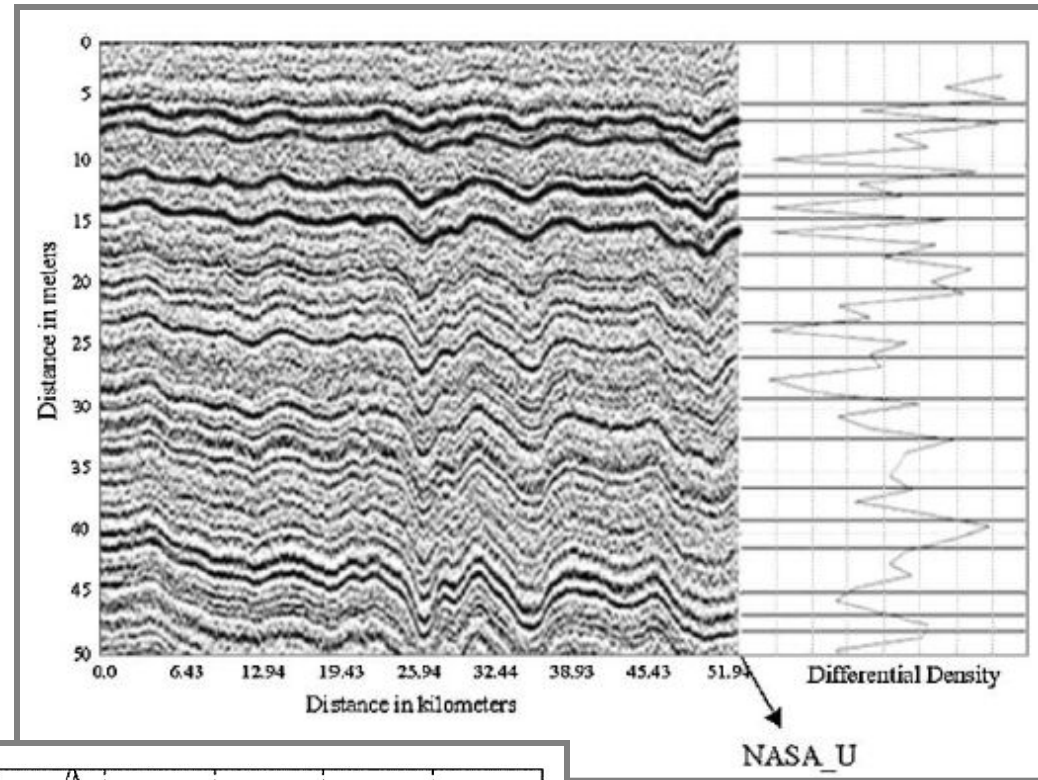


Accumulation radar system

$B = 300 \text{ MHz}$
 $\lambda = 0.4 \text{ m}$



Compact PCI module
(9" x 6.5" x 1")



Radar depth sounding of polar ice

Multi-Channel Radar Depth Sounder (MCRDS)

Platforms: P-3 Orion

Twin Otter

Transmit power: 400 W

Center frequency: 150 MHz

Pulse duration: 3 or 10 μ s

Pulse bandwidth: 20 MHz

PRF: 10 kHz

Rx noise figure: 3.9 dB

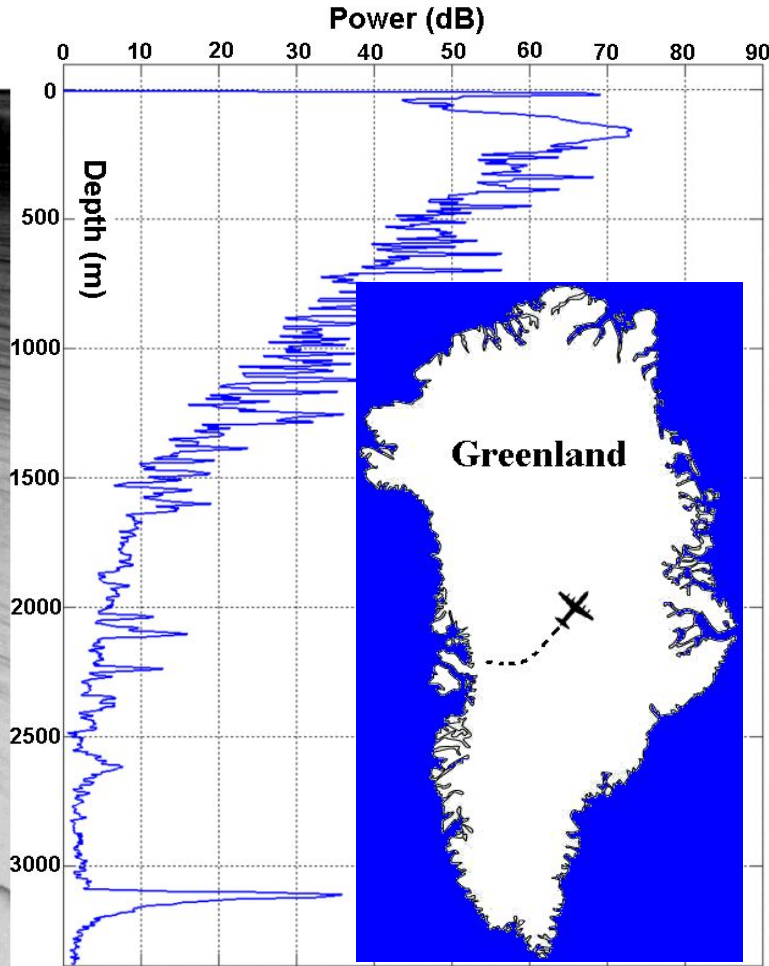
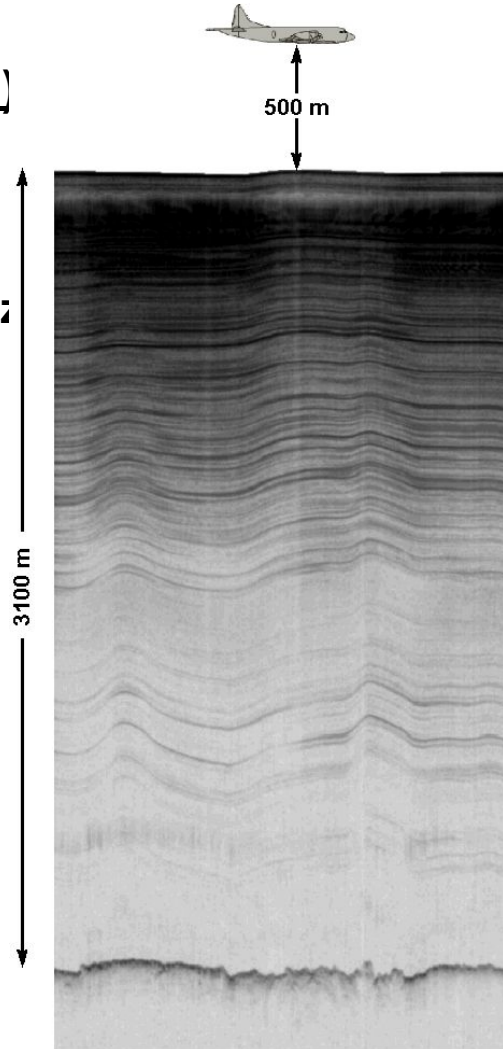
Tx antenna array: 5
elements

Rx antenna array: 5
elements

Element type: $\lambda/4$ dipole
folded dipole

Element gain: 4.8 dBi

Loop sensitivity: 218 dB



Provides excellent sensitivity
for mapping ice thickness
and internal layers along the
ground track.



Multichannel SAR

To provide wide-area coverage, a ground-based side-looking synthetic-aperture radar (SAR) was developed to image swaths of the ice-bed interface.

Key system parameters

Center frequency: 210 MHz Bandwidth: 180 MHz
Transmit power: 800 W Pulse duration: 1 and 10 μ s
Noise figure: 2 dB PRF: 6.9 kHz
Rx antenna array: 8 elements Tx antenna array: 4 elements
Antenna type: TEM horn Element gain: \sim 1 dBi
Loop sensitivity: 220 dB Dynamic range: 130 dB
of Tx channels: 2 # of Rx channels: 8
A/D sample frequency: 720 MHz # of A/D converter channels: 2

Receive
sled

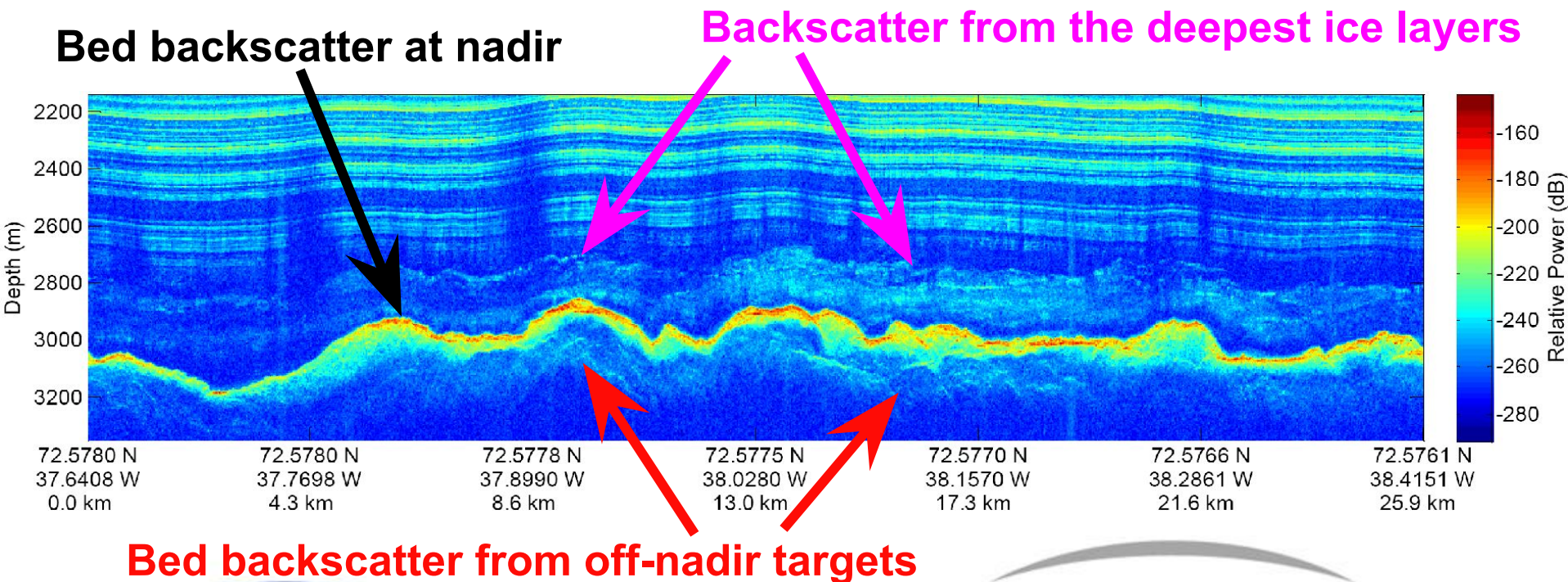
Transmit
sled



Depthsounder data

The slower platform speed of a ground-based radar, its increased antenna array size, and improved sensitivity and range resolution enhance the radar's off-nadir signal detection ability. This essential for mapping the bed over a swath.

Frequency-wavenumber (f-k) migration processing is applied to provide fine along-track resolution. Using a 600-m aperture length provides about 5-m along-track resolution at a 3-km depth.

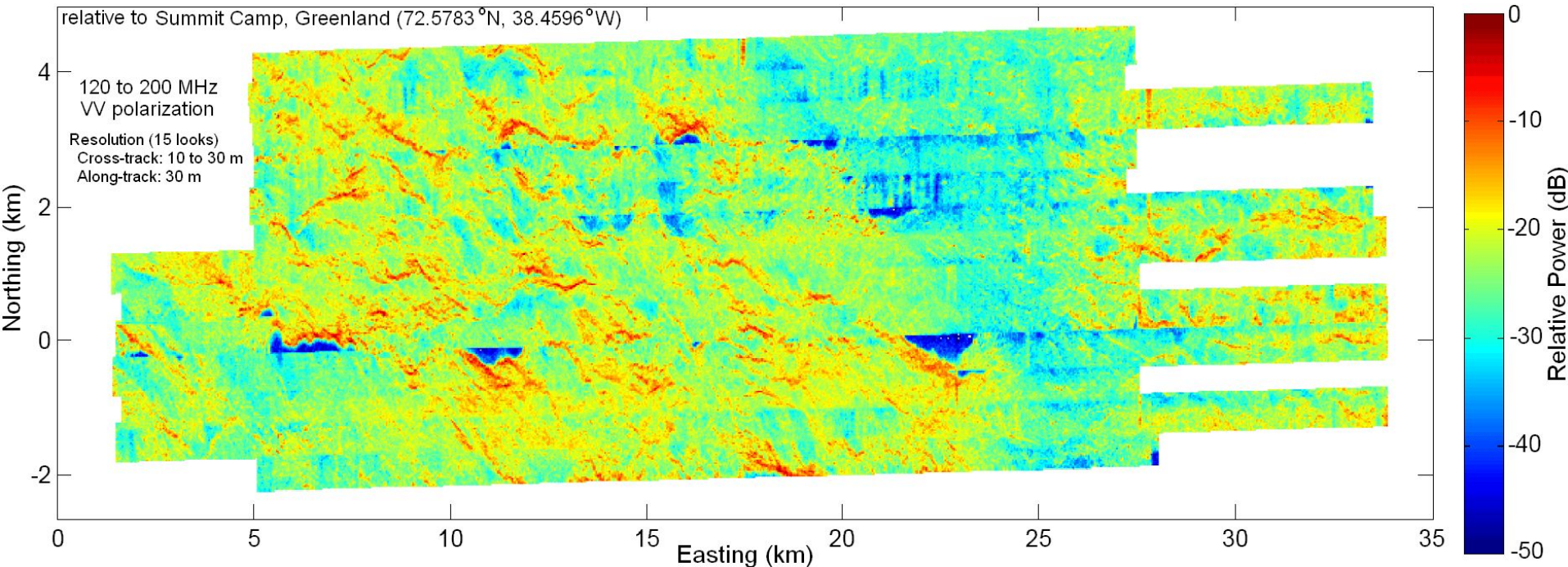


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SAR image mosaic

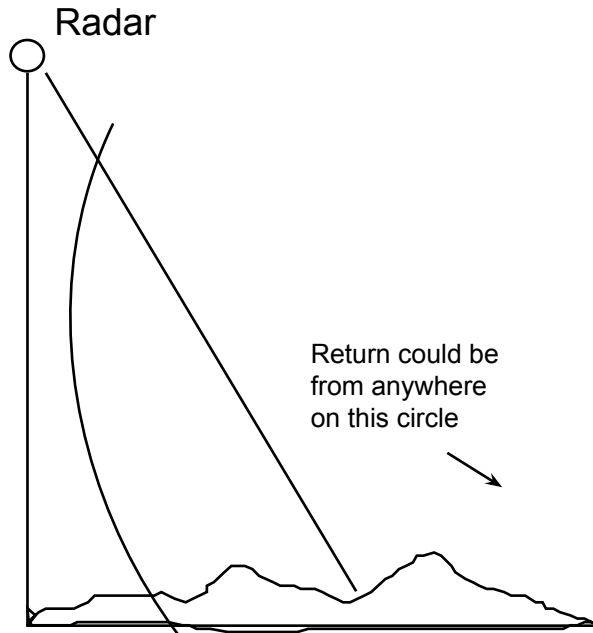
First SAR map of the bed produced through a thick ice sheet.
SAR image mosaics of the bed terrain beneath the 3-km ice sheet are shown for the 120-to-200-MHz band and the 210-to-290-MHz band (next slide).
These mosaics were produced by piecing together the 1-km-wide swaths from the east-west traverses.

120 to 200 MHz band

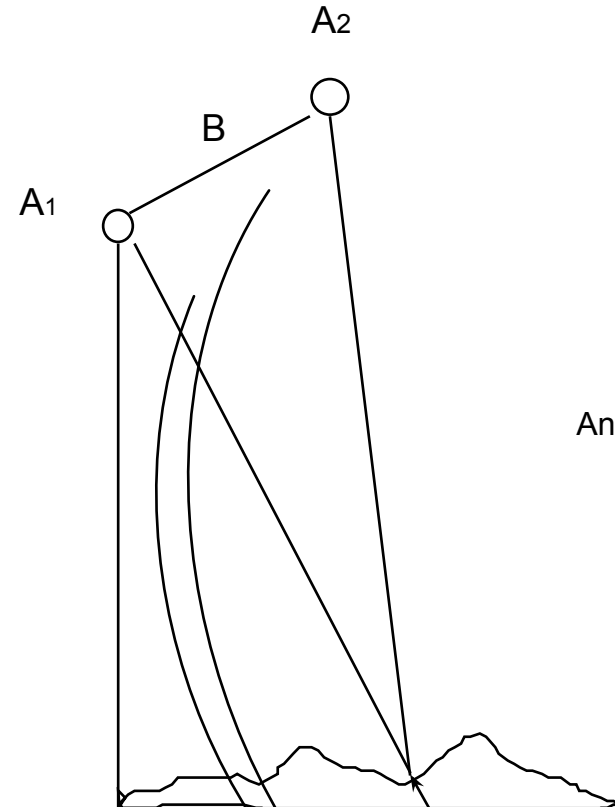


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SAR interferometry – how does it work?



Single antenna SAR

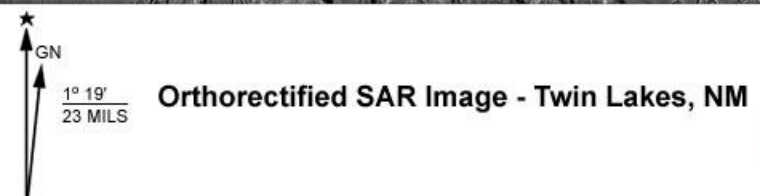
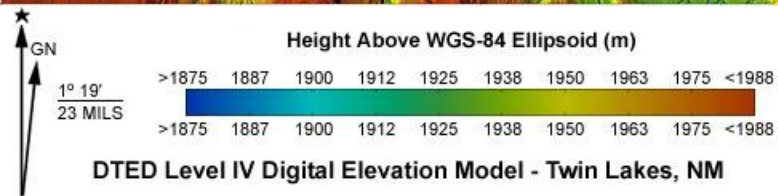
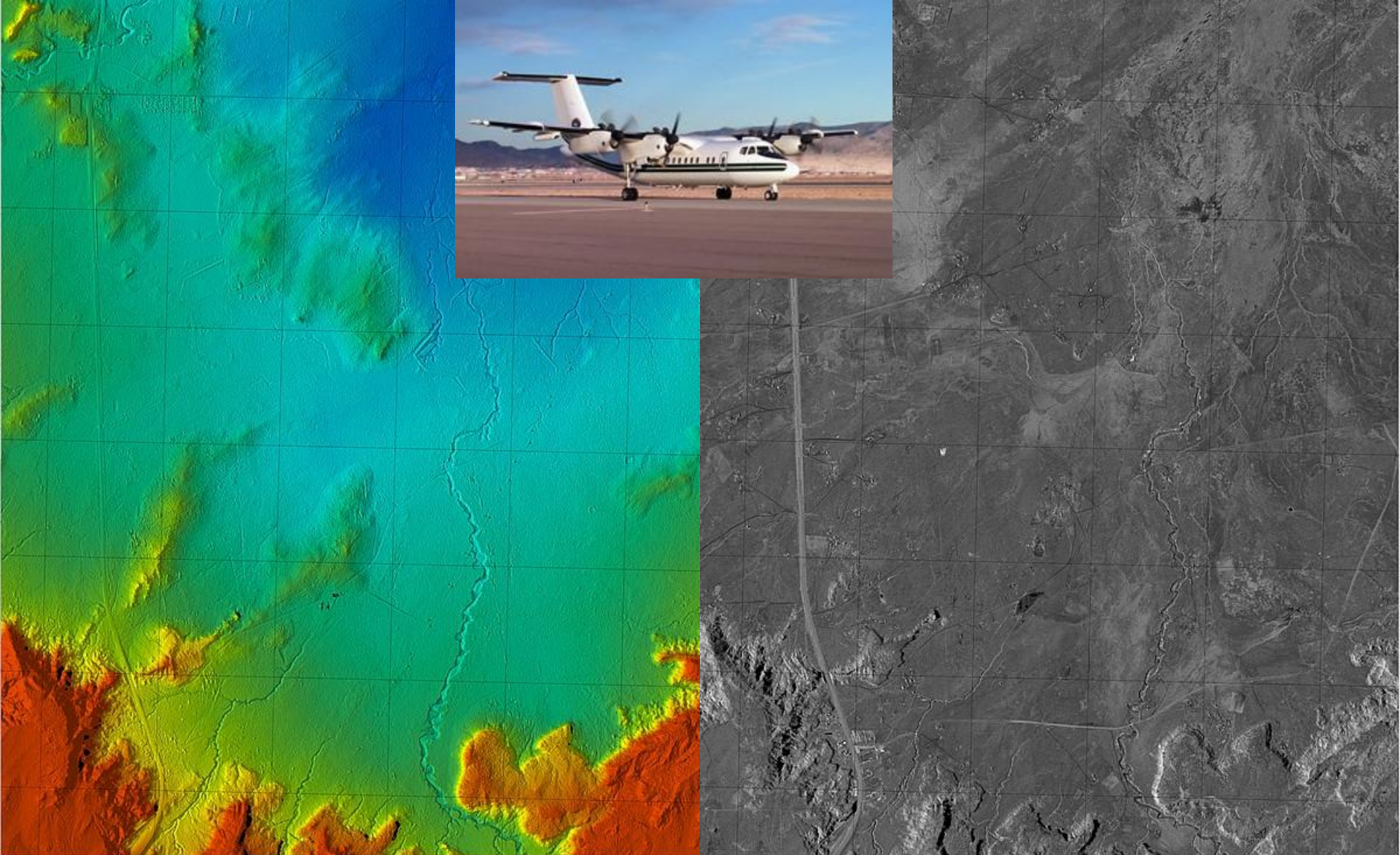


Interferometric SAR

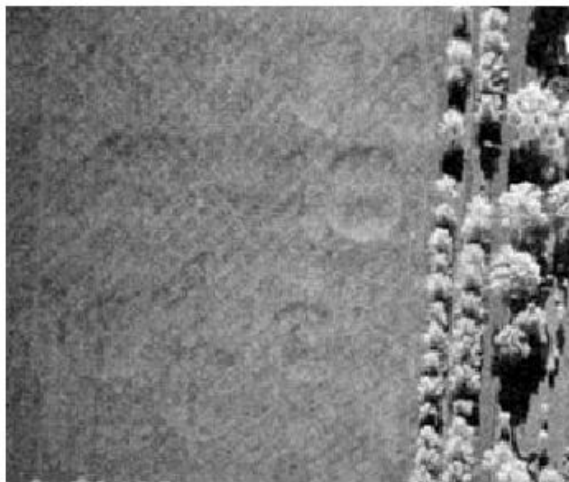
Antenna 1

Antenna 2

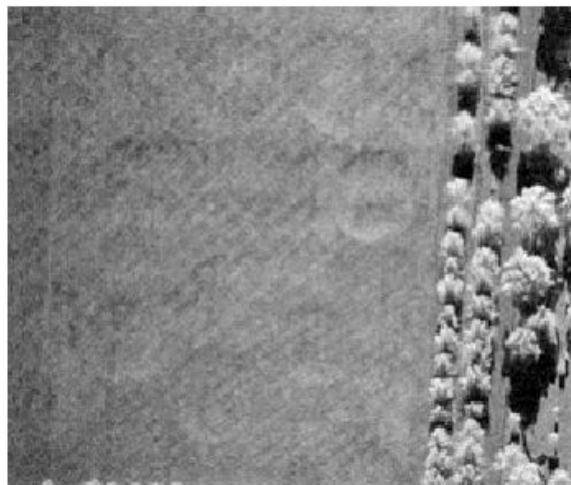




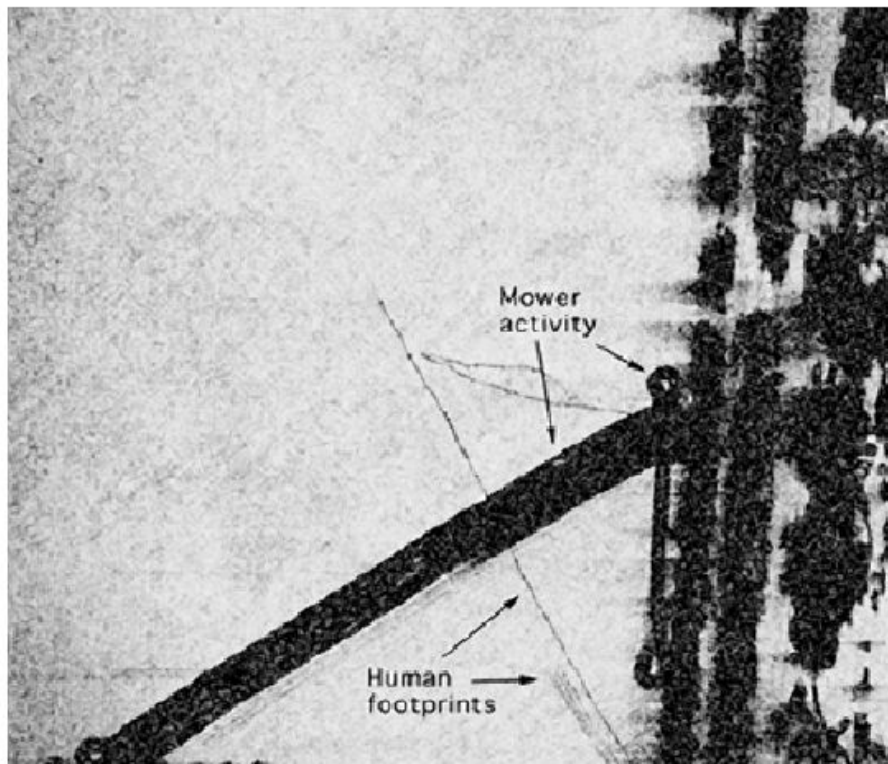
InSAR coherent change detection



Reference SAR Image: Grassy Field



Current SAR Image: Grassy Field



CCD Image – Changes denoted by dark areas



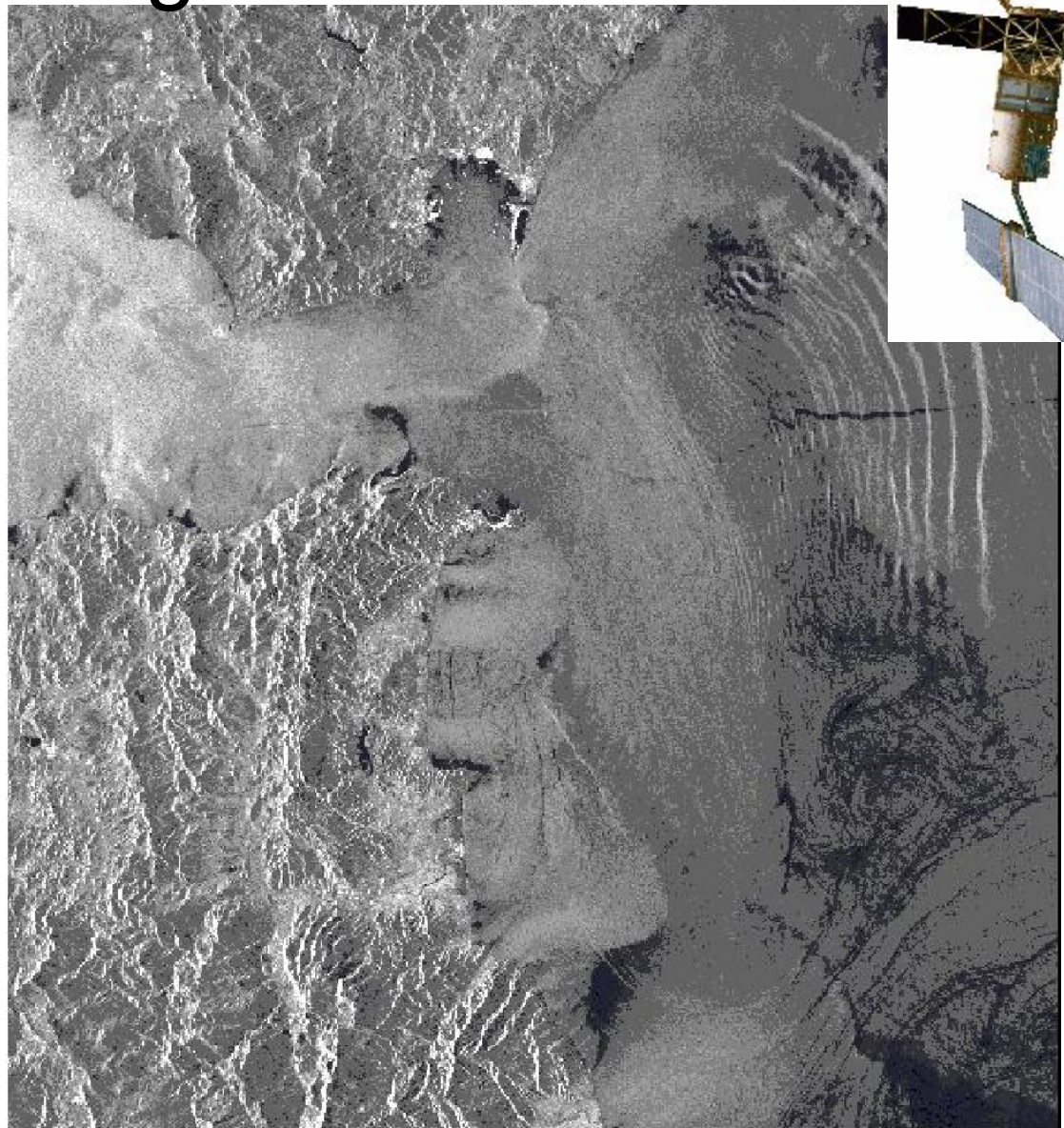
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Satellite sensing



SAR image of Gibraltar

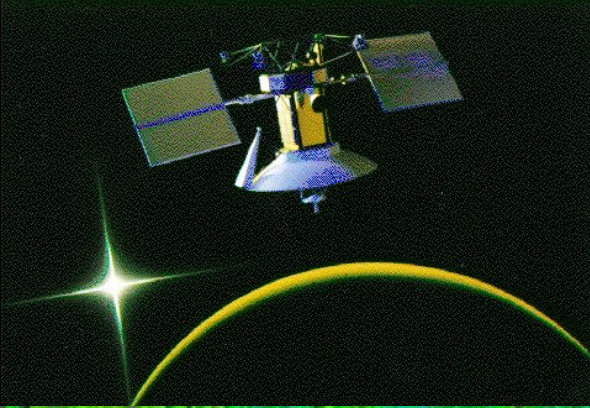


ERS-1 Synthetic Aperture Radar

f: 5.3 GHz P_{TX} : 4.8 kW
ant: 10 m x 1 m B: 15.5 MHz
 $\Delta x = \Delta y = 30$ m f_s : 19 MSA/s
orbit: 780 km D_R : 105 Mb/s

Nonlinear internal waves propagating eastwards and oil slicks can be seen.





SAR imagery of Venus

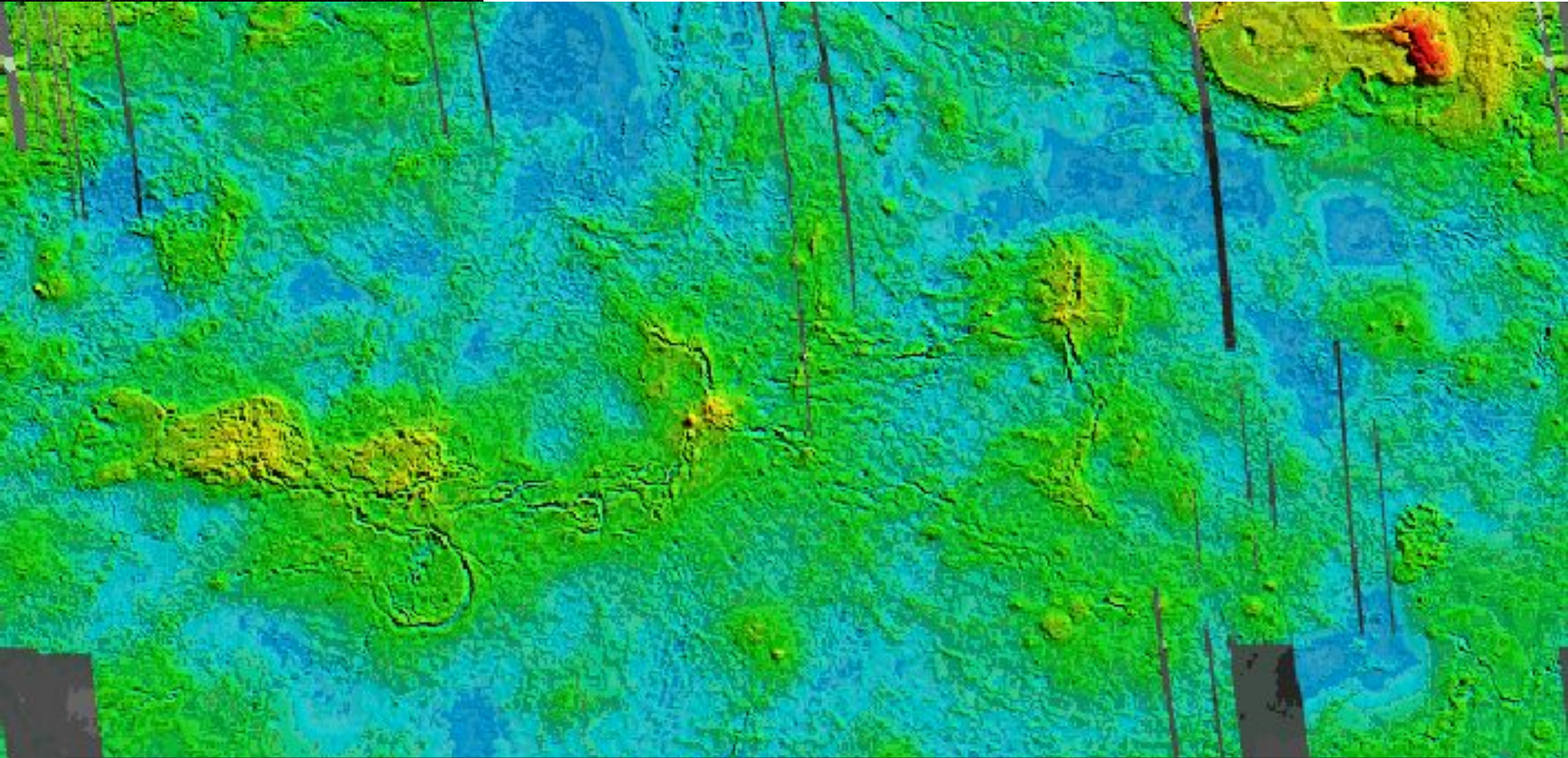
Magellan SAR parameters

Frequency: 2.385 GHz, Bandwidth: 2.26 MHz

Pulse duration: 26.5 μ s

Antenna : 3.5-m dish

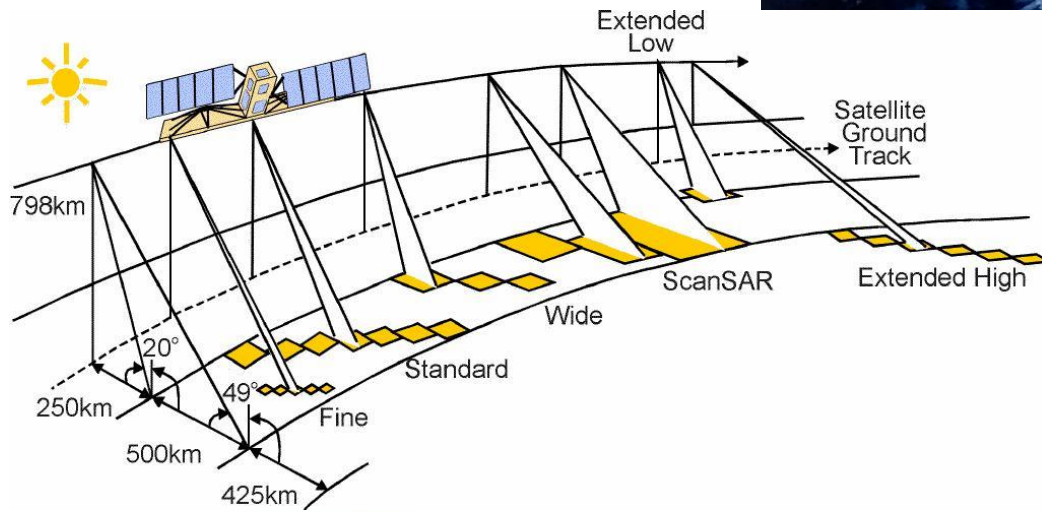
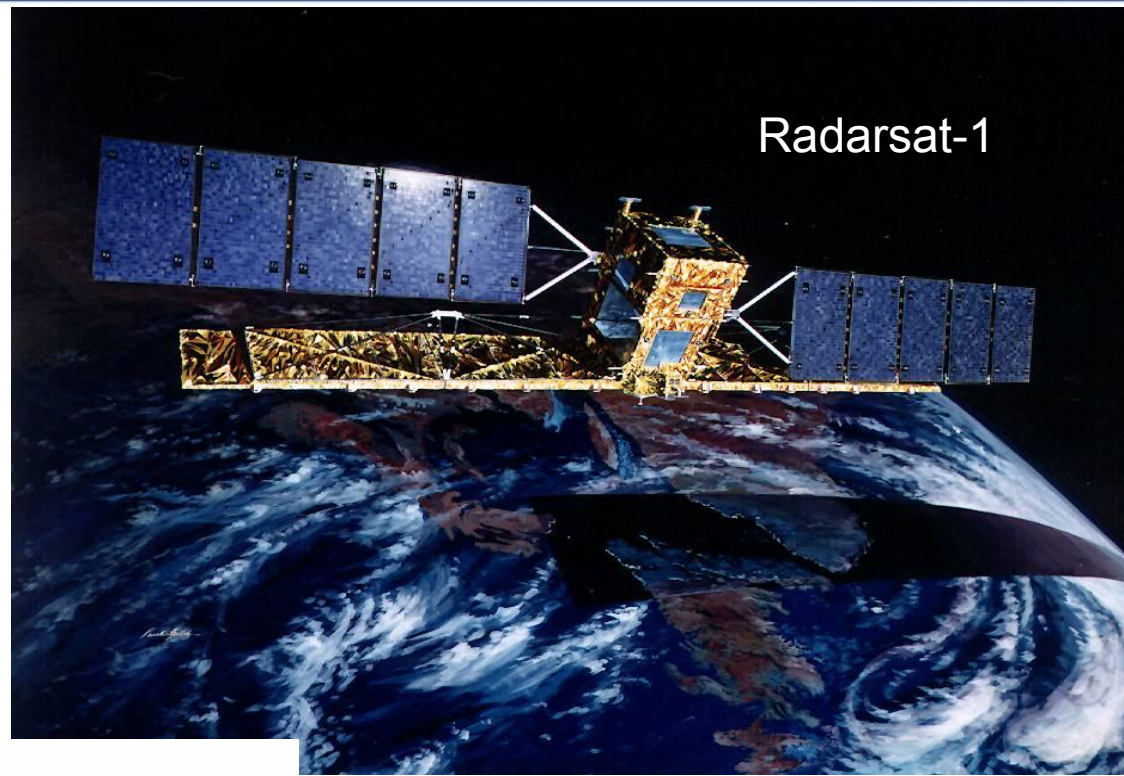
Resolution (Δx , Δy): 120 m, 120 m



Magellan spacecraft orbiting Venus

Launched: May 4, 1989 Arrived at Venus: August 10, 1990 Radio contact lost: October 12, 1994

Synthetic Aperture Radar Overview



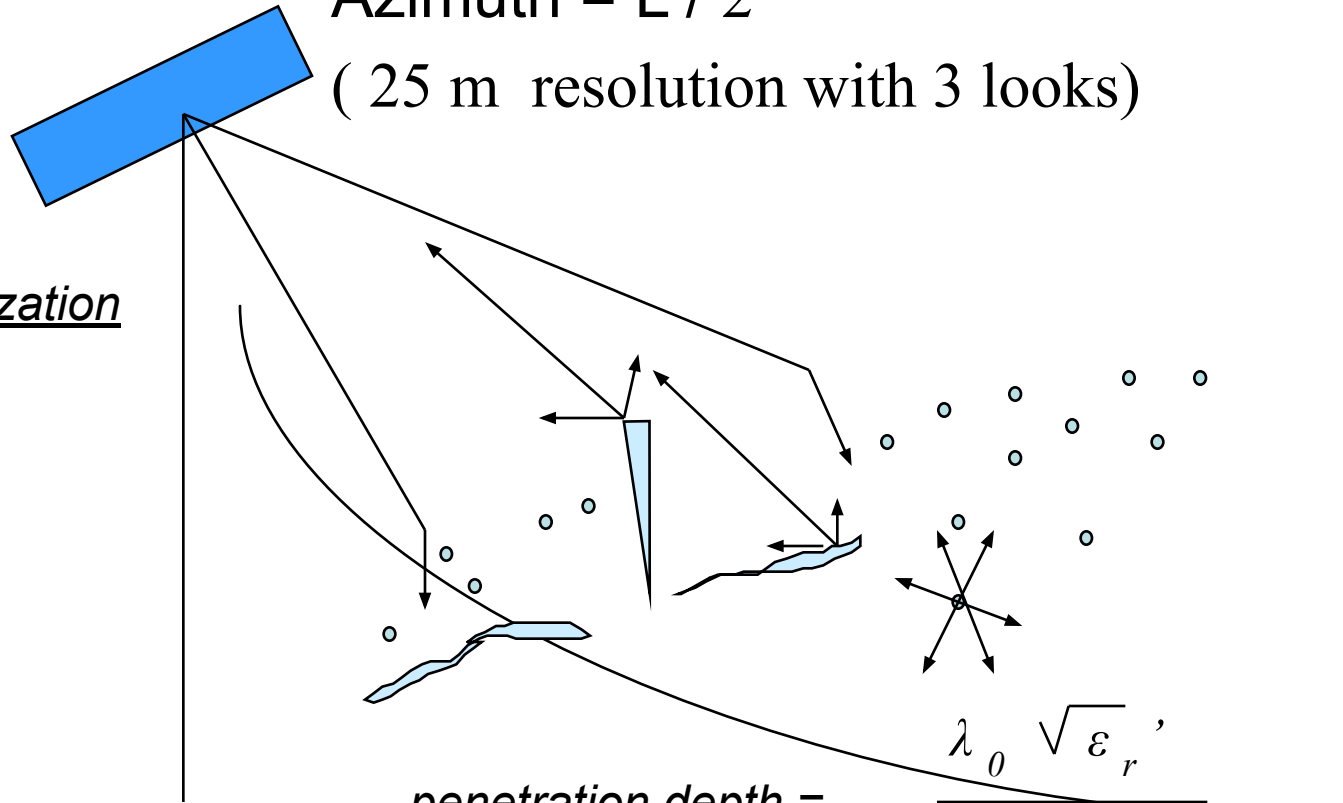
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SAR imaging characteristics

Range Res \sim pulse width

Azimuth = $L / 2$

(25 m resolution with 3 looks)



<u>platform</u>	<u>λ (cm)</u>	<u>polarization</u>
SEASAT	23	HH
SIR	23, 5.7, 3.1	pol
JERS-1	23	HH
ERS-1/2	5.7	VV
Radarsat-1	5.7	HH
ALOS	23	pol
Radarsat-2	5.7	pol
TerraSAR-X	3.1	pol

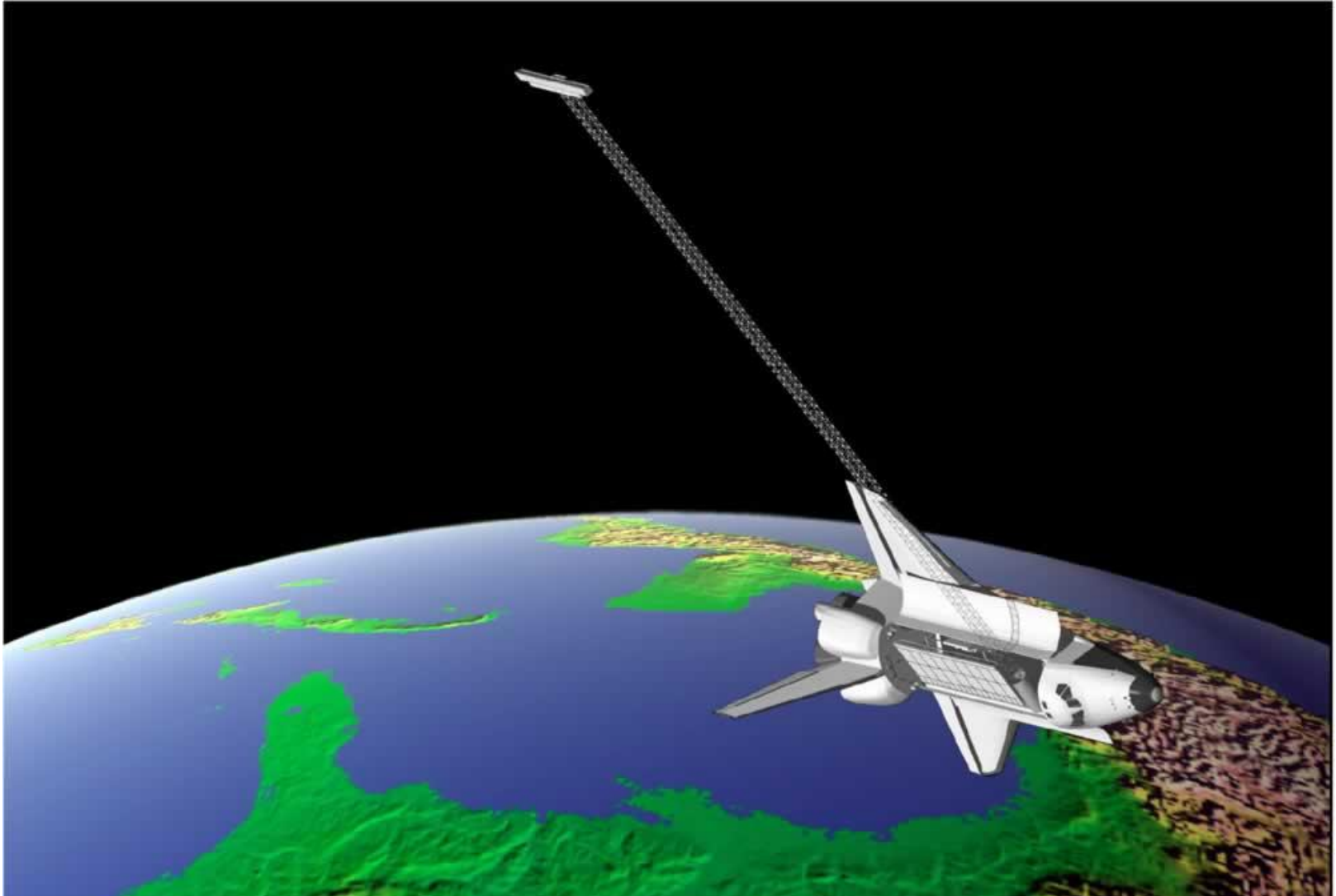
penetration depth =

$$\frac{\lambda_0 \sqrt{\epsilon_r'}}{2 \pi \epsilon_r''}$$

(several meters even at C-band)



Single-pass interferometry

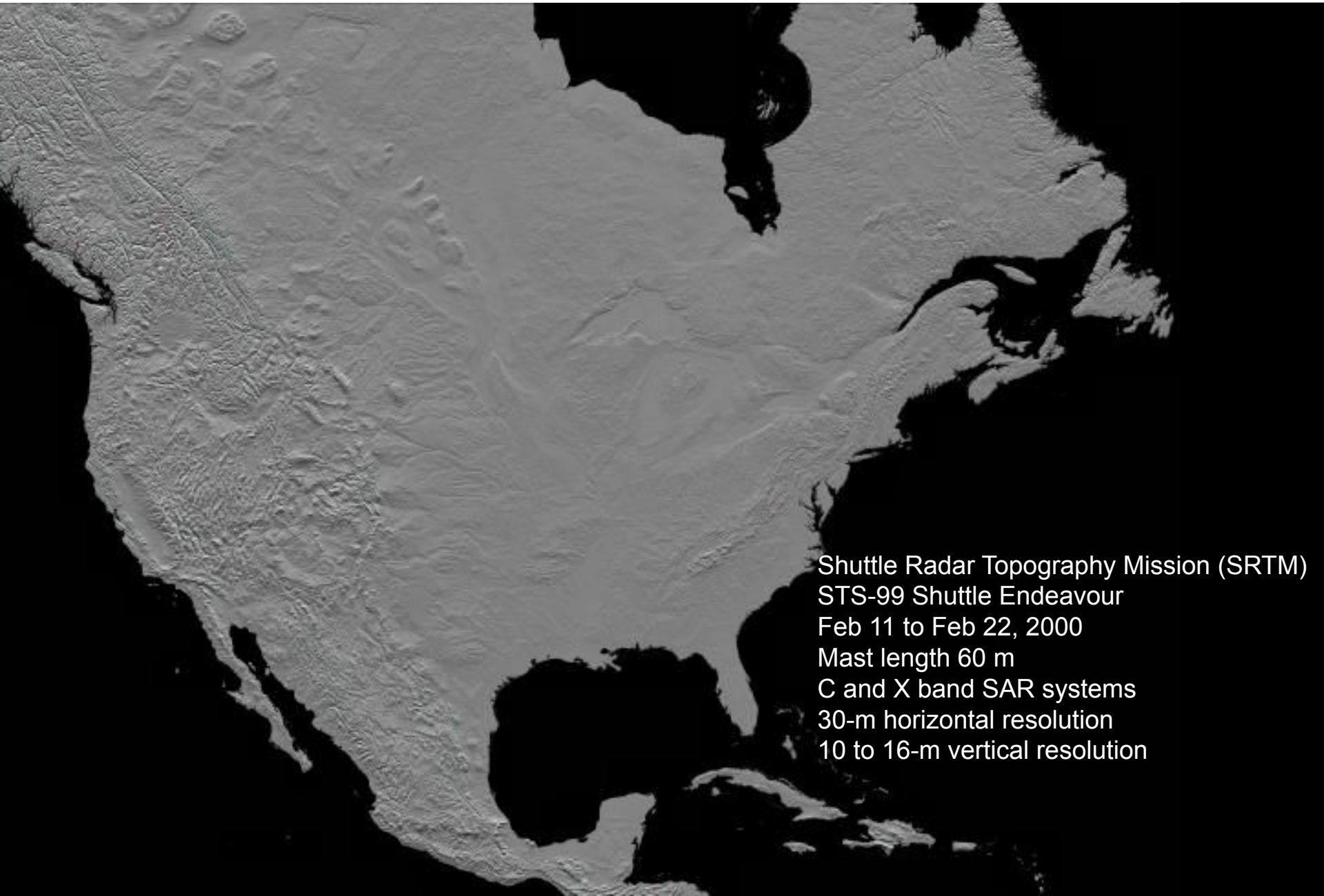


Single-pass interferometry. Two antennas offset by known baseline.

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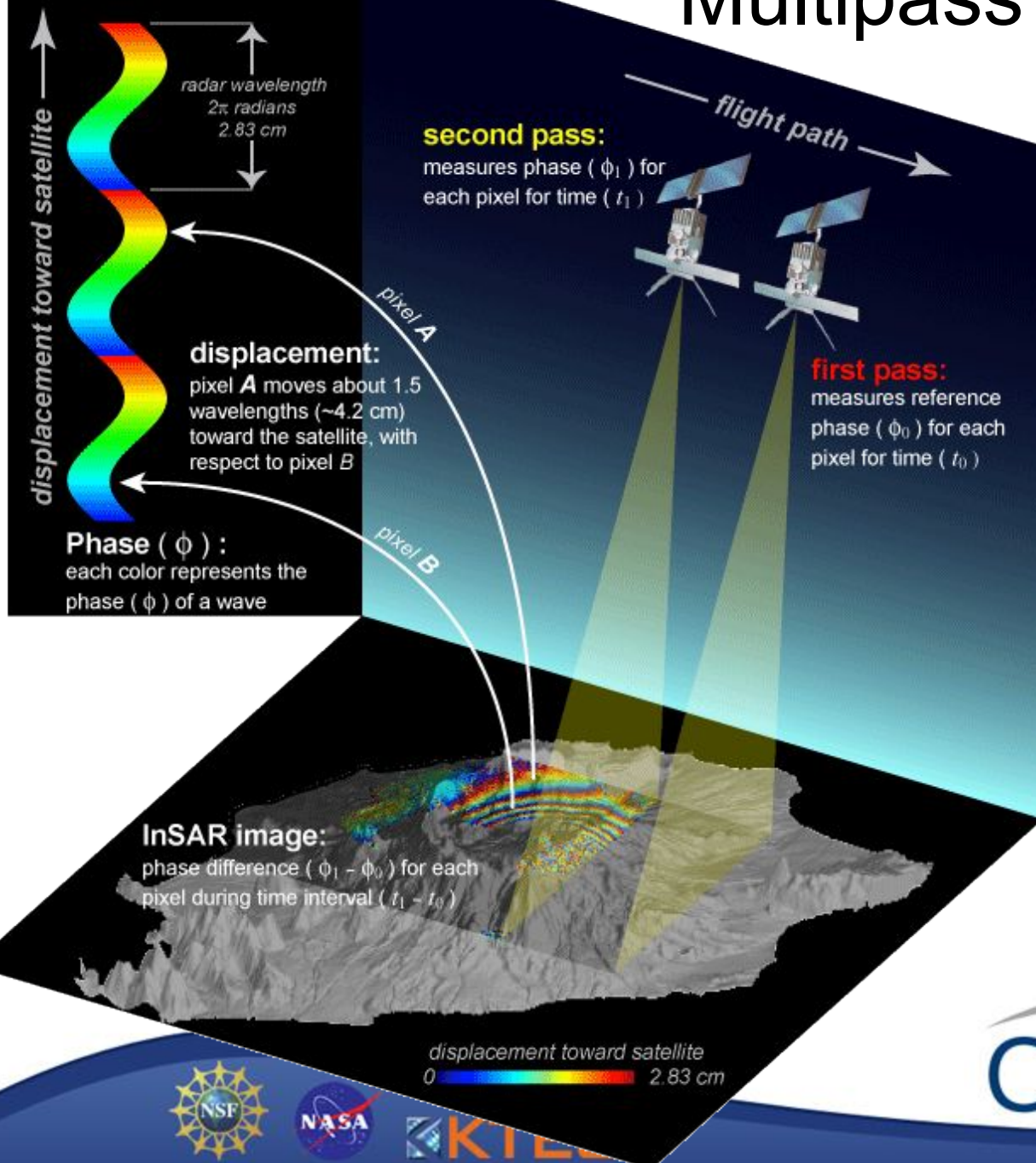
Topographic map of North America



Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM)
STS-99 Shuttle Endeavour
Feb 11 to Feb 22, 2000
Mast length 60 m
C and X band SAR systems
30-m horizontal resolution
10 to 16-m vertical resolution

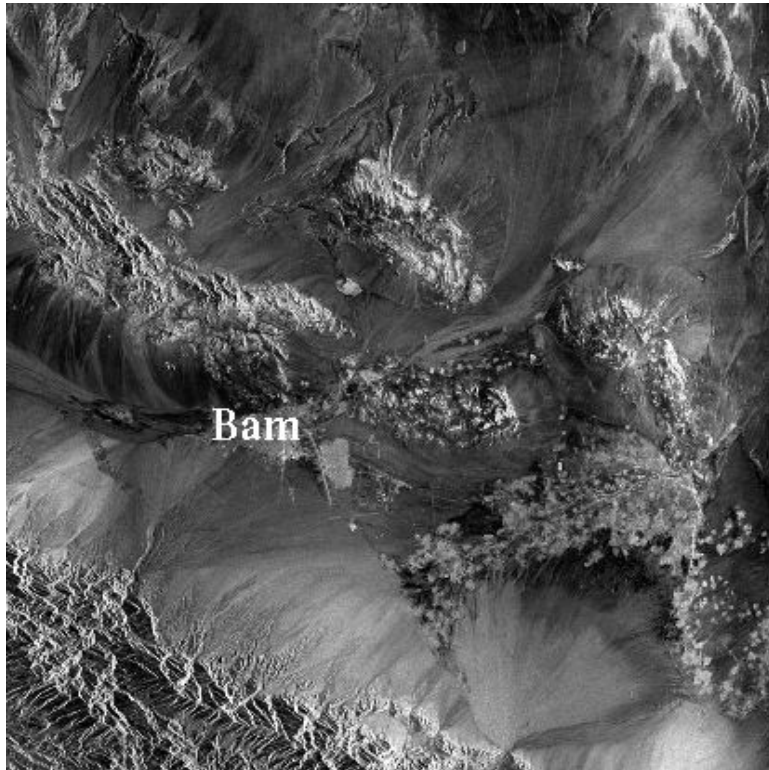
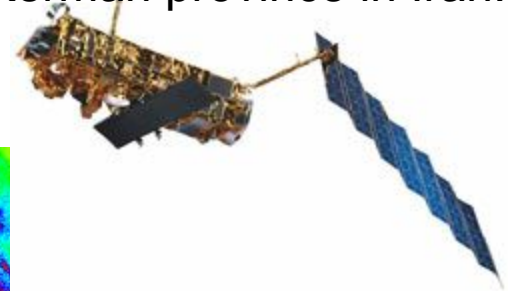
Multipass interferometric SAR (InSAR)

Same or similar SAR systems image common region at different times. Differences can be attributed to elevation (relief) or horizontal displacements. Third observation needed to isolate elevation effects from displacement effects.

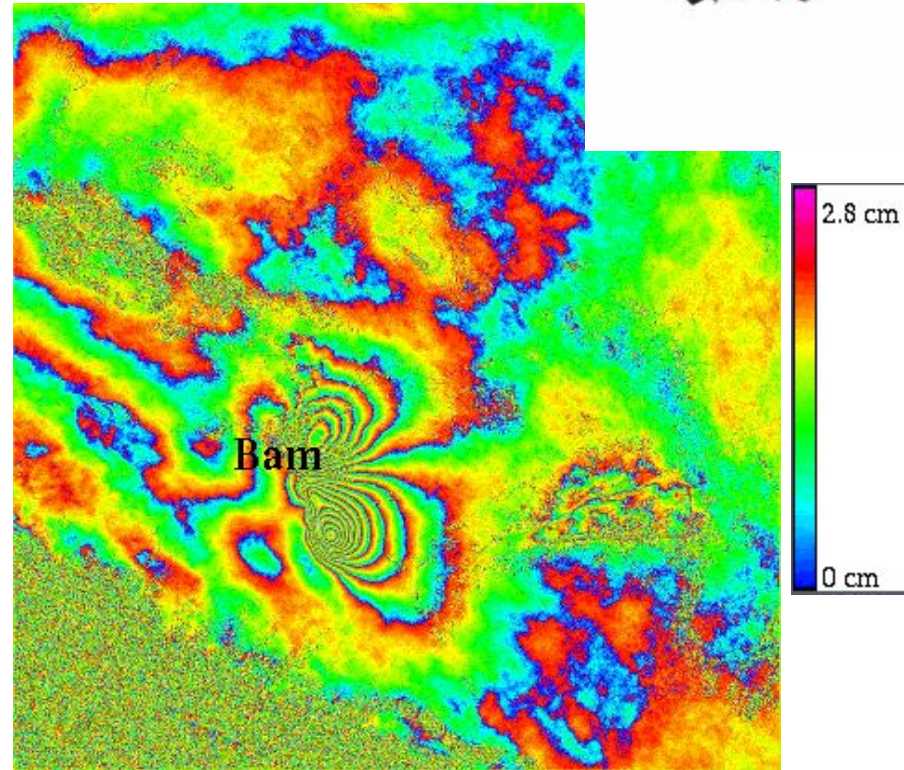


Earthquake displacements

On December 26, 2003 a magnitude 6.6 earthquake struck the Kerman province in Iran.



radar intensity image



differential interferogram

Multipass ENVISAT SAR data sets from June 11, 2003, December 3, 2003 and January 7, 2004. The maximum relative movement change in LOS is about 48 cm and located near the city Bam.

ENVISAT SAR launched March 1, 2002

f: 5.331 GHz orbit: 800 km antenna: 10 m x 1.3 m $\Delta x = \Delta y = 28$ m

320 T/R modules @ 38.7 dBm each: 2300 W

Digital elevation mapping with InSAR

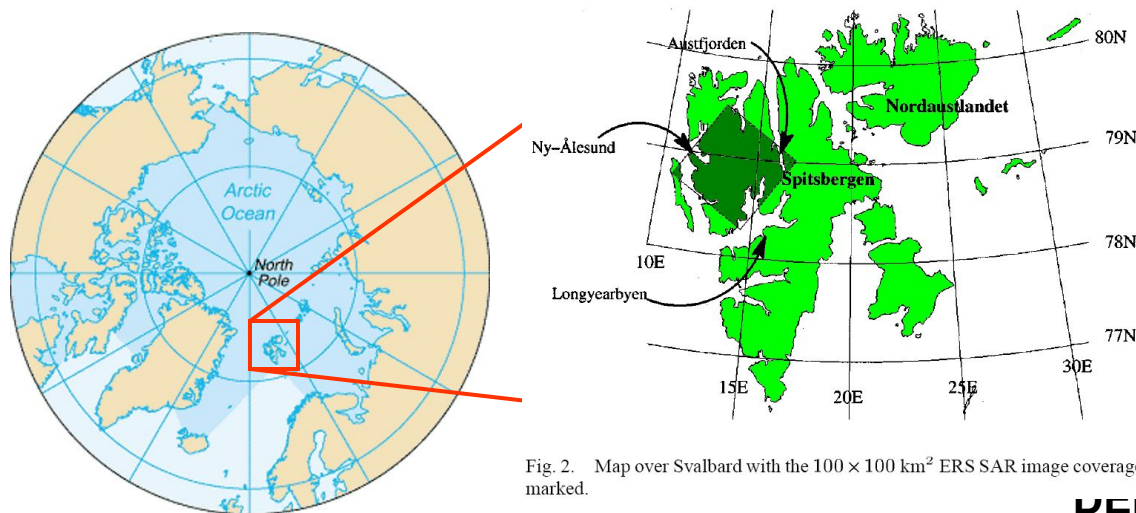
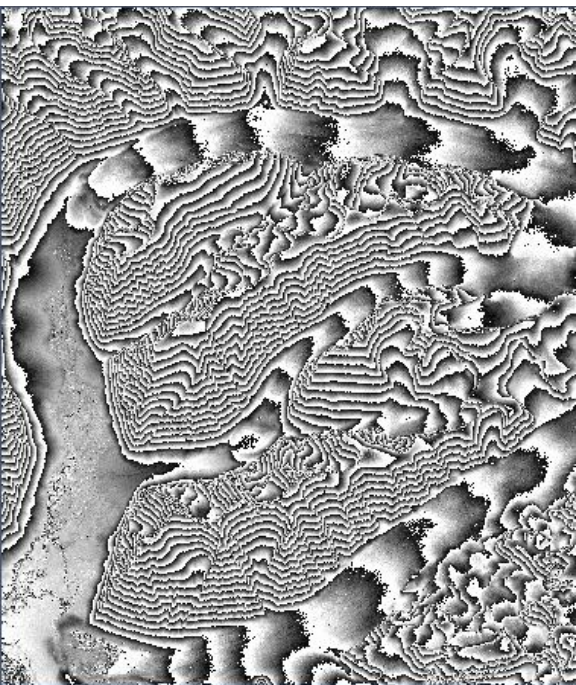


Fig. 2. Map over Svalbard with the $100 \times 100 \text{ km}^2$ ERS SAR image coverage marked.

Interferogram



Digital elevation map (DEM)



DEM draped with SAR amplitude data

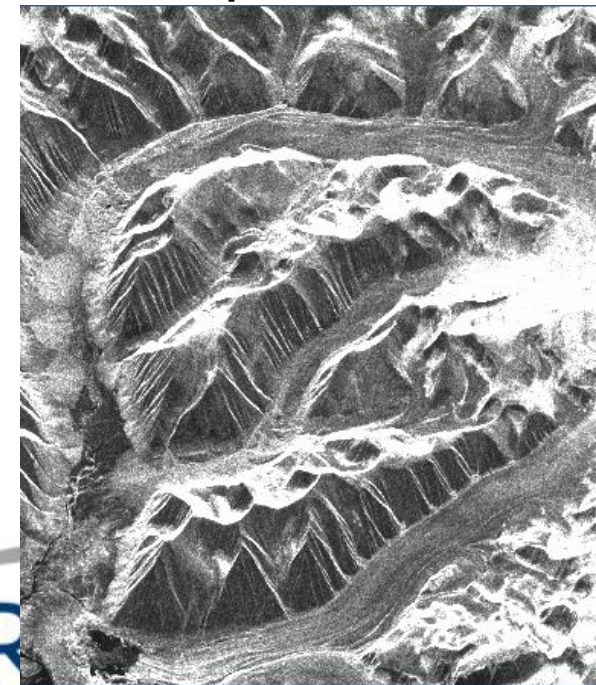
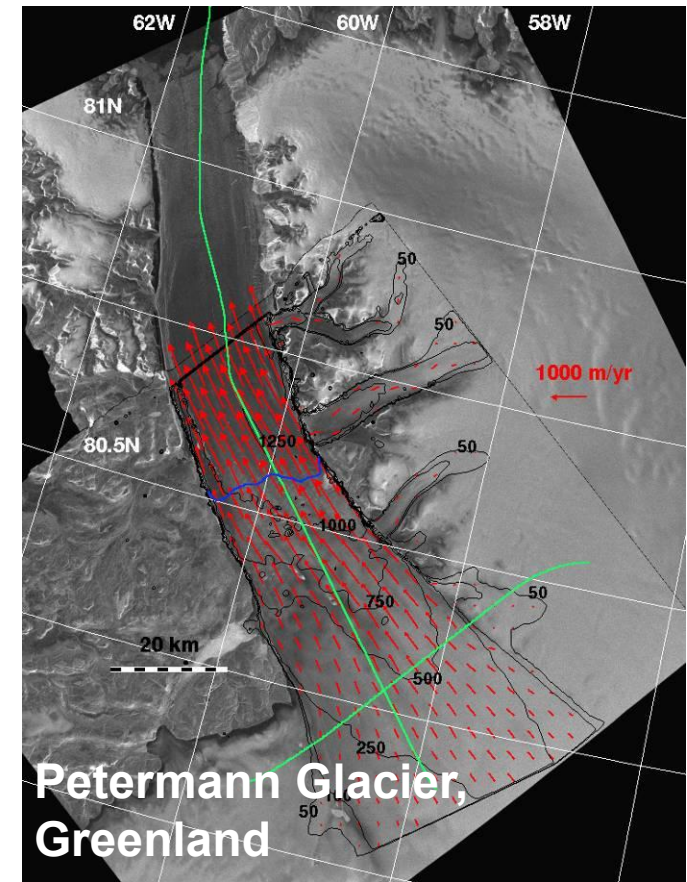
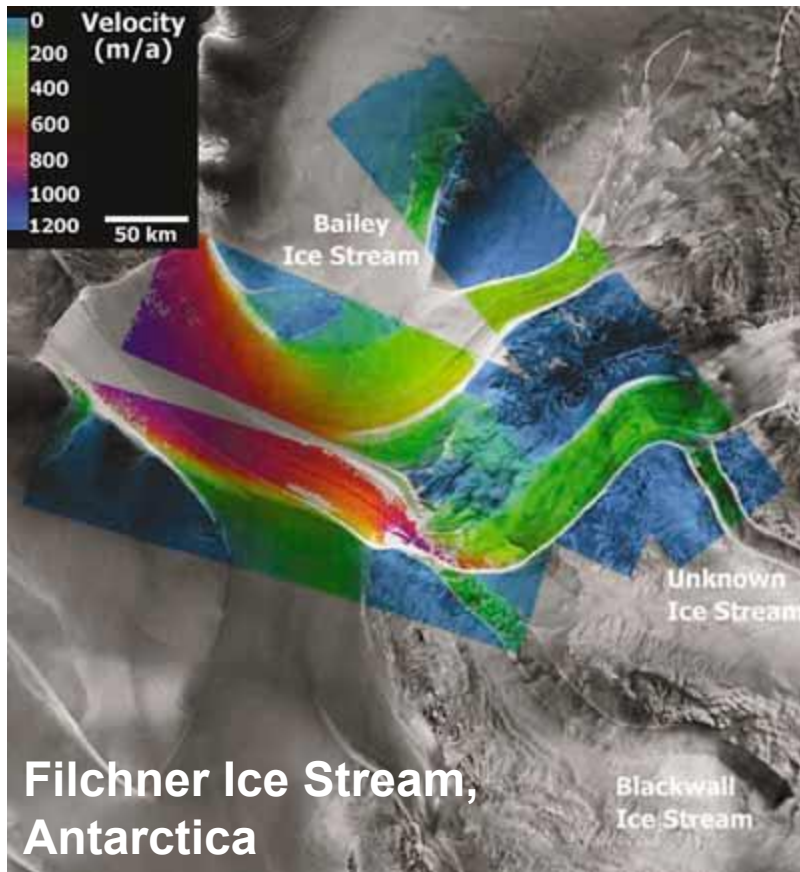


Image covers 18.1 km in azimuth, 26.8 km in range. The azimuth direction is horizontal.

Surface velocity mapping with InSAR

Multipass InSAR mapping of horizontal displacement provides surface velocities.



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Future directions

System refinements

Eight-channel digitizer (no more time-multiplexing) (6 dB improvement)
Reduced bandwidth from 180 MHz to 80 MHz (140 to 220 MHz) to avoid spectrum use issues.

Signal processing

Produce more accurate DEM using interferometry.
Produce 3-D SAR maps showing topography and backscattering.

Platforms

Migrate system to airborne platforms (Twin Otter, UAV).

Meridian UAV

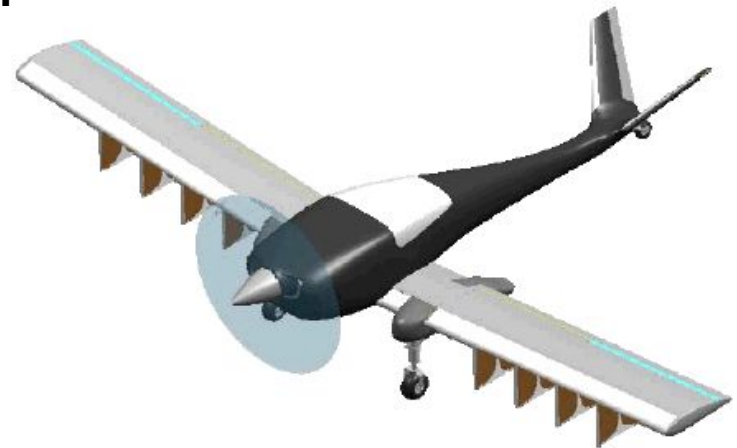
Take-off weight: 1080 lbs

Wingspan: 26.4 ft

Range: 1750 km

Endurance: 13 hrs

Payload: 55 kg



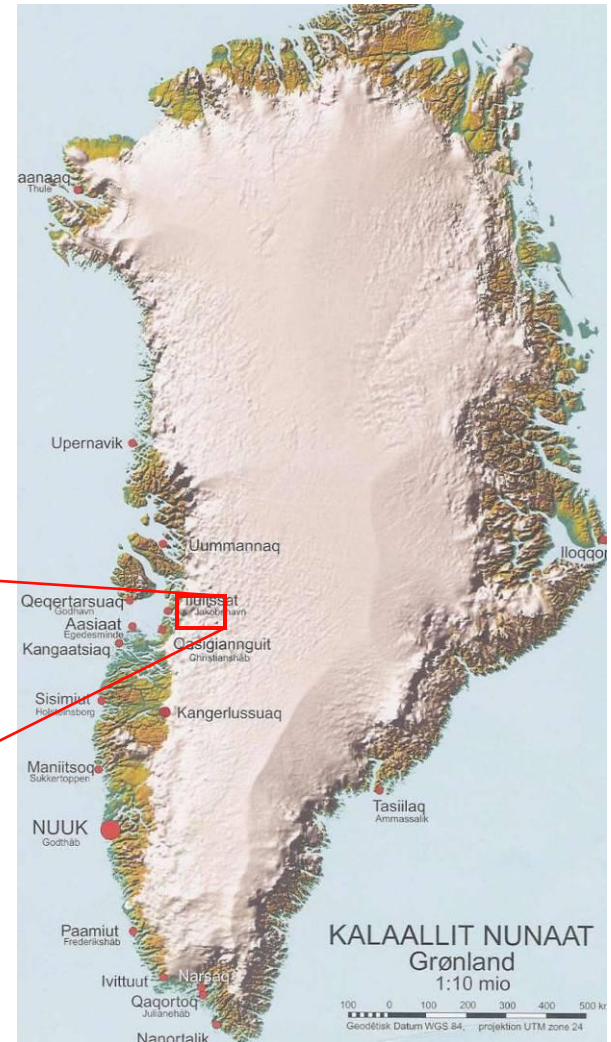
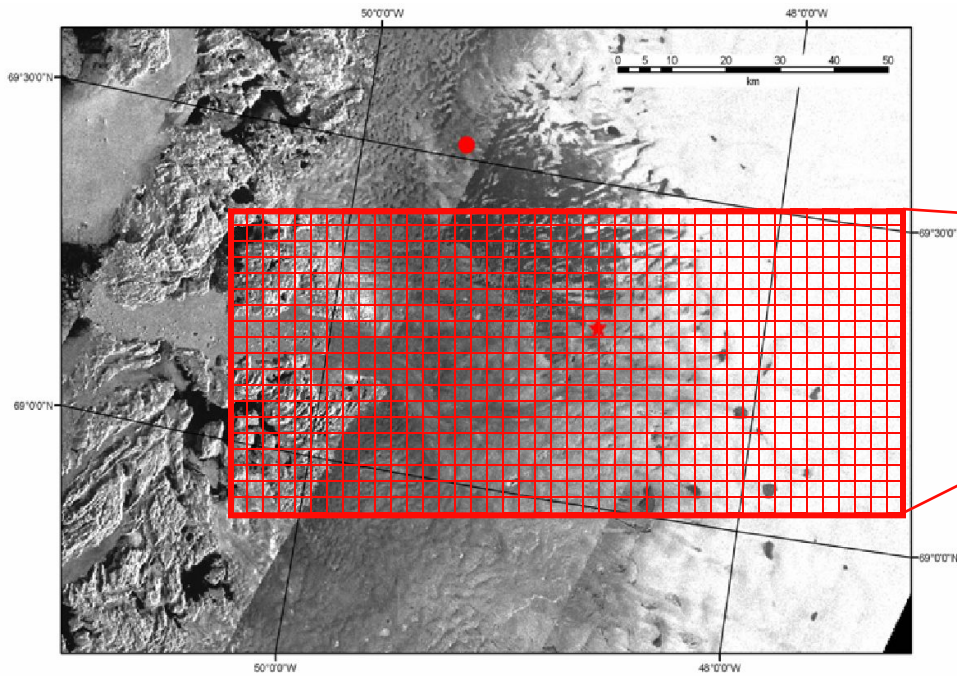
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Greenland 2008

Jakobshavn Isbrae and its inland drainage area

Extensive airborne campaign and surface-based effort vicinity NEEM



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WHERE DISCOVERIES BEGIN



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