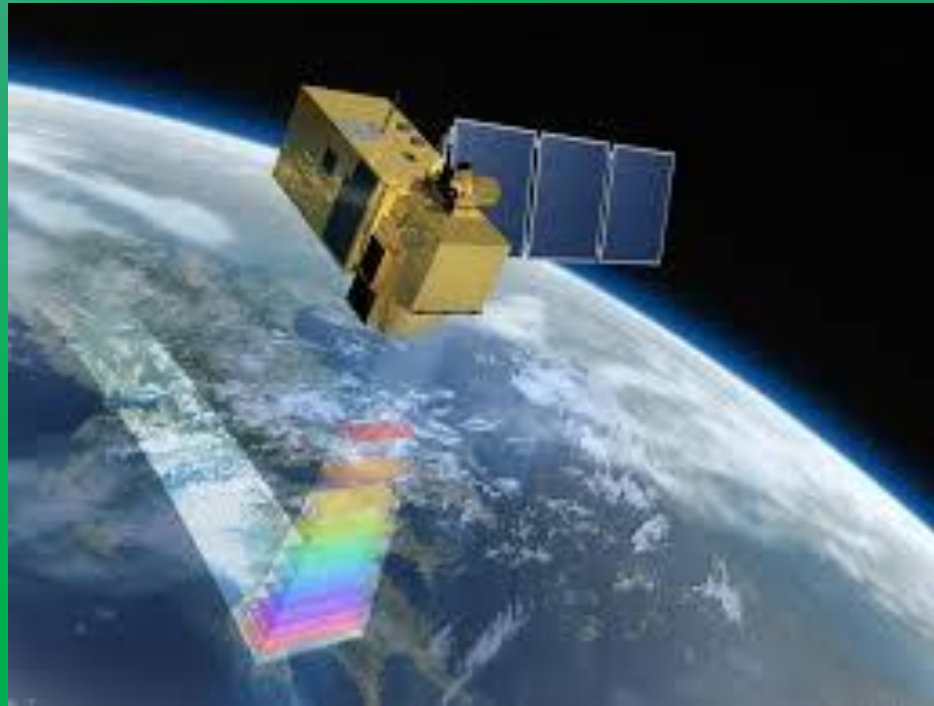


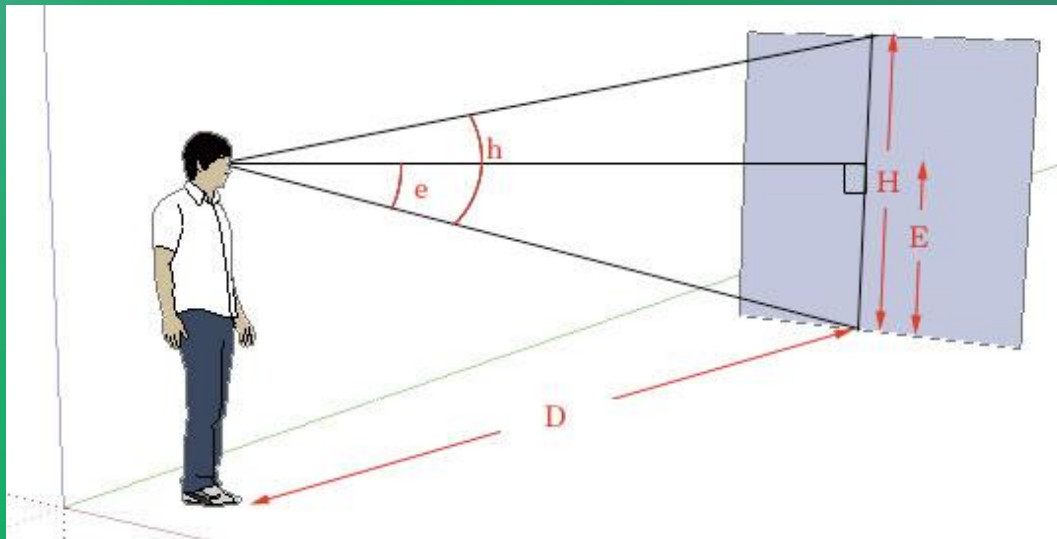
An Intro to Remote Sensing

Dr. Marios Spiliotopoulos



What is remote sensing ?

- Remote – away from a distance
- Sensing – detecting a property or characteristic



Remote Sensing

The term "remote sensing," first used in the United States in the 1950s by Ms. Evelyn Pruitt of the U.S. Office of Naval Research



Definition

Remote sensing → The acquisition of information about an object, without being in physical contact with that object.

Reading with our eyes is a form of remote sensing.

Actually, remote sensing includes not only what is visual, but also what can't be seen with the eyes, which can be for example sound or heat.

Definition

Remote Sensing generally involves the detection and measurement of radiation at different wavelengths

Radiation may be reflected or emitted from distant objects or materials

Wavelengths can identify and categorize the objects by class/type, substance, and spatial distribution

Early History of Remote Sensing

- 1839 → the first photographs. The term "photography" is derived from two Greek words meaning "light" (phos) and the art of drawing or "writing" (graphien). Photographic camera captures an image by concentrating visible light through a lens onto a recording medium.
- 1849 → photography in topographic mapping (Colonel A. Laussedat)
- 1858 → use of balloons for large area mapping
- Mid 1930s → color photography
- 1939 → the term RADAR is used for the first time
- World War II → aerial photography became widespread

Aerial Photo

Labrugauere, France → (A. Balut 1889)



Post-War History

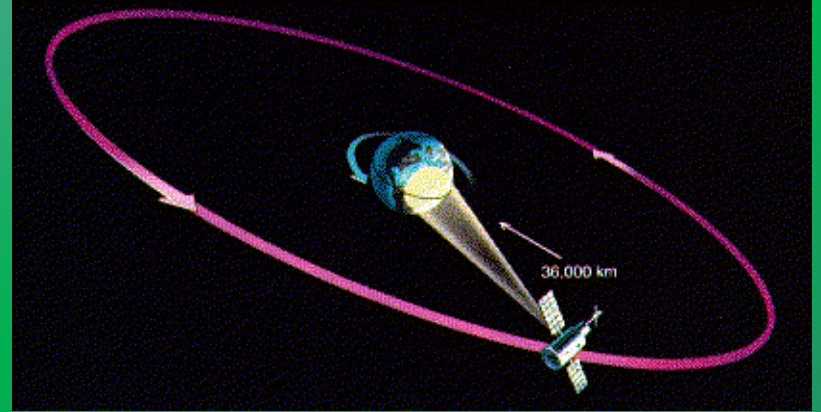
- After World War II → Cameras were launched on rockets
- 1957 → Russians launched the first successful Earth satellite, Sputnik 1
- 1958 → US launched its first satellite, Explorer 1
- 1959 → Vanguard 2, the first satellite with a meteorological instrument, was launched
- 1960 → the first satellite images comes from the TIROS 1

The age of instrument development

1964-1972

- 1964 → Nimbus satellite series of experimental meteorological remote sensing was initiated.
- 1966 → meteorological satellites moved from being experimental to being operational
- 1966 → The Defense Meteorological Satellite Program (DMSP) was started by the U.S. Air Force
- 1972 → Landsat 1 was launched

1972-1993



- 1975 → The Synchronous Meteorological Satellites.
- 1976 → Laser Geodynamic Satellite I.
- 1978 → The Heat Capacity Mapping Mission.
- 1978 → Seasat demonstrated techniques for global monitoring of the Earth's oceans.
- 1978 → Nimbus 7, the final satellite in that series, was launched.
- 1984 → The Earth Radiation Budget (ERBE) satellite began its study of how the Earth absorbs and reflects the Sun's energy.
- 1991 → Launch of European Radar Satellite [ERS-1](#), the first satellite with an altimeter able to map the earth surface to within 5 cm
- 1993 → Launch of SPOT-3, Landsat 6 fails to achieve orbit, Launch of Meteosat-6

1994-today

- 1994 → First G.P.S. constellation
- 2012 → 1000 satellites orbit the Earth
- 2014,2015 → Sentinel Mission



Product per satellite/instrument (Toulios *et al.*, 2008)

| Product | Type of satellite / instrument |
|------------------------------|---|
| NDVI | (MODIS/TERRA-AQUA,AVHRR/NOAA,VEGETATION/SPOT,TM/LANDSAT,SEVIRI/ METEOSAT) |
| Surface temperature | (AVHRR/NOAA,TM/LANDSAT,ASTER/TERRA,MODIS/TERRA-AQUA, SEVIRI /METEOSAT) |
| LAI | (MODIS / TERRA) |
| MSAVI | (VEGETATION / SPOT) |
| Cloud products | (SEVIRI / METEOSAT, NOAA / AVHRR) |
| Snow cover | (MODIS / TERRA, SEVIRI / METEOSAT) |
| Radiation | (SEVIRI / METEOSAT) |
| Vegetation/land cover | (TM-ETM / LANDSAT, ASTER /TERRA, SEVIRI / METEOSAT) |
| Precipitation | (SEVIRI / METEOSAT, GEO / LEO satellites, TOVS/NOAA) |
| SAF products | (METEOSAT, NOAA, AQUA) |
| Air-stability | (SEVIRI / METEOSAT) |
| Storm detection | (SEVIRI / METEOSAT) |
| Ozone | (TOVS / NOAA) |
| Evapotranspiration | (TM/LANDSAT,ASTER/TERRA, AVHRR/NOAA) |
| Soil moisture | (ASCAT / METOP) |
| VCI,TCI,VHI,TVDI | (AVHRR / NOAA) |
| Degree days | (AVHRR / NOAA) |
| CCD | (METEOSAT) |
| Albedo | (SEVIRI / METEOSAT, AVHRR / NOAA) |
| Sea ice | (AVHRR / NOAA) |
| Sea wind | (METOP) |

Sensor Types

Land Observing Sensors and their Features

Weather, Global Coverage Satellites

| Sensor Name | Pixel Resolution | Swath Width, km | No. Spectral Bands | Spectral Coverage | Temporal Repeat, days |
|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| AVHRR | 1.1km | 2700 | 5 | VNIR, TIR | 4*day |
| SPOT Vegetation | 1.15km | 2250 | 4 | VNIR, SWIR | 26 |
| MODIS | 0.25,0.5,1km | 2330 | 36 | VNIR, SWIR, TIR | 2* day |

Regional Satellites

| Sensor | m | km | bands | Spectral | Repeat |
|--------------|------------|-----|-------|-----------------|--------|
| ASTER | 15, 30, 90 | 60 | 16 | VNIR, SWIR, TIR | 16 |
| Landsat TM | 30, 120 | 185 | 7 | VNIR, SWIR, TIR | 16 |
| Landsat ETM+ | 30, 60, 15 | 185 | 8 | Pan + TM | 16 |
| SPOT HRV | 10, 20 | 60 | 4 | Pan, VNIR | 26 |
| SPOT HRVIR | 10, 20 | 60 | 5 | SWIR + HRV | 26 |

Local Coverage Satellites

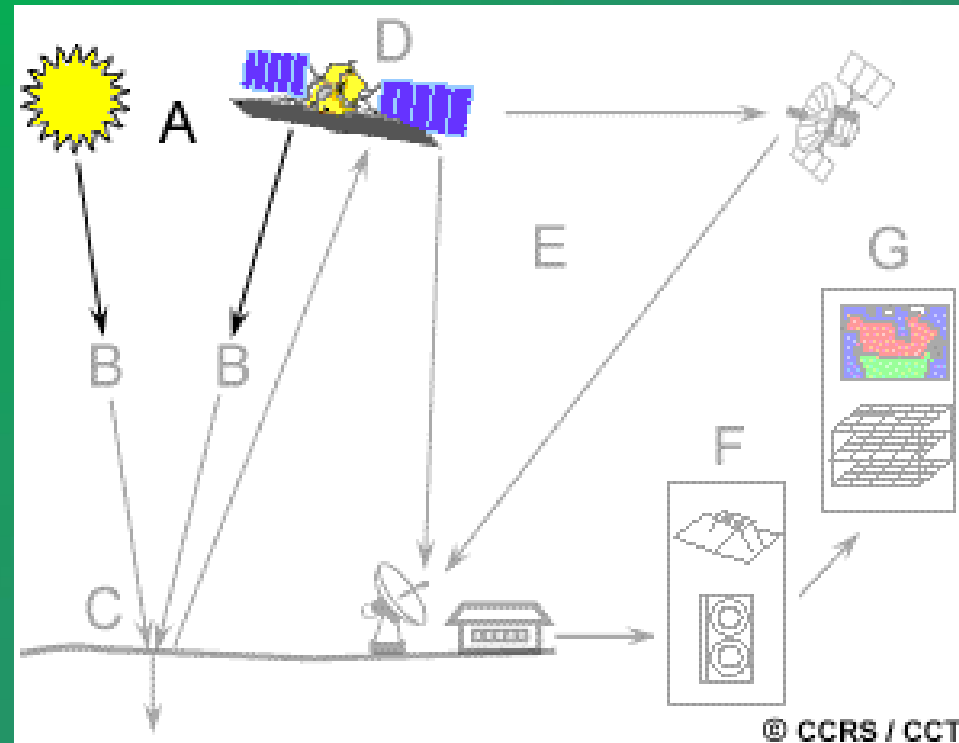
| Sensor | m | km | bands | Spectral | Repeat |
|-----------|----------------|------|-------|-----------|---------|
| Quickbird | 0.61 Pan, 2.44 | 16.5 | 5 | Pan, VNIR | 2 to 11 |
| IKONOS | 1.0 Pan, 4 | 11.3 | 5 | Pan, VNIR | 3 |

AIRBORNE Instruments

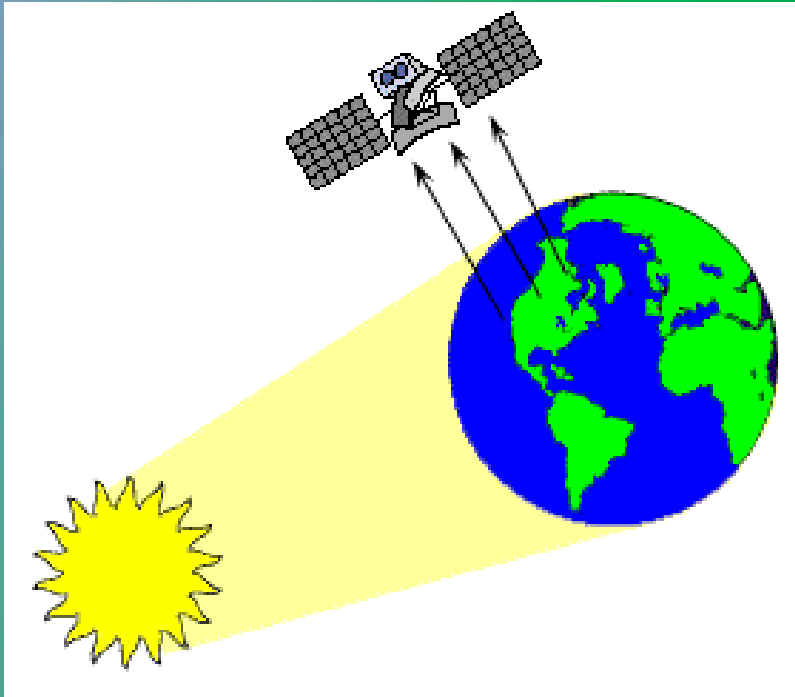
| Sensor | m | km | bands | Spectral | Repeat |
|---------------|---------|---------------|-----------|------------|-----------|
| AVIRIS, Hymap | 4, 20 | 2 km, 10 km | 168 - 224 | VNIR, SWIR | on demand |
| CASI-2 | 5-Jan | 1 km - 2.5 km | 48-288 | VNIR | on demand |
| ADAR-5500 | 0.5 - 3 | 1 km - 2.5 km | 4 | VNIR | on demand |

The remote sensing process

- 1) Energy Source or Illumination
- 2) Radiation and the Atmosphere
- 3) Interaction with the Target
- 4) Recording of Energy by the Sensor
- 5) Transmission, Reception, and Processing
- 6) Interpretation and Analysis
- 7) Application



Passive and Active Remote Sensing Systems

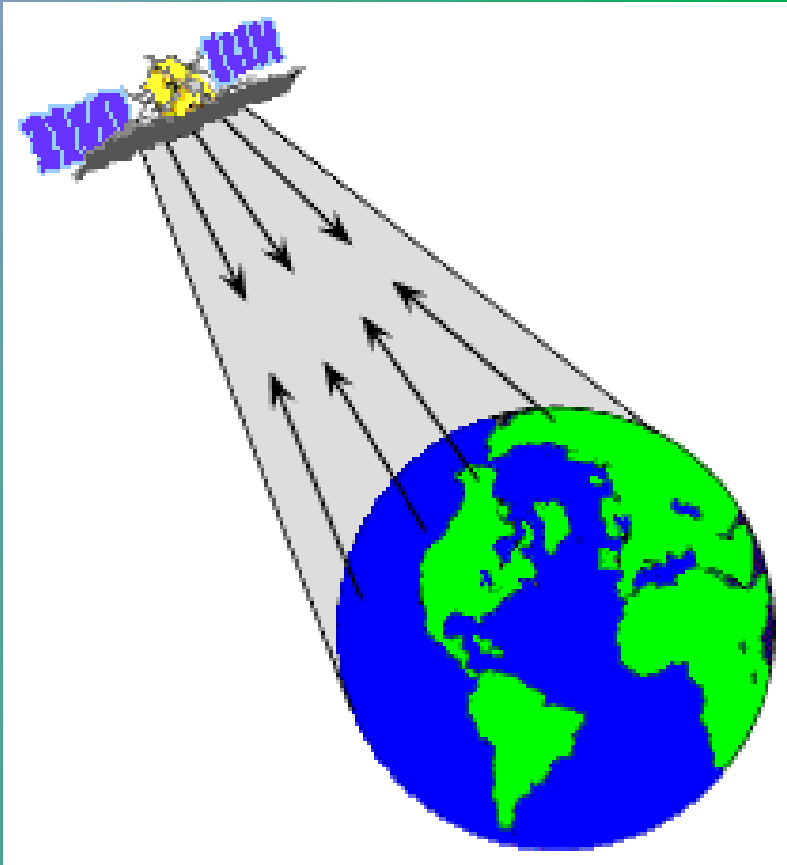


Passive: The sensor records energy that is reflected or emitted from the source, such as light from the sun. This is the most common system.

Passive Remote Sensors

- *Radiometer*
- *Imaging Radiometer*
- *Spectrometer*
- *Spectroradiometer*

Active Remote Sensing systems



Active: where the object is illuminated by radiation produced by the sensors, such as radar or microwaves.

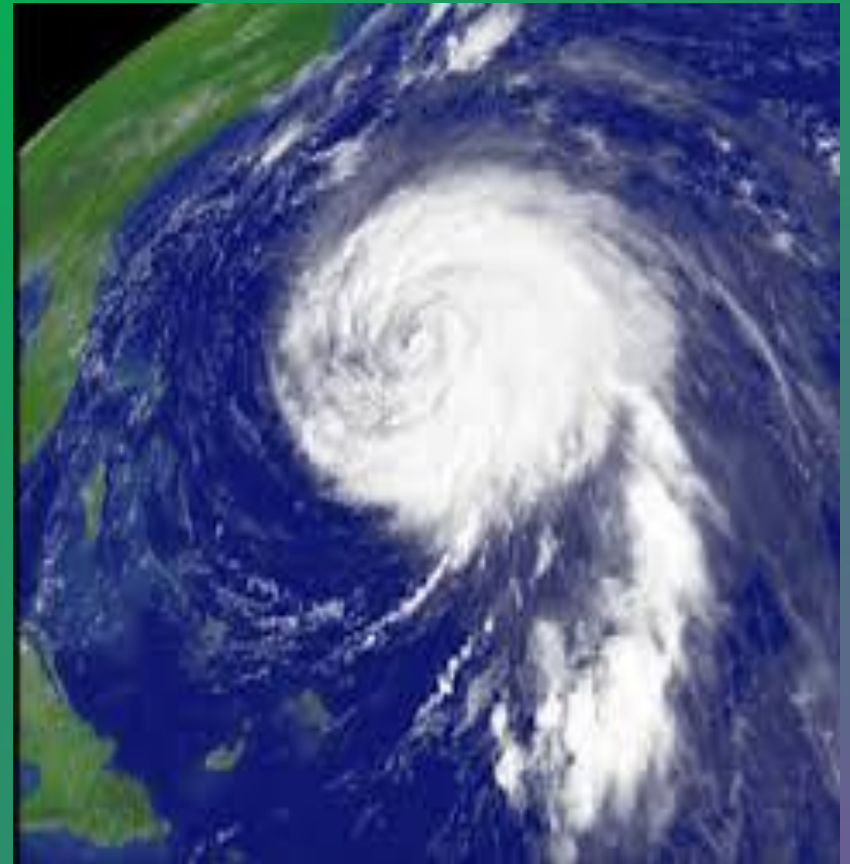
Active remote sensors

- *Radar (Radio Detection and Ranging)*
- *Scatterometer*
- *Lidar (Light Detection and Ranging)*

Remote Sensing Applications

■ *Weather Systems:*

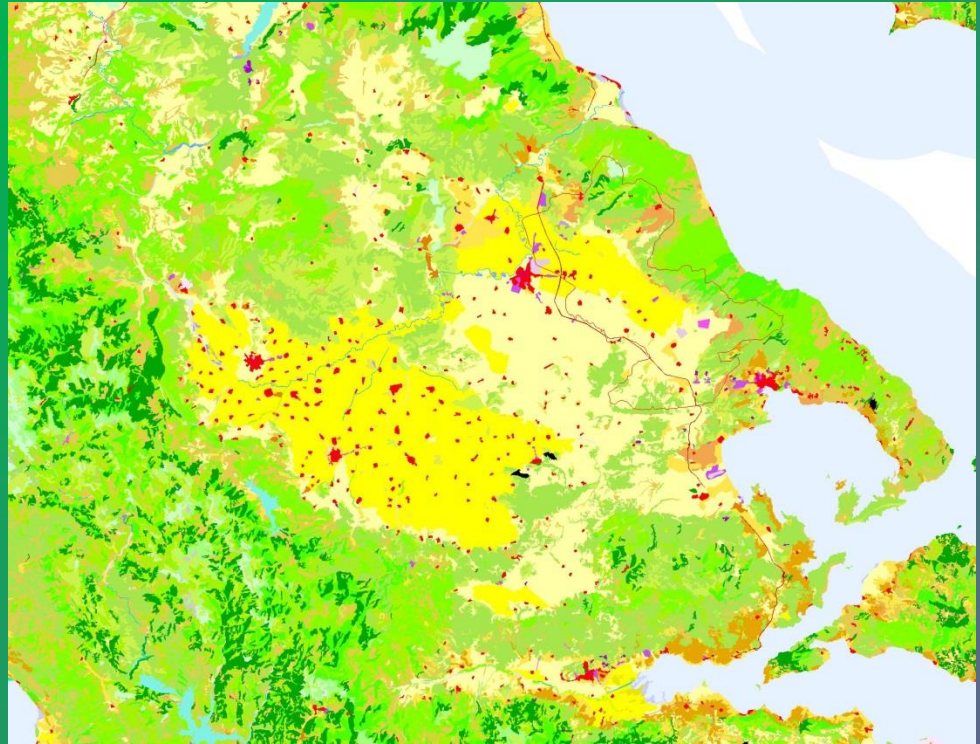
It is possible to monitor weather and climate conditions using information from satellites. Acquisition of images over time allow us to make weather forecast.



Remote Sensing Applications

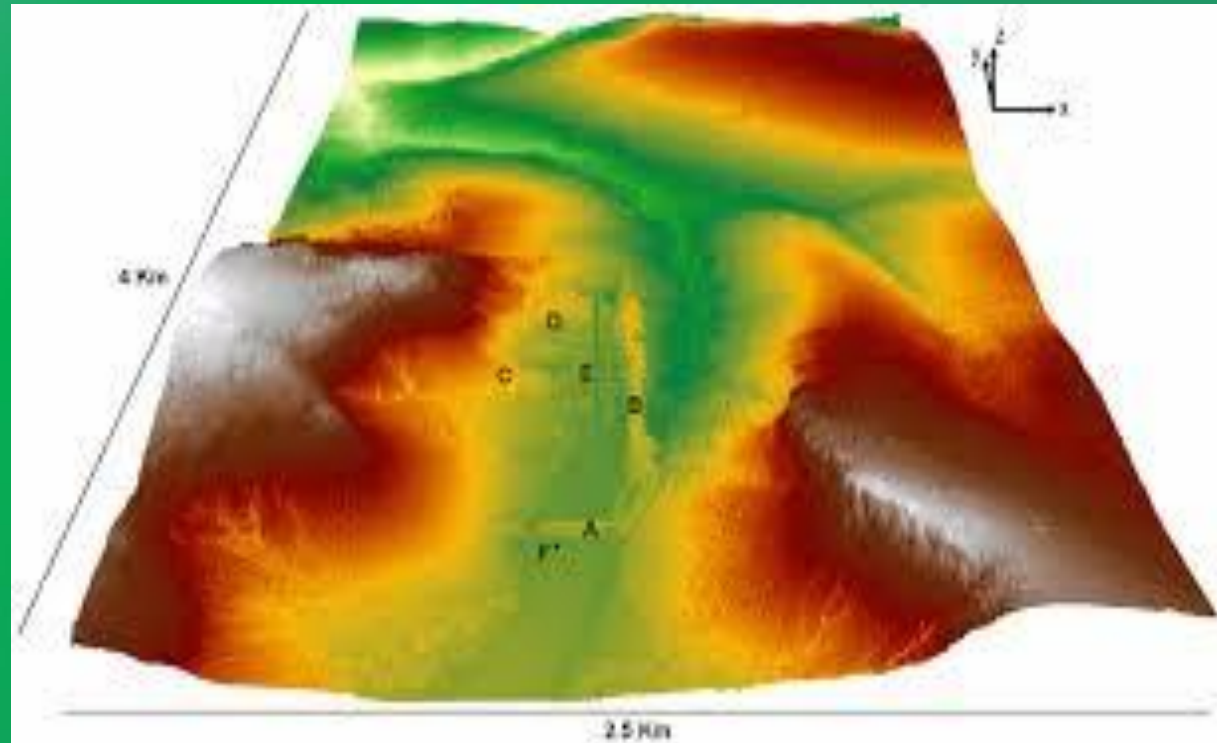
- *Agriculture:*

Crop mapping and yield prediction; crop damage due to storms, droughts or insects/diseases.



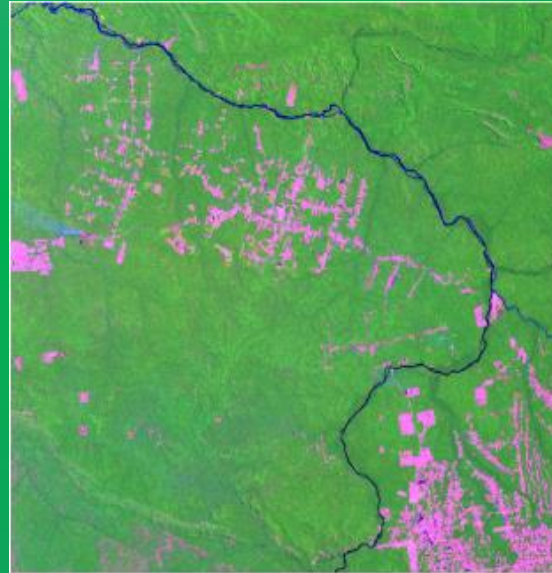
Remote Sensing Applications

- *Environmental Impacts:*
determine oil spill size, location, direction and magnitude of movement.

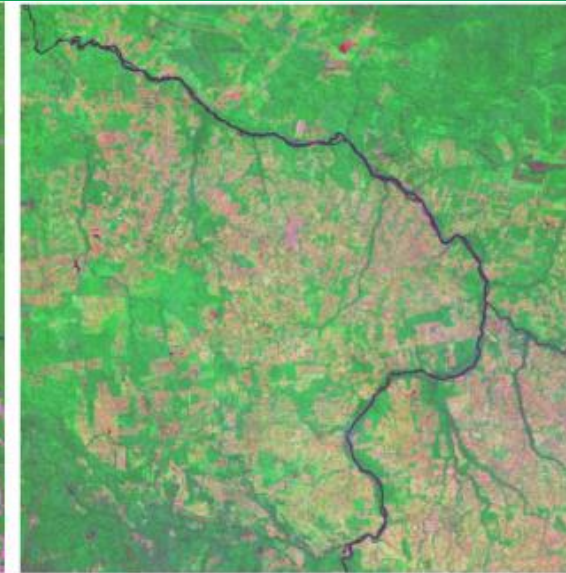


Remote Sensing Applications

- **Forests Monitoring:**
Forest inventory,
mapping cut-overs,
forest fire mapping,
species identification.



Landsat TM imagery (30 m resolution)
Year 1984
Image size: circa 150 km x 150 km

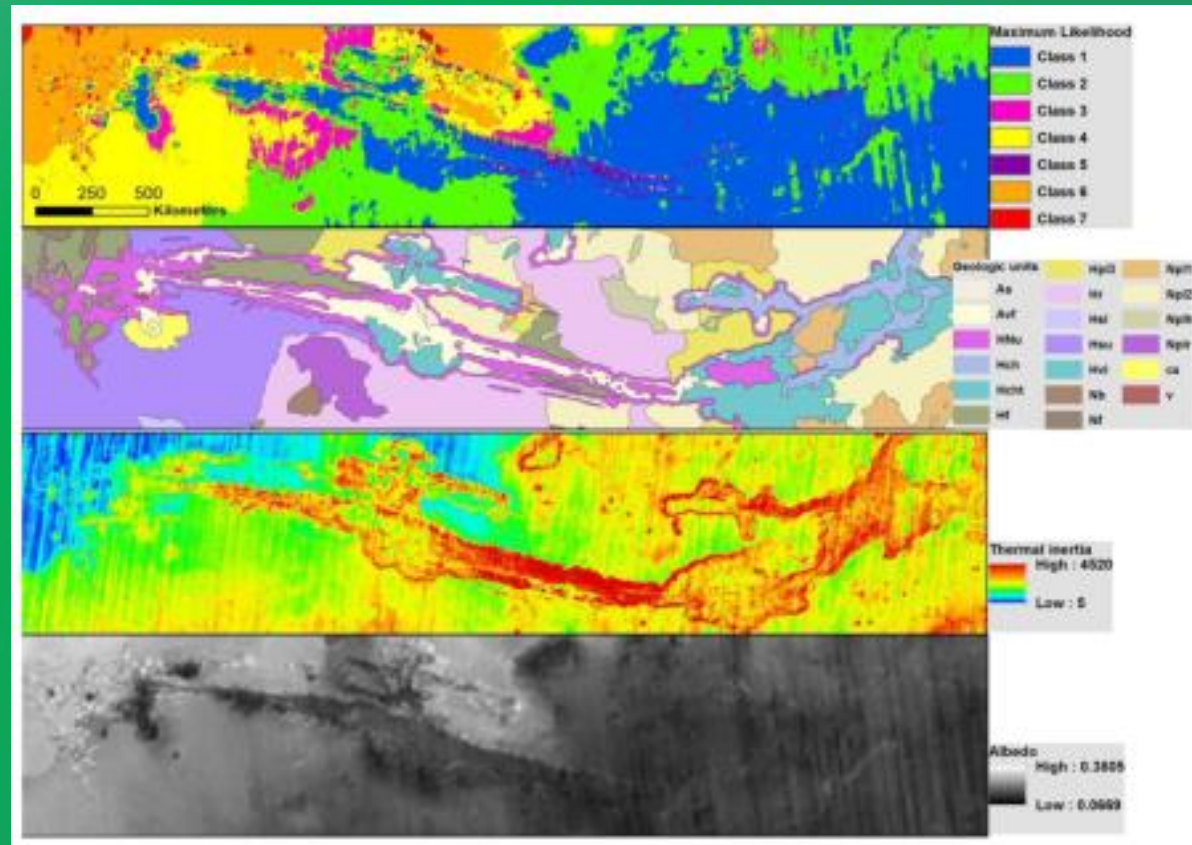


ENVISAT MERIS image (300 m resolution)
Year 2005
Image size: circa 150 km x 150 km

Remote Sensing Applications

■ Geological Mapping:

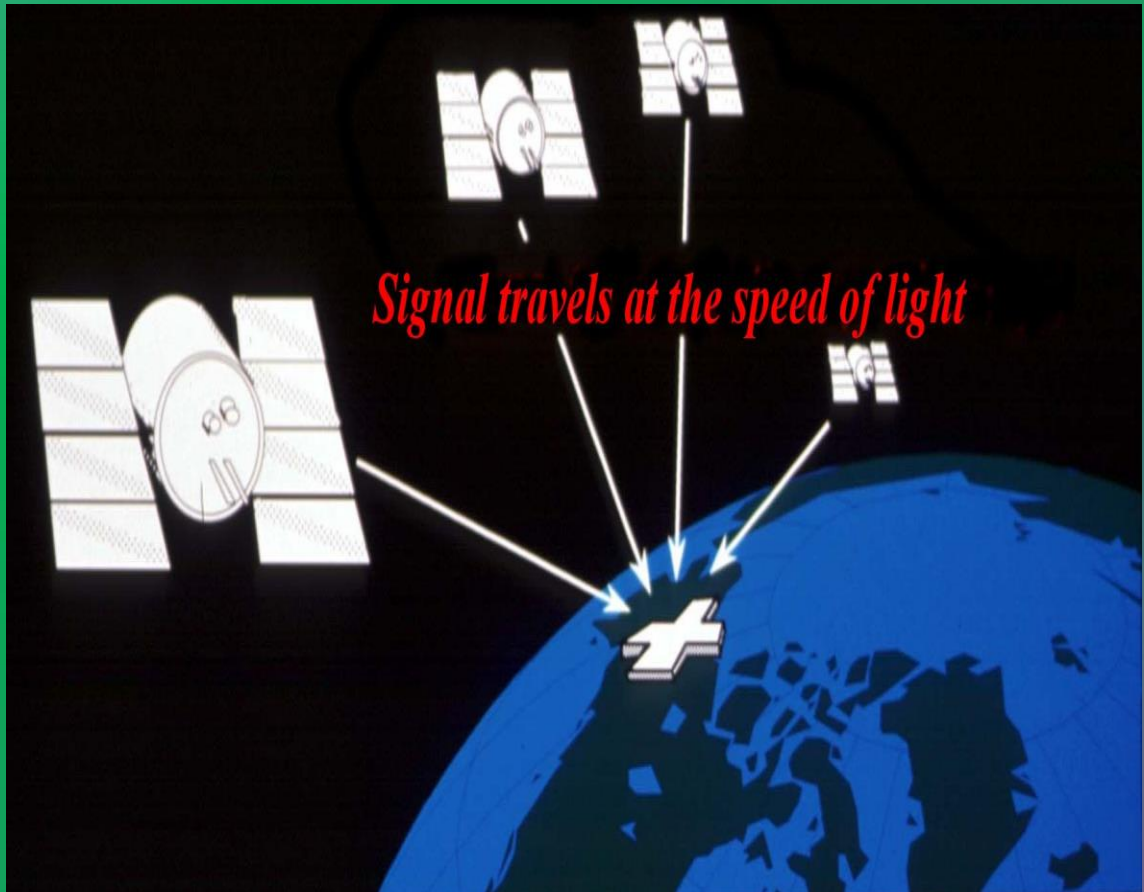
Mapping faults, folds, and rock types.



G.P.S. – Global Positioning System

Uses measurements
from 4+ satellites

Distance = travel
time x speed of light



G.P.S. – Global Positioning System

GPS:
4 or more satellites must be available all of the time.

About 32 satellites

Very high orbits

Several replaced every year.



Maps & Cartography

Maps have generally three main characteristics:

- Scale
- Projection
- Symbolization

Scale

Scale Representation: There are three ways to represent map scales;

- as a **Ratio or Representative Fraction (RF):**

for example: 1:12,000 or $1/12,000$

(NOTE that the Numerator and Denominator must be in the same units, making the RF a unitless representation.)

- as a **sentence demonstrating equivalence** (verbal scale):

for example: 1 inch equals 12,000 inches

- as a **Graphic or Bar Scale:**

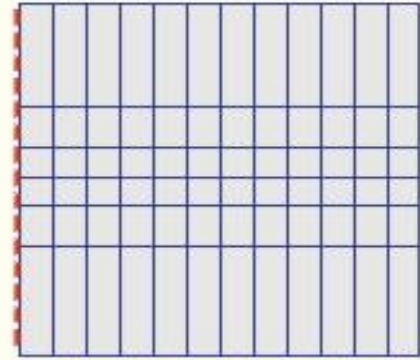
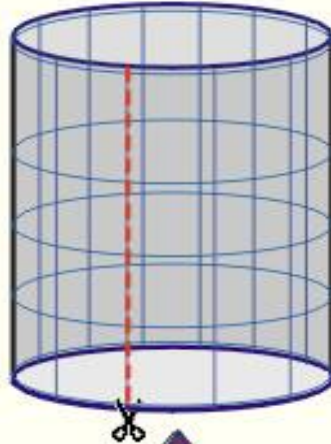
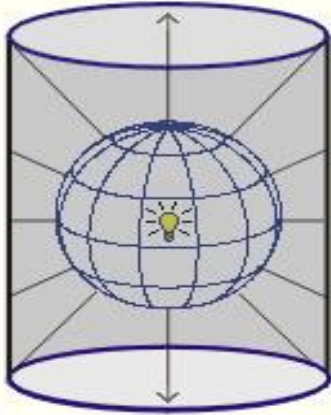
for example:



Map projections

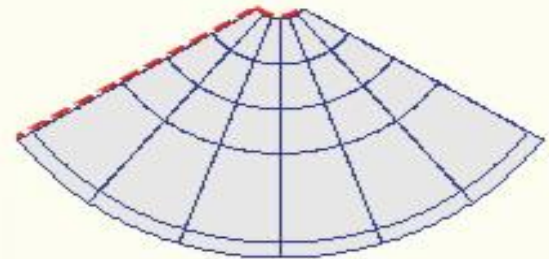
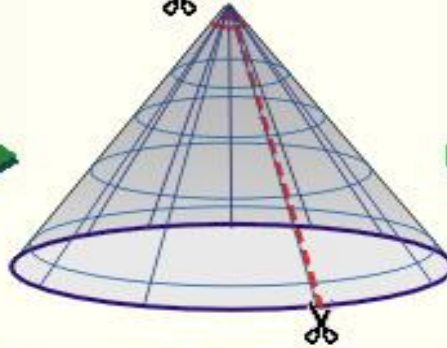
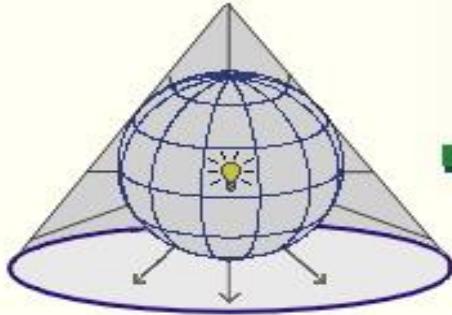
Cylindrical

Mercator



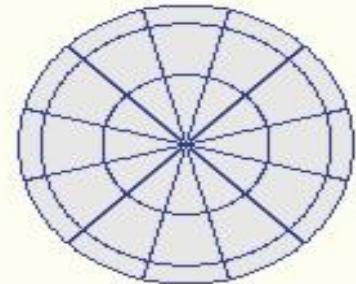
Conical

Perspective Conic



Planar

Orthographic



Projection Concepts
Perspective Examples

Cylindrical Projection

Tangent at a selected line



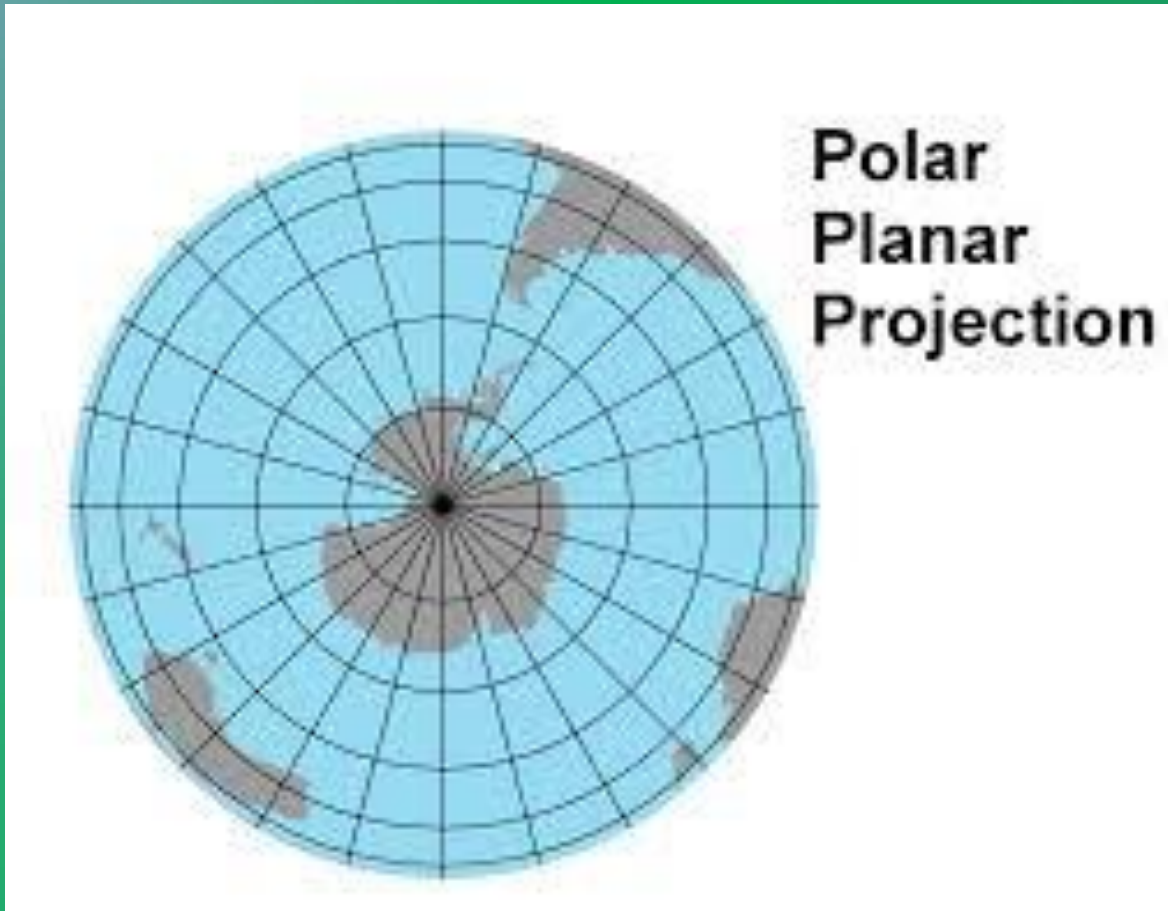
Secant along two lines























Conic Projection

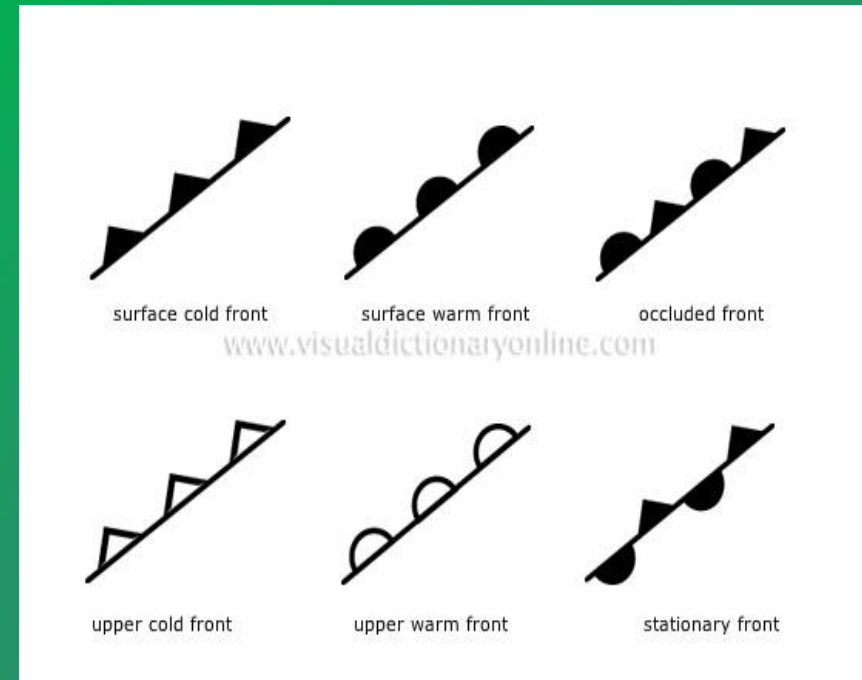


Planar Projection



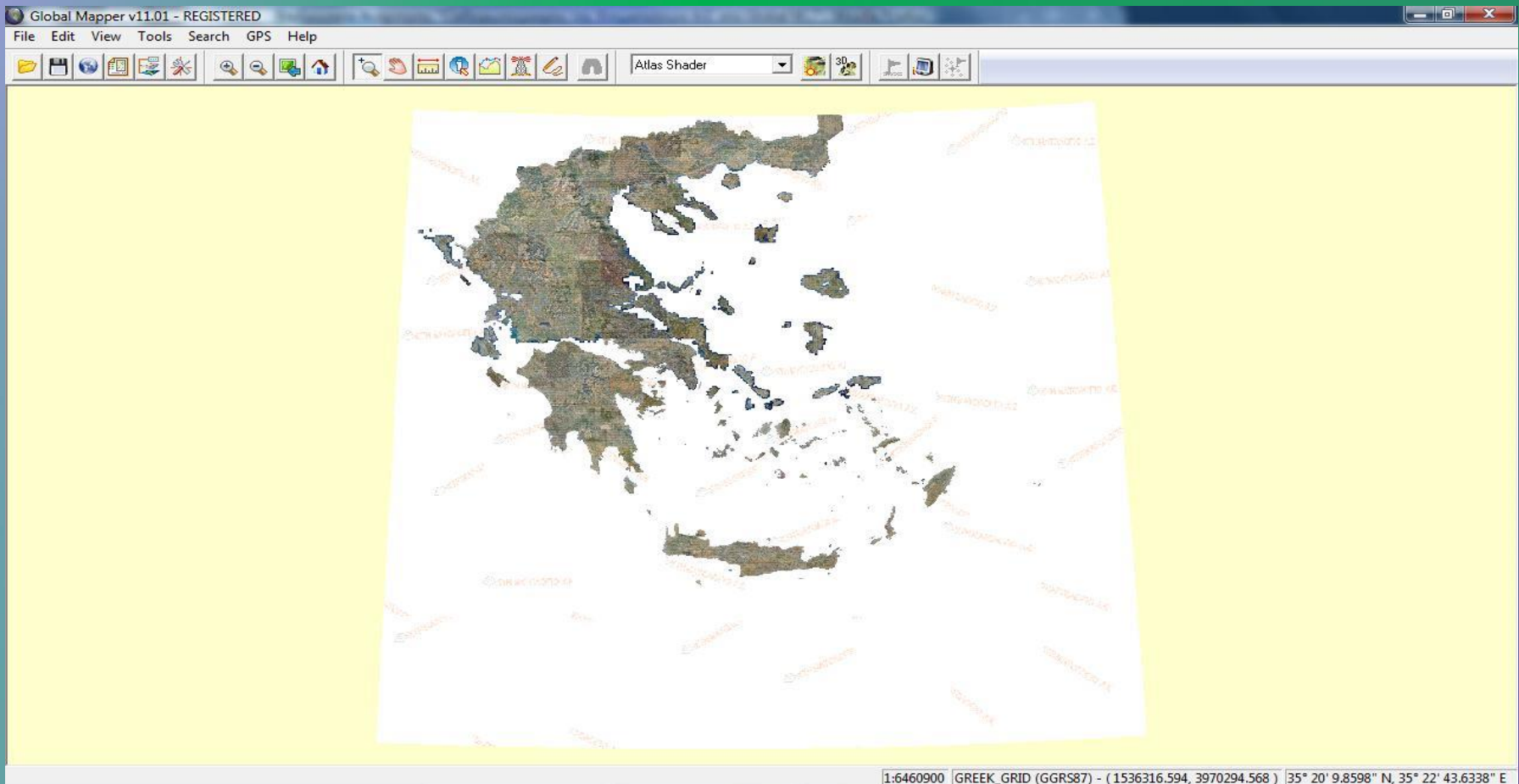
Map Symbolization

| Feature Type | Visual Variable | | |
|--------------|--|---|---|
| | Shape | Orientation | Color Hue |
| Point |  Spring  House  Tower |  Live Tree  Dead Tree |  Live Tree  Dead Tree |
| Line |  National Border  Trail  Section Line |  Asphalt Road  Concrete Road |  National Border  State Border |
| Area |  Gravel  Sand |  Orchard  Field Crop |  Land  Water |



EGSA 87: The Greek Grid

EGSA 87 → the Greek Geodetic Reference System



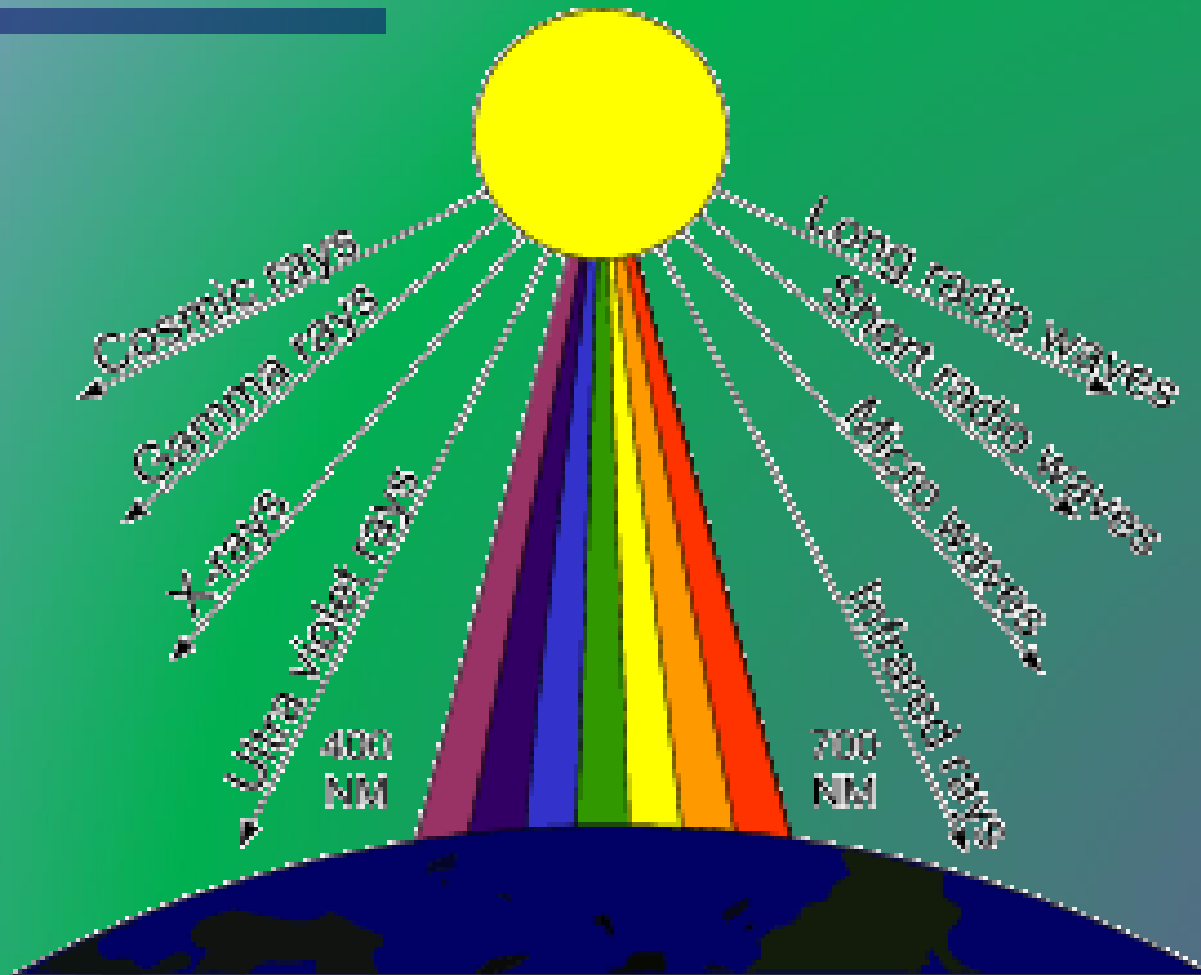
EGSA 87: The Greek Grid

EGSA 87 Projection System

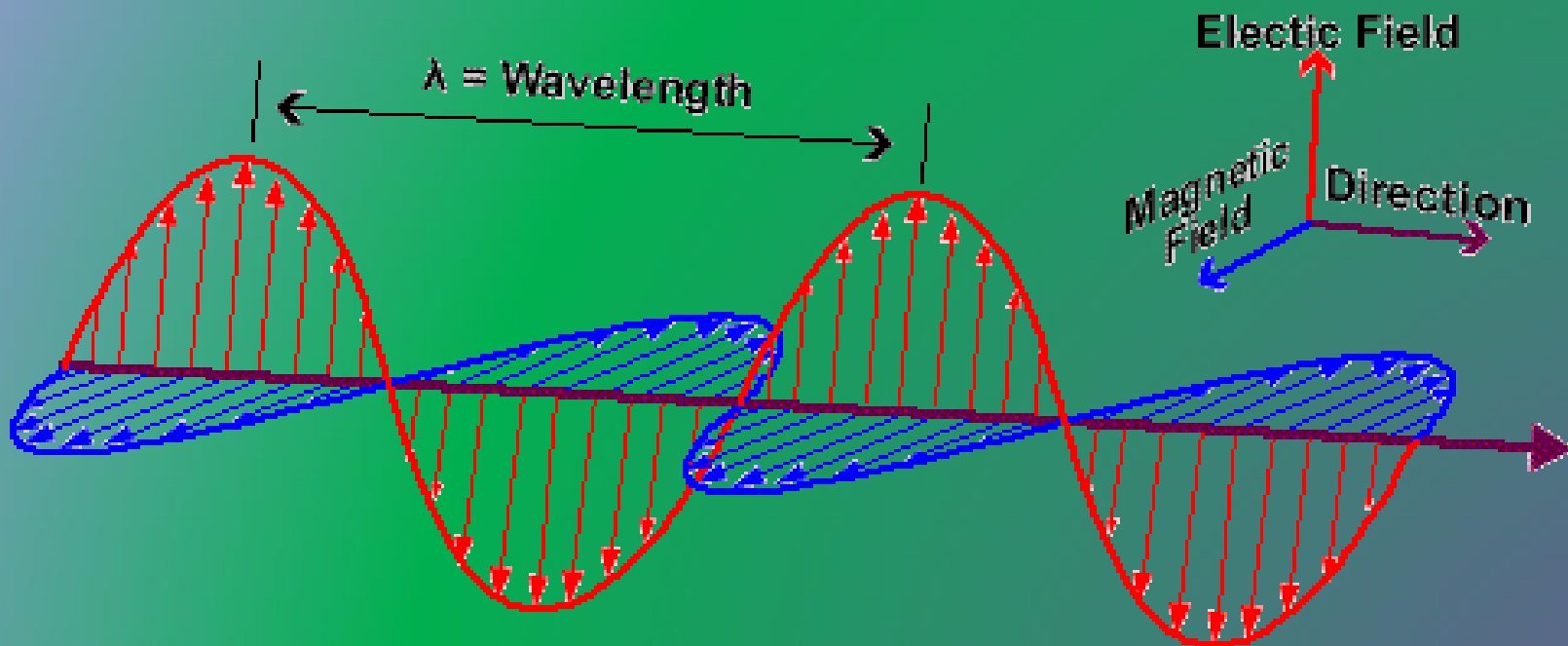
| | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Datum: | EGSA 87, defined by the Dionysos Satellite Observatory (DSO) northeast of Athens (38.078400° N & 23,932939° E). |
| Reference ellipsoid: | GRS'80 |
| Major Axis a: | 6378137.000m |
| Factor (1/f): | 1/298.25722101 |
| Scale factor Ko | 0.9996 |

The entire Greek territory (stretching to approximately 9° of longitude) is projected in one zone. References are in meters. Northings are counted from the equator. A false easting of 500000 m is assigned to the central meridian (24° east), so eastings are always positive

Energy from the sun

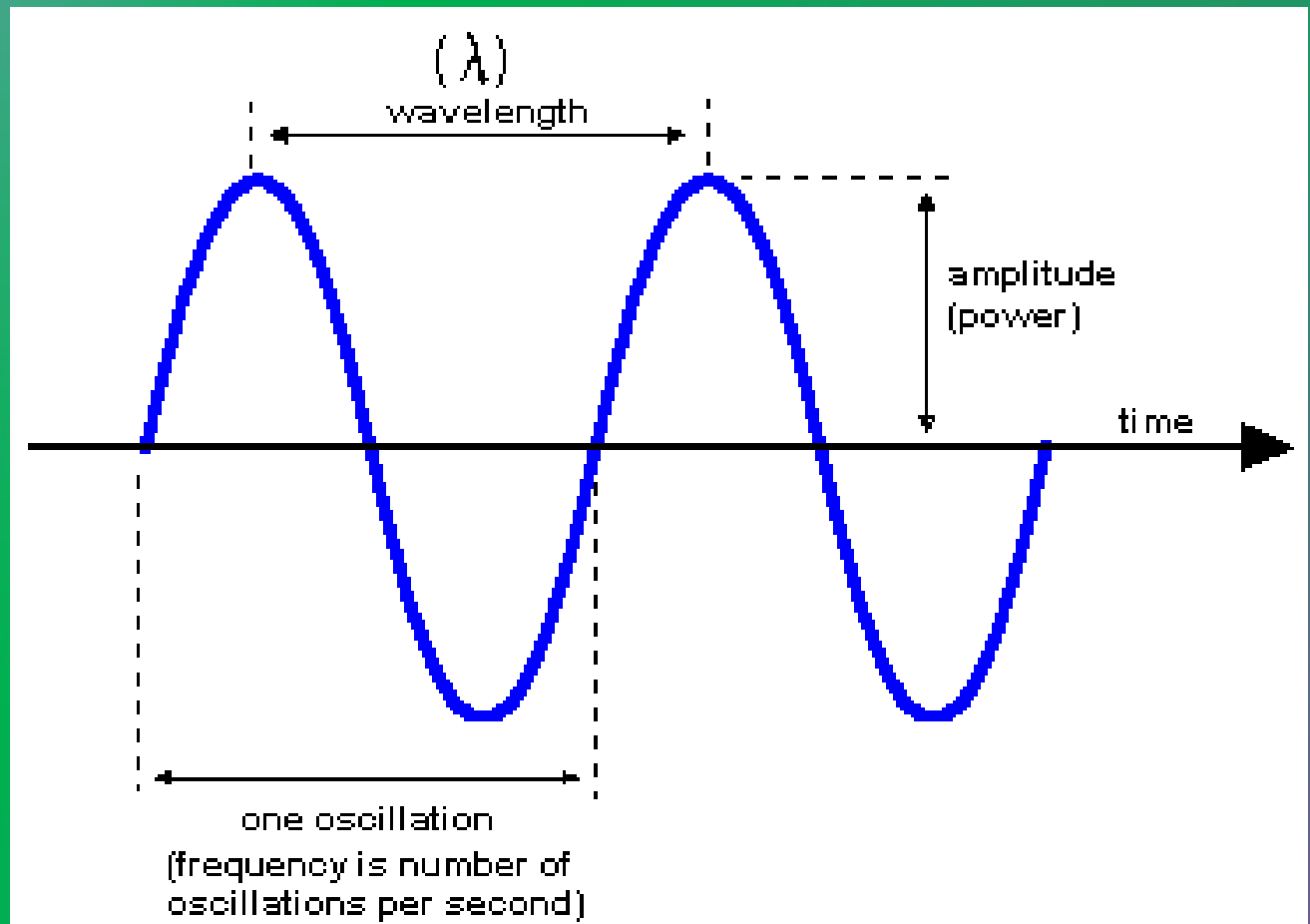


Electromagnetic radiation



What is wavelength?

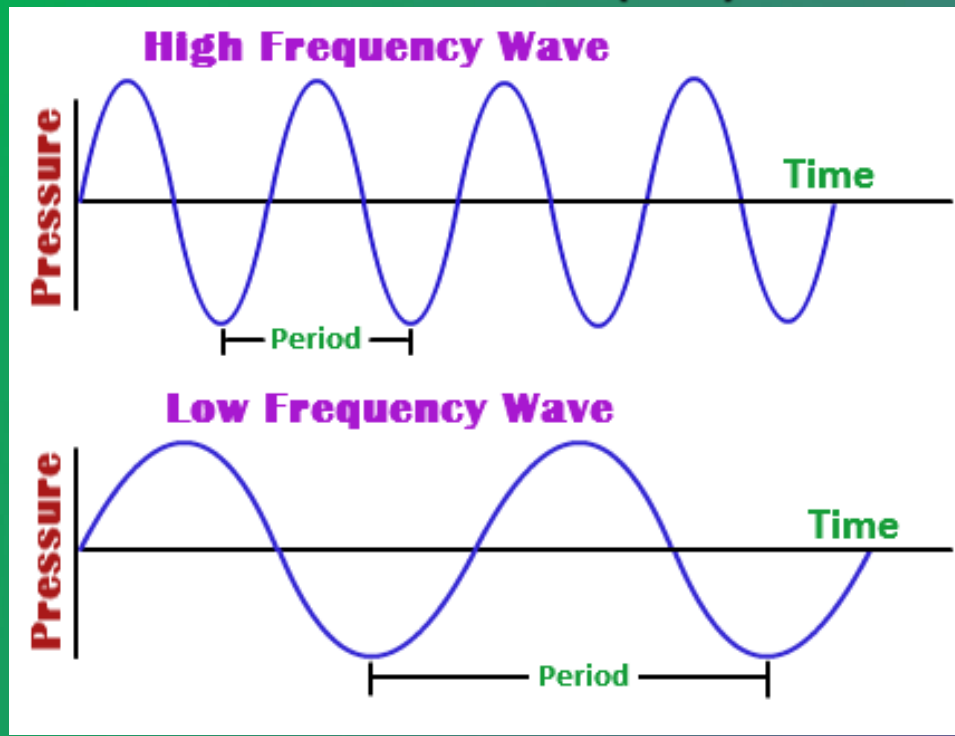
Wavelength is the length of one way cycle



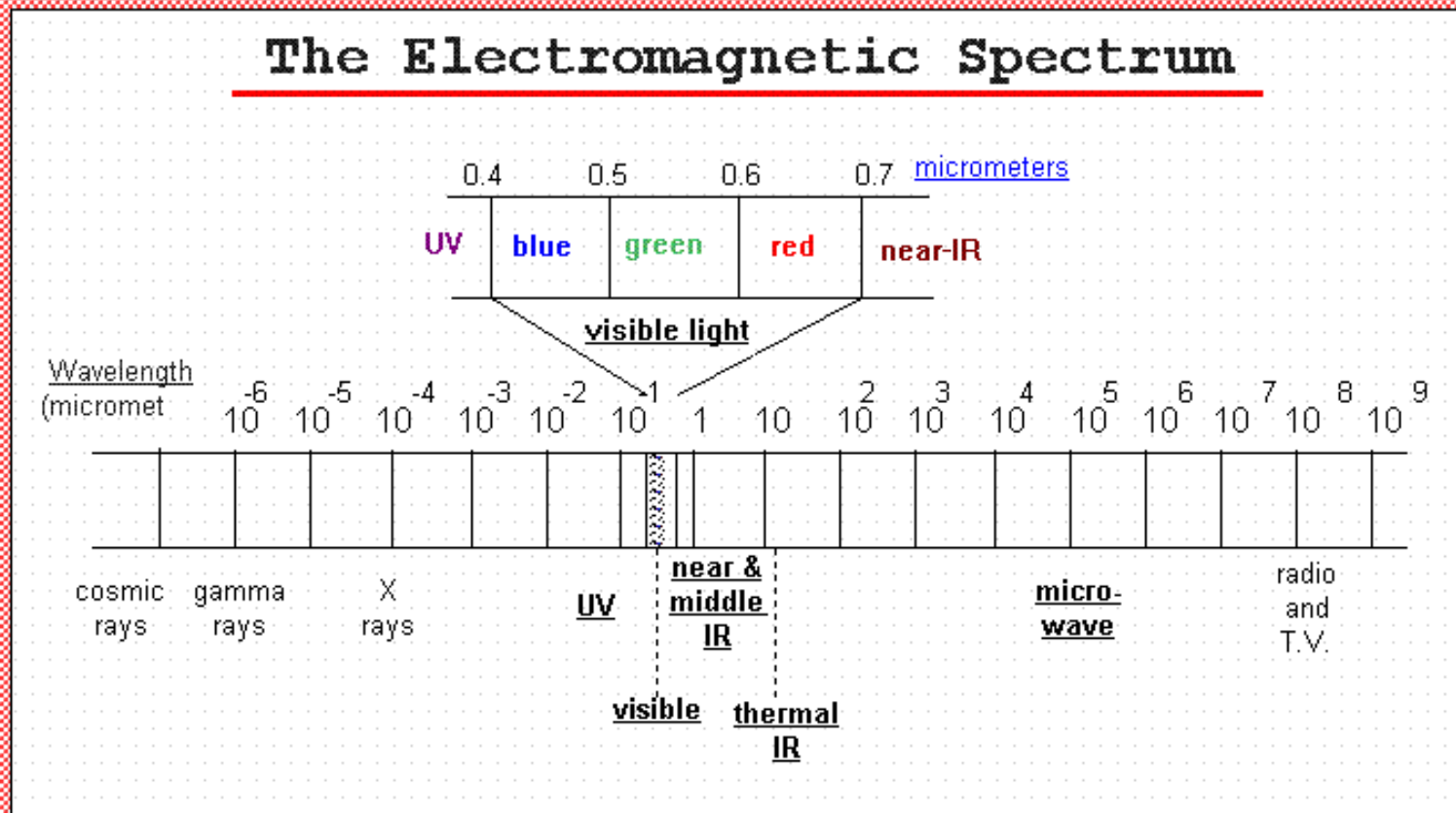
What is Frequency?

- Frequency \rightarrow the number of cycles of a wave passing a fixed point per unit of time.
- Frequency \rightarrow measured in hertz (Hz)

Frequency, ν , is inversely proportional to wavelength, λ . The longer the wavelength, the lower the frequency, and vice-versa.

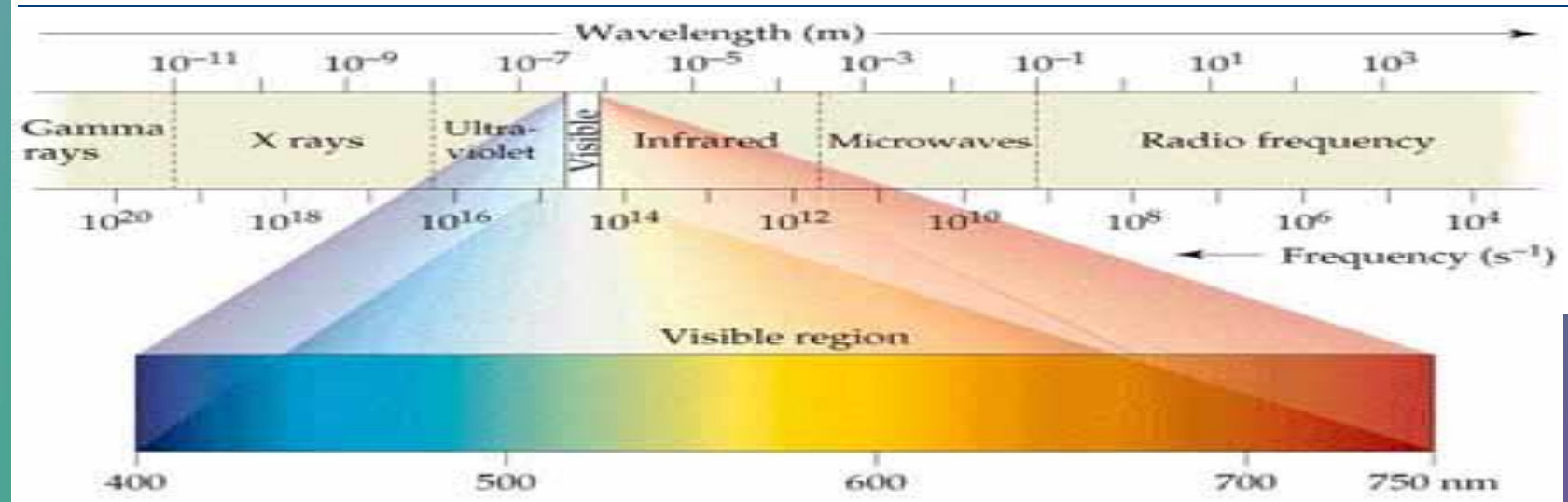


The Electromagnetic Spectrum

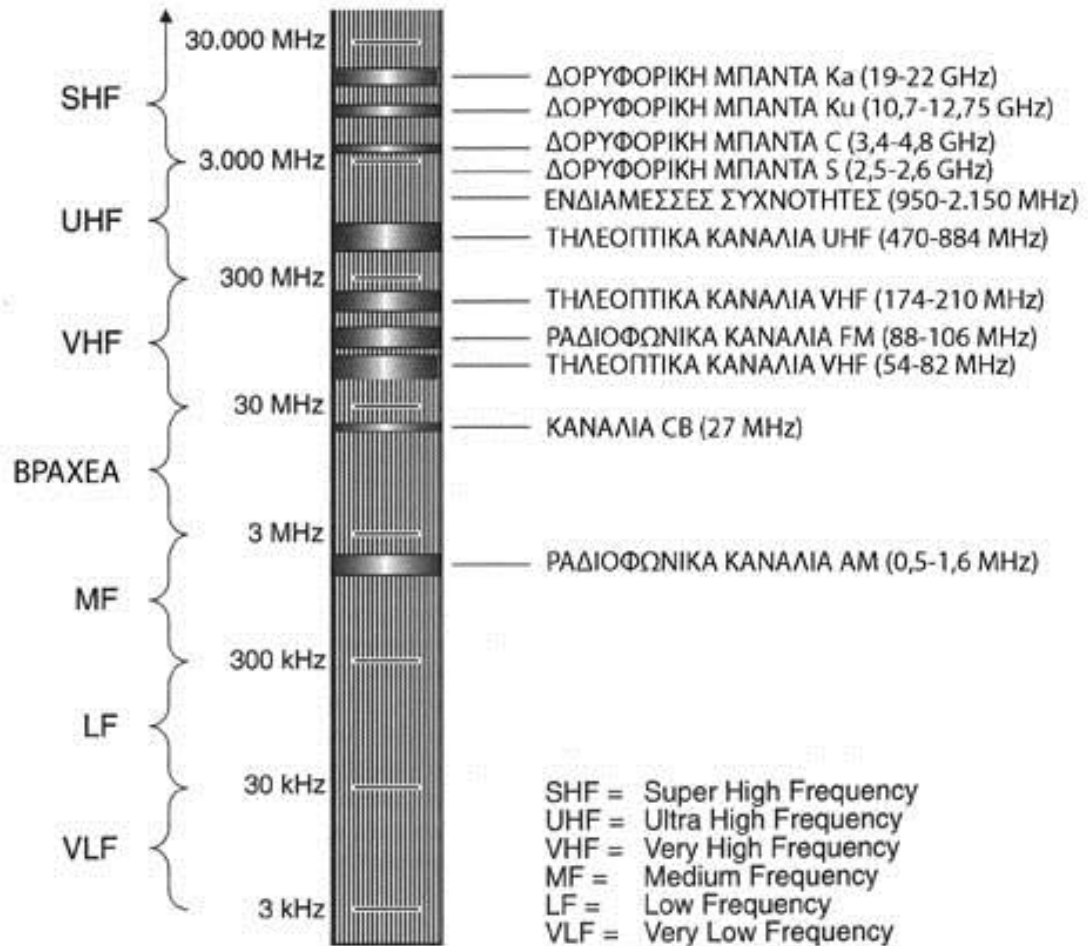
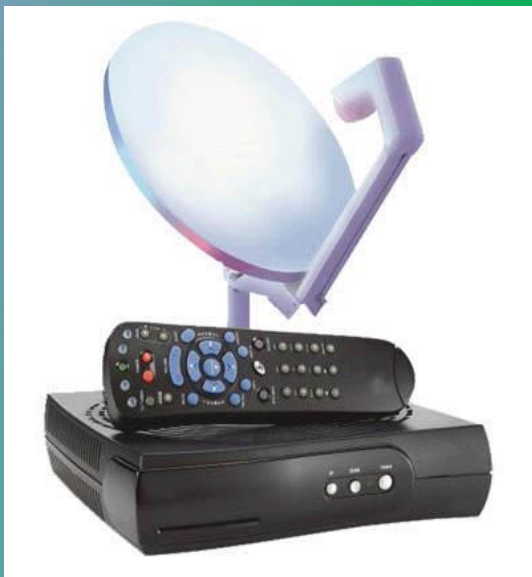


Units

| Unit | Symbol | Length (m) | Type of Radiation |
|------------|---------------|------------|----------------------|
| Angstrom | Å | 10^{-10} | X ray |
| Nanometer | nm | 10^{-9} | Ultraviolet, visible |
| Micrometer | μm | 10^{-6} | Infrared |
| Millimeter | mm | 10^{-3} | Infrared |
| Centimeter | cm | 10^{-2} | Microwave |
| Meter | m | 1 | TV, radio |

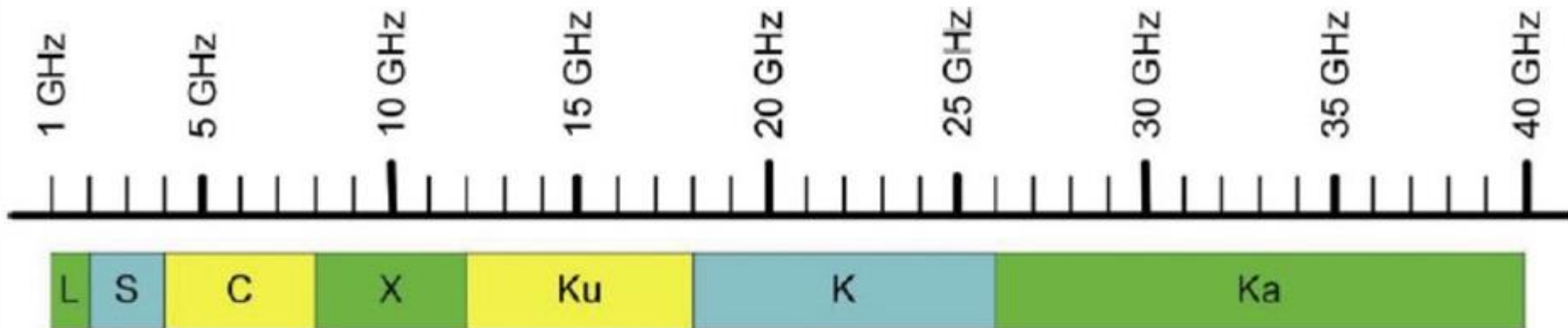


Satellite TV



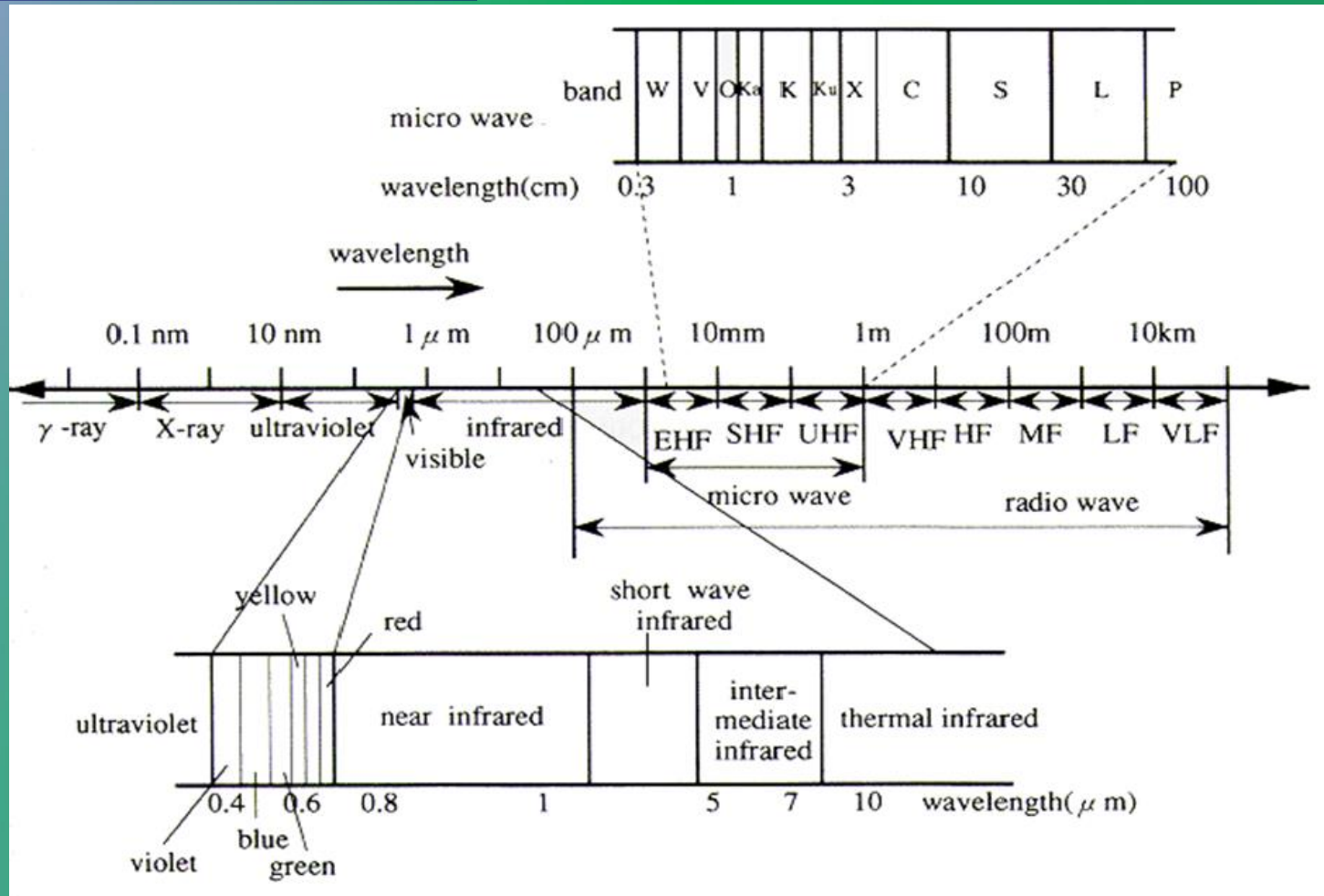
Satellite TV – Rain Fade

Rain Fade → absorption of microwave radio frequency (RF) signal by atmospheric rain, snow or ice, and losses (> 11GHz).

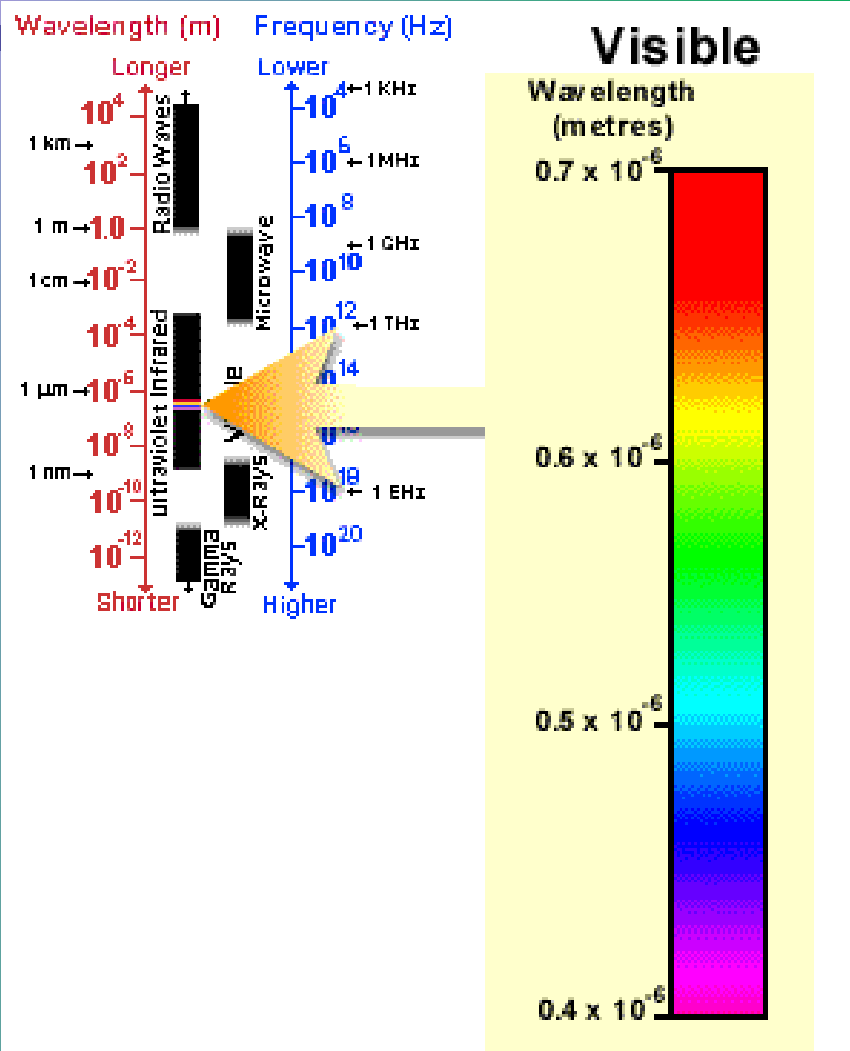


When high frequencies are transmitted and received in a heavy rain fall area, noticeable signal degradation occurs and is proportional to the amount of rain fall (known as rain fade).

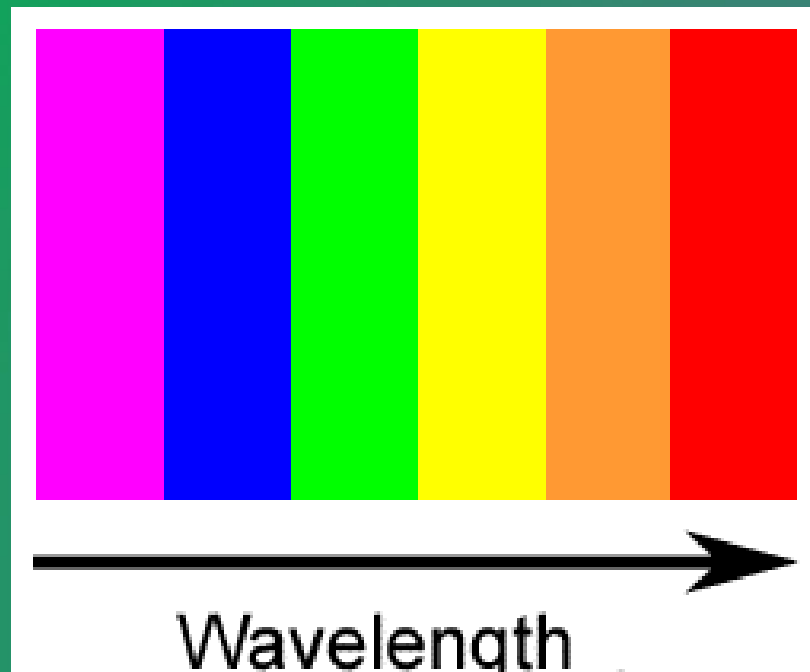
Bands used in Remote Sensing



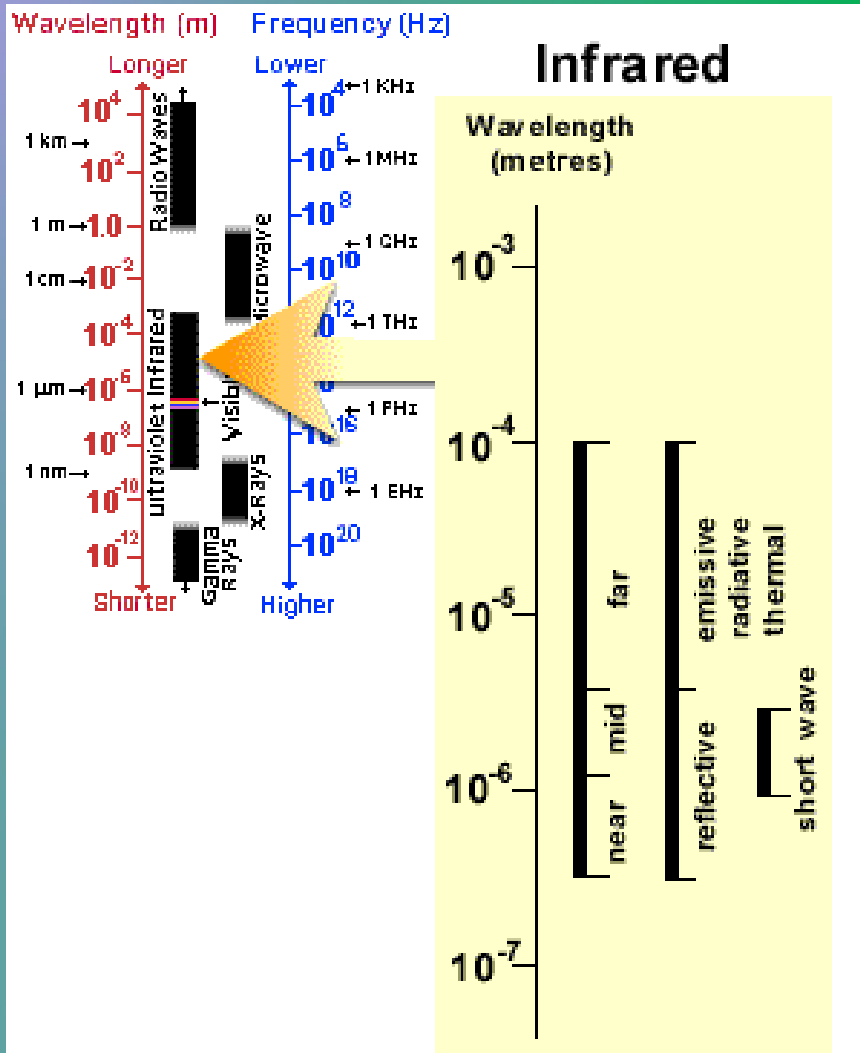
The Visible Spectrum



This is what our eyes see.
The visible wavelengths cover a range from 0.4 to 0.7 μm .



The Infrared Spectrum



IR region covers the wavelength range from approximately **0.7 μm to 100 μm** \rightarrow more than 100 times as wide as the visible portion.

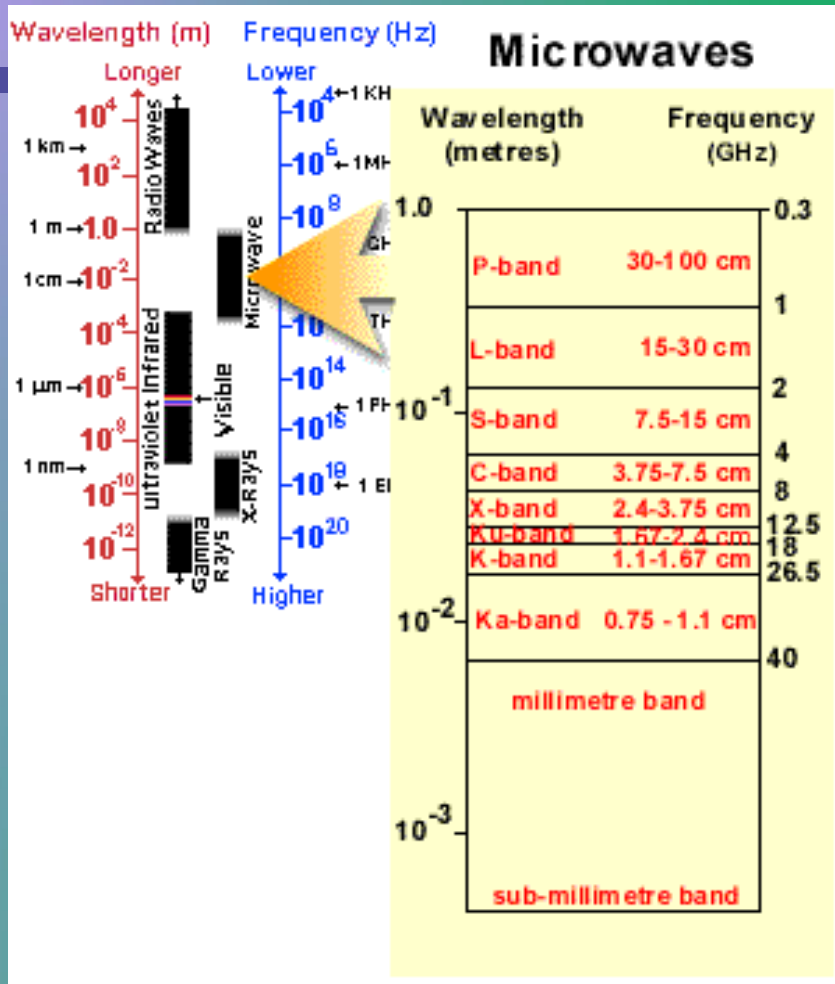
IR can be divided into two categories based on their radiation properties - the **reflected IR**, and the emitted or **thermal IR**.

The Infrared Spectrum

Radiation in the **reflected IR** region is used for remote sensing purposes in ways very similar to radiation in the visible portion. The reflected IR covers wavelengths from approximately ***0.7 μm to 3.0 μm*** .

The **thermal IR** region is quite different than the visible and reflected IR portions, as this energy is essentially the radiation that is emitted from the Earth's surface in the form of heat. The thermal IR covers wavelengths from approximately ***3.0 μm to 100 μm*** .

The Microwave Spectrum



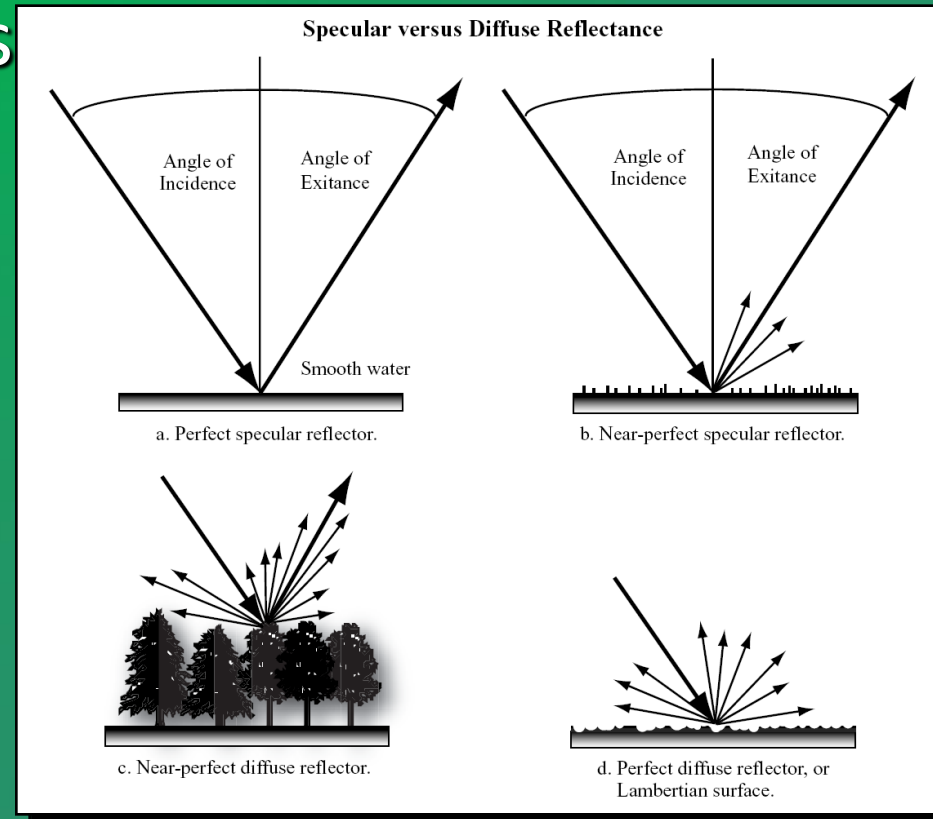
Microwave region → 1 mm to 1 m.

This covers the longest wavelengths used for remote sensing.

The shorter wavelengths have properties similar to the thermal infrared region while the longer wavelengths approach the wavelengths used for radio broadcast.

Reflectance

- *Reflectance* is the process whereby radiation “bounces off” an object like a cloud or the terrain.
- The angle of incidence and the angle of reflection are equal.



Scattering

- Electromagnetic radiation is generated and propagated through the earth's atmosphere almost at the speed of light
- The atmosphere may affect not only the speed of radiation but also its wavelength, intensity, spectral distribution, and/or direction.

Scattering vs Reflection

The direction associated with scattering is *un*predictable, while the direction of reflection is predictable. There are essentially three types of scattering:

- Rayleigh,
- Mie, and
- Non-selective.


Atmospheric Scattering

Scattering is related with the:

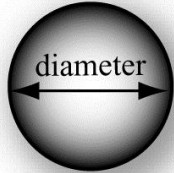
- *wavelength* of the incident radiant energy, and
- *size* of the gas molecule, dust particle, and/or water vapor droplet encountered.

Atmospheric Scattering


Rayleigh Scattering

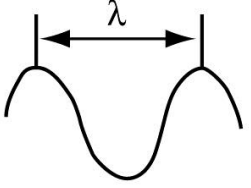
a.  Gas molecule

Mie Scattering

b.  Smoke, dust

Nonselective Scattering

c.  Water vapor



Photon of electromagnetic energy modeled as a wave

Rayleigh Scattering

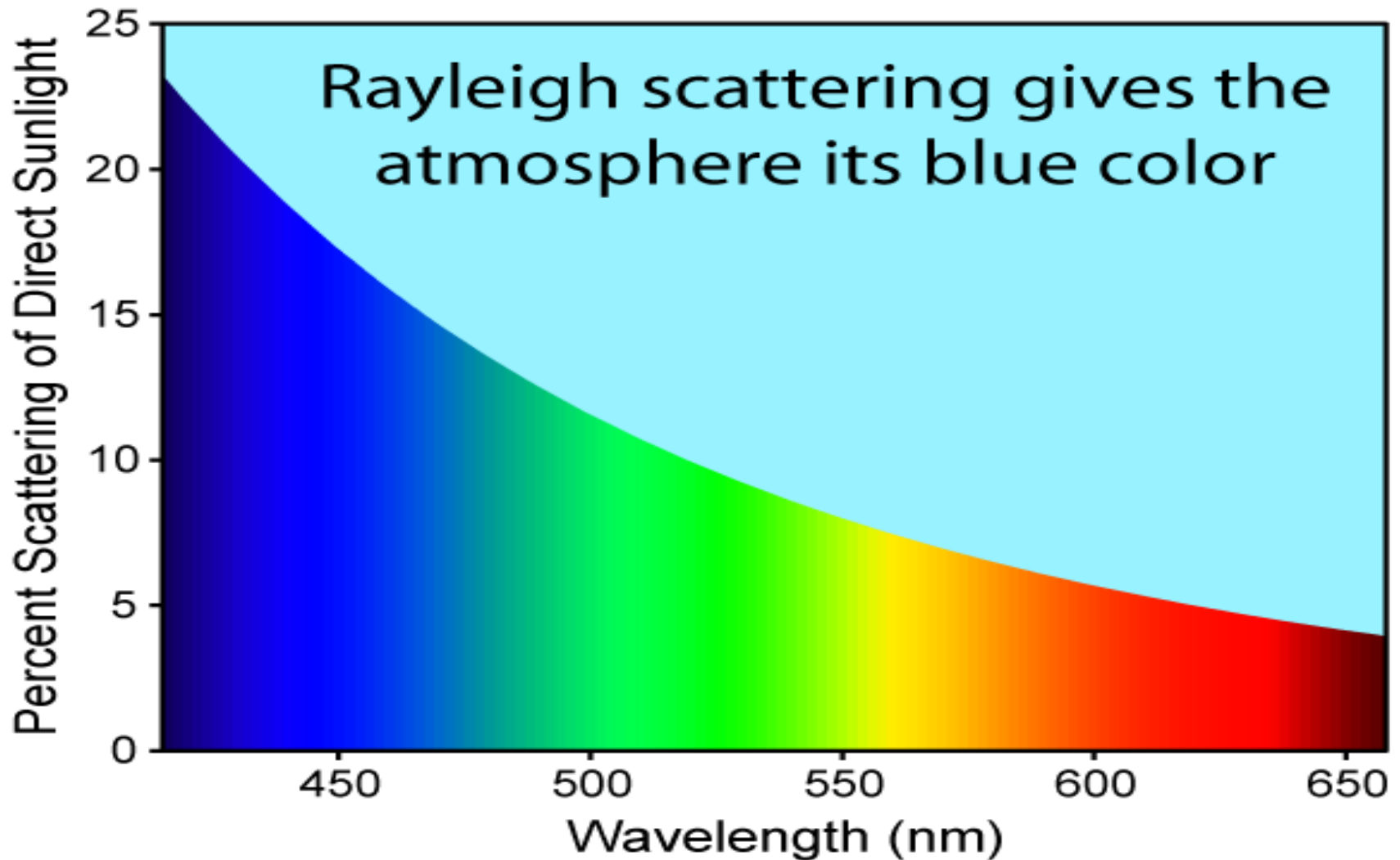
- Rayleigh scattering occurs when the diameter of the matter (usually air molecules) are many times smaller than the wavelength of the incident electromagnetic radiation.
- If we take the intensity of scattered violet light at the 400nm limit of visibility to be 100, then red light at 700 nm is scattered only at an intensity of 10.7. So, blue is much more strongly scattered than red.

Rayleigh Scattering

When a particle is hit by a light wave, it creates new wave that propagates in all directions. The intensity of the scattered light (I_s) is related to that of the incident light (I_0) by the inverse fourth power of the wavelength:

$$I_s/I_0 = \text{constant } \lambda^{-4}$$

Rayleigh Scattering



Rayleigh Scattering

Sun's rays at sunset → more than 30 times the distance at midday → amplifies the effect of the Rayleigh scattering that makes the sky blue, so that the violets and blues in sunlight are lost.



Mie scattering

Mie scattering → spherical particles with diameters approximately equal to the wavelength of radiation being considered.

Mie scattering → greater than Rayleigh scatter. Dust, pollen, smoke and water vapour are common causes of Mie scattering which tends to affect longer wavelengths than those affected by Rayleigh scattering.

Mie scattering → occurs mostly in the lower portions of the atmosphere where larger particles are more abundant, and dominates when cloud conditions are overcast.

Non-selective scattering

Non-selective scattering → particles several times the diameter of the wavelength being transmitted.

Non-selective scattering → all wavelengths are scattered about equally

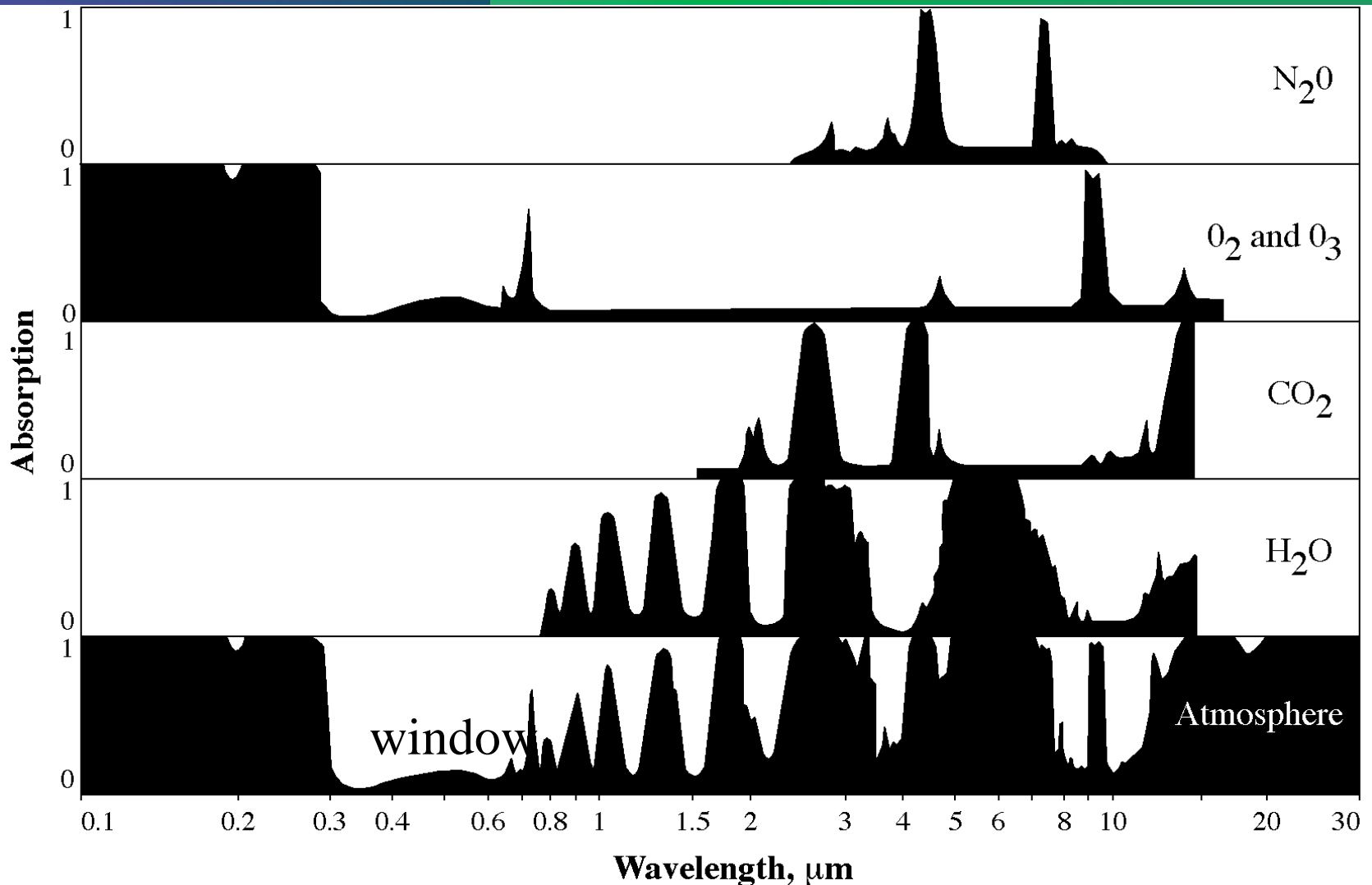
Non-selective scattering → reduces the information content of remotely sensed data → images loose contrast → objects are difficult to differentiate

Non-selective scattering → fog and clouds appear white to our eyes because blue, green, and red light are all scattered in approximately equal quantities (blue+green+red light = white light).

Absorption

- *Absorption* → radiant energy is absorbed and converted into other types of energy.
- the atmosphere does not absorb all of the incident energy but transmits it effectively. Parts of the spectrum that transmit energy effectively are called “atmospheric windows”.

Absorption of the Sun's Incident Electromagnetic Energy in the Region from 0.1 to 30 μm by Various Atmospheric Gases

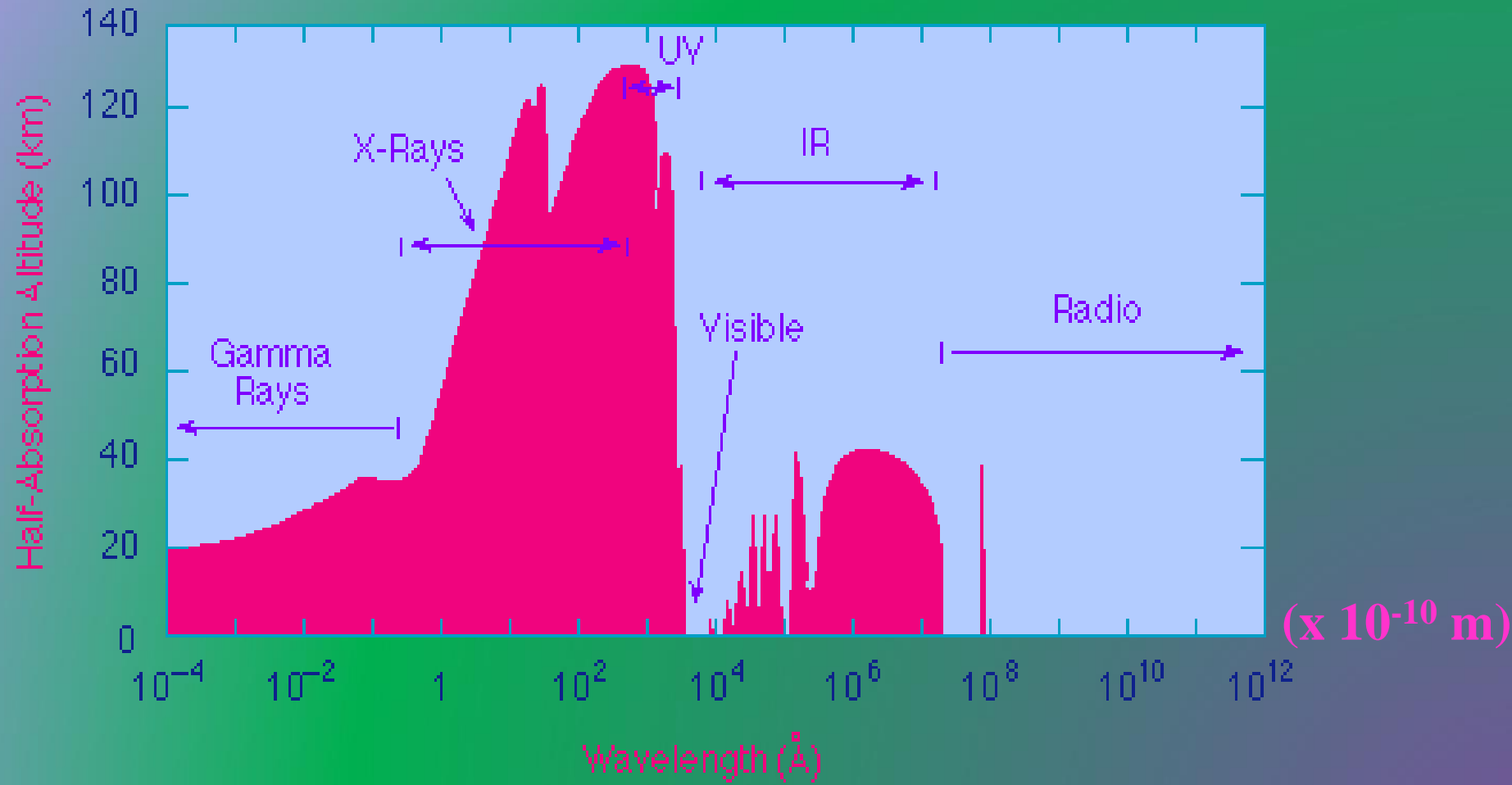


Atmospheric Windows

Areas of the spectrum not severely influenced by atmospheric absorption, useful to remote sensors, are called **atmospheric windows**.

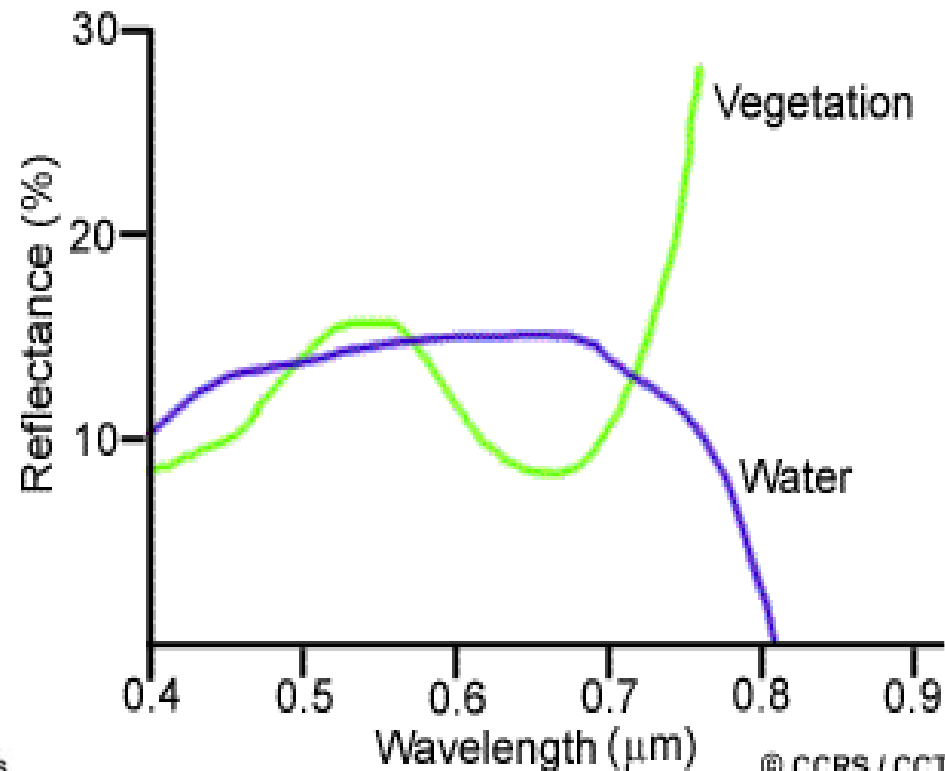
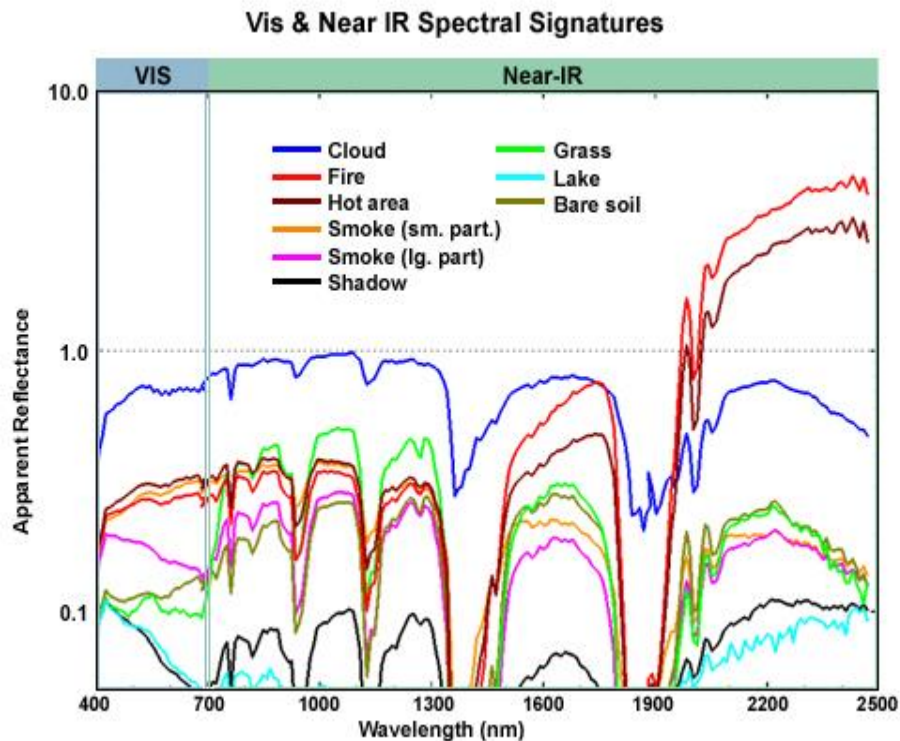
The dominant windows in the atmosphere are in the *visible and radio frequency regions*, while X-Rays and UV are seen to be very strongly absorbed and Gamma Rays and IR are somewhat less strongly absorbed.

Atmospheric Windows – Half Absorption Altitude



Spectral Signatures

By measuring the energy that is reflected (or emitted) by targets on the Earth's surface over a variety of different wavelengths, we can build up a **spectral response** for that object. After that we may be able to distinguish between different objects.



Spectroradiometers

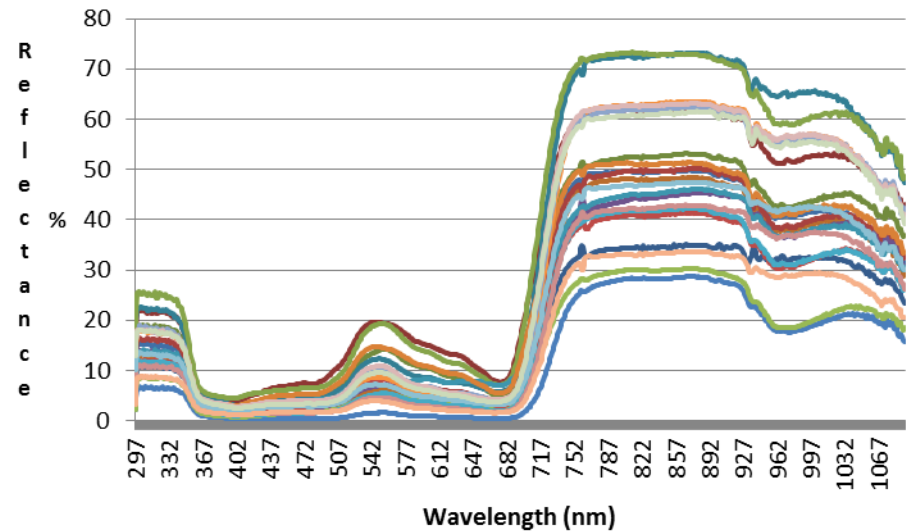
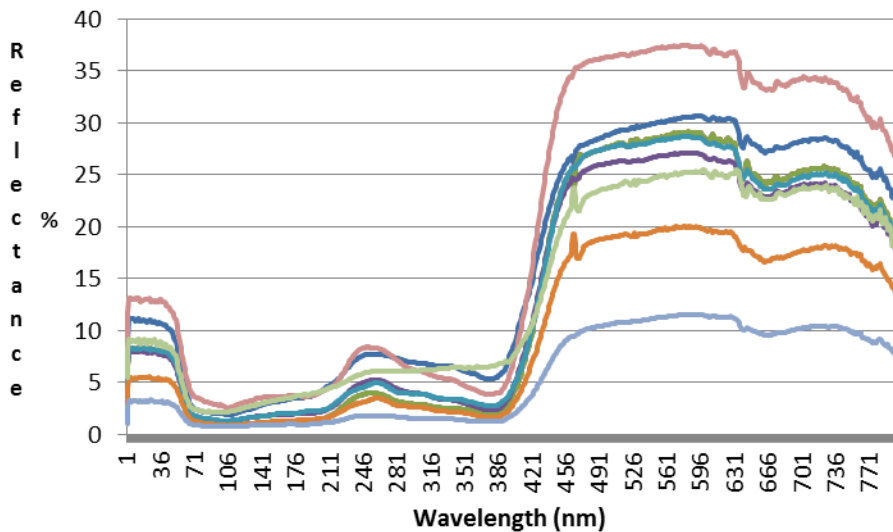
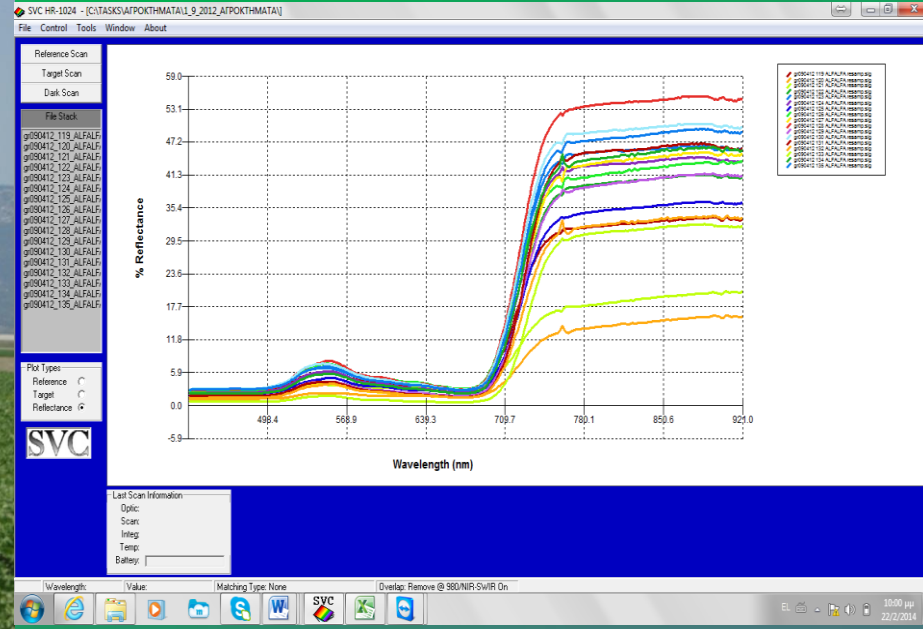
Light-weight, high performance instrument covering the ultraviolet, visible and near-infrared wavelengths from 350 nm to 1050 nm.

e.g. GER 1500 → 512 spectral bands.

GER1500 uses the idea of «lambertian» surface as a panel

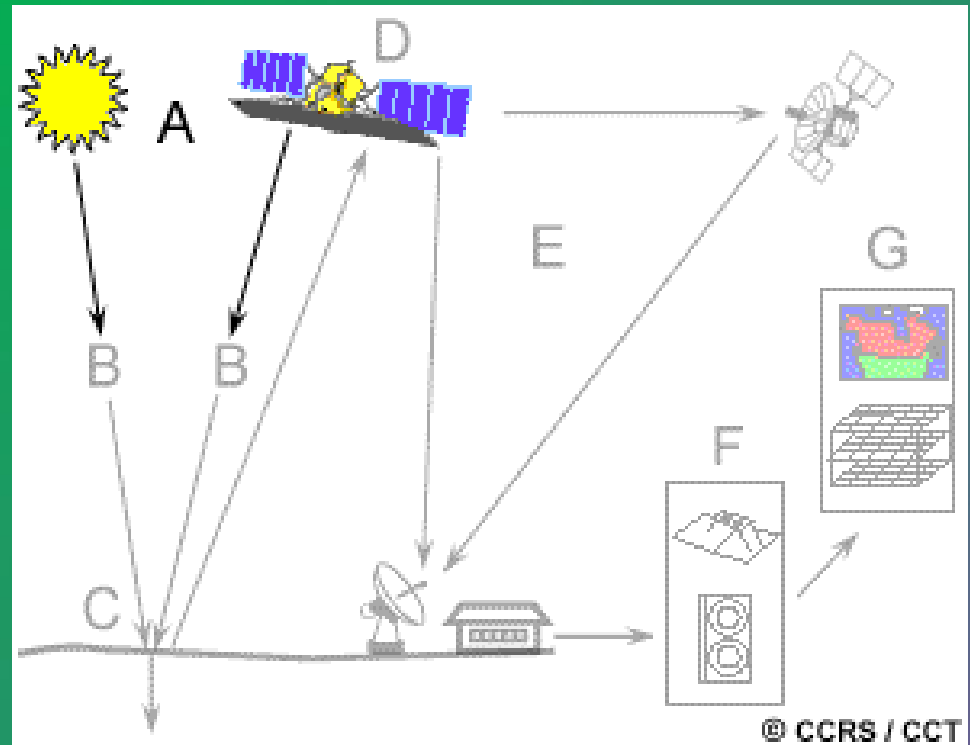


Spectroradiometers



The element of the remote sensing process

- 1) Energy Source or Illumination
- 2) Radiation and the Atmosphere
- 3) Interaction with the Target
- 4) Recording of Energy by the Sensor
- 5) Transmission, Reception, and Processing
- 6) Interpretation and Analysis
- 7) Application



The elements of the remote sensing process

1. Energy Source or Illumination (A)

- the first requirement for remote sensing is to have an energy source which illuminates or provides electromagnetic energy to the target of interest.

2. Radiation and the Atmosphere (B)

- as the energy travels from its source to the target, it will come in contact with and interact with the atmosphere it passes through. This interaction may take place a second time as the energy travels from the target to the sensor.

3. Interaction with the Target (C) - once the energy makes its way to the target through the atmosphere, it interacts with the target depending on the properties of both the target and the radiation.

4. Recording of Energy by the Sensor (D)

- after the energy has been scattered by, or emitted from the target, we require a sensor (remote - not in contact with the target) to collect and record the electromagnetic radiation.

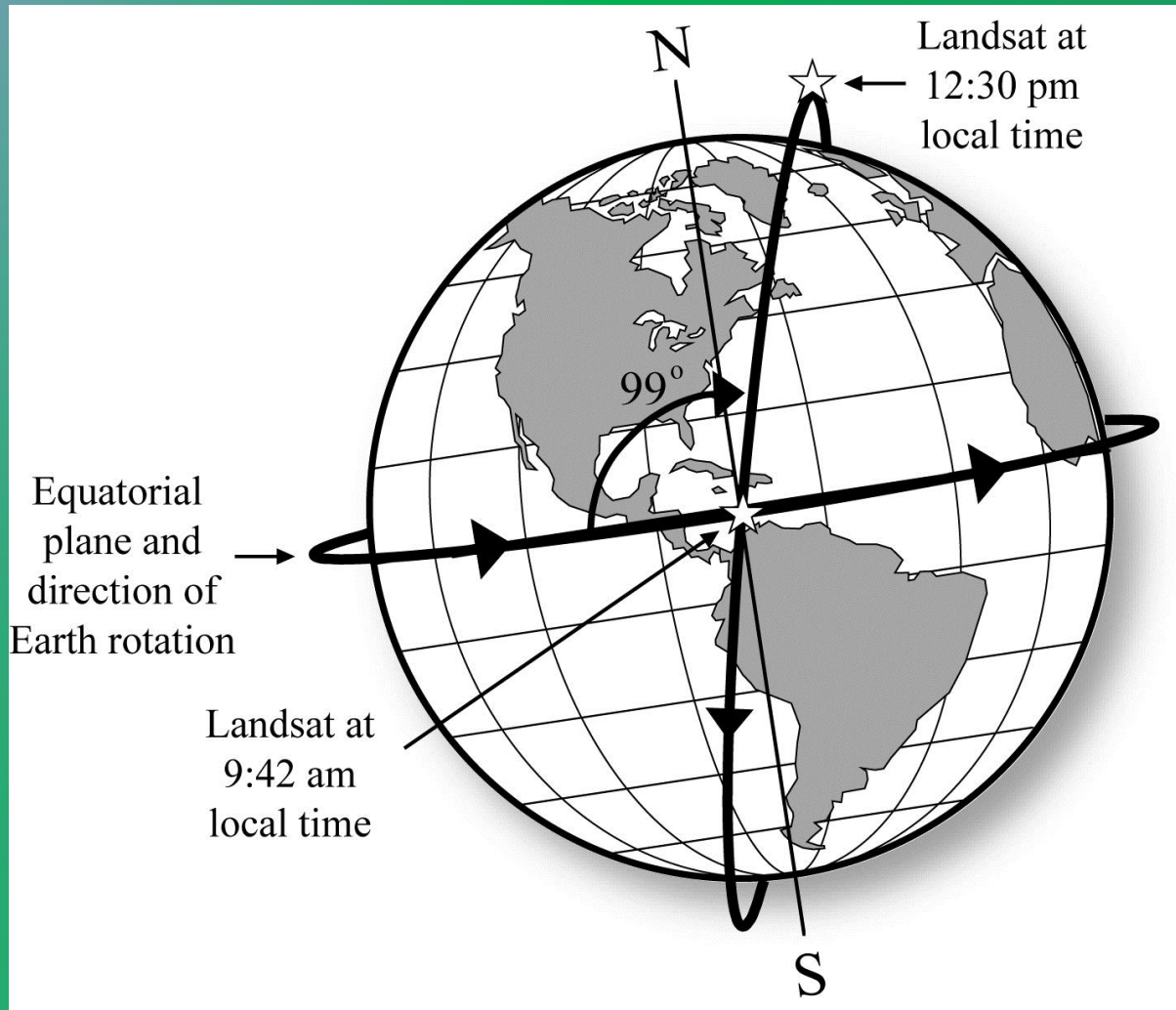
The elements of the remote sensing process

5. Transmission, Reception, and Processing (E) - the energy recorded by the sensor has to be transmitted, often in electronic form, to a receiving and processing station where the data are processed into an image (hardcopy and/or digital).

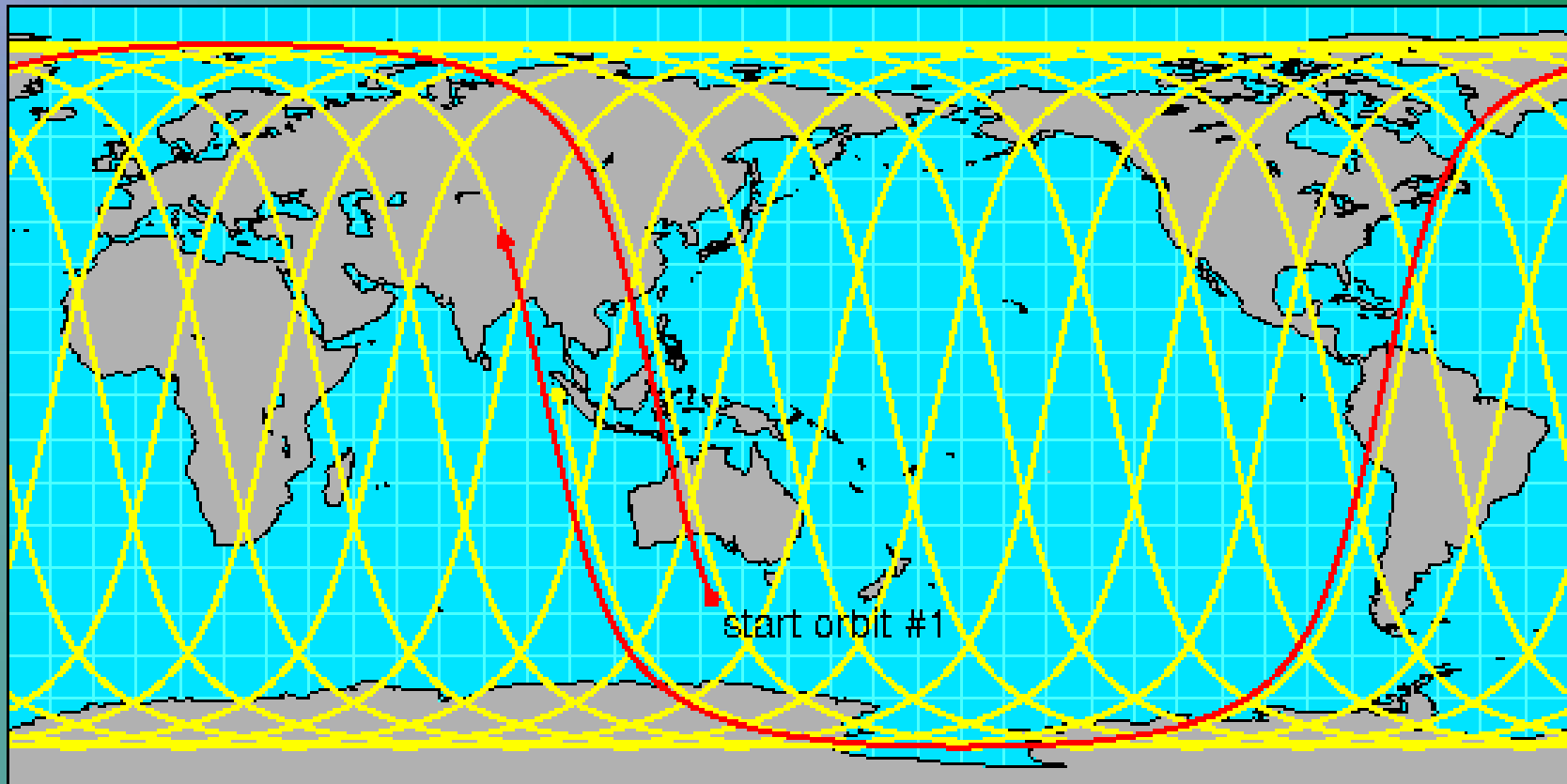
6. Interpretation and Analysis (F) - the processed image is interpreted, visually and/or digitally or electronically, to extract information about the target which was illuminated.

7. Application (G) - the final element of the remote sensing process is achieved when we apply the information we have been able to extract from the imagery about the target in order to better understand it, reveal some new information, or assist in solving a particular problem.

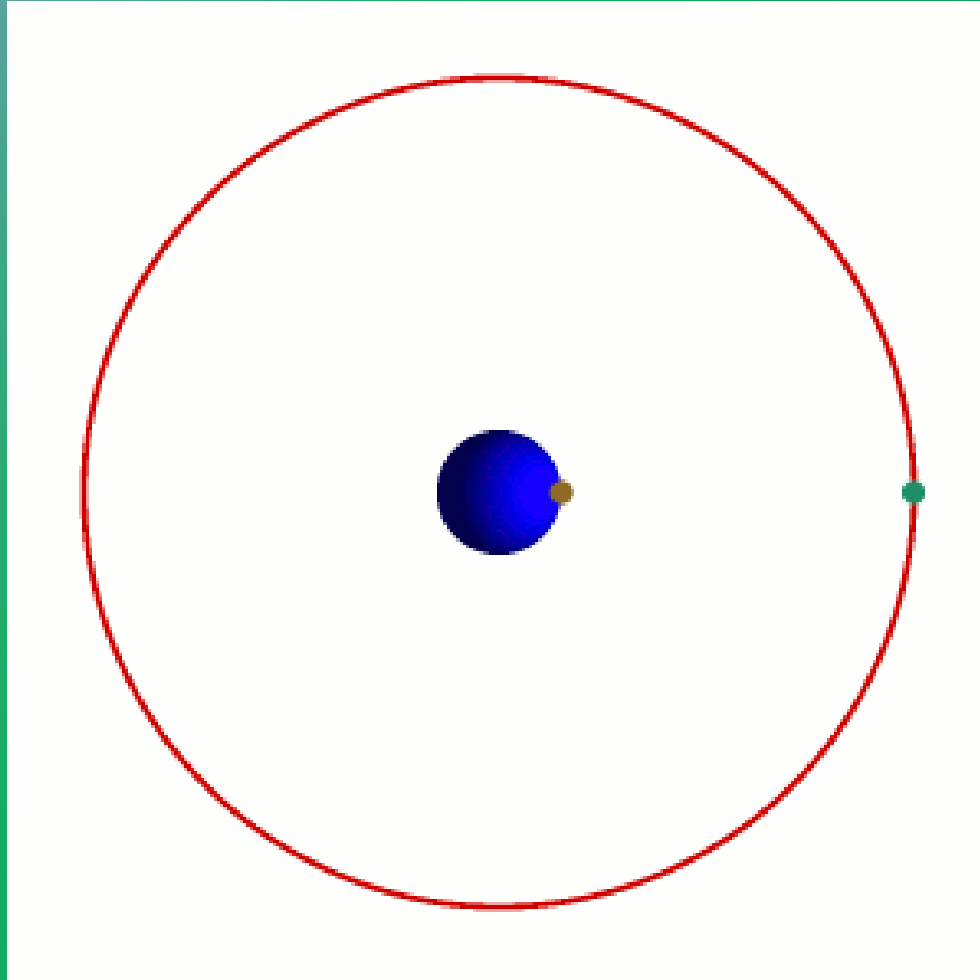
Orbits



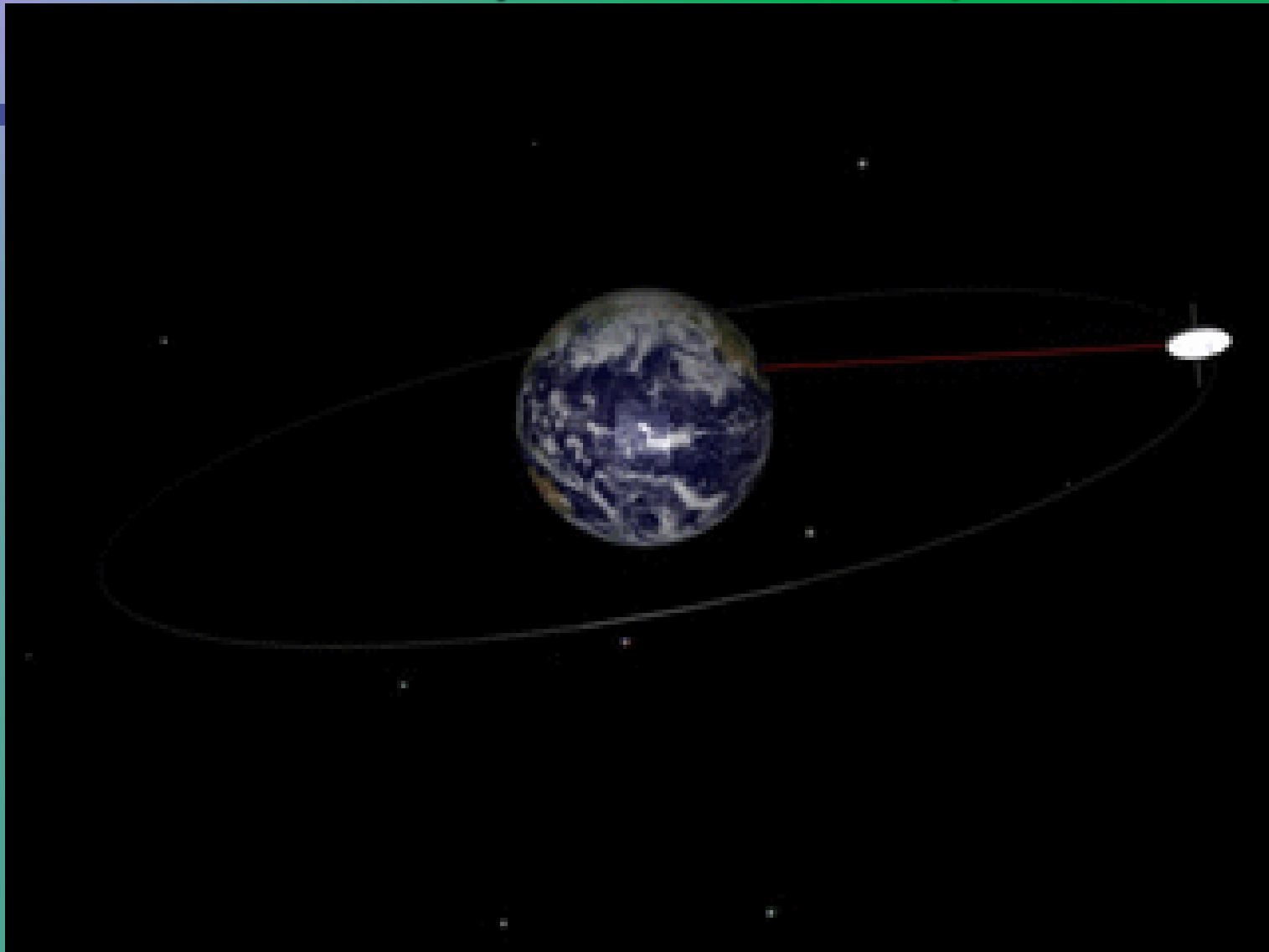
Orbital period of about 100 minutes/14 orbits per day.



Geostationary Satellites (35.786 km)



Geostationary Satellites (35.786 km)



Resources

- **Chuvieco, E, 2007:** Fundamentals of Satellite Remote Sensing, CRC-Press.
- **Cracknel, A. P, 2006:** Introduction to Remote Sensing. Taylor & Francis, 2nd Edition.
- **Elachi, C. and van Zyl, J. J,** 2006: Introduction to The Physics and Techniques of Remote Sensing. Wiley-Interscience.
- **Kilic, O., 2008.** Theory and Principles of Remote Sensing. The Catholic University of America. <http://faculty.cua.edu>
- **Mashat, A.W., 2014 .** Introduction to Remote Sensing. King Abdulaziz University. [http:// amashat.kau.edu.sa](http://amashat.kau.edu.sa)
- <http://scijinks.jpl.nasa.gov/orbit/>