

## **Active methods with focus on time information**

- LIDAR      Light detection and ranging
- RADAR      Radio detection and ranging
- SODAR      Sound detection and ranging

# Basic components

Emitted signal (pulsed)

Radio waves, light, sound

Reflection (scattering) at different distances

Scattering, Fluorescence

Detection of signal strength as function of time

## Scattering processes:

Rayleigh-scattering ( $r \ll \lambda$ )

Raman-scattering ( $r \ll \lambda$ , inelastic)

Particle-scattering (e.g. Mie-scattering)

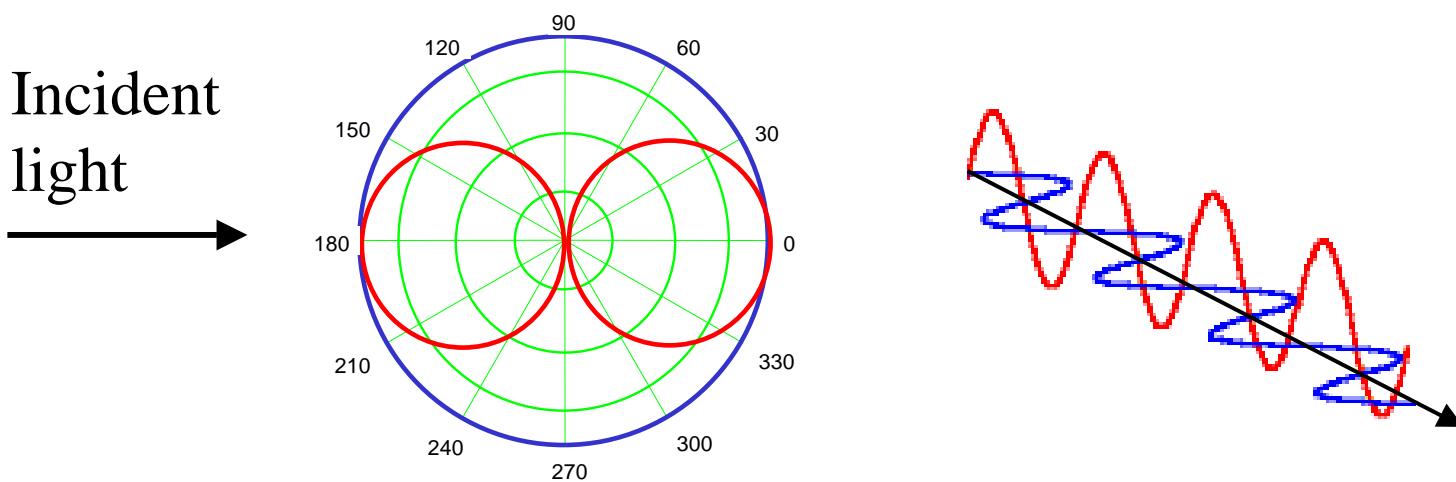
Bragg-scattering (turbulence elements)

# Rayleigh-scattering ( $r \ll \lambda$ )

The incident light induces a periodically varying dipole at the place of the scattering particle.

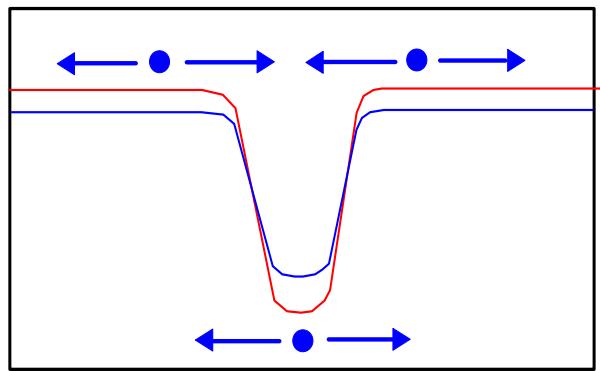
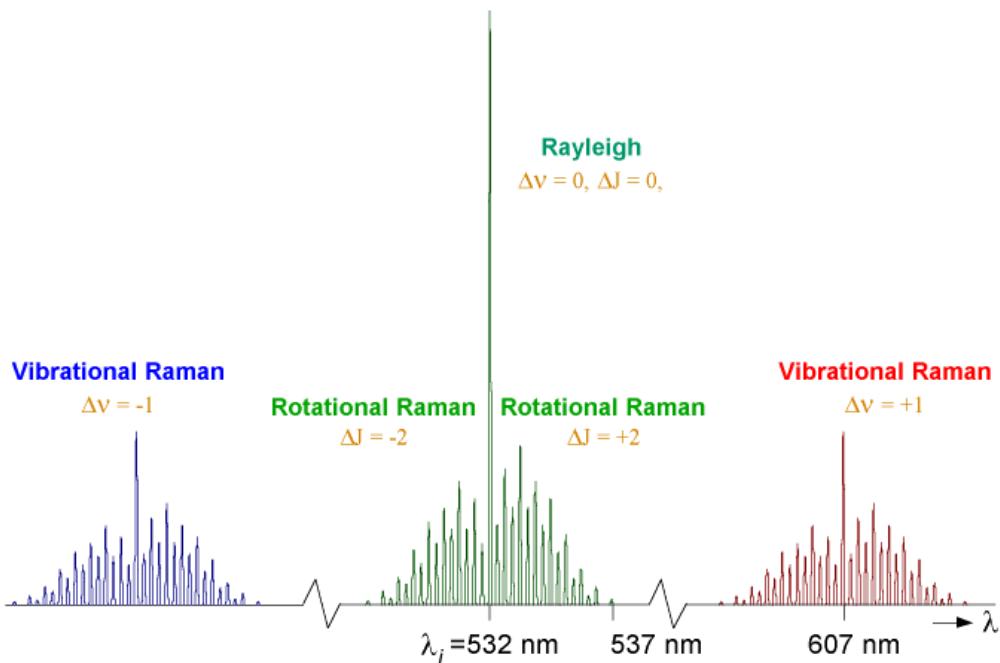
This dipole then itself becomes an emitter of radiation.

The angular dependence of the scattering probability is referred to as '**phase function**'

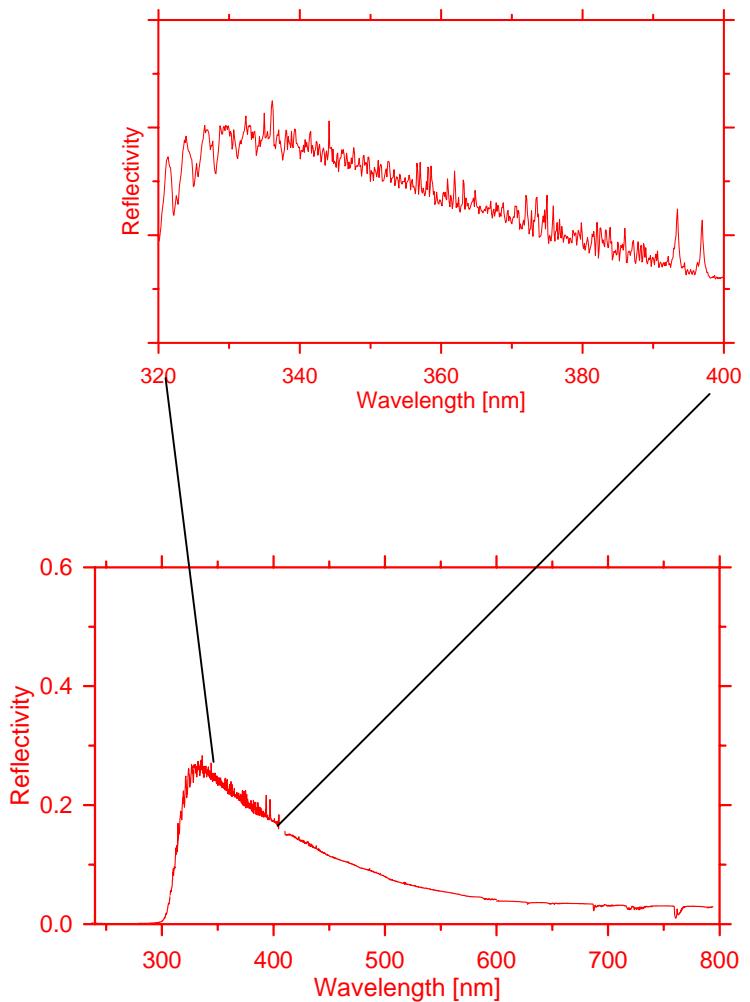


red: p-polarisation, blue: s-polarisation

# Influence of inelastic scattering



,Filling-in' of  
spectral structures:  
Ring effect



If the extension of a particle is larger than the wavelength, interference effects become important

The scattering particle can be thought of as build up of many individual emitting dipoles

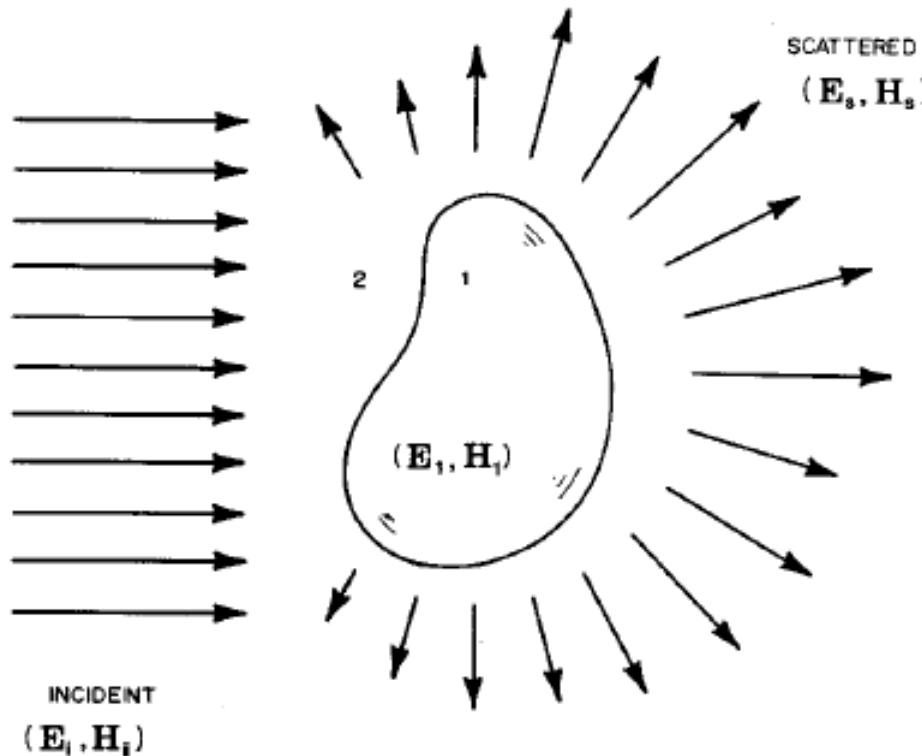
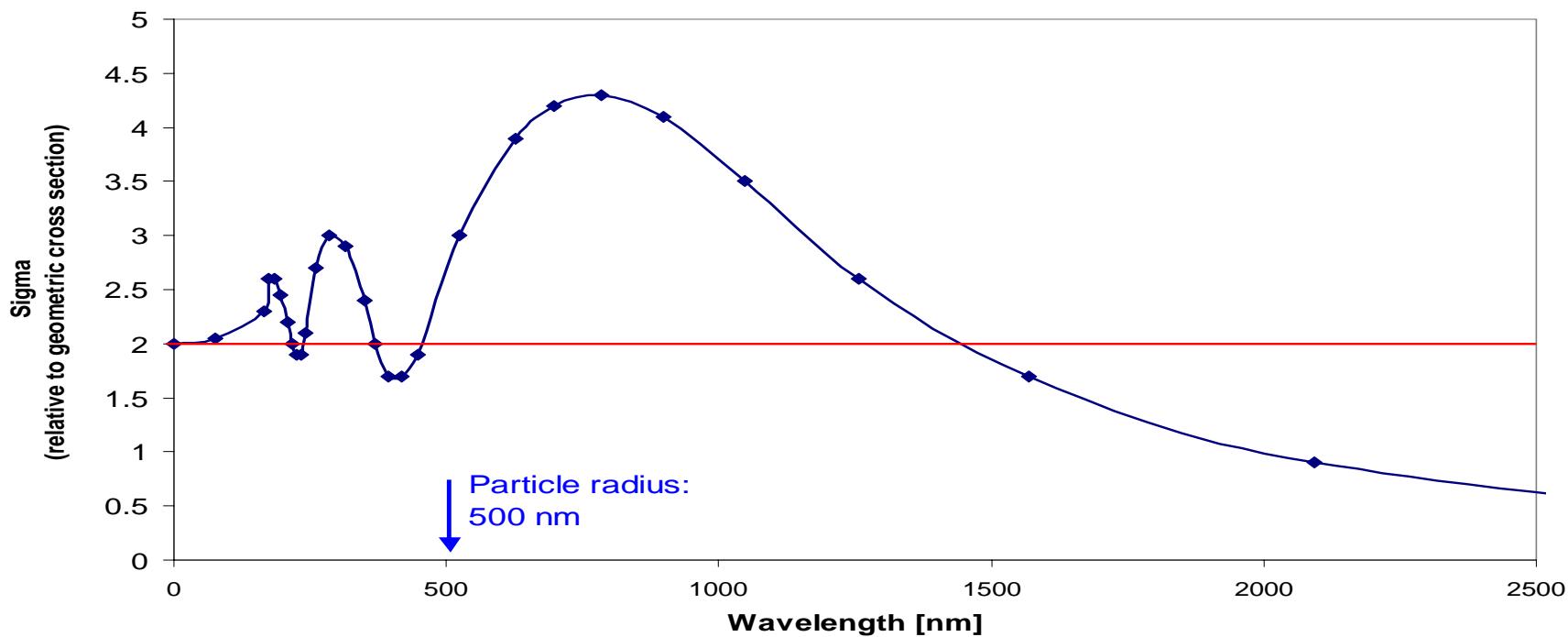


Figure 2.1: The incident field  $(E_i, H_i)$  gives rise to a field  $(E_1, H_1)$  inside the particle and a scattered field  $(E_s, H_s)$  in the medium surrounding the particle (from Bohren and Huffman, 1998).

# Wavelength dependence of scattering processes

Mie extinction cross section (r: 500 nm, refractive index: 1.5)



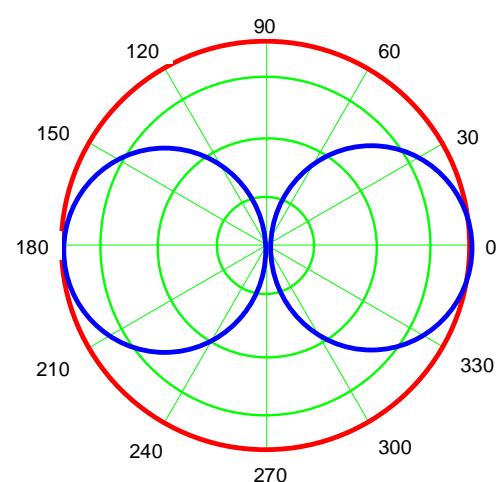
$\lambda \gg r \Rightarrow \sigma \sim \lambda^{-4}$  (Rayleigh scattering)

$\lambda \ll r \Rightarrow \sigma \sim \lambda^0$  (Clouds)

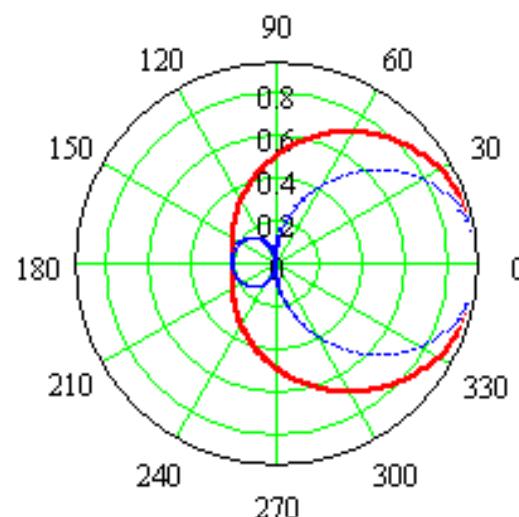
for typical aerosol size distributions:  $\sigma \sim \lambda^{-1}$  to  $\lambda^{-1.5}$

# Angular and polarisation dependence of scattering processes

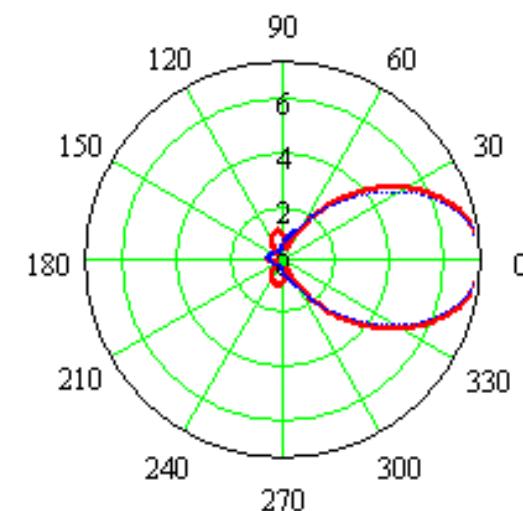
$\lambda \gg r$



$\lambda \sim r$

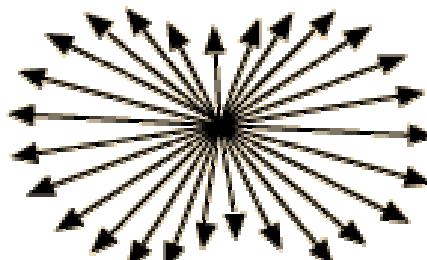


$\lambda < r$

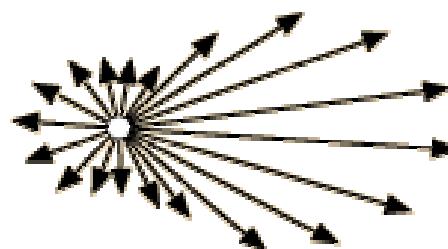


red: s-polarisation, blue: p-polarisation

Rayleigh Scattering



Mie Scattering



Mie Scattering,  
larger particles



→ Direction of incident light

## Comprehensive theory for spherical particles: Mie scattering

$$I(\Theta, R) = \frac{I_0 \lambda^2 (i_1 + i_2)}{8\pi^2 R^2}$$

Mie intensity parameters  $i_1$  and  $i_2$  (for perpendicular polarised light) are complex functions of the **refractive index** of the scatterer, **the size parameter** and **scattering angle**

Size parameter:

$$\alpha = \frac{2\pi r}{\lambda}$$

The (complex) refractive index describes the scattering and absorption properties:

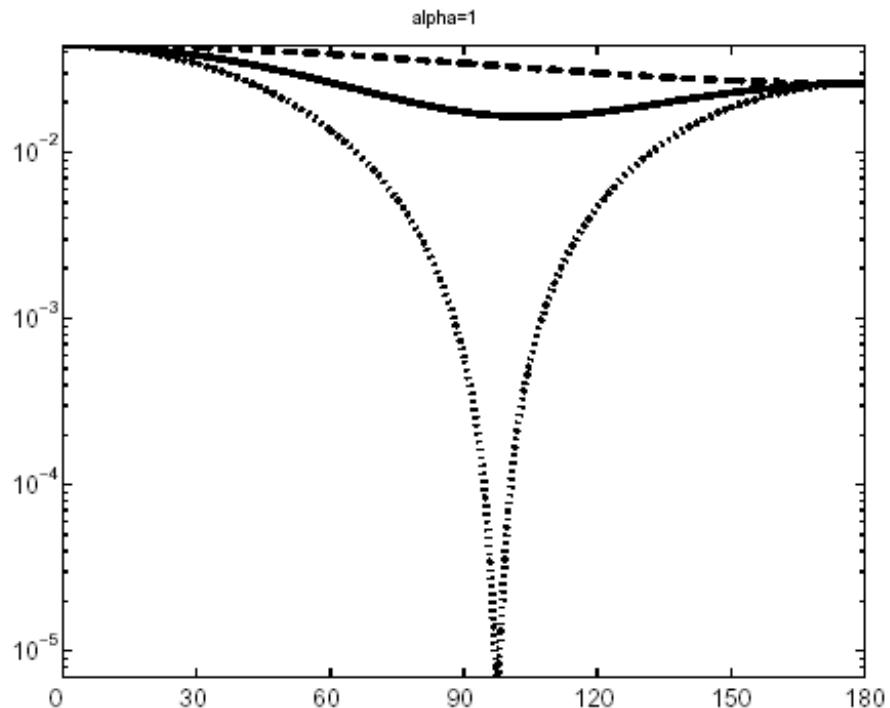
$$n = n_r (1 - ai)$$

With

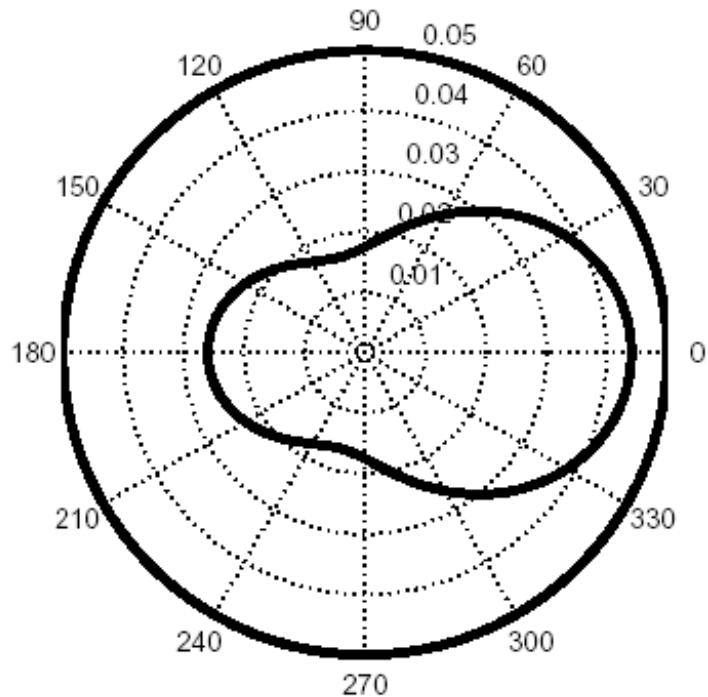
$n_r$  : real refractive index

a: constant proportional to the absorption coefficient

Species	Refractive index
Vacuum	1
Water vapor	1.00025
Air	1.00029
Water (liquid)	1.333
Ice	1.309
Rock salt	1.544
Sodium chloride in aqueous solution	1.342 – 1.378
Sulfuric acid in aqueous solution	1.339 – 1.437
Benzene	1.5011
Alpha pinene	1.465
Delta Limonene	1.471
Nitrobenzene	1.55
Diethylphthalate	1.49
Oleic acid	1.46
Polystyrene latex	1.6
Carbon	1.59-0.66i
Iron	1.51-1.63i
Magentite	2.58-0.58i
Copper	0.62-2.63i

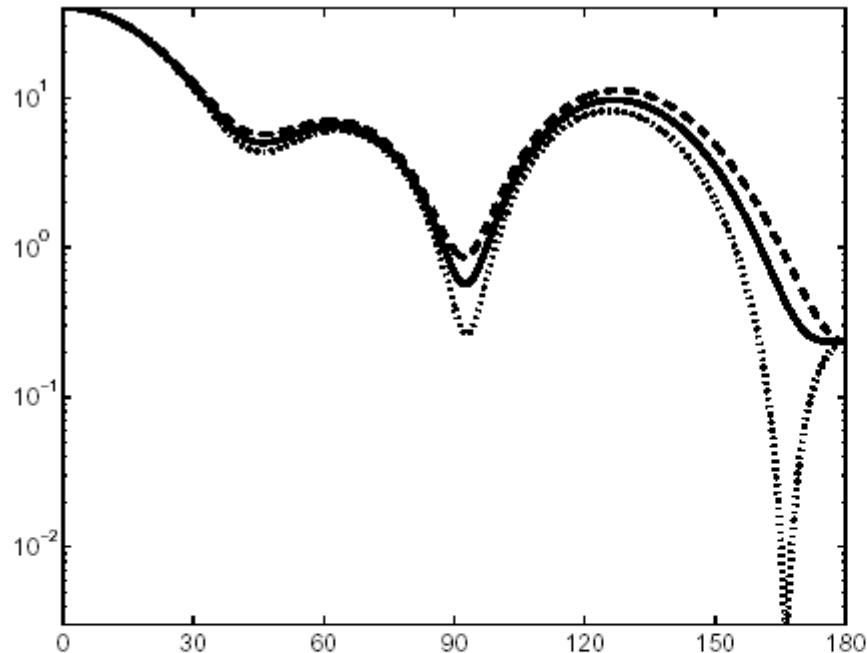


(a) Scattering diagram for  $x=1$ . The dotted and the broken lines represent the two orthogonal polarization states, whereas the solid line represents unpolarized light.

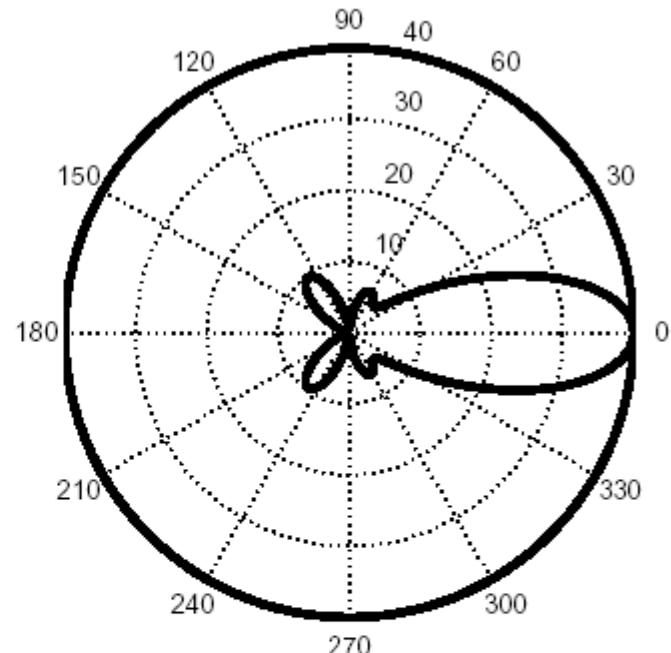


Phase function of pure water (1.33,0.0) for size parameter  $x=1.0$

(b) A polar plot of the scattering profile of a water droplet of size parameter  $x = 1$ .



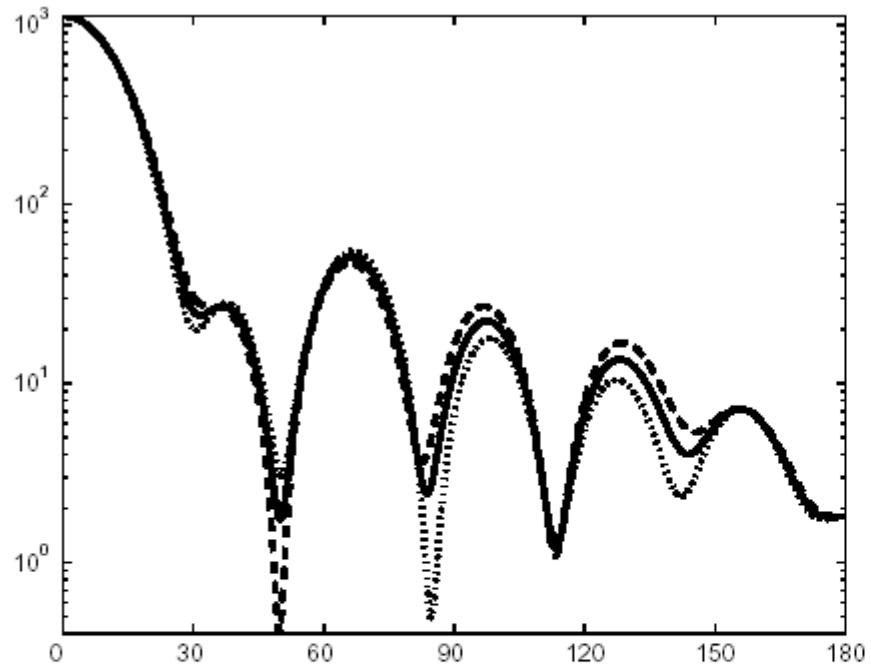
(a) Scattering diagram for  $x=3$ . The dotted and the broken lines represent the two orthogonal polarization states, whereas the solid line represents unpolarized light.



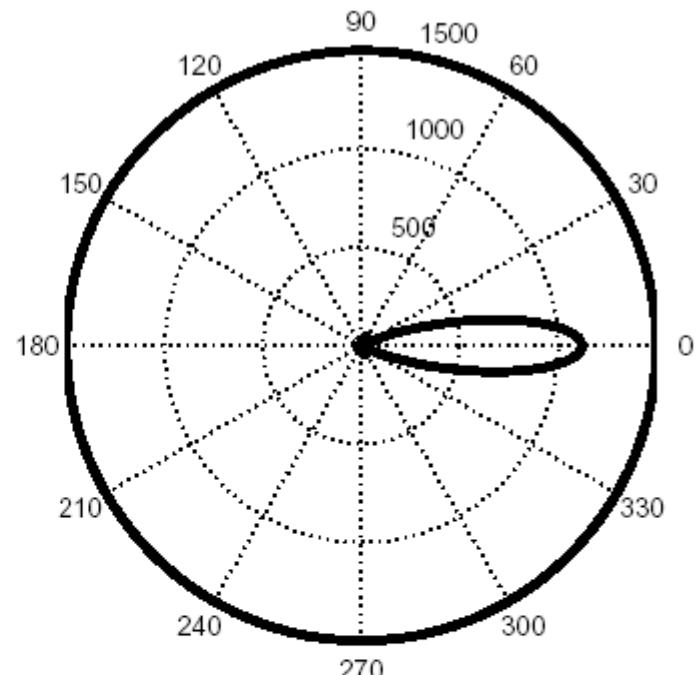
Phase function of pure water (1.33,0,0) for size parameter  $x=3.0$

(b) A polar plot of the scattering profile of a water droplet of size parameter  $x = 3$ .

Figure 2.16: Phase functions of a water droplet with  $x=3$



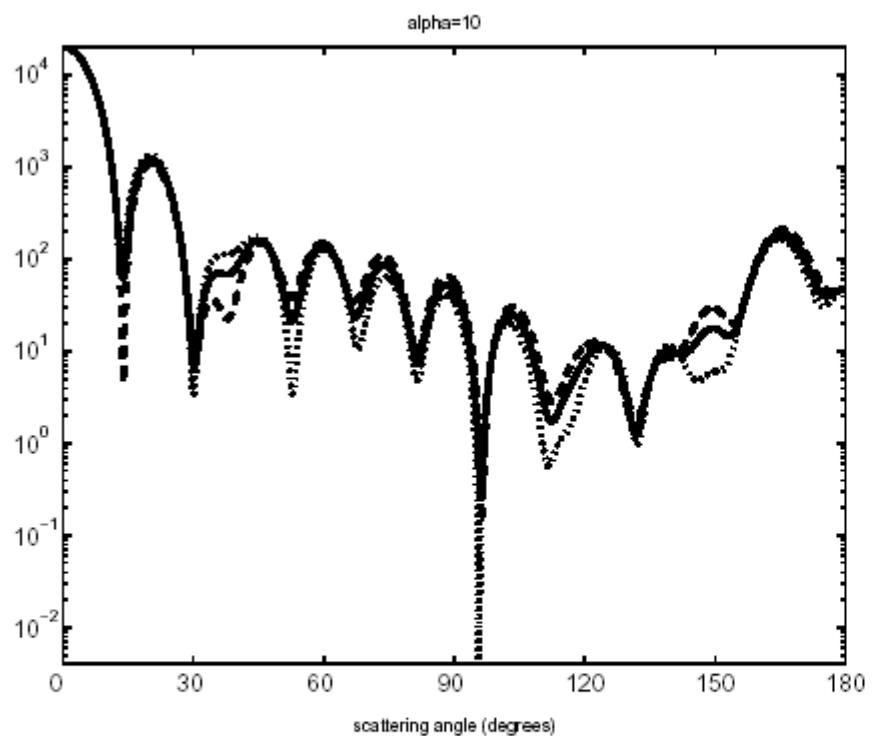
(a) Scattering diagram for  $x=5$ . The dotted and the broken lines represent the two orthogonal polarization states, whereas the solid line represents unpolarized light.



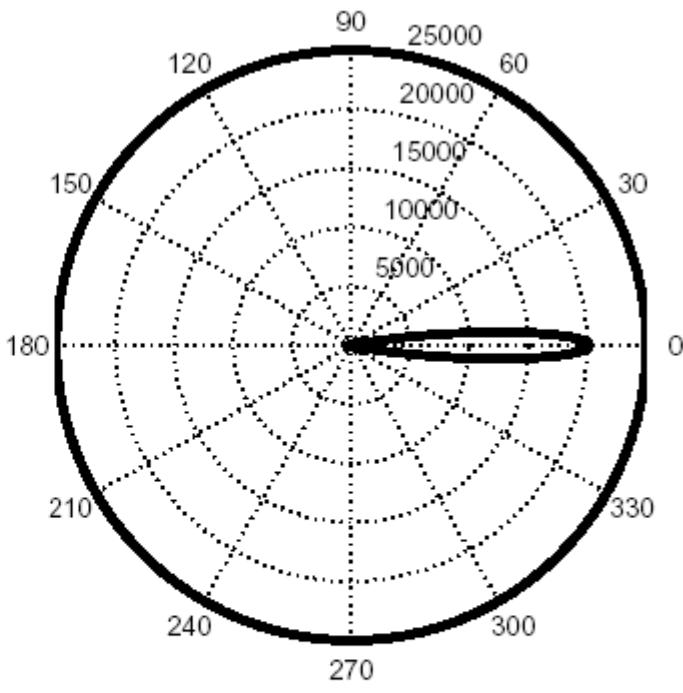
Phase function of pure water (1.33, 0, 0) for size parameter  $x=5.0$

(b) A polar plot of the scattering profile of a water droplet of size parameter  $x=5$ .

*Figure 2.17:* Phase functions of a water droplet with  $x=5$



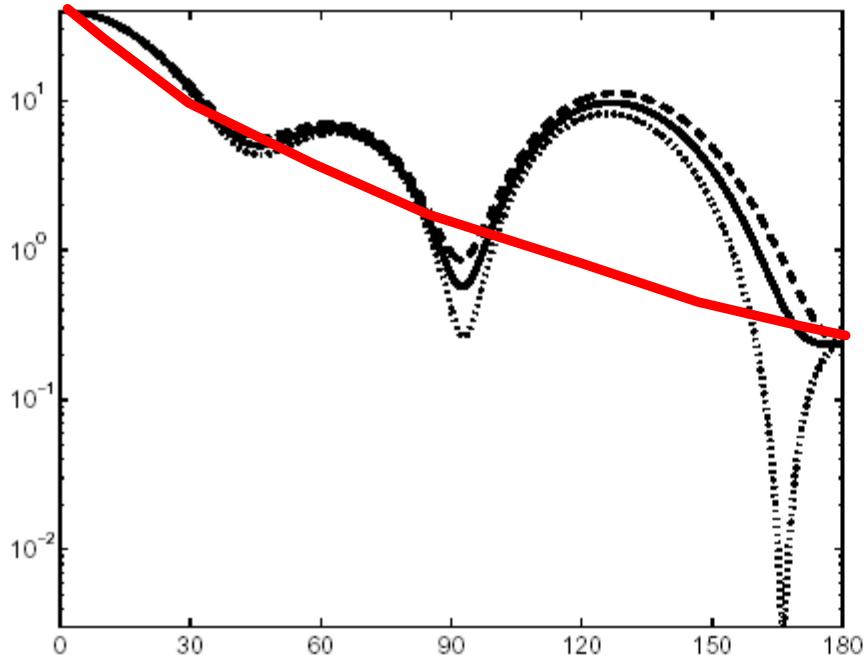
(a) Scattering diagram for  $x=10$ . The dotted and the broken lines represent the two orthogonal polarization states, whereas the solid line represents unpolarized light.



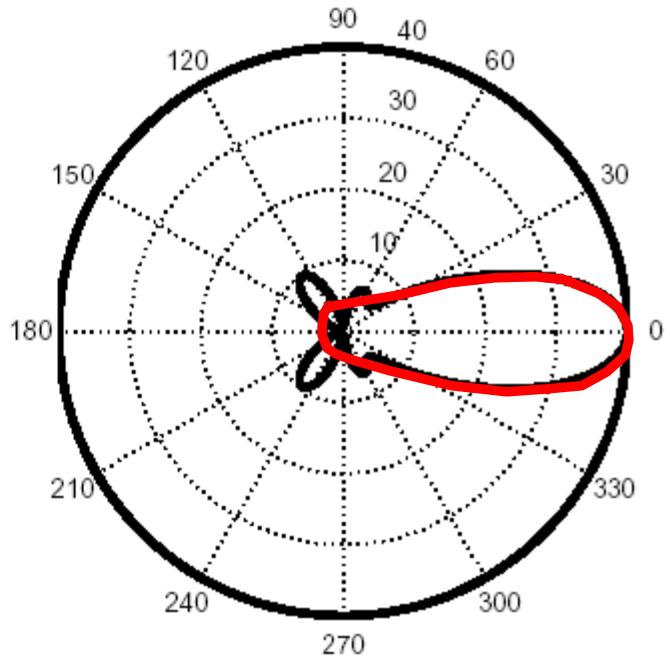
Phase function of pure water (1.33,0,0) for size parameter  $x=10.0$

(b) A polar plot of the scattering profile of a water droplet of size parameter  $x = 10$ .

In reality atmospheric aerosols contain a mixture of different radii. Thus the interference patterns smear-out due to the overlap of the scattering dependencies of many particles



(a) Scattering diagram for  $x=3$ . The dotted and the broken lines represent the two orthogonal polarization states, whereas the solid line represents unpolarized light.



(b) A polar plot of the scattering profile of a water droplet of size parameter  $x = 3$ .

*Figure 2.16:* Phase functions of a water droplet with  $x=3$

Information on distance from time delay:

$$\Delta t = (2*d)/c$$

$$c_{EM} = 3*10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$c_{sound} = 3*10^2 \text{ m/s}$$

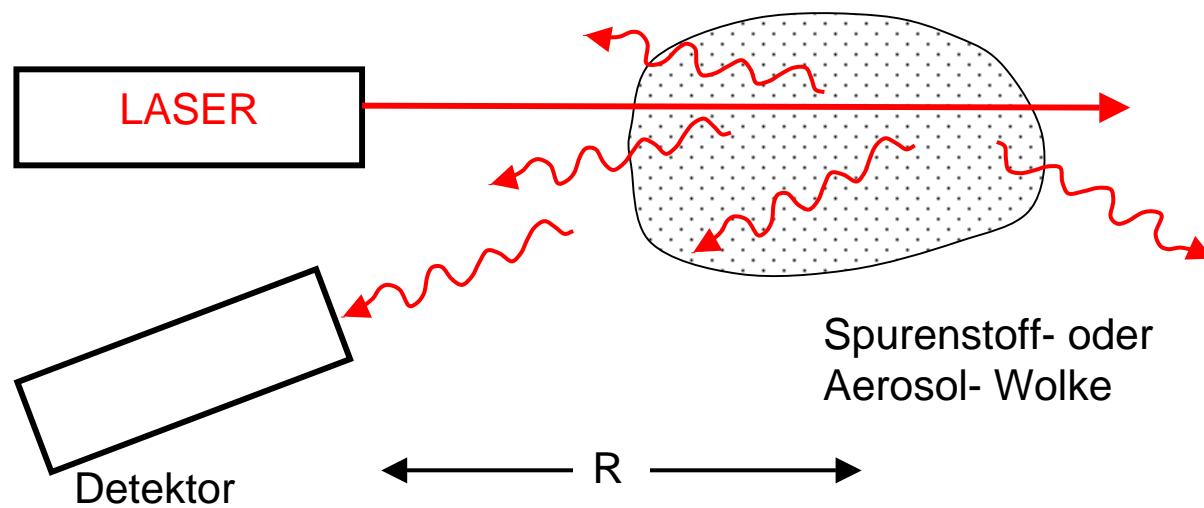
# Dependence of the speed of sound on temperature

Effect of temperature			
Temperature	Speed of sound	Density of air	Acoustic impedance
$\vartheta$ in $^{\circ}\text{C}$	$c$ in $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$	$\rho$ in $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$	$Z$ in $\text{N}\cdot\text{s}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$
-25	315.8	1.423	449.4
-20	318.9	1.395	444.9
-15	322.1	1.368	440.6
-10	325.2	1.342	436.1
-5	328.3	1.317	432.0
0	331.3	1.292	428.4
+5	334.3	1.269	424.3
+10	337.3	1.247	420.6
+15	340.3	1.225	416.8
+20	343.2	1.204	413.2
+25	346.1	1.184	409.8
+30	349.0	1.164	406.2
+35	351.9	1.146	403.3

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# LIght Detection And Ranging: LIDAR



Prinzip:

Kurze Strahlungsimpulse einer starken, gebündelten Lichtquelle (üblicherweise eines LASERs) werden in die Atmosphäre ausgestrahlt.

Laufzeit ergibt Höhe (Echo), Intensität ergibt Streustärke (Konzentration)

→ räumliche Verteilung von Aerosol bzw. Spurengasen  
in der Richtung des ausgesandten Strahles

# Laufzeit der Signale

$$t = 2R/c$$

R = Abstand aus der die (betrachtete) Strahlungsintensität zurückgestreut wird.

c = Lichtgeschwindigkeit

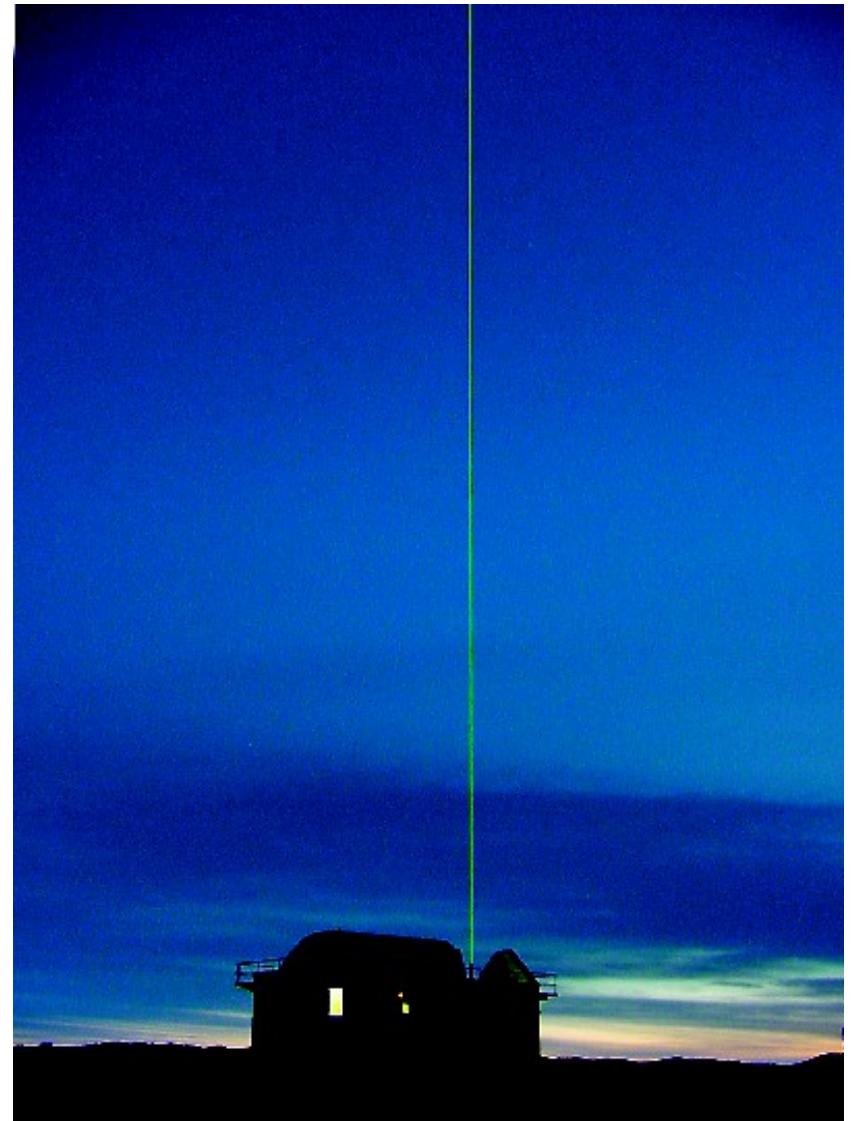
t = Zeit (nach Aussenden des Laser-pulses) zu der das Signal den Detektor erreicht

Für Pulslänge  $dt$  ergibt sich die Auflösung

$$\Delta R = dt c/2$$

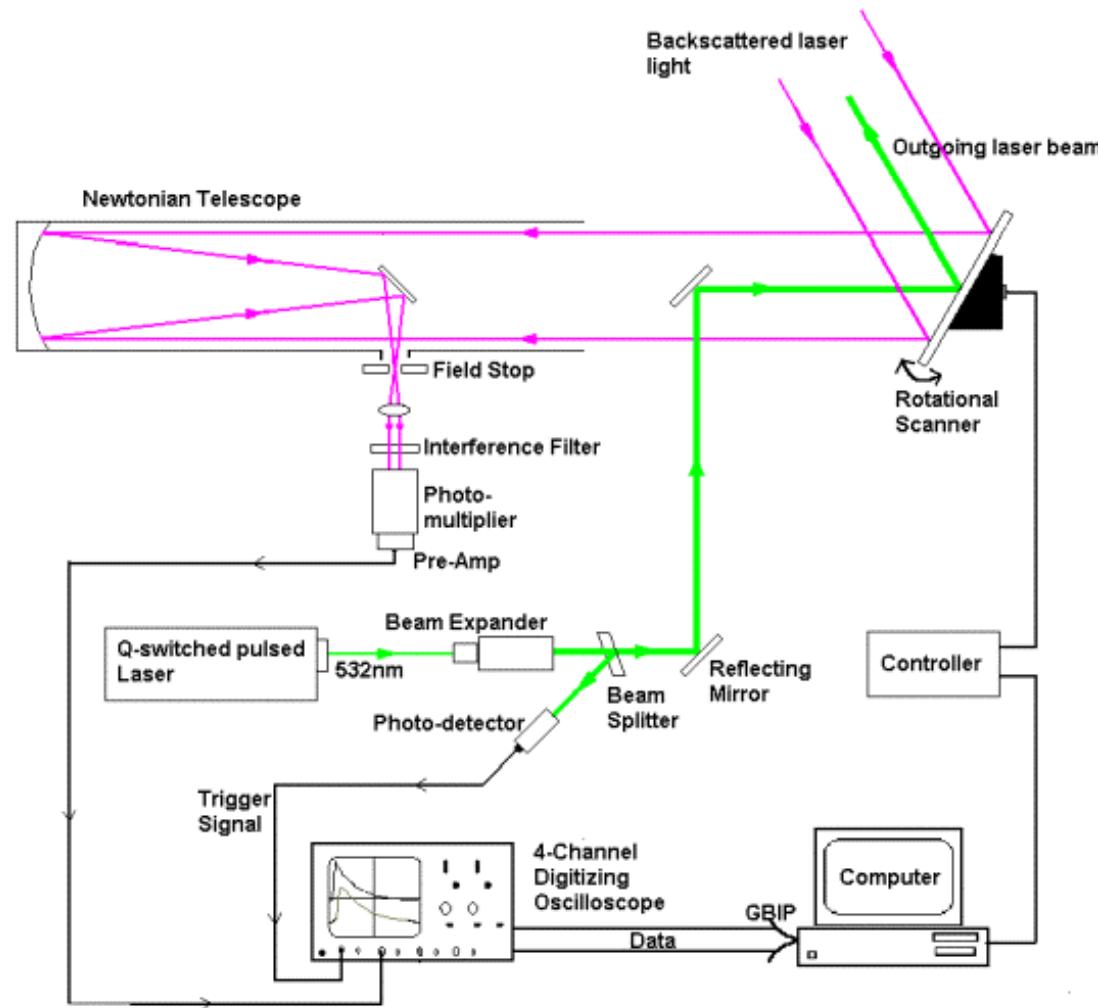
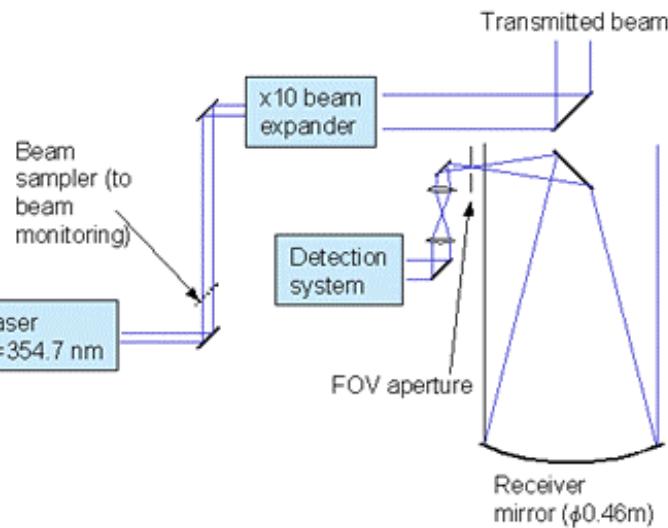
(1  $\mu$ s Laserpuls gibt Höhenauflösung von 150 m)

Frequenz 10-100 Hz

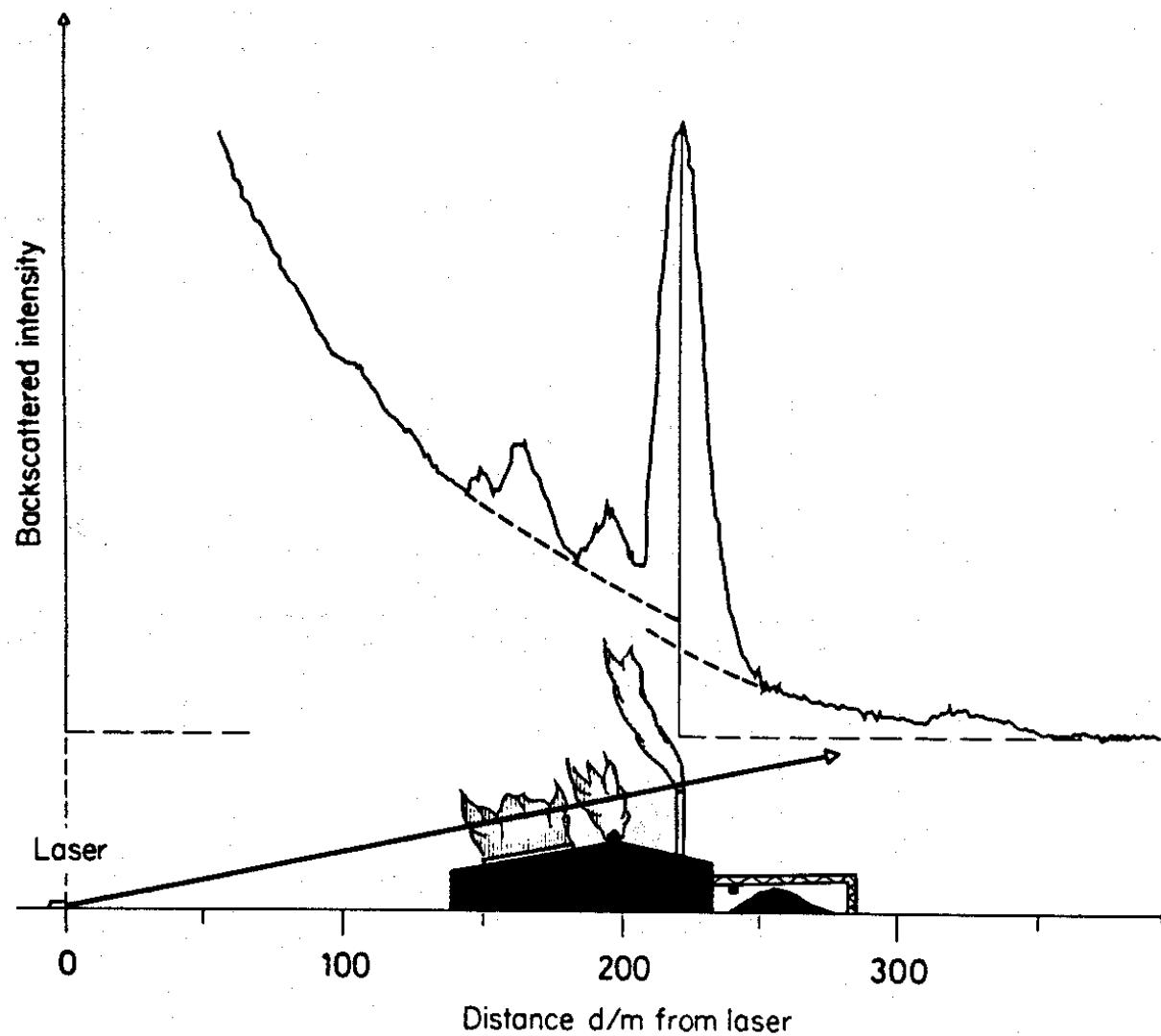


[http://www.aad.gov.au/asset/information/photos\\_2/lidar.jpg](http://www.aad.gov.au/asset/information/photos_2/lidar.jpg)

kleines Sendeteleskop,  
großes (0.3-1.5 m)  
Empfängerteleskop



# Aerosolmessungen mit Mie-LIDAR



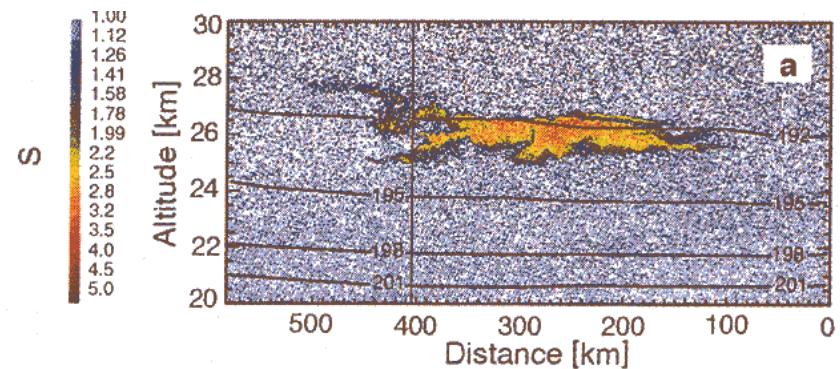
**Figure 3.9.** Mie scattering lidar particle monitoring at an iron-alloy plant. From Fredriksson et al. (1976).



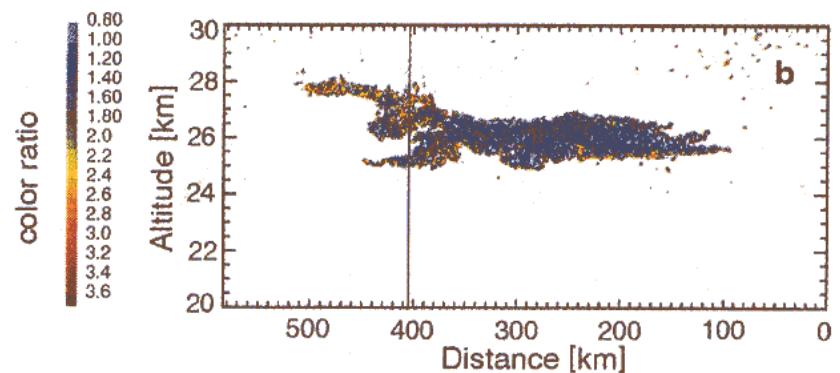
PSCs over Kiruna © C.-F. Enell

# Different LIDAR signals of PSCs

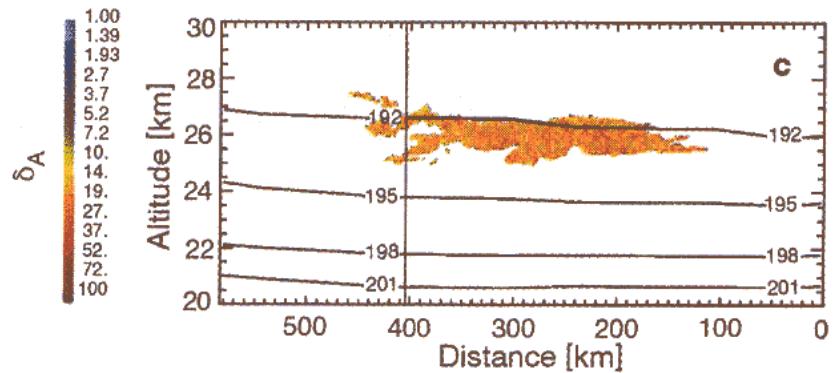
Amplitude  
=> Particle amount



Ratio of intensity at different wavelengths  
=> Particle size



Ratio of intensity at different polarisation  
=> Thermodynamical state

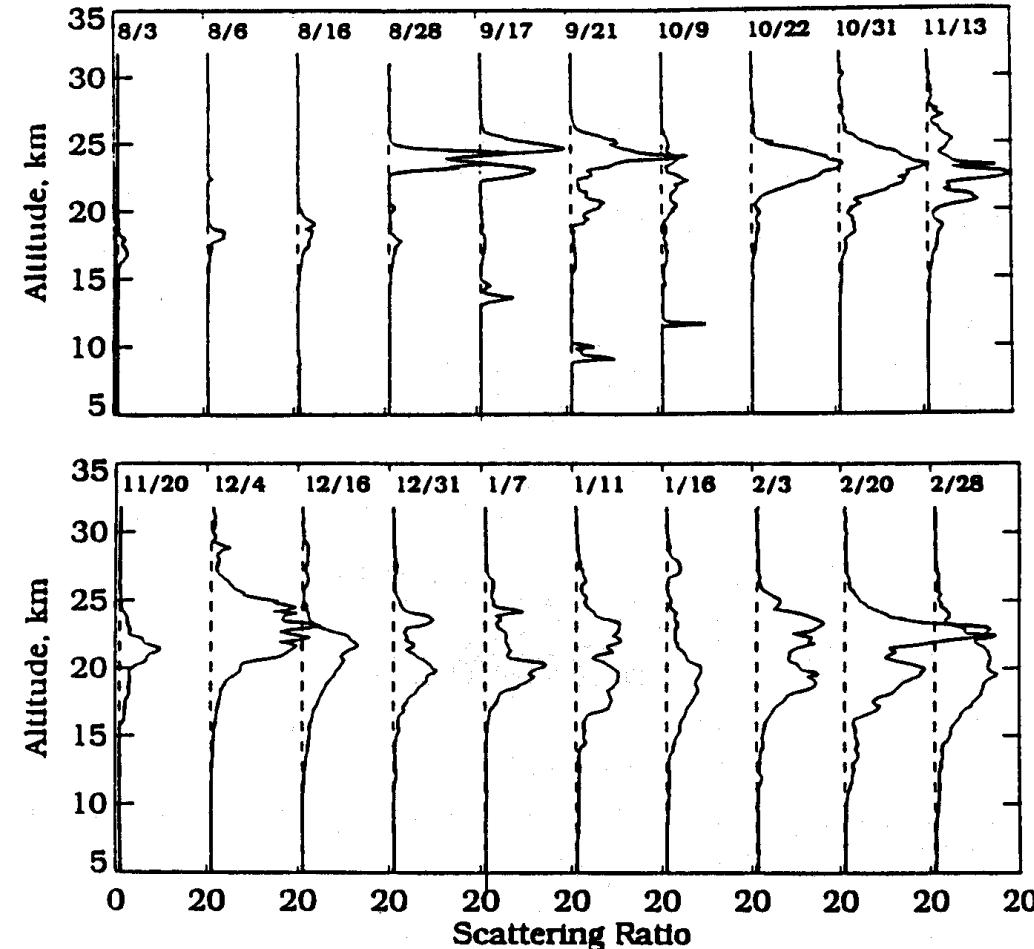


Latitude [°N] 74.7 75.8 76.1 76.1 76.1 75.6  
Longitude [°E] 15.3 15.0 18.6 23.1 27.5 30.0

# Aerosolschicht nach Ausbruch des Pinatubo 1991

Scattering ratio = Mie-scattering / Rayleigh scattering

3. August 1991 – 28. Feb. 1992

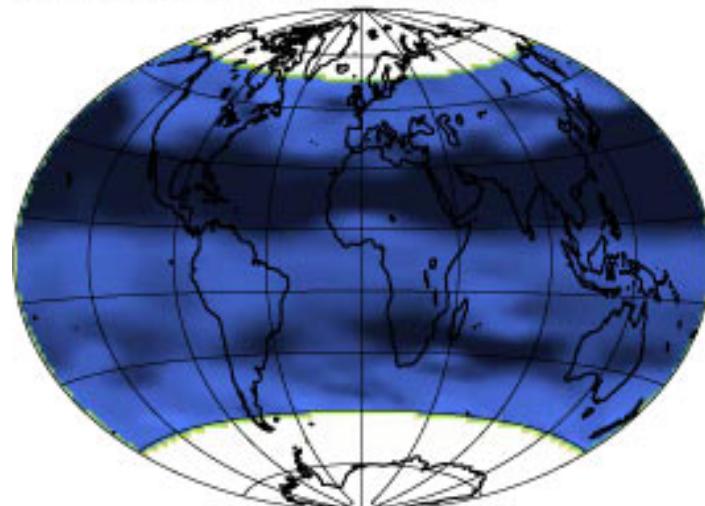


The eruption of Pinatubo in the Philippines, 12 June 1991, the largest volcanic eruption since 1912.

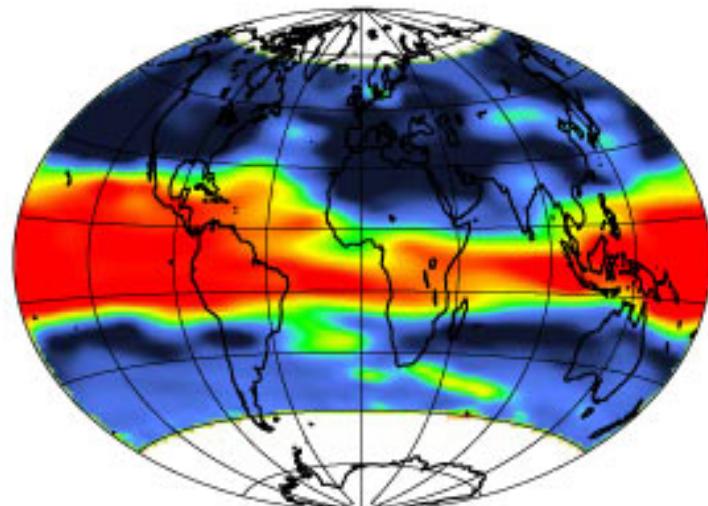
Figure 3.10. Lidar recordings of stratospheric dust due to the Mt. Pinatubo volcanic eruption. The Mie scattered intensity divided by the expected Rayleigh scattering intensity from a particle-free atmosphere has been plotted. Recordings taken at Hampton, Virginia, covering the period, Aug. 3, 1991, to Feb. 28, 1992. From Osborn et al. (1992).

# Aerosolschicht nach Ausbruch des Pinatubo 1991

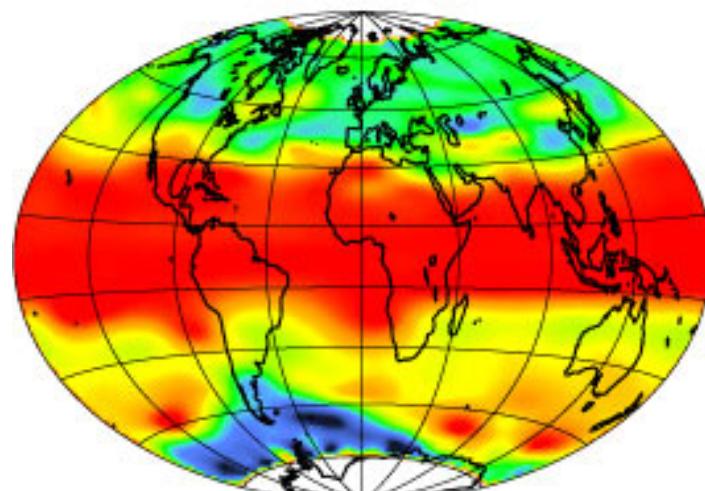
SAGE II 1020 nm Optical Depth



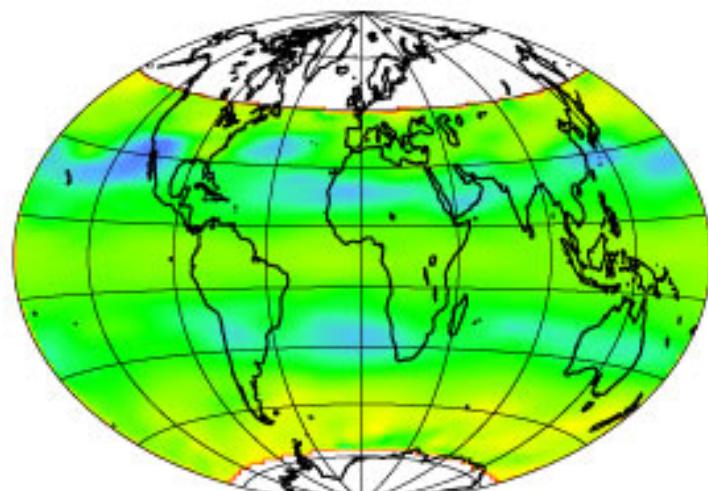
91-April-10 to 91-May-13



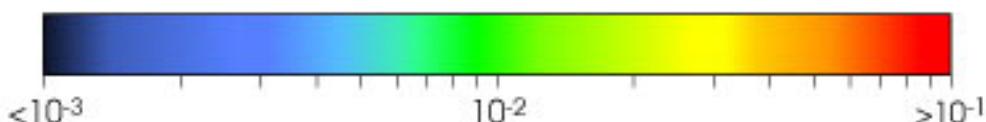
91-June-15 to 91-July-25

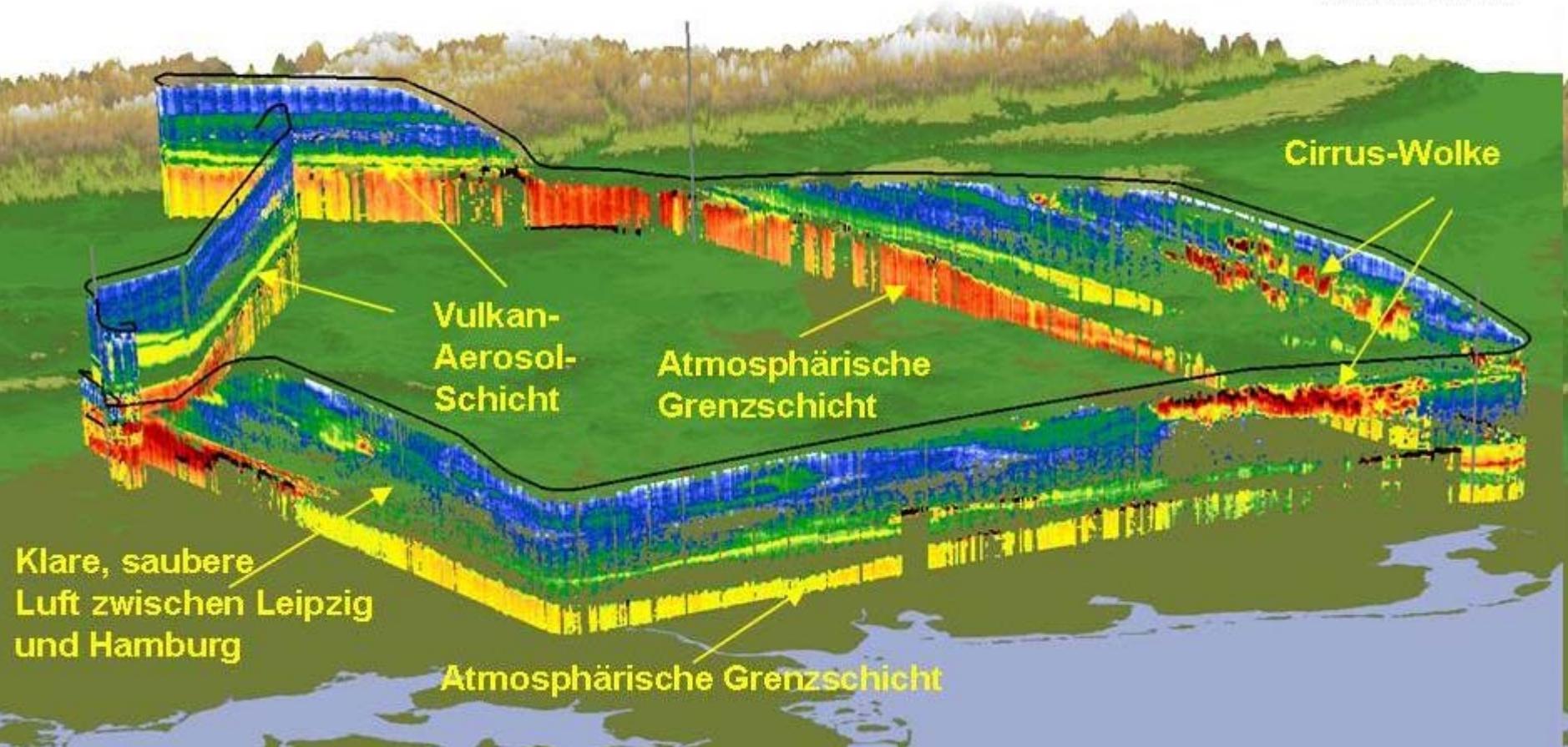


91-August-23 to 91-September-30

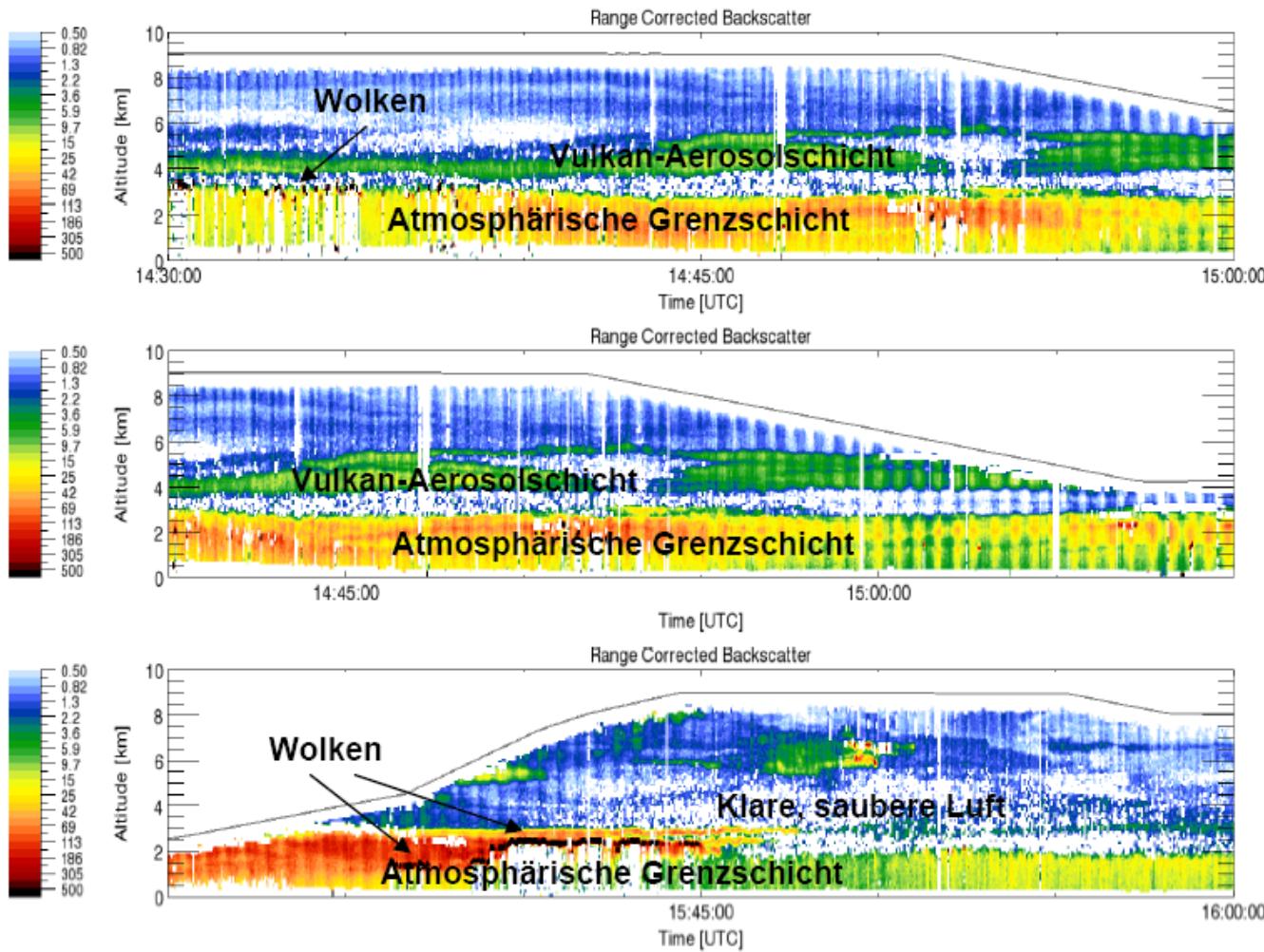


93-December-5 to 94-January-16





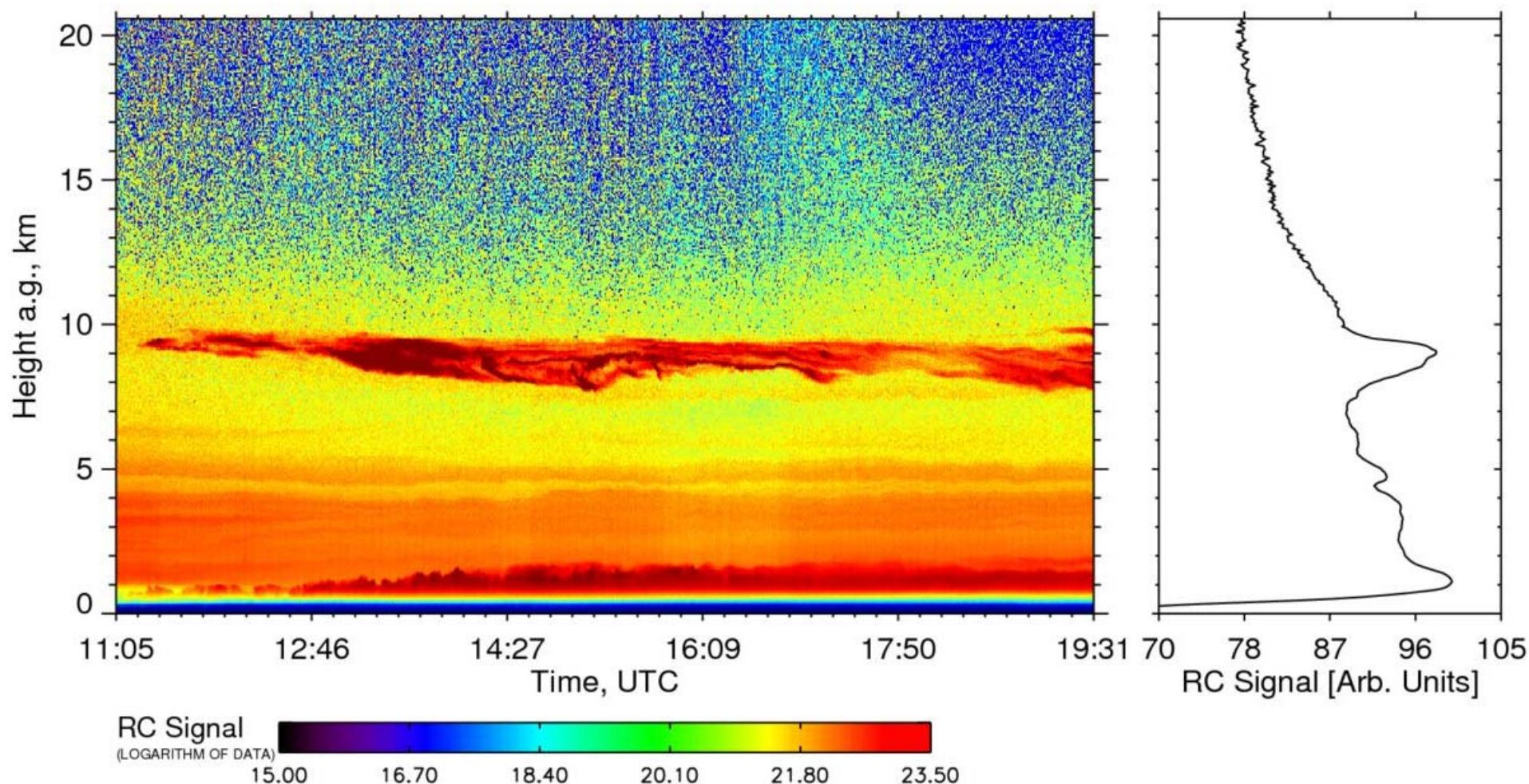
Lidar-Messung der Signal-Stärke entlang des Flugweges der Falcon am 19. April 2010; die schwarze Linie zeigt den Flugweg und die Flughöhe an; rote-schwarze Farben zeigen hohe Signale von Wolken (niedrige Wolken in 2-3 km und hohe Cirrus-Wolken) und Aerosol in der bodennahen atmosphärischen Grenzschicht; Vulkan-Aerosolschichten sind im südlichen Bereich von München bis Leipzig zu erkennen, wohingegen zwischen Leipzig und Hamburg keine Schichten oberhalb von 3 km zu erkennen sind.



Lidar-Messung der Signal-Stärke entlang des Flugweges der Falcon am 19. April 2010; die schwarze Linie zeigt den Flugweg und die Flughöhe an; rote-schwarze Farben zeigen hohe Signale von Wolken (niedrige Wolken in 2-3 km und hohe Cirrus-Wolken) und Aerosol in der bodennahen atmosphärischen Grenzschicht; Vulkan-Aerosolschichten sind im südlichen Bereich von München bis Leipzig zu erkennen, wohingegen zwischen Leipzig und Hamburg keine Schichten oberhalb von 3 km zu erkennen sind.

# 1064 nm RC Signal on 20100418

11:05 - 19:31 UTC Res.: 60 m - 30 s



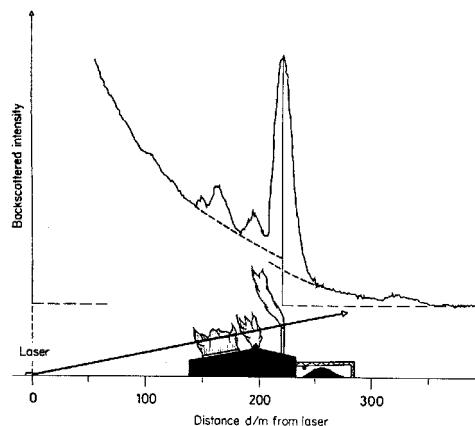


Figure 3.9. Mic scattering lidar particle monitoring at an iron-alloy plant. From Fredriksson et al. (1976).

◻ Lidar equation is the fundamental equation in laser remote sensing field to relate the received photon counts (or light power) with the transmitted laser photon counts (or laser power), light propagation in background atmosphere, physical interaction between light and objects, and lidar system efficiency and geometry, etc.

$$N_S(\lambda, R) = N_L(\lambda_L) \cdot [\beta(\lambda, \lambda_L, \theta, R) \Delta R] \cdot \frac{A}{R^2} \cdot [T(\lambda_L, R) T(\lambda, R)] \cdot [\eta(\lambda, \lambda_L) G(R)] + N_B$$

$N_S(R)$  - expected received photon number from a distance  $R$

$N_L$  - number of transmitted laser photons,

$\beta(R)$  - volume scatter coefficient at distance  $R$  for angle  $\theta$ ,

$\Delta R$  - thickness of the range bin

$A$  - area of receiver,

$T(R)$  - one way transmission of the light from laser source to distance  $R$  or from distance  $R$  to the receiver,

$\eta$  - system optical efficiency,

$G(R)$  - geometrical factor of the system,

$N_B$  - background photon counts.

$$N_S(\lambda, R) = N_L(\lambda_L) \cdot [\beta(\lambda, \lambda_L, \theta, R) \Delta R] \cdot \frac{A}{R^2} \cdot [T(\lambda_L, R) T(\lambda, R)] \cdot [\eta(\lambda, \lambda_L) G(R)] + N_B$$

Volume backscatter coefficient  $\beta$  is the probability per unit distance travel that a photon is scattered into wavelength  $\lambda$  in unit solid angle at angle  $\theta = \pi$ .

Volume backscatter coefficient  $\beta$  is equal to

$$\beta(\lambda, \lambda_L, z) = \sum_i \left[ \frac{d\sigma_i(\lambda_L)}{d\Omega} n_i(z) p_i(\lambda) \right]$$

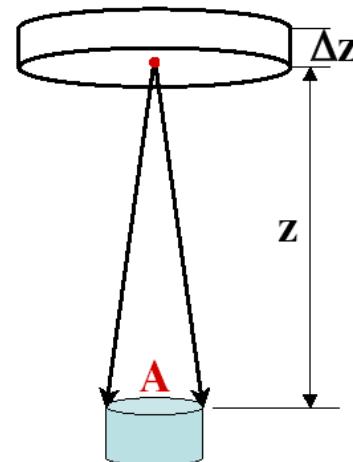
$\frac{d\sigma_i(\lambda_L)}{d\Omega}$  Is the differential backscatter cross-section of single particle

$n_i(z)$  Is the number density of scatter species i

$p_i(\lambda)$  Is the probability of the scattered photons falling into the wavelength  $\lambda$ .

$$N_S(\lambda, R) = N_L(\lambda_L) \cdot [\beta(\lambda, \lambda_L, \theta, R) \Delta R] \cdot \frac{A}{R^2} [T(\lambda_L, R) T(\lambda, R)] \cdot [\eta(\lambda, \lambda_L) G(R)] + N_B$$

The probability that a scatter photon is collected by the receiving telescope, i.e., the solid angle subtended by the receiver aperture to the scatterer (perception angle)



$$N_S(\lambda, R) = N_L(\lambda_L) \cdot [\beta(\lambda, \lambda_L, \theta, R) \Delta R] \cdot \frac{A}{R^2} \cdot [T(\lambda_L, R) T(\lambda, R)] [\eta(\lambda, \lambda_L) G(R)] + N_B$$

$T(\lambda_L, z) T(\lambda, z)$  is the atmospheric transmittance at outgoing wavelength  $\lambda_L$  and return wavelength  $\lambda$

$$T(\lambda_L, R) = \exp \left[ - \int_0^R \alpha(\lambda_L, r) dr \right] \quad T(\lambda, R) = \exp \left[ - \int_0^R \alpha(\lambda, r) dr \right]$$

$$T(\lambda_L, R) T(\lambda, R) = \exp \left[ - \left( \int_0^R \alpha(\lambda_L, r) dr + \int_0^R \alpha(\lambda, r) dr \right) \right]$$

when  $\lambda = \lambda_L$

$$= \exp \left[ -2 \int_0^R \alpha(\lambda, r) dr \right]$$

$\alpha(\lambda, R)$  is the extinction coefficient

$$\alpha(\lambda, R) = \sum_i [\sigma_{i,ext}(\lambda) n_i(R)]$$

$$\sigma_{ext} = \sigma_{scattering} + \sigma_{absorption}$$

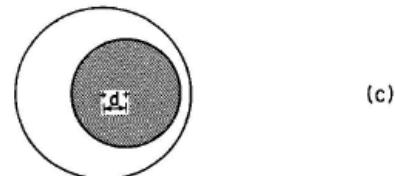
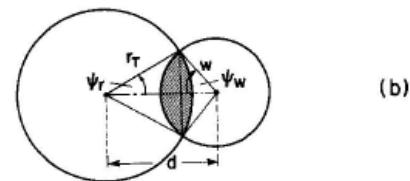
$\sigma_{ext}(\lambda)$  is the integral extinction cross-section, since scattering into all directions contributes to light extinction, which is different than the case for backscatter coefficient definition.

$$N_S(\lambda, R) = N_L(\lambda_L) \cdot [\beta(\lambda, \lambda_L, \theta, R) \Delta R] \cdot \frac{A}{R^2} \cdot [T(\lambda_L, R) T(\lambda, R)] \cdot [\eta(\lambda, \lambda_L) G(R)] \cdot N_B$$

$\eta(\lambda, \lambda_L) = \eta_T(\lambda_L) \cdot \eta_R(\lambda)$  is the lidar hardware optical efficiency

e.g., mirrors, lens, filters, detectors, etc

$G(z)$  is the geometrical form factor, mainly concerning the overlap of the area of laser irradiation with the field of view of the receiver optics



$$N_S(\lambda, R) = N_L(\lambda_L) \cdot [\beta(\lambda, \lambda_L, \theta, R) \Delta R] \cdot \frac{A}{R^2} \cdot [T(\lambda_L, R) T(\lambda, R)] \cdot [\eta(\lambda, \lambda_L) G(R)] + N_B$$

$N_B$  is the expected photon counts per range bin per unit time, due to background noise (e.g., solar scattering) and detector/circuit shot noise.

## LIDAR equation for $\beta$ and $\alpha$

$$N_S(\lambda, z) = \left[ N_L(\lambda_L) \right] \left[ \beta(\lambda, \lambda_L, z) \Delta z \right] \left( \frac{A}{z^2} \right) \exp \left[ -2 \int_0^z \alpha(\lambda, z') dz' \right] \left[ \eta(\lambda, \lambda_L) G(z) \right] + N_B \Delta t$$

General problem:

- Two unknown quantities ( $\beta$  and  $\alpha$ ) should be determined from one observation
- in particular, **no absolute value** of aerosol extinction can be derived

Simple solution: assume (constant) extinction-to-backscatter ratio (lidar ratio)

- high values indicate low probability for back-scattering
- 8.4 sr for Rayleigh-scattering
- 30 sr is a common value for submicron aerosols

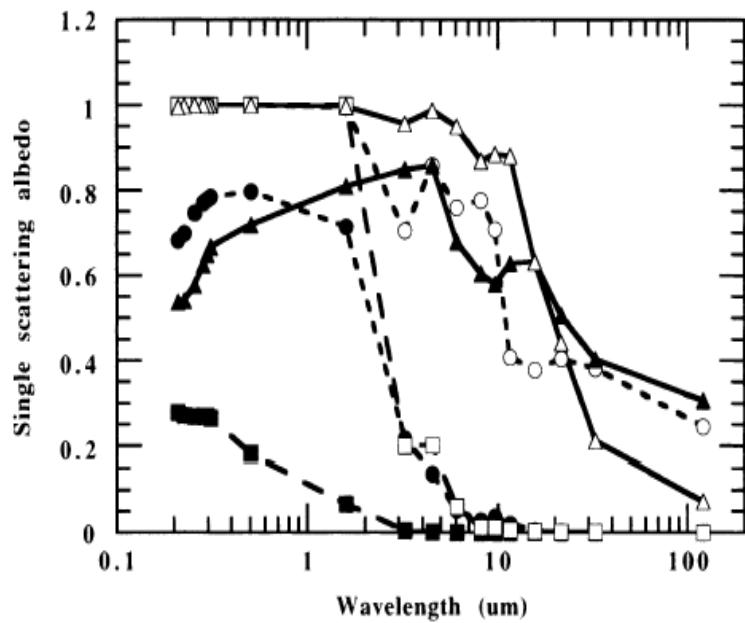
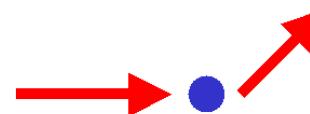
Extinction-to-backscatter ratio (lidar ratio) depends on

a) Single scattering albedo (1 - ratio of absorption and extinction)

Single scattering albedo = 0  
=> only absorption



Single scattering albedo = 1  
=> only scattering



Single scattering albedo

for different aerosol types

(Takemura et al., J. of Climate, 2002)

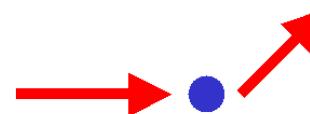
Extinction-to-backscatter ratio (lidar ratio) depends on

a) Single scattering albedo (1- ratio of absorption and extinction)

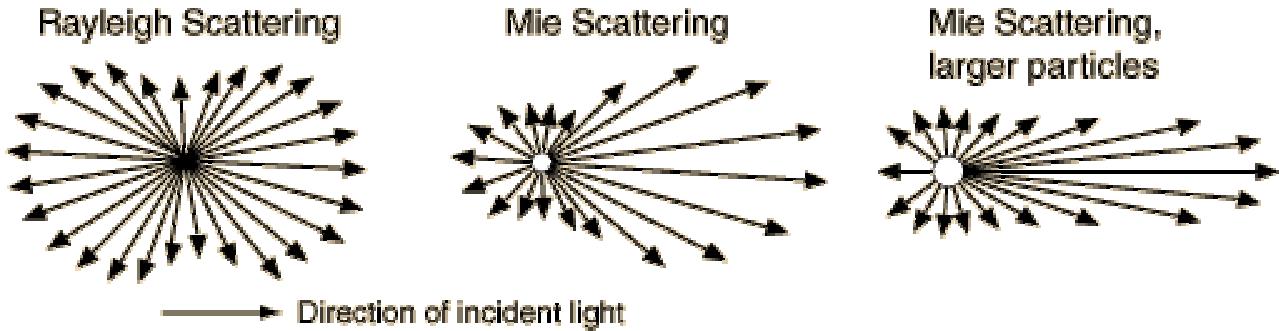
Single scattering albedo = 0  
=> only absorption



Single scattering albedo = 0  
=> only scattering



b) Phase function



Extinction-to-backscatter ratio

-8.4 sr for Rayleigh-scattering

-30 sr is a common value for submicron aerosols

## Sofisticated (instrumental) solutions

a)

Combined LIDAR and sun photometer observations:

- From the LIDAR, the high-resolved **(relative) extinction profile** is derived
  - from the sun-photometer, the **total optical depth** of aerosol extinction is determined
- => From combination => the high-resolved absolute extinction profile

## Sofisticated (instrumental) solutions

b)

### RAMAN-LIDAR:

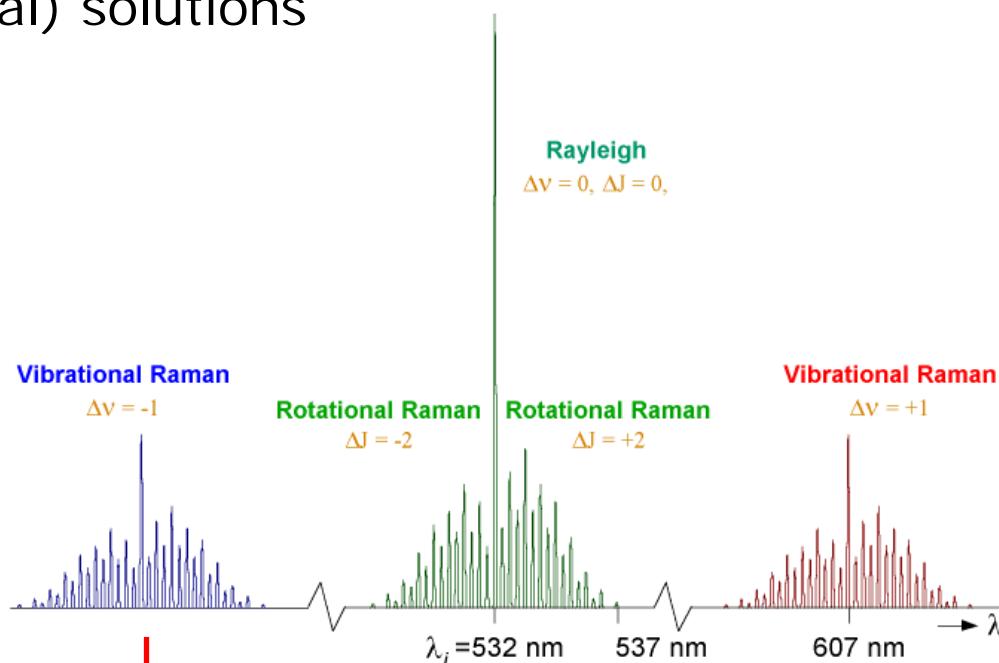
- Observe light at wavelength slightly shifted to emitted wavelength
- => the received light is RAMAN-scattered **only** by air molecules for which the total cross section and the LIDAR-ratio is known
- the attenuation term contains both the extinction due to molecules (known) and aerosols
- => From RAMAN-LIDAR the absolute optical depth of aerosol extinction can be determined

Problem: low signal to noise, operation often only during night

# Sofisticated (instrumental) solutions

b)

RAMAN-LIDAR:

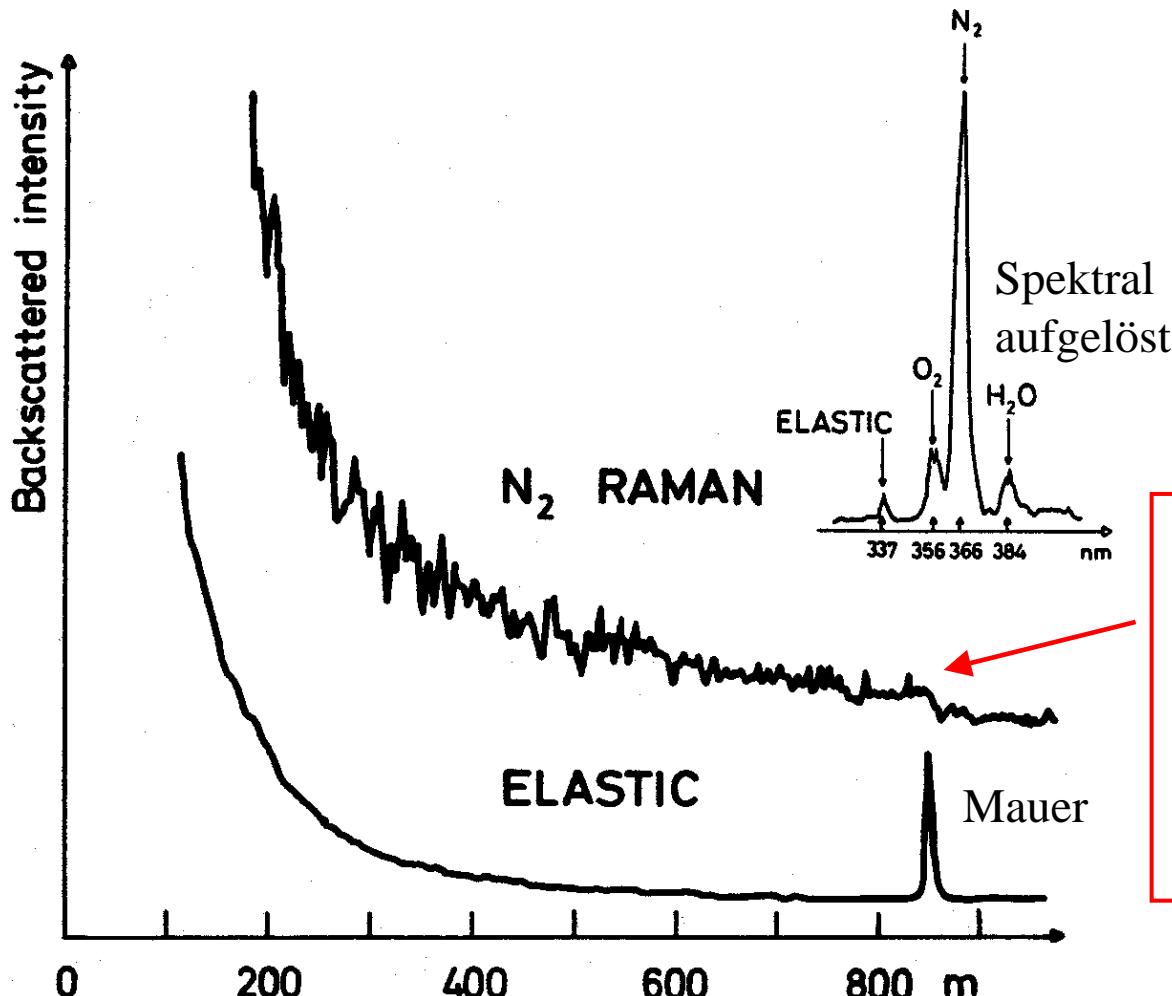


Wavelength at which  
the light is emitted in  
the atmosphere

Light observed at a  
'Raman wavelength'  
is only scattered from  
molecules

=> The effects of  
scattering and  
absorption are  
separated

# Raman-LIDAR für $N_2$



The reflection peak from the wall is missing in the Raman signal

**Figure 3.11.** Elastic backscattering and  $N_2$  Raman scattering recordings against a solid target at an 850-m distance. The measurements were performed with a nitrogen laser operating at 337 nm. Inset: a spectrally resolved recording of atmospheric backscattering is shown, featuring peaks due to oxygen, nitrogen, and water vapor. From Fredriksson et al. (1977).

# UV Raman Lidar System Details

## Parameters of the LIDAR system:

### Transmitter:

**Wavelength 354.7 nm**

**Max. power 0.35 J per pulse**

**Average Power 17.5W**

**Pulse width 7 ns**

**Repetition rate 50 Hz**

**Beam diameter 0.1 m**

**Beam divergence 0.1 mr**

### Receiver:

**Wavelengths 353.0 nm**

**353.9 nm**

**354.7 nm**

**386.7nm**

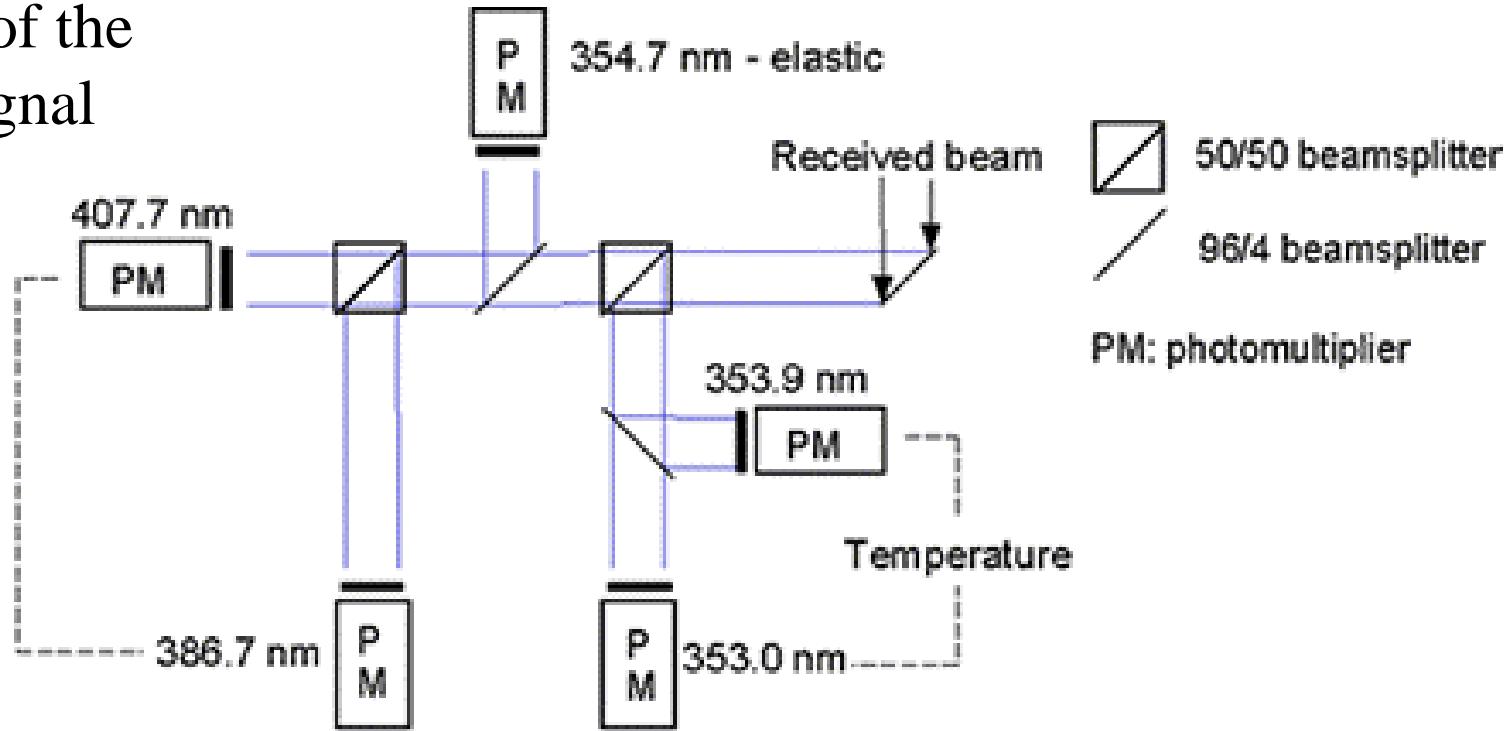
**407.8 nm**

**Range resolution 6 m**

**Field-of-view 0.3 mr**

**Mirror diameter 0.45 m**

# Analysis of the Raman signal



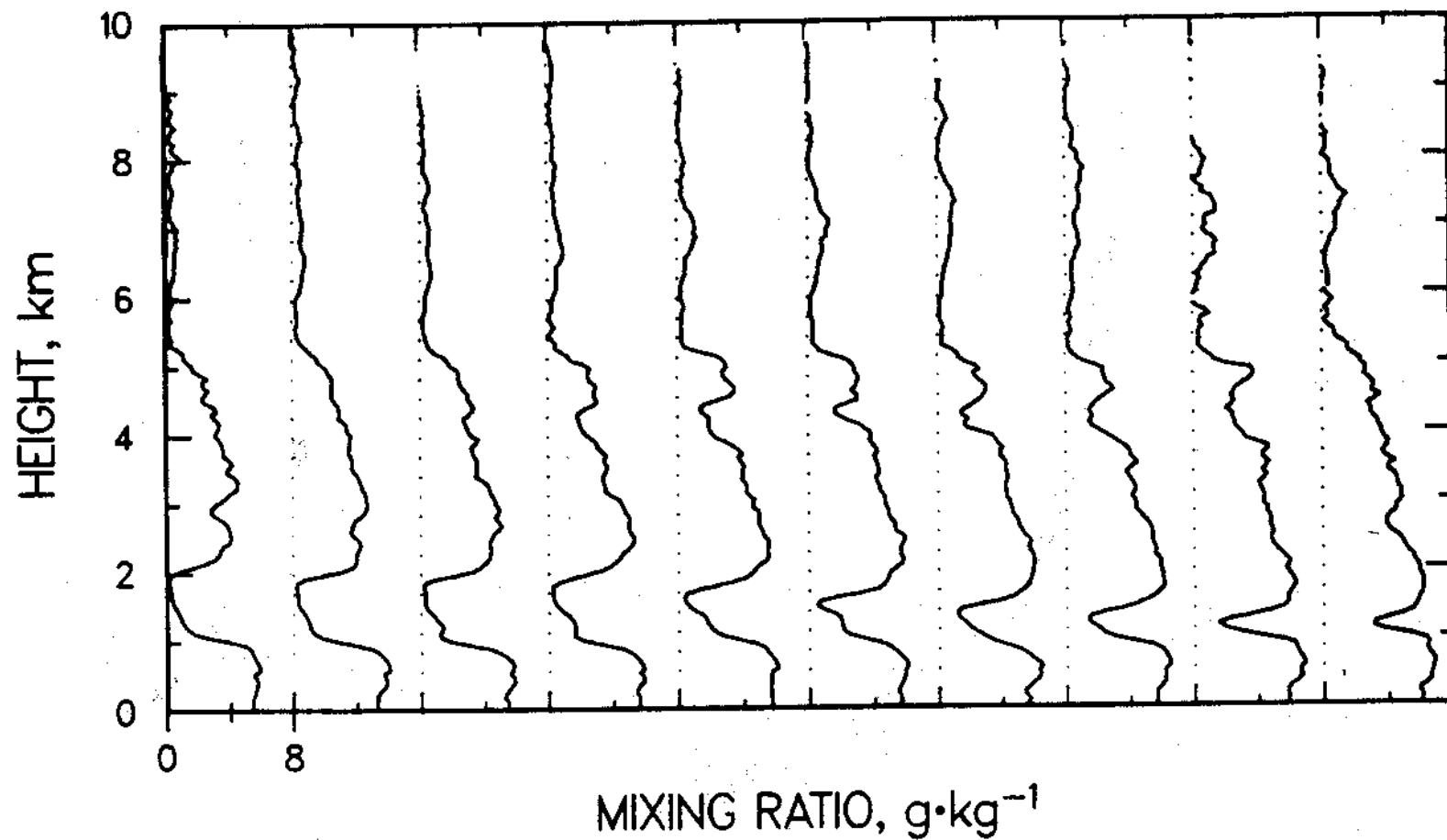
## Messung von Temperaturprofilen:

- Extrem kleine Wellenlängenänderungen durch Rotationsübergänge
- Besetzungswahrscheinlichkeit der Rotationszustände ist temperaturabhängig:
- Messung an N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>

Bis hierher

## Raman-LIDAR for H<sub>2</sub>O

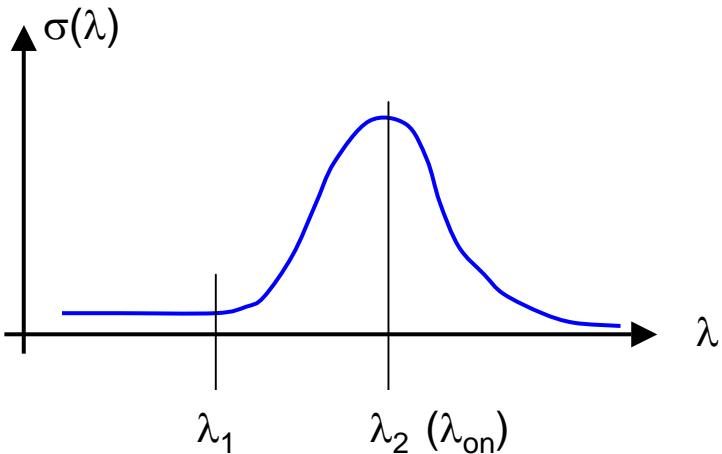
In contrast to N<sub>2</sub> or O<sub>2</sub>, the H<sub>2</sub>O concentration is highly variable



**Figure 3.12.** Water vapor Raman lidar curves, plotted as mixing ratios (water vapor to dry air). From Ansmann et al. (1992).

# DIfferential Absorption Lidar DIAL

Zur Bestimmung von Spurenstoffkonzentrationen werden im Gegensatz zum “gewöhnlichen” (=Aerosol-) LIDAR wenigstens zwei verschiedene Wellenlängen verwandt:



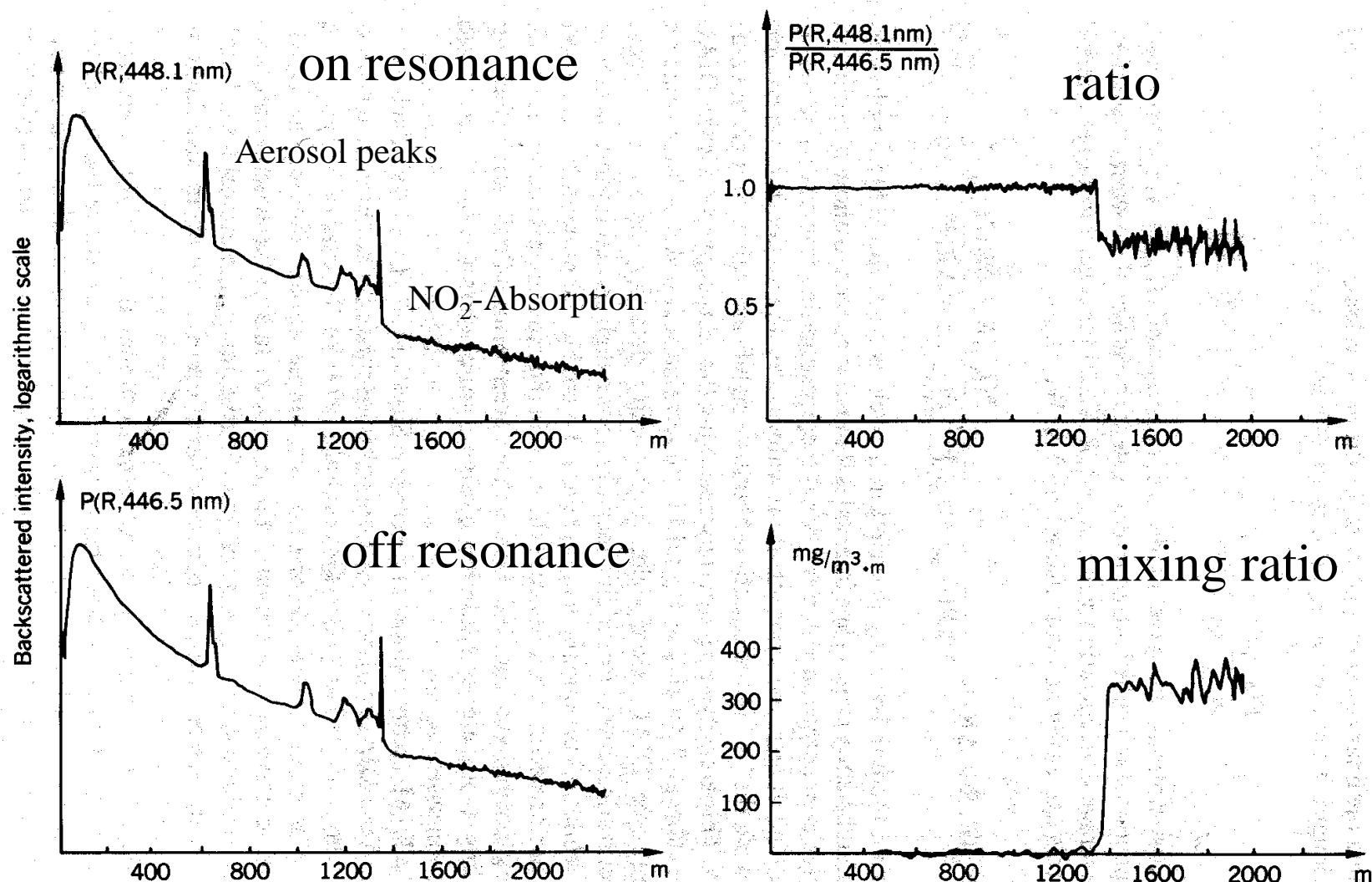
Ähnliche Streuquerschnitte (Mie, Rayleigh)  
aber unterschiedliche Absorption

Die DIAL – Gleichung erhält man durch Division zweier LIDAR – Gl.  
für  $\lambda_1$  bzw.  $\lambda_2$ :

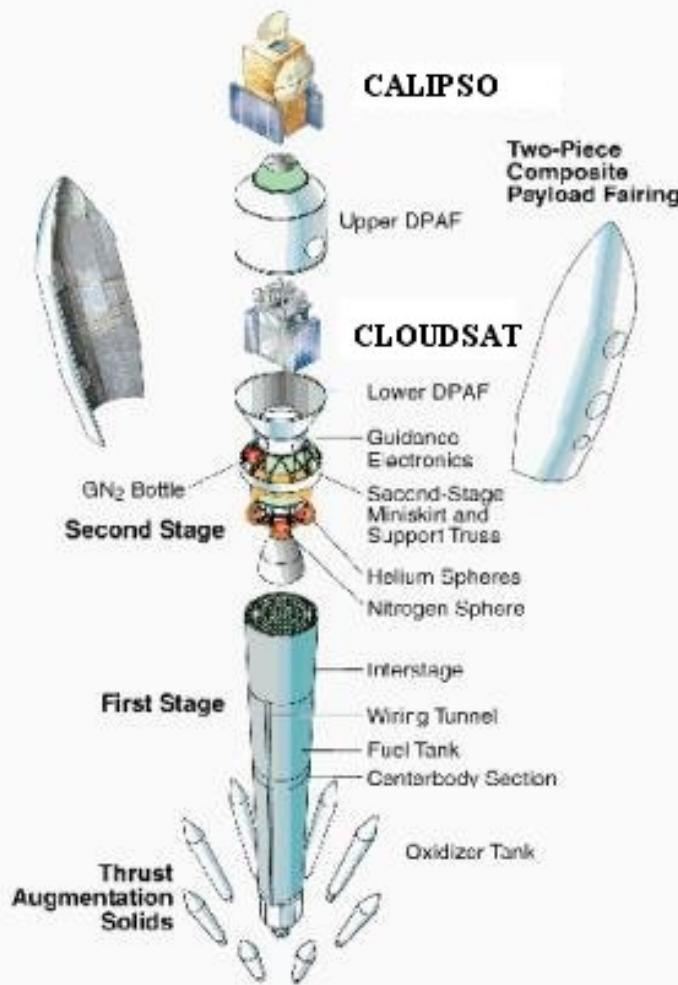
$$\frac{E(\lambda_2, R)}{E(\lambda_1, R)} = \exp\left(-2(\sigma_2 - \sigma_1) \cdot \int_0^R n_A(r) dr\right)$$

Annahme:  $\sigma_{SR}$  und  $\sigma_S$  für  
 $\lambda_1$  bzw.  $\lambda_2$  gleich sind.  
Gerechtfertigt solange  $\lambda = \lambda_2 - \lambda_1$   
hinreichend klein ist (wenige nm)

# DIAL $\text{NO}_2$ on-off resonance



**Figure 3.17.** Nitrogen dioxide DIAL measurement of a plume from a salt peter plant. On- and off-resonance lidar curves are shown together with the divided (DIAL) curve and the integrated  $\text{NO}_2$  contents as a function of range. From Fredriksson et al. (1981).



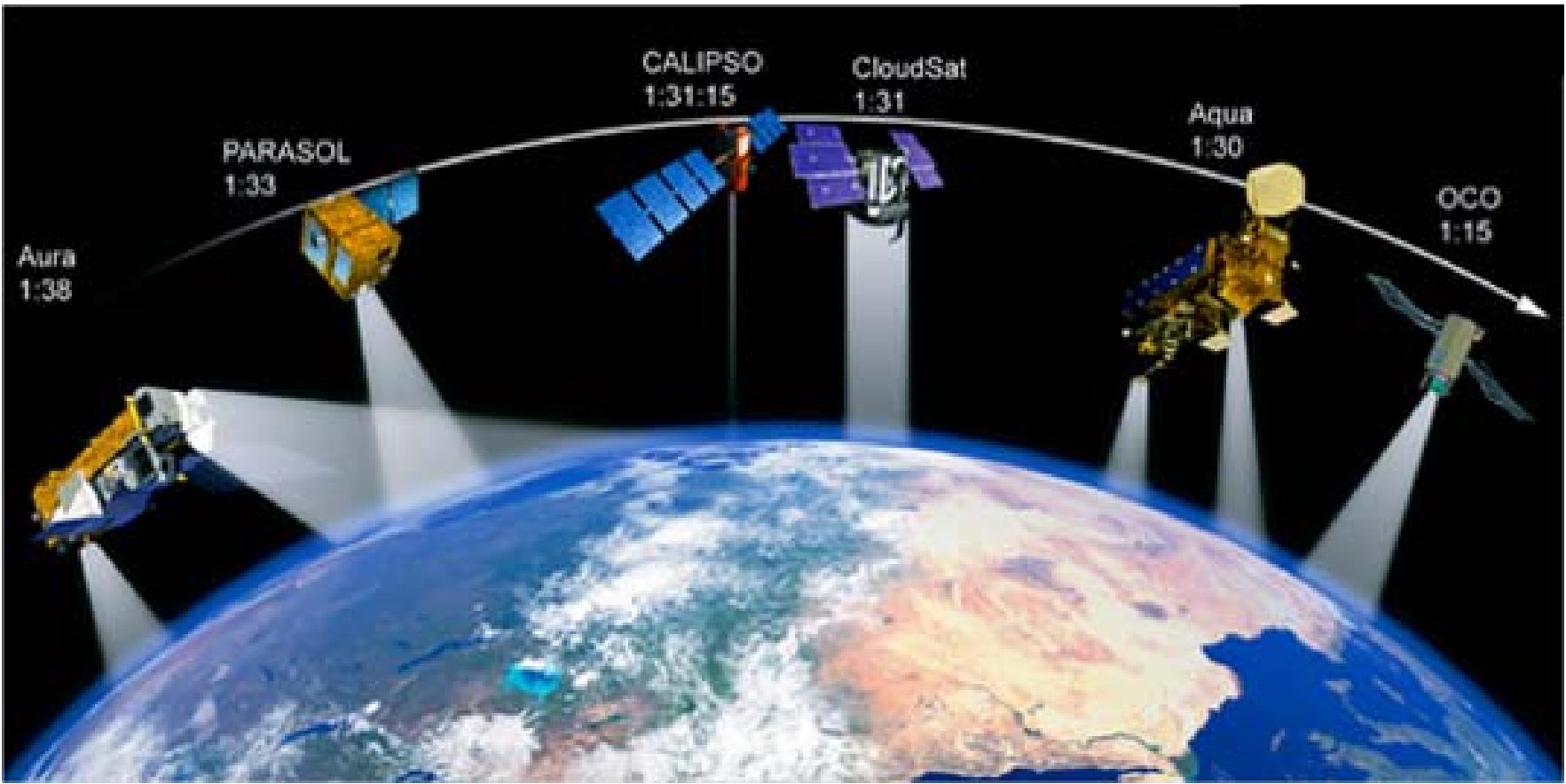
Launch: April 28, 2006

### CALIPSO: Cloud LIDAR

### CloudSat: Cloud Profiling Radar (CPR)

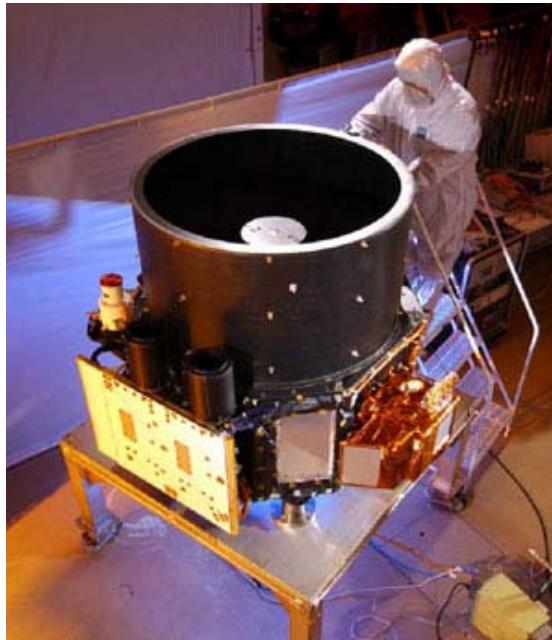
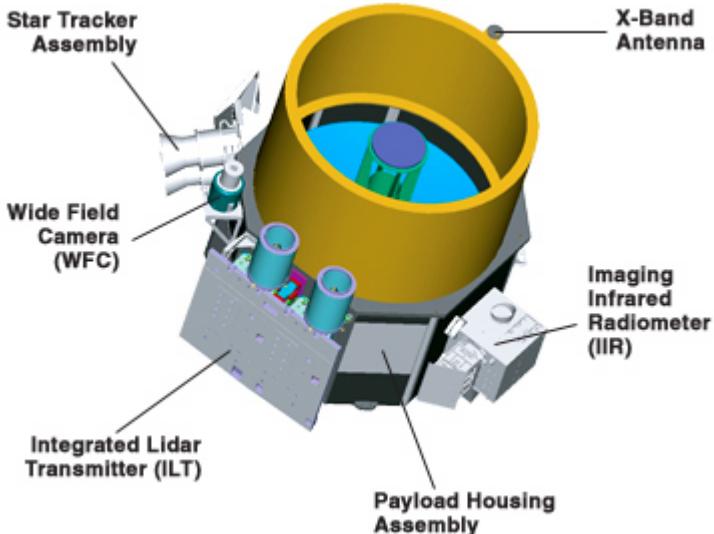
CALIPSO and CloudSat fly in formation with three other satellites in the ‘A-train constellation’

CloudSat and CALIPSO were launched together from Space Launch Complex 2W at Vandenberg Air Force Base, California, on a two-stage Delta 7420-10C launch vehicle



## A-TRAIN CONSTELLATION

The Afternoon or "A-Train" satellite constellation presently consists of three satellites flying in formation around the globe (NASA's Aqua and Aura satellites and CNES' PARASOL satellite). The CALIPSO and CloudSat satellite missions were inserted in orbit behind Aqua in April 2006. A sixth spacecraft, OCO, is planned for launch in 2008 and will be placed ahead of Aqua.



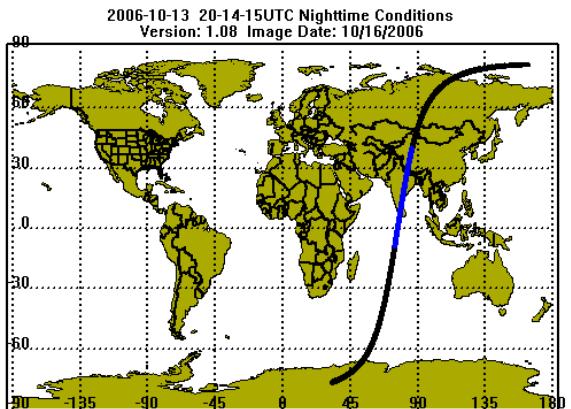
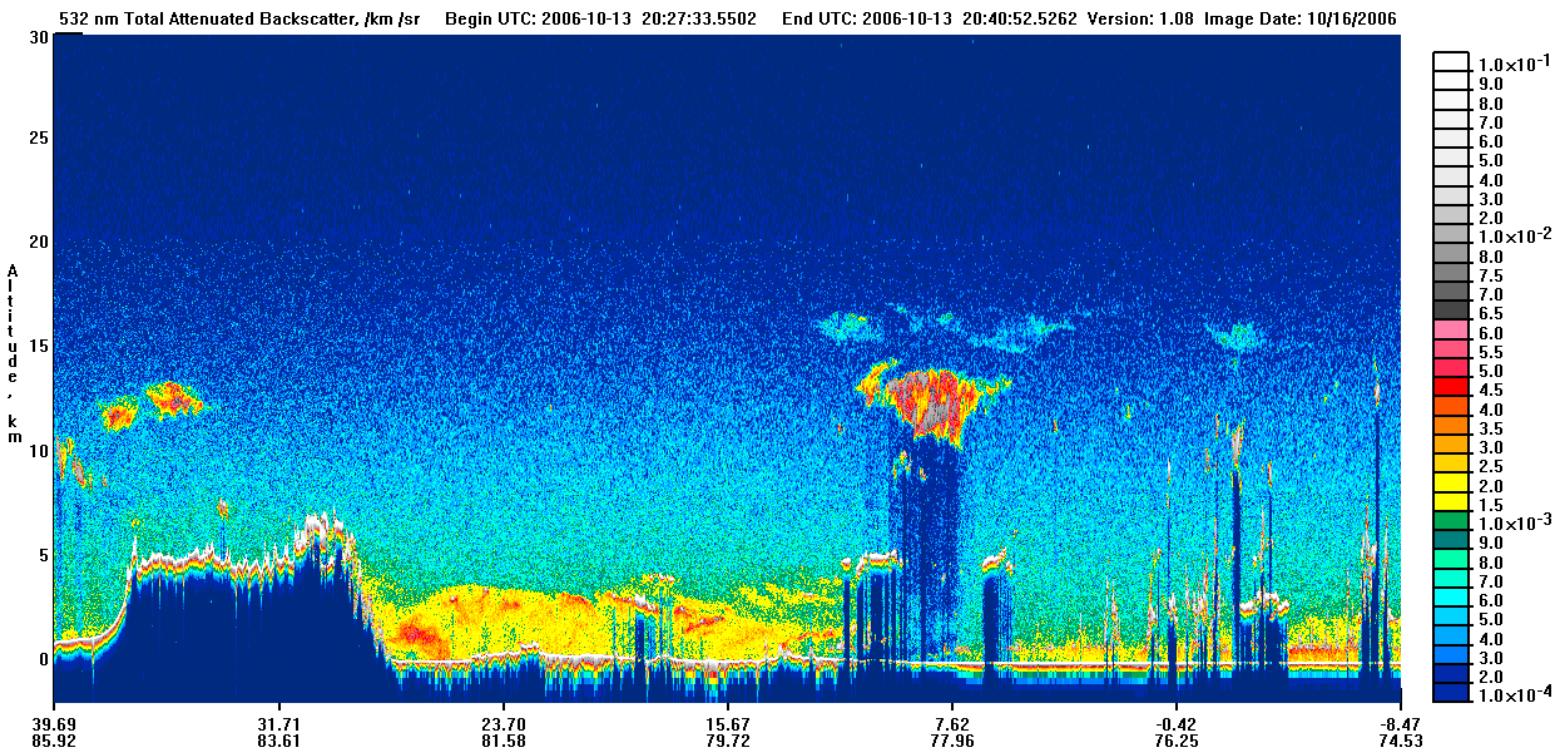
Characteristics CALIOP  
 laser: Nd: YAG, diode-pumped, Q-switched, frequency doubled  
 wavelengths: 532 nm, 1064 nm pulse energy: 110 mJoule/channel  
 repetition rate: 20.25 Hz  
 receiver telescope: 1.0 m diameter polarization: 532 nm footprint/FOV: 100 m/130  $\mu$ rad vertical resolution: 30-60 m horizontal resolution: 333 m linear dynamic range: 22 bits data rate: 316 kbps

## CALIPSO PAYLOAD

The CALIPSO payload consists of three co-aligned nadir-viewing instruments:

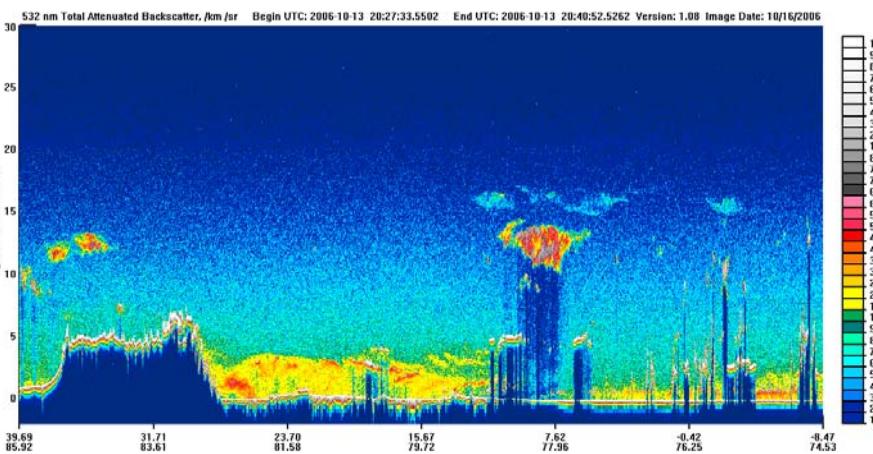
- the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP)
- the Imaging Infrared Radiometer (IIR)
- the Wide Field Camera (WFC)

# Attenuated backscatter 532nm

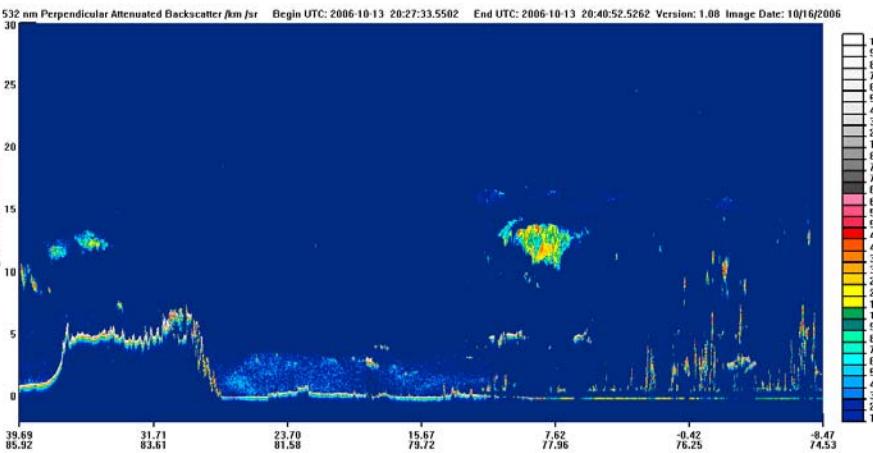


<http://www-calipso.larc.nasa.gov/products/lidar/>

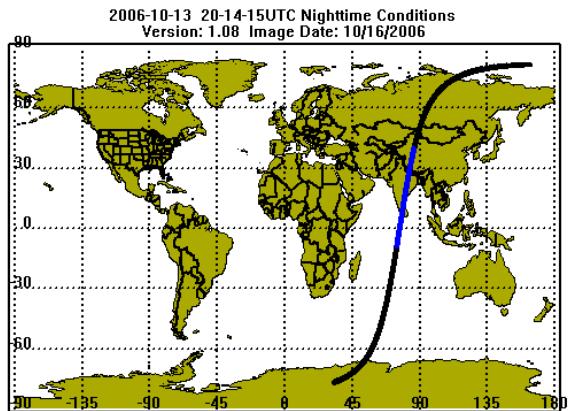
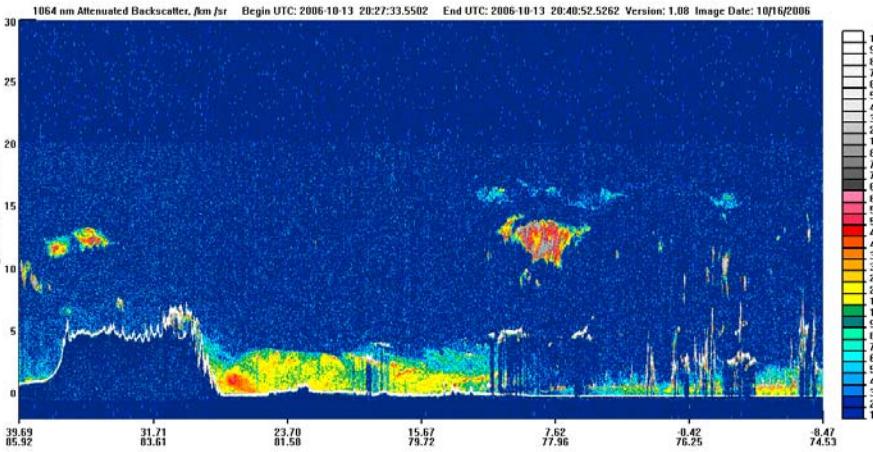
# Attenuated backscatter 532nm



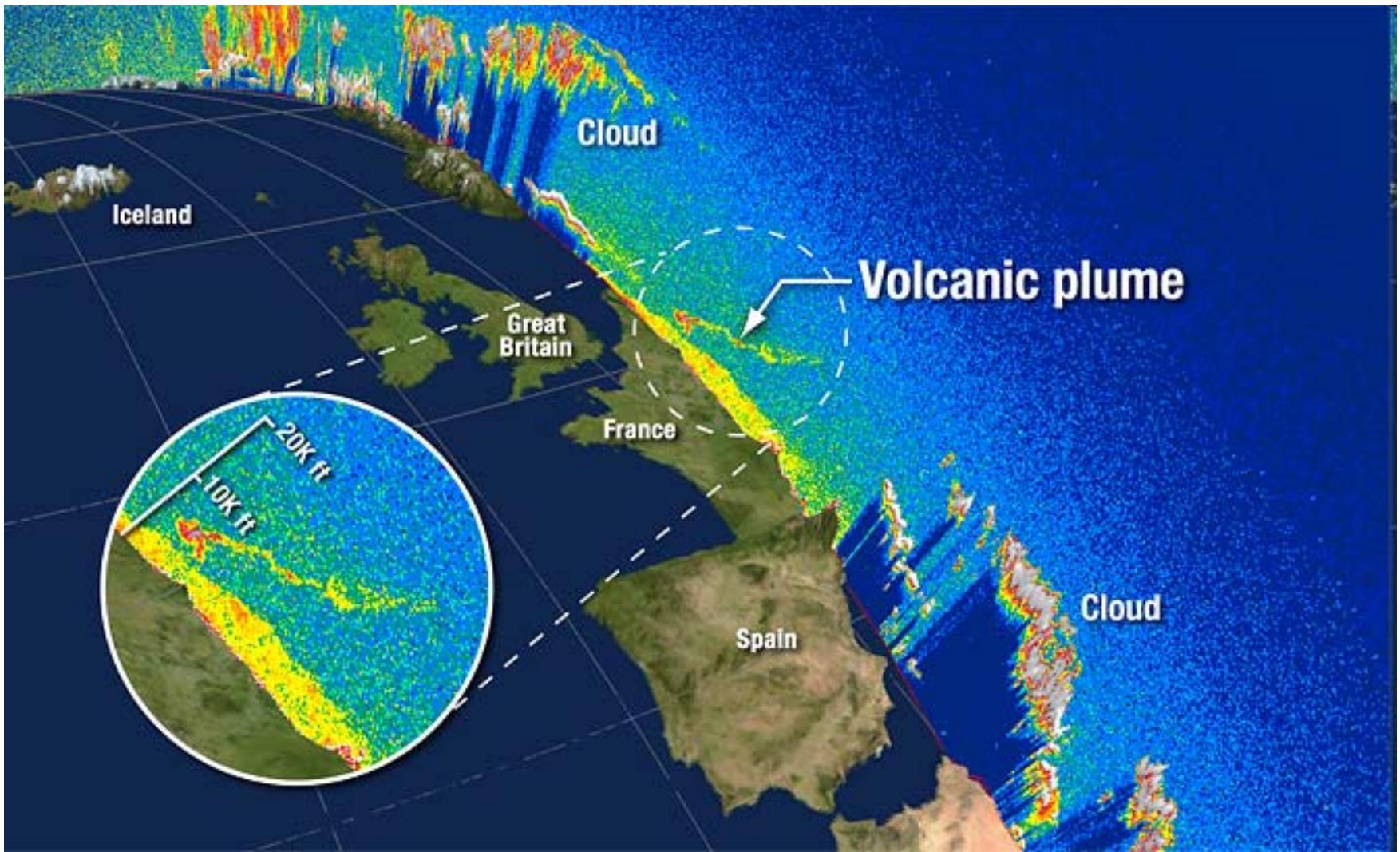
# Perpendicular attenuated backscatter 532nm



# Attenuated backscatter 1064nm



<http://www-calipso.larc.nasa.gov/products/lidar/>



CALIPSO, 20.04.2010

<http://www.nasa.gov/topics/earth/features/iceland-volcano-plume-archive1.html>

## **Active methods with focus on time information**

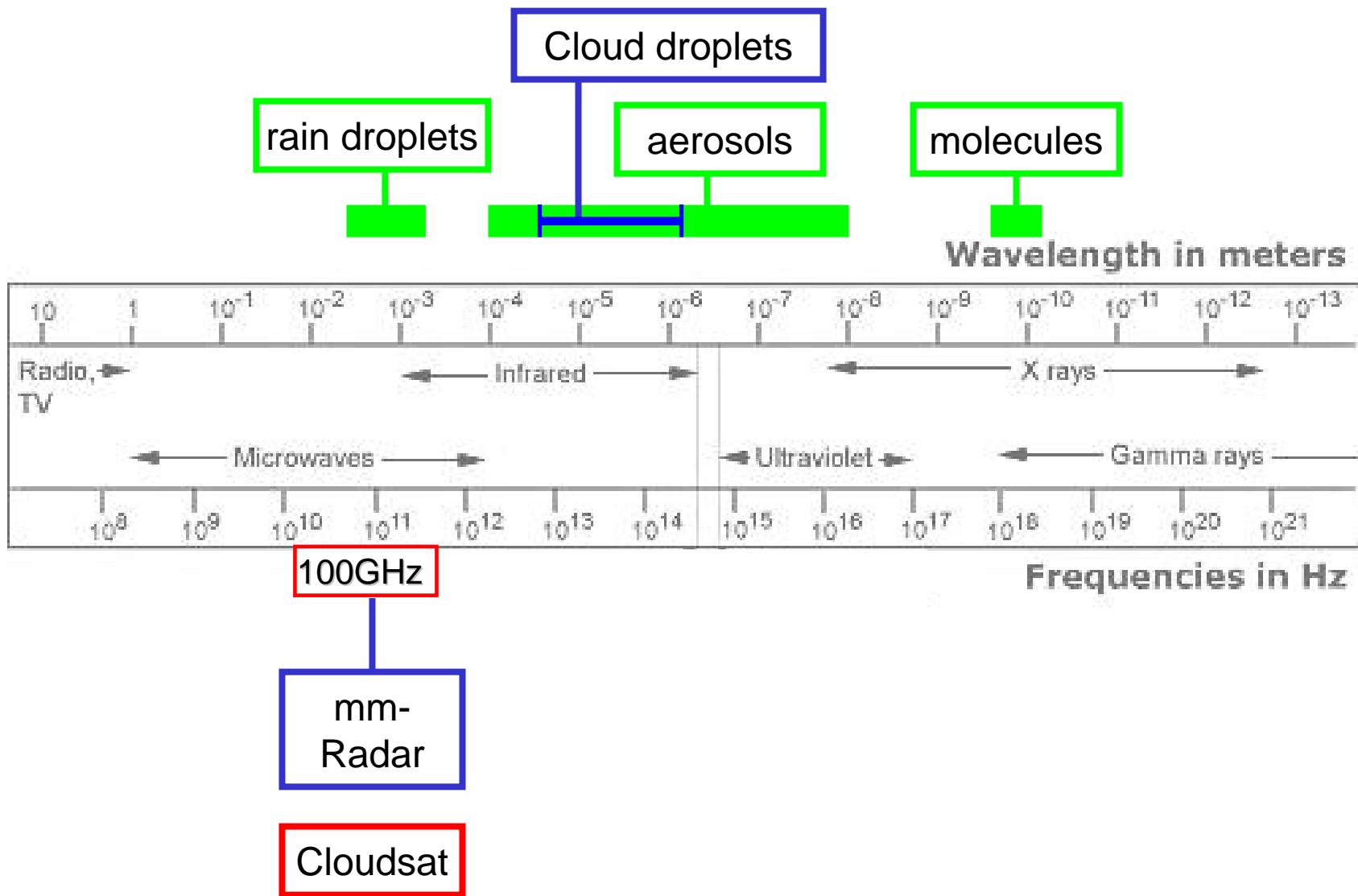
- LIDAR      Light detection and ranging
- RADAR**      **Radio detection and ranging**
- SODAR      Sound detection and ranging

# RADAR

Scattering of electromagnetic radiation is caused by different 'objects':

- aerosols
- cloud drops
- raindrops
- snow flakes, hail
  
- insects, birds, airplanes...
  
- turbulence elements

# Remote sensing in different parts of the EM spectrum



# RADAR

Scattering of electromagnetic radiation is caused by different 'objects':

- aerosols
- cloud drops
- raindrops
- snow flakes, hail

**~100 GHz (~2mm)**

- turbulence elements

irregularities in the radio refractive index of the atmosphere; most sensitive to scattering by turbulent eddies whose spatial scale is  $\frac{1}{2}$  the wavelength of the radar Bragg scattering

**~1 GHz (~20cm)  
to  
50 MHz (~5m)**

- insects, birds, airplanes...

# 95 GHz Doppler Polarimetric Cloud Radar



<http://radar.kharkov.com/radar36.html>

# VHF-Radar: Emitter und Empfänger (Kühlungsborn)

Technische Parameter

Frequenz 53,5 MHz

Spitzenleistung 90 kW

Mittlere Leistung 4,5 kW (bei 5%

Duty Cycle)

3dB-Öffnungswinkel 6°

Impulslänge 1 ... 32 µs

Pulswiederholfrequenz < 50 kHz

Höhenbereiche (0,4) 1 ... 18 km

(65...95 km)

Höhenauflösung 150 m, 300 m,  
600 m, 1000 m

Zeitauflösung ~ 1 min

Sendesignal Einzelimpuls,  
Komplementärkodes

Impulsformen Rechteck,  
modifizierter Gauß (für max.  
Leistung)



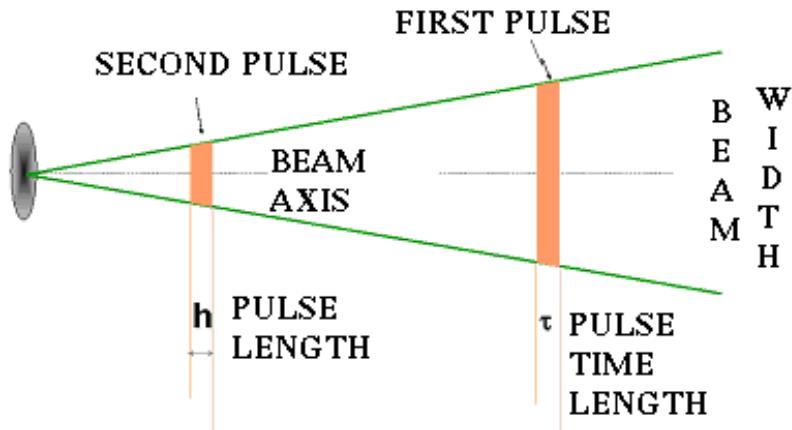
# RADAR

Basic RADAR equation (for single scattering points)

$$P_r = \left[ P_t \frac{G^2 \lambda^2 \sigma^0}{(4\pi)^3 R^4} \right] \propto \frac{\sigma^0}{R^4}$$

$P_r$  is received power,  $P_t$  is transmitted power,  
 $G_t$  is the gain of the transmitting antenna,  $\lambda$  is radar wavelength,  
 $\sigma$  is the radar cross section of the target  
 $R$  is the distance from transmitter to target.

Modified RADAR equation (for volume scatterers)



$$P_r \propto \frac{\eta}{R^2}$$

Beam path and scanned volume

# 0.5 bis 16 km Troposphärenwindprofiler



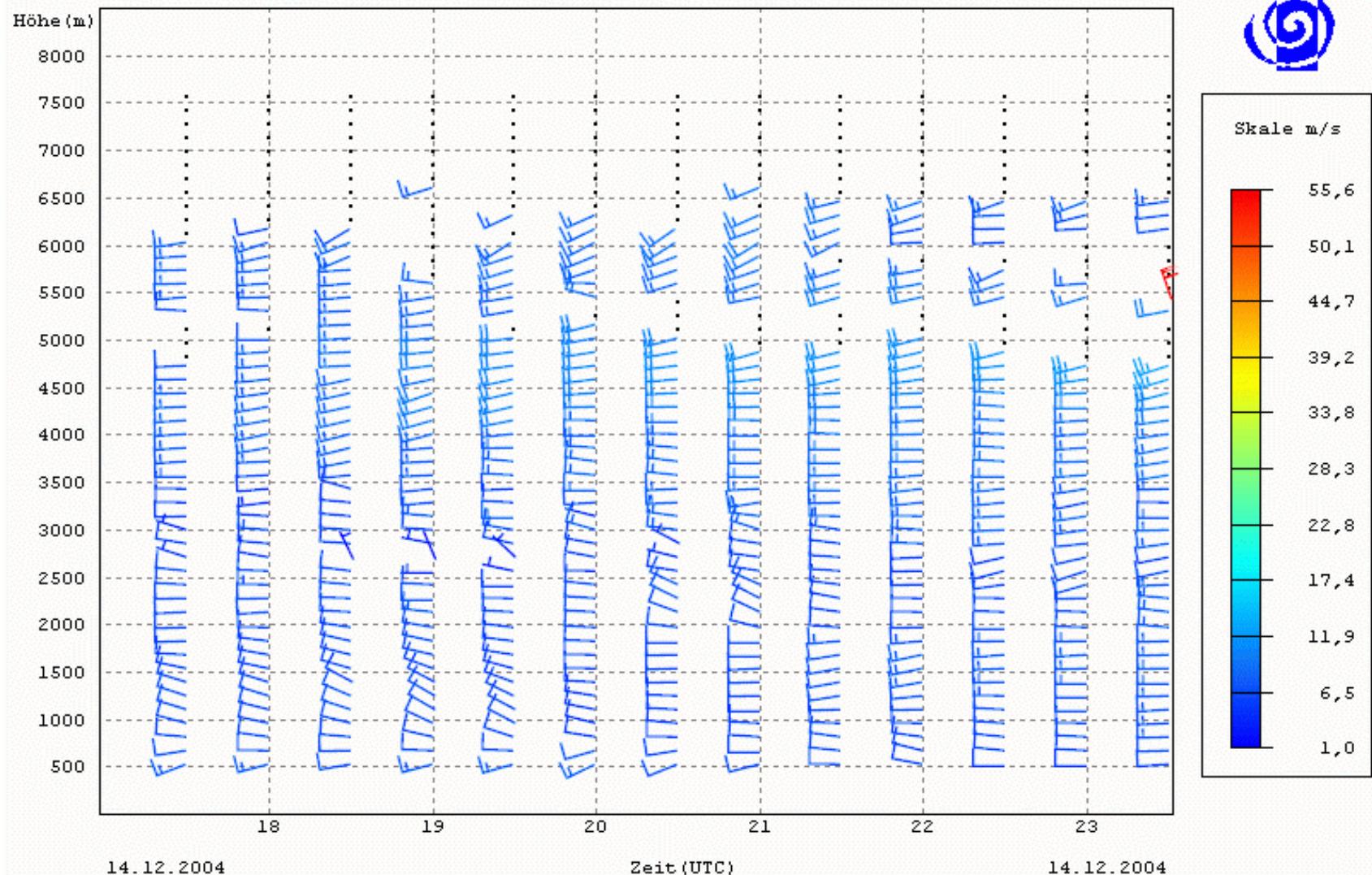
## 0.2 bis 3 km Grenzschichtwindprofiler



# Meteorologisches Observatorium Lindenberg

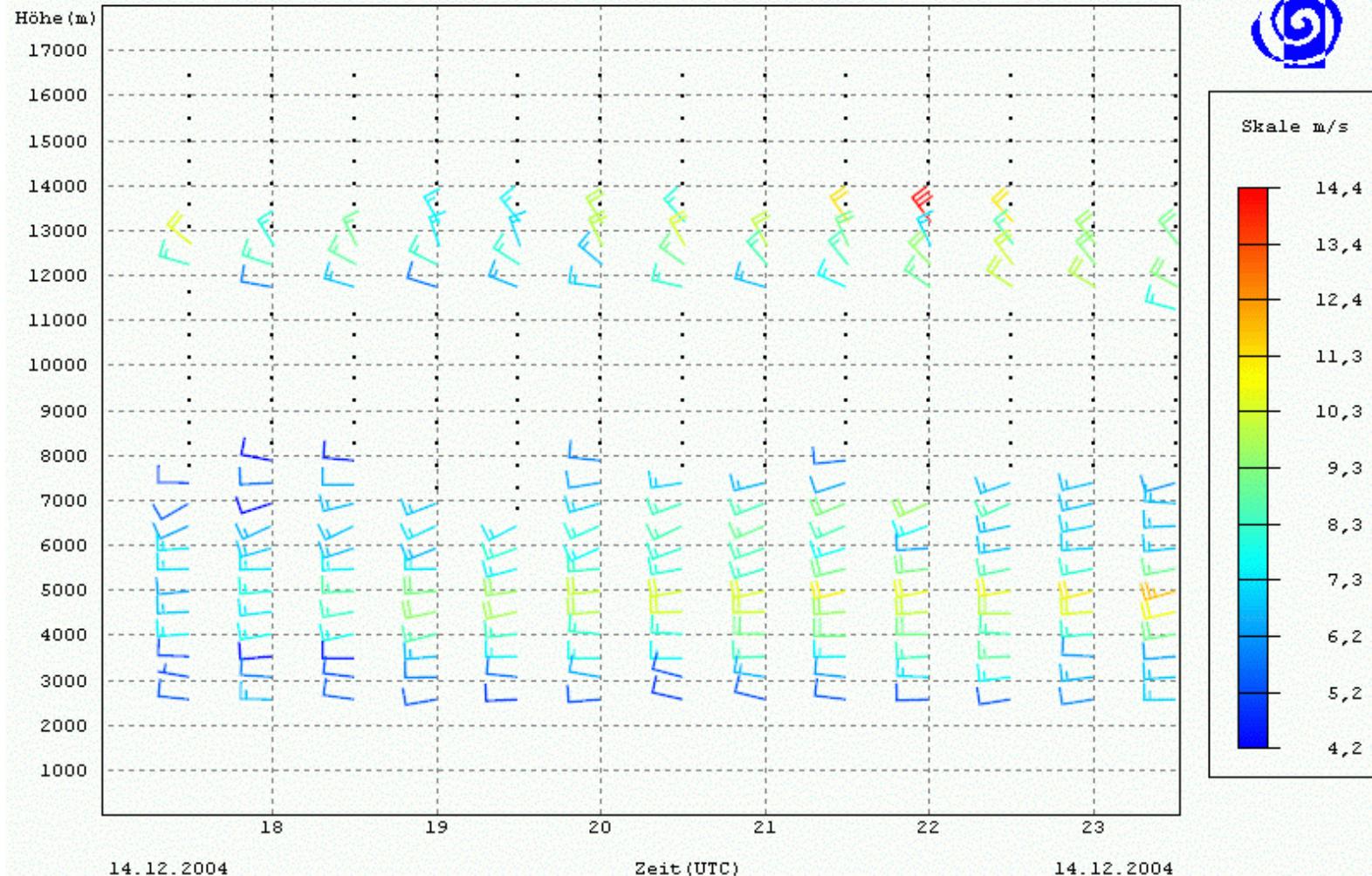


## TROPOSPHÄRENWINDPROFILER WIND (LOW)



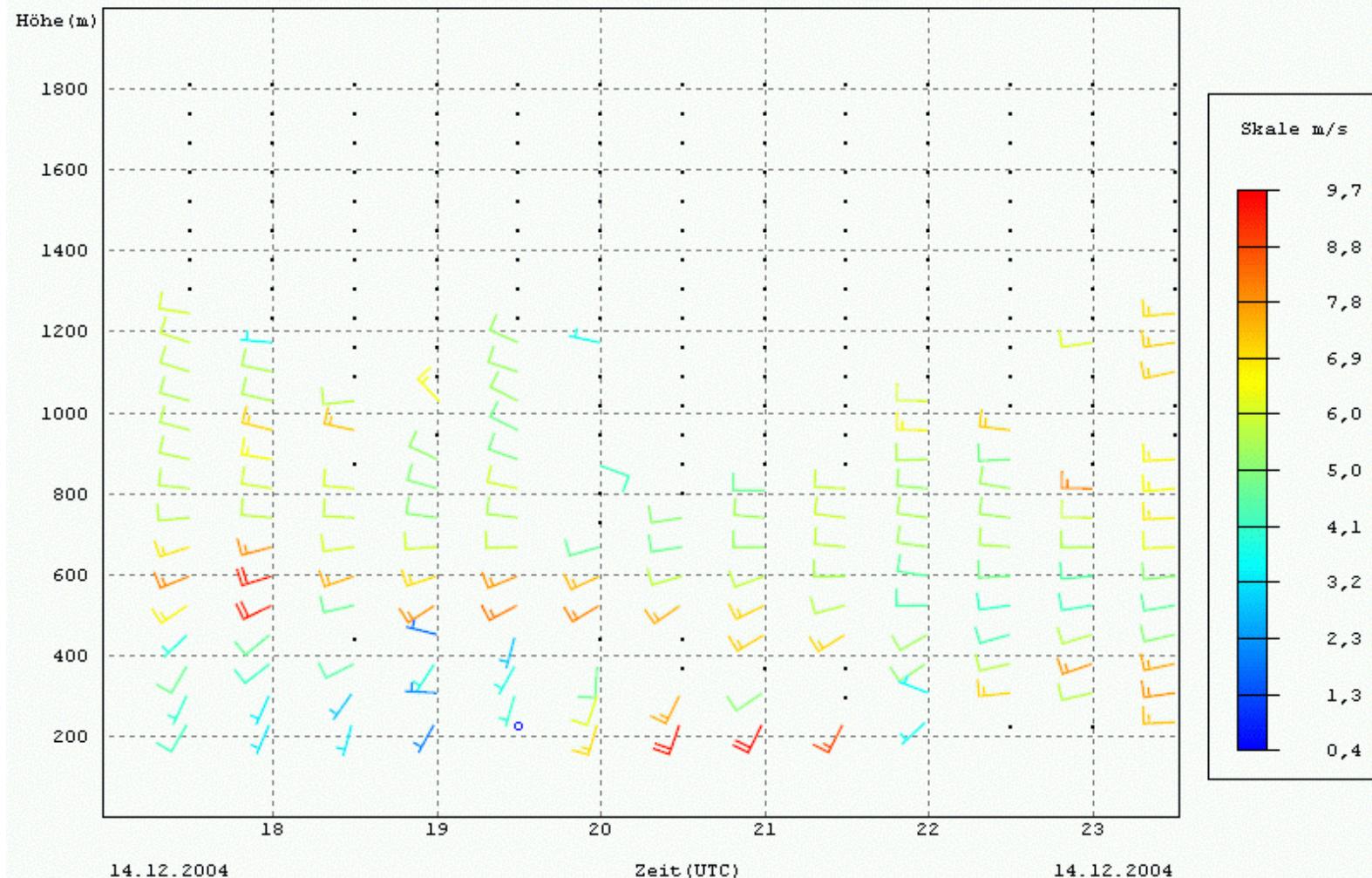
# Meteorologisches Observatorium Lindenberg

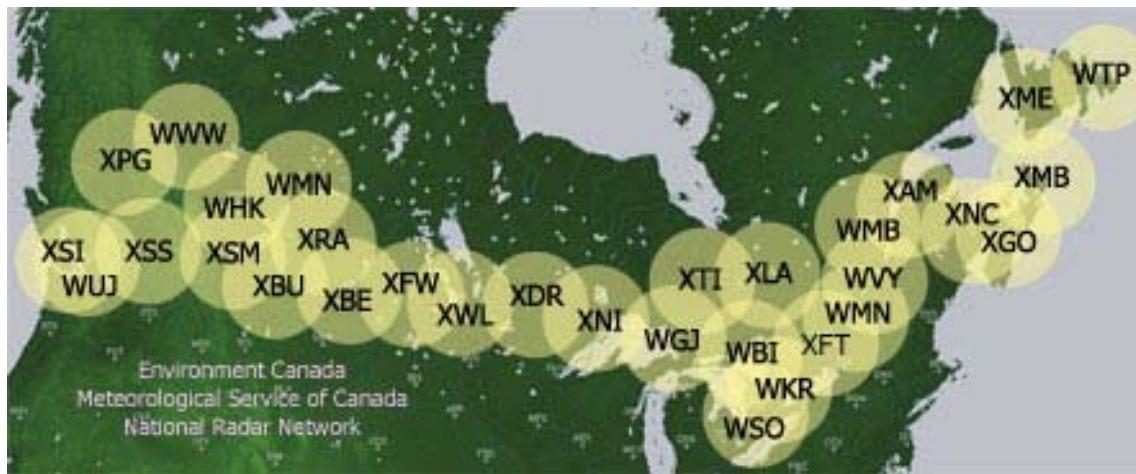
## TROPOSPHÄRENWINDPROFILER WIND (HIGH)



# Meteorologisches Observatorium Lindenberg

## GRENZSCHICHTWINDPROFILER WIND (LOW)





The [CWKR](#) Environment Canada Weather Radar Station located in King City, Ontario.

Elevation: 341 meters ASL.

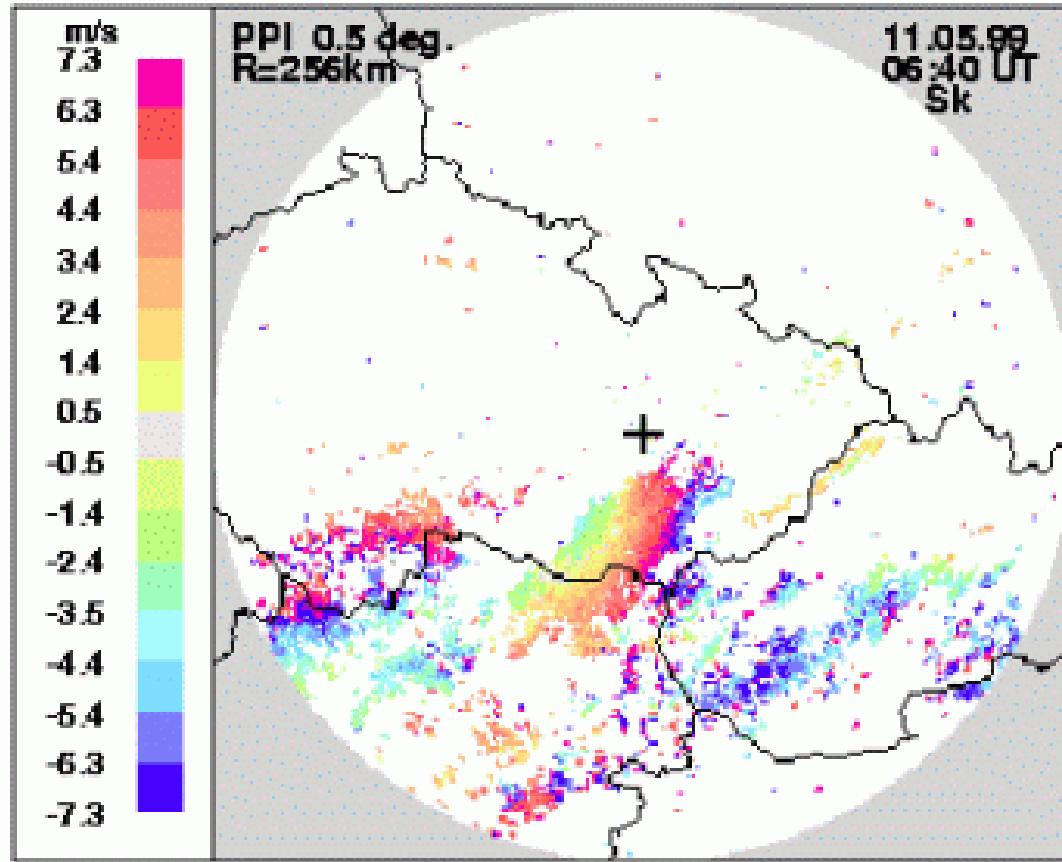
Latitude:  $43^{\circ} 58' 0''$  N (deg min sec),  $43.9667^{\circ}$  (decimal), 4358.00N (LORAN)

Longitude:  $79^{\circ} 34' 0''$  W (deg min sec),  $-79.5667^{\circ}$  (decimal), 07934.00W (LORAN)

## Reflectivity

Return echoes from targets are analyzed for their intensities in order to establish the precipitations rate in the scanned volume. The wavelength used (1 to 10 cm) ensure that this **return is proportional to the precipitations rate** because they are within the validity of Rayleigh scattering which states that the targets must be much smaller than the wavelength of the scanning wave (by a factor of 10).

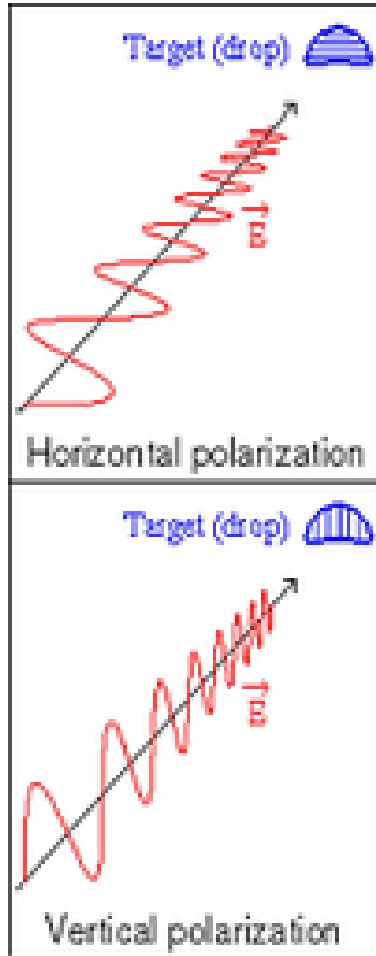
# Velocity



Petr Novák  
(petr\_novak@chmi.cz)

Idialized example of Doppler output. Approaching velocities are in blue and receding one in red in the usual convention. Notice the sinuosidal variation of speed when going around the display along a particular ring. (Source: Environment Canada).

# Polarization

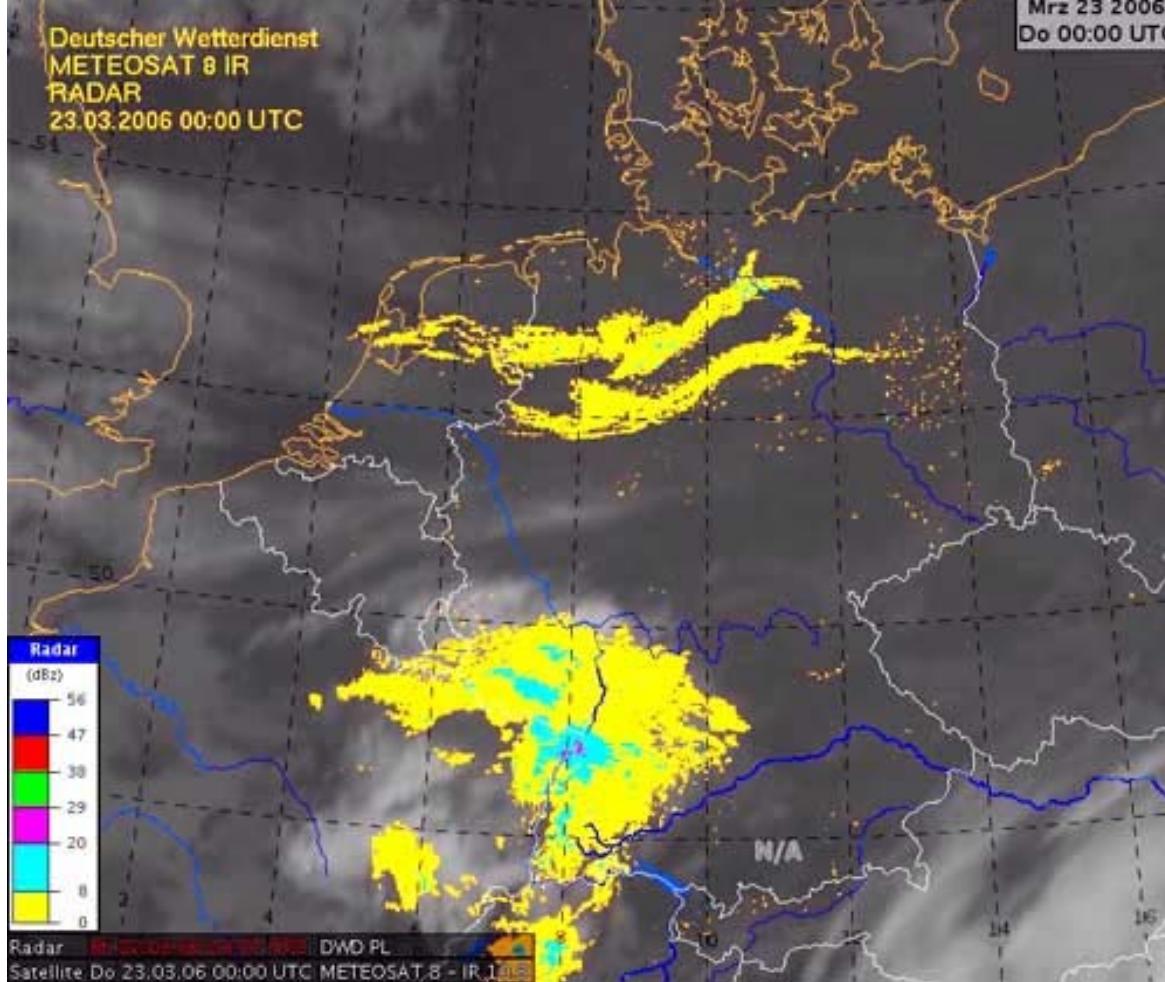


Most liquid hydrometeors have a larger horizontal axis due to the drag coefficient of air while falling (water droplets). This causes the water molecule dipole to be oriented in that direction so radar beams are generally polarized horizontally to receive the maximal return.

If we decide to send simultaneously two pulses with orthogonal polarization: vertical and horizontal, we receive two sets of data proportional to the two axis of the droplets that are independent

**Targeting with dual-polarization  
will reveal the form of the droplet**

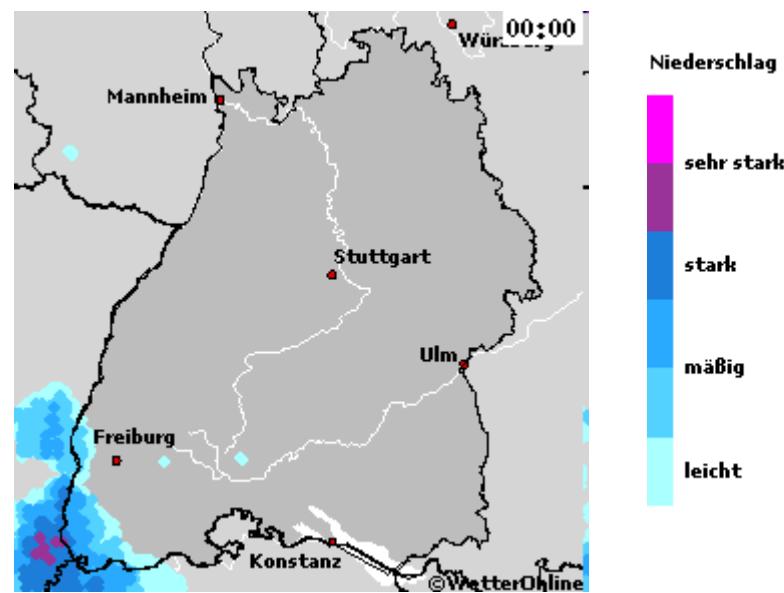
Niederschlagsradar  
(gelb/blau), projiziert auf  
das Satellitenbild der  
Wolkenbedeckung. Das  
Regengebiet am Rhein  
entsprach der Realität, das  
Radarecho im Norden  
beruht auf einer  
Täuschung.

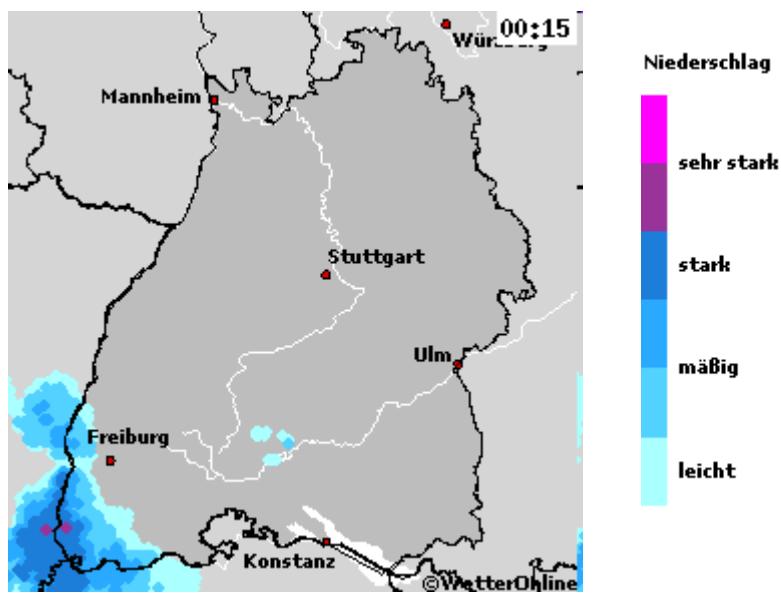


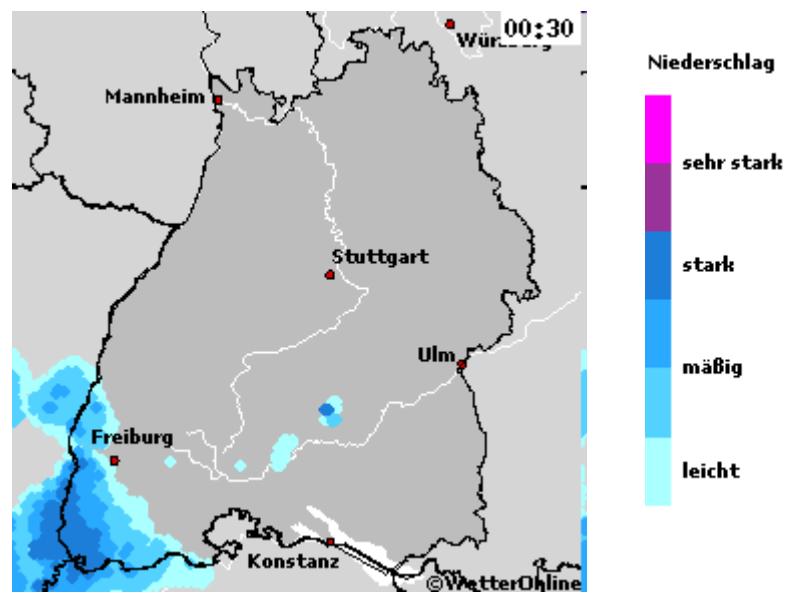
...es ist bekannt, dass die Briten und Deutschen im Zweiten Weltkrieg Stannioffäden vom Himmel fallen ließen, um das gegnerische Radar zu stören. Heute werden dafür hauchdünne metallüberzogene Kunststofffäden genutzt, die Düppel. Sie sind wenige Zentimeter lang und werden in der Atmosphäre ausgestreut. So bildet sich eine Art unsichtbare Mauer, die Radarstrahlen reflektiert.  
(<http://service.spiegel.de/digas/find?DID=46421554> )

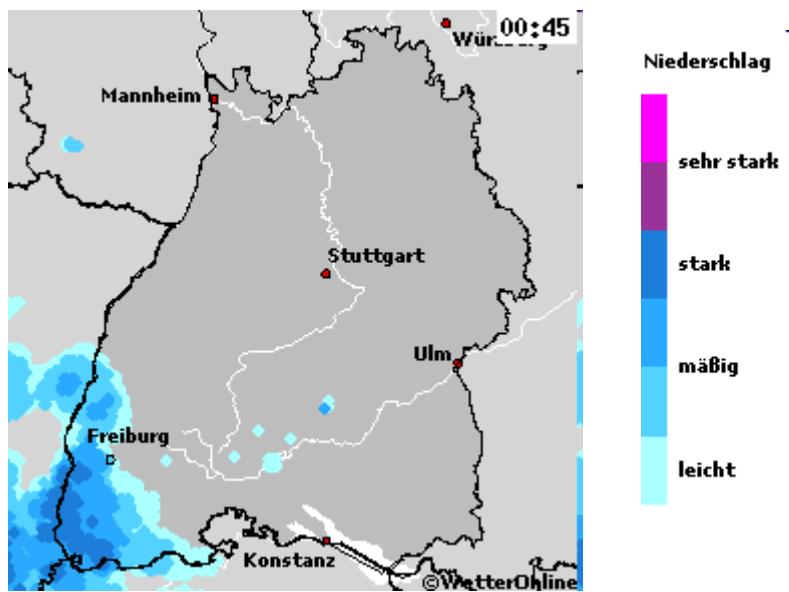
# Niederschlagsbild: Baden-Württemberg So, 09.05. 00:00 - 09:00

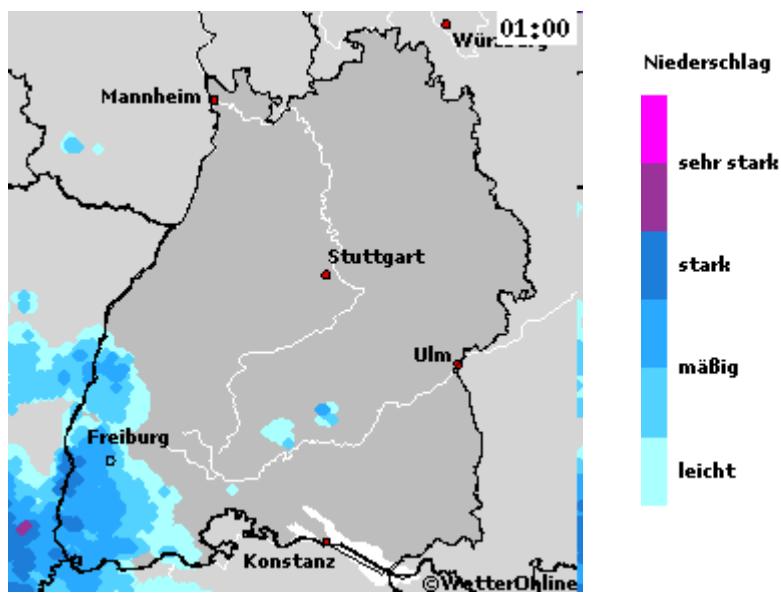
<http://www.wetteronline.de>

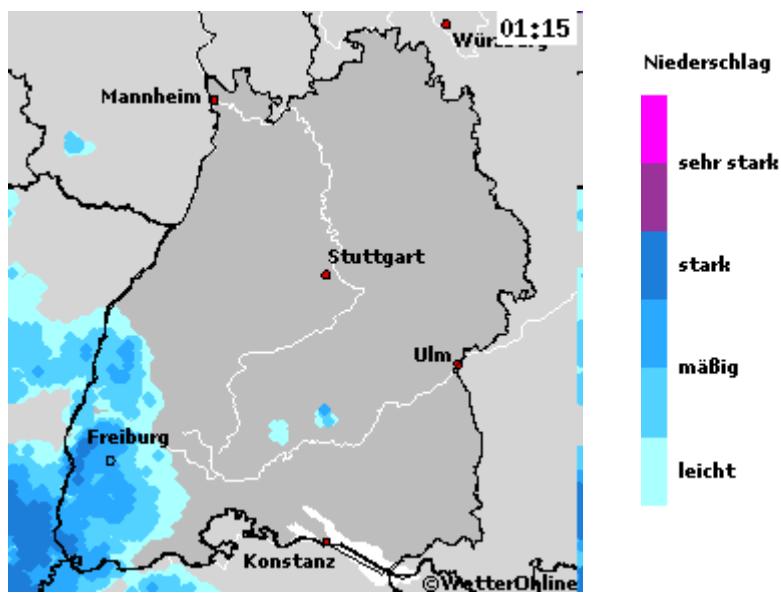


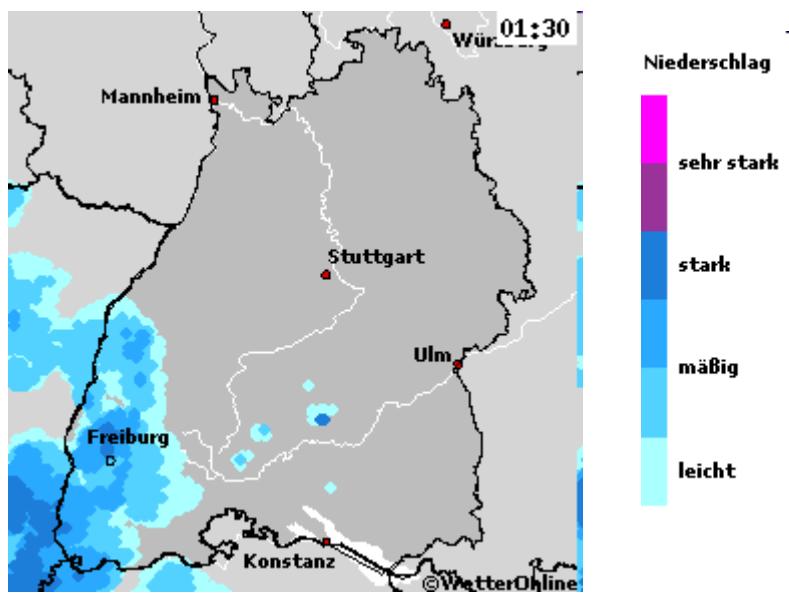


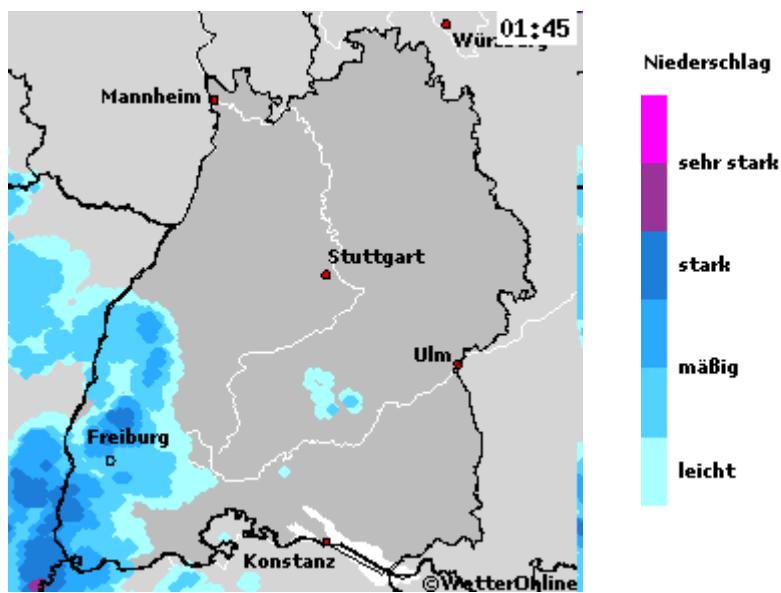


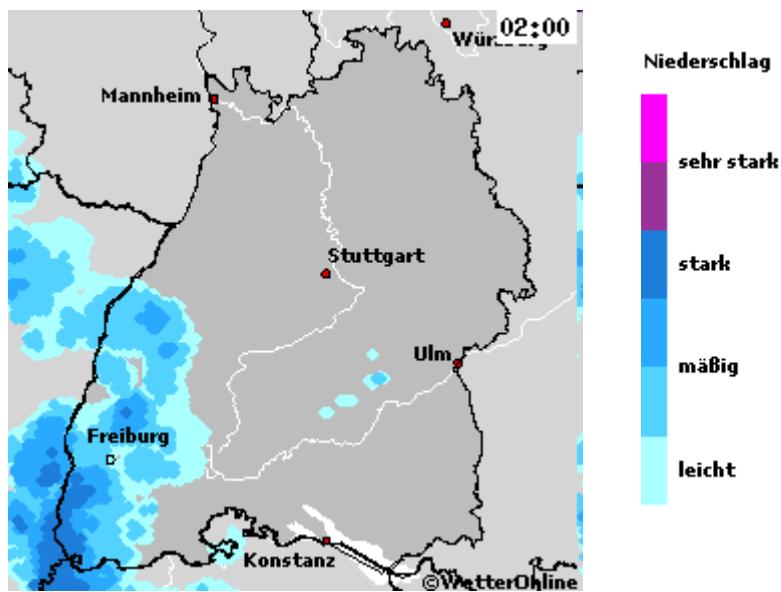


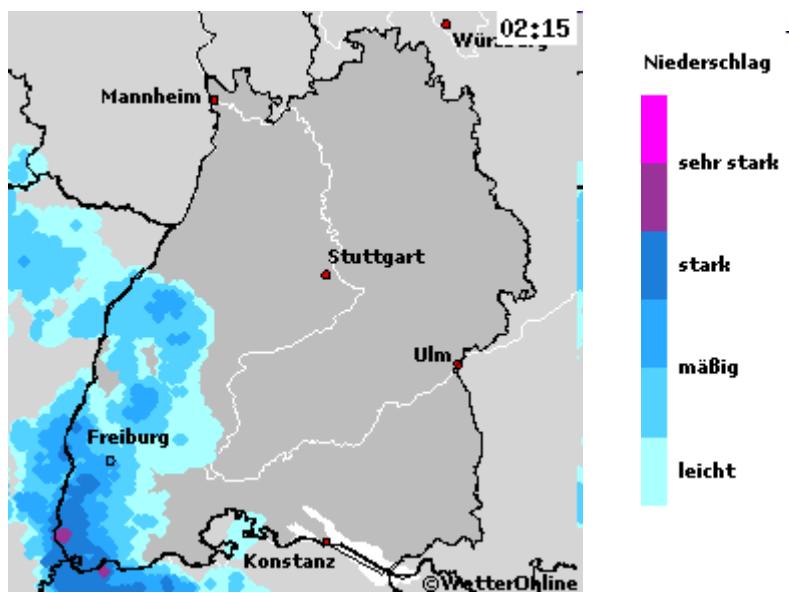


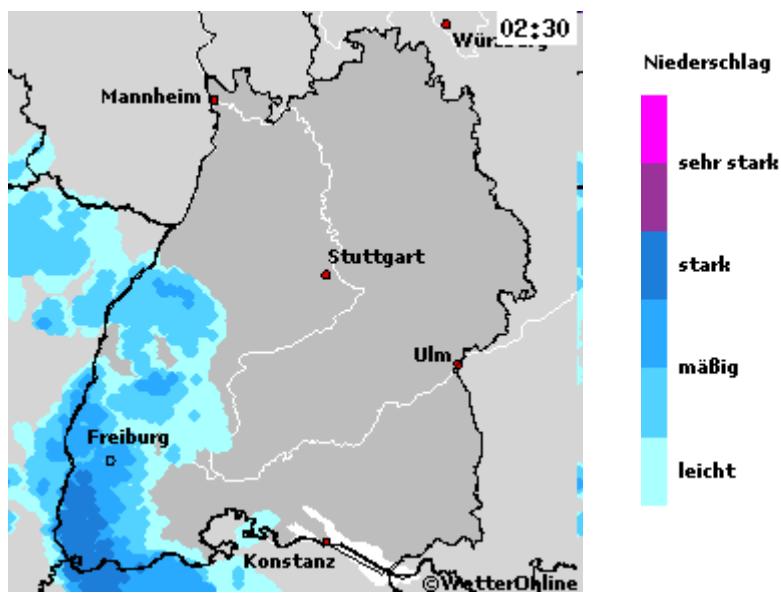


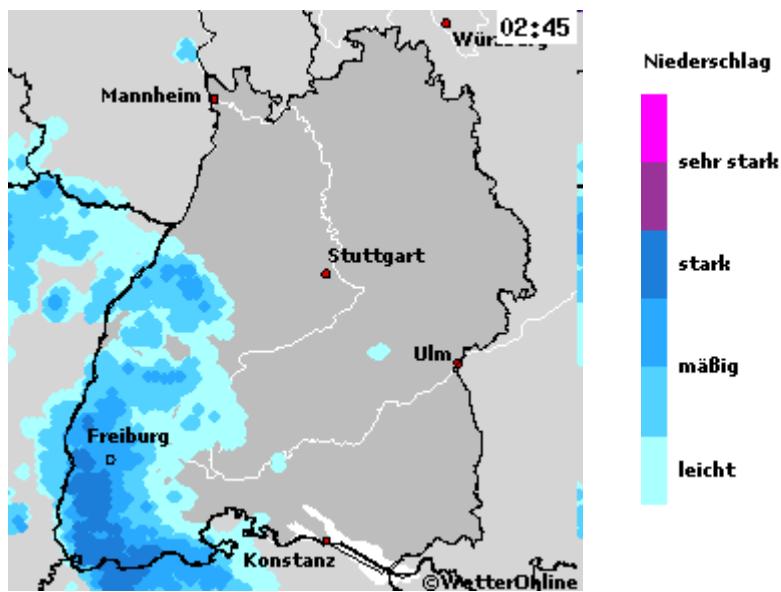


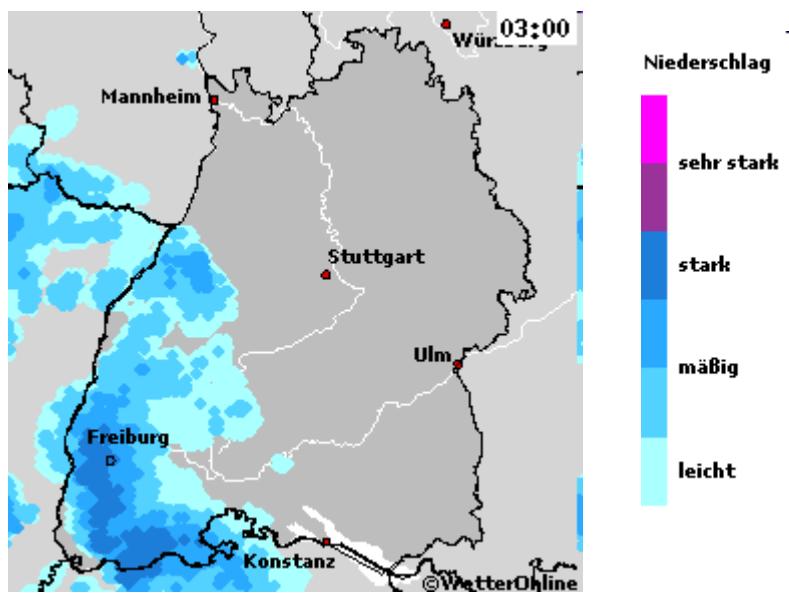


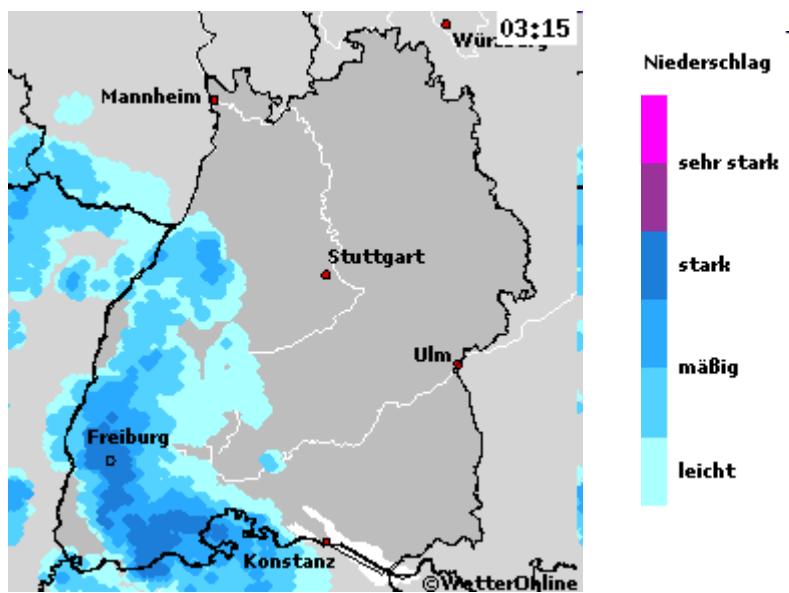


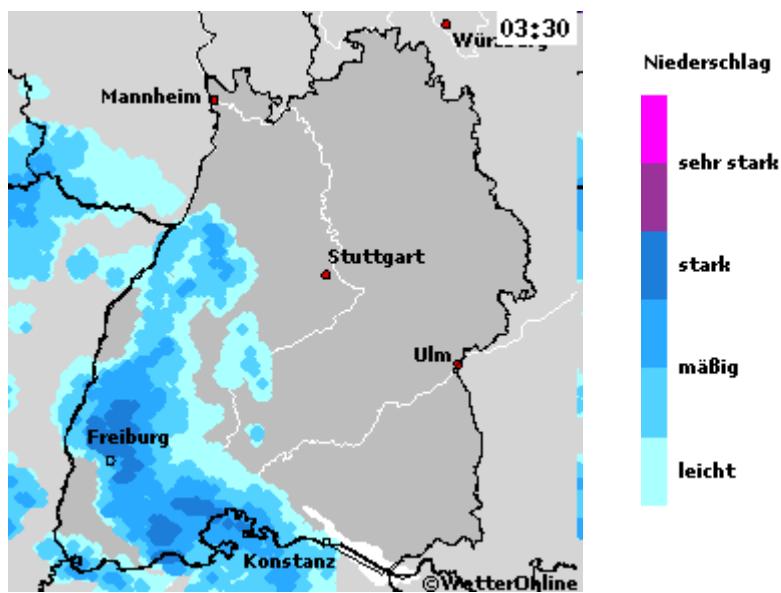


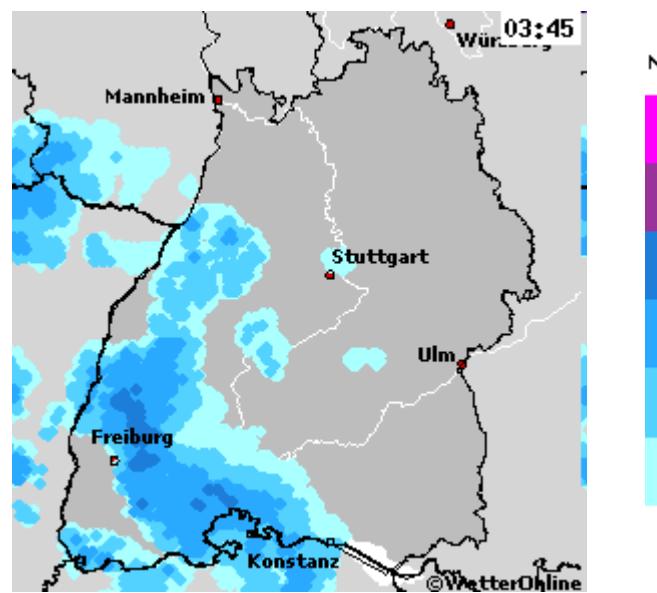








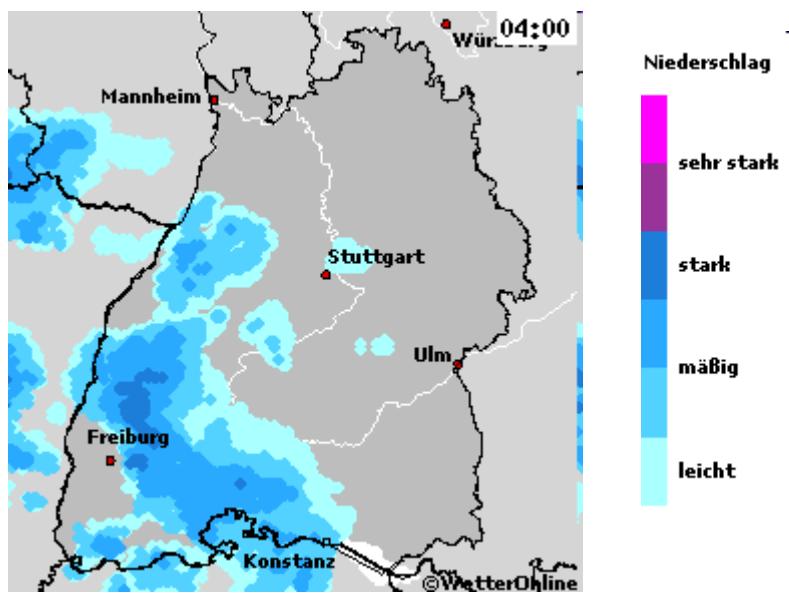


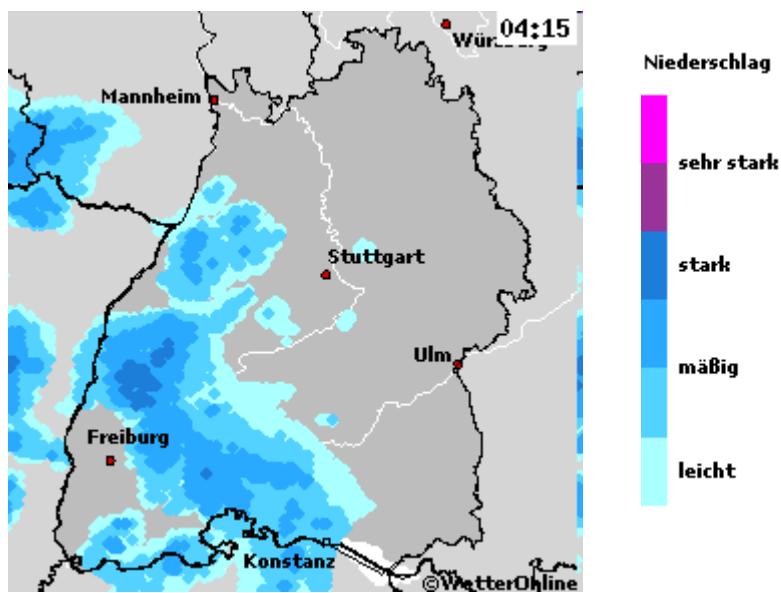


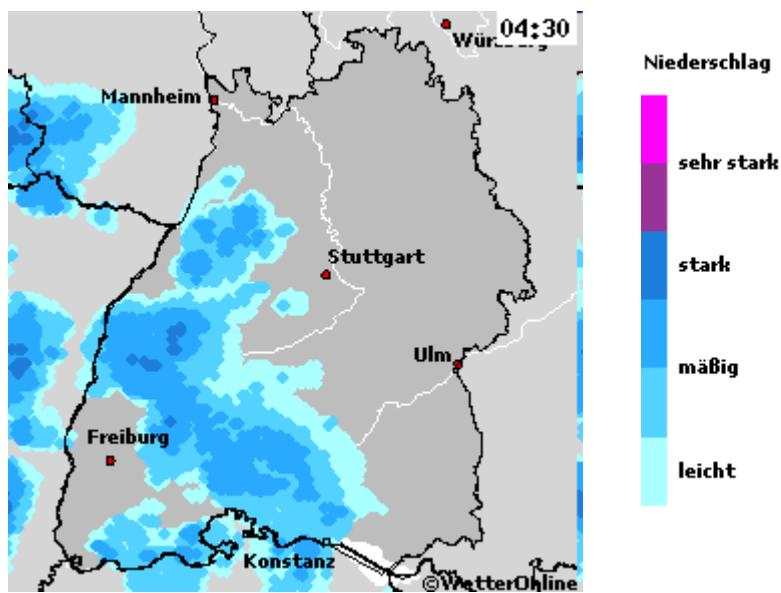
Niederschlag

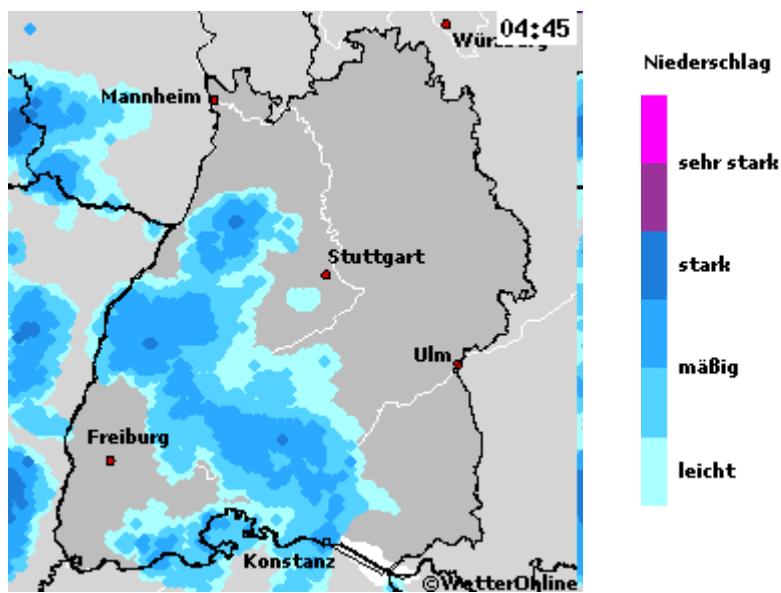
- sehr stark
- stark
- mäßig
- leicht

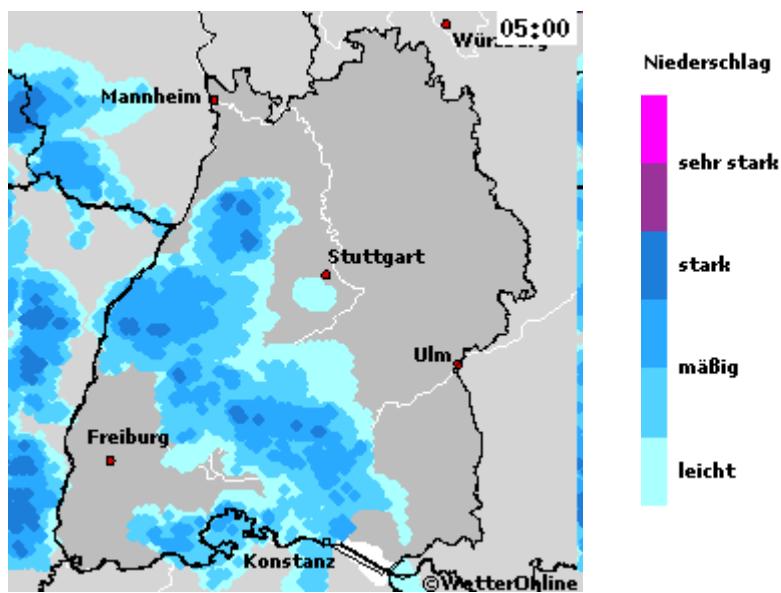
©WetterOnline

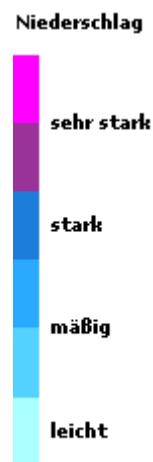
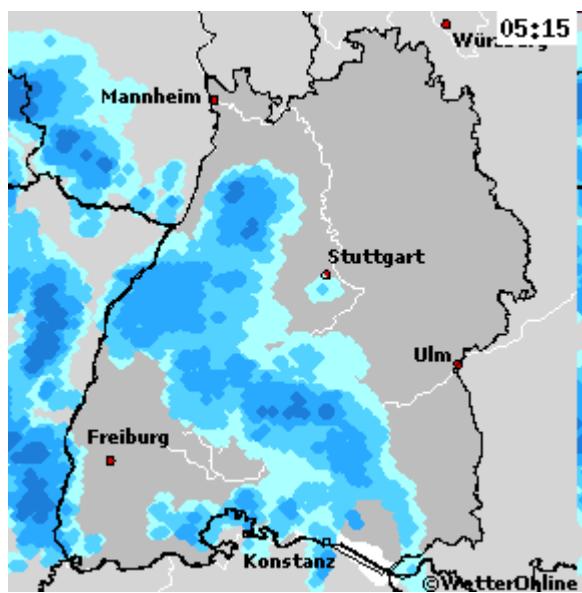




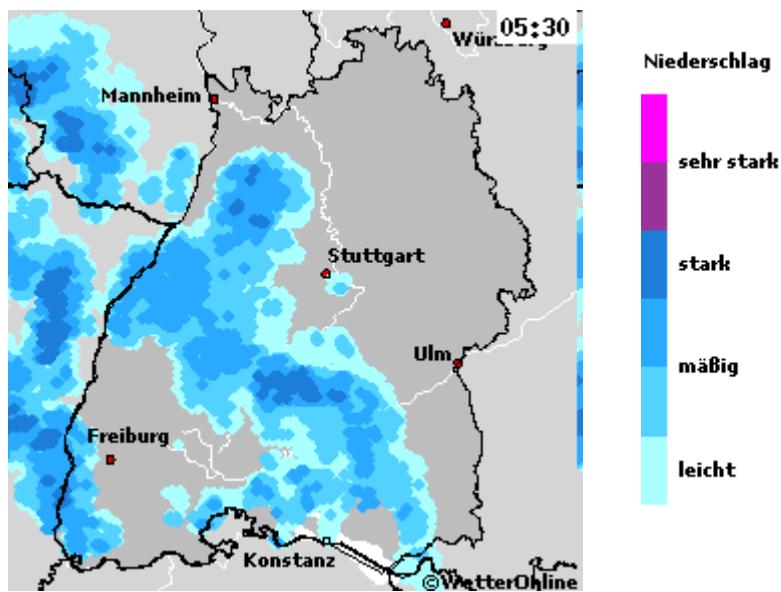


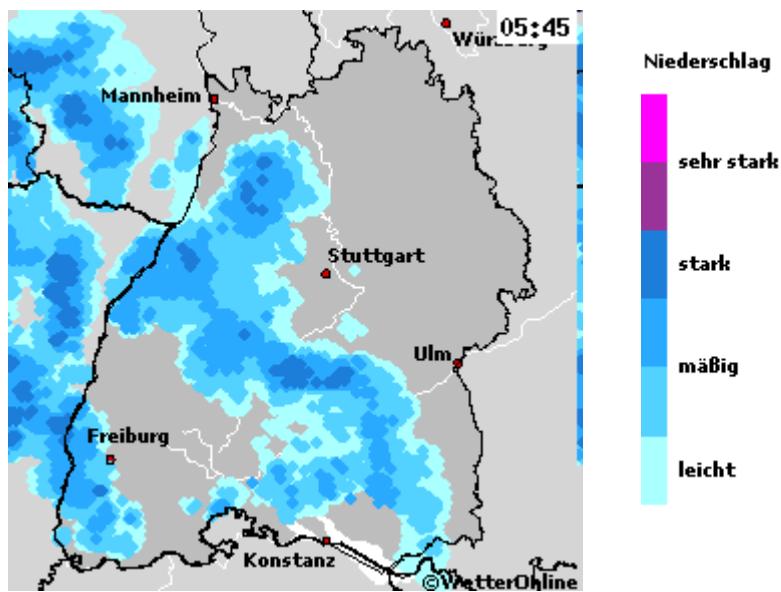


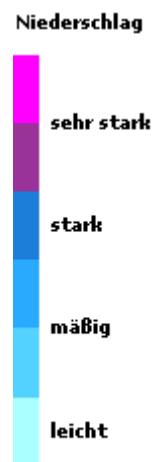
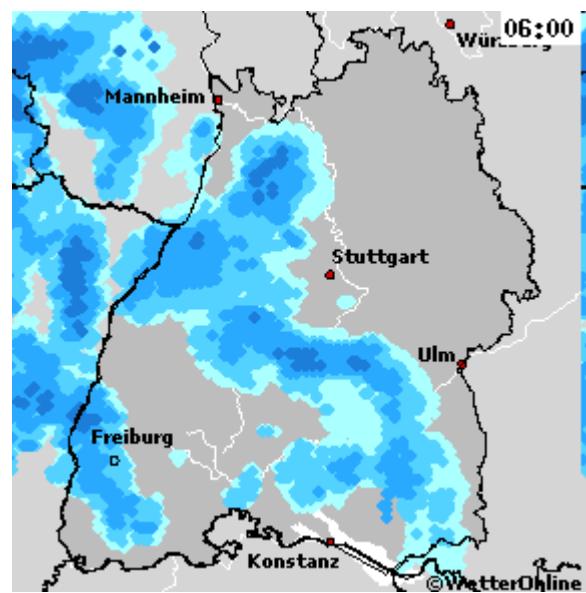


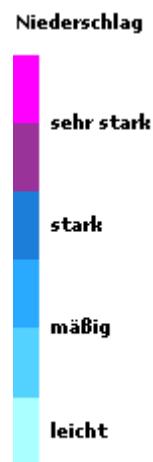
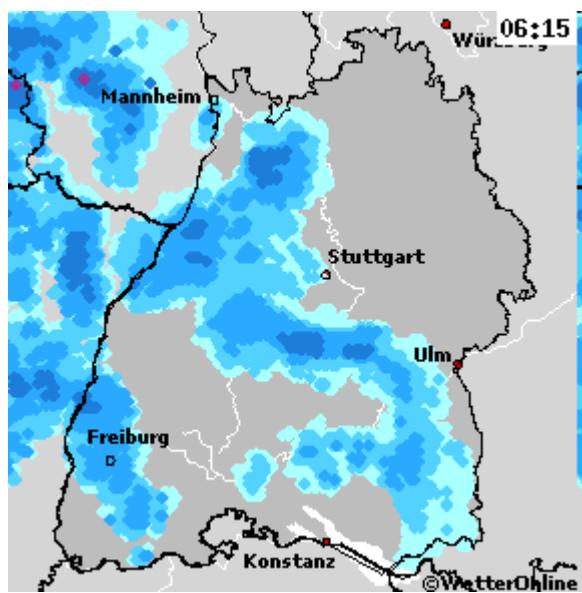


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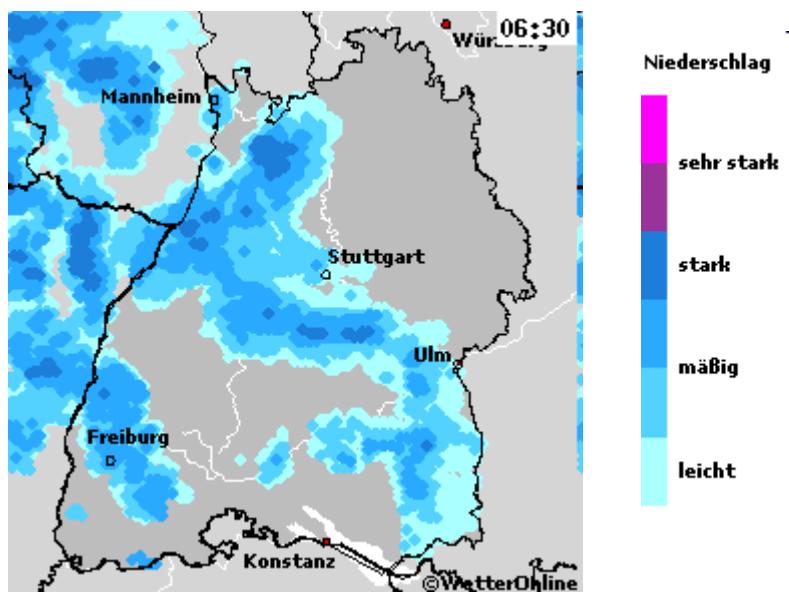


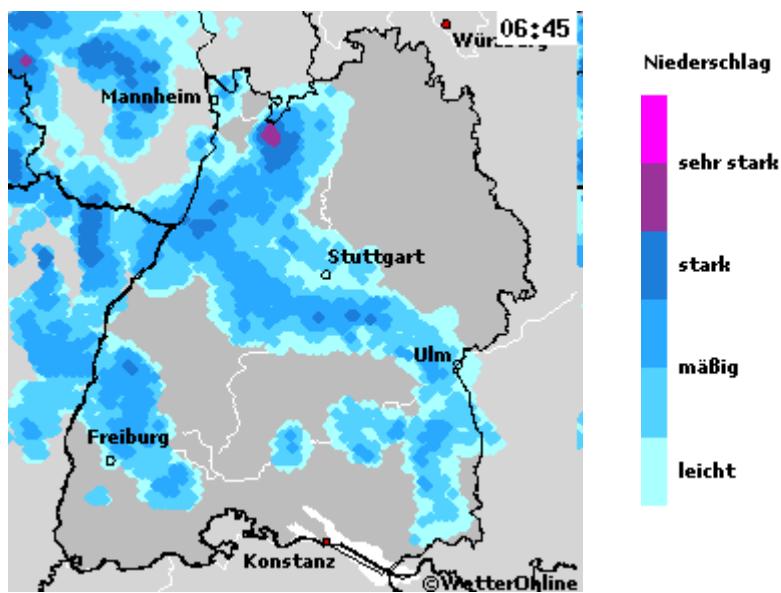


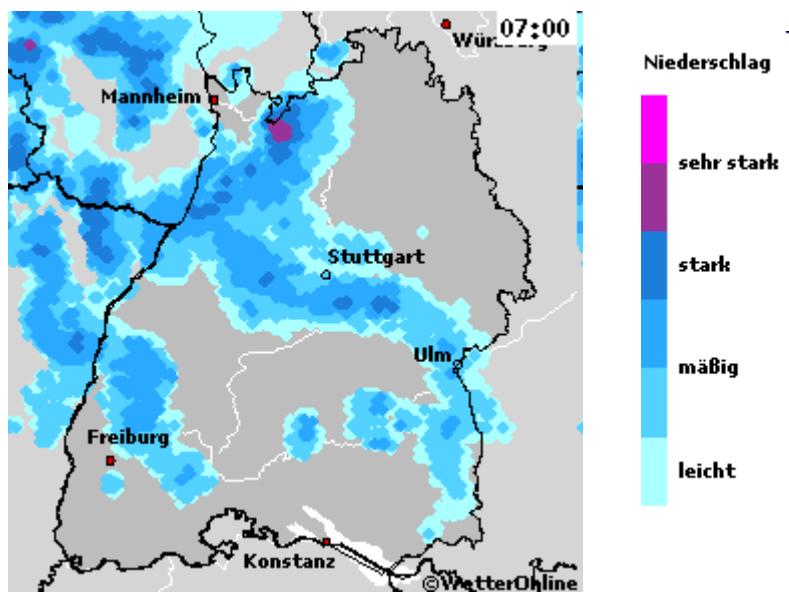


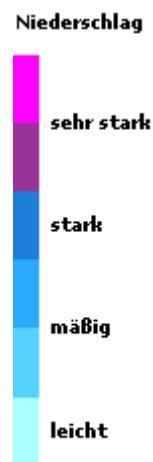
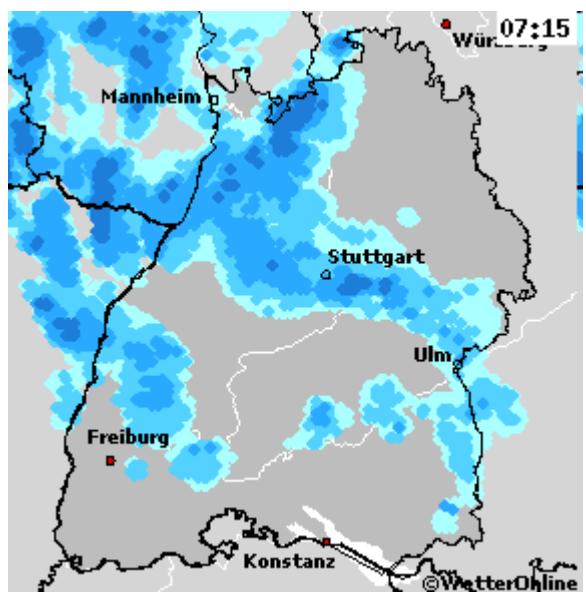


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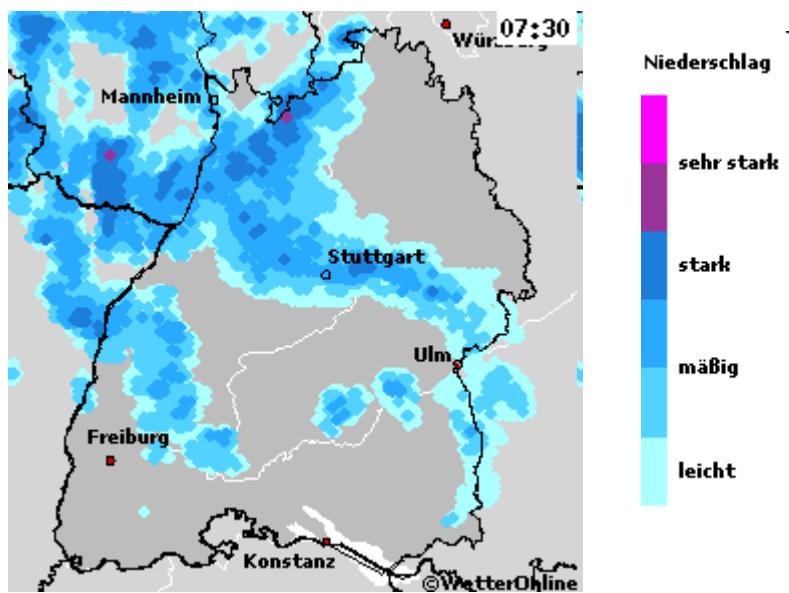


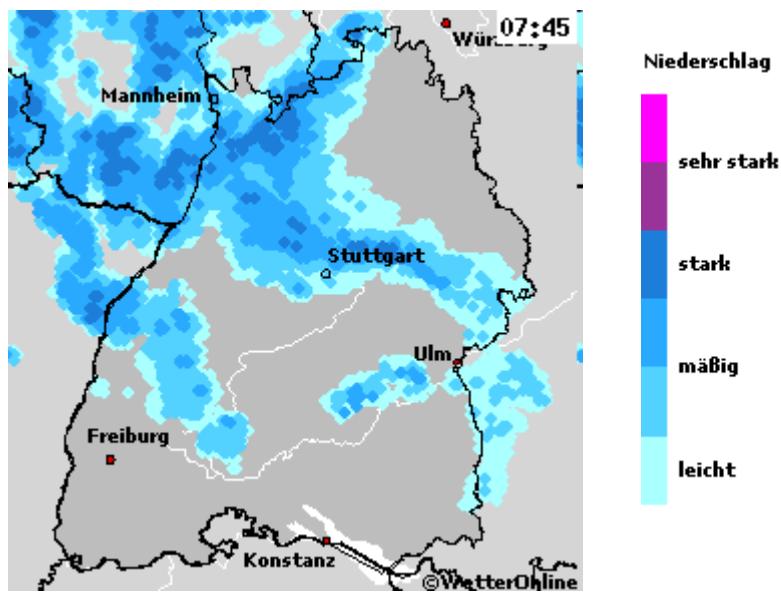


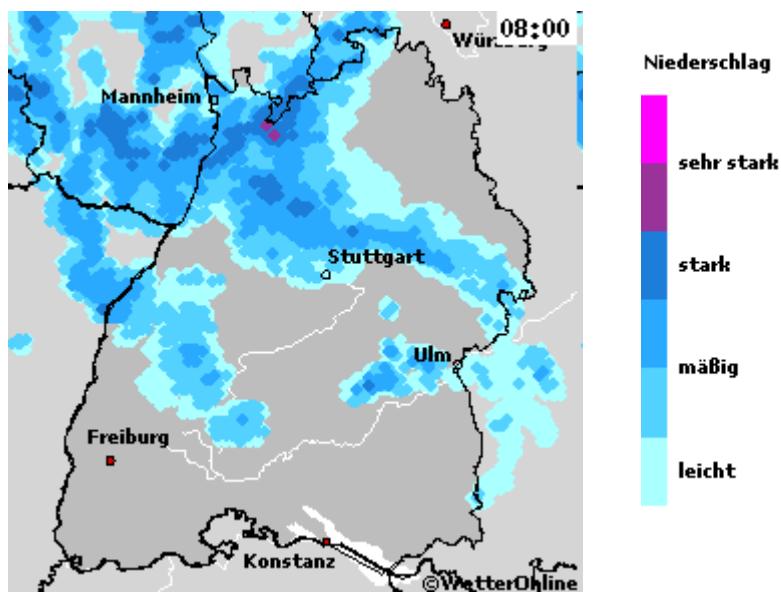


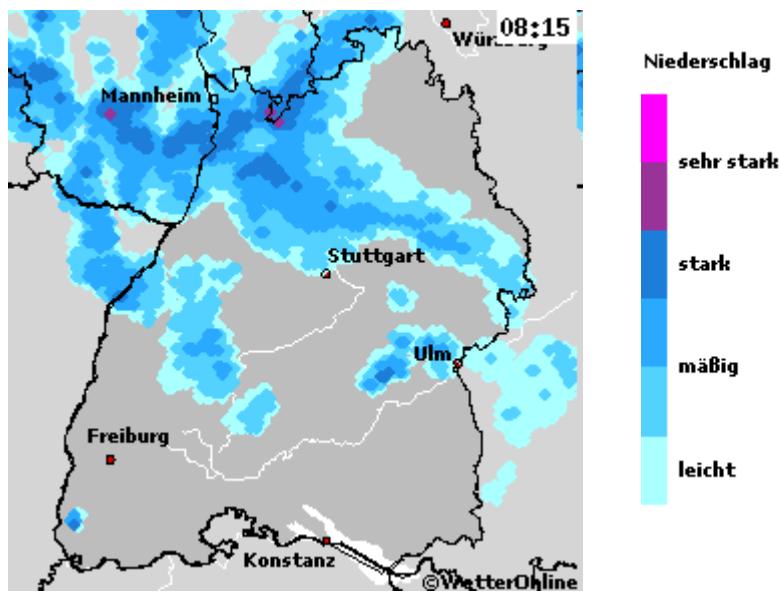


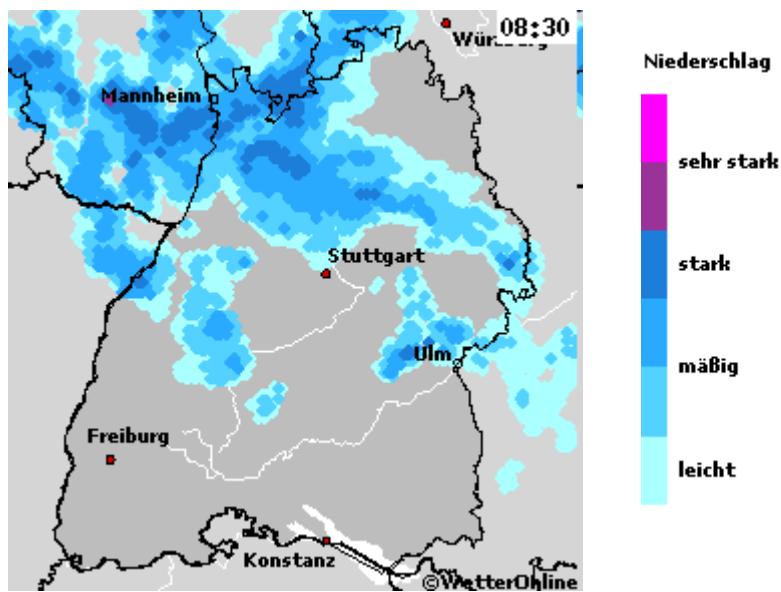
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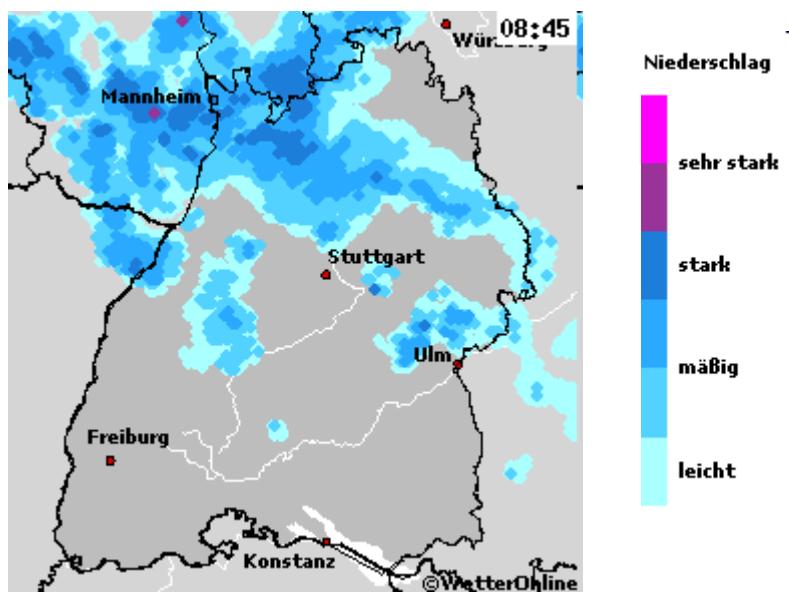


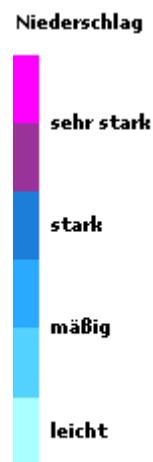
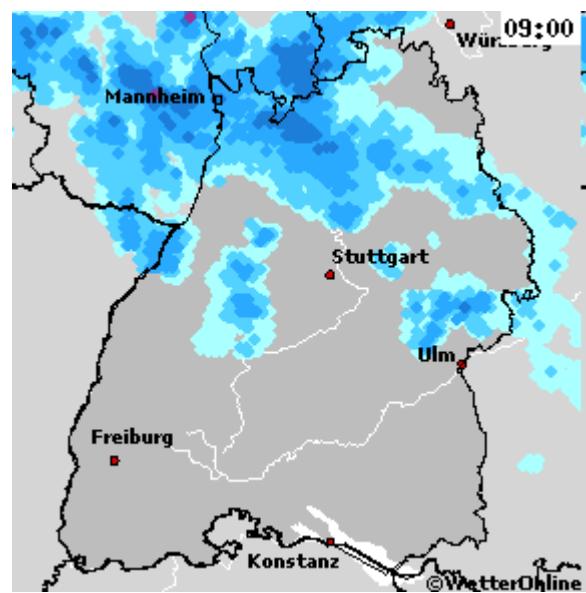


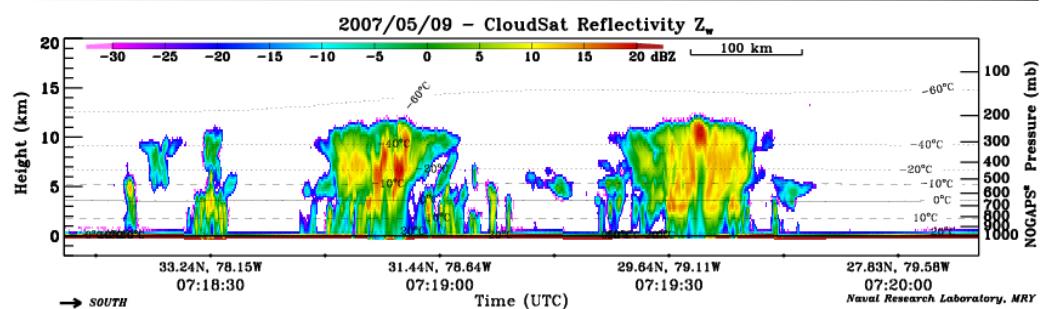
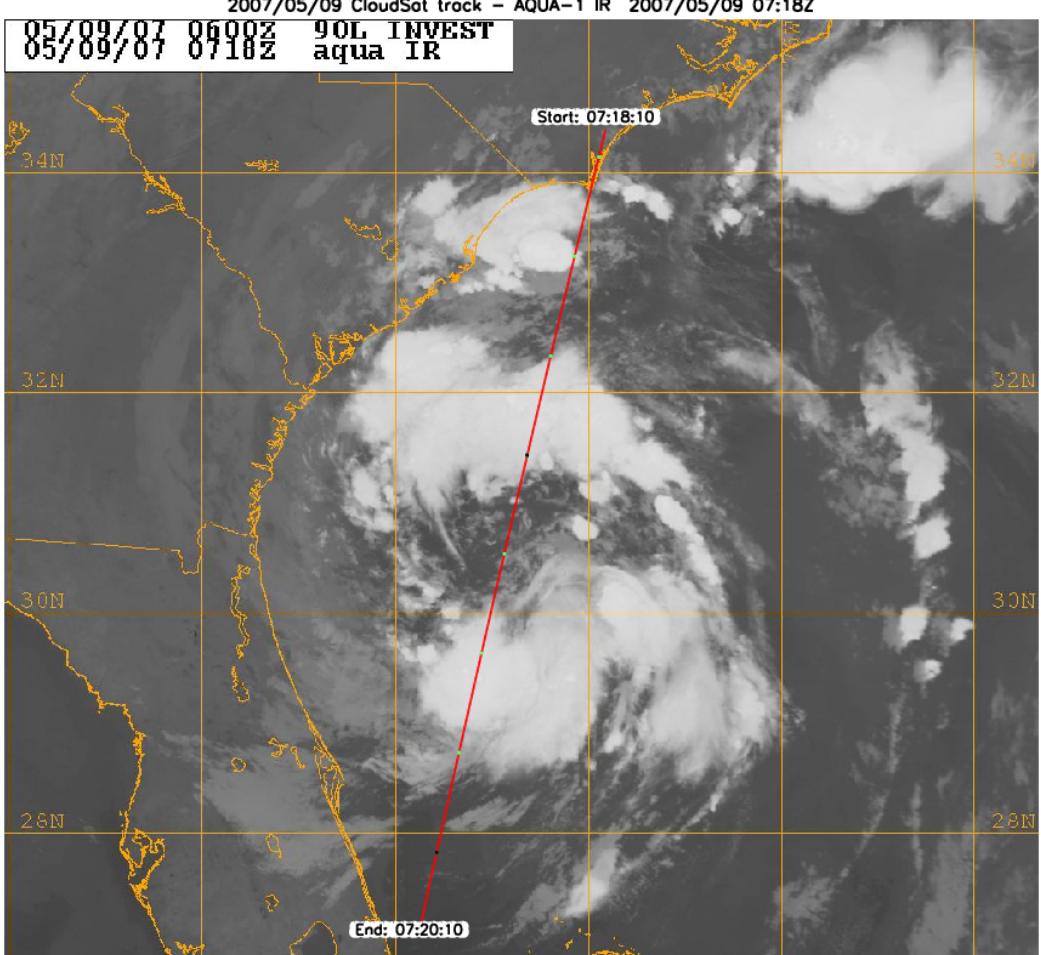










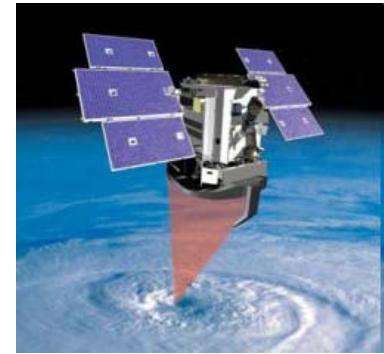


## CloudSat's Cloud Profiling

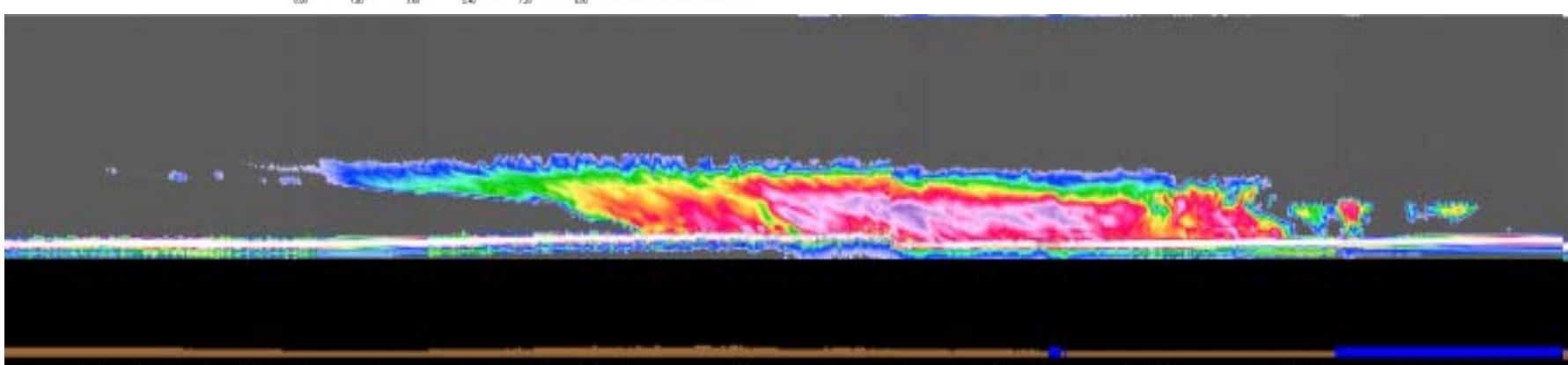
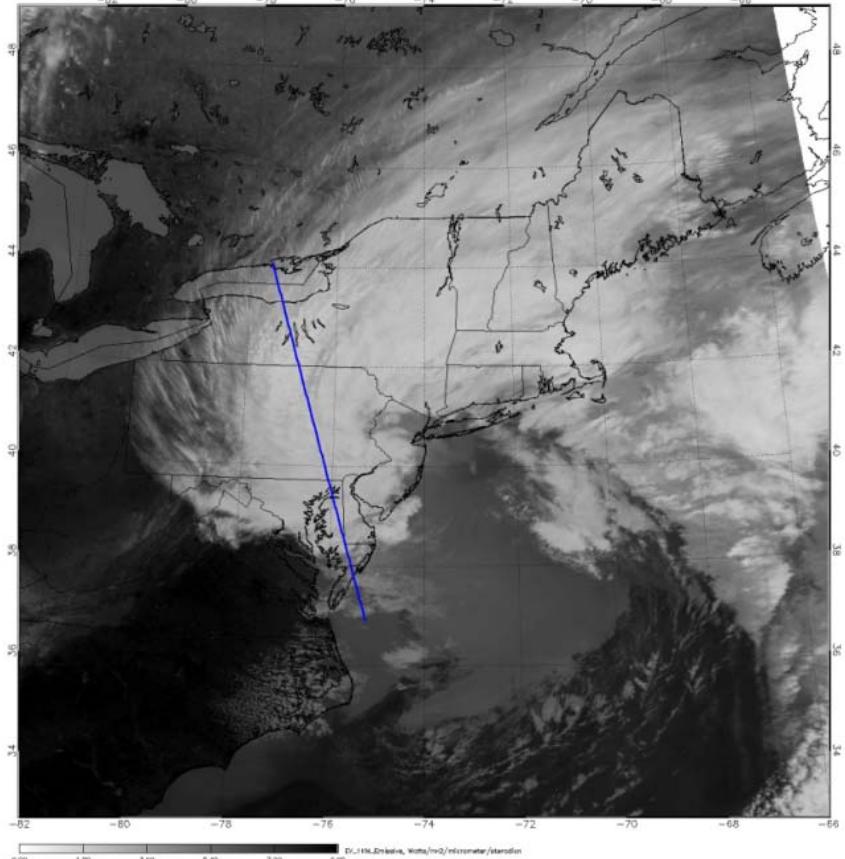
Radar captured a profile across Tropical Storm Andrea on Wednesday, 9 May 2007 near the SC/GA/FL Atlantic coast. The upper image shows an infrared view of TS Andrea from the MODIS instrument on the Aqua satellite, with CloudSat's ground track from 0718-0720 UTC (3:18-3:20 EDT) shown as a red line. The lower image is the vertical cross section of radar reflectivity along this path, where the colors indicate the intensity of the reflected radar energy. CloudSat orbits approximately one minute behind Aqua in a satellite formation known as the A-Train.

[Images courtesy of the Naval Research Laboratory-Monterey]

# CloudSat

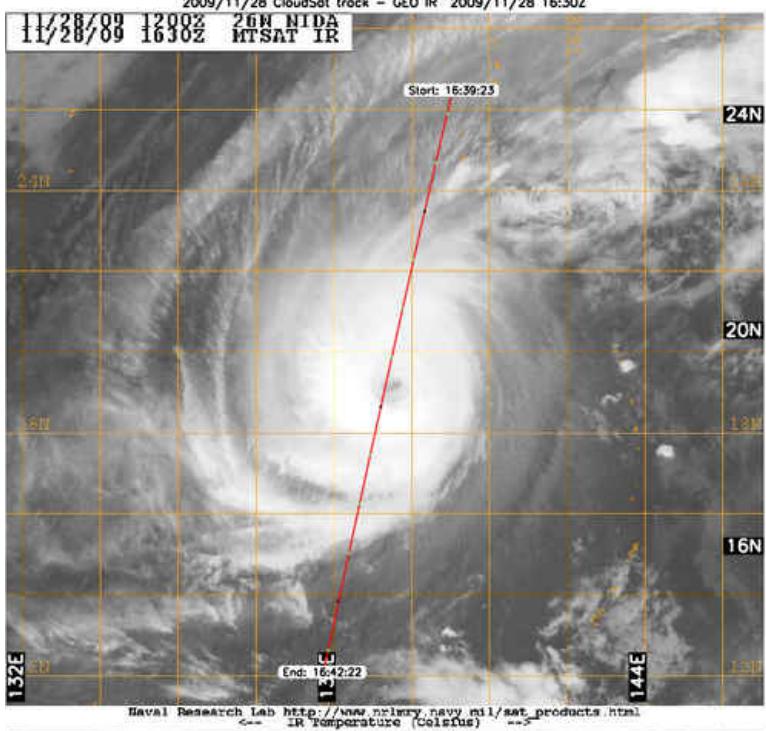


Nominal Frequency	94 GHz
Pulse Width	3.3 $\mu$ sec
PRF	4300 Hz
Minimum Detectable Z*	< -29 dBZ
Data Window	0-25 km
Antenna Size	1.85 m
Dynamic Range	70 dB
Integration Time	0.16 sec
Nadir Angle (since 15 Aug 2006***)	0.16°
Vertical Resolution	500 m
Cross-track Resolution	1.4 km
Along-track Resolution**	1.7 km
Data Rate	20 kbps

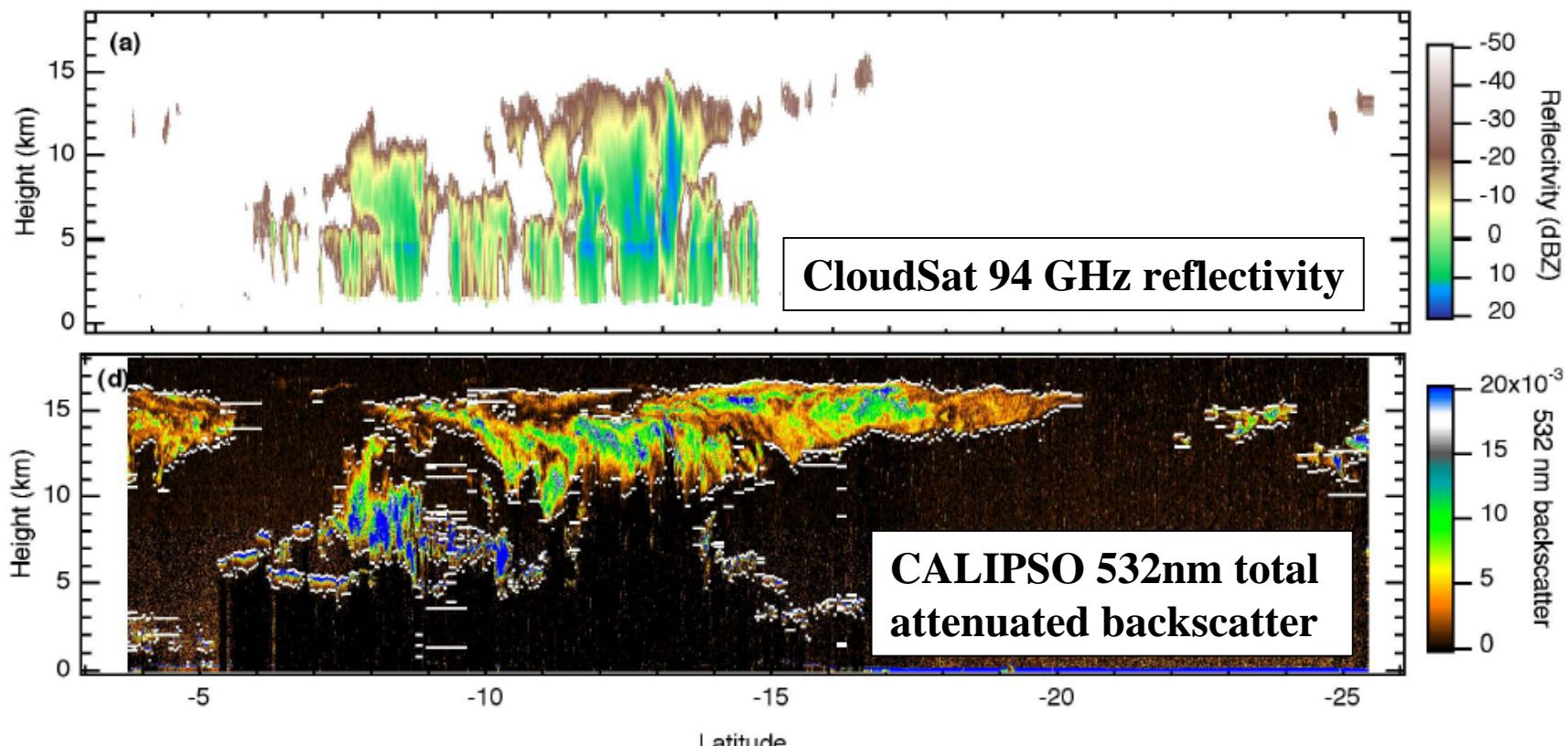
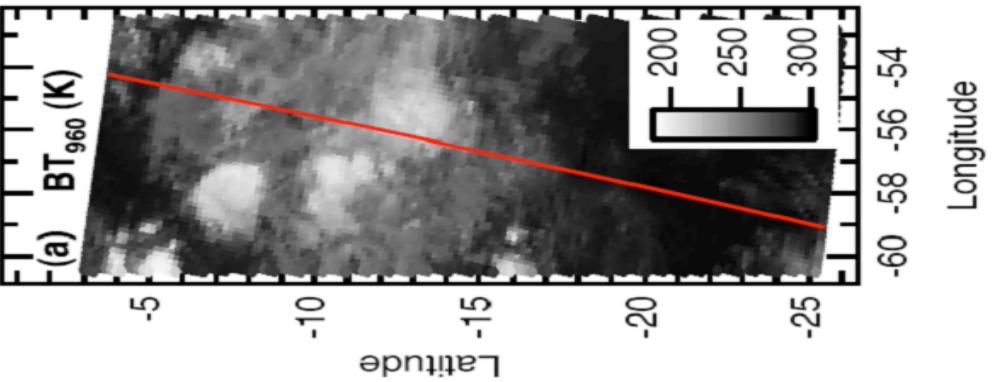


18:26:32 18:23:21 | Lat 51.5 40.1 | Lon -80.4 -76.2

CIRA CloudSat DPC 2010 Mar 30 (089) 17:22:45 UTC | 1A-AUX | Gran



# Synergy between Cloudsat and Calipso



Kahn, B. H., Chahine, M. T., Stephens, G. L., Mace, G. G., Marchand, R. T., Wang, Z., Barnet, C. D., Eldering, A., Holz, R. E., Kuehn, R. E., and Vane, D. G.: Cloud type comparisons of AIRS, CloudSat, and CALIPSO cloud height and amount, *Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss.*, 7, 13915-13958, doi:10.5194/acpd-7-13915-2007, 2007.

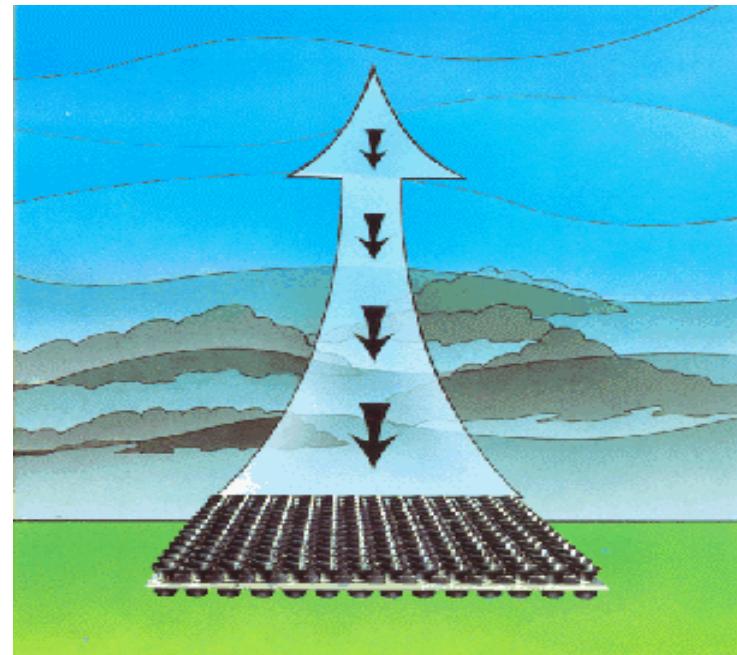
## **Active methods with focus on time information**

- LIDAR      Light detection and ranging
- RADAR      Radio detection and ranging
- SODAR**      **Sound detection and ranging**

# SODAR Sound Detecting And Ranging

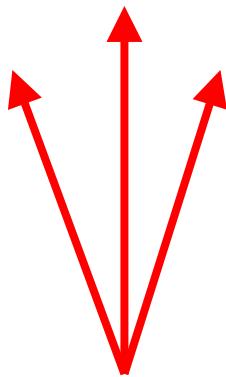
Sound (as acoustic pulses) is emitted into the atmosphere and the echos are received and analysed

- the echo intensity varies according to thermal turbulence and structure
- the frequency shift of the echo varies according to the wind speed (DOPPLER effect )



# SODAR Sound Detecting And Ranging

Mono-static systems are usually operated in three directions

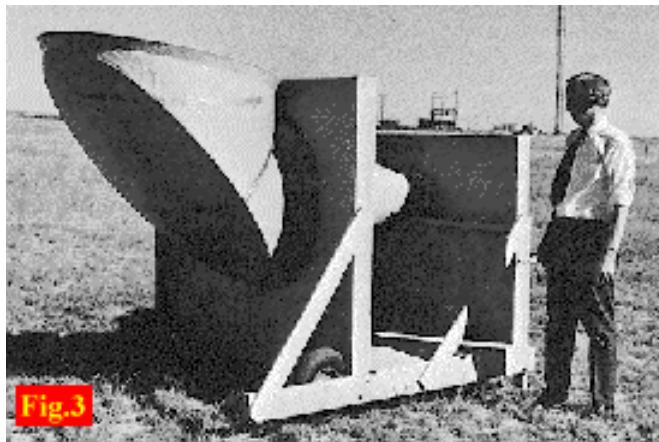


Zenith angles  
typically 15°  
to 30 °

two categories:

a) individual antennas at multiple axis  
single transducer focused into a parabolic dish

b) single phased-array antenna  
array of speaker drivers and horns (transducers), the beams are electronically steered by phasing the transducers appropriately.



An example of an old monostatic system is presented in Figure 3. The antenna is constructed from an electrodynamic transducer in the focal point of a parabolic dish reflector. It is clear that the system is heavy and it is difficult to move it in hard to reach places.



phased-array antenna

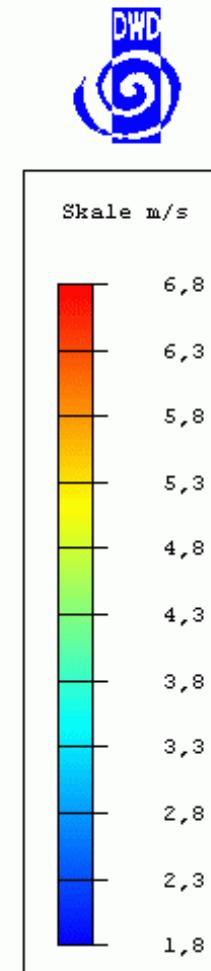
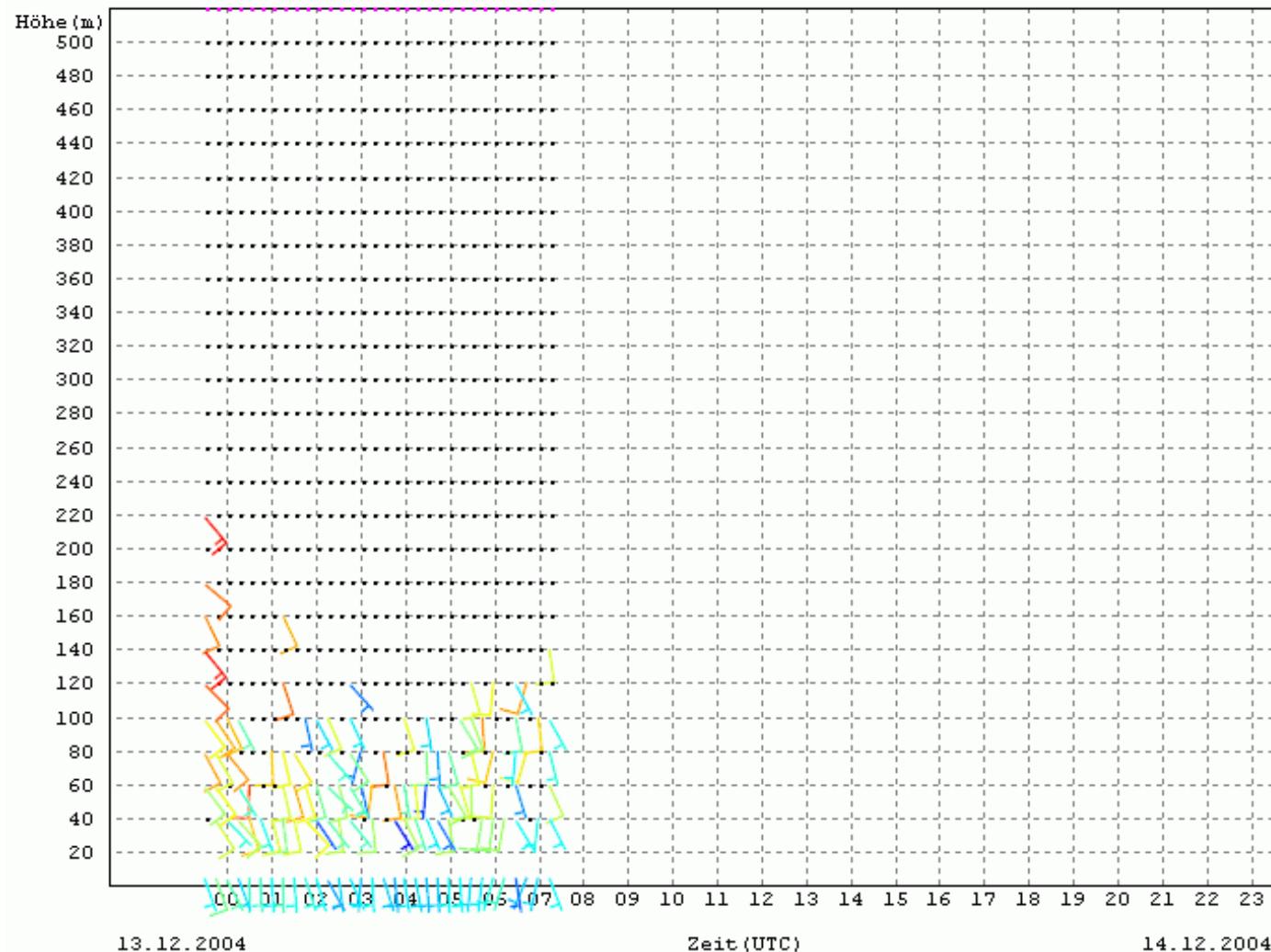
# SODAR Sound Detecting And Ranging

- The horizontal components of the wind velocity are calculated from the radially measured Doppler shifts and the specified tilt angle from the vertical.
- A correction for the vertical velocity should be applied in systems with zenith angles less than  $20^\circ$  (or when the expected vertical velocities are greater than about  $0.2 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ )
- The vertical range of sodars is approximately 0.2 to 2 kilometers (km) depending on frequency, power output, atmospheric stability, turbulence, and, most importantly, the noise environment in which a sodar is operated.
- Operating frequencies range from less than 1000 Hz to over 4000 Hz, with power levels up to several hundred watts.

# SODAR Sound Detecting And RAning

Meteorologisches Observatorium Lindenberg

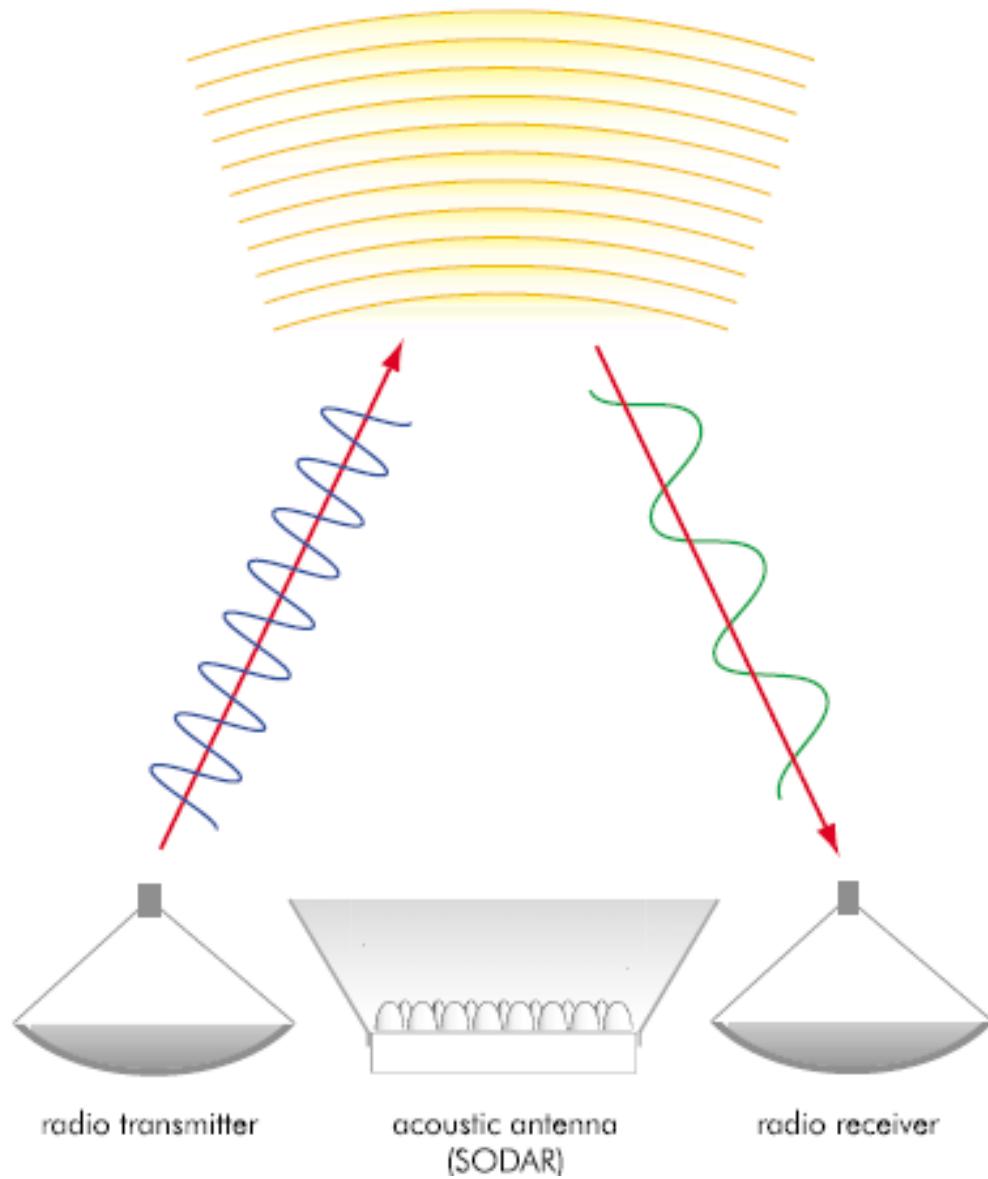
SODAR (WIND)

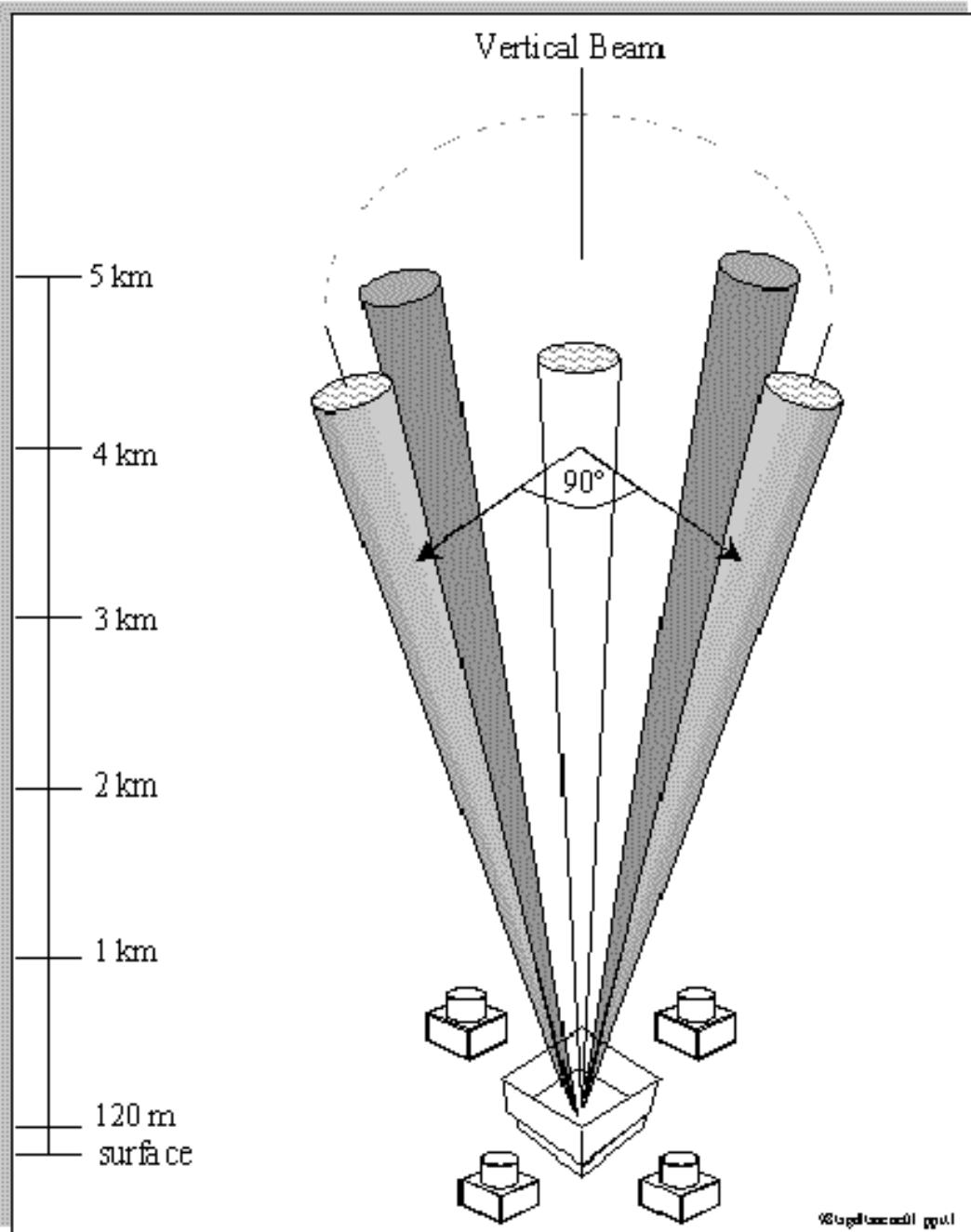


# Radio Acoustic Sounding System (RASS)

- Bragg scattering occurs when the wavelength of the acoustic signal matches **the half-wavelength of the radar**
- As the frequency of the acoustic signal is varied, strongly enhanced scattering of the radar signal occurs when the Bragg match takes place.
- When this occurs, the Doppler shift of the radar signal produced by the Bragg scattering can be determined, => vertical velocity.
- the **speed of sound** as a function of altitude can be measured, from which **virtual temperature** ( $T_v$ ) profiles can be calculated (The virtual temperature of an air parcel is the temperature that dry air would have if its pressure and density were equal to those of a sample of moist air)
- three or four vertically pointing acoustic sources (equivalent to high quality stereo loud speakers) are placed around the radar wind profiler's antenna,
- The acoustic sources are used only to transmit sound into the vertical beam of the radar
- The vertical resolution of RASS data is determined by the pulse length(s) used by the radar. RASS sampling is usually performed with a 60- to 100-m pulse length.
- the altitude range is usually 0.1 to 1.5 km, depending on atmospheric conditions (e.g., high wind velocities tend to limit RASS altitude coverage to a few hundred meters because the acoustic signals are blown out of the radar beam).

sound pulse emitted by acoustic antenna travels with sound velocity





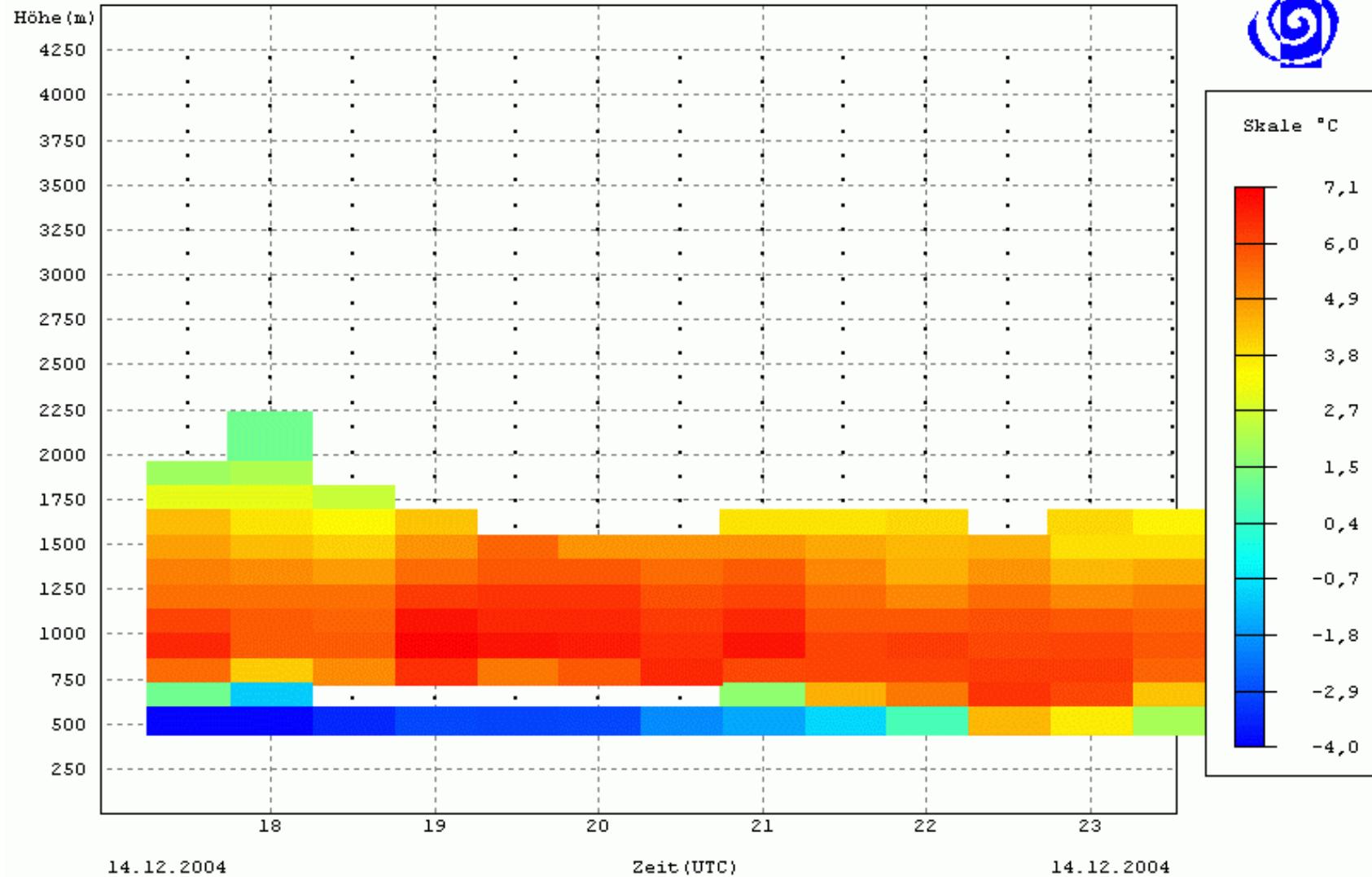
**Schematic of sampling geometry for a radar wind profiler with RASS**



The 915 MHz [Radar Wind Profiler](#) (915RWP) and radio acoustic sounding system ([RASS](#)) at the North Slope of [Alaska](#) site in [Barrow, Alaska](#).

# Meteorologisches Observatorium Lindenberg

## TROPOSPHÄRENWINDPROFILER TEMPERATUR (RASS)



## **Summary active (time resolved) methods:**

-active methods:

- mainly optical and microwave range
- also sound is used

Advantages:

- highly resolved spatial information
- measurement conditions can be freely chosen

Disadvantages:

- high instrumental effort
- only small temporal and spatial coverage
- often qualitative (not quantitative) information is retrieved