

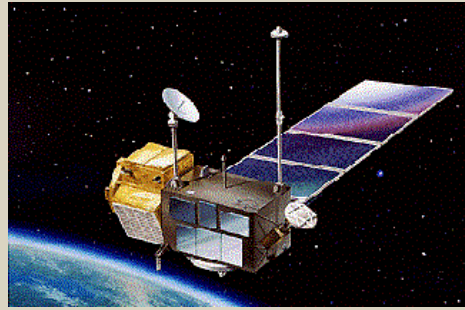
## Lecture 5 Remote Sensing

Measuring an object from a distance

February 21, 2019

*For GIS, that means using photographic or satellite images to gather spatial data*

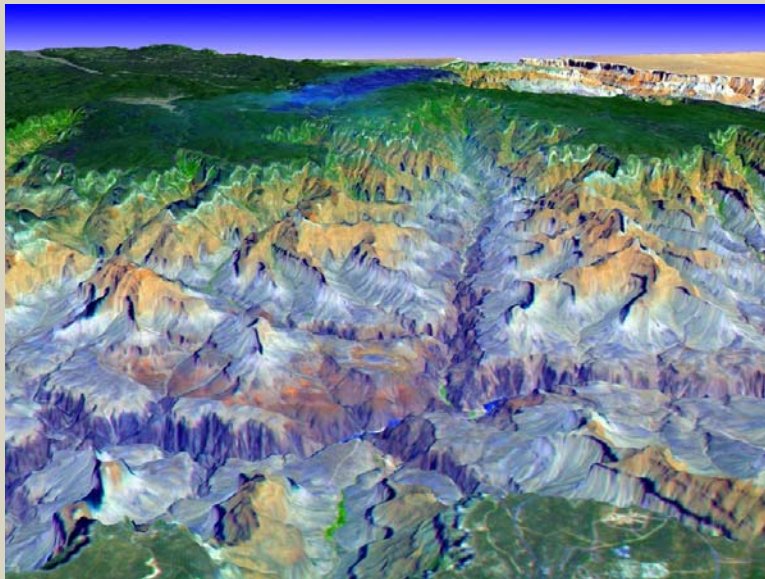
**Remote Sensing** measures electromagnetic energy reflected or emitted from objects –  
airborne or satellite-based instruments



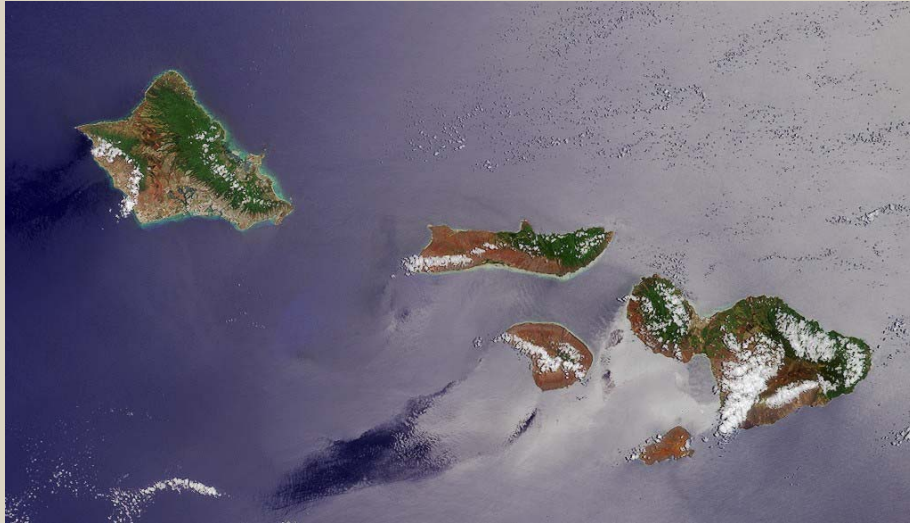
Imagery - A Rich Data Source  
NASA Aster and TM Imagery, San Diego, CA



NASA Aster and SRTM Image Data, the Grand Canyon, AZ



Broad Spectral Range  
NASA MISR Data, the Hawaiian Islands



The World  
Changes –  
Images  
provide a  
permanent  
record

10/22/07



The World  
Changes –  
Images  
provide a  
permanent  
record

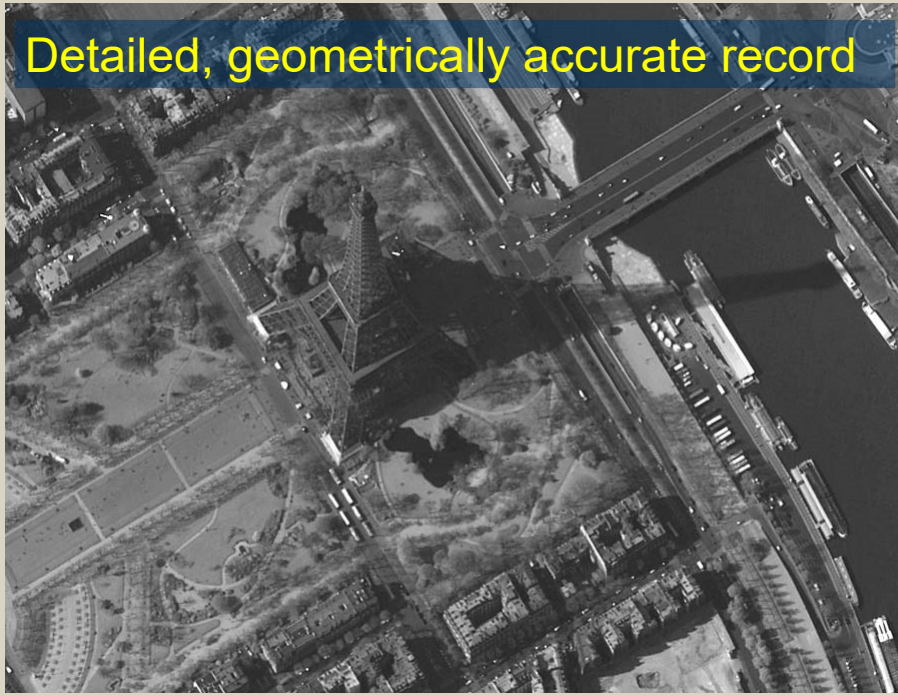
10/23/07



Change: Deforestation, Rondonia, Brazil (NASA Landsat Image)



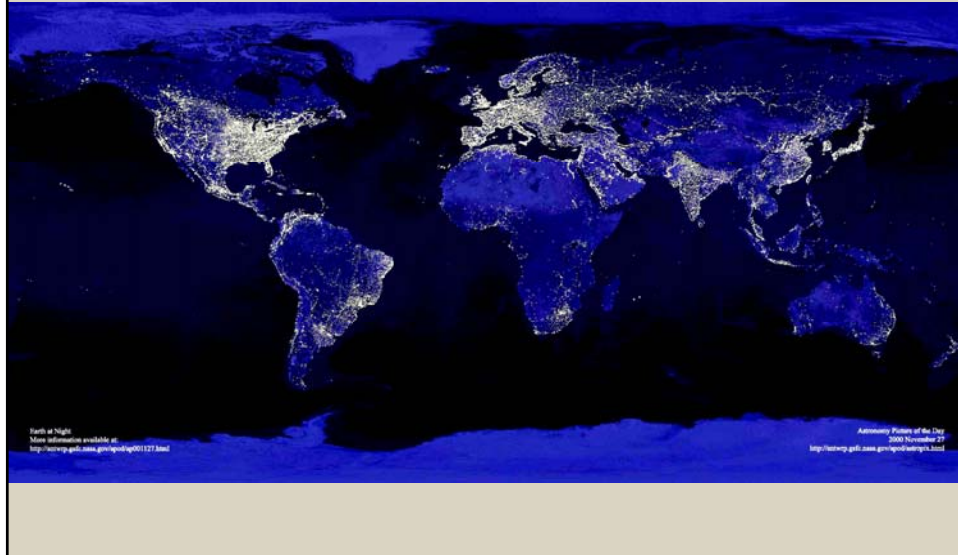
Detailed, geometrically accurate record



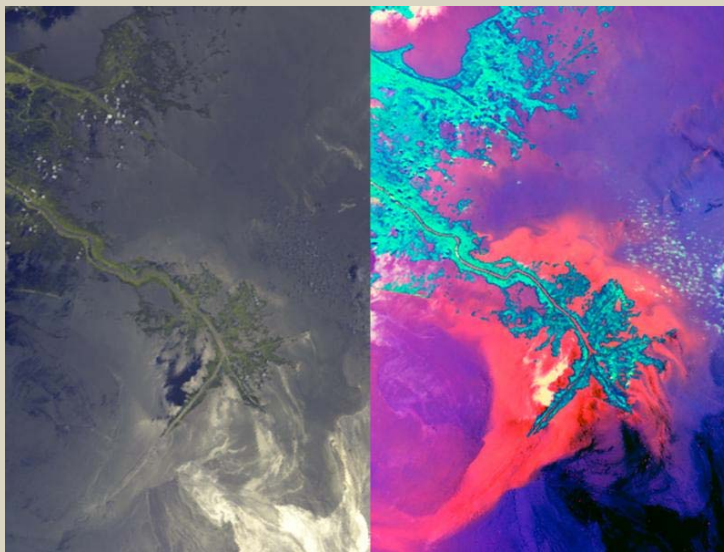
Broad Area Coverage



## Broad Area Coverage



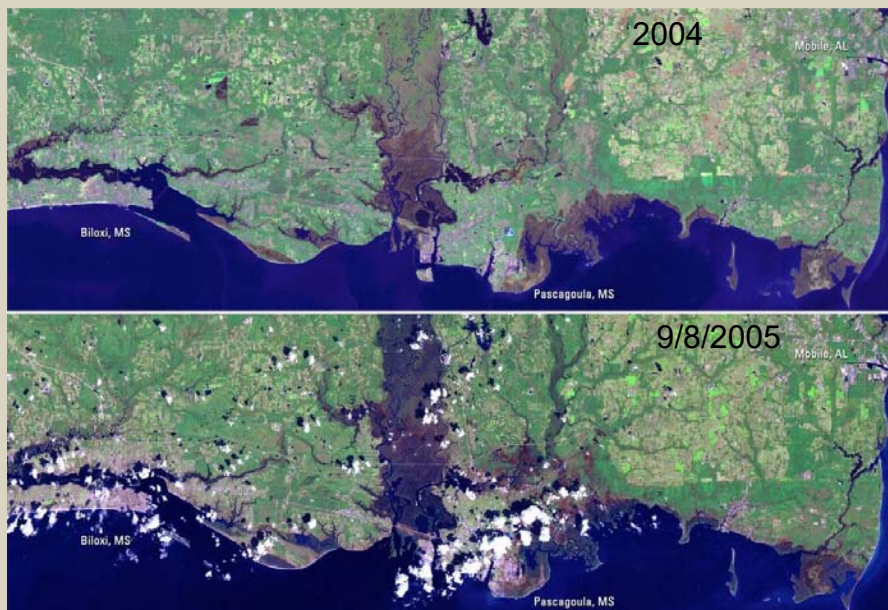
Multiple cameras on JPL's MISR instrument on NASA's Terra spacecraft were used to create two unique views of oil moving into Louisiana's coastal wetlands.



The MODIS on NASA's Terra satellite captured this image on May 24, 2010



Hurricane Katrina not only affected the coastline, but also reached the inland areas of the Pascagoula River.



## Why remotely-sensed images

- Large area coverage
- Extended spectral range
- Geometric accuracy
- Permanent record

## Background

**Light** (300,000 km per second)

Light waves consist of **electric** and **magnetic** fields

Electromagnetic radiation is composed of many discrete units called "**photons**"

Electromagnetic radiation behaves like a **wave** or *traveling energy*

Measured by **wavelength** (peak to peak)

or **frequency** (*how many waves pass a point in space per second*)

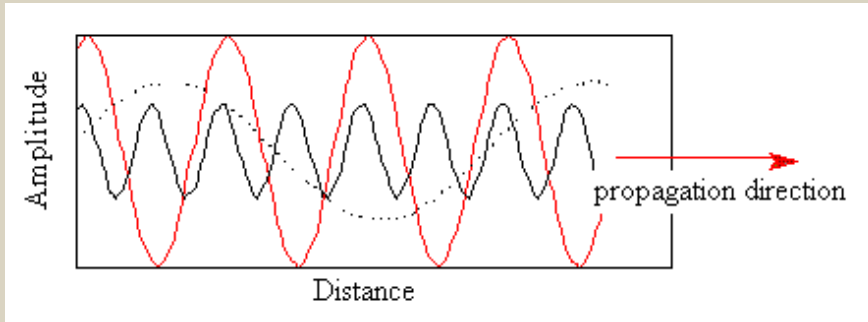
wavelength and frequency are related  
wavelength x frequency = Speed of Light

$$\lambda \times f = C$$

<http://science.howstuffworks.com/light3.htm>



Electromagnetic energy is a mixture of waves with different frequencies

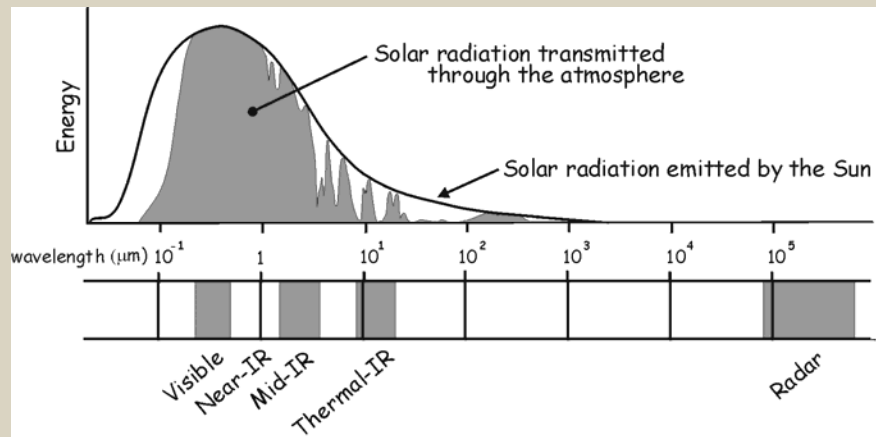


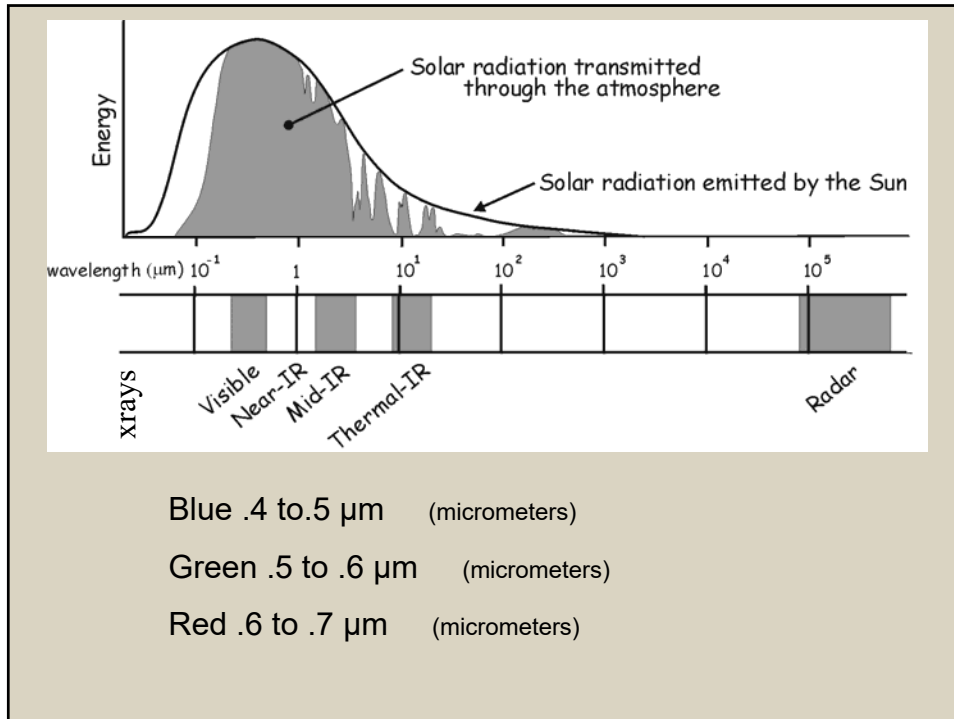
Each wave represents energy that varies at a given frequency.

Source: <http://www.cnr.berkeley.edu/~gong/textbook/chapter2/html/sect21.htm>

Radiation (electromagnetic energy) is emitted by the Sun, and attenuated by the atmosphere.

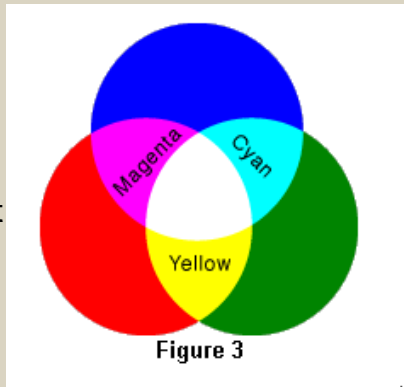
Specific bands of wavelengths are used for remote sensing





## Visible Light - How we see colors

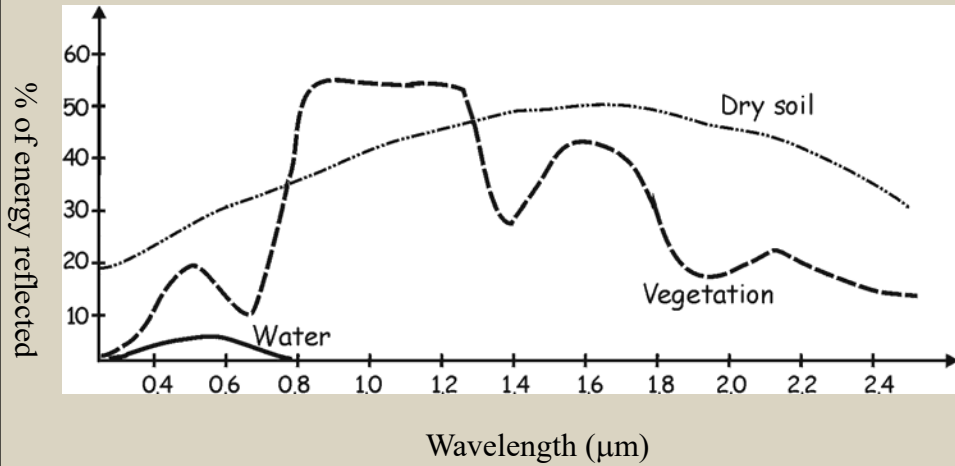
Addition of light waves of different frequencies



$$E_I(\lambda) = E_R(\lambda) + E_A(\lambda) + E_T(\lambda)$$

Natural objects appear to be the color they most reflect

# Spectral Reflectance Curves



False Color

Upland forest just beginning growing season

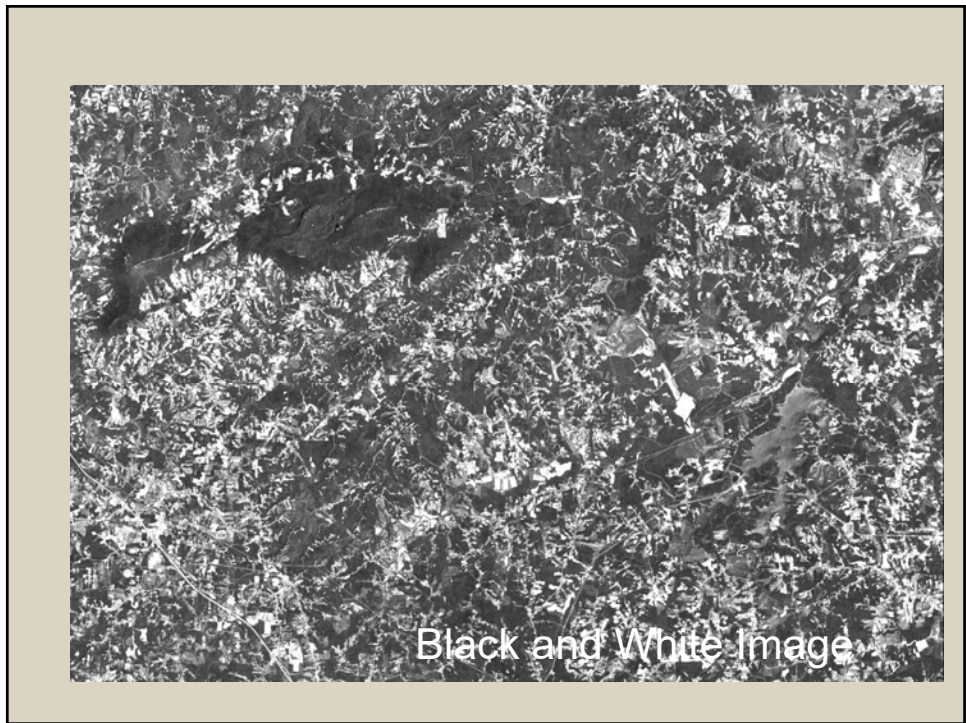
Cool season grass (brome, fescue)

True Color

## April

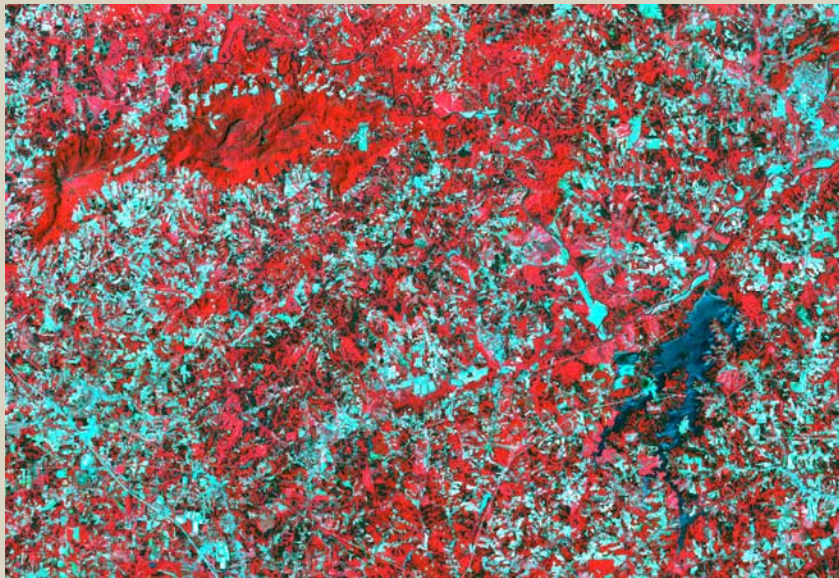
False Color IR and True Color

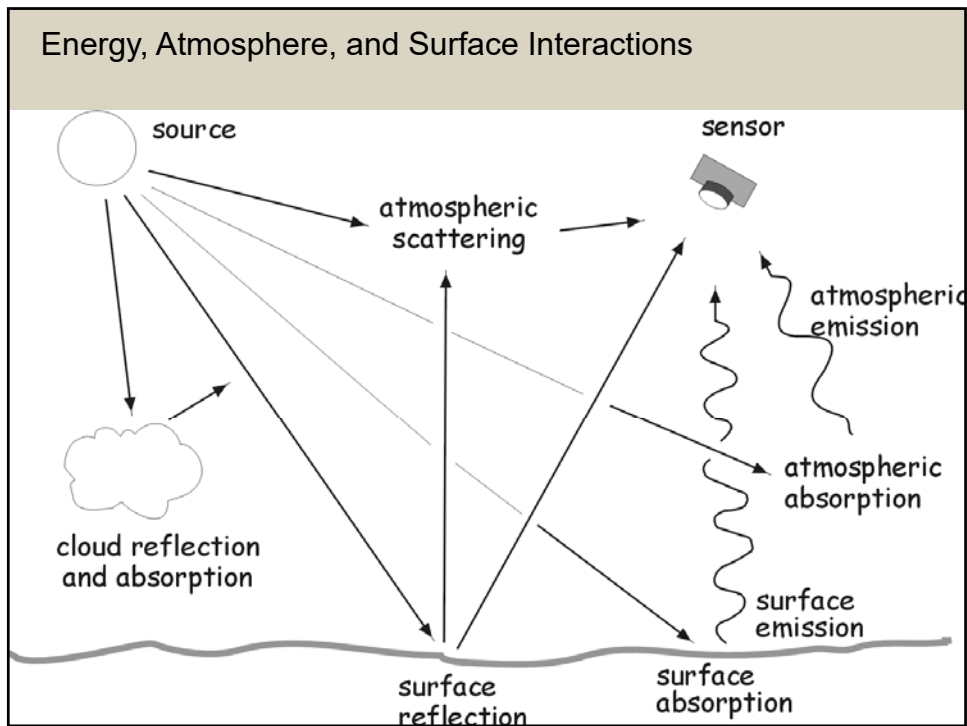
[http://www.emporia.edu/nasa/epscor/ft\\_leav/epscor.htm#r](http://www.emporia.edu/nasa/epscor/ft_leav/epscor.htm#r)





Color Infrared





## Attributes of remotely sensed data

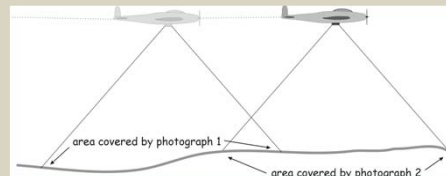
- Scale: 1:15,840
- Extent – the area covered by an image
- Resolution – smallest object that can reliably be detected by the image

## What Information Can Be Remotely Sensed ?

### Fundamental Variables

- Planimetric (x,y) location and dimensions
- Topographic (z) location
- Color (spectral reflectance)
- Surface Temperature
- Texture
- Surface Roughness
- Moisture Content
- Vegetation Biomass

## Aerial Photographs



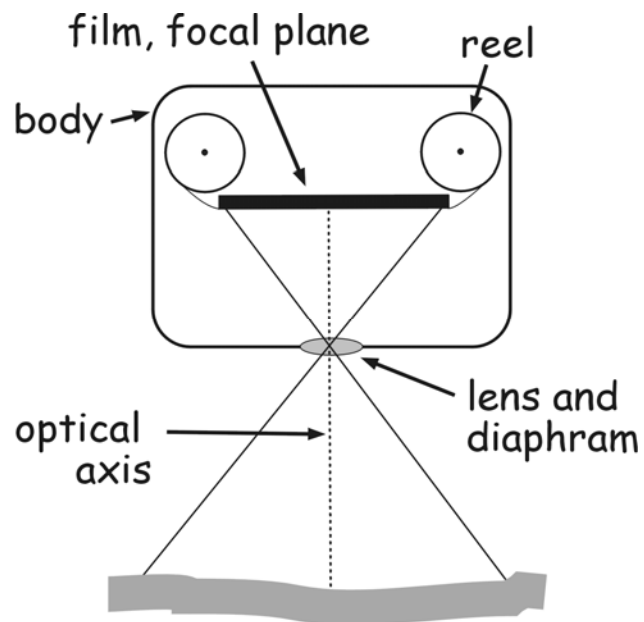
Primary uses:

- 1) Basis for surveying and topographic mapping
- 2) Image interpretation may be used to categorize or assign attributes to surface features
- 3) Background for maps of other features

## Aerial Photographs – from an Aerial Camera



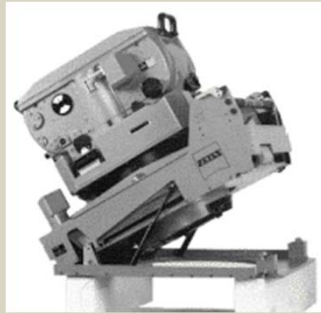
**Figure 6-8** A large-format camera (courtesy Z/I Imaging Systems).



Large  
format

Small  
format





Photos are usually scanned and converted to digital images for on-screen display and measurements



Scale most commonly controlled by

1. flying height
2. lens focal length

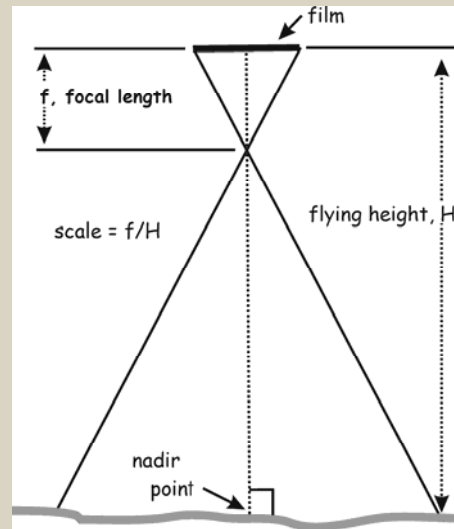
Scale is approximately equal to  $f / H$

$f$  = focal length

$H$  = flying height

## Photo Scale

- Set by flying height, focal length
- Most mapping cameras use 6" lens
- Reduce scale by flying higher



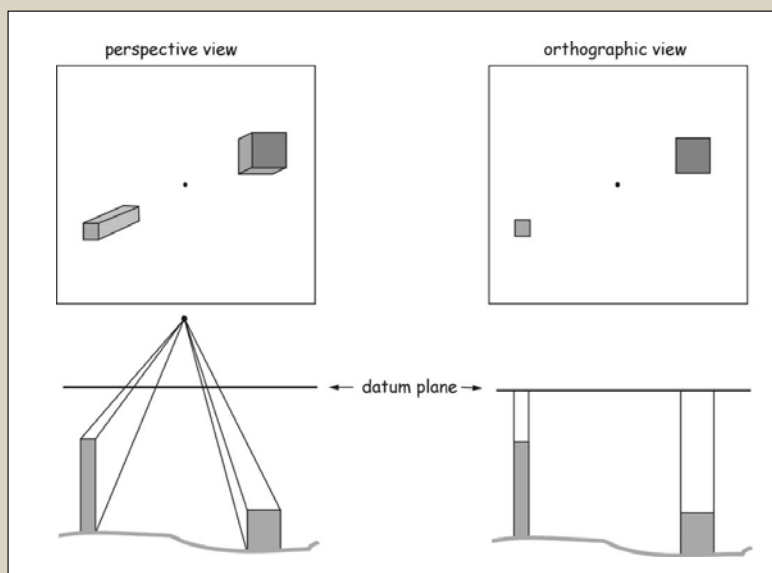
Increasing flying height reduces  
**scale** (*objects get smaller, area covered by  
each photo increases*)

Increasing focal length increases  
**scale** (*objects get larger, area covered  
decreases*)

## Scale is NOT Constant

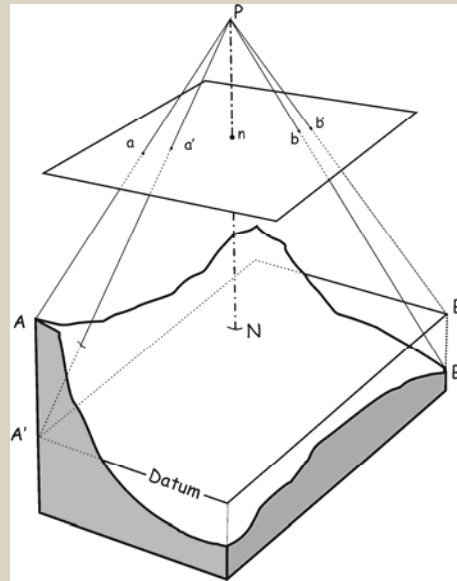
- Can be over flat terrain with perfectly vertical photographs - rarely occurs
- Terrain - some objects are closer to lens, hence larger scale
- Tilt - causes perspective distortion

## Perspective vs. Orthographic Views



## Terrain Variation – Causes Relief Displacement

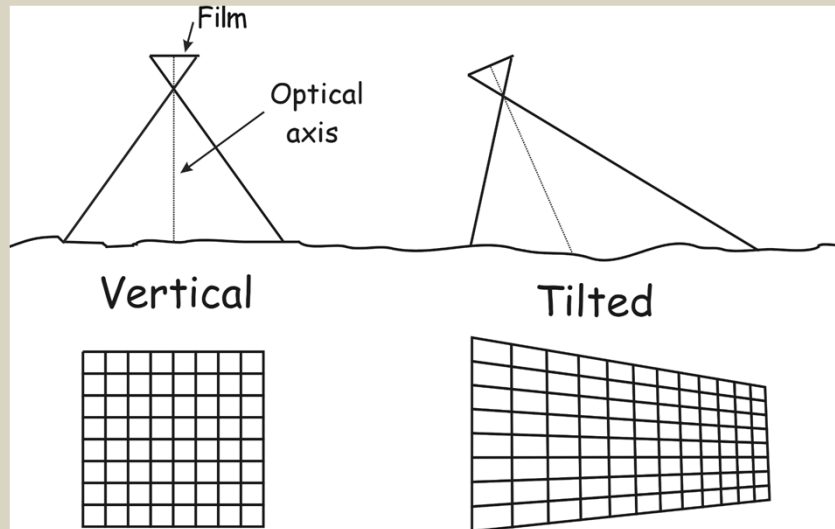
Features are displaced radially from their planimetric position due to differences in relative elevation



## Characteristics of terrain distortion

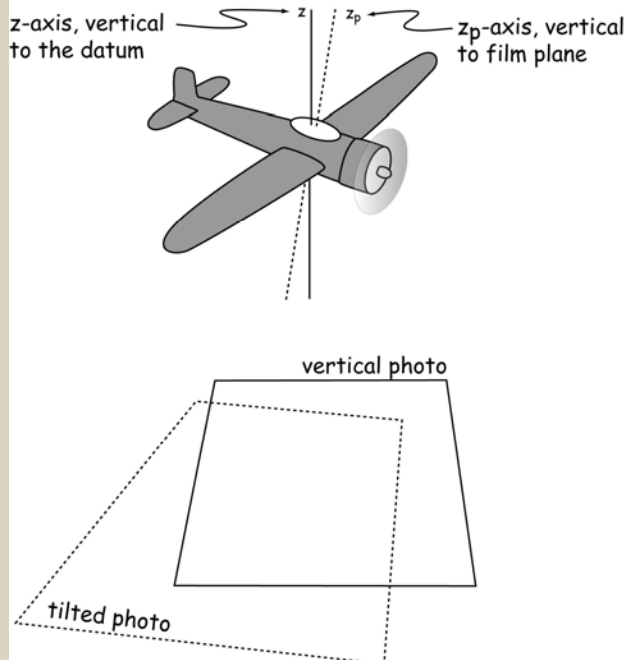
- Radial
- Affect angles and distances
- Scale is not constant
- Not orthographic

## Tilt Distortion



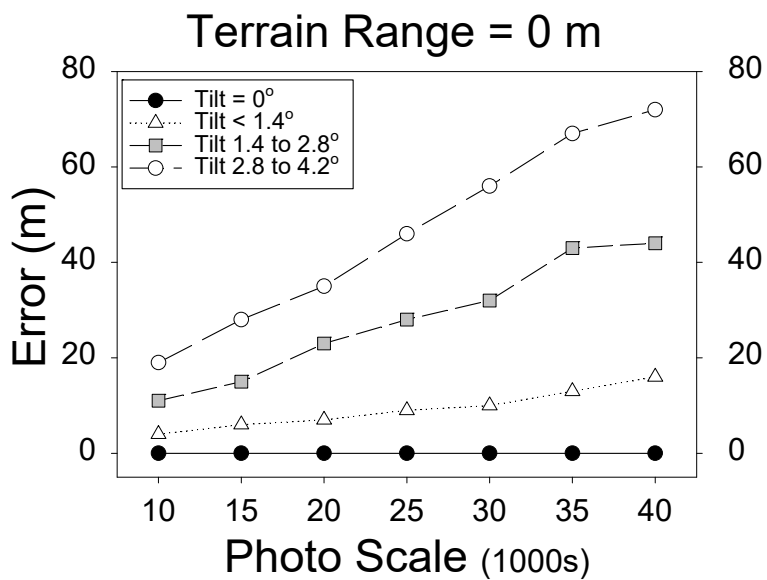
Tilt measured as the angle between a line perpendicular to the film and a line perpendicular to the datum.

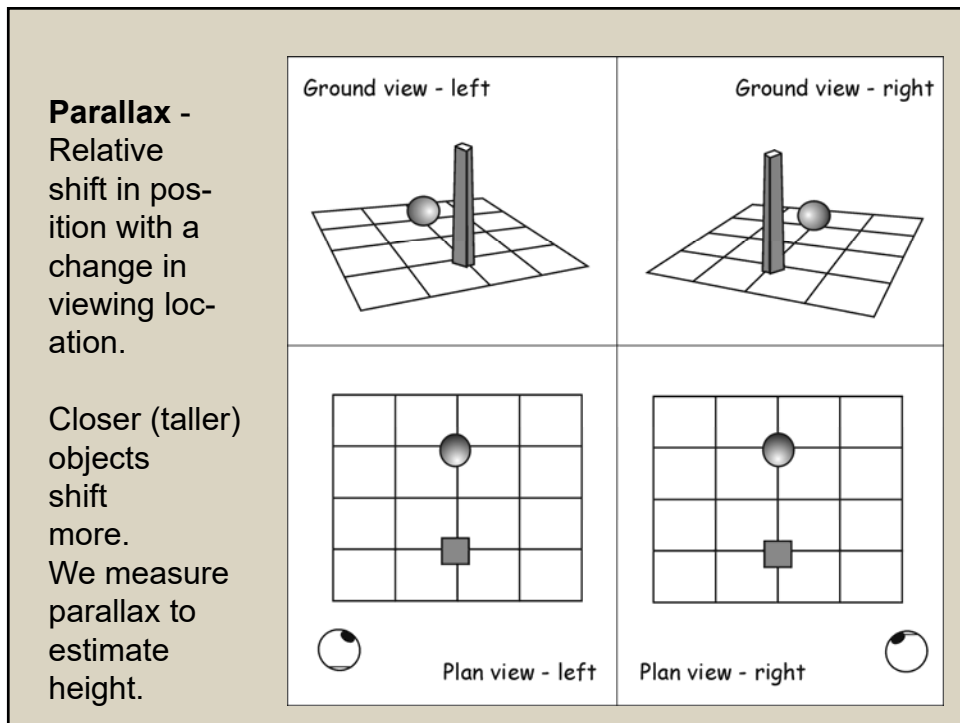
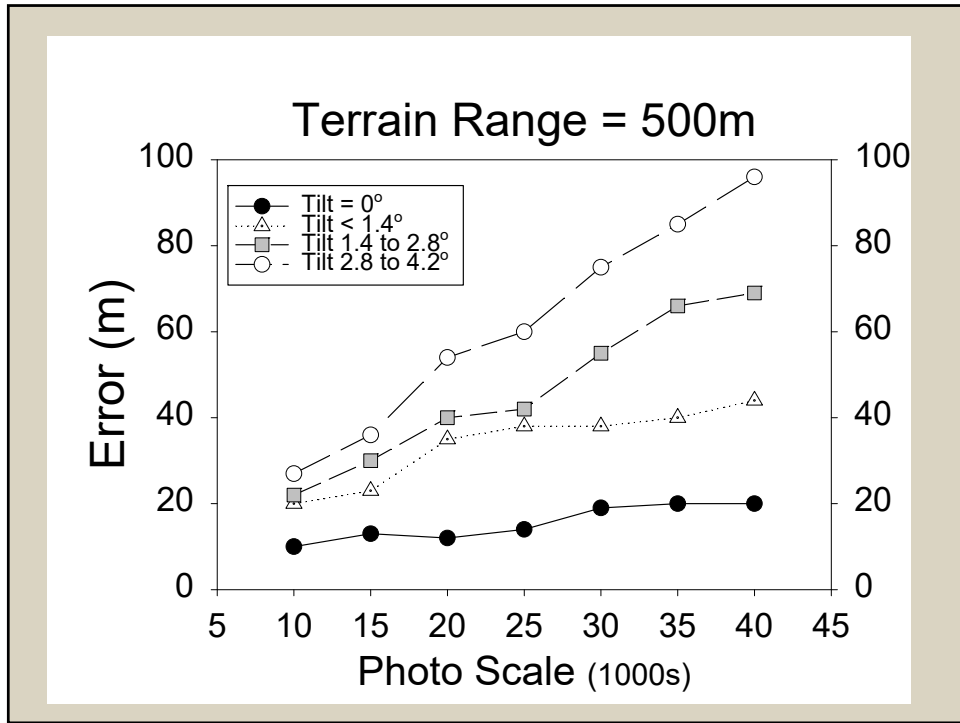
Typically specified to be less than  $3^\circ$  on vertical aerial photos.



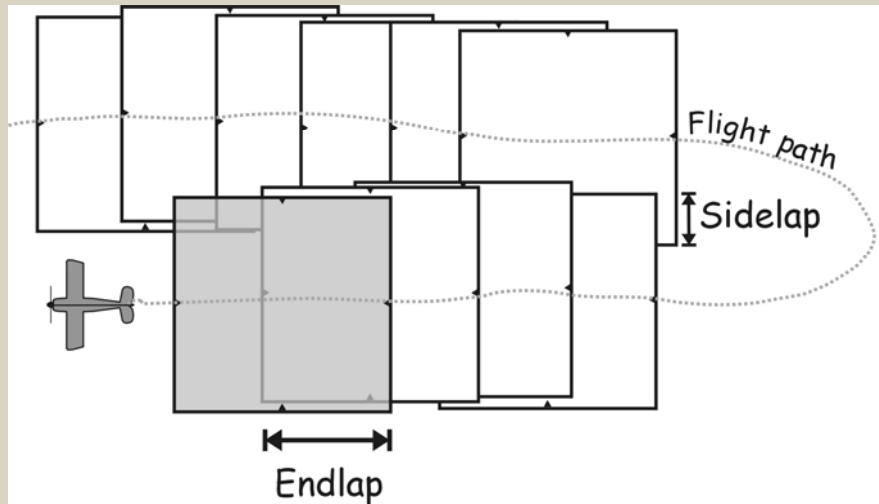
## How Big Are Tilt and Terrain Errors?

- Larger errors with more tilt (even under  $3^\circ$ )
- Larger errors with more relief (proportional to elevation difference)
- Larger at smaller scale





## Overlapping Stereophotographs to create parallax shifts



The schematic shows a top-down view of a mirror stereoscope. Two horizontal lines represent the "left stereogram" and "right stereogram". Below them, four mirrors are arranged in a row, labeled "4 mirrors". Dashed lines show the light paths from the stereograms, reflecting off the mirrors, and converging to form a "stereoscopic view (virtual)" at the top. To the right of the schematic is a photograph of a physical mirror stereoscope device.

Source: <http://www.2spi.com/catalog/stereo-3D/mstereo.html>

**Fig. 4 - Mirror stereoscope. View from the top (schematic).**

Source: [http://www.funsci.com/fun3\\_en/stscp/stscp.htm](http://www.funsci.com/fun3_en/stscp/stscp.htm)



## Relief Displacement – Height affects horizontal position

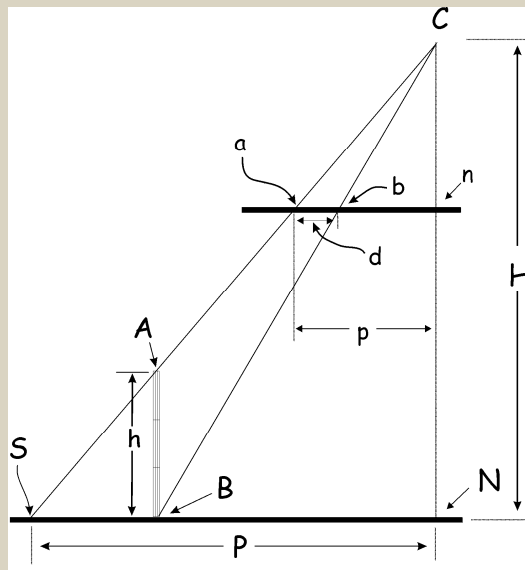
Displacement are radial  
 higher – outward shift  
 Lower – inward shift

In a planimetric map,  
 A should occur  
 at the same location  
 as B

But is displace by  $d$

Question: how much is  $d$ ?

Use similar  
 triangles to find out

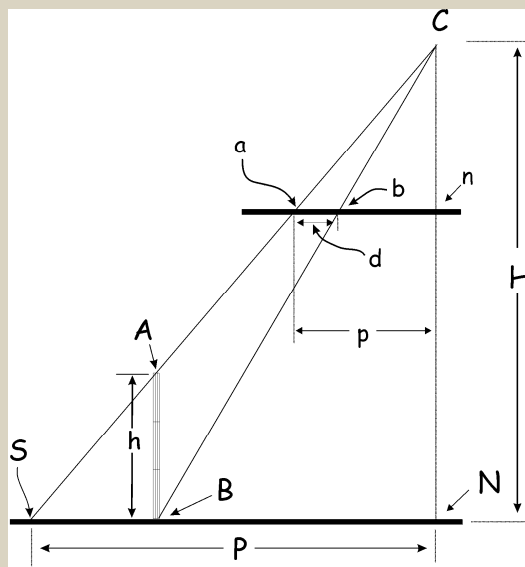


## Similar Triangles

Strategy:  
 Measure  $d$  and  $p$  (from  
 photo)  
 We know  $H$  (from flight  
 record)

We can get  $h$  (e.g.,  
 from DEM)

We need to relate  
 $d$  to  $p$ ,  $h$ , and  $H$



Big triangle – CNS

Small triangle 1 - Cna

Small triangle 2 - ABS

We may see:

$$D/P = d / p$$

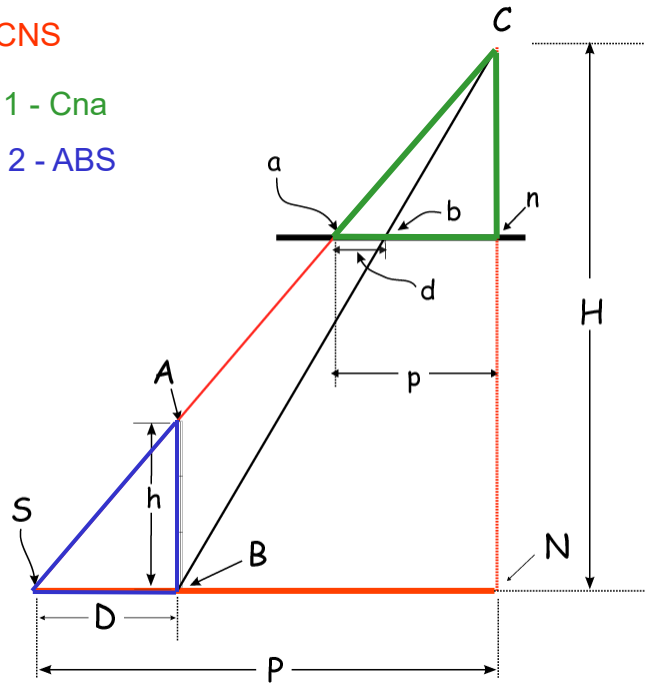
and

$$D/P = h/H$$

So

$$d/p = h/H$$

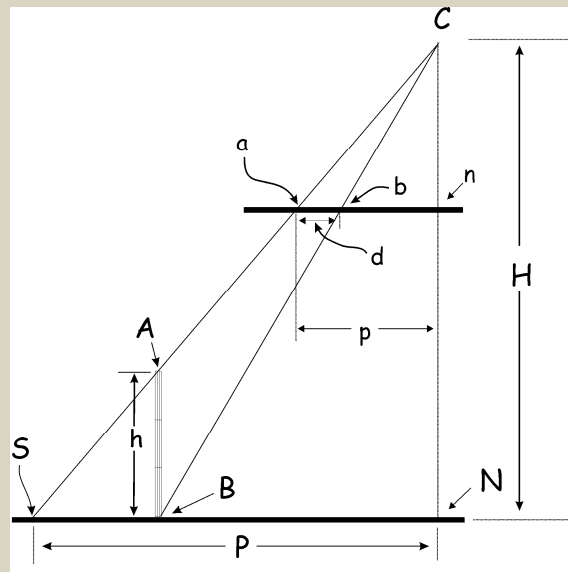
$$d = p \cdot h/H$$



So  
 We know H  
 Measure p on photo  
 Know h from DEM  
 Apply equation

$$d = p * h / H$$

Apply for every spot  
 (cell, pixel) on the  
 photo, yielding an  
 ortho-corrected image



What about tilt?

Tilt plus terrain distortion complicates the equations, e.g.,

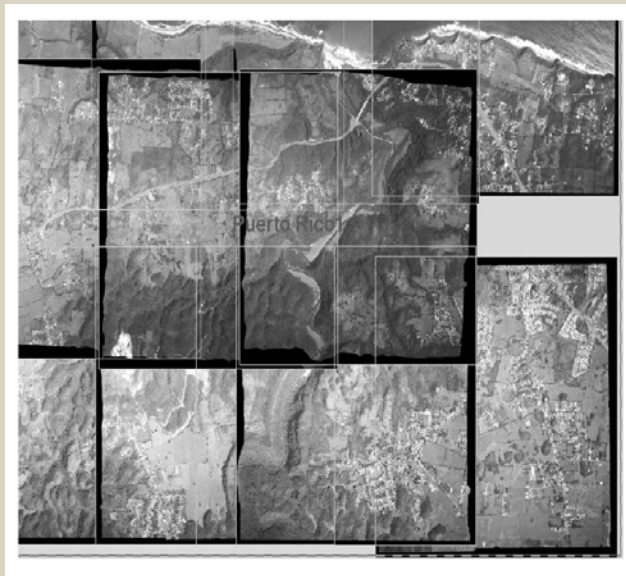
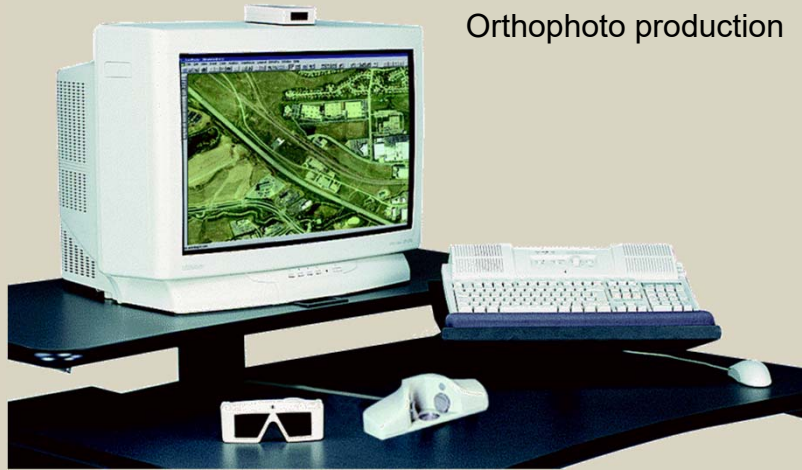
$$\text{Photo } x = x_0 - f [ m_{11}(X_p - X_L) + m_{21}(Y_p - Y_L) + m_{31}(-Z_L) ] \dots$$

Where  $m_{11} = \cos\phi \cdot \cos\kappa$ ,  $m_{21} = -\cos\phi \cdot \sin\kappa$ , etc.

The idea is the same – photo measurements are used with knowledge of flying height, ground height, and now tilt ( $\omega$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $\kappa$ ) to calculate and remove displacement.

## Softcopy Photogrammetric Workstations

Orthophoto production



An orthophotograph or orthoimage – tilt/terrain distortion removed



Besides geometric fidelity, we are also interested in the photo information content

How do we interpret the photographs?

Select a photographic system appropriate to the task,

i.e., scale, coverage, time of year, and film type which best renders the details of interests

## Scale

Without magnification, you are stuck at about 2 - 3 mm

To identify individual trees -10 m across

without magnification scale = 2 mm / 10,000 mm, or about 1:5,000

## Coverage

Scale and format determines area per photo,

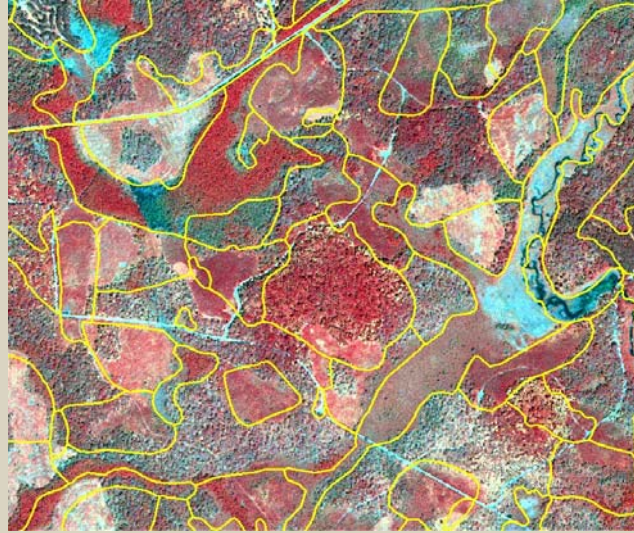
e.g. 9" photo @ 1:10,000 scale yields photos which contain 7,500 feet on edge

$9" = 0.75 \text{ ft} * 10,000 \text{ ground feet/photo feet}$

$= 7,500 \text{ ft}$

## Photo Interpretation

This is the process of identifying and mapping the features that appear on the photos



Use characteristics of the objects observed, plus knowledge of acquisition (scale, time of year, film type) to identify features

Characteristics used include:

- Shape
- Size
- Color (or tone)
- Texture
- Shadows
- and Context

## Satellite Images

### Advantages

- High view, little relief displacement
- Ultra-stable satellites, little tilt distortion
- Extended spectral range, from radar to far infra-red
- Low cost per unit area (for large study areas)
- Digital images, which may be easily enhanced, integrated into a GIS

## Satellite Images

### Disadvantages

- Limited acquisition flexibility, fixed schedules
- Expensive for small areas, due to fixed frame size
- Limited scale/resolution
- Requires sophisticated, moderately expensive systems to take advantage of digital image



## Different resolutions

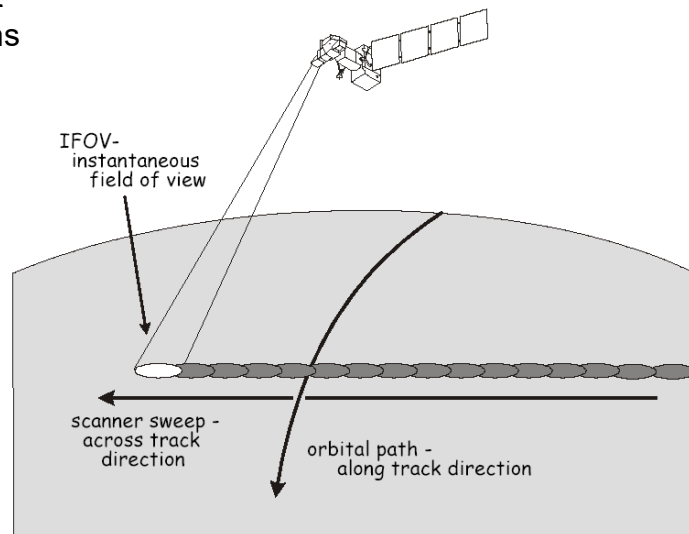


Figure 6-17: A point scanning system, as aboard Landsat. The scanner sweeps an instantaneous field of view (IFOV) in an across-track direction to record a multispectral response. Subsequent sweeps in an along-track direction are captured as the satellite moves forward along the orbital path.

## Systems

### Ikonos, Quickbird

Ikonos: 1 meter panchromatic and 4 meter visible / infrared (1-3 day revisit)

Quickbird: 0.65 (panchromatic) to 2.44 meter (3-band color) resolution (Three to five day repeat visit)

Images 10 to 30 km on a side

### Spot

Panchromatic, 2.5 to 10 m resolution

3-band color, 5 to 20 m resolution

Returns from every 5 to 26 days, depending on requirements and latitude

Image 60 km on a side

### Thematic Mapper (TM)

7 bands, 30 m resolution

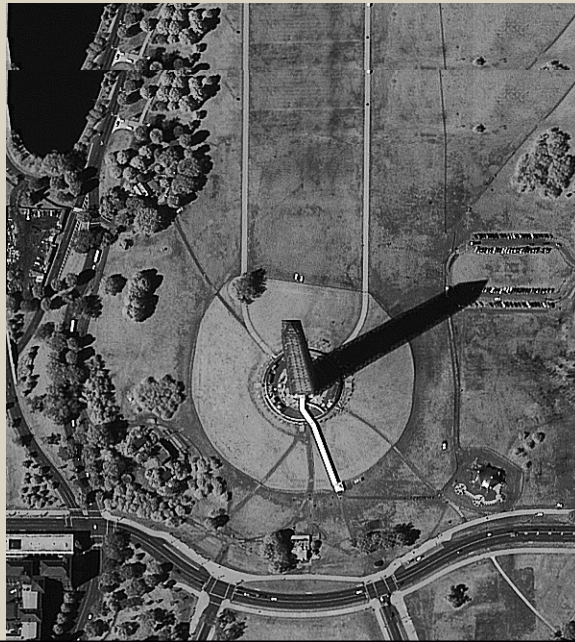
Return time of 16 days

Image approximately 185 km on a side

## High-Resolution Satellite Systems

### IKONOS (1999)

High resolution  
system  
680 km orbit  
Revisit times are  
typically 1- 3 days  
1 meter  
panchromatic  
4 meter  
visible/infrared  
Scan width of 13 km  
– pointable.



### Quickbird (2000)

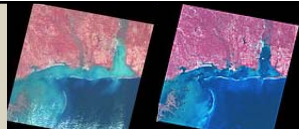
61 cm (2 foot)  
pan.  
2.44 meter  
multispectral  
Image side 16.5  
km  
1-3 day revisit



## Primary Uses for High Resolution Satellite Data

- On-screen digitizing – similar to aerial photographs
- Infrastructure mapping (roads, etc.)
- Detail landuse mapping
- Topographic mapping
- Disaster assessment (fire, hurricane, flooding)
- Habitat and other mapping

## Landsat

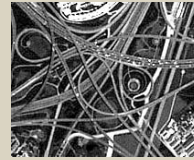


Sensor	Mission	Sensitivity ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Spatial Resolution (m)
RBV	1, 2	0.475 - 0.575	80
		0.580 - 0.680	80
		0.690 - 0.830	80
		0.505 - 0.750	30
MSS	1- 5	0.5 - 0.6	79 / 82
		0.6 - 0.7	79 / 82
		0.7 - 0.8	79 / 82
		0.8 - 1.1	79 / 82
		10.4 - 12.6	240
TM	4, 5	0.45 - 0.52	30
		0.52 - 0.60	30
		0.63 - 0.69	30
		0.76 - 0.90	30
		1.55 - 1.75	30
		10.4 - 12.5	120
		2.08 - 2.35	30
ETM <sup>c</sup>	6	above TM bands plus 0.50 - 0.90	30 (120 m thermal band) 15
ETM+	7	above TM bands plus 0.50 - 0.90	30 (60 m thermal band) 15

Lillesand et al. – Remote sensing and imaging interpretation 2007

# SPOT

Mission	Launched	High Res. Instruments	Spectral bands (µm)	Spatial Resolution (m)
1 - 3	21-Feb-86	2 HRVIs	1 pan (0.51 – 0.73)	10
	21-Jan-90		Green (0.50 - 0.59)	20
	25-Sep-93		Red (0.61 – 0.68) NIR (0.79 – 0.89)	20
4	23-Mar-98	2 HRVIRS And vegetation instrument (VI)	1 pan	10
			Blue (VI only) (0.43 – 0.47)	1000
			Green (HRVIR only)	20 / 1000
			Red (HRVIR / VI)	20 / 1000
			NIR (HRVIR / VI)	20 / 1000
			Mid IR (HRVIR / VI) (1.58 – 1.75)	20 / 1000
5	3-May-02	2 HRGs, 1 HRS, and 1 VI	Pan (HRG / HRS) (0.48 – 0.71 / 0.49 – 0.69)	2.5 or 5 / 5 or 10
			Blue (HRS only) (0.45 – 0.52)	1000
			Green (HRG only) (0.50 – 0.59)	10 / 1000
			Red (HRG / HRS) (0.61 – 0.68)	10 / 1000
			NIR (HRG / HRS) (0.78 – 0.89)	10 / 1000
			Mid IR (HRG / HRS) (1.58 – 1.75)	20 / 1000



Lillesand et al. – Remote sensing and imaging interpretation 2007

## Medium Resolution Sensing Systems

Landsat Thematic Mapper (TM, ETM+)

7 spectral bands

30 meter resolution multispectral, 15 meter panchromatic

16-day repeat cycle – data since 1984

Historical importance, new collections difficult

Multispectral Scanner (MSS)

4 spectral bands

80 meter resolution

16-day repeat cycle – data since 1972

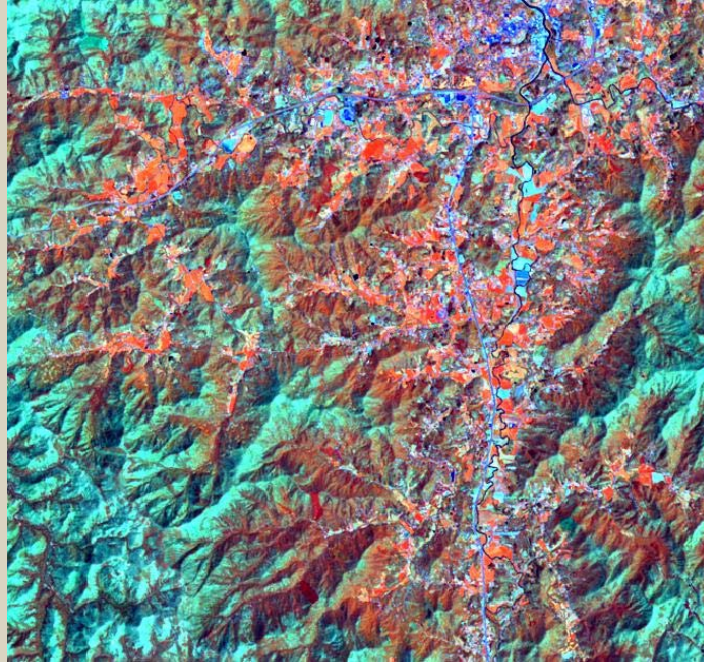
SPOT – coarse modes

5 spectral bands

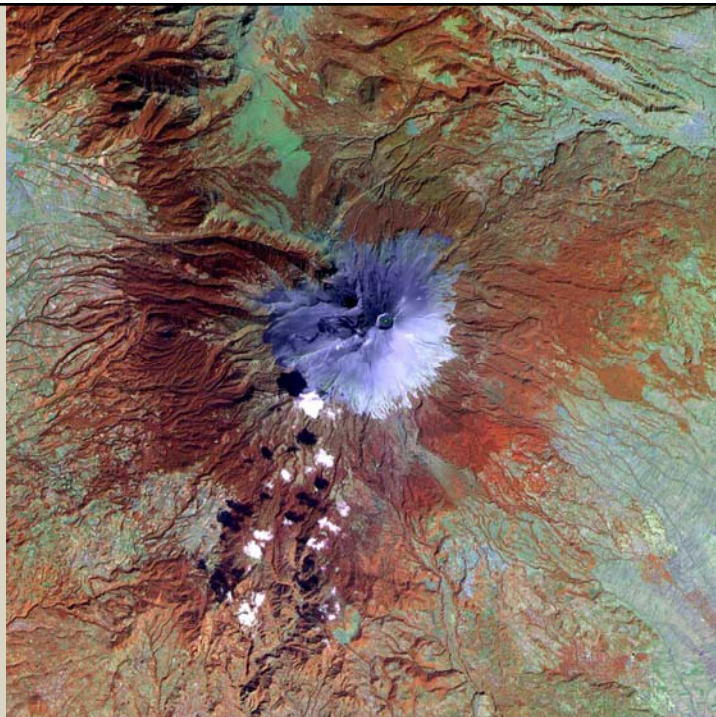
10 to 20 meter resolution

1-3 day repeat cycle

TM  
Data –  
Good for  
regional,  
some  
local  
analyses  
– typically  
can't  
distinguish  
objects  
smaller  
than 25  
meters  
wide



SPOT 20  
meter  
More detail  
than Landsat,  
but smaller  
imaged area



## COARSE RESOLUTION LAND SENSORS

### AVHRR (since the 1970s)

Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer

5 spectral bands

1.1 km resolution

12 hour repeat cycle

### MODIS

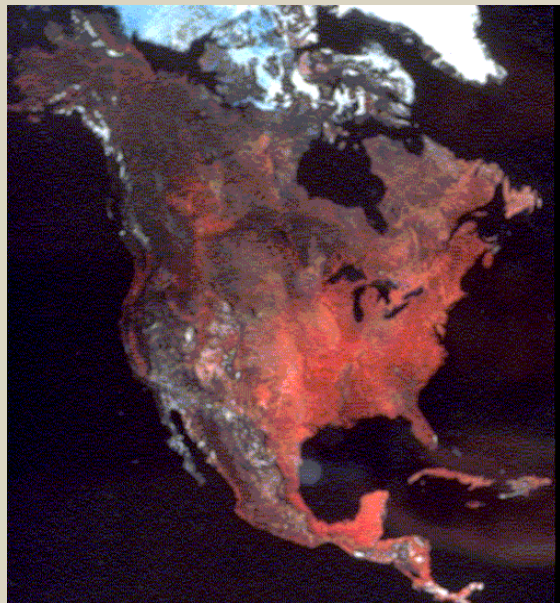
Moderate Resolution Imaging Sensor

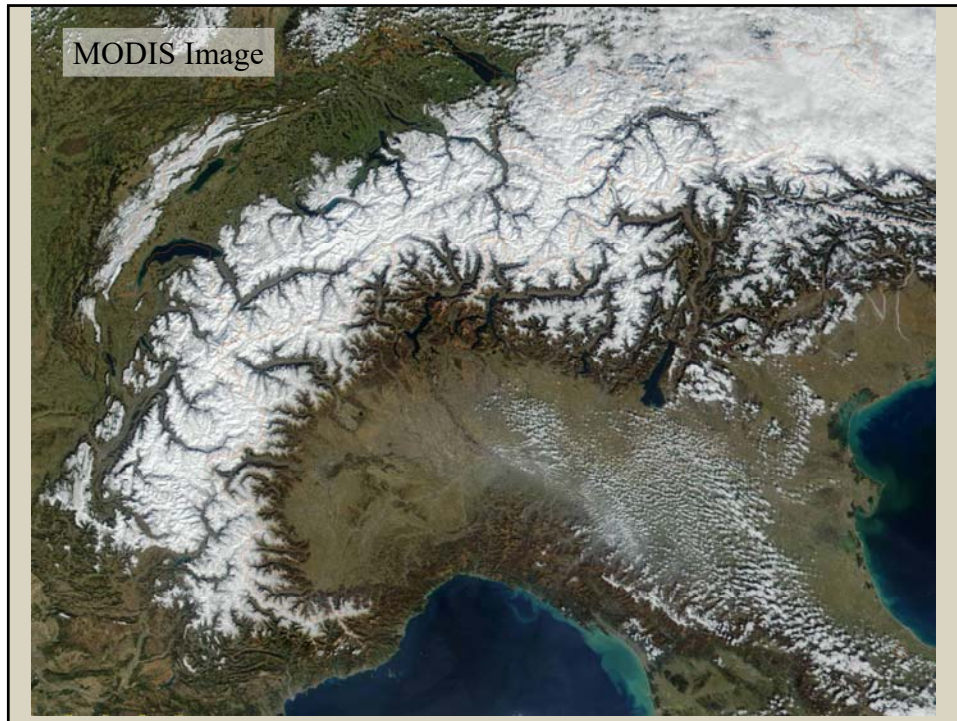
36 spectral bands

1 km, 500m and 250 m resolutions

1 to 2 day repeat cycle

**NOAA  
AVHRR  
Imagery**

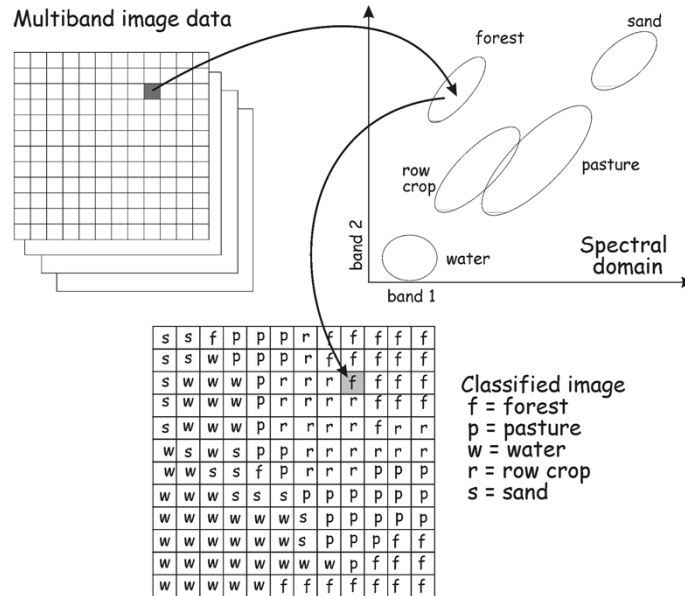




### Most common useful applications

- Landcover mapping, large areas  
*e.g., wetlands, urban, forest*
- Disaster evaluation, management
- Crop monitoring
- Change detection (*for example, deforestation*)
- Snow monitoring, runoff estimation
- Geologic prospecting
- Vegetation health monitoring

## Image Classification from Multispectral Data



## Satellite vs. Photos – Which to Use?

### Satellites

- Lower detail (barely)
- Expanded spectrum
- Inherently digital
- Stable platform
- Higher flight path
- Inexpensive for large areas

### Aerial Photos

- Higher detail
- Less expensive for small areas
- Flexible repeat time
- Fly under clouds
- Simple handling