Polarimetric Passive Remote Sensing of Ocean Surface

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Polarimetric Passive Remote Sensing of Ocean Surface

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In the microwave remote sensing of ocean surface, the use of polarimetric passive techniques has shown potential for enhancing the retrieval of wind speed and directions [1]. Recent theoretical and experimental research activities have concentrated on studies of polarimetric thermal emissions regarding the anisotropic ocean surface assuming a smoothly varying surface profile [1, 2, 3, 4]. However, under high wind conditions, the presence of breaking water waves, foam patches and bubbles will affect the polarimetric brightness temperatures of the plain ocean surface. The significance of foam on the ocean surface was recognized a long time ago [5], and several subsequent experiments performed have verified its importance [6, 7]. Previous studies of the foam contribution to the emissivity of ocean surface were based on empirical formulations [8, 9] derived from experimental data. Although several attempts at theoretically modeling the foam have been presented [10, 11], it is difficult to incorporate them with rough ocean surface. The more realistic modeling for foam-covered ocean surface has been proposed by Huang et al. [12], who consider the sea foam to be a layer with water particles over a rough sea surface.

However, it is not suited to model the sea foam as the layer of spherical water particles, since the sea foam is dominated by water bubbles [13]. In this chapter, we present the theoretical study on the polarimetric thermal emissions from foam-covered ocean surface based on a composite volume and rough surface scattering model using the radiative transfer theory. We model the locally foam-covered ocean surface as a random layer with water bubbles over a rough sea surface. The small perturbation method (SPM) is used for random rough ocean surface, where the bistatic scattering is calculated up to the second order. The radiative transfer equations for foam layer are solved using an iterative technique. The model predictions are compared with measurement data [14].
1 Introduction

In the microwave remote sensing of ocean surface, the use of polarimetric passive techniques has shown potential for enhancing the retrieval of wind speed and directions [1]. Recent theoretical and experimental research activities have concentrated on studies of polarimetric thermal emissions regarding the anisotropic ocean surface assuming a smoothly varying surface profile [1, 2, 3, 4]. However, under high wind conditions, the presence of breaking water waves, foam patches and bubbles will affect the polarimetric brightness temperatures of the plain ocean surface. The significance of foam on the ocean surface was recognized a long time ago [5], and several subsequent experiments performed have verified its importance [6, 7]. Previous studies of the foam contribution to the emissivity of ocean surface were based on empirical formulations [8, 9] derived from experimental data. Although several attempts at theoretically modeling the foam have been presented [10, 11], it is difficult to incorporate them with rough ocean surface. The more realistic modeling for foam-covered ocean surface has been proposed by Huang et al. [12], who consider the sea foam to be a layer with water particles over a rough sea surface.

However, it is not suited to model the sea foam as the layer of spherical water particles, since the sea foam is dominated by water bubbles [13]. In this chapter, we present the theoretical study on the polarimetric thermal emissions from foam-covered ocean surface based on a composite volume and rough surface scattering model using the radiative transfer theory. We model the locally foam-covered ocean surface as a random layer with water bubbles. The small perturbation method (SPM) is used for random rough ocean surface, where the bistatic scattering is calculated up to the second order. The radiative transfer equations for foam layer are solved using an iterative technique. The model predictions are compared with measurement data [14].

2 Formulations for Foam Emission

2.1 RT Equations for Foam Layer

Sea-foam is made of spray, small water droplets and air bubbles which are generated by wind tearing and further processions such as bubble production, bubble downward entrainment, and droplet produced by bubble bursting as illustrated in Fig. (1) [13]. Since the thermal emission from sea-foam is dominated by water bubbles, we simplify the sea-foam as a water bubble layer as shown in Fig. (2). For simplicity, the top surface of the foam layer is considered to be a flat surface. Above the foam layer (region 1) is a half free space that is labeled as region 0 with $\varepsilon_0, \mu_0$. The foam layer is specified by a foam thickness $d_1$, the inner bubble radius $R$, bubble film thickness $\delta$ and permittivity $\varepsilon_1$, the fractional volume $f_b$ of bubbles, the extinction coefficient $\kappa_\varepsilon$, and the temperature profile $T(z)$. The background of the foam layer is considered to be free space with $\varepsilon_0, \mu_0$. The sea water (region 2) is in the lower
Spray produced by wind tearing

Droplet produced by bubble bursting

Bubble production

Bubble downward entrainment

Figure 1: The generation of sea-foam.

Half space with permittivity $\varepsilon_2$, salinity $S$, and physical temperature $T_0$. The foam coverage is denoted by $F$, thus the coverage of the plain ocean surface is $1 - F$.

In the foam layer, the radiative transfer equation [15, page 229] is given by

$$
\cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} \bar{I}(\theta, \phi, z) = -\bar{K}_e(\theta, \phi) \cdot \bar{I}(\theta, \phi, z) + \int \frac{d\Omega'}{4\pi} \bar{P}(\theta, \phi, \theta', \phi') \cdot \bar{I}(\theta', \phi', z) + \bar{I}_T(\theta, \phi, z),
$$

(1)

where $\bar{P}(\theta, \phi, \theta', \phi')$ is the phase matrix which is derived by using Mie theory in Appendix A. The phase matrix provides the contributions to the specific intensity $\bar{I}(\theta, \phi, z)$ in the direction $(\theta, \phi)$ from the direction $(\theta', \phi')$. $\bar{K}_e$ is the extinction tensor.
In this thesis, the specific intensity with the unit of W/m$^2$ is defined as

$$I(\theta, \phi, z) = \frac{1}{\eta} \begin{bmatrix} \langle |E_e|^2 \rangle \\ \langle |E_h|^2 \rangle \\ 2 \text{Re} \langle E_v E_h^* \rangle \\ 2 \text{Im} \langle E_v E_h^* \rangle \end{bmatrix},$$

(2)

where $\eta = \sqrt{\mu_0/\varepsilon_0}$ is the free space impedance. $I_T(\theta, \phi, z)$ is the intensity of the physical temperature and it is written as $I_T(\theta, \phi, z) = \overline{\kappa}_a(\theta, \phi)CT(z)$. In this expression, $\overline{\kappa}_a$ is the absorption coefficient vector, $C = K_B/\lambda^2$ where $K_B$ is the Boltzmann constant ($K_B = 1.380658 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K) and $\lambda$ is the electromagnetic wavelength. We assume that the scatterers are bubbles and the absorption is isotropic, thus

$$\overline{\kappa}_a = \kappa_a [1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0]^T.$$

(3)

As mentioned in the previous section, the foam layer is modeled as the composition of spherical water bubbles randomly distributed in the foam layer, therefore the extinction coefficient $\overline{\kappa}_e(\theta, \phi)$ is a scalar, i.e., $\overline{\kappa}_e(\theta, \phi) = \kappa_e$. The formulations of calculating $\kappa_e$ and $\kappa_a$ are provided in Appendix A. We assume that the temperature $T(z)$ in the foam layer is independent of elevation and it is equal to the temperature of the sea water, i.e., $T(z) = T_0$. Thus

$$I_T(\theta, \phi, z) = \overline{\kappa}_a(\theta, \phi)CT_0.$$

(4)

Define the new specific intensities for $0 \leq \theta < \pi/2$ as

$$I_u(\theta, \phi, z) = I(\theta, \phi, z),$$

(5)

$$I_d(\theta, \phi, z) = I(\pi - \theta, \phi, z),$$

(6)

$$I_{Tu}(\theta, \phi, z) = I_T(\theta, \phi, z),$$

(7)

$$I_{Td}(\theta, \phi, z) = I_T(\pi - \theta, \phi, z),$$

(8)

the RT equation (1) is split into two:

$$\cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} I_u(\theta, \phi, z) = -\kappa_e I_u(\theta, \phi, z) + \int d\Omega \overline{P}(\theta, \phi, \theta', \phi') \cdot I_u(\theta', \phi', z) \bigg|_{\text{upper } 2\pi}$$

$$+ \int d\Omega \overline{P}(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot I_d(\theta', \phi', z) + I_{Tu}(\theta, \phi),$$

(9)

$$-\cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} I_d(\theta, \phi, z) = -\kappa_e I_d(\theta, \phi, z) + \int d\Omega' \overline{P}(\pi - \theta, \phi, \theta', \phi') \cdot I_u(\theta', \phi', z) \bigg|_{\text{upper } 2\pi}$$

$$+ \int d\Omega' \overline{P}(\pi - \theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot I_d(\theta', \phi', z) + I_{Td}(\theta, \phi).$$

(10)
We assume that the thickness of the foam layer is much larger than the penetration depth of the electromagnetic wave. Under this assumption, there is no returned wave from the bottom of the foam layer. Thus the boundary conditions are:

\begin{align*}
\text{on the upper boundary } (z = d_1) \\
\overline{I}_d(\theta, \phi, d_1) = \overline{I}_d^A(\theta, \phi, d_1),
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{on the lower boundary } (z = 0) \\
\overline{I}_u(\theta, \phi, 0) = 0,
\end{align*}

where $\overline{I}_d^A(\theta, \phi, d_1)$ is the specific intensity of the atmospheric layer.

\subsection*{2.2 Solution of the RT Equation}

To solve the RT equations (9) and (10), the iterative and numerical methods can be used. The iterative method is applied to scattering problems with small absorption which is the case for the foam layer, while the numerical method can be applied for strong absorption problems.

In the iterative method of solving the RT equations, we consider the integral terms as known from the lower order solutions, thus the RT equations for each step are in the form of an ordinary differential equation (ODE). The general form of the first order ODE is written as

\begin{equation}
\frac{dy(z)}{dz} + f(z)y(z) = g(z),
\end{equation}

with the boundary condition $y(z_0) = y_0$. The solution of the ODE is

\begin{equation}
y(z) = \left[ \int_0^z g(z') e^{\int_{z'}^z f(z'')dz''} dz' + y_0 \right] e^{\int_0^z f(z')dz'}. \tag{14}\end{equation}

The zeroth order RT solution

To solve the RT equations for the zeroth order, we first ignore the scattering by assuming $\overline{P} = 0$. Thus we obtain

\begin{align*}
\cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} \overline{I}_u^{(0)}(\theta, \phi, z) &= -\kappa_e \overline{I}_u^{(0)}(\theta, \phi, z) + \overline{I}_T u(\theta, \phi), \\
- \cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} \overline{I}_d^{(0)}(\theta, \phi, z) &= -\kappa_e \overline{I}_d^{(0)}(\theta, \phi, z) + \overline{I}_T d(\theta, \phi),
\end{align*}

with the boundary conditions

\begin{equation}
\overline{I}_d^{(0)}(\theta, \phi, d_1) = \overline{I}_d^A(\theta, \phi, d_1), \tag{17}\end{equation}
From the formula of the general solution (14) of the first order ODE, the zeroth order solutions of the RT equations (9) and (10) can be derived as follows:

\[ T_u^{(0)}(\theta, \phi, z) = T_{Tu}(\theta, \phi) \frac{1 - e^{-z \sec \theta \kappa_e}}{\kappa_e}, \]

(19)

\[ T_d^{(0)}(\theta, \phi, z) = T_{Td}(\theta, \phi) \frac{1 - e^{-(d_1 - z) \sec \theta \kappa_e}}{\kappa_e} + T_{dA}(\theta, \phi, d_1)e^{-(d_1 - z) \sec \theta \kappa_e}. \]

(20)

The first order RT solution

Plugging the zeroth order solutions (19) and (20) into the RT equations (9) and (10), and defining the terms from the zeroth order solutions as follows:

\[ \bar{T}_{Tu}^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z) = \int_{\text{upper 2}\pi} d\Omega' \bar{P}(\theta, \phi, \theta', \phi') \cdot T_u^{(0)}(\theta', \phi', z) \]

\[ + \int_{\text{lower 2}\pi} d\Omega' \bar{P}(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot T_d^{(0)}(\theta', \phi', z) + T_{Tu}(\theta, \phi), \]

(21)

\[ \bar{T}_{Td}^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z) = \int_{\text{upper 2}\pi} d\Omega' \bar{P}(\pi - \theta, \phi, \theta', \phi') \cdot T_u^{(0)}(\theta', \phi', z) \]

\[ + \int_{\text{lower 2}\pi} d\Omega' \bar{P}(\pi - \theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot T_d^{(0)}(\theta', \phi', z) + T_{Td}(\theta, \phi), \]

(22)

we set up the first order RT equations as

\[ \cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} T_u^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z) = -\kappa_e T_u^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z) + \bar{T}_{Tu}^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z), \]

(23)

\[ -\cos \theta \frac{d}{dz} T_d^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z) = -\kappa_e T_d^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z) + \bar{T}_{Td}^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z), \]

(24)

with the boundary conditions

\[ T_d^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, d_1) = \bar{T}_{dA}(\theta, \phi, d_1), \]

(25)

\[ T_u^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, 0) = 0. \]

(26)

Again by using the general solution (14) of the ODE, the solutions of the first order RT equations are obtained as

\[ T_u^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z) = \left[ \int_0^z \sec \theta \bar{T}_{Tu}^{(1)}(\theta, \phi, z') e^{z' \sec \theta \kappa_e} dz' \right] e^{-z \sec \theta \kappa_e}, \]

(27)
The specific intensity in the foam layer we are interested in is the up-going intensity at \( z = d_1 \). By integrating over the elevation in Eq. (27), the first order intensity of the up-going wave at the top of the foam layer can be written as

\[
\overline{I}^{(1)}_{u}(\theta, \phi, d_1) = \overline{I}_{Tu}(\theta, \phi) \frac{1 - e^{-d_1 \sec \theta \kappa_e}}{\kappa_e} \]

\[ + \sec \theta \int_{\text{upper } 2\pi} d\Omega' \overline{\overline{P}}(\theta, \phi, \theta', \phi') \cdot \overline{I}_{Tu}(\theta', \phi') \frac{1}{\kappa_e^2} \]

\[ \left( \frac{1 - e^{-d_1 \sec \theta \kappa_e}}{\sec \theta} - \frac{e^{-d_1 \sec \theta' \kappa_e} - e^{-d_1 \sec \theta \kappa_e}}{\sec \theta - \sec \theta'} \right) \]

\[ + \sec \theta \int_{\text{lower } 2\pi} d\Omega' \overline{\overline{P}}(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot \overline{I}_{Td}(\theta', \phi') \frac{1}{\kappa_e^2} \]

\[ \left( \frac{1 - e^{-d_1 \sec \theta \kappa_e}}{\sec \theta} - \frac{1 - e^{-d_1 (\sec \theta + \sec \theta') \kappa_e}}{\sec \theta + \sec \theta'} \right) \]

\[ + \sec \theta \int_{\text{lower } 2\pi} d\Omega' \overline{\overline{P}}(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot \overline{I}^A_d(\theta', \phi', d_1) \]

\[ \frac{1 - e^{-d_1 (\sec \theta + \sec \theta') \kappa_e}}{(\sec \theta + \sec \theta') \kappa_e}. \]

Assuming \( d_1 \kappa_e \gg 1 \), the Stokes vector of the thick foam layer is given as follows

\[
\overline{I}^{AF}_u(\theta, \phi, d_1) \approx \overline{I}^{(1)}_{u}(\theta, \phi, d_1) \]

\[ \approx \overline{I}_{Tu}(\theta, \phi) \frac{1}{\kappa_e} + \int_{\text{upper } 2\pi} d\Omega' \overline{\overline{P}}(\theta, \phi, \theta', \phi') \cdot \overline{I}_{Tu}(\theta', \phi') \frac{1}{\kappa_e^2} \]

\[ \left( \frac{1 - e^{-d_1 \sec \theta \kappa_e}}{\sec \theta} \right) \left( \frac{\sec \theta}{\sec \theta + \sec \theta'} \right) \]

\[ + \int_{\text{lower } 2\pi} d\Omega' \overline{\overline{P}}(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot \overline{I}_{Td}(\theta', \phi') \frac{1}{\kappa_e^2} \]

\[ \left( \frac{1 - e^{-d_1 (\sec \theta + \sec \theta') \kappa_e}}{\sec \theta + \sec \theta'} \right) \]

\[ + \int_{\text{lower } 2\pi} d\Omega' \overline{\overline{P}}(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot \overline{I}^A_d(\theta', \phi', d_1) \frac{\sec \theta}{(\sec \theta + \sec \theta') \kappa_e}; \]

where the first term denotes the direct emission due to the physical temperature of the foam layer, the second and the third term are the scattering of emission by the scatterers in the foam layer, and the fourth term is the scattering of the atmospheric emission. Notice that the up-going and down-going specific intensities due to the physical temperature in the foam layer are direction independent and they are given
by

$$I_{Tu}(\theta, \phi) = I_{Td}(\theta, \phi) = \bar{\kappa}_0 CT_o = \kappa_0 CT_o$$ \hspace{1cm} (31)

2.3 Foam Coverage

Let the foam coverage be \( F \), thus the total brightness temperature is \[8\]

$$T_u^T(\theta, \phi, d_1) = F \cdot T_u^{AF}(\theta, \phi, 0) + (1 - F) \cdot T_u^{AS}(\theta, \phi, 0), \hspace{1cm} (32)$$

where \( T_u^{AF}(\theta, \phi, d_1) \) is the emission of the 100% foam as in Eq. (30), and \( T_u^{AS}(\theta, \phi, 0) \) is the emission of the plain ocean surface with the consideration of the reflection of atmospheric emission that will be discussed in the following sections. Notice that, at this stage, we only consider the emission at the zero elevation height \((z = 0)\). We need to consider atmospheric attenuation and radiation if we calculate the total brightness temperature at the height of the radiometer \((z = d_2)\). The empirical formula of the foam coverage \( F \) as the function of the wind speed \( U_w \), the polar angle \( \theta \), and the operating frequency \( f \) was provided by Stogryn \[8\] and later used by Pandey \[9\] among others. The foam coverage is expressed as \[8\]

$$F = b_0 + b_1 U_w + b_2 U_w^2,$$ \hspace{1cm} (33)

where the coefficients \( b_0, b_1 \) and \( b_2 \) are frequency dependent, and they are given by

\[
\begin{align*}
   b_0 &= 1.707 \times 10^{-2} + 8.560 \times 10^{-4} f + 1.120 \times 10^{-5} f^2, \\
   b_1 &= -1.501 \times 10^{-2} + 1.821 \times 10^{-3} f - 4.634 \times 10^{-5} f^2, \\
   b_2 &= 2.442 \times 10^{-4} - 2.282 \times 10^{-6} f + 4.194 \times 10^{-7} f^2.
\end{align*}
\] \hspace{1cm} (34)

In (33) and (34), the units of the wind speed and the frequency are m/s and GHz, respectively.

3 Thermal Emission from Plain Ocean Surface

In local regions without foam, the thermal emission from the ocean surface is the sum of the reflection of the atmospheric emission and the thermal emission from the plain ocean surface, i.e.,

$$T_u^{AS}(\theta, \phi, 0) = \int_{\text{lower } 2\pi} d\Omega^R(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot T_d^A(\theta', \phi', 0) + T_u^S(\theta, \phi, 0), \hspace{1cm} (35)$$

where \( R \) is the reflection matrix of the rough sea surface, \( T_d^A(\theta', \phi', 0) \) is the thermal emission of the atmosphere, and \( T_u^S \) is the thermal emission of the plain ocean surface.
The details of calculating the atmospheric emission $T_d^A(\theta', \phi', 0)$ will be discussed in Section 3.2.

Considering that the ocean water is in thermal equilibrium, the Stokes vector is related to the emissivity $\tilde{e}$ by

$$T_u^s(\theta, \phi, 0) = \frac{K_B}{\lambda^2} \tilde{e}(\theta, \phi) T_s,$$

where $T_s$ is the physical temperature of the rough ocean surface. By Kirchhoff’s law, the emissivity vector $\tilde{e}(\theta, \phi)$ is the intensity of incident wave with unit amplitude minus the total intensity of the reflected waves,

$$\tilde{e}(\theta, \phi) = \tilde{I}_i - \int \tilde{I}_r(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i; 0) d\Omega_i,$$

where

$$\tilde{I}_i = \frac{1}{\eta} \begin{bmatrix} |E_{vi}|^2 \\ |E_{hi}|^2 \\ 2 \text{Re} \langle E_{vi} \bar{E}_{hi}^* \rangle \\ 2 \text{Im} \langle E_{vi} \bar{E}_{hi}^* \rangle \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}. $$

(38)

The amplitude of the $v$ and $h$-polarized incident electric fields is unity, and $\tilde{I}_r$ is the reflection Stokes vector of the plane wave with incident angles $\theta_i$ and $\phi_i$.

### 3.1 Stokes Vector of Reflected Wave

We apply the small perturbation method (SPM) to calculate the reflection matrix $\bar{R}$ of the rough surface and then calculate the reflection Stokes vector $\bar{I}_r$. The reflection Stokes vector can be written as

$$\bar{I}_r(\theta, \phi, \theta_i, \phi_i; 0) = \bar{R}(\theta, \phi, \theta_i, \phi_i) \cdot \bar{I}_i(\theta_i, \phi_i; 0),$$

(39)

where $\bar{R}$ is the reflection matrix for the Stokes vector.

In the zeroth order SPM solution, the scattered field is specular and is equivalent to the flat-surface scattering problem; thus the reflection coefficients of the zeroth order solution are the Fresnel reflection coefficients. Using the ensemble average, the second order solution from SPM is also specular. Therefore we call both the zeroth and second-order terms coherent. The averaged field of the first order solution by SPM is zero, hence it is incoherent. By including solutions up to the second order using SPM, the reflection matrix is the sum of coherent and incoherent parts, $\bar{R}$ and $\bar{R}^i$, respectively, so that

$$\bar{R} = \bar{R}^c + \bar{R}^i.$$  

(40)

Since the scattered field from the zeroth and second order SPM solutions is specular, the coherent reflection matrix of the Stokes vector can be written as

$$\bar{R}^c(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta_i, \phi_i) = \left[ R_{ij}^c \right] \delta(\cos \theta - \cos \theta_i) \delta(\phi - \phi_i)$$

9
Note that the subscripts $i$ and $j$ are associated with the scattered and incident components of the Stokes vector, respectively. The element $R^c_{ij}$ ($i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4$) is related to the reflection coefficient $R^{\alpha\beta}_{\alpha\beta}$ with subscripts $\alpha, \beta = v, h$, where

$$
\begin{bmatrix}
E^c_{vs} \\
E^c_{hs}
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
R^c_{vv}(\theta_i, \phi_i) & R^c_{vh}(\theta_i, \phi_i) \\
R^c_{hv}(\theta_i, \phi_i) & R^c_{hh}(\theta_i, \phi_i)
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
E_v \\
E_h
\end{bmatrix},
$$

and the subscript $v$ and $h$ represent vertically and horizontally polarized waves, respectively. By writing

$$
\mathcal{T}_u = \frac{1}{\eta}
\begin{bmatrix}
|E^c_{vs}|^2 \\
|E^c_{hs}|^2 \\
2\text{Re}\{E^c_{vs}E^{*c}_{vs}\} \\
2\text{Im}\{E^c_{vs}E^{*c}_{hs}\}
\end{bmatrix},
$$

and expressing $E^c_{vs}$ and $E^c_{hs}$ in terms of $E^c_{vi}$ and $E^c_{hi}$ using Eq. (42), it can be shown that

$$
\mathcal{T}_u = [R^c_{ij}] \cdot \mathcal{T}_i,
$$

where

$$
[R^c_{ij}] =
\begin{bmatrix}
|R^c_{vv}|^2 & |R^c_{vh}|^2 & \text{Re}(R^c_{vv}R^{*c}_{vh}) & -\text{Im}(R^c_{vv}R^{*c}_{vh}) \\
|R^c_{hv}|^2 & |R^c_{hh}|^2 & \text{Re}(R^c_{hv}R^{*c}_{hh}) & -\text{Im}(R^c_{hv}R^{*c}_{hh}) \\
2\text{Re}(R^c_{vv}R^{*c}_{hv}) & 2\text{Re}(R^c_{vh}R^{*c}_{hh}) & \text{Re}(R^c_{vv}R^{*c}_{hv} + R^c_{vh}R^{*c}_{hh}) & -\text{Im}(R^c_{vv}R^{*c}_{hv} + R^c_{vh}R^{*c}_{hh}) \\
2\text{Im}(R^c_{vv}R^{*c}_{hv}) & 2\text{Im}(R^c_{vh}R^{*c}_{hh}) & \text{Im}(R^c_{vv}R^{*c}_{hv} + R^c_{vh}R^{*c}_{hh}) & \text{Re}(R^c_{vv}R^{*c}_{hv} - R^c_{vh}R^{*c}_{hh})
\end{bmatrix},
$$

and the incident Stokes vector $\mathcal{T}_i$ is defined as in Eq. (38). Using SPM, $R^c_{\alpha\beta}$ ($\alpha, \beta = v, h$) can be obtained as

$$
R^c_{\alpha\beta} =
\begin{bmatrix}
R^{(0)}_{\alpha\beta} + R^{(2)}_{\alpha\beta} \\
R^{(0)}_{\alpha\beta} + R^{(2)}_{\alpha\beta}
\end{bmatrix},
$$

where the zeroth order $R^{(0)}_{\alpha\beta}$ is the Fresnel reflection coefficient of a flat surface, which is given by

$$
\begin{align}
R^{(0)}_{vv} &= \frac{\epsilon_2 k_{1z} - \epsilon_1 k_{2z}}{\epsilon_2 k_{2z} + \epsilon_1 k_{1z}}, \\
R^{(0)}_{hv} &= \frac{\epsilon_2 k_{1z} + \epsilon_1 k_{2z}}{\epsilon_2 k_{2z} - \epsilon_1 k_{1z}}, \\
R^{(0)}_{hh} &= \frac{k_{1z} + k_{2z}}{k_{2z} - k_{1z}}, \\
R^{(0)}_{vh} &= R^{(0)}_{hv} = 0.
\end{align}
$$
The second order reflection coefficient \( R_{a\beta}^{(2)} \) is given by

\[
R_{a\beta}^{(2)} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk_x dk_y W(k_{xi} - k_x, k_{yi} - k_y) f_{a\beta}^{(2)},
\]

(47)

where \( W(k_{xi} - k_x, k_{yi} - k_y) \) is the spectral density function of the rough ocean surface, and \( f_{a\beta}^{(2)} \) is the second-order scattering coefficient as in [1].

The incoherent reflection matrix \( \overline{R}^i (\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) \) can be calculated by considering the first order SPM solution. By expressing the scattering fields as

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
E_{us} \\
E_{hs}
\end{bmatrix} = \frac{e^{ikr}}{r} \begin{bmatrix}
 f_{uv}(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) & f_{vh}(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) \\
 f_{hv}(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) & f_{hh}(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i)
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
 E_{vi} \\
 E_{hi}
\end{bmatrix},
\]

(48)

where \( f_{a\beta}(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) \) is the polarimetric scattering coefficient \((\alpha, \beta = h, v)\), the reflection matrix can be calculated by [16]

\[
\overline{R}^i = \frac{1}{A \cos \theta} \overline{L}^i,
\]

(49)

where

\[
\overline{L}^i (\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) =
\begin{bmatrix}
\langle |f_{uv}|^2 \rangle & \langle |f_{vh}|^2 \rangle & \text{Re} \langle (f_{uv} f_{vh}^*) \rangle & -\text{Im} \langle (f_{uv} f_{vh}^*) \rangle \\
\langle |f_{hv}|^2 \rangle & \langle |f_{hh}|^2 \rangle & \text{Re} \langle (f_{hv} f_{hh}^*) \rangle & -\text{Im} \langle (f_{hv} f_{hh}^*) \rangle \\
2\text{Re} \langle (f_{uv} f_{hv}^*) \rangle & 2\text{Re} \langle (f_{vh} f_{hh}^*) \rangle & \text{Re} \langle (f_{uv} f_{hh}^* + f_{vh} f_{hv}^*) \rangle & -\text{Im} \langle (f_{uv} f_{hh}^* + f_{vh} f_{hv}^*) \rangle \\
2\text{Im} \langle (f_{uv} f_{hv}^*) \rangle & 2\text{Im} \langle (f_{vh} f_{hh}^*) \rangle & \text{Im} \langle (f_{uv} f_{hh}^* + f_{vh} f_{hv}^*) \rangle & \text{Re} \langle (f_{uv} f_{hh}^* - f_{vh} f_{hv}^*) \rangle
\end{bmatrix}
\]

(50)

and \( A \) is the illuminated area. The ensemble averaged product of the scattering coefficients is related to the polarimetric bistatic scattering coefficient as following:

\[
\gamma_{a\beta\mu
u}^i (\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) = \frac{4\pi \langle f_{a\beta}(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) f_{\mu
u}^*(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) \rangle}{A \cos \theta_i}.
\]

(51)

From expression (49), (50) and (51), it can be easily derived that

\[
\overline{R}^i = \frac{\cos \theta_i}{4\pi \cos \theta} \begin{bmatrix}
\gamma_{vuvv}^i & \gamma_{vhvh}^i & \text{Re} \gamma_{vuvh}^i & -\text{Im} \gamma_{vuvh}^i \\
\gamma_{hvvh}^i & \gamma_{hhhh}^i & \text{Re} \gamma_{hvhh}^i & -\text{Im} \gamma_{hvhh}^i \\
2\text{Re} \gamma_{vuvh}^i & 2\text{Re} \gamma_{vhvh}^i & \text{Re} (\gamma_{vuvh}^i + \gamma_{vhvh}^i) & -\text{Im} (\gamma_{vuvh}^i + \gamma_{vhvh}^i) \\
2\text{Im} \gamma_{vuvh}^i & 2\text{Im} \gamma_{vhvh}^i & \text{Im} (\gamma_{vuvh}^i + \gamma_{vhvh}^i) & \text{Re} (\gamma_{vuvh}^i - \gamma_{vhvh}^i)
\end{bmatrix}
\]

(52)

with

\[
\gamma_{a\beta\mu
u}^i (\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) = \frac{4\pi k_i^2 \cos^2 \theta \Gamma_{a\beta\mu
u}(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i) W(\theta, \phi; \theta_i, \phi_i)}{\cos \theta_i},
\]

(53)
where $\Gamma_{\alpha\beta\mu\nu}$ is the coefficient with explicit form given in [1]. Finally, by knowing the coherent reflection matrix $\overline{R}$ from Eq. (41) and the incoherent reflection matrix $\overline{R}_l$ from Eq. (52), we obtain the total reflection $\overline{R} = \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l$ [Eq. (40)]. Therefore the reflection Stokes vector $\overline{I}_r$ is obtained as

$$\overline{I}_r (\theta, \phi, \theta_i, \phi_i; 0) = \left( \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l \right) \cdot \overline{I}_i,$$

and the emissivity can be calculated from Eq. (37) as

$$\varepsilon(\theta, \phi) = \overline{I}_i - \int \left( \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l \right) \cdot \overline{I}_i d\Omega_i$$

$$= \overline{I}_i - \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin \theta_i d\theta_i \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi_i \left( \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l \right) \cdot \overline{I}_i. \quad (55)$$

### 3.2 Reflection of Atmospheric Thermal Emission

We write the term representing the reflection of the atmospheric thermal emission from the rough surface as

$$\overline{I}_r^A (\theta, \phi; 0) = \int d\Omega' \overline{R}(\theta, \phi, \pi - \theta', \phi') \cdot \overline{I}_d^A (\theta', \phi'; 0). \quad (56)$$

From Eq. (40) we know that the reflection of the rough surface can be written as the sum of the coherent and incoherent parts, therefore

$$\overline{I}_r^A (\theta, \phi; 0) = \int d\Omega' \left( \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l \right) \cdot \overline{I}_d^A (\theta', \phi'; 0). \quad (57)$$

Thus the total Stokes vector in Eq. (35) can be written as

$$\overline{I}_u^{AS} (\theta, \phi; 0) = \int d\Omega' \left( \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l \right) \cdot \overline{I}_d^A (\theta', \phi'; 0)$$

$$+ \frac{K_B}{\chi^2} T_s \left[ \overline{I}_i - \int d\Omega_i \left( \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l \right) \cdot \overline{I}_i \right]. \quad (58)$$

Noticing that $d\Omega' = d\Omega_i$ for the down-going Stokes vector from the atmospheric layer, therefore it can be shown that

$$\overline{I}_u^{AS} (\theta, \phi; 0) = \frac{K_B}{\chi^2} T_s \overline{I}_i - \frac{K_B}{\chi^2} T_s \int d\Omega_i \left( \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l \right) \cdot \left[ \overline{I}_i - \frac{\lambda^2}{K_B T_s} \overline{I}_d^A (\theta_i, \phi_i; 0) \right]. \quad (59)$$

Converting the Stokes vector to the brightness temperature, the brightness temperature of the plain ocean surface can be written as

$$\overline{T}_u^{AS} (\theta, \phi; 0) = \frac{\lambda^2}{K_B} \overline{T}_u^A (\theta, \phi; 0)$$

$$= \overline{T}_i - \int d\Omega_i \left( \overline{R}^c + \overline{R}_l \right) \cdot \left[ \overline{T}_i - \overline{T}_d^A (\theta_i, \phi_i; 0) \right]. \quad (60)$$
where $T_i = T_s I_i$, and $T_d^A(\theta_i, \phi_i; 0) = \frac{\lambda^2}{K_B} I_d^A(\theta_i, \phi_i; 0)$ is the down-going brightness temperature of the atmosphere at the ocean surface. The down-going specific intensity $I_d^A(\theta_i, \phi_i; 0)$ from the atmosphere can be found from Eq. (77) and its approximation can be found in Eq. (89) as

$$T_d^A(\theta, \phi, d_1) = \sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \frac{\tilde{K}_a(z')}{\kappa_a} e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{z'} \kappa_a(z'') dz''} dz'$$

$$\approx CT(z_o) \left[ 1 - e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z'') dz''} \right], \quad (61)$$

where $T(z')$ is the temperature profile of the atmosphere, and $\kappa_a$ is the absorption coefficient. The median elevation $z_o$ can be calculated by solving the following equation:

$$\int_{d_1}^{z_o} \kappa_a(z') dz' = \frac{1}{2} \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z') dz'. \quad (62)$$

### 3.3 Power Spectrum of Rough Ocean Surface

The ocean surface spectrum applied in this thesis was proposed by Durden and Vesecky [17]. This surface spectrum is based on experimental data fitting and thus it is an empirical model. The Durden-Vesecky surface spectrum is given by

$$W(k, \phi) = \frac{a_0}{2\pi k^4} \Phi(k, \phi) S(k), \quad (63)$$

where

$$\Phi(k, \phi) = \left( 1 + c(1 - e^{-sk^2}) \cos 2\phi \right), \quad (64)$$

$$S(k) = \begin{cases} e^{-0.74\left(\frac{v_{19.5}^2}{k^2}\right)^2} & \text{if } 0 < k < 2, \\ \left( \frac{bk^2}{9 + \gamma k^2} \right)^{a \log_{10}(k/2)} & \text{if } k > 2. \end{cases} \quad (65)$$

The wind friction velocity $u_*$ can be found from the following equation

$$U_h = \frac{u_*}{0.4} \log \frac{h}{6.84 \times 10^{-5}/u_* + 4.28 \times 10^{-3}u_*^2 - 4.43 \times 10^{-4}}, \quad (66)$$

where $U_h$ is the wind speed in the unit of m/s at the elevation height $h$ in meters above the mean ocean surface. $k$ is the ocean surface spatial wavenumber, $\phi$ is the azimuthal angle with respect to wind direction, $a_0$, $a$, $b$, $g$, $\gamma$, and $s$ are constants with the values of $a_0 = 0.008$, $a = 0.225$, $b = 1.25$, $g = 9.81$, $\gamma = 7.25 \times 10^{-5}$, $s =$
$1.5 \times 10^{-4}$. The parameter $c$, which serves as the coefficient for the azimuthal-dependent term in the spectrum, is given by

$$c = \frac{2(1 - R)}{(1 + R)} \frac{1}{1 - D},$$

(67)

where

$$R = \frac{0.003 + 1.92 \times 10^{-3} U_{12.5}}{3.16 \times 10^{-3} U_{12.5}},$$

(68)

$$D = \frac{\int dk k^2 S(k) e^{-\left(k/89.44\right)^2}}{\int_0^\infty dk k^2 S(k)}.$$  

(69)

For example, for the wind speed $U_h = 12$ m/s at height $h = 19.5$ m, it can be calculated that $u_* = 0.46388$ and $c = 0.65139$. To consider certain hydrodynamic effects of the ocean waves, we multiply the parameter $c$ in the spectrum density function $W(k, \phi)$ by $(1 - d_0 \cos \phi)$, where the parameter $d_0$ is determined by data matching. The hydrodynamic modulation was also modeled differently by multiplying the ocean surface spectrum with a parameter $h'$ based on the slope of the long waves [17, 18]. The modulated spectrum is written as

$$W(k, \phi, S_x) = h' W(k, \phi),$$

(70)

where $S_x$ is the slope of the large-scale waves on the ocean surface and $h'$ is calculated as

$$h' = \begin{cases} 1 - 0.5 \text{sgn}(S_x) & \text{if } |S_x/S_u| > 1.25, \\ 1 - 0.4 S_x/S_u & \text{if } |S_x/S_u| \leq 1.25, \end{cases}$$

(71)

where $S_u$ is the rms upwind surface slope which can be calculated by using Eq. (110). The hydrodynamic modulation of the ocean surface spectrum using the parameter $h'$ is useful for the two-scale model of the ocean surface. A detailed study can be found in Section (5).

### 4 Radiative Transfer Equations for Atmosphere

The atmospheric contribution to the brightness temperature of the ocean surface must be taken into account since (1) the airborne radiometer is usually at a very high altitude, hence the accumulated thermal emission along the path from the ocean surface to the radiometer may be significant, and/or the attenuation for the brightness temperature propagating from the ocean surface up to the radiometer cannot be negligible, and (2) there may be a significant amount of down-going thermal emission from the atmosphere being reflected by the ocean surface. In clear air conditions, the main concerns about the atmosphere for passive remote sensing are the atmospheric emission and attenuation due to the contributions from gaseous oxygen ($O_2$), water vapor ($H_2O$), and suspended water droplets (hydrosols) [19]. In
the adverse conditions, cloud and rainfall need to be addressed [19, 20]. In clear air
and at microwave frequencies, the electromagnetic wave scattering by atmospheric
gases can be ignored [21], thus the radiative transfer (RT) equations that are used
to model the wave propagation in the atmosphere reduce to uncoupled first-order
differential equations.

The atmosphere can be modeled as an inhomogeneous layer with the extinction
coefficient $\kappa_e(z)$, the absorption coefficient $\kappa_a(z)$, and the temperature profile $T(z)$
in terms of the height $z$ as shown in Fig. (3). We assume that the scatterers such as
water vapor, droplets and gaseous oxygen are small thus the scattering is ignored
($\kappa_e = \kappa_s + \kappa_a \approx \kappa_a$). Therefore the radiative transfer equations for the specific
intensity $I_u^A$ and $I_d^A$ have the following simple form [15, 22]

$$\cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial z} I_u^A(\theta, \phi, z) = -\kappa_a(z) I_u^A(\theta, \phi, z) + \kappa_a CT(z),$$

(72)

$$- \cos \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial z} I_d^A(\theta, \phi, z) = -\kappa_a(z) I_d^A(\theta, \phi, z) + \kappa_a CT(z),$$

(73)

where $C = K_B/\lambda^2$, $K_B$ is Boltzmann constant and $\lambda$ is the electromagnetic wave-
length.

Assuming that there is no thermal emission from the upper space at $z = d_2$, the
boundary conditions for Eqs. (72) and (73) are given by

$$\bar{T}^A_u(\theta, \phi, d_1) = \bar{T}^T_u(\theta, \phi, d_1),$$

(74)

$$\bar{T}^A_d(\theta, \phi, d_2) = 0,$$

(75)

where $\bar{T}^T_u(\theta, \phi, d_1)$ denotes the emission from the lower boundary at $z = d_1$ (the
foam-covered ocean surface). From Eq. (14), the solution of the RT equations (72)
and (73) are obtained as

\[ T^A_u(\theta, \phi, d_2) = \sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \tilde{R}_a(z')CT(z') e^{-\sec \theta \int_{z'}^{z''} \kappa_a(z'')dz''} \, dz' + T^T_u(\theta, \phi, d_1) e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z'')dz''}, \]  

(76)

\[ T^A_d(\theta, \phi, d_1) = \sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \tilde{R}_a(z')CT(z') e^{-\sec \theta \int_{z'}^{z''} \kappa_a(z'')dz''} \, dz'. \]  

(77)

The specific intensity of the down-going wave in Eq. (77) can be calculated for any polar angle \( \theta \) from the absorption and temperature profiles. From the equation of the down-going wave in Eq. (77) we find that the assumption that down-going wave at height \( d_2 \) is zero as in Eq. (75) is due to the fact that the absorption coefficient \( \kappa_a \) at \( z = d_2 \) is very small. In the next sections, we will see from the numerical results for the US Standard Atmosphere [23] that the value of the absorption coefficient is negligible for altitude larger than 10 km. In the RT theory, if the scattering is ignored for the propagating wave, the absorption coefficient \( \kappa_a \) is two times the imaginary part of the complex wavenumber,

\[ \kappa_a = 2 \text{Im} \{ k \} = 2 \text{Im} \left\{ \left( 10^{-6} N + 1 \right) k_0 \right\}, \]  

(78)

where \( k_0 \) is the wavenumber in free space, and \( N \) is the complex refractivity. In the following sections, we will use Liebe's millimeter-wave propagation model (MPM) [24] to calculate the complex refractivity in the atmosphere.

The extinction coefficient \( \kappa_e \) is the sum of the scattering coefficient \( \kappa_s \) and the absorption coefficient of the background \( \kappa_a \). Quantitatively, we find that \( \kappa_s \ll \kappa_a \), therefore we use \( \kappa_a \) to approximate \( \kappa_e \). The dominant scattering in the atmosphere is due to water vapor and suspended water droplets (hydrosols). The scattering and absorption coefficient are given by [15, page 157-158]

\[ \kappa_s = 2f_v k^4 a^3 |y|^2, \]  

(79)

\[ \kappa_a = f_v k^2 \left[ \frac{3\epsilon}{\epsilon + 2\epsilon - \epsilon_s} \right]^2, \]  

(80)

where \( f_v \) is the fractional volume occupied by the water particles, \( a \) is the radius of a water particle, and

\[ y = \frac{\epsilon_s - \epsilon}{\epsilon_s + 2\epsilon}. \]  

(81)

For water droplets in the atmosphere, the typical values are \( a \sim 5 \mu m, f_v \sim 5 \times 10^{-7} \), and \( \epsilon_s \sim 30 + i40 \) for \( f = 20 \text{ GHz} \). Therefore \( \kappa_s \sim 10^{-12} \text{ m}^{-1} \) and \( \kappa_a \sim 10^{-5} \text{ m}^{-1} \), thus \( \kappa_s \ll \kappa_a \) and we can ignore \( \kappa_s \) and let \( \kappa_e \approx \kappa_a \). The gaseous oxygen (O2), water vapor (H2O), and suspended water droplets in the atmosphere are considered as the principal absorbers in moist air [19].
4.1 The Millimeter-Wave Propagation Model

The millimeter-wave propagation model (MPM) model developed by Liebe [24] can be used to calculate the complex refractivity $N$ that is related to the complex refractive index $n$ by $N = 10^6(n-1)$. By writing the refractive index as $n = n' + i n''$, the effective permittivity of moist air is found as following:

$$\varepsilon_e = (n' + i n'')^2 = (n'^2 - n''^2) + i(2n'n''),$$  \hspace{1cm} (82)

where $k_0$ is the wavenumber in free space. Thus the complex wavenumber is given by

$$k = \omega \sqrt{\varepsilon_e} \varepsilon_e = k_0 n,$$  \hspace{1cm} (83)

assuming $\mu_e = \mu_0$. The measurable parameters of atmosphere are (1) barometric pressure $P$ in kilopascal (1 kPa = 10 mbar), (2) temperature $T$ in degrees Kelvin (K), (3) relative humidity $RH$, and (4) mass concentration in grams per cubic meter. The four measurable parameters can be converted to the internal variables which are useful in the MPM model as shown in Appendix B.

The typical barometric pressure profile is given in [23] and it is plotted in Fig. (4). As an example, we consider the frequency $f = 19.35$ GHz and use the US Standard Atmosphere 1976 temperature, barometric pressure and humidity profiles to calculate the complex wavenumber $k$ for an electromagnetic wave propagating in the atmosphere. The numerical result of the absorption coefficient is plotted in Fig. (5), where the real and imaginary parts are plotted separately in terms of the wavenumber in free space $k_0$.

4.2 Attenuation and Emission of Atmosphere

Once we obtained the key parameter — the absorption coefficient $\kappa_a$ from the MPM model, the thermal emission of the standard atmosphere and its attenuation for the propagating waves can be calculated by using the RT solutions (76) and (77). The first term in Eq. (76) represents the up-going thermal emission of the atmosphere and can be written as

$$\mathcal{T}^A_{u1}(\theta, \phi, d_2) = \sec\theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \tilde{K}_a(z')CT(z') \sec\theta \int_{z'}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z'')dz''dz'.$$  \hspace{1cm} (84)

The down-going wave in Eq. (77) represents the down-going thermal emission of the atmosphere,

$$\mathcal{T}^A_d(\theta, \phi, d_1) = \sec\theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \tilde{K}_a(z')CT(z') \sec\theta \int_{d_1}^{z'} \kappa_a(z'')dz''dz'.$$  \hspace{1cm} (85)

The up and down-going thermal emissions can be calculated using the result of absorption and temperature profiles from the MPM. We can show numerically that they are very close to each other quantitatively.
Figure 4: Temperature and barometric pressure profiles in the US Standard Atmosphere 1976.
Figure 5: The complex wavenumber of electromagnetic wave with $f = 19.35 \text{ GHz}$ propagating in the atmosphere in terms of the wavenumber in free space.
The up-going thermal emission as in Eq. (84) can be written as

\[ T_{u1}(\theta, \phi, d_2) = CT(z_o) \sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \frac{-\sec \theta}{\kappa_a(z')} \frac{e^{-\kappa_a(z'')dz''}}{dz'}, \]

where \( z_o \) is between \( d_1 \) and \( d_2 \). The down-going wave as in Eq. (85) can also be written as

\[ T_{d1}(\theta, \phi, d_1) = CT(z'_o) \sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \frac{-\sec \theta}{\kappa_a(z')} \frac{e^{-\kappa_a(z'')dz''}}{dz'}, \]

where \( z'_o \) is between \( d_1 \) and \( d_2 \) but different from \( z_o \). It can be shown that

\[ \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z') e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z'')dz''} dz' = \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z') e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z'')dz''} dz' = \cos \theta \left[ 1 - e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z'')dz''} \right]. \]

Since the temperature profile \( T(z) \) does not change much for the entire integral path, i.e. \( T(z_o) \approx T(z'_o) \),

\[ T_{u1}(\theta, \phi, d_2) \approx T_{d1}(\theta, \phi, d_1) \approx CT(z_o) \frac{\kappa_a}{\kappa_a} \left[ 1 - e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z'')dz''} \right], \]

where \( z_o \) is the median elevation as defined in Eq. (62). Figure (6) shows the numerical result of the down-going, up-going and approximated brightness temperatures by carrying out the integration for Eqs. (84) and (85) numerically or using approximation formula Eq. (89) for the standard atmosphere at \( f = 19.35 \) GHz, \( d_2 = 30 \) km and \( d_1 = 0 \).

In the second term of the up-going wave in Eq. (76), the factor

\[ \exp \left( -\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z')dz' \right) \]

is the attenuation for the thermal emission from the foam-covered ocean surface. For the US standard atmosphere at \( f = 19.35 \) GHz, \( d_2 = 30 \) km and \( d_1 = 0 \), we can calculate the attenuation using the numerical \( \kappa_a \) from the MPM. Fig (7) shows the attenuation in terms of the polar angle.
Figure 6: The brightness temperature of down-going and up-going waves and their comparison with the approximation formula for $f = 19.35$ GHz.
Figure 7: The attenuation of the standard atmosphere for $f = 19.35$ GHz, $d_2 = 30$ km and $d_1 = 0$. 

Attenuation of the Standard Atmosphere

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Polar Angle [deg]</th>
<th>Attenuation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
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<td>80</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After the total brightness temperature on the ocean surface is calculated by [also from Eq. (32)]

\[
\bar{T}_u^T (\theta, \phi, d_1) = F \cdot \bar{T}_u^{AF} (\theta, \phi, d_1) + (1 - F) \cdot \bar{T}_u^{AS} (\theta, \phi, 0),
\]

(90)

we can calculate the brightness temperature at the height of the radiometer. Between the ocean surface and the radiometer, the atmospheric emission and the attenuation must be taken into account. At the radiometer height \(z = d_2\), by dividing the constant \(C = k_B/\lambda^2\) on both sides of Eq. (76), the total brightness temperature can be written as

\[
\bar{T}_u^A (\theta, \phi, d_2) = \sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z')T(z')e^{-\sec \theta \int_0^{d_2} \kappa_a(z')dz'} dz' + \bar{T}_u^T (\theta, \phi, d_1)e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z')dz'},
\]

(91)

where the first term is the thermal emission of the atmosphere and the exponential factor in the second term is the atmospheric attenuation for the wave traveling from the ocean surface to the radiometer. In order to study individually the contributions from the plain ocean surface, the foam and the atmosphere, we re-label the terms in Eq. (90) and Eq. (91) as

\[
\bar{T}_S = (1 - F) \cdot \bar{T}_u^{AS} (\theta, \phi, 0)e^{-\sec \theta \int_0^{d_2} \kappa_a(z')dz'},
\]

(92)

\[
\bar{T}_F = F \cdot \bar{T}_u^{AF} (\theta, \phi, d_1)e^{-\sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z')dz'},
\]

(93)

\[
\bar{T}_A = \sec \theta \int_{d_1}^{d_2} \kappa_a(z')T(z')e^{-\sec \theta \int_0^{d_2} \kappa_a(z')dz'} dz'.
\]

(94)

In the above expressions, \(\bar{T}_S\) is the brightness temperature of the plain ocean surface with the consideration of reflection of atmospheric emission by water bubbles and the attenuation when the wave travels from the ocean surface to the radiometer. \(\bar{T}_F\) is the brightness temperature of the foam layer with the consideration of scattering of atmospheric emission and attenuation. \(\bar{T}_A\) is the brightness temperature due to the thermal emission of the atmosphere.

### 4.3 Equivalent Polar Angle of the Spherical Atmospheric Layer

Consider a radiometer placed at point \(A\) with zenith height \(H\) as shown in Fig. (8). We create a flat atmospheric layer to approximate the spherical layer so that it is easier to apply the geometry for the RT theory. On the flat layer, the equivalent position of the radiometer is at point \(C\), where we assume \(AB = BC\). It can be
found that in the equivalent flat-layer model of the atmosphere, the polar angle $\theta'$ is different from $\theta$ in the spherical model. By projecting the lines $\overline{AO}$ and $\overline{AB}$ on the $x$- and $z$-axis, respectively, we find

\[ \overline{AB} \cdot \sin \theta = (R + H) \sin \theta_0, \]  
(95) \[ R + \overline{AB} \cdot \cos \theta = (R + H) \cos \theta_0. \]  
(96) By eliminating the angle $\theta_0$ from Eqs. (95) and (96), it yields

\[ \overline{AB} = \sqrt{R^2 \cos^2 \theta + 2RH + H^2} - R \cos \theta. \]  
(97) Considering the triangle $BCD$, it can be shown that

\[ \cos \theta' = \frac{H}{\overline{AB}}. \]  
(98) Therefore the modified polar angle in the equivalent flat atmospheric layer is

\[ \theta' = \cos^{-1} \left( \frac{H}{\sqrt{R^2 \cos^2 \theta + 2RH + H^2} - R \cos \theta} \right). \]  
(99) For example, let the radiometer height $H = 30,000$ m, and the earth radius $R = 6.37 \times 10^6$ m. For the zero grazing angle ($\theta = 90^\circ$), the modified polar angle can be calculated as

\[ \theta' = \cos^{-1} \left( \frac{3}{\sqrt{2} \times 637 \times 3 + 3^2} \right) = 87.2^\circ. \]  
(100) 

5 Two-Scale Model of Rough Ocean Surface

In the previous section, we only considered the rough ocean surface with wavenumber less than 5 times the electromagnetic wavelength by defining the cutoff wavenumber $k_d = k_0/5$, where $k_0$ is the electromagnetic wavenumber. For numerical purposes, the variable $l$ is defined as $l = 1/k$ so that the integration for $l$ is from 0 to $1/k_d$ instead of from 0 to $\infty$ for $k$. Therefore numerically $k_d$ cannot be zero, and the waves are separated into large-scale ($k < k_d$) and small-scale ($k > k_d$) categories. If we only consider the small-scale waves, the total brightness temperature is not sensitive to the value of $k_d$ ($k_d$ around $k_0/5$) that will be demonstrated in Fig. (14) in the numerical simulation section. The large-scale wave operates as tilted facet. The two-scale model takes care of the tilted polar angle on the local facet due to the large scale or long waves of the ocean surface. In the two-scale model, the brightness temperature vector is calculated by averaging the local values over the slope distribution of the large scale waves [25, 18]. The averaged brightness temperature at the ocean surface is written as

\[ \overline{T}(\theta, \phi, 0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dS_z \int_{-\cot \theta}^{\infty} dS_y \overline{T}_1(\theta', \phi) P_s(S'_x, S'_y, \theta), \]  
(101)
Figure 8: Geometry of the spherical atmospheric layer.
Figure 9: The local polar angle with respect to the global looking angle and the slope of the facet.

where $T_l(\theta', \phi)$ is the brightness temperature of the local facet at the local looking angle $\theta'$, $P_s$ is the slope distribution of the large-scale waves as viewed at the local looking angle $\theta'$, $S_x$ and $S_y$ are the surface slopes along the global $x$ and $y$ axis, respectively, while $S'_x$ and $S'_y$ are the surface slopes with respect to the radiometer observation direction $(\theta', \phi)$. Notice that $S_x$ is limited to $-\cot \theta$ due to shadowing by large-scale waves [18]. The transformation of the global slopes to the slopes with respect to the radiometer observation direction is given by

$$S'_x = S_x \cos \phi + S_y \sin \phi,$$

$$S'_y = -S_x \sin \phi + S_y \cos \phi.$$  \hspace{1cm} (102) \hspace{1cm} (103)

To calculate the polar angle $\theta'$ with respect to the local facet $\Pi$ for a given looking angle $\theta$ with respect to the global coordinate $(x, y, z)$ as shown in Fig. (9), we write the unit normal vector of the local facet as

$$\hat{n} = \frac{\hat{x} - S_x \hat{x} - S_y \hat{y}}{\sqrt{1 + S_x^2 + S_y^2}},$$  \hspace{1cm} (104)

and the unit wave vector with the orientation angles $\theta$ and $\phi$ as

$$\hat{k} = \hat{x} \sin \theta \cos \phi + \hat{y} \sin \theta \sin \phi + \hat{z} \cos \theta.$$  \hspace{1cm} (105)

Thus the polar angle with respect to the local facet is

$$\theta' = \cos^{-1} \frac{-S_x \sin \theta \cos \phi - S_y \sin \theta \sin \phi + \cos \theta}{\sqrt{1 + S_x^2 + S_y^2}}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (106)

The slope distribution $P_s$ was studied by Cox and Munk [26] by measuring the ocean surface, and it can be written as

$$P_s(S'_x, S'_y, \theta) = (1 + S_z \tan \theta) P_{S'}(S'_x, S'_y),$$  \hspace{1cm} (107)

where $S_z$ is the height of the large-scale waves above the underlying surface.
where $P(S'_x, S'_y)$ is assumed to be a Gaussian distribution function

$$
P(S'_x, S'_y) = \frac{F(S'_x, S'_y)}{2\pi S_u S_c} \exp \left[ -\frac{S'_x^2}{2S_u^2} - \frac{S'_y^2}{2S_c^2} \right]$$

(108)

with the function $F(S'_x, S'_y)$ defined as

$$
F(S'_x, S'_y) = 1 - \frac{C_{21}}{2} \left( \frac{S'_y^2}{S_c^2} - 1 \right) \frac{S'_x}{S_u} - \frac{C_{03}}{6} \left( \frac{S'_x^2}{S_u^2} - 3 \frac{S'_y}{S_u} \right)
+ \frac{C_{40}}{24} \left( \frac{S'_y^4}{S_c^4} - 6 \frac{S'_y^3}{S_c^2} + 3 \right)
+ \frac{C_{22}}{4} \left( \frac{S'_y^2}{S_c^2} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{S'_x^2}{S_u^2} - 1 \right)
+ \frac{C_{04}}{24} \left( \frac{S'_x^4}{S_u^4} - 6 \frac{S'_x^3}{S_u^2} + 3 \right).
$$

(109)

In the above expression, the coefficients are $C_{40} = 0.4$, $C_{22} = 0.12$, $C_{04} = 0.23$, $C_{21} = 0.01 - 0.0086U_w$, and $C_{03} = 0.04 - 0.033U_w$, where $U_w$ is the wind speed in m/s.

The upwind and crosswind slope variances are calculated as follows:

$$
S_u^2 = \int_0^{k_d} dk \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi k^3 \cos^2 \phi W(k, \phi),
$$

(110)

$$
S_c^2 = \int_0^{k_d} dk \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi k^3 \sin^2 \phi W(k, \phi).
$$

(111)

In the numerical evaluation of Eq. (101), the integration limits of $S_x$ and $S_y$ are truncated as $5 S_u$ and $5 S_c$, respectively. The local brightness temperature $T_I$ is assigned to be the one of the plain ocean surface $T^{AS}_u$ as in Eq. (60) or of the foam $T^F_u$ as in Eq. (30) based on the slope of the surface $S = \sqrt{S_x^2 + S_y^2}$. To the best of our knowledge, there is presently no literature on the study of the foam assignment according to the slope of the ocean surface. In this thesis, we assume a threshold $S_{td}$ and assign the foam brightness temperature $T^F_u$ to the local $T_I$ if the slope $\sqrt{S_x^2 + S_y^2} \geq S_{td}$. The slope threshold $S_{td}$ can be found by calculating the integral within the area [as shown in Fig. (10)] of $\{(S_x, S_y) : S_x^2 + S_y^2 \leq S_{td}^2, S_x \geq -\cot \theta \}$, so that the integral value is equal to the foam coverage $F$ in Eq. (33), i.e.

$$
F = \int dS_y \int dS_x P_s(S'_x, S'_y).
$$

(112)
6 Numerical Results

In this section, we calculate the brightness temperature of the wind-driven ocean surface and compare the simulation results with the data from JPL’s WINDRAD experiment [14]. In the experiment, a K-band (19.35 GHz) radiometer was mounted on the NASA DC-8 aircraft flying in a circle at the height of 30,000 ft (9,144 m). The data was collected in November 1993 near the northern Californian coast. During the experiment, weather was clear and there was a wind speed of 12 m/s. The brightness temperatures were measured for the Stokes parameters $T_v$, $T_h$, and $U$ with the polar angles of 30, 40, and 50 degrees. In the simulation, the frequency of the brightness temperatures is $f = 19.35$ MHz, the ocean wind speed is $U_w = 12$ m/s at height $h = 19.5$ m. The physical temperature of the sea water is $T_0 = 12$ °C. and the salinity is $S = 3.5\%$.

Fig. (11), (12) and (13) show the simulation results of the brightness temperatures by varying the azimuth angle $\phi$ of the observation with nadir looking angle $\theta = 30^\circ$, 40° and 50°, respectively. The ocean surface spectrum is the empirical formula proposed by Durden and Vesecky [17]. For the foam layer, the internal radius of water bubble is $R = 4.3$ mm, the bubble film thickness is $d = 0.13$ mm and the fractional volume of water bubbles is $f_v = 0.01$. The extinction and absorption coefficients are calculated as $\kappa_e = 8.298$ m$^{-1}$ and $\kappa_a = 2.273$ m$^{-1}$. The permittivity of the bubble film is the same as of the ocean water, and the permittivity of the background is $\epsilon_0$. The elevation height of the radiometer is 30,000 ft (9,144 m). In these figures, the open circles are the WINDRAD experimental data. In the plots of the first and second Stokes parameters $T_v$ and $T_h$, the lines (from bottom to top) are the plots for the numerical simulation considering (1) only the plain ocean surface $[T_S$ in Eq. (92)], (2) plain ocean surface plus the foam emission $[T_S + T_F$ in Eq. (92) and (93)], and (3) plain ocean surface plus the foam and the atmospheric emissions $[T_S + T_F + T_A$ in Eq. (92), (93) and (94)]. In the plots for the third and fourth
Stokes parameters $U$ and $V$, the total emissions are considered. In comparison with experiment data, we notice that both the foam and the atmospheric emission are significant to correct the emission of the plain ocean surface for $T_v$ and $T_h$.

The Durden-Vesecky spectrum is similar to the power law $W(k) = a_0/k^4$ that describes the relative portion of the large scale and small scale roughness of the ocean surface by specifying the lower cutoff wavenumber $k_d$. The smaller $k_d$ is, the higher the long waves. However, in the simulation for the thermal emission from the ocean surface, the brightness temperatures are obtained by integrating over the entire reflected waves due to Kirchhoff's law. Therefore there is no significant difference between the collection of reflected waves from very long ocean waves or from a flat surface. In SPM, the zeroth and the second order reflected waves are specular, thus they include the dominant reflections from the long waves. The bistatic pattern of the field scattered by rough ocean surface is dominated by small scale roughness (Bragg scattering) which is included in the first order solution in
Figure 12: The brightness temperature of wind-driven ocean surface for nadir looking angle $\theta = 40^\circ$ and the lower cutoff wavenumber $k_d = 80 \text{ m}^{-1}$. 
Figure 13: The brightness temperature of wind-driven ocean surface for nadir looking angle $\theta = 50^\circ$ and the lower cutoff wavenumber $k_d = 80 \, \text{m}^{-1}$.
Figure 14: The brightness temperature of wind-driven ocean surface for nadir looking angle $\theta = 40^\circ$ and the lower cutoff wavenumber $k_d = 120 \text{ m}^{-1}$.

SPM. Therefore the value of the lower cutoff wavenumber $k_d$ is not sensitive to the calculation of the emissivity from the rough ocean surface. This can be demonstrated by re-calculating the brightness temperatures shown in Figs. (11), (12) and (13) with lower cutoff wavenumbers. In Figs. (11), (12) and (13), the lower cutoff wavenumber is $k_d = 80 \text{ m}^{-1}$ which is about $5\lambda$ of the electromagnetic wave. Fig. (14) shows the brightness temperatures for the polar angle $\theta = 40^\circ$ and the lower cutoff wavenumber $k_d = 120 \text{ m}^{-1}$. Not much change is observed for the result in comparison with Fig. (12) for $k_d = 80 \text{ m}^{-1}$.

With the same simulation conditions as in Fig. (11)-(13), we compare the numerical results obtained by using the one-scale and two-scale models as shown in Fig. (15)-(17). Notice that the $T_v$ and $T_h$ terms in these figures match better with the measurement data in the two-scale model for $\theta = 30^\circ$ and $40^\circ$, but there is an irregular offset in Fig. (17), which may be due to the shadowing effect at large polar angles.
Figure 15: The comparison of the one-scale and two-scale models at $\theta = 30^\circ$. 
Figure 16: The comparison of the one-scale and two-scale models at $\theta = 40^\circ$. 
Figure 17: The comparison of the one-scale and two-scale models at $\theta = 50^\circ$. 
7 Conclusions

In this chapter, one-scale and two-scale electromagnetic models to calculate the brightness temperature of wind-driven ocean with foam coverage have been presented. The one-scale emissivity model is the local thermal contribution by small roughness of the foam-covered ocean surface, while the two-scale model is the average of one-scale emissivity over large-scale slope of the rough ocean surface with the weight described by the slope distribution function. The overall brightness temperature is contributed by three portions — plain ocean surface, foam, and atmospheric layer. The interactions between the different regions are described by boundary conditions. For the plain ocean surface, the emissivity has been calculated using Kirchhoff's law by calculating the reflectivity of rough ocean surface. The coupling to the wind speed is through the power spectrum of ocean surface by which the ocean rough surface is described. The radiative transfer theory (RT) is used to model the foam layer in which we assume the scatterers are spherical thin-film water bubbles. The closed form solution of the RT equations for the foam layer is obtained using the iterative approach up to the first order. In the RT equations for the atmospheric layer, the scattering due to the water vapor and other gases in the air is ignored, hence a closed form of the RT solution is obtained. The simulation results, both from one-scale and two-scale models, are compared with the WINDRAD experimental data with good agreements. The results show that both the one-scale and two-scale models agree well with the WINDRAD data. However the one-scale model is much faster in computation than the two-scale model, since few integrals are involved in the one-scale model.

It has to be pointed out that, although the foam model with water bubbles is more realistic than water particles, more studies need to be conducted to model the foam layer more accurately. For example, it is suggested the multiple scattering among water bubbles to be considered by using the dense medium radiative transfer theory [15], and the top foam surface to be rough instead of flat as considered in this thesis for simplification.
A Phase Matrix for Water Bubbles

Consider an electromagnetic plane wave propagating in +z' direction and incident upon a thin-film water bubble in (x', y', z') coordinates with inner radius R and film thickness d as shown in Fig. (18). Let the wavenumber in the core and outside be k, the wavenumber in the film be k_1, and the polarization angle be β. On y'z' plane,

\[ E_{\phi'} = \frac{i e^{ikr}}{kr} S_1 \cos \beta, \]  
\[ E_{\theta'} = -\frac{i e^{ikr}}{kr} S_2 \sin \beta, \]

where

\[ S_1 = i \delta (m^2 - 1) \alpha^2 \left[ j_0(x) - \frac{m^2 - 1}{m^2} \frac{j_1(x)}{x} \right], \]
\[ S_2 = i \delta (m^2 - 1) \alpha^2 \left\{ j_0(x) \cos \theta' + \frac{m^2 - 1}{m^2} \left[ \frac{j_1(x)}{x} + \frac{1 + \cos \theta'}{2} \left( \frac{j_1(x)}{x} - j_0(x) \right) \right] \right\}, \]

in which \( m = k_1/k, x = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} R \sin (\theta'/2), \delta = 2\pi d/\lambda, \alpha = 2\pi R/\lambda, j_0(x) \) and \( j_1(x) \) are the zeroth and first order spherical Bessel's functions, respectively. The geometry of the wave scattering in (x', y', z') coordinates is general because of the symmetrical property of the spherical water bubble.

Figure 18: EM scattering by a bubble in (x', y', z') coordinates.
In the \((x, y, z)\) coordinate system, the incident wave is written as

\[
\mathbf{E}_i = \hat{e}_i E_0 e^{ik_i} f, \tag{A-5}
\]

where \(\hat{e}_i = \hat{v}_i\) or \(\hat{h}_i\), \(E_{e_i} = E_{v_i}\) or \(E_{h_i}\), and

\[
\bar{k}_i = k\hat{k}_i = k (\hat{x} \sin \theta_i \cos \phi_i + \hat{y} \sin \theta_i \sin \phi_i + \hat{z} \cos \theta_i),
\]

and the incident angles \(\theta_i\) and \(\phi_i\) are with respect to the \((x, y, z)\) coordinates as shown in Fig. (19). The polarization vectors are defined as

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{v}_i &= \hat{h}_i \times \hat{k}_i = \hat{x} \cos \theta_i \cos \phi_i + \hat{y} \cos \theta_i \sin \phi_i - \hat{z} \sin \theta_i, \\
\hat{h}_i &= \frac{\hat{z} \times \hat{k}_i}{|\hat{z} \times \hat{k}_i|} = -\hat{x} \sin \phi_i + \hat{y} \cos \phi_i. \tag{A-6}
\end{align*}
\]

In the \((x, y, z)\) coordinate system, we set up the coordinates \((x', y', z')\) so that

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{x}' &= \frac{\hat{k}_i \times \hat{k}_s}{|\hat{k}_i \times \hat{k}_s|}, \\
\hat{y}' &= \frac{\hat{k}_i \times \hat{k}_s \times \hat{k}_s}{|\hat{k}_i \times \hat{k}_s \times \hat{k}_s|} = \frac{\hat{k}_i (\hat{k}_i \cdot \hat{k}_s) - \hat{k}_s}{|\hat{k}_i (\hat{k}_i \cdot \hat{k}_s) - \hat{k}_s|}, \\
\hat{z}' &= \hat{k}_i,
\end{align*}\tag{A-7}
\]

where

\[
\hat{k}_s = \hat{x} \sin \theta_s \cos \phi_s + \hat{y} \sin \theta_s \sin \phi_s + \hat{z} \cos \theta_s.
\]
is the wave vector of the scattered field. Therefore the transformation relation of the two coordinate systems is

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{x}' &= \hat{x}a_{11} + \hat{y}a_{12} + \hat{z}a_{13} \\
\hat{y}' &= \hat{x}a_{21} + \hat{y}a_{22} + \hat{z}a_{23} \\
\hat{z}' &= \hat{x}a_{31} + \hat{y}a_{32} + \hat{z}a_{33}
\end{align*}
\]  

or

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\hat{x}' \\
\hat{y}' \\
\hat{z}'
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\hat{x} \\
\hat{y} \\
\hat{z}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
a_{11} &= \begin{vmatrix}
a_{22} & a_{23} \\
a_{32} & a_{33}
\end{vmatrix} \\
a_{12} &= \begin{vmatrix}
a_{31} & a_{33} \\
a_{21} & a_{23}
\end{vmatrix} \\
a_{13} &= \begin{vmatrix}
a_{21} & a_{31} \\
a_{22} & a_{32}
\end{vmatrix}
\end{align*}
\]

(A-8)

(A-9)

(A-10)

(A-11)

(A-12)

(A-13)

By using the identity $\overline{A}^{-1} = \overline{A}^T$, the transformation of a vector from one coordinate system to another can be expressed as

\[
\mathbf{E}' = E' \begin{bmatrix}
\hat{x}' \\
\hat{y}' \\
\hat{z}'
\end{bmatrix} = E' \overline{A} \begin{bmatrix}
\hat{x} \\
\hat{y} \\
\hat{z}
\end{bmatrix} \equiv \overline{E}.
\]

Thus $E = \overline{A}^T E'$ and $E' = \overline{A} E$.

By writing the incident field in $(x, y, z)$ coordinates as

\[
\overline{E}_i = \hat{e}_i E_o e^{ikz} = E_o \left[ (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{x}) \hat{x} + (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{y}) \hat{y} + (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{z}) \hat{z} \right] e^{ikz},
\]

(A-15)
thus the transformation of the incident field is

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
E'_{x'} \\
E'_{y'} \\
E'_{z'}
\end{bmatrix} = \bar{A}
\begin{bmatrix}
(e_i \cdot \hat{x}) \\
(e_i \cdot \hat{y}) \\
(e_i \cdot \hat{z})
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\
a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\
a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
(e_i \cdot \hat{x}) \\
(e_i \cdot \hat{y}) \\
(e_i \cdot \hat{z})
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\(E_o\) (A-16)

we can calculate the polarization angle \(\beta\) and scattering angle \(\theta'\) in the \((x', y', z')\) coordinates as follows:

\[
\beta = \cos^{-1} \left( \frac{E'_{x'} \cdot \hat{y}'}{|E'_{x'}|} \right) = \cos^{-1} \frac{b_2}{C},
\]

\(\theta' = \cos^{-1} \left( \hat{k}_s \cdot \hat{z'} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left[ \sin \theta_i \sin \theta_s \cos (\phi_s - \phi_i) + \cos \theta_i \cos \theta_s \right], \quad (A-17)

\[(A-18)\]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
b_1 &= a_{11} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{x}) + a_{12} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{y}) + a_{13} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{z}) , \quad (A-19) \\
b_2 &= a_{21} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{x}) + a_{22} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{y}) + a_{23} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{z}) , \quad (A-20) \\
b_3 &= a_{31} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{x}) + a_{32} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{y}) + a_{33} (\hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{z}) , \quad (A-21) \\
C &= \sqrt{b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2}. \quad (A-22)
\end{align*}
\]

In the \((x', y', z')\) coordinate system, we write the scattered field as

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{E}_s' &= E_{\theta'} \hat{\theta}' + E_{\theta'} \hat{\phi}' = E_{\theta'} (\hat{y}' \cos \theta' - \hat{z}' \sin \theta') - E_{\phi'} \hat{x'} \\
&= \begin{bmatrix}
-E_{\theta'} \\
E_{\theta'} \cos \theta' \\
-E_{\theta'} \sin \theta'
\end{bmatrix}, \quad (A-23)
\end{align*}

where, by dropping out the factor \(\frac{e^{ikr}}{r}\) for scattering coefficient calculation,

\[
E_{\theta'} = \frac{i}{k} S_1 \cos \beta, \quad (A-24)
\]

\[
E_{\phi'} = -\frac{i}{k} S_2 \sin \beta. \quad (A-25)
\]

The scattered field in the \((x, y, z)\) coordinate system is thus

\[
\bar{E}_s = \bar{A} \bar{E}'_s = \begin{bmatrix}
a_{11} & a_{21} & a_{31} \\
a_{12} & a_{22} & a_{32} \\
a_{13} & a_{23} & a_{33}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
-E_{\theta'} \\
E_{\theta'} \cos \theta' \\
-E_{\theta'} \sin \theta'
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
-E_{\theta'} a_{11} + E_{\theta'} \cos \theta' a_{21} - E_{\theta'} \sin \theta' a_{31} \\
-E_{\theta'} a_{12} + E_{\theta'} \cos \theta' a_{22} - E_{\theta'} \sin \theta' a_{32} \\
-E_{\theta'} a_{13} + E_{\theta'} \cos \theta' a_{23} - E_{\theta'} \sin \theta' a_{33}
\end{bmatrix} \quad (A-26)
\]

By writing the polarization vectors of the scattered field as

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{v}_s &= \hat{h}_s \times \hat{k}_s = \hat{x} \cos \theta \cos \phi_s + \hat{y} \cos \theta \sin \phi_s - \hat{z} \sin \theta_s \\
\hat{h}_s &= \frac{\hat{x} \times \hat{k}_s}{|\hat{x} \times \hat{k}_s|} = -\hat{x} \sin \phi_s + \hat{y} \cos \phi_s, \quad (A-27)
\end{align*}
\]

40
the \( v \) and \( h \)-components are obtained as follows:

\[
E_v^* = \mathbf{E}_v \cdot \hat{v}_s = (-E_{\theta} a_{11} + E_{\theta} \cos \theta a_{21} - E_{\phi} \sin \theta a_{31}) \cos \theta_s \cos \phi_s \\
+ (-E_{\theta} a_{12} + E_{\theta} \cos \theta a_{22} - E_{\phi} \sin \theta a_{32}) \cos \theta_s \sin \phi_s \\
+ (E_{\phi} a_{13} - E_{\phi} \cos \theta a_{23} + E_{\phi} \sin \theta a_{33}) \sin \theta_s,
\]

(A-28)

\[
E_h^* = \mathbf{E}_h \cdot \hat{h}_s = (E_{\theta} a_{11} - E_{\theta} \cos \theta a_{21} + E_{\phi} \sin \theta a_{31}) \sin \phi_s \\
- (E_{\theta} a_{12} - E_{\theta} \cos \theta a_{22} + E_{\phi} \sin \theta a_{32}) \cos \phi_s.
\]

(A-29)

Therefore the scattering coefficients are \( f_{vv} = E_v^* \), \( f_{hv} = E_h^* \) for \( \hat{e}_i = \hat{v}_i \) and \( E_o = 1 \); \( f_{vh} = E_v^* \), \( f_{hh} = E_h^* \) for \( \hat{e}_i = \hat{h}_i \) and \( E_o = 1 \). Define the matrix

\[
\mathbf{L}(\theta_s, \phi_s; \theta_i, \phi_i) = \\
\begin{bmatrix}
|f_{vv}|^2 & |f_{vh}|^2 & \text{Re}(f_{vv} f_{vh}^*) & -\text{Im}(f_{vv} f_{vh}^*) \\
|f_{hv}|^2 & |f_{hh}|^2 & \text{Re}(f_{hv} f_{hh}^*) & -\text{Im}(f_{hv} f_{hh}^*) \\
2\text{Re}(f_{vv} f_{vh}^*) & 2\text{Re}(f_{vh} f_{hh}^*) & \text{Re}(f_{vv} f_{hh}^* + f_{vh} f_{hv}^*) & -\text{Im}(f_{vv} f_{hh}^* - f_{vh} f_{hv}^*) \\
2\text{Im}(f_{vv} f_{vh}^*) & 2\text{Im}(f_{vh} f_{hh}^*) & \text{Im}(f_{vv} f_{hh}^* + f_{vh} f_{hv}^*) & \text{Re}(f_{vv} f_{hh}^* - f_{vh} f_{hv}^*)
\end{bmatrix},
\]

(A-30)

the phase matrix can be calculated as

\[
\mathbf{P}(\theta_s, \phi_s; \theta_i, \phi_i) = n_o \mathbf{L}(\theta_s, \phi_s; \theta_i, \phi_i),
\]

(A-31)

where \( n_o \) is the number of bubbles per unit volume.

The extinction coefficient is derived as following [15, page 147]:

\[
\kappa_e = n_o \frac{4\pi}{k} \text{Im} \{f_{vv}(\theta_i, \phi_i; \theta_i, \phi_i)\} = -n_o \frac{4\pi}{k^2} \text{Im} \{iS_1\}
\]

\[
= n_o \frac{4\pi}{k^2} \text{Im} \left\{ \delta(m^2 - 1)\alpha^2 \left[ j_o(x) - \frac{m^2 - 1}{m^2} j_1(x) \right] \right\}
\]

\[
= n_o \frac{4\pi}{k^2} \delta \alpha^2 \text{Im} \left\{ (m^2 - 1) \left( \frac{2m^2 + 1}{3m^2} \right) \right\}.
\]

(A-32)

The absorption coefficient is

\[
\kappa_s = n_o \int d\Omega_s \left[ |f_{vv}(\theta_s, \phi_s; \theta_i, \phi_i)|^2 + |f_{hv}(\theta_s, \phi_s; \theta_i, \phi_i)|^2 \right],
\]

(A-33)

which can be evaluated numerically. Due to the symmetry property of the bubble, \( \kappa_s \) is independent on the angles \( \theta_i \) and \( \phi_i \). The absorption coefficient is calculated as

\[
\kappa_a = \kappa_e - \kappa_s.
\]

(A-34)
APPENDIX

B The Parameters in the Millimeter-Wave Propagation Model

The parameters used in the MPM [24] are as follows:

Barometric pressure

\[ P = p + e, \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-1)

where \( p \) is dry air pressure and \( e \) is partial water vapor pressure. The unit of the barometric pressure is kPa.

Temperature

\[ T = \frac{300}{t}, \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-2)

where the unit of the temperature is Kelvin (K), and \( t \) is the inverse temperature parameter. The typical temperature profile is given in [23] and plotted in Fig. (4).

Relative humidity

\[ RH = \frac{e}{e_s} \times 100 = 41.51 \frac{e}{t^0.634} \times 10^{0.634}, \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-3)

where \( e_s \) is the saturation pressure over liquid phase.

Dry air and vapor densities

\[ u = 11.612zt, \] \hspace{1cm} \[ v = 7.217et, \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-4)

where the unit of the densities is g/m\(^3\).

Complex refractivity

\[ N = N_0 + N'(f) + iN''(f), \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-5)

where \( N_0, N'(f) \) and \( N''(f) \) are real and called the frequency-independent term, refractive dispersion and absorption, respectively. \( f \) is frequency in gigahertz (GHz).

Frequency-independent term

\[ N_0 = (2.588p + 2.39e) + N_v, \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-6)

where \( N_v = 41.6et^2 \) is the contribution from the rotational spectrum of water vapor.

Dispersion term

\[ N'(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_a} (S_a F_a'^i) + N_p' + \sum_{i=1}^{n_b} (S_b F_b'^i) + N_e' + N_w', \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-7)

Absorption term

\[ N''(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_a} (S_a F_a'') + N_p'' + \sum_{i=1}^{n_b} (S_b F_b'') + N_e'' + N_w'', \]  \hspace{1cm} (B-8)
where $S_a = a_i p t^3 e^{a_2(1-t)}$ and $S_b = b_i e^{3.5 e^{a_2(1-t)}}$ are the line strength in kilohertz for oxygen and water, respectively. $F_a'$ and $F_b'$ are the real parts of a line shape function in GHz$^{-1}$ which can be written explicitly as

$$F_a'(f) = \frac{Z_a - f}{X_a} + \frac{Z_a + f}{Y_a} - \frac{2}{v_{ao}} \frac{\delta_a}{v_{ao}} \left( \frac{1}{X_a} - \frac{1}{Y_a} \right) \frac{\gamma_a f}{v_{ao}}, \quad \text{(B-9)}$$

$$F_a''(f) = -\delta_a \left[ \frac{vao - f}{X_a} + \frac{vao + f}{Y_a} \right] \frac{f}{vao} + \left( \frac{1}{X_a} + \frac{1}{Y_a} \right) \frac{\gamma_a f}{vao}, \quad \text{(B-10)}$$

where $\alpha = a, b,$ and

$$X_a = (vao - f)^2 + \gamma_a^2,$$
$$Y_a = (vao + f)^2 + \gamma_a^2,$$
$$Z_a = (vao^2 + \gamma_a^2)/vao,$$
$$\gamma_a = a_3 (pt^{0.8-a_4} + 1.1et),$$
$$\gamma_b = b_3 (pt^{0.8} + 4.8et),$$
$$\delta_a = a_5 pt^{26},$$
$$\delta_b = 0.$$

In the above expressions, $v_{ao}$ and $a_i$ ($i = 1, 2, \ldots, 6$) are oxygen line parameters. $v_{io}$, and $b_i$ ($i = 1, 2, 3$) are water vapor line parameters.

**Dry air continuum**

$$N_p'(f) = a_0 \left\{ \left[ 1 + (f/\gamma_0)^2 \right]^{-1} - 1 \right\} pt^2, \quad \text{(B-11)}$$
$$N_p''(f) = 2a_0 \left\{ \gamma_0 \gamma_0 \left( 1 + (f/\gamma_0)^2 \right) \left( 1 + (f/60)^2 \right) \right\}^{-1} + \alpha pt^{2.5} \right\} fpt^2, \quad \text{(B-12)}$$

where $a_0 = 3.07 \times 10^{-4}$, $\alpha = 1.40 \times 10^{-10}$, and $\gamma_0 = 5.6 \times 10^{-3}(p + 1.1e) e^{0.8} \text{GHz}.$

**Water vapor continuum**

$$N_p'(f) = b_0 f^{2.05} e^{2.4}, \quad \text{(B-13)}$$
$$N_p''(f) = (b_f p + b_e e^3) f e^{2.5}, \quad \text{(B-14)}$$

where $b_0 = 6.47 \times 10^{-6}$, $b_f = 1.40 \times 10^{-6}$ and $b_e = 5.41 \times 10^{-5}$.

**Hydrosol continuum**

$$N_w'(f) = 2.4 \times 10^{-3} w \epsilon', \quad \text{(B-15)}$$
$$N_w''(f) = 4.50 w/\epsilon''(1 + \eta^2), \quad \text{(B-16)}$$

where $\eta = (2 + \epsilon')/\epsilon''$ and $\tau = 4.17 \times 10^{-5} te^{(7.13)} \text{ns}$. $\epsilon'$ and $\epsilon''$ are the real and imaginary parts of the dielectric constant of water. They can be calculated using the following empirical formulas

$$\epsilon' = 4.9 + \frac{185 - 113/t}{1 + (f \tau)^2}, \quad \text{(B-17)}$$
\[ \varepsilon'' = \frac{(185 - 113/t) f \tau}{1 + (f \tau)^2}. \] (B-18)
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