



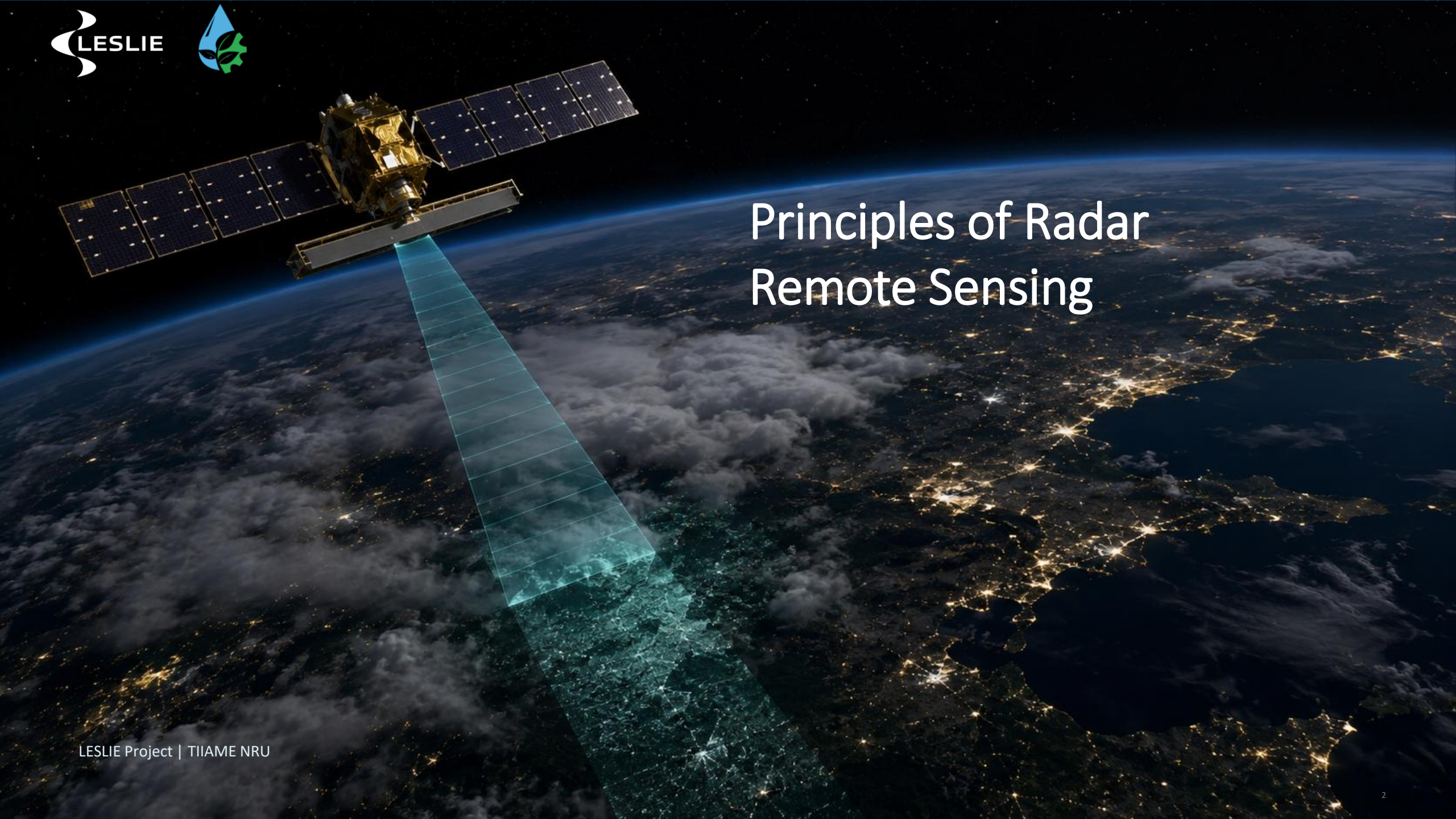
MICRO-CREDENTIAL

LAND MANAGEMENT IN CENTRAL ASIA

14.- Radar and Laser Remote Sensing

Principles of Radar Remote Sensing

LM-W14-V92

A satellite with large solar panels is shown in orbit above the Earth. A blue, semi-transparent rectangular area on the satellite's underside represents the radar's footprint, projecting onto the Earth's surface below. The Earth is shown at night, with city lights and clouds visible.

Principles of Radar Remote Sensing

By the end of this lesson, students should understand how radar systems collect and interpret Earth observation data.

1. Define radar remote sensing and SAR

2. Explain active microwave imaging

3. Describe radar geometry and backscatter

4. Interpret common radar image patterns

5. Connect radar data to land management tasks

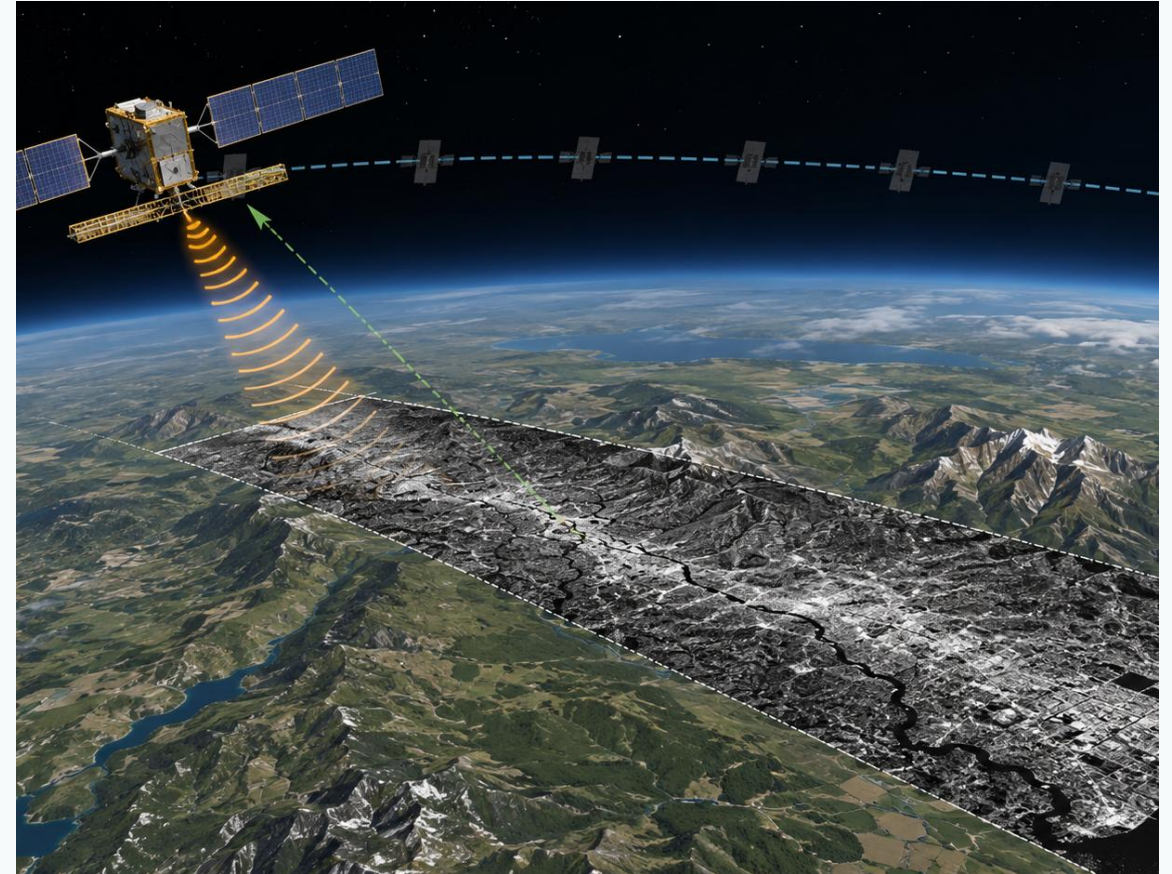
Radar uses its own microwave signal to observe the Earth surface from aircraft or satellites.

RADAR means Radio Detection and Ranging.

It is an active system: the sensor transmits pulses and records the returned echo.

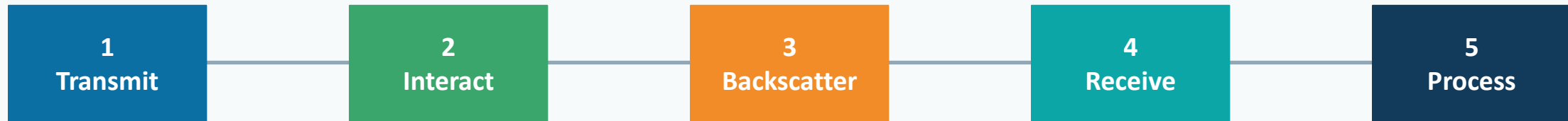
Microwave wavelengths allow observation during day or night and through many cloud conditions.

The recorded signal is influenced by surface roughness, moisture, structure, and viewing geometry.



Key idea: radar images do not show “colour” like optical images. They show the strength and pattern of returned microwave energy.

Radar observation follows a transmit–interact–return–record logic.



Radar sends a pulse and measures two main properties: how long the echo takes to return, and how strong the echo is.

The echo carries information about distance, surface roughness, orientation, dielectric properties, and moisture.

Classroom analogy

Like shouting in a canyon and listening to the echo, radar “illuminates” the surface and interprets the returning signal.

Microwave wavelengths and radar bands

Radar systems use longer wavelengths than visible light, so they interact with surfaces differently.

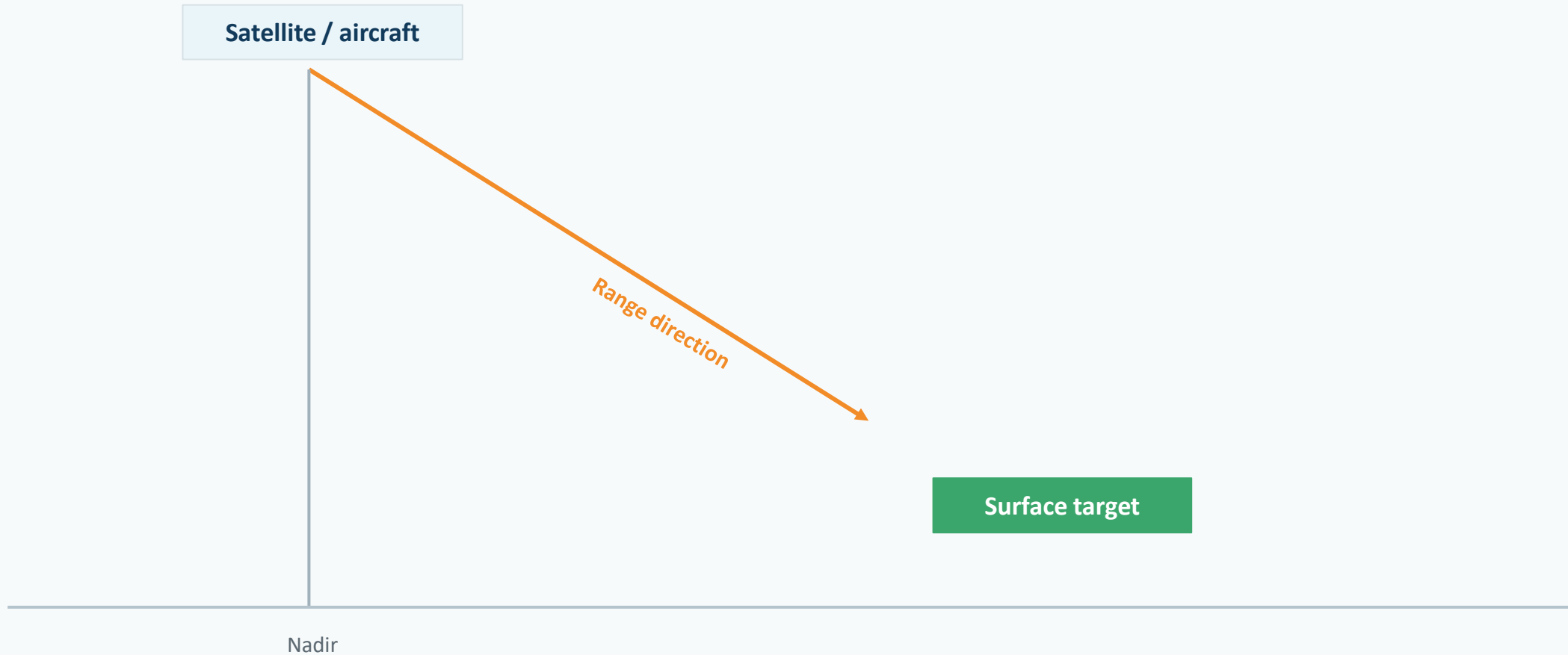
Band	Approx. wavelength	Typical land information
X	≈ 2.4–3.8 cm	Fine surface texture; urban detail; crop structure
C	≈ 3.8–7.5 cm	Agriculture; wetlands; flood mapping; deformation
L	≈ 15–30 cm	Vegetation structure; forest; soil moisture sensitivity
P	≈ 30–100 cm	Deeper vegetation penetration; special missions

Important: longer wavelength usually interacts with larger structures and can penetrate further into vegetation or dry surface materials than shorter wavelength radar.

RADAR BANDS

shorter → longer

Most imaging radar systems look to the side, not straight down.



Incidence angle: angle between the radar beam and the vertical direction at the target. It strongly affects brightness and interpretation.

Range is across the radar look direction. Azimuth follows the flight path. Both are used to locate image pixels.

Backscatter is the portion of transmitted energy that returns to the sensor.

Surface roughness

Rough surfaces usually return stronger signals than smooth surfaces at the same wavelength.

Moisture / dielectric properties

Wet soil, water-filled vegetation, and moist surfaces often increase radar response.

Geometry and orientation

Slopes, buildings, and row direction can strongly change brightness.

Vegetation structure

Leaves, stems, trunks, and canopy density influence volume scattering.

Interpretation rule: the same land cover may look different under different wavelength, polarization, and incidence angle.

Polarization describes the orientation of transmitted and received microwave energy.

HH

horizontal transmit
horizontal receive

VV

vertical transmit
vertical receive

HV

horizontal transmit
vertical receive

VH

vertical transmit
horizontal receive

Co-polarization (HH, VV) often emphasizes surface and double-bounce responses.

Cross-polarization (HV, VH) often helps identify volume scattering in vegetation and complex structures.

Using more than one polarization improves interpretation because different scattering mechanisms become visible.

SAR improves spatial detail by using the motion of the platform to simulate a much larger antenna.

A real antenna receives echoes repeatedly as the satellite moves forward.
 These echoes are combined coherently during processing.
 The result is a high-resolution radar image across a wider area.
 SAR data can be used for mapping water, soil moisture indicators, deformation, crops, forest, ice, and urban features.



The word “synthetic” means that the large antenna is created mathematically from many measurements collected along the flight path.

Radar image tones represent the strength and behaviour of microwave backscatter.

Dark tone

Smooth water or very smooth dry surfaces often return little energy.

Bright tone

Rough surfaces, wet soil, urban corners, or slopes facing the sensor may return strong energy.

Speckle

Radar images have granular noise because coherent waves interfere with each other.

Shadow / layover

Mountains and tall buildings can distort the image due to side-looking geometry.

Practical tip for students: always interpret radar brightness together with geometry, wavelength, polarization, and local knowledge.

SAR imagery usually needs several preparation steps before analysis.



Calibration converts raw image values into physically meaningful backscatter measures.

Terrain correction improves the geometric location of pixels using a digital elevation model.

For land management, processed SAR layers can be combined with optical imagery, cadastre data, field observations, and GIS layers.

Radar data are especially useful where clouds, timing, moisture, or surface structure matter.

Flood and wetland mapping

Separate open water and inundated zones even during cloudy weather.

Land degradation

Help detect changes related to salinity risk, surface wetness, erosion features, and drainage problems.

Mountain hazards

Map landslides, snow, glaciers, and terrain-related risks.

Agriculture monitoring

Support crop structure, soil moisture indicators, and seasonal field observation.

Urban and infrastructure

Identify built-up structures and support deformation monitoring with InSAR.

Radar can complement optical data in dryland and irrigated land management.



Typical questions radar can support

Where are wet fields, open water, or recently irrigated areas?

How do crop structures change during the season?

Where are drainage, salinity, or waterlogging risks likely to increase?

Which areas changed after flooding, extreme rain, or infrastructure failure?

For Uzbekistan and Central Asia, radar is strongest when it is combined with field data, optical satellite imagery, land parcel boundaries, and GIS-based spatial analysis.

Radar is powerful, but interpretation must be careful and technically informed.

Strengths

- Works day and night
- Can observe through many cloud conditions
- Sensitive to roughness, structure, and moisture
- Useful for deformation and flood monitoring
- Complements optical data in cloudy or urgent situations

Limitations

- Requires special processing
- Speckle complicates interpretation
- Geometry can create layover and shadow
- Brightness is not always simple to explain
- Field knowledge is needed for reliable conclusions

Best practice: use radar as one layer in an evidence-based GIS workflow, not as a stand-alone truth.

Radar remote sensing expands the land management toolbox beyond optical imagery.

Radar is an active microwave system that transmits pulses and records echoes.

SAR uses platform motion and signal processing to create detailed radar images.

Backscatter depends on roughness, moisture, structure, wavelength, polarization, and geometry.

Radar is valuable for agriculture, floods, land degradation, infrastructure, and deformation monitoring.

Selected references

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NASA ARSET. Introduction to Synthetic Aperture Radar and Its Applications, 2024.

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Reflection question: In which land management task would radar provide more useful evidence than optical imagery alone?



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