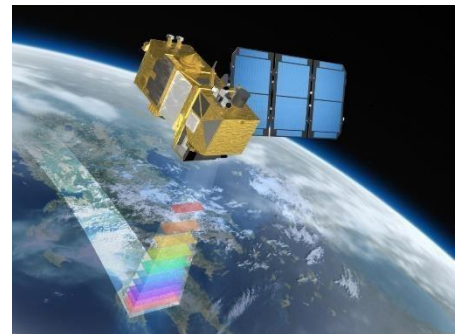


BASIC CONCEPTS: Remotesensing (An EYE in the SKY) is the common method used to collect data at a distance from the object by recording devices. The use of remote sensing techniques is increasing rapidly, finding new fields of application as technology advances in developing the remote sensing systems. The human eye collects information from only a part of the electromagnetic radiation (visible light) reflected from the external objects. The information collected on the retina is transmitted to the mind, which physiologically processes these signals to form a complete picture.

- i. RS is an observation tool to identify objects or measure and analyze their characteristics without directly contacting the targets.
- ii. RS utilizes electromagnetic radiations as a medium for the identification, measurement and monitoring of the earth surface features.
- iii. It is based on the fact that all matters reflect, observe, transmit and emit the EMR in a unique way with respect to wavelength.
- iv. This unique property of EMR is called as spectral characters/signatures.
- v. Camera or scanners are mounted on the satellite sensors, aircrafts and ground drones used in the data collection process.

REMOTE SENSING: “The Art and Science of obtaining information of earth’s object without any physical contact”. This records the data, the energy interaction and target in electromagnetic radiation. Human’s eye is an example of RS in the basic form, it collects the information about various objects and the human brain interprets it.

With growing population & raising standard of living, pressure on natural economic resources are increasing day by day. Hence this technique became a necessary task to manage the available resources effectively and economically. It requires periodic preparation of accurate inventions to natural resources which may be renewable or non-renewable that can be mapped and monitored periodically for its sustainability.



HISTORY OF REMOTE SENSING:

1839-First photograph

1858-First photo from a balloon 1903

- First plane

1909-First photo from a plane 1960 –

Space Satellite Sensor.

India began development of an indigenous IRS (Indian Remote Sensing Satellite) program to support the national economy in the areas of *Agriculture, Water resources, Forestry, Ecology, Geology, Water sheds, Marine fisheries and Coastal management*. With the advent of high resolution satellites new applications in the areas of Urban sprawl, Infrastructure planning and large scale applications for mapping have been initiated.

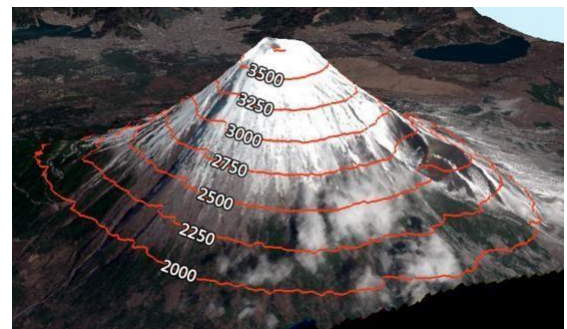


DATA & INFORMATION: Remotely gathered data is available from a range of sources and data collection techniques and is not always easily found within the public domain. This is largely due to the fact that most of this data is acquired by equipment that is expensive to build and maintain. However, there are many types of basic imagery of high-quality that are readily available at largely subsidized costs. Remote sensing satellites are characterized by their *altitude*, *orbit* and *sensors*.



- i. The main purpose of the Geosynchronous Meteorological Satellite (GMS) with an altitude of 36,000 km is meteorological observations.
- ii. Landsat with an altitude of about 700 km, in a polar orbit, is mainly for land area observation.
- iii. Satellite with an altitude of 850 km in a polar orbit is mainly designed for meteorological observation but is also successfully used for vegetation monitoring.

Remote Sensing is being used to collect the information about agriculture, forestry, geography, archeology, weather & climate (meteorology), marine environment, hydrogeology, water resource management & assessment, civil engineering and so on. It provides meaningful and valuable information in various fields such as natural disaster such as floods, volcanoes, earthquakes, landslides, tsunami etc.



REMOTE SENSING DATA COLLECTION: This has started in 1860 with James Wallace Black's photograph of Boston from a balloon. Most of the remotely sensed data used for mapping and spatial analysis is collected as reflected electromagnetic radiation, which is then processed into a digital form. This helps to detect and classify objects on the Earth's land surface, atmosphere and oceans.



- a. **Satellites:** Satellites have been used for capturing geospatial information for over 60 years now mainly for weather forecasting, mapping, environmental research, military intelligence and more.
- b. **Aerial Photography:** It is one of the earliest forms of remote sensing and is still one of the most widely used and cost-effective methods of remote sensing. The advent of drones, Unmanned Aerial Vehicles have made aerial photography easier for commercial and non-commercial purposes.
- c. **LiDAR (LIGHT DETECTION AND RANGING):** It is a Remote Sensing method that uses light in the form of pulsed laser to measure variable distances to the earth. These light pulses combined with other Airborne System generate precise 3-Dimensional information about the earth's features and its characteristics. The instrument used for LiDAR method is called as LiDAR scanners, LiDAR detectors.
- d. **RADAR (Radio Detection and Ranging):** It's also a Remote Sensing method that detects the speed, distance and direction of an aircraft, ships and other objects. By sending out pulses of radio waves which are reflected off the object back to the sources. High power RADAR using large dish antennas has been used to measure distances to the Moon, other planets, asteroids and artificial satellites.

- e. **UAV (Unmanned Aerial Vehicle):** Drone is an aircraft without human that can be controlled by an operator from the ground. They are originated mostly in military applications, but are rapidly utilized for commercial, scientific, recreational, agricultural, traffic monitoring, disasters monitoring and others.

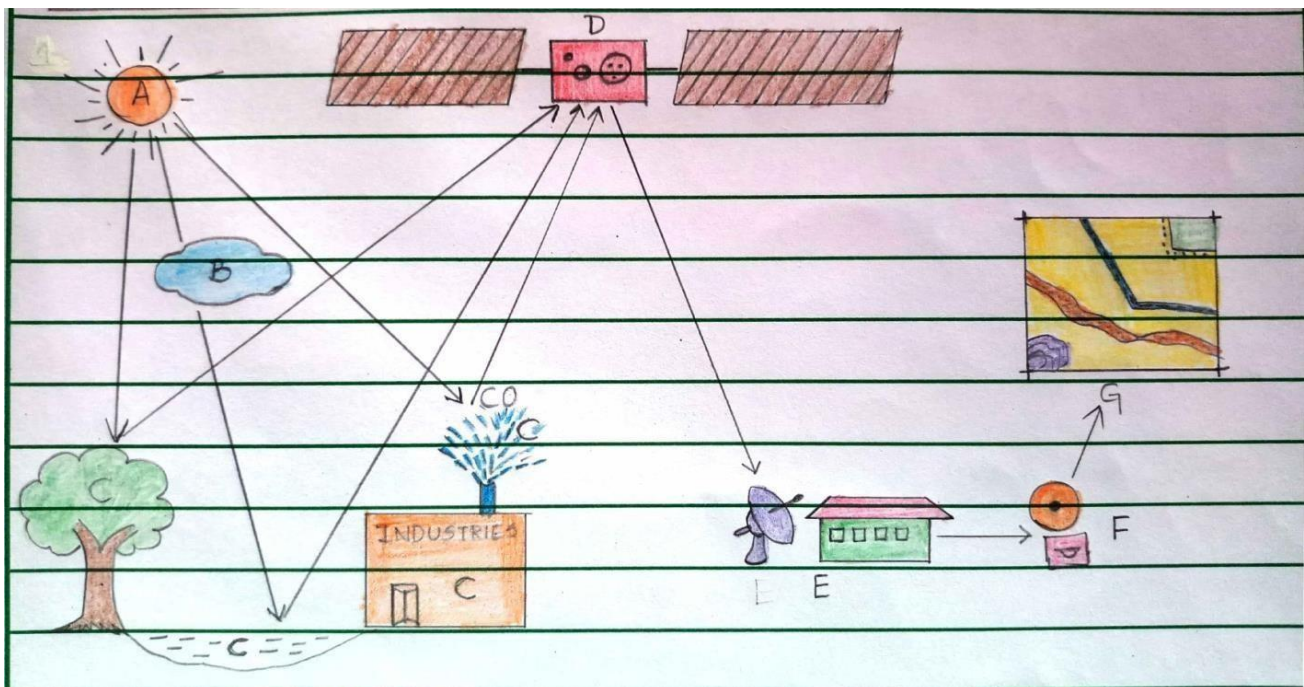
REMOTESENSING ADVANTAGES

- Geology:** Geological and structural mapping.
- Hydrology:** Mapping of surface water bodies, monitoring wetlands, snow covers and glaciers.
- Agriculture:** Crop type, crop rotation & its condition analysis and soil moisture measurements.
- Forestry:** Mapping of exact forest boundaries, biomass estimation, species identification and fire scar mapping.
- Oceanography:** Sea ice identification, coastal wind field and waveslope measurements.
- Shipping:** Navigation of types of ship, its detection and classification.
- Coastal Zone:** Shoreline detection, sea-freshwater intrusions and general vegetation cover.
- Military/Security Applications:** Detecting the exact location and speed of the warplanes.

LIMITATIONS OF REMOTESENSING

- Remote sensing is a fairly expensive method of analysis especially when measuring smaller areas.
- Requires a special kind of training for effective interpretation of Remote Sensing technology.
- It is expensive to analyze repetitive photographs.
- Instrumental error may lead to un-calibrated Remote Sensing data.
- The information provided by Remote Sensing data may not be complete and may be temporary.
- Large scale engineering maps cannot be prepared from satellite data which makes Remote Sensing data collection incomplete.

PROCESS OF REMOTESENSING SYSTEMS



A= Natural light source (Sun); B= Atmospheric elements (clouds; CO emission); C= Surface features; D= Satellite sensor; E= Observation station; F= Disk/ floppy; G= Processed Images

- 1. Energy Source (A):-** Sun is the main source of light energy which strikes the earth surface features through Electro-Magnetic Radiation (EMR).
- 2. Radiation and Atmosphere (B):-** EMR interacts with the atmospheric elements while traveling from its source to the target. This may obstruct the accuracy of the data collection.
- 3. Interaction with the Target (C):-** Radiation that is not absorbed or scattered in the atmosphere can reach and interact with the Earth's surface. Different objects return different amount of energy depending on the physical, chemical & optical properties.
- 4. Recording of Energy by the Sensor (D):-** After the energy has been emitted from the target, the reflected wavelength will be collected and recorded by the sensors. Error may occur during the data collection due to difference in surface roughness, angle of incidence, intensity, and wavelength of radiant energy.
- 5. Transmission, Reception, and Processing (E):-** The energy recorded by the sensor will transmit the data in electronic form to the nearest observation station. Then the detection and discrimination of earth's feature will be done to form final image.
- 6. Interpretation and Analysis (F):-** Later the processed image will be interpreted visually and digitally to extract specific information of the particular features.

ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM

Electromagnetic Radiation (Waves): Electromagnetic Radiation is the combination of electric and magnetic fields that propagate together at the speed of light. But this energy can be detectable only when it reacts with any object. This is commonly spoken of as the velocity of light, although light is only one form of electromagnetic energy.

$$\text{Speed of light (C)} = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

Sun is a natural source of electromagnetic radiation that can travel in vacuum. An electromagnetic wave is characterized by

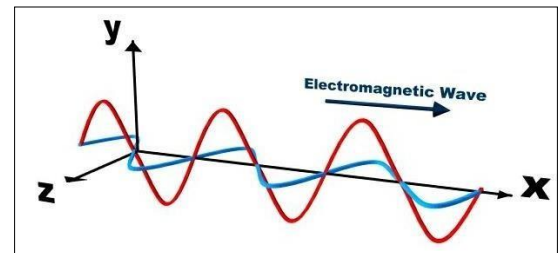
i. **Frequency (f):** It is the number of waves that pass in an interval of time. Hertz is the unit for a frequency of one cycle per second.

ii. **Wavelength (λ):** It is the distance between successive crests or troughs in the wave measured in standard metric system.

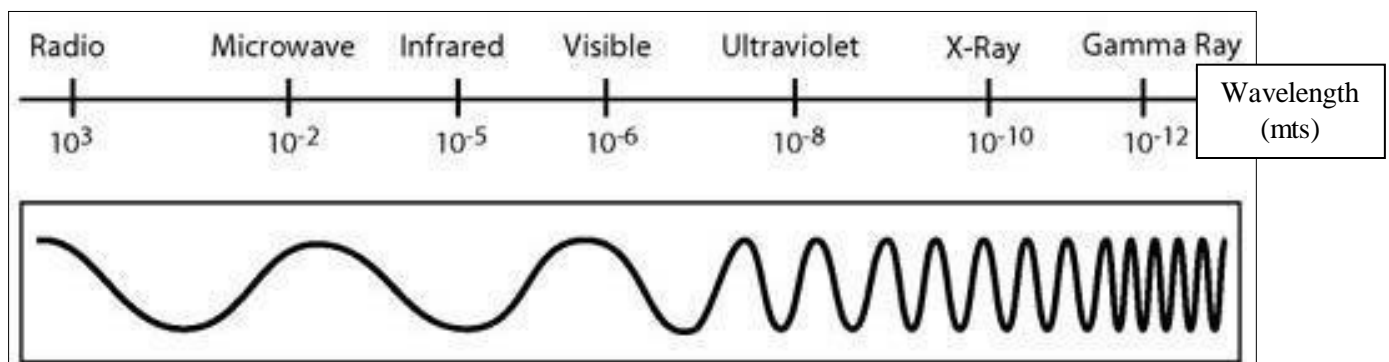
$$C = f \times \lambda$$

or

$$f = C / \lambda$$



ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM

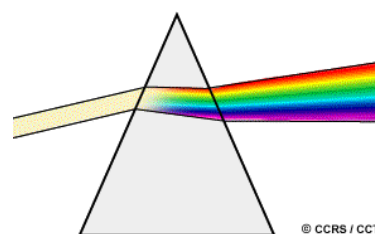
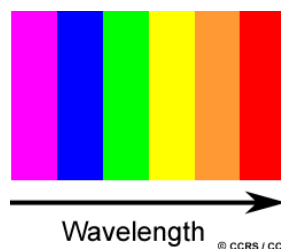


1. The electromagnetic spectrum is the range of all possible frequencies of electromagnetic waves.
2. The main components of the electromagnetic spectrum are
 - a. Gamma-rays
 - b. X-rays
 - c. Ultra-violet rays
 - d. Visible light
 - e. Infra-Red rays
 - f. Microwaves
 - g. Radio waves
3. Lowest frequencies are recorded at the one end of radio waves, while highest frequencies are recorded on the other end of gamma rays.
4. Wavelength and frequencies are inversely proportional to each other as the frequencies increase, the wavelength decreases.
5. Visible region of the spectrum lies in the spectral rays of 0.4 – 0.7 μm wavelength. The energy reflected by the earth and other objects during the day time is recorded in this range. This is only region which is visible to human eye.
6. Reflected Infrared radiation ranges from 0.7 – 3 μm wavelength. These are recorded by infrared sensor systems.
7. Thermal Infrared radiation ranges from 3–5 μm and 8–14 μm representing greater intensity.
8. Micro-wave region ranges from 1–300 mm which can penetrate through rain, fog and clouds. Both active and passive sensors are capable of taking images using these sensors.
9. Gamma rays range less than 10 picometer.
10. X-rays range from 10^{-5} – 10^{-3} (0.000001 nm).
11. Radio-waves have longest wavelength greater than 10^6 used for Remote Sensing in some radars.

WAVELENGTH REGIONS IMPORTANT TO REMOTE SENSING

1. **Ultraviolet or UV:** Ultraviolet (UV) light has wavelengths of approximately 1 – 380 nm. Near and middle UV wavelengths have information about ozone, sulfur dioxide, and trace gases in the troposphere and stratosphere (0–50 km) of interest to the atmospheric and volcanic sciences. Far and extreme UV wavelengths have information about airglow and auroral emissions from the thermosphere (>100 km) of interest in aeronomy and space weather. Few earth surface rocks and minerals emit visible radiation when illuminated by UV radiation.
2. **Visible Spectrums:** The visible wavelengths cover a range from approximately 400 – 750 nm or 0.4 to 0.7 μm . The longest visible wavelength is red and the shortest is violet. The visible portion of the spectrum is used extensively in remote sensing and energy is recorded using photography. Common wavelengths of what we perceive as particular colors from the visible portion of the spectrum are listed below. **Red, Green and Blue** are the primary colors in which all other colors can be formed in various proportions. Although we see sunlight as a uniform or homogeneous color, it is actually composed of various wavelengths of radiation in primarily the ultraviolet, visible and infrared portions of the spectrum. The visible portion of this radiation can be shown in its component colors when sunlight is passed through a **prism**, which bends the light in differing amounts according to wavelength.

Color	Wavelength
violet	380–450 nm
blue	450–495 nm
green	495–570 nm
yellow	570–590 nm
orange	590–620 nm
red	620–750 nm



- 3 Infrared (IR):** This covers the wavelength range from approximately 0.7 μm to 100 μm (750 nm - 10,000 nm) more than 100 times as wide as the visible portion. The infrared can be divided into 3 categories as follows

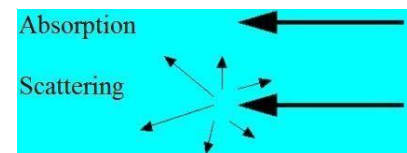
SI No	Categories	Wavelength range	Applications
1.	NearInfraRed (NIR)	0.7 μm to 1.3 μm	To expose black & white and color-infrared sensitive film
2.	Shortwave InfraRed (SWIR)	1.3 to 3.0 μm	Used to observe the health of vegetation, soil composition and moisture content.
3.	ThermalInfraRed (TIR)	3.0 μm to 100 μm	Wavelengths from 8 to 15 μm are best for studying the long wave thermal energy radiating from the Earth.

- 4 Microwave:** Microwaves are essentially high frequency radio waves and have wavelengths that range 1 mm to 1 m. Mid-wavelength microwaves can penetrate through haze, light rain & snow, clouds, and smoke are beneficial for satellite communication, flight movement and studying the Earth from space. Radar technology sends pulses of microwave energy and senses the energy reflected back.

SI No	Region	Wavelength	Remarks
1.	Gamma ray	<0.03 nm	Incoming radiation is completely absorbed by the upper atmosphere and is not available for RS
2.	X-ray	0.03 to 3.0 nm	Completely absorbed by atmosphere. Not employed in RS
3.	Ultraviolet	0.3 to 0.4 μm	Incoming wavelengths less than 0.3 μm are completely absorbed by ozone in the upper atmosphere.
4.	Photographic UV band	0.3 to 0.4 μm	Transmitted through atmosphere. Detectable with film and photodetectors, but atmospheric scattering is severe
5.	Visible	0.4 to 0.7 μm	Imaged with film and photodetectors. Includes reflected energy peak of earth at 0.5 μm
6.	Infrared	0.7 to 1.00 μm	Interaction with matter varies with wavelength. Atmospheric transmission windows are separated.
7.	Reflected IR band	0.7 to 3.0 μm	Reflected solar radiation that contains information about thermal properties of materials. The band from 0.7 to 0.9 μm is detectable with film and is called the photographic IR band.
8.	Thermal IR	3 to 5 μm	Principal atmospheric windows in the 8 to 14 μm thermal region. Images at these wavelengths are acquired by optical mechanical scanners and special vidicon systems but not by film. Microwave 0.1 to 30 cm longer wavelengths can penetrate clouds, fog and rain. Images may be acquired in the active or passive mode.
9.	Radar	0.1 to 30 cm	Active form of microwave RS. Radar images are acquired at various wavelength bands.
10.	Radio	>30 cm	Longest wavelength portion of electromagnetic spectrum. Some classified radars with very long wavelengths operate in this region.

ENERGY INTERACTIONS WITH THE ATMOSPHERE

The constituent of the atmosphere can be divided into two groups viz. (a) pure gases and (b) particulates. Pure gases in the atmosphere comprise nitrogen (78 %), oxygen (21%) and traces of argon, CO, water vapour and ozone. The particulates in the atmosphere include particles of various sizes originating from smoke, dust and rock debris. EMR has to travel through some distances

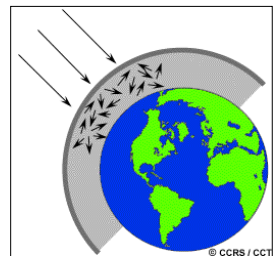


through these constituents in the earth's atmosphere before reaching the surface. Atmospheric gases and particles may affect the incoming light and radiation caused by the mechanism of **absorption** and **scattering**.

1. ABSORPTION: Ozone, carbon dioxide, and water vapor are the three main atmospheric constituents which absorb radiation. **Ozone** serves as protective layer all living organisms which absorb the harmful UV radiation from the sun. Without this protective layer in the atmosphere our skin would burn when exposed to sunlight. **Carbon dioxide** is referred to as a greenhouse gas that tends to absorb radiation strongly in the far infrared region and serves to trap heat inside the atmosphere. Water vapor in the atmosphere absorbs much of the incoming long wave infrared and shortwave microwave radiation (between 1.4, 1.9 and 2.1 μm). The presence of water vapor in the lower atmosphere varies greatly from location to location and at different times of the year.

E.g., air mass above a desert would have very little water vapor to absorb energy, while the tropics would have high concentrations of water vapor (i.e. high humidity).

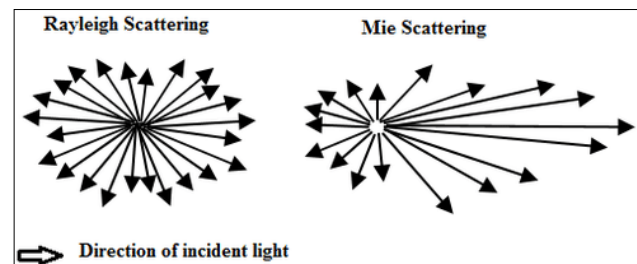
2. SCATTERING: The atmospheric elements such as gas molecules of $10^{-4} \mu\text{m}$ in size and haze (water droplets) vary in size from $10^{-2} \mu\text{m}$ to $10^2 \mu\text{m}$ may affect the frequency, intensity, spectral distribution and change the radiation path. It reduces the image contrast, and reflectance characteristics of ground objects as seen by the sensor. This depends upon the relative size of atmospheric particles. There are three (3) types of scattering which take place.



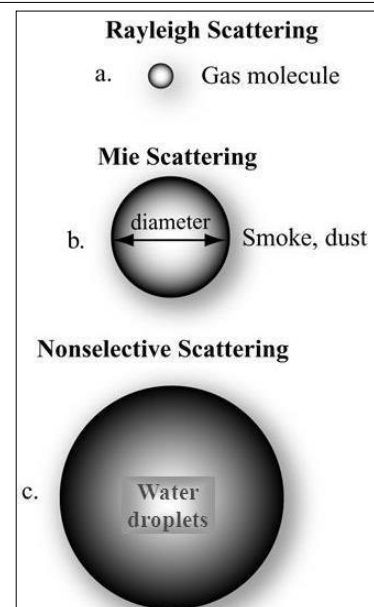
i. RAYLEIGH SCATTERING: Rayleigh

scattering occurs when very small particles such as small specks of dust or nitrogen and oxygen molecules by size of $10^{-4} \mu\text{m}$ in a clean atmosphere.

Rayleigh scattering is the dominant scattering mechanism in the upper atmosphere and causes shorter wavelengths. The fact that the sky appears "blue" during the day is because of this phenomenon. At **sunrise and sunset** the light has to travel farther through the atmosphere than at midday and the scattering of the shorter wavelengths is more complete; this leaves a greater proportion of the longer wavelengths to penetrate the atmosphere.



i. MIE SCATTERING: It occurs when the particles are just about the same size as the wavelength of the radiation. Dust, smoke, water vapor and other particles ranging from a few micron to several microns in diameter are common causes which tend to affect longer wavelengths. Mie scattering occurs mostly in the lower portions of the atmosphere where larger particles are more abundant and dominates when cloud conditions are overcast. The amount of Mie scatter is greater than the Rayleigh scatter and wavelengths scattered are larger.



i. NON-SELECTIVE SCATTERING: This occurs in the other extreme case when the particle size is

very much larger than the wavelength and does not depend on the wavelength of radiation. The whitish appearance of sky under heavy haze conditions is due to non-selective scattering. The effect of Rayleigh component can be eliminated by using minus blue filter. This type of scattering causes fog and clouds to appear white to our eyes because blue, green, and red light are all scattered in approximately equal quantities (blue+green+red light = white light).

Eg: Rainbows.

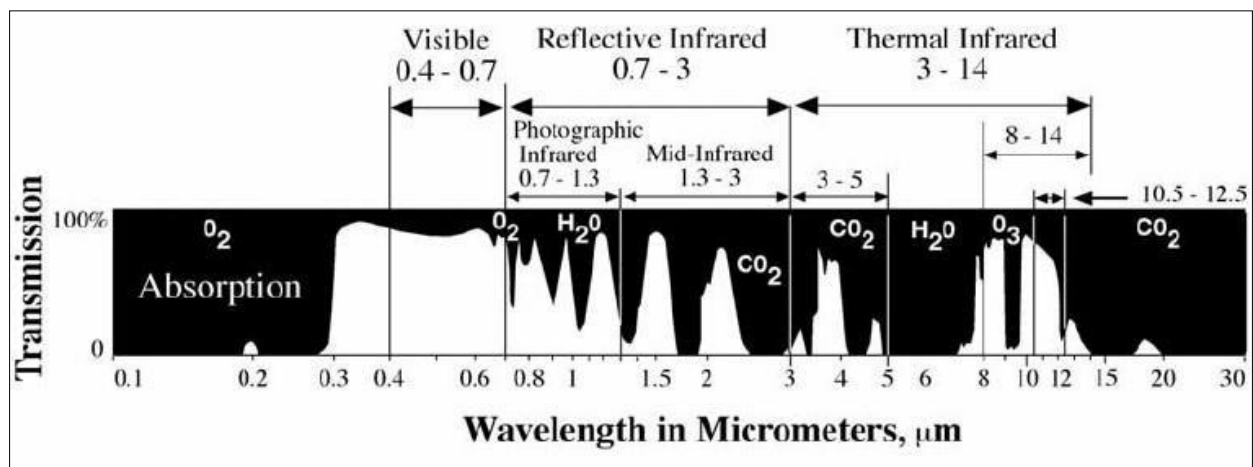
ATMOSPHERIC WINDOWS

Regions of the electromagnetic spectrum in which the atmosphere is transparent are called atmospheric windows. These wavelengths corresponding to atmospheric window are used in Remote Sensing to acquire good quality images. In the visible and infrared bands atmospheric windows exist in the following regions:

Visible and Near IR - 0.4 μm to 1.3 μm

Thermal IR- 3 μm to 5.5 μm 8.5 μm to 14 μm

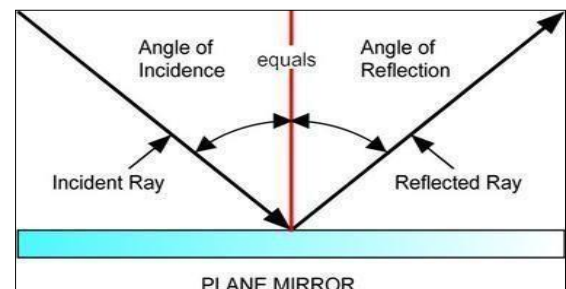
When EMR is transmitted from the sun to the earth's surface, it passes through the atmosphere. Here, electromagnetic radiation is scattered and absorbed by gases and dust particles. Besides the major atmospheric gaseous components like nitrogen and oxygen, other constituents like water vapour, methane, hydrogen and helium compounds play an important role in modifying electro-magnetic radiation. This affects image quality. Some of the commonly used atmospheric windows are shown in the figure.



Atmospheric Window in the Electromagnetic Spectrum

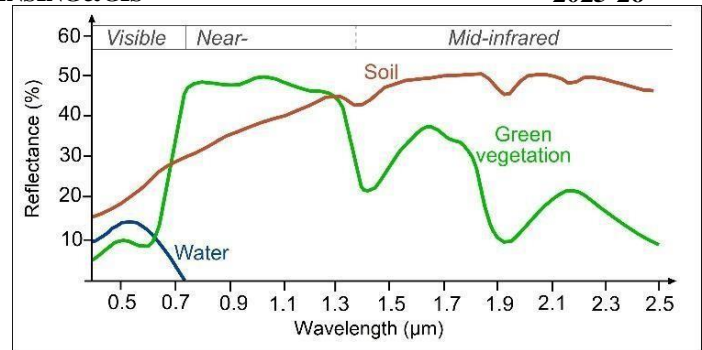
SPECTRAL SIGNATURE CONCEPTS-TYPICAL SPECTRAL REFLECTANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF SOIL, WATER AND VEGETATION

Each earth surface object has its own spectral characteristic manner of interacting with incident radiation described by the spectral response of the electromagnetic spectrum. These targets in a particular wavelength region, in turn depends upon certain factors, namely orientation of the sun (solar azimuth), the height of the Sun in the sky (solar elevation angle), the direction in which the sensor is pointing relative to nadir (the look angle) and nature of the target, that is, state of health of vegetation.



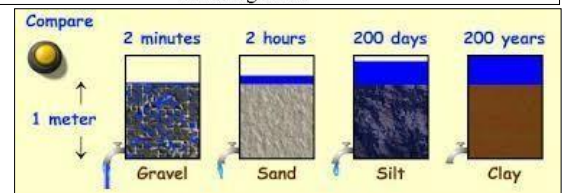
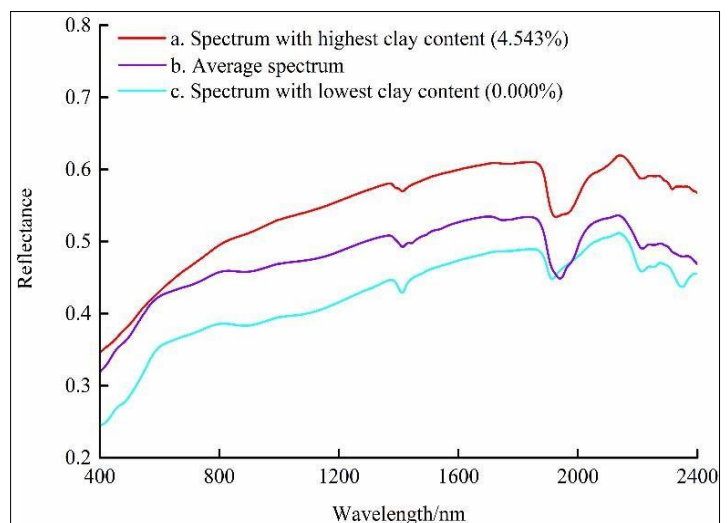
Spectral Reflectivity

- Reflectivity is the fraction of incident radiation reflected by a surface.
- The reflectance characteristics of Earth's surface features may be quantified by measuring the portion of incident energy that is reflected.
- This is measured as a function of wavelength (λ) and is called spectral reflectance ($r\lambda$).
- Chlorophyll strongly absorbs energy in the wavelength bands centered at about $0.45\mu\text{m}$ (blue) and $0.67\mu\text{m}$ (red).
- Our eyes perceive healthy vegetation as green in color because of the very high reflection of green light.



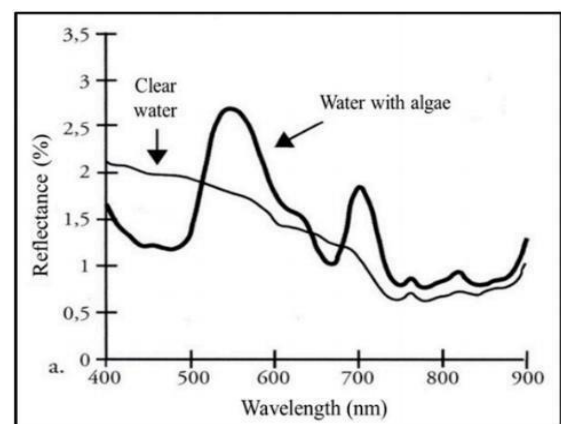
i. Spectral reflectance of Soil

- ❖ The factors that influence soil reflectance act over less specified spectral bands.
- ❖ Factors affecting soil reflectance are moisture content, soil texture (proportion of sand, silt and clay), surface roughness, presence of iron oxide and organic matter content.
- ❖ The presence of moisture in soil will decrease its reflectance—this effect is greatest in the water absorption bands at about 1.4 , 1.9 , 2.2 and $2.7\mu\text{m}$.
- ❖ Bare soil generally has an increasing reflectance, with greater reflectance in near-infrared and shortwave infrared.



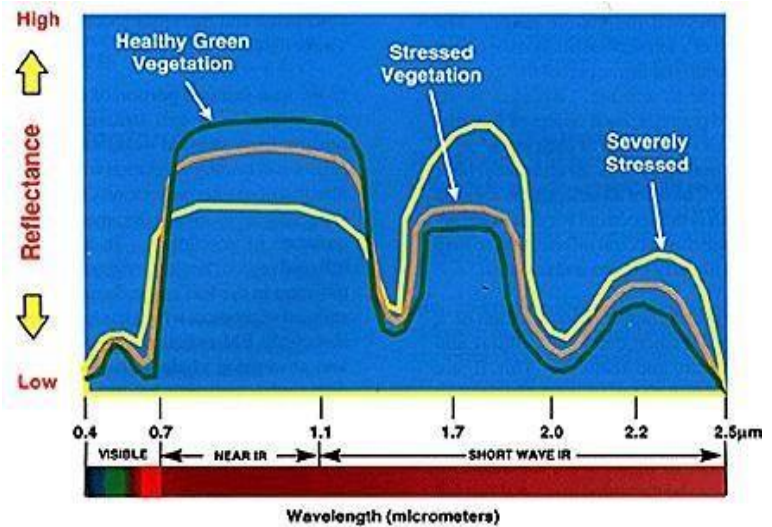
ii. Spectral reflectance of Water

- ❖ Water (in soil, vegetation or water bodies) absorbs radiation at near-IR wavelengths and beyond (strong absorption bands at about 1.4 , 1.9 and $2.7\mu\text{m}$).
- ❖ Reflectance from a water body can stem from an interaction with the water's surface (specular reflection), with material suspended in the water, or with the bottom of the water body.
- ❖ Water has relatively low reflectance, with clear water having the greatest reflectance in the blue portion of the visible part of the spectrum.



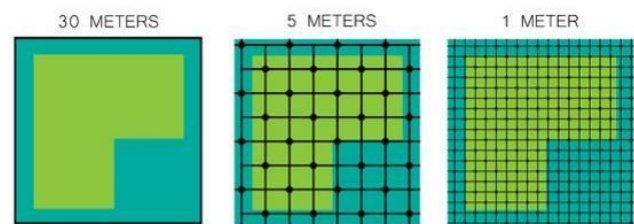
Spectral reflectance of Vegetation

- ❖ In the range of 0.7 to 1.3 μm a plant leaf typically reflects 40-50% of the energy incident upon it primarily due to the internal structure of plant leaves.
- ❖ This helps in discriminating different plants and trees in various fields.
- ❖ Many plant stresses alter the reflectance in this region, and sensors operating in this range are often used for vegetation stress detection.
- ❖ Beyond 1.3 μm energy incident upon vegetation is essentially absorbed or reflected with little or no transmittance of energy.
- ❖ Dips in reflectance occur at 1.4, 1.9 and 2.7 μm due to strong absorption of water by leaves at these wavelengths (*water absorption bands*).
- ❖ Reflectance peaks occur at about 1.6 μm and 2.2 μm between the absorption bands throughout the range beyond 1.3 μm , leaf reflectance is approximately inversely related to the total water present in a leaf which is a function of both the moisture content and the thickness of a leaf.



RESOLUTION

Resolution refers to the smallest size an object or detail can be represented in an image. Higher resolution means that pixel size is smaller, providing more detail. Imagery satellites provide different types of resolutions, revisit rates and carry different information. Some have lower resolutions but cover large areas with daily revisits while others offer very high-resolution resolution images from specific locations.



The data can also be full RGB bands as well as black and white images or non-visible bands. Very high-resolution satellites usually cover less than 1 m per pixel. Their level of detail makes them suitable to apply algorithms to monitor changes, detect objects, or spot trends. They are very useful to track human activities as well as remote natural areas. 30 m resolution satellite imagery can capture details on the ground that are greater than or equal to 30 m by 30 m. Anything on the ground that is less than that size will be blended with the surrounding area to make a 30 m by 30 m square.

IMAGE REGISTRATION

It is the process of transforming the different set of data into one coordinate system. This process helps in overlaying two or more images of same place taken at different times, from different viewpoints or from different sensors. Image registration is the first step towards using remote sensed images for any purpose. Toposheet of 1:50,000 scale from Survey of India will be considered as base map for any satellite image registration. These images are geo-rectified by considering permanent features such as temples, major roads (NH/SH), drainages, power-lines, railways, settlements, co-ordinates, forests and village boundaries. A field survey has to be conducted for ground verification of doubtful areas with the help of GPS on hilly

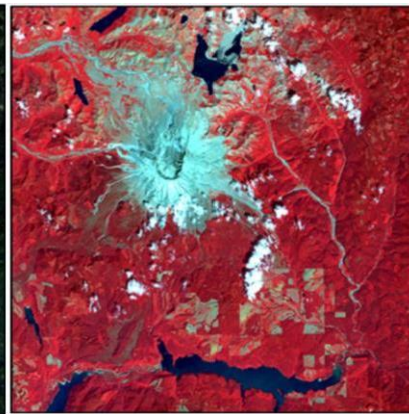
terrains and remote places where accessibility is difficult. This technique majorly utilized in the field of medicine, cartography, climatology, archaeo-survey, hydrology, hydrogeology, pattern recognition etc.

FALSECOLOUR COMPOSITE

FCC allow us to visualize the wavelengths the human eye does not see (Near infrared range). The use of bands, such as near infrared, increases spectral separation and can enhance the interpretability of data. False color images are a representation of a multispectral image created using ranges other than visible red, green, and blue, such as red, green and blue image components. There are many different false colored composites that can be used to highlight different features.



Natural Color Composite



False Color Composite (FCC)

Composite Name	Bands
Natural Color	4 3 2
False Color (urban)	7 6 4
Color Infrared (vegetation)	5 4 3
Agriculture	6 5 2
Healthy Vegetation	5 6 2
Land/Water	5 6 4
Natural With Atmospheric Removal	7 5 3
Shortwave Infrared	7 5 4
Vegetation Analysis	6 5 4

Landsat-8 Band combinations

Band combinations are selected for a number of reasons and it is helpful to understand the spectral reflectance profiles of features. For example in the NIR false color composite shown above healthy vegetation appears bright red as they reflect more near infrared than green. In this type of FCC images vegetation appears in different shapes of red depending on the types and conditions of the vegetation. Clear water appears as dark blue (higher green band reflectance), while turbid water appears cyan it means higher reflectance of red compared to clear water. Bare soils, roads and buildings may appear in various shapes of blue yellowish to white depending on their compositions.

ELEMENTS OF VISUAL INTERPRETATION TECHNIQUES

A systematic study of aerial photographs and satellite imagery usually involves several characteristics of features shown on an image and it depends upon field of application. Most of the applications consider the following basic characteristics or variation in them which aid the visual interpretation process of satellite imagery.

1. Tone:- Tone refers to the relative brightness or color of objects in an image. Each sensor records a specific color or range of colors that reveal particular features. Variations or shades of these tone/ colors provide better interpretation techniques. This becomes a fundamental element to distinguishing between similar features.

2. Shape:- Shape refers to the structure or outline boundary of individual objects. Shape can be a very distinctive clue for interpretation. Distinct patterns appear due to human activities such as roads, railway tracks, power lines (line or linear), urban, agricultural lands (rectangular), forest edges etc. The shapes of forest boundaries are more irregular in shape, except where man has created a road or clear cuts. Coconut plantation shows regular shape with shadow due to its height.

- 3 Size:-** Size of the objects in an image is a function of scale. Recognition of familiar objects allows size estimation of other features; size is an important aspect of association. It is important to assess the size of a target relative to other objects in a scene. A quick approximation of target size can direct interpretation to an appropriate result more quickly. An area with a number of large buildings such as factories or warehouses would suggest commercial property, whereas small buildings would indicate residential use. Size and shape information greatly influenced by image resolution.
- 4 Pattern:-** refers to the spatial arrangement of objects of discrimination. Typically an orderly repetitive object is a recognizable pattern. Urban streets with regularly spaced houses and agricultural activity with rectangular shapes are good examples of pattern.
- 5 Texture:-** Areas of an image with varying degrees of 'smoothness' or 'roughness'. Water appears as smooth while forest canopy results in a rough textured appearance. Texture is one of the most important elements for distinguishing features in radar imagery.
- 6 Shadow:-** Shadow effects change throughout the day and throughout the year. It helps to interpret relative heights and size of an object. Shadow is also useful for enhancing topography and landforms, particularly in radar imagery.
- 7 Association:-** It identifies the relationship between 2 or more recognizable objects. Commercial properties may be associated with major transportation routes, whereas residential areas would be associated with schools, hospitals, parks and sports fields. Agricultural and irrigation activities will be associated with nearby perennial rivers and streams.
- 8 Site:-** It refers to the characteristics of an object such as topography, soil, vegetation and cultural features. Physical position of object feature (topographic or geographic), hillslopes, ocean, land, mountains etc. The extensive transportation network also a good key to identify the port.