

# Ground mobile observation system for measuring multisurface microwave emissivity

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## Abstract

Large microwave surface emissivities with a highly heterogeneous distribution and the relatively small hydrometeor signal over land make it challenging to use satellite microwave data to retrieve precipitation and to be assimilated into numerical models. To better understand the microwave emissivity over land surfaces, we designed and established a ground observation system for the in situ observation of microwave emissivities over several typical surfaces. The major components of the system include a dual-frequency polarized ground microwave radiometer, a mobile observation platform, and auxiliary sensors to measure the surface temperature and soil temperature and moisture; moreover, observation fields are designed comprising five different land surfaces.

Based on the observed data from the mobile system, we preliminarily investigated the variations in the surface microwave emissivity over different land surfaces. The results show that the horizontally polarized emissivity is more sensitive to land surface variability than is the vertically polarized emissivity: the former decreases to 0.75 over cement and increases to 0.90 over sand and bare soil and up to 0.97 over grass. The corresponding emissivity polarization difference is obvious over water

27 (>0.3) and cement (approximately 0.25) but reduces to 0.1 over sand and 0.05 over  
28 bare soil and almost 0.01 or close to zero over grass; this trend is similar to that of the  
29 Tb polarization difference. At different elevation angles, the horizontally/vertically  
30 polarized emissivities over land surfaces obviously increase/slightly decrease with  
31 increasing elevation angles but exhibit the opposite trend over water.

32 Key words: Ground mobile observation system, microwave radiometer, microwave surface  
33 emissivity, surface temperature, land surface

## 34 **1 Introduction**

35 The land surface microwave emissivity varies but is generally high (~ 0.90) and  
36 thus generates strong surface radiance; however, this strong surface radiance obscures  
37 radiance from the atmosphere and hydrometeors, making it more difficult to  
38 assimilate and precisely retrieve atmospheric parameters using satellite microwave  
39 data over land (McNally et al., 2000; Farbou et al., 2005; Schwartz et al., 2012).  
40 Moreover, due to complex variations affected by many surface factors, such as soil  
41 type, wetness, vegetation type and surface roughness, the land surface emissivity is  
42 poorly understood. Hence, the land surface microwave emissivity constitutes a major  
43 parameter limiting the application of spaceborne microwave data over land.

44 Microwave emissivity models have been developed only for a limited range of  
45 frequencies and surface conditions. For example, the emissivity over bare soil was  
46 modeled at lower frequencies, and the soil dielectric constants were obtained from  
47 ground-based measurements (Wang and Schmugge, 1980). The emissivity over the  
48 vegetation canopy was simulated using a radiative transfer model with a large number

49 of canopy optical parameters (Mo and Schmugge, 1987; Isaacs et al., 1989; Fung,  
50 1994). Weng (2001) developed a microwave land emissivity model to quantify the  
51 emissivity over various surface conditions, including snow, deserts, and vegetation.  
52 Xie et al. (2017) developed a parameterized soil surface emissivity model for bare soil  
53 surfaces and compared with Weng's model, results reflected the reduced overall  
54 errors, especially for horizontal polarization. Ultimately, the microwave emissivity of  
55 land surfaces is determined mainly by the soil dielectric constant, which is influenced  
56 by the physical temperature, soil texture and moisture content, and vegetation  
57 structure and type. As a result of these complicated parameters with numerous  
58 uncertainties, establishing a common physical emissivity model and accurately  
59 obtaining emissivity estimates by using only an emissivity model remain challenging.

60 Satellite observations offering extensive coverage have been used to estimate the  
61 regional and global distributions of land surface emissivity since the 1990s (Prigent et  
62 al., 2000; Moncet et al., 2011). To avoid the impacts of the complex variability of  
63 clouds and precipitation in the atmosphere, only the brightness temperatures observed  
64 by spaceborne microwave instruments under clear sky conditions are generally  
65 selected to calculate the land surface microwave emissivity. Jones and Vonder Haar  
66 (1997) used SSM/I (Special Sensor Microwave Imager) microwave observations and  
67 GOES/VISSR (Geostationary Operational Environmental Satellite/Visible Infrared  
68 Spin-Scan Radiometer) infrared data that were closely matched in both space and time  
69 to retrieve the microwave land emissivity over the Central United States and utilized  
70 the infrared data with a constant infrared emissivity of 0.98 to calculate the land skin

71 temperature (LST) under clear sky conditions. Further, Ruston and Vonder Haar (2004)  
72 directly employed spatially varying infrared surface emissivities in the retrieval of  
73 LST to calculate the microwave emissivity and discovered that the  
74 atmospheric-corrected microwave surface emissivity is valuable for determining land  
75 surface characteristics but is sensitive to rain events. Prigent et al. (1997, 1999)  
76 calculated the land surface microwave emissivity over Africa, some parts of Europe  
77 and West Asia by combining SSM/I data with LST observations provided by ISCCP  
78 (International Satellite Cloud Climatology Project). With subsequently improved  
79 ISCCP LST and cloud product data, Prigent et al. (2006) presented a global land  
80 surface microwave emissivity database retrieved from 10 years of SSM/I data and  
81 plotted the monthly average land surface microwave emissivity onto a geographic  
82 map. In their work, the microwave emissivity retrieval was based primarily on  
83 radiative transfer calculations, in which infrared data were used to determine the LST  
84 under clear sky conditions, and atmospheric sounding data were used to take the  
85 effects of atmospheric attenuation into account. Nevertheless, due to the complexity  
86 and variability of clouds and atmospheric precipitation, land surface microwave  
87 emissivity estimates derived from satellite observations are available only under clear  
88 sky conditions. Moreover, the cloud screening and LST retrieval methods still contain  
89 numerous uncertainties, which represent the main sources of errors in emissivity  
90 calculations.

91 At present, the accuracy of surface emissivity estimates calculated from either  
92 emissivity models or satellite observations is limited by the complexity of the land

93 surface and the variability of vegetation types and soil moisture. Another important  
94 limitation is availability and accuracy of necessary input parameters on a global scale.  
95 Hence, surface emissivity calculations need to be verified and improved with more in  
96 situ observation data.

97 To better understand the variation characteristics of surface emissivity with  
98 surface conditions, Ulaby et al. (1985) combined field experiments and theoretical  
99 research and revealed that the land surface microwave specific emissivity is strongly  
100 correlated with the distributions of soil moisture and vegetation. In addition, a few  
101 observation experiments using ground-based microwave radiometers have been  
102 carried out since the 1990s to study the variation characteristics of emissivity over  
103 different surfaces (Njoku and O'Neill, 1982; Matzler, 1990, 1994; Calvet, 1997;  
104 Wigneron, 1994; Morland et al., 1995). More recently, in situ passive microwave  
105 radiometer measurements over snow cover and sub-Arctic frozen soil have been used  
106 to validate empirical emission models (Lemmetyinen et al., 2015; Montpetit et al.,  
107 2018). Additionally, an aircraft-flown microwave radiometer was used to directly  
108 observe the surface emissivity over forests, crops, snow and ice to analyze the  
109 sensitivity of those emissivities to the view angle, frequency, measurement time and  
110 surface characteristics (Hewison, 2001; Wigneron et al., 1997; Hewison and English,  
111 1999).

112 The observation mode of a microwave radiometer in a field experiment is an  
113 important consideration. Usually, ground-based radiometers are fixed when scanning  
114 the observed field; for example, they can be mounted on a truck or a tower (Matzler,

115 1990; Lemmetyinen et al., 2015), allowing the instrument to better determine the  
116 temporal evolution of surface emissivity over single type of land-cover area. In  
117 contrast, using a mobile mode, such as airborne and mobile sled-based radiometers  
118 (Morland, 2003; Lemmetyinen et al., 2015; Montpetit et al., 2018), can better reveal  
119 the spatial evolution of surface emissivity over different land-cover areas, but it is not  
120 easy to obtain long-term emissivity observations due to the high cost and effort.

121 To obtain the long-term temporal evolution of surface emissivity over different  
122 types of surfaces simultaneously, we proposed and developed a ground mobile  
123 observation system to enhance in situ microwave emissivity observations. Long-term  
124 continuous emissivity field experiments can help to more accurately understand the  
125 characteristics of passive microwave polarized emissivities over typical land surfaces,  
126 form a benchmark for verifying the retrieved emissivities from satellite or emission  
127 models, and establish an emissivity parameterization scheme for a given surface in  
128 radiance assimilation. The outline of this paper is as follows: the design of the ground  
129 mobile observation system for measuring surface emissivity is introduced in section 2;  
130 the data and method used for the emissivity calculations are described in section 3;  
131 then, the surface emissivity estimates obtained directly from the observation system  
132 are discussed preliminarily in section 4; and a final short summary is given in section  
133 5.

## 134 **2. Ground mobile observation system for surface microwave emissivity**

135 To obtain the surface emissivity over several typical surfaces simultaneously, we  
136 designed a ground mobile observation system to carry out long-term field experiments

137 over 5 test plots. Fig. 1 is an on-site photo of the observation system operating at the  
138 Xianghe observation site (116.98° E, 39.76° N) , Hebei Province, China. As shown in  
139 Fig. 1, the mobile observation system consists of five main parts: a dual-frequency  
140 (18.7 and 36.5 GHz), dual-polarized ground-based microwave radiometer to observe  
141 the surface and sky radiances, a mobile platform to move back and forth along a track,  
142 and three auxiliary sensors to measure the surface temperature, soil temperature and  
143 moisture. The observation field includes five test plots, namely, water, cement, sand,  
144 bare soil and grass. From the observation system, we can directly obtain surface  
145 microwave emissivity estimates more accurately than is possible from satellite data or  
146 emissivity models, which is important to properly understand the variation  
147 characteristics of land microwave emissivities and to improve the emissivity  
148 parameterization schemes used in models.



149  
150 Fig 1 On-site photo of the surface microwave emissivity observation system  
151 operating over various surfaces at the Xianghe site, China  
152

## 153 2.1 Ground-based microwave radiometer

154 The core device of the observation system is a dual-frequency (18.7 and 36.5  
155 GHz), dual-polarized (horizontal and vertical) microwave radiometer (RPG-4CH-DP)  
156 produced by Radiometer Physics GmbH, Germany. The RPG-4CH-DP radiometer is a  
157 high-performance instrument with a direct detection receiver and a completely  
158 automatic calibration system. The radiometer is mounted on an accurate  
159 elevation/azimuth positioner so that the whole system can perform scans in any  
160 direction from the sky to the ground, thereby realizing complex scanning schemes,  
161 such as all-sky monitoring and all-round monitoring of the ground. The RPG-4CH-DP  
162 can distinguish cloud/raindrop particles during precipitation and monitor soil moisture  
163 and vegetation parameters by using signals with different polarizations. Both  
164 frequencies of 18.7 GHz and 36.5 GHz have been widely combined to detect snow  
165 depth and snow water content and are frequently used in most spaceborne microwave  
166 imagers, such as the SSM/I, AMSR-E (Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer  
167 for EOS) and GMI (GPM Microwave Imager) sensors. The directly observed surface  
168 emissivities at these two frequencies can provide highly accurate references for the  
169 verification and assimilation of spaceborne microwave observations.

170 The RPG-4CH-DP radiometer has a comparable half-power beam width of  
171 approximately  $6^\circ$  and a calibration accuracy of  $\pm 1$  K. Currently, the height of the  
172 instrument above the ground is 2.5 m, which results in a half-power footprint width of  
173 0.22 m on average. More details regarding the instrument specifications for the  
174 RPG-4CH-DP are shown in Table 1.

175



176

**Table 1 Instrument Specifications**

<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Specification</b>
Radiometric resolution	0.2 K RMS (1.0 s integration time)
Optical resolution	HPBW: 6.0° (Sidelobe level <-30 dBc)
Absolute system stability	1.0 K
Receiver and antenna thermal stabilization	Accuracy <0.05 K
Pointing speed	Elevation: 3°/sec, azimuth: 5°/sec
Radiometric range	0-350 K
Operating temperature range	-40°C to +45°C
Power consumption	<350 watts on average, 500-watt peak
Weight	105 kg for receiver modules, 300 kg for positioner

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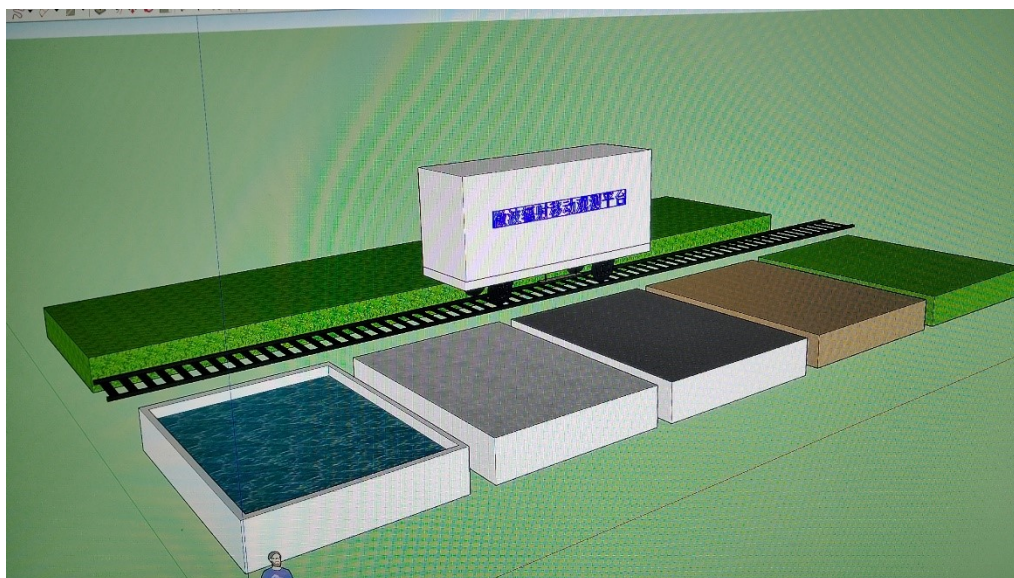
178           Currently, the RPG-4CH-DP provides only the basic brightness temperature (T<sub>b</sub>)  
179 data in 4 channels without other related products. By incorporating the auxiliary  
180 observations from the observation system, we broadened the application of the  
181 instrument, denoted RPG-XCH-DP, thereby providing not only the basic microwave  
182 radiance but also the complex surface emissivity.

## 183 **2.2 Mobile system (platform)**

184           The multitarget mobile system comprises a track, a mobile platform, a driving  
185 system and a control unit. As the sketch of the mobile system in Fig. 2 shows, the 25  
186 m track is parallel to the test plots with an observation interval of 0.3 m. The mobile  
187 platform placed on the track is a metal box 4 m in length, 0.8 m in height, and 1.0 m  
188 in depth. The driving system includes a stepper motor, transmission mechanism, and  
189 communication cable connected to the mobile platform and power supply. The control  
190 unit consists of a single-chip microcomputer, timer and stepper motor driver, which  
191 can set the moving time and control the operation of the driving device. The control  
192 device is installed on the mobile platform and connects both driving devices.

193           In this experiment, to obtain the microwave emissivity over different surfaces in  
194 near-simultaneous time, the RPG-4CH-DP is mounted on the mobile platform and  
195 moves back and forth along the track. The communication system for receiving the

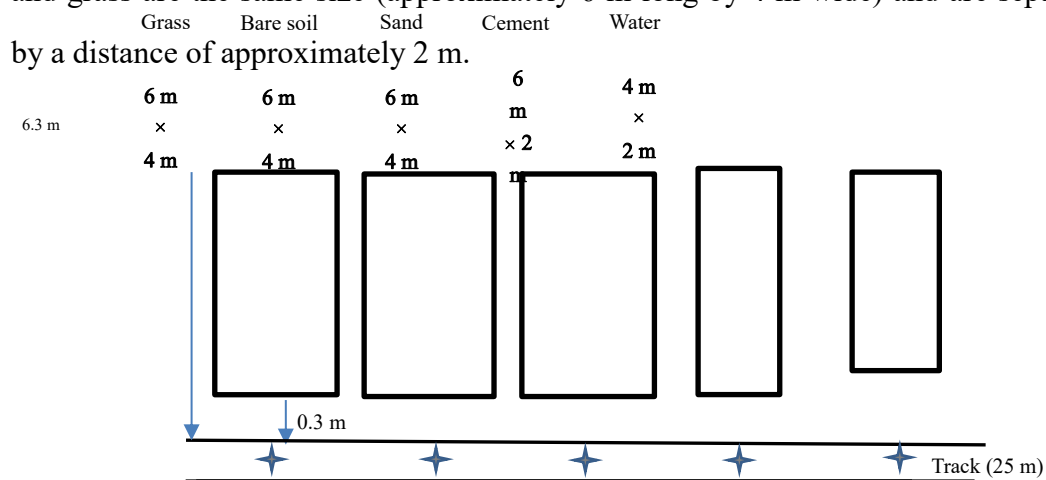
196 data and the power supply are placed in the metal box. According to the commands  
 197 from the single-chip microcomputer and the driving force from the stepper motor, the  
 198 mobile platform moves along the track similar to a small train, and the onboard  
 199 radiometer scans the 5 test plots at fixed times every day.




200  
 201 Fig. 2 Sketch of the mobile platform

202 **2.3 Observation field and auxiliary data**

203 Fig. 3 shows a sketch of the observation field, including the 5 test plots  
 204 distributed along the 25 m track. Currently, 5 surface types are considered in the  
 205 observation field, namely, water, cement, sand, soil and grass. For the water body, a  
 206 plastic pool 6 m long and 2.4 m wide is used to hold the water. The adjacent cement  
 207 surface consists of a 2 m wide footpath. The remaining three plots of sand, bare soil  
 208 and grass are the same size (approximately 6 m long by 4 m wide) and are separated  
 209 by a distance of approximately 2 m.



217 Fig. 3 Sketch of the observation field (including 5 test plots: water, c  
218  a touching switch  
219

220 To scan each plot at the same place at a fixed time, five touching switches  
221 corresponding to the center of each plot are fixed on the track to stop the moving  
222 <sup>bare soil and grass), where</sup> platform so that the radiometer can scan the same place for a couple of minutes. By  
223 using this mobile platform, the ground-based radiometer can scan multiple surfaces  
224 almost simultaneously (i.e., within 1 hr), thereby providing valuable measurements  
225 for understanding the variation in surface emissivity over different land surfaces with  
226 different characteristics.

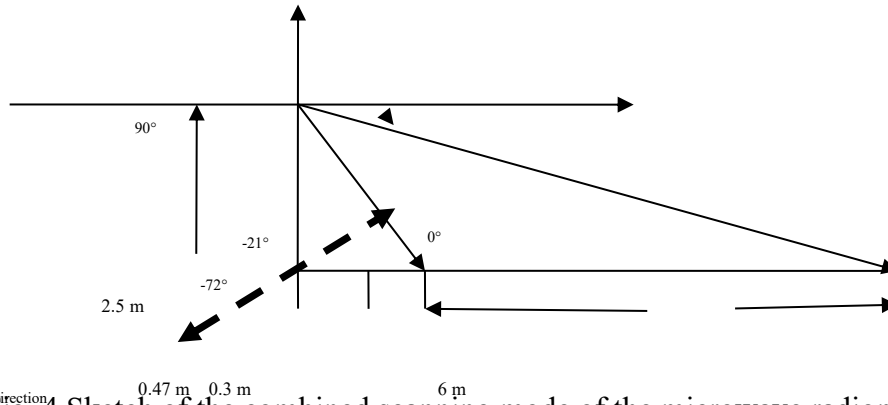
227 The auxiliary data include mainly the surface temperature, soil temperature and  
228 soil moisture. Five thermometers with a PT100 temperature sensor made by  
229 Honeywell company are placed separately on each test plot to measure their surface  
230 temperature. In addition, an SI-111 precision infrared radiometer developed by  
231 Apogee Instruments Inc. is fixed on a stand of the RPG-4CH-DP radiometer to obtain  
232 the surface temperature of each plot while the microwave radiometer is moving.  
233 Furthermore, a set of soil temperature and moisture sensors is fixed at three soil  
234 depths, 5 cm, 10 cm and 20 cm, to detect the subsurface soil temperature and humidity.  
235 To monitor the real-time working situation of the whole observation system, a digital  
236 video camera is installed near the field to record the states of the mobile platform and  
237 radiometer as well as changes in the weather, such as the presence of cloud cover, rain  
238 or snow.

#### 239 **2.4 Scanning mode**

240 To directly obtain the surface emissivity, a combined mode of ground  
241 observations at multiple elevation angles and zenith observations is designed, in  
242 which the former monitors mainly the surface radiance while the latter monitors the  
243 sky radiance in the same 1 hr period.

244 The ground observation mode is illustrated in Fig. 4. The mobile platform is  
245 triggered every hour, and the microwave radiometer operates using the ground  
246 scanning mode at this time. The scan is performed from the horizon ( $0^\circ$ ) to the ground,  
247 and the elevation angle is defined as the angle between the scanning direction and the

248 horizontal. A negative value indicates an angle below the horizon, which is equivalent  
 249 to  $90^\circ - \theta$ , where  $\theta$  is the incident angle, an important parameter for describing  
 250 spaceborne radiometer scanning. The radiometer is 2.5 m above the ground, so it can



251

252 **Fig. 4 Sketch of the combined scanning mode of the microwave radiometer**

253

254 scan each test plot with a length of 6 m when the elevation angle is between  $-21^\circ$  and  
 255  $-72^\circ$ , as shown in Fig. 4. The valid elevation angle range for water is different due to  
 256 the different length of the pool. To determine the surface emissivity variation with the  
 257 elevation angle, the radiometer is set to scan each test plot with an angle interval of  $3^\circ$   
 258 from  $-21^\circ$  to  $-45^\circ$ , an angle interval of  $5^\circ$  from  $-45^\circ$  to  $-70^\circ$ , and then back to  $-21^\circ$  to  
 259 scan the test plot repeatedly during the ground observation mode. To acquire ground  
 260 observations over all 5 test plots within 1 hr, each plot is given 9 minutes; in other  
 261 words, the mobile platform will move to the cement plot at 9 min, the sand plot at 18  
 262 min, the bare soil plot at 27 min, and finally the grass plot at 36 min. After finishing  
 263 the ground observations in all 5 test plots, the mobile platform will begin to move  
 264 back at 45 min and reach the beginning location after approximately 6 min. During  
 265 the return trip, the scan mode changes to the zenith observation mode so that the  
 266 radiometer scans from the ground to the sky. When the elevation angle is raised to  $90^\circ$ ,  
 267 the radiometer will continually acquire zenith observations for approximately 5 min to  
 268 obtain the sky radiance. After obtaining these zenith observations, the elevation angle  
 269 changes from the zenith observation mode to the ground observation mode at  $-21^\circ$  so  
 270 that the radiometer is already in the ground observation mode when the next

271 measurement cycle arrives. In this way, the radiometer on the mobile platform can  
272 obtain not only the ground radiance over 5 test plots but also the sky radiance within a  
273 1 hr period. Here, we assume that 1 hr is short enough to neglect the minute-scale  
274 differences in the surface and sky radiance, and thus, the mobile system can obtain the  
275 microwave emissivity over different surfaces nearly simultaneously.

276

### 277 **3 Data and method**

278 Three types of observation data are obtained from the field experiment: the  
279 microwave brightness temperature ( $T_b$ ) at different scanning angles from the ground  
280 microwave radiometer; the surface temperature ( $T_s$ ) of the five test plots measured  
281 from the ground thermometers and infrared sensor; and the soil temperature and  
282 moisture at three depths in the sand and bare soil plots.

283 When ground microwave radiometer scans the surface, the measured  $T_b$  comes  
284 mainly from two contributions: that of upward radiation from the surface and that of  
285 the reflected downward atmospheric radiance. Thus, the measured  $T_b$  can be  
286 approximately expressed by Eq. (1):

$$287 \quad T_b = \varepsilon T_s + (1 - \varepsilon) T_{sky} \quad (1)$$

288 where  $\varepsilon$  is the surface emissivity,  $T_s$  is the surface temperature, and  $T_{sky}$  is the radiance  
289 from the sky. From Eq. (1), the surface emissivity can be directly calculated using Eq.  
290 (2) by combining the  $T_b$  contributions from the surface and sky with the surface  
291 temperature synchronously measured from the infrared sensor in the observation  
292 system.

$$293 \quad \varepsilon = (T_b - T_{sky}) / (T_s - T_{sky}) \quad (2)$$

294 It is noted here that Eq.(1) is assumed for specular reflection, and was used in  
295 previous similar observation study (Lemmetyinen et al., 2015; Montpetit et al., 2018),  
296 so we used Eq.(1) and (2) to calculate surface emissivity in this work. The  
297 dual-polarized radiometer can provide both vertical and horizontal polarization  
298 information, then the idea and uniform Lambertian surface is too simple and the  
299 bidirectional reflectance (BRDF) surface seems more complex, and the specular

300 reflection is a good option. The results derived from this assumption will be further  
301 investigated by combining more auxiliary observations in the actual surface of test plots.

302 Through applying the ground mobile observation system for surface microwave  
303 emissivity and combining the video camera records with the soil temperature and  
304 moisture measurements, we can not only directly obtain highly accurate surface  
305 microwave emissivity observations over different test plots but also investigate the  
306 variation characteristics of the surface emissivity under different weather conditions.

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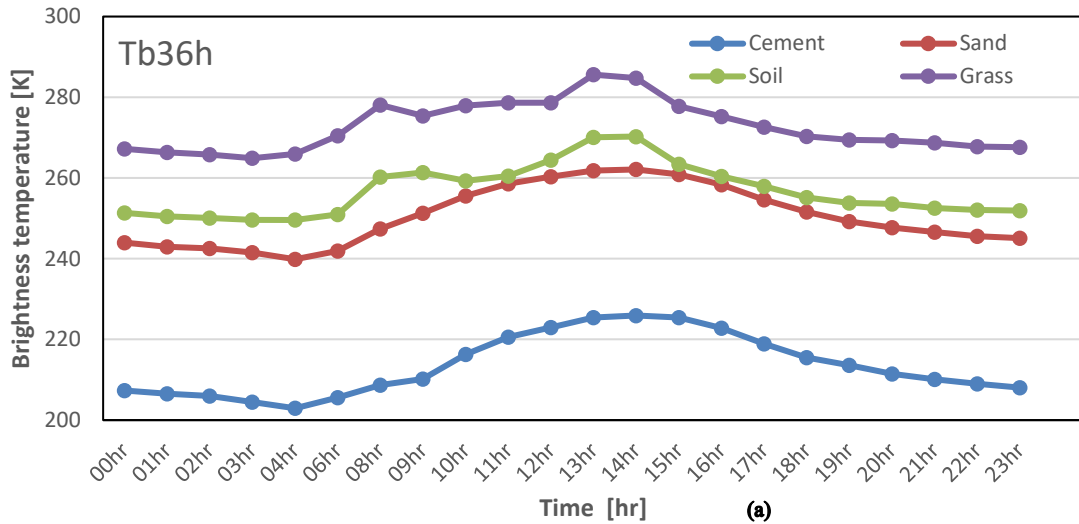
#### 308 **4. Preliminary results**

309 Considering both the viewing field of the microwave radiometer and the size of the  
310 test plots, the elevation angle range between  $-24^\circ$  and  $-65^\circ$  is chosen for observing the  
311 land test plots (cement, sand, soil and grass), while elevation angles between  $-33^\circ$  and  
312  $-65^\circ$  are valid for observing the water surface. Here, we focus on the variations in the  
313 radiance and surface emissivity over the 5 test plots during the observations recorded  
314 in October 2018 under clear sky conditions.

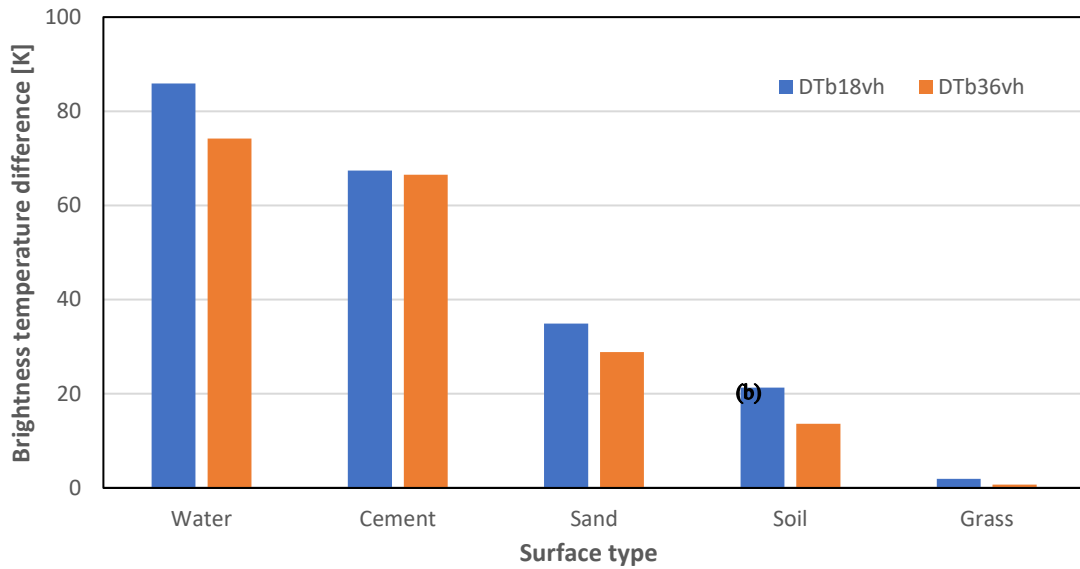
#### 315 **4.1 Radiance**

316 Since a scanning angle of  $36^\circ$  is equivalent to an incident angle of  $54^\circ$  used for  
317 many spaceborne microwave imagers, such as AMSR-E ( $55^\circ$ ) or SSM/I ( $53^\circ$ ), we first  
318 compare the variation in the observed  $T_b$  over different surfaces at an elevation angle  
319 of  $36^\circ$ . As Fig.5a shown, the changes in the observed  $T_b$  at 36.5 GHz in horizontal  
320 ( $T_b36h$ ) and vertical ( $T_b36v$ ) polarization over the four land surfaces within 24 hr  
321 (Beijing Time, BJT) are quite similar, with smaller values at night and larger values at  
322 noon. Less variation in the radiance is noted at  $T_b36v$  (not shown), but more  
323 significant variations are detected at  $T_b36h$  over the four surfaces (Fig. 5a): the

324 observed Tb36h from grass is approximately 270-285 K but varies within 240-270 K  
325 over sand and bare soil and reaches only 200-230 K for cement. The observed Tb at  
326 18.75 GHz within 24 h shows similar variations with only slight changes among the  
327 different land surfaces. Likewise, the corresponding polarization differences (V-H) of  
328 Tb within 24 hr are very similar to one another, so both DTb18vh and DTb36vh at  
329 02:00 (BJT) are shown in Fig. 5b, revealing a slight difference (close to zero) for  
330 grass but considerably larger differences for water and cement (almost up to 70 K for  
331 water) and smaller differences over sand and soil (below 30 K). In addition, the values  
332 of DTb18vh are larger than those of DTb36vh. The Tb polarization difference is more  
333 significant over water than over land and is closely related to the roughness of the  
334 land surface. In addition, the roughness of grass is obviously larger than that of the  
335 other three land surfaces and thus scatters more surface radiance and reduces the  
336 polarization difference. Therefore, the observed Tb polarization differences over the  
337 different surfaces shown in Fig. 5b appear reasonable, and the given quantitative  
338 polarization differences for certain surfaces can serve as a valid reference for  
339 identifying land surfaces and water bodies.



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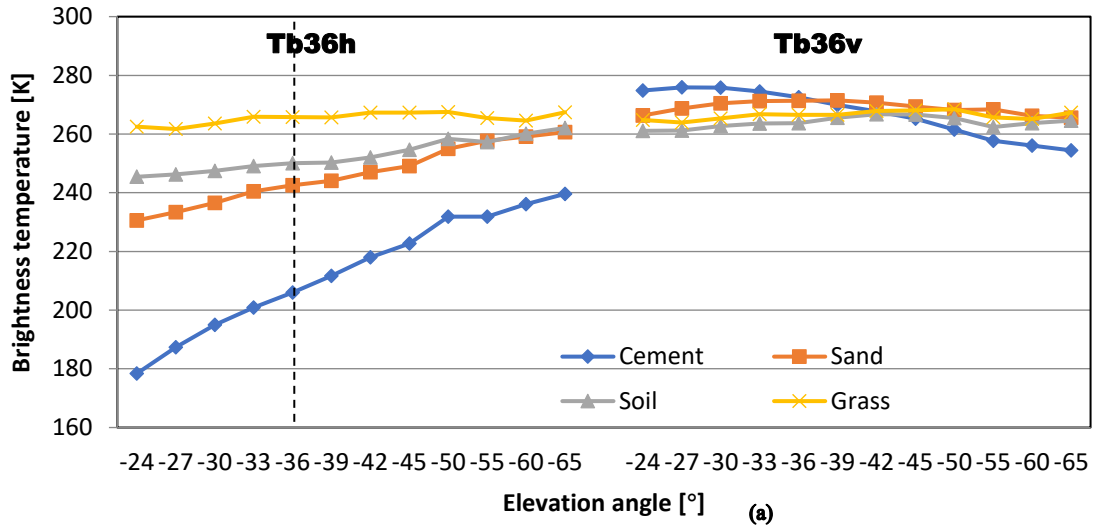
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342 Fig. 5 Variations in the observed Tb (a) and Tb polarization differences (b) over  
 343 different surfaces in October 2018.

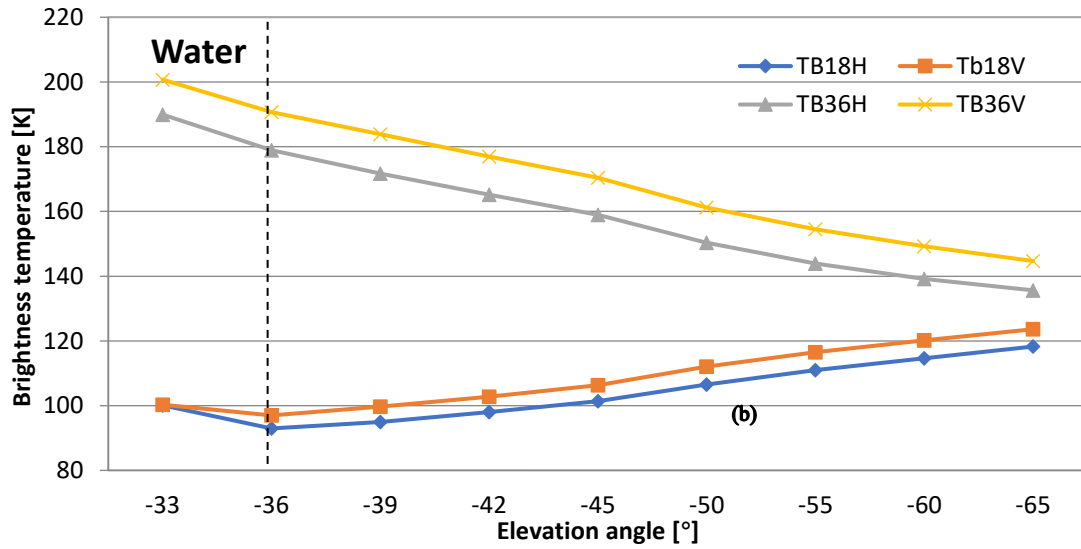
344 To study the variations in Tb at more than a single angle, Fig. 6a shows the  
 345 changes in the observed Tb with the elevation angle ranging from 24° to 65° over the  
 346 four land surfaces. The horizontally polarized Tb is clearly more sensitive to the land  
 347 surface type than the vertically polarized Tb with increasing elevation angle; in  
 348 particular, Tb36h rises rapidly from 180 K to 240 K over cement but slowly increases  
 349 from 240 K to 260 K over sand and bare soil and remains almost constant over grass.



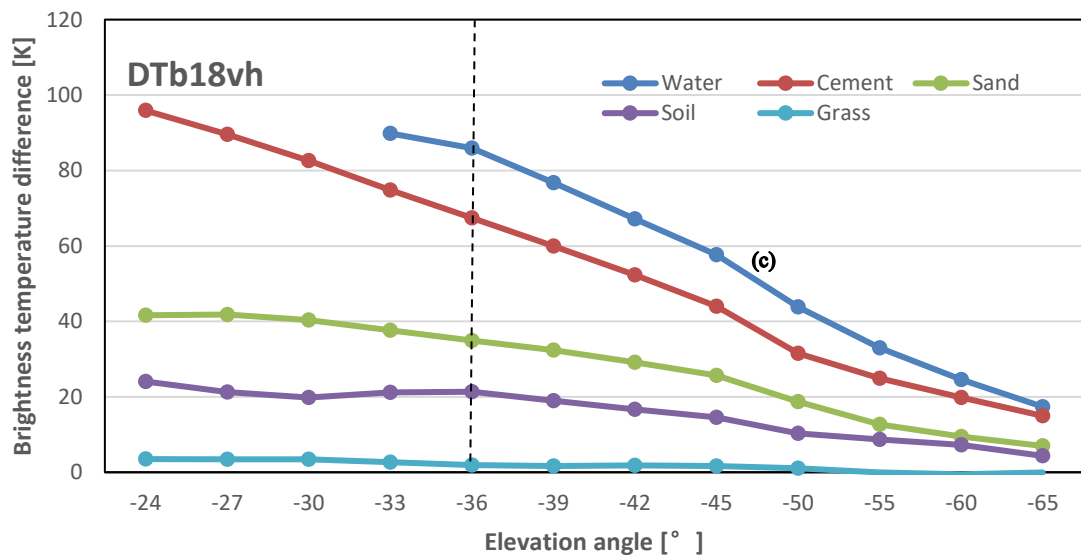
350 In contrast, the variations in the vertically polarized Tb with increasing elevation  
351 angle are similar among the land surfaces and are smaller than those in the  
352 horizontally polarized Tb, showing a decreasing trend from 280 K to 260 K over  
353 different surfaces. The variations in the observed Tb over water are presented in Fig.  
354 6b. Different from the above observations over land surfaces, the vertically polarized  
355 Tb over water obviously reduces from 200 K to 140 K with increasing elevation angle,  
356 while the horizontally polarized Tb slowly rises from 100 K to 120 K, almost opposite  
357 to the Tb polarization variations over land surfaces. The corresponding changes in the  
358 polarization difference of Tb at 18.75 GHz ( $DTb_{18vh}=Tb_{18v}-Tb_{18h}$ ) over all 5  
359 classes of surfaces are further plotted in Fig. 6c. In general, the Tb polarization  
360 difference decreases with increasing elevation angle, and the varied ranges with the  
361 elevation angle over the 5 classes surfaces in Fig. 6c are similar to those in Fig.5b;  
362 thus, the decreasing trend is most obvious over water and cement and least evident  
363 over grass with increasing elevation angle. The variations of the Tb polarization  
364 difference at 36.5 GHz with the elevation angle are similar to those at 18.75 GHz over  
365 all 5 test plots.



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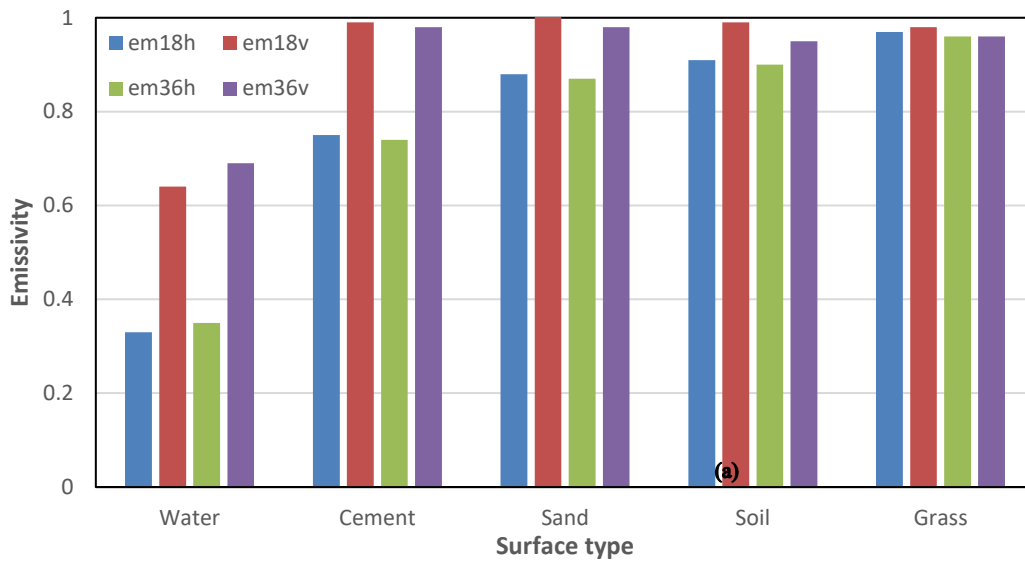
Fig. 6 Variations in the observed Tb over different land surfaces(a) and water

370 surface(b) as well as Tb polarized difference(c) with the elevation angle. The vertical  
371 dotted line corresponding elevation angle  $36^\circ$

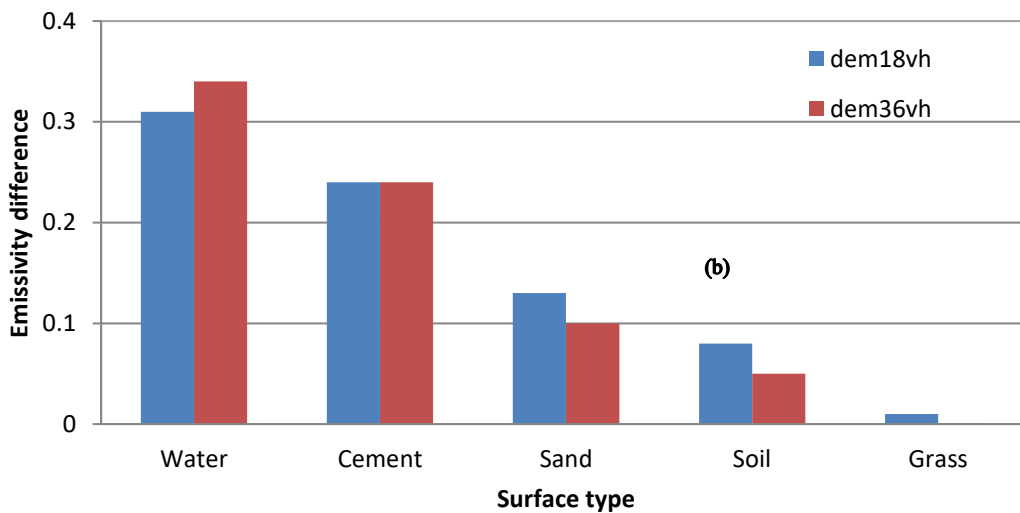
## 372 **4.2 Surface microwave emissivity**

373 Combining the surface and sky Tb radiance with the surface temperature  
374 derived from the infrared sensor, the surface emissivity ( $\epsilon$ ) is derived from Eq. (2).  
375 Since the diurnal variation of  $\epsilon$  is more constant and less significant than that of the  
376 Tb radiance, the surface emissivity observed at 02:00 (BJT) is chosen for the  
377 following investigation. First, the polarized  $\epsilon$  at both 18.75 and 36.5 GHz and their  
378 polarization differences at an elevation angle of  $36^\circ$  are compared in Fig. 7a. The  
379 vertically polarized  $\epsilon$  ( $\epsilon_v$ ) is clearly much larger than the horizontally polarized  $\epsilon$  ( $\epsilon_h$ ),  
380 and the  $\epsilon$  values at the same frequencies are close, but the  $\epsilon$  values over water is  
381 smaller than those over the four land surfaces due to quite different dielectric constant.  
382 The  $\epsilon_h$  values obviously differ among the 4 land surfaces, although their  
383 corresponding  $\epsilon_v$  values are relatively similar, exceeding 0.95, which indicates that  $\epsilon_h$   
384 is more sensitive to land surface variability than  $\epsilon_v$ . The  $\epsilon_h$  is lower than 0.75 over  
385 cement but increases to 0.90 over sand and bare soil and up to 0.97 over grass. Thus,  
386 the emissivity polarization difference ( $\epsilon_v - \epsilon_h$ ) shown in Fig. 7b is obvious over water  
387 ( $>0.3$ ) and cement (approximately 0.25) but reduces to 0.1 over sand and 0.05 over  
388 bare soil and almost 0.01 or close to zero over grass; this trend is similar to that of the  
389 Tb polarization difference shown in Fig. 5b. Emissivity polarization differences is  
390 more significant over water than over land due to different surface reflectivity and  
391 dielectric constant property. Among four land surfaces  $\epsilon_v - \epsilon_h$  over cement is most

392 obvious and over grass is slight, which is closely related to land surface roughness.  
 393 Both Tb and emissivity polarized difference demonstrated that surface roughness over  
 394 grass is obviously larger than that over other three land surfaces, especially smooth  
 395 cement surface, thus scatters more surface radiance and weakens the polarization  
 396 difference over grass.



397

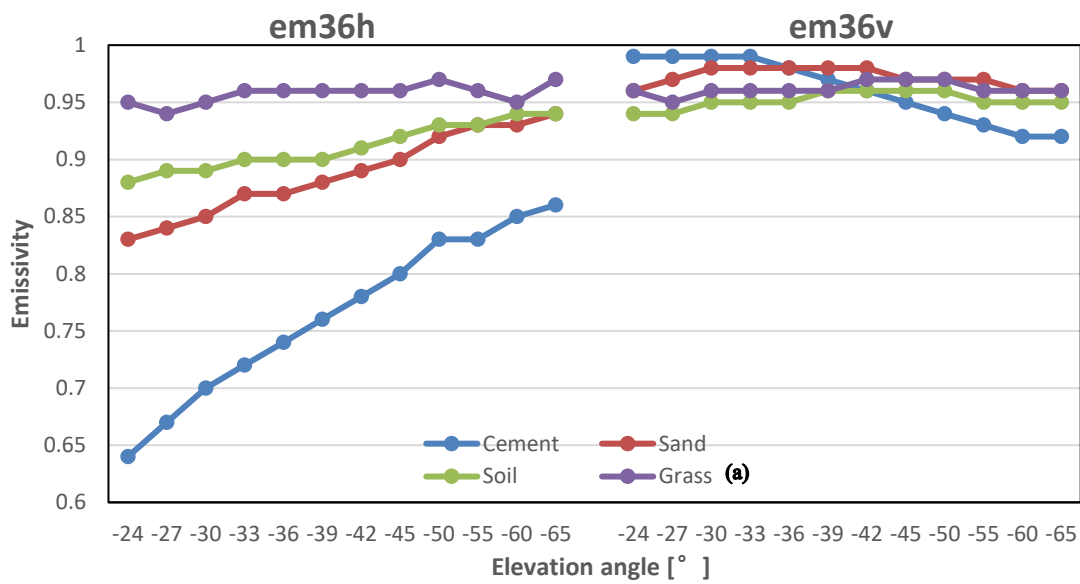


398

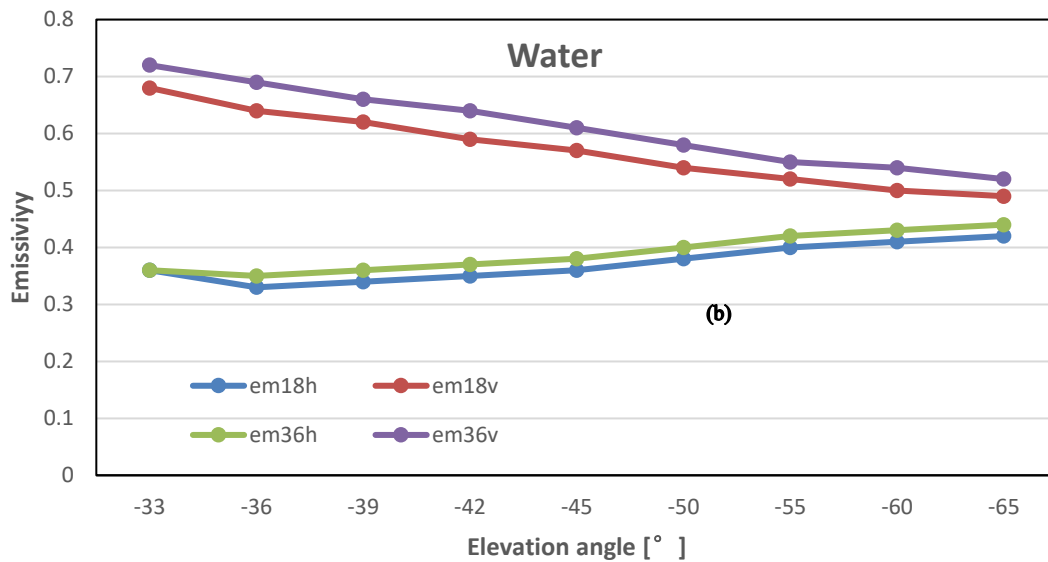
399 Fig. 7 Variations in the surface emissivity(a) and emissivity polarization  
 400 differences (b) over different land surfaces at 02:00 (BJT) in Oct. 2018

401 In addition to investigating the variations at a fixed angle, the variations in  $\epsilon$  at  
 402 multiple elevation angles over the 4 land surfaces are compared in Fig. 8a. Because  $\epsilon_h$

403 is more sensitive to surface type than to water, when the elevation angle changes from  
 404  $-24^\circ$  to  $65^\circ$ ,  $\epsilon_h$  clearly rises from 0.65 to 0.85 over cement, followed by sand and bare  
 405 soil with  $\epsilon_h$  increasing from 0.85 to 0.95, and  $\epsilon_h$  is constant at 0.95 over grass. The  
 406 corresponding  $\epsilon_v$  values over the four land surfaces are closer and exhibit a slightly  
 407 decreasing trend within the range of 0.9-1.0 with increasing elevation angle.



408



409

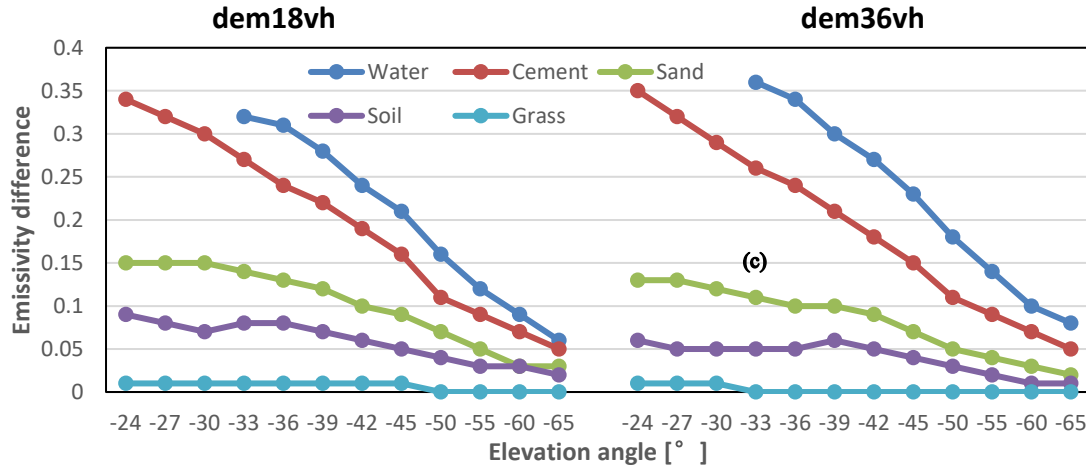


Fig. 8 Variations in the surface emissivity (a, b) and  $\epsilon$  polarization

differences(c) over different surfaces with increasing elevation angle.

Differ from land surfaces, the  $\epsilon$  values over water in Fig. 8b show considerably different variation trends with the elevation angle: when the elevation angle changes from  $-33^\circ$  to  $-65^\circ$ ,  $\epsilon_v$  clearly reduces from 0.7 to 0.5, while  $\epsilon_h$  slightly increases within the vicinity of 0.4. The corresponding  $\epsilon$  polarization differences ( $\epsilon_v - \epsilon_h$ ) over 5 surfaces (Fig. 8c) present decreasing trend with increasing elevation angle, and the larger the  $\epsilon$  polarization difference in Fig. 7b is, the greater the variation with the elevation angle in Fig. 8c is, i.e. the decreasing trend is most obvious over water and smooth cement, but slightly changes over grass with increasing elevation angle. The variation in the  $\epsilon$  polarization difference at 36.5 GHz with the elevation angle is similar to that at 18.75 GHz over all 5 test plots (results not shown).

## 5 Summary

In this paper, we introduce a ground mobile observation system for directly obtaining surface microwave emissivity estimates over five types of surfaces: water, cement, sand, soil and grass. The mobile observation system consists mainly of a

427 dual-polarized ground-based microwave radiometer, a mobile platform, and auxiliary  
428 sensors, and the observation field comprises 5 test plots.

429       Based on the observed data from the mobile system, we preliminarily  
430 investigated the variation characteristics of the surface microwave emissivity over the  
431 five different land surfaces. The results show that the horizontally polarized  
432 emissivity is more sensitive to land surfaces type than is the vertically polarized  
433 emissivity: the former decreases to 0.75 over cement and increases to 0.90 over sand  
434 and bare soil and up to 0.97 over grass. The observed polarization difference is  
435 obvious over water ( $>0.3$ ) and cement (approximately 0.25) but reduces to 0.1 over  
436 sand and 0.05 over bare soil and almost 0.01 or close to zero over grass; this trend is  
437 similar to that of the  $T_b$  polarization difference. For different elevation angles, the  
438 horizontally/vertically polarized emissivities over the land surfaces obviously  
439 increase/slightly decrease with increasing elevation angle but exhibit the opposite  
440 trend over water. The emissivity polarization difference decreases with increasing  
441 elevation angle, and the larger the emissivity polarization difference is over a certain  
442 surface, the greater the variation with the elevation angle.

443       We developed a ground mobile observation system for measuring the microwave  
444 emissivity over multiple surfaces, and the system has worked stably since September  
445 2018. The preliminary results from our observation system partly reflect similar  
446 variation trends to those reported by previous surface emissivity experiments, and  
447 some are more related to the variation in emissivity at different elevation angles. In  
448 future research, we will carry out further analyses and refine the emissivity

449 parameterization scheme for given surfaces based on long-term observations.

450

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456

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