IMAGING THROUGH OBSCURATIONS FOR SLUICING
OPERATIONS IN THE WASTE STORAGE TANKS

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August 1994

Prepared for
the U.S. Department of Energy
under Contract DE-AC06-76RLO 1830

Funded by the Office of Technology Development,
within the Department of Energy's Office of Environmental
Management, under the Characterization, Monitoring and Sensor
Technology Integrated Program

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Acknowledgements

This work was prepared with the support of the following contributors:

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SUMMARY

This report describes the results of tests conducted at the Pacific Northwest Laboratory (PNL) to determine which methods could be used to obtain an image inside a waste tank during sluicing operations. During waste tank remediation efforts, fog and water droplets that contain salt crystals and/or dust are present which would obscure viewing of the operation. A test chamber was built that allowed various waste remediation conditions, such as size of droplets and salt concentration in waste droplets, to be simulated. The droplets ranged from 25 microns to 1100 microns in diameter, and the salt concentration ranged from 0%-20% by weight. Radiation found in the waste tanks was not simulated, but the effect of radiation on the operation of the devices is discussed in this report.

Three basic imaging techniques were evaluated: optical, acoustic and radar. The optical imaging methods that were examined used cameras which operated in the visible region (0.4-0.8 microns) and near-infrared region (less than two microns) and infrared cameras which operated in the 3-5 micron and 8-12 micron wavelength regions. Various passive and active lighting schemes were tested, as well as the use of filters to eliminate reflection in the visible region. Image enhancement software was used to extend the range where visual techniques could be used. In addition, the operation of a laser range finder, which operated at 0.835 microns, was tested when fog/water droplets were suspended in the air. The acoustic technique involved using commercial acoustic sensors, operating at approximately 50 kHz and 215 kHz, to determine the attenuation of the acoustic beam in a high-humidity environment. The radar imaging methods involved performing millimeter wave (94 GHz) attenuation measurements in the various simulated sluicing environments and performing preliminary experimental imaging studies using a W-Band (75-110 GHz) linearly scanned transceiver in a laboratory environment.

The results of the tests indicate that sensors operating with millimeter waves (94 GHz) were best able to penetrate the fog/water droplets. Signal loss ranged from 0.015 db/ft in 25-micron diameter fog to 0.110 db/ft for 1100-micron diameter water particles. Signals were measured 30-40 db above

noise, using a high-reflecting target. The antenna used for these tests was small, approximately 1 (d) x 1 (w) x 3 (l) inch. In this program, it was demonstrated that a scanner could be used to create an image using this small antenna. The millimeter wave beam was not affected by adding salt to the water.

Acoustic sensors that operated at 50 kHz would be affected by the noise in the sluicing operation. Acoustic sensors that operated at 215 kHz were not as affected by noise, but were highly attenuated in the fog/water droplets (0.071 db/ft. in fog, which means the power level would decrease by 75% travelling to and from a target at 80 feet). Acoustic sensors were not affected by the addition of salt to the fog/water droplets.

A video system is probably the least expensive and would require the least amount of technical development to meet the viewing needs for the sluicing operation. However, testing indicated that optical techniques were highly attenuated by the fog/water droplets. Although infrared detectors, both in the 2-5 micron and 8-12 micron wavelength regions, were able to view through fog better than visual (0.4-0.7 microns) techniques, infrared imaging systems exhibited higher attenuation with water droplets than imaging systems operating in the visible region. A liquid nitrogen cooled infrared detector is able to view through fog/water droplets that are 25%-200% more dense than a thermoelectric-cooled detector (for a target at 83°F). However, a liquid nitrogen cooled infrared detector would be more difficult to implement in a waste tank environment. In addition, the temperature difference between the target area and the background may be small in a closed waste tank environment, which could result in a false image of the area being examined. These results indicate that infrared imaging may not be suitable for viewing through fog/water droplets during a sluicing operation.

Visible techniques can be enhanced by placing the lighting near the area to be viewed (frontlighting), instead of lighting from the camera plane (backlighting). Backlighting produces backscatter from the fog/water droplets which severely reduces contrast in the image. The thicker the fog/water

droplets, the more that is gained by frontlighting. There was no gain in using infrared filters to decrease the backscatter in the visible region from the fog/water droplets. Video imaging can also be enhanced by image enhancement software. The density of the fog that can be viewed with video imaging techniques can be 9% to 42% greater, depending on the lighting scheme, if contrast enhancement techniques are used. This type of image processing can be done in real-time.

A laser range finder lost its ability to determine range through the fog/water droplets due to backscatter. However, by scanning the laser range finder, an image of the target could be obtained through the fog, even though it was a poorer quality compared to other techniques. In water droplets, an image could be obtained using the laser range finder only if the water droplets were at least 16 feet from the laser range finder.

The results of this program will form a basis for making intelligent decisions on which method can be used to view through obscurants during a sluicing operation. In order to make these decisions, it is necessary to define the conditions in the waste tank, e.g., the density of the fog/water droplets. With this information, imaging systems can be developed for specific applications.

CONTENTS

SUMMARY	iii
1.0 BACKGROUND	1
2.0 REVIEW OF CANDIDATE METHODS	7
3.0 TEST RESULTS	11
3.1 TEST SET-UP	11
3.2 DISCUSSION OF TESTS	19
3.2.1 Optical Sensors	19
Test Results	22
Reproducibility of Results	34
3.2.2 Acoustic Sensors	34
Test Results	36
3.2.3 Wideband Millimeter Wave Imaging Technique	38
Test Results	39
Attenuation Measurements	39
Imaging Tests	42
Conceptual Design	45
4.0 RADIATION EXPOSURE	49
5.0 CONCLUSIONS	51
6.0 RECOMMENDATIONS	55
7.0 REFERENCES	57

CONTENTS (continued)

APPENDIX A: Glossary of Terms	A1
APPENDIX B: List of Detection Equipment	B1
APPENDIX C: Sample Calculation of Attenuation, Visibility and Figure of Merit	C1
APPENDIX D: Millimeter Wave Imaging Theory	D1

FIGURES

1	Test Chamber	12
2	Test System Schematic	13
3	Single Section View of Test Chamber	14
4	Sketch of Method to Join Sections	15
5	Impedance vs. Moisture Content of Various Salts and Waste Tank Simulants	17
6	Conductivity of a Solution as a Function of the Salt Concentration with the Target at 80 Feet	18
7	Comparison of Images Produced by Various Optical Techniques with the Target at 80 Feet	21
8	Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with 2-5 Micron Infrared Detector	28
9	Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with 3-5 Micron Infrared Detector	29
10	Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with 8-12 Micron Infrared Detector	30
11	Effect of Contrast Enhancement on Visible Image at 40 Feet	33
12	Effect of Contrast Enhancement on Visible Image at 80 Feet	33
13	Front End Electronics for Millimeter Wave Technique	40
14	Comparison of Loss Tangent of Deionized and Salt Water	41
15	Frequency Response from Trihedral Reflector in Test Chamber Filled with 25-Micron Diameter Salt Water	41
16	Experimental Set-Up of Millimeter Wave Imaging System	43

FIGURES (continued)

17	Experimental W-Band System Configuration	43
18	Millimeter Wave Imaging of 1.5 inches Diameter Metallized Spheres .	46
19	Millimeter Wave Imaging of Various Test Targets	46
20	Millimeter Wave Imaging of Duct Putty in Wading Pool	47
21	Conceptual Design of Millimeter Wave Imaging System for Sluicing Operations	47
A1	Active Illumination	A2
A2	Backlighting	A2
A3	Frontlighting	A3
A4	Passive Emission	A3
D1	Synthetic Aperture Data Collection Configuration	D1

TABLES

1	Particle Size vs Type of Fog/Water Droplet	11
2	Optical Tests with 25 Micron Water Droplets (Fog)	23
3	Optical Tests with 700 Micron Water Droplets	23
4	Optical Tests with 1100 Micron Water Droplets	23
5	Optical Tests with Near Infrared Sensor	25
6	Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with Infrared Detectors and 25 Micron (Fog) Water Droplets	26

TABLES (continued)

7	Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with Infrared Detectors and 700 Micron Water Droplets	27
8	Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with Infrared Detectors and 1100 Micron Water Droplets	27
9	Effect of Contrast Enhancement with Target at 40 Feet	32
10	Effect of Contrast Enhancement with Target at 80 Feet	32
11	Comparison of the Effect of Adding Salt to Fog/Water Droplets at 40 Feet Target Distance	35
12	Comparison of the Effect of Adding Salt to Water Droplets at 80 Feet Target Distance	35
13	Results of Millimeter Wave Attenuation Measurements at 94 GHz . . .	42
14	Millimeter Wave Imaging System Specifications	48
15	Comparison of Sensitivity of CCD and CID Cameras	50
16	Comparison of Test Results with Different Sensors	52

1.0 BACKGROUND

Waste remediators have identified that surveillance of waste remediation operations and periodic inspections of stored waste are required under very demanding and difficult viewing environments. In many cases, obscurants such as dust or water vapor are generated as part of the remediation activity. Methods are required for viewing or imaging beyond the normal visual spectrum. Work space images guide the movement of remediation equipment, creating a need for rapidly updated, near real-time imaging capability. In addition, there is a need for three-dimensional topographical data to determine the contours of the wastes, to plan retrieval campaigns, and to provide a three-dimensional map of a robot's work space as basis for collision avoidance. At present, because of the closed environment in which the remediation effort is conducted, a substantial amount of time is needed to clear the atmosphere so that the effect of a remediation effort can be determined. During this time, labor costs continue and equipment is being exposed to the hazardous environment. In addition, the safety of the operation could be jeopardized because of the lack of viewing the remediation operation in near real-time.

Three methods for high-resolution, three-dimensional imaging, based upon radar, acoustic, and optical imaging techniques, have been successfully utilized in other applications. These methods require proof-of-principle testing to assure compatibility with actual environmental conditions, including electrical conductivity and density of the obscurants.

Millimeter wave (30-300 GHz) imaging systems are a likely candidate for imaging in waste tanks filled with fog. Millimeter wave imaging is effective in fog since its energy is relatively immune to the effects of water vapor in frequency "windows" of 35, 94, and 140 GHz. Water droplets in fog and clouds are considerably smaller than the wavelengths of millimeter wave signals. On the other hand, water droplets in rain are comparable in size to millimeter wavelengths, making millimeter wave imaging somewhat ineffective in rain.

Over the viewing ranges normally encountered in waste remediation activities (up to 75 feet), radar would be expected to provide image resolution and accuracy on the order of a few inches. A scanning antenna set

would be required that would cover the area to be viewed. The scan might be rotary or linear, depending on physical access to the work space and the work space configuration.

Two fundamental issues regarding any radar technique were addressed as part of this project. The first issue is electrical conductivity of the obscurant. High electrical conductivity of the medium would cause radar signal attenuation and loss of value of the method. Testing of the radar with representative obscurants is a necessity. For instance, high salt content of airborne droplets could be a significant attenuator.

The second issue is production of a robust and mechanically simple scanning antenna for this application.

An acoustic sensor is a device that sends out an acoustic pulse and tracks the time it takes for this energy to be reflected back to the sensor. Acoustic sensors generally operate in the 10-500 kHz range. Because the propagation velocity in the air is known, the time it takes to receive the reflected energy is proportional to the distance to the object reflecting the beam. One problem with this scheme is that the propagation velocity in air is a function of the temperature of the air, and it increases about 7% between 32°F and 100°F (0°C and 40°C). Many acoustic sensors have a built-in temperature compensating circuitry. Absorption of sound increases with increasing humidity and, therefore, the maximum measurement distance is reduced. The roughness, the inclination, and the size of the target surface will affect the sensing range and accuracy of the sensor. An acoustic sensor is smaller and less expensive than a radar unit. The diameter of the beam pattern on the surface that is to be measured is smaller for an acoustic beam than for a radar beam. This means that these sensors may be able to resolve smaller objects.

A video system is probably the least expensive and would require the least amount of technical development to meet the viewing needs for the sluicing operation. The equipment is available off-the-shelf. It is recognized that unmodified video imaging would not be able to view through a foggy sluicing operation. However, there are several potential methods that could be used to successfully obtain a good view of the sluicing operation.

For example, placing the lights in one riser near the area undergoing the sluicing operation and viewing the scene with a radiation-hardened camera placed down another riser away from the sluicing operation probably would greatly enhance the image. Backscatter from the fog would be eliminated. This method is called frontlighting (see "Glossary of Terms" in Appendix A). Video cameras operating with a photoconductive detector can detect energy beyond the visible wavelength region into the near-infrared region (0.8-2.2 microns). The longer the wavelength, the less scatter from the fog. The image of the scene might be less affected by the fog if the light source and/or the camera have a filter in front of them so that only near-infrared energy is used to view the scene. The filters could be made from radiation-hardened glass or quartz.

Infrared imagers in the 3-5 micron and 8-12 micron wavelength region that are commercially available could be used to view the sluicing operation. These two wavelength regions are common because they are the wavelengths where the least amount of attenuation occurs due to water vapor in the air. The output from these imagers is similar to that seen by a video camera, except that one is viewing the infrared energy from the source rather than the visible energy. Infrared imagers are a possible method for this application because less scatter occurs from the fog at longer wavelengths. The disadvantage of this approach is that the detectors need to be cooled. Infrared imagers generally are much more expensive than video cameras.

There are two approaches that can be used with infrared imagers. One approach is passive emission, in which the contents of the waste tanks are the source of the detected energy (see "Glossary of Terms" in Appendix A). Infrared imagers can measure temperature differences of a few degrees Fahrenheit. This would eliminate backscatter from the light source to the detector (i.e., it would be like the frontlighting technique discussed above) which would further enhance the viewing of the scene. However, there must be some contrast (a difference in temperature or emissivity) between the object to be viewed and the surroundings in order to detect an object. It is doubtful that sufficient contrast would exist in a waste tank to allow the use of passive emission.

The other approach is active illumination, in which an external source of infrared energy is used to illuminate the scene (see "Glossary of Terms" in Appendix A). The active illumination could be backlighted (less scatter from the fog will occur because of the longer wavelength), frontlighted, or backlighted with a selective ventilation system which would blow the fog away from the light source.

Finally, laser range finding is another approach for obtaining an image during the sluicing operation. Present-day commercially available laser range finders raster a pulsed laser beam over the viewing area using articulated mirrors. Present state-of-the-art are amplitude-modulated range finders that measure phase angle shift of reflected light to produce range data and display this data in a color-coded imager. Range data is produced by commercially available laser range finders in digital form that can be readily accepted by a robot controller or a visual imaging system. According to manufacturers' literature, resolution and accuracy on the order of 0.5 inch over a range of 75 feet can be achieved with a laser range finder.

Range finders predicated on lasers are subject to signal attenuation and refraction/reflection by obscurants. Signal attenuation due to absorption by water vapor can be overcome by tuning the laser wavelength outside of the absorption bands for water. This has been successfully accomplished for military applications, such as target designators and gunnery range finders. These devices are also effective in man-produced obscurants, such as smokes. Large water droplets suspended in air could cause significant reflection and refraction that would produce range errors. As a result, effects of the actual obscurant, be it condensed water vapor, suspended water droplets or dust, must be specifically evaluated before a firm value prediction of this method for the intended application can be provided.

Specialized software has been developed to manipulate range data with such features as user-selectable viewing perspective, noise and error rejection, and a limited autonomous image interpretation feature.

In all of these methods, it will be necessary to keep the entrance window of the camera system clean and warm to prevent condensation from forming. Video image processing could be used with any of these techniques to enhance the image in real-time or near real-time.

2.0 REVIEW OF CANDIDATE METHODS

The waste tank remediation work being conducted at the Hanford site was used as a model for the requirements of a viewing system. A meeting was held with Westinghouse Hanford Corporation (WHC) personnel, and the following requirements were suggested for a system for viewing through obscurants during a sluicing operation:

1. The system should provide a real-time or near real-time (5-minute update time) image of waste surface.
2. The system should produce an image equivalent to a closed circuit television (CCTV) system image. The image would preferably be in color, with the same level of depth discrimination as in a CCTV image.
3. The system should provide capability for storing and retrieving images.
4. The system must be able to view the entire waste surface with a minimum field-of-view of 20°. It is desirable to be able to image the entire tank interior.
5. The imaging system must be capable of indicating relative position of view within the tank.
6. The system must be able to be placed through a 12" riser.
7. The waste tank is 75 feet in diameter.
8. The imaging system must be able to view through sluicing fog.
 - Nozzle/stream atomization
 - Condensation/evaporation
 - Splash effects
9. The system must be designed to be readily decontaminated.
 - Glove box may be required.
 - Decontamination chemicals must be compatible with tank operating requirement.
10. The desired operational life for the system is two years.
11. The system must be compatible with 100 R/hr at the dome radiation field in-tank.

12. The system must be capable of discriminating objects down to 12 inches in size at a range of 75 feet. A size discrimination of two inches would be desirable.
13. If system maintenance access frequency is 30 days or greater, the system installation can be hands on. If system maintenance access frequency is less than 30 days, the system must be self deploying.
14. The following are tank environmental conditions:
 - Nitrate-based caustic (airborne)
 - 100% relative humidity at between 60⁰ to 140⁰ F
 - Unknown organics (relatively non-volatile)
 - Airborne waste particulates.
15. System output displays shall be remotely located in the sluicing control room (approximately 500 feet).
16. Control room components must be compatible with trailer temperature.
17. System failures, which would preclude removal of the equipment from the tank, are unacceptable.
18. External environmental conditions must be compatible with standard Hanford weather conditions, including solar heating and blowing dust.
19. A maintenance frequency goal is to require no maintenance during a 6-month period of operations.
 - If monthly maintenance is required, then it must be able to be accomplished in one shift.
 - If maintenance frequency is six months, then a maintenance outage may be up to one week.

A brainstorming session was held with WHC and PNL staff. Various methods were discussed, including the following:

1. Infrared sensors/cameras (3-5 micron and 8-12 micron).
 - passive emission
 - active illumination

2. Conventional video imaging

- with backlighting.
 - with frontlighting.
 - with infrared filters for near-infrared viewing.
3. Duplex system: Moving the camera/sensor up close to minimize range in obscurant, then assembling multiple views into a single image with digital image processing. Several commercially available software packages available.
 4. Millimeter wave (90 GHz) Synthetic Aperture imaging.
 5. Laser range finding.
 6. Pulsed laser gating.
 7. Acoustics.

Pulsed laser gating has been successfully used in underwater imaging. A pulsed laser is used to illuminate the target at certain time intervals; backscatter is reduced by range gating, whereby the detector is gated to cut out the backscatter produced by the outgoing pulse and detects only the return pulse. Range gating does not eliminate the influence of scatter or other inhomogeneities on the return light, but the detector is less susceptible to ambient light. No commercial pulse laser gating system is available off the shelf, and development work would be required to adapt a system for waste tank applications. For example, for the short distance being used in the waste tank, electronics that operate with nanosecond time delays would be required. Discussions were held with Science Applications International Corporation (SAIC) in San Diego, CA, on adapting a laser range gating system that they have developed for underwater applications for the short target distances needed for waste tank applications. It was not possible within the funding level and time frame of this program to pursue this approach.

In addition to the methods discussed in the brainstorming session, several other methods were considered in the course of this program. For example, work has recently been declassified on methods to burn holes through clouds using a CO₂ laser. This may have application for waste tank applications; however, this is a developmental idea and there is no system commercially available that can perform this task.

The other methods that were suggested in the brainstorming session are feasible candidates for viewing through obscurants and were tested as part of this study. Most of these have already been described in the Background section of this report. PNL is unique in having equipment available that could be used to evaluate and test these various methods.

3.0 TEST RESULTS

3.1 TEST SET-UP

The test chamber that was used to test the various methods for imaging through obscurants is shown in Figure 1, while Figures 2 and 3 show the components of the test chamber. The chamber consisted of four sections of fiberglass tube, each three feet in diameter and ten feet long. The adjacent tube sections were attached to each other using a rubber clamp and a sheet metal clamp, as shown in Figure 4. Thus, the test chamber was 40 feet long with open ends so that the instruments and target could be mounted without getting wet. A pump and air compressor fed water and air through piping at the top of the test chamber to spray nozzles in the chamber. The test chamber was mounted on wooden supports to bring the fixture to working level. Three sets of changeable nozzles were used for these tests: one set of nozzles produced 25-micron size particles (fog) at a flow rate of 0.05 gallons/minute, a second set of nozzles produced 700-micron size particles (water droplets) at a flow rate of 0.5 gallons/minute, and a third set of nozzles produced 1100-micron size particles (at a flow rate of 1.7 gallons/minute).

The size of the water particles was determined by using information supplied by the manufacturer of the nozzles (Spraying Systems Co., Wheaton, IL). The particle size was based on the water and/or air pressure supplied by the system. Table 1 lists mean particle size for different types of fog/water droplets (Spraying Systems Co. 1981). The water collected in the chamber was funneled through hoses to a holding tank (16-gallon wash basin), then recirculated through the system.

TABLE 1. Particle Size vs. Type of Fog/Water Droplets

Particle Size Range Median Volume (microns)	Comparative Subject
Below 0.001	Molecular Dimensions
0.001-0.01	Smoke
0.01-1.0	Fumes
2-10	Dry Fog
10-50	Wet Fog
50-100	Misty Rain
100-500	Light Rain
500-1000	Moderate Rain
1000-2000	Intense Rain
2000-5000	Heavy Rain

FIGURE 1. Test Chamber

FIGURE 2. Test System Schematic

FIGURE 3. Single Section View of Test Chamber

FIGURE 4. Sketch of Method to Join Sections

Initial tests were conducted with no water in the chamber, in order to get a baseline measurement. Next, water with no salt in it was circulated through the system using the three different nozzles. Finally, salt was added to the water in the holding tank in concentrations up to 20% by weight and circulated through the chamber. The salt used in this test was rock salt (sodium chloride), similar to that used in water softeners. Testing conducted at PNL using simulated tank waste chemicals indicated that the conductivity of the simulants could be simulated using ordinary sodium chloride, as shown in Figure 5 (Hockey 1993). Testing also indicated that a salt concentration of approximately 20% produced a peak conductivity. This is consistent with the data from the Handbook of Chemistry and Physics (Weast 1976-1977, p. D-269) and plotted in Figure 6 with some experimental data. The addition of higher concentrations of salt resulted in not all of the salt being dissolved and a scum appearing on the surface of the water tank.

Measurements were made, first with a target-detector separation of 40 feet, and then a front-surface aluminized mirror was used to increase the path length to 80 feet (double pass through the 40-foot long test chamber). Tests were conducted by placing a target on the open ends of the fiberglass tube. Target properties were selected to meet requirements for the different instruments to be tested. For the optical tests, the target was an oxidized steel plate whose diffuse reflectivity was measured to be 25%. For the infrared test, the target was a blackbody source with a emissivity of 1.0 and whose temperature was varied from 5°F to 50°F above ambient. For the acoustic tests, the target was a flat piece of metal which would reflect 100% of the expanding acoustic beam from the sensor. The millimeter wave system measured the attenuation through the test chamber, and its target was a trihedral (corner cube reflector) that was a 100% specular reflector. In addition, imaging tests were conducted with the millimeter wave systems using a variety of targets. A list of the detectors used for these tests is given in Appendix B.

FIGURE 5: Impedance vs. Moisture Content of Various Salts and Waste Tank Simulants (Hockey 1993)

FIGURE 6: Conductivity of a Solution as a Function of Salt Concentration

3.2 DISCUSSION OF TESTS

3.2.1 Optical Sensors

The sensors chosen for this test are listed in Appendix B. The visible charge coupled device (CCD) camera, which had a silicon detector that operates in the 0.4-1.1 micron wavelength region, was chosen because of its small size (the head is 1.5 x 1.5 x 2 inches), high sensitivity, and its controller allowed a wide variation of the operating parameters (gain, gamma, gray scale, etc). A charge injection device (CID) camera, which operates in the same wavelength region as the CCD device but is reported to have better radiation tolerance, was also tested. A video camera with a photoconductive detector which operates in the 0.4-2.2 micron wavelength region was used to determine if backscatter could be minimized by viewing the target in the near-infrared. The 3.2-5.6 micron infrared camera was used because it was an infrared camera that does not require liquid nitrogen cooling and had been placed in waste tanks on the Hanford site. To determine the effect of liquid nitrogen cooling on the sensitivity of the detector, an AGA Thermovision system that operates in the 2.0-5.6 micron wavelength range was also used in these tests. The 8-12 micron infrared camera also required liquid nitrogen cooling. The instruments used in these tests were chosen because they were readily available from sources on the Hanford site, and the use of the instruments listed in Appendix B does not imply an endorsement of these products.

The test chamber could effectively be filled with fog or water droplets. With only the fog nozzles operating (one nozzle for each ten-foot section), the chamber could be filled up with fog of a density such that a 500-watt tungsten lamp (irradiance measured at 13.5 mw/cm² when approximately two feet from the lamp) could not be seen through 40 feet of the chamber. Visibility was determined to be about 15 feet when the chamber was filled with fog. Visibility through the water droplets with all of the nozzles operating was calculated to be 60 feet for the 700-micron water droplets and 80 feet with the 1100-micron water droplets using the oxidized steel plate target illuminated by room lights (illumination measured to be 408 lux, or 38 ft-c).

It was not possible to view with the optical systems through 40 feet of fog as dense as could be produced in the test chamber. For the tests with the fog nozzles, the procedure was to fill the chamber with fog, then turn the system off (except for a low air flow through the nozzles in order to keep the fog uniform). The fog density decreased with time after the waterflow was stopped. When the object first became visible to the detector, the transmission of a helium-neon laser beam (0.6328 microns) sent through the 40-foot path length was measured. The attenuation of the fog is given by the equation:

$$T = \exp(-ax) \quad (1)$$

where T = Transmission of the laser beam
 a = attenuation of the fog or water droplets (feet⁻¹)
 x = distance (40 feet)

By measuring the transmission of the helium-neon laser beam through the fog/water droplets when the oxidized steel plate was just barely visible, it is possible to convert the calculated attenuation into a number that describes the visual range of the object, i.e., the visibility through the fog or water droplets (see "Glossary of Terms" in Appendix A). This is done by re-applying equation 1 (Block 1993), and an example calculation is shown in Appendix C. Figure 7 compares the images produced by several optical techniques when the target was barely visible.

The test results that are tabulated are stated in both the attenuation of the fog/water droplets and the visibility through the fog/water droplets. Both of these are measured at 0.63 microns when the target is just barely visible at 40 or 80 feet using the stated detection/illumination method. The size of the fog/water droplets was much greater than the wavelength of visible light; therefore, there would not be a significant difference between the scattering at the helium-neon laser wavelength (0.63 microns) and the rest of the visible spectrum. The more the air cleared in the test chamber, the higher the measured transmission of the laser beam, the smaller the attenuation of the fog will be, and the longer the visibility range will be. If the target is at 40 feet and the visibility of the fog/water droplets is

Top Images are with No Fog in the Test Chamber
 Bottom Images are with 25 Micron Fog in the Test Chamber
 a = Absorption (ft^{-1}) Target Emissivity = 0.75
 Target Size: 7.5 x 7.5 in.

FIGURE 7: Comparison of Images Produced by Various Optical Techniques with the Target at 80 Feet

30 feet, then the target could be detected by the sensor, even though it could not be seen visibly. If the target is at 40 feet and the visibility of the fog/water droplets is 60 feet, then the target could not be detected by the sensor until it could be easily seen with the naked eye because there is a large amount of scatter and absorption from the fog/water droplets with this detection scheme. Also stated in the results tables is a "figure of merit", which is the ratio of the target distance to the visibility of the fog/water droplets (see "Glossary of Terms" in Appendix A). A "figure of merit" of unity means that the stated detection/illumination scheme was able to detect the target (an oxidized steel plate illuminated by room lights, 38 ft-c) at the target distance. The larger the figure of merit, the better the detection/illumination scheme is for imaging through fog/water droplets.

Test Results

The results of the tests with fog and water droplets without salt added to the mixture are summarized in Tables 2 through 4. In backlighting, the 500-watt light source is placed near the detector, and its light is projected down the test chamber to the target by the detector (see "Glossary of Terms" in Appendix A). With the fog in the chamber, the amount of light from the tungsten lamp that reflected from the fog was measured to be approximately 3.8%. Backlighting could not be done at 80 feet because the test chamber was only 40 feet long and it was not possible to separate at the target plane the backscattered light from the light that went through the fog/water droplets. Two levels of frontlighting were tested (see "Glossary of Terms" in Appendix A). In one case, the room lights were used, which produced an irradiance of about $17 \mu\text{W}/\text{cm}^2$ on the target plane; in the other case, a 500-watt lamp was used, which produced an irradiance of about $0.185 \text{ mW}/\text{cm}^2$ on the target plane. This would simulate two lighting schemes, one in which the light is far from the target and illuminating a large area from above the target (not along the same path) and the other in which a light is placed on a robotic arm close to that target. The lens used with the CCD camera that operated in the visible region had an F-stop of approximately f/2.8 when used with room lights only frontlighting scheme and an F-stop of f/22 when used with the 500-watt tungsten lamp as the light source.

TABLE 2. Optical Tests with 25-Micron (Fog) Water Droplets

Wavelength Region	Attenuation* (/ft)	Target Distance				
		40 Feet	Figure of Merit	80 Feet	Figure of Merit	Figure of Merit
		Visi-bility* (ft)		Attenu-ation* (/ft)	Visi-bility* (ft)	
Visible						
Backlight	0.050	60	0.67	----	----	----
Frontlight						
Room Lights	0.076	40	1.00	0.038	79	1.01
500 w Bulb	0.102	30	1.33	0.054	56	1.43
2-5 Micron	0.088	34	1.18	0.032	94	0.85
3-5 Micron	0.059	51	0.78	0.019	159	0.50
8-12 Micron	0.107	28	1.42	0.076	40	2.00

TABLE 3. Optical Tests with 700-Micron Water Droplets

Wavelength Region	Attenuation* (/ft)	Target Distance				
		40 Feet	Figure of Merit	80 Feet	Figure of Merit	Figure of Merit
		Visi-bility* (ft)		Attenu-ation* (/ft)	Visi-bility* (ft)	
Visible						
Backlight	0.099	68	0.59	----	----	----
Frontlight						
Room Lights	>0.113	<60	>0.67	0.046	146	0.55
500 w Bulb	>0.113	<60	>0.67	0.078	86	0.93
2-5 Micron	0.050	134	0.30	0.026	259	0.31
3-5 Micron	0.032	210	0.19	0.010	672	0.12
8-12 Micron	0.038	177	0.23	0.020	336	0.24

TABLE 4. Optical Tests with 1100-Micron Water Droplets

Wavelength Region	Attenuation* (/ft)	Target Distance				
		40 Feet	Figure of Merit	80 Feet	Figure of Merit	Figure of Merit
		Visi-bility* (ft)		Attenu-ation* (/ft)	Visi-bility* (ft)	
Visible						
Backlight	0.065	103	0.39	----	----	----
Frontlight						
Room Lights	>0.084	<80	0.50	0.041	164	0.49
500 w Bulb	>0.084	<80	0.50	0.073	92	0.87
2-5 Micron	0.050	134	0.29	0.018	374	0.21
3-5 Micron	0.040	168	0.24	0.006	1121	0.07
8-12 Micron	0.024	280	0.14	0.013	517	0.15

* Attenuation and Visibility measured at 0.63 Microns

The spectral response of the silicon detector in the CCD camera was not high beyond 0.8 microns. As a result, it was not possible to view the target in the near-infrared (0.8-2.5 microns) with this camera. However, a camera with a photoconductive sensor that operated in the visible and near-infrared wavelength region (0.4-2.2 microns) was used to determine if the backscatter from the fog/water droplets could be minimized by placing a long pass infrared filter in front of the camera and using a 100-watt mercury arc lamp to backlight the target. The output of the lamp was measured to be 20 mw/cm² two feet from the lamp and 0.07 mw/cm² on the target plane 40 feet from the lamp. The results, summarized in Table 5, indicate that there was no appreciable gain in operating in the near-infrared wavelength region. Less backscatter was observed from the fog/water droplets when a 0.85 micron long pass filter was placed in front of the camera; however, the amount of energy reaching the detector decreased because the energy reflected from the target in the visible wavelength region was eliminated by the filter. Testing with this type of camera was difficult because the image took several seconds to clear from the sensor (image persistence). This would make this type of camera difficult to use for waste tank applications.

The results of the tests indicate that optical techniques could not be used to view through a dense fog/water droplets. In the visible region, except when the target is frontlighted, the visibility of the fog/water droplets needs to be at least equal to the distance to the target in order to view the target. Objects can be detected in 50%-100% thicker fog and 15%-30% thicker water droplets using frontlighting compared to using backlighting. The higher the fog/water droplet density, the greater the degradation of the image due to backlighting. The more intense the light source, the greater gain from frontlighting.

With fog in the chamber, use of an image intensified camera was attempted. The results indicate that there was no appreciable gain in the visibility of the target by using an intensified camera in comparison to a CCD camera. Reflections caused sections of the image to bloom while other sections were not even visible until the fog cleared. In addition, the laser used to determine the transmission of the fog caused blooming in the camera and could not be used with the intensified camera.

TABLE 5. Optical Tests with Near-Infrared Sensor

Wavelength Region	Attenu- ation* (/ft)		Target Distance 40 Feet		Figure of Merit	
			Visi- bility* (ft)			
Particle Size (Microns)	25	700	25	700	25	700
Visible	0.042	0.085	72	79	0.56	0.51
Near-Infrared	0.044	0.085	68	79	0.59	0.51

* Attenuation and Visibility measured at 0.63 microns

The operation of a laser range finder was tested in the fog/water droplet chamber. The range finder operated in the near-infrared wavelength region (0.83 microns). It was able to scan the target area at 40 feet in a few seconds. The results indicate that the backscatter from the fog/water droplets resulted in the range finder losing its ability to determine the range to a target. However, images were obtained through a fog which had a transmission of 11% (attenuation of 0.055/foot, visibility of 55 feet). The image produced by the range finder for a target at 40 feet was equivalent to a video image produced with the target at 80 feet.

For a water droplet spray, the ability of the range finder to image a target was dependent on the proximity of the laser range finder to the nozzles. With the target (aluminum foil with a reflectance of approximately 80%) and all of the nozzles set at the far end of the tube, the range finder was able to image up to a transmission of 10.5% (attenuation of 0.056/foot, visibility of 120 feet) for the 700-micron water droplets and 13.7% (attenuation of 0.050/foot, visibility of 134 feet) for the 1100-micron water droplets. However, if the nozzles were placed within 16 feet of the laser range finder, then the range finder could not view through even one nozzle due to backscatter from the water droplets. The images exhibited random white and black pixels. No filtering algorithm, compatible with the system's software, was available that could remove this random noise. Range information inside and beyond the water droplets was lost completely.

Infrared techniques did enhance the image through the fog, but showed a higher degradation of the image than visible techniques with the water droplets. Cryogenic cooling of the infrared detector greatly enhances the

ability of the instrument to detect a target by decreasing the noise in the detector when compared to using a thermoelectric cooler for cooling the infrared detector.

The infrared tests were conducted with the hot plate target at a temperature 5°F to 10°F above ambient. To determine the effect of temperature on the visibility through the fog/water droplets, a test was conducted in which a black-body source (emissivity=1) was set at different temperatures and the visibility through the fog was determined. The results are shown in Tables 6 through 8 and plotted in Figures 8 through 10. The results indicate that increasing the differential between the target and ambient temperatures will allow the target to be viewed in denser fog. The effect is more pronounced when there is greater scattering from the fog/water droplets.

The infrared cameras could be set with different temperature ranges, e.g., 5°F, 20°F, etc. The Inframetrics camera also had the ability of zoom-in on the target. Tests were generally conducted with the infrared cameras set at a 20°F temperature range. The zoom feature was activated because it made the image easier to detect, especially when viewed through the long tube that makes up the test chamber. There was no appreciable change in the results reported in Tables 2 through 4 when the infrared systems were set to a wider field-of-view or a lower temperature range because the contrast with the background also changed when these parameters were reset.

TABLE 6. Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with Infrared Detectors and 25-Micron (Fog) Water Droplets

Wavelength Region	Attenu- ation* (/ft)	Target Distance				
		40 Feet Visi- bility* (ft)	Figure of Merit	80 Feet Attenu- ation* (/ft)	Visi- bility* (ft)	Figure of Merit
2-5 Micron						
83°F	0.088	34	1.18	0.032	94	0.85
100°F	0.107	28	1.42	0.052	58	1.38
120°F	0.132	23	1.74	0.060	50	1.60
3-5 Micron						
83°F	0.059	51	0.78	0.019	158	0.51
100°F	0.089	34	1.18	0.047	64	1.25
120°F	0.105	29	1.38	0.059	51	1.57
8-12 Micron						
83°F	0.107	28	1.43	0.076	40	2.00
100°F	0.146	21	1.90	0.103	29	2.76
120°F	0.155	19	2.10	0.111	27	2.96

TABLE 7. Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with Infrared Detectors and 700-Micron Water Droplets

Wavelength Region	Attenuation* (/ft)	40 Feet	Figure of Merit	Attenuation* (/ft)	80 Feet	Figure of Merit
		Visi-bility* (ft)			Visi-bility* (ft)	
2-5 Micron						
83°F	0.050	134	0.30	0.026	259	0.31
100°F	0.085	79	0.51	0.050	134	0.60
120°F	0.113	60	0.67	0.056	120	0.67
3-5 Micron						
83°F	0.032	210	0.19	0.010	672	0.12
100°F	0.050	134	0.30	0.032	210	0.38
120°F	0.078	86	0.46	0.038	177	0.45
8-12 Micron						
83°F	0.038	177	0.23	0.020	336	0.24
100°F	0.056	120	0.33	0.038	177	0.45
120°F	0.085	79	0.51	0.043	156	0.51

TABLE 8. Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with Infrared Detectors 1100-Micron Water Droplets

Wavelength Region	Attenuation (/ft)	40 Feet	Figure of Merit	Attenuation (/ft)	80 Feet	Figure of Merit
		Visi-bility (ft)			Visi-bility (ft)	
2-5 Micron						
83°F	0.050	134	0.30	0.018	374	0.21
100°F	0.073	92	0.43	0.050	134	0.60
120°F	0.084	80	0.50	0.060	112	0.71
3-5 Micron						
83°F	0.040	168	0.24	0.006	1121	0.07
100°F	0.060	112	0.36	0.024	280	0.28
120°F	0.084	80	0.50	0.031	217	0.37
8-12 Micron						
83°F	0.024	280	0.14	0.013	517	0.15
100°F	0.040	168	0.24	0.024	280	0.28
120°F	0.065	103	0.39	0.031	217	0.37

* Attenuation and Visibility measured at 0.63 microns

FIGURE 8: Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with 2- to 5-Micron Infrared Detector

FIGURE 9: Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with 3- to 5-Micron Infrared Detector

FIGURE 10: Effect of Target Temperature on Visibility Through the Fog with 8- to 12-Micron Infrared Detector

Image enhancement techniques can improve the ability of visible cameras to image through the fog/water droplets. The test results are shown in Tables 9 and 10. The contrast enhancement that was used for this test was used in real-time imaging of the target. Images taken with a CCD camera through a fog or mist generally lack contrast as can be seen in the left images of Figures 11 and 12. The human eye can only resolve about 30 shades of gray; therefore, although there may be a great deal of information about a scene in an image, it may be "lost" due to the limits of our eyes if all the information lies in similar shades of gray. Because a typical gray-scale CCD camera will output 256 different shades of gray, scenes which are low in contrast may only use one small region of the available gray scale. It is possible, therefore, to take a low contrast image and manipulate the gray scale so that the gray levels of the image are expanded and now lay across the entire 256 shade range. This enables us to observe small changes between adjacent shades which would otherwise be invisible. Thus, there is no new information gained by this procedure; however, it does enable a person looking at a video screen to see more detail through fog/water droplets, effectively enhancing their vision.

As a video image is digitized, it is passed through an Input Look Up Table (ILUT) to transform the incoming signal's 256 discrete values to be displayed on the screen. Usually the ILUT is 256 linear increasing values (0=0, 1=1, 2=2, etc.) for normal video, or decreasing values (1=255, 2=254, 3=253, etc.) for inverse video. The ILUT can be manipulated so that only a certain range of values are passed and mapped to spread out values, e.g., 125=0, 126=11, 127=23, etc., which increases their contrast. Results of this treatment for experimental data are encouraging and are shown in Figures 11 and 12. Figure 11 is for a target at 40 feet that is backlighted with the 500-watt tungsten lamp. Figure 12 is for the target at 80 feet that is frontlighted with the same lamp.

Contrast enhancement can be done and the resulting images displayed in real-time. It is very flexible and can be made self-monitoring. One frame can be used to analyze the actual brightness and contrast of the scene, then

TABLE 9. Effect of Contrast Enhancement with Target at 40 Feet

Detector	Attenuation* (/ft)			Visibility* (ft)			Figure of Merit		
	25	700	1100	25	700	1100	25	700	1100
Particle Size (Microns)									
CCD Camera									
Visible									
Backlight	0.050	0.099	0.065	60	68	103	0.67	0.59	0.39
Frontlight									
Room Lights	0.076	>0.113	>0.084	40	<60	<80	1.00	>0.67	>0.50
500 w Bulb	0.061	>0.113	>0.084	30	<60	<80	1.33	>0.67	>0.50
Contrast Enhanced									
Visible									
Backlight	0.061	>0.113	>0.084	49	<60	<80	0.82	>0.67	>0.50
Frontlight									
Room Lights	0.097	>0.113	>0.084	31	<60	<80	1.29	>0.67	>0.50
500 w Bulb	0.145	>0.113	>0.084	27	<60	<80	1.48	>0.67	>0.50

TABLE 10. Effect of Contrast Enhancement with Target at 80 Feet

Detector	Attenuation* (/ft)			Visibility* (ft)			Figure of Merit		
	25	700	1100	25	700	1100	25	700	1100
Particle Size (Microns)									
CCD Camera									
Visible									
Frontlight									
Room Lights	0.038	0.046	0.041	79	146	164	1.01	0.55	0.49
500 w Bulb	0.054	0.078	0.073	56	86	92	1.43	0.93	0.87
Contrast Enhanced									
Visible									
Frontlight									
Room Lights	0.049	0.078	0.065	62	86	103	1.29	0.93	0.78
500 w Bulb	0.059	0.099	0.084	51	68	80	1.57	1.18	1.00

* Attenuation and Visibility measured at 0.63 microns

Target Backlighting.
Original Image on Left.
Contrast Enhanced Image on
Right.

FIGURE 11. Effect of Contrast Enhancement on Visual Image at 40 Feet

Target Frontlighting.
Original Image on Left.
Contrast Enhanced Image on
Right.

FIGURE 12. Effect of Contrast Enhancement on Visual Image at 80 Feet

the contrast can be adjusted to account for changing factors with no more than a "blip" in the real-time display. This can be done automatically at preset time intervals or on demand as the viewer sees fit.

There was no gain in using contrast enhancement for the image produced by the infrared imagers. Only 20 grey scales were available with the infrared imager. With the 20°F temperature gradient used for these tests, there was no improvement noted by using contrast enhancement for the size of target that was tested, which matched the requirements needed for waste tank applications.

Tests were conducted in which salt was added to the water. The results, shown in Tables 11 and 12, indicate that adding salt to the fog/water droplets did not change the visual range through which an object can be viewed. As will be discussed in the section on reproducibility of results, the transmission of the laser beam when the object first became visible fell within the measurement error when comparing the results with and without salt added to the fog/water droplets. This test was performed by adding 20% salt by weight to tap water. It was observed that the fog would not dissipate as quickly with the salt in it as it did with no salt in it.

Reproducibility of Results

In the course of these tests, several tests were repeated at various times. From the results of these approximately 12 tests, it was determined that the average error in measuring the transmission of the fog when the target was just identifiable was +1.7%. This would lead to an error of +4 feet in measuring the visibility through the fog, and ± 12 ft in measuring the visibility through the water droplets (at a target distance of 40 feet).

3.2.2. Acoustic Sensors

Acoustic sensors are generally divided into two categories: electrostatic transducers and piezoelectric transducers. A sample of each of these transducers was used for the tests in this project.

TABLE 11. Comparison of the Effect of Adding Salt to Fog/Water Droplets at 40 Feet Target Distance

Wavelength Region	No Salt Added to the Water									20% Salt Added to the Water								
	Attenuation* (/ft)			Visibility* (ft)			Figure of Merit			Attenuation* (/ft)			Visibility* (ft)			Figure of Merit		
Particle Size (microns)	25	700	1100	25	700	1100	25	700	1100	25	700	1100	25	700	1100	25	700	1100
Visible Backlight	0.050	0.099	0.065	60	68	103	0.67	0.59	0.39	0.045	0.089	0.065	67	76	103	0.60	0.53	0.39
Frontlight																		
Room Lights	0.076	>0.113	>0.084	40	<60	<80	3.0	>0.67	>0.50	0.088	>0.095	>0.070	34	<71	<96	1.18	>0.56	>0.42
500 w Bulb	0.102	>0.113	>0.084	30	<60	<80	0.9	>0.67	>0.50	0.118	>0.095	>0.070	26	<71	<96	1.54	>0.56	>0.42
8-12 Micron	0.107	0.038	0.024	28	177	280	2.9	0.23	0.14	0.088	0.030	0.027	34	224	249	1.18	0.18	0.16

TABLE 12. Comparison of the Effect of Adding Salt to Water Droplets at 80 Feet Target Distance

Wavelength Region	No Salt Added to the Water			700 Micron Water Droplets 20% Salt Added to the Water		
	Attenuation* (/ft)	Visibility* (ft)	Figure of Merit	Attenuation* (/ft)	Visibility* (ft)	Figure of Merit
Visible Frontlight						
Room Lights	0.038	177	0.45	0.032	210	0.38
500 w Bulb	0.078	86	0.93	0.095	71	1.13
8-12 Micron	0.020	336	0.24	0.024	280	0.29

* Attenuation and Visibility measured at 0.63 microns

Electrostatic transducers operate by using an electrostatic force to move a thin, usually plastic (Kapton) foil. An AC voltage of a given frequency causes the foil to move at the same frequency and to transmit an energy wave. Piezoelectric transducers operate on the same principle; however, instead of a moving foil, a piezoelectric crystal is excited.

Generally, the electrostatic transducers will work for longer distances. The problem with them is that they do not function well in harsh environments because moisture will condense on the open foil, causing it to fail. In addition, they are usually not sealed as well as the piezoelectric sensors. Some manufacturers eliminate this problem by blowing air through the transducer and concentrating horn, if they have one; some of the devices have fittings for attaching air lines. The electrostatic transducer was used for this test series because it operated for a longer distance than the piezoelectric transducers.

The electrostatic transducer that was used for these tests was the acoustic sensor used in the Polaroid camera. It had a range of 35 feet and operates with a chirp frequency around 50 kHz. The piezoelectric transducer that was used in these tests was manufactured by Lundahl Instruments, Inc., (Model DCU-7) and also operated at approximately 50 kHz. It was chosen because it was designed to operate in harsh environments, and with a horn attached to it, had a narrow beam divergence ($\pm 1.7^\circ$). Its range was only 10 feet. In addition, a piezoelectric transducer manufactured by Micro Switch, Inc., (Model 942) was also tested. It operated at 215 kHz and had a range of about five feet.

Test Results

The results of the tests indicated that the acoustic sensors that operated at 50 kHz could not operate in the waste tank during sluicing operation because of the acoustic noise. Using a flat metal target set at approximately 9 feet, the Lundahl acoustic sensor exhibited an error of 20 inches when either the air from the fog nozzles was started or the water spray from the 300-micron nozzles was turned on. In addition, the range value was unsteady, varying randomly about ± 1.62 inches. The same effect was noticed with the Polaroid acoustic sensor. However, with this sensor, it was

possible to set the sensitivity low enough so that it would detect the distance to the metal target. The problem with this is that the sensor would then need a high reflector, e.g., a flat metal target, in order to determine the distance to the target. Observing the signal on an oscilloscope indicates that random white noise was being received by the sensor due to air flow through the nozzles. The sluicing operation can be expected to be noisy, with a high-power water jet operating inside a steel waste tank that contains other apparatus, such as ventilation fans. Therefore, it appears that an acoustic sensor operating near 50 kHz could not be used for waste tank imaging.

The effect of acoustic noise on the ability of the acoustic sensor to detect distance to a target was not observed with the Micro Switch acoustic sensor, which operated at 215 kHz. The distance to a flat metal target approximately five feet away from the sensor increased 0.5 inch when the air turbulence, fog, or 700-micron diameter water spray was started, and the distance varied ± 0.15 inch. Because the range of this sensor was only about five feet, the test set-up was modified in order to determine the effect of fog and water spray on this transducer. One sensor was placed on one end of the test chamber and was used to transmit the sonic beam; the other sensor was placed in the test chamber to receive the sonic beam. The results of these tests indicate that the acoustic sensor operating at 215 kHz is able to penetrate the fog/water droplets if it has enough power. However, the acoustic wave is attenuated by the fog and water droplets; it was possible for the fog or water droplets to completely attenuate the acoustic beam when these sensors were 10-12 feet apart. Previous tests with this Micro Switch sensor indicated that the sensor lost about 0.071 db/foot as the humidity in a controlled environmental chamber increased from 25% to 95% while the temperature was held at 100°F (Peters et al. 1991). With a target at 80 feet, the pulse-echo signal would travel 160 feet, and the signal would be decreased by 11.4 db, or approximately 75%. When the sensors were seven feet apart, it was possible to get the beam through the fog/water droplets without changing the voltage measured by the sensor. Adding salt to the water did not change the results with the acoustic sensor. Thus, a more powerful acoustic sensor than available commercially, which operated at a few hundred kHz, would be needed for use in the waste tanks. An array of sensors, or scanning one

acoustic sensor, would be needed in order to obtain the required accuracy. For example, if one wants to resolve three inches at 75 feet, the acoustic sensor operating at 215 kHz would need to be approximately 23 inches in diameter.

3.2.3 Wideband Millimeter Wave Imaging Technique

A wideband millimeter-wave imaging technique has been developed by PNL for the detection of concealed weapons carried by personnel through high-security areas, such as airports for the United States Federal Aviation Administration (FAA). This technique, similar to an extremely high-resolution radar system, actively probes the target with millimeter waves and reconstructs an image from the backscattered phase and amplitude data. The method used is similar to synthetic aperture radar (SAR) methods in configuration, but differs in that wide bandwidths are swept and targets are imaged near to the scanned aperture. Since the data is collected in the frequency domain and in an unfocused manner, computer reconstruction is required to form a focused image. This imaging technique follows the reconstruction methods given by Soumekh (1991). The reconstruction method begins by taking the recorded amplitude and phase data and performing a Fourier Transform in the lateral direction, which decomposes the wave front into plane wave components. An interpolation is used to obtain uniform samples of the targets reflectivity in the spatial frequency domain. A two-dimensional inverse Fourier Transform is then used to reconstruct the image. This reconstruction algorithm has been simplified for use in this specific application, and the theory of the technique is discussed in Appendix D.

The differences between the wideband millimeter wave imaging technique used in this study and Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) is that the wideband millimeter wave imaging technique violates assumptions made in conventional SAR focusing algorithms. However, as in a conventional SAR system, the bandwidth provides range resolution and the lateral aperture provides cross-range resolution. An experimental system has been developed at PNL which has gathered millimeter wave imaging data. This imaging system allows for the formation of a two-dimensional image from a one-dimensional, linearly scanned bistatic transceiver.

Radar imaging techniques form an image using reflected electromagnetic waves. Most conventional radars form an image by mechanically sweeping a relatively narrow beam-width, time-gated beam. Much higher resolution can be obtained using SAR techniques in which a relatively wide, beam-width antenna is scanned over a large linear aperture and focusing is performed in post-processing.

Test Results

Attenuation Measurements. The measurements were conducted using a W-band (75-110 GHz) transceiver that was configured to operate at a center frequency of 94 GHz and a bandwidth of 1 GHz. This would result in a range resolution of approximately 15 cm. Separate transmit and receive horns were used, each with a gain of 25 dBi and beam-width of approximately 10° . The transceiver operates in a linear swept-frequency mode or a frequency-modulated continuous wave mode. In this mode, the frequency of the IF signal is proportional to the range to the target; therefore, the Fourier Transform of the IF signal will give the range profile of the target(s). Figure 13 shows the imaging front end used in the obscurant attenuation measurements and the preliminary linear aperture imaging studies. This system can be fabricated into a miniaturized package for insertion into the waste tank.

The results of the attenuation measurements are summarized in Table 13. For these tests, a trihedral (corner cube) target was set up 40 feet from the millimeter wave antenna. A pulse was emitted from one antenna, reflected from the trihedral target, and then received by the other antenna. These results indicate that scattering, or attenuation, of the millimeter waves increases as the water particle size increases. The attenuation of the millimeter waves in salt water (20% salt added to water by weight) are nearly identical to the pure water results, indicating that salt or other electrolytes in the water are unlikely to be a factor for millimeter wave imaging. Further testing indicated that millimeter waves are not affected by salt in the water above 8 GHz, which is shown in Figure 14.

The typical target signal was 30-40 dB above the noise. Figure 15 shows the reflective frequency response from the trihedral target during the pulse echo attenuation measurements for the salty fog.

FIGURE 13. Front End Electronics for Millimeter Wave Technique

FIGURE 14. Comparison of Loss Tangent of Deionized and Salt Water

FIGURE 15: Frequency Response from Trihedral Reflector in Test Chamber Filled with 25-Micron Diameter Salt Water

TABLE 13. Results of Millimeter Wave Attenuation Measurements at 94 GHz

Particle Size (Microns)	Attenuation (dBm)				Net Loss			
	Chamber Empty		Chamber Filled		dB		dB/ft	
	Water	Salt Water	Water	Salt Water	Water	Salt Water	Water	Salt Water
25	3.1	3.9	1.6	2.7	1.5	1.2	0.018	0.015
700	3.2	4.9	-3.3	-2.0	6.5	6.6	0.082	0.082
1100	2.9	3.6	-5.5	-5.2	8.4	8.8	0.100	0.110

Imaging Tests. An experimental system, shown in Figure 16, was assembled to gather data for the wideband linearly scanned imaging technique. This system utilizes a 6-feet by 6-feet high-resolution x-y scanner. Typically, only the horizontal direction is used for this imaging configuration. The transceiver for these preliminary imaging studies used a heterodyne receiver configuration operating at a frequency range from 95 to 115 GHz. Separate transmit and receive horn antennas are directed at the target, as shown in Figure 17, and an inclination angle is used to provide adequate illumination of the target. During scans, data from the transceiver is downloaded to a computer for subsequent image reconstruction.

Since resolution cell size in the y-direction is inversely proportional to bandwidth, it is extremely desirable to use the widest possible bandwidth. The transceiver that performed these preliminary images was designed and fabricated for another project with range requirements of six to ten feet. The number of sampling points required for this range and bandwidth is 800 points. The number of sampling points used, however, was 1024 to allow a maximum non-aliased range of 12.6 feet for the 95-115 GHz frequency range.

A single antenna can be used for both transmit and receive with a directional coupler used to separate the signals. However, significantly better performance is achieved by using separate antennas for transmit and receive, and then recording the transmission from the transmit to the receive antenna. If the antennas are small and placed close to each other, the transmission signal is equivalent to the reflected signal from a monostatic arrangement. However, internal cabling impedance mismatches and the antenna

FIGURE 16. Experimental Set-Up of Millimeter Wave Imaging System

FIGURE 17. Experimental W-Band System Configuration

impedance mismatch will not be present in the detected signal. This is very important as these signals can be quite large relative to the reflected signals in the monostatic arrangement. There will still be an undesirable signal coupled from the transmit to the receive antenna. This signal is not very strong, and may be removed easily by software time-gating the Fourier Transform of the wideband response.

The scanner provides a maximum aperture of approximately four feet. At each x position (see Figure 17), a full frequency sweep is performed and the measured results are downloaded to the computer. A general purpose SUN 4/370 was used to control the scanner and record the data. After data collection, a SKY i860 coprocessor is used to reconstruct the image. Presently, reconstruction of a 512×1024 pixel image takes approximately 20 seconds. This time can be significantly reduced by optimizing the algorithm and size of the data and image.

To adequately illuminate the target over the full y -direction extent (up to 10 feet), it is necessary to incline the antennas to approximately 30° . This is done to prevent portions of the target from shadowing other portions of the target. This will reduce the y resolution by a small amount in accordance with equation 17 in Appendix D. The expected resolution for the 95-115 GHz system is d_x , equal to approximately 0.14 inch ($F\#=2.5$), and d_y , equal to approximately 0.59 inch, for a horizontal aperture of 4 feet, range of 10 feet, and slant angle of 30° .

A test target was fabricated to demonstrate the resolution and focusing capabilities of the experimental imaging system and reconstruction algorithm. This test target is in the form of an uppercase block letter "F" which is composed of three rows of metallized spheres. The spheres are 1.5 inches in diameter. Spheres were used in the fabrication of this test target since they have a uniform response in the backscatter direction at all angles. Thus, each sphere in the target should generate a significant return at each scanner position. Data was obtained from this target with a 95-115 GHz frequency range at 512 points uniformly spaced along a 4-foot horizontal aperture. The angle of illumination is approximately 30° . Image processing algorithms were applied to the x , k_x , and k_y axes to reduce side-lobes. The reconstructed

image is displayed in Figure 18 along with an optical image for comparison. Because of the power output of the millimeter wave antenna (0.2 mw) that was available for these tests, it was not possible to image objects beyond a range of 6 to 10 feet. This result demonstrates high resolution on the order of 1.5 inches, and demonstrates the effectiveness of the transceiver and image-reconstruction algorithm.

Figure 19 shows other test targets used for preliminary millimeter wave imaging tests. The targets include two test objects in the form of an uppercase block letter "F" where one is composed of three rows of 1.5-inches diameter metallized spheres and the other is composed two rows of 0.75-inch diameter metallized spheres. Other targets include two glass bottles. A glass target was used because glass has a relative permittivity (compared to empty space) of 4-10 (Weast 1976-1977, p. E-60). This is similar to the relative permittivity of sodium nitrate, which is 5.2, and sodium carbonate, which is 5-8 (Weast 1976-1977, p.E-58), which are two major constituents in the waste tanks. Water, another major constituent, has a relative permittivity of approximately 80 at room temperature (Weast 1976-1977, p. E-61). The amount of energy reflected from the target surface is a function of the permittivity and conductivity of the surface. The glass bottle closest to the two "Fs" is filled with water, the other is empty. A bottle cap is to the right of the smaller "F". The optical image is included to compare the results.

Figure 20 shows the imaging results for the small plastic wading pool filled with water. Duct putty mounds are protruding out of the water in the pool's center and are also placed on the pool's outer rim. The optical image is shown for comparison. Comparing Figures 19 and 20 shows that a rough target, like duct putty, produces a millimeter wave image that more closely represents the object than a smooth cylindrical target, such as the glass bottle. It would be expected that the waste tank contents would be a rough target.

Conceptual Design. Figure 21 shows the conceptual design for the linear synthetic aperture imaging system that could be used for imaging during the sluicing operations. The system will use a linear scanner that can pan and

Optical Image

Millimeter Wave Image

FIGURE 18: Millimeter Wave Image of 1.5-In. Diameter Metallized Spheres

Optical Image

Millimeter Wave Image

FIGURE 19. Millimeter Wave Image of Various Targets

Optical Image

Millimeter Wave Image

FIGURE 20. Millimeter Wave Image of Duct Putty in Wading Pool

FIGURE 21: Conceptual Design of Millimeter Wave Imaging System for Sluicing Operations

tilt for coverage over the area of the waste tank. The linear array will be approximately two feet long. The imaging system will be capable of updating an image every 30 seconds. Some of the imaging system specifications are shown in Table 14.

The imaging head and linear scanner can easily fit down through the standoff riser in a folded fashion, and will be encased in a radome covering material to allow for decontamination. The millimeter waves easily penetrate through this plastic outer cover. The millimeter wave imaging head can be fabricated into a miniaturized configuration for ease of entrance into the waste tank. The millimeter wave transceiver will be fabricated out of semiconductor diodes and metal waveguide. This will allow for a very rugged imaging system in a high-radiation environment.

Preliminary image focusing software has already been developed. This image forming software can be readily implemented on a PC-based computer with special high-speed computational boards. The PC computer will also control the scanner and display the reconstructed image of the waste tank surface.

TABLE 14. Millimeter Wave Imaging System Specifications

Operating Frequency:	95-115 GHz
Image Frame Rate:	1 per 30 seconds
Lateral Resolution:	1.6 inches
Range Resolution:	0.4 inch
Imaging Pixels:	256 x 256
F #:	10-20

4.0 RADIATION EXPOSURE

The effects of nuclear radiation on the operation of the instruments were not tested in this study. However, during the sluicing operation in the waste tank, the equipment that is placed in the waste tank will be exposed to nuclear radiation for a long period of time. Radiation-tolerant video cameras are commercially available that can withstand an accumulated dose of 10^8 R. Recent publications have indicated that charge-injection device (CID) cameras are much more radiation-hardened than CCD cameras (Kaplan 1994). Tests were conducted in this program to compare the sensitivity of a CCD camera to that of a CID camera. The results, shown in Table 15, indicate that the sensitivity of the CID camera was comparable to the sensitivity of the CCD camera. The CID camera that was tested did not have automatic gain control, or any control on the gain, which made it difficult to compare directly to the CCD camera that did have these features.

CCD detectors and other commercial electronic components, such as CMOS preamps, generally begin to fail at about 5000 R (Hubbs et al. 1991, and 1987 CCD Databook 1988). Complete failure of these devices occurs at 30,000 R (Darwish et al. 1988). Radiation-hardened CMOS devices are able to withstand 10^6 R (London et al. 1978). However, it has been found that more damage is done to these devices at low dose rates than at high dose rates and that CMOS devices used in low-radiation environments may fail 2-6 times faster than would be predicted by calculating the total exposure (Goben et al. 1990). Silicon photodiodes will withstand 2×10^8 R of gamma radiation without degradation (Barnes 1979). Gallium Arsenide, which is the operating diode in the millimeter wave system, will fail between $75-100 \times 10^6$ R (Witmer et al. 1993).

Sluicing takes a long time to perform, and the equipment may be down in the tank continuously for several months. Thus, shielding of the detector and electronic components will be required of any system placed in the waste tank. The small size and weight of the CCD or CID camera or mm wave antenna tested in this program would allow room for shielding. The system can be enclosed in a lead box, and a mirror can be used to minimize direct shine from the nuclear

TABLE 15. Comparison of Sensitivity of CCD and CID Cameras

**Target Distance
40 Feet**

Wavelength Region	Attenuation* (/ft)			Visibility* (ft)			Figure of Merit		
Particle Size (Microns)	25	700	1100	25	700	1100	25	700	1100
CCD Camera									
Visible									
Backlight	0.050	0.099	0.065	60	68	103	0.67	0.59	0.39
Frontlight									
Room Lights	0.076	>0.113	>0.084	40	<60	<80	1.00	>0.67	>0.50
500 w Bulb	0.102	>0.113	>0.084	30	<60	<80	1.33	>0.67	>0.50
CID Camera									
Visible									
Backlight	0.051	0.085	0.065	59	79	103	0.68	0.50	0.39
Frontlight									
Room Lights	---	0.085	0.078	--	79	86	--	0.50	0.46
500 w Bulb	0.100	>0.113	>0.084	30	<60	<80	1.33	>0.67	>0.50

* Attenuation and Visibility measured at 0.63 microns

radiation onto the detector; nuclear radiation will not be reflected from mirrors. As a rule of thumb, one can get about one order of magnitude reduction in damage due to gamma radiation for every inch of lead shielding. There are radiation-tolerant glasses that can withstand 10^7 R. Mirrors, lenses, and windows can be designed to be replaced easily during routine servicing.

5.0 CONCLUSIONS

Table 16 summarizes the results of this study. The results are stated based on a "figure of merit", which is the ratio of the target distance to the visibility of the fog/water droplets when the target was just visible, using the stated detection/illumination method. The higher the "figure of merit", the better the method is for imaging through the fog/water droplets.

Millimeter wave sensors operating at approximately 94 GHz were able to penetrate the thickest fog/water droplets produced in the test chamber. The amount of millimeter wave attenuation is affected by the size of the water vapor particle--the larger the particle size, the higher the attenuation. The antenna does not have to be large [the antenna used for these tests was approximately 1(W) x 1(H) x 3(L) inches] and could be placed on a scanner to obtain the desired images. The scanner would have to fold out to approximately two feet after being placed down the riser. The millimeter wave sensor operating at 94 GHz was not affected by increasing the conductivity of the fog/water droplets. The millimeter wave system should be able to meet the requirements detailed in this report for viewing through obscurant during a sluicing operation. It is estimated that the hardware to develop a millimeter wave system to be placed in a waste tank would cost (unburdened) approximately \$100K-\$125K. Additional costs would be needed for the deployment system and labor for assembling, testing, and deploying the system. The lateral and range resolution of a millimeter wave system operating at 90 GHz would be 1-2 inches at a range of 40 feet. The image frame rate could be near real-time (one frame every 30 seconds).

Video imaging was not able to penetrate the thickest fog/water droplets. However, it is the least expensive and would require the least amount of technical development, and can be used when the fog/water droplets are not as dense. The density of the fog that can be viewed with video imaging techniques can be 9% to 42% greater, depending on the lighting scheme, by using image enhancement software, which can be done in near real-time. It can also be enhanced by placing lighting near the area to be viewed, instead of placing the lights through the same riser as the camera. Objects could be

TABLE 16. Comparison of Test Results with Different Sensors

Sensor	Wavelength (Microns)	Figure of Merit Target Distance Particle Size (Micron)						Notes
		40 ft			80 ft			
		25	700	1100	25	700	1100	
Optical Sensors								
CCD	0.4-1.1							
Backlighted		0.67	0.59	0.39	--	---	---	1,2
Frontlighted		1.00	>0.67	>0.50	1.01	0.55	0.49	1,3
CID	0.4-1.1							
Backlighted		0.68	0.51	0.39	--	---	---	1,2
Frontlighted		--	0.51	0.46	--	---	---	1,3
Image								
Intensified	0.4-1.1	--	---	---	--	---	---	1,4
Contrast Enhanced	0.4-1.1							
Backlighted		0.82	>0.67	>0.50	--	---	---	1,2
Frontlighted		1.29	>0.67	>0.50	1.29	0.93	0.78	1,3
Laser Rangefinder	0.83	0.73	0.33	0.30	--	---	---	5
Photoconductive	0.4-2.2	0.56	0.51	---	--	---	---	1,6
In-Sb	2.0-5.6	1.18	0.30	0.30	0.85	0.31	0.21	7,9
Hg-Cd-Te	3.2-5.6	0.75	0.19	0.24	0.50	0.12	0.07	8
Hg-Cd-Te	8-12	1.43	0.23	0.14	2.00	0.24	0.15	7,9
Acoustic Sensors								
Electrostatic	6600 (50 kHz)	--	---	---	---	---	---	10
Piezoelectric	6600 (50 kHz)	--	---	---	---	---	---	10
Piezoelectric	1500 (215 kHz)	--	---	---	---	---	---	11
Millimeter Wave Sensors								
94 GHz	3190	>2.67	>0.67	>0.50	---	---	---	12

Notes

1. The target for the tests in the visible region was an oxidized steel plate, with a reflectivity of 25% and illuminated with 38 ft-c.
2. Backlighting at 80 feet could not be accomplished with the test set-up.
3. The visual range with frontlighting will decrease as the intensity of the light source increases.
4. Image blooming occurred with the image intensified camera.
5. Backscatter from the fog/water droplets resulted in the loss of range data but images were obtained providing water droplets are at least 16 feet from the rangefinder.
6. An arc lamp was used as the light source in testing this camera. There was no change in the visibility range of the fog/water droplets when the image was viewed in the near infrared.
7. Detector is cooled with liquid nitrogen.
8. Detector is thermoelectrically cooled.
9. This is with target at 10°F above ambient. The target will be visible through denser fog/water droplets as the target temperature increases.
10. The 50 kHz acoustic sensor is affected by noise of air/water movement.
11. The commercial acoustic sensor that was tested did not have enough power to penetrate the fog. Tests indicate that this acoustic sensor would lose 75% of its power travelling to and from a target at 80 feet.
12. The mm-wave sensor operating was able to penetrate the thickest fog/water droplets produced by the test chamber. Attenuation was measured to be 1-8 db for a target at 40 feet.

detected in 50%-100% thicker fog using the frontlighting approach, depending on the intensity of the light source. In a waste tank, frontlighting could be achieved by either placing the lights down a riser near the area undergoing the sluicing operation or placing lights on the robotic arm controlling the water nozzles. There was no gain in using a low light level camera for viewing through the fog/water droplets, viewing in the near-infrared region, and using a mercury lamp as the light source. Adding salt to the fog/water droplets did not change the visibility of the target through the water vapor.

Laser range gating has been successfully used for imaging through murky water. However, no system is commercially available that is able to operate at the short-target distances that will occur in a waste tank. Discussions with SAIC in San Diego, CA, indicate that they believe a system they have developed could be adapted for imaging through fog/water droplets in a waste tank during a sluicing operation. It was not possible within the funding level and time frame of this program to pursue this approach.

Testing with a laser range finder indicated that the instrument loses its ability to determine range information in the fog/water droplets. It was able to obtain an image through the fog at low resolution. The image of a target at 40 feet being equivalent to the video image of a target at 80 feet. With water droplets, an image was obtained, providing that the water droplets were at least 16 feet from the range finder; otherwise, the image exhibits random noise. The laser range finder was able to scan the target area at 40 feet in a few seconds.

Infrared optical techniques do not appear to be viable for viewing through obscurants during a sluicing operation. Although infrared detectors did operate in thicker fog than visible techniques, they exhibited higher attenuation in water droplets. In addition, a system that does not require liquid nitrogen cooling operated only marginally better than a video system operating in the visible wavelength regions. Finally, because of the small temperature differences between the target and the background, the image may not correlate exactly with the surfaces in the waste tank.

Acoustic sensors would need to be operated at high power in order to be used for this application. At 215 kHz, 75% of the power of the beam would be lost in the fog in the round-trip travel to a target 75 feet away. In addition, acoustic sensors must operate at a frequency above the ambient acoustic noise due to the sluicing operation in the waste tank. Sensors tested at 50 kHz were affected by the noise of air movements.

6.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

Test results from this program will provide a basis to determine the best method to view through the fog/water droplets in a waste tank during a sluicing operation. The best method will be governed by the density of the fog/water droplets. Testing indicated that millimeter wave sensors were able to penetrate the thickest fog/water droplets, and were not affected by the conductivity of the fog/water droplets. If it is important to image through a very dense fog, then funding should be provided for further development of this sensor for specific applications. A system should be developed and tested in a waste tank during a sluicing operation.

Other methods may also be viable. Laser range gating, although not tested in this program, may be another method that could be used for imaging during sluicing operations. If alternative methods to using millimeter wave technology to image through dense fog/water droplets is desired, then funding should be provided to a manufacturer of a laser range gated system to update their system for the short-target distances that would occur in a waste tank. Then this system can be tested in the fog/water droplet test fixture developed in this program to determine the feasibility of this approach.

If the fog/water droplets are not too dense, video imaging is the least expensive and requires the least amount of technical development. Frontlighting is beneficial for a high density of fog/water droplets, and this approach should be considered. Software developed for image enhancement will extend the range for viewing through the fog/water droplets. These methods should also be pursued if the fog/water droplets are not as dense and the cost of developing more sophisticated systems is prohibitive.

The choice of the best system that can be used in a specific waste tank is dependent on measuring the conditions in the waste tank (e.g., How dense is the fog/water droplets in the waste tank?). If it is important to image through the fog/water droplets in the atmosphere in a tank, then funding is needed to obtain information about the conditions in the waste tank in order to produce a system that will meet the sluicing requirements.

7.0 REFERENCES

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APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

APPENDIX A

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

1. Active Illumination: An energy source, e.g., a laser beam, is scanned across a target area, and the energy reflected from the target is detected in order to determine the profile of the target area (see Figure A1).
2. Backlighting: An energy source, e.g., an arc lamp, is projected to a target area through the fog/water droplets (see Figure A2).
3. Figure of Merit: A method to compare different tests relative to each other. It is the ratio of the actual target distance to the visibility of the fog/water droplets. The larger the figure of merit, the better is the detection/illumination scheme for imaging through the fog/water droplets.
4. Frontlighting: An energy source, e.g., an arc lamp, is placed near the target area in order to illuminate the target (see Figure A3).
5. Optical Attenuation: The decrease in the power of an energy beam is as travels through a media, e.g., fog/water droplets. The attenuation of the media can be calculated by:

$$a = -\ln(I/I_0)/x$$

where a = attenuation coefficient of the media

I = intensity of energy beam at a certain distance (x) into the media

I_0 = intensity of energy beam before entering the media

6. Passive Emission: The energy emitted from a target area is detected in order to determine the profile of the target (see Figure A4).
7. Visibility: The distance an object can be seen through a media, e.g., fog/water droplets. It is calculated by the equation:

$$V = -\ln T/a$$

where V = visibility of the atmosphere

T = transmittance of light source (laser beam) through the atmosphere

a = attenuation of atmosphere

8. Visual Range: The same as visibility of an object.

FIGURE A1: Active Illumination

FIGURE A2: Backlighting

FIGURE A3: Frontlighting

FIGURE A4: Passive Emission

APPENDIX B

LIST OF DETECTION EQUIPMENT

APPENDIX B

LIST OF DETECTION EQUIPMENT

Optical Detection Devices

Wavelength Region	Manufacturer	Model No.
0.4-1.1 Micron (Silicon Detector)		
CCD	Cohu Inc.	6500
CID	CID Technologies, Inc.	CID2250E
Image Intensified	ITT Electro-Optics Products Division	E4577-00100
0.83 Micron	Perceptron	Laser
0.4-2.2 Micron (Composite PbO and PbS Photoconductive Detector)	Electro-Physics	MicroViewer 7290
2.0-5.6 Micron (In-Sb Detector)	AGA Corporation	680/102B
3.2-5.6 Micron (Hg-Cd-Te Detector)	Hughes Aircraft Company	Probeye TVS Model 7300
8-12 Micron (Hg-Cd-Te Detector)	Inframetrics Inc.	600L

Acoustic Sensors

Frequency	Manufacturer	Model No.
50 kHz (Electrostatic)	Polaroid Inc.	(Evaluation Kit)
(Piezoelectric)	Lundahl Instruments Inc.	DCU-7
215 kHz (Piezoelectric)	Micro Switch Inc.	942

Millimeter Wave Sensors

Frequency	Manufacturer	Model No.
94 GHz	Millitech	SGH10

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE CALCULATION OF ATTENUATION, VISIBILITY, AND FIGURE OF MERIT

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE CALCULATION OF ATTENUATION, VISIBILITY, AND FIGURE OF MERIT

Sample Calculation

A helium neon laser was placed on one end of the test chamber, and a photodetector was placed on the other end of the chamber so that the laser beam transversed through the test chamber. The intensity of the helium neon laser beam was first measured with no fog/water droplets in the chamber. For this example, assume it was 2.5 mw. Next, the test chamber was filled with fog/water droplets until the target could barely be seen using a given detector/illumination method. At this point, the power of the transmitted laser beam was measured. For this example, assume it was 0.5 mw. Then, the transmission of the fog/water droplets was:

$$T = I/I_0$$

where T = transmittance of the laser beam

I = intensity of the laser beam through the fog/water droplets

I_0 = intensity of the laser beam with no fog/water droplets in the chamber

In this case: $T = 0.20$

Then the attenuation of the fog/water droplets can be calculated by:

$$a = -\ln T/x$$

where a = attenuation coefficient of the laser beam through the fog/water droplets

x = distance the laser beam travelled through the fog/water droplets

For these tests, $x = 40$ feet. Therefore, for this example, $a = 0.040/\text{foot}$.

The visibility of the fog/water droplets can then be calculated using this same equation (Block 1993). It was experimentally determined that an

oxidized steel plate (reflectivity = 25%), illuminated by room lights (408 lux, or 38 ft-c), was just visible by the naked eye when the transmittance of the laser beam was 0.049 in the fog and 0.0012 in the water droplets. Then, the visibility of the atmosphere is given by:

$$V = -\ln T/a$$

where V = visibility of the atmosphere
 T = transmittance of the laser beam
 a = attenuation of the atmosphere

For the example being illustrated in this appendix, the visibility of the fog is: $V = -\ln (0.049)/0.040 = 75$ feet. From this, a "figure of merit" of the detection/illumination scheme can be calculated. If we assume that the target was 40 feet from the detector, then: "Figure of merit" = $40/75 = 0.53$. A "figure of merit" of unity would mean that the target (an oxidized steel plate illuminated by room lights) could be detected by the detection/illumination scheme at the same distance as it could be barely seen by the naked eye. If the "figure of merit" is greater than unity, then the target could be detected before it could be visibly seen. The larger the "figure of merit", the better the detection/illumination scheme is for imaging through fog/water droplets.

APPENDIX D

MILLIMETER WAVE IMAGING THEORY

APPENDIX D

MILLIMETER WAVE IMAGING THEORY

DATA COLLECTION

Image data is gathered by scanning a side-looking transceiver along a linear aperture and illuminating a stationary target or image region, as shown in Figure D1. The transceiver is assumed to have a spherical radiation pattern; therefore, the entire target region may be illuminated from each position along the synthesized aperture. Wideband data is gathered with frequency ω ranging from ω_1 to ω_2 , where there is no restriction on the width of the frequency band. An aperture of length, D , is synthesized along x' from $-D/2$ to $D/2$. In Figure D1, the primed coordinates (x', y') are used to denote the transceivers coordinates, and the unprimed coordinates (x, y) are used to denote the target or image coordinates.

The measured data will be the superposition integral of the target reflectivity function times a complex phase factor due to the round-trip propagation delay.

$$s(x', \omega) = \iint f(x, y) e^{j2k\sqrt{(x-x')^2 + y^2}} dx dy \quad (1)$$

Where $f(x, y)$ is the target reflectivity function and $k = \omega/c$ is the wavenumber. Slow amplitude variation due to spherical spreading is ignored since it may be easily compensated for in the raw data.

FIGURE D1: Synthetic aperture data collection configuration.

IMAGE RECONSTRUCTION

The spherical wave in (1) may be decomposed into plane wave components using the following relation,

$$e^{j\omega k\sqrt{(x-x')^2+y^2}} = \int e^{j(k_x(x'-x) - \sqrt{4k^2-k_x^2}y)} dk_{x'} \quad (2)$$

where k_x is the spatial wavenumber along the x' coordinate and ranges from $-2k$ to $2k$ for propagating waves. Using (2), the measured data $s(x', \omega)$ can be expressed as

$$s(x', \omega) = \iint f(x, y) e^{-j(k_x x + \sqrt{4k^2-k_x^2}y)} dx dy \left[e^{jk_x x'} dk_{x'} \right] \quad (3)$$

The two-dimensional Fourier Transform is defined by

$$G(k_x, k_y) = \iint g(x, y) e^{-j(k_x x + k_y y)} dx dy \equiv FT_{2D}\{g(x, y)\} \quad (4)$$

and its inverse by

$$g(x, y) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \iint G(k_x, k_y) e^{j(k_x x + k_y y)} dk_x dk_y \equiv FT_{2D}^{-1}\{G(k_x, k_y)\} \quad (5)$$

Examination of (3) reveals a two-dimensional Fourier Transform,

$$\iint f(x, y) e^{-j(k_x x + \sqrt{4k^2-k_x^2}y)} dx dy = FT_{2D}\{f(x, y)\} \equiv F(k_{x'}, \sqrt{4k^2-k_{x'}^2}) \quad (6)$$

Simplifying (3) yields,

$$s(x', \omega) = \int F(k_{x'}, \sqrt{4k^2-k_{x'}^2}) e^{jk_{x'} x'} dk_{x'} \quad (7)$$

This relation can be inverted by applying the one-dimensional Fourier Transform with respect to x' to both sides of (7),

$$\int s(x', \omega) e^{-jk_{x'} x'} dx' \equiv S(k_{x'}, \omega) = F(k_{x'}, \sqrt{4k^2-k_{x'}^2}) \quad (8)$$

This equation is simplified further by applying

$$k_x^2 + k_y^2 = (2k)^2 \quad (9)$$

$$w = \frac{c}{2} \sqrt{k_x^2 + k_y^2} \quad (10)$$

$$k_{x'} = k_x \quad (11)$$

$$k_y = \sqrt{4k^2 - k_x^2} \quad (12)$$

to obtain

$$F(k_x, k_y) = S\left(k_x, \frac{c}{2} \sqrt{k_x^2 + k_y^2}\right) \quad (13)$$

Thus, samples of the two-dimensional Fourier Transform of the reflectivity function are obtained from samples of the wideband data after this data has been Fourier Transformed in the x direction. Typically, data will be gathered at uniformly spaced x positions and at uniform frequency intervals. After the raw data has been Fourier Transformed in the x -direction, the data will be uniformly sampled in k_x and ω . In order to obtain uniform samples in the k_x, k_y domain, interpolation between frequency samples is necessary.

The target reflectivity function is found by the inverse two-dimensional Fourier Transform,

$$f(x, y) = F^{-1}_{2D}\{F(k_x, k_y)\} \quad (14)$$

The magnitude $f(x, y)$ is then displayed as the image.

RESOLUTION

The expected resolution for the wideband system is defined by the width of the synthetic aperture (or the illuminated aperture defined by the antenna beamwidth) and by the frequency bandwidth. In the lateral direction, the expected resolution is given by

$$\delta_x = \frac{\lambda_c}{2} \frac{r}{L} \quad (15)$$

Where λ_c is the wavelength at the center frequency, r is the distance to the target, and L is the lesser of the width of the aperture or r times the antenna beamwidth. In the range direction, the expected resolution is given by

$$\delta_y = \frac{c}{2B} \quad (16)$$

Where c is the speed of light and B is the bandwidth of the measured image data. If a slant plane geometry is used then the resolution is degraded to

$$\delta_y = \frac{c}{2B} \frac{1}{\sin \theta_{slant}} \quad (17)$$

Where θ_{slant} is the slant angle. Image distortion due to the slant plane geometry is readily compensated for by a simple mapping of the reconstructed image from the slant plane to the target plane.

FREQUENCY AND SPATIAL SAMPLING

The required frequency sampling increment is determined by the following relation

$$\Delta f \leq \frac{1}{(2R_{max}/c)} \quad (18)$$

Where R_{max} is the furthest range extent in the returned data. If a frequency increment larger than this is used, the Nyquist sampling criterion will not be satisfied and the data will be undersampled. The consequence of this is that targets beyond the unaliased range, R_{max} , will wrap-around and appear in the reconstructed image.

The spatial sampling required along the linear synthetic aperture is

$$\Delta x \leq \frac{\lambda_{min}}{4} \quad (19)$$

This limit guarantees sampling that satisfies the Nyquist criterion of at least 2 samples per spatial wavelength for any direction of wave propagation (up to $\pm 90^\circ$). If directional antennas are used that limit the direction of propagation to significantly less than 90° then this sampling interval may be increased. The consequence of inadequate sampling in the x-direction is that aliasing will occur with wrap-around of image features in the x-direction.

PHASE AND AMPLITUDE CALIBRATION

Practical millimeter-wave and other transceivers will often require calibration in order to maintain high phase and amplitude accuracy. Fortunately, this type of calibration can typically be performed as port-processing in the computer, rather than requiring hardware compensation. Phase accuracy is particularly important for imaging applications, since phase errors relate directly to position errors. This ultimately leads to the lack of sharp focus in the reconstructed images.

Calibration can be accomplished by placing a flat plate target at a known distance from the transceiver and recording the phase and amplitude of the wideband data. The measured phase and amplitude are compared with the expected phase and amplitude calculated from the known distance to the target. A table of phase and amplitude corrections is computed from the ratio of the expected and measured returns. This correction can then be applied to subsequent data to calibrate the phase and amplitude of the measured data.

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