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TRANSMISSION OF 2.0 TO 3.4 MICRON INFRA-RED RADIATION IN ICE FOG

Harold W. O'Brien, et al

Cold Regions Research and Engineering Laboratory Hanover, New Hampshire

July 1973

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Introduction

A considerable amount of work was done in Fairbanks, Alaska, in the late 1950's and the 1960's to find the principal causes of ice fog and to study the nucleation and growth of ice fog crystals (Kunai 1964, Kumai and O'Brien 1965, Benson 1965). Generally speaking, ice fog in Fairbanks is the product of man's activity. The nuclei and water vapor that form ice fog are produced by man in the course of daily living, by home heating, vehicular exhaust and factory effluents. As the arctic population increases, stimulated in part by oil discoveries, the ice fog problem becomes more critical. Operating aircraft under conditions of low visibility is obviously hazardous. When the ice fog is very dense even surface travel is hampered. Obviously the most desirable and the only ultimately acceptable solution to the ice fog problem is to eliminate ice fog or at least reduce its effects. One way to do this is by attempting to see through the ice fog to improve travel under low visibility conditions.

Ice fog crystals have diameters generally comparable to the wavelength of infrared radiation (2-20 microns). Water vapor, carbon dioxide, and other atmospheric constituents coexisting in ice fog have absorption bands in the infrared. And ice fog crystals have complex indices of refraction which are dependent on wavelength. Therefore the transmission of infrared radiation through ice fog will necessarily depend on wavelength. Mie theory predicts the scattering which will take place when a given wavelength of radiation is transmitted through a volume containing spheres of known size distribution, concentration, and index of refraction. One might, then, calculate the scattering coefficients for typical ice fog size distributions and concentrations for wavelengths throughout the near-infrared and infrared spectrum in order to predict the effectiveness of each wavelength in penetrating ice fog. However, ice fog crystals are not truly spherical and then complex index of refraction is not thoroughly known over the infrared spectrum.*

This project was begun with the intention of determining whether the transmission of nearminared and infrared radiation through ice rog could be adequately predicted by Mie theory and if not to experimentally establish relationships between the wavelength of incident radiation and the depth of protection in its fig. Illtimetally because of main wavelength of incident radiation and the depth optical equipment for other projects, the scope of the project was limited to include only the 2.0- to 3.4- μ wavelength spectrum.

This report has been prepared to present the results of this limited study, and to discuss the problems involved in this type of study for the consideration of future researchers in this field.

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^{*}Some work has been published on complex indices of refraction of ice in the infrared. Irvine and Pollack (1968) provide a critical review of literature published to that date.



Figure 1. Experimental apparatus.

Instrumentation

Optical components. Infrared radiation from a Perkin-Elmer IR glower source, chopped at 13 Hz, was transmitted through a 4-meter cold fog chamber to a Perkin-Elmer E-1 monochromator, and the selected wavelength subsequently focused on a thermocouple detector. A schematic representation of the experimental apparatus is shown in Figure 1.

Because the spectrometer was originally designed for short path lengths, on the order of a few centimeters, it was necessary to design an optical system to adapt the instrument to the longer path length. The system had two units, each consisting of one flat and one concave gold plated, first surface mirror. The first unit converted the source radiation to a nearly parallel beam which, after traversing the fog chamber, was received by the second mirror unit and focused on the monochromator slits.

Cold tog chamber. The fog chamber was 4 m long and 1 m square in cross section with 11.4-cm holes at each end for beam entrance and exit. The holes were used in lieu of transparent windows to eliminate the problem of frost accumulation on material windows. Plexiglas windows were installed in the sides of the chamber for viewing the evolution, apparent homogeneity and dissipation of the fogs produced. Fog samples were extracted through access panels in the sides of the chamber for microscopic measurements of size distribution and concentration. Copper cooling coils were arranged horizontally along the length of the box near the top of the chamber, well clear of the optical path.

Fog sampling instruments. An impactor was designed with an extended arm which permits sampling of the fog in proximity to the optical path. The impactor consisted of a 30-cc etass hypodermic syringe which drew the fog sample through a 1-mm aperture, causing ice fog crystals to impinge upon a collector plate. The collector plate was a glass slide $(5 \times 25 \text{ nm})$ to which a thin film of silicone oil was applied. The ice fog crystals were trapped by the oil, permitting photomicrography of the samples.

Environmental temperatures. Although the experiments were conducted entirely within a large coldroom, it was not feasible to maintain all components at the coldroom temperature. The monochromator, detector, receiving optics and system electronics were maintained in a small Styrofoam-insulated room within the coldroom. This "monochromator room" was electrically heated to approximately 20°C and the monochromator was internally thermostatically controlled at $32.2^{\circ}C$ + 0.3°C. The source and source optics were maintained in a smaller but similarly insulated and heated room.

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As the simulation of natural ice fog requires temperatures lower than those attainable in the large coldroom, the temperature in the fog chamber was reduced to about -40°C by circulating refrigeration brine through the chamber's accessory cooling coils.

The coldroom itself was kept cold for two reasons: the cold chamber coils alone would be insufficient to produce the necessary low temperature in the chamber, and also the fog sampling and photomicrography of the samples must be accomplished at low temperatures (about -35° C or colder) to eliminate melting and reduce sublimation of ice fog crystals price to completion of the photomicrography.

Experimental methods

Procedure. These initial experiments were conducted at selected fixed wavelengths from 2.00 to 3.40 μ . Measurements were made at 0.20- μ intervals with approximately 0.001- μ spectral slit widths.

Before transmission measurements were made, a natural deposition of ice was permitted to accumulate on the cooling coils and inner walls of the log chamber. Thus, the initial condition of humidity was considered to be saturation with respect to ice.

The spectral slit width and electronic gam controls were adjusted to permit a chart reading of 100% transmission with no log in the chamber. After a suitable baseline had been established, water vapor was admitted to the chamber through several orifices, producing a thick ice log and reducing the transmission to zero. When the fog had mixed uniformly and gradually dissipated until the transmission exceeded 30%, frequent log sampling (by impactor) was done until the fog had completely dassipated. Generally the impactor sample withdrawn consisted of 10 cm³ of ice log. At the time of each sampling, a deliberate brief interruption of the transmitted beam caused a pip on the chart recording for later correlation of transmission with ice log density. The impactor samples were immediately photographed under an optical microscope. From the resulting photomicrographs, determinations of ice fog size distribution and crystal concentration were made. This procedure was repeated for each new wavelength considered.

Technical problems. Several difficulties were encountered in making these measurements. The first problem was producing and maintaining a stable log. The term stable log is used here with a connotation of dynamic stability; that is, an attempt was made to establish a dynamic equilibrium between the rate of log formation and the rate of dissipation so that the size distribution and concentration of the ice fog remained fairly constant long enough for a given spectral region to be scanned. At the time these measurements were made such a stable fog could not be maintained. Measurements were made at individual wavelengths during a log which was dissipating after having been created by injection of steam into the cold log chamber. We are testing a new fog generating system which we hope will maintain stable ice fogs for considerable periods of time, so that broad spectral regions may be scanned.

Another problem encountered was measuring the size distribution and concentration of the ice fog crystals. Transmittance or scattering methods were avoided because they would obviously defeat one of the purposes of the project. determining the applicability of Mie theory to ice logs. The impactor method used is undesirable from two viewpoints. We have no absolute method of calibration although the collection enricements of the impactors may be evaluated by using several stages (Kumai and Francis 1962). Also, the photographic recording and subsequent measurements are very time toursanting and if impactor imake tourses are not chosen which as approprint to the iter og concentration, overcrowding of crystals on the sample can lead to difficulties in interpreting and counting the crystals and aggregates. Another factor which would tend to influence the comparison of our measurements with Mie theory is the size and incompleteness of collimation of our beam. By adjusting the focusing mirror, we maintained the beam at approximately constant cross section. However, the source used does not qualify as a point source and a considerable degree of nonparallelism of rays within the beam is to be expected.

Experimental results and discussion

Ice fog crystals formed in a fog chamber at -40°C are shown in Figure 2 and their size distribution appears in Figure 3. The crystal shapes and size distribution are very similar to natural ice fog samples found in Fairbanks, Alaska (Kumai 1964, Kumai and O'Brien 1965). Single crystals were found to include "spherical," hexagonal plate, and columnar. Crystal aggregates were also found, presumably caused by sintering of individual crystals during collisions in the high density fog.

The attenuation coefficient **b** at a given wavelength λ is related to the transmittance T in the following manner:

$$T = I/I_0 = \exp\left(-\int_0^x b_\lambda \, dx\right)$$

where I_0 is the incident light intensity (no ice fog), I is the apparent light intensity (with fog of a given concentration), and x is the path length through the ice fog. If the fog is considered homogeneous throughout the optical path

$$T = \exp(-b_{\lambda} x)$$

and

$$b_{\lambda} = (-\log_{\rho} T)/x$$

Curves were plotted of b_{λ} vs ice fog concentration (Fig. 4) for each wavelength. From these curves the values of attenuation coefficient, interpolated at a concentration of 100 crystals cm⁻³ (a reasonable concentration for simulating natural ice fog) were plotted against wavelength (Fig. 5). The theoretical values of attenuation by ice spheres (Kumai and Russell 1969) and by water fog of the same concentration are also plotted in Figure 5 for comparison.

The experimental values of attenuation obtained by this measurement tend to agree, within limits of expected experimental error, with values predicted by Mie theory. The largest errors were found in the 2.40- to 2.80- μ range due to the change of concentration of CO₂ gas during the experiments. In making an initial run at 2.60 μ it was noted that the presence of a technician in the monochromator room caused a reading of decreased transmission due to exhaled CO₂ entering the monochromator. Thereafter runs were made with no operator in the room. At that time there was no indication that CO₂ exhaled by the fog sampling team was infiltrating the fog chamber in significant quantities. However, in view of the fact that maximum disagreement (33.6%) between measured and theoretical values occurs at 2.60 μ , it may well be the result of fluctuations in CO₂ content in the coldroom. The same rationale probably applies to the difference observed in the 2.40- μ measurements, since these measurements were made before the magnitude of the CO₂ problem was appreciated. The beginning of the CO₂ absorption band is near 2.40 μ and it is conceivable that the high measurement of attenuation (22% above the theoretical value) is due to a high CO₂ concentration in the monochromator room. It might also be noted that some CO₂ absorption occurs near 2.00 μ and although good agreement is shown, the slightly higher measured attenuation may again be due to CO₂ absorption.



Figure 2. Typical ice fog crystals formed in the laboratory cold chamber.



Figure 3. Typical size distribution of ice fog formed in the laboratory cold chamber. Normalized to 100 particles cm^{-3} .



Figure 4. Decrease in attenuation during dissipation of an ice fog; $2.20-\mu$ wavelength radiation.



Figure 5. Attenuation of 2.00- to 3.40- μ radiation by 100 crystals cm⁻³ of ice fog compared to the theoretical attenuation due to the same concentration and size distribution of water fog and ice spheres. Size distribution shown in Figure 2.

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It is more probable, however, that this discrepancy, as well as the low measurement at 2.80 μ , is due principally to other causes such as inaccuracy in fog concentration determination.

These results created interest in trying to define more closely the sources of differences between theory and measurement in the 2.40- to 2.80- μ region. Future experiments with more closely controlled conditions, particularly with respect to environmental CO₀ levels, will be planned.

Conclusions

Tentatively, we conclude that in the region from 2.00 to 3.40 μ Mie theory satisfactorily predicts the attenuation due to ice fog crystais (Kumai 1964, Kumai and O'Brien 1965). We tend to concede that the differences noted between measurements and theory are probably due principally to extraneous CO₂ in our experiment and to inaccuracy in ice fog concentration measurement methods. However, there is still some uncertainty as to the relative influence of factors involved in using Mie theory, such as the assumption of sphericity of particles,* considering single scattering only, and possible inaccuracies in the complex index of refraction used for ice. A new formulation of the Mie theory computer program is being written which will permit the 'ajection of incremental changes in parametric quantities, thus permitting evaluation of the effects of quantitative uncertainties in size distribution, complex index, etc.

Additional studies are being conducted to try to improve methods of measurement of particle size distributions and concentrations. Laser measurements are planned at the 1.15- and $3.39_{-\mu}$ outputs from an He-Ne laser which will be compared with noncoherent light transmission measurements to estimate the error introduced by nonparallelism of the source beam.

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^{*}Results of Holland and Draper (1967) invite the conclusion that the assumption of sphericity may be acceptable for some purposes when randomly oriented irregular particles are involved.