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An Instrument for Measuring Thermal lnertia in the Field

The Thermal lnertia Meter (TIM) was used to discriminate different rock and soil types at a number of test sites in Nevada and California.

BACKGROUND

THE PAUCITY of laboratory measurements of the thermal inertia components (conductivity, density, and procific heat) for neglectory density, and specific heat) for rocks and soils found in natural field conditions is apparent after review of the heat conduction literature. The vast majority of these measurements have been of engineering or insulating materials, not geologic materials. For example, the *Handbook of Physical Constants* (Clark, 1966) presents five rock type conductivity values, only a few density values, and no specific heat values. Even less information is available for geologic materials under natural field

niques to construct a field instrument to measure the thermal inertia in situ. The surface temperature rise of the materials is used to calculate the thermal inertia of the sample. This calculation is based upon the following assumptions: (1) the compositions of the standard and sample materials are homogeneous, **(2)** the heat flux density at the surface of each material is constant and equal for each material, and **(3)** the materials are thick enough to be approximated as semi-infinite bodies. This allows us to calculate the thermal inertia of the sample from an algebraic equation adapted by Schultz from Carslaw and Jaeger (1959), that is,

ABSTRACT: *Based on a previously developed laboratory method (Schultz, 1968) for the nondestructive determination of thermal inertia, an instrument [Thermal Inertia Meter (TIM)] has been developed and employed to measure the thermal inertia of geologic materials in situ. A target and two standards are radiantly heated with calibrated lamps. The temperature history of the target and the standards are monitored with an infrared radiometer, and comparison of the target heating history with that of the two reference standards yields the target thermal inertia. We have used the TIM to discriminate different rock and soil types at a number of test sites in Nevada and California.*

conditions. With the availability of HCMM satellite and other remotely sensed thermal data, there is now a need for measurements of thermal inertia of surface materials in situ.

A laboratory method has been developed by Schultz (1968) for nondestructively determining the thermal inertia of materials at ambient temperatures. The method involves the radiant heating of an unknown sample and a standard. The temperature history of the sample and standard are monitored with an infrared radiometer, and comparison of their temperature histories yields the local thermal inertia of the sample.

In this study, we have adapted Schultz's tech-

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P_t = \frac{\Delta T_s}{\Delta T_t} \times P_s \times (\epsilon_t/\epsilon_s)^2 \tag{1}
$$

where P_t is the target's thermal inertia, P_t , the standard's thermal inertia, *AT,* the standard's change in temperature, ΔT_t the target's change in temperature, ϵ , the target's emissivity, and ϵ , the standard's emissivity.

INSTRUMENTATION AND EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

A photograph of the thermal inertia meter and its experimental design is shown in Figure **1.** The power source for the lamps and PRT-5 in the laboratory is line current and, in the field, a portable

PHOTOGRAMMETRIC ENGINEERING & REMOTE SENSING, 1982

frared heat lamps (A), voltage regulators (B), PRT-5 (C) and detector head (D), and digital voltmeter (E).

5-kilowatt gas generator mounted in a van or truck. The radiant energy sources (A) are 3200-W quartz infrared heat lamps (GE #3200T3/1CL/Ht-384V). The lamps are mounted in parabolic, polished aluminum reflectors coated with lacquer to prevent discoloration. Each lamp is pivoted, which permits it to be quickly moved into position to heat the surface and removed to allow monitoring of the surface temperature. The lamps are connected to Variac voltage regulators (B) which permit the mutual balancing of the three infrared lamps. The surface temperature rise is monitored using a Barnes Engineering Company precision radiation thermometer (C), model PRT-5. The instrument is specified to be accurate to 0.5°C. The instrument's detector head (D) is mounted in such a way as to permit rapid movement from reference standard to target. The detector head is 38.7 cm above the target or standard, yielding a circular field of view 1.35 cm in diameter at the center of the area undergoing heating. A portable digital voltmeter **(E)** measures the voltage from the PRT-5. The PRT-5 and voltmeter are calibrated against a temperature-controlled blackbody.

The base of the thermal inertia meter consists of three compartments. They are open to the surface below; their interiors are painted with flat-black, and they are surrounded by 5 cm of styrofoam insulation. Compartments 1 and 3 hold the thermal inertia standards, which are placed within flatblack plywood boxes. Compartment 2 is left open to the surface and the TIM is placed over the surface to be measured.

The thermal inertia reference standards chosen were geologic materials with high and low thermal inertia values. A dolomite block (30 by 18 by 5 cm) and 20/30 mesh Ottawa sand (quartz) were acquired for use as standards. Both materials were sent to independent laboratories¹ for determina-

' (Geosciences Ltd., Solana Beach, **CA 92075;** Dynatech, Cambridge, MA **02139)**

		Dolomite Ottawa Sand
Conductivity (K)		
cal cm ⁻¹ sec ⁻¹ °C ⁻¹	0.01182	0.00081
Density (ρ) g cm ⁻³	2.97	1.74
Specific Heat (c)		
cal g^{-1} °C ⁻¹	0.20	0.25
Thermal Inertia (T.I.)		
cal cm ⁻² sec ^{-1/2} °C ⁻¹	0.0838	0.0188

TABLE 1. THERMAL INERTIA STANDARDS

tion of their respective thermal conductively, specific heat, and density (see Table 1). The specific FIG. 1. Thermal Inertia Meter (TIM) with quartz in-
FIG. 1. Thermal Inertia Meter (TIM) with quartz in-
heat of both standards was determined by the heat of both standards was determined by the method of mixtures, the density by a Beckman air pyncnometer, and the conductivity by the American Society of Testing Materials (ASTM) method.

The experimental procedure was as follows. After recording the initial temperature of the two standards and the target, the three lamps were allowed to warm up for 300 seconds. They were then successively swung into position over their respective targets at 5-second intervals. After four minutes of heating, lamp 1 was removed and the maximum temperature of target 1 was recorded. Five seconds later the maximum temperature of target 2 was recorded, followed in five seconds by the temperature of target **3.** In the field, prior to the initiation of a measurement at a site, the target was shaded for approximately 20 to 30 minutes so that the initial temperature profile within the layer affected by the heating was nearly isothermal.

RESULTS

Measurements were obtained from field trips to selected test sites in and around Goldfield, Hawthorne, and Elko, Nevada, and Pisgah Crater, California. These sites were chosen because thermal modeling or thermal inertia mapping by remote sensors had either been performed or was planned over these sites. Approximately 50 usable measurements with the thermal inertia meter were recorded. As thermal inertia is very sensitive to soil moisture variations (Quiel, 1975), soil moisture samples of all alluvial materials were taken. All sites were located in arid areas and the soils were quite dry (less than 10 percent moisture content per unit volume near the surface).

The thermal inertia meter yields two independent measurements of thermal inertia for each target: one is based upon the dolomite and the other upon the Ottawa sand. Table 2 gives the value and the error of the calculated thermal inertia for several rock and soil types based upon both the Ottawa sand and dolomite. A previously published value for a similar material is also given when available. The error limits given only pertain to a 0.5° C inaccuracy in the PRT-5 measurement. However, note that the dolomite-based val-

AN INSTRUMENT FOR MEASURING THERMAL INERTIA

TABLE **2.** THERMAL INERTIA DERIVED FROM IN SITU THERMAL INERTIA METER MEASUREMENTS

ues are consistently larger (about 21 percent on average) than the Ottawa sand-based values. Part of this discrepancy may be due to the fact that we used typical values of emissivity for both standards. Any deviation from the actual emissivities would cause a consistent difference between the P value based on the dolomite standard and that based on the Ottawa sand standard. For example, an error of 5 percent in either standard will introduce a consistent error of 10 percent between the two calculations. Also, dolomite can be quite heterogeneous in composition, and this can result in variations in thermal properties among samples, or even in the same sample.

The TIM field tests indicate that the instrument is useful in a relative sense. As long as very accurate measurements of thermal inertia are not required, it is adequate for discriminating among different materials. For example, our measurements of thermal inertia near Elko were made to test the premise that exploration for barite might be feasible because of barite's very high density and hence high thermal inertia. We used the TIM to measure the thermal inertia of some very high grade barite deposits and the surrounding rock materials. Somewhat surprisingly the chert, which is located in the same area as the barite, in all cases was found to have a higher thermal inertia than the barite. This was true both for outcrops and rubble. While barite has a higher density than chert, chert must have a higher thermal conductivity. Regardless of any error in the absolute value of thermal inertia of these two materials, the use of the TIM demonstrated that the chert consistently had a higher thermal inertia than the barite.

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