United States Department of Agriculture | **Natural Resources Conservation Service** | **11 Campus Boulevard Suite 200 Newtown Square, PA 19073**

Subject: International Assignment; Executive Summary **Date:** 2 June 2000

To: Jerry Hammond
Director
International Program Division
USDA/NRCS
Room 4237, South Building
P. O. Box 2890
Washington, DC 20013

A. **Background**: I attended the Eighth International Conference on Ground Penetrating Radar. The conference was held at the Gold Coast, Queensland, Australia, on 23 to 26 May 2000. The University of Queensland and the Cooperative Research Centre for Sensor Signal and Information Processing (CSSIP) hosted the conference. I authored and presented a paper entitled "Improved radar interpretations of water table depths and groundwater flow patterns with predictive equations" (see Enclosure 1). I was also selected to chair a session on "Geological Applications."

B. **Participants:** Enclosure 2 is a listing of the conference participants. Participants were from twenty-seven countries and represented universities, government agencies, consultants, and manufacturers involved with ground-penetrating radar.

C. **Benefits:** This is the only conference in the world devoted solely to ground-penetrating radar (GPR) and is my principle interaction with this geophysical community. The conference is held every two years and offers presentations and exchanges of ideas, applications and design innovations for GPR. It allows me to renew and form contacts within an international community. The conference helps to insure NRCS's leadership, technical knowledge, and expertise with GPR. At a conference session, I was introduced as one of the "Godfathers of GPR." This introduction before this community provided a most special and personal boost to our work and me.

D. **Follow-up Plans:** I convened an informal discussion on the use of GPR to investigate tree roots and its potential role in monitoring carbon sequestration. Since January 2000, I have been involved with the USDA-Forest Service in this endeavor. The informal group consisted of Dr Tony Farmer of CISRO-TIP, Dr Kelvin Montagu of the Forestry Department of New South Wales, and Dr Lucian Wielopolski of the Brookhaven National Laboratory, USDOE. We arranged a field demonstration of GPR to detect tree roots by Mala Geoscience. The group plans to correspond, share results, and work with John Butnor (Biologist, USDA-FS, Research Triangle, NC) in preparing research papers.

Discussed equipment needs with Peter Haeni and John Lane of the US Geological Survey. The graphic recorder of the radar unit that was given to the NRCS Soil Staff in New York by the National Soil Survey Center (NSSC) is malfunctioning and is in need of repair. Pete Haeni (Chief, Geophysical Applications) offered to transfer two SIR-3 radar units with a supply of paper to the NSSC. If this proposal is acceptable to my supervisors (Drs Robert Ahrens and Carolyn Olson), transfer will take place in early July 2000. These units can be transferred to New York.

Significant advancements have been made in image processing and the use of two- and three-dimensional models. The NSSC has appropriate software, but I am in need of training on its use. Geophysical Survey Systems, Inc., of North Salem, New Hampshire, has offered to provide training to me at no charge. I will request the opportunity to attend training next fiscal year.

The participation of soil scientists and the agricultural community grew at this conference. Three papers were presented dealing with soils by Dr Ronald Yoder (University of Tennessee), Gary Paterson (ISCW, South Africa) and myself. I was approached to organize special sessions on soil and agricultural applications of GPR for the Ninth International Conference on GPR (2002) and the Annual Meeting of the Environmental and Engineering Geophysical Society (Denver, March 2001). The geophysical community is largely uninformed of the uses of GPR and electromagnetic induction within the agricultural sectors.

I was greatly gratified to have the opportunity to attend this conference and confer with other knowledgeable users on

various topics relating to GPR. My confidence in my work and interpretations has been immeasurably bolstered. I was humbled and appreciative of the views within the international GPR community of the role that our agency has played in the use and development of this technology.

With kind regards,

James A. Doolittle
Research Soil Scientist

cc:
R. Ahrens, Director, USDA-NRCS, National Soil Survey Center, Federal Building, Room 152,100 Centennial Mall North, Lincoln, NE 68508-3866
C. Olson, National Leader for Soil Investigations, USDA-USDA, National Soil Survey Center, Federal Building, Room 152,100 Centennial Mall North, Lincoln, NE 68508-3866
H. Smith, Director of Soils Survey Division, USDA-NRCS, Room 4250 South Building, 14th & Independence Ave. SW, Washington, DC 20250

Enclosure 1.

Doolittle, J. A., B. J. Jenkinson, D. P. Franzmeier, and W. Lynn. 2000. Improved radar interpretation of water table depths and ground-water flow patterns from predictive equations. 488-493 pp. IN: Proceeding of the Eighth International Conference on Ground-Penetrating Radar. David A. Noon, Glen F. Sticky, and Dennis Longstaff (editors). May 23 to 26, 2000, Gold Coast, Queenland, Australia. SPIE Vol. 4084. 908 p.

IMPROVED RADAR INTERPRETATIONS OF WATER TABLE DEPTHS AND GROUND-WATER FLOW PATTERNS WITH PREDICTIVE EQUATIONS

J. A. Doolittle
USDA-NRCS, 11 Campus Boulevard, Suite 200, Newtown Square, Pa 19073 jdoolitt@hp.nena.org

B. J. Jenkinson
3-330 Lilly Hall, Department of Agronomy, Purdue University, W. Lafayette, Indiana 47907
bjenkins@purdue.edu

D. P. Franzmeier
3-330 Lilly Hall, Department of Agronomy, Purdue University, W. Lafayette, Indiana 47907
franzmeier@purdue.edu

and W. Lynn
USDA-NRCS, National Soil Survey Center, 100 Centennial Mall North, Room 152, Lincoln, NE 68508
warren.lynn@nssc.nrcs.usda.gov

ABSTRACT

Recent interest in soils and hydrologic modeling has increased the need for information concerning the depth and movement of ground water. Ground-penetrating radar (GPR) was used eight times over a two-year period to chart water table depths and ground-water flow patterns within a 32-ha forested site in northwestern Indiana, USA. Radar imagery was correlated with depths to the water table in 16 observation wells. The velocity of propagation ranged from 0.0508 m/ns to 0.1606 m/ns at these wells. Propagation velocities were generally slower during the spring and early summer months when depths to the water table were relatively shallow. Propagation velocities were faster through dunes than through the more poorly drained interdunes. Because of the spatiotemporal variability in propagation velocities and the known complexity of soil and landform patterns, a predictive equation based on water table depths and two-way travel times was developed for each GPR survey. In this setting, the use of a predictive equation based on multiple GPR measurements over a known reflector substantially improved the accuracy of radar depth interpretations over single or averaged measurements.

Key words: ground-water flow patterns, velocity of propagation, water table.

INTRODUCTION

The depth and movement of ground water through landscapes affect the physical and chemical properties and the morphology of soils (Richardson et al., 1992). Redoximorphic features, distribution of secondary carbonates and bases, and the development of morphological features in soils have been related to the depth, fluctuation, and movement of water tables and to recharge and discharge processes (Simonson and Boersma, 1972; Franzmeier et al., 1983; Knuteson et al., 1989; Richardson and Daniels, 1993; and James and Fenton, 1993).

Traditionally, information on the depth and movement of ground water has been obtained by in-situ measurements at monitoring or observation wells. By recording water levels in these wells, depths to the water table are determined and potentiometric maps can be prepared. Typically, potentiometric maps are prepared from data collected from a few, widely spaced wells. These wells provide detailed information about soil and hydrologic conditions at specific points. However, hydrologic conditions for the areas among and beyond the wells must be inferred. In relatively level landscapes containing homogeneous soil and geologic strata, hydrologic conditions are often relatively uniform and predictable. In areas of intricate and contrasting soil patterns, undulating topography, and non-homogeneous or anisotropic materials, depths to the water table and flow patterns are difficult to assess. Often in such areas, because of limited data, hydrologic models and maps are simplistic and susceptible to errors (Violette, 1987). Improved methods are needed to better understand the depth, flow, and seasonal variations of the ground water through complex landscapes.

New tools are available to chart water table depths and ground-water flow patterns. In areas of coarse-textured

sediments, GPR can provide a continuous record of the water table, more comprehensive coverage of sites, and significantly reduce the number of wells. Ground-penetrating radar has been used to chart water table depths among observation wells and into nearby areas (Johnson, 1987; Bohling et al., 1989; Iivari and Doolittle, 1994). In addition, GPR has been used to provide data for hydrologic models (Violette, 1987; Taylor and Baker, 1988), define recharge and discharge areas (Johnson, 1987; Bohling et al., 1989), predict ground-water flow patterns (Steenhuis et al., 1990; Iivari and Doolittle, 1994), and delineate near-surface hydrologic conditions (Beres and Haeni, 1991).

Proper radar interpretations of water table depths and ground-water flow patterns require accurate depth scales. These scales are based on the average velocity of pulse propagation through the vadose zone. The velocity of propagation is principally affected by changes in soil moisture contents and is therefore spatiotemporally variable. The objectives of this study were to (1) measure the spatiotemporal variations in the average velocity of pulse propagation and (2) assess statistical methods for determining the depth scale across a topographically diverse landscape.

STUDY SITE

A 32-hectare site was selected in northeastern Jasper County, Indiana (see Figure 1). The study site is within a broad, poorly drained physiographic region known as the Kankakee outwash and lacustrine plain (Mallot, 1922). During Wisconsinan glaciation, sandy outwash was deposited across portions of this region. Thickness of these deposits ranges from about 15 to more than 60 m (Fenelon, 1994). Some of these deposits were later reworked by wind into low (1 to 10 m) transverse sand dunes.

Figure 1 contains a three-dimensional contour plot of the study site. The site consists of two major dunes separated by lower-lying, nearly level interdunes. Within the study site, relief is about 10 meters. Soils consist of about 50 to 90 percent fine sands, 0 to 25 percent very fine sands, and less than 10 percent silts and clays. Soil patterns within the site are intricate. On dunes, soils are well drained. Soils on lower-lying interdune areas are more poorly drained and have higher clay, organic matter, and/or water contents than soils on dunes. Soils on interdune areas are frequently ponded for brief periods by runoff from surrounding areas and have water tables that are often near or above the surface during the winter and spring (Smallwood and Osterholz, 1990).

The vegetation is an oak-hickory forest (Petty and Jackson, 1966). During the late spring and summer, as leaves emerge, plant roots absorb large quantities of soil water and the water table is rapidly lowered. With the cessation of the growing season in early fall, the water table begins to rise.

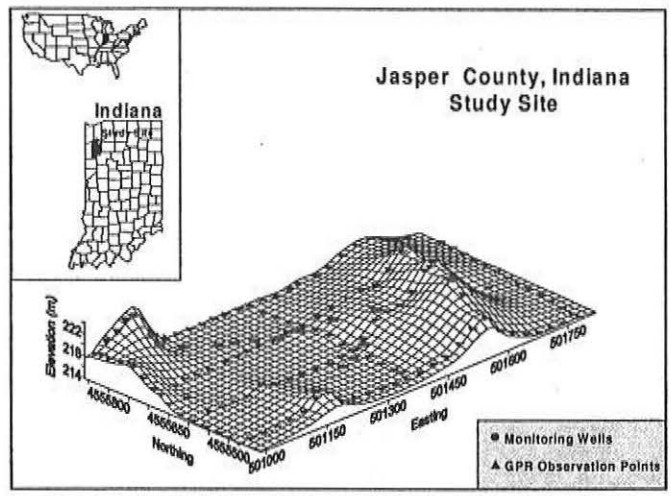

Figure 1. Three-dimensional surface net diagram of the study site showing the locations of the monitoring wells, GPR observation points, and transect lines. Coordinates are in Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) and expressed in m.

FIELD PROCEDURES

A Subsurface Interface Radar (SIR) System-2, manufactured by Geophysical Survey Systems, Inc.[1] was used in this study. This unit is backpack portable and, with an antenna, requires two people to operate. Investigations were completed with 120, 200, and 300 mHz antennas. However, only the data obtained with the 200 mHz antenna are discussed in this paper.

Two radar traverse lines were laid out connecting the sixteen wells (16 reference points). These observation wells had been previously installed to measure depths to the water table and estimate the directions of ground-water flow. Wells were installed on both dune and interdune areas, in different soil types, and to an average elevation of 213 m. At the time of each radar survey, the depth to the water table was measured in each well and correlated with the radar imagery.

To estimate water table depths and ground-water flow patterns across the site, radar traverse lines were established on three, north-south and two, east-west access trails. The

[1] Manufacturer's names are provided for specific information; use does not constitute endorsement.

length of each north-south trail is about 400 m. The length of each of the east-west trails is about 800 m. Two additional interior lines were established through the woods. The lengths of these lines are about 640 and 700 m. Along each of these seven lines, reference flags were inserted in the ground at 30-m intervals. This procedure provided 147 observation points. The coordinates and elevation of each reference and observation point were obtained using standard surveying methods. The locations of these points are shown in Figure 1.

Radar surveys were conducted at intervals of three to four months. Pulling the 200 mHz antenna along each of the nine lines completed the radar surveys. As the antenna passed each observation or reference point, a vertical mark was impressed on the radar profile. At each marked point on the radar profile, the water table reflection was identified and the two-way travel time to this reflector was measured.

DATA ANALYSIS

Ground-penetrating radar measures the time it takes electromagnetic energy to travel from an antenna to an interface (i.e., soil horizon, water table, stratigraphic layer) and back. To convert travel time to depth requires knowledge of the velocity of pulse propagation. Several methods are available to determine the velocity of propagation. These methods include use of table values, common midpoint calibration, and calibration over a target of known depth. The last method is considered the most direct and accurate method to estimate propagation velocity (Conyers and Goodman, 1997). The procedure involves measuring the two-way travel time to a known reflector on the radar profile and calculating the propagation velocity by following equation (after Morey, 1974):

$$V = 2D/T \qquad [1]$$

Equation [1] describes the relationship of the average propagation velocity (V) to the depth (D) and two-way pulse travel time (T) to a reflector. At each of the sixteen wells, the two-way radar pulse travel time was compared to the water level and used to estimate the velocity of propagation. During the course of this study, the measured depth to the water table ranged from 0.0 to 10.14 meters. The estimated velocity of propagation determined at each well and for each sampling period is shown in Table 1.

The velocity of propagation is both temporally and spatially variable. Temporal variations are attributed to snowmelt, rainfall, and throughflow events that influence soil moisture contents. In general, higher propagation velocities were recorded during the months of August through February compared to the months of March through July. During the latter months, soil moisture contents are higher and the depth to the water table is shallower (higher elevation).

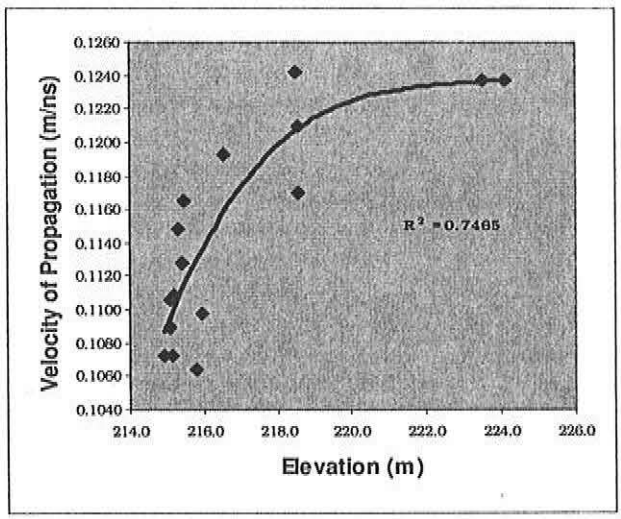

Figure 2. Relationship between the averaged propagation velocity and elevation at each well site.

Lateral variations in propagation velocity occur as a result of changes in soil properties (i.e., amount of organic matter, clay, and moisture contents). Figure 2 shows the relationship between the averaged propagation velocity and the elevation of each well. Soils on dunes (elevations >217 m) are better drained, above from the influence of the water table, and have faster propagation velocities. On dunes, the mean propagation velocity was 0.1214 m/ns for the well drained Oakville soils and 0.1156 m/ns for the somewhat poorly drained Morocco soils. Propagation velocities are slower on the lower-lying interdune areas (< 217 m). On the lower-lying interdune, the mean propagation velocity was 0.1095 m/ns and 0.1098 m/ns for the very poorly drained, Newton and Zadog soils, respectively. For each soil type, a range of propagation velocities was observed.

The velocity of propagation and the dielectric permittivity were spatiotemporally variable among the wells. The calculated velocity of propagation ranged from 0.0508 m/ns to 0.1606 m/ns at the sixteen wells. The estimated dielectric permittivity ranged from 3.5 to 35. Because of this variability it would be difficult to accurately predict water table depths across the expanded site using a single or mean velocity of propagation.

If a mean propagation velocity was used for each of the eight radar surveys, the average difference between measured and predicted depths to the water table at the sixteen wells would be about 0.46 m with a maximum difference of 3.62 m. If a mean propagation velocity was used for each landscape

component (dune or interdune area), the average difference between the measured and the predicted depth to the water table at the wells would improve slightly to 0.34 m, but with a maximum difference of 3.98 m. To measure the depth to the water table and assess ground-water flow patterns, these differences between the measured and the predicted depths are considered unacceptable.

Because of the spatiotemporal variability in propagation velocities and the known complexity of soil and landform patterns, a predictive equation based on water table depths and two-way travel times was developed for each GPR survey. The measured depth and the two-way travel time to the water table at the sixteen wells were compared. For each GPR survey, a strong relationship (r^2 ranged from 0.9926 to 0.9994) was found to exist between the two-way travel time of the radar pulse and the measured depth to the water table (see Table 2).

A least square line was fitted to the data for each survey and used to predict the depth to water table at all observation and reference points. The relationship is expressed as:

$$D = b + aT \qquad [2]$$

Where D is the depth to the water table, T is the two-way travel time to the water table reflection, b is the intercept term, and a is the slope of the line. Bohling and others (1989) found that three wells were sufficient to correlate radar-interpreted and observed water table depths. In this study, all sixteen wells were used to correlate the two data sets.

For the eight radar surveys, using predictive equations, the average difference between the measured and the predicted depth to the water table at the sixteen wells was 0.16 m with a maximum difference of 0.69 m. Half of the predicted water table depths were within -0.14 to 0.13 m of the measured values. The use of a predictive equation substantially improved the precision of radar depth interpretations over single or landform averaged measurements.

GROUND-WATER FLOW PATTERNS

For each radar survey, a predictive equation was developed to estimate the depth to the water table. At each observation point, the elevation of the water table was determined by subtracting the interpreted depth to the water table from the ground surface elevation. Figure 3 contains two-dimensional plots simulating the elevation of the water table surface at different times of the year (1998-1999) within the survey site. In each plot, a two-dimensional simulation of water table elevations has been overlaid upon a three-dimensional surface net of the study site. In each of the overlaid two-dimensional plots of water table elevations, the isoline interval is 0.5 m. These lines are equipotential lines as they connect points of equal pressure head. The arrows indicate the conceptual flow paths of water. Flow lines cross equipotential lines at right angles. Water flows from areas of higher to areas of lower equipotential values.

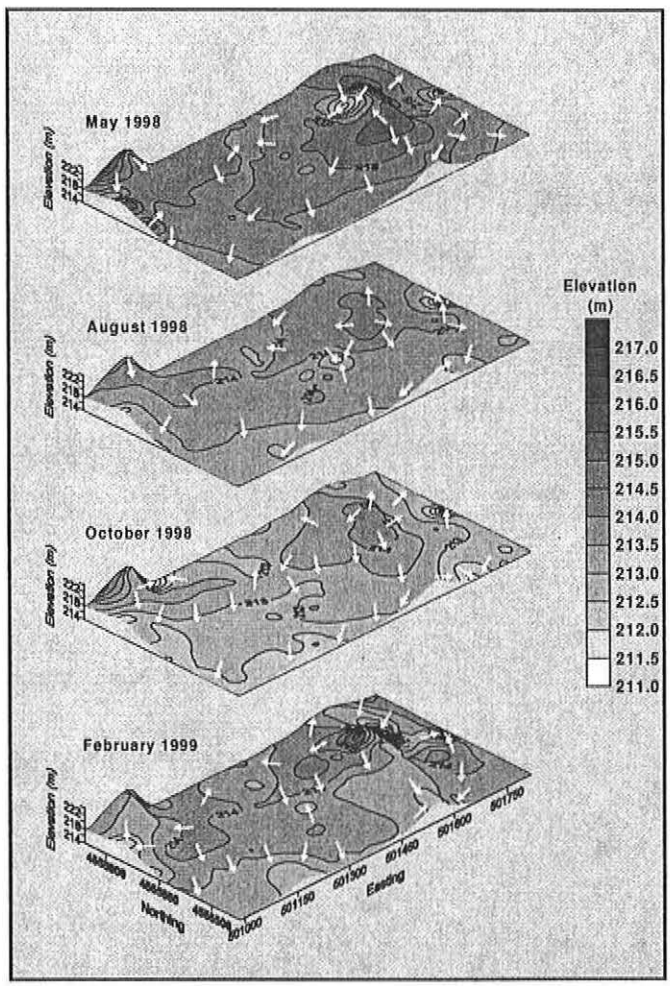

Figure 3. Plots of water table elevations superimposed on three-dimensional surface net diagrams of the study site. Based on GPR surveys conducted in 1998 - 1999. Directions of ground-water flow have been indicated with arrows.

The plots in Figure 3 show the spatial and temporal variations in water table depths. The water table mounds under dunes and is at a lower elevation beneath the adjoining interdunes. The dunes are recharge areas; the interdunes are discharge or flow-through areas. However, GPR data indicates that the water table does not always follow this pattern. In late winter and early spring, the water table rises faster in the interdune area. As the water table rises, water

flow reverses in some portions of the interdune area, discharging into portions of the dunes.

CONCLUSIONS

In areas of coarse-textured sediments, GPR can provide comprehensive coverage of sites and reduces the number of monitoring or observation wells needed for water table and ground-water flow studies. The velocity of propagation was found to be spatiotemporally variable across a 32-hectare, topographically diverse study site having intricate soil patterns. Propagation velocities were faster on well drain soils on dunes than on more poorly drained and somewhat poorly drained soils on lower-lying interdunes. Propagation velocities were slower during the months of March through July. During these months, soil moisture contents are higher and the water table is closer to the surface. In this setting, the use of a predicted equation based on multiple GPR measurements over a known reflector substantially improved the accuracy of radar depth interpretations over single or averaged measurements. The use of predictive equations increased confidence in radar-interpreted depth measurements of the water table and ground-water flow patterns.

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Table 1 – Estimated Velocities of Propagation. Estimates were determined using the two-way travel time to the water table reflection that appeared on radar profiles, the measured depth to the water table at each monitoring well, and equation [1]. Velocity is expressed in m/ns. Elevations are expressed in meters.

Soil	Well #	Elevation	Jul-97	Jan-98	May-98	Aug-98	Oct-98	Feb-99	Apr-99	Jul-99	Mean Velocity
Oakville	1	223.49	0.1129	0.1369	0.1082	0.1321	0.1409	0.1426	0.0824	0.1338	0.1237
Oakville	12	224.11	0.1068	0.1382	0.0956	0.1320	0.1412	0.1441	0.0928	0.1389	0.1237
Oakville	11	218.55	0.1074	0.1289	0.1239	0.1363	0.1292	0.1328	0.0820	0.1262	0.1209
Oakville	14	218.55	0.0813	0.1289	0.1191	0.1363	0.1292	0.1328	0.0820	0.1262	0.1170
Oakville	2	218.52	0.1033	0.1283	0.1175	0.1291	0.1283	0.1580	0.0856	0.1433	0.1242
Oakville wet	10	216.55	0.0967	0.1127	0.1153	0.1223	0.1310	0.1257	0.0898	0.1606	0.1193
Oakville wet	9	215.96	0.0803	0.1169	0.1158	0.1214	0.1125	0.1110	0.0770	0.1438	0.1098
Brem	15	215.79	0.0813	0.1092	0.0820	0.1214	0.1233	0.1159	0.0817	0.1364	0.1064
Morocco	16	215.45	0.0781	0.1301	0.0603	0.1336	0.1494	0.1450	0.0980	0.1373	0.1165
Newton	8	215.42	0.0637	0.1164	0.1133	0.1249	0.1392	0.1126	0.0758	0.1569	0.1128
Morocco	17	215.33	----	0.1206	0.0508	0.1312	0.1441	0.1294	0.0891	0.1383	0.1148
Newton	7	215.22	0.0639	0.1206	0.0826	0.1161	0.1411	0.1056	0.1071	0.1505	0.1109
Newton	6	215.14	0.0599	0.1251	0.0590	0.1121	0.1394	0.1079	0.1037	0.1501	0.1072
Zadog	4	215.11	0.0587	0.1175	-----	0.1271	0.1296	0.1146	0.0965	0.1307	0.1106
Zadog	3	215.07	0.0587	0.1149	0.1439	0.1102	0.1281	0.0952	0.0989	0.1213	0.1089
Newton	5	214.91	0.0547	0.1006	----	0.1305	0.1282	0.1063	0.0882	0.1419	0.1072
Mean velocity		----	0.0805	0.1216	0.0991	0.1260	0.1334	0.1237	0.0894	0.1398	0.1146
Mean Water Table Elevation			214.84	214.10	214.98	214.16	213.63	213.94	214.30	214.13	----

Table 2 - Summary of Basic Statistics. Prediction of water table depths based on regression of measured water table depths with two-way travel times to the water table. Comparison is based on observations obtained at sixteen observation wells. The range in water table and residuals are in m.

Date of Observation	Water Table Minimum Depth	Water Table Maximum Depth	r^2	Maximum Residual	Standard Error	Student T
July 1997	0.75	9.22	0.9977	0.22	0.001	53.41
Jan. 1998	0.63	9.86	0.9989	0.28	0.001	77.01
May 1998	0.00	8.71	0.9926	0.66	0.002	32.45
Aug. 1998	0.78	9.28	0.9994	0.18	0.001	107.66
Oct. 1998	1.37	10.14	0.9972	0.41	0.001	48.78
Feb. 1999	0.82	10.13	0.9970	0.68	0.002	46.96
Apr. 1999	0.68	9.85	0.9964	0.69	0.001	42.05
July 1999	0.91	9.96	0.9979	0.44	0.001	36.94

GPR 2000 Delegate List

Canicious Abeynayake
DSTO
PO Box 1500
Salisbury SA 5108
Australia
canicious.abeynayake@dsto.defence.gov.au

Staffan Abrahamsson
FOA
Box 1165
Linkoping S-58111
Sweden
staabr@lin.foa.se

Imad Al-Qadi
Virginia Tech
200 Patton Hall
Blacksburg VA 24061
USA
alqadi@vt.edu

Peter Annan
Sensors & Software Inc.
1091 Brevik Place
Mississauga ON L4W 3R7
Canada
apa@sensoft.on.ca

Steven Arcone
CRREL
72 Lyme Road
Hanover NH 03755
USA
sarcone@crrel.usace.army.mil

Dan Axelsson
FOA
Box 1165
Linkoping S-58111
Sweden
danaxe@lin.foa.se

Mazin Ayoub
JB Sales International
146 Neilson St.
Onehunga
Auckland
New Zealand
jboffice@jbcontrs.co.nz

Simon Bailey
Birkbeck College
Dept. of Geology
Gower Street
London WCIE 6BT
UK
bbail05@students.bbk.ac.uk

Meltem Ballan
Tubitak-MRC
P.B. 21
Kocaeli Gebze 41470
Turkey
ballan@mam.gov.tr

Gilles Bellefleur
Ecole Polytech.
Department CGM
CP 6079 Succ. C.V.
Montreal QC H3C 3A7
Canada
belfleur@geo.polymtl.ca

Pat Bellett
CSSIP/UQ
The University of Queensland
Department of Computer Science &
Electrical Engineering
Brisbane Qld 4072
Australia
p.bellett@cssip.uq.edu.au

Doug Benson
DRES
Box 4000 Stn Main
Medicine Hat AB T1A 8K6
Canada
dbenson@dres.dnd.ca

Jorgen Binningsbo
NTNU
Norwegian University of Science and
Technology
Trondheim 7433
Norway
jb@underdusken.no

James Boon
DSTO
SSD, 180L
PO Box 1500
Salisbury SA 5108
Australia
james.boon@dsto.defence.gov.au

Hans-Martin Braun
RST
Rosenheimstr. 1
St Gallen 9008
Switzerland
admin@rst-ag.com

Charlie Bristow
London Univ.
School of Earth Sciences
Birkbeck College,
Malet Street
London WCIE 7HX
UK
c.bristow@ucl.ac.uk

Andrew Brochlesby
Antarctic Division
Channel Highway
Kingston TAS 7050
Australia
andrew_bro@antdiv.gov.au

Les Carrington
59 Birch Street
Taupo
New Zealand
aquatel@ihug.co.nz

Alan Carse
Qld Main Roads
GTO Box 1412
Brisbane Qld 4001
Australia
alan.h.carse@mainroads.qld.gov.au

John Cashman
ADFA
74 Hampton Circuit
Yarralumla ACT 2600
Australia
jcashman@cybermac.com.au

Nigel Cassidy
Keele Univ.
School of Earth Sciences & Geography
Keele Staffs ST5 5BG
UK
n.j.cassidy@esci.keele.ac.uk

Ian Chant
DSTO
C/- 180 L
PO Box 1500
Salisbury SA 5108
Australia
ian.chant@dsto.defence.gov.au

Matthew Charlton
KCL
Flat 2
129 Mackenzie Rd
Beckenham Kent BR3 45B
UK
matthew.charlton@kcl.ac.uk

How-Wei Chen
Natl. Chung Cheng Univ.
Instit. of Applied Geophysics/Seismology
Min-Hsiung Chia-Yi 621
Taiwan
seiswei@eg.ccu.edu.tw

Chi-Chih Chen
Ohio State Univ.
1320 Kinnear Rd
Columbus Ohio 43212
USA
chen.118@osu.edu

Richard Chignell
EMRAD Limited
9 Fleet Business Park,
Sandy Lane
Church Crook Ham
Hants GU13 0BF
UK
enquiries@emrad.com

Kwang-Chul Choi
Korea Telecom
62-1 Wha-am dong
Yu-sung gu
Taejeon 305-348
Korea
kwang7@kt.co.kr

Nikolay Chubinsky
MIPT
9, Institutsky per
Moscow Region
Dolgoprudny 141700
Russia
nchub@wave.mipt.ru

Luke Cirillo
Curtin Univ.
51 Agincourt Drive
Will Etton WA 6155
Australia
luke@atri.curtin.edu.au

Johannes Cloete
Univ. of Stellenbosch
Dept. Electrical & Electronic Engineering
Stellenbosch 7600
South Africa
jhcloete@ing.sun.ac.za

Camilla Colla
BAM
Unter Den Eichen 87
Berlin D-12205
Germany
camilla.colla@bam.de

Luke Copland
Univ. Alberta
Department Earth & Atmospheric
Sciences
Edmonton Alberta T6G 2E3
Canada
luke.copland@ualberta.ca

Ariovaldo Costa
PUC
Cidade Universitaria
Q7-S/N-Ilha do Fundao
Rio de Janeiro RJ 21949-900
Brazil
ari@cenpes.petrobras.com.br

Paula Da Rocha
UFRJ
Rua: Joaquim Pachares, 608/104
Rio de Janeiro Brazil 20260-080
Brazil
ferrucio@acd.ufrj.br

David Daniels
ERA Technology
Cleeve Road
Leatherhead
Surrey KT22 7SA
UK
david.daniels@era.co.uk

Matthew Dock
Charles Machine Works
1955 W. fir
Perry OK 78077
USA
mdock@ditchwitch.com

James Doolittle
USDA-NRCS
c/o USDA-Forest Service
11 Campus Boulevard
Newton Square PA 19073
USA
jdoolitt/na@fs.fed.us

Andrew du Plessis
Orica
PO Box 196
Kurri Kurri NSW 2327
Australia
atdz@orica.com.au

Kate Duttmer
NSW State Forests
PO Box 100
Beecroft NSW 2119
Australia
kated@sf.nsw.gov.au

Satoshi Ebihara
Tohoku Univ.
Kawauchi
Center for Northeast Asian Studies
Sendai Miyagi 980-8576
Japan
ebihara@cneas.tohoku.ac.jp

Dieter Eisenburger
BGR
Stilleweg 2
30655 Hannover
Hannover 30655
Germany
eisenburger@bgr.de

Jesper Emilsson
Mala GeoScience
Skolgatan 11
Mala S-93070
Sweden
geoscience@malags.se

Anthony Farmer
CSIRO - TIP
PO Box 218
Lindfield NSW 2070
Australia
tonyf@tip.csiro.au

Emmanuel Fernando
Texas Transp. Instit.
Texas A&M University
College Station TX 77843-3135
USA
e-fernando@tamu.edu

Jan Francke
Univ. of Canterbury
4389 Osler Street
Vancouver BC V6H 2X6
Canada
jfrancke@groundradar.com

Rudolf K. Fruhwirth
Joanneum Research
Roseggerstrasse 17
Leoben 8700
Austria
rudolf.fruhwirth@joanneum.ac.at

Hirohisa Furukawa
OMRON Corp.
134 Godo-cho
Hodogaya-ku
Yokohama Kanagawa 240-0005
Japan
hirohisa_furukawa@omron.co.jp

Prasad Gogineni
RSL, Univ. of Kansas
2291 Irving Hill Rd
Lawrence Kansas 66045
USA
gogineni@rsl.ukans.edu

Anthony Goodier
BRE
Garston
Watford WD2 7JR
United Kingdom
goodiert@bre.co.uk

Alan Green
ETH - Zurich
Institute of Geophysics
ETH - Hoenggerberg
Zurich CH-8093
Switzerland
alan@augias.ig.erdw.ethz.ch

Roy Greenfield
Penn State Univ.
600 N Mckee St
State College PA 16803
USA
roy@essc.psu.edu

Jeroen Groenenboom
TU Delft
Mijnbouwstraat 120
Delft 2628 RX
The Netherlands
j.groenenboom@ta.tudelft.nl

Ralf Gross
ETH Zurich
Institute of Geophysics
ETH Hoenggerberg
Zurich 8093
Switzerland
ralf@aug.ig.erdw.ethz.ch

Volker Gundelach
BGR
Ander Strabenbahn 10/12
31157
Sarstedt 31157
Germany
eisenburger@bgr.de

Anders Gustafsson
FOA
Box 1165
Linkaping S-58111
Sweden
anders@lin.foa.se

F. Peter Haeni
US Geological Survey
Univ. of Connecticut
11 Sherman Place U-5015
Storrs CT 06269
USA
phaeni@usgs.gov

Svein-Erik Hamran
FFI
PO Box 25
Kjeller 2027
Norway
svein-erik.hamran@ffi.no

David Hanson
Vermeer Mgf. Co.
1510 Vermeer Rd East
Pella IA 50219
USA
jdhanson@gateway.net

Jonathan Hargreaves
Sydney Univ.
Edgeworth David Bldg
Sydney NSW 2006
Australia
jonathan@mail.usyd.edu.au

Stuart Hay
CSIRO
Telecommunications & Industrial Physics
PO Box 76
Epping NSW 1710
Australia
stuart.hay@tip.csiro.au

Hideki Hayakawa
Osaka Gas
6-19-9 Torishima
Konohana-Ku
Osaka 554-0051
Japan
hayakawa@osakagas.co.jp

Braham Himed
Air Force Research Lab.
26 Electronic Pky
Rome NY 13441-4514
USA
braham.himed@rl.af.mil

Garth Hodgson
Detection Solutions
PO Box 38-061
Howick
Auckland
New Zealand
jhcon@tig.com.au

Craig Hoffmann
AMT
PO Box 376
Wyong NSW 2259
Australia
craig.hoffmann@advminingtech.com.au

Klaus Holliger
ETH Zurich
Institute of Geophysics
ETH-Hoenggerberg
Zurich CH-8093
Switzerland
holliger@geo.phys.ethz.ch

Michael Holmstrom
Univ of Queensland
Department of Computer Science &
Electrical Engineering
St. Lucia Qld 4072
Australia
m.holmstrom@cssip.uq.edu.au

Jiri Hruska
GEOFYZIKA A.S.
Jecna 29a
Brno 621 00
Czech Republic
hruska@gfb.cz

Johannes Hugenschmidt
EMPA
Ueberlandstrasse 129
Duebendorf 8600
Switzerland
johannes.hugenschmidt@empa.ch

Gary Humphreys
Natural Resources
PO Box 30
Palmerston NT 0831
Australia
gary.humphreys@nt.gov.au

Leigh Hunt
Monash Univ.
Department of Earth Sciences
PO Box 28E
VIC 3800
Australia
lhunt@earth.monash.edu.au

Dryver Huston
Univ. of Vermont
Mech. Eng. Dept.
Burlington VT 05405-0156
USA
huston@emba.uvm.edu

Masaharu Inagaki
Walnut Ltd
1-19-13 Saiwaicho
Tachikawa Tokyo 190-0002
Japan
inagaki@walnut.co.jp

James Irving
U.B.C.
316 - 2120 West 44th Ave
Vancouver BC V6M 2G2
Canada
jdirving@geop.ubc.ca

D. Robert Iskander
QUT
Centre for Eye Research
GPO Box 2434
Brisbane QLD 4001
Australia
d.iskander@qut.edu.au

Sergey Ivashov
TsNIIRES
69 Prospect Mira
Moscow 129110
Russia
tsniires@tsniires.ru

Ole Kiel Jensen
Aalborg Univ.
Fredrik Bajers Vej 7 A6
Aalborg DK-9220
Denmark
okj@kom.auc.dk

Harry Jol
Univ. of Wisconsin
Department of Geography
I05 Garfield Ave
Eau Claire WI 54702
USA
jolhm@uwec.edu

Matthew Josh
Sydney Univ.
62 Gray Street
Woonona NSW 2517
Australia
mj03@uow.edu.au

Michael Junck
Univ. of Wisconsin
Department of Geography
105 Garfield Avenue
Eau Claire WI 54702
USA
junckmb@uwec.edu

Roy Kane
CSSIP
SPRI Building
Technology Park
Mawson Lakes SA 5095
Australia
roy.kane@cssip.edu.au

Young-Sug Kang
Korea Telecom
62-1 Wha-am dong
Yu-sung gu
Taejeon 305-348
Korea
evertin@kt.co.kr

Lalli Katermaa
Roadscanners
PO Box 2219
Rovaniemi FIN-96201
Finland
lalli.katermaa@roadscanners.com

Sang-Wook Kim
KIST
39-1, Hawolgok
Seomg-buk
Seoul 136-791
Korea
swkim@imrc.kist.re.kr

Martin King
GPR Geotechnical
11 Kipling Drive
New Plymouth
New Zealand
mking.gpr@xtra.co.nz

Nichole B. Kloehn
Univ. of Wisconsin
Department of Geography
105 Garfield Avenue
Eau Claire WI 54702
USA
kloehnnb@uwec.edu

Mark Kochanek
CSIRO
2643 Moggil Road
Pinjarra Hills Qld 4069
Australia
m.kochanek@dem.csiro.au

Takasuke Koike
Walnut Ltd
1-19-13 Saiwaicho
Tachikawa Tokyo 190-0002
Japan
inagaki@walnut.co.jp

Fan-nian Kong
NGI
PO Box 3930
Ullevaal Hageby
Oslo N-0806
Norway
fk@ngi.no

Steven Koppenjan
Special Tech Lab
5520 Ekwill Street
Santa Barbara CA 93111
USA
koppensk@nv.doe.gov

Joel Kositsky
SRI
333 Ravenswood Ave
(G-233)
Menlo Park CA 94025
USA
joelk@sri.com

Sarah Kruse
USF
Department of Geology
4202 E. Fowler Ave
Tampa FL 33620
USA
skruse@chuma.cas.usf.edu

Pumezo Kwinana
Univ. of Stellenbosch
Dept. Electrical & Electronic Engineering
Stellenbosch 7600
South Africa
kwinana@ing.sun.az.za

Bernhard Lampe
ETH Zurich
Institute of Geophysics
ETH - Hoenggerberg
Zurich 8093
Switzerland
bernhard@aug.ig.erdw.ethz.ch

John Lane
US Geological Survey
11 Sherman Place
Storrs CT 06268
USA
jwlane@usgs.gov

Paul Latchford
CMP-GBG
Downing Park
Swaffham Bulbeck
Cambridge CB5 0NB
Great Britain
platchford@gbg.co.uk

Christopher Leat
Univ. of Qld
Department of Computer Science &
Electrical Engineering
Brisbane Qld 4072
Australia
leat@csee.uq.edu.au

Michael Leditschke
CSSIP/UQ
Dept. of CSEE
University of Queensland
Brisbane Qld 4072
Australia
m.leditschke@cssip.uq.edu.au

Jukka Leino
Geologist
PO Box 1237
Kuodio 70211
Finland
jukka.leino@gse.fi

Giovanni Leone
Univ. Di NapoliI
Via Roma 29
Aversa I-81031
Italy
gioleone@unina.it

Matthew Levinson
Sydney Univ.
7/197-201 Wilson St
Newtown NSW 2042
Australia
mattl@es.usyd.edu.au

Christopher Lewis
CSIRO
PO Box 218
Lindfield NSW 2070
Australia
chris.lewis@tip.csiro.au

Leo Ligthart
TU Delft
IRCTR
Mekelweg 4
Delft 2628 CD
The Netherlands
l.p.ligthart@its.tudelft.nl

Lanbo Liu
Univ. of Connecticut
354 Manfield Road
U-2045
Storrs CT 06269-2045
USA
lanbo@geol.uconn.edu

David Lloyd
Uni. of Queensland
Department of CSEE
Brisbane QLD 4072
Australia
lloyd@cssip.uq.edu.au

Feluna Lloyd
Latrobe Univ.
Department of Electronic Engineering
Bundoora VIC 3083
Australia
f.dube@ee.latrobe.edu.au

Dennis Longstaff
CSSIP/UQ
The University of Queensland
Department of Computer Science &
Electrical Engineering
Brisbane QLD 4072
Australia
d.longstaff@cssip.uq.edu.au

Henrique Lorenzo
Vigo Univ.
ETSE Minas
Universidade de Vigo,
Campus Marcosende
Virgo 36280
Spain
hlorenzo@uvigo.es

Claudio Madeira
UFRJ
Rua Amaral 40/202 - TiJuca
Rio de Janeiro RJ 20510-080
Brazil
cumadeira@yahoo.com

Pekka Mailjala
Roadscanners
PO Box 2219
Rovaniemi FIN-96201
Finland
pekka.maijala@roadscanners.com

Guido Manacorda
IDS SPA
Via Livornese
1019 Loc. S. Piero AG.
Pisa 56010
Italy
g.manacorda@ids-spa.it

Jari Marjeta
Roadscanners
PO Box 2219
Rovaniemi FIN-96201
Finland
jari.marjeta@roadscanners.com

Iain Mason
Syndey Univ.
Division of Geology & Geophysics
Blding F05
Sydney NSW 2006
Australia
geoimm@es.usyd.edu.au

John McGourty
Coastal Res UUC
Coastal Research Group
SCH. E.S., UUC
Cromore Road
Coleraine Co. Derry BT52 1SA
Northern Ireland
jf.mcgourty@ulst.ac.uk

Todd Meglich
CSM
1031 E. Moorhead Cir.
Boulder CO 80303
USA
tmeglich@themetrodog.com

Craig Miller
Geophysics Australia
PO Box 15-038
New Lynn
Auckland
New Zealand
c.miller@geophysical.com.au

Kelvin Montagu
NSW State Forests
PO Box 100
Beecroft NSW 2119
Australia
kelvinm@sf.nsw.gov.au

Mark Moran
CRREL
72 Lyme Rd
Hanover NH 03755
USA
mmoran@crrel.usace.army.mil

Kazunori Mori
Walnut Ltd
1-19-13 Saiwaicho
Tachikawa Tokyo 190-0002
Japan
inagaki@walnut.co.jp

Wayne Muller
Qld Main Roads
GPO Box 1412
8th Floor, 477 Boundary St
Spring Hill Qld 4001
Australia
wayne.b.muller@mainroads.qld.gov.au

Wayne Murray
CSIRO CTIP
PO Box 218
Lindfield NSW 2070
Australia
waynem@tip.csiro.au

Takaharu Nakauchi
Osaka Gas
5-11-61 Torishima
Konohana-ku
Osaka 559-0051
Japan
nakauchi@osakagas.co.jp

Denis Naughton
160 Mulberry St.
Rochester NY 14620
USA
dpnaughton@worldnet.att.net

Richard Ney
CNRS/CETP
04 Avenue de Neptune
Saint Maur 94107
France
richard.ney@cetp.ipsl.fr

David Nobes
Univ. Canterbury
Department of Geological Sciences
Christchurch 8004
New Zealand
d.nobes@geol.canterbury.ac.nz

David Noon
CSSIP/UQ
The University of Queensland
Department of Computer Science &
Electrical Engineering
Brisbane Qld 4072
Australia
noon@cssip.uq.edu.au

Toshimizu Nozu
Koden
2-10-45, Kamiosaki
Shinagawa-ku
Tokyo 141-0021
Japan
tnozu@koden-electronics.co.jp

Gary Olhoeft
GRORADAR
PO Box 1520
Golden CO 80402-1520
USA
golhoeft@g-p-r.com

Luciana Orlando
Univ. of Rome
Via Edossiana 18
Rome 00184
Italy
orlando@dits.ing.uniroma1.it

Naomi Osman
Sydney Univ.
Division of Geology & Geophysics
Blding F05
Building F05
Sydney NSW 2006
Australia
nosman@mail.usyd.edu.au

Torben Overgaard
Faxe Kalk A/S
Hovedgaden 13
PO Box 69
Fakse Ladeplads DK-4654
Denmark
tov@faxekalk.dk

Shona Page
Opus Consultants
PO Box 30 845
Lower Hutt
New Zealand
shona.page@opus.co.nz

Keith Palmer
Univ. of Stellenbosch
Dept. Electrical & Electronic Engineering
Stellenbosch 7600
South Africa
palmer@ing.sun.ac.za

Garry Paterson
ISCW
ISCW
Private Bag X79
Pretoria 0001
South Africa
g_pater@igkw2.agric.za

Jeffrey Patterson
Univ. of Calgary
7239 Juliette Place
La Mesa CA 91941
USA
jeffreyp3@home.com

Roimela Petri
FinnRA
PL 157
Helsinki 00521
Finland
petri.roimela@tieh.fi

Giovanni Picardi
Univ. of Rome
Via Eudossiana 18
Rome 00184
Italy
picar@infocom.uniroma1.it

Jeff Plaut
Jet Propulsion Lab.
4800 Oak Grove Drive
Pasadena CA 91109
USA
plaut@jpl.nasa.gov

Michael Powers
US Geological Survey
PO Box 25046
MS-964
Denver CO 80225
USA
mhpowers@usgs.gov

Jung-Woong Ra
KAIST
Division of Electrical Engineering
373-1 Kusong-Dong, Yusong-Gu
Taejon 305-701
South Korea
rawoong@ee.kaist.ac.kr

Stanley Radzevicius
Ohio State Univ.
275 Menden hall Laboratory
125 S. Oval Mall
Columbus OH 43210
USA
radzev@geology.ohio-state.edu

Jonathon Ralston
CSIRO
PO Box 883
Kenmore QLD 4069
Australia
j.ralston@cat.csiro.au

David Redman
Univ. of Waterloo
Department of Earth Sciences
Waterloo ONT N2L3G1
Canada
dredman@sciborg.uwaterloo.ca

Jani Riekkinen
Roadscanners
PO Box 2219
Rovaniemi FIN-96201
Finland
jani.riekkinen@roadscanners.com

Jani Riihiniemi
Roadscanners
PO Box 2219
Rovaniemi FIN-96201
Finland
ani.riihiniemi@roadscanners.com

Roger Roberts
GSSI
13 Klein Dr
N. Salem NH 03073
USA
roger@geophyscial.com

Grant Roberts
Geophysics Australia
PO Box 15-038
New Lynn
Auckland
New Zealand
g.roberts@geophysical.com.au

Amit Ronen
G.I.I
P.O.B. 182
LOD 71100
Israel
amit@gii.co.il

Friedrich Roth
Grotlei 16
Brasschaat 2930
Belguim
friedrich_roth@yahoo.com

Timo Saarenketo
Roadscanners
PO Box 2219
Rovaniemi FIN-96201
Finland
timo.saarenketo@roadscanners.com

Vyacheslav Sablin
TsNIIRES
69 Prospect Mira
Moscow 129110
Russia
vsablin@tsniires.ru

Hichem Sahli
Univ. of Brussels
VUB - ETRO
Pleinlaan 21
Brussels B-1050
Belgium
hsahli@etro.vub.ac.be

Motoyuki Sato
Tohoku University
Kawauchi
Sendai 980-8576
Japan
sato@cneas.tohoku.ac.jp

Bart Scheers
RMA
Avenue de la Renaissance 30
Department ELTE
Brussels 1000
Belgium
bart.scheers@elec.rma.ac.be

Harald Schmitzer
HILTI AG
Technisches Zentrum
Abteilong Im
Schaan 9494
Liechtenstein
schmhar@hilti.com

Georg J. Schwamborn
AWI-Potsdam
Telegraphenberg A43
Potsdam D-14401
Germany
gschwamborn@awi-potsdam.de

Joachim-Klaus Schweitzer
CSIR Miningtek
PO Box 91230
Johannesburg
South Africa
jschweit@csir.co.za

Ian Scott
WMC Resources Ltd
GPO Box 860K
Melbourne Vic 3000
Australia
ian.scott@wmc.com.au

Pascale Senechal
Univ. of Pau
CNRS - UMR 5831,
Laboratoire d'Imagene Geophysique
et des Pays de l'Adour, BP 1155
Pau 64013
France
pascale.senechal@univ-pau.fr

Radhey Shyam Sharma
Univ. of Bradford
Department of Civil Engineering
Bradford West Yorkshire BD7 1D
UK
r.s.sharma@bradford.ac.uk

Hidekazu Shinkawa
Koden
2-10-45, Kamiosaki
Shinagawa-ku
Tokyo 141-0021
Japan
hshinkawa@koden-electronics.co.jp

Klaus Siever
DMT
Am Technologiepark 1
Essen 45307
Germany
siever@dmt.de

Mika Silvast
Roadscanners
PO Box 2219
Rovaniemi FIN-96201
Finland
mika.silvast@roadscanners.com

Carina Simmat
Sydney Univ.
6 Brolga Place
Belrose NSW 2085
Australia
carina@es.usyd.edu.au

Stephen Simmons
Detection Solutions
PO Box 38 061
Howick
Auckland
New Zealand
detectso@ihug.co.nz

Evert Slob
TU Delft
Myubouwstraat 120
Delft 2628 RX
The Netherlands
e.c.slob@ta.tudelft.nl

Daniel Steinhage
AWI
Columbusstrasse
Bremerhaven 27568
Germany
dsteinhage@awi-bremerhaven.de

Glen Stickley
CSSIP/UQ
The University of Queensland
Department of Computer Science &
Electrical Engineering
Brisbane Qld 4072
Australia
stickley@cssip.uq.edu.au

Adam Szynkiewicz
Wroclaw Univ.
pl. M. Born'a 9
Wroclaw 50-204
Poland
aszyn@ing.uni.wroc.pl

Jens Tronicke
Univ. of Tuebingen
Institute of Geology
Sigwartstrasse 10
Tuebingen 72076
Germany
jens.tronicke@uni-tuebingen.de

Greg Turner
Senseore Serv.
4151 Sorrento St
North Beach WA 6020
Australia
senseore@iinet.net.au

Vincent Utsi
UTSI Electronics
1 School Lane
Aldreth
Ely Cambs CB6 3PL
UK
vincent.utsi@virgin.net

Jan van der Kruk
Delft Univ.
Mynbouwstraat 120
PO Box 5028
Delft 2600GA
The Netherlands
j.vanderkruk@ta.tudelft.nl

Wim van der Meer
Geo Search
15-12, Nishi-Kamata 8-Chome
Ota-Ku
Tokyo 144-0051
Japan
vdmeer@geosearch.co.jp

Jean-Paul Van Gestel
Univ. of Texas
4412 Spicewood Springs Rd
Building 600
Austin TX 78759-8500
USA
jpges@utig.ig.utexas.edu

Luc van Kempen
Univ. of Brussels
VUB - ETRO
Pleinlaan 2
Brussels B-1050
Belgium
lmkempen@etro.vub.ac.be

Hugo van Loon
SA Transport
PO Box 82
Enfield Plaza SA 5085
Australia
hugo.vanloon@transport.sa.gov.au

Marnus van Wyk
Univ. of Stellenbosch
Dept. Electrical & Electronic Engineering
Stellenbosch 7600
South Africa
mjvanwyk@ing.sun.ac.za

Alexey Vertiy
MRC
PO Box 21
Gebze KOC 41470
Turkey
alex@mam.gov.tr

Paul Vidowovich
Detection Solutions
Box 38-061
Howick
Auckland
New Zealand
detectso@ihug.co.nz

Allen Wallis
UCT
Department lectrical Engineering
University of Cape Town
Private Bag, 7700, Roudesoser
Cape Town Western Cape 7700
South Africa
allen@rrsg.ee.uct.ac.sa

Matt Watson
Groundsearch
PO Box 15-038
New Lynn
Auckland
New Zealand
m.watson@groundsearch.co.nz

Robert Whiteley
Coffey Geosciences
142 Wicks Rd
North Ryde NSW 2113
Australia
bob_whiteley@coffey.com.au

Brian Whiting
Central Washington Univ.
Geography MS 7420
Ellensburg WA 98926
USA
bmw@cwu.edu

Lucian Wielopolski
Brookhaven Nat. Lab.
Department of Applied Science
Building 490D
Upton NY 11973
USA
lwielo@bnl.gov

Per Wikstrom
Radarteam Inc.
Gransvagen 51
Boden S-96137
Sweden
info@radarteam.se

Simon Williams
CMP-GBG
Level 2, 67 Albert Ave
Chatswood NSW 2067
Australia
williamss@syd.egisconsult.com.au

Christopher J Williams
CSIRO
PO Box 218
West Lindfield NSW 2070
Australia
chrisjw@tip.csiro.au

David L. Wright
US Geological Survey
M.S. 973
Box 25046 Fed. Cnt
Denver CO 80225
USA
dwright@usgs.gov

Derobert Xavier
LCPC
BP 4129
Bouguenais 44341
France
xavier.derobert@lcpc.fr

Richard Yelf
Georadar Research
412 Eastbank Road
Coramba
Coffs Harbour NSW 2450
Australia
georadar@midcoast.com.au

Michael Yelf
Georadar Research
412 Eastbank Road
Coramba
Coffs Harbour NSW 2450
Australia
myelf@key.net.au

Ismo Ylitalo
FinnRA
Hallituskatu 1-3
Rovaniemi FIN-96101
Finland
ismo.ylitalo@tieh.fi

Ronald E. Yoder
Univ. of Tennessee
2505 Chapman Dr.
Knoxville TN 37996-4500
USA
ryoder@utk.edu

Gary Young
Vermeer Mfg Co.
1510 Vermeer Rd East
Pella IA 50219
USA
gyoung@vermeermfg.com

Enrico Zampolini
Alenia Spazio
Via Saccomuro 24
Rome 00131
Italy
e.zampolini@roma.alespazio.it

Luigi Zanzi
POLIMI
Politecnico di Milano
P.zza L. Da Vinci 32
Milano 20133
Italy
zanzi@elet.polimi.it

Binzhong Zhou
CMTE/CSIRO
Exploration and Mining
PO Box 883
Kenmore QLD 4069
Australia
b.zhou@dem.csiro.au