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Demonstration of ocean surface salinity microwave measurements from space using AMSR-E data over the Amazon plume

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Abstract:

Microwave Sea Surface Salinity (SSS) measurements can be performed by isolating the emissivity response to salinity changes from numerous geophysical effects, including surface temperature and wind waves. At L-band frequencies (1 to 2 GHz), the sensitivity to SSS is sufficient but it falls off quickly as frequency is increased. Nevertheless, methods using higher microwave frequencies with much lower SSS sensitivity than at L band, can already be tested. In particular, combining 6 and 10 GHz data in vertical polarization efficiently minimizes sea surface roughness and thermal impacts. Using AMSR-E data, the retrieved bi-monthly maps of SSS at 0.5° resolution over the region of the Amazon plume show relative accuracy in-line with the future L-band dedicated mission objectives.

1. Introduction

15 Ocean surface microwave emission is controlled by a variety of physical and chemical
16 factors such as temperature and salinity as well as wave-generated surface roughness, foam
17 and spray. The sensitivity of the emitted radiation to small variations in such factors is a
18 function of frequency, probing angle and polarization state.

19 Low frequency microwave radiometers onboard the ESA's Soil Moisture and Ocean
20 Salinity (SMOS) and the NASA Aquarius missions have been selected and will soon
21 provide the first global measurements of SSS dynamics from space, with an expected
22 resolution of the order of 0.1 psu (practical salinity unit). SMOS and Aquarius sensors
23 will operate at an L-band frequency of ~ 1.4 GHz, chosen as a trade-off between good
24 sensitivity to SSS and reasonable spatial resolution. Yet, this study demonstrates that
25 there already exists a capability in space to retrieve and refine ocean satellite salinity
26 measurements and methods. We utilize the C- and X-band data from the Advanced
27 Microwave Scanning Radiometer - Earth Observing System (AMSR-E). While these bands
28 have significantly lower SSS sensitivity than that at L-band, they offer an opportunity
29 to evaluate salinity inversion budget issues - this using on-orbit data with temporal and
30 horizontal resolution scales in line with or exceeding the coming missions.

31 To retrieve SSS from C (6.9 GHz) and X (10.7 GHz)-band T_B s, there are a number of
32 challenging issues that must be considered. At AMSR-E incidence angle near 55° , the SSS
33 sensitivity in vertical polarization (V-pol) is larger than that at horizontal polarization
34 (H-pol), and the warmer the sea surface, the more sensitive is T_B to SSS (according to
35 *Klein and Swift* [1977] (KS) dielectric constant model). The shift from L-band to C-

36 and X-bands lowers T_B sensitivity to changes in salinity by a factor of 10 to 20. At an
 37 SST $\sim 30^\circ\text{C}$ and at an incidence angle of 55° , the sensitivity reaches a V-pol maximum
 38 magnitude of about 0.06 K/psu, and 0.03 K/psu, at C- and X-bands, respectively, whilst
 39 at L-band, it is ~ 0.9 K/psu. Moreover, the T_B sensitivity to SST is 0.6-0.7 K/ $^\circ\text{C}$ at these
 40 frequencies, i.e. about ten times higher than the impact of a 1 psu change in SSS. Finally,
 41 surface waves can cause significant changes in the observed brightness temperature that
 42 may mask the weak salinity signature.

43 Given this expected weak sensitivity, this study is limited to the Amazon plume region
 44 in the Northwestern Tropical Atlantic characterized by large (100-200 km) and persistent
 45 salinity contrasts that exceed the 0.1 psu salinity science mission requirement by a large
 46 factor of 10-100, and by warm surface waters. This region is of great importance within
 47 the L-band salinity mission context due to the large freshwater flux from the discharge of
 48 the Amazon and Orinoco rivers, and their interactions with the North Brazil (NBC) and
 49 Guiana currents.

50 To minimize the impact of competing terms carried in the ocean T_B measurements, we
 51 use a T_B difference quantity obtained with AMSR-E data, $\Delta T_B^v = T_v^{6.9} - T_v^{10.7}$, where
 52 $T_v^{6.9}$ and $T_v^{10.7}$ are the T_B at the ocean surface in V-pol at C- and X-band, respectively.
 53 This quantity is selected because (i) it strongly minimizes the SST impact while weakly
 54 affecting the sensitivity to SSS (according to KS's model, at SST= 30°C , $\partial\Delta T_B^v/\partial SSS \simeq$
 55 0.05 K/psu and $\partial\Delta T_B^v/\partial SST \simeq 0.025$ K/ $^\circ\text{C}$), and (ii) $T_v^{6.9}$ and $T_v^{10.7}$ respond similarly to
 56 changes in surface wind speed from about 4 to 10 m.s $^{-1}$, hence ΔT_B^v exhibits on average
 57 very little sea surface roughness dependence.

58 SSS is retrieved in the Northwestern Tropical Atlantic by minimizing the difference
59 between AMSR-E satellite estimates of ΔT_B^v along swath and predictions from the KS's
60 model. Bi-monthly and monthly average AMSR-E SSS retrievals for year 2003 are then
61 compared with co-located *in situ* upper layer salinity measurements. In addition, to
62 support spatial validation in this study, we used satellite-derived colored dissolved organic
63 matter (CDOM) maps as a proxy for delineating the spatial extent and patterns of the
64 Amazon and Orinoco freshwater plumes (e.g., *Hu et al.* [2004]).

2. Data

65 The AMSR-E instrument onboard the NASA EOS Aqua satellite is a forward-looking,
66 conically scanning radiometer operating at 55° incidence and 9 frequencies between 6.9
67 and 89 GHz. We use the 6.9 and 10.7 GHz L2A T_B product, resampled at 56 km spatial
68 resolution, from the National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC). The radiometer noise
69 for 6.9 GHz and 10.7 GHz observations along scan is 0.3 K and 0.6 K, respectively.
70 During the L2A processing, adjacent observations are averaged to reduce the noise to 0.1
71 K. In addition, we used the L2B ocean swath product (*Wentz and Meissner* [2000]), also
72 available at NSIDC, that contains SST, near-surface wind speed, columnar water vapor,
73 columnar cloud liquid water, and quality flags.

74 The L2B ocean products, including SST, are retrieved by applying a climatological
75 salinity correction to the L2A T_B data. Therefore, variation in actual SSS from climatology
76 may have an impact on the retrieved AMSR-E SST, which in turn, may affect the quality
77 of the SSS retrieval. To minimize this potential effect, we used the merged AMSR-AVHRR
78 analysis product developed by *Reynolds et al.* [2007] as the ancillary SST. Available at the

79 National Climatic Data Center (NCDC), these SST products have a spatial grid resolution
80 of 0.25° and a temporal resolution of 1 day. Systematic biases (such as the SSS impact
81 on AMSR-E SST) on this merged SST product is reduced because (i) it includes a large-
82 scale adjustment of satellite biases with respect to in situ data and (ii) because the error
83 characteristics of both infrared and microwave instruments are independent. Note as well
84 that this product is based on night-time acquisitions to avoid diurnal cycle signatures.

85 To demonstrate that AMSR-E retrieved SSS products contain enhanced information
86 with respect to climatologies, we develop a match-up data set between AMSR-E bi-
87 monthly averaged SSS estimates and in situ data provided at the French Coriolis Argo
88 Data center. The in situ data originate from different sources such as profile data (selected
89 at the uppermost level located between 5 m and 10 m depth), with the addition of under-
90 way collection on research vessels and voluntary observing ships (VOS), and from moorings
91 in the tropical Atlantic (PIRATA array). The monthly SSS climatology of the tropical
92 Atlantic developed by *Reverdin et al.* [2007] and generated at a spatial resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$
93 is also used in the present work. The satellite-derived maps of CDOM absorption coeffi-
94 cient derived at 443 nanometers ($a_{cdom}(443)$), as a proxy to detect patches of low salinity
95 surface waters, come from the monthly merged data product (9 km resolution) obtained
96 through the NASA/Giovanni server (<http://reason.gsfc.nasa.gov/OPS/Giovanni>). It is a
97 composite of SeaWiFS and MODIS products derived using the Garver-Siegel-Maritorena
98 (*Maritorena et al.* [2002]) semi-analytical ocean optics model. This product provides a
99 CDOM estimate similar to the absorption retrieval approach of *Hu et al.* [2004] and will

100 be noted as a_{cdom} in the remainder of the paper. All datasets were compiled for the year
 101 2003 over the spatial domain between 20° S and 20° N and 70° W and 20° W.

3. Methods

AMSR-E Swath data flagged for rain, low sun glint angles and low Geostationary Radio Frequency Interference (RFI) angles were first discarded. The vertically polarized L2A T_B products at each AMSR-E frequency f , hereafter denoted \tilde{T}_v^f , can be expressed as

$$\tilde{T}_v^f = T_{up}^f + \tau^f \left[e_v^f T_s + r_v^f (\tilde{\Omega}_v^f T_{down}^f + \tau^f T_C) \right] \quad (1)$$

where e_v^f is the sea surface emissivity in v-pol and the corresponding reflectivity is $r_v^f = 1 - e_v^f$. T_{up}^f is the upwelling atmospheric brightness temperature at the top of the atmosphere, T_{down}^f is the downwelling atmospheric brightness temperature at the surface, τ^f is the atmospheric transmissivity and T_s is the SST. $T_C \sim 2.7$ K is the cosmic background radiation temperature. The $\tilde{\Omega}_v^f$ term is a correction factor to account for nonspecular reflection of the atmospheric downwelling radiation from the rough surface. Given the AMSR-E Level2B water vapour, cloud liquid water and surface wind speed products, as well as the co-localized daily AVHRR-AMSR SST products, T_{up}^f , T_{down}^f , τ^f and $\tilde{\Omega}_v^f$ can be evaluated using the algorithm described in *Wentz and Meissner* [2000]. The surface reflectivity in v-pol at frequency f can then be estimated using (1) as:

$$r_v^f = \frac{\tilde{T}_v^f - T_{up}^f - \tau^f T_s}{\tau^f \left[\tilde{\Omega}_v^f T_{down}^f + \tau^f T_C - T_s \right]} \quad (2)$$

Using (2), the difference ΔT_b^v in brightness temperature estimated at the surface level between 6.9 GHz ($T_v^{6.9}$) and 10.7 GHz ($T_v^{10.7}$) vertical polarization channels is

$$\Delta T_b^v = T_v^{6.9} - T_v^{10.7} = T_s \left(r_v^{10.7} - r_v^{6.9} \right) \quad (3)$$

102 where ΔT_b^v includes the sum of two contributions. The first one is the difference in the
 103 flat surface ocean reflectivity between the two channels (Δr_{flat}) and the second is due
 104 to a possibly differing surface roughness impact on the reflectivity (Δr_{rough}) at the two
 105 frequencies (*Webster et al.* [1976]). To evaluate the latter effect, the estimated surface
 106 quantity $r_v^{10.7} - r_v^{6.9}$ was averaged over ± 1 m/s AMSR-E wind speed bins and $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ sea
 107 surface temperature bins. The results of the averaging done over all data for year 2003
 108 are shown in Figure 1 together with the superimposed wind speed probability distribution
 109 function (blue curve). As illustrated, within the most populated wind speed conditions
 110 from about 4 to 10 m/s, $r_v^{10.7} - r_v^{6.9}$ is very weakly wind speed dependent at the different
 111 SST conditions encountered. At the rarely occurring low and high wind speed conditions,
 112 the reflectivities at each frequency are not evolving similarly as function of wind speed
 113 (likely due to differing surface waves and foam impact). Although the roughness impact
 114 can be significant in these rare conditions, we assume here that on average $\Delta r_{rough} \simeq 0$.

115 Thus, the SSS retrieval methodology from the estimated ΔT_b^v follows. First, we evaluate
 116 Δr_{flat} using KS's model applied to the AVHRR-AMSR SST and for salinity values ranging
 117 from 0 to 40 psu. The retrieved SSS along swath is then determined by minimizing the
 118 difference between the KS prediction and the AMSR-E ΔT_b^v s. Swath retrieved SSS is
 119 then mapped onto a 0.5° resolution grid, averaged over 15 days or 1 month periods and
 120 spatially smoothed by a 1° by 1° moving average.

4. Results

121 We illustrate the methodology by considering here the results for July 2003. The
 122 monthly-averaged ΔT_b^v and SST maps are shown in Figure 2. Between July and February,

123 the surface layer of the NBC separates from the coast at around 7°-8°N and retroflects
124 with its waters feeding the North Equatorial Countercurrent, in a process known as North
125 Brazil Current retroflexion. Patches of high ΔT_b^v values exceeding their surrounding wa-
126 ter counterparts by more than 0.4 K are observed centered near 7°N 50°W and following
127 the NBC retroflexion. As illustrated in Figure 2.d, assuming a constant salinity of 36
128 psu along a north-west/south-east section across these patches, KS applied to the AMSR-
129 AVHRR SST predicts that the evolution of ΔT_b^v along that section cannot be explained
130 solely by the spatial changes in SST (red curve). The model prediction for ΔT_b^v , as-
131 suming that SSS along the transect evolves as in the monthly climatology (blue curve),
132 shows a much better agreement with the data, although significant local differences can
133 be observed around the measured ΔT_b^v peak. This analysis strongly suggests that the
134 large amplitude ΔT_b^v variations observed within the domain (0°N-20°N, 70°W-40°W) are
135 dominated by the impact of SSS variations.

136 The July 2003 monthly composite map of the CDOM absorption coefficient (see Figure
137 3. a) clearly shows that the area where ΔT_b^v exceed about -2.5 K systematically exhibit
138 high a_{cdom} values. This further indicates the potential signature of the Amazon plume
139 in AMSR-E signals. The monthly-averaged AMSR-E retrieved SSS map given in Figure
140 3.b shows that these areas indeed correspond to predicted patches of low-salinity water
141 (below 35-34 psu). The extent and dispersal patterns of the Amazon freshwater plume
142 seen by AMSR-E is well correlated with the highly colored waters, as indicated by the
143 superimposed a_{cdom} contours on the SSS map of Figure 3.

144 In July 2003, the voluntary observing ships (VOS) MN/ Colibri, equipped with a
145 thermo-salinograph, performed SSS measurements along the transect shown in Figure
146 3.b, collecting seawater at about 5 m depth. The SSS measured by the ship is shown in
147 Figure 4.a, together with the 15 day-average retrieved AMSR-E SSS and the July clima-
148 tology interpolated along the transect. The large-scale spatial structure of the freshwater
149 Amazon plume, extending about 600 km offshore, is clearly observed in the AMSR-E
150 SSS product. On the other hand, the climatology strongly underestimates the salinity
151 gradient across the plume. Local discrepancies between the satellite and in situ SSS are
152 nevertheless observed at scales smaller than about 100 km. Comparison results similar to
153 this July example are found throughout the year, and the satellite SSS data capture the
154 seasonal cycle in the extent and dispersal patterns of the Amazon and Orinoco plumes.
155 Regardless of the season, note that the measured ΔT_B are corrected for a constant bias
156 of ~ -0.15 K to align the mean satellite-retrieved SSS to the in situ and climatological
157 values. It may indicate an absolute calibration offset between the two AMSR-E frequency
158 channels in 2003.

159 The overall in situ - satellite data collocation are shown in Figure 4.b. The root-mean
160 square (rms) difference between all in situ and satellite observations is 1.5 psu. The rms
161 within ± 2 -psu bins extending from 19 to 39 psu was also evaluated: it decreases from
162 about 3-5 psu at the lowest SSS down to about 1 psu, achieved for salinities higher than
163 about 35 psu. The strong spatio-temporal variability of the plume may contribute to
164 generate significant differences when comparing in situ measurements with large footprint
165 satellite products sampled at a 0.5° resolution and averaged over 15 days. Another source

166 is possibly be the differing salt content in the vertical as probed by very near surface
167 satellite measurements (sub cm) and deeper-level in situ observations, usually conducted
168 at depth between 5 to 10 m. Moreover, errors in the retrieval algorithm are certainly
169 included due to (i) neglecting the difference in the roughness impact between the two
170 channels at low and high winds (ii) errors in the ancillary geophysical products, such
171 as SST (e.g., not accounting for a diurnal SST cycle of 1°C amplitude at a mean SST
172 of $\sim 27^{\circ}\text{C}$ shall induce SSS retrieval errors ranging from ~ 0.5 to 2 psu, according to
173 KS's model) (iii) errors in the atmospheric contribution removal, (iv) residual model
174 error in the dielectric constant (KS model claims a residual model error in brightness
175 temperature of 0.09K, which is the noise level of the averaged AMSR data), and (v)
176 instrumental noises. Similar factors and data intercomparison issues will also be present
177 in the coming L-band mission calibration and validation activities. The encouraging point
178 is that this study demonstrates that, even using sensors at least 10 times less sensitive
179 to SSS than the future L-band missions, monthly and bi-monthly surface salinity can
180 be retrieved with a relative accuracy that is in line with the future dedicated mission
181 objectives. The method we developed can be readily applied in tropical oceans region
182 with the largest river plumes both to derive new satellite-based SSS climatologies of the
183 plumes as well as to characterize the seasonal cycles and interannual variability of their
184 associated large-scale surface salinity structures. And while AMSR-E can be used to
185 begin the new era of global monitoring of surface salinity over the oceans, it may also
186 prove useful to incorporate its independent estimates into the coming L-band SMOS and
187 Aquarius SSS retrieval algorithms in the tropics.

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190 tropical Atlantic.

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Figure 1. Difference in sea surface reflectivities between X and C bands averaged over ± 1 m/s AMSR-E wind speed bins and $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ sea surface temperature bins (centered at the SST values given in the legend). The averaging is done over all data within the spatial domain between 20° S and 20° N and 70° W and 20° W, for year 2003. The blue curve indicates the probability density function of AMSR-E wind speed value (artificially normalized to match the y-axis scale). The values at 0 m/s are obtained from the Klein and Swift model evaluated at SSS=36 psu.

Figure 2. (a) monthly averaged difference $\langle \Delta T_b^V \rangle$ in estimated flat sea surface brightness temperature between 6.9 and 10.7 GHz frequencies in vertical polarization, and for the month of July 2003. The black line illustrates the location of the transect shown in (c) and (d). (b) Corresponding monthly averaged AVHRR-AMSR OI 0.25° sea surface temperatures. (c) Sea surface temperature from AVHRR-AMSR (red curve) and salinity from the monthly climatology of the tropical Atlantic (blue curve) along the transect shown in (a). (d) Corresponding $\langle \Delta T_b^V \rangle$ along the transect measured from AMSR-E (black) and estimated using Klein and Swift's dielectric constant model applied to AVHRR-AMSR SST and (i) to a constant salinity of 36 psu (red) or (ii) to the surface salinity from the climatology (blue).

Figure 3. (a) Monthly composite map of a_{cdom} obtained with the GSM model and the SeaWiFS and MODIS sensors for July 2003. (b) Monthly averaged sea surface salinity retrieved from AMSR-E. The thick black line shows the July 2003 transect of the ship MN/Colibri, equipped with an underway thermosalinograph. Thin black curves in both figures represent contours of a_{cdom} at 0.005, 0.01, 0.025, 0.05 and 0.1 m^{-1} .

Figure 4. (a) Sea surface salinity measured by the MN/Colibri TSG (black dots), 15-days averaged retrievals from AMSR-E ΔT_b^V (blue dots) and July climatology (red dots) interpolated along the ship transect. (b) Comparison between co-localized AMSR-E SSS retrievals and in situ measurements over the year 2003. Root mean square difference is about 1.5 psu.







