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Measuring the Ocean from Space, 1

Principles of measurement using altimetry and radiometry

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Southampton Oceanography Centre

Purpose of these Lectures

• The Aims:

To learn about the basic methods of Space Oceanography so that you can critically appraise global ocean datasets from satellites.

To understand how to confront models effectively with satellite data in the context of operational applications.

 Objective of Lecture 1 (Today): To understand what sensors in Space actually measure, and how to derive useful ocean parameters from the primary measurements.

 Objective of Lecture 2 (Tomorrow): To recognise the measurement and sampling limitations of satellite sensors, and learn how best to exploit the benefits of satellite data.



Outline of lecture

 Methods of measuring ocean properties from satellites : A generic outline

Observing ocean currents using satellite altimetry

Estimating chlorophyll concentrations from ocean colour

Measuring sea surface temperature by radiometry

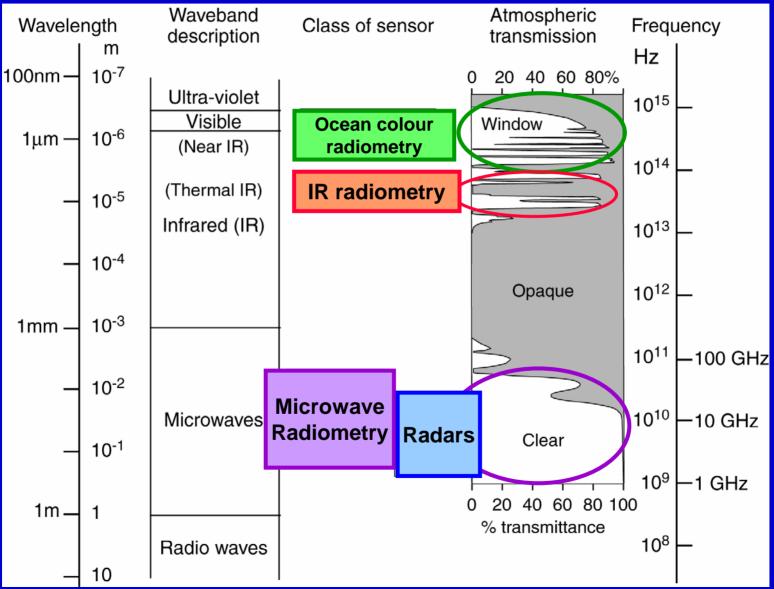
In tomorrow's lecture, where the GODAE high resolution SST Project provides a case study



Methods of measuring ocean properties from satellites : A generic outline



Using the Electromagnetic Spectrum

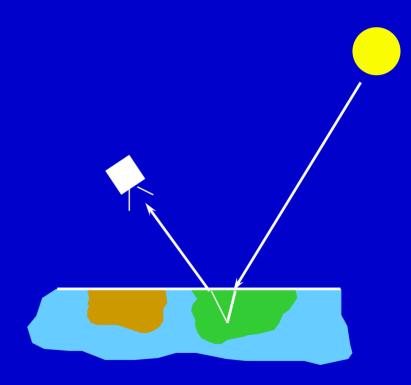


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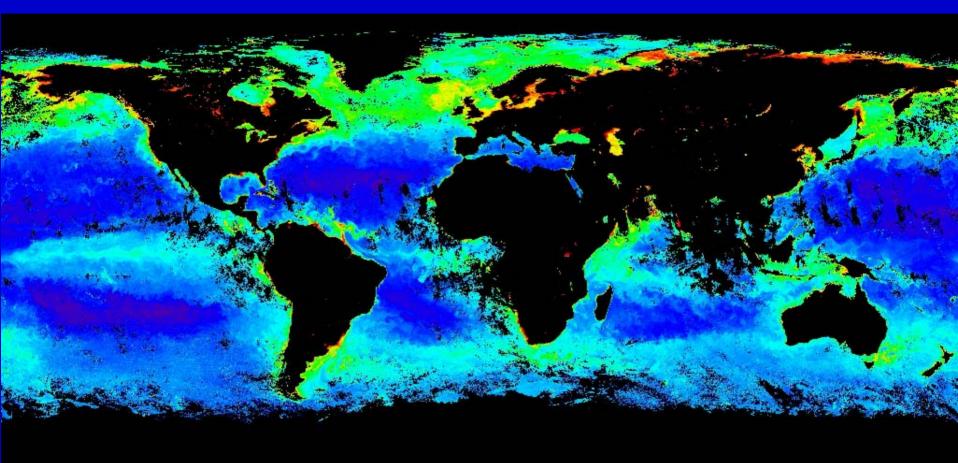
Sensor Types: 1 Passive Sensors - solar radiation

- Use visible and near infra-red wavelengths
- Multispectral (detects colour)
- Scanning (generates images)
- Obstructed by clouds
- Corrupted by the atmosphere
- Measures water properties which colour the sea
- Also measures light reflected at the surface
- Near infra-red light does not penetrate the sea





Satellite ocean datasets, 1: from ocean colour

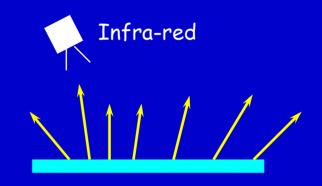


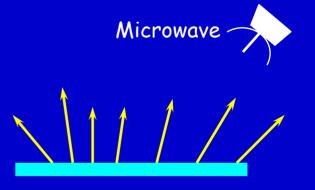
Global distribution of surface chlorophyll concentration derived from the SeaWiFS sensor during 28th August to 4th September 2004

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Sensor Types: 2 Passive sensors - emitted radiation

- Thermal Infra-red radiometers
- Multiple wavebands
- Obstructed by clouds
- Requires atmospheric correction
- Measure sea surface temperature
- Microwave radiometers
- Multiple frequency bands
- See through clouds
- Almost independent of atmosphere
- Measure sea surface temperature
- Measure surface roughness
- Measure salinity ?



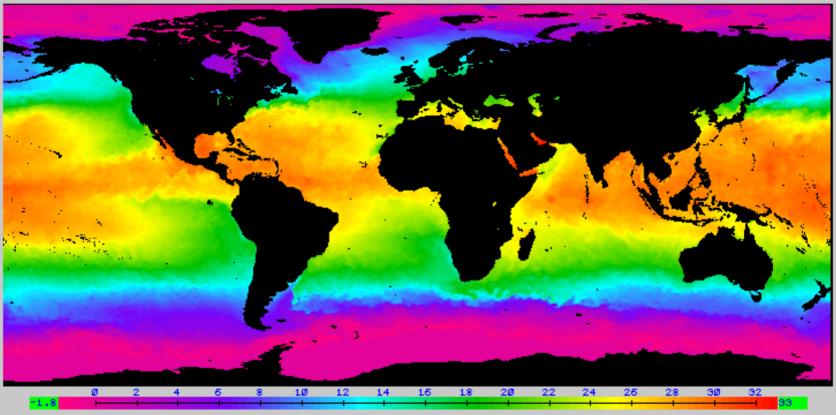




Satellite ocean datasets, 2: from infrared sensors

NOAA/NESDIS EDGE IMAGE DISPLAY

50KM GLOBAL ANALYSIS / NOAA-15 OPERATION DAY/NITE 09/14/04 0100 - 09/18/04 0200 -80,85 LAT -180,180 LON 97 HOURS

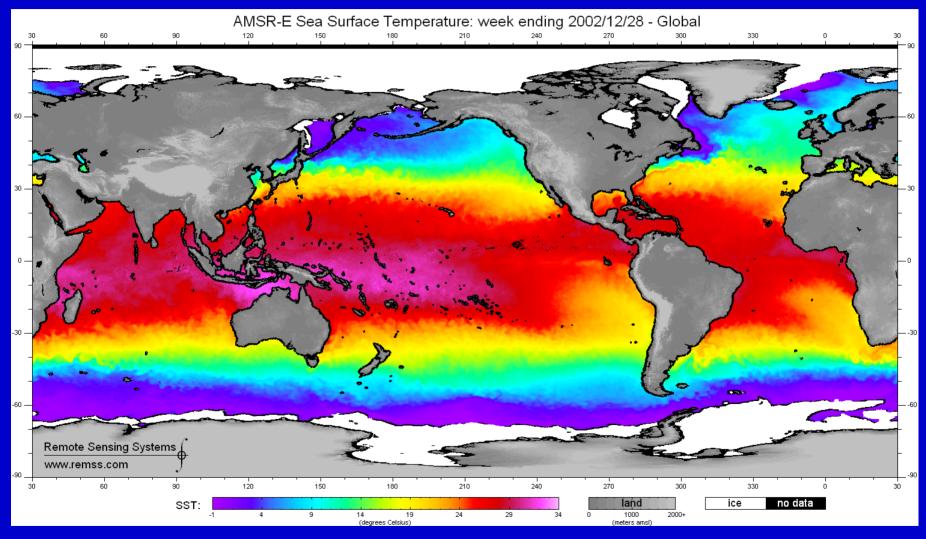


Global Sea Surface Temperature (SST) distribution derived from the NOAA AVHRR sensors during 14th to 18th September 2004

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Q

Satellite ocean datasets, 3: from microwave radiometers

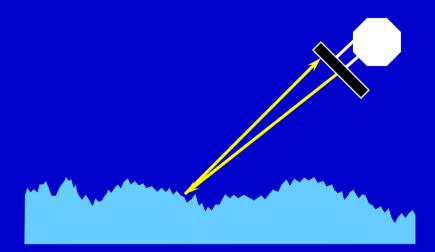




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Sensor Types: 3. Active Sensors

- Emit radar pulse obliquely
- Scatterometer (course resolution)
- Measure wind speed and direction
- Imaging radar SAR (fine resolution)
- Detect surface roughness patterns



Ocean Surface Wind Speed QuikScat: Wed Oct 1 23:31:03 2003 to Thu Oct 2 18:25:26 2003 (GMT) 0° 135°W 45°E 90°E 135°E 180° 90°W 45°W 0° 60°N 6 40°N 20°N 0° 0 20°S 40°S 60°S 6 0° 45°E 90°E 135°E 180° 135°W 90°W 45°₩ 0° ∫ m/s 15 10 5

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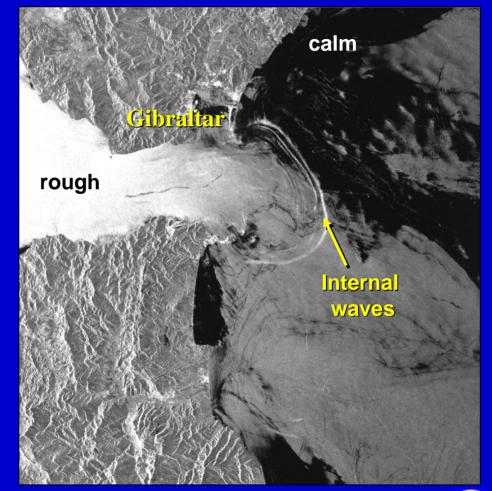
Synthetic Aperture Radar Data

 SAR images: a unique view of the Ocean

- Measure short scale (5-50 cm) roughness of the sea
- Bright = rough
- Dark = smooth

Capable of observing a variety of ocean phenomena

- Anything can be imaged that modulates surface roughness
- Even subsurface phenomena
- Wind conditions must be right

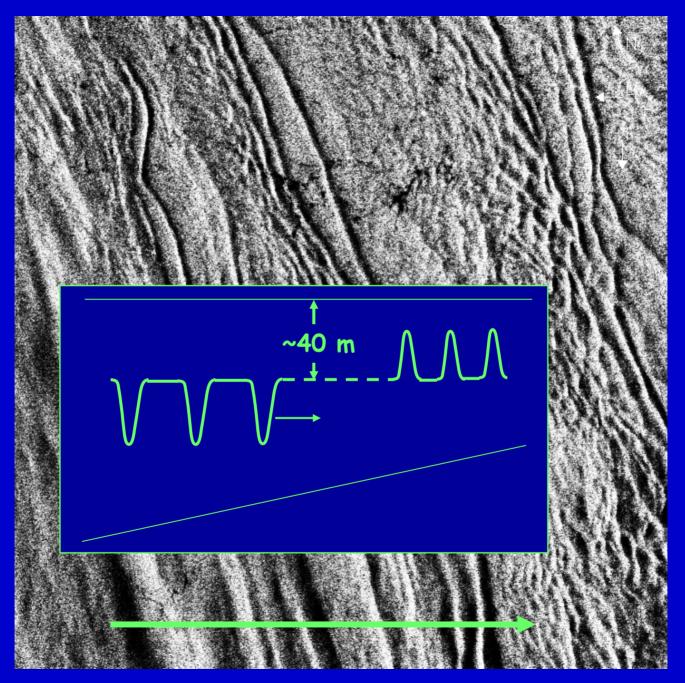






Synthetic aperture radar image – Andaman Sea

100 km



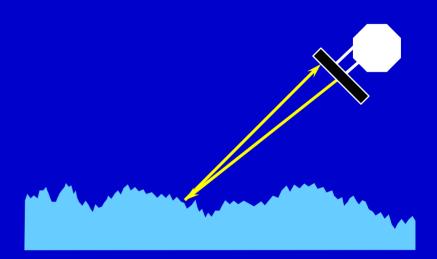
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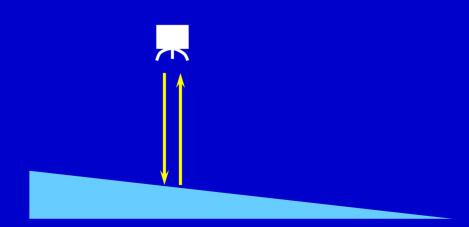


Sensor Types: 3. Active Sensors

- Emit radar pulse obliquely
- Scatterometer (course resolution)
- Measure wind speed and direction
- Imaging radar SAR (fine resolution)
- Detect surface roughness patterns
- Emit radar pulse vertically
- Altimeter
- Measure timing of return
- Detect distance to surface
- Measure shape and strength of return pulse
- Detect wave height & wind

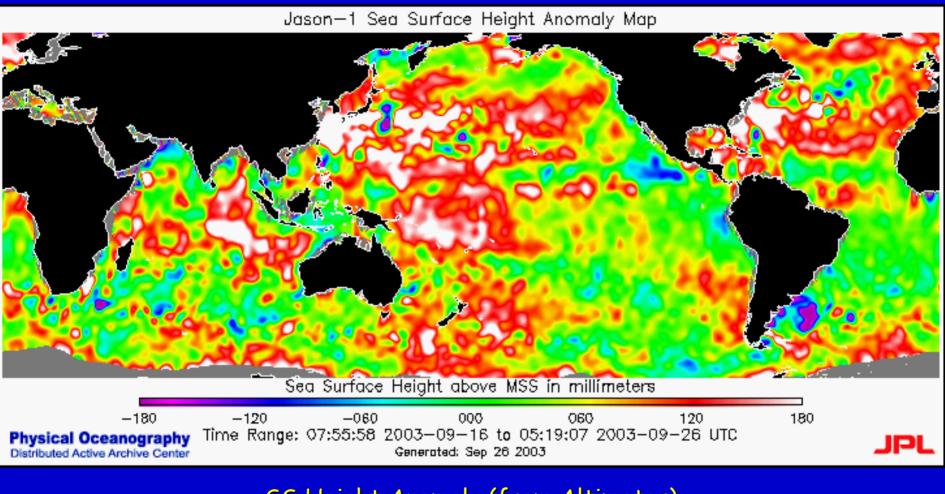
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Satellite ocean datasets, 4: from altimetry

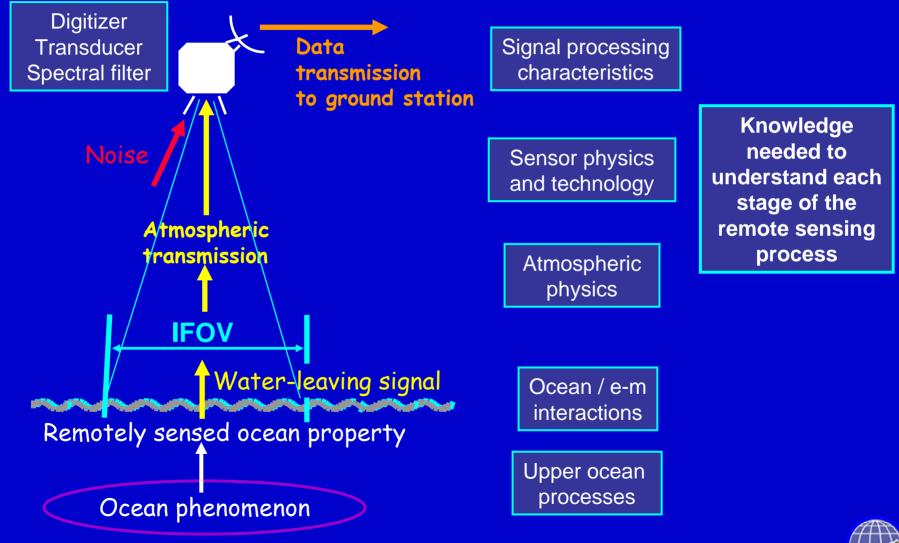


55 Height Anomaly (from Altimeter) Height 16-26 Sep, 2003 – mean height over several years

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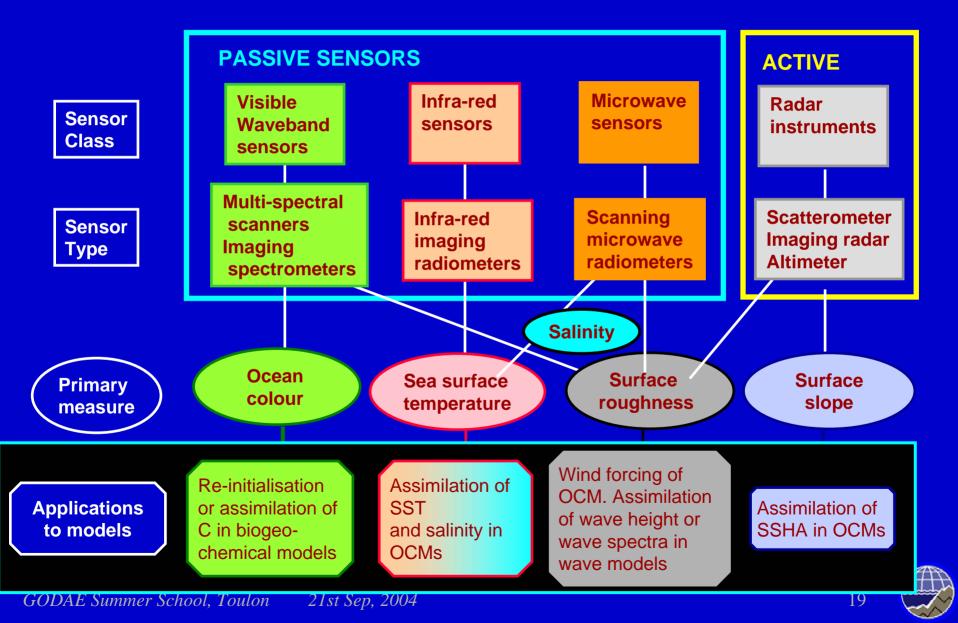
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Information Flow in a R-S System

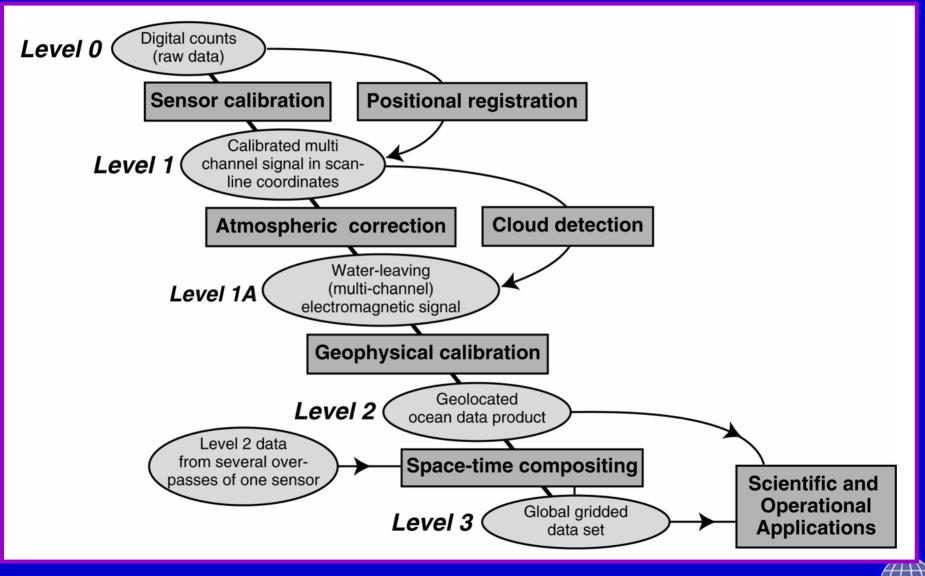


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Sensor types and what they measure



Stages of Processing : Levels of processed data



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How important are satellite ocean data ?

 Satellite remote sensing has opened up the study of global ocean phenomena

- We can now ask questions about large scale processes that previously could not be addressed
- We can now make observations of ocean scale phenomena which test and stretch theoretical models

 21st Century Oceanography has become dependent on satellite observations

- All branches of ocean science now expect to use satellite image data
- Interest is no longer limited only to specialist "satellite oceanographers"
- There is a growing use of satellites for operational ocean monitoring and forecasting



Fundamental limitations of satellite ocean remote sensing

- Can observe only some of the ocean's properties and variables
- Measures the ocean only at or near the surface
 - Although the surface is the most critical place to measure
- Ocean measurements may be corrupted by the atmosphere
- Some methods cannot see through clouds at all
- Measurements can be made only when the satellite is in the right place
- All measurements require calibration and validation using in situ data



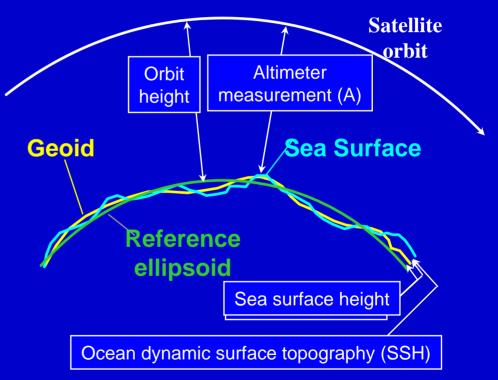
Observing ocean currents using satellite altimetry



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Principles of altimetry

- Measure distance between satellite and sea
- Determine position of satellite
- Hence determine height of sea surface
- Oceanographers require height relative to geoid

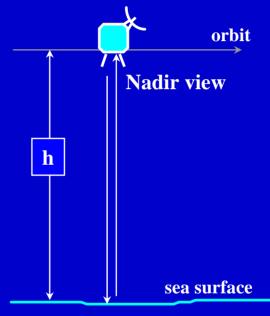


SSH = Orbit - A - Geoid



Measuring distance with radar

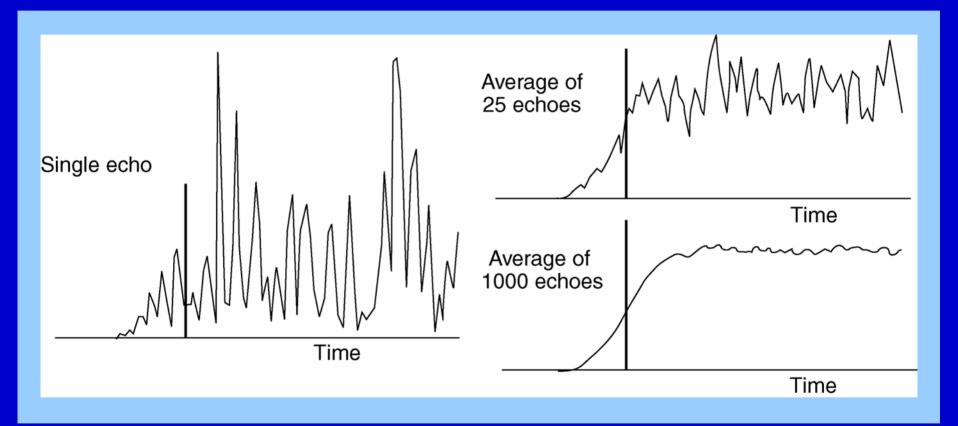
- Measure pulse travel time, 2T, from emit to return
- h = T/c (c = 3 x 10⁸ m/s)
- Resolution to 1cm needs a timing precision of 3 x 10⁻¹¹s (30 picoseconds)
- Requires using chirp pulses and compression
- Average ~1000 pulses
- Apply corrections for reduced c in atmosphere / ionosphere, and surface reflection delays



Specular reflection



Typical radar altimeter pulse reflections





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Determining the orbit

Orbit affected by:

- Earth's gravitational field
- ✤Air drag (at 800 km loses 35cm height per orbit)
- Solar radiation pressure
- Predict the orbit
 - Tracking the satellite
 - Laser ranging from the ground
 - Onboard range and range-rate measurement to ground station (DORIS, PRARE)
 - •GPS
 - Model integrates the equations of motion
 - Requires knowledge of gravity field

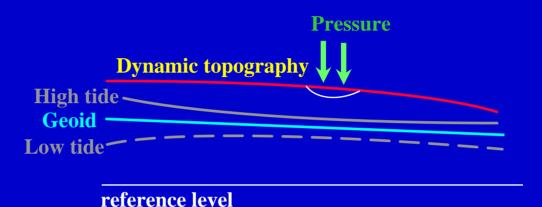
Interpreting the Ocean Surface Topography

Geoid (~100 m)

- Time invariant
- Needs to be independently measured (gravity survey)
- GRACE (~200 km resn.)
- ✤ GOCE (~80 km resolution)

• Tides (~1-2 m)

- Apply a tidal prediction
- New tidal models derived from altimetry
- Special orbits needed to avoid tidal aliasing

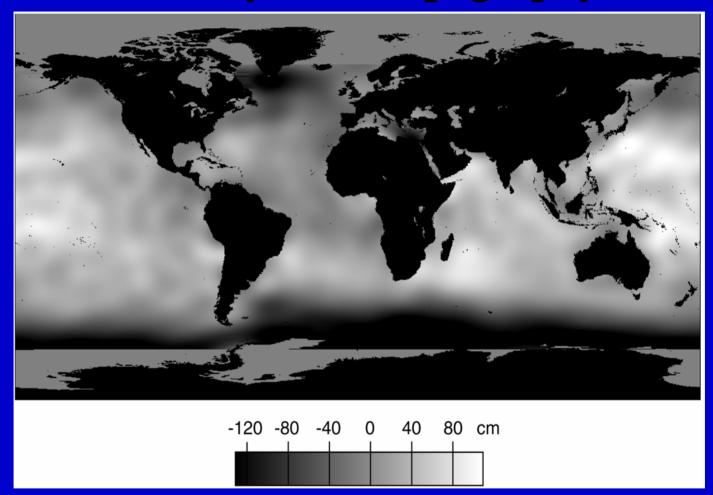


Atmospheric pressure (~0.5 m)

- Apply inverse barometer correction (1mbar ~ 1 cm)
- Dynamic topography (~1 m)
 The intended measurement



Ocean dynamic topography



Estimated from Topex/Poseidon altimeter height measurements gridded and averaged over the 10 days of cycle 123, (20th Jan, 1996), minus the best estimated geoid.

This type of product is of limited value until the Geoid is known more precisely. Image generated with data produced by JPL on March 8th, 1996 and obtained from the JPL website.



Using altimetry when the Geoid is not known

Repeat-cycle analysis, when orbit errors are small

- Step 1: Remove tide and atmospheric pressure contributions.
- **Step 2:** At each location, average over all overpasses
- Step 3: Subtract time average from individual overpasses to generate the sea-surface height anomalies (SSHA)

• The result:

- Contains only the time-varying SSH signal at time scales shorter than the record length used to determine the mean SSH
- Cannot provide any information about the mean flow



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Empirical orbit removal

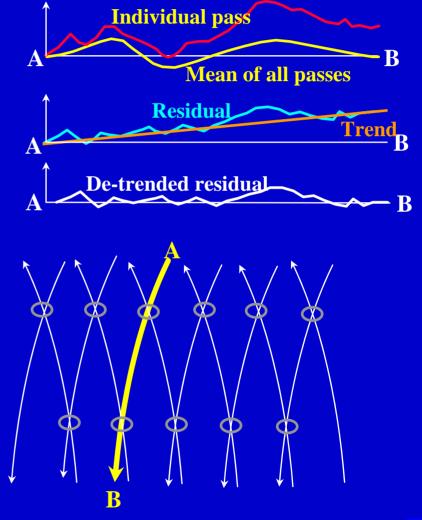
If orbit errors dominate

• Either: Use repeat tracks

- Subtract average of all tracks
- Fit linear or quadratic function to each pass to remove trend
- Residuals give the time varying signal within the region

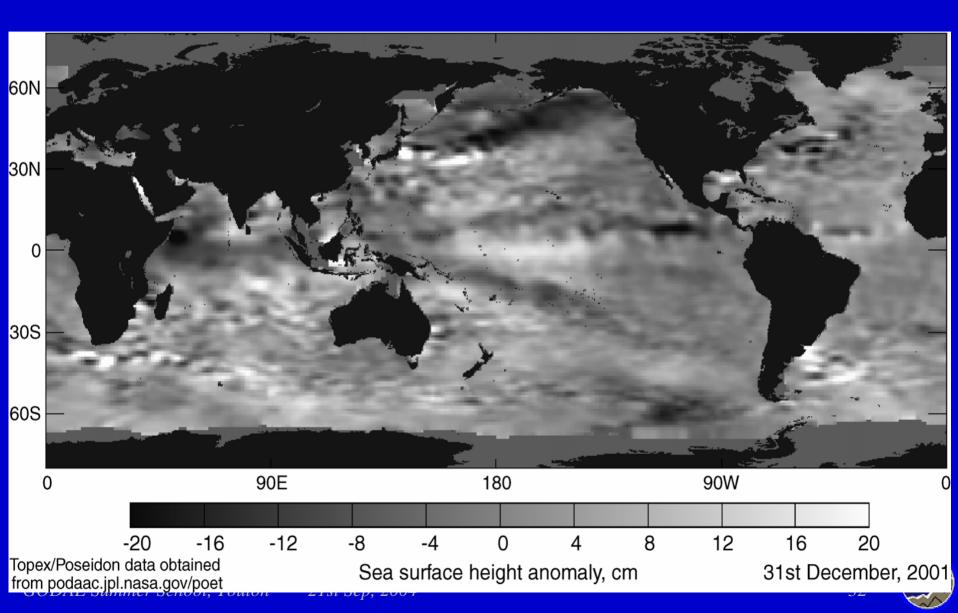
•Or: <u>Use cross-over points</u>

- Compute height difference between ascending and descending tracks
- Fit smooth function to each pass to minimise cross-over differences
- Subtract this function to give SSH residual





SSH residual, or SSH anomaly



Geostrophic currents from Altimetry

Assume geostrophic balance

 $\stackrel{\diamond}{\checkmark} \quad \frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = \frac{fv}{g} \qquad f = 2\Omega \sin(latitude)$ $v = \frac{g}{f} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x}$

Unavoidable limitations

Measures only cross-track component of current

Cannot recover currents near the equator

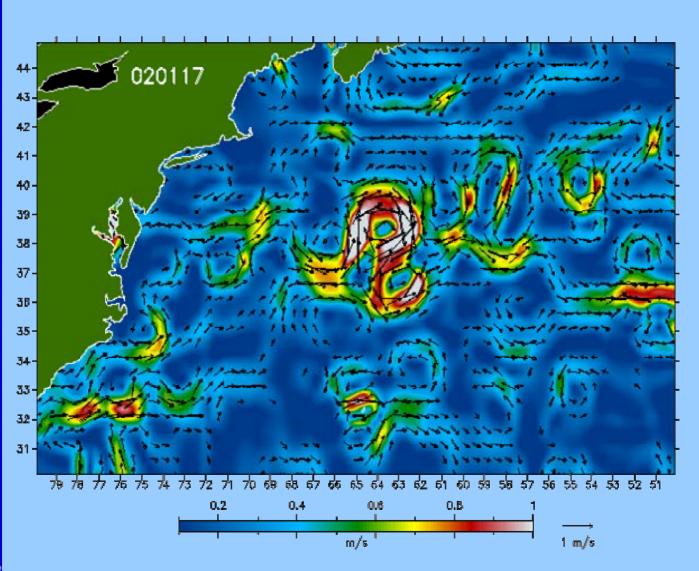
Only variable (non-steady) currents are detectable

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The Gulf Stream

As detected by Altimetry: sees the variable currents only





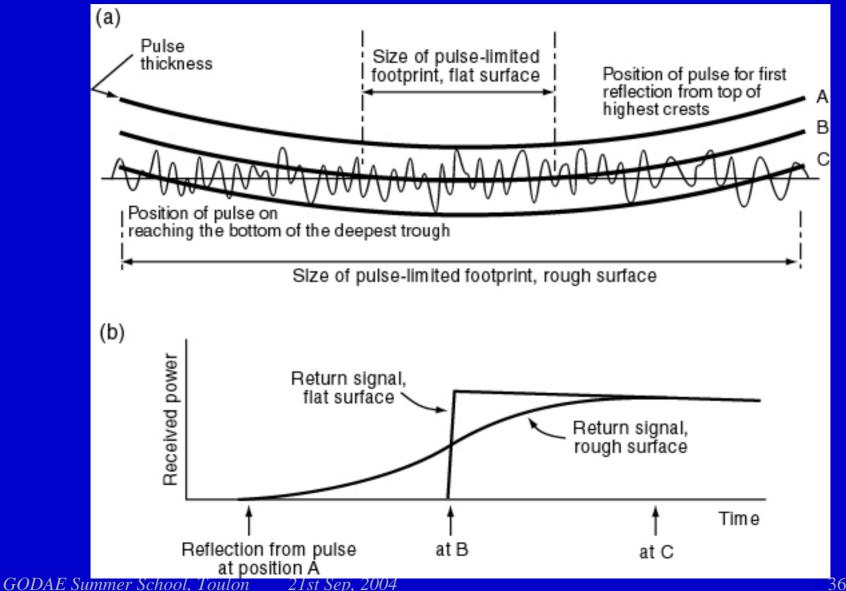
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Limitations of Satellite Altimetry

 Measures SSHA to an accuracy of 2-3 cm Measures only along the precise orbit repeat track Detects only the variable signal Long term mean SSH lost in the geoid Mean ocean currents cannot be detected Needs longer time series to measure lower frequencies An independent measure of gravity is needed SSH unreliable in shelf seas The tidal signal cannot be accurately predicted Other ageostrophic motions are likely Currents cannot be recovered in equatorial waters Geostrophy not valid



Measuring Significant Wave Height from Altimeters





Theoretical waveform equation

$$P(t) = \frac{Kc\tau}{s^2H^3} \left[1 + erf\left(\frac{t}{t_p}\right) exp\left(-\frac{2t}{t_s}\right) \right]$$

Indicates the echo magnitude
The steepness of the waveform
The decay as the reflecting area moves away from nadir

where:

H = height of satellite above mean sea level τ = half power width of transmitted pulse s = rms total ocean wave-slope

$$t_p = \frac{2}{c} \left[\frac{c^2 \tau^2}{16 \ln 2} + 2h^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

h = rms ocean wave height

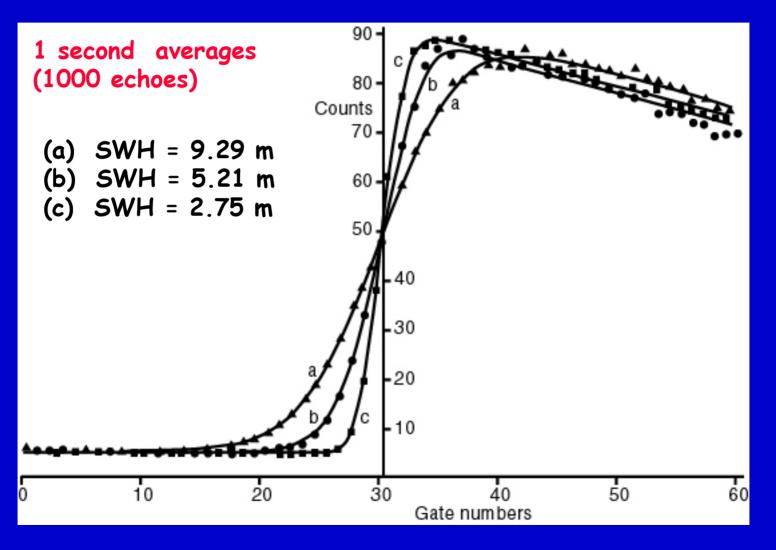
$$t_s = 2H\Psi_e^2 / c$$

$$\Psi_{e}^{-2} = \frac{8\ln 2}{\Psi_{R}^{2}} + \left[\frac{1 + H/a_{e}}{s}\right]^{2}$$

- $a_e = \text{earth radius}$
- Ψ_R = antenna half power width
 - K = constant
 - t = 0 is defined at the "track point"



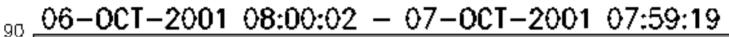
Typical altimeter echoes

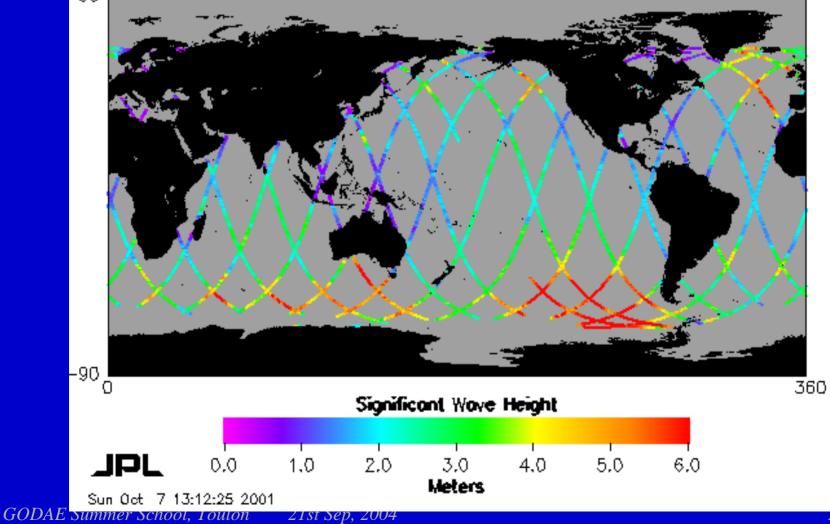


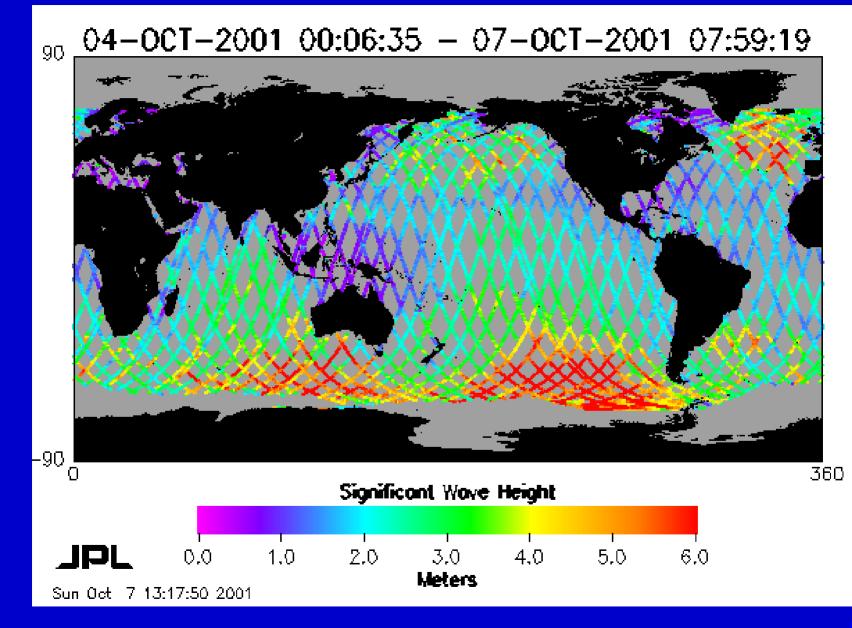
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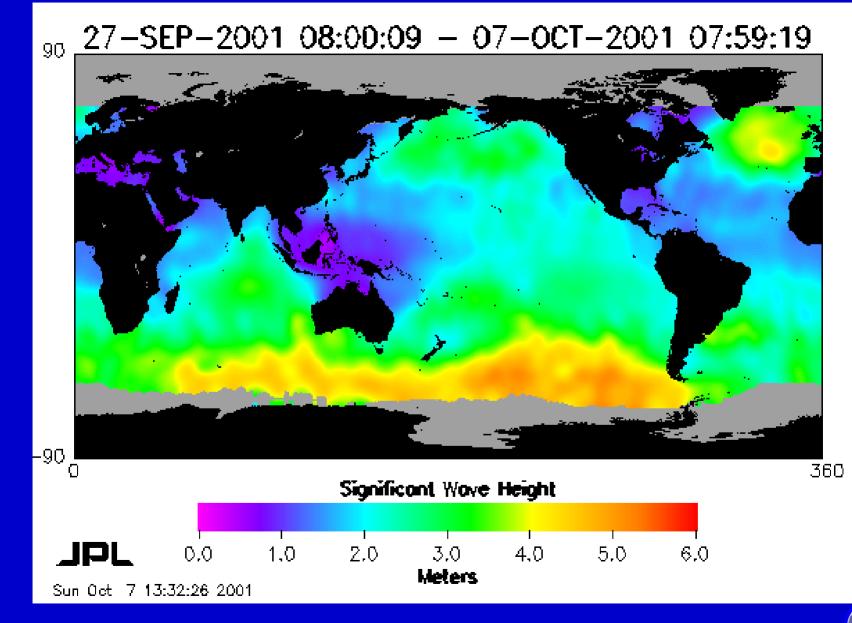
Examples of SWH products from TOPEX







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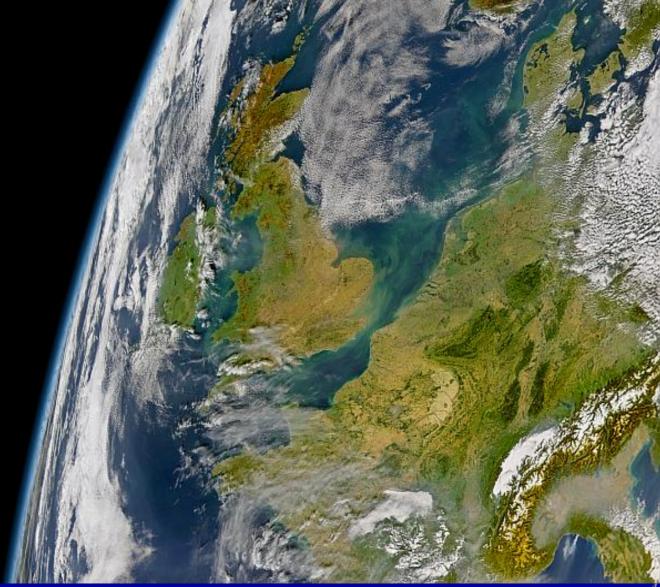


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Estimating chlorophyll concentrations from ocean colour



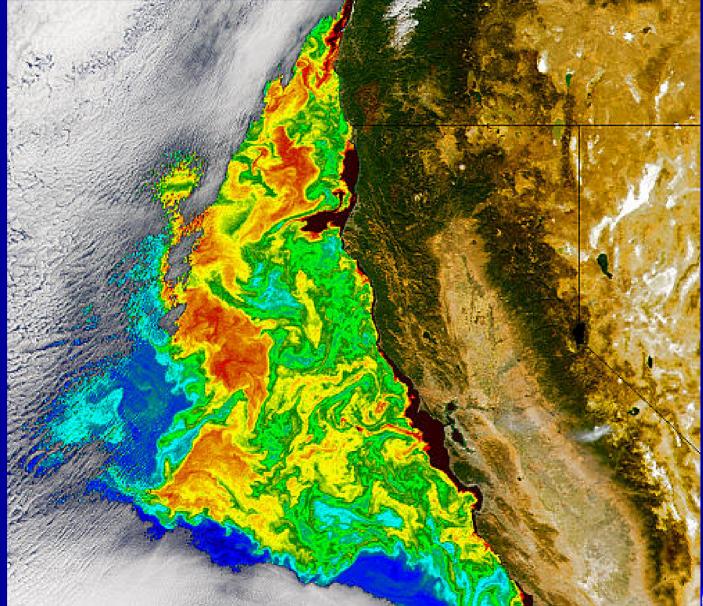
Western Europe on 16th October, 2003 -SeaWiFS



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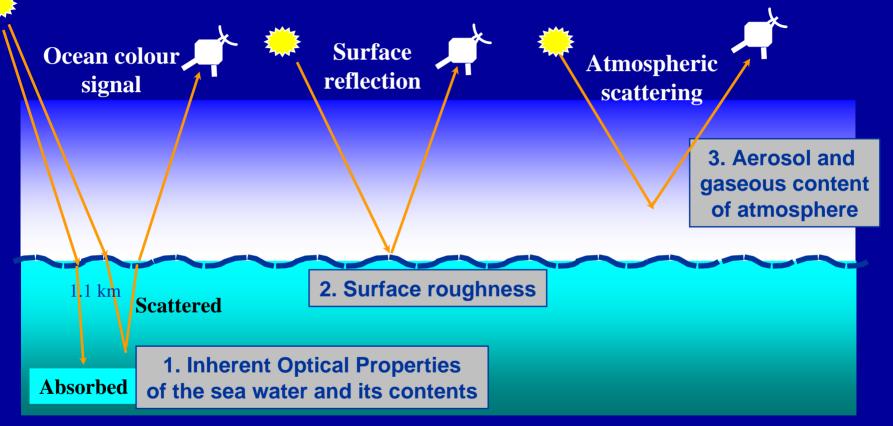


Upwelling off Oregon, 6 Oct 2002



Chlorophyll map derived from SeawiFS

Principles of Ocean Colour Remote Sensing (OCRS): what can be detected?



Note that 1, 2 and 3 are all wavelength dependent. Measure the colour signal in sufficient spectral detail to distinguish the ocean and atmospheric contents. Ideally the roughness should be known.

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Using colour to carry information

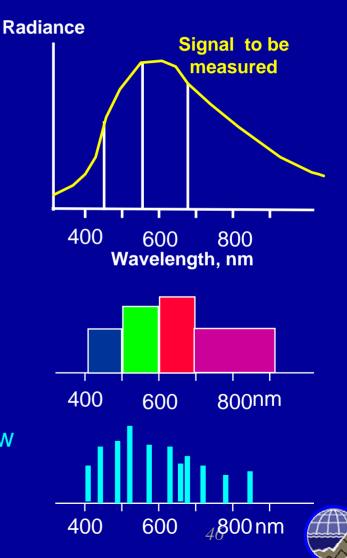
• What is colour?

The spectral distribution of visible light
The spectrum is typically a continuum

• How is it measured?

A detector samples discrete wavebands
The eye detects the response in three bands defined by three spectral functions
The "colour" is simply the set of values measured in the different wavebands or "channels".

May be a few broad bands or many narrow bands



Colour capability of different sensors

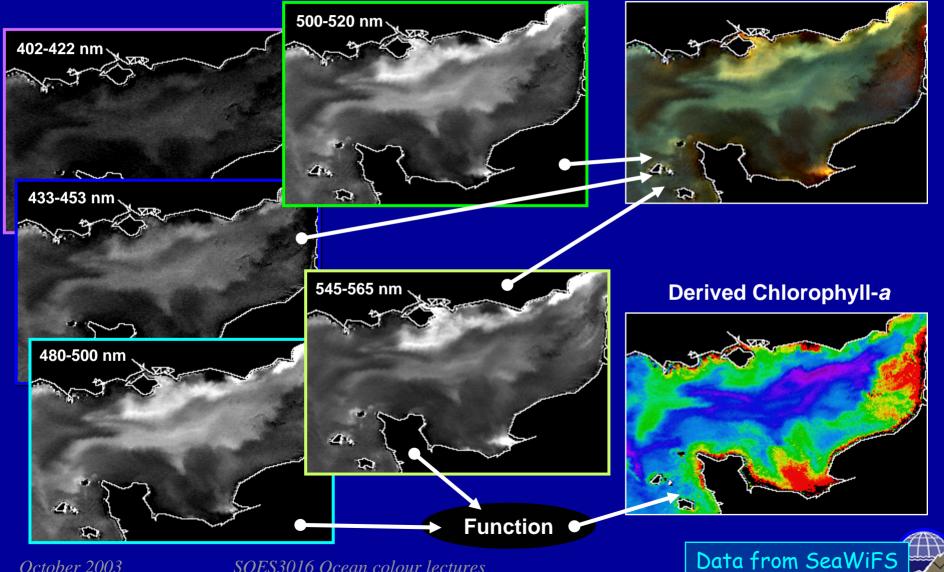
Sensor	Number of channels	Character of channels
Human eye	3	Interleaved
Landsat	4	Wide bands, contiguous
CZCS	4	Narrow, visible
SeaWiFS	8	Narrow, separated Vis and near IR
MERIS	13	Narrow, Vis and near-IR
MODIS	9	Narrow, Vis and near-IR
CASI (airborne)	64	Spectrometer



Information from ocean colour

Sunlight reflected from below the sea surface

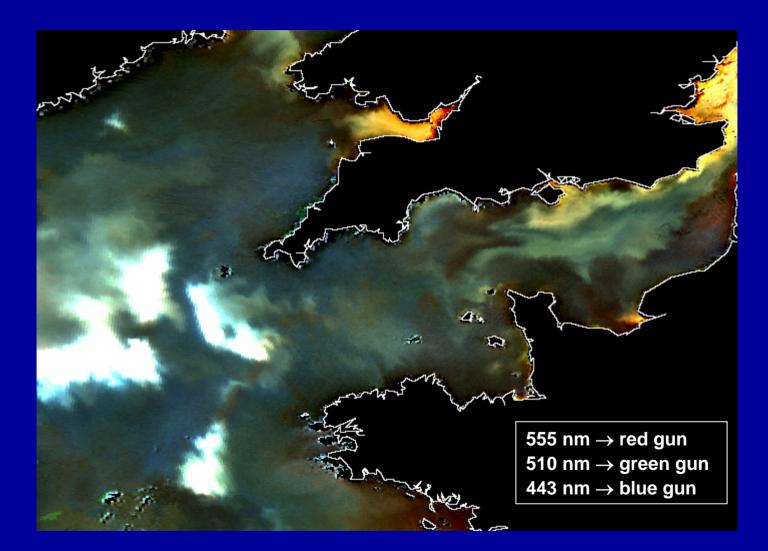
Colour composite



October 2003

SOES3016 Ocean colour lectures

Ocean colour image : English Channel



Enhanced near-real colour composite of English Channel from the Seaviewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor (SeaWiFS); 19th May, 1998.



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21s

What affects light in the sea ?

Light entering the sea:

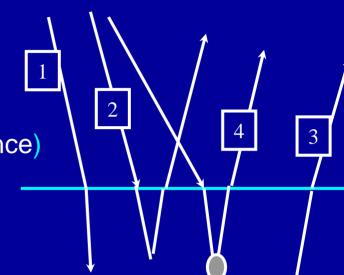
- Comes from the sun
- often scattered by the atmosphere or clouds (75%-95% of TOA radiance)

Light in the sea

- ✤ is absorbed (1)
- ✤ is scattered (2)
- may be emitted by fluorescence (3)
- may be frequency shifted (Raman scattering) (4)

Light leaving the sea

- consists of photons which have been scattered into a direction which brings them back to the surface
- wavelength distribution (colour) is altered by the sea compared with those that enter the sea.



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What affects the colour of the sea?

Spectral makeup determined by absorption (a) and scattering (b)
Reflectance is roughly 0.33 (b/a).

✤Backscattering (b) is caused by:

- Phytoplankton (b_c)
- Suspended particulate matter (b_s)
- The water molecules themselves (b_w)

Absorption (a) is caused by:

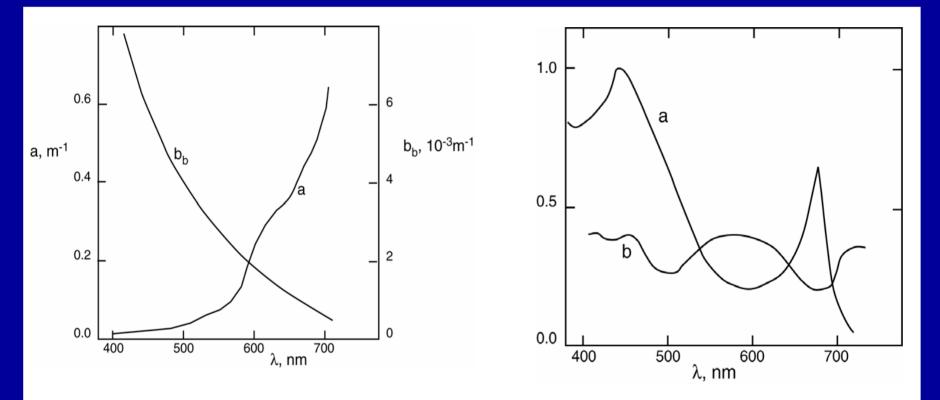
- Phytoplankton (a_c)
- The water molecules themselves (a_w)
- Dissolved organic material (DOM, Gelbstoff or yellow substance) (a_v)

Each a_x and b_x has its particular spectral form

Therefore the colour depends on the concentrations of those water constituents which interact with the light.



Spectral variation of absorption and scattering of light in the sea



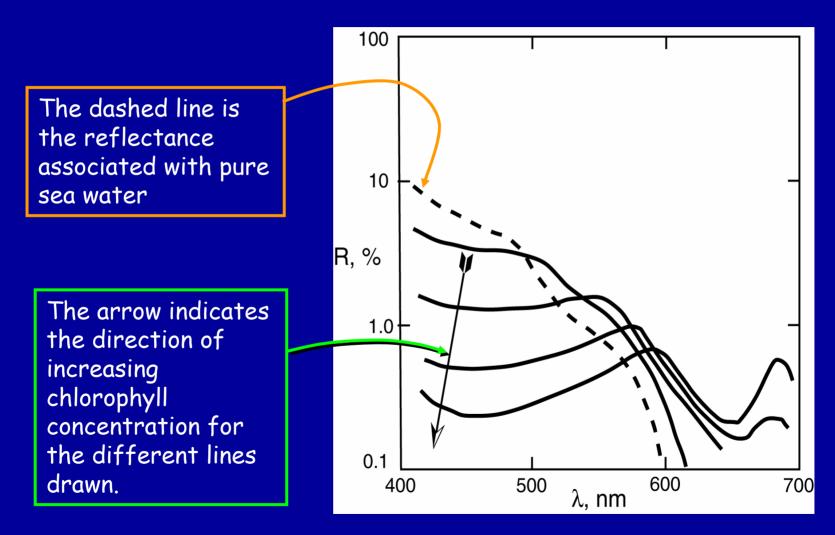
Absolute values for sea water absorption, a and backscattering, b_b

<u>Relative</u> values of absorption, a and backscattering, b for Chlorophyll in Phytoplankton

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Reflectance spectra associated with phytoplankton





What can be measured from ocean colour?

In principle

Colour can tell us about relative and absolute concentrations of those water constituents which interact with the light.

Hence we measure chlorophyll, yellow substance and sediment load

In practice

- Difficult to distinguish independently varying water constituents
- CASE 1 waters are where the phytoplankton population dominates the optical properties (typically open sea)

CASE 2 waters are where other factors (terrigenous DOM, suspended or river borne sediments) are also present.

- Most success with CASE 1 waters so far, using green/blue ratio algorithms for chlorophyll, of the form: C = A(R₅₅₀/R₄₉₀)^B
- Accuracy for C of ~ $\pm 30\%$ is achievable in open ocean
- Data from CASE 2 waters are harder to analyse.



Wavebands for important ocean colour sensors

Note the bands common to most sensors:

440 nm

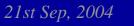
490 nm

550-565 nm

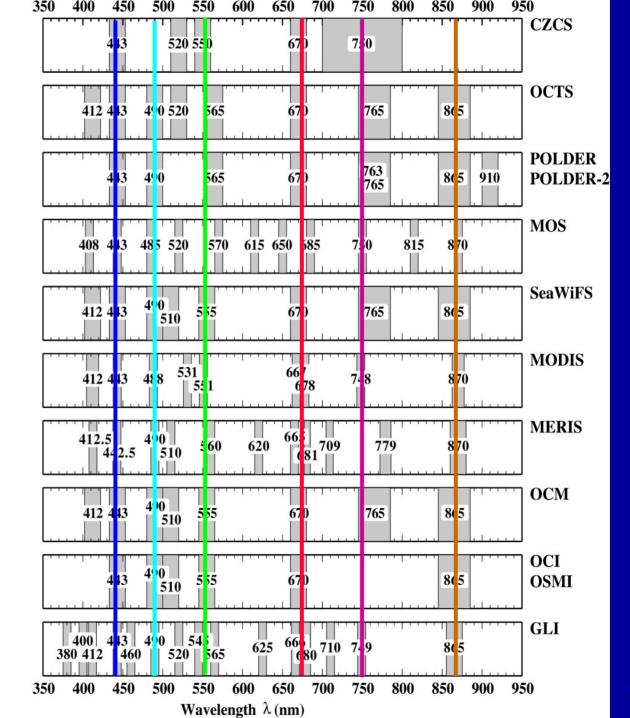
670 nm

750 nm

870 nm



GC





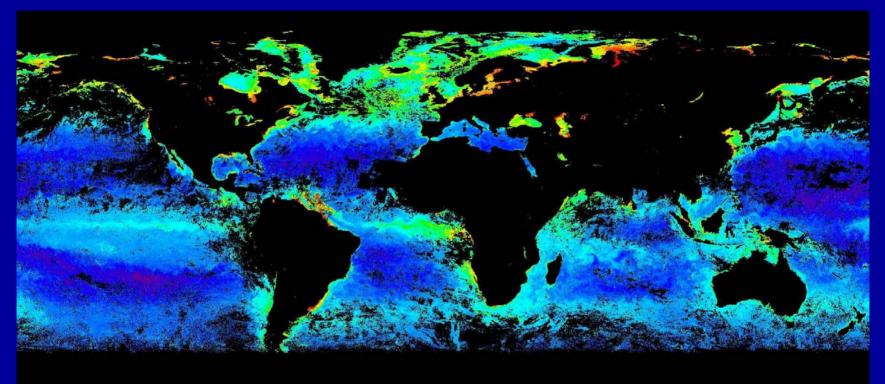
Applications of Ocean Colour

Measurement of Chlorophyll

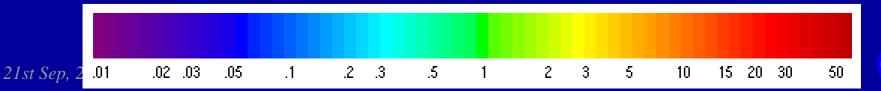
- Global distribution of chlorophyll
- Estimates of primary production
- Detection of plankton blooms
- Measure optical diffuse attenuation coefficient
- Measurement of suspended sediment
- Measurement of dissolved organic material
- As a tracer of dynamical processes
- Monitoring pollution
- Water depth



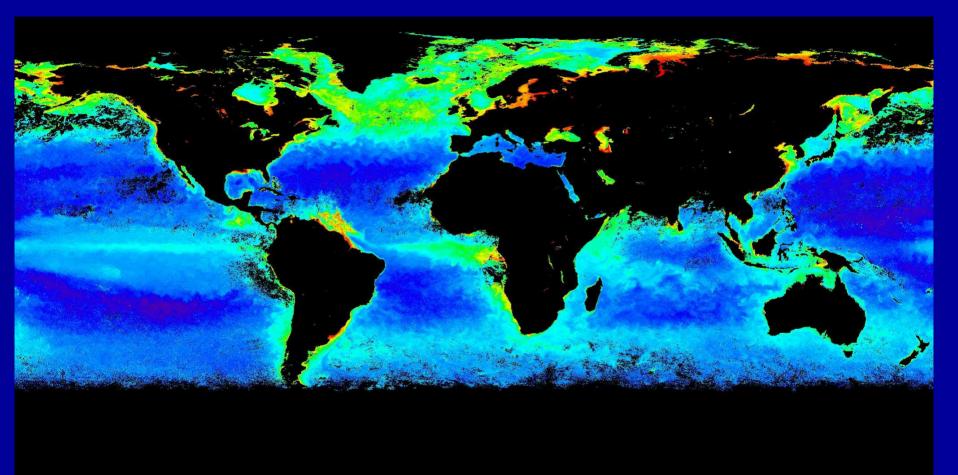
Global 8-day composite of Chlorophyll-*a* distribution from SeaWiFS



12 July - 19 July 2001. Scale below in mg / m³ Chl-a



Global monthly composite of Chlorophyll-*a* distribution from SeaWiFS



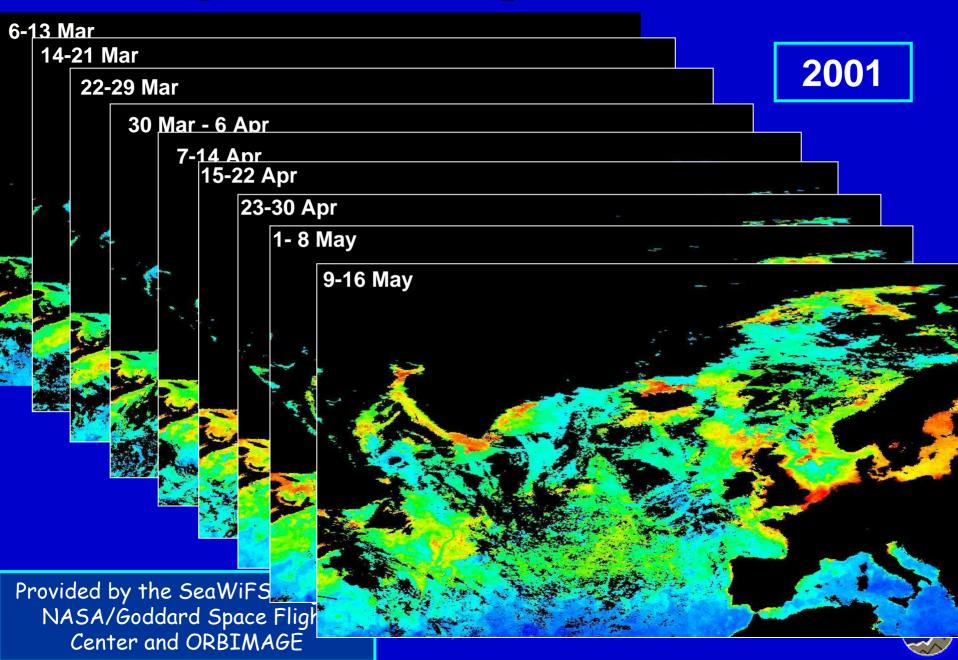
July 2001

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Tracking bloom development with SeaWiFS



Coccolithophore bloom in the Celtic Sea







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Coccolithophore blooms

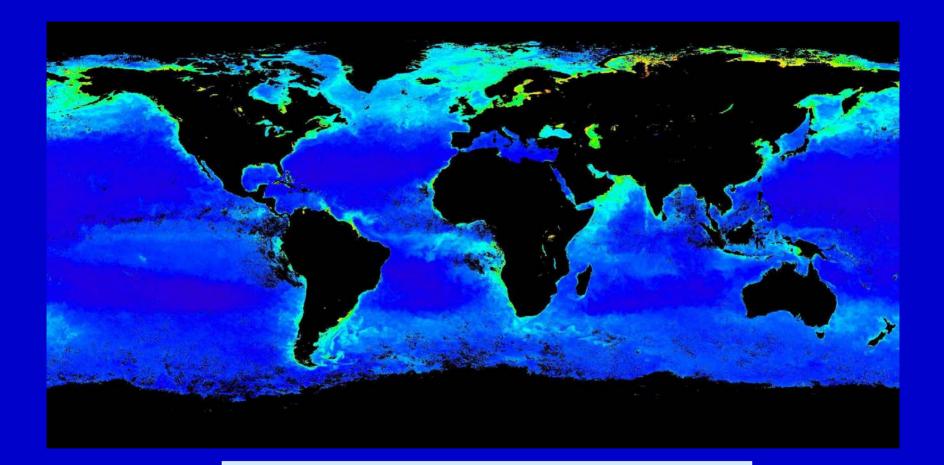


Dr Toby Tyrrell http://www.soes.soton.ac.uk/staff/tt/eh/satbloompics.html

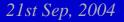
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Global map of K₄₉₀ (diffuse attenuation coeff)

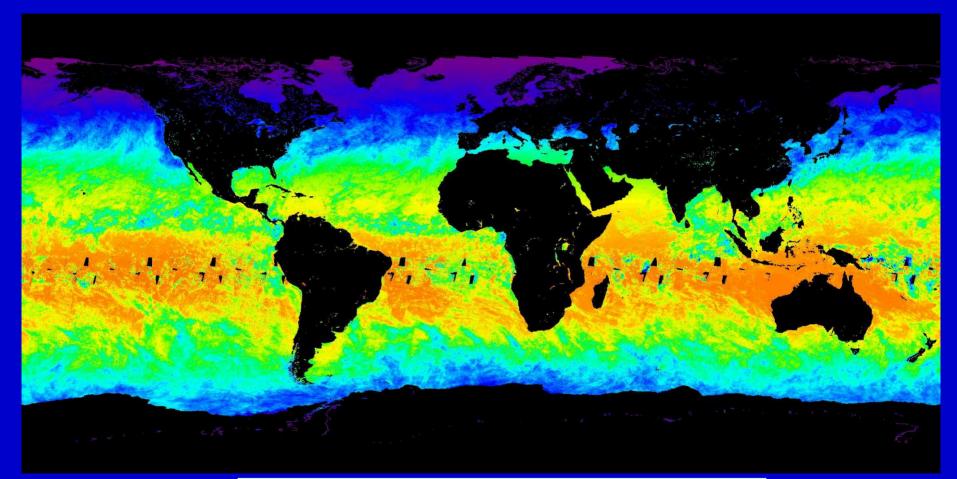


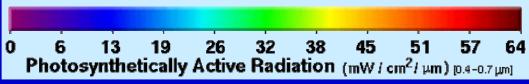
o.o1 o.o19 o.o36 o.o69 o.132 o.250 o.462 o.919 1.754 3.346 6.363 Diffuse attenuation coefficient at 490 nm (K490) (m⁻¹)





PAR derived from SeaWiFS







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A conclusion on ocean colour

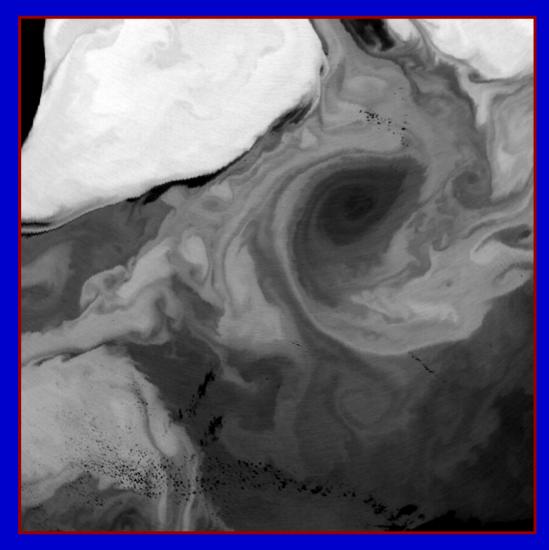
- Development lags behind other remote sensing methods
- Inherently difficult to retrieve ocean variables accurately and confidently
- But the rich information content has considerable potential = a scientific and technical challenge
- Just beginning to use ocean colour products in ocean models
- A challenging subject for future generations of young researchers !



Measuring sea surface temperature by radiometers on satellites



A mesoscale eddy in the South Atlantic



Apparent sea surface temperature in the South Atlantic from an infra-red sensor

Cooler Warmer

The image size is 500 x 500 km.

The data set consists of 1/4 million precise measurements of temperature .



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