Assessment of seasonal and year-to-year surface salinity signals retrieved from SMOS and Aquarius missions in the Bay of Bengal

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Abstract :

The Bay of Bengal (BoB) exhibits a wide range of sea surface salinity (SSS), with very fresh water induced by heavy monsoonal precipitation and river run-offs to the north, and saltier water to the south. This is a particularly challenging region for the application of satellite-derived SSS measurements because of the potential pollution of the SSS signal by radio frequency interference (RFI) and land-induced contamination in this semi-enclosed basin. The present study validates recent level-3 monthly gridded ($1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$) SSS products from Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) and Aquarius missions to an exhaustive *in situ* SSS product for the BoB. Current SMOS SSS retrievals do not perform better than existing climatologies. This is in stark contrast to Aquarius, which outperforms SMOS and available SSS climatologies everywhere in the BoB. While SMOS only captures the SSS seasonal evolution in the northern part of the Bay, Aquarius accurately captures the seasonal signal in the entire basin. The Aquarius product is also able to capture SSS non-seasonal anomalies, with an approximate correlation (*r*) of 0.75 with box-averaged *in situ* data in the northern, central, and western parts of the Bay. Aquarius can, thus, be confidently used to monitor large-scale year-to-year SSS variations in the BoB.

45 **1. Introduction**

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47 The Bay of Bengal (BoB) stands out as a very peculiar region for salinity distribution 48 in the tropical belt. The strong summer monsoon oceanic rainfall and continental runoffs into 49 this relatively small and semi-enclosed basin result in an intense dilution of the seawater in 50 northern part of the Bay, therefore inducing some of the lowest sea surface salinity (SSS) in 51 the tropical belt (Figure 1). The resulting very strong near-surface salinity vertical 52 stratification is believed to play a key role in the regional climate (Shenoi et al. 2002, Neetu et 53 al. 2012). Indeed, the enhancement of near-surface ocean stability by salinity stratification 54 reduces turbulent entrainment of cooler thermocline water into the mixed layer and 55 consequently maintains high sea surface temperatures in the BoB (Shenoi et al. 2002). The 56 stronger BoB salinity stratification after the monsoon may also favour intense cyclones during 57 that season, by inhibiting oceanic vertical mixing and surface cooling along the cyclone track, 58 and hence leading to enhanced evaporation that can sustain the cyclone (Neetu et al. 2012 and 59 references therein). Last but not least, salinity could also act as a marker of changes in the 60 water cycle associated with anthropogenic forcing (e.g. Terray et al. 2012).

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62 Because of the potentially important role of salinity in the climate dynamics of this 63 region, several studies already investigated the seasonal BoB SSS variations by building 64 salinity climatologies derived from available hydrographic data (e.g. Rao and Sivakumar. 65 2003, Chatterjee et al. 2012, Zweng et al. 2013), These climatologies reveal a strong 66 freshening in the northeastern part of the Bay during summer in response to the freshwater 67 input associated with monsoonal rainfall and Ganges-Brahmaputra river discharge (Figure 1*a*). This freshwater pool further strengthens and expands southward along the eastern and 68 69 western boundaries of the Bay in fall (Figure 1*b*). It then weakens during winter (Figure 1*c*) and retreats back to the northeasternmost part of the Bay during spring (Figure 1*d*). While these climatologies are not able to capture the fine spatial scale of this coastal freshening (Chaitanya *et al.* 2014a), the coverage of in situ data used in these products is sufficient to capture the main large-scale SSS seasonal features in the Bay (Chatterjee *et al.* 2012). The monitoring of the year-to-year SSS variability is however generally far more challenging due to the insufficient spatio-temporal sampling by the in situ network (Vinayachandran and Nanjundiah 2009, Chaitanya *et al.* 2014b).

77 The advent of satellite salinity measurements provides a unique opportunity to 78 improve the monitoring of SSS variations in this climatically relevant region. The Soil 79 Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) European mission (Mecklenburg et al. 2008) launched 80 in November 2009 and the Argentina/US Aquarius mission (Lagerloef et al. 2008) from June 81 2011 to June 2015 both provide global SSS estimates. These new spaceborne SSS 82 measurements have been routinely validated, with global root-mean-square errors around 0.2 83 practical salinity scale (pss) for monthly Aquarius SSS fields around 150 km × 150 km global 84 grid (Lagerloef et al. 2013) and for 10-days SMOS averages around 100 km × 100 km grid in 85 the tropical regions (Boutin et al. 2012). Recent research has demonstrated the value of these 86 satellite missions in capturing open-ocean signals related to large-scale climate modes such as 87 La Niña signature in the tropical Pacific (Hasson et al. 2014), the Indian Ocean Dipole 88 signature in the eastern part of the equatorial Indian Ocean (Durand et al. 2013) or planetary 89 waves signature in the Southern Indian Ocean (Menezes et al. 2014). The assimilation of 90 Aquarius SSS also improves the simulation of the equatorial Wyrkti jets in the Indian Ocean 91 (Chakraborty et al. 2014).

Whether these satellite data can accurately capture SSS variations in relatively small
basins surrounded by continental masses however remains unclear. Near-coastal
environments are indeed particularly challenging for the application of satellite-derived SSS

95 measurements because radio frequency interferences (RFI) linked to artificial sources (e.g. 96 radars that emit in the frequency band of the instruments) and land-induced contamination on 97 antenna side lobes (Reul *et al.* 2012, Subrahmanyam *et al.* 2013) can obscure climatically 98 relevant signals. A recent study (Gierach *et al.* 2013) however demonstrated the ability of 99 both Aquarius and SMOS to monitor SSS variations in the Gulf of Mexico, offering promises 100 for monitoring SSS evolution in a near-coastal environment.

101 The BoB, approximately 1000-2000 km wide semi-enclosed basin similar to the Gulf 102 of Mexico, is also very challenging for SSS satellite retrievals. A thorough validation of the 103 SSS remotely-sensed products is therefore a pre-requisite before using these data to describe 104 and understand the SSS evolution in this region. Preliminary analyses reported major issues in 105 the satellites ability to retrieve SSS there. Subrahmanyam et al. (2013) and Ratheesh et al. 106 (2013) indeed reported an erratic behaviour of an earlier version of the level-3 SMOS dataset 107 used in the current study for that region for the year 2010, with weak and insignificant spatial 108 correlations, and attributed this behaviour to RFI and land contamination. Similarly, analyses 109 performed by Ratheesh et al. (2014) for level-3 Aquarius dataset over the entire Indian Ocean 110 region from August 2011 to December 2012 reported a 0.5 pss overestimation and a poor 111 agreement with observations for SSS values lower than 32 pss, which are typical of the 112 northern part of the BoB.

While the above analyses revealed a poor accuracy of the preliminary satellite retrievals of the Bay of Bengal SSS, recent evolutions such as an improved roughness correction for Aquarius (Yueh *et al.* 2014) and an improved handling of RFI contamination for SMOS (Reul *et al.* 2014) are now available for the most recent SSS products derived from the satellites microwave measurements. In addition, both missions have now accumulated about three years of data, allowing a qualitative assessment of the ability of each satellite to capture the seasonal and year-to-year SSS evolution in this region. The goal of the present

120 study is therefore to provide an in-depth, up-to-date assessment of the ability of both satellites 121 to monitor the seasonal and year-to-year SSS variations in the BoB. This will be done by 122 splitting the basin into various sub-regions and by comparing remotely-sensed SSS to a 123 comprehensive dataset compiling all in situ observations available during the recent period 124 (Chaitanya et al. 2014b). This paper will focus on the validation of the most recent versions 125 (at the time of writing) of monthly level-3 products for both missions. Due to the larger 126 number of measurements used to compute the SSS pixel-average, these monthly resolution 127 products are indeed expected to exhibit a better accuracy compared to products derived at a 128 higher temporal resolution from the same data and methods (Hernandez et al. 2014).

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This section describes the two satellite SSS products (Sections 2.1 and 2.2), the in situ dataset (Sections 2.3) used in the present study and discusses the co-location method used to compare in situ and remotely sensed data (Section 2.4).

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135 2.1 SMOS level-3 data

2. Datasets and methods

136 SMOS is a polar orbiting satellite with a passive microwave sensor operating within 137 the L-Band (at 1.404-1.423 GHz), operated as part of European Space Agency (ESA)'s 138 Living Planet Programme (McMullan et al. 2008, Mecklenburg et al. 2012). SMOS was 139 launched on 2 November 2009, making it the first satellite to provide continuous multi-140 angular L-band radiometric measurements over the globe. It is based on 69 individual 141 radiometers that are used to retrieve the SSS field through polarimetric interferometry (see 142 Kerr et al. 2010, Reul et al. 2012, 2013, and references therein for further details on the 143 measurement technique). Due to the interferometry principle and the antenna shape, the field 144 of view is 1200 km wide and a global coverage is achieved every three days.

145 Instantaneous SSS retrievals under the satellite swath, corresponding to ESA level-2 146 SSS products, have a spatial resolution of 43 km but a rather low accuracy of 0.6 to 1.7 pss 147 (Reul et al. 2012, Boutin et al. 2012). After averaging these measurements over one month, 148 100 km, and after removing large-scale biases, the level-2 version 5 processor provided by 149 CATDS/LOCEAN expertise center (available at www.catds.fr) achieve an accuracy of 0.2-0.3 150 pss in subtropical regions free of RFIs (Hernandez et al. 2014, Hasson et al. 2014). 151 Unfortunately, the procedure of outliers and RFI sorting used in this dataset flags almost all 152 the SMOS measurements in the BoB as bad data. Hence, in this study, we use the $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ 153 gridded monthly SSS composites from the V02 version of the SMOS level-3 research product 154 generated by the CATDS/Ifremer expertise center (also available at www.catds.fr). With 155 respect to the ESA level 2 processing, it includes an improved RFI mitigation and a 5°×5° 156 adjustment to the World Ocean Atlas SSS climatology of Antonov et al. (2010) to remove 157 residual temporal drifts and land contamination in SMOS brightness temperature level 1 158 products (Reul et al. 2014). This SSS bias mitigation and the improved RFI handling enhance 159 the data quality close to the coast compared to other level-3 products (Zhang et al. 2013).

Data of the first four months of 2010 were not reprocessed because of reduced data quality during that period. This product therefore covers the May 2010-December 2013 period. As shown on Figure 2*a*, this product has few missing values throughout the central and southern Bay. The percentage of valid data however drops considerably in the northeastern part of the basin near the Ganges-Brahmaputra river mouth, with any SSS retrieval north of 20°N. This drop largely results from brightness temperature data flagged as outliers (not shown).

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171 2.2 Aquarius level 3 data

172 Aquarius is NASA's Earth orbiting mission launched on 10 June 2011. The Aquarius 173 instrument measures the brightness temperature of the sea surface within the L-band (1.400-174 1.427 GHz) with three separate radiometers and the surface roughness with an active 175 scatterometer operating at 1.2 GHz. These data, in combination with concurrent SST, and 176 other auxiliary data, are used to estimate SSS. The resolution of individual SSS measurements 177 is 100-150 km and a global coverage of the ocean is obtained after about 7 days. After four 178 years of successful data collection this mission ended on 7 June 2015 due to an unrecoverable 179 hardware failure.

180 This study uses the CAPv3 Aquarius level-3 1°×1° monthly composites. This product 181 combines the measurements from the three radiometers and the scatterometer using the 182 Combined Active-Passive Algorithm applied to version 3.0 of the Aquarius/SAC-D data 183 (available updated in July 2014 at ftp://podaac-184 ftp.jpl.nasa.gov/allData/aquarius/L3/mapped/CAPv3). This algorithm computes SSS by 185 minimizing the least squares error between measurements and model functions of brightness 186 temperatures and radar backscatter. It also includes a rain-corrected salinity based on 187 collocated SSMI/S and WindSAT data. This rain correction algorithm has been established 188 assuming that the freshwater inputs are homogeneously spread over the first 5 m and hence, in 189 case of rain-induced surface fresh cells, it is expected to overestimate the SSS (Tang et al. 190 2014).

This product covers the August 2011 - June 2014 period. Like SMOS (Figure 2*a*), Aquarius exhibits few missing data south of 15°N (Figure 2*b*). However, Aquarius offers a better spatial coverage in the northernmost part of the basin as compared to SMOS, because there is no far-reaching RFI issue for Aquarius whose antenna lobes are much narrower than for SMOS, due to the interferometry technique used for the SMOS instrument.

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198 2.3 North Indian Ocean Atlas climatology

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200 The recent North Indian Ocean Atlas (NIOA) SSS climatology issued by Chatterjee et 201 al. (2012) and shown in Figure 1 is used to qualitatively validate the SSS seasonal cycle from 202 the satellite data. This 1°×1° monthly climatology includes all the data from the World Ocean 203 Database 2009 (WOD09) (Locarnini et al. 2010, Antonov et al. 2010), complemented with 204 Conductivity-Temperature-Depth (CTD) stations from Indian oceanographic cruises. The 205 inclusion of the Indian oceanographic cruises database in NIOA considerably improves the 206 data coverage in the periphery of the BoB compared with WOD09, especially along its 207 western boundary (Chatterjee et al. 2012). Year-to-year SSS anomalies from both satellite 208 datasets and in situ products detailed below are calculated by subtracting this NIOA 209 climatology from their raw values.

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211 **2.4. Blended in situ dataset**

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213 **2.4.1 Data sources**

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215 Comparisons with a recent in situ dataset directly derived from the one presented in 216 Chaitanya et al. (2014b) will allow a quantitative validation of the satellites retrieval. This 217 dataset compiles all the available in situ SSS measurements over the BoB from December 218 2008 to June 2014. It gathers six different salinity data sources: Array for Real-Time 219 Geostrophic Oceanography (Argo) profilers (Roemmich et al. 2009), ship-of-opportunity 220 eXpendable Conductivity-Temperature-Depth (XCTD) profiles and bucket measurements 221 (Chaitanya et al. 2014a), Research Moored Array for African-Asian-Australian Monsoon 222 Analysis and Prediction (RAMA) moorings (McPhaden et al. 2009), Ocean Moored buoy 223 Network for Northern Indian Ocean (OMNI) moorings (Venkatesan et. al. 2013), ship-of-224 opportunity thermosalinograph transects (Alory et al., 2015) and dedicated hydrographic 225 cruises. Argo profiles are the main contributor to this SSS product. Considering the 226 uppermost valid measurements within the 5 m to 15 m layer, typically located at around 8 m 227 depth, there are more than 10000 valid salinity measurements over the 2009-2014 period. 228 This in situ dataset also includes 1200 valid measurements at about 1 m depth from bucket 229 samples and at about 5 m depth from XCTD salinity measurements collected on an 230 approximately bimonthly basis along two repeated merchant ship tracks between Chennai 231 (label 'C' in Figure 2*c*,*d*) and Port Blair (label 'PB'), and between Kolkata (label 'K') and 232 Port Blair. In addition, our dataset comprises point-wise salinity measurements at 1 m depth over the 2009-2014 period from three RAMA moorings (90°E-8°N; 90°E-12°N and 90°E-233 234 15°N; circles on Figure 2c,d) and at 5 m depth from six OMNI moorings (86°E-11°N, 85°E-235 8° N, 83° E-14°N, 88° E-16°N, 94° E-10°N, 89° E-18°N; triangles on Figure 2*c*,*d*). Finally, this 236 dataset also includes salinity measurements representative of the 0-10 m upper ocean layer 237 derived from a thermosalinograph on-board a merchant ship (M/S Lavender) crossing the 238 southern Bay every 3-4 months during the October 2008 to October 2012 period (dotted line 239 in Figure 2c,d and a few 0-10 m depth measurements from shipborne CTD casts in the 240 coastal western Bay provided by the National Institute of Oceanography Data Centre (India).

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242 **2.4.2.** Colocation method

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In a similar way to Chaitanya *et al.* (2014b), these six data sources were merged into a single dataset by computing the median of all available individual measurements (irrespective of their nature: autonomous profiler, mooring, underway ship measurements), at the spatial and temporal resolution of the satellite products $(1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ} \times 1 \text{ month})$. The gridding is performed on both the SMOS and AQUARIUS native $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ grids which are offset by 0.5° both in latitude and in longitude, resulting in two versions of our gridded product. The main difference with the original in situ product presented in Chaitanya *et al.* (2014b) is the temporal resolution: while Chaitanya *et al.* (2014b) used a product with a 3 months temporal resolution, the present study uses a monthly resolution to allow a validation of the both satellites level-3 monthly products.

Figure 2*c*,*d* illustrates the data density of the in situ data, collocated with each of the remotely-sensed SSS products. The in situ validation data density is rather heterogeneous, with a reasonably good sampling over most of the central part of the Bay but sparser data in near-coastal regions. This analysis also reveals that the Andaman Sea (east of 93°E and south of 15° N) is practically devoid of in situ observations, preventing an assessment of the remotely sensed SSS products there.

260 In the following, a detailed description of the SSS variability in the BoB will be 261 inferred by dividing the domain into four coherent sub-regions outlined on Figure 2e,f. The 262 first sub-region covers the northern part of the basin (NBoB, 86°E-94°E; 16°N-23°N) where 263 the largest SSS fluctuations are found, due to both the proximity of the Ganges-Brahmaputra 264 river mouths and monsoonal precipitation (Rao and Sivakumar 2003, Akhil et al. 2014). The second sub-region is located in the western part of the Bay (WBoB, 80°E-84°E; 6°N-16°N) 265 266 and encompasses the coastal region through which the NBoB freshening is transported 267 southward during winter as a fresh tongue hugging the eastern Indian coastline (Chaitanya et 268 al. 2014a, Akhil et al. 2014). A third sub-region is located in the central BoB (CBoB, 84°E-269 94°E; 6°N-16°N), where the SSS variability is known to be weaker. Finally, a fourth sub-270 domain is considered in the Andaman Sea (94°E-99°E; 6°N-18°N), where the variability 271 derived from satellite products is about as strong as in the northern part of the basin (Figure 272 2e,f but cannot be validated due to the lack of in situ observations (Figure 2c,d). We will

compare the remotely-sensed SSS to in situ data on their $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ monthly native grids, but also from averages over the boxes above. This spatial averaging has the advantage of smoothing out representation error of the in situ data, potential noise in the satellite retrievals, and to focus the comparison with in situ data on large-scale features.

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278 **2.4.3 Estimation of the accuracy of the in situ gridded SSS product**

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280 As our SSS gridded products will serve as references for the SMOS and Aquarius 281 validation, this subsection provides a discussion of the accuracy of this new observational 282 dataset. Subrahmanyam et al. (2013) reported that the instrumental error of ARGO is lower 283 than 0.01 pss. This is also the typical instrumental accuracy of bucket measurements, RAMA 284 moorings and thermosalinograph transects. This instrumental error is completely negligible 285 compared with the representation error (i.e. the error on the $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ} \times 1$ month average SSS 286 estimate due to an incomplete sampling of this spatio-temporal domain, Delcroix et al., 2005) 287 and will not be further discussed.

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289 Argo, CTD and thermosalinograph salinity measurements used in our in situ reference 290 datasets are not collected right at the surface, but are rather representative of the 5-10 m depth 291 layer. Owing to the strong haline stratification, especially in the northern Bay of Bengal, there 292 may be an error on the surface salinity estimate resulting from this deeper measurement 293 depth. This error can be estimated from the data provided by the three RAMA moorings at 294 90°E15°N, 90°E12°N and 90°E8°N. These moorings indeed provide simultaneous daily 295 salinity measurements at 1 m and 10 m depth for one to two years, depending on the site. The 296 scatterplot between those 1 m and 10 m depth salinity measurements on Figure 3 highlights 297 the very good coherency between the variability inferred from these two depths, with a 298 correlation exceeding 0.97 at the three moorings location. As expected, the salinity at 10 m (a

299 typical sampling depth for the nearest measurement to the surface for Argo profiles) is on average saltier by 0.06 pss than the 1 m salinity at the northernmost mooring. This mean 300 301 difference is negligible at the two moorings further south, where the stratification is not as 302 strong as in the northern BoB. The larger mean bias (0.06 pss) and slightly weaker correlation 303 (0.97) between 1 m and 10 m measurements at the northernmost mooring results in a larger 304 root mean square error (RMSE) there (0.19 pss) as compared to the other moorings further 305 south (around 0.07 pss). A 0.2 pss RMSE is about ten times smaller than the SSS variations in 306 our in situ blended product (STD of 2.14 pss). We will also see in Section 3 that this error is 307 four times weaker than the typical RMSE of the SMOS or Aquarius products. This suggests 308 that the varying depth of salinity data collection will not heavily affect our assessment of the 309 satellite SSS products.

310 SSS in the BoB varies a lot both spatially (filaments generated by the stirring from 311 meso-scale eddies, localized rain...) and temporally, with large SSS changes over short periods and/or short space scales (Benshila et al., 2014, and references therein). Most $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ 312 313 \times 1 month reduced SSS estimates from our blended product only use 1 to 10 individual 314 observations, with a median of 2 (not shown). The median of such a small number of point-315 wise observations may not be representative of the actual monthly mean SSS in the $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ 316 pixel. Figure 4 provides an estimate of this representation error. We took advantage of the 317 relatively large number of daily observations at RAMA moorings (about 30 per month), in 318 order to estimate the impact of the number of available observations on the accuracy of the 319 estimate of the monthly $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ SSS average. The underlying hypothesis is that the 30 dailysample average of RAMA is representative of the $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ} \times 1$ month pixel. We perform a 320 321 random subsampling of N daily 1 m salinity measurements from RAMA moorings each 322 month, with N ranging from 1 to 15. We repeat this random subsampling 1000 times: figure 4

shows the RMSE and correlation of the subsampled estimate against the actual monthly value,as a function of the number of available observations *N*.

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326 For the three moorings, the correlation exceeds 0.95 and RMSE is lower than 0.1 pss 327 if more than 10 observations are available. As expected, this correlation decreases and the 328 RMSE increases as the number of available observations decreases. The median value of the 329 number of observations in each $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ} \times 1$ month cell in our reference in situ dataset is 2. 330 This results in a correlation of about 0.92 and RMSE about 0.18 pss for the moorings located 331 in the central and southern part of the basin, and 0.84 / 0.3 pss for the northernmost mooring. 332 We can therefore consider a root mean square representation error of 0.3 pss for our-in situ 333 dataset. As a result, the assessment of SMOS and AQUARIUS datasets will only be possible 334 up to this level of accuracy. This 0.3 pss value is however still far lower than the SSS 335 variations in our gridded in situ and we will see that it is less than half of the estimated RMSE 336 of individual pixels from satellite products. As mentioned earlier, we will also compare our in 337 situ dataset with satellite data over larger boxes to further reduce the impact of this 338 representation error.

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3. General evaluation of the remotely-sensed SSS products

341 Figure 5 can be inserted here

Figure 5*a,b* provides a synthetic view of the consistency between the $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ monthly remotely-sensed SSS estimates and the in situ reference product. These panels illustrate that the phase agreement with in situ dataset is generally better for Aquarius (0.82 correlation) as compared to SMOS dataset (0.69 correlation). In addition, Aquarius does not exhibit any significant basin-scale SSS bias (0.01 pss), while SMOS generally underestimates the SSS in the BoB (-0.22 pss). The SMOS and Aquarius estimated RMSE (approximately 0.9 pss) largely exceeds the uncertainties derived for the in situ product (0.1-0.2 pss attributable to the 349 different sampling depth and 0.2-0.3 pss for the spatio-temporal representation error). Rather 350 surprisingly, Aquarius however exhibits the same RMSE as SMOS (around 0.88 pss). Those 351 statistics are however computed over different subset of the whole in situ dataset, due to the 352 different periods, grids and missing data areas of the two satellite products. We thus re-353 computed the above statistics for the same sample (i.e. common pixels for the SMOS, 354 Aquarius and reference in situ product; numbers in brackets on Figure 5a, b) to allow a fair 355 comparison between the two satellite products. This reveals that Aquarius outperforms SMOS 356 retrieval for all considered statistics. The Aquarius RMSE, in particular, is 0.68 pss and 357 smaller than SMOS (0.89 pss) when considering the sample common to the three products. 358 This sensitivity of Aquarius RMSE to the collocation method (0.68 pss for the common 359 sample and 0.88 pss for the in situ – Aquarius collocated data) arises from the extended 360 Aquarius coverage that allows retrieving SSS in the northern part of Bay, which is not the 361 case for the SMOS product (Figure 2a,b). The northern Bay of Bengal displays an intense 362 fine-scale and high-frequency SSS variability due to stirring of intense SSS gradients by 363 meso-scale eddies (Benshila et al., 2014, and references therein). The relatively large RMSE 364 of Aquarius in the Northern BoB is thus likely related to the Aquarius / in situ validation 365 dataset inability to properly capture small-scale variability in this region (illustrated by the 366 larger scatter between Aquarius and in situ data for low SSS values, Figure 5b). A closer look 367 at Figure 5a,b also reveals that the satellites performance strongly varies depending on the 368 SSS value. While Aquarius does not show any significant bias for SSS ranging from 34 to 31 369 pss, SMOS is generally fresher than the reference product for SSS higher than 33 pss and 370 saltier for SSS lower than 33 pss. The scatter of both satellites around the reference value is 371 also particularly large for the NBoB box (blue dots on Figure 5a,b) compared to the other 372 regions.

373 Aside from an inaccurate SSS retrieval, small spatial scale and high frequency SSS 374 features sampled by in situ observations but not by the satellite products may account for 375 some of the inconsistencies between in situ and satellite measurements, as discussed in 376 previous section. Comparing spatial averages of these three datasets over the large boxes 377 presented in Section 2.4 allows to smooth out a large part of small scale SSS variations in the 378 in situ datasets and noise in the satellite data retrieval and therefore to assess the impact of 379 small spatial scale and high frequency features on our SSS validation. The results are 380 presented on Figure 5c,d. Both SMOS and Aquarius correlations increase by about 0.1 when 381 considering box-averaged values rather than pixel-wise. The RMSE reduction is however 382 larger for Aquarius (from 0.88 pss to 0.49 pss) than for SMOS (from 0.88 pss to 0.63 pss). 383 This larger error reduction in Aquarius suggests that part of the mismatch between Aquarius 384 and in situ data is attributable to small-scale spatial noise smoothed out when averaging over 385 a large box (typically 1000 km wide) while a larger part of the SMOS retrieval error has probably a broader spatial scale, and hence cannot be reduced by spatial averaging. 386

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388 Figure 6 further provides a synthetic assessment of the ability of both satellites to 389 retrieve the SSS in the NBoB, WBoB and CBoB sub-regions. It features the bias, correlation 390 and RMSE between box-averaged satellite and in situ values. As far as the mean state is 391 concerned, SMOS retrievals exhibit a systematic fresh bias everywhere in the Bay (Figure 392 6a), ranging from -0.19 pss in WBoB to -0.35 pss in NBoB. This result is opposite to Reul et 393 al. (2012) and Ratheesh et al. (2013) who both reported a salty bias of SMOS retrievals over 394 the Bay over the year 2010. In contrast, Aquarius exhibits a bias weaker than 0.1 pss in CBoB 395 and WBoB and a fresh bias of -0.26 pss in NBoB (Figure 6a). The phase agreement is also 396 considerably better for Aquarius than for SMOS in all sub-regions: Aquarius correlations 397 range from 0.79 in WBoB to 0.94 in NBoB while SMOS correlations are considerably weaker, ranging from 0.24 in WBoB to 0.69 in NBoB (Figure 6*b*). Aquarius also outperforms
SMOS in all BoB sub-regions when considering the RMSE statistics (Figure 6*c*).

The above analyses show that Aquarius outperforms SMOS for all statistics and all sub-regions of the BoB. SMOS appears to be particularly poor in retrieving the SSS variability in the central and western part of the BoB (correlations inferior to 0.4) while Aquarius performs satisfactorily over the entire BoB (correlations of order or larger than 0.8). The SSS variability in each sub-region can arise either from seasonal variations or from departures from the climatological seasonal cycle. The next two sections provide a validation of both satellites at these two timescales.

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4. Evaluation of SSS seasonal evolution

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Figure 7 displays the NIOA quarterly climatology, along with the corresponding climatology derived from SMOS and Aquarius. Of course, the three products are not expected to be strictly comparable, because SMOS and Aquarius measurements cover a much shorter period than those gathered in the NIOA. This figure hence only provides a qualitative assessment of the remotely-sensed SSS spatial distribution. A more quantitative validation of the seasonal SSS evolution of satellite data against in situ measurements will be presented in Figure 8.

As already mentioned in the introduction, there is a strong contrast between fresh waters to the northeast and saltier waters in the southwestern part during the monsoon (Figure 7*a*). Highest SSS values (>34 pss) are found near the southern tip of Sri Lanka while freshest waters (< 31 pss) hug the vicinity of the Ganges-Brahmaputra estuary. Following the summer monsoon withdrawal (Figure 7*b*), these northernmost waters further freshen below 30 pss and expand along both western and eastern boundaries. Finally, the eastern and western freshwater tongues gradually erode during winter and spring (Figure 7*c*,*d*). SMOS and 424 Aquarius data qualitatively capture this basin-scale seasonal evolution (Figure 7*e* to 7*l*). 425 However, some differences between satellite and in situ climatologies can be already noticed: 426 SMOS SSS are fresher than NIOA in the WBoB in summer (Figure 7*a*,*e*) and Aquarius SSS 427 are fresher than NIOA in the NBoB in fall (Figure 7*b*,*j*). Large differences can also be found 428 for both satellites in the Andaman Sea but the quality of NIOA climatology there is likely to 429 be strongly hampered by the lack of in situ observations in this region.

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431 Figure 8 further provides a quantitative assessment of the SSS seasonal cycle from the 432 satellites retrieval in the three sub-regions considered (NBoB, CBoB and WBoB) by 433 comparing them to their collocated in situ dataset. First of all, the seasonal evolution of SSS 434 in the three selected boxes from the collocated in situ datasets (black lines on Figure 8) agrees 435 reasonably well with the one derived from the NIOA box average (blue lines on Figure 8), 436 with correlation larger than 0.8. This suggests that the in situ dataset captures the main features of the climatological seasonal cycle depicted by the NIOA dataset despite the limited 437 438 number of years (around three) and the rather heterogeneous spatial coverage of this in situ 439 dataset (Figure 2c,d),

440 In the northern part of the Bay, a 1.5 pss freshening is observed between July and 441 October (black line on Figure 8a,b) in response to the huge fresh water flux from monsoonal 442 rainfall and Ganges-Brahmaputra river discharge. This freshening is followed by a gradual 443 saltening from November onward. The observed freshening is larger for the in situ dataset 444 collocated with Aquarius (Figure 8b) than for the one of SMOS (Figure 8a) due to the 445 extended Aquarius data coverage in the northeasternmost part of the Bay (Figure 2a,b) where 446 the lowest salinities are found. Both satellite retrievals are able to capture this strong seasonal 447 freshening reasonably well but overestimate the freshening signal during the post-monsoon 448 season (red and black lines on Figure 8*a*,*b*). The phase agreement of Aquarius with the in situ dataset is however better than the one derived from SMOS, with correlations of 0.95 and 0.81respectively.

451 The WBoB SSS also displays a seasonal freshening similar to that of NBoB but 452 occurring with a two month delay (Figure 8c.d), corresponding to the time it takes for the 453 fresh waters in the Northern Bay to be advected southward by the East India Coastal Current 454 along the western boundary (Chaitanya et al. 2014a, Benshila et al. 2014, Akhil et al. 2014). 455 The observed freshening in WBoB is also larger for the in situ dataset collocated with 456 Aquarius (Figure 8d) than for the one of SMOS (Figure 8c). While Aquarius reproduces the 457 seasonal timing of this coastal freshening very accurately (0.9 correlation), SMOS displays a 458 too early seasonal freshening starting in June, with several spurious peaks, resulting in a poor 459 phasing with in situ observations (0.27 correlation).

Finally, the SSS seasonal cycle in CBoB exhibits a semi-annual signal with two salinity minima occurring during fall and spring (Figure 8*e*,*f*). As for WBoB, Aquarius captures very accurately these seasonal variations (0.92 correlation; Figure 8*f*) while SMOS displays an erratic behaviour and is unable to retrieve this seasonal evolution (0.25 correlation; Figure 8*e*).

This validation shows that Aquarius reproduces the observed SSS seasonal cycle well in both near-coastal and open-ocean regions. In contrast, SMOS is unable to capture the seasonal variability south of 16°N, neither in the coastal region along the west coast of India nor in the central part of the Bay.

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5. Evaluation of SSS year-to-year variations

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472 As existing in situ climatologies such as NIOA already provide a reasonable 473 description of SSS seasonal variations, a considerable added value of satellite products is their 474 potential to describe SSS departures from the mean seasonal cycle. In order to qualitatively 475 assess the satellites skill in capturing non-seasonal SSS anomalies, Figure 9 displays a 476 scatterplot of each satellite SSS estimates deviations from the NIOA climatology against 477 those from the in situ reference product. A good agreement between satellite estimates and in 478 situ data seasonal anomalies would result in a cloud of points aligned along the x = y axis 479 while a strong underestimation of the non-seasonal variability of the satellite SSS estimates 480 would result in a cloud of points aligned along the y = 0 axis. Figure 9a and 9c reveal that 481 SMOS retrieval considerably underestimates the observed non-seasonal variations and 482 exhibits a poor phase agreement with in situ observations for both pixel-wise and box-483 averaged comparisons (0.36 and 0.29 correlation, respectively). In contrast with SMOS, 484 Aquarius reasonably captures the amplitude and phase of the observed SSS seasonal 485 anomalies (0.57 and 0.73 correlation for pixel-wise and box-averaged comparison 486 respectively, Figure 9b,d) and may therefore provide additional valuable information with 487 respect to the information already contained in the existing climatologies.

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489 A more detailed analysis on the ability of the satellites retrieval to capture the temporal 490 evolution in the three boxes where in situ data are available (NBoB, WBoB, CBoB) is further 491 provided on Figure 10. The largest departures from the seasonal climatology occur in the 492 NBoB box, with in situ anomalies ranging between -1.5 and 1.5 pss (Figure 10a,d). The in 493 situ dataset indicates a freshening anomaly following the 2011 monsoon that lasts until spring 494 2012, followed by a salty anomaly in the 2012 post-monsoon and 2013 monsoon. Aquarius 495 displays a reasonably good phase agreement with the in situ anomalies in this region (0.75 496 correlation; Figure 10d). In particular, it captures the timing of the anomalous freshening from 497 late 2011 to mid-2012 accurately, although its amplitude is twice larger than in observations 498 in late 2011. Aquarius also captures the anomalous saltening observed during the 2013 499 monsoon. In contrast, SMOS exhibits a poor phase agreement with in situ anomalies there 500 (0.33 correlation; Figure 10*a*), being unable to capture neither the early 2012 anomalous
501 freshening nor the mid-2013 saltening.

502 The WBoB SSS also displays large departures from its climatology, ranging from -1 503 to 1 pss. For instance, the freshening along the east Indian coastline following the monsoon is 504 stronger than normal in 2010 and weaker than normal in 2011 and 2012 (Figure 10b,e). Once 505 again, SMOS behaves poorly in this region (0.31 correlation; Figure 10b): it does not 506 reproduce well the fresh event in late 2011 and salty events in late 2012 and 2013, only 507 performing well in late 2013. In contrast, Aquarius SSS estimates display a good phase 508 agreement with the in situ dataset over most of the period (0.74 correlation): it is able to 509 capture the abrupt change from salty to fresh anomalies in late 2011, freshening over 2013 510 and salty anomalies in early 2014. It however misses completely the strong saltening signal 511 evident in the in situ dataset in late 2012.

In CBoB, the departures from the seasonal cycle are weaker than in the NBoB and WBoB boxes, with anomalies that do not exceed 0.5 pss. The in situ SSS displays fresher than normal conditions in early 2012 and most of 2013 and saltier than normal conditions in late 2012. As for the two other boxes, Aquarius accurately captures these departures from the seasonal cycle (0.77 correlation) while SMOS completely fails (0.02 correlation).

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As discussed in the previous section, strong departures from the seasonal climatology occur in late 2011 and early 2012 in each of the sub-regions: an anomalous freshening in NBoB from fall 2011 to summer 2012, an anomalous saltening in fall 2011 in WBoB, and an anomalous freshening in spring 2012 followed by a saltening signal in summer 2012 in CBoB. The performance of the two satellites in reproducing the spatial patterns related to these seasonal departures from the climatology is illustrated on Figure 11. The in situ product indeed indicates that the northeastern BoB is fresher than normal in fall 2011, while salty

525 anomalies are observed to the south of 16°N and to the west of 88°E (Figure 11a). The 526 freshening in NBoB expands southward along the east coast of India in winter 2012 (Figure 527 11b) and in the central part of the Bay around $(15^{\circ}N; 90^{\circ}E)$ in spring 2012 (Figure 11c). 528 These anomalies in CBoB reverse sign in summer 2012 (Figure 11d), with two cores of salty 529 anomaly observed around (16°N; 86°E) and (10°N; 88°E). Aquarius is able to capture the 530 broad spatial structure of the anomalies depicted by the in situ dataset (Figure 11e,h). In 531 contrast, although SMOS captures the NBoB freshening in fall 2011 and winter 2012 (Figure 532 11*i*,*j*), it is unable to capture either the saltening along the eastern coast of India in fall 2011, 533 or the amplitude and spatial extend of the freshening in the CBoB in spring 2012 (Figure 534 11k), or the salty anomalies in summer 2012 (Figure 11l). This example thus illustrates the 535 ability of Aquarius to retrieve regional features in the salinity field within the BoB and the 536 caveats related to SMOS retrieval.

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538 6. Summary and discussion

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540 **6.1. Summary**

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542 The BoB exhibits strong meridional and vertical salinity gradients, with very fresh 543 surface waters to the North. The monitoring of SSS variability there is not straightforward due 544 to insufficient in situ data coverage. This monitoring may benefit from the recent availability 545 of SSS remotely-sensed data. The retrieval of satellite-derived SSS measurements is however 546 very challenging in this region, because the semi-enclosed nature of the BoB may potentially 547 contaminate the SSS signals through radio frequency interferences and land effects. The goal 548 of this study is therefore to perform a validation of the SMOS CEC-IFREMER V02 level-3 $1^{\circ}\times1^{\circ}$ and Aquarius CAP-V03 level-3 $1^{\circ}\times1^{\circ}$ gridded monthly salinity retrievals against a 549 550 comprehensive gridded in situ SSS product in the BoB to infer whether these satellite datasets

551 can confidently be used to describe SSS variations in this climatically important region. We first estimate that our in situ dataset is reasonably representative of $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ monthly SSS 552 553 estimates. The instrumental error is negligible (approximately 0.01 pss). The fact that most in 554 situ data are representative of the 5 - 10 m depth layer induces a salty bias of up to 0.06 pss 555 and a RMSE of up to 0.2 pss on the surface salinity estimate. The main source of error is the 556 representation error, i.e. the fact that monthly $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ SSS estimates are evaluated from a 557 median number of 2 observations per cell, resulting in an estimated RMSE of about 0.3 pss. 558 Collectively, those errors (approximately 0.32 pss RMSE if considered independent) are 559 smaller than the variability in the Bay of Bengal and smaller than the estimated RMSE on 560 individual monthly pixels (around 0.7 pss to 0.9 pss) from both satellites.

561 Our results reveal large differences in the ability of the SMOS and Aquarius satellite 562 products to retrieve SSS variability. The spatial coverage of the SMOS product is poorer 563 compared to Aquarius, especially in the Northern portion of the BoB. SMOS exhibits a 564 systematic fresh bias everywhere in the Bay of Bengal (-0.19/-0.35 pss depending on the 565 region). In contrast, the mean SSS field retrieved from Aquarius is accurate, except in the 566 northern part of the Bay where it exhibits a -0.26 pss fresh bias. The seasonal variability 567 depicted by Aquarius retrievals is also accurate in the northern, central and western part of the 568 basin with correlations to the reference in situ dataset exceeding 0.9. In contrast, SMOS 569 retrievals fail to represent the SSS seasonal cycle in the western and central part of the basin. 570 Aquarius retrievals are also able to capture departures from the mean seasonal cycle, with a 571 correlation around 0.75 with large-scale year-to-year SSS variations from the in situ dataset in 572 all regions. Aquarius for instance successfully captures the main spatio-temporal features of 573 the anomalous freshening event that occurred in the northern and central part of the BoB in 574 late 2011 and early 2012. In contrast, SMOS estimate generally fails to capture the timing and 575 spatial patterns of SSS departures from the seasonal cycle.

577 Figure 12 provides a compelling summary of the added value provided by the two 578 satellite retrievals compared to the existing climatologies. The SMOS retrieval indeed 579 displays a poorer phase agreement with the in situ dataset than the NIOA climatology over the 580 WBoB and SBoB and a similar agreement over the NBoB (Figure 12a). In contrast, the 581 situation is far more promising for Aquarius, which exhibits higher correlations with in situ 582 observations than SMOS and NIOA over all the sub-regions (Figure 12b). This indicates that 583 the current version of Aquarius retrievals provide additional information with respect to the 584 existing SSS climatologies in the BoB, while the version of SMOS SSS assessed here does 585 not.

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587 **6.2. Discussion**

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589 Preliminary assessments of one-year data from earlier versions of both level-3 SMOS 590 (Subrahmanyam et al. 2013, Ratheesh et al. 2013) and Aquarius datasets (Ratheesh et al. 591 2014) over the BoB reported major issues in the satellites ability to retrieve SSS there. In this 592 paper, we provide in-depth validations of a more recent version of these level-3 products over 593 a longer period (around 3 years). Our results indicate that the CAP-V03 level-3 1°×1° gridded 594 monthly Aquarius SSS retrieval performs considerably better than earlier versions, especially 595 for low SSS values in the northern part of the Bay. This better performance could be related to 596 an improved roughness correction in this Aquarius product (Yueh et al. 2014). In contrast, the 597 CEC-IFREMER V02 level-3 1°×1° SMOS retrieval tested here exhibits significant caveats at 598 both seasonal and non-seasonal timescales. This may be partly related to the relaxation to the 599 climatology used in this version of SMOS. Hernandez et al. (2014) actually found better 600 performances for the ESA Level 2 retrieval than for this version in the northern subtropical Atlantic. As already stated, we however cannot use the ESA level 2 processing because itflags out almost all measurements in the BoB.

603 Subrahmanyam et al. (2013) and Durand et al. (2013) reported errors of the order of 604 0.2 pss for SMOS level-3 data in the southern equatorial Indian Ocean. This indicates that the 605 bad performance of SMOS reported in this paper is specific to the BoB. There can be several 606 reasons behind the contrasted ability of SMOS and Aquarius to capture SSS in the BoB. First, 607 the interferometric nature of SMOS instrument makes its measurements much more sensitive 608 to RFIs than a classical radiometer like Aquarius. Second, SMOS is affected by systematic 609 biases extending to about 1000 km from continents which is until now imperfectly taken into 610 account. Further work is needed to infer if the performance of the SMOS product in the BoB 611 can be improved by updating its algorithm retrieval or of if its performance will anyway be 612 strongly limited by the design of the instruments for this specific region.

613 Another concern of the present study may be related to fine spatio-temporal scales in 614 the SSS field, which have been spotted in the past in the BoB (e.g. Shetye et al. 1996, 615 Hareesh Kumar et al. 2013, Chaitanya et al. 2014a). This strong spatio-temporal variability 616 raises the question of the representativeness of a couple of individual in situ measurements, 617 against the retrieved SSS from satellite, representative of a larger spatial scale (typically 618 $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ} \times 1$ month). The instrumental error is very small (0.01 pss). We did estimate sampling 619 error by taking advantage of the intensive measurements performed at RAMA moorings. The 620 error associated with vertical sampling is generally less than 0.2 pss. The representation error of our in situ reference dataset for monthly $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ estimates is generally less than 0.3 pss. If 621 622 those errors are assumed to be independent, the overall RMSE of our in situ dataset is 623 approximately 0.36 pss. This is far from negligible, but generally smaller than the satellite 624 biases discussed in the present study. In addition, the validation of time series average over 625 larger boxes in typical regions of variability (NBOB, WBoB, CBoB) acts to further reduce

626 this representation issue. The smallest of the 3 boxes (WBoB) indeed contains up to 40 individual $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ} \times 1$ month estimates. Even if our reference in situ product provides SSS 627 628 estimates for only one half of the grid cells (20 measurements), this results in a box-average 629 RMSE inferior to 0.1 pss (when assuming independent errors). While the error statistics of 630 individual satellite data on the $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ} \times 1$ month grid should be taken cautiously (i.e. the RMSE 631 is probably enhanced by the representation error), we thus believe that the error statistics for 632 the entire NBoB, WBoB and CBoB boxes provide a more reasonable evaluation of the actual 633 performance of those satellite products. Another caveat is of course the length of the time 634 series (around 3 years). A more in-depth assessment of the capability of the satellites to 635 estimate the seasonal cycle in the BoB will probably be needed a couple of years down the 636 line, but we believe that the current analysis still clearly points out that, while the current 637 Aquarius large-scale SSS retrieval can be used within the BoB, there is still work to be done 638 to improve existing SMOS retrievals.

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640 **6.3. Perspectives**

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642 One key-advantage of spaceborne SSS products is their ability to sample regions that 643 are completely devoid of in situ observations. One such region is the Andaman Sea. This 644 region exhibits a large SSS variability in the spaceborne measurements (Figure 2e,f) and 645 model simulations (Akhil et al. 2014). Like the northern part of the Bay, the Andaman Sea is 646 characterized by intense monsoonal rains (Hoyos and Webster 2007) and continental runoff 647 (Furuichi et al. 2009). Although no in situ SSS observations are available in this region for the 648 recent period, satellites reveal vigorous signals there (Figure 13). Both SMOS and Aquarius 649 indicate a strong seasonal freshening of about 2 pss during the monsoon and post-monsoon 650 seasons, followed by a subsequent saltening in winter-spring. The magnitude of these SSS 651 changes is comparable to those observed in the northern or western part of the BoB (Figure 652 8). The Andaman Sea post-monsoon freshening depicted by the two satellites is larger than 653 the one suggested by the NIOA climatology. Due to the very limited availability of salinity 654 data in the Andaman sea (Antonov et al. 2010, Chatterjee et al. 2012), and relatively good 655 performance of Aquarius in other regions, one is tempted to believe that it is the NIOA 656 climatology that is erroneous here, and that Aquarius brings us an improved knowledge of the 657 seasonal cycle of SSS in the Andaman Sea. Beyond this seasonal picture, both SMOS and 658 Aquarius data suggest a larger seasonal fresh anomaly during and after the 2012 monsoon 659 than during other years. It would be interesting to assess the quality of the spaceborne SSS 660 products in the Andaman Sea, in order to judge if they can be used for monitoring SSS and 661 understand mechanisms of SSS variability there.

662 It would also be very interesting to better understand the mechanisms driving the 663 interannual SSS variability in the BoB. Using a similar in situ SSS dataset to the one used in 664 this study combined with satellite estimates of rainfall and Ganges-Brahmaputra river runoffs, 665 Chaitanya et al. (2014b) already suggested that interannual SSS variability in the northeastern 666 part of the Bay over the 2009-2012 period was primarily driven by freshwater flux variability, 667 and in particular river runoffs. Given the ability of Aquarius to capture the interannual SSS 668 variations in the BoB to a reasonable extent, it is very tempting to perform a similar salt 669 budget to the one of Chaitanya et al. (2014b) but using the more spatially complete Aquarius 670 SSS retrieval. Interannual river runoffs data derived from satellite measurements are however 671 only currently available until the end of 2012 (i.e. only 15 months of common data with 672 remotely-sensed SSS) (Papa et al. 2012), so far precluding a meaningful investigation of the 673 interannual mixed-layer salt budget in the BoB. Once interannual runoffs data from the main 674 BoB rivers (i.e. Ganges-Brahmaputra and Irrawaddy) become available for the recent years, a 675 promising follow-up of this work would therefore be to use the Aquarius SSS dataset to assess the main processes that control the interannual SSS variations in the various regions ofthe BoB.

678 The present study is dedicated to SMOS and Aquarius salinity assessment. Beyond 679 these two pioneering missions, some evolutions in the field of ocean salinity remote sensing 680 are expected shortly. The next generation of spaceborne sensors usable for SSS monitoring, 681 beginning with Soil Moisture Active and Passive (SMAP) satellite (sucessfully launched in 682 January 2015, see smap.jpl.nasa.gov), promises significant progresses in our ability to retrieve 683 valuable spaceborne estimates of SSS field in the global ocean. We believe our study, focused 684 on one of the most challenging areas of the world ocean, paves the way for the future of 685 spaceborne salinity science there.

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Figure 1. Climatological Sea Surface Salinity (SSS) in the Bay of Bengal (BoB) from the
North Indian Ocean Atlas (NIOA, Chatterjee et al., 2012) for (*a*) June-July-August (JJA), (*b*)
September-October-November (SON), (*c*) December-January-February (DJF), and (*d*)
March-April-May (MAM).

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859 Figure 2. Percentage of valid monthly SSS retrievals in the Bay of Bengal for (a) SMOS and 860 (b) Aquarius. Total number of in situ observations profiles per $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ box and per year (No. 861 Obs) collocated with (c) SMOS and (d) Aquarius. Circles on panels c and d indicate RAMA 862 mooring locations, while triangles indicate OMNI moorings. The two continuous lines on 863 panels c,d indicate merchant ships tracks between Port Blair (PB) and Chennai (C) / Kolkata 864 (K), along which approximately 1200 XCTD and bucket measurements were collected. The 865 dotted line indicates the merchant ship track along which thermosalinograph measurements 866 are performed. (e) SMOS and (f) Aquarius SSS standard deviation. The standard deviation on 867 panels e, f is only shown for pixels with more than 11 months of data. The red boxes on 868 panels (e) and (f) indicate the limits of the NBoB (86°E-94°E; 16°N-23°N), WBoB (80°E-869 84°E; 6°N-16°N), CBoB (84°E-94°E; 6°N-16°N) and Andaman Sea (94°E-99°E; 6°N-18°N), 870 for future reference.

871

Figure 3. Scatterplots of 1 m depth versus 10 m depth daily salinity measurements for the
three Bay of Bengal RAMA moorings at (a) 90°E8°N, (b) 90°E12°N and (c) 90°E15°N.

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Figure 4. (*a*) Mean correlation coefficient and (*b*) Root Mean Square Error between monthly average 1m depth salinity at the three BoB RAMA moorings and subsampled estimates of the monthly average using from 1 to 15 observations. The statistics were computed from 1000 random subsampling of the monthly data. This plot provides an estimate of the representation error arising from subsampling in our validation in situ SSS dataset.

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Figure 5. Scatter plot of (*a*) SMOS and (*b*) Aquarius monthly $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ SSS retrievals against collocated estimates from the gridded in situ dataset. The statistics are computed from May 2010 to December 2013 for SMOS and from August 2011 to June 2014 for Aquarius. The corresponding correlation coefficient (*r*), root-mean square error (RMSE) and bias are 885 provided on the lower right of each panel. Values in brackets were estimated using only 886 collocated SMOS, Aquarius and in situ data (i.e. the same spatio-temporal sampling is used 887 for both datasets, and the statistics for the two satellites are hence strictly comparable). (c) and 888 (d) are similar to (a) and (b), but for averaged monthly SSS values over the boxes displayed 889 on Figure 2e, f. Blue dots indicate collocated data located in NBOB, green in WBOB and red 890 in CBOB, while black triangles indicate collocated data outside these boxes. The black line 891 indicates median value of each 1pss in situ SSS bin while vertical bars indicate the upper and 892 lower quartiles of the distribution.

893

Figure 6. (a) Systematic bias, (b) correlation coefficient and (c) RMSE of box averaged
satellite SSS retrievals (SMOS in Bright shade and Aquarius in Light shade) against boxaveraged gridded in situ SSS dataset over each sub-region of the Bay of Bengal.

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Figure 7. (Upper panels) Climatological Sea Surface Salinity (SSS, pss) in the Bay of
Bengal (BoB) for (*a*) June-July-August (JJA), (*b*) September-October-November (SON), (*c*)
December-January-February (DJF), and (*d*) March-April-May (MAM) from NIOA
climatology. (Middle panels) Same for SMOS climatological seasonal cycle computed over
May 2010 - December 2013 period. (Bottom panels) Same for Aquarius climatological
seasonal cycle computed over August 2011- June 2014 period.

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Figure 8. Time series of the SSS climatological seasonal cycle in (*a*) NBoB, (*c*) WBoB and (*e*) CBoB (outlined on Figure $2e_{f}$) from the gridded in situ product (black line), collocated SMOS retrieval (red line), and box-averaged NIOA climatology (blue line). (*b*,*d*,*f*) Same as (*a*,*c*,*e*) but for Aquarius retrieval. The correlation coefficient (*r*) value between in situ and satellite estimates is given on each panel.

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Figure 9. As in Figure 5 but for SSS anomalies with respect to the mean climatologicalseasonal cycle from the NIOA climatology.

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Figure 10. Time series of box-averaged monthly SSS interannual anomalies over the (a)NBoB, (b) WBoB and (c) CBoB from the gridded in situ product (black line) and SMOS retrieval (red line). (d,e,f) Same as (a,b,c) but for Aquarius (red line). The grey shading indicates seasons for which the maps of Figure 11 are plotted.

- Figure 11. Mean SSS interannual anomalies for (first column) September to November
 2011, (second column) December 2011 to February 2012, (third column) March to May
 2012, (fourth column) and June to August 2012 from (first row) the gridded in situ dataset,
 (second row) Aquarius and (third row) SMOS.
 Figure 12. (a) Correlation coefficient of SMOS SSS retrieval (coloured bars) and NIOA
 climatology (coloured frames) against the gridded in situ SSS dataset over each sub-region of
 the Bay of Bengal. (b) Same as (a) but for Aquarius.
- **Figure 13.** (*a*) Box-averaged monthly time series of SSS from SMOS (red) and NIOA climatology (blue) for the Andaman Sea box (framed on Figure $2e_3f$). (*b*) Same as (*a*) but for Aquarius (green).









940 Figure 2













Figure 5





950 Figure 7



952 Figure 8



Figure 9



956 Figure 10



958 Figure 11









Figure 13