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Effect of Long Waves on Ku-Band Ocean Radar Backscatter at Low Incidence Angles Using TRMM and Altimeter Data

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5 Abstract-This letter uses a large ocean satellite data set to 6 document relationships between Ku-band radar backscatter (σ_0) 7 of the sea surface, near-surface wind speed (U), and ocean wave 8 height (SWH). The observations come from satellite crossovers 9 of the Tropical Rainfall Mapping Mission (TRMM) precipita-10 tion radar (PR) and two satellite altimeters, namely: 1) Ja-11 son-1 and 2) Environmental Satellite. At these nodes, we obtain 12 TRMM clear-air normalized radar cross-section data along with 13 coincident altimeter-derived significant wave height. Wind speed 14 estimates come from the European Centre for Medium-Range 15 Weather Forecast. TRMM PR is the first satellite to measure low 16 incidence Ku-band ocean backscatter at a continuum of incidence 17 angles from 0° to 18° . This letter utilizes these global ocean 18 data to assess hypotheses developed in past theoretical and field 19 studies-namely that variations in ocean sea state are measur-20 ably and systematically related to Ku-band σ_0 , that the impact 21 changes with incidence angle, and that it will affect the retrieval of 22 wind speed from σ_0 . Results have bearing on near-nadir ocean 23 radar missions such as Surface Waves Investigation and Moni-24 toring from Satellite, Advanced Scatterometer, TRMM, and the 25 wide-swath altimeter.

AQ1 26 Index Terms—Author, please supply your own keywords or send 27 a blank e-mail to keywords@ieee.org to receive a list of suggested 28 keywords.

I. INTRODUCTION

30 **S** ATELLITE radars are used to infer the wind speed 31 **S** just above the sea surface through their measurement of 32 backscattered signal power, which is a signal that changes with 33 the amount and steepness of ocean waves. This normalized 34 radar backscatter cross-section (σ_0) term also depends on the 35 frequency, polarization, and incidence angle (θ) of the incident 36 radiation. Two now-standard satellite systems for ocean wind 37 estimation are the altimeter and the scatterometer. The former 38 views the sea from a downlooking ($\theta = 0^\circ$) incidence angle, 39 whereas the latter uses side-looking angles from 20° to 60°. It is 40 widely held that centimeter-scale ocean gravity-capillary waves 41 and their growth or decay with wind forcing are the dominant 42 controls of σ_0 variation for both sensors, but the ocean reflec-43 tion is distinctly different for these two systems that is con-44 sistent with the optical expectation; increased wave roughness

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Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/LGRS.2007.896329

decreases altimeter σ_0 but increases it for the scatterometer. 45 This is because the incidence angle leads to differing scattering 46 processes: dominant quasi-specular scattering for the former 47 and Bragg resonance diffraction for the latter. Regardless of 48 such differences, the linkage between σ_0 and wind forcing is 49 used for both sensors to empirically derive wind speed inversion 50 algorithms that are well validated and widely used. However, 51 long-wavelength tilting of short-scale waves is a known effect 52 inducing fundamental perturbations in the precise relationship 53 between local wind forcing and local radar backscatter varia- 54 tions. What is central for this letter is the acknowledgement 55 that long-wave tilting of these short-scale waves is an additional 56 second-order but fundamental perturbation that can impinge on 57 any assumed direct relation between local wind forcing and 58 radar backscatter variation, particularly at near-nadir incidence 59 angles. A substantial fraction of the longer tilting gravity wave 60 field is due to swell and wind seas generated by distant or 61 turning winds, which are uncoupled and misaligned with the 62 local wind. 63

Previous investigations have used bulk wave statistical para- 64 meters such as significant wave height (SWH) to demonstrate 65 long-wave variability impacts upon σ_0 [15], [22], [23], [29] and 66 more widely on retrieved winds [12], [13], [21], [27], [28]. Such 67 observations have clearly shown long-wave effects on altimeter 68 backscatter and have led to the development of an operational 69 wind speed model for the satellite altimeter that utilizes both 70 σ_0 and SWH [7], [13], where fortuitously both measurements 71 are made from the same platform. SWH is not retrievable using 72 scatterometry. 73

While altimeter ocean backscatter has been successfully 74 modeled with quasi-specular scattering theory, off-nadir radar 75 backscatter represents a mixture of specular and tilted Bragg 76 resonance diffraction processes as the incidence angle extends 77 away from 0° out toward 10°–15°. The transition between the 78 two scattering regimes depends upon the instrument wave-79 length and the wind speed and has been proposed to occur 80 near an incidence angle of 10°. A notable observation is that 81 close to this angle a lower sensitivity between σ_0 and wind 82 speed is found [14], [19], [25]. This particular feature has been 83 exploited over the ocean to calibrate airborne and spaceborne 84 precipitation or cloud radars—the objective being to minimize 85 uncertainty due to surface wind variations.

The low, or near-nadir, incidence angle range of $1^{\circ} \le \theta \le 87$ 18°, is currently covered by the precipitation radar (PR) on 88 the Tropical Rainfall Mapping Mission (TRMM) [17], [18]. 89 Though designed specifically for the measurement of precip-90 itation profiles in the atmosphere over both land and ocean, 91

Manuscript received January 5, 2007; revised March 9, 2007.

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92 the PR system also acquires sea surface σ_0 under rain-free 93 conditions. Using wind speed estimates from the TRMM Mi-94 crowave Imager (TMI), a fully empirical model function was 95 built to relate cross section to wind speed for incidence angles 96 from 0° to 18° [11]. This is the first and only satellite system 97 to provide such angle-resolved scattering near nadir, and the 98 objective here is to further examine these data to help bridge 99 what is known regarding the effects of waves on the altimeter 100 and scatterometer. In this letter, we take the advantage of a 101 large collocated database, which is compiled using PR and both 102 Jason-1 and Environmental Satellite (ENVISAT) altimeters, 103 to extend the description of PR σ_0 in terms of wind speed, 104 significant wave height, and incidence angle through a tabulated 105 model function $\sigma_0(\theta, U, \text{SWH})$. This provides a compact and 106 statistically accurate representation permitting the study of the 107 expected wave tilting impacts on the sea surface scattering at 108 these low incidence angles.

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II. DATA SETS

110 A. TRMM PR Cross Section

The TRMM satellite was launched in November 1997 car-111 112 rying five instruments including the PR. Since the focus of 113 TRMM is to measure rainfall in the tropics, a low inclination 114 non-sun-synchronous orbit was selected to confine the satellite 115 ground track between 35°S and 35°N. The PR is a Ku-band 116 pulsed radar operating at 13.8 GHz and horizontal polarization. 117 σ_0 measurements are collected through the atmospheric column 118 and from the surface. The PR antenna is an electronically 119 scanned phased array that scans a plane normal to the flight 120 direction (cross-track) through the nadir with measurements at 121 49 beam positions (e.g., the angle bins 1, 25, and 49 correspond 122 to the incidence angles $+18^\circ$, 0.1° , and -18° , respectively) over 123 a 215-km ground swath. The scan duration is equal to 0.6 s with 124 a surface pixel provided every 4.3 km both along and cross-125 track [16], [17] for the original orbit height.

The TRMM orbit was raised from 350 to 403 km in Au-126 127 gust 2001 to increase the duration of the mission. The spatial 128 resolution of the PR is thus degraded slightly, increasing to 129 5.0 km by 5.0 km. Our data analysis covers the one-year 130 period of 2003. The high quality of the PR surface ocean σ_0 131 data for this period was confirmed in two recent studies [11], 132 [31]. The data product used herein is TRMM PR standard 133 product 2A21 (ver. 5) from the Goddard Distributed Active 134 Archive Center. These data include normalized radar cross-135 section measurements, associated quality flags, and a rain/no-136 rain flag for each incidence angle bin or pixel [18]. Data over 137 land, with any data quality issue, or with rain over the ocean 138 target are all excluded from the composite data set. Further data 139 processing and satellite-to-satellite crossover selection details 140 follow [31] except that for this letter the search was performed 141 over all incidence angles in the PR ground tracks. As shown 142 in the previous study, the density of crossovers increases with 143 latitude due to the combined altimeter-PR orbit characteristics.

144 B. Wind Speed and Significant Wave Height Data

We use surface wind speed estimates (U) from the surface 146 model analysis provided by the European Centre for MediumRange Weather Forecast (ECMWF) as a common reference to 147 quantify PR σ_0 wind dependence. SWH data for the study come 148 from the Jason-1 and ENVISAT altimeters. These satellites 149 also provide an estimate of wind speed using altimeter σ_0 150 measurements, but ECMWF model winds are used for the 151 model functions developed here explicitly because we do not 152 wish to introduce the known sea state impacts that lie within 153 altimeter wind speed data into the present PR results. The 154 potential negative impact of using the model wind products is 155 that these data are extracted and interpolated from six hourly 156 1° grid data set and that model winds will always disagree 157 with in situ measurements to a certain degree. Thus, the model 158 functions to be developed will be slightly impacted, particularly 159 at lightest wind speed, by this interpolation but previous studies 160 (e.g., [13]) have shown that the systematic nature of wave 161 height impacts should still be quite apparent and similar when 162 using the ECMWF model winds and it is this impact that is 163 the main focus of this letter. While one could go another step 164 to gather TRMM/scatterometer/altimeter triplet crossovers to 165 replace ECMWF winds with those from scatterometry, this 166 step dramatically reduces the data set size without dramatically 167 increasing the quality of the result as the agreement between 168 the ECMWF and scatterometer product is high. 169

Time/space interpolated ECMWF wind speed and standard 170 altimeter SWH estimates are both available in the Geophysical 171 Data Records (GDR) for these two altimeters. The Jason-1 172 altimetric mission was launched in December 2001 and placed 173 in the same ground track as its predecessor TOPEX/Poseidon. 174 It carries the Poseidon-2 altimeter that was derived from the 175 experimental Poseidon-1 instrument aboard TOPEX/Poseidon. 176 The satellite flies a nonsun-synchronous orbit at an altitude 177 of 1336 km with an inclination of 66°. Detailed description 178 of the mission and the Poseidon-2 instrument are provided, 179 respectively, in [20] and [5]. The ENVISAT altimeter (called 180 Radar Altimeter 2) was launched on March 2002 and is derived 181 from the European Remote Sensing satellite (ERS)-1 and ERS-182 2 altimeters [2]. The satellite orbit is sun-synchronous at an 183 altitude of 800 km with an inclination of 98.55° allowing 184 measurement closer to the poles than Jason-1. More details can 185 be found in the ENVISAT product handbook [3]. Parameters 186 from both Jason-1 and ENVISAT GDRs over the one-year 187 period of 2003 are used for this letter. Erroneous altimeter 188 estimates are discarded using conventional data quality flag- 189 ging [3], [24]. Further data filtering follows from the Cal/Val 190 quality assessment that is routinely performed at the Collecte 191 Localisation Satellites [8]. We use only rain-free data. Since 192 the Jason-1 rain flag, which is currently available at the time of 193 this analysis, uses a TOPEX-derived algorithm that was not yet 194 fine-tuned on Jason-1 measurements, a Jason-1 rain flag was 195 calculated using a more recent algorithm [30]. This algorithm 196 shows higher sensitivity to low intensity rainfall as shown using 197 TMI rain estimates [33]. 198

C. Crossover Selection

The criteria used for the collocation between PR and Jason-1 200 or ENVISAT crossovers are given as follows: time separation 201 within 1 h and spatial separation less than 100 km. The different 202 collocation sets PR/altimeter/ECMWF are limited in latitude 203 to the tropics within $\pm 35^{\circ}$ of the equator due to the TRMM 204

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Fig. 1. (a) Mean values and (b) standard deviations of binned PR σ_0 as a function of incidence angle for different wind speeds (SWH between 0.5 and 6.5 m).

205 orbit. We merge the two data sets using, respectively, Jason-1 206 and ENVISAT SWH estimates to obtain a unique data set 207 over which the geophysical model function $\sigma_0(\theta, U, \text{SWH})$ can 208 be produced. To insure homogeneity and consistency between 209 altimeter SWH estimates for the two missions, we applied small 210 [O (cm)] SWH adjustments per the most recent correction 211 model [26].

212 III. NEAR-NADIR SCATTERING MODEL

Following the standard quasi-specular backscattering ap-214 proach, near-nadir σ_0 can be written as

$$\sigma_0(\theta, U, \text{SWH}) = \frac{\rho(U)}{\text{mss}(U, \text{SWH})} \sec^4(\theta) \exp\left[-\frac{\tan^2(\theta)}{\text{mss}(U, \text{SWH})}\right] \quad (1)$$

215 where σ_0 is the normalized backscatter in natural units (not in 216 decibels), and θ is the incidence angle as previously defined. 217 ρ represents an effective nadir reflection coefficient, and mss 218 is a measure of the effective mean square slope (see [4] for 219 review). The model assumes that sea state dependence of ρ is 220 unlikely or negligible, which is verified to a large extent using 221 the dual frequency capabilities of the TOPEX altimeter [6], [9]. 222 The model also allows for the impact of sea state on the cross 223 section. It is the overall degree of sea state development, which 224 contributes to the mean squared tilting slopes. Yet, the analogy 225 with optical scattering assumption implies that the incident 226 radiation wavelength should be much shorter than all roughness 227 lengths on the surface. For microwave probing of the ocean 228 surface, this is untrue due to the presence of gravity-capillary 229 waves. In particular, at first order and with a Gaussian statistical 230 assumption, the slope variance in (1) corresponds to a filtered 231 slope distribution [35].

As obtained in Fig. 1(a) (see also [11, Fig. 5]), the Gaussian assumption of (1) is qualitatively consistent with the PR data assumption of (1) is qualitatively consistent with the PR data assumption of (1) observed biases at nadir between altimetransformation and PR data can be attributed to absolute calibration issues [31]. According to (1), analysis of a single frequency radar altimeter with both wind speed and sea state proxy cannot, with certainty, separate the dependencies related to mss variations from those related to variations of ρ . This is 240 because at nadir, (1) becomes

$$\sigma_0(\theta = 0, U, \text{SWH}) = \frac{\rho(U)}{\text{mss}(U, \text{SWH})}.$$
 (2)



Fig. 2. Incidence angle θ_1 presenting the lowest standard deviation of binned PR σ_0 at a given wind speed as function of wind speed. Overlaid is a quadratic regression fit to better display the trend.

Perhaps more interestingly, the differentiation of (1) with 241 respect to mss yields 242

$$\frac{\partial \sigma_0}{\partial \mathrm{mss}} = \frac{\mathrm{tan}^2(\theta) - \mathrm{mss}}{\mathrm{mss}^2} \sigma_0. \tag{3}$$

The form of the fractional cross-section variation $(\Delta\sigma_0/\sigma_0)$ 243 in natural units (not in decibels), due to fractional change of 244 mss, will be incidence angle dependent, i.e., 1) when $\tan^2(\theta) < 245$ mss, $\Delta\sigma_0/\sigma_0 \propto (-\Delta mss/mss)$ and the nadir viewing altimeter 246 falls in this category, and 2) at higher incidence angles, when 247 $\tan^2(\theta) > mss$, $\Delta\sigma_0/\sigma_0 \propto (+\Delta mss/mss)$ and the off-nadir 248 viewing scatterometer falls into this category. The following 249 analysis of the PR σ_0 documents this fractional change of σ_0 250 with incidence angle. 251

A. Geophysical Model Function for Ku-Band Ocean σ_0 at 253 Low Incidence Angles 254

We restrict this letter to light-to-moderate wind speed condi- 255 tions up to 11 m/s. At wind speeds above this range, complex 256 nonlinear surface wave structure and foam involved with large- 257 scale wave breaking become critical to the surface description 258 and the radar scattering from it. While these higher winds are 259 important, the extensive amount of data that fall at or below 260 11 m/s and the physics associated with these conditions are the 261 focus of this letter. Two empirical tabular model functions are 262 developed. The first model is based on the analysis of measured 263 σ_0 at each PR incidence angle within specified wind speed 264 intervals and is denoted $\sigma_0(\theta, U)$. The 25 different incidence 265 angles are given as follows: 0.1° (nadir), 0.75°, 1.55°, 2.25°, 266 3.05°, 3.75°, 4.55°, 5.25°, 6.05°, 6.75°, 7.55°, 8.25°, 9.05°, 267 9.75°, 10.55°, 11.30°, 12.05°, 12.85°, 13.55°, 14.35°, 15.05°, 268 15.85°, 16.55°, 17.35°, and 18.05°, and the bin width is about 269 0.1°. The model is formed from the sample mean σ_0 in each 1- 270 m/s wind speed and incidence angle 2-D bin. A 3σ filter is then 271 applied to eliminate outlier measurements, giving Fig. 1(a). The 272 second model function takes into account both wind speed and 273

274 significant wave height dependence at each incidence angle. It 275 is denoted as $\sigma_0(\theta, U, \text{SWH})$. The wind speed bin width is still 276 1 m/s, and the SWH bin width is set to 1 m.

277 *B*. $\sigma_0(\theta, U)$

Fig. 1(a) shows that results from nadir to 5° in incidence 278 279 angle are monotonically decreasing in σ_0 as wind speed in-280 creases. Above 10° , σ_0 becomes a monotonically increasing 281 function of wind speed. In the range $5^{\circ} \leq \theta \leq 10^{\circ}$, σ_0 first 282 increases, then decreases with increasing wind speed with a 283 low sensitivity to wind speed. The standard deviations of the 284 σ_0 measurements in each (θ, U) bin are shown in Fig. 1(b) 285 with respect to incidence angle for different wind speeds. For 286 all wind speeds, standard deviations reach a minimum value 287 at an incidence θ_1 between 4° and 10°. Higher magnitudes 288 of standard deviation are associated with light wind speeds, 289 and these magnitudes decrease with increasing wind speed. 290 Magnitudes are smaller at nadir (0.1°) than at 18° for light 291 wind speeds up to 5 m/s. Above 5 m/s, results show similar 292 values. In the range $4^{\circ} \leq \theta \leq 10^{\circ}$, σ_0 not only exhibits low 293 sensitivity to wind speed but also an overall low variability. This 294 lowered variability is related to (3). The angle θ_1 , in Fig. 2, 295 roughly identifies the condition $\tan^2(\theta) = \operatorname{mss}(U)$ for which 296 the fractional cross-section variation is minimum, and the shift 297 of θ_1 with wind speed corresponds to the anticipated increase of 298 mss. As found, there is an increase of θ_1 with increasing wind 299 speed up to 7 m/s followed by a saturation trend toward $\sim 10^\circ$ 300 for higher moderate winds.

301 C. $\sigma_0(\theta, U, SWH)$

302 The very large collocated data set compiled enables the 303 analysis of the combined incidence angle and SWH depen-304 dencies on σ_0 using the narrow 1-m/s wind speed bin. Fig. 3 305 displays a difference factor δ defined as $[\sigma_0(\theta, U, \text{SWH}) -$ 306 $\sigma_0(\theta, U)]$, in decibels, with respect to incidence angle at four 307 selected wind speeds of 2, 5, 7, and 10 m/s. For all winds, 308 behavior of δ as a function of SWH is clear. At low SWH 309 (~1 m) representing young sea, δ decreases with increasing 310 angle, whereas for higher SWH (~4 m associated mostly with 311 mixed seas including swell) δ exhibits the opposite trend. The 312 overall picture shows that at a given wind speed, all curves 313 (linear least-squares fits) associated to the different 1-m SWH 314 classes intersect at a particular value of incidence angle θ_2 that 315 shifts with respect to wind speed value.

Very similar results are obtained when reducing the crossover 317 collocation criteria. A subset is extracted for measurements 318 collocated in time to within 1/2 h and 25 km in space. Fig. 4 319 is the same as Fig. 3 but only for the case of two moderate 320 wind speeds (7 and 10 m/s) for which there is still sufficient 321 data (minimum of 100 samples per bin) to compute statistically 322 stable indicators.

323 The relative magnitude of σ_0 for extreme conditions, i.e., low 324 and high SWH (1 and 4 m, respectively), is shown in Fig. 5 as a 325 function of incidence angle for light-to-moderate wind speeds. 326 For all wind speeds, we observe a positive magnitude at low 327 incidence angles that decreases to reach a negative value at 328 higher incidence. At 2-m/s wind, the magnitude is, respectively, 329 ~0.8 dB at nadir and -1.6 dB at $\sim 18^{\circ}$. At 10 m/s, we ob-330 serve almost similar absolute magnitude of variation (~0.8 dB)



Fig. 3. Difference δ (between averaged PR σ_0 associated to a 1-m class of SWH and the averaged values estimated over all SWH) as function of incidence angles for various SWH classes at selected wind speeds: (a) 2 m/s, (b) 5 m/s, (c) 7 m/s, and (d) 10 m/s (1-m/s bin width). Overlaid are linear regression fits to better display the trends.



Fig. 4. Same as Fig. 3 but crossover data are selected with narrower selection criteria, 25 km and 30 min, for two selected wind speeds: (a) 7 m/s and (b) 10 m/s (1-m/s bin width).

between the two extreme incidence angles. These results are 331 consistent with the previous analysis at higher incidence angles 332 (20°, 30°, 40°, and 60°) in [23] using NUSCAT-SWADE data. 333 AQ2 However, in cases of moderate winds, these authors concluded 334 that the existence of large waves with high SWH will not have 335 significant impact on the radar backscatter since the observed 336 differences were within the uncertainty of the radar (± 1 dB). 337 The large amount of data available here helps to revise these 338 conclusions. For these wind conditions, the presence of large 339 waves significantly impact σ_0 from nadir to 18° except around 340 a particular incidence angle, denoted θ_2 in Fig. 6, where σ_0 is 341 insensitive to SWH at a given wind speed. As found, θ_1 and 342 θ_2 angles are almost equal and correspond to the condition 343 $\tan^2(\theta_1) = \tan^2(\theta_2) = \operatorname{mss}(U)$. Around these critical angles, 344 the backscatter cross section is insensitive to significant wave 345 height variations at a given wind speed. 346

One point of note for these TRMM PR data is that they 347 represent horizontally polarized returns. There is a recognized 348 difference in the response of horizontal and vertical polarization 349 returns from the sea surface (cf. [1]). The present results, in 350 terms of overall features, can however be easily transposed to 351 a vertically polarized result. Indeed, continuity between nadir 352 viewing returns (no polarization) and scatterometer off-nadir 353 returns in either one of the polarized states indicates that since 354



Fig. 5. Magnitude of the difference of σ_0 between low SWH (1 m) and high SWH (4 m) conditions as function of incidence angle for different wind speeds from light to moderate winds.



Fig. 6. Incidence angle θ_2 presenting a quasi-insensitivity of PR σ_0 to SWH at a given wind speed as function of wind speed. Overlaid is a quadratic regression fit to better display the trend.

355 sea state effects are observed in both polarizations when the 356 backscatter is off nadir, all near-nadir measurements will dis-357 play the same trends (in HH and VV). Previous analysis of the 358 National Aeronautics and Space Administration scatterometer 359 (NSCAT) backscatter in each polarization state shows similar 360 relative sea state impacts with respect to a global averaged 361 backscatter that was derived by mixing all sea state conditions; 362 they are slightly larger for NSCAT HH polarization measure-363 ment than on VV polarization data regardless of incidence 364 angles between 16° and 50° [32].

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V. CONCLUSION

New approaches for viewing the global ocean using satellites have become available in the last decade. This letter focuses on sea surface roughness remote sensing and what can be learned using a multiple satellite perspective with the specific goal provide new data to bridge the gap between what is known about nadir and off-nadir microwave scattering and 371 emission from the ocean. Near-surface wind speed is a first- 372 order geophysical parameter to be derived from microwave 373 ocean sensors (the scatterometer, radiometer, and altimeter), but 374 it is well known that the transfer function between their raw 375 measurements and wind speed must account for perturbation 376 due to surface wave processes that often deviate from simple 377 local wind forcing behavior. To reduce uncertainties in satellite 378 wind speed retrieval from backscatter measured at different 379 observation angles and to ensure proper assimilation of scat- 380 terometer and altimeter data into numerical weather prediction 381 models, it is increasingly apparent that a precise understanding 382 of the relationship between surface roughness through radar 383 backscatter measurement and both wind and wave conditions 384 is very important [28], [29]. Gaining quantitative insight on 385 these sea state perturbations using field studies is notoriously 386 difficult due to the inability to gather the sufficient range of 387 surface conditions and data population.

This letter makes use of a multisatellite ocean observing 389 opportunity, where a new type of ocean surface remote sensing 390 data set, i.e., the TRMM cross-track scanning radar, is com- 391 bined with coincident sea surface wave height information from 392 crossing satellite altimeters to provide all-new data illustrat- 393 ing wave impacts on radar backscatter at multiple incidence 394 angles. The resulting TRMM PR model function provides 395 results showing that long-wave tilting effects are quantitatively 396 confirmed in line with recent airborne slope measurements [34]. 397 Accordingly, near-nadir cross-section measurements at a given 398 fixed wind speed and ranging in incidence angles out to 20° are 399 measurably related to the sea state dynamics. As a surrogate for 400 the sea state's degree of development, the use of a collocated 401 SWH parameter helps to document this impact and to clearly 402 identify the off-nadir incidence angle that corresponds to the 403 lowest fractional cross-section variation-a very useful angle to 404 know in over-ocean radar calibration activities. For TRMM PR 405 incidence angles that lie closer to scatterometer viewing angles 406 (i.e., $16^{\circ}-20^{\circ}$), our results show that for light-to-moderate wind 407 conditions the presence of large waves can affect the perfor- 408 mance of surface wind retrieval algorithms, which is consis- 409 tent with previous results (e.g., [27] and [29]). As expected, 410 larger incidence angles are thus certainly to be recommended 411 for surface wind scatterometry to minimize sea state impact. 412 Combined use of both nadir and near-nadir single frequency 413 measurements can also help to infer a sea surface slope variance 414 that can potentially be related to surface wind stress [35] and 415 assimilated into numerical wave models. As obtained, this sea 416 surface slope variance will include both longer wave and shorter 417 wave slope contributions. Dual frequency nadir measurements 418 and/or use of the contemporaneous SWH measurements will 419 then help to remove the longer wave contributions to leave the 420 shorter ones [9]. At nadir and near-nadir configurations, dual 421 frequency capability will thus improve short surface wave ob- 422 servations and surface wind retrieval algorithm performances. 423

ACKNOWLEDGMENT 424

The authors would like to thank the Goddard Space Flight 425 Center Distributed Active Archive Center for the straightfor- 426 ward and rapid electronic access to the TRMM PR data. The 427 authors would also like to thank two anonymous reviewers 428 whose comments helped improve the clarity of the document. 429

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