

**Title: Arctic Sea Ice Parameters from AMSR-E Data using Two Techniques,  
and Comparisons with Sea Ice from SSM/I**

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**ABSTRACT:** We use two algorithms to process AMSR-E data in order to determine algorithm dependence, if any, on the estimates of sea ice concentration, ice extent and area, and trends and to evaluate how AMSR-E data compare with historical SSM/I data. The monthly ice concentrations derived from the two algorithms from AMSR-E data (the AMSR-E Bootstrap Algorithm, or ABA, and the enhanced NASA Team algorithm, or NT2) differ on average by about 1 to 3%, with data from the consolidated ice region being generally comparable for ABA and NT2 retrievals while data in the marginal ice zones and thin ice regions show higher values when the NT2 algorithm is used. The ice extents and areas derived separately from AMSR-E using these two algorithms are, however, in good agreement, with the differences (ABA-NT2) being about  $6.6 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$  on average for ice extents and  $-6.6 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$  for ice area which are small compared to mean seasonal values of  $10.5 \times 10^6$  and  $9.8 \times 10^6$  for ice extent and area, respectively. Likewise, extents and areas derived from the same algorithm but from AMSR-E and SSM/I data are consistent but differ by about  $-24.4 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$  and  $-13.9 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$ , respectively. The discrepancies are larger with the estimates of extents than area mainly because of differences in channel selection and sensor resolutions. Trends in extent during the AMSR-E era were also estimated and results from all three data sets are shown to be in good agreement (within errors).

**Popular Summary:** The Aqua AMSR-E sensor provides the opportunity to observe the Arctic sea ice cover at a higher resolution and greater spectral range than previously possible and hence an improved accuracy in the characterization of the sea ice cover. The availability of the data is timely in light of rapid changes being observed in parts of the polar regions in recent years and the requirements of more accurate observations. We use ice concentrations derived from two AMSR-E algorithms to assess how consistently the ice cover can be characterized and how estimates of the Arctic sea ice extent and area as well as their trends would be affected by the use of different techniques. Such comparisons are especially important since the extent and area provide the means to assess the state of the sea ice cover and quantify impacts of Arctic warming that may be related to increasing anthropogenic greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. It is also essential to know to what extent such estimates can be algorithm dependent. The monthly ice concentrations derived from AMSR-E data using the two algorithms differ on average by about 1-3%, with data from near the ice edge generally higher when the NT2 algorithm is used. The standard deviations of the differences are also very small, being  $\pm 1.0$ ,  $\pm 1.13$ ,  $\pm 1.13$ , and  $\pm 1.0$  % in summer, autumn, winter and spring, respectively. Slight adjustment in the tie-points for ice and water could make the difference even smaller. It is encouraging to get very good consistency in the extents and areas of the sea ice cover as derived from AMSR-E data using two algorithms that are formulated quite differently and make use of different sets of AMSR-E channels, as it is highly desired that the characterization of the ice cover, including its ice extent and area, would be independent of technique, allowing for confidence in the results. Likewise, it is satisfying to get good agreement of extents and areas derived when data from AMSR-E are compared with those from SSM/I using the same algorithm. There are slight biases associated with the

differences in the resolution of the different sensors in the estimates of ice extents but this is basically negligible in estimates of ice area. A bias, if uncorrected would cause significant errors in trend estimates when combining AMSR-E with historical data. Fortunately, a long overlap of AMSR-E and SSM/I data exists and this will provide the means to remove biases before incorporating the more accurate AMSR-E data in the time series.

**Significant Findings:** We use ice concentrations derived from two AMSR-E algorithms to assess how consistently the ice cover can be characterized and how estimates of the Arctic sea ice extent and area as well as their trends would be affected by the use of different techniques. The monthly ice concentrations derived from AMSR-E data using the two algorithms differ on average by about 1-3%, with data from near the ice edge generally higher when the NT2 algorithm is used. The standard deviations of the differences are also very small, being  $\pm 1.0$ ,  $\pm 1.13$ ,  $\pm 1.13$ , and  $\pm 1.0$  % in summer, autumn, winter and spring, respectively. Slight adjustment in the tie-points for ice and water could make the difference even smaller. It is encouraging to get very good consistency in the extents and areas of the sea ice cover as derived from AMSR-E data using two algorithms that are formulated quite differently and make use of different sets of AMSR-E channels, as it is highly desired that the characterization of the ice cover, including its ice extent and area, would be independent of technique, allowing for confidence in the results. Likewise, it is satisfying to get good agreement of extents and areas derived when data from AMSR-E are compared with those from SSM/I using the same algorithm. There are slight biases associated with the differences in the resolution of the different sensors in the estimates of ice extents but this is basically negligible in estimates of ice area. A bias, if uncorrected would cause significant errors in trend estimates when combining AMSR-E with historical data. Fortunately, a long overlap of AMSR-E and SSM/I data exists and this will provide the means to remove biases before incorporating the more accurate AMSR-E data in the time series. Overall, the merit of each algorithm depends on application but it is encouraging to know that they produce approximately the same trends in ice extent and area and that the differences in ice concentration values are well within the 5-10% estimated errors in the ice concentration determinations.

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## ABSTRACT

We use two algorithms to process AMSR-E data in order to determine algorithm dependence, if any, on the estimates of sea ice concentration, ice extent and area, and trends and to evaluate how AMSR-E data compare with historical SSM/I data. The monthly ice concentrations derived from the two algorithms from AMSR-E data (the AMSR-E Bootstrap Algorithm, or ABA, and the enhanced NASA Team algorithm, or NT2) differ on average by about 1 to 3%, with data from the consolidated ice region being generally comparable for ABA and NT2 retrievals while data in the marginal ice zones and thin ice regions show higher values when the NT2 algorithm is used. The ice extents and areas derived separately from AMSR-E using these two algorithms are, however, in good agreement, with the differences (ABA-NT2) being about  $6.6 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$  on average for ice extents and  $-6.6 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$  for ice area which are small compared to mean seasonal values of  $10.5 \times 10^6$  and  $9.8 \times 10^6$  for ice extent and area, respectively. Likewise, extents and areas derived from the same algorithm but from AMSR-E and SSM/I data are consistent but differ by about  $-24.4 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$  and  $-13.9 \times 10^4 \text{ km}^2$ , respectively. The discrepancies are larger with the estimates of extents than area mainly because of differences in channel selection and sensor resolutions. Trends in extent during the AMSR-E era were also estimated and results from all three data sets are shown to be in good agreement (within errors).

### 1. Introduction

The extent and area of the sea ice cover are key parameters needed to assess the state of the cryosphere and monitor the Earth's climate system. Prior to satellites, knowledge about these parameters was scant and inferred from limited human observations in different parts of the Arctic (Walsh and Johnson, 1979). With the pan-Arctic ice cover so vast and dynamic, it was not until the advent of satellite remote sensing that quantitative assessments of the extent and area of sea ice for the entire Northern Hemisphere could be made. Among the first such estimates were those derived from data provided by the Electrically Scanning Microwave Radiometer (ESMR), which is a single channel system (at 19 GHz) launched in December 1972 aboard NASA's Nimbus-5 satellite (Parkinson et al., 1987). These data were suitable for estimates of the extent of sea ice covered areas because of the large contrast in emissivity between sea ice and liquid water. However, there were ambiguities in the estimates of sea ice concentration primarily

63 because of large differences in the emissivity of seasonal first year (FY) ice and multiyear (MY)  
64 ice (Vant et al., 1976; Comiso, 1983) and the difficulty of discriminating the latter from mixtures  
65 of open water and first year ice. The launch of the Scanning Multichannel Microwave  
66 Radiometer (SMMR) on board NASA's Nimbus-7 satellite in October 1978 made it possible to  
67 overcome the problem because of its multifrequency and multipolarization capability, which  
68 enabled the accounting of spatial changes in the emissivity of the surface. SMMR was followed  
69 by a similar instrument called the Special Sensor Microwave Imager (SSM/I), first launched in  
70 July 1989 on the F8 satellite in the Defense Meteorological Satellite Program (DMSP) series.  
71 Additional SSM/I instruments have been launched on the F11 and F13 satellites. The SSM/I  
72 sensors are considered 'operational' rather than 'research' instruments and are launched in  
73 succession to ensure that as one degrades or fails to operate, it is replaced by another. The  
74 combination of the SMMR and SSM/I instruments has enabled a near-continuous time series of  
75 consistent data on sea ice to be generated from November 1978 to the present.

76 A new satellite microwave sensor from Japan called the Advanced Microwave Scanning  
77 Radiometer for the Earth Observing System (AMSR-E) was launched on board NASA's Aqua  
78 satellite in May 2002 with capabilities that exceed those of SMMR and SSM/I because of a larger  
79 antenna (yielding higher spatial resolution) and wider spectral range. The new AMSR-E data  
80 indeed provide superior coverage of the sea ice cover and will likely be the baseline for studies of  
81 the ice cover in the years to come (Comiso et al., 2003; Markus and Cavalieri, 2000). However,  
82 its capabilities need to be evaluated and validated and also should be compared quantitatively  
83 with those of SSM/I and SMMR data. The derived values have been shown to be consistent with  
84 those from Aqua's Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), which provides  
85 concurrent high resolution visible and infrared data. The goal is to be able to be able to assess the  
86 accuracy in the data that are currently used for monitoring the changes in the sea ice cover.  
87 While rapid declines have been reported in the Arctic perennial ice cover (Comiso, 2002; Comiso  
88 and Parkinson, 2004) the trends for the entire Northern Hemisphere have been more modest at  
89 about 3% per decade (e.g., Bjorgo et al., 1997; Cavalieri et al., 1997; Parkinson et al., 1999).  
90 Accurate data are also needed to validate modeling studies that have projected declines in the ice  
91 cover due to global warming caused in part by increasing greenhouse gases in the atmosphere  
92 (Holland and Bitz, 2003). In this study, we assess the general characteristics of the Arctic sea ice  
93 cover as inferred from two sea ice algorithms. In particular we compare sea ice concentrations  
94 derived from these algorithms and assess quantitatively how the differences are reflected in

95 estimates of sea ice extents, ice areas and trends. This enables us to examine whether the  
96 characterization of the sea ice cover is algorithm-dependent and if so, why. Also, we compare  
97 AMSR-E data with SSM/I data, to assess how the new data set can be used in conjunction with  
98 historical data to improve our characterization of the state of the sea ice cover. A companion  
99 paper (Parkinson and Comiso, 2007) examines the Antarctic sea ice cover with the same two  
100 algorithms and instruments.

101

## 102 **2. Ice Algorithms, Data Reduction, Masks, and Sensitivity Studies**

103 The AMSR-E sensor has a total of 14 channels and measures microwave radiation from  
104 the Earth's surface at 7 frequencies (from 6.9 to 89.0 GHz) and at both vertical and horizontal  
105 polarizations. It is a conically scanning system with a swath-width of about 1445 km and obtains  
106 data from practically the entire Arctic in less than a day, with an incidence angle fixed at about  
107 55°. The integrated field-of-view of the sensor is 73.0 by 43.1 km at 6.9 GHz, improving with  
108 frequency to about 6.0 by 4.9 km at 89.0 GHz. The key AMSR-E frequencies that have been  
109 used for sea ice algorithms are 18.7 GHz and 36.5 GHz, with estimated ground resolution of  
110 about 26.2 by 16.5 km and 13.7 by 10.3 km, respectively. For comparison, the corresponding  
111 ground resolutions for the SMMR and SSM/I data at approximately the same frequencies are 54  
112 by 35 km and 28 by 18 km for SMMR and 70 by 40 km and 38 by 30 km for SSM/I. The  
113 improvement in the resolution of AMSR-E data over those of historical data is therefore quite  
114 considerable. The resolution of AMSR-E at 89 GHz as indicated above is even better and could  
115 be utilized for many mesoscale studies; the 89 GHz resolution approaches that of the Advanced  
116 Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) Global Area Coverage (GAC) data, which have  
117 been used for detecting leads within the ice pack during cloud free conditions. However, the  
118 discrepancy of AMSR-E resolution with those of historical data requires special attention in order  
119 to obtain sea ice results consistent with the historical record. The 89 GHz data are promising in  
120 view of their spatial resolution but are difficult because of high sensitivity to atmospheric  
121 conditions and snow cover.

122 Orbital AMSR-E data have been mapped to a polar-stereographic grid at resolutions of  
123 about 12.5 by 12.5 km and 25 by 25.0 km using the 'drop-in-a-bucket technique', meaning that  
124 the near instantaneous brightness temperature observed by the sensor at a certain latitude and  
125 longitude point is assigned to an (i,j) grid element that encloses this geographical coordinate. To  
126 make the area of the polar grid nearly uniform, the mapping plane cuts the Earth's surface at 70

127 degrees latitude. This gridding system has been used for generating daily averages of day and  
128 night data as well as daily sea ice data from AMSR-E and is consistent with the gridding system  
129 used with the SSM/I and SMMR sea ice data.

130 Several sea ice concentration algorithms have been developed for multichannel passive  
131 microwave data over the years (e.g., Cavalieri et al., 1984, Swift et al., 1985; Svenson et al.,  
132 1986; Comiso, 1986; Steffen et al., 1992). The techniques have been refined and adapted for  
133 AMSR-E data, and for this study, we use two algorithms called the AMSR-E Bootstrap  
134 Algorithm (ABA) and the NASA Team (version 2) Algorithm (NT2), as discussed in Comiso et  
135 al. (2003).

136 With a single channel, ice concentration ( $C$ ) can be derived from satellite measurements  
137 of brightness temperature,  $T_B$ , using the following mixing equation that expresses the  
138 measurements as the sum of the two components of interest being either sea ice (I) or open water  
139 (W):

$$140 \quad T_B = C T_I + (1-C) T_W \quad (1)$$

141  
142 where  $T_I$  and  $T_W$  are the brightness temperatures of 100% ice and 100% open water, respectively.  
143  $T_I$  and  $T_W$  are usually called the 'tie points' for 100% and 0% ice cover, respectively. Equation  
144 (1) looks simple, but the estimate of  $C$  is complicated by the variability of the brightness  
145 temperature over ice covered and open water areas; hence the need for a more sophisticated  
146 algorithm, involving more than one channel. In the microwave region, following the Rayleigh-  
147 Jeans formulation, the brightness temperature can be estimated closely by the product of the  
148 emissivity and the temperature of the emitting surface. Although the emissivity of open water  
149 within the ice pack (which is usually under calm conditions) is reasonably stable, the emissivity  
150 of sea ice changes considerably depending on stage of ice growth, snow cover, thickness, and  
151 salinity. The physical temperature of the emitting layer, which is usually that of the snow/ice  
152 interface, is also variable although the changes are moderate (about 2.5 °C standard deviation)  
153 after the sea ice has acquired a snow cover.  
154

155 The ABA technique identifies the tie-points in equation (1) by making use of results from  
156 a cluster and regression analysis of sets of AMSR-E channels. The primary data sets used are  
157 those from 18.7 GHz at vertical polarization and 36.5 GHz at both vertical and horizontal  
158 polarizations; these have reasonable resolution and predictable emissivities over ice covered

159 areas, as discussed in Comiso et al. (2003). The NT2 technique uses the same sets of channels  
160 formulated as gradient and polarization ratios, as in the original NT technique, and in addition  
161 makes use of the 89 GHz channel at vertical polarization to minimize errors associated with snow  
162 layering and other characteristics that affect one polarization channel more than the other  
163 (Markus and Cavalieri, 2000; Comiso et al., 2003). To compensate for the high sensitivity of the  
164 89 GHz channel to snow and atmospheric effects, an atmospheric radiative transfer program is  
165 used. A challenge for the latter is how effectively a radiative transfer program can keep track of  
166 the surface emissivity at this frequency, which is unpredictably variable over sea ice covered  
167 regions. Previous comparative analysis of ice concentrations using the bootstrap and the NASA  
168 team algorithms showed large discrepancies (Comiso et al., 1997). The current study shows that  
169 the ice concentrations from the ABA and NT2 algorithms still have some discrepancies, but these  
170 are much smaller than those identified from the earlier versions of the algorithms (i.e., in Comiso  
171 et al., 1997).

172 A key concern with the use of data from different frequencies is the markedly different  
173 resolutions for the different frequency channels. The footprint of the 18.7, 36.5 and 89 GHz  
174 channels are 432.3, 141.1, and 29.4 km<sup>2</sup>, respectively. Thus, the instantaneous information that  
175 the AMSR-E 18.7 GHz sensor provides comes from an area about 15 times larger than that from  
176 the 89 GHz channel. The compromise solution is to use a grid resolution intermediate to the  
177 resolutions of 18.7 and 89 GHz and basically to degrade the resolution of the 89 GHz data. Two  
178 grid sizes are currently being used for mapping the AMSR-E sea ice data: 12.5 by 12.5 km (156.2  
179 km<sup>2</sup>) and 25 by 25 km (625 km<sup>2</sup>). The use of the 12.5 by 12.5 km grid is justified in part by the  
180 fact that the distance between successive swaths along the satellite orbit is 10 km. Experience has  
181 shown that we get almost identical results from the 12.5 km gridded data and the 25 km data  
182 when the former is degraded to the resolution of the latter. For studies that require optimum  
183 resolution, the 89 GHz TB data have been mapped to a 6.25 by 6.25 km grid and ice  
184 concentration is derived using just the 89 GHz channels, e.g., using the Bootstrap technique  
185 adjusted for the 89 GHz channels. Again, such data should be used with caution, in view of the  
186 sensitivity to atmospheric conditions and snow cover.

187 Another source of concern is the information content of derived data from the different  
188 frequencies and polarization. For example, the contrast in emissivity between water and first year  
189 ice is higher with lower frequency data. Also, the penetration depth through the snow and ice is  
190 frequency dependent, with the radiation at lower frequencies (i.e., longer wavelengths)

191 penetrating much deeper than the radiation at higher frequencies. Thus, the radiation detected by  
192 the radiometers at different frequencies comes from different layers of the ice cover and, in some  
193 cases, even different types of layers. For example, the observed brightness temperature at 18.7  
194 GHz from the seasonal ice cover usually originates from the snow/ice interface since snow is  
195 relatively transparent to radiation at this frequency, whereas at 89 GHz, the brightness  
196 temperature observed may come primarily from the snow cover. Therefore, although algorithms  
197 incorporating different channels are designed to produce the same ice concentration values,  
198 differences associated with the choice of channels can lead to somewhat different results. The  
199 discrepancies in the origin of the signals are in part taken into account through the use of scatter  
200 plots of sets of frequency (and polarization) channels that enable identification of signatures (i.e.,  
201 tie points) of consolidated sea ice from the different frequency and polarization measurements.  
202 The choice of tie points is technique-dependent (Comiso et al., 2003); and a change in tie points  
203 results in different estimates for ice concentrations. The latter allows tie points to be used as  
204 ‘tuning’ parameters for the ice-concentration algorithms.

205 An important consideration is that the multichannel signatures of different surfaces on  
206 land can be quite similar to those over sea ice. For simplicity, a land mask derived using  
207 published land boundaries and high resolution satellite data, is used. Figure 1 provides a location  
208 map of land areas including small islands in the high latitude regions of the Northern  
209 Hemisphere. The figure also shows typical sea ice distributions during annual maximum and  
210 minimum ice coverage, as derived from historical satellite data. In winter, sea ice covers  
211 practically the entire Arctic basin and extends well out into many of the surrounding seas and  
212 bays. We know that the continental boundaries (generally delineated as extending to the edge of  
213 ice shelves where they exist) are actually not constant with time, especially in areas covered by  
214 ice shelves and glaciers, which are constantly changing due to melt, ice calving and surging.  
215 Unfortunately, a monitoring technique that keeps track of all continental boundary changes on a  
216 day-to-day basis currently does not exist, hence hindering the production of a land mask  
217 appropriate for each day (or even just each month) of data. With the observation of large calving  
218 events in recent years, such capabilities would be desirable. However, in this study, a fixed land  
219 mask is used for all data processed, with the same, constant land mask used for the ABA and NT2  
220 algorithms. A notable advantage of the constant land mask is that it facilitates comparisons and  
221 determination of trends.

222 A complication recognized since ice concentrations were first calculated from satellite  
223 data in the 1970s is that ocean data adjacent to the land-ocean boundaries are contaminated by  
224 signals from land. At these boundaries, there are data elements (pixels) that contain mixtures of  
225 land and ocean areas. In addition, radiometer side-lobe effects make the measurements at the ice  
226 edge different when the satellite crosses the boundary from land to ocean as opposed to ocean to  
227 land. Also, having footprints for some channels that are larger than the size of the grid causes a  
228 smearing effect. As a result, the algorithms yield non-zero ice concentrations near the land-ocean  
229 boundary (a few pixels beyond the boundary) even in regions that are unquestionably ice-free,  
230 like along the coast of Spain. These faulty indications of ice would cause large errors in the  
231 estimates of ice extent and ice area if not corrected. To overcome this problem, the NT2  
232 algorithm uses monthly sea surface temperature fields to establish a threshold for where sea ice is  
233 not allowed, and the Bootstrap algorithm uses an enhanced version of a technique described in  
234 Cho (1996), with residual clearly extraneous derived ice being removed manually. Neither  
235 technique is perfect but both considerably reduce the land contamination effect.

236 Extraneous non-zero ice concentrations at different but significant levels are also derived  
237 by the algorithms in the open ocean regions. This comes about because the microwave signatures  
238 of open ocean during adverse weather conditions with large waves, foam, and rain, can be similar  
239 to the signatures of ice covered ocean. For the Bootstrap algorithm, general filtering technique  
240 makes use of the unique patterns produced by data points belonging to ocean regions in scatter  
241 plots of different sets of AMSR-E channels as shown in Figure 2. Data from ice free ocean are  
242 represented in Figure 2 by the blue dots and can be classified as ice free areas by setting  
243 thresholds that separate them from ice covered areas. Ambiguities are not easy to eliminate since  
244 at the cut-off point near the ice edge, it is difficult to obtain a consistent threshold value in units  
245 of ice concentration, due to the different emissivities of different sea ice types. Also, waves tend  
246 to cause ice rafting and flooding over the ice, both of which cause the ice emissivity to be even  
247 less well-defined. The ocean mask employed by the Bootstrap Algorithm for AMSR-E data is  
248 illustrated in Figure 2a and 2b, using the sets of 19, 22, and 37 GHz channels as shown. The  
249 corresponding mask used by NT2 for AMSR-E data is shown in 2c. In the scatter plots in  
250 Figures 2a and 2b, the data points that are clustered together from the point labeled O to W  
251 correspond to data in the open ocean. These data points (in blue) are easier to discriminate from  
252 the ice covered data points (in black) in Figure 2a, which makes use of the 22 GHz channel  
253 (vertical polarization), than in Figure 2b. The plot in Figure 2a is thus used as the primary mask

254 for the ABA data set, and Figure 2b is used primarily to remove residuals. A slanted line which  
255 corresponds to ice concentrations of about 10% is drawn in the scatter plots and data below this  
256 line are considered ice free (or less than 10% ice concentration). Such a threshold is used since  
257 below 10% ice concentration, it is difficult to discriminate ice covered data from data without ice  
258 cover. In fact, in our ice concentration images we use a 12% threshold, and in our ice extent  
259 calculations we use a 15% threshold. The NT2 data set makes use of a similar technique but using  
260 gradient and polarization ratios in the scatter plot as illustrated in Figure 3a and 3b for the basic  
261 ocean mask for SSM/I and AMSR-E, respectively, while Figures 3c and 3d serve as a supplement  
262 to mask out residuals as discussed in Markus and Cavalieri (2000).

263 Some of the differences, especially in ice extent observed in this study, are associated  
264 with the differences in the data screened by the two techniques as either open water areas or ice  
265 covered areas. There are also differences in the "open ocean tie-points" which are expected to  
266 represent the microwave signatures of open water within the ice pack. The clusters in Figure 2  
267 and 3 provide the means to evaluate what this signature is; on the average, open water within the  
268 pack represents stable surface conditions that normally correspond to low brightness temperature  
269 values (i.e., close to the point O in Figures 2 and 3). Differences in tie point location affect the  
270 estimates of ice concentration, especially at low concentration values. To facilitate interpretation  
271 of the results when doing comparative analysis in this study, we make the masked areas in the  
272 open ocean and the land/ocean boundaries (especially in regions away from the ice pack) in the  
273 two data sets as consistent as possible.

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### 276 **3. Ice Concentration Maps, Extents, and Ice Areas**

#### 277 *3.1 Ice Concentrations*

278 Color-coded monthly ice concentration maps derived from AMSR-E data using the ABA  
279 and NT2 algorithms for four different years in summer (August), autumn (November), winter  
280 (February), and spring (May) are presented in Figures 4, 5, 6 and 7, respectively, to illustrate the  
281 differences in ice concentrations calculated using the two different algorithms. Despite  
282 differences in the technique and sets of channels used, the monthly sea ice concentration maps  
283 from the two algorithms are fortunately quite similar, as both are attempting to depict the same  
284 parameter. In the sets of images, both algorithms yield very high concentrations within the ice  
285 pack, reflecting fully or near fully consolidated ice cover in the inner zone during the various

286 periods, and good consistency in the location of the ice edges. There are subtle differences of  
287 usually less than 10 % ice concentration and these are quantified better with the difference maps  
288 shown in the last column of Figures 3-6. In the inner pack, the ABA and NT2 concentrations are  
289 generally comparable, although with some areas of significant differences, while in the marginal  
290 ice zones, the ABA concentrations are usually less, especially in the non-summer months.

291 The differences in ice concentration are likely associated with use of different sets of  
292 channels in the two algorithms, as described in section 2. Perhaps most importantly, NT2 makes  
293 use of the 89 GHz channel in combination with the 19 and 37 GHz channels while ABA makes  
294 use of the 19 and 37 GHz channels only. The emissivity of sea ice generally increases with  
295 thickness up to a relatively stable maximum value for first year (or seasonal) ice. This maximum  
296 value occurs at a certain thickness but the specific thickness varies with frequency (or wavelength  
297 of the radiation). This is because the penetration depth of the radiation varies inversely with  
298 frequency and therefore the maximum emissivity is reached when the ice is considerably thinner  
299 at 89 GHz than at 19 or 37 GHz. The use of a tie point that utilizes the 89 GHz data would  
300 therefore provide generally higher ice concentration values in the generally thin ice areas in the  
301 seasonal regions than those that use the lower frequencies only. However, the emissivity of ice at  
302 89 GHz is not as stable over consolidated ice, and this may in part explain why the ice  
303 concentrations inside the pack in the Arctic basin are often higher for the ABA than for the NT2.  
304 Among the few exceptions is the area near the North Pole in the February 2004 images (i.e.,  
305 negative values in the difference maps); this might have been an area of divergence at the time  
306 and hence might have had considerable thin ice. The emissivity for seasonal ice changes with  
307 thickness and granularity of the snow cover, but the multichannel algorithms take this into  
308 account, at least in part. The emissivity of ice may also be affected by changes in brine  
309 distribution and overall ice salinity during early stages of growth.

310 During late spring and summer, the surface of the ice cover transforms first from a  
311 generally dry surface to a slightly wet surface and then to slush, with some areas covered by  
312 meltponds (i.e., standing water on the surface of the ice floes). The emissivity of the surface  
313 during the early melt period is very high, almost similar to that of a blackbody, because at this  
314 stage, the presence of liquid makes the absorption coefficient of the snow very high. Further  
315 melt, however, transforms the material into slush, or almost melted snow, the emissivity of which  
316 is relatively low and close to that of water. As the snow continues to melt, the variability of the  
317 topography of the ice surface leads to the formation of melt ponds the signature of which is

318 similar to that of open water (e.g., Comiso and Kwok, 1996; Markus and Dokken, 2002). Thus  
319 the uncertainties in the estimates for ice concentration are greatest in summer, explaining in part  
320 why it is the August images (Figure 4) that are most different for the two algorithms. In the inner  
321 pack in August, data from the ABA overall show higher values, while near the ice edge, data  
322 from NT2 are generally higher. In autumn (Figure 5) the two sets of images are very similar but  
323 there some areas of reduced ice concentrations in one but not in the other within the ice pack.  
324 Again, the marginal ice zones are locations of discrepancies. In the mid-winter (Figure 6) the  
325 agreement is also good, with the difference maps showing mainly near-0 values in the inner pack  
326 and negative biases in the marginal ice zones. In spring (Figure 7), the agreement is again very  
327 good. It is interesting that in some seasonal areas like Hudson Bay, the differences were negative  
328 in 2003 and 2005 but primarily positive or near 0 in 2004 and 2006. This may be associated with  
329 the same melt phenomenon that occurs in summer.

330 To assess the differences of the ABA and NT2 concentrations more quantitatively,  
331 histograms of the difference maps for the different years and seasons are presented in Figure 8.  
332 The histograms are highly peaked at a value near 0, indicating that the concentrations basically  
333 agree, although asymmetries are apparent, with a bias toward negative values in autumn, winter,  
334 and spring but toward positive values in summer, all in line with the images of Figures 4-7. The  
335 year-to-year variations for each of the four seasons are quite small. The peak value of the  
336 histograms varies with season, as expected, depicting the large seasonality of the sea ice cover.  
337 Gaussian fits were applied on each histogram, and the average standard deviation of the peaks in  
338 each of the four years were found to be,  $\pm 1.0$ ,  $\pm 1.1$ ,  $\pm 1.1$ , and  $\pm 1.0$  % for the summer, autumn,  
339 winter and spring, respectively.

340

### 341 *3.2 Ice Extents and Areas*

342 To quantitatively assess the large scale characteristics and state of the sea ice cover and its  
343 variability, we estimate the ice extents and ice area. Ice extent is the sum of the area of all data  
344 elements in the study region that have ice concentrations of 15% and higher. The 15% threshold  
345 is used because of aforementioned uncertainties in ice concentration values near the ice edges and  
346 thin ice regions and the possibility of including many faulty data points if the threshold is set at a  
347 lower level. This is also the threshold for ice extent used in many previous studies (e.g.,  
348 Parkinson et al., 1987, 1999). Ice area is the integrated sum of the area covered by sea ice (i.e.,  
349 sum of the products of the area of the pixel and the ice concentration in the pixel). In general, the

350 ice extent provides the means to estimate the total area directly impacted by sea ice. On the other  
351 hand, the ice area provides actual ice coverage and the data needed in combination with average  
352 ice thickness to estimate total volume and mass of the ice cover. Both parameters are needed to  
353 assess how the state of the cryosphere as reflected by the sea ice cover is changing.

354 Comparative analysis of ice concentration and extents requires considerations regarding  
355 how well the ice edges are represented by the different data sets. Plots of typical ice  
356 concentrations from a daily average map (specifically, one from 19 February 2006) along a  
357 transect from open water regions into the ice pack illustrates how the ice edges are represented by  
358 AMSR-E ice concentration data as derived from the ABA and NT2 algorithms (Figure 9). The  
359 data plotted are along a longitudinal line at 35° E and 45° E in the Barents Sea. The ice  
360 concentration data using ABA and NT2 both rise above 0 % at approximately 76.4°N, with the  
361 NT2 data rising slightly more rapidly than the ABA data. Also, the ice concentrations for NT2  
362 rise to near 100% in about 100 km and then remain near 100%, while the ABA ice  
363 concentrations remain below 100% for another 50 km, which suggests that the ABA is perhaps  
364 more sensitive to some features of the outer zone of the ice cover than the NT2. In this specific  
365 transect, the edge of the ice, as defined by 15% ice concentration in the calculation of ice extent,  
366 comes sooner (from open water into the pack) by about 5 km in the NT2 calculations than the  
367 ABA calculations. In much of the region near the ice edge, likely the ice cover consists mainly of  
368 pancake ice and is relatively mobile because of wind and wave action, the effect of which  
369 decreases, overall, from the ice edge into the pack. The latitude at which the ABA and NT2 ice  
370 concentration data both converge to about 100 % is likely where the ice cover becomes  
371 consolidated and is no longer much affected by ocean swell. Similar phenomenon is apparent at  
372 45°E, but this time the 15% ice edge occurs at about the same time and the values converge to  
373 100% ice cover sooner into the pack. The space between pancakes is often covered by grease ice  
374 during autumn and winter; and the grease ice becomes the glue that transforms the region into  
375 consolidated ice. In contrast, the space between ice floes during spring and summer is often not  
376 covered by grease ice or other ice forms. As explained earlier, the average concentration in  
377 primarily new ice regions is expected to be higher with the NT2 than with the ABA, since the  
378 former saturates faster with thickness because of the use of the 89 GHz channel. In an area with  
379 considerable grease ice, NT2 likely captures the grease ice more accurately and obtains more  
380 accurate ice concentration values, while the ABA might provide more information regarding  
381 areas of divergence and the character of the marginal ice zone.

382 Daily ice extent and area of the sea ice cover over an annual cycle (2005) in the Northern  
383 Hemisphere are presented in Figure 10 to illustrate how values derived from the NT2 and ABA  
384 algorithms differ. For comparison, in addition to the NT2 and ABA AMSR-E values,  
385 corresponding values from the SSM/I data using the Bootstrap algorithm (SBA) are included in  
386 Figure 10 as well. The latter provide the means to evaluate how data derived from different  
387 sensors but the same algorithm compare. Daily data are used to illustrate changes in these  
388 parameters at a smaller time scale than in the monthly averages. Although large daily changes  
389 are known to occur at the ice edge, the net changes in extent and area are modest in part because  
390 negative changes (or retreat) in one place are often compensated by positive changes (or advance)  
391 in other places. The plots indicate a generally good consistency of extents and areas from the  
392 three data sets, although with the SBA data showing consistently higher values for extent than the  
393 other two. As explained earlier, higher values for extent can be caused by lower resolution,  
394 which is the case for SSM/I data. The differences in the ABA and NT2 extents are most  
395 pronounced during the summer, as reflected also in the ice concentration maps (Figures 3-6)  
396 while the areas are mainly consistent, especially during the autumn.

397 Monthly averages of the ABA and NT2 ice extents and ice areas during the 2002-2006  
398 period (when AMSR-E data are available) provide the means to assess monthly and interannual  
399 changes in the ice cover (Figures 11a and 11b). The variability in the extent and in the area are in  
400 part associated with the variability in the ice concentrations, the monthly averages of which are  
401 also shown in Figure 11c. The year-to-year variability in the ice extents during the AMSR-E era  
402 are consistently represented by ABA and NT2 data, with the summer season showing the largest  
403 difference (Figure 11), as in Figure 10. The ice areas have better consistency in the summer but  
404 show slight discrepancies in the winter period, with the NT2 values having slightly higher values.  
405 These wintertime discrepancies are reflected by the higher average ice concentrations derived  
406 from NT2 when compared with those from ABA mainly in the seasonal ice region (where  
407 mixtures of new ice and first year ice are more prevalent), as shown qualitatively in the color  
408 images in Figure 6 and quantitatively in the Figure 11c plots. Figure 10c shows that the mean ice  
409 concentrations from NT2 are consistently higher than those from ABA for all seasons except  
410 autumn, for which season some years (2002-2004) have practically the same mean ice  
411 concentrations from the two algorithms. However, throughout the time series the differences in  
412 the ice concentration values are less than 3%, which is within the published errors of the ice  
413 concentration algorithms (Comiso et al., 2003). Also, given the differences in the emissivity for

414 the different ice types identified by the different channels, such discrepancies in ice concentration  
415 are expected.

416 Because of the relatively short record length, trend analyses of the AMSR-E data have  
417 limited use climatologically, but in this study we calculate trends in the ice cover in order to  
418 compare results from the two algorithms. Because of the large seasonality in the ice cover, trend  
419 analysis is done using anomalies calculated by subtracting from each data point (in our case, the  
420 monthly average for an individual year) the average for that specific month over each of the years  
421 of the record (in our case, 2002-2006). Plots of such anomalies for ice extent, ice area, and ice  
422 concentration, using both ABA and NT2 data, are presented in Figure 12, where it is apparent that  
423 the two data sets track each other very well. The trends in ice extent are  $-16.0 \pm 1.8$  %/decade  
424 and  $-16.4 \pm 1.8$  %/decade for the ABA and NT2 data, respectively, while the corresponding  
425 values for ice area are  $-16.1 \pm 1.9$  %/decade and  $-15.9 \pm 2.0$  %/decade. The good agreement  
426 indicates that despite some disagreements in the derived ice concentrations, the trends derived  
427 from the two sets of data are quite close.

428 Figure 13 presents comparisons of AMSR-E and SSM/I monthly ice extents, areas and ice  
429 concentrations, in this case using the Bootstrap algorithm (ABA and SBA) to process data from  
430 two different sensors. The mean frequency of the channels in the two sensors are slightly  
431 different, and therefore slight differences in sensitivity to atmospheric effects are expected. The  
432 main difference, however, is in the resolution, as indicated earlier, which is reflected in the higher  
433 values in extents derived from SSM/I data versus from AMSR-E data. The monthly ice areas are  
434 closer to each other, while the average ice concentrations are decidedly higher for the AMSR-E  
435 data than the SSM/I data. This implies that there are relatively more low ice concentration pixels  
436 in the SSM/I data than in the AMSR-E data. This affects the estimates of ice area less because  
437 the concentration is low and the net contribution to the ice area is therefore relatively minor.

438 To evaluate how the trends compare when ice cover is derived from different sensors, the  
439 anomalies in ice extents and ice areas as well as ice concentrations are presented in Figure 14.  
440 The trends in ice extent calculated from the AMSR-E and SSM/I data sets with the Bootstrap  
441 algorithm are shown to be fairly consistent, being  $-16.0 \pm 1.8$  %/decade for AMSR-E and  $-15.8 \pm$   
442  $1.8$  %/decade for SSM/I. The corresponding trends in ice area are  $-16.1 \pm 1.9$  and  $16.7 \pm 1.9$   
443 %/decade for AMSR-E and SSM/I, respectively. This is encouraging since it indicates that  
444 AMSR-E data can be combined with the other historical data to assess the trends of the sea ice  
445 cover if biases are taken into consideration.

446

#### 447 **4. Analysis of Errors**

448 In a few locations and times, there are significant differences in the ice concentrations  
449 derived from the AMSR-E data using the ABA and NT2 algorithms. The difference maps in  
450 Figures 3-6 indicate that NT2 produces generally higher concentrations than ABA in the marginal  
451 ice zone regions in February, May, and November while in the perennial ice region they are on  
452 the average compatible. The use of different sets of channels leads to differences in the  
453 characterization of ice edges and marginal ice zones, as illustrated in Figure 9, thereby causing  
454 differences in the estimates of ice extent. The choice of channels also leads to differences in the  
455 perennial ice regions since the emissivity of consolidated ice is spatially more variable with some  
456 channels (i.e., 89 GHz channels) than other channels. Nevertheless, there is generally good  
457 agreement with the differences typically being no more than about 3%, which is within the  
458 estimated errors of the ice concentration algorithms. The differences are minimized mainly  
459 because both algorithms make use of the same AMSR-E data to infer the tie-points for  
460 consolidated ice and open water (Comiso et al., 2003). Slight adjustments in the tie-points could  
461 lead to a closer match in the ice concentration values, but not to identical values throughout, as  
462 there are features that one algorithm captures but the other algorithm does not. The cause of  
463 these subtle differences may be important to understand in special cases, such as studies of  
464 sensible and latent heat polynyas in which quantification of accurate estimates of heat, salinity,  
465 and humidity fluxes is desired (Kwok et al., accepted).

466 Errors in ice extent and area include those associated with the open ocean mask,  
467 land/ocean boundary mask, and land mask which are affected only indirectly by the sea ice  
468 concentration algorithms. In the Arctic, the uncertainties associated with these parameters can be  
469 large because of the presence of extensive ice-free coastlines and many islands, with the latter  
470 sometimes so small (compared to the standard grid size of 25 by 25 km) that they are not  
471 included as part of the land mass. The land mask is basically fixed, and using a fixed land mask  
472 has significant advantages for time series studies. However, as indicated earlier, coastline  
473 changes occur due to ice calving, erosion, and other phenomena. An associated question is  
474 whether to classify icebergs as part of the sea ice cover or not. The answer is likely no for mass  
475 balance studies but yes for many other applications. In the current analysis, icebergs are included  
476 in the ice cover calculations, because of failure to identify them properly and to separate them

477 out. The icebergs are not included in full because the emissivity of icebergs is generally lower  
478 that that of thick seasonal ice, thereby producing a microwave signature of a partial sea ice cover.

479 As indicated earlier, the 15% ice edge as inferred from the two algorithms can vary by a  
480 few km. This is primarily because of the use of different channels with different resolutions but it  
481 can also be because of differences in the location of the tie point for open water. To get an  
482 assessment of errors in extent and area associated with errors in the location of the ice edge, we  
483 did sensitivity studies using actual data to examine how the ice extent and area change for an  
484 error in the ice edge of 6.25, 12.5 and 25 km. Given an ice distribution, we can either add or  
485 subtract this value along the ice edge and calculate the resulting change in extent; for the change  
486 in area, we assume that the added (or subtracted) data elements all have ice concentrations of  
487 15%. Figure 15 shows the AMSR-E 2005 ice extent and area time series from the ABA  
488 algorithm, plus the result of extending the ice edge by 6.25, 12.5, and 25.0 km. Comparing ice  
489 extents as depicted in Figure 15 with Figure 10, one can infer that the difference between those of  
490 the NT2 and ABA can be explained by errors of about 6.25 km in the ice edge, except during the  
491 summer period when other factors must contribute to the difference. With ice area, the variability  
492 is similar during the summer but not in the other seasons, when other factors must contribute to  
493 the error.

494 Errors associated with the use of SSM/I data can be evaluated in a similar manner. The  
495 biggest source of discrepancies in the SSM/I versus AMSR extents and areas is likely the  
496 resolution. The ice edge is better defined with AMSR-E data than with SSM/I data, with the  
497 SSM/I ice edges often about 12-25 km equatorward from the AMSR-E ice edge. Comparing the  
498 ice extents in Figure 15 and Figure 10, the difference between the AMSR-E and SSM/I results  
499 can be explained by a 12.5 km ice-edge error in the winter and autumn and a 25 km ice-edge  
500 error in the spring and summer. With ice area, the difference is likely again caused by other  
501 factors.

502 It should also be pointed out that AMSR-E data that are currently being released by the  
503 National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC) have been processed using different versions of the  
504 algorithms. Different versions are typically minor updates in the tie points to get better  
505 consistency with validation data. However, with the ABA algorithm, a significant change was  
506 made in the version used for processing Antarctic data in that three channels are now used for the  
507 region (instead of only two) as described in Comiso (2004) for consistency with the Arctic  
508 algorithm and for improved accuracy. This study made use of ABA data that are derived

509 consistently from 2002 to the present. Similar reprocessing has been planned for the NT2 but has  
510 not been implemented. However, only subtle changes in the derived data are expected in the NT2  
511 time series as revealed by the lack of large year-to-year changes in the differences in our analysis.  
512

## 513 **5. Discussion and Conclusions**

514 The Aqua AMSR-E sensor provides the opportunity to observe the Arctic sea ice cover at  
515 a higher resolution and greater spectral range than previously possible and hence an improved  
516 accuracy in the characterization of the sea ice cover. The availability of the data is timely in light  
517 of rapid changes being observed in parts of the polar regions in recent years and the requirements  
518 of more accurate observations. We use ice concentrations derived from two AMSR-E algorithms  
519 to assess how consistently the ice cover can be characterized and how estimates of the Arctic sea  
520 ice extent and area as well as their trends would be affected by the use of different techniques.  
521 Such comparisons are especially important since the extent and area provide the means to assess  
522 the state of the sea ice cover and quantify impacts of Arctic warming that may be related to  
523 increasing anthropogenic greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. It is also essential to know to what  
524 extent such estimates can be algorithm dependent.

525 The monthly ice concentrations derived from AMSR-E data using the two algorithms  
526 differ on average by about 1-3%, with data from near the ice edge generally higher when the NT2  
527 algorithm is used. The standard deviations of the differences are also very small, being  $\pm 1.0$ ,  
528  $\pm 1.13$ ,  $\pm 1.13$ , and  $\pm 1.0$  % in summer, autumn, winter and spring, respectively. Slight adjustment  
529 in the tie-points for ice and water could make the difference even smaller. It is encouraging to get  
530 very good consistency in the extents and areas of the sea ice cover as derived from AMSR-E data  
531 using two algorithms that are formulated quite differently and make use of different sets of  
532 AMSR-E channels, as it is highly desired that the characterization of the ice cover, including its  
533 ice extent and area, would be independent of technique, allowing for confidence in the results.

534 Likewise, it is satisfying to get good agreement of extents and areas derived when data  
535 from AMSR-E are compared with those from SSM/I using the same algorithm. There are slight  
536 biases associated with the differences in the resolution of the different sensors in the estimates of  
537 ice extents but this is basically negligible in estimates of ice area. A bias, if uncorrected would  
538 cause significant errors when combining AMSR-E with historical data. Fortunately, a long  
539 overlap of AMSR-E and SSM/I data exists and this will provide the means to remove biases  
540 before incorporating the more accurate AMSR-E data in the time series.

541 The discrepancies in the derived ice concentrations (and also extents and areas) from  
542 AMSR-E data using the ABA and NT2 algorithms are likely associated mainly with the choice of  
543 channels and in part the choice of tie points. Different channels have different sensitivities to  
544 different surfaces. This is especially the case in seasonal regions where new ice is abundant. The  
545 use of high frequency channels like the 89 GHz channel, as with NT2, provides the means to  
546 identify thin ice; however, the channel is sensitive to atmospheric and surface effects and can  
547 produce erroneous ice concentrations if such sensitivity is not properly taken into account. The  
548 use of lower frequency channels, as with ABA, provides more contrast between open water and  
549 sea ice covered regions and less sensitivity to atmospheric and surface effects but classifies thin  
550 ice as having relatively lower concentration than thick ice because of lower emissivity. While  
551 this reflects an error in ice concentration (if new ice and thick ice are treated as identical in an ice  
552 concentration algorithm), it allows improved ability to assess the widths of the marginal ice zones  
553 more accurately and allows the detection of divergence and polynya regions. Overall, the merit  
554 of each algorithm depends on application but it is encouraging to know that they produce  
555 approximately the same trends in ice extent and area and that the differences in ice concentration  
556 values are well within the 5-10% estimated errors in the ice concentration determinations.

557

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562

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625

## 626 **Figures Legends**

627 Figure 1. Location map of the Arctic showing various regions of interest and climatological sea  
628 ice cover at the seasonal times of ice minimum and maximum.

629 Figure 2. Scatter plots of brightness temperatures illustrating the distribution of open ocean area  
630 and the masking procedure using 19 GHz vertically polarized data (V19) versus the difference  
631 between 22 GHz or 23 GHz vertically polarized data (V22 or V23, respectively) and 19 GHz  
632 or 18 GHz vertically polarized data (V19 or V18, respectively) from (a) SSM/I and (b)  
633 AMSR-E, and V19 or V18 data versus 37 GHz or 36 GHz vertically polarized data (V37 or  
634 V36, respectively) from (c) SSM/I and (d) AMSR-E. The mask for SMMR is similar to that  
635 in (c) and (d) but has greater separation because SMMR has an 18 GHz channel (which is less  
636 subject to weather effects) instead of 19 GHz.

637 Figure 3. Scatter plots of gradient and polarization ratios illustrating the distribution of open  
638 ocean area using gradient ratio of V19 and V37 versus polarization ration of H19 and V19  
639 from (a) SSM/I and (b) AMSR-E data and also gradient ratio of V19 and V22 versus  
640 polarization ratio of H19 and V19 from (c) SSM/I and (d) AMSR-E data.

641 Figure 4. Color-coded monthly ice concentration maps derived from AMSR-E data for August  
642 2002, 2003, 2004 and 2005 using the ABA and NT2 algorithms, and the corresponding  
643 difference maps.

644 Figure 5. Same as Figure 3 except for November.

645 Figure 6. Same as Figure 3 except for February and for the years 2003-2006 rather than 2002-  
646 2005.

647 Figure 7. Same as Figure 5 except for May.

648 Figure 8. Histograms of differences in ice concentration (in percentage) between ABA and NT2.

649 Figure 9. Ice concentration values along a transect from open water to the ice pack at (a) 35°E  
650 and (b) 45°E in the Barents Sea on february 19, 2006, as derived from AMSR-E data using the  
651 ABA and NT2 algorithms and AMSR-E data .

652 Figure 10. Comparison of daily (a) ice extent and (b) ice area using the ABA and NT2  
653 algorithms on AMSR-E data and the SBA algorithm on SSM/I data in 2005.

654 Figure 11. Plots of monthly values of (a) ice extent; (b) ice area; and (c) ice concentration from  
655 June 2002 through November 2006 derived from AMSR-E data using the ABA and NT2  
656 algorithms. Each monthly ice concentration data point is the average of the daily ice  
657 concentration averages during the month.

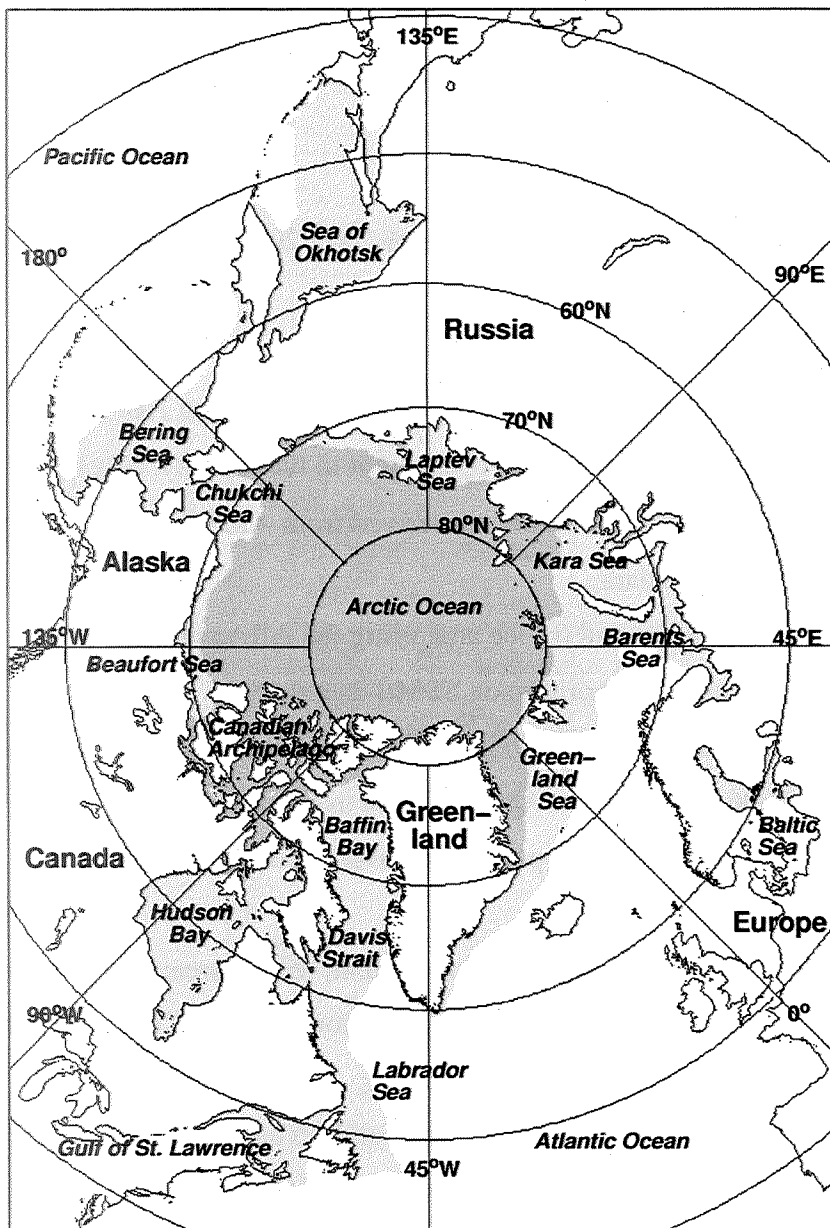
658 Figure 12. Plots of anomalies of the monthly values of (a) ice extent; (b) ice area; and (c) ice  
659 concentration from June 2002 through November 2006 derived from AMSR-E data using the  
660 ABA and NT2 algorithms.

661 Figure 13. Plots of monthly values of (a) ice extent; (b) ice area; and (c) ice concentration from  
662 June 2002 through November 2006 derived from the AMSR-E and SSM/I data using the ABA  
663 algorithm. Each monthly ice concentration data point is the average of the daily ice  
664 concentration averages during the month.

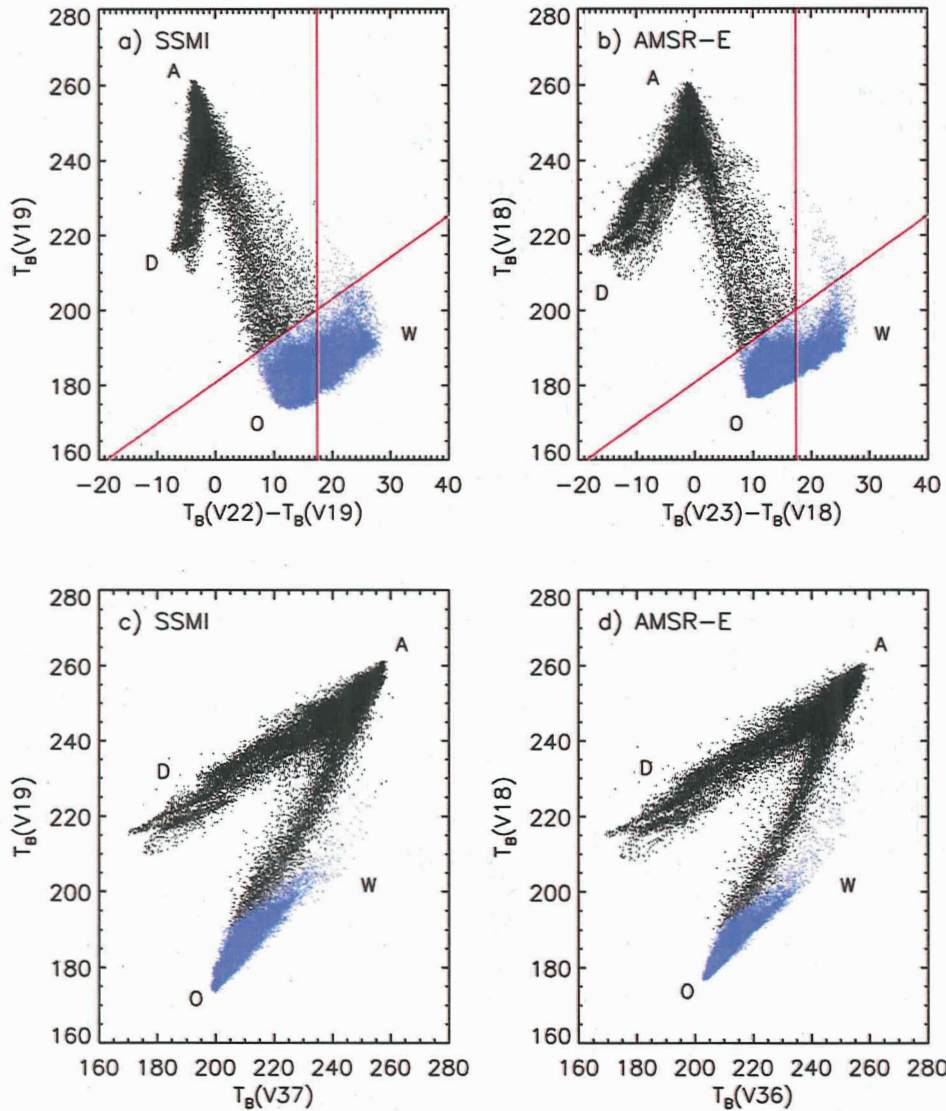
665 Figure 14. Plots of the anomalies of the monthly values of (a) ice extent; (b) ice area; and (c) ice  
666 concentration from June 2002 through November 2006 derived from the AMSR-E and SSM/I  
667 data using the Bootstrap algorithm (ABA and SBA).

668 Figure 15. (a) Sensitivity plot of the seasonal cycle of monthly average ice extent, with the

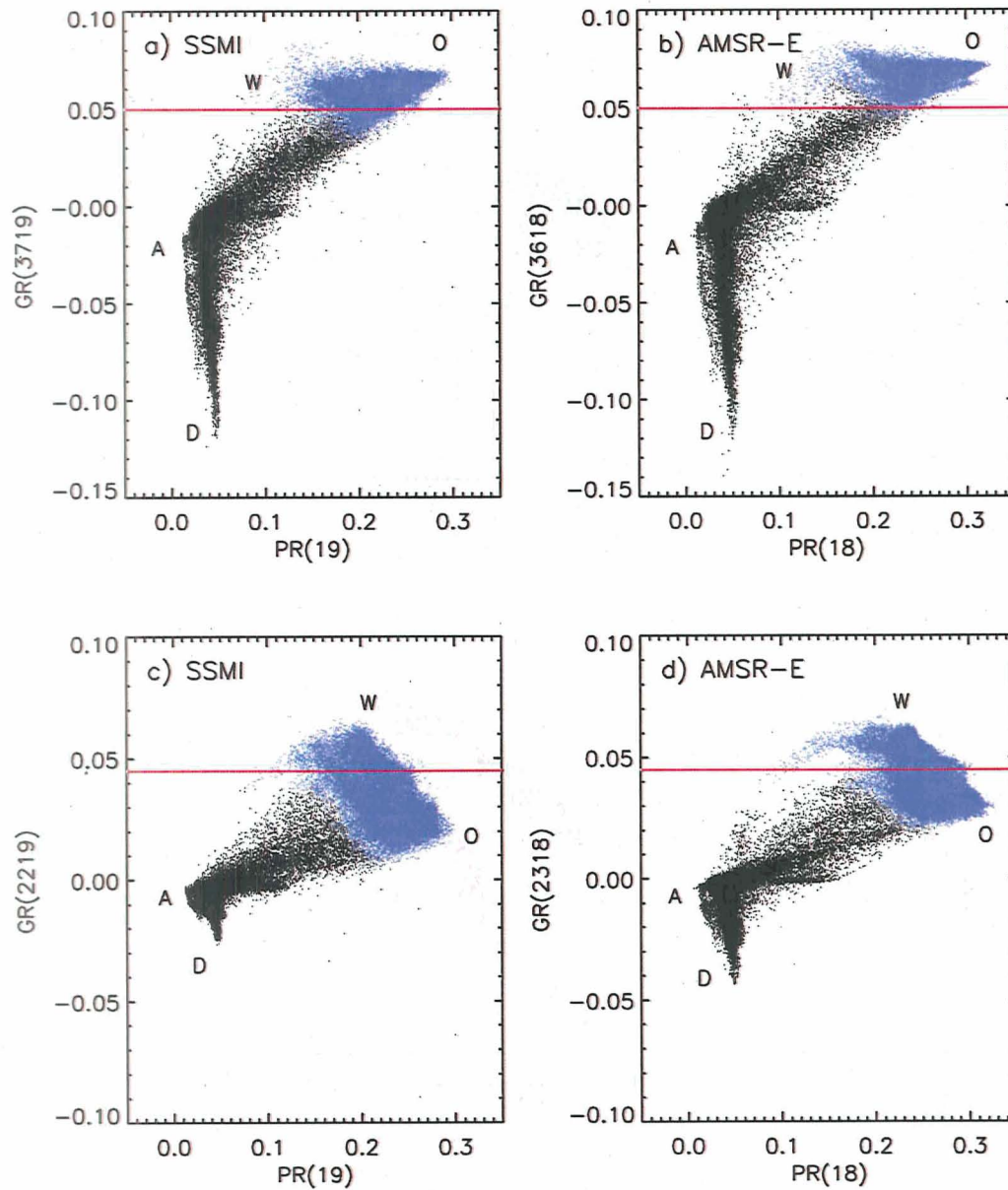
669 baseline curve being the AMSR-E extent and the additional curves being the extents derived if  
670 the ice edge is further south by 6.25 km, 12.5 km, and 25 km. (b) Sensitivity plot similar to  
671 (a) but using monthly average ice area.  
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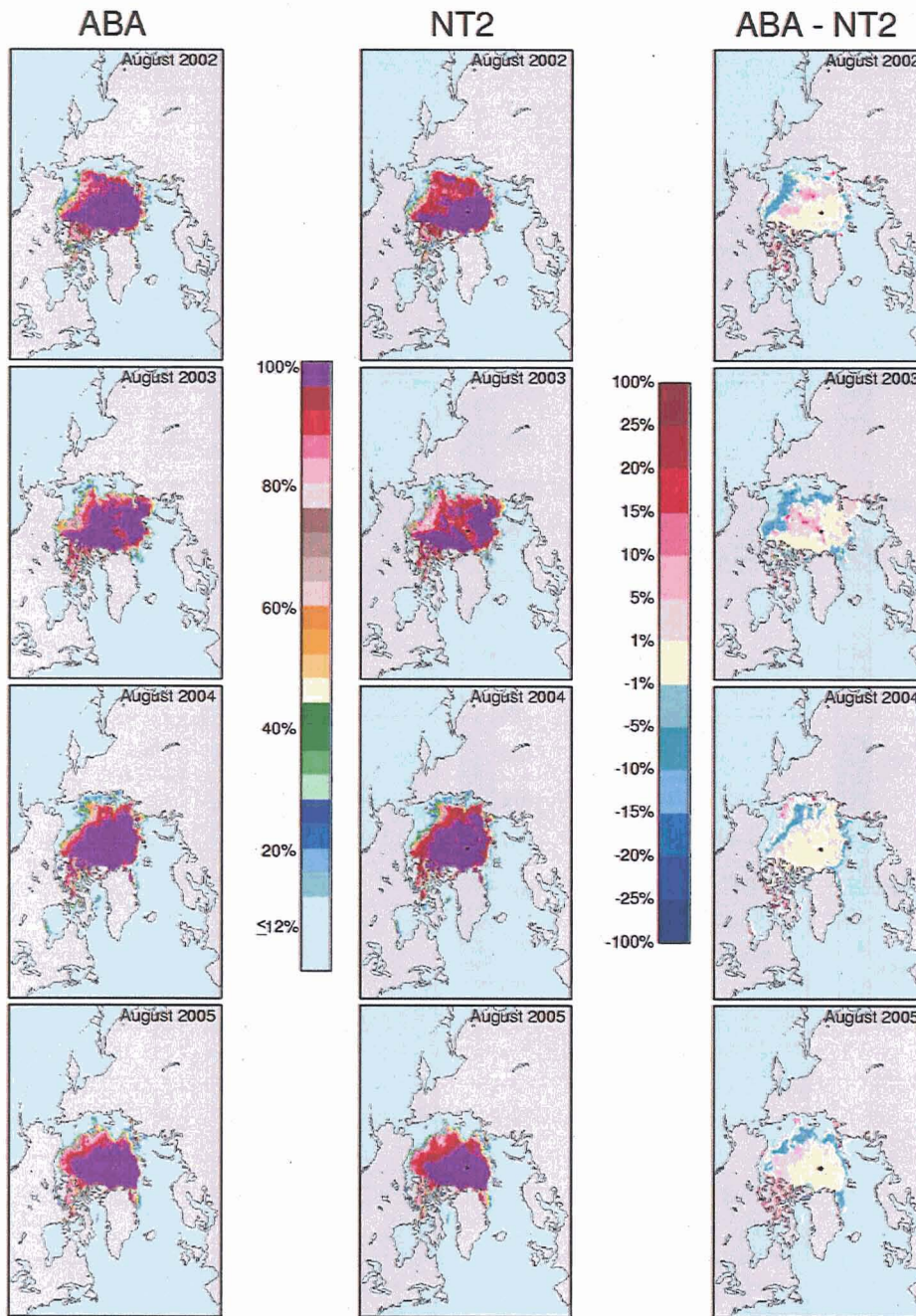
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675 Figure 1. Location map of the Arctic showing various regions of interest and climatological sea  
676 ice cover at the seasonal times of ice minimum and maximum. concentration averages during  
677 the month.



678  
 679 Figure 2. Scatter plots of brightness temperatures illustrating the distribution of open ocean area  
 680 (blue dots) and the masking procedure using 19 GHz vertically polarized data (V19) versus the  
 681 difference between 22 GHz or 23 GHz vertically polarized data (V22 or V23, respectively) and  
 682 19 GHz or 18 GHz vertically polarized data (V19 or V18, respectively) from (a) SSM/I and (b)  
 683 AMSR-E, and V19 or V18 data versus 37 GHz or 36 GHz vertically polarized data (V37 or  
 684 V36, respectively) from (c) SSM/I and (d) AMSR-E. The mask for SMMR is similar to that  
 685 in (c) and (d) but has greater separation because SMMR has an 18 GHz channel (which is less  
 686 subject to weather effects) instead of 19 GHz.

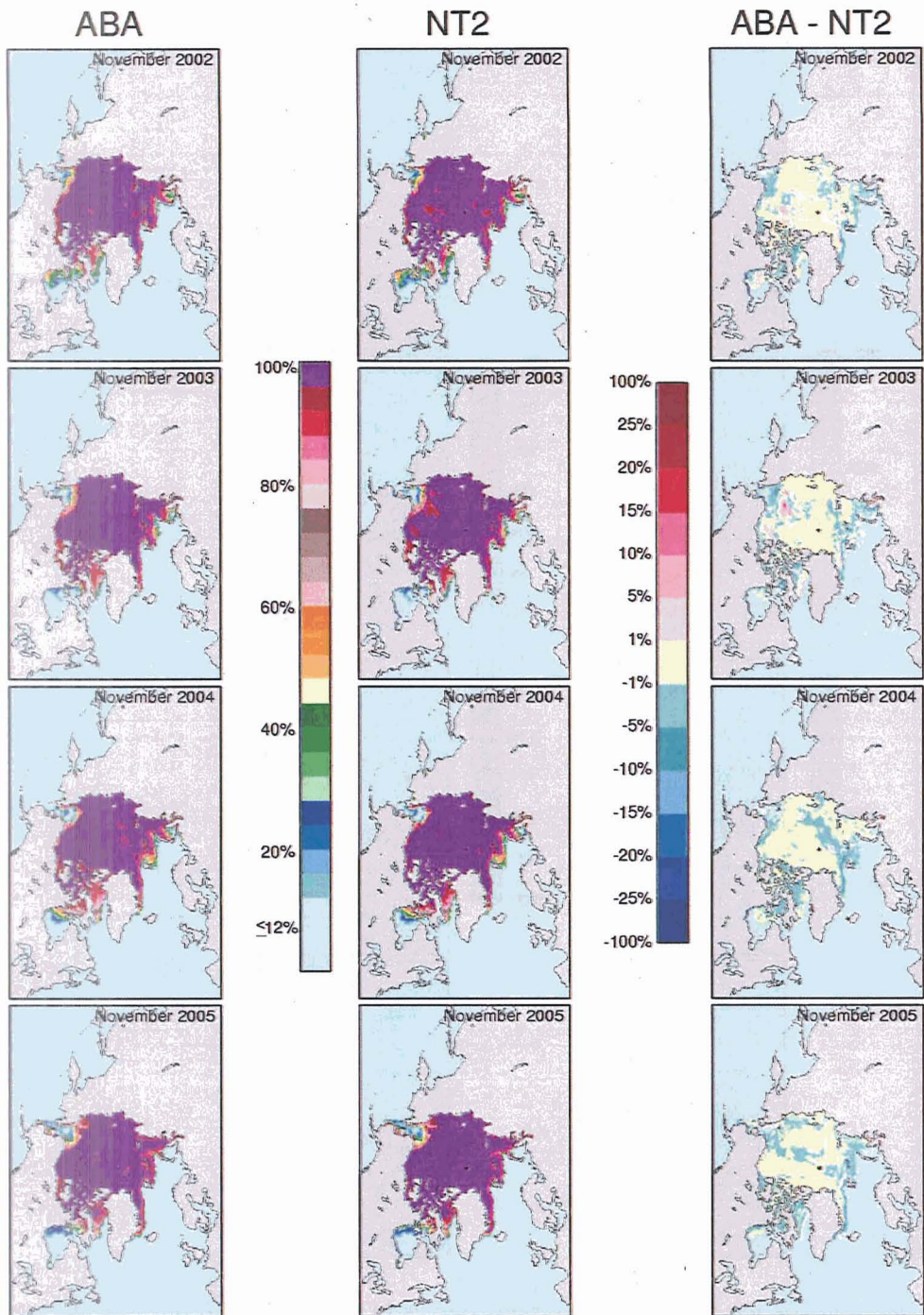


687  
 688 Figure 3. Scatter plots of gradient and polarization ratios illustrating the distribution of open  
 689 ocean area (in blue) using gradient ratio of V19 and V37 versus polarization ratio of H19 and  
 690 V19 from (a) SSM/I and (b) AMSR-E data and also gradient ratio of V19 and V22 versus  
 691 polarization ratio of H19 and V19 from (c) SSM/I and (d) AMSR-E data.



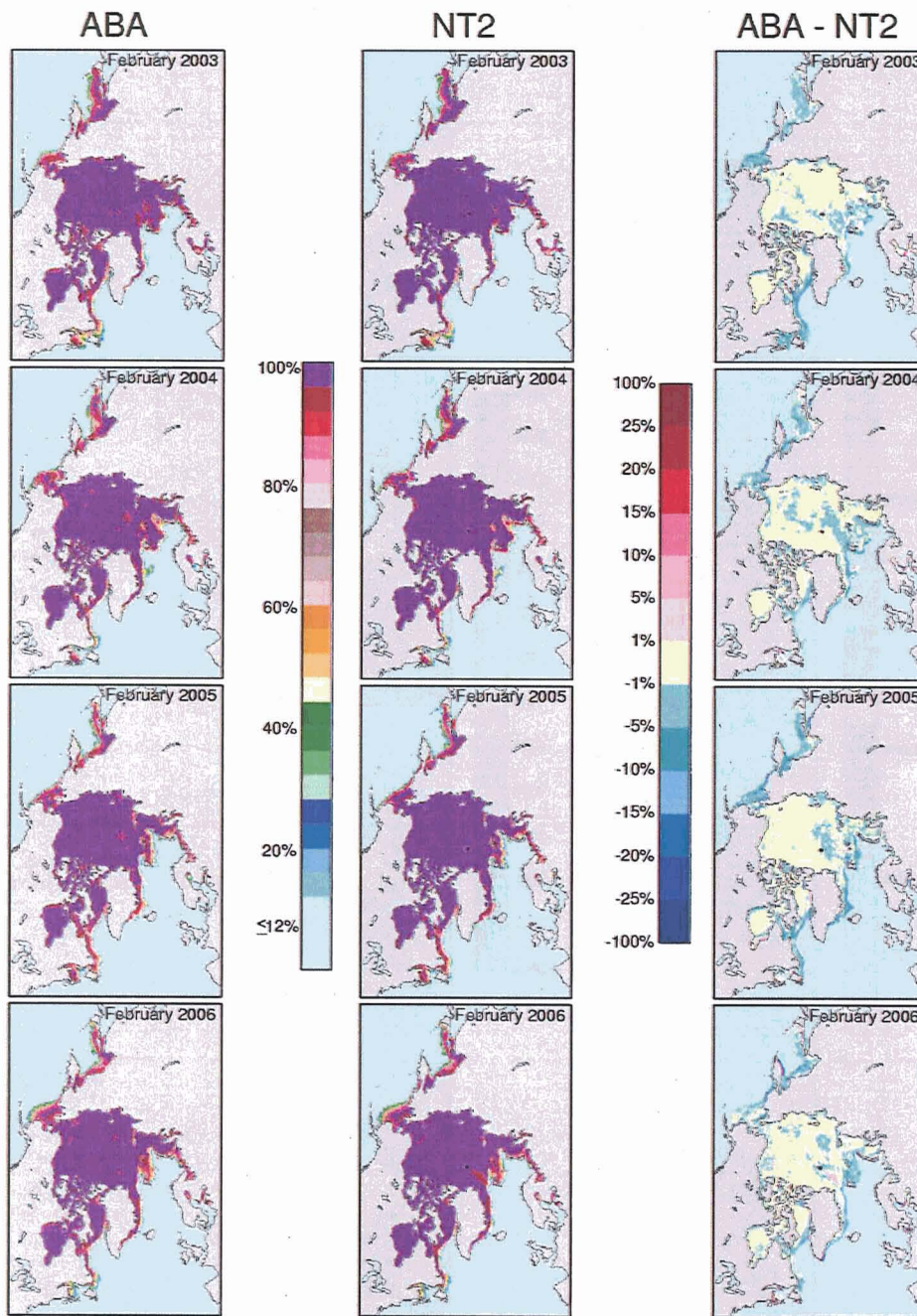
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694 Figure 4. Color-coded monthly ice concentration maps derived from AMSR-E data for August  
695 2002, 2003, 2004 and 2005 using the ABA and NT2 algorithms, and the corresponding  
696 difference maps.



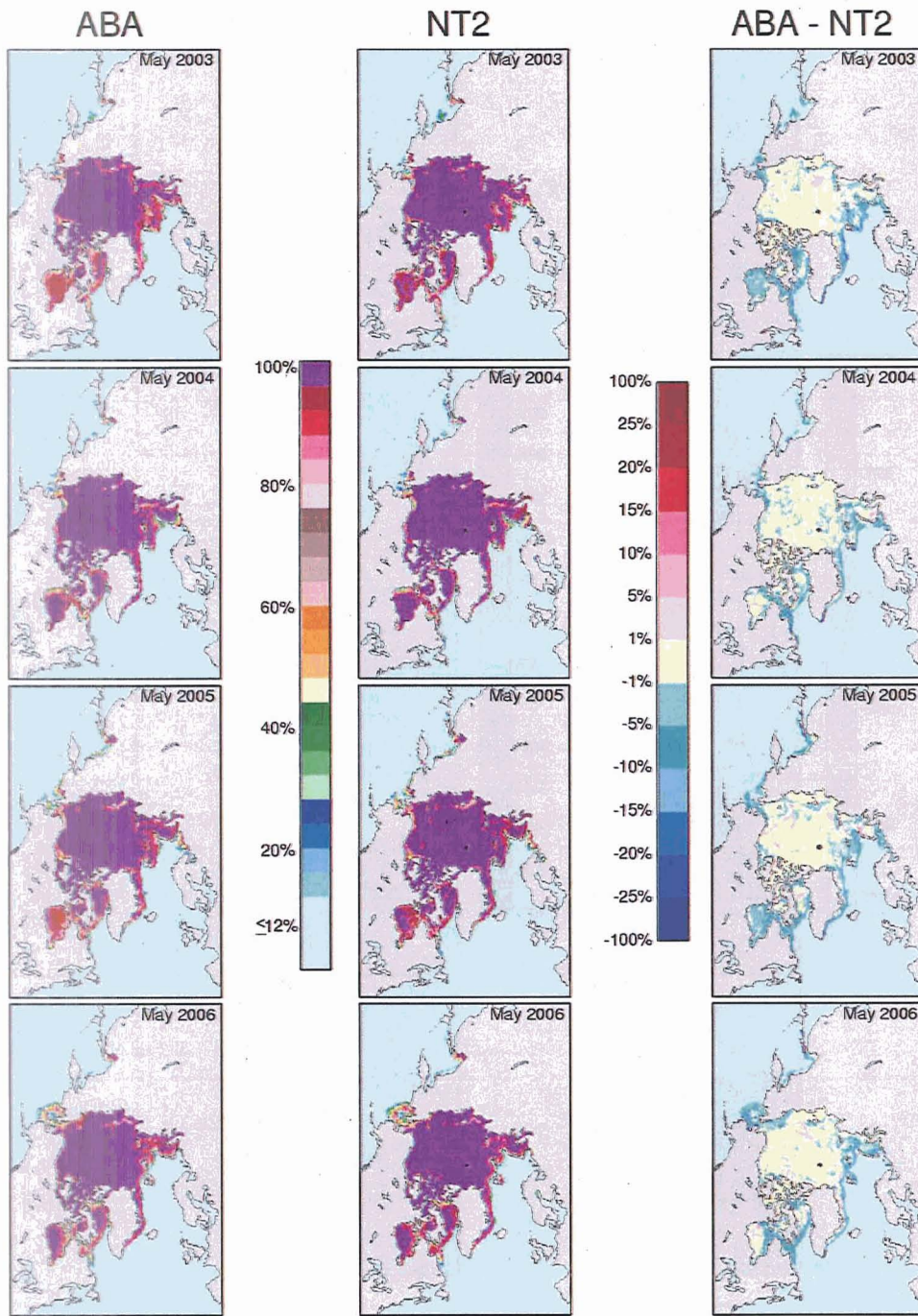
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Figure 5. Same as Figure 4 except for November.



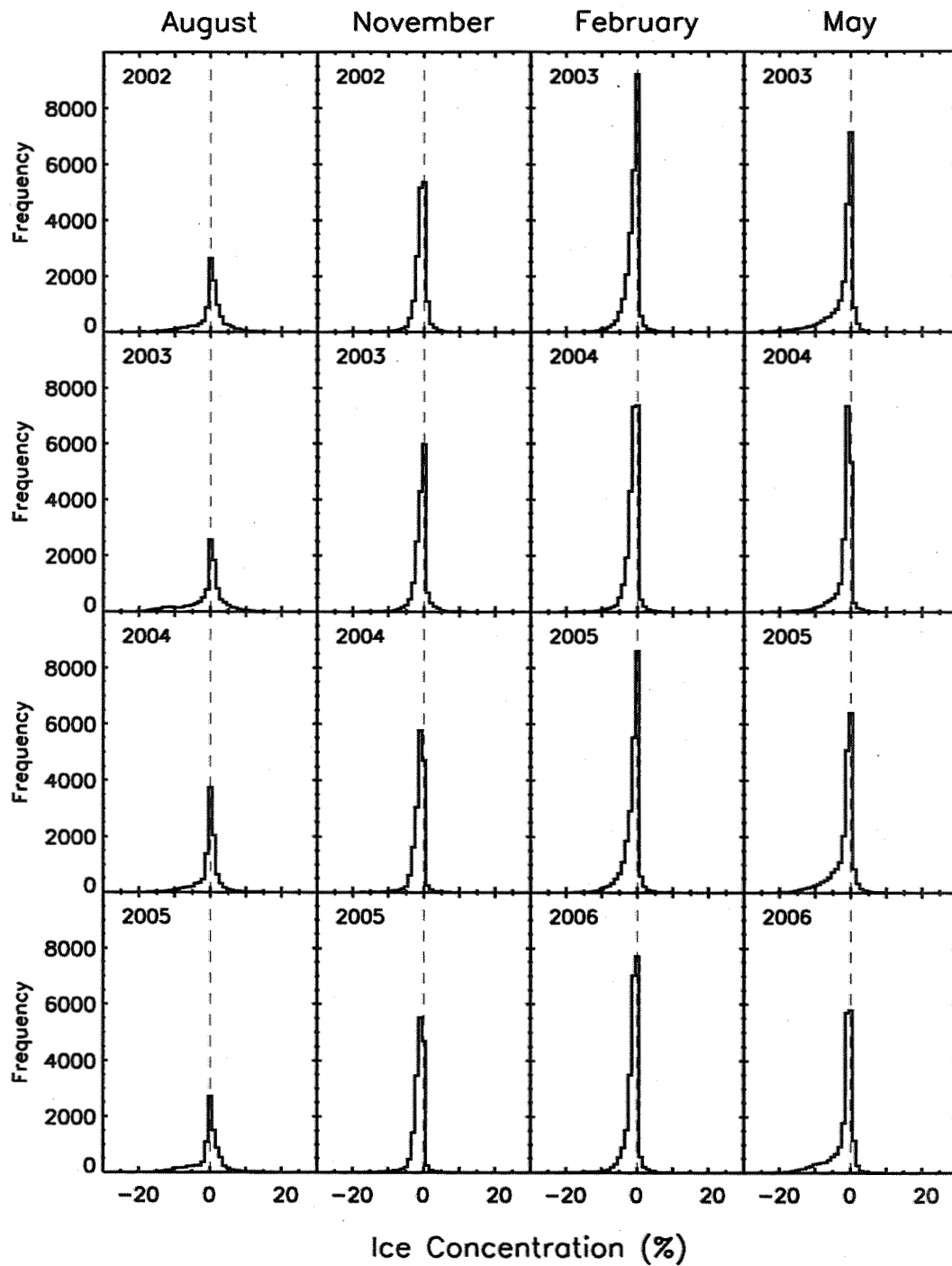
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Figure 6. Same as Figure 4 except for February and for the years 2003-2006 rather than 2002-2005.



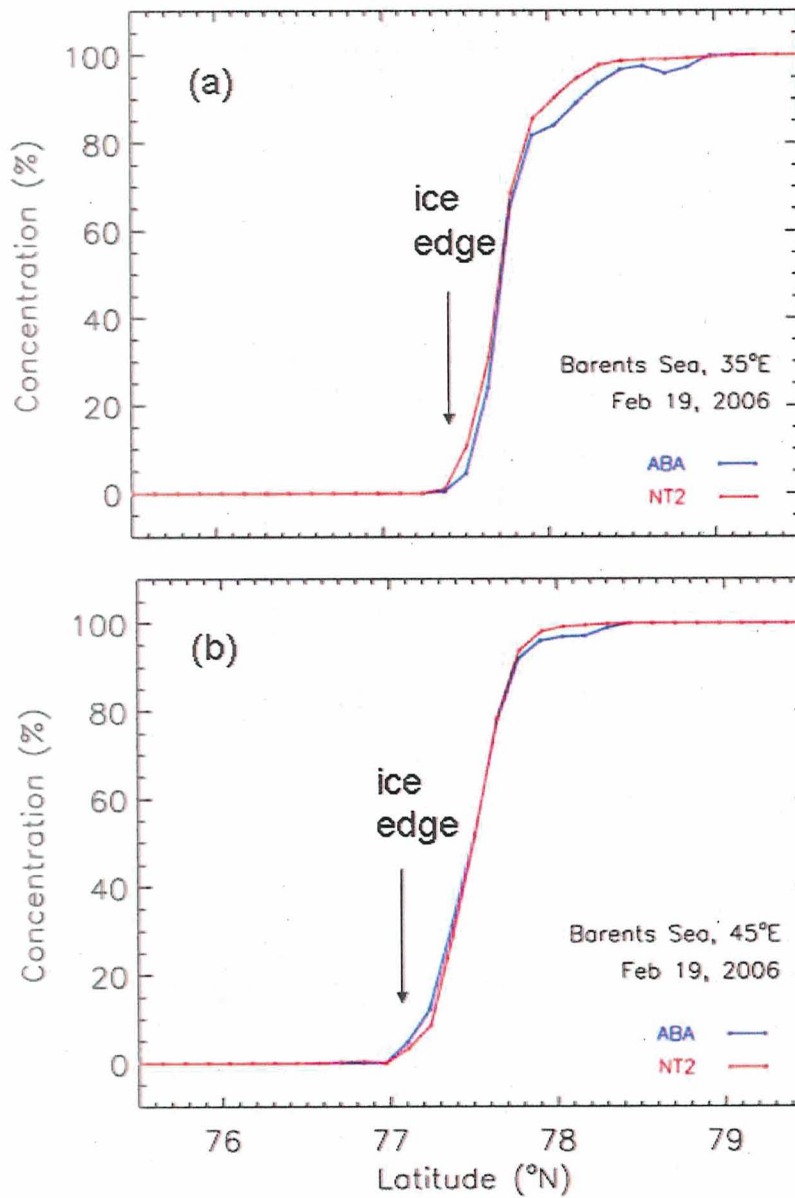
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Figure 7. Same as Figure 4 except for May.



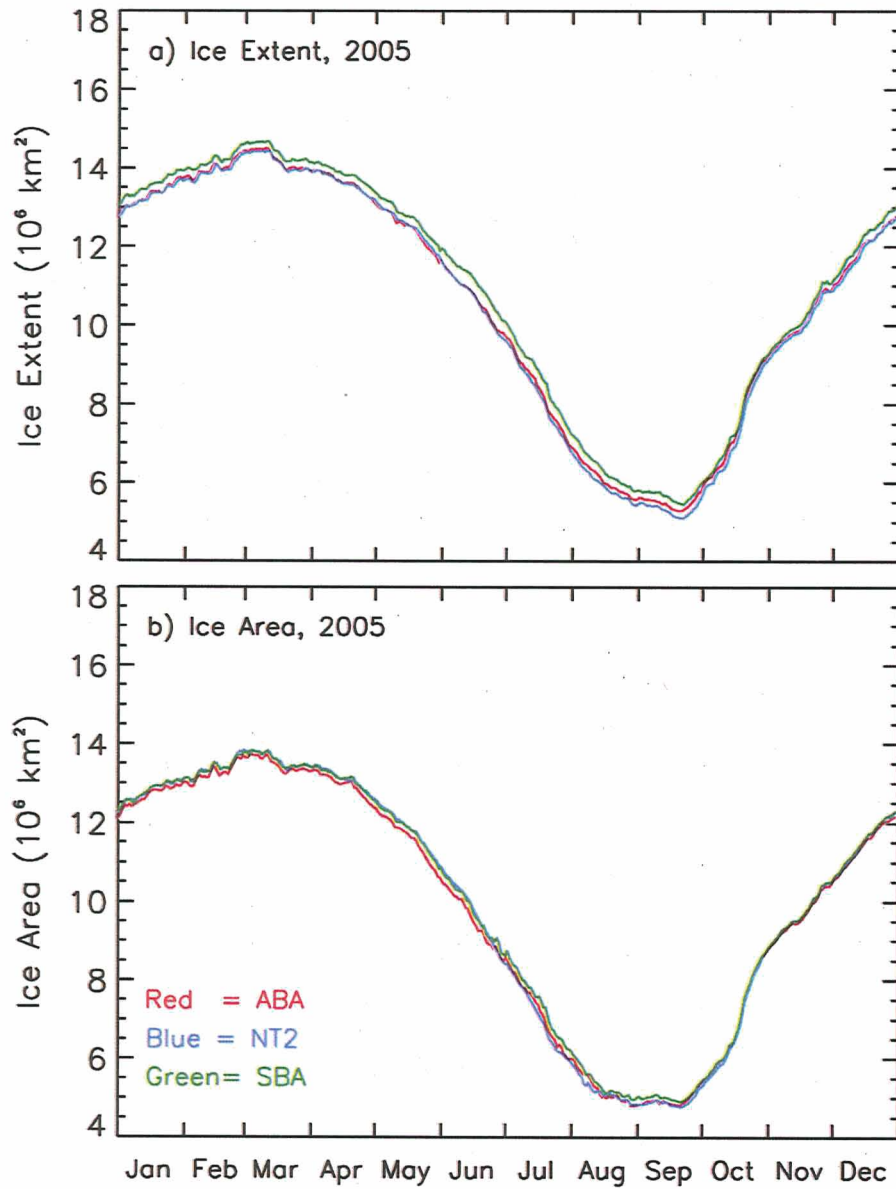
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Figure 8. Histograms of differences in ice concentration (in percentage) between ABA and NT2.

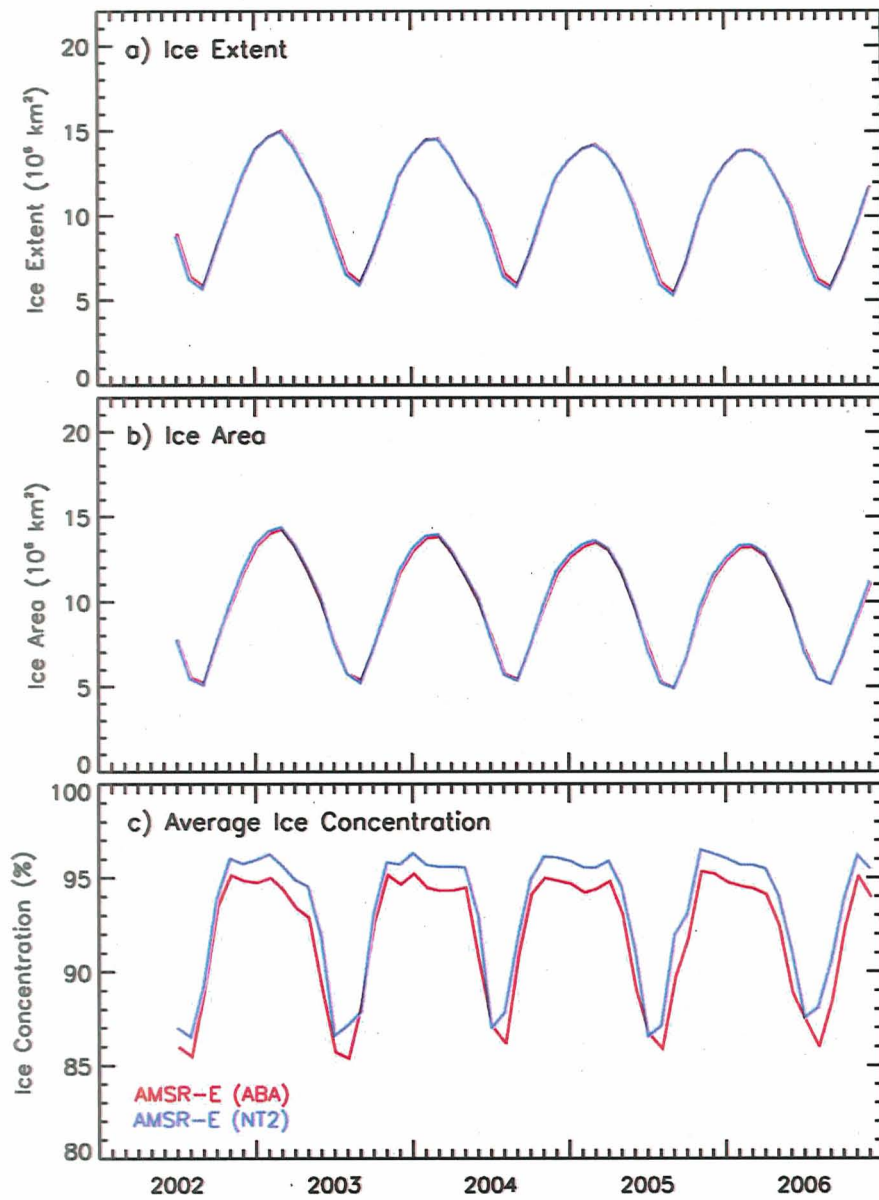


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713 Figure 9. Ice concentration values along a transect from open water to the ice pack at (a) 35°E  
714 and (b) 45°E in the Barents Sea on february 19, 2006, as derived from AMSR-E data using the  
715 ABA and NT2 algorithms and AMSR-E data .

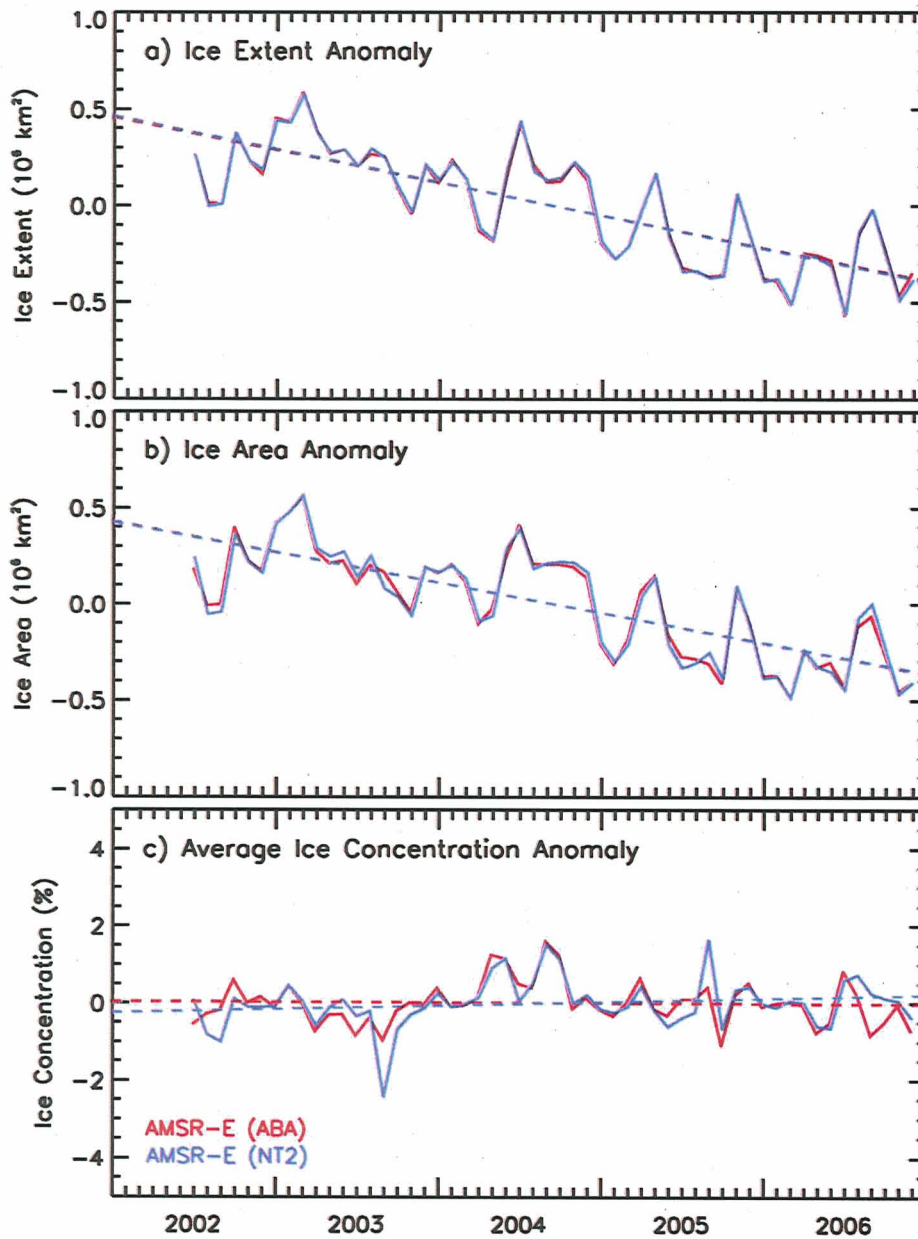


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 717 Figure 10. Comparison of daily (a) ice extent and (b) ice area using the ABA and NT2  
 718 algorithms on AMSR-E data and the SBA algorithm on SSM/I data in 2005.

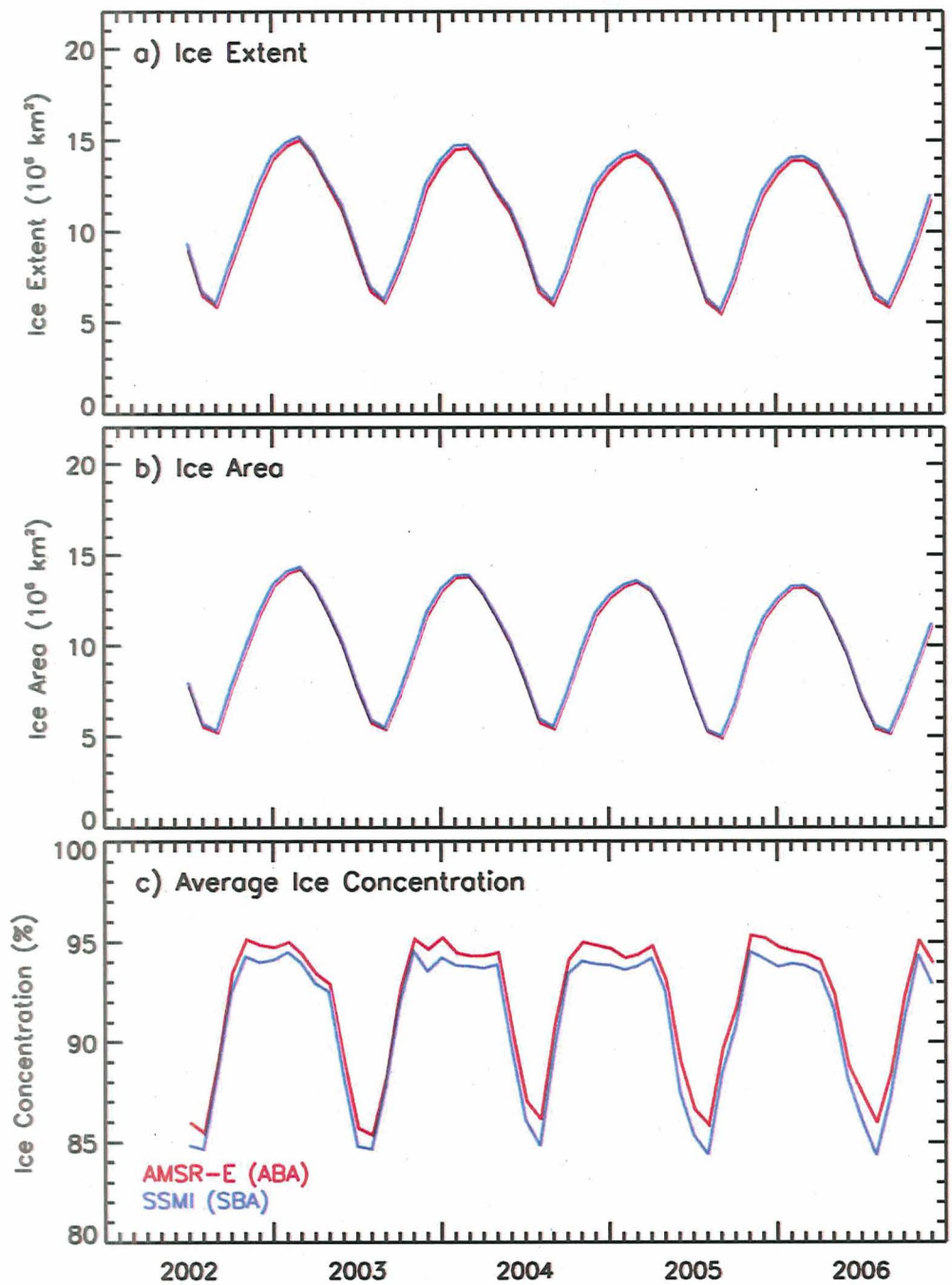


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721 Figure 11. Plots of monthly values of (a) ice extent; (b) ice area; and (c) ice concentration from  
722 June 2002 through November 2006 derived from AMSR-E data using the ABA and NT2  
723 algorithms. Each monthly ice concentration data point is the average of the daily ice

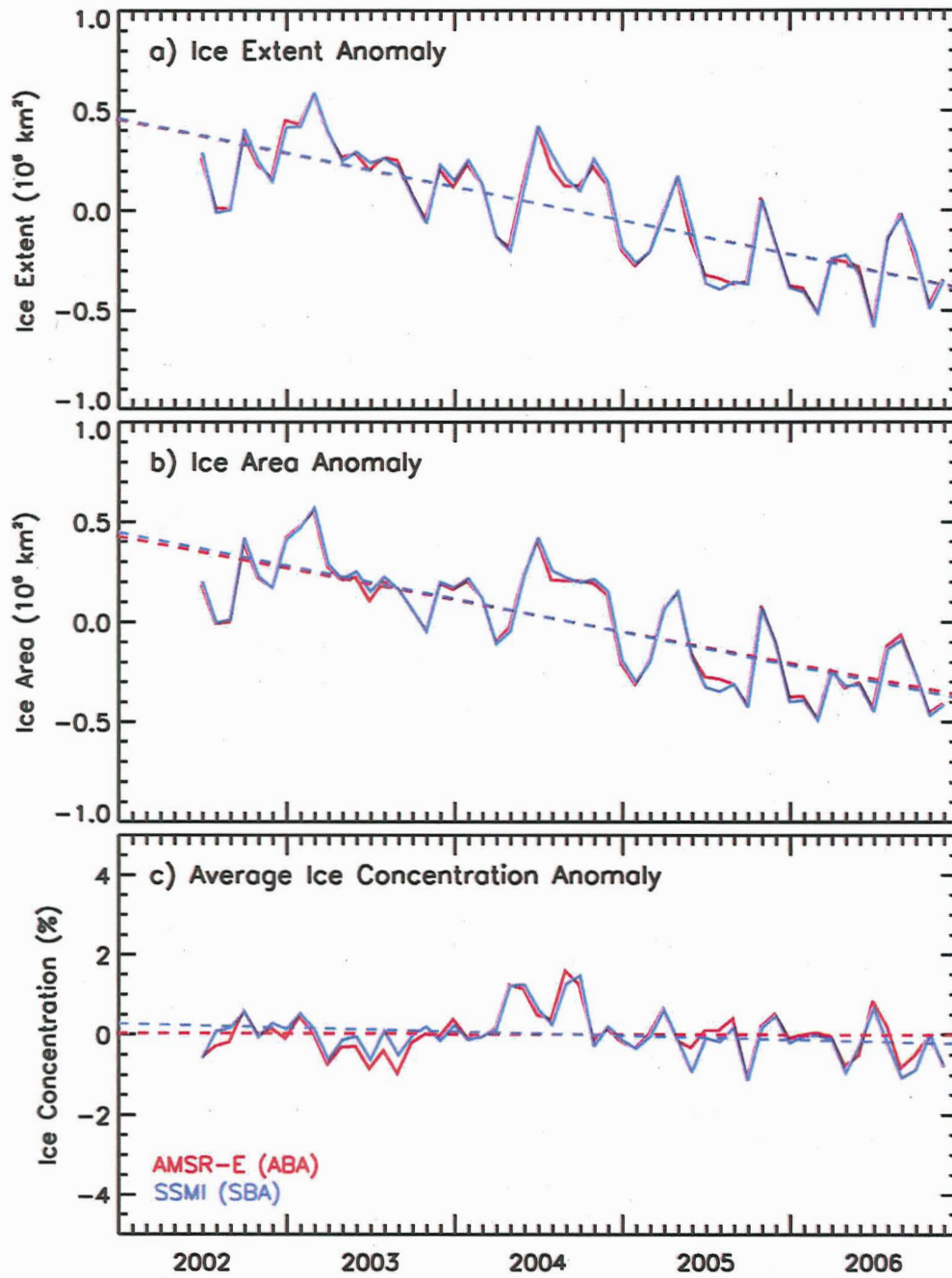


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 726 Figure 12. Plots of anomalies of the monthly values of (a) ice extent; (b) ice area; and (c) ice  
 727 concentration from June 2002 through November 2006 derived from AMSR-E data using the  
 728 ABA and NT2 algorithms.



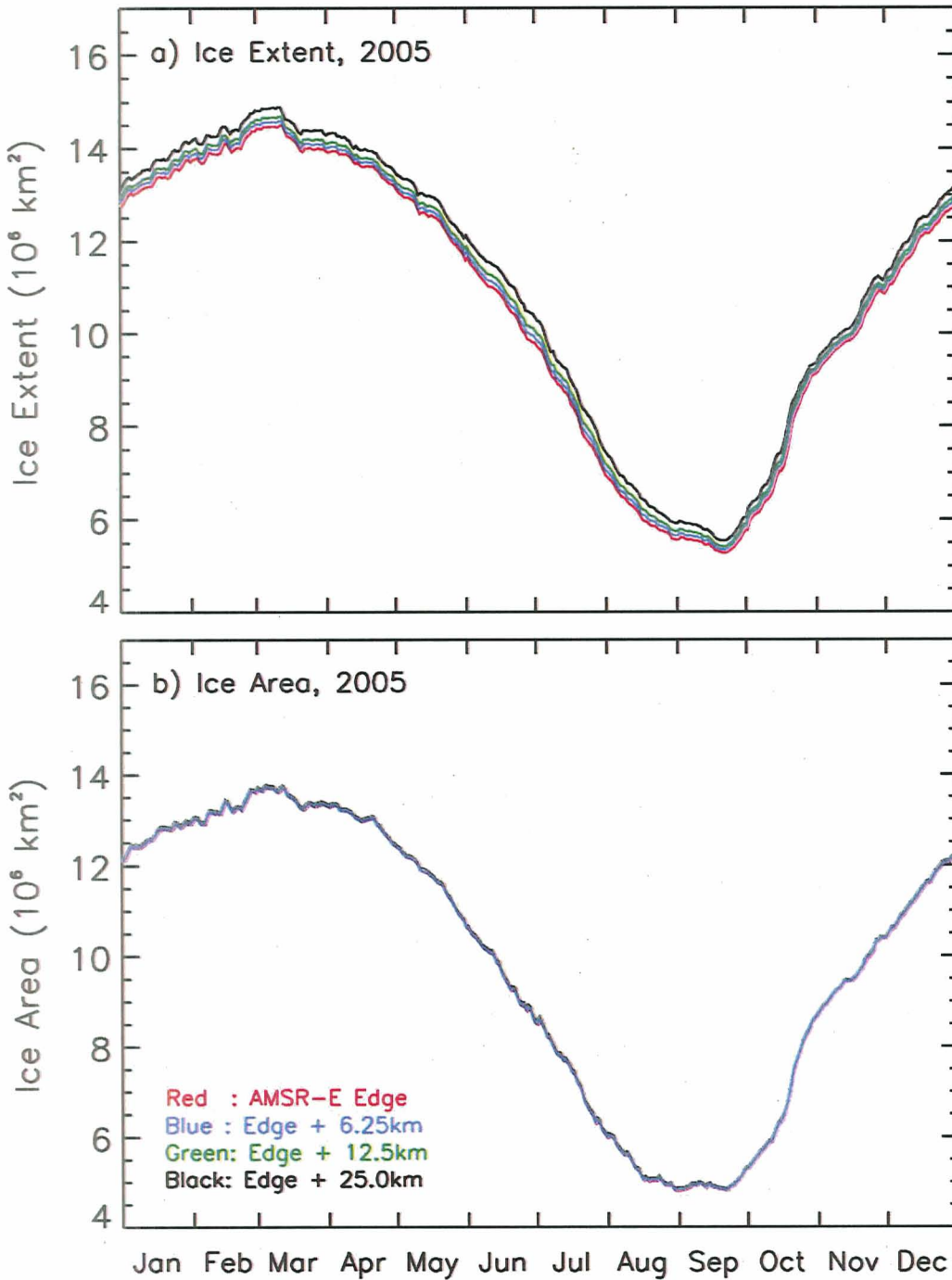
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731 Figure 13. Plots of monthly values of (a) ice extent; (b) ice area; and (c) ice concentration from  
 732 June 2002 through November 2006 derived from the AMSR-E and SSM/I data using the ABA  
 733 algorithm. Each monthly ice concentration data point is the average of the daily ice  
 734 concentration averages during the month.



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737 Figure 14. Plots of the anomalies of the monthly values of (a) ice extent; (b) ice area; and (c) ice  
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739 data using the Bootstrap algorithm (ABA and SBA).



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742 Figure 15. (a) Sensitivity plot of the seasonal cycle of monthly average ice extent, with the  
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