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Revisiting the Global Patterns of Seasonal Cycle in Sea Surface Salinity

Lisan Yu¹, Frederick M. Bingham², Tony Lee³, Emmanuel P. Dinnat⁴, Severine Fournier³, Oleg Melnichenko⁵, Wenqing Tang³, and Simon H. Yueh³

¹ Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA 02543, USA

² Center for Marine Science, University of North Carolina Wilmington, Wilmington, NC 28403, USA

³ Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA 91109, USA

⁴ NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD 20785, USA; Chapman University, CEESMO, Orange, CA 92866, USA.

⁵ International Pacific Research Center, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, HI 96822, USA

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19 Main points

- 20 1. Harmonic analysis was applied to four 0.25° satellite products (SMAP and SMOS) and two 1°
21 in situ products (Argo and EN4) between 2016-2018.
- 22 2. The annual and semiannual harmonic patterns estimated from satellite products have a good
23 agreement with the 0.25° World Ocean Atlas 2018.
- 24 3. In situ products underrepresent small-scale SSS variability when data record is short,
25 affecting the variance explained by annual harmonic.

26

Abstract

Argo profiling floats and L-band passive microwave remote sensing have significantly improved the global sampling of sea surface salinity (SSS) in the past 15 years, allowing the study of the range of SSS seasonal variability using concurrent satellite and in situ platforms. Here harmonic analysis was applied to four 0.25° satellite products and two 1° in situ products between 2016 and 2018 to determine seasonal harmonic patterns. The 0.25° World Ocean Atlas (WOA) version 2018 was referenced to help assess the harmonic patterns from a long-term perspective based on the three-year period. The results show that annual harmonic is the most characteristic signal of the seasonal cycle, and semiannual harmonic is important in regions influenced by monsoon and major rivers. The percentage of the observed variance that can be explained by harmonic modes varies with products, with values ranging between 50 and 72 % for annual harmonic and between 15 and 19% for semiannual harmonic. The large spread in the explained variance by the annual harmonic reflects the large disparity in nonseasonal variance (or noise) in the different products. Satellite products are capable of capturing sharp SSS features on meso- and frontal scales and the patterns agree well with the WOA 2018. These products are, however, subject to the impacts of radiometric noises and are algorithm dependent. The coarser-resolution in situ products may underrepresent the full range of high-frequency small scale SSS variability when data record is short, which may have enlarged the explained SSS variance by the annual harmonic.

49 Plain Language Summary

50 The seasonal cycle is the dominant signal of sea surface salinity (SSS) variability. Although
51 often removed in studies concerning climate variability, the seasonal cycle of SSS is of great
52 interest in its own right. SSS is a fundamental state variable and an indicator of the changes in
53 the global water cycle. SSS together with sea surface temperature (SST) determines the near-
54 surface buoyancy and density stratification, influencing the water mass formation, ocean
55 circulation, marine ecosystem, and biogeochemistry. Previous studies of seasonal SSS were
56 based on observations that were sparsely distributed in some parts of the ocean. SSS records with
57 seasonal resolution have become more readily available with the advent of the global Argo array
58 of profiling floats since 2003 and the L-band passive microwave remote sensing since 2010. This
59 study analyzed a suite of SSS data records from recent satellite and in situ platforms, aiming to
60 provide a characterization of the seasonal range of SSS in both the tropical low-SSS regime
61 associated with the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) and the subtropical high-SSS regime
62 under the influence of high evaporation. The findings of the study will be useful for
63 understanding potential advantages and limitations of the SSS observing system.

64

65 1. Introduction

66 The advent of L-band passive microwave remote sensing in the last decade (2010 to
67 present) has allowed for the first time the retrieval of global high-resolution sea surface salinity
68 (SSS) from space (Reul et al. 2014; Vinogradova et al. 2019). These new SSS datasets have
69 opened the modern era of salinity science, leading to new insights into the role of salinity in
70 ocean circulation, water mass formation, the water cycle, and climate variability and change
71 (Reul et al. 2020). Like many typical time series, the most characteristic signal of satellite SSS is
72 the seasonal cycle, a pattern that is repetitive from year to year and has variability generally
73 greater than intraseasonal, interannual, and longer-timescale variability (Bingham & Lee, 2017;
74 Dinnat et al., 2019). To facilitate the detection of climate-induced fluctuations that have smaller
75 magnitudes, the seasonal cycle is often removed in studies concerning climate variability.
76 However, the seasonal cycle of SSS is of great interest in its own right. SSS is a fundamental
77 ocean state variable which, together with sea surface temperature (SST), determines the
78 buoyancy and density stratification of the near-surface ocean. It has been shown that changes to
79 the seasonal salinity patterns alter the timing, magnitude, and spatial distribution of water-
80 column stratification (Maes & O’Kane 2014; Jensen et al. 2016), which in turn influences the
81 preconditions for water mass formation (Yu et al. 2018; Piracha et al. 2019) and open-ocean
82 deep convection (Gelderloos et al. 2012; Cherniavskaia et al. 2018), and modifies the production
83 and seasonal cycle of ecosystem dynamics (Greene 2013). Systematic and accurate
84 quantification and characterization of seasonal variations of SSS are highly needed. This is
85 especially necessary for satellite SSS observations because they are new and need to be fully
86 evaluated and understood (Bingham et al. 2021).

87 There are generally two approaches to obtain the seasonal cycle of a multi-year time
88 series. One is to average values for the same month for different years over the available period.
89 The other is to subject the time series to harmonic analysis and estimate the amplitudes and
90 phases of the annual and semiannual cycles. Levitus (1986) and Boyer and Levitus (2002;
91 hereafter BL2002) were among the first works that provided a comprehensive view of the annual
92 cycle of global SSS using the World Ocean Atlas 1998 (WOA98) fields of climatological
93 monthly mean salinity (Boyer & Levitus 1994). In particular, BL2002 computed the annual and
94 semi-annual harmonics from Fourier analysis and showed that most of the world ocean has an
95 annual cycle of SSS less than 0.3 on the practical salinity scale (pss). Areas with the annual cycle
96 larger than 0.3 pss include the tropical Pacific and Atlantic under the Intertropical Convergence
97 Zone (ITCZ) and the South Pacific Convergence Zone (SPCZ), the Northern Indian Ocean that is
98 impacted by the monsoons, and the northern North Atlantic that is subject to Arctic meltwater
99 discharge. They also showed that the amplitude of the second harmonic is greater than 0.3 pss
100 only in limited areas, mostly the outflow regions that are affected directly by major rivers
101 including the Amazon (the western tropical Atlantic), Congo and Niger (the equatorial eastern
102 Atlantic), Mississippi (the northern Gulf of Mexico), and Ganges/Brahmaputra (the Bay of
103 Bengal).

104 The WOA98 climatology is an objectively analyzed gridded product derived from profile
105 data archived in the World Ocean Database 1998 (WOD98; Boyer et al., 1998). Although the
106 total number of SSS observations in the WOD98 exceeds 1.4 million over a 45-year span, the
107 spatial and temporal data distribution is highly inhomogeneous. There is greater data coverage
108 for the Northern Hemisphere than the Southern Hemisphere, a greater amount of data for
109 summer months than for winter months, and more observations in the open oceans than in the

110 coastal zones. Despite of these uncertainties, the work of BL2002 laid a solid foundation for
111 further study of SSS seasonal variability that uses improved datasets and with enhanced regional
112 foci. For instance, Rao and Sivakumar (2003) used the North Indian Ocean subset of the WOD98
113 and examined the dynamical contrast between the SSS seasonal distributions of the Arabian Sea
114 (AS) and Bay of Bengal (BoB). Bingham et al. (2010) produced composite maps of near-surface
115 salinity seasonal cycles in the Pacific by adding a large thermosalinograph and bucket salinity
116 database collected by French researchers (Delcroix et al., 2005) and a significant number of new
117 profiling-float data in the Pacific that were collected since the work of BL2002. They also
118 applied harmonic analysis to individual data instead of monthly-gridded values. Chen et al.
119 (2018) took the advantage of the 11-year (2004–2014) Argo monthly-mean fields (Roemmich &
120 Gilson 2009) and conducted harmonic decomposition to obtain the three-dimensional structure
121 of the global salinity seasonal climatology. The annual and semiannual periodicities can be found
122 from the surface all the way down to the Argo sampling depth of ~ 2000 m. There are also a few
123 applications to recent satellite SSS products in various selected regions (e.g., Reagan et al. 2014;
124 Sena Martins et al. 2015; Köhler et al. 2015; Melnichenko et al. 2019; Yu 2020).

125 Wyrтки (1965) pointed out that the harmonic parameters provide a direct measure for the
126 amplitudes of annual and semiannual cycles. These parameters are more straightforward in
127 capturing the dominant harmonic patterns of seasonal variations than a set of monthly maps
128 produced by the averaging approach. However, this approach is not suitable if the objective is to
129 gain an understanding of the processes responsible for the seasonal variations in the time series.
130 In this regard, one often uses the seasonal cycle produced by the averaging approach to compute
131 the contribution of each physical process (e.g. surface fluxes, advection, and mixing) to the total
132 budget of salt (for salinity) or heat (for temperature). Seasonal SSS dynamics based on the near-

133 surface budget equations have been applied to almost all ocean basins, including but not limited
134 to the tropical Pacific (Delcroix et al. 1996; and Alory et al. 2012), the tropical Indian Ocean
135 (Rao & Sivakumar, 2003; Köhler et al. 2015), the tropical Atlantic (Foltz et al. 2008; Camara et
136 al. 2015), the pan-tropical ocean (Hasson et al. 2013a; Yu 2015), the subtropical ocean (Johnson
137 et al. 2016), the Southern Ocean (Dong et al. 2009; Ren et al. 2011), the global ocean (Yu 2011;
138 Bingham et al. 2012; Vinogradova & Ponte 2013), and the plume at the mouth of the Mississippi
139 River (Fournier et al. 2016). Some of the studies listed above included both the annual harmonic
140 analysis and the mixed layer salt budget analysis (e.g. Rao & Sivakumar 2003; Bingham et al.
141 2012; Vinogradova & Ponte 2013; Köhler et al. 2015).

142 This study aims to examine the SSS seasonality using satellite SSS products derived from
143 two L-band missions: the Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) mission by the European
144 Space Agency (ESA) that has been providing continuous SSS data record since a few weeks
145 after its launch in November 2009 (Kerr et al. 2010; Reul et al. 2020), and the NASA's Soil
146 Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) mission that has been operating since January 2015 (Entekhabi
147 et al. 2010; Vinogradova et al. 2019). The L-band radiometers operate on the principle that the
148 emissivity from the ocean surface is dependent on the dielectric constant of seawater and is a
149 function of salinity, temperature, sea surface state, polarization, and incidence angle (Swift &
150 McIntosh 1983; Lagerloef et al. 1995; Yueh et al. 2001). However, the radiometric sensitivity to
151 SSS is highly dependent on SST, decreasing from 0.7K per pss change for SST of 30°C to 0.25
152 K per pss change for SST of 0°C. In addition, the SSS retrievals are affected by geophysical
153 signals (e.g. SST, sea surface state such as roughness, foam, and whitecaps) and external
154 perturbations including extraterrestrial contributions (e.g. galactic/cosmic background radiation
155 and sun glint), antenna-radiation emission, Faraday rotation in Earth's ionosphere, atmospheric

156 attenuation, and Radio Frequency Interference (RFI) (Boutin et al. 2004; Le Vine et al. 2005;
157 Reul et al. 2007; Oliva et al. 2012; Dinnat et al. 2019). The latter results from the unauthorized
158 use of the protected L-band or out-of-band contamination in some coastal areas or a leakage of
159 other radar signals into L-band. SMOS and SMAP SSS products have been validated extensively
160 with in situ salinity measurements, showing that the accuracy of 0.2 pss can be met between
161 40°S and 40°N (Boutin et al. 2018).

162 The focus of this study is the ocean between 50°S and 50°N, where the open-water
163 surface temperature is mostly between 5–30°C throughout the year and SSS retrievals are better
164 validated. One main objective is to produce a global pattern of SSS seasonal cycle by using the
165 gridded products derived from recent satellite and in situ platforms. Four 0.25° satellite SSS
166 products are analyzed, with two from SMAP (Fore et al. 2020; Meissner et al. 2019) and two
167 from SMOS (Boutin et al. 2019; SMOS-BEC Team, 2019). These products are developed
168 independently by different groups using different retrieval algorithms. To compare with their in-
169 situ counterpart, two in situ gridded salinity products are included in the analysis: the 1° salinity
170 product gridded by the Scripps Institution of Oceanography from Argo profile floats (Roemmich
171 & Gilson 2009; hereafter referred to as the Argo product) and the version 4 of the Met office
172 Hadley Centre “EN” series of monthly 1° objective analysis of salinity (Good et al. 2013;
173 hereafter referred to as the EN4 product).

174 The six contemporary SSS products have a higher temporal and spatial resolution and
175 greater sampling homogeneity than the WOD98 used in BL2002. Reul et al. (2020) pointed out
176 that satellites provide quasi-instantaneous swath measurements that represent averages over
177 radiometer footprints with typical scales of 40–150 km. Since the early 2000s, the Argo array of
178 profiling floats covers the global open ocean with average spacing of about 300 km (i.e. a

179 nominal spatial sampling resolution of $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$; Riser et al. 2016), which dramatically increases
180 the global density of near-surface salinity measurements (see Figure 11 in Reul et al. (2020)).

181 The overlapping time between the six chosen products is relatively short, about three
182 years (2016-2018) at the time this work was conducted. The three-year time period raises a
183 question as to whether it is sufficient to depict the mean features that are defined by a longer time
184 period. However, BL2002 is not an ideal reference for addressing this question because the
185 WOD98 suffered from sampling bias and underrepresented a large part of the ocean. The salinity
186 climatology in the latest World Ocean Atlas version 2018 (hereafter WOA) presents a better
187 long-term reference. WOA has a version gridded on $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ spatial resolution (Zweng et al.
188 2018) as a result of the increased number of observations since the WOD98. This study will use
189 the WOA as a reference in assessing the climatological aspect of the recent SSS products.

190 The paper is organized as follows. A description of the datasets and the method is
191 provided in Section 2. Mean and seasonal variability of SSS are evaluated in Section 3. The
192 results obtained from the harmonic analysis are presented in Section 4. Summary and discussion
193 are given in Section 5.

194

195 2. Data and methods

196 2.1 Data sets

197 Major characteristics of the six SSS products and the WOA are listed in Table 1. A brief
198 description of each dataset is provided below.

199

200 2.1.1 Satellite SSS products

201 Two SMAP products used in the study are the SMAP Level 3 version 4.3 by the Jet
202 Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) (hereafter referred to as SMAP JPL) (Fore et al. 2020), and the
203 SMAP Level 3 Remote Sensing Systems (RSS) product (hereafter referred to as SMAP RSS)
204 recently released version 4.0 (Meissner et al. 2019). The SMAP JPL product features a 60-km
205 spatial resolution and include an 8-day running mean dataset and a monthly average dataset, all
206 on a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grid (Fore et al. 2020). The SMAP RSS product is also available with 8-day
207 running means and monthly averages; these products are resampled on a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grid from a
208 70-km spatial feature resolution using a Backus-Gilbert type optimum interpolation (OI) to
209 reduce random noise (Meissner et al., 2018).

210 The two SMOS products are the SMOS SSS Level 3 maps produced by the Laboratoire
211 d'Océanographie et du Climat (LOCEAN) and Centre Aval de Traitement des Données SMOS
212 (CATDS) (Boutin et al. 2019; hereafter referred to as SMOS LOCEAN), and the Level 3 version
213 2 SMOS SSS global product from the Barcelona Expert Center (BEC) (SMOS-BEC Team, 2019;
214 hereafter referred to as SMOS BEC). SMOS LOCEAN applied a de-biasing technique that
215 improves ice filtering and SSS at high latitudes (Boutin et al. 2019). The 9-day running mean
216 maps have $25\text{-km} \times 25\text{-km}$ spatial resolution. SMOS BEC data are generated using a debiased
217 non-Bayesian approach (Olmedo et al. 2017), which corrects systematic biases caused by land
218 masses and RFI and improves the data gaps due to the non-convergence of the retrieval
219 algorithm. The 9-day running objectively analyzed Level 3 maps are provided daily at $0.25^\circ \times$
220 0.25° spatial resolution. In this study, the two SMOS products were monthly averaged and
221 mapped on the same $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grids as the two SMAP products. Three full overlapping years
222 (2016-2018) were analyzed.

223

224 2.1.2 In situ gridded SSS products

225 The two in situ gridded SSS products are the Argo (Roemmich and Gilson 2009) and
226 EN4 (Good et al. 2013) monthly objective analyses. The Argo product is constructed from more
227 than 3000 autonomous profiling floats over the global ocean. It is obtained by first estimating the
228 time-mean field using a weighted local regression fit to several years of Argo data and then
229 applying optimal interpolation on the mean-subtracted monthly residuals to obtain the
230 interpolated anomaly fields on $1^{\circ}\times 1^{\circ}$ grids. Salinity data in the topmost layer at a depth of 2.5 m
231 is used as SSS in this study. The EN4 $1^{\circ}\times 1^{\circ}$ gridded monthly data products are compiled from
232 quality-controlled temperature and salinity profiles that are sourced from the Global Temperature
233 and Salinity Profile Programme (GTSPP), World Ocean Database 2009 (WOD09), and Argo.
234 Because of the use of Argo profiling float data, the EN4 product is not independent of the Argo
235 product. The use of non-Argo data in EN4 is essential in regions where Argo floats are limited or
236 not available, such as in shallow coastal waters, marginal seas, and sea-ice marginal zones
237 (Reagan et al. 2014). The topmost grid level of EN4 is at a depth of 5.25 m below the surface,
238 and is used as SSS to compare with satellite SSS products.

239

240 2.1.3 WOA

241 The WOA has both 1° and 0.25° gridded climatologies that were constructed from the
242 mean average of six “decadal” climatologies for the following time periods: 1955–1964, 1965–
243 1974, 1975–1984, 1985–1994, 1995–2004, and 2005–2017 (Zweng et al. 2018). The substantial
244 addition of historical salinity data since the publication of WOD98 has increased data density
245 over the global ocean, allowing the salinity climatology to be gridded to the $0.25^{\circ}\times 0.25^{\circ}$
246 resolution used in this study. Zweng et al. (2018) cautioned, however, that even with these

247 additional data, the WOA may still be hampered by a lack of data in some areas. The topmost
248 grid level of the WOA is at the ocean surface (depth = 0 m).

249

250 2.1.4 Satellite versus in situ SSS

251 It should be noted that the Argo and EN4 SSS are considered to be a bulk SSS,
252 representative of the salinity at about 5-m depth. Satellite SSS is a skin SSS, determined by the
253 depth at which the incoming power density is reduced by one order of magnitude (Boutin et al.
254 2016). For L-band microwave radiometers, the skin layer is about 1 cm at SST of 20°C (Swift
255 1980). Skin SSS can be different from bulk SSS if there are vertical salinity gradients between
256 the two measurement depths (Yu 2010; Drucker and Riser, 2014; Henocq et al., 2010; Song et al.
257 2015). This situation usually occurs in calm wind and high precipitation conditions, or within
258 river plumes (Boutin et al. 2016). However, in situ simultaneous measurements of skin (very
259 close to the surface) and bulk salinities are lacking, which hampers our ability to characterize the
260 conditions that generate the vertical salinity stratification at the near surface. It is yet to be
261 known whether, when, and how the skin-bulk SSS differences could be a source of bias affecting
262 the interpretation of the findings of this study.

263 Another major difference between satellite and in situ SSS is the sampling frequency in
264 both space and time. Reul et al. (2020) pointed out that satellites provide quasi-instantaneous
265 swath measurements that represent averages over radiometer footprints with typical scales of 40–
266 150 km. Space-time composites of swath satellite SSS are the basis of the 8-day mean or
267 monthly mean global SSS products. On the other hand, in situ platforms (including Argo floats)
268 provide pointwise samples. To produce gridded products, the pointwise measurements are
269 optimally interpolated using a pre-specified radius of influence, or decorrelation scale, that

270 defines the distance to which the influence of the point measurement is significant (e.g. Good et
271 al. 2013; Zweng et al. 2018). Data density is of paramount importance in determining the
272 spatiotemporal representation of the resultant gridded products. Since the early 2000s, the global
273 Argo array of profiling floats have dramatically increased the global density of near-surface
274 salinity measurements (Roemmich & Gilson 2009). The Argo floats surface every ~ 10 days and
275 the typical distance between floats is on the order of 300km (i.e. a nominal spatial sampling
276 resolution of $3^\circ \times 3^\circ$; Riser et al. 2016). The target resolution is much coarser than the SMAP
277 and SMOS sampling resolution (40–50 km) (see Figure 7 in Reul et al. 2020). Reul et al. (2020)
278 showed the many differences between satellite and Argo SSS products in regions of strong SSS
279 gradients generated by rain bands (e.g. Yu 2015), river plumes (e.g. Fournier et al. 2017a), or
280 strong eddy currents (e.g. Abe et al. 2019), where Argo observations are either unavailable due
281 to the close proximity to the coast or unable to resolve meso- and frontal-scale variability due to
282 the lack of sufficient resolution.

283 The focal domain of this study is the ocean basin between 50°S and 50°N where SST is
284 sufficient high and SSS products are better validated. For the analysis of satellite SSS products at
285 higher latitudes (poleward of 50°N/S), readers are referred to recent studies by Köhler et al.
286 (2015), Garcia-Eidell et al. (2017, 2019), Fournier et al. (2019), Tang et al. (2018, 2019), and Yu
287 (2020).

288

289 2.2 Harmonic analysis

290 A least-squares fit of the annual and semi-annual harmonics to the time series at each grid
291 point was performed based on the following equation (Wyrski 1965; Wilks 1995):

$$292 \quad S(t) = S_0 + A_1 \cos(\omega_1 t + \varphi_1) + A_2 \cos(\omega_2 t + \varphi_2) \quad (1)$$

293 where S is the monthly-mean SSS at time t expressed in months (total 36 months in this study),
 294 S_0 is the three-year mean salinity, ω_1 and ω_2 are the annual and semiannual frequencies
 295 expressed as $\omega_1 = 2\pi/12$ months, $\omega_2 = 2\pi/6$ months, and $A_1, A_2, \varphi_1,$ and φ_2 are the amplitudes and
 296 phases of the annual and semiannual harmonics, respectively. At each grid point, the amplitudes
 297 (A_1 and A_2) and phases (φ_1 and φ_2) were computed from the regression procedure using the three-
 298 year time series. Harmonic analysis was also applied to the 12-month WOA climatology to
 299 provide a climatological reference.

300 Two statistical measures are often used to evaluate how much the observed annual
 301 variance can be explained by the first and second harmonics respectively. The first measure is
 302 the R^2 value, calculated from the following formula

$$303 \quad R^2 = \left(1 - \frac{\text{variance}(\text{data} - \text{harmonic mode})}{\text{variance}(\text{data})} \right) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

304 The R^2 values in this study are reported as percentages from 0% to 100%. A high R^2 value
 305 indicates a higher amount of variability being explained by the respective harmonic mode. The
 306 second measure is the F-statistic that tests whether the data product and the respective harmonic
 307 mode has the same variance. Following Bingham et al. (2021), the F-statistic was calculated
 308 from R^2 using the equation

$$309 \quad F = \frac{R^2}{1 - R^2} \cdot \frac{N - m - 1}{m} \quad (3)$$

310 where N is the number of observations and m is the number of independent harmonic modes,
 311 which is 2 in our case of examining the annual and semiannual harmonics. The F values were
 312 calculated assuming all data points were independent observations, and significance was defined
 313 as the F values being greater than 0.95.

314

315 3. Mean and seasonal variability of SSS

316 3.1 The three-year mean SSS fields

317 The three-year (2016–2018) mean SSS fields constructed from the six products are
318 shown (Figure 1). Fundamental features of the mean SSS distribution include the contrast
319 between the saltier Atlantic Ocean and the fresher Pacific and Indian Oceans at all latitudes, SSS
320 minima (hereafter S_{min}) in regions of the ITCZ and SPCZ and higher latitudes, and SSS maxima
321 (hereafter S_{max}) in the subtropical ocean. A well-defined S_{max} center exists in all subtropical
322 regimes of the Pacific, Atlantic, and the Indian Oceans.

323 The tropical S_{min} and the subtropical S_{max} reflect the time-mean interactions between
324 the evaporation-minus-precipitation (E–P) flux, ocean circulation, and mixing processes (e.g.
325 Dessier & Donguy 1993; Delcroix et al. 1996; Donguy & Meyers 1996; Talley 2002; Gordon et
326 al. 2015; Melzer & Subrahmanyam 2015; Hasson et al. 2013b; and references therein). Marked
327 low-salinity surface waters are also noted in the coastal areas near major rivers, including the
328 northern Bay of Bengal, the eastern equatorial Pacific and Atlantic, the western equatorial
329 Atlantic, the East China Sea, and the northwestern Atlantic shelf region. This localized
330 freshening is dictated by the hydrological forcing through local rainfall and river discharges
331 (Gierach et al. 2013; Grodsky et al. 2014; Chao et al. 2015; Fournier et al. 2017a&b; da Silva &
332 Castelao 2018). In general, plume features are underestimated in in situ products (Fournier &
333 Lee 2021).

334

335 3.2 The three-year mean versus the long-term mean climatology

336 The WOA at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ resolution is taken as a reference to assess how the three-year
337 mean pattern deviates from the long-term mean climatology. The $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ Argo and EN4 fields

338 were interpolated onto $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ grids so that all six means are gridded in the same way and
339 then the WOA was subtracted from each product (Figure 2). The most coherent feature among
340 the six difference anomaly patterns is the basin-scale negative difference anomalies, most
341 evident in the Pacific Ocean north of 20°S . These negative anomalies, with a magnitude mostly
342 between -0.2 and -0.1 pss in all products except for SMOS BEC, indicate that the recent SSS
343 products are mostly fresher than the WOA climatology of 60+ years.

344 In general, SMOS BEC has the smallest difference anomalies and the best overall
345 agreement with WOA. The five other SSS products show also considerable deviation from WOA
346 in other parts of the ocean. SMAP JPL (Figure 2a) is saltier than WOA (positive anomalies) in
347 the equatorial Pacific and Atlantic cold tongue regions and the Arabian Sea, but fresher (negative
348 anomalies) in most of the Southern Hemisphere. SMAP RSS (Figure 2b) has negative anomalies
349 almost everywhere except for the North Atlantic and the latitude band between $40 - 20^\circ\text{S}$ in the
350 South Pacific. Large positive anomalies (> 0.2 pss) are present in the coastal regions adjacent to
351 the South American continent and the neighborhood of the Caribbean Seas and Gulf of Mexico.
352 SMOS LOCEAN (Figure 2c) has negative anomalies in the Pacific and also in the South Indian
353 and South Atlantic, but positive anomalies (> 0.2 pss) in the Arabian Sea and the Northwest
354 Atlantic. The two in situ gridded products, EN4 and Argo, have a similar difference pattern
355 (Figures 2e-f). Both show the dominance of negative anomalies in the Pacific and the eastern
356 tropical Indian Ocean and the dominance of positive anomalies in the Northeast Pacific and the
357 North Atlantic Ocean. The Argo product has no observations in coastal regions.

358

359 3.3 Mean and mean difference between the six products

360 The WOA-based evaluation reveals a similar large-scale anomaly pattern among the six
361 mean SSS fields, suggesting a broad consistency between the six SSS means. To see this more
362 clearly, standard deviations (STDs) were computed (Figure 3b) to quantify the spread between
363 the six mean fields (Figure 3a). STDs are small in the open ocean away from the coast and
364 equatorial regions, generally less than 0.05 pss. However, the six STD patterns show
365 considerable differences between products (STD > 0.2 pss) in the periphery and coastal areas, the
366 marginal seas, the ITCZ and SPCZ regions, and some higher latitude areas (poleward of 40°N/S).

367 Nine boxes surrounding the tropical Smin and subtropical Smax are drawn on Figure 3.
368 These selected areas are the key sites for the characterization of seasonal variability of SSS
369 extrema in the following sections of this paper. Locations, abbreviated names, and the product
370 ensemble SSS mean and STD (spread) within the nine boxes are listed in Table 2. There are
371 three Smin boxes (1-3) in the tropical low-SSS regime, one in each basin, located primarily in
372 the open ocean away from the direct influence of major rivers. There are six subtropical Smax
373 boxes (4-9) around the subtropical high-SSS zones in both the Northern and Southern
374 Hemispheres.

375 The Smax boxes (4-9) are generally located in regions of low STD values (0.02 – 0.03
376 pss) between products, except for the Arabian Sea (Box 6) where the STD (spread) between the
377 products is large, about 0.13 pss (Table 2). For the three Smin boxes, the STD is about 0.03 pss
378 in the tropical Atlantic (Box 2) but is 2-3 times larger in the eastern tropical Pacific (Box 1) and
379 the Bay of Bengal (Box 3).

380 The ensemble mean SSS map is shown in Figure 3a with the nine boxes superimposed.
381 The mean value averaged over each of the nine boxes (Column 5 in Table 2) is listed. For boxes

382 4-9, the contour that represents the SSS mean value of the box is drawn for each product using
383 different colors.

384

385 3.4 Seasonal variability of SSS

386 The STD of the monthly-mean SSS values is used as a measure of SSS seasonal
387 variability (Figure 4). Argo shows that large STDs (>0.4 pss) dominates the following areas: the
388 pan-tropical low salinity zone under the ITCZ and SPCZ, the near coastal areas affected by the
389 Amazon plume in the western tropical Atlantic (Grotsky et al. 2014; Fournier et al. 2017b) and
390 the Congo and Niger rivers in the eastern equatorial Atlantic (Reul et al. 2014; Chao et al. 2015),
391 the northwestern Atlantic shelf region particularly south of the St. George's and Newfoundland
392 banks (Grotsky et al. 2017), the northern Gulf of Mexico bordering the Mississippi (da Silva and
393 Castelao, 2018), the vicinity of the western South Atlantic near 35°S , 55°W under the influence
394 of the Rio de la Plata (Piola et al. 2005), the Bay of Bengal impacted by monsoon and the
395 Ganges/Brahmaputra river (Momin et al. 2015; Fournier et al. 2017a), and the southeastern
396 Arabian Sea centered at 8°N , 75°E , known as the Laccadive Sea region (also called the
397 Lakshadweep Sea) (Bruce et al. 1994; Schott & McCreary 2001). All of these high STD regions
398 are in direct response to the freshwater sources from rainfall and/or river discharge, except for
399 the high STD in the Laccadive Sea of the Arabian Sea. In the latter, the source of the pronounced
400 seasonal variability of SSS is the incursion of the Bay of Bengal water from November to
401 February (Sasamal 1990; Shenoi et al., 1999; Jensen 2001). During that period, the Northeast
402 Monsoon generates the East Indian Coastal Current (EICC) that flows equatorward along the
403 Indian and Sri Lankan coast and brings low-salinity water from the Bay of Bengal to the

404 southeast Arabian Sea (D'Addezio et al., 2015), freshening the sea-surface by more than 1 pss
405 compared to October (Rao & Sikakumar 2003).

406 The STD patterns show that the SMOS BEC product is significantly different from the
407 other products. The three satellite products, SMAP JPL, SMAP RSS, and SMOS LOCEAN
408 (Figures 4a-c) have a broad agreement with Argo in the tropical regions but show large
409 deviations in two other areas. One is the North Pacific north of 40°N where SMAP JPL, SMAP
410 RSS, and SMOS LOCEAN have abnormally high STDs (>0.4 pss). The other area is the western
411 Arabian Sea off the coast of Oman where the STDs are high (>0.4pss) in the two SMOS
412 products, but much smaller in SMAP and in situ products. Zonal bands of high STDs are also
413 seen in SMAP JPL at high southern latitudes (poleward of 40°S). Among the four satellite
414 products, SMOS BEC has the weakest STDs, particularly in the tropical Pacific under the ITCZ
415 and SPCZ.

416 The EN4 STD pattern is similar to that of Argo over the open ocean, but has enhanced
417 STD values in the marginal seas and coastal areas. The differences are due primarily to the
418 differences in data coverage. Argo floats do not sample shallow seas and coastal areas, whereas
419 the EN4 product includes in situ measurements from all available platforms and refers to long-
420 term climatology as background information in the presence of data gaps (Good et al. 2003).

421 One marked difference between satellite and in situ SSS products is the mean level of
422 STD in the open ocean away from the tropical rain bands and the coastal zones. In these
423 seasonally quiescent regions, the STDs in Argo and EN4 are small, at 0.1 pss or less. However,
424 satellite products have considerably higher STDs, with magnitude generally above 0.1 pss. The
425 differences could be caused by two reasons: either satellite products contain a higher level of
426 random noise, or in situ products underestimate seasonal variability in the open ocean.

427

428 4. Patterns of Harmonic Modes

429 4.1 Annual harmonic of SSS

430 Amplitudes of the estimated first harmonic (A_1 in Eq. (1)) in the six SSS products (Figure
431 5) show that the regions of large STDs (>0.3 pss; Figure 4) are also regions of pronounced
432 annual cycle, with SSS amplitudes exceeding 0.3 pss. As mentioned in the previous section,
433 these areas are predominantly influenced by the freshwater sourced from either rainfall or river
434 discharge, demonstrating the intimate connection of the regional SSS to the ocean and terrestrial
435 water cycle. The six products agree well with each other on the annual harmonic pattern. It is
436 worth noting, however, that SMOS BEC has the weakest annual amplitude over the global ocean,
437 showing almost no annual variation in the extratropical open ocean. SMAP JPL has larger annual
438 amplitudes than the other products in the sub-polar North Pacific, poleward of 40°N , and also in
439 the Southern Ocean near 40°S .

440 The phase of the estimated annual cycle (φ_1 in Eq. (1)) represents the occurrence time
441 (month of the year) of the maximum SSS (i.e, the saltiest surface water). Patterns of the annual
442 phase (Figure 6) suggest that the six products are consistent in describing the progression of the
443 maximum amplitude of the SSS annual cycle in the tropical ocean. For instance, SSS at the 10°N
444 latitude band in the tropical Pacific reaches the annual maximum in April-May when the ITCZ is
445 located near the equator, whereas SSS near the equator has the annual maximum in July-August
446 where the ITCZ moves farthest north near 10°N . Similar annual phase progression is also shown
447 in the tropical Atlantic and Indian Oceans, with a noted exception of SMOS BEC which has a
448 phase shift in the North Indian Ocean.

449 Outside of the tropical oceans, the satellite products deviate from one to another in two

450 zonal bands. One is the Southern Hemisphere between 50–20°S, where SMOS BEC is markedly
451 different from the other products, showing that the annual high SSS values occur predominantly
452 in February, compared to November and April for the other products. The second location is the
453 Northern Hemisphere between 20–40°N with one center located in the northwestern Pacific off
454 the coast of Japan (120°E – 180) and the other center located in the northwestern Atlantic off the
455 coast of the United State and Canada. In these regions, the phase in SMOS BEC and SMOS
456 LOCEAN is shifted by about 6 months. The SMAP JPL and SMAP RSS products are similarly
457 out of phase with in situ products, showing a phase shift of about 3 months in the northwestern
458 Pacific. Apparently, satellite products have a biased seasonal SSS phasing in this zonal band.

459 One possible factor contributing to such seasonal biases is the effect of RFI. The
460 percentages of SMAP land samples suspected to be influenced by RFI are highly concentrated in
461 the regions such as near Japan and northeastern China as well as off the coast of Europe (e.g.,
462 Piepmeier et al 2014). Even if some SMAP measurements over the ocean that are obviously
463 affected by RFI are excluded, low-level RFI can still affect satellite SSS retrievals. SMOS is also
464 significantly affected by RFI and land contamination in these regions, and exhibits very large
465 positive biases in radiometric observations (resulting in fresh biases in retrieved salinity)
466 extending to 160°E and beyond east of Japan (Martín-Neira et al., 2016). Some mitigation and
467 correction schemes employed in the SSS products to reduce the impact of RFI might introduce
468 other errors. Other contributors to the seasonal biases in satellite SSS are also possible.

469 The RFI sources and strengths are not constant, which complicates the effort of spinning
470 down the causes. Near-realtime RFI maps for the SMAP satellite are produced using the
471 algorithm developed by Piepmeier et al. (2014; 2016) and are available at
472 (<https://salinity.oceansciences.org/smap-radiometer.htm>). These maps show that the strength of

473 the RFI signals in L-band surface brightness temperatures change on seasonal timescales and has
474 also substantial year-to-year variations. The nonstationary RFI signals, if not completely filtered
475 out, could affect the seasonal cycle of satellite SSS retrievals. However, detecting the
476 nonstationary RFI signals that have not been filtered out in satellite SSS is an ongoing effort
477 because it depends on each individual retrieval algorithm. While detailing the effects of RFI on
478 seasonal SSS phasing is beyond the scope of this paper, it is hoped that the discrepancies
479 identified in this study would provide useful information for satellite retrieval teams to improve
480 the accuracy of SSS in regions influenced by RFI.

481

482 4.2 Semiannual harmonic of SSS

483 Amplitudes of the estimated semiannual harmonic (A_2 in Eq.(1)) in the six products are
484 shown in Figure 7. Argo and EN4 indicate that the semiannual component is small, far less than
485 0.1 pss, over most of the global ocean. Areas with significant semiannual component (amplitude >
486 0.3 pss) are in the near-coastal regions bordering large rivers, including the Amazon (the western
487 tropical Atlantic), Congo and Niger (the equatorial eastern Atlantic), Mississippi (the northern
488 Gulf of Mexico), Ganges-Brahmaputra (the Bay of Bengal), Yangtze River (the South China
489 Sea), and Rio de la Plata estuary (at $\sim 35^\circ\text{S}$ on the Atlantic coast of South America). Satellite
490 products are generally in good agreement with Argo and EN4 except for the coastal regions in
491 the North Pacific with high amplitudes. In general, SMAP JPL has a stronger semiannual
492 amplitude between $50\text{--}40^\circ\text{S}$ than the other products. SMOS LOCEAN displays a zonal band of
493 semiannual amplitude of 0.3 pss near 40°N mainly in the North Pacific, possibly related to the
494 effect of RFI.

495 Phases of the estimated semiannual cycles (φ_2 in Eq. (1)) (Figure 8) show that all
496 products agree well in the tropical ocean. Outside of the tropics, SMAP JPL and SMAP RSS
497 have an overall in-phase relationship with Argo and EN4, whereas SMOS LOCEAN and SMOS
498 BEC are generally out of phase with both in situ and SMAP products, particularly in the northern
499 latitudes between 20–50°N.

500

501 4.3 Variances explained by the harmonic modes

502 The annual and semiannual cycles of SSS at each grid location were constructed using
503 the respective first and second harmonic parameters, and the two cycles were then combined to
504 reconstruct the seasonal variations. The R^2 values (Eq.(2)) and F-statistic (Eq. (3)) corresponding
505 to the first and second harmonics and the total sum were computed respectively. R^2 values
506 represent the percentage of the observed variance that can be accounted for by the given
507 harmonic mode, and F values greater than 0.95 are considered statistically significant. Spatial
508 patterns of R^2 corresponding to the annual and reconstructed total (annual + semiannual)
509 seasonal cycles are shown in Figures 9 and 10, respectively, and the areas that have F values
510 lower than 0.95 (not significant) are shaded (magenta). Basin averages of the R^2 -based
511 percentage contributions from all the three components (i.e. the annual, semiannual, and the
512 reconstructed seasonal cycle) in the three individual basins (Pacific, Atlantic, and Indian) and the
513 global ocean (50°S – 50°N) are summarized in Table 3.

514 The R^2 pattern of the annual harmonic (Figure 9) indicates that the percentage of the
515 observed variance explained by the annual mode is largely similar to the annual amplitude. Areas
516 where annual harmonic has a large contribution (>80%) to the observed variance are often areas
517 of large annual amplitudes (> 0.2 pss) (Figure 5). Interestingly, the R^2 values for in situ products

518 are generally greater than those for satellite products although the harmonic amplitude patterns
519 are all similar. A similar result was also obtained by Bingham et al. (2021) in the tropics using
520 mooring data as an in situ comparison. This is especially the case in the extratropical ocean
521 where annual amplitudes in most areas are lower than 0.1 pss. For satellite products, the weak
522 annual harmonic in the region corresponds to a low contribution to the total variance (<20%),
523 whereas for in situ products, the weak annual harmonic in the region can still account for a
524 substantial percentage of the total variance. This difference may reflect the impact of noise in
525 data on the computation of R^2 . As shown in Figure 4, the observed variance in in situ products is
526 much smaller than that in the satellite products in the extratropical regions away from the
527 marginal seas and the western boundary currents.

528 The R^2 values are increased by 10-20% almost everywhere over the globe when the
529 semiannual harmonic was added to the annual harmonic to obtain the reconstructed seasonal
530 cycle (Figure 10). The two harmonic modes account for most of the observed variance in EN4
531 and Argo, but they contribute much less to the satellite observed variances in the extratropical
532 ocean where most of the R^2 values are small and not statistically significant. The differences
533 between products can be better assessed when looking at the basin averages listed in Table 3.
534 EN4 shows that, globally, 88% of the total SSS variance can be explained by the first two
535 harmonic modes, with 72% of the variance coming from the annual harmonic and 16% from the
536 semiannual harmonic. The partition of the annual and semiannual contributions is similar in the
537 Pacific and Atlantic Oceans, but is tilted slightly toward the semiannual in the Indian Ocean due
538 to the influence of monsoon forcing. By comparison, the first two harmonic modes in Argo
539 contribute to about 80% of its total SSS variance, which is about 8% less than those in EN4 due
540 to the weaker contribution of the annual harmonic in Argo. The four satellite products show that

541 the annual and semiannual harmonics have percentage contributions similar to WOA in all
542 basins but considerably lower than Argo and EN4.

543

544 4.4 Harmonic modes based on WOA

545 The first and second harmonics in the WOA salinity climatology were computed (Figure
546 11) and show clearly the advantages of the improved spatial resolution and increased data
547 density over BL2002. The WOA annual harmonic has larger amplitudes and sharper amplitude
548 bands (>0.3 pss) in regions of strong SSS variability, such as the ITCZ and SPCZ, river plumes,
549 and coastal and marginal seas when compared to BL2002. The annual phase also shows
550 considerable improvement over BL2002 in representing the refined zonal phase structures in the
551 tropical ocean. For instance, the WOA annual phase has a thin band at the equator in the central
552 and eastern Pacific that shows the SSS has its maximum in May-June. This band was not present
553 in BL2002. Several other narrow zonal phase bands were also missed in BL002, including the
554 bands of March-April phasing located on the equatorward edges of the subtropical Smax in the
555 Pacific and Atlantic (about $20\text{--}25^\circ\text{N}$ in the northern basins and $15\text{--}5^\circ\text{S}$ in the southern basins).
556 The semiannual harmonic pattern was also included in BL2002. The semiannual mode estimated
557 from WOA bears a large similarity to Argo and EN4 (Figures 7-8 (e)-(f)).

558

559 4.5 Long-term perspective of the three-year based harmonic patterns

560 The improved representation of fine-scale features in the WOA provides a valid
561 benchmark for assessing the long-term perspective of the three-year based harmonic modes
562 presented above. In particular, it would be interesting to see whether the fine-scale features in the
563 satellite harmonic modes are due to the use of a short period or replica of the climatological

564 norms. Specifically, it would be interesting to know whether the three-year based seasonal cycle
565 of SSS could be affected by potential spatiotemporal aliasing in regions that feature small-scale
566 SSS variability such as the coastal oceans and river plumes.

567 The comparison of the first and second harmonics (Figures 5-8 and 11) indicates that the
568 six recent SSS products, despite having only a three-year data span, are capable of reproducing
569 all the main climatological features in WOA. These features include the SSS annual and
570 semiannual amplitudes in open and coastal regions under direct freshwater influences, e.g.
571 rainfall and/or river discharge, the narrow zonal bands of annual phasing in the tropical and
572 southern oceans, and the annual phasing in the northwest Pacific and Atlantic. Satellite products
573 compare well with WOA on the two harmonic amplitude patterns, and they also agree well with
574 WOA on the phase distribution patterns at all latitudes except for the latitudes bands 20–40°N.
575 The in situ products, particularly Argo, also show similar amplitude and phase patterns as the
576 WOA.

577 WOA is a 60+ year climatology and so many modes of natural climate variability should
578 be smoothed out on such a long time scale, whereas the satellite and in situ products over the
579 2016-2018 time period could be skewed by natural variability. For instance, the early 2016 was
580 marked by the weakening of the strong El Niño of 2015/16 with a transition to El Niño-Southern
581 Oscillation (ENSO) neutral phase, and the later 2017 and early 2018 were featured by a moderate
582 La Niña. One noticeable difference is that the annual amplitude of the SSS associated with the
583 ITCZ in the western equatorial Pacific (140°E – 180) is weaker in the WOA than in the satellite
584 (except SMOS BEC) and in situ (Argo and EN4) products (Figures 5 & 11). This difference may
585 reflect a La Niña influence on the three-year time series.

586 Satellite products reveal the importance of having a fine-enough spatiotemporal
587 resolution for depicting the three narrow zonal bands of SSS annual amplitude of 0.4 – 0.5 pss in
588 the far eastern equatorial Pacific fresh pool (110–80°W, 0–10°N) (Alory et al. 2012). These SSS
589 amplitude bands result from SSS seasonal changes associated with the ITCZ (centered at ~10°N),
590 the Costa Rica dome (~ 5°N), and the equatorial cold tongue (~ the equator). The ability to
591 resolve the fine details of different SSS processes in the region is an excellent example of the
592 advantages of satellite SSS remote sensing. Neither Argo nor EN4 are able to fully capture the
593 spatial distinctions between the three mesoscale features. WOA is able to validate the
594 climatological aspect of these three bands. However, long record of historical in-situ data could
595 not guarantee near-uniform sampling or homogenous spatial coverage. A longer satellite data
596 record is needed to determine the time-mean shape and magnitude of the meso- and frontal-scale
597 SSS features.

598 Satellite products also show the advantages of remote sensing in detecting the SSS
599 semiannual amplitude in the coastal regions influenced by river plumes (Figures 7 and 11b), the
600 marginal seas, and the eastern equatorial Pacific where the three SSS bands are located. These
601 semiannual amplitudes are evident in WOA but with blurry structures and limited details. Argo
602 is a better version of EN4 and WOA in this regard, though the details are still lacking and there
603 are no Argo observations in coastal regions.

604

605 4.6 Quantification of the deviations from WOA

606 Most of the dominant harmonic features are zonally oriented. To evaluate the deviation of
607 the three-year based harmonic analysis from WOA, the amplitude, phase, and R^2 of the first and
608 second harmonics in each product were zonally averaged and the WOA counterparts were

609 subtracted. The latitudinal structures of the product-minus-WOA differences in harmonic
610 parameters are shown in Figure 12.

611 The satellite products, except for SMOS BEC, tend to have slightly stronger annual and
612 semiannual amplitudes than WOA, and more so in the Northern Hemisphere (Figures 12a-b).
613 SMAP JPL is an outlier at higher latitudes (poleward of 40°N/S), where its amplitudes exceed
614 WOA by 0.1 pss or greater. SMOS BEC has considerably weaker harmonic amplitudes in the
615 tropical latitudes. On the other hand, Argo amplitudes are slightly weaker than WOA, and EN4
616 is more or less on the same level as WOA.

617 The two in situ products show generally good agreement with WOA on the annual
618 harmonic phases, but less so on the semiannual harmonic phases (Figures 12c-d). The satellite
619 products are less comparable. While SMAP JPL deviates from the WOA annual phase by $\sim \pm 40$
620 days in mid and high latitudes, SMAP RSS and SMOS LOCEAN have large differences ($\sim \pm 60$
621 days) from WOA semiannual phases in the southern latitudes. SMOS BEC is least comparable to
622 WOA in both harmonic phases.

623 The R^2 mean differences produce an interesting pattern. Although the R^2 values in Argo
624 and EN4 are seen to be higher than those in satellite products (Figure 10), the fact that they are
625 also higher than those in WOA is unexpected. The annual harmonic explains 10 – 20% more
626 observed variance in the respective data product despite the relatively weaker annual amplitude
627 (Figure 12a). One sensible explanation is the lower noise level (or a higher level of smoothness)
628 in the two in situ products (Figure 5), which may be related to the coarser spatiotemporal
629 sampling resolution and/or less nonseasonal variance during the three-year period. The data base
630 for WOA does not have uniform sampling nor homogenous spatial coverage, and the six-decade
631 long record encompasses a broad range of variability. WOA would have much greater sampling

632 coverage than either Argo or EN4 products, as WOA would contain almost all the data used in
633 the Argo and EN4 products plus all historical data. In addition, the 0.25° WOA fields were
634 objectively analyzed on the 0.25°×0.25° resolution, whereas the Argo and EN4 products are on
635 1°×1° resolution but were interpolated down to 0.25°×0.25° resolution in computing R². These
636 factors all contribute to the nonseasonal variance when calculating R², lowering the percentage
637 of observed variance that can be explained by the harmonic modes. Thus, the coarser-resolution
638 in situ products may underrepresent the full range of high-frequency small scale SSS variability
639 when data record is short, which could enlarge the SSS explained variance by annual harmonic.

640 The global averages of the mean differences in amplitude, phase, and R² for annual and
641 semiannual harmonics are summarized in Figure 13. The error bars represent one standard
642 deviation from the zonal mean. The amplitude differences for the annual and semiannual
643 harmonics (Figure 13a) show that satellite products except for SMOS BEC, have larger
644 amplitudes than the WOA and in situ products. The phase differences for the annual harmonic
645 (Figure 13b) are mostly small except for SMOS BEC that lags WOA by about 10 days. The
646 phase differences for the semiannual harmonic are larger, with SMOS LOCEAN and SMAP JPL
647 leading WOA by more than 10 days. The R² differences of the annual harmonic (Figure 13c)
648 show that SMAP JPL and SMOS RSS are more or less on the same level as those in the WOA
649 but are higher than SMOS LOCEAN and SMOS BEC and lower than Argo and EN4.

650

651 4.7 Characterization of Smin and Smax

652 Dominant features in the study domain between 50°S and 50°N are the Smin in the
653 tropics and the Smax in the northern and southern subtropics (Gordon et al., 2015). These
654 features mirror closely the maxima and minima in the global E–P patterns (Schanze et al., 2010;

655 Schmitt 2008; Yu et al. 2020), with the Smax regions supplying (net) water to the atmosphere
656 and the Smin regions receiving (net) water from the atmosphere. Longer-term changes of
657 seasonal SSS in these regions may shed an important light on the changes in the water cycle (e.g.
658 Gordon et al., 2015; Reagan et al. 2018). For instance, there is evidence that the salinity contrast
659 between the Smax and Smin values has increased since 1950 as the water cycle has intensified
660 under global warming (e.g. Vinogradova and Ponte 2017; Cheng et al. 2020). These changes in
661 SSS extrema affect the ocean processes not only in the near-surface layer but also in the ocean
662 interior. The Smax area is where the near-surface waters are subducted to the permanent
663 thermocline during late winter to form the subtropical underwater (STUW) in the upper 500
664 meters (O'Connor et al 2005). The subducted waters are advected away from the formation sites
665 by the interior ocean circulation, spreading the water cycle change signals along their pathways
666 (Qu et al. 2013; Katsura et al. 2013). A recent study has shown a volume increase of the STUW
667 in the North Atlantic as a result of the poleward shift of the Smax center in recent decades (Yu et
668 al. 2018). Given the climatic significance of the SSS extrema, the accuracy of SSS retrievals in
669 these regions is of great importance.

670 The seasonality of the tropical Smin and the subtropical Smax are characterized using the
671 estimated annual and semiannual harmonics. Amplitudes of annual and semiannual harmonics
672 from the six products were averaged over the nine Smin and Smax boxes (Figure 3a and Table 4).
673 The amplitude and seasonal range of the reconstructed SSS seasonal cycle of SSS for the
674 respective boxes is summarized in Figure 14. For the boxes located in the open ocean away from
675 monsoon-influenced regions, the seasonal range of SSS is mostly about ± 0.05 pss in the
676 subtropical Smax regime, but greater than ± 0.25 in the tropical Smin regime. The seasonal
677 amplitude of SSS is larger in the precipitation-dominated tropics than the evaporation-dominated

678 subtropics. The differences in amplitude between the S_{min} and S_{max} regimes underline the
679 different effects of evaporation and precipitation on the stability of the water column (Yu 2010).
680 Evaporation increases SSS. If the SST change is not considered, this causes an increase of
681 surface density, leading to a destabilization of the upper-ocean stratification and convective
682 mixing of surface waters. Hence, evaporation-induced surface salinification cannot stay long. In
683 contrast, precipitation reduces SSS. The reduced surface density increases surface buoyancy and
684 stabilizes the upper-ocean stratification that allows the rain-induced fresh surface water to last
685 possibly long enough to be observed before being destroyed by other processes such as wind-
686 induced vertical mixing (Drushka et al. 2019). Such an effect is expected to be more significant
687 under low-wind conditions. This study shows that although the harmonic amplitudes tend to be
688 small in the S_{max} regions, they are detectable with the datasets used in the analysis.

689

690 5. Summary and discussion

691 SSS records with sufficient seasonal resolution over much of the global ocean have
692 become available in the past 15 years thanks to the advent of the Argo profiling floats and L-
693 band passive microwave remote sensing. This study utilized six SSS data products from the
694 recent satellite and in situ platforms to assess the SSS seasonality in the global ocean between
695 $50^{\circ}\text{S} - 50^{\circ}\text{N}$. Harmonic analysis was applied to four 0.25° satellite products (SMAP JPL, SMAP
696 RSS, SMOS LOCEAN, and SMOS BEC) and two 1° in situ products (Argo and EN4) between
697 2016-2018 to determine seasonal harmonic patterns. The 0.25° World Ocean Atlas (WOA)
698 version 2018 was referenced to help assess the long-term perspective of the harmonic patterns
699 based on a three-year period.

700 The results show that the annual harmonic is the most characteristic feature of the
701 seasonal cycle, but the semiannual harmonic is not negligible, particularly in the Northern Indian
702 Ocean under the influence of monsoonal circulation and the near coastal regions bordering large
703 rivers, including the Amazon (the western tropical Atlantic), Congo and Niger (the equatorial
704 eastern Atlantic), Mississippi (the northern Gulf of Mexico), and Ganges-Brahmaputra (the Bay
705 of Bengal). When the two harmonics are combined to reconstruct the seasonal cycle, the
706 semiannual harmonic is seen to modulate the annual harmonic. In the Bay of Bengal and the
707 Arabian Sea, the semiannual amplitude is large enough to enhance the annual cycle if the two
708 harmonics have the same phase, and weaken and broaden the annual cycle if the two have
709 opposite phase.

710 The comparison of the first and second harmonics from the six recent SSS products with
711 the WOA indicates that the products, despite having only a three-year data span, are capable of
712 producing all essential climatological features of the WOA. These features include the SSS
713 annual and semiannual amplitudes in open and coastal regions under direct freshwater influences,
714 e.g. rainfall and/or river discharge, the narrow zonal bands of annual phasing in the tropical and
715 southern oceans, and the northeast-southwest-oriented bands of annual phasing in the northwest
716 Pacific and Atlantic. The satellite products, except for SMOS BEC, compare well with WOA on
717 the annual and semiannual harmonic amplitude patterns, and they also agree well with WOA on
718 the phase distribution patterns at all latitudes except for the bands 20–40°N where three products
719 have a biased seasonal SSS phasing. Among the six products, SMOS BEC is least comparable
720 with WOA.

721 R^2 values were computed to determine the percentage of the SSS observed variance that
722 can be explained by the annual and semiannual harmonic respectively. It is found that the R^2

723 values vary with the type of product. The R^2 values for annual harmonic are relatively lower in
724 satellite products, at about 49– 58%, but are higher in in situ products, at about 66 – 72 %
725 (Bingham et al. 2021). The R^2 values for the semiannual harmonic are more in a more narrow
726 range, at about 15 – 19% in all products. The large spread in the explained variance by the
727 annual harmonic reflects a large disparity in nonseasonal variance (or noise) in products. Satellite
728 products are capable of capturing sharp SSS features on meso- and frontal scales and the patterns
729 agree well with WOA. These products are, however, subject to the impacts of radiometric noises
730 and are algorithm dependent. The coarser-resolution in situ products may underrepresent the full
731 range of high-frequency small scale SSS variability when data record is short, which may have
732 enlarged the SSS explained variance by the annual harmonic.

733 The Smax and Smin regions provide important linkages between the ocean and the water
734 cycle, with the Smax regions supplying (net) water to the atmosphere and the Smin regions
735 receiving (net) water from the atmosphere. Given the climatic significance of the SSS extrema,
736 the accuracy of SSS retrievals in these regions is of great importance. Although the harmonic
737 amplitudes tend to be small in the Smax regions, this study shows that they are detectable with
738 the datasets used in the analysis. The amplitude of seasonal SSS is approximately 0.05 pss in the
739 Smax regions, but greater than 0.25 pss in the Smin regions.

740 Finally, it is worth pointing out that, in coastal oceans and marginal seas where in-situ
741 measurements are sparse and where satellite SSS are subject to potential contamination by land
742 signals, dedicated regional analyses are necessary to better understand the seasonal cycle of SSS
743 and the potential limitations of the in situ and satellite salinity observing systems.

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1073 List of Tables

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1084 Table 1. Main characteristics of the six products used in the study

Data Products	Version	Start Time	Resolution	Reference and data access site
SMAP JPL	v4.3	APR 2015	0.25°, monthly and 8-day running mean	Fore et al. (2016; 2019) https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/SMAP
SMAP RSS	v4.0	APR 2015	0.25°, monthly and 8-day running mean; 40-km and 70-km maps	Meissner et al. (2019a;b) https://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/SMAP
SMOS LOCEAN	De-biased v4	JAN 2010	0.25°, 9-day and 18-day averaged mean	Boutin et al. (2018; 2019) ftp://ext-catds-cecos-locean:catds2010@ftp.ifremer.fr/
SMOS BEC	v2	FEB 2011	0.25°, Daily from 9 day objective analysis	Olmedo et al. (2017) sftp://becftp.icm.csic.es:27500
Argo	v2019	JAN 2004	1°, monthly	Roemmich and Gilson (2009) http://sio-argo.ucsd.edu/RG_Climatology.html
EN4	v4.2.1	JAN 1900	1°, monthly	Good et al. (2013) https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/en4
WOA	v2018	climatology	0.25°, monthly	Zweng et al. (2018) https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/woa18

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1089 Table 2. Locations and abbreviated names of the nine boxes shown in Figure 3, along with
1090 product ensemble SSS mean and STD (spread) within the box.

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Regime	Box number	Abbreviated Name	Location	Mean SSS
Smin Tropical	Box 1	Smin-Pac	5–15°N, 155–100°W	33.84 ± 0.09
	Box 2	Smin-Atl	3–13°N, 42–17°W	35.69 ± 0.03
	Box 3	Smin-BoB	5–20°N, 82–92°E	32.93 ± 0.07
Smax Northern Hemisphere Subtropical	Box 4	Smax-NPac	22–32°N, 160–220°E	35.12 ± 0.02
	Box 5	Smax-NAtl	20–30°N, 55–15°W	37.24 ± 0.03
	Box 6	Smax-AS	5–22°N, 55–70°E	36.16 ± 0.13
Smax Southern Hemisphere Subtropical	Box 7	Smax-SPac	14–24°S, 210–265°E	36.25 ± 0.03
	Box 8	Smax-SAtl	13–23°S, 38–18°W	37.16 ± 0.03
	Box 9	Smax-SInd	25–35°S, 60–110°E	35.70 ± 0.04

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1095 Table 3. R² values showing the percentage of the observed variance that can be explained by the
1096 annual and semiannual harmonics and the reconstructed seasonal cycle for the global ocean and
1097 the three basins

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Basin	Harmonic Mode	SMAP JPL	SMP RSS	SMOS LOCEAN	SMOS BEC	Argo	EN4	WOA
Global (50°S-50°N)	Ann Semi	55 18	58 17	50 19	49 17	66 15	72 16	57 15
	Reconstructed	73	74	70	67	80	88	72
Pacific	Ann Semi	56 17	59 15	50 20	52 17	69 13	75 14	57 15
	Reconstructed	73	74	70	69	82	89	72
Atlantic	Ann Semi	61 16	58 17	53 18	47 18	67 14	72 15	59 14
	Reconstructed	77	75	71	65	81	88	73
Indian	Ann Semi	48 22	52 19	47 21	47 18	47 18	67 19	55 17
	Reconstructed	69	72	68	65	76	87	72

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1103 Table 4. Amplitudes of the first (A_1) and second (A_2) harmonics in the nine boxes

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Regime	Box Number	SMAP JPL	SMP RSS	SMOS LOCEAN	SMOS BEC	Argo	EN4	Ensemble Mean
		$A_1 A_2$	$A_1 A_2$	$A_1 A_2$	$A_1 A_2$	$A_1 A_2$	$A_1 A_2$	$A_1 A_2$
Smin Tropical regime	Box 1 (Smin-Pac)	0.24 0.05	0.25 0.05	0.24 0.05	0.17 0.02	0.26 0.05	0.23 0.03	$0.23 \pm 0.03 0.04 \pm 0.01$
	Box 2 (Smin-Atl)	0.33 0.07	0.31 0.07	0.38 0.07	0.21 0.01	0.28 0.08	0.26 0.06	$0.30 \pm 0.06 0.06 \pm 0.03$
	Box 3 (Smin-BoB)	0.33 0.20	0.24 0.21	0.32 0.15	0.37 0.12	0.21 0.21	0.18 0.14	$0.28 \pm 0.08 0.17 \pm 0.04$
Smax NH regime	Box 4 (Smax-NPac)	0.08 0.01	0.01 0.02	0.02 0.06	0.01 0.03	0.04 0.01	0.02 0.01	$0.03 \pm 0.03 0.02 \pm 0.02$
	Box 5 (Smax-NAtl)	0.12 0.01	0.04 0.02	0.03 0.02	0.00 0.01	0.06 0.02	0.06 0.02	$0.05 \pm 0.04 0.02 \pm 0.01$
	Box 6 (Smax-AS)	0.23 0.09	0.24 0.06	0.17 0.05	0.11 0.04	0.20 0.08	0.21 0.07	$0.19 \pm 0.05 0.07 \pm 0.02$
Smax SH regime	Box 7 (Smax-SPac)	0.06 0.02	0.04 0.02	0.05 0.00	0.03 0.01	0.04 0.01	0.02 0.01	$0.04 \pm 0.01 0.01 \pm 0.01$
	Box 8 (Smax-SAtl)	0.16 0.03	0.11 0.01	0.10 0.01	0.03 0.01	0.10 0.01	0.08 0.00	$0.10 \pm 0.04 0.01 \pm 0.01$
	Box 9 (Smax-SInd)	0.05 0.03	0.07 0.03	0.03 0.05	0.04 0.01	0.05 0.00	0.05 0.02	$0.05 \pm 0.01 0.02 \pm 0.02$

1105 Figure Captions

1106 Figure 1. Time-mean SSS fields averaged over the period 2016-2018. (a) SMAP JPL, (b) SMAP
1107 RSS, (c) SMOS LOCEAN, (d) SMOS BEC, (e) Argo, and (f) EN4. The 35 pss isoline is
1108 drawn (thin gray contour)

1109 Figure 2. Difference anomaly fields referenced to the WOA mean SSS. (a) SMAP JPL – WOA,
1110 (b) SMAP RSS – WOA, (c) SMOS LOCEAN – WOA, (d) SMOS BEC – WOA, (e) Argo –
1111 WOA, and (f) EN4 – WOA. In (e)-(f), the in situ products were interpolated on WOA 0.25°
1112 grids.

1113 Figure 3. (a) Ensemble mean and (b) Standard deviation (STD) of the six mean SSS products.
1114 Numbered boxes are discussed in the text (e.g. Table 2). In (a), salinity value near each box is
1115 the product ensemble mean. Closed contours in boxes 4-9 are contours of the product
1116 ensemble mean shown near each box with each color denoting a different product.

1117 Figure 4. Standard deviation (in pss) of monthly-mean SSS based on (a) SMAP JPL, (b) SMAP
1118 RSS, (c) SMOS LOCEAN, (d) SMOS BEC, (e) Argo, and (f) EN4.

1119 Figure 5. Amplitude of the estimated annual harmonic (in pss) for (a) SMAP JPL, (b) SMAP
1120 RSS, (c) SMOS LOCEAN, (d) SMOS BEC, (e) Argo, and (f) EN4.

1121 Figure 6. Phase of the estimated annual harmonic (month of the year of the maximum SSS) for (a)
1122 SMAP JPL, (b) SMAP RSS, (c) SMOS LOCEAN, (d) SMOS BEC, (e) Argo, and (f) EN4.
1123 The month shown indicates when maximum SSS is reached in the annual cycle.

1124 Figure 7. Same as Figure 5 but for the estimated semiannual harmonic.

1125 Figure 8. Same as Figure 6 but for the estimated semiannual harmonic. The cycle goes from
1126 January to June and repeats in July – December.

1127 Figure 9. R^2 values (%) showing the percentage of the observed variance explained by annual
1128 harmonic. The F-statistic values less than 0.95 were considered not statistically significant and
1129 shaded in magenta.

1130 Figure 10. Same as Figure 9 but for the seasonal cycle reconstructed from annual and semiannual
1131 harmonics.

1132 Figure 11. The first and second harmonic modes estimated from WOA. Amplitude of (a) annual
1133 and (b) semiannual harmonic, and phase of (c) annual and (d) semiannual harmonic (the cycle
1134 goes from January to June and repeats in July – December).

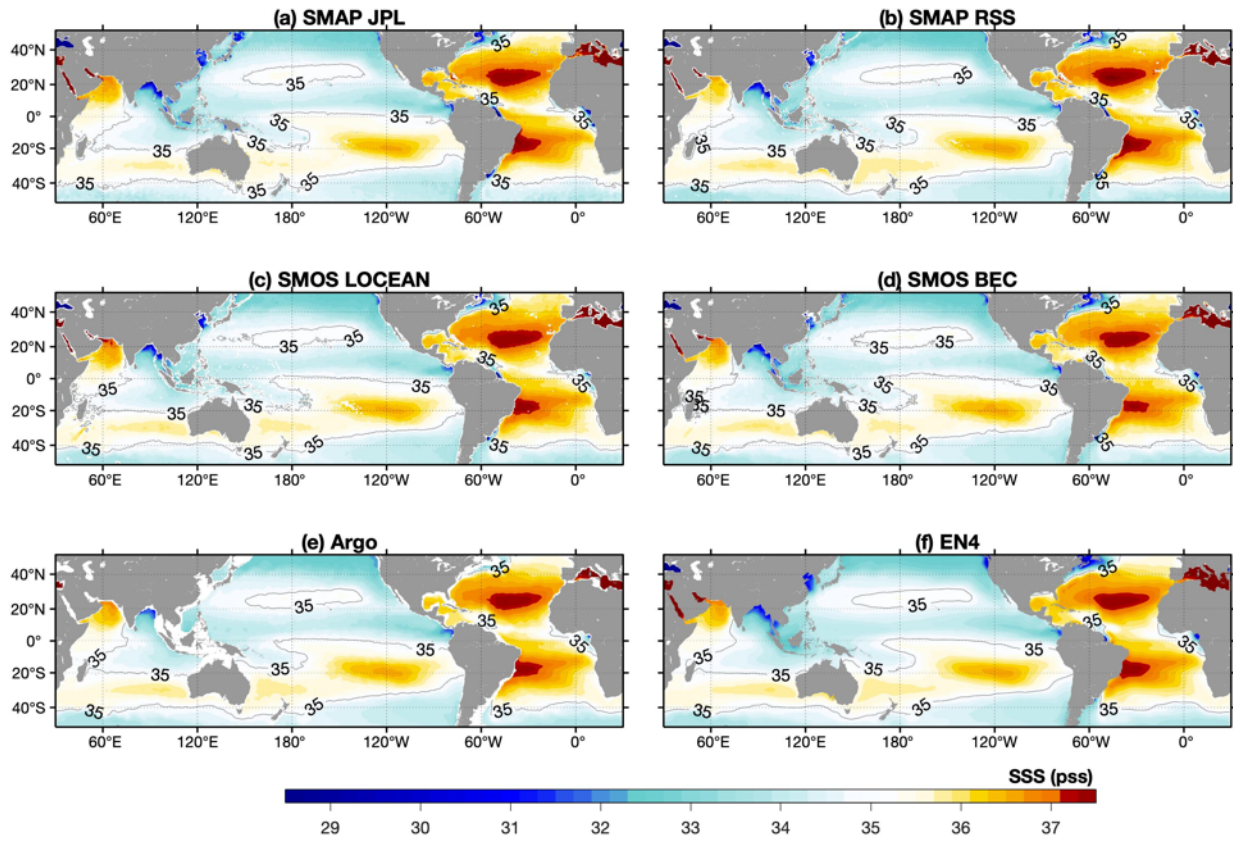
1135 Figure 12. Zonally averaged differences between product and WOA for the annual and
1136 semiannual parameters. Amplitude of (a) annual and (b) semiannual harmonic, phase of (c)
1137 annual and (d) semiannual harmonic, and R^2 of (e) annual and (f) semiannual harmonic. A
1138 15-point running mean was applied.

1139 Figure 13. Global averages of the differences between SSS products and WOA in annual and
1140 semiannual parameters. (a) amplitude, (b) phase, and (c) R^2 . . Error bars represent one
1141 standard deviation from zonal mean at each latitude.

1142 Figure 14. Summary of the mean, standard deviation (bold-face numbers), and the seasonal
1143 ranges (light-face numbers) for each boxed region. The mean and standard deviation were
1144 computed as the product ensemble mean and spread (STD) (see Table 2). The seasonal ranges
1145 were based on the maximum and minimum estimated from the reconstructed time series
1146 averaged over the nine selected boxes (see Table 4). Color shading shows the ensemble mean
1147 SSS of the six products over the period of 2016-2018 (same as Figure 3a).

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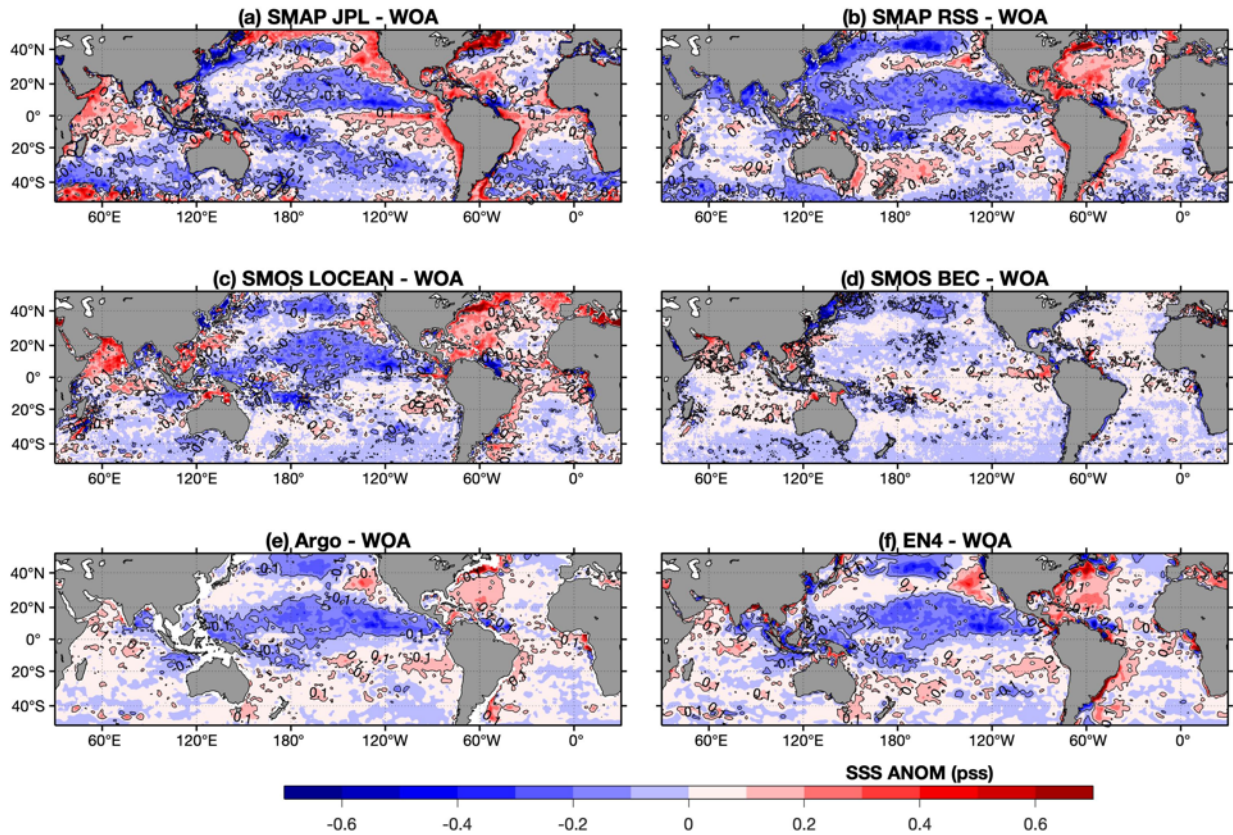
1152 Figure 1. Time-mean SSS fields averaged over the period 2016-2018. (a) SMAP JPL, (b) SMAP

1153 RSS, (c) SMOS LOCEAN, (d) SMOS BEC, (e) Argo, and (f) EN4. The 35 pss isoline is drawn

1154 (thin gray contour).

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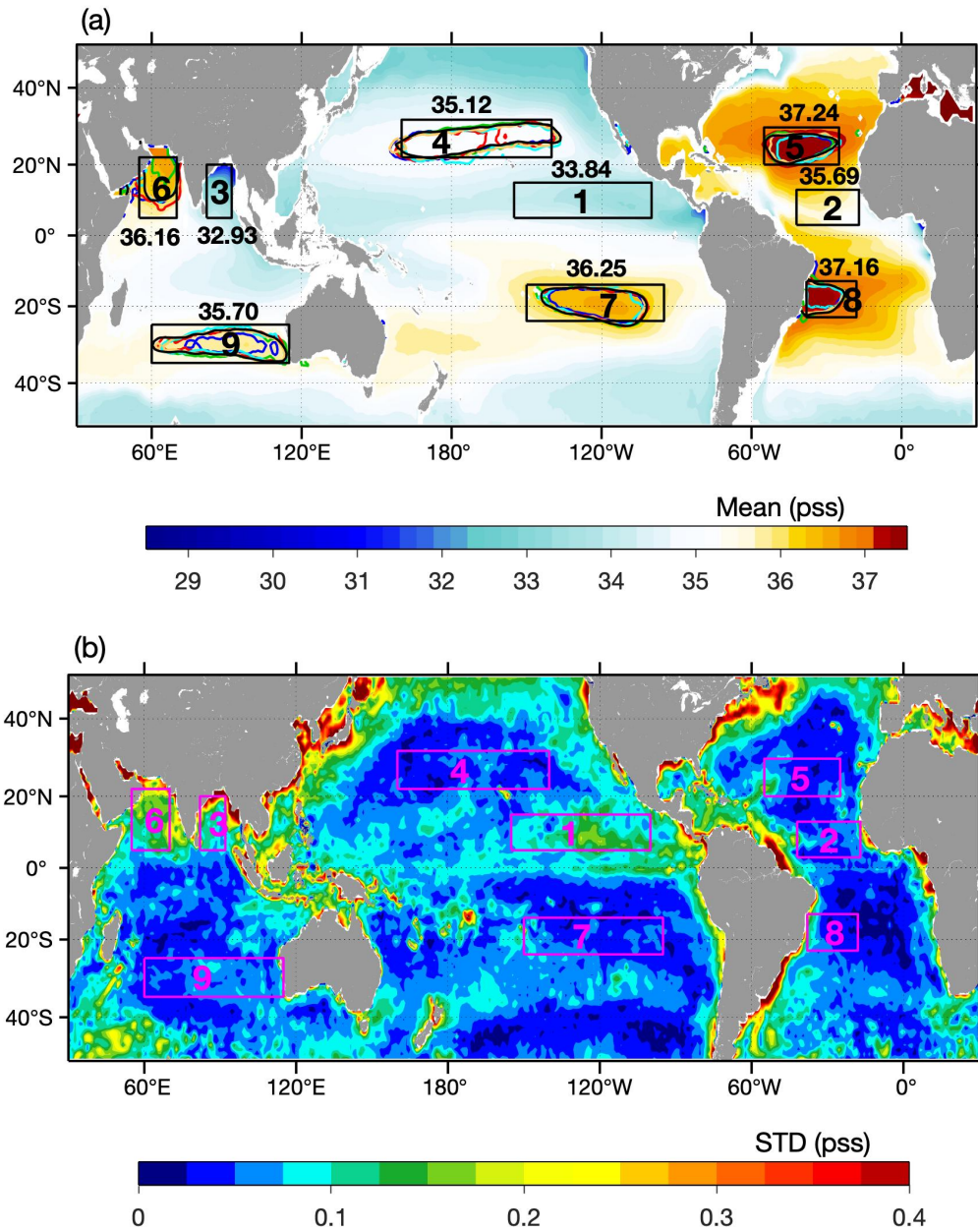
1159 Figure 2. Difference anomaly fields referenced to the WOA mean SSS. (a) SMAP JPL – WOA,

1160 (b) SMAP RSS – WOA, (c) SMOS LOCEAN – WOA, (d) SMOS BEC – WOA, (e) Argo –

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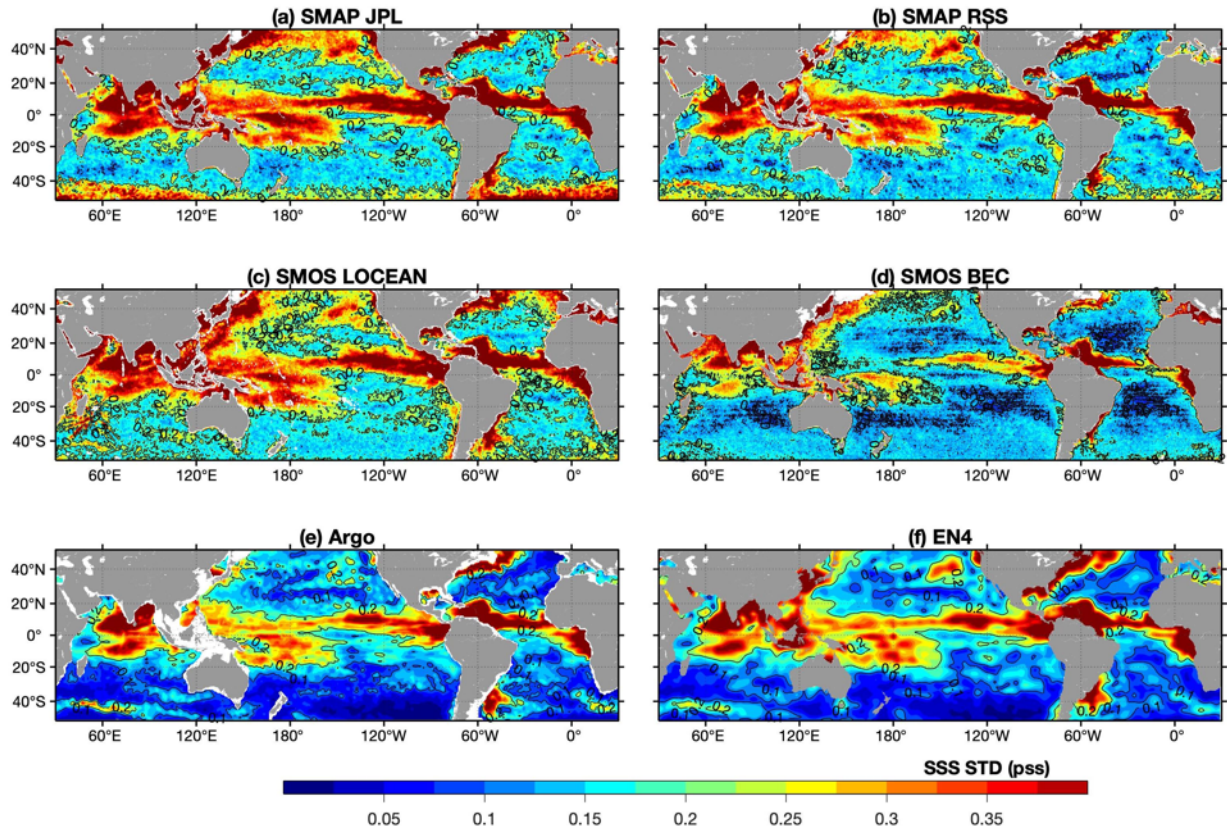
1169 shown near each box with each color denoting a different product.

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1177 Figure 4. Standard deviation of monthly-mean SSS based on (a) SMAP JPL, (b) SMAP RSS, (c)

1178 SMOS LOCEAN, (d) SMOS BEC, (e) Argo, and (f) EN4.

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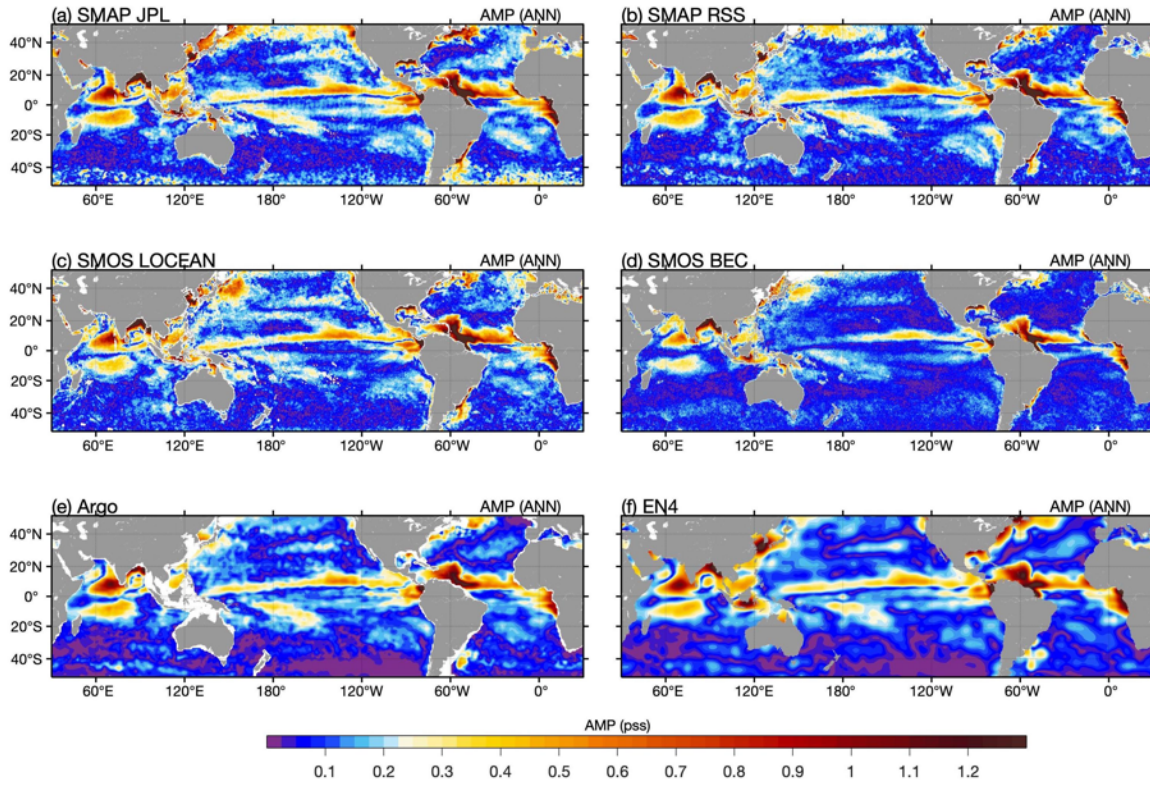
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1187 Figure 5. Amplitude of the estimated annual harmonic for (a) SMAP JPL, (b) SMAP RSS, (c)

1188 SMOS LOCEAN, (d) SMOS BEC, (e) Argo, and (f) EN4.

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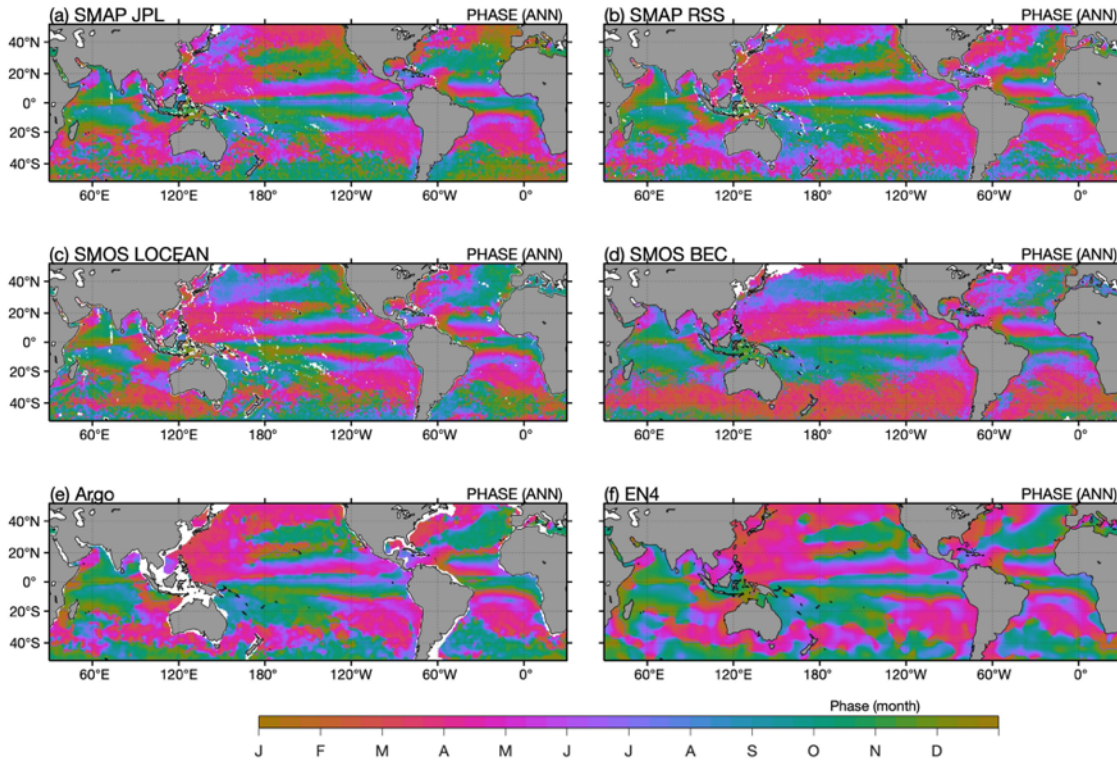
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1198 Figure 6. Phase of the estimated annual harmonic (i.e. month of the year of the maximum SSS)

1199 for (a) SMAP JPL, (b) SMAP RSS, (c) SMOS LOCEAN, (d) SMOS BEC, (e) Argo, and (f) EN4.

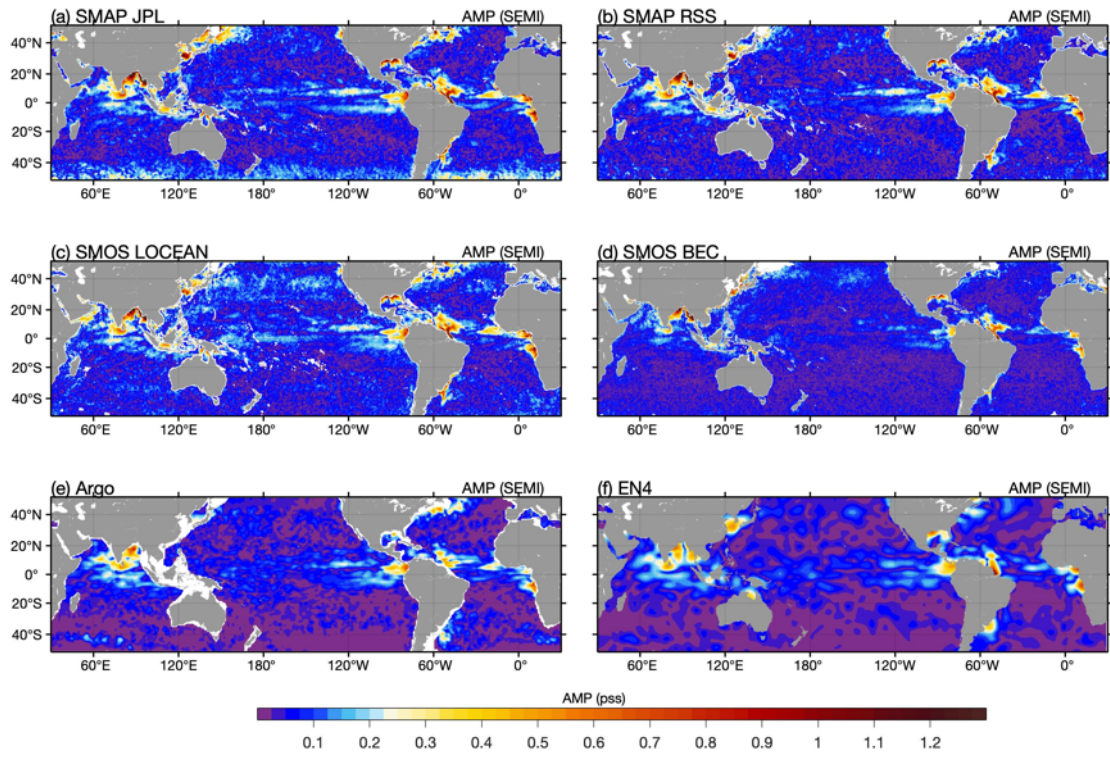
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1207 Figure 7. Same as Figure 5 but for the estimated semiannual harmonic

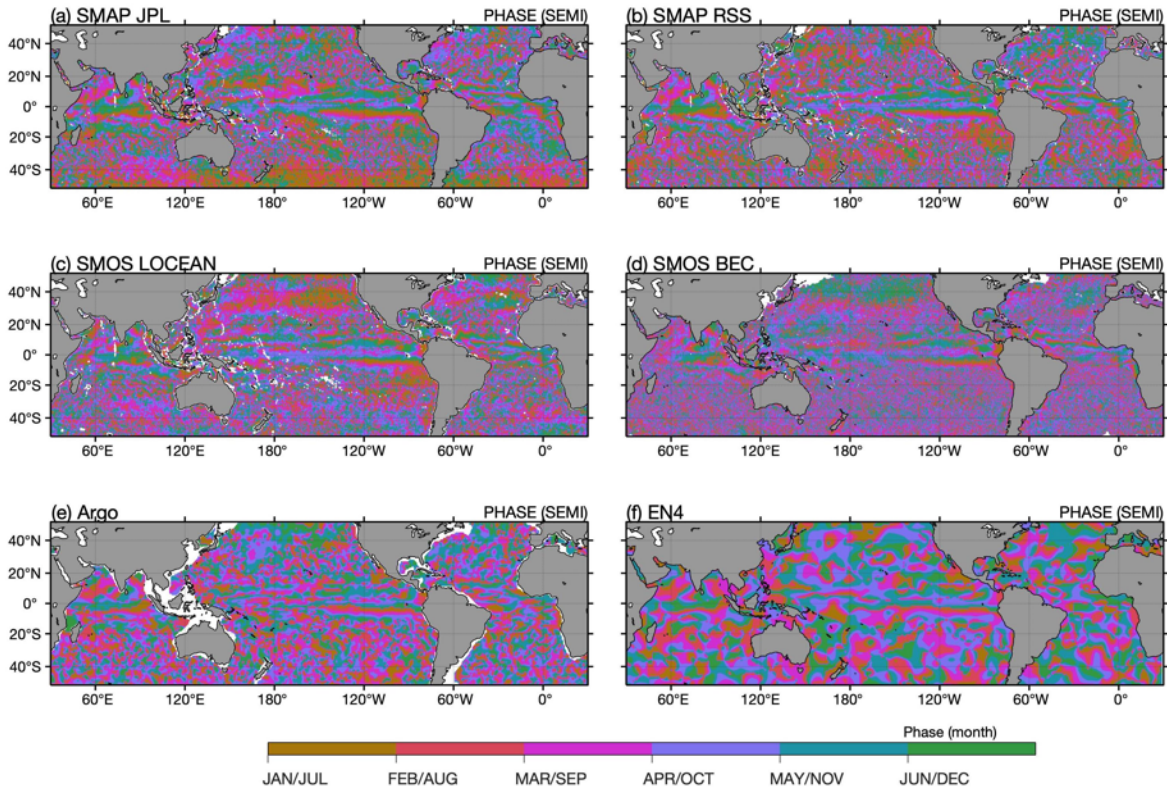
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1215 Figure 8. Same as Figure 6 but for the estimated semiannual harmonic. The cycle goes from
1216 January to June and repeats in July – December.

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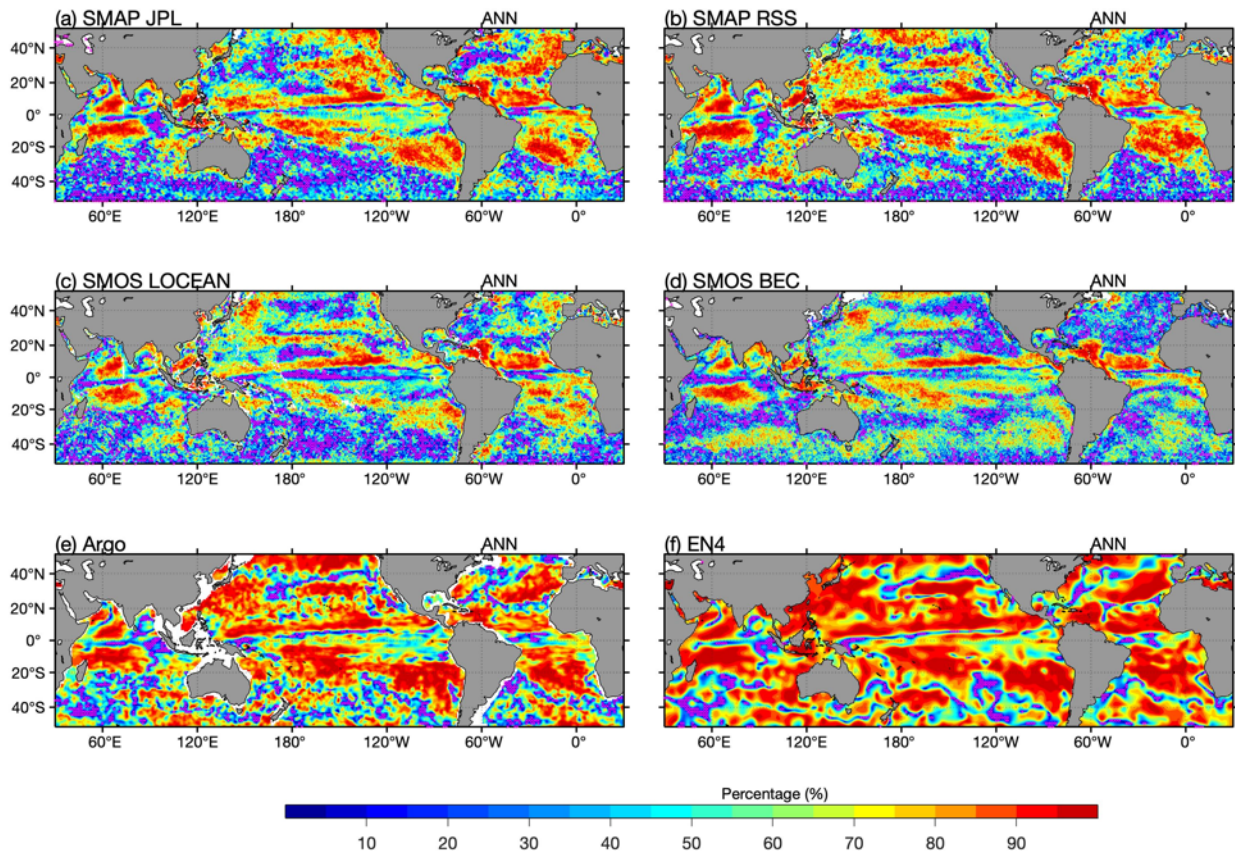
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1226 harmonic. The F-statistic values less than 0.95 were considered not statistically significant and
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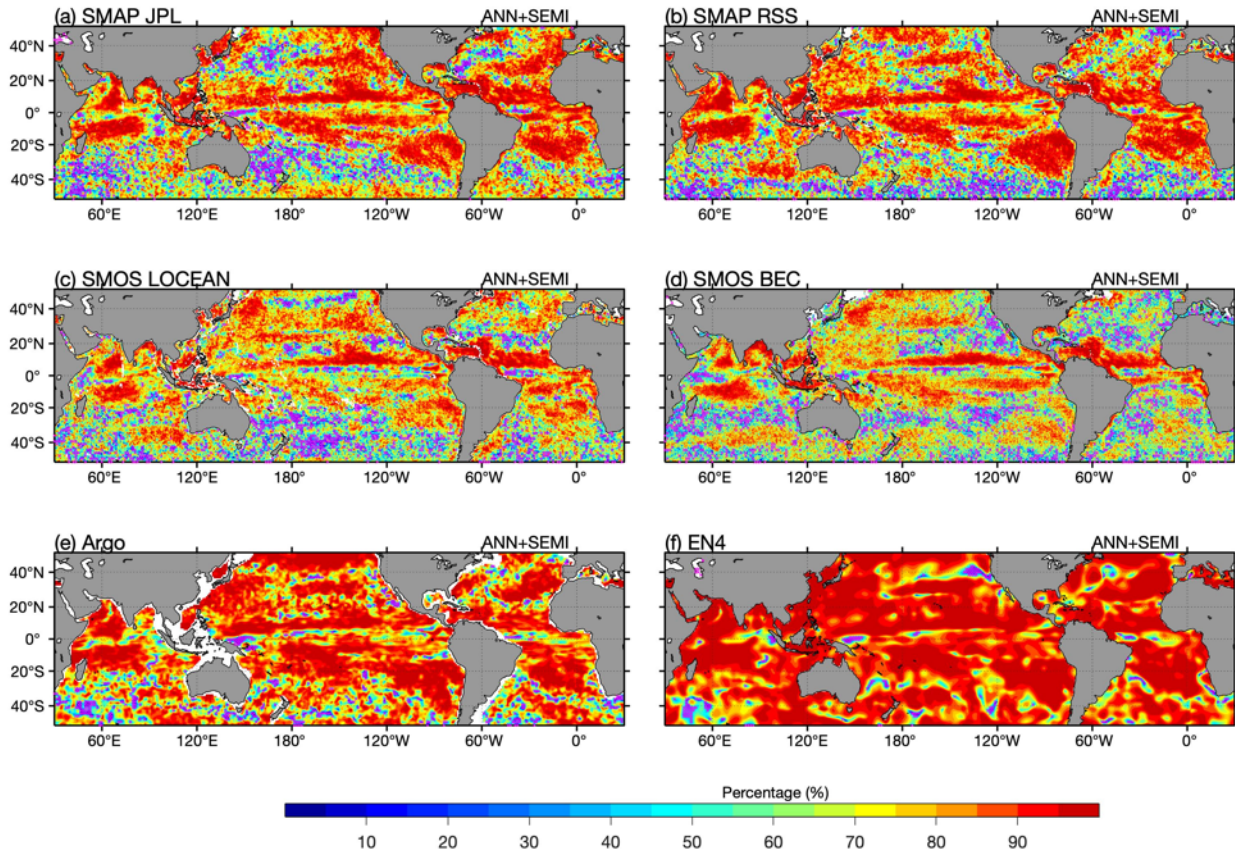
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1235 Figure 10. Same as Figure 9 but for the seasonal cycle reconstructed from annual and semiannual
1236 harmonics.

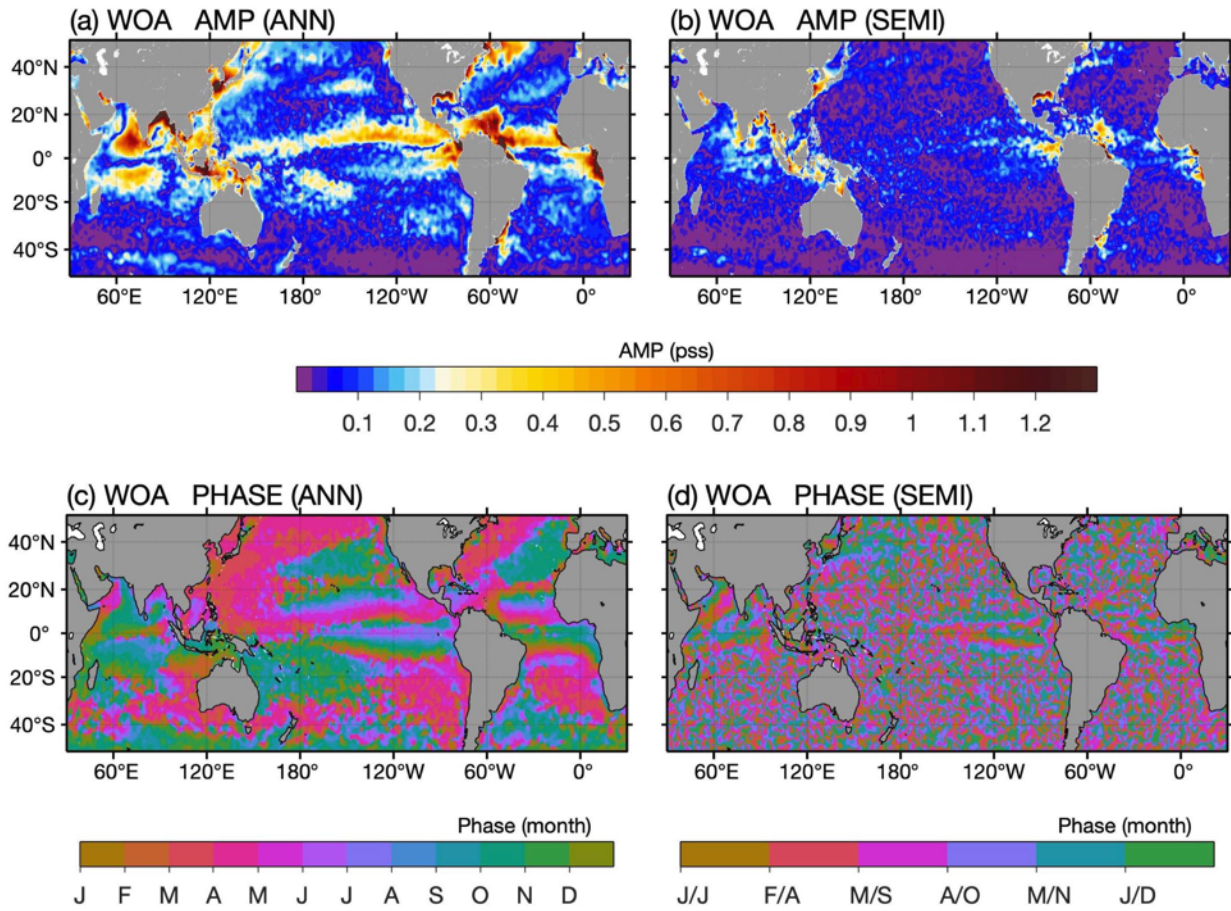
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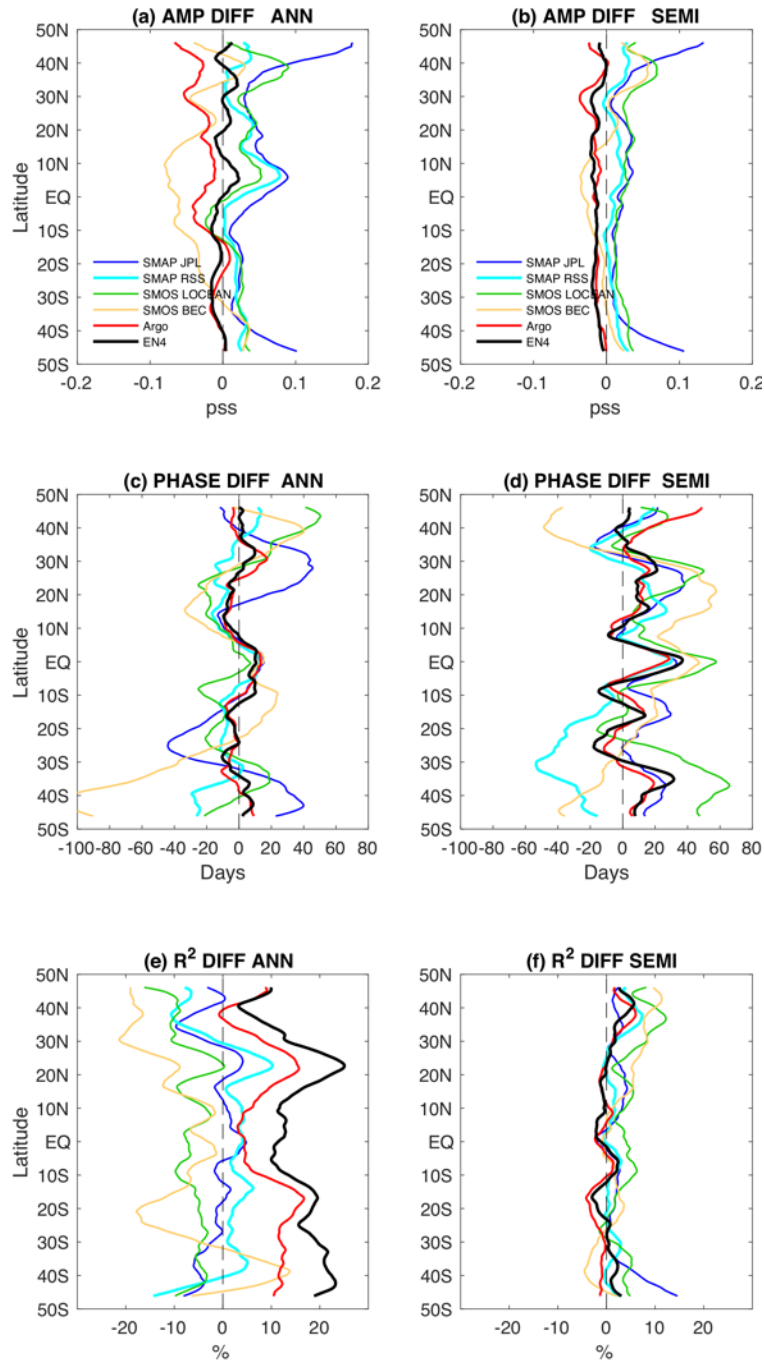
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1244 Figure 11. The first and second harmonic modes estimated from WOA. Amplitude of (a) annual

1245 and (b) semiannual harmonic, and phase of (c) annual and (d) semiannual harmonic (the cycle

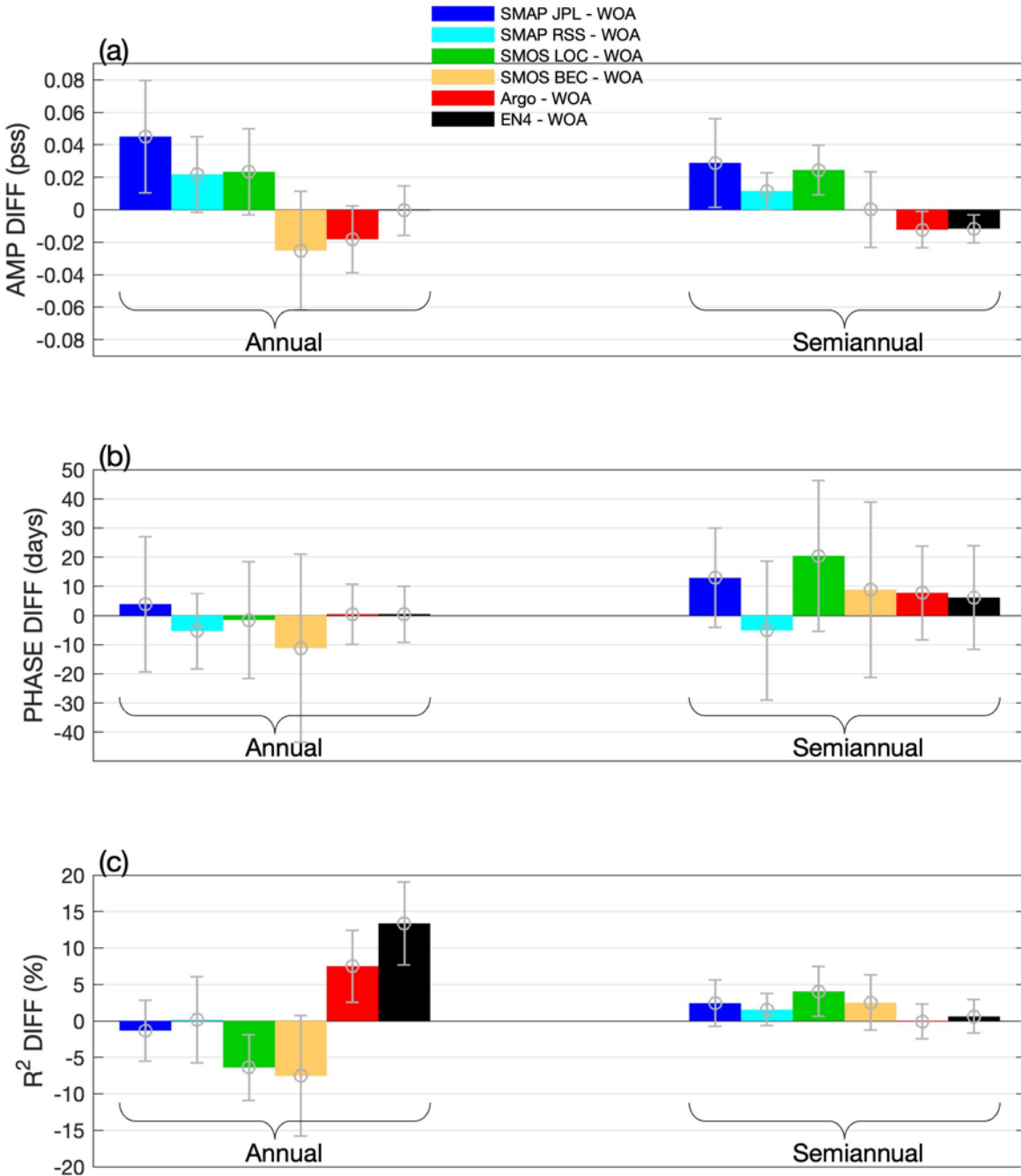
1246 goes from January to June and repeats in July – December).

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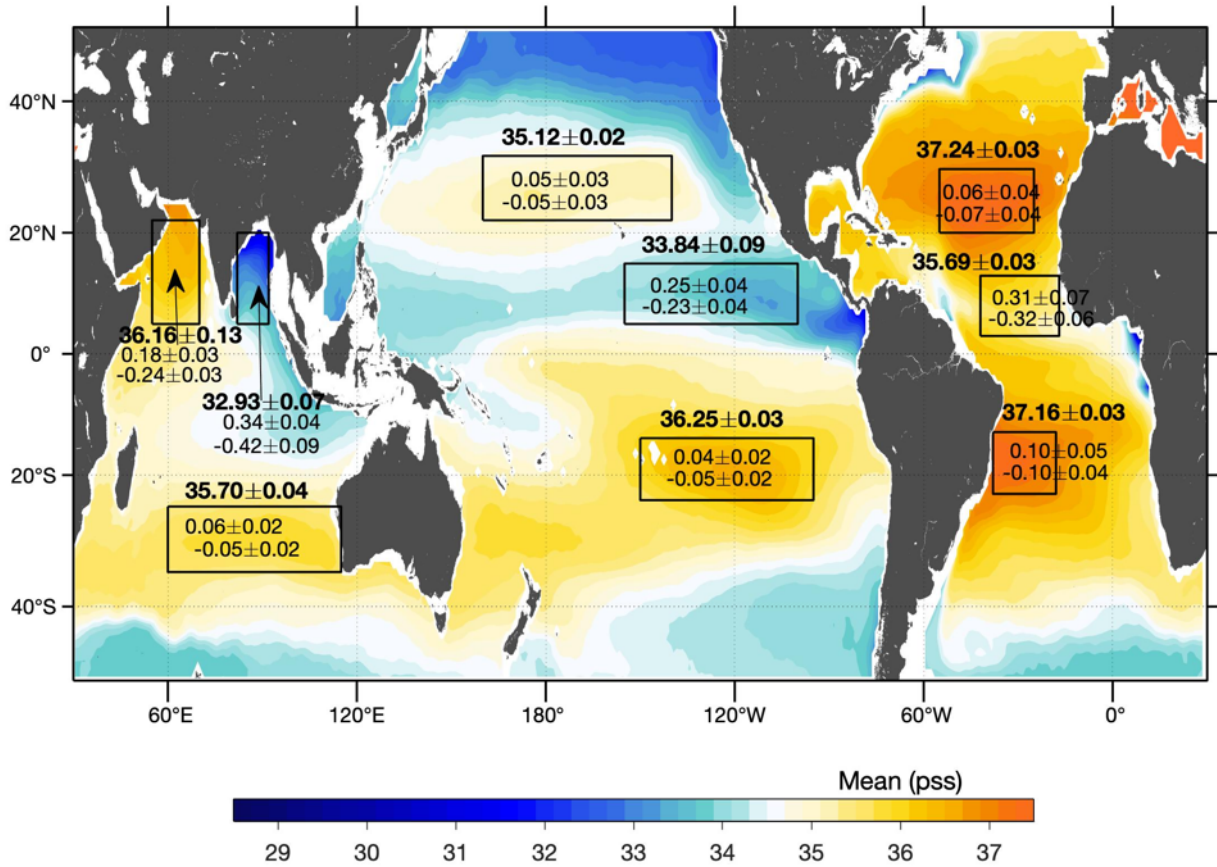
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1249 Figure 12. Zonally averaged differences between SSS products and WOA for the annual and
 1250 semiannual parameters. Amplitude of (a) annual and (b) semiannual harmonic, phase of (c)
 1251 annual and (d) semiannual harmonic, and R² of (e) annual and (f) semiannual harmonic. A 15-
 1252 point running mean along latitude was applied.



1253

1254 Figure 13. Global averages of the differences between SSS products and WOA in annual and
 1255 semiannual parameters. (a) amplitude, (b) phase, and (c) R^2 . Error bars represent one standard
 1256 deviation from zonal mean at each latitude.



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Figure 14. Summary of the mean, standard deviation (bold-face numbers), and the seasonal ranges (light-face numbers) for each boxed region. The mean and standard deviation were computed as the product ensemble mean and spread (STD) (see Table 2). The seasonal ranges were based on the maximum and minimum estimated from the reconstructed time series averaged over the nine selected boxes (see Table 4). Color shading shows the ensemble mean SSS of the six products over the period of 2016-2018 (same as Figure 3a).

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