

1     **Analysis of waves observed by synthetic aperture radar across**  
2   **ocean fronts**

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1 **Abstract:** In this study, synthetic aperture radar (SAR) imaging of waves across ocean  
2 fronts was investigated using C-band Sentinel-1 VV-polarized SAR imagery collected  
3 over the Yangtze and the Zhujiang estuaries. The presence of ocean fronts in the study  
4 area was confirmed by collocated sea surface temperature (SST) data provided by the  
5 Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) and sea surface current  
6 information from the National Ocean Partnership Program (NOPP) based on the  
7 HYbrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM). The experimental results revealed that as  
8 the current speed increased, the cut-off wavelength ( $\lambda_c$ ) increased as well. The effect  
9 of the increasing azimuth cut-off wavelength, however, was relatively weak in terms of  
10 variations of the normalized radar cross-section (NRCS), i.e., it was within 2 dB for  
11  $\lambda_c \leq 60$  m. Hence, it was weaker than the NRCS variation related to SST. Larger  
12 NRCS variations (i.e., within 5 dB) occurred for  $\lambda_c$  values up to 120 m. In addition,  
13 the experimental results also demonstrated that the parameterized first-guess spectrum  
14 method (PFSM) wave retrieval performance was affected by ocean fronts. In particular,  
15 overestimations occurred when ocean fronts were present and  $\lambda_c$  was  $<100$  m.

16 **Keywords:** wave; ocean front; synthetic aperture radar

## 18 1 Introduction

19 Ocean fronts are common marine phenomena characterized by distinctive features  
20 of sea surface currents and temperatures and always accompanied by eddies and  
21 upwelling. These phenomena include a frontal boundary region featuring strong  
22 horizontal and vertical velocity gradients. Ocean fronts are of great importance in  
23 marine ecosystems and global climate change (Sydeman et al., 2014) due to their  
24 associated heat and nutrient exchanges. Operational products derived from remotely  
25 sensed measurements, and in particular by optical sensors, have generally been used to  
26 monitor ocean front events (Fragiacomo and Parmiggiani, 2002; McClain et al., 1984).  
27 There are some disadvantages in relying exclusively on optical images, however.  
28 Images can be noisy, they are not available when there is cloud cover, and increased

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1 biological activity in upwelling regions can introduce problems (Sousa and Bricaud,  
2 1992). Moreover, sea surface currents are undetectable in optical satellite imagery.

3 Synthetic aperture radars (SARs) are active microwave instruments that can  
4 acquire high-resolution images in all weather conditions and at night. In fact, SARs  
5 even allow observations of the sea surface under extreme weather conditions (Corcione  
6 et al., 2018a; Li, 2015; Ding et al., 2019). Satellites carrying SARs operating at the C-  
7 band (5.3 GHz) include the ERS-1/2, ENVISAT-ASAR, RADARSAT-1/2 (R-1/2),  
8 Sentinel-1A/1B (S-1), and Gaofen-3 (GF-3). The SAR-sensed backscattered signal  
9 intensity is influenced by sea surface roughness corresponding to the distribution of sea  
10 surface Bragg-backscattering waves, which depend on various processes such as wind  
11 (Masuko et al., 1986), ocean waves (Alpers, 1981), sea surface currents (Nilsson and  
12 Tildesley, 1995), ocean fronts (Lyzenga, 1991), tides (Li et al., 2015; Goldstein et al.,  
13 1989), and internal waves (Alpers, 1985).

14 Since sea surface long waves, currents, and atmospheric circulation processes may  
15 modulate the Bragg wave spectrum (Kudryavtsev et al., 1996; Jonhannessen et al.,  
16 1996), they can be observed by SAR. Various mechanisms of ocean fronts together  
17 with upwelling and eddies sensed by SAR have been studied for the last few decades,  
18 including the modulation of current-induced divergence and convergence on the sea  
19 surface (Marmorino et al., 1994), marine-atmosphere boundary layer instability caused  
20 by sea surface temperature (SST) (Friehe et al., 1991), and changes in the viscosity  
21 properties of the surface layer generated by cold water temperatures (Clemente-Colon  
22 et al., 1999).

23 It is well known that the SAR wave mapping mechanism includes tilt modulation,  
24 hydrodynamic modulation (Alpers et al., 1981), and nonlinear velocity bunching  
25 (Alpers and Bruning, 1986). Theoretical scattering physics is implemented in wave  
26 retrieval algorithms, e.g., the Max-Planck Institute (MPI) algorithm (Hasselmann and  
27 Hasselmann, 1991; Hasselmann et al., 1996), the semi-parametric retrieval algorithm  
28 (SPRA) (Mastenbroek and Valk, 2000), the parameterized first-guess spectrum method  
29 (PFSM) (Shao et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2017), and the partition rescaling and shift

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1 algorithm (PARSA) (Schulz-Stellenfleth et al., 2005; Li et al., 2010). Since ocean fronts  
2 affect SAR imaging of the sea surface, they play a key role when sea surface parameters  
3 are retrieved using SAR. In Li et al. (2009), it was demonstrated that ocean fronts  
4 associated with coastal upwelling modulate sea roughness, thus reducing the accuracy  
5 of wind retrieval algorithms. In particular, ocean fronts are mainly generated by  
6 changes in atmospheric stability due to air-sea temperature differences and sea surface  
7 currents (Kim et al., 2014). Under these circumstances, SAR wind retrieval using  
8 geophysical model functions is distorted (Xu et al., 2018; Hersbach et al., 2007;  
9 Hersbach, 2010). Theoretically, the wave field itself is affected by ocean fronts due to  
10 the curl of sea surface currents. Therefore, in this study, we examined the characteristics  
11 of SAR images when waves crossed the ocean front and rigorously validated the wave  
12 retrieval algorithm.

13 The remainder of the manuscript is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the  
14 available datasets, including the S-1 SAR images, wind data from the European Centre  
15 for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), sea surface current data from the  
16 National Ocean Partnership Program (NOPP) based on the HYbrid Coordinate Ocean  
17 Model (HYCOM), and SSTs from AVHRRs onboard National Oceanic and  
18 Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) satellites. The wave fields were simulated by a  
19 third-generation wave model—Simulating WAVes Nearshore (SWAN). Section 3  
20 describes the dependence of dynamic parameters on the main SAR-measured  
21 parameters, e.g., the normalized radar cross-section (NRCS) and azimuthal cut-off  
22 wavelength, in ocean front-dominated regions, and Section 4 presents a discussion of  
23 the results. Finally, Section 5 summarizes the conclusions of this study.

## 24

## 25 **2 Data sources**

26 The SAR dataset consisted of 28 C-band vertical-vertical (VV)-polarized  
27 interferometric wide-swath (IW) S-1 SAR images collected over the Yangtze Estuary  
28 or Zhujiang Estuary, China, where ocean fronts often occur. The pixel size was  $5 \text{ m} \times$

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1 20 m in the cross-track/along-track directions, respectively. The spatial coverage of the  
2 S-1 SAR dataset is depicted in Figure 1, in which the spatial coverage of each S-1 image  
3 is overlaid on the water depth (Figure 1). It should be noted that some S-1 SAR images  
4 were acquired of the same geographic location at different times.

5 [Figure 1]

6 Two meaningful examples are showcased in Figure 2 comprising S-1 VV-  
7 polarized SAR images collected on (a) August 27, 2018 at 13:37 UTC in the South  
8 China Sea towards the Zhujiang Estuary and (b) June 15, 2016 at 11:50 UTC at the  
9 mouth of the Yangtze Estuary. In both cases, the alternating higher/lower backscattering  
10 was associated with ocean fronts that either dampened or enhanced sea surface  
11 roughness (Gurova et al., 2013). Other phenomena, however, such as light winds and  
12 natural/man-made slicks, may also affect sea surface roughness, making it difficult to  
13 discriminate these occurrences from ocean fronts. Therefore, AVHRR SST data were  
14 used to confirm the presence of ocean front regions. AVHRR SST maps related to the  
15 two S-1 images are presented in Figure 3, in which Figure 3(a) shows the SST map of  
16 the South China Sea on August 27, 2018 at 12:30 UTC and 3(b) shows the SST map  
17 around the Zhoushan Islands on June 15, 2016 at 10:30 UTC. Although there are time  
18 gaps of about two hours between the S-1 SAR image in the proximity the Zhoushan  
19 Islands and the AVHRR data, the pattern of low SSTs was generally consistent with  
20 the black regions in the S-1 SAR image. Contrary to this, the black regions in the S-1  
21 SAR image of the South China Sea corresponded to the high SSTs. Although the dark  
22 patterns in the SAR images could be interpreted as upwelling, low SSTs can also be  
23 caused by other ocean phenomena, e.g., ocean fronts and cold eddies.

24 [Figure 2]

25 [Figure 3]

26 We also used the NOPP open-access sea surface current data simulated by the  
27 HYbrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM) on a spatial grid of  $0.125^\circ \times 0.125^\circ$  at  
28 intervals of 3 hours each day, i.e., a well-developed ocean model for regional and global

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1 current analysis (Kelly et al., 2007; Kara and Barron, 2007). The sea surface current  
2 maps corresponding to the two cases are illustrated in Figure 4, in which the black  
3 rectangles represent the spatial coverage of the two SAR images. It was found that the  
4 current directions were not significantly changed in the S-1 SAR image of the South  
5 China Sea; hence, this occurrence was verified to be an ocean front. The dark pattern  
6 in the S-1 SAR image around the Zhoushan Islands, however, was most likely a cold  
7 eddy, given the spiral current direction.

8 [Figure 4]

9 The third-generation numerical wave model, referred to as the SWAN model  
10 (Siadatmousavi, 2011), has already been proven to allow the simulation of ocean waves  
11 in typhoons (Ou et al., 2002; Feng et al., 2011) in the China Sea (Liang et al., 2016;  
12 Han et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018). The ECMWF wind data on a  $0.125^\circ$  grid were  
13 taken as the forcing wind field, together with bathymetric data provided by the ETOPO1  
14 dataset. The spatial resolution and time interval of the outputs, including currents and  
15 SSTs, were  $0.05^\circ$  ( $\sim 5.5$  km) and 30 min, respectively. The simulation process included  
16 the effects of currents on ocean waves. Since there are no available open-access moored  
17 buoys in the China Sea, Jason-2 altimeter measurements were used as a reliable data  
18 source in order to validate the simulation results from the SWAN model. The simulated  
19 significant wave height (SWH) maps of the South China Sea and the East China Sea  
20 are shown in Figure 5, in which the colored rectangles represent the footprints of the  
21 Jason-2 altimeter. The SWAN-simulated results are contrasted with the Jason-2  
22 altimeter measurements in Figure 6, showing a 0.43-m root mean square error (RMSE).  
23 It must be noted that the region selected for comparison purposes was enclosed within  
24 the area ranging from  $20^\circ\text{S}$  to  $38^\circ\text{N}$  and  $110^\circ$  to  $140^\circ\text{E}$ . Hence, the RMSE resulting  
25 from the comparison was sufficiently accurate to allow us to use the SWAN simulations.

26 [Figure 5]

27 [Figure 6]

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### 1 3 Methods and Results

2 Velocity bunching was the main wave formation mechanism on the SAR image  
3 plane. Because there were strong marine phenomena existing in the collected SAR  
4 images, the azimuthal cut-off wavelengths derived from the SAR intensity were  
5 distorted to some extent. In this section, we first present the method for calculating the  
6 wavelength of the azimuthal cut-off on a SAR image, based on the simulated two-  
7 dimensional wave spectra from the SWAN model. The azimuthal cut-off wavelength  
8 and dynamic ocean parameters, e.g., ECMWF wind speed, AVHRR SST, and NOPP-  
9 HYCOM current speed, are then discussed for ocean front observation purposes.

#### 10 3.1 Derivation of azimuthal cut-off wavelength from SAR

11 In this study, the two-dimensional spectrum simulated by the SWAN model was  
12 used to calculate the cut-off wavelength along the azimuthal direction (Stopa et al.,  
13 2015):

$$14 \quad \langle u_0^2 \rangle = \langle w^2 \rangle \cos^2 \beta + (\langle u^2 \rangle \cos^2 \alpha + \langle v^2 \rangle \sin^2 \alpha - 2\langle uv \rangle \cos \alpha \sin \alpha) \sin^2 \beta, \quad (1)$$

15 where  $\alpha$  is the incidence angle;  $\beta$  is the azimuth angle;  $u$ ,  $v$ , and  $w$  denote the east-  
16 west, north-south, and vertical directions of the wave orbital velocities, respectively;  
17 and  $\langle u_0^2 \rangle$  is the variance of the wave velocity. In addition,

$$18 \quad \langle u^2 \rangle = \int_0^\infty E(f, \theta) (2\pi f)^2 \cos^2 \theta df d\theta, \quad (2)$$

$$19 \quad \langle v^2 \rangle = \int_0^\infty E(f, \theta) (2\pi f)^2 \sin^2 \theta df d\theta, \quad (3)$$

$$20 \quad \langle w^2 \rangle = \int_0^\infty E(f, \theta) (2\pi f)^2 df d\theta, \quad (4)$$

$$21 \quad \langle uv \rangle = \int_0^\infty E(f, \theta) (2\pi f)^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta df d\theta, \quad (5)$$

22 in which  $E(f, \theta)$  is the two-dimensional wave spectrum;  $f$  is the wave frequency; and  $\theta$   
23 is the wave propagation direction. The cut-off wavelength in the azimuthal direction,  
24  $\lambda_c$ , is then expressed as

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$$\lambda_c = \pi \frac{R}{V} \sqrt{\langle u_0 \rangle^2}, \quad (6)$$

where  $R/V$  is the ratio coefficient between slant distance and platform velocity. As an example, the azimuthal cut-off wavelength estimate using the simulated two-dimensional wave spectrum from the SWAN model is shown in Figure 7.

[Figure 7]

### 3.2 Analysis results

The processing consisted of partitioning each SAR image into  $32 \times 32$  subscenes along the range and azimuth directions, respectively. Auxiliary data (ECMWF wind vectors, NOPP-HYCOM current speeds, and AVHRR SSTs) were then used to generate waves from 13,000 matchups. The ECMWF wind speed at a height of 10 m above the sea surface was contrasted with the SAR-measured NRCS (Figure 8a) and the azimuth cut-off (Figure 8b). It has generally been found that wind speed has an exponential relationship with NRCS (Masuko et al., 1986), which allowed the development of the geophysical model function (GMF) for SAR wind retrieval (Stoffelen and Anderson, 1997), although a complex sea state characterized these SAR images. In recent research, the performance of C-band model (CMOD) wind retrieval was investigated under such conditions, revealing that ocean fronts cause an underestimation of retrieved wind speed with respect to reference buoy measurements (Xu et al., 2018). The azimuthal cut-off wavelength should have a linear relationship with wind speed in the fully developed sea state (Corcione et al., 2018b). In this study, the azimuthal cut-off wavelength exhibited a similar relationship for wind speeds  $>8$  m/s (Figure 8b), although a decreasing trend was observed for wind speeds from 4 to 8 m/s.

[Figure 8]

The NOPP-HYCOM sea surface current speed data were contrasted with the SAR-measured NRCS and the azimuthal cut-off wavelength for current speeds ranging from 0 to 0.45 m/s, as presented in Figure 9. The NRCS was found to decrease with



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1 increasing current speed, and the maximum change of NRCS was within 2 dB. This is  
2 because the NRCS is positively correlated with wind-induced waves, while currents in  
3 the horizontal direction are not closely related to wave variations. In the presence of a  
4 current, the current-wave interaction may promote the wave energy. On the other hand,  
5 the azimuthal cut-off wavelength  $\lambda_c$  is explicitly related to the SWH (Shao et al.,  
6 2016). This explains the increase of the azimuthal cut-off wavelength with increasing  
7 current speed, although the change of the azimuthal cut-off wavelength was  
8 approximately 60 m. The AVHRR SST is contrasted with the S-1 NRCS and azimuthal  
9 cut-off wavelength  $\lambda_c$  in Figure 10. Figure 10(a) shows the cosine-type behavior of  
10 the NRCS with SST. The relationship between SST and  $\lambda_c$  also exhibited this type of  
11 behavior, as shown in Figure 10(b). The wind-sea interaction layer can be affected by  
12 SST in ocean front regions, causing the change of NRCS to reach 5 dB and the  
13 azimuthal cut-off wavelength induced by SST to exceed 120 m. Therefore, SST  
14 variability was found to be the main force modulating the Bragg waves.

15 [Figure 9]

16 [Figure 10]

17

## 18 **4 Discussion**

19 In this section, the SAR-derived wave spectra crossing the ocean front in Figure 1  
20 is analyzed. The PFSM algorithm (Lin et al., 2017) was used to retrieve the wave  
21 spectra following the red rectangles in Figures 2(a) and (b). Wind speed data are  
22 required in order to apply the PFSM. In this study, however, since the SAR-derived  
23 wind speeds deviated significantly from the actual wind speeds, the ECMWF wind  
24 speeds on a 0.125 grid were employed. To obtain reliable wind speeds, a bilinear  
25 interpolation was adopted for both the spatial and the temporal scales. The two ECMWF  
26 wind speed maps from the ECMWF are presented in Figure 11, in which the black  
27 rectangles represent the spatial coverage of the two S-1 SAR images.

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1 [Figure 11]

2 In Figures 12 and 13, the curves represent the normalized SAR-derived wave  
3 spectra of sample lines crossing the dark regions in the two cases. The maximum  
4 frequency was lowered to 1 s and the gaps that appeared in the SAR-derived wave  
5 spectra (at wavelengths  $> 100$  m) were due to velocity bunching. The case shown in  
6 Figure 12 deals with the SAR image located in the South China Sea in which the  
7 azimuthal cut-off wavelength increases from A to H. The dark regions from A to C  
8 correspond to high SSTs, although the current directions significantly changed and the  
9 current speeds in Figure 4 are  $> 0.2$  m/s. The SAR-derived wave spectra were  
10 overestimated with respect to the SWAN-simulated wave spectra, in which the short  
11 waves with wavelengths  $< 100$  m dominated. In the ocean front regions (D to H), the  
12 SAR-derived wave spectra were close to the SWAN-simulated wave spectra at  
13 wavelengths  $> 130$  m. As for the case located in the East China Sea, two small cold  
14 eddies (A to D, H, and G) occurred on the sides of the ocean front, as seen in Figures  
15 3b and 4b. It should be noted that, even in this case, the SAR-derived wave spectra  
16 exhibited large deviations with respect to the SWAN-simulated spectra. The PFSM  
17 algorithm performed better without the distortion caused by the ocean front, where the  
18 azimuthal cut-off wavelength was  $> 100$  m.

19 [Figure 12]

20 [Figure 13]

## 21 **5 Conclusions**

22 Ocean fronts, together with upwelling and eddies, are interesting topics for the  
23 marine science community, particularly the occurrence of fronts in relation to other  
24 dynamic processes, such as sea surface winds, currents, and SSTs. The SAR is a unique  
25 remote sensing tool that can observe the sea surface over a large spatial area. In this  
26 study, several C-band S-1 VV-polarized SAR images located in the Yangtze Estuary  
27 and Zhujiang Estuary, China were acquired during the period spanning 2017–2018. The  
28 ECMWF wind speed data, AVHRR SST data, and NOPP-HYCOM current fields were

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1 simultaneously used. The wave fields, including SWH and two-dimensional wave  
2 spectra, were simulated using the SWAN model collocated with the S-1 SAR images.  
3 The simulated SWHs were also verified against Jason-2 altimeter measurements.

4 The NOPP-HYCOM currents were used to verify the ocean fronts, and AVHRR  
5 SST data were employed to verify the occurrence of upwelling or cold eddies. It was  
6 discovered that in the East China Sea case (around the Zhoushan Islands), the dark  
7 patterns that appeared in the SAR images corresponded to low SST regions, while the  
8 black regions for the case in the South China Sea were related to high SST regions. The  
9 azimuthal cut-off wavelength was found to decrease with wind speed up to 8 m/s, above  
10 which it increased with increasing wind speed. In addition, the azimuthal cut-off  
11 wavelength increased with increasing current speed. The changes in the azimuthal cut-  
12 off wavelength induced by the current were  $\leq 60$  m, while the changes induced by the  
13 SST were more pronounced ( $> 120$  m). We conclude that SST mainly contributes to the  
14 change in sea surface roughness, while current is likely to be a significant factor driving  
15 the change of the azimuthal cut-off wavelength. In the presence of ocean fronts, the  
16 PSFM algorithm overestimates wave retrieval compared to the SWAN simulation.

17 In the near future, we plan to collect more SAR images covering the ocean front  
18 region and attempt to develop an algorithm for wave retrieval taking into account the  
19 influence of SST. Furthermore, the linear relationship between current and azimuthal  
20 cut-off wavelength can be utilized for current speed retrieval from SAR images.

## 21

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25 data from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) were  
26 accessed via <http://www.ecmwf.int>. Ocean current field data from from the National  
27 Ocean Partnership Program (NOPP) based on the HYbrid Coordinate Ocean Model  
28 (HYCOM) were collected from <https://www.hycom.org>. Operational Geophysical Data

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1 Record (OGDR) wave data from the Jason-2 altimeter mission were accessed via  
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3 (GEBCO) were downloaded from <ftp.edcftp.cr.usgs.gov>. This work was partly  
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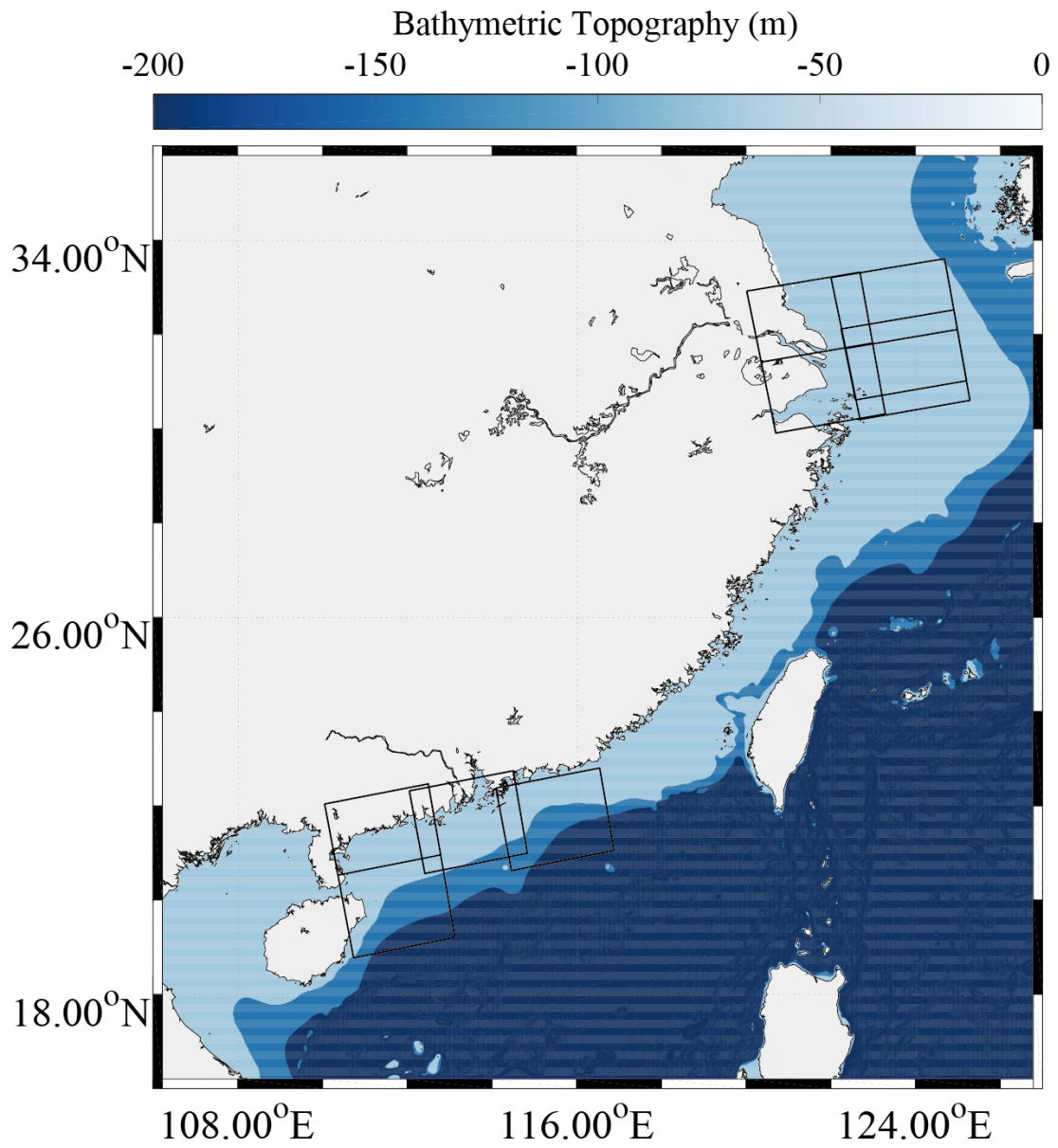
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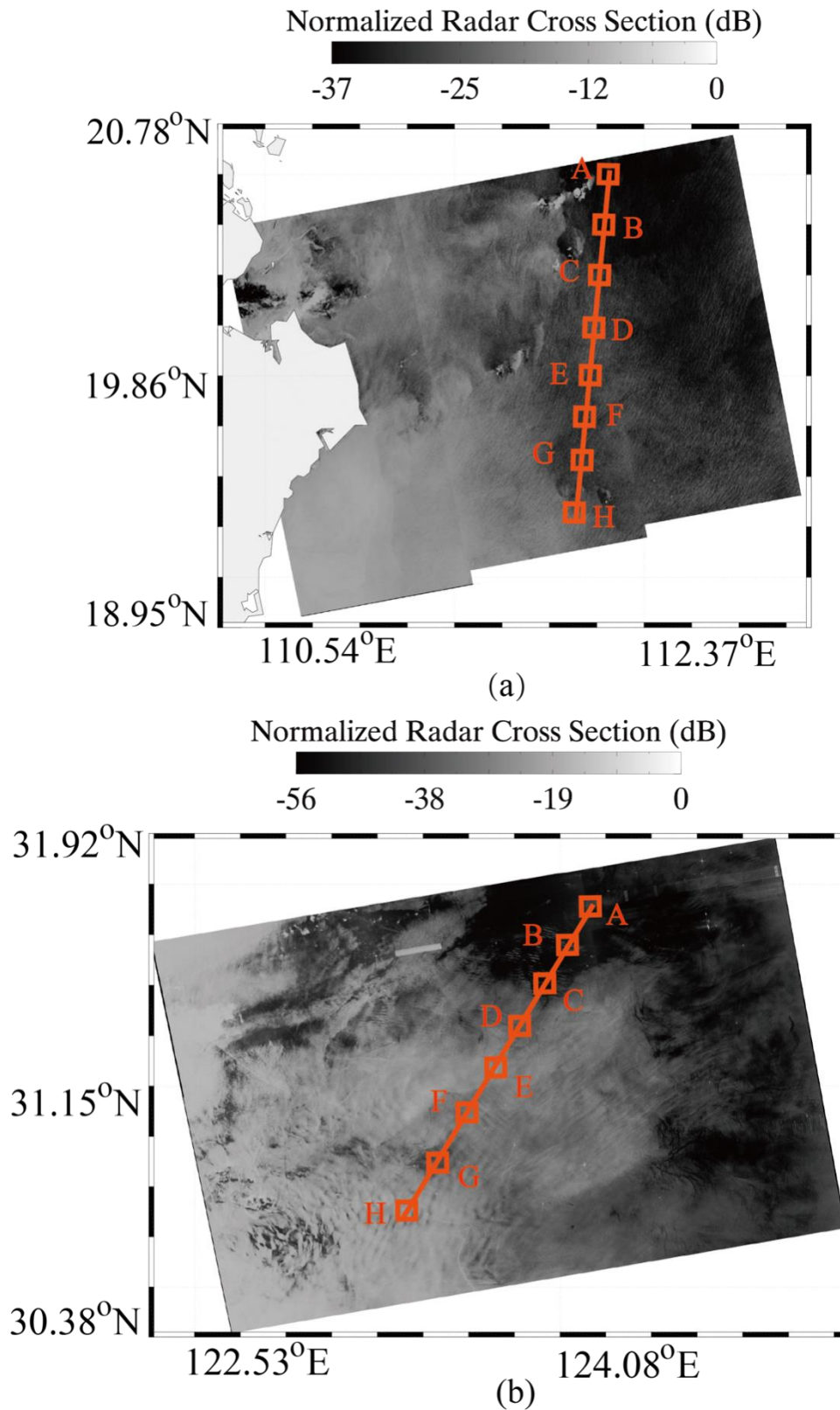
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**Fig. 1.** S-1 SAR dataset overlaid on water depth

3

The rectangles represent the spatial coverage of the SAR imagery.

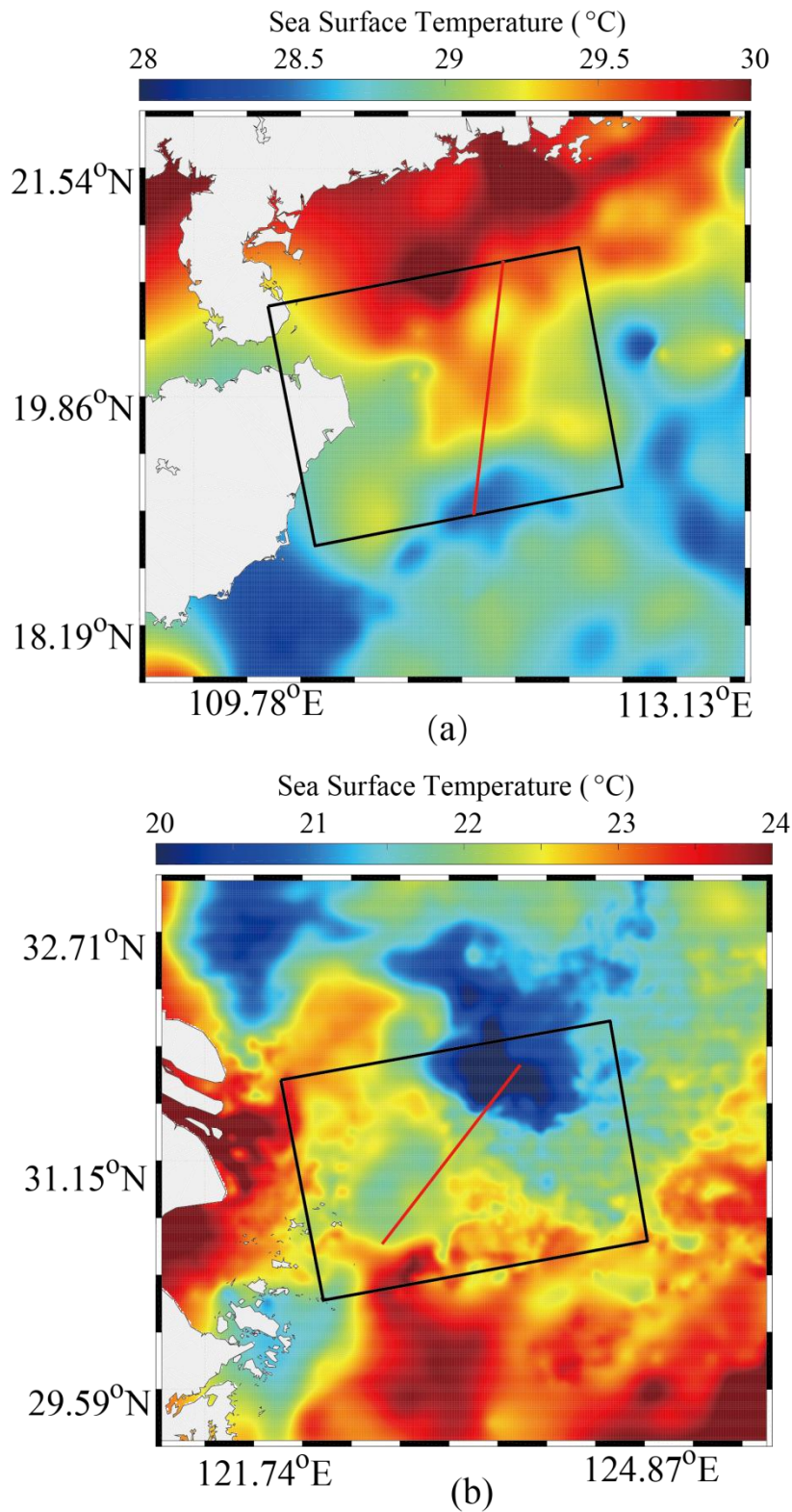
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1

2 **Fig. 2.** S-1 VV-polarized and calibrated NRCS imagery showing ocean fronts collected  
 3 on: (a) August 27, 2018 at 13:37 UTC at the mouth of the Yangtze Estuary; (b) June 15,  
 4 2016 at 11:50 UTC in the South China Sea towards the Zhujiang Estuary

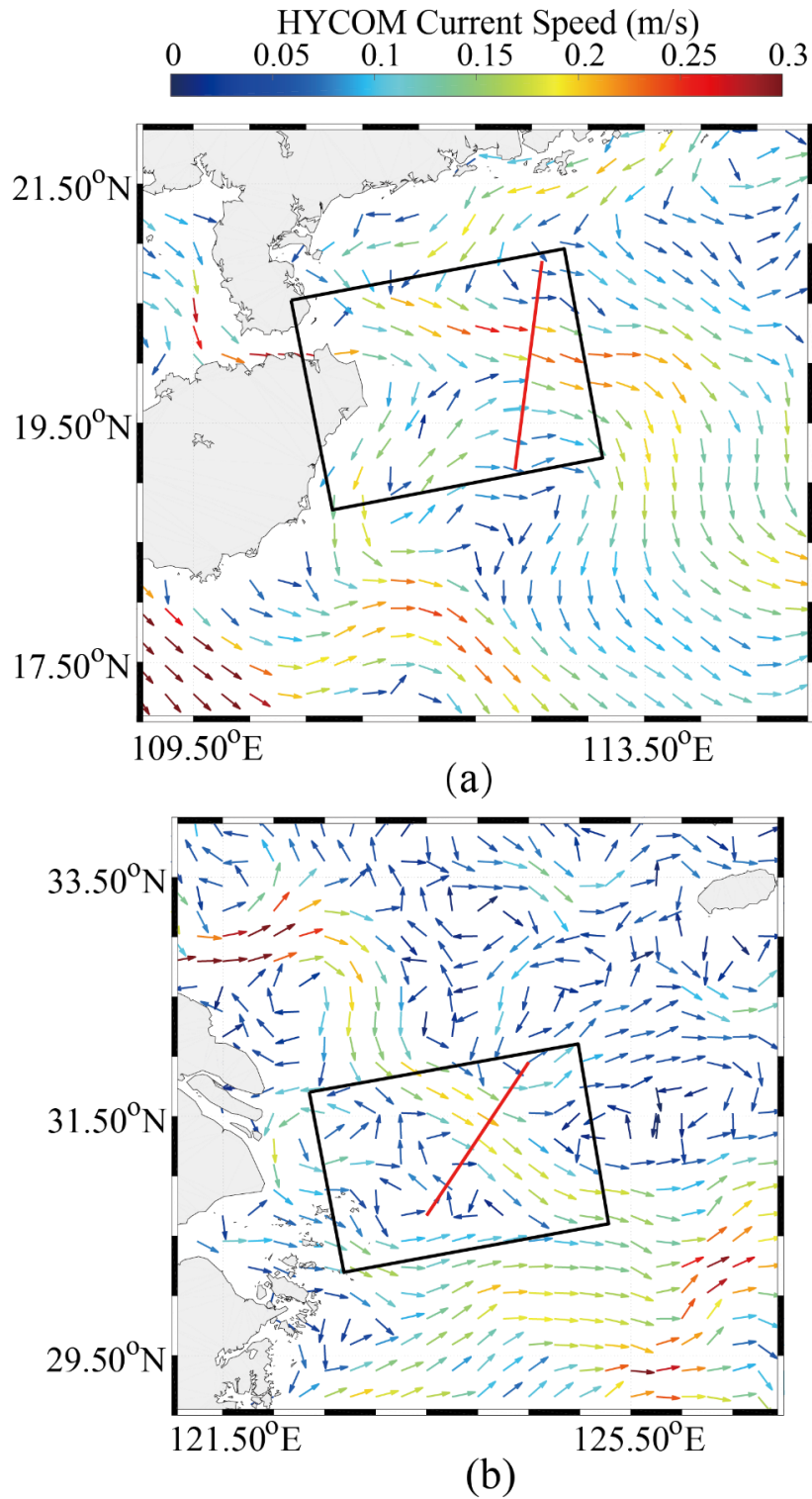
5 The red lines and rectangles are selected profiles across the ocean fronts.



1

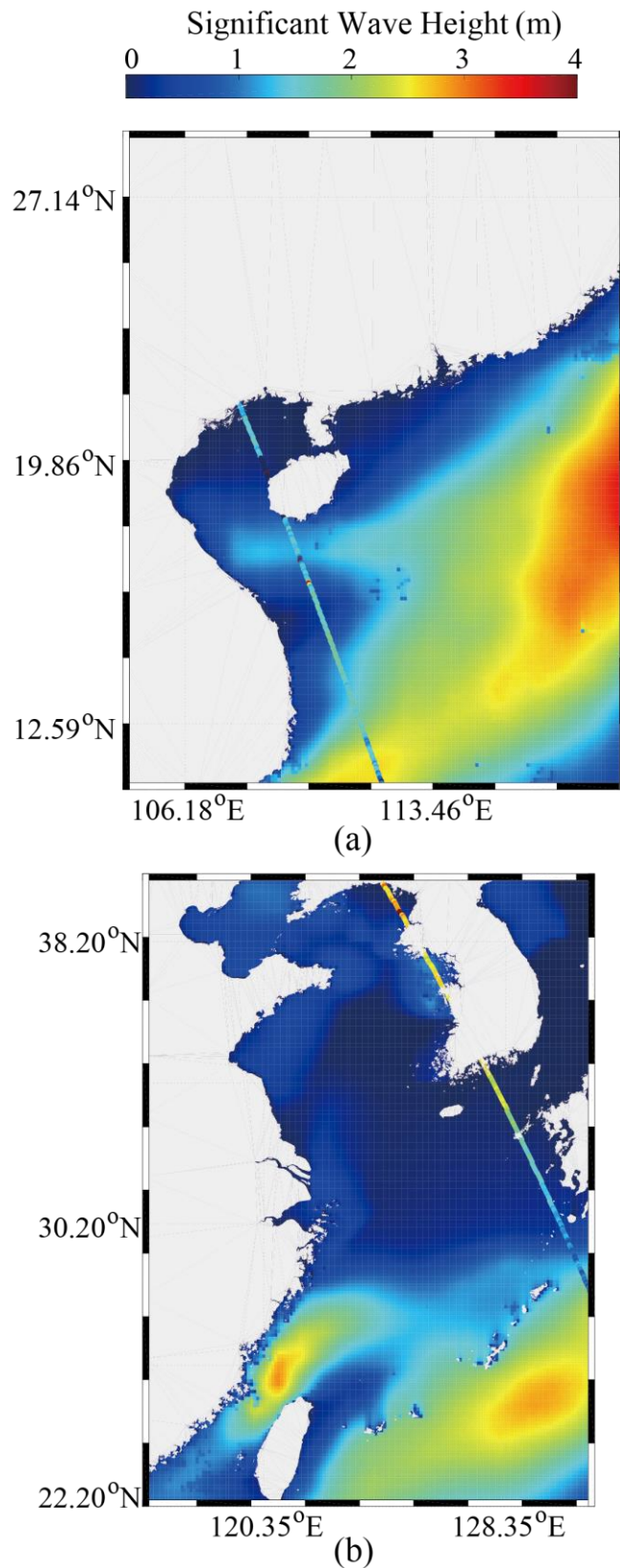
2 **Fig. 3.** AVHRR SST maps related to the acquisitions collected on: (a) August 27, 2018  
 3 at 12:30 UTC in the South China Sea; (b) June 15, 2016 at 10:30 UTC around the  
 4 Zhoushan Islands

5 The black rectangles represent the spatial coverage of the two S-1 SAR images and the  
 6 red lines are selected profiles across the ocean fronts.



1

2 **Fig. 4.** Sea surface currents from the National Ocean Partnership Program (NOPP) based  
 3 on the HYbrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM), in which the black rectangles  
 4 represent the spatial coverage of the two SAR images and the red lines and rectangles  
 5 are selected profiles across the ocean fronts, in which (a) represents the current speed  
 6 map on August 27, 2018 at 12:00 UTC in the South China Sea, and (b) represents the  
 7 current speed map on June 15, 2016 at 12:00 UTC around the Zhoushan Islands.



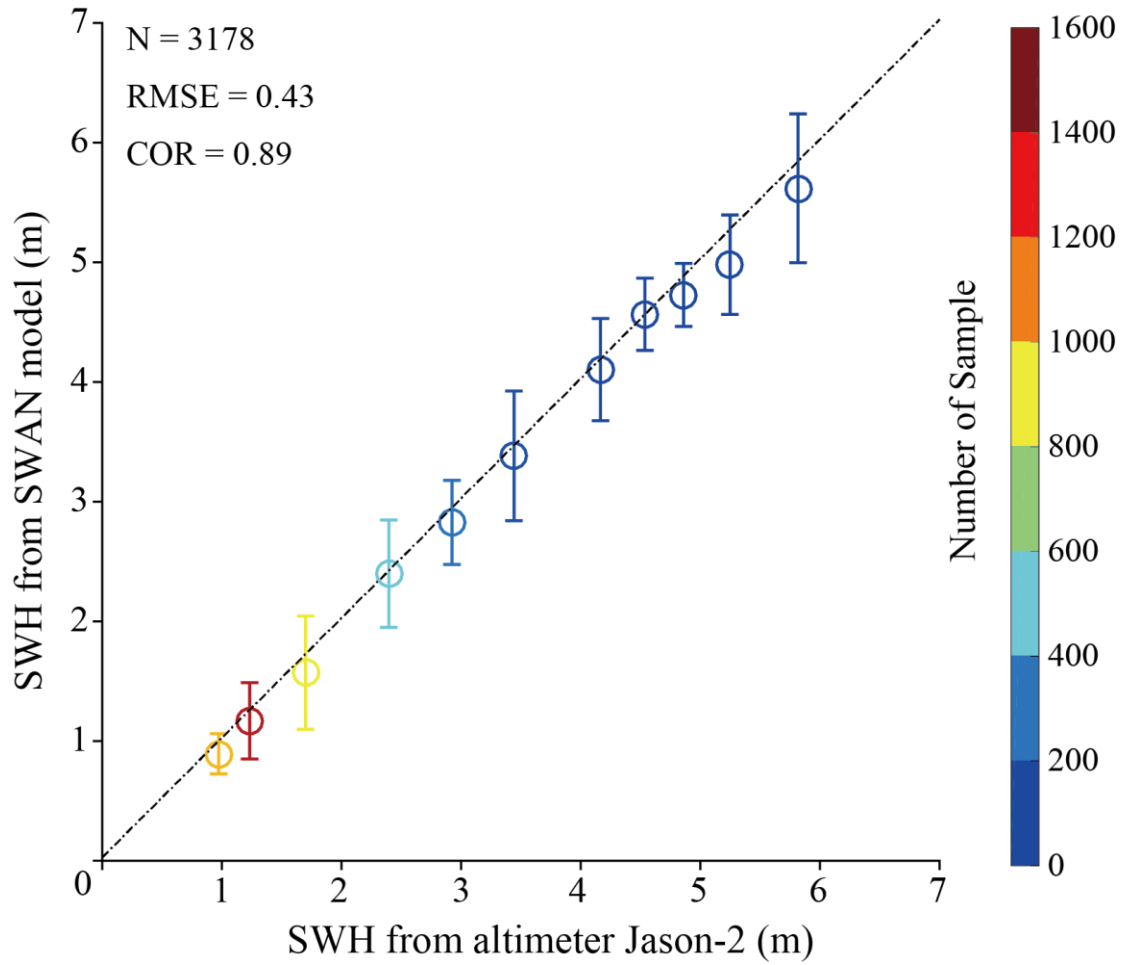
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2 **Fig. 5.** Simulated significant wave height (SWH) maps using the Simulating Waves  
3 Nearshore (SWAN) model

4 The colored rectangles represent the footprints of the Jason-2 altimeter and the

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1 simulated regions refer to (a) the South China Sea and (b) the East China Sea.



1

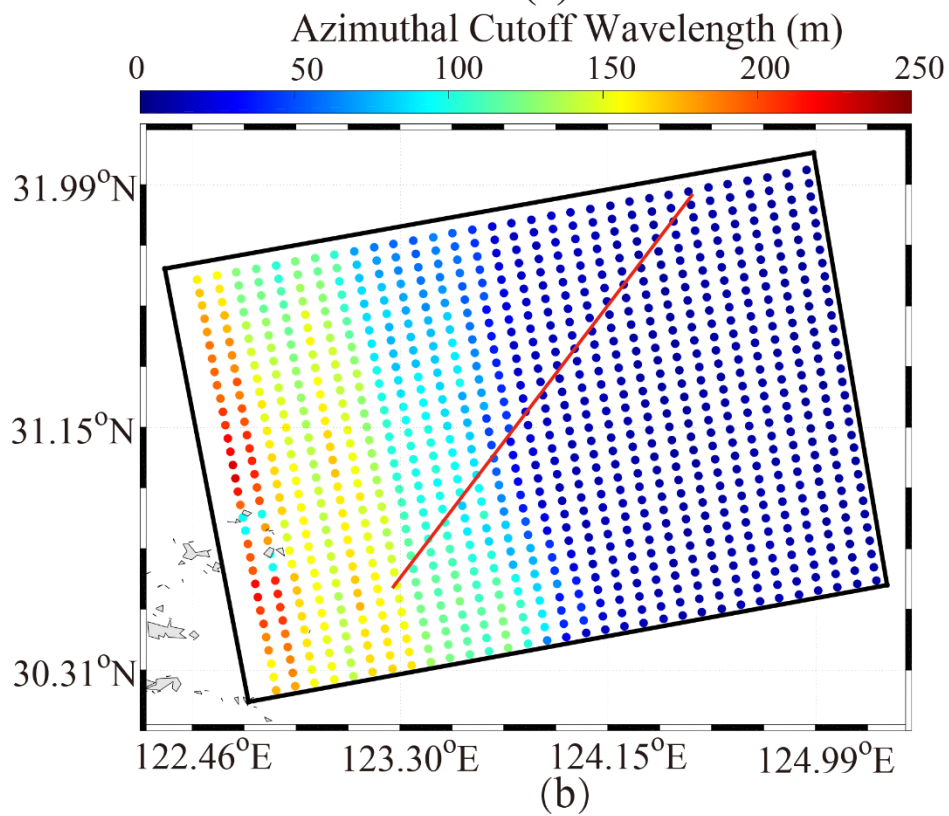
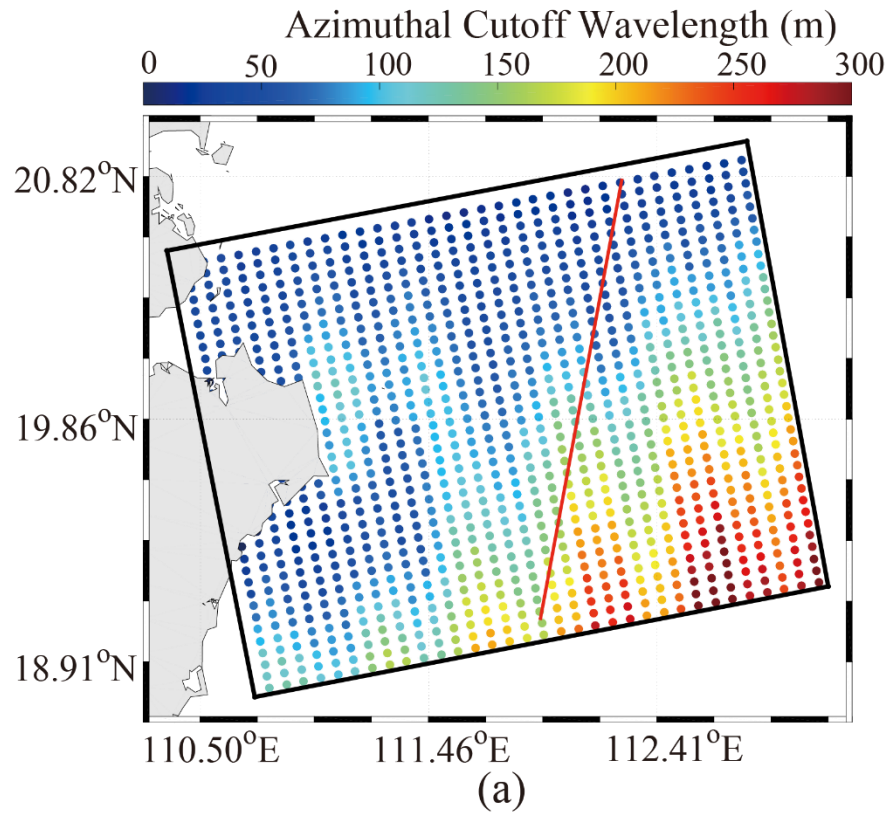
2 **Fig. 6.** SWAN-simulated SWHs contrasted with Jason-2 altimeter measurements

3

The bin was set to 0.3 in a range spanning 1–6 m.

4

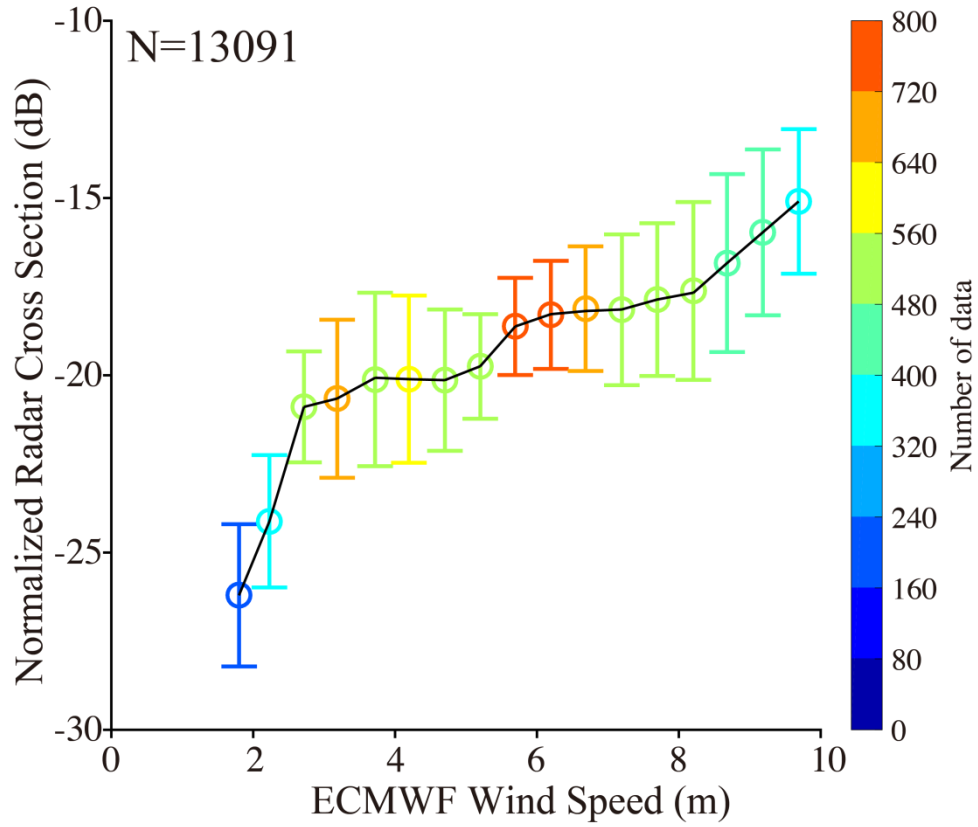




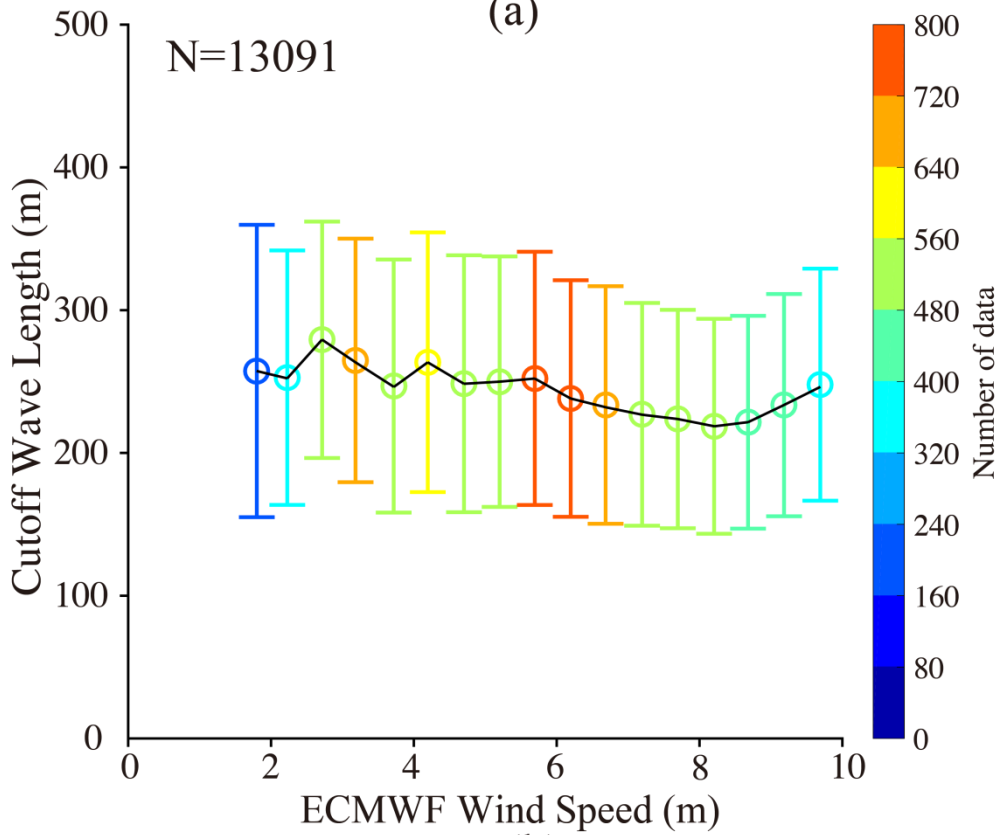
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2 **Fig. 7.** Azimuthal cut-off wavelengths estimated using the simulated two-dimensional  
 3 wave spectrum from the SWAN model

4 The red lines and rectangles are selected profiles across the ocean fronts for (a) the S-1  
 5 SAR image in the South China Sea and (b) the SAR image in the East China Sea.



(a)



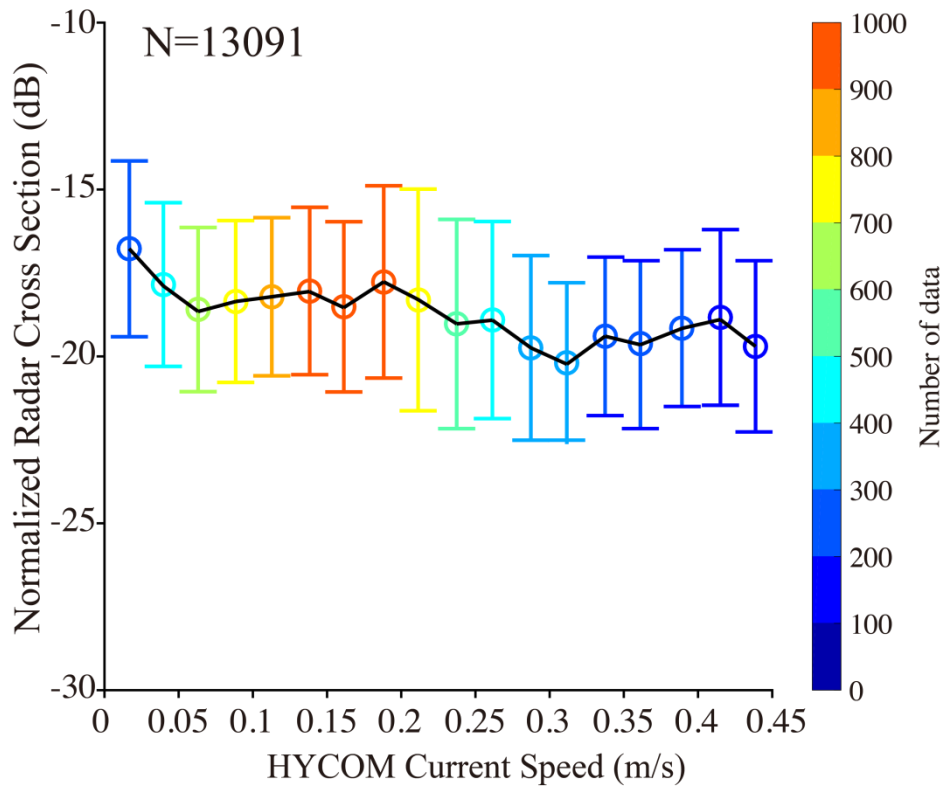
(b)

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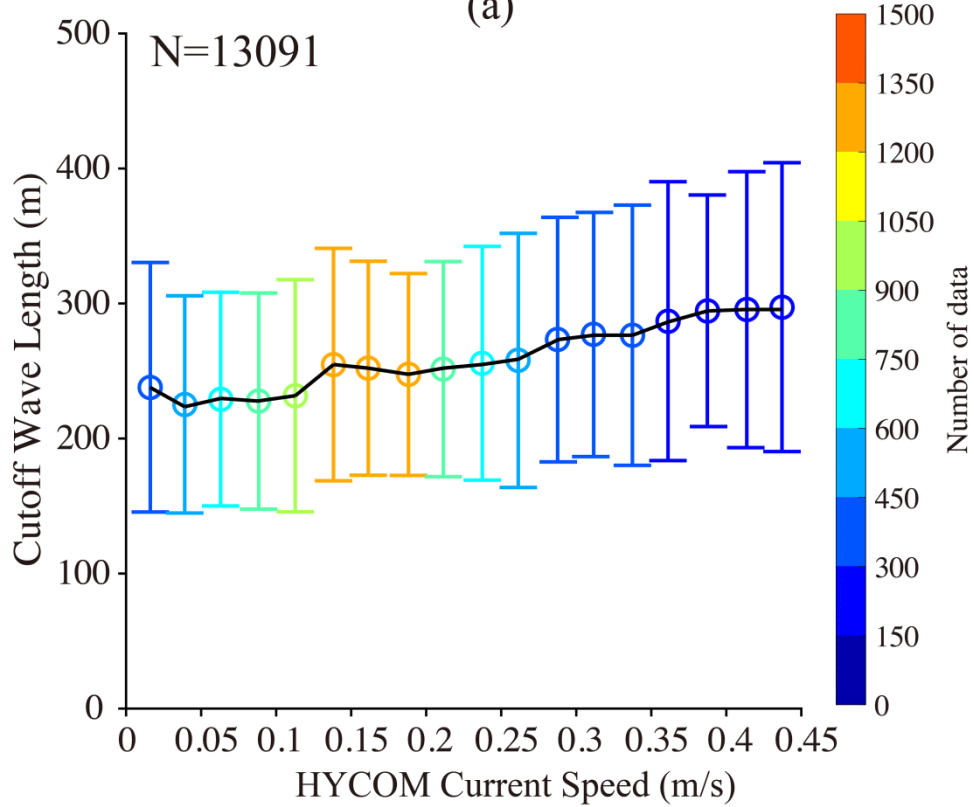
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**Fig. 8.** ECMWF wind speed contrasted with: (a) SAR-measured NRCS, and (b) azimuthal cut-off wavelength



(a)



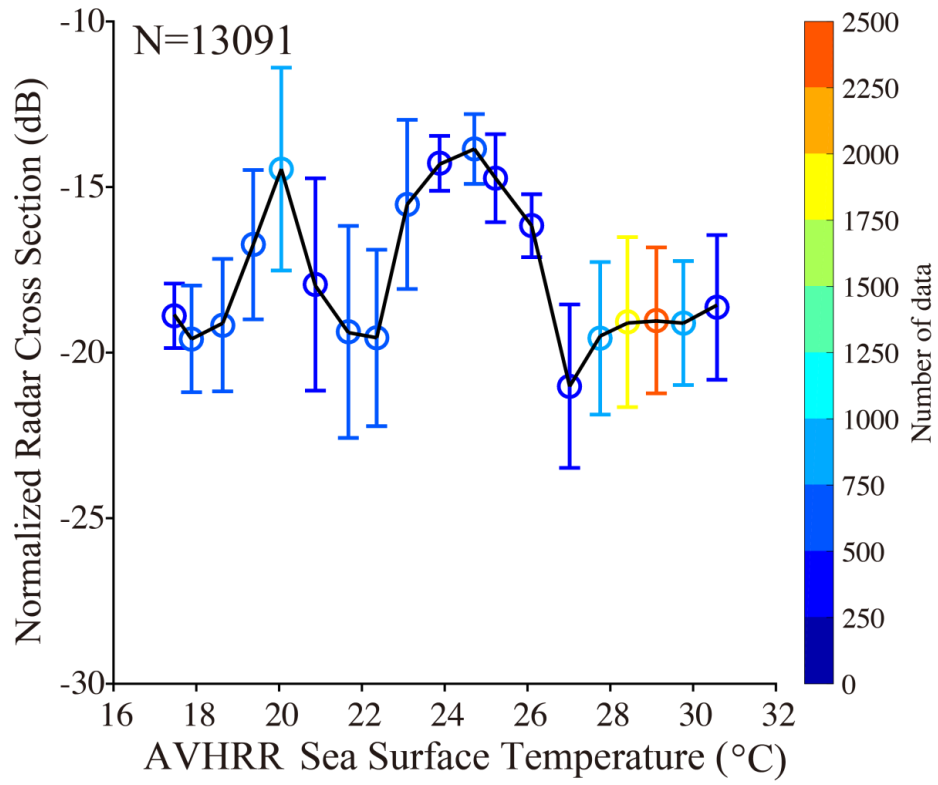
(b)

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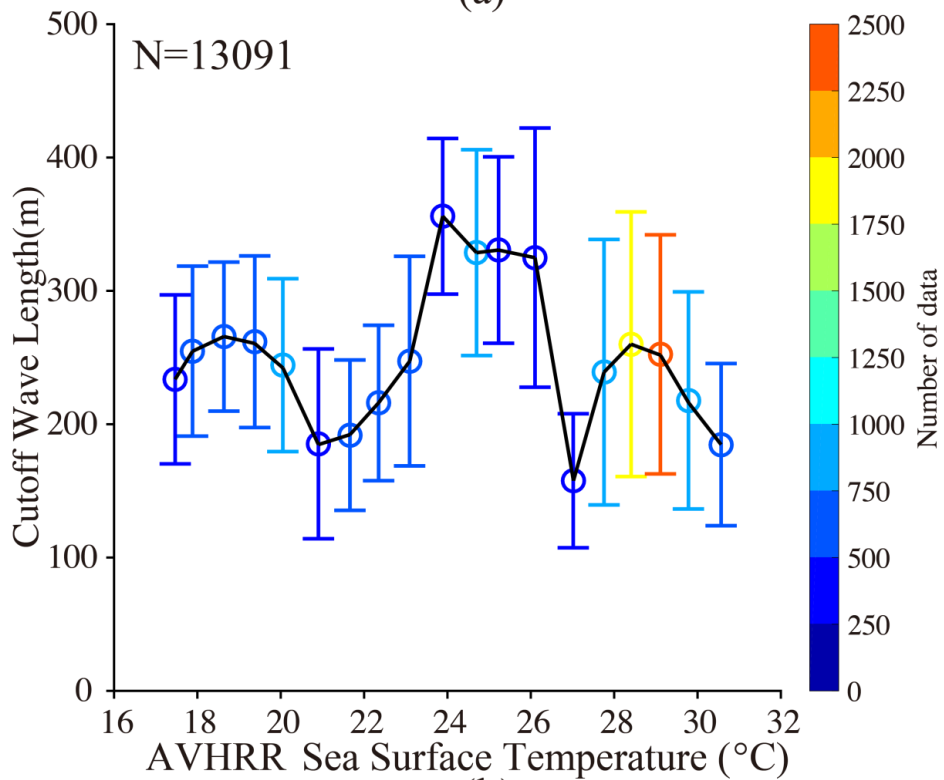
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**Fig. 9.** HYCOM current speed contrasted with: (a) SAR-measured NRCS, and (b) azimuthal cut-off wavelength



(a)



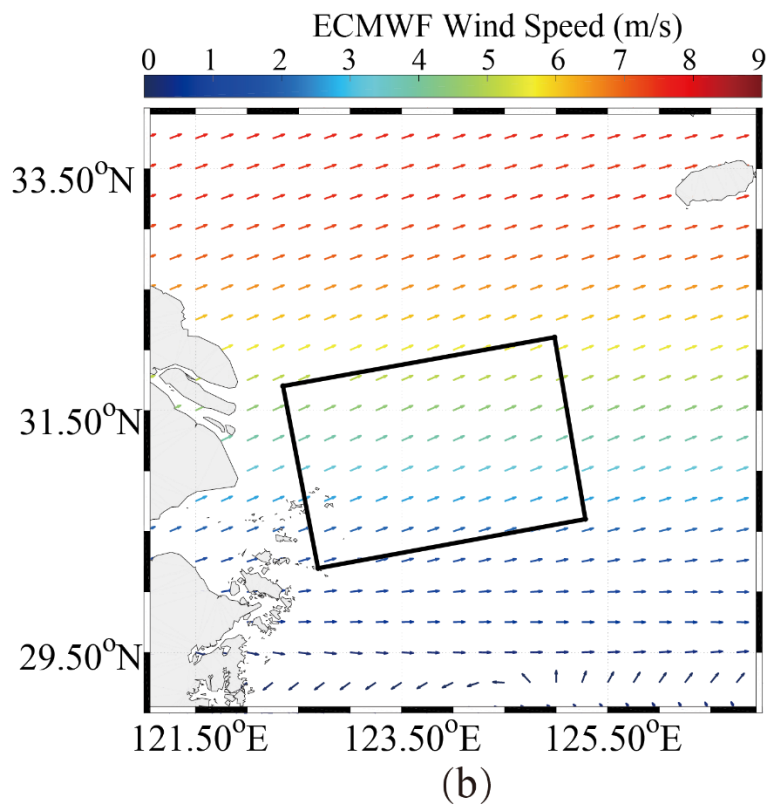
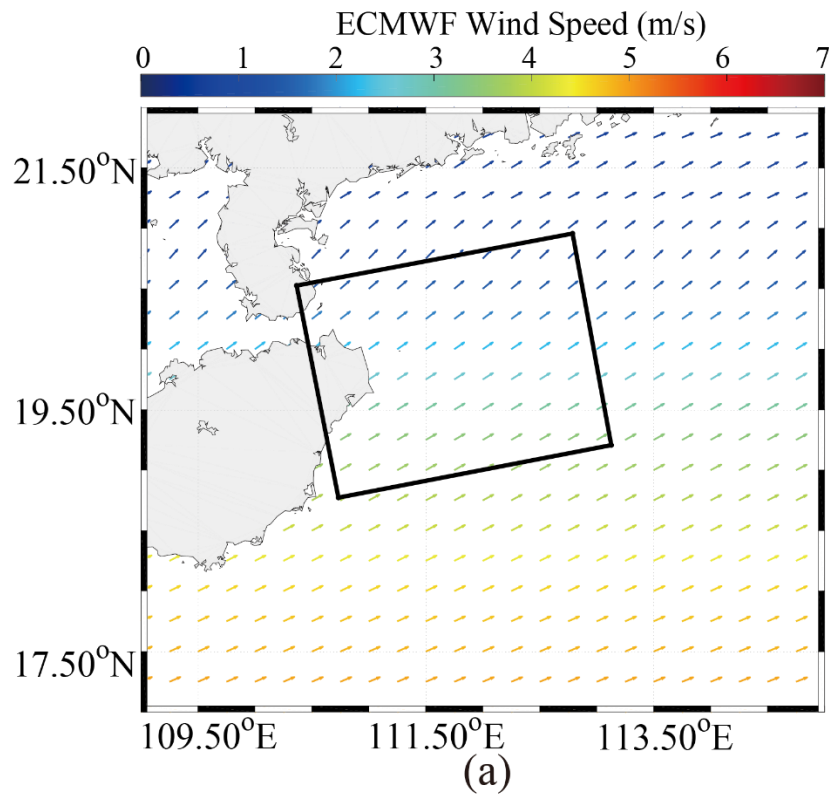
(b)

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**Fig. 10.** AVHRR SST contrasted with: (a) SAR-measured NRCS, and (b) azimuthal cut-off wavelength

3



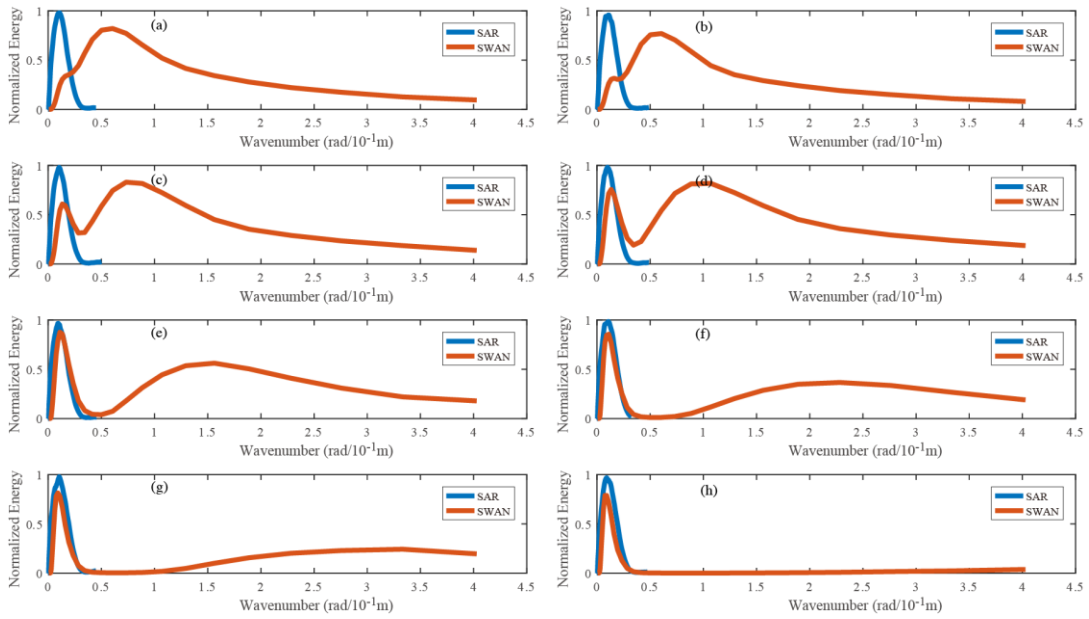
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**Fig. 11.** ECMWF wind maps in which the black rectangles represent the spatial coverage of the two SAR images: (a) August 27, 2018 at 12:00 UTC in the South China Sea; (b) June 15, 2016 at 12:00 UTC around the Zhoushan Islands

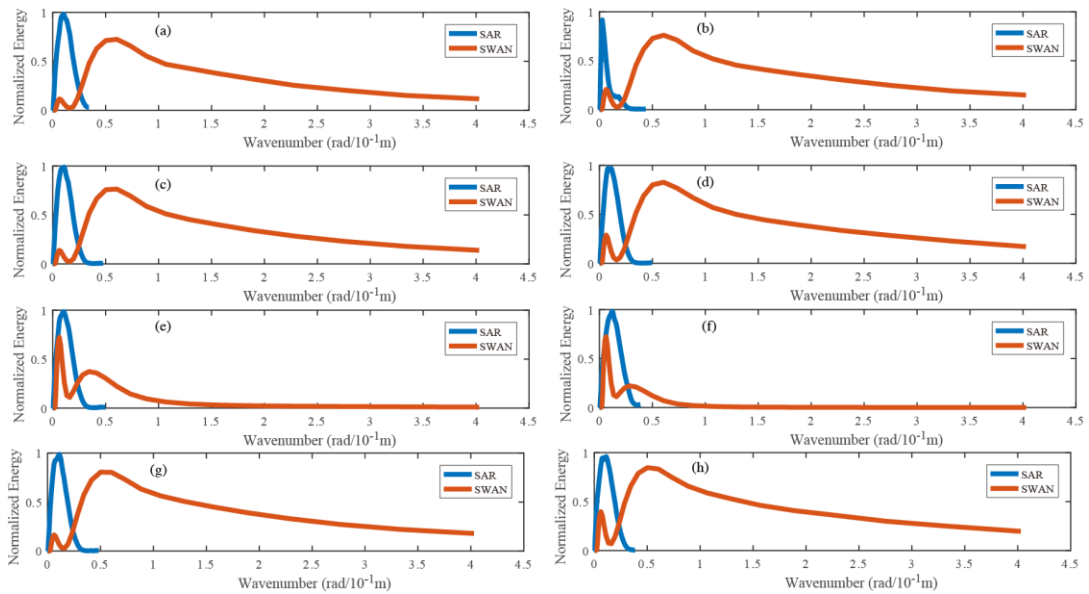


1

2 **Fig. 12.** Wave spectra derived from SAR images (blue curves) contrasted with the  
 3 spectra simulated using the SWAN model (red curves)

4 The panels (a)–(n) stand represent the estimations/simulations corresponding to the  
 5 markers A–H in Figure 2(a).

6



7

8 **Fig. 13.** Wave spectra derived from SAR images (blue curves) contrasted with the  
 9 spectra simulated using the SWAN model (red curves)

10 The panels (a)–(n) represent the estimations/simulations corresponding to the markers  
 11 A–H in Figure 2(b).

12