

1 Impact of altimeter-buoy data pairing methods on the
2 validation of Sentinel-3A coastal significant wave heights

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5 **Abstract**

Sea state information is critical for a broad range of human activities (e.g. shipping, marine energy, marine engineering) most of them being concentrated along the coastal zone. Satellite altimeter records of significant wave heights represent the largest source of sea state observations available to date. However, the quality of altimeter observations is downgraded in the coastal zone due to surface heterogeneity within the radar signal footprint. In the last decades, increasing efforts have been devoted to exploit altimeter observations closer to the coast, using new sensor technologies (e.g. Ka-band or Delay-Doppler radar altimeters), dedicated waveform retracking algorithms or post processing filtering techniques. One major difficulty that remains to assess the performance of coastal altimetry in the coastal zone is the reduced number of valid altimeter records and the increased sea state variability, which requires the development of new methods to pair and compare nearby altimeter and buoy data. In this study, we use a high-resolution numerical wave model implemented over the European coastal waters in order to characterize the spatial variability of sea states in the proximity of coastal in situ

buoys. Areas of sea state similarity are defined from the computation of systematic and random errors between the time series simulated at the station and those of neighboring nodes. These areas are then used to compute buoy – altimeter matchup statistics and estimate altimeter errors with respect to the buoy data. Additional methods, based on the dynamic comparison between model results at the buoy location and at the altimeter ground measurement are also investigated. These different methods are used to assess the quality of Sentinel-3A 20Hz significant wave height acquisitions in both offshore and coastal waters. Three Sentinel-3A data flavours are compared: the pseudo low resolution mode acquisitions, the SAR mode acquisitions and the Low Resolution with Range Migration Correction (LR-RMC) acquisitions. Comparisons against in situ and high resolution model clearly demonstrate the improved performance of the SAR and LR-RMC data relative to PLRM data. In particular, the LR-RMC processing is shown to provide consistent SWH records within the 0-20km coastal strip (and as close as 1km from the coast), with average normalized bias = 2.4%, scatter index = 18.9% and correlation coefficient = 0.95.

6 *Keywords:*

7 **1. Introduction**

8 Collecting long-term, frequent and accurate coastal sea state information
9 is critical for a broad range of human activities, such as commercial ship-
10 ping, harbour operations, marine and coastal engineering, or marine energy
11 resource assessment (Ardhuin et al., 2019). In the current context of accel-
12 erating sea level rise, coastal sea state information is also required to better

13 understand and predict sea level changes along the coasts. Indeed, wave-
14 induced nearshore processes cause significant fluctuations of the sea level at
15 the shoreline, for instance due to wave setup, infragravity waves, or swash
16 zone excursion (Dodet et al., 2019b), that can dominate the extreme to-
17 tal water level signal along many exposed coastlines (Serafin et al., 2017).
18 Moreover, sea states are known to modify the scattering properties of the sea
19 surface, with higher reflectivity in the wave troughs than in the wave crests,
20 resulting in an underestimation of the mean sea level of the order of a few
21 percents of the significant wave height (SWH) (Yaplee et al., 1971; Jackson,
22 1979). This so-called sea state bias still represents one of the major source of
23 errors in satellite altimeter range corrections in the coastal zone (Vignudelli
24 et al., 2019).

25 Satellite altimeter records of SWH represent the largest source of sea state
26 observations available to date. However, the quality of altimeter acquisitions
27 is degraded in the coastal zone due to land contamination and sea surface het-
28 erogeneities within the radar signal footprint (Vignudelli et al., 2019). Over
29 the last decades, increasing efforts have been devoted to exploit altimeter
30 observations closer to the coast using new sensor technologies (e.g. Ka-band
31 and synthetic aperture radar altimeters), improved waveform retracking al-
32 gorithms (e.g. Passaro et al., 2018; Tourain et al., 2021) or post processing
33 filtering techniques (e.g. Quilfen and Chapron, 2020). Among these recent
34 innovations, synthetic aperture radar (SAR) altimetry (also known as Delay-
35 Doppler altimetry) appears particularly promising for monitoring the coastal
36 zone, thanks to a finer along-track-resolution and a lower noise level (Raney,
37 1998). In this study, we investigate the performance of the SAR Radar Al-

38 timeter (SRAL) instrument on-board the Copernicus Sentinel-3A mission,
39 to retrieve significant wave heights in the coastal zone. In particular, differ-
40 ent mode of acquisitions permitted by this instrument, described in the next
41 Section, will be compared.

42 A number of studies have explored the performance of altimeter missions
43 for measuring wave heights in the coastal zone based on comparisons with
44 in situ measurements (e.g. Hithin et al., 2015; Nencioli and Quartly, 2019;
45 Jiang et al., 2022) and high resolution numerical wave models (Schlembach
46 et al., 2020; Alday et al., 2022). Two major difficulties have been identified
47 for the interpretation of coastal altimeter validation results. On one hand,
48 the number of invalid data drastically increases close to the coast so that
49 improved performance are often obtained at the expense of a reduced sample
50 size resulting from a highly selective data editing (Schlembach et al., 2020),
51 which is not systematically documented. On the other hand, the representa-
52 tiveness error due to the spatial and temporal separation distances between
53 pairs of altimeter and in situ measurements strongly increases in the coastal
54 zone and customary collocation method based on fixed thresholds (usually
55 50km and 30min) are no longer valid. To overcome these limitations, several
56 authors developed data pairing methods for the coastal zone based on nu-
57 merical wave model results. Nencioli and Quartly (2019) used wave model
58 hindcast results around coastal UK wave buoys in order to define high corre-
59 lation areas between buoy and surrounding nodes. The selection of altimeter
60 data to be compared with the buoy data is then based on these high corre-
61 lation areas, so that spatial representativeness error is reduced. Jiang et al.
62 (2022) revisited this experiment and proposed a dynamic correction to the

63 buoy measurements based on wave model outputs in order to account for
64 SWH variability without reducing the number of altimeter-buoy matchups.

65 In this study we use a high-resolution numerical wave model implemented
66 over the European coastal waters in order to characterize the spatial vari-
67 ability of sea states in the proximity of coastal in situ buoys. Buoy rep-
68 resentativeness areas are defined from the computation of systematic and
69 random errors between the time series simulated at the station and those of
70 neighboring nodes. These areas are then used to compute buoy – altimeter
71 matchup statistics and estimate altimeter errors with respect to the buoy
72 data. Additional methods considered in this study are based on the dynamic
73 comparison between model results at the buoy location and at the altimeter
74 ground measurement, to ensure that (modelled) spatial variability is low be-
75 fore comparing altimeter and in situ data. These different methods are used
76 to assess the quality of Sentinel-3A 20Hz SWH acquisitions in both pseudo
77 low resolution and SAR modes. For this latter mode, two processing meth-
78 ods (SAR and LR-RMC) are compared. The Sentinel-3A and buoy datasets
79 as well as the different data pairing methods considered in this study are
80 presented in the next section. Then comparisons of the different methods
81 and the impact on Sentinel-3A coastal validation are presented in Section 4.
82 Finally the results are discussed and summarized in Section 5.

83 **2. Datasets**

84 *2.1. Sentinel-3A*

85 The Copernicus Sentinel-3A (S3A hereafter) mission, launched in Febru-
86 ary 2016, is a low Earth polar orbiting satellite operating at an average alti-

87 tude of 815 km above the Earth surface with a repeat cycle of 27 days. It car-
88 ries onboard a SAR Radar Altimeter (SRAL), which provides high-resolution
89 SWH measurements. The SAR processing mode was first developed for the
90 European Space Agency (ESA) mission Cryosat for its measurements over
91 ice (and later extended to small sample regions of the ocean), but S3A is the
92 first altimeter mission to operate in this mode globally over all surfaces. SAR
93 altimeters present a narrow ($\sim 250m$) footprint in the along-track direction
94 independent of the sea state conditions, which present a major advantage
95 in comparison to conventional low resolution mode altimetry for which the
96 diameter of the altimeter footprint can exceeds 10km during rough sea state
97 conditions (Chelton et al., 1989). This narrow-band footprint results from
98 the exploitation of radar pulses transmitted at very high rate (ten times
99 as high as for LRM), and for which pulse-to-pulse coherency and Doppler
100 information are used to localize radar echoes and form multi-looked wave-
101 forms (Raney, 1998). Despite its clear advantages in terms of resolution and
102 noise level (Boy et al., 2017), SAR processing has also proven to be partic-
103 ularly sensitive to the presence of swells for retrieving accurate wave height
104 information (Moreau et al., 2018). To overcome this issue, Moreau et al.
105 (2021) implemented the Low Resolution with Range Migration Correction
106 (LR-RMC hereafter) method, which uses an alternative and less complex
107 averaging (stacking) operation so that all the Doppler beams produced in a
108 radar cycle (4 bursts of 64 beams for the S3 open-burst mode) are incoher-
109 ently combined to form a multi-beam echo. Contrarily to the narrow-band
110 SAR technique, the LR-RMC processing enlarges the effective footprint to
111 average out the effects of surface waves that are known to impact SAR-mode

112 performances. On the other hand, the number of averaged beams is as high
113 as in current SAR-mode processing, thus providing a noise reduction at least
114 equally good.

115 The S3A measurements considered in this study are along-track SWH
116 records at 20Hz posting rate (corresponding to approximately 300m spac-
117 ing between two records) from three different datasets, namely the Pseudo
118 Low Resolution (PLRM), SAR and LR-RMC datasets. The PLRM and
119 SAR data are both from the EUMETSAT SRAL/MWR L2 Marine products
120 (<https://www.eumetsat.int/sentinel-3>), while the LR-RMC data are from the
121 ESA Sea State Climate Change Initiative project ([https://climate.esa.int/en/projects/sea-](https://climate.esa.int/en/projects/sea-state/)
122 [state/](https://climate.esa.int/en/projects/sea-state/)). For each dataset, data editing was performed based on the available
123 surface type and quality flag information.

124 *2.2. Wave buoys*

125 The CMEMS In Situ Thematic Assembly Center (CMEMS INSTAC) is
126 a component of the CMEMS and its role is to ensure consistent and reliable
127 access to a range of in situ data for service production and validation. For
128 this purpose, CMEMS INSTAC collect multi-source/multiplatform data, and
129 perform consistent quality control before distributing the data in a common
130 format to the CMEMS Marine Forecasting Centres (MFC). The data can be
131 found at <http://www.marineinsitu.eu/>. In this study, we considered all wave
132 buoys moored in locations within 20km from a Sentinel-3A track and at a
133 1-km minimum distance to the coast. 70 buoys were selected, with distance
134 to the coast comprised between 2 and 250 km. The locations of these buoys
135 are shown on Figure 1.

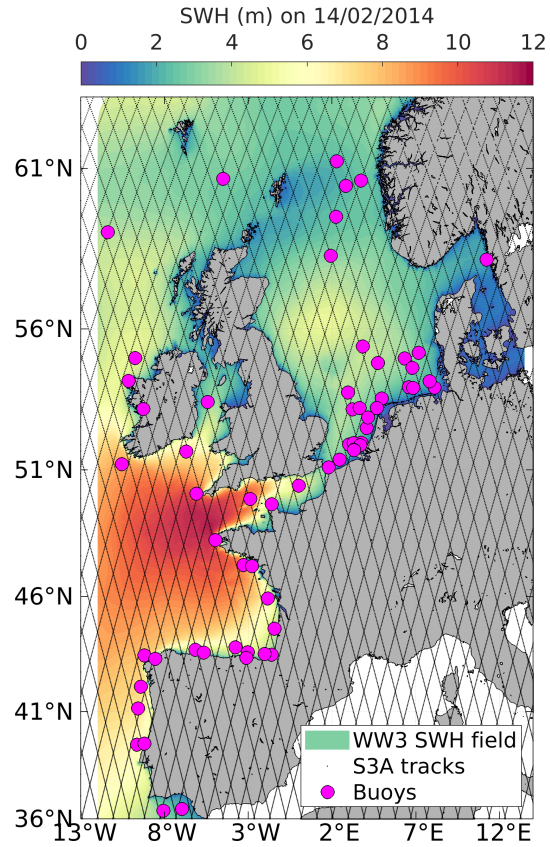


Figure 1: Location of the 70 wave buoys (magenta circles) moored within 20 km of Sentinel-3A ground tracks (dashed black lines) selected for this study. The background colorscale shows the SWH field from the high-resolution wave model during Ulla storm (February 14 2014).

136 *2.3. High-resolution numerical wave model*

137 The wave model hindcast used in this study is being developed at IFRE-
138 MER in the context of the ResourceCODE project (OCEAN ERA-Net co-
139 found) with the aim to provide accurate long-term sea state information for
140 the exploitation of Marine Renewable Energy (<https://resourcecode.ifremer.fr/>).
141 It is a regional implementation of the WAVEWATCH III (hereafter WW3)
142 spectral wave model on a high-resolution unstructured mesh extending from
143 the south of Spain to the Faroe Islands, and from the western Irish continen-
144 tal shelf to the Baltic Sea (-12°W to 13.5°E, 36°N to 63°N). The extension of
145 the model grid is presented on Figure 1 with an example of simulated SWH
146 field during Ulla storm on February, 14 2014. The hindcast covers a 28-year
147 period, from 1993 to 2020. The bathymetry combines data from the EMOD-
148 net dataset (EMODnet 2016) and the HOMONIM dataset provided by the
149 French Naval Hydrographic and Oceanographic Service (Shom) with a 0.001°
150 resolution over the Channel and the Bay of Biscay. The spatial mesh contains
151 328,000 nodes and the resolution ranges from 10 km offshore to 200 m near the
152 coast. The spectral grid consists of 36 directions and 36 exponentially spaced
153 frequencies, from 0.0339Hz to 0.9526Hz. The physical parameterization cor-
154 responds to test T475, as described in Alday et al. (2021), which uses adjusted
155 parameters for the wind-wave generation and swell dumping terms. The
156 model is forced along its boundaries with wave spectra generated by a global
157 WW3 wave model hindcast forced with ERA-5 hourly wind fields (Hersbach
158 et al., 2020) and CMEMS-Globcurrent surface current fields (Global Ocean
159 Multi Observation Product, MULTIOBS_GLO_PHY_REP_015_004). The re-
160 gional model is forced by ERA-5 wind fields (with a bias correction for wind

161 speeds larger than 21m/s), and with currents and water levels reconstructed
162 from the MARS2D and FES2014 tidal harmonics database. Detailed infor-
163 mation on the ResourceCODE model implementation and validation can be
164 found in Accensi et al. (2021) and Alday et al. (2022). Moreover, implemen-
165 tation and validation of the global wave hindcast are described in Alday et al.
166 (2021).

167 **3. Methods**

168 *3.1. Buoy representativeness area*

169 In order to characterize the spatial variability of the SWH in the vicin-
170 ity of the buoy, and to quantify the spatial representativeness of the buoy
171 SWH measurements, we implemented a methodology based on the results
172 of the high resolution numerical wave hindcast described in Section 2.3, and
173 inspired from the work of Nencioli and Quartly (2019). In this method, the
174 time-series of simulated SWH at the buoy location is compared to the time-
175 series of simulated SWH at every surrounding nodes located within a radius
176 of 200km. The normalized bias (NBias) (systematic variability) and the scat-
177 ter index (SI) (random variability) are computed between the buoy and its
178 neighbouring nodes, to characterize both systematic and random variabili-
179 ties, respectively. The NBias and SI values are then interpolated over a 200
180 x 200 km regular grid with 200m resolution in order to enhance the sampling
181 in offshore regions, where the unstructured grid has a coarser resolution. The
182 area presenting NBias and SI values lower than 5% is then identified as the
183 buoy representativeness area (BRA) and a polygon is fitted to encompass
184 this area as closely as possible. The different steps of the methods are illus-

185 trated on Figure 2 for buoy 6200080, which is located nearby La Rochelle, on
the west coast of France. Note that this method can be applied to other sea

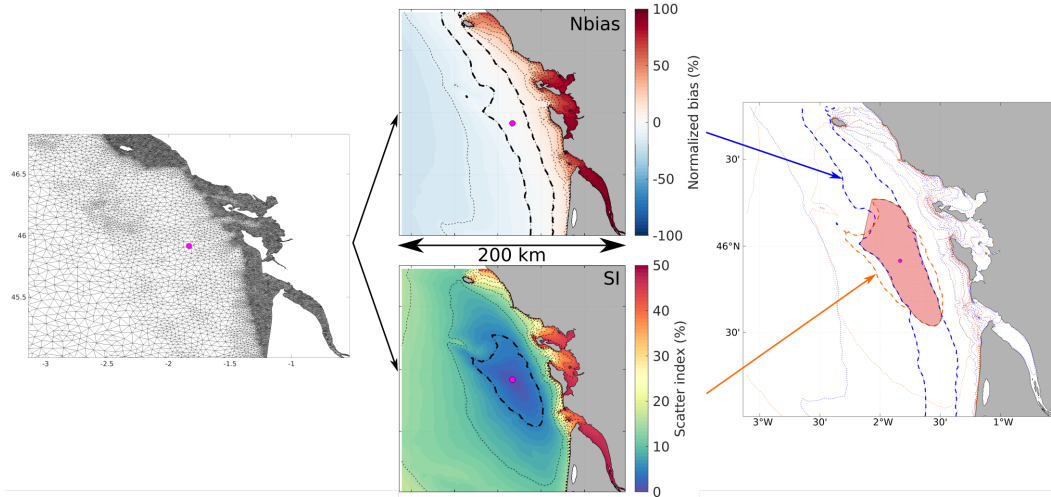


Figure 2: Processing of the buoy representativeness area for buoy 6200080 (nearby La Rochelle, France). Step1 (left panel): Differences between modelled SWH at buoy location and surrounding nodes are computed over the hindcast duration. Step2 (middle panel): Maps of normalized bias and scatter index are interpolated over 200kmx200km grid (tick black dashed lines indicate the 5% isocontour). Step3 (right panel): The intersection (dotted area) between areas with $|Nbias| < 5\%$ (thick blue dashed line) and $SI < 5\%$ (thick orange dashed line) is used to fit a convex polygon casting the buoy representativeness area (red shaded area).

186

187 state parameters, such as the wave period and direction as in Mureau et al.
188 (2022), and other geophysical variables for which satellite-in situ collocation
189 is required, for instance to investigate coastal sea level variability nearby tide
190 gauges.

191 *3.2. Data pairing methods*

192 Data pairing methods (also known as collocation or matchup detection
193 methods) are required to associate and compare values acquired by distinct
194 measurement systems (model or sensor) at nearby location and time (e.g.
195 satellite and in situ observations). Four data pairing methods are considered
196 in this study. These methods are based on spatial criteria only since wave
197 buoy measurements usually provide continuous hourly records, giving a max-
198 imum separation time between satellite and buoy records of 30min, which is
199 sufficiently small to consider the sea state to be stationary. The four methods
200 are:

- 201 1. The *static* method: it uses a fixed separation distance (radius) from
202 the buoy location to sample all altimeter records within this distance.
203 This method is used in most altimeter CAL/VAL studies based on in
204 situ measurements. The selected threshold is usually 100km, but it can
205 be relaxed to 300km in order to increase the number of available data
206 pairs. Conversely, on the coastal zone this distance is often reduced
207 but barely below 20km to keep a sufficient number of available data
208 pairs. In this study we consider four separation distances : 100, 50, 20,
209 and 5km.
- 210 2. The *polygon-based* method: it uses the polygon vertices derived from
211 the buoy representativeness area analysis (see Section 3.1) to sample
212 only the altimeter records within the area (polygon) of low sea state
213 variability.
- 214 3. The *dynamic collocation* method: it uses model results dynamically
215 (i.e. model results are analysed at the time of altimeter measurements)

216 to sample only the altimeter records for which modelled SWH difference
217 between the buoy and the altimeter locations is below 5%, following
218 Janssen et al. (2007).

219 4. The *dynamic correction* method: it uses the model results dynamically
220 in order to correct the buoy measurement from the modelled SWH
221 gradient between the buoy and the altimeter record location. In its
222 original form, proposed by Jiang et al. (2022), this method gives the
223 possibility to use several buoy data, with a weighting scheme based
224 on the inverse squared distance, to characterize more precisely the sea
225 state conditions at the altimeter record location. This method does
226 not constrain the altimeter record sampling and can actually be used
227 in combination with any of the method presented above. In our case
228 we have considered the 50km static method to constrain the sampling.

229 Examples of sampling obtained with the static, polygon and dynamic
230 collocation methods for buoy 6200192, nearby Nazaré in Portugal, are shown
231 on Figure 3. Selected and rejected samples are shown as blue and black
232 dots, respectively. For the static (left panel) and polygon (middle panel)
233 methods, all altimeter records located within the sampling area (red shaded
234 area) are selected, while for the dynamic collocation method (right panel),
235 the sampling area varies at each satellite pass depending on the modelled
236 SWH gradient. However, we see that with this latter method, altimeter
237 records as far as 100km from the buoy can be selected.

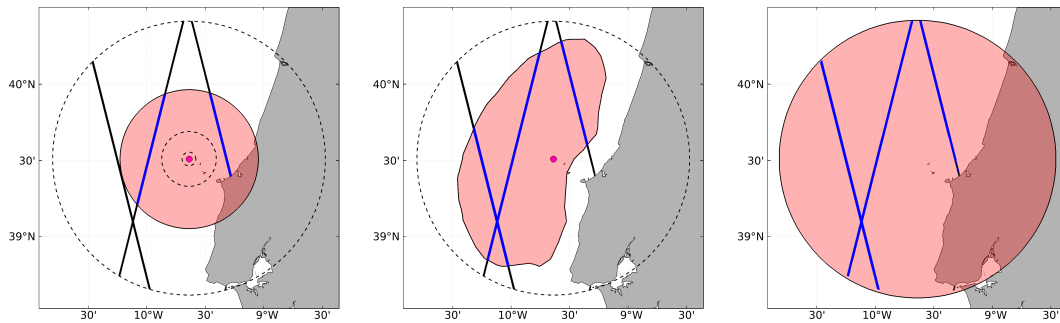


Figure 3: Examples of sampling regions (red shaded area) and altimeter records (blue dots) paired with buoy 6200192 (magenta circle) for the different data pairing methods. (left) the *static* method considers only measurements within a fixed separation distance (here 50km) from the buoy; four distances are considered: 100, 50, 20 and 5km (black circles) ; b) the *polygon-based* method considers only measurements occurring within the buoy representativeness area estimated from model hindcast ; c) the *dynamic collocation* method considers only measurements within 100km from the buoy for which modelled SWH difference between the buoy and the altimeter record is lower than 5%. Black dots represent altimeter records that are not selected for comparisons.

238 **4. Results**

239 *4.1. Buoy representativeness areas*

240 SWH representativeness areas were computed for the 70 buoys selected
241 for this study from the analysis of the high resolution wave hindcast (see
242 Section 2.3). These areas, shown on Figure 4, present strong heterogeneities
243 in size and shape. In particular, offshore buoys are characterized by low and
244 isotropic SWH variability resulting in large and near-circular representative-
245 ness areas with maximum surface areas of 9,000km² (i.e. with an equivalent
246 radius of 55km), while nearshore buoys present very local error gradients
247 resulting in reduced representativeness areas with surface areas as low as 7
248 km² (i.e. with an equivalent radius of 1.5km). Buoys at intermediate distance
249 from the coast present significant cross-shore error gradients (not shown here)
250 resulting in elongated (along-shore) representativeness areas. Although it is
251 not the goal of this study to investigate which environmental factors controls
252 the coastal sea state variability depicted by the buoy representativeness area,
253 we hypothesize that coastline geometry, and bathymetry, current and wind
254 gradients are the main factors explaining coastal sea state variability, as in-
255 vestigated by many authors (e.g. Abdalla and Cavaleri, 2002; Ardhuin et al.,
256 2012; Dodet et al., 2019a)

257 *4.2. Sensitivity to data pairing methods*

258 In Section 4.1 (Figure 4), we have shown that the choice of the data pair-
259 ing method has a strong influence on the sampling of the altimeter records to
260 be compared with the buoy measurements. This choice is therefore expected
261 to impact the error metrics computed from these comparisons. In order to

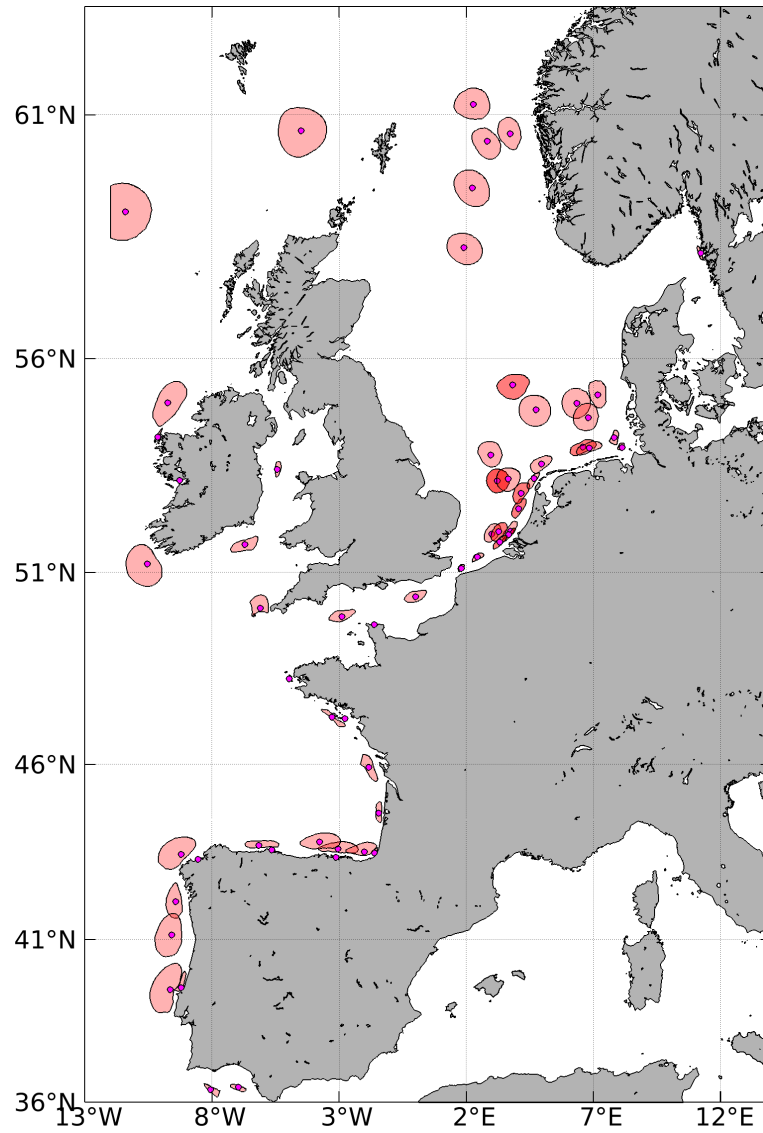


Figure 4: Map of the buoy representativeness area (BRA) polygons obtained for the 70 selected buoys.

262 investigate the sensitivity of altimeter validation results to the data pairing
 263 methods, we have compared Sentinel-3A SAR data and buoy data using data
 264 pairs given by the static, polygon, dynamic collocation and dynamic correc-
 265 tion methods. For each method we computed the relative (with respect to
 266 the 100km-static method) number of data pairs ($Nval$), the normalized bias
 267 ($Nbias$), the scatter index (SI), and the correlation coefficient(R), as follows:

$$Nbias = \frac{\sum(A_i - B_i)}{\sum B_i} \quad (1)$$

$$SI = \sqrt{\frac{\sum[(A_i - \bar{A}_i) - (B_i - \bar{B}_i)]^2}{\sum B_i^2}} \quad (2)$$

$$R = \frac{\sum(A_i - \bar{A}_i)(B_i - \bar{B}_i)}{\sum(A_i - \bar{A}_i)^2 \sum(B_i - \bar{B}_i)^2} \quad (3)$$

270 where A_i and B_i are the altimeter and buoy records, respectively. Figure 5
 271 compares the different metrics obtained with the four data pairing method,
 272 the first four bars corresponding to the four separation distances used with
 273 the static method (100km, 50km, 20km and 5km).

274 Looking at the relative number of data pairs ($Nval$) obtained with the
 275 static method, the first feature we note is the rapid decrease of available
 276 matchups when the maximum separation distance is reduced, with less than
 277 5% sampled data with the 20km and 5km separation distances, matching
 278 the expected inverse square law of the footprint size. Conversely, the three
 279 model-based methods preserve between 10 to 35% of data, which is more
 280 comparable to the sampling obtained with the 20km-static method (28.5%).
 281 In terms of normalized bias, we see that $Nbias$ is systematically higher for
 282 the static method (6.9-8.8%) than for the model-based methods (3.6-5.4%).
 283 Same conclusions can be drawn for SI and R , for which the static method

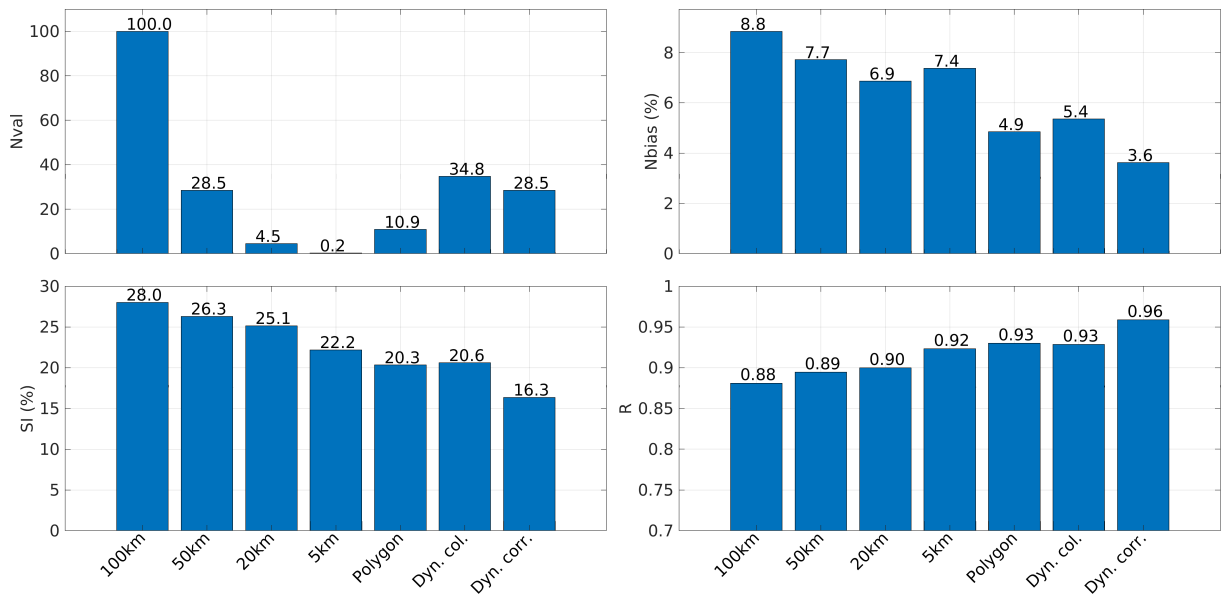


Figure 5: Relative number of data pairs ($Nval$), normalized bias ($Nbias$), scatter index (SI), and correlation coefficient (R) obtained from the comparisons between Sentinel 3A SAR and buoy SWH data for the different data pairing methods.

284 shows poorer performance (22.2-28.0% for SI and 0.88-0.92 for R) than for
285 the model-based methods (16.3-22.2% for SI and 0.93-0.96 for R). Overall,
286 the dynamic correction method gives the best score while preserving a sig-
287 nificant amount of data (28.5%), slightly lower than the dynamic collocation
288 method (34.8%). However, we may question whether this conclusion can be
289 drawn for each buoy separately or only for the aggregated dataset. To answer
290 this point, we estimated for each buoy which data pairing method provides
291 the best score for the four considered parameters (Figure 6 and Table 1). For
292 this analysis, we only considered the 50km separation distance for the static
293 method, as it provides the best trade-off between the number of samples and
294 the error metrics.

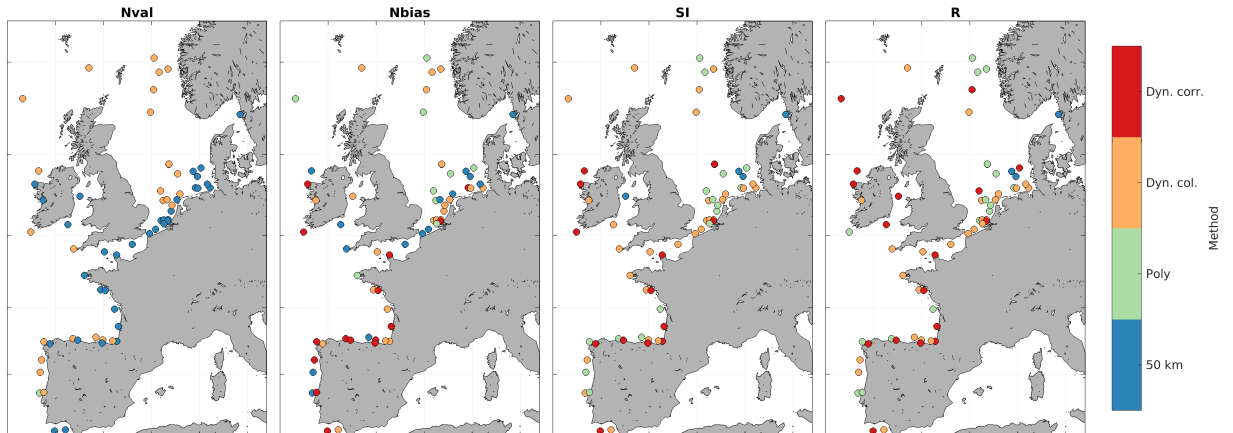


Figure 6: Spatial distribution of the data pairing methods providing the best score at each buoy location for the following metrics: relative number of data pairs ($Nval$), normalized bias ($Nbias$), scatter index (SI), and correlation coefficient (R) obtained from the comparisons between Sentinel 3A SAR and buoy SWH data.

295 First, we see that the maximum number of samples are either obtained
296 with the 50km-static or the dynamic collocation methods (first panel). Note

297 that the dynamic correction method uses the same sampling as the 50km-
298 static method and therefore cannot be differentiated for this parameter (hence
299 orange circles can be swapped with red circles). In terms of spatial distri-
300 bution, we see that the 50km-static method provides the largest number of
301 samples mostly for buoys located near the coast, while the dynamic collocation
302 methods provides the largest number of samples for the offshore buoys.
303 This can be explained by the fact that the dynamic collocation method con-
304 sideres all altimeter records within a 100km distance from the buoy for which
305 the modelled SWH difference with the buoy location is small. In offshore con-
306 ditions, a significant number of altimeter records located between 50-100km
307 from the buoy must satisfy this condition, as opposed to nearshore conditions
308 where SWH variability is much stronger. In terms of *Nbias* we find that the
309 dynamic collocation method gives the best score for the largest number of
310 buoys (40%), while the polygon method gives the best score for the lowest
311 number of buoys (16%). For *SI* and *R*, the three model-based methods are
312 clearly better than the 50km-static method for most buoys, with the dynamic
313 collocation method showing best scores for 44% and 40% of the buoys, re-
314 spectively. These results contrast with the overall statistics presented on
315 Figure 5 and using a dataset aggregating all buoy data, showing best scores
316 with the dynamic correction method. This is certainly due to the different
317 amount of data collected for each buoy, which induce different weighting on
318 the results based on the aggregated dataset.

319 4.3. Evaluation of S3A coastal performance

320 In the previous section, we have shown that the use of a model-based
321 data pairing methods to compare S3A and in situ data significantly reduced

Method	Nval (%)	Nbias (%)	SI (%)	R (%)
50km-static	57	21	6	4
Polygon	1	16	29	29
Dynamic collocation	41	40	44	40
Dynamic correction	57	23	21	27

Table 1: Percentage of buoys showing the best score for the following parameters: *Nval*, *Nbias*, *SI*, *R* (see also Figure 6). Note that the 50km-static and Dynamic correction methods share an equal number of values, hence a similar ranking for this parameter.

322 the spatial representativeness errors induced by the strong SWH spatial vari-
 323 ability in the vicinity of the coastal buoys. The overall performance of S3A
 324 (SAR) SWH measurements are therefore estimated with lower uncertainties
 325 thanks to these methods. In this last Section, we will examine the systematic
 326 and random errors of S3A SWH measurements as a function of the distance
 327 to the coast, considering three S3A products: PLRM, SAR and LR-RMC.

328 Figure 7 shows the normalized bias and the scatter index between S3A
 329 (PLRM, SAR and LR-RMC) and in situ data for each buoy as a function of
 330 the distance between the buoy and the nearest coastline. First, we see that
 331 most (67%) of the European buoys are located within 50 km from the coast,
 332 and the furthest offshore buoys (namely A121 and A122 amidst the North
 333 Sea) are moored as far as 240km from the coast. The circle's colors indi-
 334 cate the mean SWH at the associated buoy, which varies between 0.8m and
 335 3.6m. The first striking pattern common to all S3A products is the increased
 336 error towards the coast. More specifically, the range of the normalized bias
 337 increases from $[-2 ; 20]\%$ in the 50-250km coastal strip to $[-5 ; 95]\%$ in the
 338 2-50km coastal strip. Likewise, the range of SI increases from $[11 ; 25]\%$

339 in the 50-250km coastal strip to [10 ; 100]% in the 2-50km coastal strip.
340 Moreover, the systematic error is positive for a large majority of the buoys,
341 indicating an overestimate of S3A SWH data wrt. buoy data, which is partic-
342 ularly pronounced near the coast. Several factors may explain this tendency:
343 first, radar altimeter SWH measurements often present bias of the order of
344 5-10% that require *a posteriori* calibration against in situ measurements or
345 reference altimeter missions (see for instance Zieger et al., 2009; Dodet et al.,
346 2020); second, the sampling pattern of altimeter data collocated with coastal
347 buoys is often skewed offshore (wrt buoy position) because a higher fraction
348 of altimeter data is flagged as invalid near the coast. Given that coastal
349 sea states attenuate towards the coast (e.g. Passaro et al., 2021), there is a
350 dominance of higher-than-average altimeter SWH in the selected samples, as
351 explained by Jiang et al. (2022); last, radar altimeter sensors do not have a
352 sufficient resolution (around 50cm for Ku-band instruments) to resolve low
353 sea states, which often results in increased error level near the coast where sea
354 states are lower on average. This is particularly visible from Figure 7, where
355 the buoys presenting the lowest average SWH (dark blue circles) present the
356 largest errors. If we now compare the different products, we can see the clear
357 improvement of SAR and LR-RMC data compared to the PLRM data. The
358 mean normalized bias decreases from 18.6% (PLRM) to 5.6% (LR-RMC) and
359 the mean SI decreases from 45.7% (PLRM) to 20% (LR-RMC). On average,
360 the LR-RMC processing presents the best performance, with a reduction of
361 the error of approximately 20% with respect to SAR data.

362 In order to extend the S3a performance analysis with an additional ref-
363 erence data source and to reduce the impact of the buoy location with re-

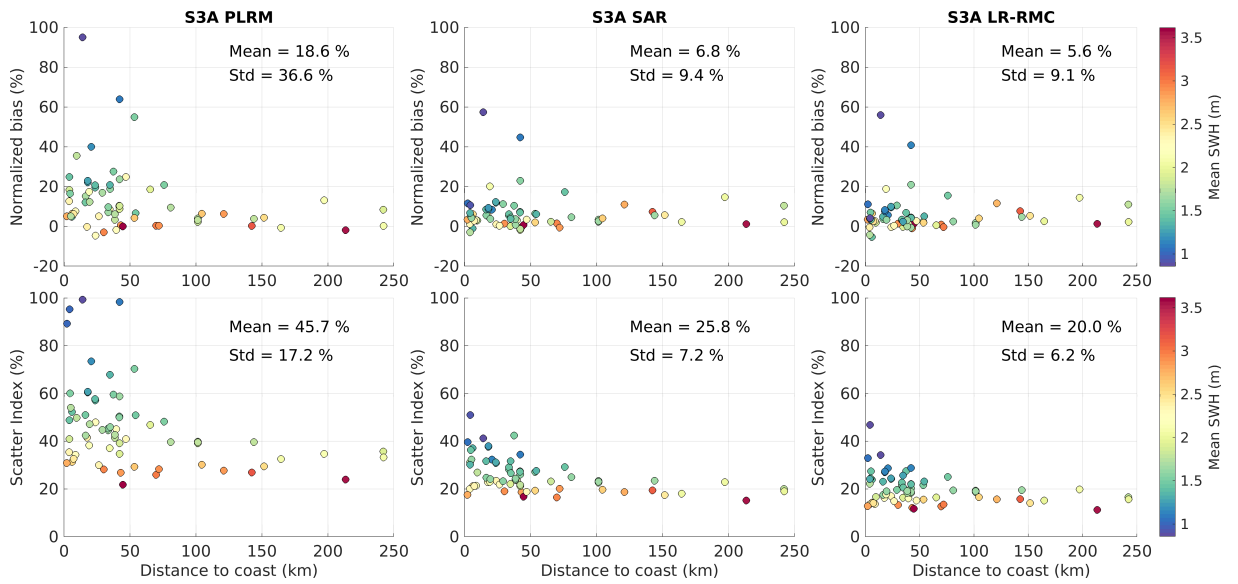


Figure 7: Nbias (upper panels) and SI (lower panels) computed from the differences between S3A PLRM (left panels), SAR (middle panels) and LR-RMC (right panels) and buoy SWH data at each buoy as a function of the distance of the buoy to the coast. Color scale indicates the mean SWH at the location of each buoy.

364 spect to the altimeter ground tracks, the SWH data simulated with the high-
365 resolution wave model were interpolated at the altimeter record positions,
366 and error metrics were binned as a function of the distance to the coast,
367 using bins of 5-km width from 0 to 300km (Figure 8). Here again, we see
368 that the errors increase towards the coast, and that the normalized bias is
369 mostly positive (around 5%) for all products. Yet, in comparison to the in
370 situ data analysis (Figure 7), the bias increase occurs closer to the coast, at
371 around 40km for PLRM and 20 km for SAR data. For LR-RMC the bias
372 remains very stable (between 0-10%) up to 1km from the coast (see zoom
373 over the 0-20km coastal strip on the left panels). For SI, we see that the
374 error starts increasing at around 70km for PLRM data. For SAR data SI
375 presents a sharp increases at around 7km from the coast. And here again,
376 LR-RMC data remains very stable (between 10-22%) up to 1km from the
377 coast. Finally, the correlation coefficient R confirm the previous tendencies,
378 with decreasing values at around 70km for PLRM data, a sharp decrease
379 at around 10km for SAR data, and a much more stable trend (above 0.9)
380 for LR-RMC data. If we compare the three products, we see that the bi-
381 ases are very similar (even slightly lower for PLRM) in the 50-300km region,
382 while they become much lower for SAR and LR-RMC data in the 0-50km
383 region. For SI and R, there is a large gap between PLRM error level on one
384 side, and SAR and LR-RMC error level on the other side. Moreover, the
385 LR-RMC data give the best scores in both offshore and nearshore waters,
386 confirming the excellent performance of the LR-RMC processing method. In
387 the 0-20km region, the average scores for LR-RMC are : NBias = 2.4%, SI =
388 18.9% and R = 0.95. In order to further investigate the differences between

389 the products, the number of valid values was also binned as a function of
390 the distance to the coast. While these numbers are fairly similar between
391 products up to 7km from the coast, we can see that it drops more rapidly
392 for LR-RMC in the 1-7km region. This reflects the different data editing
393 information provided for each product which are more or less stringent in
394 the coastal zone. With the LR-RMC product, this information seems to be
395 particularly efficient to reject invalid altimeter record in the coastal zone, as
396 also evidenced by Schlembach et al. (2020), which likely contributes to the
397 improved performance compared to the SAR data.

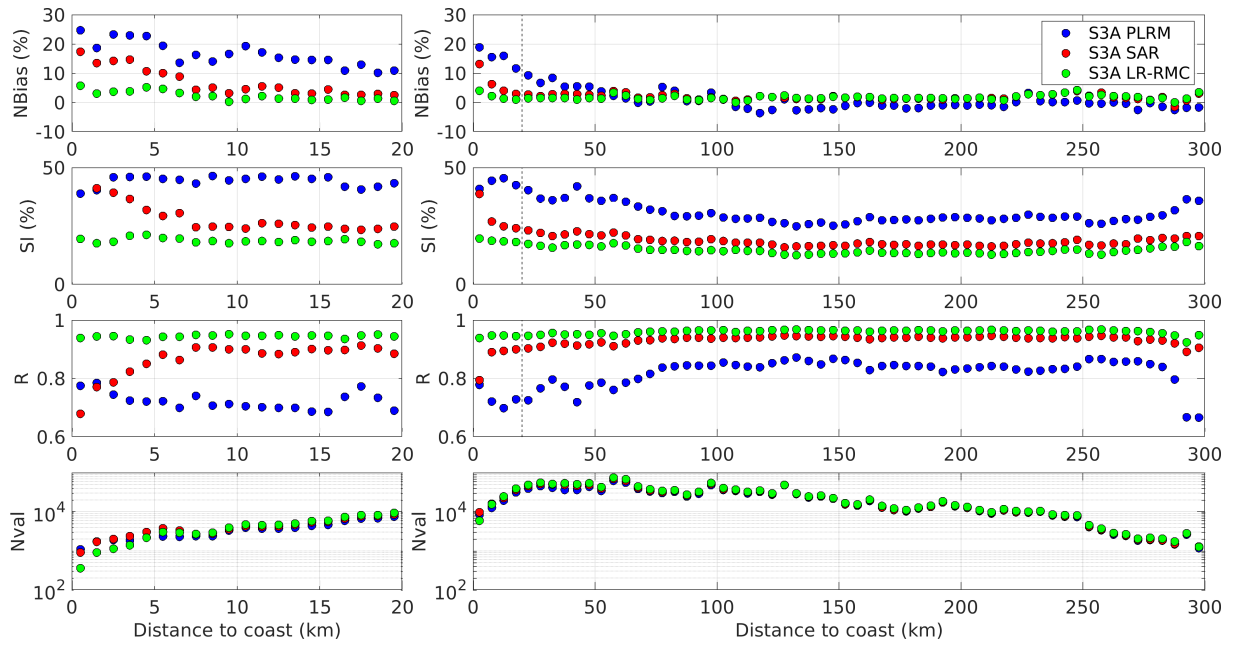


Figure 8: NBias (top-row panels), SI (second-row panels), R (third-row panels) and number of valid values NVal (bottom-row panels) computed from the differences between S3A PLRM (blue circles), SAR (red circles) and LR-RMC (green circles) and model SWH data as a function of the distance of the altimeter record to the coast, with bins of 10-km width. Left panels correspond to a zoom over the 0-20km from the coast, using bins of 1-km width.

398 **5. Conclusion**

399 Sea state variability is known to be strongly enhanced in the coastal zone
400 due to interactions between waves, currents, winds, bathymetry and coastline
401 geometry. In Section 4.1, we have used a high-resolution wave hindcast in or-
402 der to estimate the spatial scales over which the SWH measured by European
403 coastal buoys can be considered homogeneous (in a statistical sense). Our
404 results show that these so-called buoy representativeness areas vary strongly
405 in size and shape, depending on the buoy environmental settings, and can be
406 as small as an equivalent disk’s radius of 1.5km (see Figure 2). Knowing that
407 the conventional data pairing (or collocation) methods used to compare al-
408 timeter and in situ data in deep water usually assumes sea state homogeneity
409 over 50 to 100 km, it is clear that such methods cannot be directly applied
410 for the validation of coastal altimeter SWH data without impairing the re-
411 sults. To demonstrate it, we computed in Section 3.2 statistical error metrics
412 (e.g. normalized bias, scatter index) over samples obtained with several data
413 pairing methods, accounting or not for sea state variability, for comparing
414 S3A and in situ SWH in the coastal zone. Our results confirm the efficiency
415 of model-based data pairing methods to reduce spatial representativeness er-
416 rors related to coastal sea state variability, while preserving a sufficient large
417 sample from the population. For instance, in comparison to the 50-km static
418 collocation method, the dynamic collocation method gives a Nbias 30% lower
419 and a SI 22% lower for a sampling size 22% larger (see Figure 5). Having im-
420 proved our confidence of the comparisons between altimeter and in situ data
421 in the coastal zone, we evaluated the coastal performance of three S3A prod-
422 ucts, using different acquisition mode and processing methods, namely the

423 PLRM, the SAR and the LR-RMC products (Section 4.3). Our results show
424 that all three products present increased error levels in the 0-50km region,
425 which can partly be attributed to the lower sea state conditions affecting
426 some of the coastal buoys that are badly measured by Ku-band altimeter
427 sensors. Ignoring these buoys strongly reduces the range of error levels in
428 the 0-50km region, particularly for the SAR and LR-RMC data (see Figure
429 7). These results are confirmed by comparing the altimeter SWH measure-
430 ments with simulated SWH from the high-resolution model, which allows to
431 access SWH measurements along the altimeter tracks and, therefore, reduce
432 the impact of asymmetric sampling patterns and increase the sample size.
433 These comparisons clearly show the improved performance of SAR and LR-
434 RMC products compared to PLRM, in both offshore and coastal waters (see
435 Figure 8). They also reveal the consistency of the S3A LR-RMC measure-
436 ments up to 1km from the coast partially due to an efficient data editing
437 procedure, which results in stable error metrics over the 0-20km region, with
438 average NBias = 2.4%, SI = 18.9% and R = 0.95.

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