Evaluation of single-band snow patch mapping using high resolution microwave remote sensing: an application to the Maritime Antarctic

2 December 2016

Dear Dr Christian Haas,

Please find below the original questions, as well as the answers to the two referees and to the public. In the end of the file, we have included the new version of the manuscript with the corrected figures, including a track of the changes we have made. We have followed the detailed comments and made several changes, which we think have contributed to improve the manuscript. We hope that it is suitable for publication in The Cryosphere.

Looking forward to hear from you.

Thanks and best wishes,

Carla Mora, Juan Javier Jímenez, Pedro Pina, João Catalão and Gonçalo Vieira

Evaluation of single-band snow patch mapping using high resolution microwave remote sensing: an application to the Maritime Antarctic

1 – Comments from referees/public

Anonymous Referee #1

Received and published: 28 September 2016

1 General comments:

The manuscript presents an approach to map snow patches in the Maritime Arctic using high-resolution SAR data. The authors examine different classification approaches and have conducted an extensive field campaign in order to evaluate the obtained results.They find a SVM-based classification approach suitable for mapping wet snow patches within their study region. The paper is clearly structured, the scientific methods are described in detail and the results are well presented. Nevertheless, the following points need to be addressed by the authors.

2 Specific comments:

There is an incidence angle dependency of the backscattered signal. Depending on the local incidence angle of your terrain (SAR scene incidence angle + terrain slope), this can become significant. You cite this effect in the introduction, and you also observe it at steeper terrain slopes, where your classification fails. If your method is intended for wider use (and in your abstract, you mention a possible operational application), how can you handle incidence angle dependency?

You found the HH scene to be better suited than the VV scene acquired on the following day. Do you have an explanation for this observation?

The water bodies you observed show very low backscatter. How would your classification approach handle wind-roughened water which can become very bright due to Bragg scattering?

1 Introduction:

In line 24-25, you state that "Most applications have been developed for regional scale mapping, but for higher resolution approaches they lack quality." This is a very strong remark, please elaborate on that.

3.1 Field characterization of the snow cover:

First of all, I think it is a very good idea to comment on the failed temperature measurements and to give a detailed analysis of the possible cause. Still, I am missing a description of the other methods of measurement. How did you measure grain size and how do you define grain size in the first place? How did you measure snow density?

3.2 SAR imagery classification:

This section does not actually describe the classification method, maybe you should rename it to "SAR image processing" or something similar.

4.2 Snow patch temperatures:

Did you consider using external temperature measurements, e.g. from AWS or Reanalysis data, for your study? Given the narrow range of temperatures for your test site, it would have been also interesting to have temperatures available for the September image.

4.4 Wet snow patch backscattering characteristics:

On page 8, lines 4-5, you state that "Figure 9b shows that at HH polarization a weak positive correlation exists...". I cannot see any correlation in the figure and suggest to rephrase this sentence.

5.3 Classification using an object oriented algorithm:

Here, you use a set of morphological filters to suppress speckle and to obtain more homogeneous regions. If the quality of your threshold-based classification suffers from the same noise characteristics, then why didn't you use that set of filters for all classifications?

3 Tables and Figures:

• Table 3: There is something seriously wrong with this table. From column 7 on, it does not make any sense.

• Table 4: What do you mena by prod. acc. / user acc.? Please explain the abbreviations.

• Figure 12: The legend is very hard to read, please make it bigger. If you have 4 classes in the image (white, light and dark gray, black), why do you only have 3 of them in the legend?

• Figure 14b: This figure is very hard to interprete, since it looks just like Fig 14a tinted red. Maybe a zoomed-in region could provide a higher level of detail?

4 Technical corrections:

• page 3, lines 20-22, "Mapping of the later...": This sentence got a bit lost, it seems.

• page 4, lines 14-16, "... geocoding of the TerraSAR-X scenes and ground.": There is something missing here.

• page 4, line 30, "Pervasive moisture...": This sentence appears to be a bit out of context, maybe shift it up a bit, after "Each of the snow pits...".

• page 8, lines 15-16, "Given the best quality...": This sentence is a bit confusing, please rephrase. The next sentence is missing a "the".

• page 8, line 24, "thresholds b": If you use uppercase on the other scenarios, use it here as well.

• page 8, line 29, Fig. 10: should probably be Fig 12.

• page 10, line 25: "snow patches showed rare ice layers": I suggest rephrasing to "...snow patches rarely showed ice layers"

• page 11, lines 26-27, "The acquisition mode is very relevant...": I don't really understand what you mean to convey with this sentence.

Marco G. Jorge

mjorge@sfu.ca

This is a very interesting and useful manuscript that highlights the potential of very high resolution, X-band SAR imagery for large cartographic scale, snow cover mapping. Notwithstanding, I find the manuscript's structure somewhat ineffective, particu- larly with regard to method description. Relatedly, the methodology used to evaluate the performance of the classifiers is not well explained and seems inadequate (does not translate actual performance). I hope that the following comments come across to the authors as constructive in intention; some of the issues I highlight below are issues that I deal with in my own research and have particular interest on.

Section 3.3 is titled "Production and validation of snow cover maps" but does not ex- plain how the validation was done. I think it would be beneficial to separate classification algorithms ("Production of snow cover maps") from validation. Only after the results (section 4), in section 5, is it explained that the ground truth data was divided into classification and validation sets. I would additionally suggest explaining how the separation between classification and validation sets was performed (e.g., random?) as well as adding considerations on the representativeness of the samples (different configurations will significantly affect computed performance). Considering the small size of the reference dataset, for a minimum-bias assessment, the performance of the preferred classifier should be trained and evaluated using multiple training and validation sets (from multiple, different partitions). As is, it would be useful to have the classification and validation polygons discriminated in one or all of the results' maps; or, maybe, just remove the patches used for classifier development from those maps.

The study area is quite small (< 1.5 sq. km?), yet the reference data is significantly spatially restricted; although it could be difficult to analyze snow properties for all snow patches, it is clear that wet-snow conditions are widespread – why only some patches were mapped in the field? Additionally, since the presented method for snow mapping involves classifying non-snow land covers, having more extensively field-mapped the non-snow classes would have enabled a more reliable performance assessment independently of the snow cover mapping. My concern is that the presented values of Kappa, etc., though encouraging, do not properly convey the performance of the classifications. For example, in Fig. 15, in two instances, the snow ground-truth polygons (the northernmost and southernmost polygons) are much smaller than the SAR-image derived snow patches they overlap. Do those (red) polygons represent the actual extent of the snow patches? If so, it means that the overmapping for the snow class is much more significant than the performance measures suggest, and thus actual performance is lower than the computed performance; i.e., the geometry and distribution of the ground-truth areas would have been a strong determinant of measured performance. If not, what was the rationale for mapping only a portion of the snow patch?

It would be more effective to describe the used statistics (evaluation of the different polarizations for land cover class discrimination; comparison of the classification algorithms; automated classification evaluation) under methodology. Currently, they are essentially referred for the first time in or after the results section.

In line with a comment from reviewer #1, section 3.2 deals with data and data (pre)processing, not with image classification as suggested by the respective title; ideally, there would be a correspondence between the 3 items highlighted in the text right after section 3 header (Methodology), and section 3 level-2 headers. Section 5 is composed of results and thus should be under the results section (section 4). The method descriptions under section 5 would move to the methodology section.

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J. Yackel (Referee)

 yackel@ucalgary.ca

Overall comments: This paper utilized very high resolution TerraSAR-X imagery for maritime snow patch mapping in the Maritime Antarctic. The manuscript is clearly written, organized and detail-oriented. Several SAR classification techniques have been tested to identify snow patch in summer. SAR imagery

from winter and field measurement were used as ground truth. Authors mentioned different accuracy from tested techniques to identify wet snow patches. However, there are concerns regarding terrain and incidence angle corrections. To utilize this method for operational monitoring these concerns should be resolved. Moreover, the authors mention about misclassification of wet soil with wet snow patch. Proposed method has the potential for more accurate classification by adding classes such as wet soil, bare soil etc in classification. It would be nice to see a confusion matrix with all these categories for improved classification accuracy. Specific comments: What is meant by wet snow? What is the moisture content by volume? This is important in terms of microwave signature that varies with moisture content in snow. Is this method meant to identify snow patch regardless of wetness (e.g. saturated, 5% moisture etc.)? Page 2, line 1-2 'In mountain terrain. . ..'' Reference is needed to support the statement. And, why it is difficult? What are the constrains? Page 4, section 3.1 When and how the grain size was measured? Considering the high temperature fluctuation from Fig 7, grain size will be different as well depending on the time of measurement. I think, Fig 10 would have better agreement if those measurements were coinciding. Page 5, section 3.2 How this technique will be same/different for descending passes? Page 6, line 27 The timing of snow temperature measurement was shown in GMT. To have a better idea about all of these dataset, all time should be mentioned in a single unit (UTC/GMT/local time: choose any and be consistence). Page 7, line 6-7 Due to diurnal effect, backscatter from HH polarization will be varied in ascending and descending pass. How this effect was considered? Incidence angle has a significant effect on microwave backscatter. Images from Jan 12 has very large incidence angle in comparison to other two images. How us incidence angle dependency on backscatter addressed? Page 7, Line 8 'The summer HH polarization scene showed best separability . . .' Why HH worked better than VV?

Page 8, section 5.1 How these thresholds will change with different passes/polarizations/incidence angles? Page 10, Line 10 Overall accuracy for the classification is promising. However, looking at Fig 15, it seems ground truth polygons are not perfectly overlapped with extent from SAR images in most cases, that questions the actual performance of the approach. Page 10, line 15 and page 11, line 19-21 'The only issue arise in classification. . ..' How can this issue be resolved? Page 17, Table 1 Acquisition time for SAR images in local time (instead of UTC) would help to correlate the temperature during acquisition from Fig 7. As water content in snow is one of the major determinant of microwave backscatter (both HH and VV), therefore local temperature should be considered while calculating any threshold for wet snow. Page 11, line 24 'Radar'.. should be radar Page 21, Figure 3: 'aquisitions'. . . should be 'acquisitions'. 'analisys'. . . should be 'analysis

2- Author's response

Reply to Anonymous Referee #1

Thank you very much for the questions and remarks that we believe contribute to clarify several parts of the manuscript. Below, we present a detailed answer to the questions you have raised concerning the text and tables.We have clarified the manuscript accordingly, and have also included your technical corrections.

Question: There is an incidence angle dependency of the backscattered signal. Depending on the local incidence angle of your terrain (SAR scene incidence angle + terrain slope), this can become significant. You cite this effect in the introduction, and you also observe it at steeper terrain slopes, where your classification fails. If your method is intended for wider use (and in your abstract, you mention a possible operational application), how can you handle incidence angle dependency?

Reply : This is a significant issue that does include limitations linked to the difficulties on accurately modelling the backscattering, but that we think could be mitigated with improved digital elevation models (e.g. better accuracy and better resolution). An approach could be by using UAV-based aerial photo surveying and DSM generation. However, such models will never be perfect due to temporal changes in snow accumulation patterns inducing varying local snow morphologies. Slope have been widely studied to introduce geometric corrections (e.g. Mi et al, 2014; Small et al, 2010), but we have adopted a simpler but robust approach through Range Doppler Terrain Correction, taking into account the advantage of a 5 m DEM. However, as we show, some incidence angle + slope relationships will remain difficult to resolve. In the procedure that we have applied, the incidence angle and terrain slope are both considered in the absolute radiometric calibration to sigma nougth in ESA-SNAP software (Kellndorfer et al, 1998), and in the subsequent phase of Range Doppler Terrain Correction. Using imagery showing multiple SAR incident angle backscattering responses, and both ascending and descending passes, would be the best approach to infer a more complete radiometric perfomance of the terrain signal and is a recommended practice to regionalise the results. Unfortunately, in this case only two scenes were available (HH with 45.626 incident angle and VV with 29.875 incident angle). The original plan was to have more imagery, but not all acquisitions were guaranteed. We have improved this discussion in the manuscript (see p. 11 – end of discussion) and also indicated that the paper is a step towards the operational implementation of the method.

Question: You found the HH scene to be better suited than the VV scene acquired on the following day. Do you have an explanation for this observation?

Reply: We have found a similar behaviour when using Envisat ASAR imagery for Deception Island (Mora et al 2013), as well as other authors, such as Baghdadi et al., 1998 using polarimetric SAR data at C-band for the classification of land covers (open areas, lakes ice, and forests, all covered with wet snow) and they have also concluded that HH-polarisation is better than VV-polarisation. The backscattering behavior is dependent on the dryness of the snow, on the incident angle and on the roughness of the surface. For classification purposes the most important issue is the separability between classes and in this case, it seems that HH is more appropriate to separate between water, bare soil and wet snow. Additionally, VV polarisation is more sensitive to water roughness changes. In the case of our scenes, the HH scene shows a higher incidence angle, which improves resolution in a terrain with an irregular topography (Woodhouse, I., 2006), such as the study area. We changed the manuscript by adding this discussion (p. 11, end of 1st paragraph).

Question : The water bodies you observed show very low backscatter. How would your classification approach handle wind-roughened water which can become very bright due to Bragg scattering?

Reply : This is a very good question. In order to implement our approach operationally, the lake surfaces should be masked after an initial detection. This would pose issues where lake water levels vary very significantly, or where lakes cover a large percent of the terrain, but neither is the case in the ice-free areas of the Maritime Antarctic. So, an initial assessment of lake boundaries, either using imagery in low wind conditions, or using optical imagery, could be used to create a lake mask. We have introduced this discussion in the manuscript, in page 12, in the end of the discussion.

Question : In line 24-25, you state that "Most applications have been developed for regional scale mapping, but for higher resolution approaches they lack quality." This is a very strong remark, please elaborate on that.

Reply : You are right. We have clarified the sentence and deleted the last part. Essentially, the literature lacks published results on the use of SAR for snow mapping at very high resolution (metric).

Question : 3.1 Field characterization of the snow cover: First of all, I think it is a very good idea to comment on the failed temperature measurements and to give a detailed analysis of the possible cause. Still, I am missing a description of the other methods of measurement. How did you measure grain size and how do you define grain size in the first place? How did you measure snow density?

Reply : You are right. We have now improved the description of the snow-pit characterization. Grain-size was measured by carefully collecting small amounts of snow from each of the layers of the snow pack and by depositing them in a black tissue for contrast. They were then observed with a 10x magnifier, which allowing for measuring and describing the grain shape and size. Grain size (or crystal size) showed variability some within each layer and our descrition encompasses the mean grain-sizes, but when variability was large, we included the more frequent dimensions (i.e. 1-2 mm). Snow density was measured by carefully collecting snow from each snow layer without disturbing the density, using a metal box with a volume of 212 cm3. From each layer, 3 boxes were collected, adding up 636 cm3, which were inserted in a plastic bag and weighted using a digital spring scale, and mass converted to density.

Question : 3.2 SAR imagery classification: This section does not actually describe the classification method, maybe you should rename it to "SAR image processing" or something similar.

Reply : You are right. We changed it as suggested.

Question : 4.2 Snow patch temperatures: Did you consider using external temperature measurements, e.g. from AWS or Reanalysis data, for your study? Given the narrow range of temperatures for your test site, it would have been also interesting to have temperatures available for the September image.

Reply: No, originally we only planned to use snow temperatures. We have obtained mean daily temperatures for Bellingshausen station, located close to the study area and we have prepared a new figure (Fig. 8). The data shows that the 26 September still shows below 0 ºC mean air temperatures, while the January scenes show temperatures above 0 ºC, confirming our original interpretation, but now providing quantitative data.

Question : 4.4 Wet snow patch backscattering characteristics: On page 8, lines 4-5, you state that "Figure 9b shows that at HH polarization a weak positive correlation exists...". I cannot see any correlation in the figure and suggest to rephrase this sentence.

Reply: The figure is 10b (there is a typo in the text) and if you remove the outlier, which is the snow patch showing a grain-size of 2mm and a backscattering of -9.0 dB, you will find a R2 = 0.23 at p < 0.14, thus not statistically significant but with an identifiable weak trend. We could delete this, but we think it might provide leads to future research. If we calculate the average dB per grain size, the correlation becomes even clearer with an R2 = 0.94 at p < 0.15. We have now clarified the text (p. 8) and also the figure 10b, by including the straight line and an indication of the outlier to exclude. However, this is also something that we can easily remove if needed to.

Question : 5.3 Classification using an object oriented algorithm: Here, you use a set of morphological filters to suppress speckle and to obtain more homogeneous regions. If the quality of your threshold-based classification suffers from the same noise characteristics, then why didn't you use that set of filters for all classifications?

Reply : We avoided using too much filtering in the pixel-based classification since it relies on single pixel backscattering and preferred to only use a majority filter for visualization purposes, after the evaluation of classification quality. For the object-based approach, it was necessary to remove the noise in order to improve the segmentation process and hence filtering was conducted.

Question : Table 3: There is something seriously wrong with this table. From column 7 on, it does not make any sense.

Reply : You are right. We have mixed some of the columns when organizing the table for the submission. We have now included the correct table.

Question : Table 4: What do you mean by prod. acc. / user acc.? Please explain the abbreviations.

Answer : These are two frequently used measures in confusion matrix analysis, the producer accuracy and the user accuracy. The former measures the errors of omission (pixels correctly classified as a percentage of the total nr of pixels that belong to that class), while the later measures errors of comission (the number of correctly classified pixels compared to the total number of pixels assigned to that class). Since we do not discuss these measures in the text, altough they provide support to the quality of the results and this should be included in Table 4, we decided to add this explanation in the table caption.

Question : Figure 12: The legend is very hard to read, please make it bigger. If you have 4 classes in the image (white, light and dark gray, black), why do you only have 3 of them in the legend?

Answer : We have enlarged the legend and made it a single common legend for both figures. We have also added the white class with the indication of "unclassified". This class shows very high values of backscattering, which in our classification approach were unclassified, since they are higher than the upper boundary of bare soil. This effect is linked to artifacts associated to relief displacement.

Question : Figure 14b: This figure is very hard to interpret, since it looks just like Fig 14a tinted red. Maybe a zoomed-in region could provide a higher level of detail?

Answer : You are right. We have now provided a zoomed-in window for better visualization.

4 Technical corrections:

Question : page 3, lines 20-22, "Mapping of the later...": This sentence got a bit lost, it seems.

Answer : We think that this sentence is important, since it targets partly at the potential readers and application, but have clarified it by indicating « Mapping of snow patches and monitoring melting patterns… »

Question : page 4, lines 14-16, "... geocoding of the TerraSAR-X scenes and ground.": There is something missing here.

Answer : You're right. We have added « …and ground truthing. »

Question : page 4, line 30, "Pervasive moisture...": This sentence appears to be a bit out of context, maybe shift it up a bit, after "Each of the snow pits...".

Answer : You are right. Thanks. We will move the sentence as suggested.

Question : page 8, lines 15-16, "Given the best quality...": This sentence is a bit confusing, please rephrase. The next sentence is missing a "the".

Answer : Right. We have changed it to « The best quality of the discrimination in the HH-polarisation scene of 12 January, when compared to the VV-scene of 13 January, led us to its selection for assessing the application of backscattering thresholds and band maths for the classification. »

Question : page 8, line 24, "thresholds b": If you use uppercase on the other scenarios, use it here as well.

Answer : You are right. We have changed it accordingly.

Question : page 8, line 29, Fig. 10: should probably be Fig 12.

Answer : You are right. It is now corrected.

Question : page 10, line 25: "snow patches showed rare ice layers": I suggest rephrasing to "...snow patches rarely showed ice layers"

Answer : Right. Thanks.

Question : page 11, lines 26-27, "The acquisition mode is very relevant...": I don't really understand what you mean to convey with this sentence.

Answer : You are right. We have removed this sentence. It is a relic from a previous draft and we forgot it here and is not needed.

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Reply to Marco Jorge

Dear Mr Marco Jorge,

Thanks for your comments on the manuscript. Concerning your questions, please find the answers below. We will review the manuscript and clarify the issues you have raised.

Question: Section 3.3 is titled "Production and validation of snow cover maps" but does not explain how the validation was done. I think it would be beneficial to separate classification algorithms ("Production of snow cover maps") from validation. Only after the results (section 4), in section 5, is it explained that the ground truth data was divided into classification and validation sets. I would additionally suggest explaining how the separation between classification and validation sets was performed (e.g., random?) as well as adding considerations on the representativeness of the samples (different configurations will significantly affect computed performance). Considering the small size of the reference dataset, for a minimum-bias assessment, the performance of the preferred classifier should be trained and evaluated using multiple training and validation sets (from multiple, different partitions). As is, it would be useful to have the classification and validation polygons discriminated in one or all of the results' maps; or, maybe, just remove the patches used for classifier development from those maps.

Answer: We understand your comments, but prefer maintaining both production and validation under 3.3. However, we agree that the validation text, which was presented in 5. is better placed in 3.3 and we will move it there. We will also clarify the explanation of the validation procedure, e.g. random selection of the training and validation sets and explaining the validation procedure. Plotting both sets would not be feasible, since the procedure is based on the random selection of pixels and not polygons, which will show scattered in the figures and will not really add-up to the contents.

Question: The study area is quite small (< 1.5 sq. km?), yet the reference data is significantly spatially restricted; although it could be difficult to analyze snow properties for all snow patches, it is clear that wet-snow conditions are widespread – why only some patches were mapped in the field?

Answer: the timing of surveying had to match by not too much time the satelitte overpass and therefore, we have selected a small area with snow patches showing different aspects. The selection was made a priori in a first field survey and only then, dataloggers were installed, snow pits dug and limits of snow patches were mapped. It is a procedure that takes time and involves using different instruments and relatively complex field logistics under difficult weather conditions in short time. A few days after the overpass, there were snow fall events that covered the terrain.

Question: Additionally, since the presented method for snow mapping involves classifying non-snow land covers, having more extensively field-mapped the non-snow classes would have enabled a more reliable performance assessment independently of the snow cover mapping.

Answer: see above.

Question: My concern is that the presented values of Kappa, etc., though encouraging, do not properly convey the performance of the classifications. For example, in Fig. 15, in two instances, the snow ground-truth polygons (the northernmost and southernmost polygons) are much smaller than the SAR-image derived snow patches they overlap. Do those (red) polygons represent the actual extent of the snow patches? If so, it means that the overmapping for the snow class is much more significant than the performance measures suggest, and thus actual performance is lower than the computed performance; i.e., the geometry and distribution of the ground-truth areas would have been a strong determinant of measured performance. If not, what was the rationale for mapping only a portion of the snow patch?

Answer: Small snow patches with well-defined boundaries were fully delineated with the DGPS surveying. The two snowpatches which you mention are large ones and they were only mapped close to the sites where we have installed the dataloggers. In cases where too much slush was present, we excluded the slush from the snowpatch boundary, since in some sites close to valley floors there was really more water than snow already. In synthesis, the results do not show overmapping in the two cases you have pinpointed and our knowledge of the terrains indicates that the mapping results agree with the snow patch extent, although we cannot quantify it.

We have added the following sentence to section 3.1: In cases where slush was present, we excluded the area from the snowpatch boundary surveying and in very large snow patches, only partial ground truthing was conducted.

Question: It would be more effective to describe the used statistics (evaluation of the different polarizations for land cover class discrimination; comparison of the classification algorithms; automated classification evaluation) under methodology. Currently, they are essentially referred for the first time in or after the results section.

Answer: That could have been an approach. However, reviewer #1 considered the manuscript well-structured and we prefer to keep it as is, since the reader becomes aware of the rationale behind the application of the different methods while reading the manuscript. If needed, we can also easily accommodate such a change.

Question: In line with a comment from reviewer #1, section 3.2 deals with data and data (pre)processing, not with image classification as suggested by the respective title; ideally, there would be a correspondence between the 3 items highlighted in the text right after section 3 header (Methodology), and section 3 level-2 headers.

Answer: We have changed the manuscript following the suggestions of reviewer #1.

Question: Section 5 is composed of results and thus should be under the results section (section 4). The method descriptions under section 5 would move to the methodology section.

Answer: You are right. We have included section 5 under results.

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Reply to J. Yackel (Referee #2)

Dear Professor John Yackel,

Thank you very much for your very good comments and ideas, which we have answered below. We agree with your observations and it is true our approach shows some limitations, which can be overcome with future research designs, new field campaigns and some more luck with image acquisition plans. Our original plan was to have more imagery, but unfortunately this was not possible due to operational reasons from the image provider. We have also faced some constraints with the field survey. However, our very high resolution approach, with a significant number of sampled snow patches is, to our knowledge, novel, at least in the Maritime Antarctic and we think the methodology demonstrates the high potential for application of TerraSAR-X for high resolution snow monitoring, especially during the melting season. This could be a very significant step for various disciplines studying the ice-free areas of the Maritime Antarctica, where summer snow melt plays a major ecological, hydrological and geomorphological role.

Thanks and our best wishes,

Carla Mora and co-authors.

Overall comments: This paper utilized very high resolution TerraSAR-X imagery for maritime snow patch mapping in the Maritime Antarctic. The manuscript is clearly written, organized and detail-oriented. Several SAR classification techniques have been tested to identify snow patch in summer. SAR imagery from winter and field measurement were used as ground truth. Authors mentioned different accuracy from tested techniques to identify wet snow patches. However, there are concerns regarding terrain and incidence angle corrections. Moreover, the authors mention about misclassification of wet soil with wet snow patch.

Question: Proposed method has the potential for more accurate classification by adding classes such as wet soil, bare soil etc in classification. It would be nice to see a confusion matrix with all these categories for improved classification accuracy.

Answer: You are correct. However, the experimental setting was designed to evaluate the possibility to detect with high spatial resolution the patterns of snow melt during the summer. Originally we were expecting more intersnowpatch diversity in snow conditions and not so extreme melt conditions all over. We did not collect information on soil wetness and this limits the approach which you propose.

Specific comments:

Question: What is meant by wet snow? What is the moisture content by volume? This is important in terms of microwave signature that varies with moisture content in snow. Is this method meant to identify snow patch regardless of wetness (e.g. saturated, 5% moisture etc.)?

Answer: The moisture content by volume was not measured and yes, the method is intended to map snow patch extent and aims at mapping snow melt patterns by using multitemporal imagery. This was one of the objectives of the field season. However, some of the scenes, which we had requested, were not collected

due to operational reasons. We added a sentence in section 3.1 explaining that snow moisture content by volume was not measured.

Question: Page 2, line 1-2 'In mountain terrain. . ..'' Reference is needed to support the statement. And, why it is difficult? What are the constrains?
Answer: The difficulty arises from terrain shadowing and lay-over effects. We have added a reference to Rees, W. S. and Steel, M.: Radar backscatter coefficients and snow detectability for upland terrain in Scotland. International Journal of Remote Sensing, 22, 15, 3015-3026, 2001.

Question: Page 4, section 3.1 When and how the grain size was measured? Considering the high temperature fluctuation from Fig 7, grain size will be different as well depending on the time of measurement. I think, Fig. 10 would have better agreement if those measurements were coinciding.
Answer: The high temperature variation for the daily maxima as shown in the graph is an artifact related to the overheating of the minilogger package, which was just below the snow surface and at times, exposed. The snow itself melted a few centimeters each day, as seen from the resurfacing of the miniloggers. It is possible that grain size has varied between the time of field measurements, made in the 11 January and the image acquisition time, but such changes should have been small. We agree, however, that possibly, there would be a better agreement with fig. 10. For logistical reasons in the field, the measurement date was selected as a good approach between the different acquisitions that were originally planned. The results aiming at snow patch boundary detection are, however, not affected by the lack of agreement in fig. 10. We have added a reference to the date of the snow pit surveying in the beginning of section 3.1. The limitations of the snow temperature data were already explained in the original manuscript.

In what respects to the measurement of grain size, it was done by collecting small amounts of snow from each of the layers of the snow pack and by depositing them in a black tissue for contrast. The description was done using a mm graduated ruller and a 10x magnifier lens. We have included the information arising from these questions in the new version of the manuscript.

Question: Page 5, section 3.2 How this technique will be same/different for descending passes?
Answer: The techique is the same. The method considers the incidence angle and the terrain slope in the absolute radiometric calibration to sigma nougth using ESA-SNAP software (Kellndorfer et al, 1998), and in the subsequent phase of Range Doppler Terrain Correction. Lay-over and shadowing effects occuppy a minimal area in the study sector and have not been accounted for. For more complex terrain a masking substraction would be needed to eliminate those effects. For application in operational mode, a standard single pass direction and angle should be used.

Question: Page 6, line 27 The timing of snow temperature measurement was shown in GMT. To have a better idea about all of these dataset, all time should be mentioned in a single unit (UTC/GMT/local time: choose any and be consistence).
Answer: You are right. We have changed it to UTC.

Question: Page 7, line 6-7 Due to diurnal effect, backscatter from HH polarization will be varied in ascending and descending pass. How this effect was considered?

Answer: We did not consider the above-mentioned effect and assumed that the radiometric calibration and terrain correction algorithm resolve it.

Question: Incidence angle has a significant effect on microwave backscatter. Images from Jan 12 have very large incidence angle in comparison to other two images. How is incidence angle dependency on backscatter addressed?

Answer: This question was also raised by referee #1. Incidence angle and terrain slope are both considered in the absolute radiometric calibration to sigma nough for TerraSAR X aquisitions, generated by the operator in ESA-SNAP software (Kellndorfer et al, 1998), and in the geometric georeferencing and terrain correction (Range Doppler Terrain Correction), subsequent phase into the image correction process. Analysing the responses of several SAR incident angle responses in the backscattering is the optimal approach to assess a more complete radiometric perfomance of the terrain signal and is a recommended practice to widen the study. Unfortunately, in this case, due to operational issues and limited field time, only two images were available in the period with field observations. The slope effects and incident angle approach are used to introduce geometric corrections (Mi et al, 2014; Small et al, 2010). In our case, a simple but robust approach has been applied through Range Doppler Terrain Correction, taking in account the advantage of a good 5 m DEM.

Question: Page 7, Line 8 'The summer HH polarization scene showed best separability . . .' Why HH worked better than VV?

Answer: We have found a similar behaviour when using Envisat ASAR imagery for Deception Island (Mora et al 2013), as well as other authors, such as Baghdadi et al., 1998 using polarimetric SAR data at C-band for the classification of land covers (open areas, lakes ice, and forests, all covered with wet snow) and they have also concluded that HH-polarisation is better than VV-polarisation. The backscattering behavior is dependent on the dryness of the snow, on the incident angle and on the roughness of the surface. For classification purposes the most important issue is the separability between classes and in this case, it seems that HH is more appropriate to separate between water, bare soil and wet snow. Additionally, VV polarisation is more sensitive to water roughness changes. In the case of our scenes, the HH scene shows a higher incidence angle, which improves resolution in a terrain with an irregular topography (Woodhouse, I., 2006), such as the study area. We have changed the manuscript by adding this discussion.

Question: Page 8, section 5.1 How these thresholds will change with different passes/polarizations/incidence angles?

Answer: There may be small differences in the thresholds and this is a field we are currently exploring in the framework of a PhD dissertation of one of the co-authors. An analysis of the literature on microwave remote sensing of snow shows that backscattering thresholds are widely used and we think that our approach, with a transparent presentation of the characteristics of the imagery and field data is a very valid contribution to the body of literature on the subject.

Question: Page 10, Line 10 Overall accuracy for the classification is promising. However, looking at Fig 15, it seems ground truth polygons are not perfectly overlapped with extent from SAR images in most cases, that questions the actual performance of the approach.

Answer: The vast majority of the snow areas mapped in the field as ground truth are classified as snow with the algorithm. In some sites, however, the areas classified as snow are much larger than the boundaries of the ground truthing. This is because we didn't sample the whole snowpatch. This could be due to significant aspect variation within the same snowpatch (e.g. crossing a valley floor) or due to the very large size of the snowpatch (e.g. in the SE corner of the map). We have also kept slush sections out of the sampled snow patches. Actually the overall performance is in good agreement with the modelled snow distribution. This question has also been raised in the public discussion and we have clarified the sampling procedure and validation.

Question: Page 10, line 15 and page 11, line 19-21 'The only issue arise in classification. . ..' How can this issue be resolved?

Answer: a possible solution could be by using a combined approach with the ascending and the descending pass. We have added a sentence to the text reflecting this.

Question: Page 17, Table 1 Acquisition time for SAR images in local time (instead of UTC) would help to correlate the temperature during acquisition from Fig 7. As water content in snow is one of the major determinant of microwave backscatter (both HH and VV), therefore local temperature should be considered while calculating any threshold for wet snow.

Answer: The aim of figure 7 was to show that snow is close to the melting point. As we have discussed in the methodology, the temperature shown in figure t is not the real temperature of the snow it self, but rather resulting from the heating of the small plastic container of the logger, which absorbs radiation and heats up. Unfortunately, this temperature data cannot be used for any correlation, but only to show that snow is close or at the melting point, and not at subfreezing temperatures.

Page 11, line 24 'Radar'.. should be radar

Answer: Right. We have corrected it across the manuscript.

Page 21, Figure 3: 'aquisitions'. . . should be 'acquisitions'. 'analisys'. . . should be 'analysis

Answer: Thanks. We have corrected it.

Evaluation of single-band snow patch mapping using high resolution microwave remote sensing: an application to the Maritime Antarctic

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Abstract. Snow patch distribution and snow melt patterns during the summer are important controls for terrestrial ecosystems, permafrost and active layer, as well as for infrastructure access and management in the Maritime Antarctic. The mountainous terrain of the Maritime Antarctic and relatively small extent of the ice-free areas generate complex mosaics of numerous small snow-patches, ranging from tens to hundreds of meters in extension. These can only be accurately mapped using high resolution remote sensing sensors. However, the extremely high number of days with cloud cover limits the application of optical sensors from satellites, which have provided only sporadic snapshots in the Maritime Antarctic, limiting its use for monitoring purposes. In this paper we evaluate the application of rRadar scenes from TerraSAR-X obtained in High Resolution SpotLight mode for mapping snow patches at a test area in Fildes Peninsula (King George Island, South Shetlands). Field analysis of the snow conditions, such as snow patch mapping and characterization of snow stratigraphy was conducted at the time of image acquisition in 12 and 13 January 2012. Snow was wet in all studied snow patches, with coarse-grain and rounded crystals showing advanced melting. Ice-layers were frequent in the snow pack. Two TerraSAR-X scenes in HH and VV polarization modes were analysed, with the former showing the best results in discrimination between wet-snow, lake water and bare soil. However, significant overlap in the backscattering signal was found. Average wet snow backscattering was -18.0 dB in HH mode, with water showing -21.1 dB and bare soil showing -11.9 dB. Single band pixel-based and object-oriented image classification methods were used to assess the classification potential of TerraSAR-X SpotLight imagery. The best results were obtained with an object-oriented approach using a watershed-based segmentation with a SVM classifier, with an overall accuracy of 92% and Kappa of 0.88. The main limitation was the west to northwest facing snow patches, which showed significant error an issue probably related to artefacts from the geometry of satellite imagery acquisition. The results show that TerraSAR-X in spotlight mode provides extremely high quality imagery for mapping wet snow and snow melt in the Maritime Antarctic. The classification procedure that we propose is a simple method and is a first step to an can easily be implementationed in operational mode if a good digital elevation model is available.

1 Introduction

In complex ~~mountainous~~ topography terrain snow melt patterns ~~during the summer~~ are difficult to map accurately due to shadowing and lay-over effects (Rees and Steel, 2001)~~,~~ especially when a high spatial resolution is necessary (e.g. < 5 m). High resolution satellite optical imagery is expensive, shows a large revisiting time and is only effective during the day and in cloud free conditions. Recently, Unmanned Aerial Vehicles have shown to provide efficient snow mapping results at a low cost (Bühler et al., 2016) but they are still limited by the need of access to the survey area, as well as by meteorological conditions. In remote locations such as the Maritime Antarctic, with high cloudiness (ci 90% of the days show cloud cover) and affected by the continuous passage of polar frontal systems, more robust approaches are needed for monitoring snow melt over large areas.

Late lying snow patches are known to generate local influences on the ground thermal regime and on moisture availability, thus being of major significance for geomorphic processes, ecosystems, and for permafrost distribution, especially in the discontinuous permafrost zone (Green and Pickering, 2009). Recent observations in the Maritime Antarctic indicate that snow patches play a key role in keeping the ground cooler during the summer, being determinant for the presence of permafrost at sites where, without summer snow, it would not occur (Vieira et al., 2010). The influence of snow patches on the geomorphological dynamics gave rise to the use of nivation as an overarching term for the complex set of geomorphic processes acting in the vicinity of late-lying and perennial snow patches, with snow being their main driver (Thorn, 1988). Recurring nivation processes in the same location have been identified as responsible for the increased erosion and for the development of concavities, named nivation hollows. Snow is also a major ecological factor especially since it controls moisture availability during the warm season, but also because snow traps wind transported particles that are deposited in snow patches, allowing for a better development of the vegetation (Brown and Ward, 1996; Erickson and Williams, 2005; Hiemstra et al., 2006; Green and Pickering, 2009). Snow also plays a major role in the distribution of lichen communities, inhibiting the development of *Usnea sp.* dominated formations (Vieira et al. 2014).

SAR and ASAR imagery, e.g. from ERS, Envisat (C-band) and TerraSAR-X are widely used to characterize snow packs and snow cover (Shi and Dozier, 1997; Baghdadi et al., 1999; Bernier et al., 1999; Nagler and Rott, 2000; Rees and Steel, 2001; Magagi and Bernier, 2003; Vogt and Braun, 2004; Longépé et al., 2009; Falk et al., 2016). Most applications have been developed for regional scale mapping, but ~~for high resolution approaches they lack quality~~ the literature lacks high spatial resolution case studies. Despite the wide application of C-band imagery, Baghdadi et al. (1997) and Koskinen and Pulliainen (1997) have shown that wet snow and snow free terrain may not be possible to distinguish in some types of surfaces or in particular local incidence angles. Mora et al. (2013) tested ENVISAT ASAR C-band imagery at 12 m pixel resolution for mapping snow cover in Deception Island and found that the imagery is only useful at the regional scale and useless for snow

patch mapping. In fact, according to some authors, X-band imagery is preferable to detect wet snow (Shi and Dozier, 1995; Strozzi et al., 1998; Strozzi et al., 1999). It shows a limited penetration capacity in snow and is much more sensitive than other bands to the surficial snow pack (0 to 15 cm), allowing to evaluate the snow electromagnetic response in a simplified scheme when compared with C band (Wiessman and Mätzler, 1999; Rott et al., 2013).

5 TerraSAR-X acquisitions in Spotlight mode show *ci.* 1 m resolution and therefore are potentially a good source for very detailed snow mapping. The DLR satellite shows a short revisit time (11 days) and an improved radiometric and geometric resolution, which are key factors to detect the evolution of the snow cover, especially during snow melt when changing moisture content influences the backscattering signal. TerraSAR-X imagery is frequently used for interferometric applications (Venkataraman and Rao, 2005; Alia et al., 2015; Barboux et al., 2015; Betbeder et al., 2015; Reis et al., 2015), glaciology 10 (Braun, 2001; König et al., 2001; Rott et al., 2011; Schubert et al., 2013) and also for snow mapping (Baghdadi, et al, 1997; Malnes and Gunerissen, 2002; Malnes and Gunerissen, 2003; Venkataraman et al., 2008; Falk et al., 2016), but mostly using the coarser resolution StripMap mode. Most research focus on the retrieval of snow water equivalent (SWE) and not so much on the detailed mapping snow extent and melt patterns, topics which are very relevant to the geocryological community. In fact, research on high spatial resolution mapping using microwave imagery is rarely present in the literature. Malnes et al. 15 (2014) tested the use of TerraSAR-X SpotLight mode, VV-polarization imagery for SWE retrieval in Svalbard using ground truth data obtained along transects, but in order to reduce speckle noise, the authors used a 10 m pixel resolution, thus loosing resolution. They have found a good capacity for SWE estimation in dry snow, but in wet-snow, due to the complete absorbance of the radar signal in the top layers, the procedure did not work.

Climate scenarios indicate that the recent warming in the Antarctic Peninsula will be followed by an increase in precipitation 20 and possibly in snow fall (Thomas, et al., 2008; Steig, et al., 2009; Winkelmann et al., 2012; Barrand et al., 2013). The significance of these changes for the geomorphological and ecological dynamics of the ice-free areas has not been yet evaluated. However, since the Western Antarctic Peninsula and especially the South Shetlands, show mean annual temperatures just slightly below 0 ºC at sea-level, the region will most probably suffer important effects, particularly in snow cover and on the distribution and extent of late-lying snow patches. Mapping of snow patches~~the later~~ and monitoring melting 25 patterns, as well as interannual changes is therefore key for evaluating the changes in the ice-free environment, e.g. for permafrost, nivation and ecological research, but also for research infrastructure management.

This paper deals with evaluating the potential of Terra~~ERRA~~SAR-X (X-band) imagery acquired in SpotLight mode, to map summer snow patch distribution with a spatial resolution close to 1 m in the Maritime Antarctic. Spatial monitoring of snow cover and snow melt has proven to be a very difficult task in the region (Mora et al., 2013; de Pablo et al., 2016) and the 30 methodology proposed here aims at bridging this gap and ~~at being implemented in~~is a step to the an implementation in operational mode to be made available to the terrestrial ecosystems and permafrost research community working on the Western Antarctic Peninsula. For the purpose of testing and validating, we have selected a field site in Fildes Peninsula (King George Island, South Shetlands archipelago).

2 Test site

The Meseta Norte is a mesa-like relief in the northeast part of Fildes Peninsula, King George Island (KGI), located in the South Shetlands, off the northern tip of the Antarctic Peninsula (Fig. 1). KGI is the largest island in the archipelago and about 90% of its surface (1,250 km^2) is glaciated, with Fildes Peninsula (62º 12′ S, 58º 58′W) being one of the largest ice-free areas of the

5   South Shetlands with 29 km^2 (Peter et al., 2008). Landforms are dominated by two high structural volcanic platforms (Meseta Sul, 167 m.a.s.l. at Promontório Schenke; and Meseta Norte, 155 m.a.s.l. at Cerro San Francisco). Low lying planation surfaces occur between and around them, especially in the northern part of Fildes Peninsula, with altitudes below 50 m.a.s.l.

The study site is located in the Meseta Norte, a plateau bounded by steep slopes with a slightly depressed central area at 100-120 m.a.s.l. and a series of small plateaux and scarps (Simonov, 1977; Smellie and López-Martínez, 2002; Fig. 2). Small lakes

10   occur in the interior of the Meseta, an area which stays almost completely snow free in late summer, except for a few perennial snowpatches. Vegetation is sparse with rocky outcrops and loose clastic material dominating the landscape. The lower areas are the ones where vegetation cover is more frequent, especially at present or past faunal colonies (Michel, 2011).

The climate is polar oceanic, with average annual air temperature at sea-level of -2 °C, summer temperatures of 3 °C, and winter temperatures in August of -7 °C. Annual precipitation ranges between 350 and 500 mm (Øvstedal and Lewis-Smith,

15   2001), but data from Bellingshausen station show records of 700 mm, part of it during the summer as rainfall events.

The Meseta Norte was selected as a site representative of Maritime Antarctic conditions due to its climate, lack of vegetation and fast snow melt rates during the summer, with frequent late lying snow patches. The area also shows morphological diversity allowing to better assess the spatial variability of the backscatter signal across a variety of slope angles and aspects. The presence of lakes and snow free clast-covered surfaces allowed both for improving geocoding of the TerraSAR-X scenes and

20   ground truthing.

3 Methodology

The methodological framework followed in the paper is shown in figure 3 and consisted of: i. A detailed field survey of snow cover characteristics (ground truthing), ii. SAR imagery analysis (remote sensing), and iii. Evaluation of classification methods.

25   ### 3.1 Field characterisation of the snow cover

In order to obtain high quality ground-truthing data, in January 2012, a field campaign was conducted in Fildes Peninsula aiming at characterizing the snow cover at the time of remote sensing imagery acquisition. The area of the Meseta Norte was selected accounting for its variable topography and to the facilitated access from the Chilean Antarctic Station Prof Julio Escudero. Twelve snowpatches with varied slope angle and aspect were mapped and snow pits were dug to describe snow

30   characteristics, with observations being done in 11 January 2012 (Fig. 4). In cases where slush was present, we excluded the area from the snowpatch boundary surveying and in very large snow patches, only partial ground truthing was conducted.

4

Snow pits were dug either down to bedrock, or to depths where thick (> 3-5 cm) and difficult to penetrate ice layers occurred. Focus was on the upper 25 cm of the snow pack due to its sensitivity to the propagation of the X-band radar signal. Each of the snow pits was described for snow stratigraphy, grain size and shape and snow density. Pervasive moisture in all snow pits showed that snow was wet.

Grain-size was measured by carefully collecting small amounts of snow from each of the layers of the snow pack and by depositing them in a black tissue for contrast. They were then observed with a 10x magnifier, which allowed for measuring and describing the grain shape and size. Grain size (or crystal size) showed variability within each layer and our description encompasses the mean grain-sizes and when variability was large, we added the more frequent dimensions (i.e. 1-2 mm). Snow density was measured by carefully collecting snow from each snow layer without disturbing the snow pack, using a metal box with a volume of 212 cm^3. From each layer, 3 samples were collected, adding up 636 cm^3, which were inserted in a dry plastic sampling bag and weighted using a digital spring scale, and mass converted to density. Snow moisture content by volume was not measured.

Due to a failure in the thermometer, no temperature depth profiles were measured. Pervasive moisture in all snow pits showed that snow was wet. As a workaround, ibutton DS1922L single-channel temperature miniloggers were installed at shallow depth (ci. 5 cm) near each snowpit, inside 50 mm cylindrical white plastic photographic film cases. Snow temperature was recorded at 1-hour intervals during a period of several days, which included the dates of satellite imagery acquisition. Fast snow melt and the high infrared absorption of the cases, induced extraordinary diurnal heating inside the cases and daily maximum temperatures were abnormal and thus could not be used to accurately describe snow temperature. Surface melting also induced surfacing of the miniloggers, which had to be reinserted in the morning into the snowpack. Mean daily air temperature data was obtained for the Russian Weather Station of Bellingshausen from NNDC/NCDC Climate Data Online (NOAA) and was used for a general characterization of the days of image acquisition.

In order to improve geocoding and for a better analysis of the radar imagery, the boundaries of several snowpatches were mapped using a Leica Viva DGPS in RTK mode with a local base station and a rover, allowing for an accuracy of ci. 2 cm for each GPS point. Lake boundaries for improving georeferencing of the satellite images and ground-truthing of water surfaces, as well as bare soil areas (mainly frost shattered debris) were also mapped with DGPS.

3.2 SAR imagery processing classification

Three TerraSAR-X SpotLight SSC (Single Look Slant Range Complex) mode scenes were acquired. SSC products offer a single look of the focused Radar signal, with a scene size of 10 x 5 km. The requested bandwidth was 300 MHz (experimental mode) offering a range spacing of 0.455 m and azimuth spacing of 0.855 m. Table 1 includes additional parameters of the images.

Since the goal was to evaluate the discriminating potential of TerraSAR-X for very high resolution mapping of snow cover, two scenes were acquired for the summer season in 12 and 13 January 2012, the former in HH and the later in VV polarization (Table 1). These dates coincided with the ground-truthing campaign. An additional early spring scene (28 September 2012,

5

HH polarization) was used in order to assess the backscattering for dry snow conditions. The results presented in this paper respect the area of the Meseta Norte, corresponding to the field validation area, which is a subsector of the larger TerraSAR-X scene.

The typical speckle noise (salt and pepper) present in rRadar images due to the constructive and destructive electromagnetic interference associated to the scatter implies choosing an adequate filtering phase to each specific area, compensating the noise or emphasizing textures. In this case, Lee filtering with a 9 x 9 window was used to improve the contrast. Calibration to sigma, beta or gamma nought in the radiometric correction phase transfers the digital level captured by the sensor to the Rradar backscattering signal (dB) of the reflecting surface (Valenti et al 2008; Small 2011), allowing to compare images acquired in different time lapses and modes. In this study all the calculations were performed with sigma nougth calibration.

Geocoding and terrain correction of the scenes were performed using ranging Doppler analysis and an external digital elevation model of 5 m resolution derived from the Chilean Antarctic Institute topographical map of Fildes Peninsula. This procedure detects geometrical deformations of the original scene due to the off-nadir swapping. Geometric distortions such as lay-over and shadowing are therefore compensated in the final product. Image processing was conducted using the ESA SNAP 3.0 software.

3.3 Production and validation of snow cover maps

In order to assess the discriminating potential of TerraSAR-X imagery for high resolution mapping of wet snow distribution, we have first characterized the backscattering signal of the three selected scenes in the ground-truthing areas. For this purpose, the field mapped boundaries of the snow patches, lakes and bare soil were integrated in a GIS, first as a point layer and then transformed into polygons. Backscattering at the ground-truthing areas was retrieved for the three scenes and analysed in order to identify differences in polarization modes and respective potential for the three surface types. Statistical analyses were conducted to detect backscattering similarities between snow patches and to compare with their topographical setting and snow characteristics obtained from the pits.

The previous approach allowed the identification of backscattering thresholds for the different surfaces and this data together with ground-truthing was used to test three mapping approaches: i. simple threshold-based surface classification mapping, ii. ratio-based mapping using a dry snow and wet snow scene, and iii. object-oriented mapping. The results of the three classifications are then evaluated by comparison with the reference data.

For extracting the feature values and training the classifiers, we have used a random sample set of half of the ground-truthing area obtained in the field survey for snow patches, lakes and bare-soil and the other half to make the validation of the classification.

4 Results

4.1 Snow characteristics

Twelve snowpits were dug in different snow patches to depths between 45 and 70 cm, at altitudes from 86 to 117 m, at different aspects, located within an area of ci. 0.6 km^2 (Fig. 4). Snow surface was generally wet and the downslope concave sectors of
5 several snowpatches showed ponding and slush with pervasive percolation. Snow patch sizes were from tens to hundreds meters wide and slope angle in the sample patches varied from 6 to 34º. Typically, snow pits showed rounded snow grains with melting and frequently clusters of rounded grains (Fig. 5). Grain-size was typically 2 to 4 mm, with grain clusters reaching 40 mm. Compact horizontal ice layers from 2 to 5 cm thick were present in most snow pits. South and southeasterly snow pits showed thicker snow layers and ice layers were generally absent. North and northwest facing snowpatches showed more ice
10 layers, with up to 5 in snow pit (SP) nr. 1. Vertical and horizontal discontinuous refreezing structures revealing percolation in the snow pack were found especially in NW to SE snow patches, normally below 50 cm depth. Snow density ranged from 470 to 600 kgm^{-3} and aspects east to south showed in average denser snow packs (Fig. 6).

4.2 Snow patch and air temperatures

Snow patch subsurface temperatures at 5 cm depth in 12 and 13 January 2012 showed *ci.* 0 ºC at all monitored sites between
15 about 23:00 and 7:00 UTCGMT (Fig. 7), corresponding to the period when the sun was very low or below the horizon. As explained in the methodology the packaging of the logger induced extreme heating during the day, with temperatures reaching +16 ºC inside some cases. Differences in maxima between snow patches reflected aspect, but diurnal regimes were similar, showing that there was clear homogeneous signal, reproducing also variability in cloudiness, with synchronous local daytime minima at all sites. Despite the heating problems, the data confirms that during the days of satellite imagery acquisition, the
20 snow conditions were always close to 0 ºC at all times and that, even during the night, cooling was small, a fact probably related to the high snow wetness already detected in the snow pits. Such conditions are typical of the Maritime Antarctic, where the daily air temperature range is very small, supporting limited refreezing conditions during the night. The analysis of mean daily air temperature data from the weather station of Bellingshausen, located about 1 km from the site, shows that mean temperatures ranged between 1.3 and 1.7 ºC from 11 to 13 January 2012 (Fig. 8).

25 ### 4.3 Surface backscattering

The three TerraSAR-X scenes (HH - summer, VV - summer, HH - early spring) show different discriminating potential for snow cover when compared to bare ground and open water surfaces (Fig. 98).

The summer HH-polarization scene showed the best separability between the 3 cover types, with statistically significant differences and clear curves peaking at different backscattering values. Snow peaks between bare soil and water with average

-18.0 dB (standard deviation - STD = 2.5 dB). Bare soils show an average of -11.9 dB (STD = 2.0 dB) and water an average of -21.1 dB (STD = 1.6 dB) (Table 1).

The summer VV-Polarization scene shows no discriminating capacity, with a complete mixture between snow and water, with average values of respectively, -11.6 and -13.7 dB. Soil shows higher average backscattering (-6.4 dB), but still overlapping with the former, and especially with snow.

The early spring scene of 28 September 2012 was selected for analysis due to the full snow cover conditions and for preceding the onset of snow melt conditions, therefore representing dry snow. This fact is confirmed by the mean air temperatures at Bellingshausen that from 26 to 28 September varied between -3.8 and -1.6 °C (Fig. 8). The backscattering values show a complete overlap of the signal of the 3 types of sampled areas, with average values from -5.0 to -6.2 dB and standard deviations of 1.7 to 2.6 dB). This confirms that the sites are covered by a similar type of snow. Secondary peaks in the soil sample areas at -2.4 and -0.7 dB suggest snow free surfaces.

4.4 Wet snow patch backscattering characteristics

The HH polarization scene of 12 January 2012 provided the best results for snow patch discrimination and therefore was selected for further analysis and classification. The backscattering for individual snow patches shows significant differences, with average dB ranging from -9.0 in SP2, to -19.8 in SP13 (Table 2). Extreme values range from -4.4 dB in SP8 to -23.6 dB in SP13, with standard deviations from 1.0 dB in SP6 and 13 to 2.8 dB in SP4. These simple statistics show that despite the quasi unimodal distribution (a small bump is visible at around -8 dB but may be an artifact) when considering all snow patches (Fig. 98), very significant differences are found between them.

ANOVA analysis and Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric tests were conducted to identify groups of equivalent response to backscattering. An evaluation of correlation (p-values 95%) by multiple contrast range resulted in three groups (Table 3): i. SP3 and SP12 (underlined), ii. SP5 and SP7 (bold), and iii. the rest, corresponding to a heterogeneous group with no inter-correlation (Fisher´s - LSD - and Bonferroni´s Significative Differences). Figure 910 shows the snow patches ranked by increasing average backscattering and evidences their moderate to high dispersion when analysing the mean, median and standard deviation. In general, most snow patches show a similar behaviour, with SP2 being the main outlier.

Figure 110a shows the lack of correlation between snow density and backscattering, both in the HH and VV scenes from January 2012. Figure 9b 11b shows that at HH polarization a weak positive correlation ($R^2 = 0.23$, $p < 0.14$) exists between backscattering and snow grain-size, especially evident if removing snow patch nr 2 that shows an anomalously high mean dB of -9.0 (indicated as HH-pol outlier). If instead the average backscattering per grain size is calculated, then the correlation becomes clearer with $R^2 = 0.94$ at $p < 0.15$.

8

4.5. Image classification

In order to evaluate the applicability of single band HH-polarized data for wet-snow mapping we have tested several methods. An expert-based visual inspection of the HH backscattering sigma-nought scene allows a relatively easy delimitation of wet-snow patches by comparing greyscale values with feature shapes in the terrain evidencing the potential of the scene (Fig. 12+).

5 The purpose of this section is to confront pixel- and object-based classifiers, comparing their performances and potentialities. ~~For extracting the feature values and training the classifiers, we have used a sample set of half of the ground-truthing polygon boundaries obtained in the field survey for snow patches, lakes and bare-soil and the other half to make the validation of the classification~~

4.5.1 Classification using backscattering thresholds

10 The best quality of the discrimination in the HH-polarisation scene of 12 January, when compared to the VV-scene of 13 January, led us to its selection for assessing the application of backscattering thresholds and band maths for the classification. ~~Given the best quality of the HH-polarisation scene of 12 January, when compared to the VV-scene of 13 January, the former was used for assessing the application of backscattering thresholds and band maths~~. This is simplest way to evaluate the applicability of the single polarisation backscattering signal to map wet snow. Since data has shown a significant
15 overlap between the three classes, but especially between wet snow and water (see Fig. 98), no accurate threshold is possible to identify between both. However, once the objective is differentiating wet snow from bare soil surfaces, a valid option is using the threshold between these two classes, which may be defined using the average ± standard deviation for each class: wet snow from -20.5 to -15.5 dB and bare soil from -13.9 to -9.9 dB, while values below -20.5 dB are classified as water. The results of this classification were identified as Thresholds A. Since -20.5 dB is a frequent value for water at the ground truth
20 sites, a second classification was assessed moving the threshold to -19.5 dB, which is mid-distance from the average of wet snow (thresholds Bb). In order to be able to properly evaluate the performance of the modelling, a random selection of 50% of the ground truth pixels was used to derive the backscattering thresholds and drive the classification and the other 50% of pixels was used to compute the confusion matrix (Table 4). The large number of pixels in the ground-truthing produced very homogeneous statistical results among the two sets, with maximum differences below 0.03 dB.
25 Both classifications provide a very good general assessment of wet snow cover distribution, but with the typical noise of pixel-based classifiers (Fig. 13)10). Most of the wet snow is classified correctly, or as water, but numerous pixels wrongly classified as snow display in clumped patterns forming fuzzy clusters, with shapes not so clearly defined as the observed snow patches. The confusion matrix shows an overall accuracy of 81.0% for Thresholds A, and 81.1% for Thresholds B.

4.5.2 Classification using simple band-math

30 Differences in backscattering when comparing a snow scene with a snow-free scene, or with a dry snow scene, have been used by several authors in order to classify ground conditions (Rott and Nagler, 1994; Nagler and Rott, 2000; Malnes et al., 2014).

9

For this purpose, the HH-polarization scene from 28 September 2012 showing a fully snow covered terrain and dry snow, was used as reference, while the HH-polarization scene from 12 January 2012 was the target scene for the classification. Figure 13 shows that from the 3 studied surface types, bare soil is clearly differentiated from lakes, but wet-snow shows a significant overlapping with both lakes and bare-soils, which shows the same limitations as the threshold methods evaluated in a).

5   Another approach is the classification using a band ratio between the dry-snow scene and the wet-snow scene, aiming at detecting thresholds between surface classes (Nagler and Rott, 2000; Valenti et al., 2008). However, the ratio between the HH-Pol September and the HH-Pol January scenes show very poor discriminating potential with significant mixing between the 3 surface types (Fig. 14̶3̶). Given the poor results, no image classification for evaluation was attempted using simple band maths.

4̲.5.3 Classification using an object-oriented algorithm

10   The pixel-based classifications produced limited results, with the threshold-based maps showing two different patterns of pixels classified as wet-snow: homogeneous patches, with clearly defined limits, which mostly coincided with the ground-truthing snow patches, and small diffuse clusters of pixels, wrongly classified as wet-snow. Given the differences in spatial patterns and the relatively straightforward manual delimitation of the wet-snow by visual inspection on the imagery, new classification tests were conducted using an algorithm which is object-oriented and constituted by 3 main processing steps:

15   filtering, segmentation and classification.

The filtering intends to attenuate the speckle of the radar image in order to enhance the spatial coherence of the image texture or of the structures of the surface. To achieve this goal, a series of mathematical morphology based filters were tested (Soille, 2004). These are region-based filters, which rely on the reconstruction of a 'classic' filter, i.e., by opening or closing (Salembier and Wilkinson, 2009). The filter that performed better is based on the removal of the image extrema with a contrast criterion,

20   that is, on suppressing all maxima and minima whose height/depth are lower than a given threshold level h (Soille, 2004).: this value was fixed at 10% of the backscattering range of variation on the whole HH scene. The output of this filter is shown in figure 1̲5̲4̲-a, where the structures of the landscape are now more evident than in the initial image.

The segmentation consists of delineating the homogeneous regions, often referred as objects (Blaschke, 2010), of the filtered image. The underlying idea is to classify later the basic elements of the texture (the objects) instead of the basic elements of

25   the digital image (the pixels), since the availability of additional descriptors of the image can greatly improve the decision performance. The segmentation is based on the watershed transform (Soille, 2004), followed by a post-processing task to merge similar adjacent regions. The final watershed lines corresponding to the segmentation of the filtered image are shown superimposed to it in figure 1̲5̲4̲-b.

Finally, in the third step, the classification of the segmented objects is performed. It is a supervised classification approach,

30   meaning that typical features of the objects are used to train a classifier. In the current situation, the classifier that achieved better results is Support Vector Machine (SVM). SVM is a supervised kernel method (Vapnik, 1995) that uses an implicit transformation to a higher dimensional space in order to achieve a good separability by means of a linear classifier. It also has the ability to handle data with unknown statistical distributions using small training sets. The classification of the segmented

objects is based on a set of intensity, geometric and textural descriptors of each object. The SVM kernel selected is the RBF-Radial Basis Function with the parameters gamma = 0.03 and C = 1000. The classified image of the study site is shown in figure 1~~6~~5. The good visual agreement between the classified image and the input radar image indicates already how well the classifier performed.

5 The confusion-matrix shows the good quality of the classification, with an overall accuracy of 92% and Kappa equal to 0.88 (Table 3) (Congalton, 1991), indicating the adequacy of the proposed method to separate water, snow and soil in radar images of ice-free regions in Maritime Antarctica. The integration into the same processing sequence of some of the most appropriate filters to deal with the spatial arrangement of textures, the a-priory delineation of the objects constituting the landscape and the use of one of the most robust classifiers, are the keys for the performances obtained. The only issues in the classification

10 arise in snow patches facing west to northwest, where a significant part of the area was classified as bare soil.

5~~6~~ Discussion

Snow characteristics in the Meseta Norte at Fildes Peninsula in 12 and 13 January 2012 have been described by field mapping of test snow patches and by analysing snow pits. Snow distribution showed a typical Maritime Antarctic summer melt pattern with snow patches from tens to hundred meters large concentrating in concavities and prevailing in south facing slopes. The

15 snow was in advanced melting stage, with isothermal near 0 ºC temperatures even during the night, showing the delay effects of latent heat exchange during freezing. The downslope sectors of several snow patches showed ponding and saturated slush. Snow pits down to ci. 70 cm showed that grain-size was generally 2-4 mm and crystals showed melting with frequent clustering evidencing advanced metamorphism and warm conditions (Braun, 2001). Snow pits reveal frequent ice layers associated to melting events, refreezing and new snow accumulation. Such ice layers were more frequent in snow patches facing NW to SE,

20 while south facing snow patches ~~showed~~ rarely showed ice layers. This pattern reveals the effects of insolation and possibly warm air advection on snow stratigraphy and the significance of snow melt events during the snow accumulation season. Snow densities agree with the relatively mild climate of the region, with high values ranging from 470 to 600 kg/m^3, close to the typical late melting season 350 to 550 kg/m^3 indicated by Dewalle and Rango (2008).

X-band radar backscatter is essentially influenced by the characteristics of the upper 15 cm of the snow pack (Rees, 2006; Rott

25 and Nagler, 2013). Near the surface, most of the snow patches showed a lack of ice layers, coarse grained snow and high densities, ranging from 470 to 600 kg/m3. The HH polarization scene showed a better discriminating potential between wet snow, bare soil and water, than the VV-pol scene, which completely merged the water and snow signals, while also showing important overlap with bare soil. These results agree with other authors which have also found better results for snow cover classification when using HH-polarisation scenes in C-band (Baghdadi et al., 1998, Mora et al 2013). Backscattering depends

30 on the dryness of the snow, on the incident angle and on the roughness of the surface. Additionally, VV-polarisation is more sensitive to water roughness changes. In the cases analysed here, the HH scene shows a higher incidence angle, which improves resolution in a terrain with irregular topography (Woodhouse, I., 2006).

11

Snow backscattering in the HH-pol scene of 12 January 2012 showed values from -4.4 to -23.6 dB, with a mean of -18.0 and a standard deviation of 2.5. The mean value is in agreement with the wet snow signal from other regions, as described by Shi and Dozier, 1997 (-5 to -20 dB) and in range with the experimental margin described by Ulaby and Stiles (1981). The minimum was measured at SP2, with an average slope angle of 34º, which was probably not well resolved with the DEM.

5   Given the limitations of the VV-Pol scene, the HH-Pol scene was selected to test the use of single band classification methods for identifying wet snow. The results showed a significant overlap between the signature of wet-snow and lake water. Wet snow showed higher dB and visual inspection shows that spatial distribution of values in snow patches is more uniform, whilst lakes show higher speckle. The mixed signal between wet snow and water generates a large number of errors when conducting a pixel based image classification, with numerous pixels classified as water in slope sites where bare soil occurs and a

10   significant mix of snow and water. One of the reasons for the poor discrimination potential is the high moisture content of snow, and also the high moisture of soils during the summer, with saturation occurring in many locations. The tests carried out with simple thresholds and band maths did not provide robust results. However, the threshold based maps allow identifying the snow patches, although with a significant noise and too much snow in bare soil areas.

Supported by the visual inspection of the HH-Polarization scene and with the terrain-based expert knowledge suggesting that

15   snow patch boundaries could be easily identified in the scene, an object-oriented approach was tested as an alternative for the limited performing pixel-based methods. Filtering and image segmentation were important steps for cleaning the noisy areas and the classification results improved very significantly, with an overall accuracy of 92%. The resulting classification was very good. Noisy areas were removed and a very good overall performance was obtained. Problems still occur in snow patches facing northwest, which have been misclassified as bare soil. This problem has also been found when analysing the VV-

20   polarisation scene and is probably related to artefacts associated with the geometry of acquisition, which was along an ascending orbit, right looking. The sinergistic use of an ascending and a descending scene with a short time interval (1 day) should be an adequate option used to better identify the snow melt patterns and fill the spatial gaps.

Although showing good classification results due to the low backscattering in the analysed scenes, under strong winds, the water bodies may show high brightness due to bragg scattering, making them difficult to distinguish from snow. In order to

25   avoid this issue, a lake mask obtained either from a windless scene or from an optical scene or map, may be used.

6~~7~~ **Conclusions**

TerraSAR-X imagery shows clear advantages in high cloudiness environments when compared to optical images, since the radar signal traverses the cloud cover and is not dependent on daylight. But the ~~r~~Radar signal structure is very dependent of

30   the topography and the dielectric variables of the terrain, and in the case of the snow, on grain size and snow water equivalent, implying a large variability in backscattering according to local factors and time. ~~The acquisition mode is very relevant to achieve an adequate spatial resolution with minimal geometric distortions.~~ The use of Single Look Slant Range Complex (SSC) images permitted a sophisticated terrain correction, excluding lay-over and shadowing effects with a precise external DEM.

The High Resolution Spotlight Mode and a refined speckle filtering that can be useful determining the limits of the snow cover to adjust much better with the in terrain data collected.

In the present study we conducted a very detailed survey of snow conditions in two days in the austral summer of 2012, with simultaneous acquisition of two TerraSAR-X scenes spotlight mode in HH and VV polarization modes, and a third HH polarization scene was obtained in 28 September 2012 as a reference dry snow scene. Snow patches were in advanced melting stage, with wet and coarse-grained snow at all studied sites and ponding in the downslope sectors of some snowpatches. As a consequence of snow melt and also of active layer thaw, the bare soils of Fildes Peninsula showed significant moisture content. The analysis of the TerraSAR-X scenes and the comparison with ground-truthing from snow patches, lakes and bare soil test areas showed that the only scene with potential for discrimination of the three surface classes was the one obtained with HH-Polarization. However, despite different average backscattering, still significant mixture occurred between the 3 classes. With the objective of mapping wet-snow distribution, we have tested single band pixel-based classification methods and an object-oriented approach. After several tests with the latter, this has proven to be the one providing best classification results, with overall accuracies of 92%. Some inaccurate classifications were obtained in northwest to west facing snowpatches, and especially in steeper slopes. The reason for this is probably associated with the geometry of image acquisition and further research is needed to mitigate this issue.

The method presented here using spotlight mode imagery together with detailed synchronous reference data offers for the first time a very high resolution mapping of snow patches in the Maritime Antarctic, allowing identifying features with a scale of a few meters. Given the lack of knowledge on snow melt in the ice-free terrains of the Antarctic Peninsula, the present results show that X-band imagery can be used as a good approach for monitoring snow melt patterns during the summer in key areas. Such an approach is especially useful for monitoring ecosystem dynamics (i.e. at GTN-P, CALM-S or LTER observatories), modelling permafrost and active layer thaw, but also for remotely assessing snow conditions before opening summer research stations and thus implementing better planning for deploying equipment and personnel.

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Date	Time (UTC)	Orbit cycle	Pass	Incident angle (º)	Polarization
12/01/2012	23:32:59	153	Ascending	45.626	HH
13/01/2012	23:15:59	153	Ascending	29.875	VV
28/09/2012	8:39:59	176	Descending	25.259	HH

Table 1: Characteristics of the TerraSAR-X scenes used for snow mapping in Fildes Peninsula.

	Bare soil (dB/STD)	Snow (dB/STD)	Water (dB/STD)
HH - summer	-11.9 / 2.0	-18.0 / 2.5	-21.1 /1.6
VV - summer	-6.4 / 2.0	-11.6 / 3.1	-13.7 / 3.3
HH - spring	-5.0 / 2.4	-5.7 / 2.6	-6.2 / 1.7

Table 2: Backscattering characteristics of the sampled snow patches, lakes and bare soil areas. STD – Standard Deviation.

Snow patch	Backscattering (dB)				Slope (°)	Aspect	SWE (cm)	Surface (0-5 cm)			Subsurface (5-10 cm)		
	Mean	std dev	Max	Min				Grain Size (mm)	Density (kg/m3)	Ice layer	Grain Size (mm)	Density (kg/m3)	Ice layer
3	-18.2	1.3	-14.1	-22.0	-18.1	15	N360	4.7	3	472	no	2	487
12	-18.2	1.8	-8.2	-22.7	-18.5	9	N130	5.5	4	550	no	-	519
5	-18.8	1.1	-14.9	-23.0	-18.8	20	N10	4.7	3	472	no	4	487
7	-18.8	1.4	-14.8	-23.5	-18.7	8	N290	4.6	3	456	no	2	487
1	-15.0	1.8	-9.2	-19.6	-15.0	11	N270	4.7	3	472	no	4	487
2	-9.0	1.4	-4.5	-14.9	-8.7	34	N270	5.0	2	503	no	4	550
4	-16.2	2.8	-8.0	-20.7	-17.0	20	N180	4.7	4	472	yes	3	519
6	-19.6	1.0	-13.6	-22.8	-19.6	9	N130	4.7	2	472	yes	1	550
8	-17.8	1.8	-4.4	-21.6	-18.0	6	N170	5.2	2	519	no	-	519
10	-18.5	1.6	-13.2	-23.4	-18.5	8	N70	6.0	3	597	no	-	597
11	-17.2	1.6	-13.1	-21.4	-17.1	10	N280	5.2	3	519	yes	3	519
13	-19.8	1.0	-16.6	-23.6	-19.7	20	N120	5.2	2	519	yes	-	519

Snow patch	Backscattering (dB)				Slope (°)	Aspect	SWE (cm)	Surface (0-5 cm)			Subsurface (5-10 cm)		
	Mean	std dev	Max	Min				Grain Size (mm)	Density (kg/m3)	Ice layer	Grain Size (mm)	Density (kg/m3)	Ice layer
3	-18.2	1.3	-14.1	-22.0	15	N360	4.7	3	472	no	2	487	yes
12	-18.2	1.8	-8.2	-22.7	9	N130	5.5	4	550	no	4	519	no
5	-18.8	1.1	-14.9	-23.0	20	N10	4.7	3	472	no	4	487	no
7	-18.8	1.4	-14.8	-23.5	8	N290	4.6	3	456	no	2	487	yes
1	-15.0	1.8	-9.2	-19.6	11	N270	4.7	3	472	no	4	487	yes
2	-9.0	1.4	-4.5	-14.9	34	N270	5.0	2	503	no	4	550	yes
4	-16.2	2.8	-8.0	-20.7	20	N180	4.7	4	472	yes	3	519	yes
6	-19.6	1.0	-13.6	-22.8	9	N130	4.7	2	472	yes	1	550	no
8	-17.8	1.8	-4.4	-21.6	6	N170	5.2	2	519	no	2	519	yes
10	-18.5	1.6	-13.2	-23.4	8	N70	6.0	3	597	no	1-2	597	no
11	-17.2	1.6	-13.1	-21.4	10	N280	5.2	3	519	yes	3	519	yes
13	-19.8	1.0	-16.6	-23.6	20	N120	5.2	2	519	yes	2	550	no

Table 3: Snow patch characteristics and backscattering in HH-Polarization (12 January 2012).

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	Thresholds A		Thresholds B		Object-oriented	
	Prod. Acc. (%)	User Acc. (%)	Prod. Acc. (%)	User Acc. (%)	Prod. Acc. (%)	User Acc. (%)
Wet snow	85.2	72.1	66.8	82.3	87.49	95.11
Water	73.7	91.3	88.8	80.2	95.16	100.0
Bare soil	96.3	81.8	96.3	81.8	100.0	69.65
Overall accuracy (%)	81.0		81.1		92.36	
Kappa	0.69		0.68		0.88	

Table 4: Performances for the 3 tested classifications. Classification Thresholds A: backscattering threshold water –

10 **wet snow at -20.5 dB, Classification Thresholds B: backscattering threshold water – wet snow at -19.5 dB, and Object-oriented approach. Producer accuracy measures the errors of omission (pixels correctly classified as a percentage of the total number of pixels that belong to that class). User accuracy measures the errors of comission (the number of correctly classified pixels compared to the total number of pixels assigned to that class).**
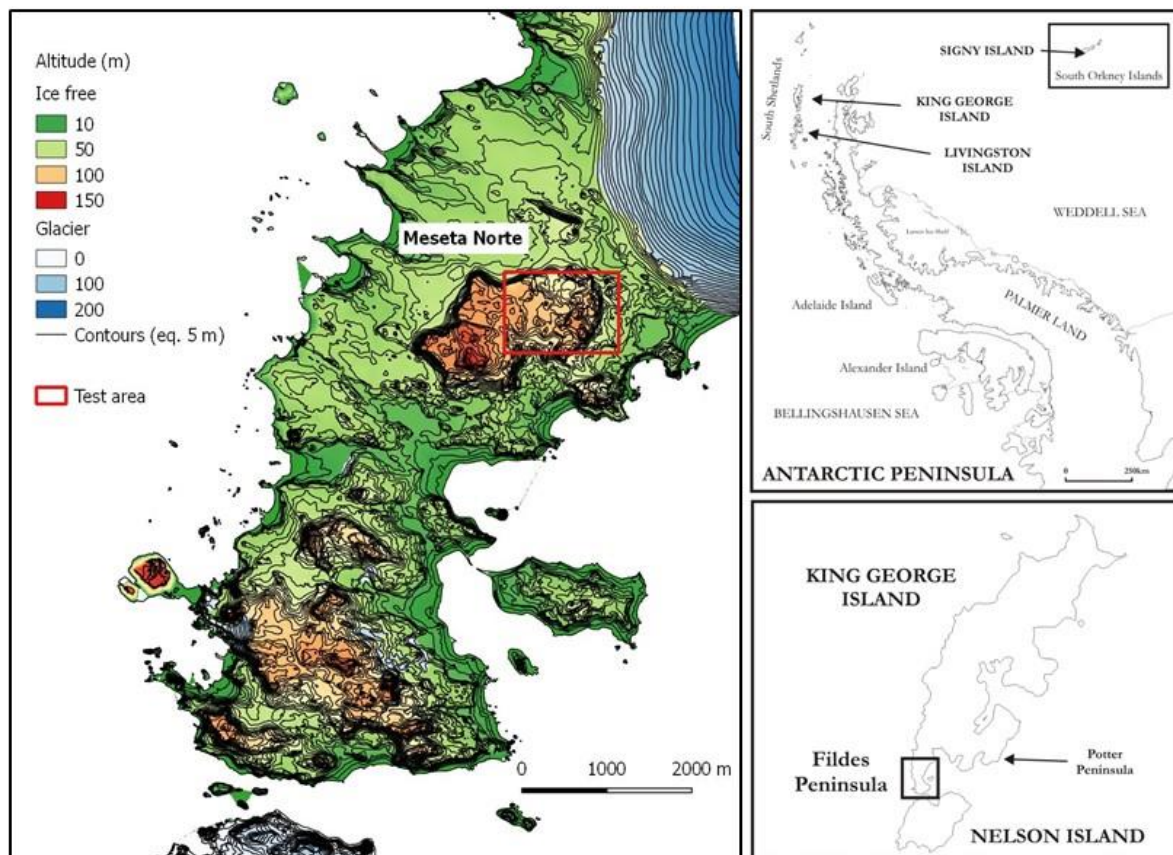
Figure 1: Location and topography of Fildes Peninsula and the Meseta Norte test site.
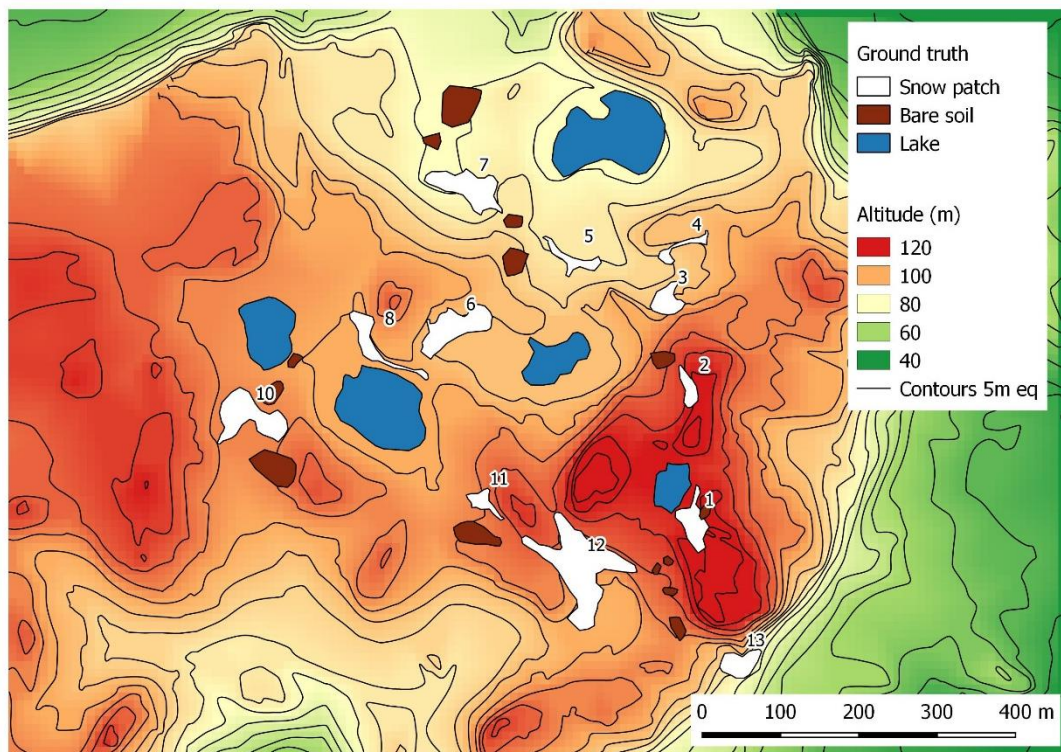
Figure 2: Topographical setting of the Meseta Norte test area in Fildes Peninsula with the ground truthing mapped in the field. Snow patches are numbered as in the paper.
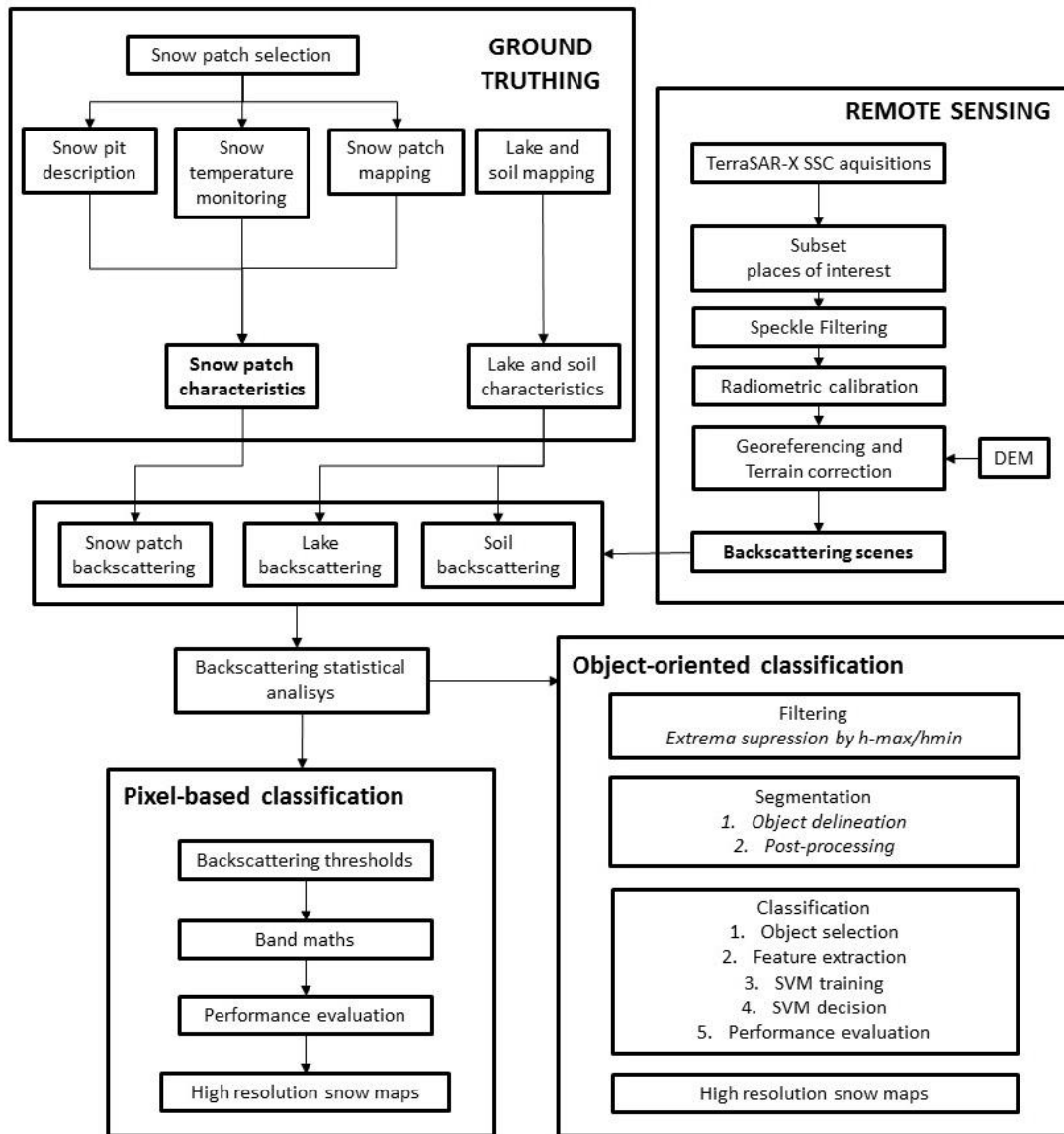
Figure 3: Methodology for the evaluation of the potential of Spotlight mode TerraSAR-X imagery for high resolution snow cover mapping.
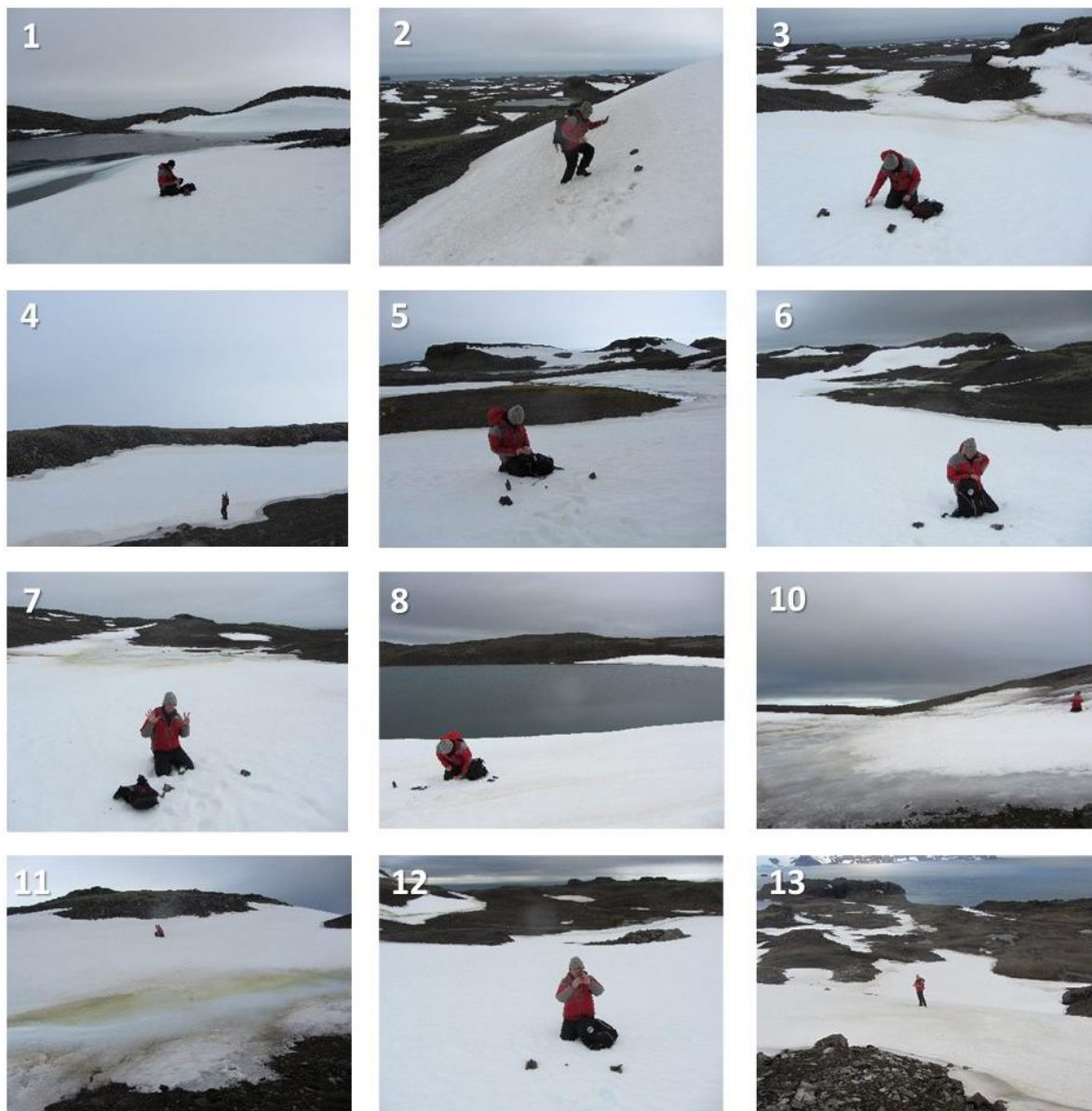
Figure 4: Overview of the snow conditions in the sampled snow patches during the field survey in the Meseta Norte in January 2012.
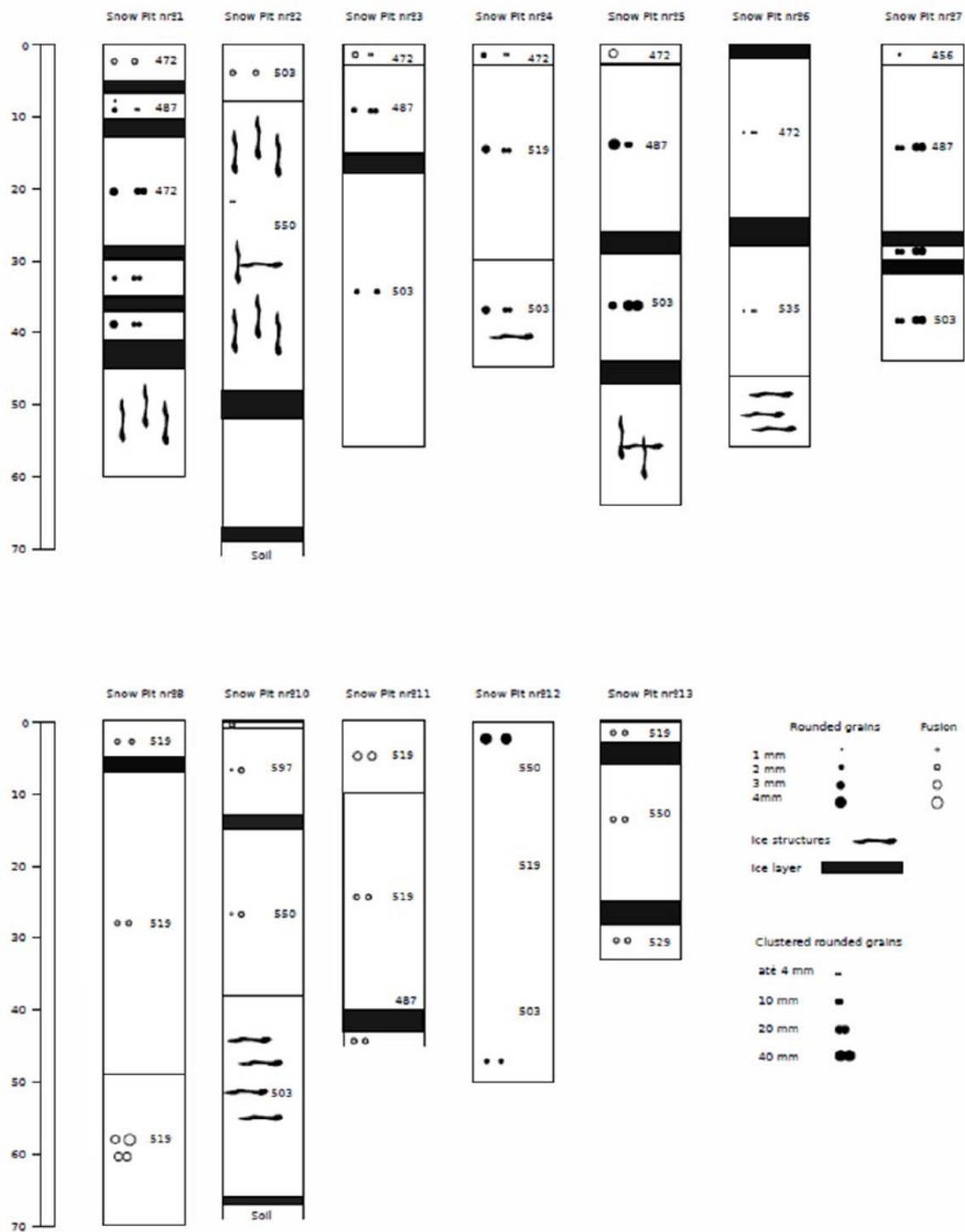
Figure 5: Snow pit description for the studied snow patches in Fildes Peninsula.
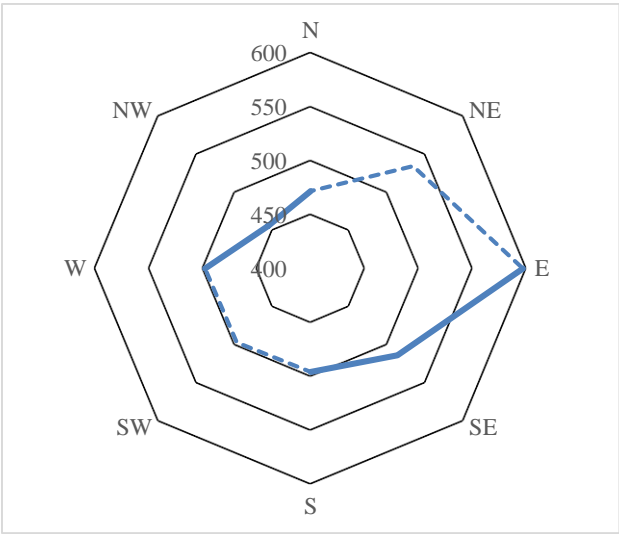
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Figure 6: Surficial snow density (kg/m³) according to aspect in the studied snow patches in Fildes Peninsula. Dashed line represents estimated values at NE and SW calculated by averaging between neighbouring orientations.
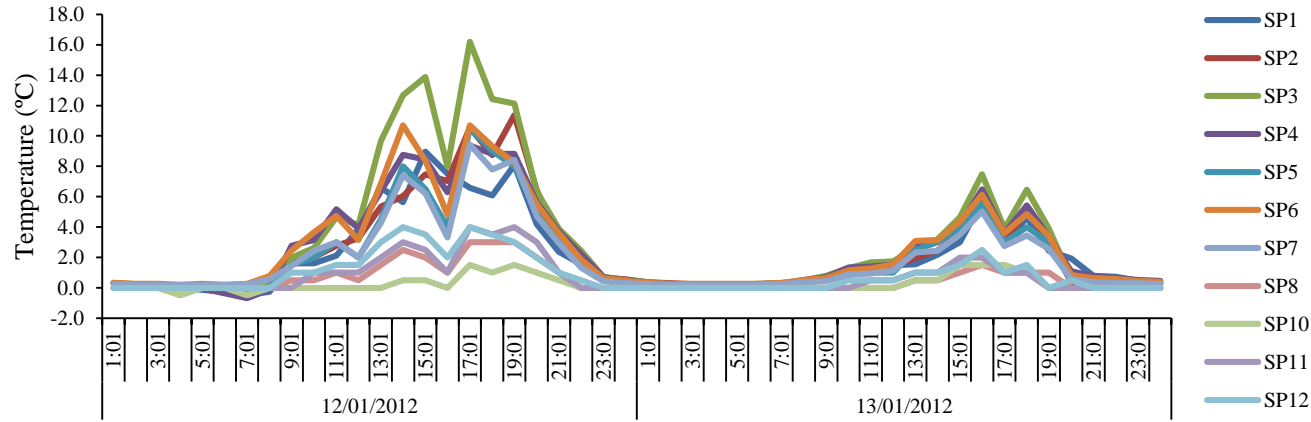
Figure 7: Snow patch temperatures measured at 5 cm depth from 12 to 13 January 2012. The peaks in the maxima relate to anomalous overheating of the minilogger case. SP1-SP12 are the snowpatch numbers. SP13 was not monitored.
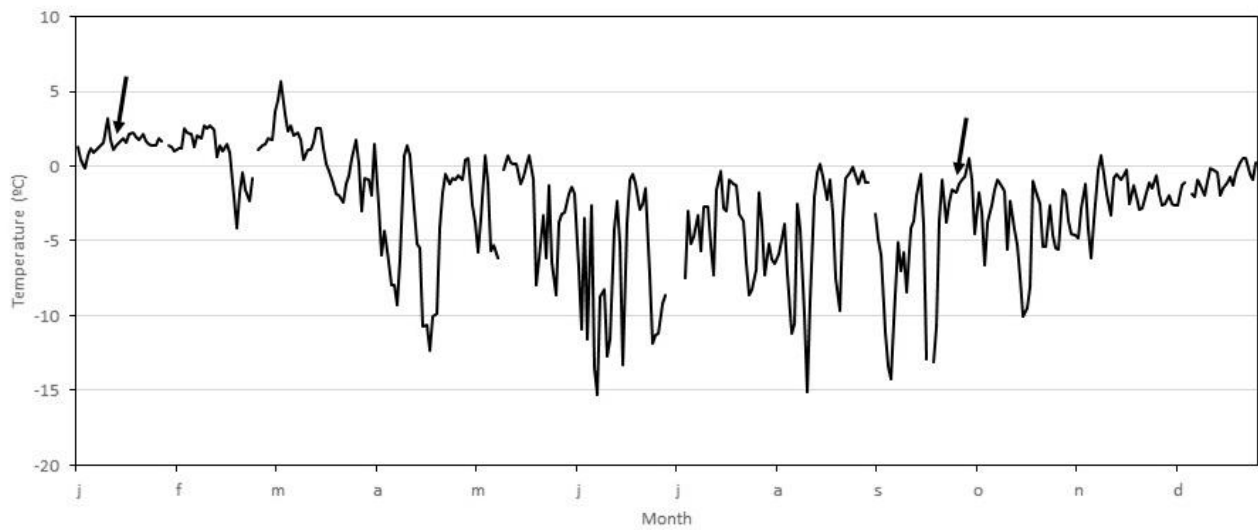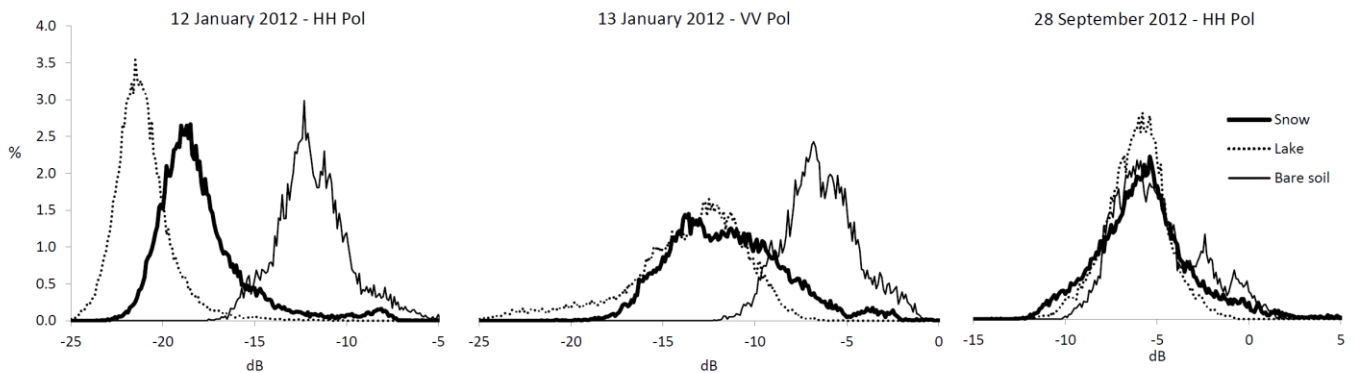
Figure 98: Radar backscattering of snow, water and soil ground truthing areas for the three selected TerraSAR-X scenes: a. HH-Polarization (12/01/2012), b. VV-Polarization (13/01/2012) and c. HH-Polarization (28/09/2012).

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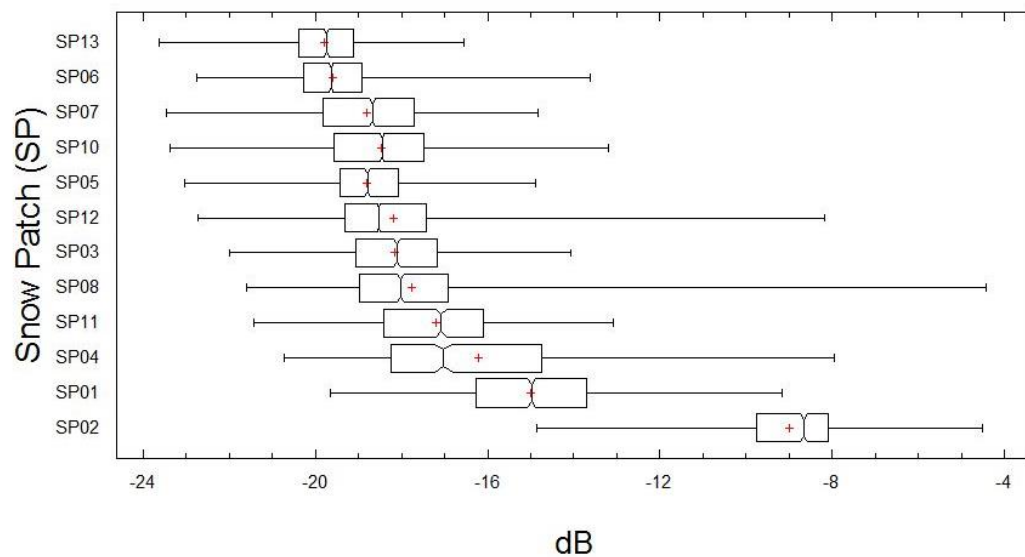
Figure 910: Box and whisker plots of backscattering of individual snowpatches in the HH polarisation scene from 12 January 2012.

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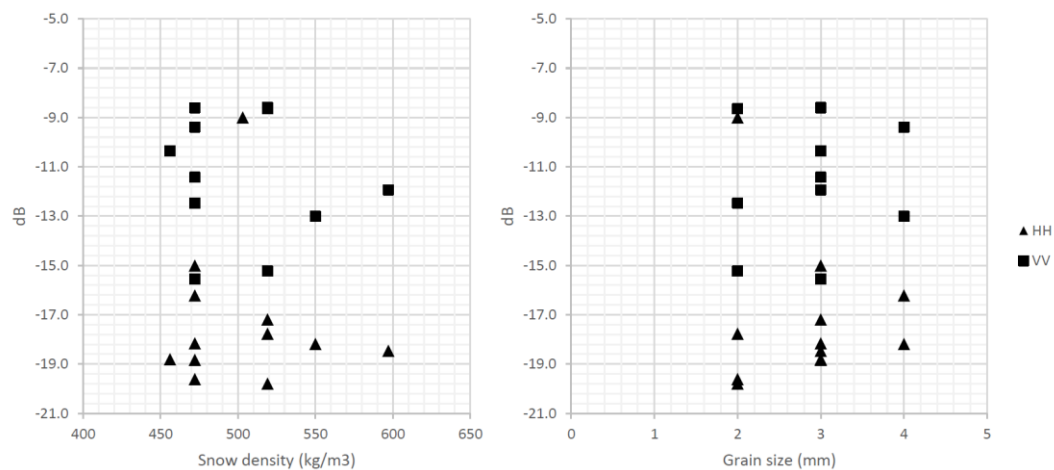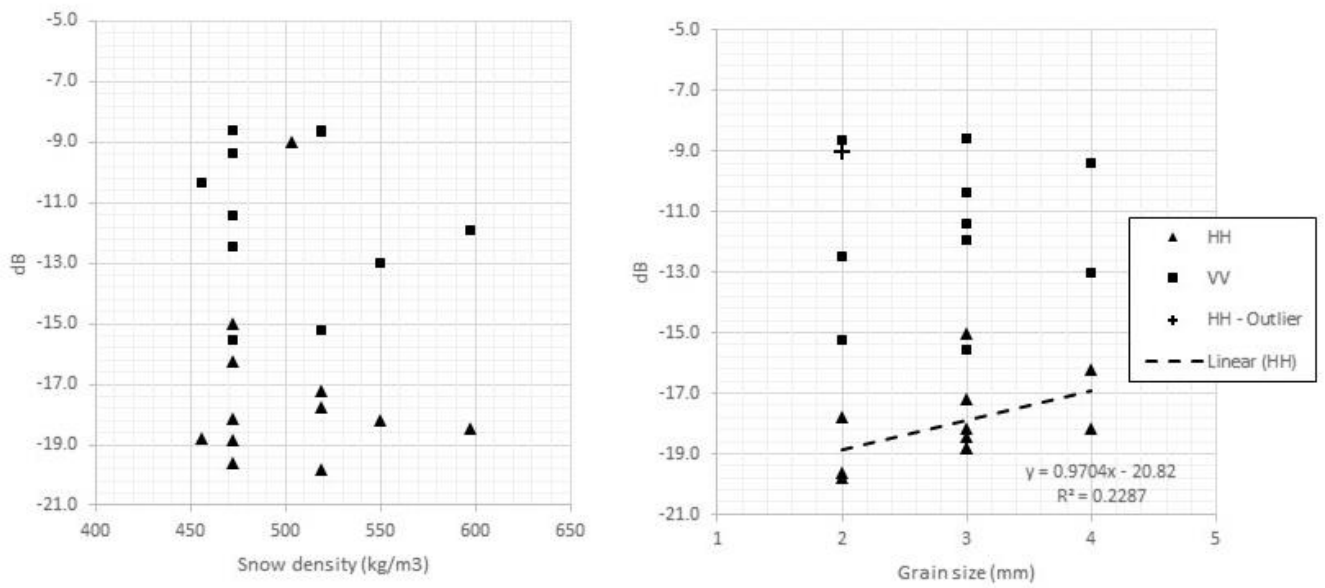
Figure 1~~0~~1: Scatterplots of snow density (a) and snow grain-size (b) with backscattering for the studied snow patches.

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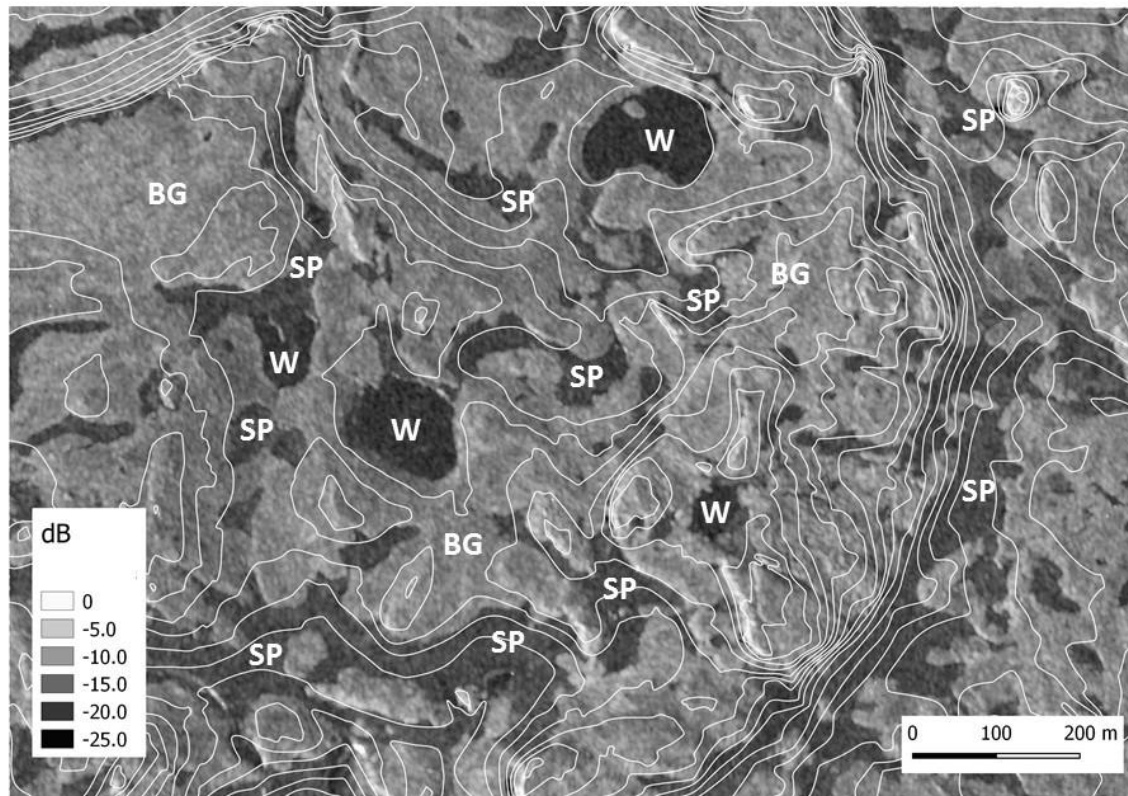
Figure 1~~1~~2: TerraSAR-X SpotLight mode HH polarization backscattering (sigma-nought) scene from 12 January 2012 with examples of visual interpretation of bare ground (BG), water (W) and snow patches (SP). Countour lines at 5 m equidistance.

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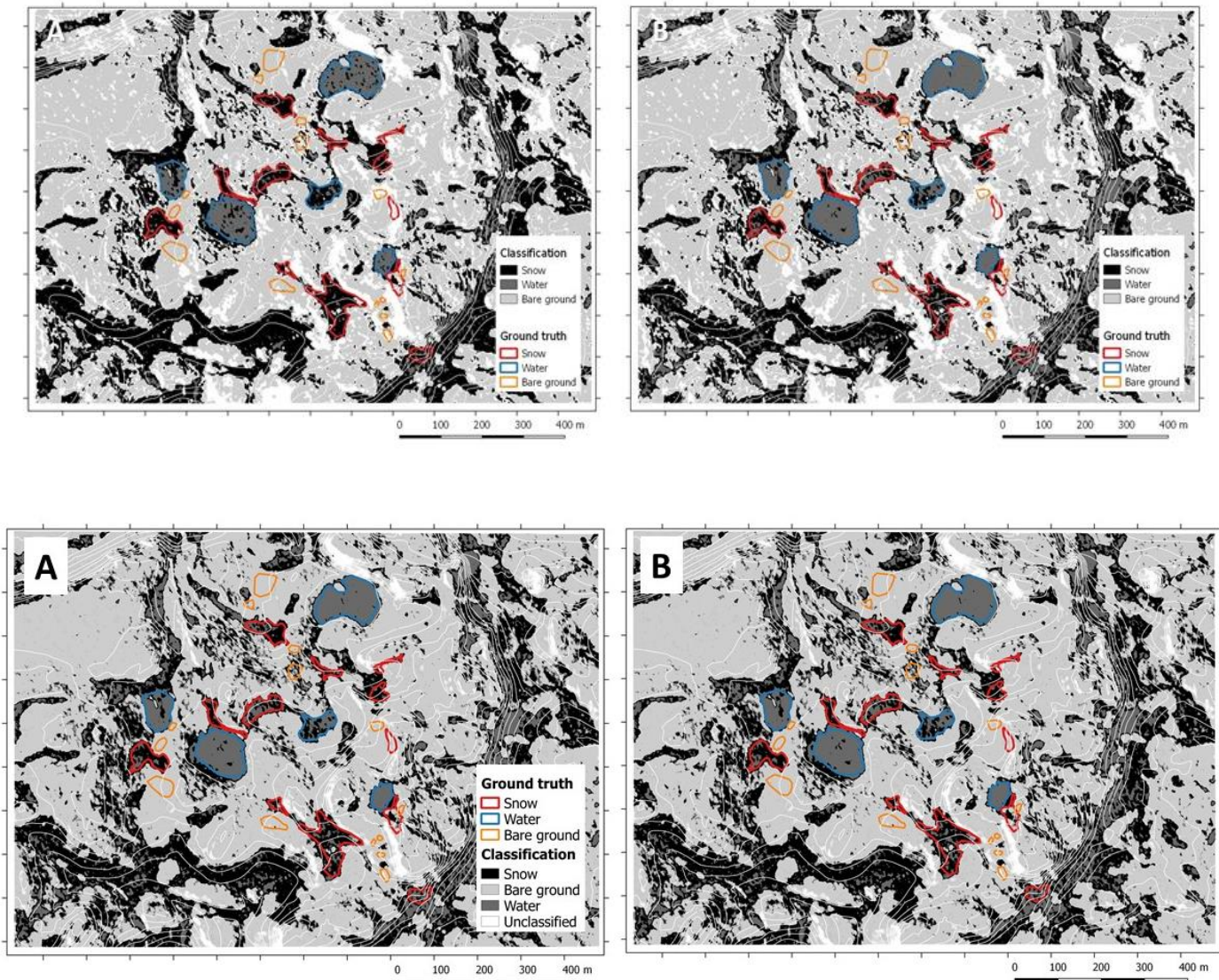
Figure 132: Classification results using: a. backscattering threshold water – wet snow at -20.5 dB, b. backscattering threshold water – wet snow at -19.5 dB.

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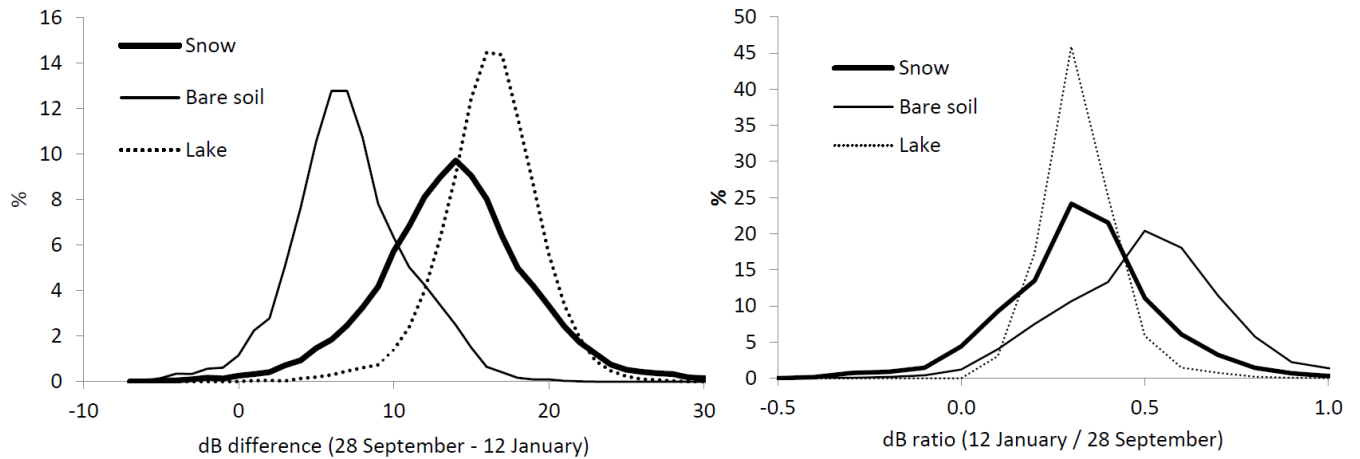
Figure 143: Discrimination of wet-snow, bare-soil and water using simple band maths: a. difference between the dry snow scene (28 September 2012, HH Pol) and target scene (12 January 2012), b. band ratio between the dry snow scene and the target scene.
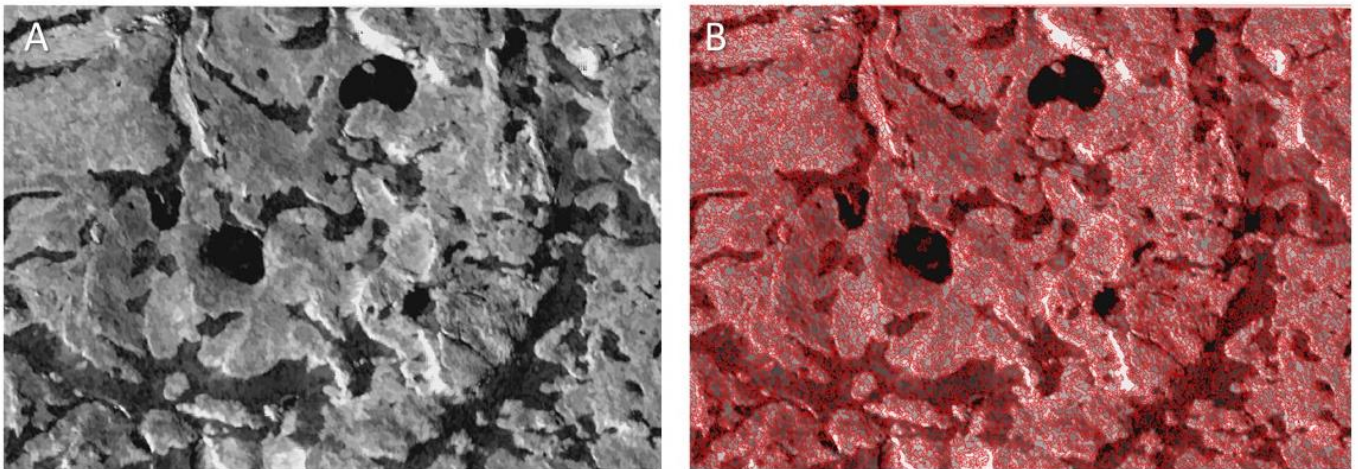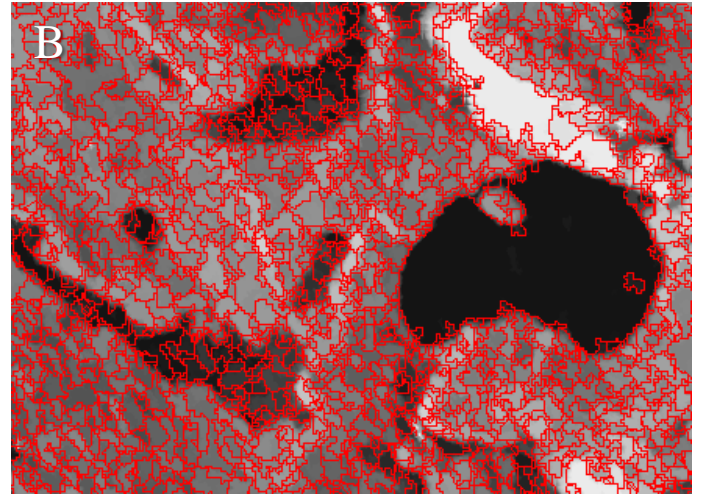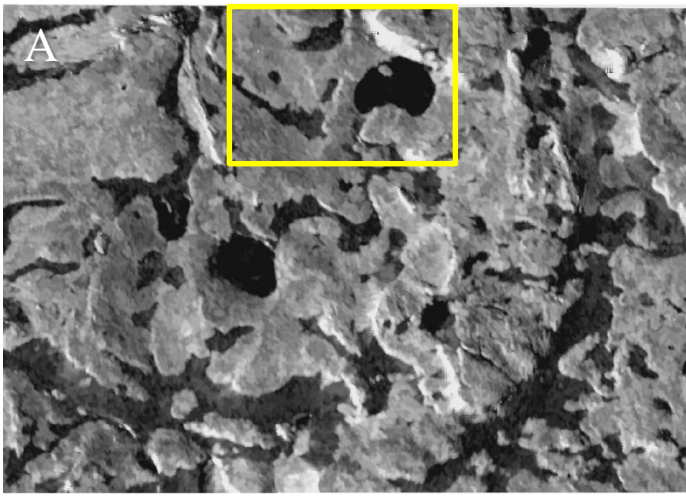
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~~Figure 14: Initial steps on the object-oriented classification scheme: a. filtered image by suppression of its extremes values with a contrast criterion (mathematical morphology h-max and h-min operators), b. segmentation by watershed with the delineation of the objects of the filtered image.~~

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Figure 15: Initial steps on the object-oriented classification scheme: a. filtered image by suppression of its extremes values with a contrast criterion (mathematical morphology h-max and h-min operators), b. detail of the segmentation by watershed with the delineation of the objects of the filtered image.
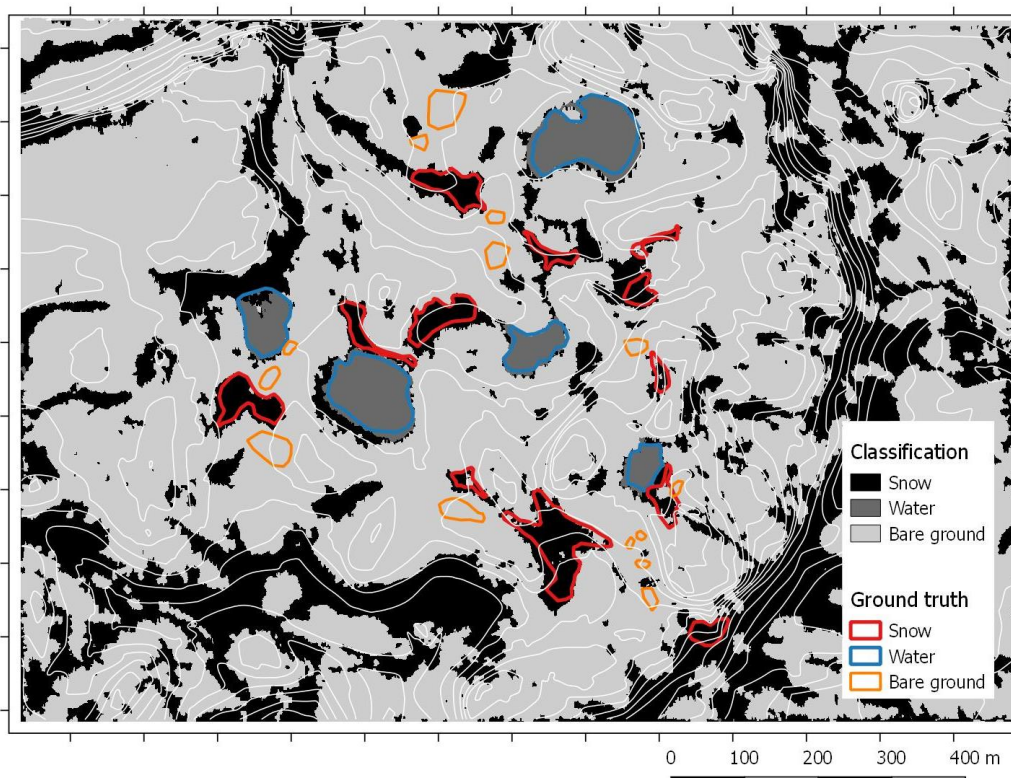
Figure 15: Distribution of wet-snow in the Meseta Norte using an object-oriented classification with SVM - Support Vector Machine.