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4 **Brief communication:**

5 **Mapping Greenland's perennial firn aquifers using enhanced-**
6 **resolution L-band brightness temperature image time series**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Enhanced-resolution L-band brightness temperature (T_B) image time series collected over the
25 Greenland ice sheet by NASA's Soil Moisture Active Passive (SMAP) satellite are used to map
26 Greenland's perennial firn aquifers from space. Exponentially decreasing L-band T_B signatures
27 are correlated with perennial firn aquifer areas identified via the Center for Remote Sensing of Ice
28 Sheets (CReSIS) Multi-Channel Coherent Radar Depth Sounder (MCoRDS) flown by NASA's
29 Operation IceBridge (OIB) campaign. An empirical algorithm to map extent is developed by fitting
30 these signatures to a set of sigmoidal curves. During the spring of 2016, perennial firn aquifer
31 areas are found to extend over $\sim 66,000$ km².

32

33 **1 Introduction**

34 Firn is a porous layer of recrystallized snow near the surface of a glacier or an ice sheet. Under
35 certain climate conditions, firn can host a laterally unconfined aquifer and thereby buffer meltwater
36 flow across the near-surface to the periphery of the ice. Given sufficiently high surface melting,



37 firn aquifers form, or recharge, in the percolation facies as a result of vertical and lateral
38 percolation of meltwater into the pore space of surface snow, if present, and firn layers overlying
39 impermeable ice layers. If a firn aquifer is adjacent to, or is crossed by, a crevasse, mobile
40 meltwater can initiate meltwater-driven hydrofracture, drain into the subglacial hydrological
41 system, and accelerate ice flow (Fountain and Walder, 1998).

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43 Although common on glaciers, firn aquifers were unknown on ice sheets until their discovery
44 during an April 2011 field expedition to the percolation facies of southeastern Greenland (Forster
45 et al., 2014). Greenland's firn aquifers store meltwater seasonally, intermittently, or perennially,
46 depending on location and climate. They range from shallow water-saturated firn layers that perch
47 on top of near-surface ice layers, to deeper water-saturated firn layers that extend from the ice
48 sheet surface to the firn-ice transition. Greenland's perennial firn aquifers are expansive (their
49 simulated extent ranges between 55,700 km² and 90,200 km² (2010-2014); Steger et al., 2017),
50 and are capable of storing substantial volumes of meltwater (~140±20 GT; Koenig et al., 2014).
51 Simulations using a simple firn model suggest that high snowfall thermally insulates water-
52 saturated firn layers, allowing meltwater to be stored in liquid form throughout the freezing season
53 (i.e., the time between surface freeze-up to melt onset) if the overlying snow layer is sufficiently
54 deep (Munneke et al., 2014). Perennial firn aquifers have also recently been discovered off the
55 coast of western Greenland on the Maniitsoq (Forster et al., 2014) ice cap, and on a Svalbard
56 icefield (Christianson et al., 2015).

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58 The existence and approximate extent of Greenland's perennial firn aquifers has been
59 demonstrated using shallow firn cores extracted from several sites in southeastern Greenland
60 during recent field expeditions, (Forster et al., 2014; Koenig et al., 2014; Miller et al., 2017a), and
61 ice-penetrating radar surveys collected by the CreSIS Accumulation Radar flown by NASA's
62 2010-2014 OIB campaign (Miège et al., 2016). However, these airborne observations are not
63 comprehensive over the Greenland ice sheet, occur only during the spring months, and are often
64 non-repeating in space and time. The 2019 conclusion of NASA's OIB campaign ended even
65 these sparse mapping activities. Thus, this leaves significant gaps where Greenland's perennial
66 firn aquifers are yet to be mapped (Fig. 1).

67

68 Here, we demonstrate the potential for mapping Greenland's perennial firn aquifers from space
69 using satellite L-band microwave radiometry. We use recently released enhanced-resolution L-
70 band T_B image time series collected over the Greenland Ice Sheet by the microwave radiometer



71 aboard the SMAP satellite (Long et al., 2019) together with coincident thermal infrared (TIR) T_B
72 image time series collected by the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS)
73 aboard the Terra and Aqua satellites (Hall et al., 2012) to develop an empirical algorithm to map
74 extent.

75

76 **2 Methods**

77 **2.1 Enhanced-resolution L-band T_B image time series**

78 The SMAP satellite was launched 1 January 2015 and carries a microwave radiometer that
79 operates at a frequency of 1.41 GHz (L-band). It is currently collecting global observations of
80 vertically and horizontally (V- and H-pol, respectively) polarized T_B . The surface incidence angle
81 is $\sim 40^\circ$, the radiometric accuracy is ~ 1.3 K, and the resolution is ~ 40 km.

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83 The microwave radiometer form of the Scatterometer Image Reconstruction (rSIR) algorithm
84 generates T_B on a fine spatial grid using satellite observations (Long et al., 2019). The rSIR
85 algorithm exploits the spatial measurement response function (MRF) for each observation, which
86 is a smeared version of the antenna pattern. Using the overlapping MRFs, the rSIR algorithm
87 reconstructs T_B from the spatially filtered, low-resolution sampling provided by the satellite
88 observations. In effect, it generates an MRF deconvolved T_B image. Combining multiple passes
89 increases the sampling density, which further improves the accuracy and resolution of the rSIR
90 reconstruction.

91

92 Given converging orbital passes in the polar regions, the SMAP satellite passes over Greenland
93 several times each day, and provides nearly complete coverage during two distinct local time-of-
94 day intervals. The rSIR algorithm combines orbital passes that occur between 8 a.m. and 4 p.m.
95 (± 2 hours) local time-of-day to reconstruct twice-daily (morning and evening orbital pass interval,
96 respectively) T_B images. T_B image data are projected on the Equal-Area Scalable Earth Grid
97 (*EASE-Grid 2.0*) (Brodzik et al., 2012) at a 3.125 km grid cell spacing. The effective resolution for
98 each grid cell is dependent on the number of satellite observations used in the reconstruction.

99

100 Fig. 1 shows an MRF deconvolved (3.125 km) T_B image projected on the Northern Hemisphere
101 *EASE-Grid 2.0* over Greenland. The image was reconstructed using H-pol T_B observations
102 collected during the evening orbital pass interval on 15 April 2016, coincident with airborne ice-
103 penetrating radar surveys. The enhanced-resolution image clearly captures many ice sheet



104 features, particularly in the percolation facies where perennial firn aquifer areas have been
105 mapped (Fig. 1a, b).

106

107 Fig. 1 also includes a Phased Array type L-band Synthetic Aperture Radar (ALOS-PALSAR)
108 winter season radar backscatter (σ^0) image mosaic (Joughin et al., 2016). ALOS-PALSAR
109 operates at a frequency of 1.27 GHz. Image data are collected in H-pol transmit and receive mode
110 (HH), with surface incidence angle between 36.4° and 40.8° . As observed by active satellite
111 microwave instruments (i.e., synthetic aperture radar and scatterometry), the percolation facies
112 of ice sheets have long been known to exhibit some of the highest σ^0 magnitudes on Earth (Jezek
113 et al., 1993; Long and Drinkwater, 1994). Refreezing of seasonal meltwater results in the
114 formation of an intricate network of embedded ice structures (i.e., ice pipes, lenses, and layers)
115 that are large relative to these instruments centimeter wavelengths (~ 10 -100 cm long, ~ 10 -20 cm
116 wide) and induce strong volume scattering. The bright white regions of very high (uncalibrated)
117 σ^0 represent Greenland's percolation facies (Fig. 1c, d). During the freezing season, T_B over the
118 percolation facies is inversely related to σ^0 . T_B magnitudes on the Greenland ice sheet are lowest
119 over the percolation facies, with values ranging from ~ 130 K to 230 K (V-pol channel) and ~ 100
120 K to 200 K (H-pol channel).

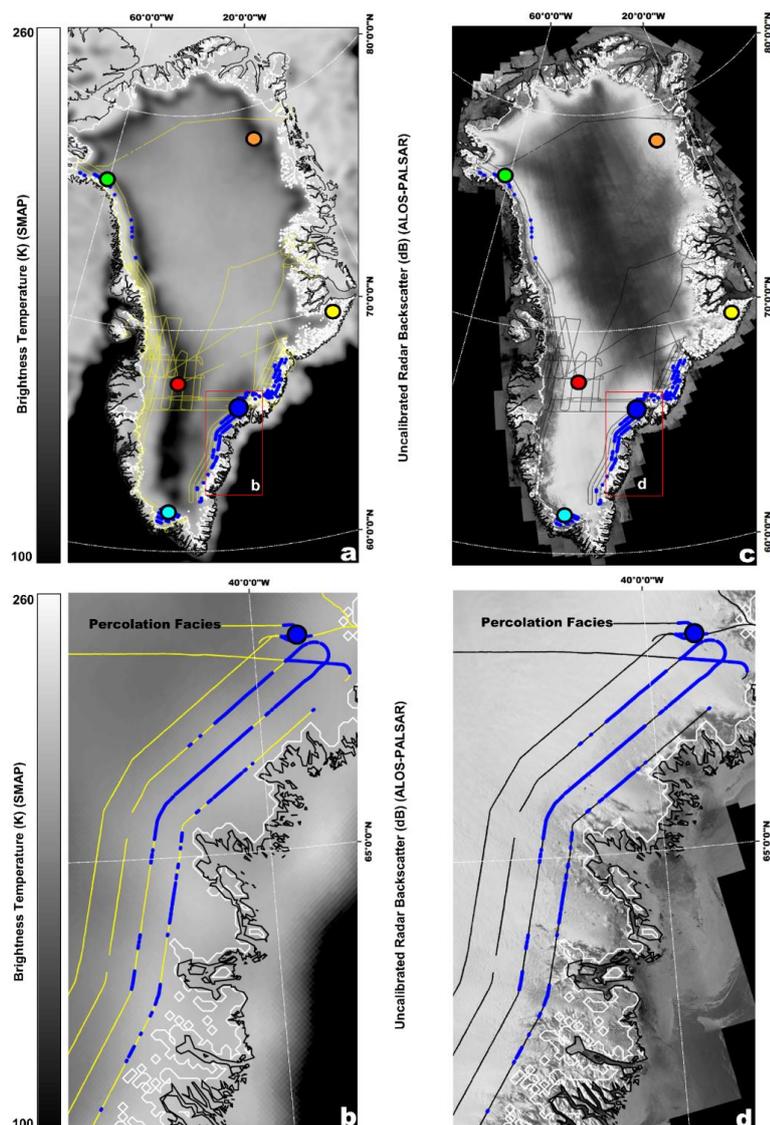
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122 We analyzed SMAP 2015-2016 morning and evening V- and H-pol T_B images together with
123 coincident MODIS 2016 TIR T_B -derived surface meltwater maps (described in section 2.2) in the
124 percolation facies. Although sharp increases in T_B delineate the extent of surface melting and
125 provide a qualitative indication of the volumetric fraction of near-surface meltwater, a distinct
126 subsurface meltwater signal is not easily distinguishable in any of the T_B images during the
127 freezing season.

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129 To discriminate between L-band perennial firn aquifer emissions and background ice sheet
130 emissions, we used image time series analysis. We used the Greenland Ice Mapping Project
131 (GIMP) Land Ice and Ocean Classification Mask (Howat et al., 2014) to construct an ice-masked
132 V- and H-pol T_B image time series that alternates morning and evening orbital pass observations
133 collected between 31 March 2015 (i.e., the beginning of the SMAP data record) and 31 December
134 2016. These image time series provide sufficient detail to analyze spatiotemporal differences in
135 exponentially decreasing L-band T_B signatures over perennial firn aquifer areas as compared to
136 other percolation facies areas where seasonal meltwater is stored as embedded ice.

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Figure 1

(a) Enhanced-resolution (3.125 km) H-pol L-band T_B image collected 15 April 2016 by the microwave radiometer aboard the SMAP satellite during the evening orbital pass interval over Greenland (Long et al., 2019); and (b) high-resolution (100 m) ALOS-PALSAR winter season (April 2009-April 2010) HH σ^0 image mosaic (Joughin et al., 2016). Black regions of low L-band T_B magnitudes and bright white regions of very high (uncalibrated) L-band σ^0 magnitudes are the percolation facies. Zoom areas (red boxes, b and d) are 2016 MCoRDS-derived perennial firn aquifer locations (blue circles) in the southeastern percolation facies along OIB flight lines (yellow and black lines, respectively). Test Site 1 (blue circle); Test Site 2 (cyan circle); Test Site 3 (red circle); Test Site 4 (green circle); Test Site 5 (orange circle); Test Site 6 (yellow circle); GIMP-derived ice extent (white lines, Howat et al., 2014); and coastlines (black lines, Wessel and Smith, 1996). Test Site 1 is a shallow firn core site in southeastern Greenland.



151 **2.2 Thermal infrared T_B -derived surface freeze-up and melt onset dates**

152 The Ice Surface Temperature (IST) algorithm (Hall et al., 2012) retrieves a clear-sky ice surface
153 skin temperature (i.e., temperature at radiative equilibrium) over the Greenland ice sheet accurate
154 within $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ using a split window technique and satellite observations collected by MODIS TIR T_B
155 channels 31 ($10.78\ \mu\text{m}$ – $11.28\ \mu\text{m}$) and 32 ($11.77\ \mu\text{m}$ – $12.27\ \mu\text{m}$) during daily orbital passes that
156 occur between 12 a.m. and 12 p.m. local-time-of-day. The resolution is 0.78 km. For temperatures
157 that are close to 0°C , IST values are closely compatible with contemporaneous NOAA near-
158 surface air temperature data (Shuman et al., 2014). IST data use the standard MODIS 1 km
159 resolution cloud mask ('MOD35') that uses up to 14 spectral bands and multiple spectral and
160 thermal tests to identify clouds.

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162 We projected the IST image data onto the *EASE-Grid 2.0* at a grid cell spacing of 3.125 km, and
163 then used the GIMP mask (Howat et al., 2014) to construct ice-masked IST image time series
164 between 31 March 2015 and 31 December 2016. Using the IST image time series, we retrieved
165 surface meltwater maps for the 2015 and 2016 melting season. We set a threshold of $\text{IST} \geq -1^\circ\text{C}$
166 for surface meltwater detection, consistent with the $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ accuracy of the IST image data (i.e.,
167 surface meltwater is inferred when IST is as low as -1°C). This threshold represents a theoretical
168 penetration depth from $\sim 2\ \mu\text{m}$ beneath the snow. We constructed a 2015 surface meltwater mask
169 by marking each grid cell in which surface meltwater was detected in at least one time step. We
170 estimated the 2015 surface freeze-up date for each grid cell as the time step following the last
171 time step at which surface meltwater was detected. For each grid cell that melted in 2015, we
172 estimated the 2016 melt onset date as the first time step at which surface meltwater was detected.

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174 **2.3 Airborne ice-penetrating radar surveys**

175 In April and May of 2016, the MCoRDS instrument was flown over the Greenland ice sheet and
176 its peripheral ice caps aboard a NOAA P-3 aircraft as part of NASA's OIB campaign. Perennial
177 firn aquifer locations were detected using radar echograms collected by the MCoRDS instrument
178 and the methodology described in Miège et al., (2016). Strong, non-conformal, upper reflectors in
179 radar echograms are interpreted as the upper surface of stored meltwater. The total number of
180 mapped perennial firn aquifer locations is 78,343 (Fig. 1). We projected these perennial firn
181 aquifer locations on the *EASE-Grid 2.0* at a grid cell spacing of 3.125 km. The total number of
182 grid cells with at least one perennial firn aquifer location is 780 corresponding to 7922 km².

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184 **2.4 Algorithm**

185 **2.4.1 L-band perennial firn aquifer signatures**

186 We analyzed V- and H-pol T_B time series over perennial firn aquifer areas identified via airborne
187 ice-penetrating radar surveys. These time series were overlaid with TIR T_B -derived surface
188 freeze-up and melt onset dates to partition the freezing season. Throughout the percolation facies,
189 L-band T_B signatures over perennial firn aquifer areas exhibit relatively slow (i.e., time scales of
190 ~months) exponential decreases that approach or achieve relatively stable magnitudes late in the
191 freezing season. In contrast, L-band T_B signatures over other percolation facies areas where
192 seasonal meltwater is stored as embedded ice, exhibit relatively rapid (time scales of ~weeks to
193 days) exponential decreases, subsequently achieve relatively stable magnitudes early in the
194 freezing season, and remain relatively stable until melt onset the following year. Spatiotemporal
195 differences in exponentially decreasing L-band T_B signatures are used to detect additional
196 perennial firn aquifers locations.

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198 **2.4.2 Continuous logistic model**

199 We seek a simple mathematical relation that can be fit to the exponentially decreasing L-band T_B
200 signatures observed over the percolation facies. The continuous logistic model satisfies this
201 requirement. It is based on a differential equation that models the increase or decrease in many
202 types of physical systems as a set of simple S shaped or 'sigmoidal' curves. These curves begin
203 with an initial interval of increase or decrease that is approximately exponential. Then, as the
204 function approaches its limit, the increase or decrease slows to approximately linear. Finally, as
205 the function asymptotically reaches its limit, the increase or decrease exponentially tails off and
206 achieves stable values. The continuous logistic model is described by a differential equation
207 known as the logistic equation

$$208 \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = \zeta x(1 - x), \quad (1)$$

209 that has the solution

$$210 \quad x(t) = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{x_0} - 1\right)e^{-\zeta t}}, \quad (2)$$

211 where x_0 is the function's initial value, ζ is the function's exponential rate of brightness temperature
212 increase or decrease, and t is time. The function $x(t)$ is also known as the sigmoid function. We
213 use the sigmoid function to model the observed exponentially decreasing T_B signatures as a set
214 of decreasing sigmoidal curves. To simplify the analysis, the T_B time series for each grid cell is
215 first normalized



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$$T_{B,N} = \frac{T_B - T_{min}}{T_{max} - T_{min}}. \quad (3)$$

217 and the sigmoid fit is then applied as

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$$T_{B,N}(t \in [t_{sfu}, t_{mo}]) = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{T_{B,N}(t_{sfu})} - 1\right)e^{-\zeta t}}. \quad (4)$$

219 Here $T_{B,N}(t \in [t_{sfu}, t_{mo}])$ is the normalized brightness temperature during the freezing season on
220 the time interval $t \in [t_{sfu}, t_{mo}]$, where t_{sfu} is the surface freeze-up date, and t_{mo} is the melt onset
221 date. The initial normalized brightness temperature is the function's value at the surface freeze-
222 up date, $T_{B,N}(t_{sfu})$, while the final normalized brightness temperature is the function's value at the
223 melt onset date $T_{B,N}(t_{mo})$. Note that $T_{B,N}(t_{mo})$ can be set by an appropriate selection of the
224 exponential rate of normalized brightness temperature increase or decrease. This parameter is
225 also used to distinguish between perennial firn aquifer areas and percolation facies areas where
226 seasonal meltwater is stored as embedded ice.

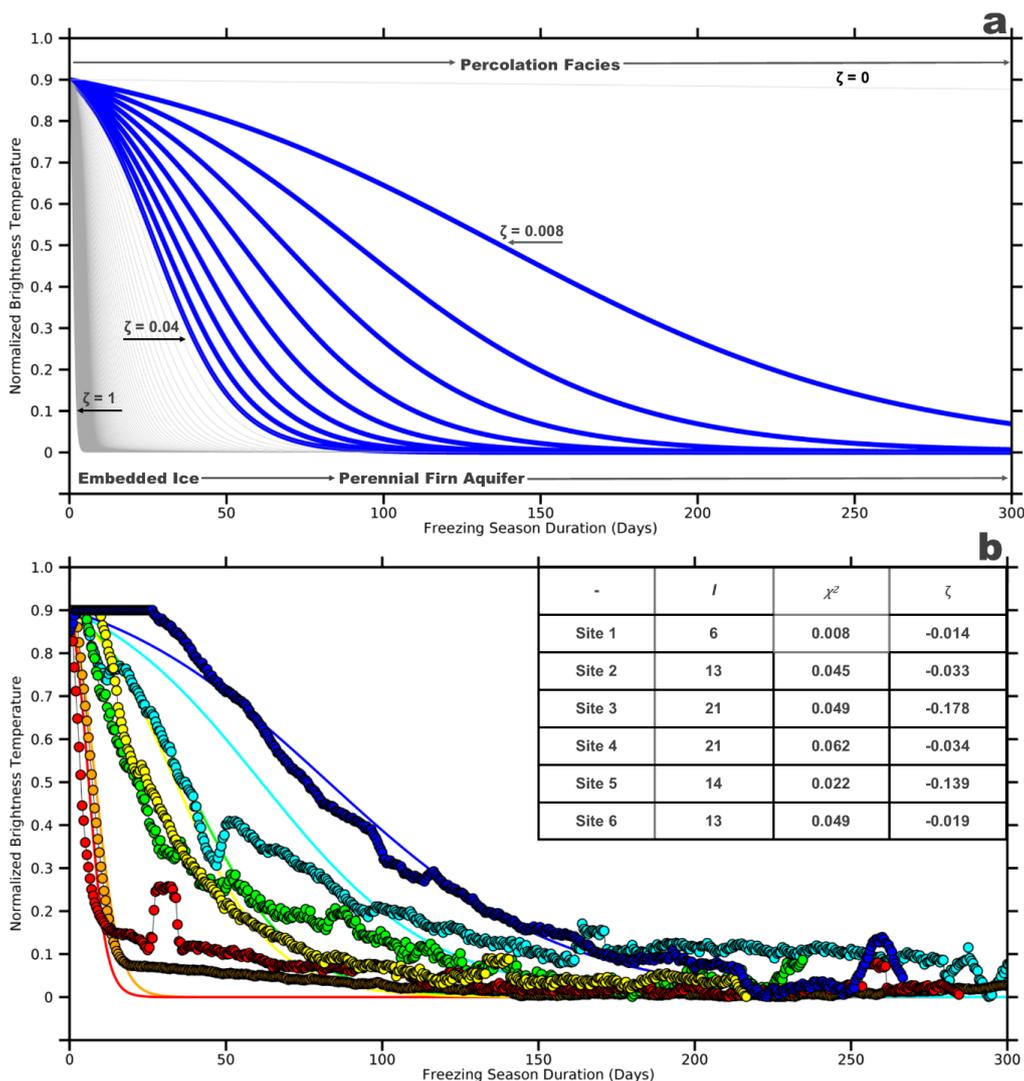
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228 An example set of simulated sigmoidal curves generated using eq. 3 and eq. 4 is shown in Fig.
229 2a. For these simulated curves, the normalized brightness temperature at surface freeze-up is
230 fixed at a value of $T_{B,N}(t_{sfu}) = 0.9$, and the freezing-season duration is set to a value of $t \in [t_{sfu},$
231 $t_{mo}] = 300$ days, which is within the TIR T_B -derived freezing season duration range $t = [178$ days,
232 364 days]. The function's exponential rate of normalized brightness temperature decrease is set
233 to values between $\zeta = [-1, 0]$, incremented by time steps of 0.004. This interval represents our
234 model of exponentially decreasing L-band T_B signatures over Greenland's percolation facies. The
235 blue lines correspond to the interval $\zeta \in [-0.04, -0.008]$, and produce curves similar to those
236 over perennial firn aquifer areas identified via airborne ice-penetrating radar surveys. This interval
237 is used to calibrate the algorithm. The grey lines correspond to the interval $\zeta \in [-1, -0.04)$, and
238 produce curves similar to those over percolation facies areas where seasonal meltwater is stored
239 as embedded ice.

240

241 **2.5 L-band T_B -derived perennial firn aquifer maps**

242 The curve fitting algorithm proceeds by smoothing V-pol T_B time series that have been partitioned
243 by TIR T_B -derived surface freeze-up and melt onset dates, and then iteratively applying the
244 sigmoid fit. The V-pol channel exhibits decreased sensitivity to changes in the volumetric fraction
245 of meltwater attributed to reflection coefficient differences between the instrument's channels.
246 This results in a reduced chi-squared error statistic when fitting V-pol T_B time series to the sigmoid
247 function. Surface freeze-up is fixed at a value of $T_{B,N}(t_{sfu}) = 0.9$. Fixing this parameter provides



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Figure 2

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(a) Example set of simulated sigmoidal curves corresponding to the interval $\zeta \in [-1, 0]$ which

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represents our model of exponentially decreasing L-band T_B signatures over Greenland's

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percolation facies. Blue lines correspond to the calibration interval $\zeta \in [-0.04, -0.008]$ used to

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map Greenland's perennial firn aquifers; grey lines correspond to the interval $\zeta \in [-1, -0.04]$

254

which represents percolation facies areas where seasonal meltwater is stored as embedded ice.

255

(b) Examples of T_B time series over Test Sites 1-6 that have been iteratively fit to the sigmoid

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function using the curve fitting algorithm. Test Site 1 (blue circles and line); Test Site 2 (cyan

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circles and line); Test Site 3 (red circles and line); Test Site 4 (green circles and line); Test Site 5

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(orange circles and line); Test Site 6 (yellow circles and line); associated curve fitting parameters

259

(i.e., l , χ^2 , ζ)(upper right table).

260



261 a uniform parameter space in which we could simply analyze the exponential rate of normalized
262 brightness temperature decrease. Although several fixed parameters were tested, this value
263 minimized the influence of meltwater detection (i.e., sharp increases in T_B time series) resulting
264 from observational gaps and cloud contamination in the surface freeze-up dates, and provided
265 more robust curve fitting. If the exponential rate of normalized brightness temperature decrease
266 is within the calibration interval, it is converted to a simple binary mapping parameter. T_B time
267 series iteratively fit to the sigmoid function converge quickly (i.e., algorithm iterations $I \in [1, 10]$),
268 and satellite observations are a good fit (i.e., chi squared error statistic is $\chi^2 \in [0, 0.06]$),
269 indicating our algorithm provides a plausible satellite-derived map of the extent of Greenland's
270 perennial firn aquifers.

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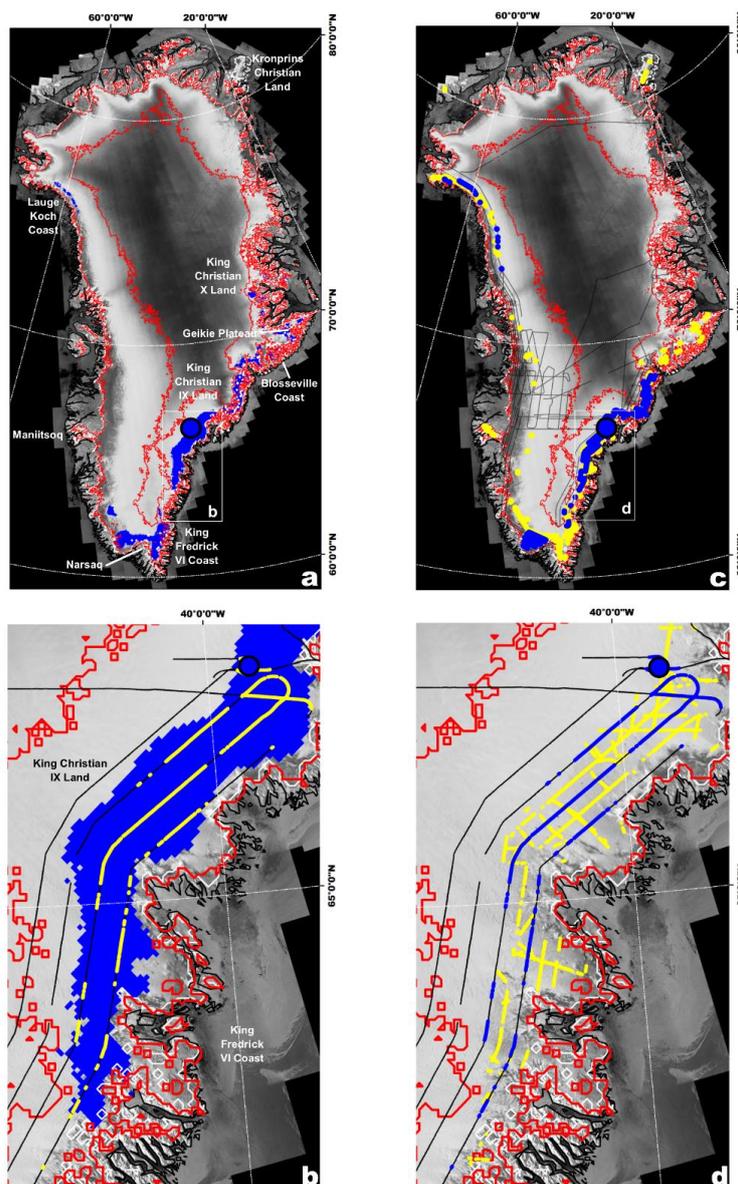
272 Fig. 2b illustrates examples of T_B time series over Test Sites 1-6 (Fig. 1) that have been iteratively
273 fit to the sigmoid function using the curve fitting algorithm. Test Sites 1-4 (blue, teal, yellow, and
274 green, circles and lines) are examples of the relatively slowly exponentially decreasing L-band T_B
275 signatures exhibited over perennial firn aquifers areas. A shallow firn core site in southeastern
276 Greenland where meltwater was found stored at depths of 10 m and 25 m throughout the freezing
277 season (Forster et al., 2014) is within the Test Site 1 (blue circles and line) grid cell (Fig. 1b). Test
278 Sites 4 and 5 (orange and red circles and lines) are examples of the relatively rapidly exponentially
279 decreasing L-band T_B signatures exhibited over other percolation facies areas. The associated
280 curve fitting parameters (i.e., I , χ^2 , ζ) for each of the Test Sites are given in the upper right table.

281

282 **3 Results**

283 Fig. 3a shows maps generated by the curve fitting algorithm over the Greenland ice sheet and its
284 peripheral ice caps. The GIMP-derived ice extent ($\sim 1.8 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$) is delineated via the peripheral
285 white line. During the 2015 melting season, the seasonal TIR T_B -derived surface meltwater extent
286 ($\sim 1.0 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$) is delineated via the red lines, and extends over $\sim 57\%$ of the total ice extent.
287 During the spring of 2016, the L-band T_B -derived perennial firn aquifer extent ($66,000 \text{ km}^2$) is
288 mapped in blue, and extends over $\sim 7\%$ of the seasonal surface meltwater extent, and $\sim 4\%$ of the
289 total ice extent. Previously unknown perennial firn aquifer areas are mapped in northwestern
290 Greenland along the Lauge Koch Coast, in southern Greenland near Narsaq, in southeastern
291 Greenland along the King Frederick VI Coast and in King Christian IX's Land (Fig. 3b), and in
292 central east Greenland along the Blossville Coast, on the Geike Plateau, and in King Christians
293 X's Land.

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Figure 3

(a) 2015-2016 SMAP L-band T_B -derived extent of Greenland's perennial firn aquifers (blue shading) overlaid on a high-resolution (100 m) ALOS-PALSAR winter season (April 2009-April 2010) $HH \sigma^0$ image mosaic (Joughin et al., 2016); (b) MCoRDS- (blue circles) and Accumulation Radar-derived (yellow circles, Miège et al., 2016) perennial firn aquifer locations along OIB flight lines (black lines); Zoom areas (white boxes, b and d) are 2016 MCoRDS- (yellow and blue circles, respectively) and Accumulation Radar-derived (yellow circles, Miège et al., 2016) perennial firn aquifer locations in the southeastern percolation facies; MODIS TIR T_B -derived surface meltwater extent (red line); and coastlines (black lines, Wessel and Smith, 1996).



305 Fig. 3c shows airborne ice penetrating radar surveys. The blue circles are 2016 MCoRDS-derived
306 perennial firn aquifer areas. The black lines are NASA's 2016 OIB campaign flight lines. The
307 yellow circles are 2010-2014 Accumulation Radar-derived perennial firn aquifer locations (Miège
308 et al., 2016). The 2016 L-band T_B -derived perennial firn aquifer extent is consistent with the 2016
309 MCoRDS-derived locations. Exceptions include scattered locations near the ice extent edge (Fig.
310 3d) and along the upper perennial firn aquifer boundary (Fig. 3b). L-band ice sheet emissions are
311 likely mixed in these grid cells. Near the ice extent edge, perennial firn aquifer emissions are
312 influenced by morphological features, such crevasses and exposed glacial ice, and mix with
313 emissions from rock, land, and the ocean. Along the upper perennial firn aquifer boundary,
314 emissions are mixed with emissions from adjacent percolation facies areas where seasonal
315 meltwater is stored as embedded ice. The 2016 perennial firn aquifer extent is also consistent
316 with 2010-2014 Accumulation Radar-derived perennial firn aquifer locations, indicating that they
317 are multi-year ice sheet features in these areas. Exceptions include small, isolated locations in
318 northwestern, southwestern, and southern Greenland, the Maniitsoq Ice Cap, and scattered
319 locations near the ice extent edge and along the upper perennial firn aquifer boundary. Locations
320 near the ice extent edge possibly drained into crevasses, or were refrozen as superimposed ice.
321

322 **4 Summary and future work**

323 Our results indicate satellite L-band microwave radiometry is an effective tool for mapping the
324 extent of Greenland's perennial firn aquifers. We have derived an empirical algorithm by analyzing
325 spatiotemporal differences in exponentially decreasing T_B signatures over the percolation facies.
326 We have found that by correlating exponentially decreasing T_B signatures with perennial firn
327 aquifer areas identified via airborne ice-penetrating radar surveys that this algorithm can be
328 effectively calibrated.
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330 While in this study we converted the exponential rate of T_B decrease to a simple binary mapping
331 parameter and normalized T_B time series, an improved understanding of the physics controlling
332 L-band perennial firn aquifer emissions is critical for the development of more sophisticated
333 retrieval techniques to map other parameters, such as physical temperature (Jezek et al., 2015)
334 and depth to the upper surface of stored meltwater. Depth is a key control on meltwater-driven
335 hydrofracture (van der Veen, 2007) and thus, the retrieval of this parameter from space has
336 important implications for monitoring ice sheet-wide instability and ongoing mass loss.
337



338 Perennial firn aquifers represent a radiometrically cold subsurface reservoir, similar to subglacial
339 lakes, as suggested by Jezek et al., (2015). Field measurements suggest that the volumetric
340 fraction of meltwater within Greenland's perennial firn aquifers may be as high as ~25% (Koenig
341 et al., 2014), resulting in high permittivity ($\epsilon_r \approx 9 + 1j$) which limits the transmission of
342 electromagnetic radiation (~10%). Upwelling emissions from deeper glacial ice, and from below
343 the upper surface of stored meltwater, are extinguished by reflection at water-saturated layer
344 interfaces. While radiometrically cold, the slow refreezing of deeper firn layers saturated with large
345 volumetric fractions of meltwater represents a significant source of latent heat that is continuously
346 released throughout the freezing season. Refreezing of seasonal meltwater by the descending
347 winter cold wave, and the subsequent formation of embedded ice structures within the upper firn
348 layers, represents a secondary source of latent heat. Perennial firn aquifer areas are physically,
349 and thus radiometrically, warmer than other percolation facies areas where the single source of
350 latent heat is via refreezing of seasonal meltwater, and the formation of embedded ice structures.
351

352 We hypothesize the key control on the relatively slow exponential rate of T_B decrease in perennial
353 firn aquifer areas is physical temperature at depth. Emissions from radiometrically warm firn layers
354 are decreased over time as embedded ice structures slowly refreeze at increased depths below
355 the ice sheet surface and induce strong volume scattering. Simulating the exponential rate of T_B
356 decrease and the associated changes in T_B magnitudes over perennial firn aquifer areas by
357 combining electromagnetic forward models that include embedded ice structure parametrizations
358 (Jezek et al., 2018) with plausible models of depth dependent physical properties can test this
359 hypothesis and is the focus of ongoing studies. Of particular interest is understanding the
360 relationship between the exponential rate of T_B decrease, and changes in the depth to the upper
361 surface of stored meltwater over time.



Data availability.

Enhanced-resolution L-band T_B image time series have been produced as part of the NASA Science Utilization of SMAP project and are available at <https://doi.org/10.5067/QZ3WJNOUZLFK>. IST image time series have been produced as part of the Multilayer Greenland Ice Surface Temperature, Surface Albedo, and Water Vapor from MODIS V001 data set and are available at <https://doi.org/10.5067/7THUWT9NMPDK>. The NASA MEaSURE's Greenland Ice Mapping Project (GIMP) Land Ice and Ocean Classification Mask, Version 1 is available at <https://doi.org/10.5067/B8X58MQBFUPA>. The NASA MEaSUREs ALOS-PALSAR winter season radar backscatter (σ^0) image mosaic is available at <https://doi.org/10.5067/6187DQUL3FR5>. The coastline data is available from GSHHG - A Global Self-consistent, Hierarchical, High-resolution Geography Database <http://marine.gov.scot/data/gshhg-global-self-consistent-hierarchical-high-resolution-geography-database>.

Author contributions.

JZM initiated the study, performed the analyses, and wrote the manuscript. DGL and MJB generated the enhanced-resolution L-band T_B image time series. JZM and DGL developed the empirical algorithm. CAS provided perspective on the IST data. KCJ and JZM imagined the emissions concept. All authors reviewed and commented on manuscript drafts.

Competing interests.

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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