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1 A bio-optical model for integration into ecosystem models for the Ligurian

2 **Sea**

3

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- 14
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18 Abstract:

A bio-optical model has been developed for the Ligurian Sea which encompasses both deep,
oceanic Case 1 waters and shallow, coastal Case 2 waters. The model builds on earlier Case 1
models for the region and uses field data collected on the BP09 research cruise to establish new
relationships for non-biogenic particles and CDOM. The bio-optical model reproduces *in situ*IOPs accurately and is used to parameterize radiative transfer simulations which demonstrate
its utility for modeling underwater light levels and above surface remote sensing reflectance.
Prediction of euphotic depth is found to be accurate to within ~3.2 m (RMSE). Previously

published light field models work well for deep oceanic parts of the Ligurian Sea that fit the
Case 1 classification. However, they are found to significantly over-estimate euphotic depth in
optically complex coastal waters where the influence of non-biogenic materials is strongest.
For these coastal waters, the combination of the bio-optical model proposed here and full
radiative transfer simulations provides significantly more accurate predictions of euphotic
depth.

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 The temporal and spatial variability of oceanic optical properties are fundamental to 35 many biogeochemical processes in the sea (Dickey and Falkowski 2002). Underwater light 36 fields regulate photosynthesis, contribute to solar heating and determine remotely sensed ocean 37 colour signals. In recent years it has become increasingly apparent that coupled physical-38 ecosystem models require appropriate representation of the underwater light field, particularly 39 in the context of using ocean colour remote sensing data for assimilation and validation 40 (Rothstein et al. 2006, Dickey et al. 2006, Fujii et al. 2007). Advances in computing power 41 and availability of fast and accurate radiative transfer models (e.g. Ecolight, Sequoia Scientific) 42 offer the potential to incorporate comprehensive light field models into aquatic ecosystem 43 models, with the promise of significant improvements in the prediction of biogeochemical and 44 physical properties (Mobley et al. 2015).

Early attempts to integrate light field models into coupled ecosystem models tended to use very basic approaches to modeling the underwater light field. For example, Beşiktepe *et al.* (2003) used chlorophyll concentration (*Chl*) and the Lambert-Beer law to obtain attenuation coefficients and from this estimated underwater light fields. Penta et al. (2008 and 2009) adapted the innovative method of Lee et al. (2005) to obtain underwater light attenuation for marine ecosystem models. Recent studies have adopted more sophisticated approaches to

51 model underwater light fields (e.g. Fujii et al. 2007, Shulman et al. 2013, Ciavatta et al. 2014). 52 Future efforts, incorporating full solution of the radiative transfer equation, will require 53 parameterization with a complete set of inherent optical properties, *IOPs* (Trees et al. 2009). 54 Moreover, there will be a need to relate these IOPs to relevant ecosystem model currencies in 55 order to track evolution of the light field in time and space with changes in physical and 56 biogeochemical properties of the system. Considerable effort has already gone into the 57 development of bio-optical models for different natural water systems (Prieur and 58 Sathvendranath 1981, Gordon and Morel 1981, Morel 1988, Bricaud et al. 1995, Bricaud et al. 59 1998, Loisel and Morel 1998, Morel and Maritorena 2001, Velluci 2007, and Morel 2009).

60 Most bio-optical models are constructed using optically significant constituents (OSC) 61 as currency terms, with typical components such as: phytoplankton, detrital or non-algal 62 particles and coloured dissolved organic material (CDOM). Even such a simple scheme 63 presents difficulties in terms of relating optical variables to parameters that can be included in 64 an ecosystem model currency scheme. Phytoplankton is the least awkward component, usually 65 being represented by chlorophyll concentration as a proxy currency. The remainder of the particle population is much harder to define. In oceanic systems, operating under the Case 1 66 definition, other particles may be assumed to be derived from the phytoplankton population, 67 68 e.g. detrital particles and associated bacterial populations, and these might also be related to 69 *Chl.* However, in shallow coastal waters there is also the potential for significant populations 70 of non-biogenic particles from terrigenous sources or from benthic resuspension. These 71 particles are unlikely to be related to *Chl* and must, instead, be represented by some measure 72 of total suspended solid concentration (TSS). However, given the contribution from phytoplankton and associated biogenic materials to TSS, there is an *a priori* requirement for 73 74 consideration of further refinement of this parameterization to account for the complex nature 75 of the particle population. CDOM is also problematic when considering Case 1 versus Case 2

scenarios. Under the Case 1 approach, *CDOM* is assumed to be a product of algal-related
biological activity and has been successfully related to *Chl* for oceanic waters (Prieur &
Sathyendranath 1981, Bricaud *et al.* 1998). However, coastal areas subject to riverine inputs
will present *CDOM* signals that are unrelated to *Chl*. Here there are grounds for investigating
the potential of relating *CDOM* signals to salinity given the association with freshwater inputs
(e.g. Bowers *et al.* 2008 and references therein).

82 The study area for this paper is the Ligurian Sea, which is located in the northwestern 83 part of the Mediterranean Sea between southeast France, northwest Italy and the island of 84 Corsica (Figure 1). This is an area which has been extensively studied previously with well-85 established circulation patterns, e.g. Astraldi & Gasparini (1992). Cyclonic circulation in the 86 Ligurian Sea leads to the formation of three distinct hydrological zones; a thermal front (frontal 87 zone) which separates less dense warm coastal peripheral water (coastal zone) from denser cold 88 offshore water (central zone) (Picco et al. 2010 and references therein). These structures are 89 permanent but show some seasonal and interannual variability (Astraldi et al. 1990, Picco et 90 al. 2010). The upper layer of the Ligurian Sea has seasonal differences in nutrient ratios with 91 changes from nitrate limitation in winter to phosphate limitation in summer due to seasonal 92 hydrological regime variations (Marty et al. 2002). Nutrient availability is controlled by 93 vertical mixing and determines the timing of algal blooms. Winter mixing leads to the 94 formation of a winter – early spring bloom while a second bloom in April – May depends on 95 subsequent mixing events (Raick et al. 2005).

The aim of this study is to develop and test a bio-optical model for the Ligurian Sea, which uses *Chl*, *TSS* and *Salinity* as the currency exchange with an ecosystem model, based upon derivation of appropriate mass-specific inherent optical properties with different versions for deep offshore waters and shallow, optically complex coastal waters. This is an important step for establishing a conceptual framework to integrate a robust bio-optical model into future coupled physical-ecosystem models for this region. The choice of *OSC* currency parameters
(*Chl*, *TSS* and *Salinity*) reflects parameters that could be obtained both from autonomous *in situ*sensor systems and from ecosystem model outputs. *Chl* and *TSS* may also be derived from
ocean colour remote sensing, whilst salinity can be obtained from microwave remote sensing
e.g. Aquarius and SMOS (Klemas 2011).



Figure 1. (a) Study area and (b) location of offshore (circles) and onshore (squares)
stations for the BP09 cruise. (c) MODIS standard *Chl* from 18th March 2009 shows a bloom in
the central region of the Ligurian Sea, northwest of Corsica. The high intensity "bloom" on the
Italian coast is actually a sediment plume from the River Arno, which is clearly identified from
(d) MODIS *nLw667* from the same date.

114

2. Material and Methods

115 **2.1 Data**

The data used in this study were collected during the BP09 Cruise between March 13th 116 and 26th 2009 in the Ligurian Sea on board *NR/V Alliance*. Figure 1 shows the locations of the 117 118 sampling stations. Stations can be classified into two groups; onshore and offshore. The 119 onshore group includes stations located on the coastal shelf and along transects perpendicular 120 to the coast. A number of these stations were impacted significantly by terrigenous materials 121 from the River Arno plume. The offshore group includes stations located in the Ligurian-122 Provencal Basin and represent deep, clear oceanic waters that are separated from the coastal 123 zone by a permanent thermal front.

Hydrographic measurements were made using a Seabird SBE 9 CTD system equipped with temperature, conductivity, fluorescence and turbidity sensors. Fluorescence data were calibrated using chlorophyll-*a* concentrations from HPLC measurements, while turbidity data were calibrated using total suspended solids measurements. These were used to generate proxy profiles of *Chl* and *TSS* subsequently used in modelling efforts.

129 Chlorophyll concentration was measured using standard HPLC measurements on 130 samples filtered through GF/F filters, stored in liquid nitrogen and transported to laboratories 131 for later analysis. *Chl* data presented here were collected by colleagues from Management Unit 132 of the North Sea Mathematical Models (MUMM). Triplicate HPLC samples were analyzed by 133 the Marine Chemistry Laboratory of the MUMM using a reversed phase, acetone-based method 134 with a C18 column and a Jasco FP-1520 fluorescence detector. In this paper *Chl* refers to the 135 chlorophyll *a* concentration and does not include contributions from other pigments.

Total suspended solids concentrations (*TSS*) were obtained by colleagues from MUMM by filtering samples through pre-ashed, rinsed and pre-weighed 47mm GF/F filters. Samples were rinsed with several aliquots of ultrapure water, taking care to rinse the edge of the filter to minimize salt retention. Filters were stored frozen and returned to the lab where they weredried and reweighed.

141 The absorption of all dissolved and suspended components minus water was measured 142 using a Point Source Integrating Cavity Absorption Meter (PSICAM) (Röttgers et al. 2005, 143 2007; Röttgers & Doerffer 2007). This instrument has previously been extensively validated 144 and has been shown to provide high accuracy $(\pm 2 \%)$ absorption coefficients across a wide 145 range of water conditions. A 1 m liquid waveguide capillary cell (LWCC) with an Ocean Optics 146 USB2000 mini-spectrometer was used to measure absorption by CDOM. This instrument is 147 somewhat faster to operate than the PSICAM and provides noise range of $\pm 0.0001 \text{ m}^{-1}$ (95%) 148 Prediction Interval) at 532 nm. In both cases, measurements were made against fresh Milli-Q 149 references and all samples were corrected for the effects of salinity and temperature on water 150 absorption (Röttgers & Doerffer 2007). From this pair of measurements particulate absorption, 151 $a_p(\lambda)$, was derived by subtraction of CDOM absorption, a_{CDOM} , from PSICAM non-water 152 absorption, *a_{PSICAM}*.

153 Particulate optical density (OD_p) was measured on freshly filtered samples using a 154 Shimadzu UV-2501 PC dual beam spectrophotometer. Between 1 and 2 litres of sample were 155 filtered through a 25 mm GF/F filter with nominal 0.7 µm retention limit which was mounted 156 directly against the exit port of the spectrophotometer sample chamber. An unused GF/F filter, 157 wetted with 0.2 µm filtered seawater from the same station, was used as a reference sample 158 and mounted on the reference port of the spectrophotometer. After measuring particulate 159 optical density, the sample filter was exposed to a dilute sodium hypochlorite solution until 160 visual loss of pigmentation occurred. The bleached filter pad was rinsed with 0.2 µm filtered 161 seawater before being returned to the sample detector and a further scan for detrital optical 162 density (OD_{det}) was completed. Detrital absorption spectra were visually examined to ensure that all pigment features, including phycobiliproteins, were removed. The sample was re-bleached and re-scanned if necessary. The absorption coefficient is obtained from

165
$$a_{p}(\lambda) = 2.303 \frac{A_{fp}OD_{p}(\lambda)}{V_{v}\beta}$$
(1),

where A_{fp} is the exposed area of the filter pad, V_f is the volume of sample filtered and β is the 166 167 pathlength amplification factor. Filter pad absorption spectra were initially baseline corrected at 750 nm (Cleveland and Weidemann 1993). Equation (1) can be rewritten for detrital 168 169 absorption a_{det} by replacing OD_p with OD_{det} . Samples were corrected for pathlength 170 amplification using a novel procedure described in detail in McKee et al. (2014). This approach 171 uses linear regression of filter pad absorption against particulate absorption obtained by 172 subtracting CDOM absorption from total non-water absorption measured by the PSICAM to 173 provide both the pathlength amplification factor and offset correction for each sample. These 174 values were then also used to correct bleached filter pad absorption measurements giving *a*_{det}, with phytoplankton absorption coefficients, a_{ph} , finally obtained by subtracting detrital 175 176 absorption from total particulate absorption.

177 In situ absorption and attenuation measurements were made with an AC-9 absorption 178 and attenuation meter (WET Labs Inc.) with a 25 cm path-length operating at 412, 440, 510, 179 532, 555, 650, 676 and 715 nm. AC-9 measurements were calibrated during the cruise with 180 ultrapure water (Milli-Q, Millipore) and the salinity and temperature dependence of pure water 181 were corrected in all samples (Pegau et al. 1997) using data from a Seabird SBE 19 plus CTD. 182 The proportional correction by Zaneveld et al. (1994) was used to correct AC-9 absorption 183 data for scattering collection errors. In situ backscattering measurements were made with a 184 BB9 backscattering meter (WET Labs Inc.) operating at 412, 440, 510, 532, 595, 660, 676, 715 185 nm. BB9 data were linearly interpolated where necessary to match AC-9 wavelengths and were 186 corrected for temperature, salinity and path length absorption effects in line with the manufacturer's instructions. The AC-9 and BB9 were deployed simultaneously, measuring 187

188 IOPs from the surface to the maximum depth possible in shallow stations or down to a189 maximum of 100 m for deeper stations.

190 Radiometric data were collected using a Hyperpro II (Satlantic Inc.) free-falling profiler 191 configured with hyper-spectral radiometric sensors measuring downwelling irradiance (E_d) and 192 upwelling radiance (L_u) , with a reference above-surface irradiance (E_s) sensor mounted at an 193 elevated point where the ship's superstructure had minimal effect. The profiling radiometer 194 was deployed in a multicast mode to sample the surface layer repeatedly at each station 195 enabling optimal calculation of light field parameters in the top 10 m (Zibordi *et al.* 2011). In 196 addition, where possible, a deep radiometer cast was collected enabling observation of light 197 penetration below the surface layer. A data processing routine was developed to correct for 198 changes in solar elevation during the cast sequence and to minimize the impact of surface 199 effects (based on Sanjuan Calzado et al. 2011).

200 Underwater light fields were modeled using EcoLight 5.0 (Mobley, Sequoia Scientific) 201 running with IOPs derived from the bio-optical model developed below and Fournier – Forand 202 scattering phase functions generated from particulate backscattering ratio $(b_{bp}(\lambda)/b_p(\lambda))$ 203 following Mobley et al. (2002). Output wavelengths and depths were chosen to match AC-9 204 wavelengths and measured above surface downwards irradiance data were used to set boundary 205 conditions. Raman scattering by water was included in simulations, but due to uncertainty in 206 selection of appropriate quantum yield values, fluorescence contributions from CDOM and 207 phytoplankton were not included in simulations (see Lefering et al. 2016 for detailed 208 information).

MERIS above surface remote sensing reflectance data were processed using the Case 2 Region (C2R) algorithm module (Doerffer & Schiller 2007), in Beam-VISAT software (Brockmann Consult). *In situ* data were matched to the geographically closest image pixel for cloud-free images with a maximum one-day shift, before or after.

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2.2 Bio-optical model development

The Ligurian Sea contains deep, open ocean waters that are broadly consistent with the Case 1 classification where *OSC* are associated with algal production. For these waters it is relatively simple to establish a fairly standard Case 1 bio-optical model with the following form:

219 <u>Case 1 IOP model:</u>

$$a(\lambda) = a_w(\lambda) + a_{ph}(\lambda) + a_{bio}a_{nap}(\lambda) + bio}a_{cdom}(\lambda)$$
(2)

221
$$b(\lambda) = b_w(\lambda) +_{bio} b_p(\lambda)$$
(3)

222
$$b_b(\lambda) = b_{bw}(\lambda) + b_{bio}b_{bp}(\lambda)$$
(4),

223 where $a(\lambda)$, $b(\lambda)$, and $b_b(\lambda)$ are spectral absorption, scattering and backscattering coefficients. Subscripts w, ph, nap and CDOM refer to water, phytoplankton, non-algal particles and 224 225 coloured dissolved organic material, while the subscript *p* refers to particles. The subscript *bio* 226 has been introduced to emphasise that the Case 1 assumption implies that NAP absorption, 227 CDOM absorption and particulate scattering and backscattering are all assumed to be biogenic 228 in origin and will subsequently be related to the phytoplankton (*Chl*) concentration. Note that 229 the biogenic scattering and backscattering components include all particles present in these 230 waters i.e. phytoplankton and any other associated particles such as biogenic detritus.

Coastal waters of the Ligurian Sea are subject to inputs of terrigenous materials from freshwater inflows and resuspension of benthic materials in shallow waters. The following Case 2 bio-optical model is intended to reflect the more complex *OSC* composition of these waters.

235 <u>Case 2 IOP model:</u>

236
$$a(\lambda) = a_w(\lambda) + a_{ph}(\lambda) + {}_{bio}a_{nap}(\lambda) + {}_{nonbio}a_{nap}(\lambda) + {}_{bio}a_{CDOM}(\lambda) + {}_{nonbio}a_{CDOM}(\lambda)$$
(5)

237
$$b(\lambda) = b_w(\lambda) +_{bio} b_p(\lambda) +_{nonbio} b_p(\lambda)$$
(6)

$$b_b(\lambda) = b_{bw}(\lambda) +_{bio} b_{bp}(\lambda) +_{nonbid} b_{bp}(\lambda)$$
(7).

The Case 2 absorption model builds on the Case 1 version by adding nonbiogenic (*nonbio*) NAP particles, effectively an independent sediment fraction, and non-biogenic CDOM absorption, which is intended to reflect freshwater sources of CDOM. Case 2 scattering and backscattering models include additional non-biogenic components, again reflecting contributions, e.g. sediment resuspension, that are independent of the phytoplankton population.

245 The next step in the model development is to relate each non-water partial IOP to a 246 relevant ecosystem model currency parameter. For the Case 1 model, the relevant ecosystem 247 model currency is Chl. There is a wealth of literature on potential Case 1 relationships from 248 which the following were selected having been found to provide reasonable fits with the 249 offshore section of the BP09 data and the global NOMAD data set (Werdell & Bailey 2005). 250 For example, Figure 2 shows the relationship between two wavelengths of phytoplankton 251 absorption and *Chl* and with corresponding modelled values from Bricaud *et al.* (1995) and a 252 more recent parameterisation of the same model by Vellucci, (2007). In this case the Vellucci 253 parameterisation was chosen and has the form

254

$$a_{ph}(\lambda) = A(\lambda)Chl^{B(\lambda)}$$
(8)

Absorption by what is assumed here to be biogenic non-algal particles follows Bricaud *et al.*(1998) and is given by

257
$$_{bio}a_{nap}(440) = 0.0124Chl^{0.724}$$
(9)

with the spectral dependence given by

259
$$a_{nap}(\lambda) =_{bio} a_{nap}(440) \exp[-0.011(\lambda - 440)]$$
 (10).

260 CDOM absorption for Case 1 waters is estimated from Prieur & Sathyendranath (1981)

261
$${}_{bio}a_{CDOM}(440) = 0.2[a_w(440) + 0.06Chl^{0.65}]$$
(11)

and the spectral dependency of CDOM absorption is given by Babin *et al.* (2003)

263
$$a_{CDOM}(\lambda) = a_{CDOM}(440) \exp[-0.017(\lambda - 440)]$$
 (12).

264 Particulate scattering and backscattering for Case 1 waters are derived from Velluci (2007)

265
$$b_{bio}b_p(\lambda) = 0.22[Chl]^{0.612}(555/(\lambda))$$
 (13)

266 and

267
$${}_{bio}b_{bp}(\lambda) = A(\lambda)Chl^{B(\lambda)}$$
(14)

with $A(\lambda)$ and $B(\lambda)$ coefficients given in Table 5.8 in Velluci (2007). Regression coefficients for modelled *vs* measured IOPs in Case 1 waters are provided in Table 1.

These Case 1 relationships are assumed to hold for the biogenic material found in Case 271 2 waters. What follows now is an attempt to obtain models for nonbiogenic particulate 272 absorption, scattering and backscattering. In Case 1 waters, *TSS* is assumed to consist of 273 biogenic particles only. A simple regression forced through zero for offshore stations between 274 *TSS* and *Chl* (Figure 4a, R^2 =0.29) gives biogenic *TSS* per unit *Chl*:

275
$$TSS_{bio} = 0.285Chl$$
 (15).

Eq.16 can be used to estimate the biogenic component of *TSS* in Case 2 waters, with the nonbiogenic *TSS* obtained by subtraction:

$$TSS_{nonbio} = TSS_{Case2} - TSS_{bio}$$
(16).



280

Figure 2. Relationship between a_{ph} and *Chl* at (a) 440 nm and (b) at 676 nm for the NOMAD and Ligurian Sea data sets. The Vellucci (2007) parameterization of the Bricaud *et al.* (1995) model provides an excellent fit to the NOMAD data set over the full spectral range.

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Whilst it is possible to experimentally partition TSS into combustible and non-combustible components, these do not necessarily provide helpful measures for this type of modelling as, for example, the presence of diatom frustules in the non-combustible component potentially breaches the biogenic vs. nonbiogenic partitioning. The TSS partitioning approach presented here is admittedly a little crude, but has the merit of maintaining consistency with the overall model development strategy. For Case 2 waters, the absorption by nonbiogenic particles is obtained by subtracting $_{bio}a_{nap}$ obtained using Eqs. 10 and 11 from measured a_{det} . Likewise, nonbiogenic scattering and backscattering are obtained by subtracting $_{bio}b_p$ and $_{bio}b_{bp}$ obtained from Eqs. 14 and 15 from observed b_p and b_{bp} for Case 2 stations. Best-fit power law regression of these nonbiogenic partial IOPs against *TSS*_{nonbio} (Figure 3) gives relationships of the form:

295
$${}_{nonbio}a_{nap}(\lambda) = A_1(\lambda)TSS^{B_1(\lambda)}_{nonbio}$$
(17)

296
$${}_{nonbio}b_p(\lambda) = A_2(\lambda)TSS^{B_2(\lambda)}_{nonbio}$$
(18)

297
$${}_{nonbio}b_{bp}(\lambda) = A_3(\lambda)TSS^{B_3(\lambda)}_{nonbio}$$
(19).

298 $A_i(\lambda)$ and $B_i(\lambda)$ coefficients for these relationships and their regression coefficients are provided 299 in Table 1.



Figure 3. Non-biogenic components of (a) non-algal particulate absorption, (b) particulate
scattering and (c) particulate backscattering, all at 440 nm plotted against the non-biogenic
component of TSS. Spectrally resolved best-fit parameters are given in Table 1.

305 The final component of the bio-optical model is non-biogenic CDOM absorption, i.e. 306 absorption associated with freshwater inputs into the Ligurian Sea that are not associated with 307 algal properties. Figure 4b shows a global relationship between CDOM absorption and salinity 308 from the NOMAD data set. Low salinity values are associated with regions of stronger 309 freshwater input with higher levels of CDOM absorption. The Mediterranean Sea has very 310 restricted exchange with the global ocean and evaporation rates exceed freshwater inputs 311 leading to unusually high salinity levels, as seen in the relatively high values for the BP09 data 312 included in Figure 4b. As a result, a small offset was added to the global salinity - CDOM 313 relationship for operation in the relatively high salinity waters of the Mediterranean Sea, giving $a_{CDOM}(440) = 0.73 - 0.018 \times Salinity$ 314 (20).315 This nonbiogenic component of CDOM absorption is only invoked when salinity drops below 316 a threshold value of 37 PSU, in which case $a_{CDOM}(440) =_{bio} a_{CDOM}(440) +_{nonbio} a_{CDOM}(440)$ 317 (21),318 while the wavelength dependence of CDOM absorption (biogenic and nonbiogenic) is given 319 by Eq. 12. 320 321 **Table 1.** Coefficient values for $nonbioa_{nap}(\lambda)$, $nonbiob_p(\lambda)$ and $nonbiob_{bp}(\lambda)$. Regression coefficients 322 are also presented for biogenic absorption coefficient without water $(b_{io}a = a_{ph} + b_{io}a_{ap} + b_{io}a_{ap})$ 323 $bioa_{CDOM}$), biogenic particulate scattering coefficient ($biob_p$) and biogenic particulate

Y	Х		Casffisionta	Wavelengths (nm)								
Variable	Variable	Equation	Coefficients	412	440	488	510	532	555	650	676	
bio <mark>a</mark>	Chl	8-12	R ²	0.84	0.84	0.83	0.8	0.78	0.72	0.78	0.82	
bio b p	Chl	13	R ²	0.72	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.68	0.67	
bio b bp	Chl	14	R ²	0.42	0.41	0.43	0.43	0.45	0.47	0.46	0.53	
nonbio a nap	TSS nonbio		Α1 (λ)	0.028	0.02	0.013	0.013	0.011	0.009	0.007	0.002	
		17	Β1 (λ)	1.405	1.3045	1.45	1.49	1.065	1.26	0.87	0.85	

324 backscattering coefficient (*biobbp*).

			R ²	0.81	0.77	0.83	0.8	0.82	0.84	0.67	0.62
nonbio b p	TSS _{nonbio}	18	Α2 (λ)	0.446	0.451	0.43	0.442	0.4452	0.455	0.435	0.391
			B ₂ (λ)	1.4167	1.357	1.3135	1.265	1.2566	1.22	1.245	1.342
			R ²	0.83	0.81	0.87	0.88	0.83	0.82	0.86	0.85
nonbio b bp	TSSnonbio	19	Α3 (λ)	0.0091	0.0081	0.0087	0.009	0.0081	0.007	0.008	0.006
			B ₃ (λ)	1.48	1.5646	1.3095	1.264	1.263	1.245	1.416	1.154
			R ²	0.8	0.81	0.83	0.84	0.84	0.84	0.83	0.82





the best fit for the NOMAD data set ($R^2 = 0.91$), and the dashed line shows the offset-adjusted relationship for the Ligurian Sea.

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2.2 Bio-optical model validation strategy

336 The aim of this work is to develop a bio-optical model that will ultimately be 337 incorporated into a Ligurian Sea ecosystem model to improve prediction of underwater light 338 fields and associated impacts on phytoplankton photosynthesis and solar heating. Data for 339 assimilation into and validation of the ecosystem model may ultimately come from a variety of 340 sources including satellite remote sensing and/or in situ observations from moorings (static or 341 profiling) or autonomous vehicle platforms (Trees et al. 2009). In each case there is a need to 342 adopt common currencies between external data observations and the ecosystem model. In this 343 work, these common currencies have been selected to be Chl, TSS and Salinity. Here simple 344 linear calibrations are applied to turbidity and fluorescence data collected on CTD profiles to 345 generate proxy profiles of TSS and Chl. Together with a_{CDOM} values derived from Salinity 346 profiles, this provides us with an independent set of estimates of OSCs for depths where direct 347 measurements of these parameters were not available. These OSC estimates are then passed 348 into the bio-optical model to generate estimates of partial IOPs for each constituent as depth 349 profiles, and final validation is by comparing estimated total non-water IOPs against directly 350 measured values. By operating on depth profile data, the validation uses thousands of data 351 points for which no OSC measurements were available and IOP data that was not used in the 352 bio-optical model derivation. It also tests the applicability of using simple proxies (Turbidity, 353 Fluorescence and Salinity) to estimate OSCs, including extension into sub-pycnocline and sub-354 euphotic zone waters where there is a reasonable expectation that such relationships might 355 vary. In this work the data has been partitioned by geographical location, with offshore stations 356 regarded as Case 1 and onshore stations regarded as Case 2. In future it would be possible to

further refine the assignment of Case 1 / 2 status using derived values of *TSS* and *Chl* to determine whether to use Case 1 or Case 2 bio-optical models for the particulate component of IOPs, with the bifurcation in Figure 4a acting as a simple threshold differentiator. Similarly, *Salinity* data reveals whether or not there is a significant freshwater influence and if a nonbiogenic component of CDOM absorption is required.

- 362 Validation of the proposed bio-optical model is therefore in four steps (Figure 5):
- 363 1. CTD + fluorescence + turbidity profiles provide *Salinity* and estimates of *Chl* and
 364 *TSS*.
- 365 2. Case 1 or Case 2 bio-optical models are selected as appropriate.
- 366 3. Proxy IOP profiles are determined and submitted as input to Ecolight.
- 367 4. Modelled radiometric data are compared against *in situ* measurements.
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Figure 5. Flow chart for validation of the proposed bio-optical model. NB. This approach extends the validation data set to include thousands of data points that could not be used in model derivation as discrete water samples were limited to a small number of surface stations only.

This optical closure approach using *in situ* E_d and L_u data for model validation provides a rigorous test of the bio-optical model and its implementation with a proxy data input method, and therefore gives a relatively strong indication of the level of performance that might be achievable from such a system in practise.

379

380 3. Results

381

3.1 Bio-optical model validation

382 Turbidity and fluorescence sensors were calibrated with surface TSS and Chl data from across the region, using data from 35 and 32 stations, respectively. The data ranged between 383 0.29 mg m^{-3} and 3.31 mg m^{-3} for *Chl*, and 0.13 mg l^{-1} and 3.77 mg l^{-1} for *TSS*. Significant linear 384 relationships were found between turbidity values and TSS ($R^2 = 0.85$), and between 385 fluorescence values and Chl ($R^2 = 0.71$). These calibrations were used to generate estimated 386 387 profiles of Chl and TSS from CTD fluorescence and turbidity profiles, which, along with CTD 388 Salinity profiles, are sufficient to parameterise the Ligurian Sea bio-optical model as described 389 above. The performance of the bio-optical model was determined by comparison with 390 corresponding IOP data obtained from in situ AC-9 and BB9 measurements (see Table 2 for 391 descriptive statistics for these measurements). The subsequent performance of Ecolight 392 radiative transfer simulations using the Ligurian Sea bio-optical model as input was assessed 393 against *in situ* radiometric measurements (downwards irradiance E_d and upwards radiance L_u) 394 and derived apparent optical properties (downwards diffuse attenuation coefficient K_d and 395 radiance reflectance R_L). Lefering *et al.* (2016) provides further details of the Ecolight model 396 parameterization used.

397

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of the *in situ* data from AC-9 and BB9 instruments ($a_{nw} = a_t - a_w$ = non-water absorption coefficient, b_p = particulate scattering coefficient, b_{bp} = particulate

Variable	D	Wavelength (nm)										
variable	Parameter	412	440	488	510	532	555	650	676			
a_{nw} (m ⁻¹)	Mean	0.0891	0.0688	0.0410	0.0293	0.0225	0.0140	0.0066	0.0175			
	Max	0.6551	0.5402	0.3407	0.2646	0.2050	0.1429	0.0706	0.1606			
	Min	0.0013	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0010			
	Mean	0.4538	0.4402	0.4298	0.4265	0.4201	0.4175	0.3777	0.3513			
b_{p} (m ⁻¹)	Max	3.5746	3.5041	3.3555	3.2637	3.1909	3.1447	2.9598	2.7735			
	Min	0.0337	0.0302	0.0292	0.0263	0.0266	0.0259	0.0218	0.0158			
	Mean	0.0086	0.0078	0.0079	0.0084	0.0074	0.0071	0.0069	0.0062			
$b_{bp}(m^{-1})$	Max	0.0932	0.0849	0.0837	0.0867	0.0775	0.0747	0.0732	0.0637			
	Min	0.0006	0.0006	0.0007	0.0010	0.0008	0.0007	0.0006	0.0005			

400 backscattering coefficient).

401

402 Retrieved non-water IOPs from the bio-optical model and *in situ* measurements were 403 matched (N= 2047 for absorption and scattering, N=2060 for backscattering) at AC-9 404 wavelengths (Figure 6 shows data for 440 and 676 nm). Significant correlations (r) were observed between model results and *in situ* data for each variable at all wavelengths. The 405 406 highest correlation, 0.88, was observed for absorption and particulate backscattering at 676 nm, 407 while the lowest correlation, 0.78, was observed for scattering at 676 nm. The range of model 408 error for each IOP is given in Table 3, along with mean and root mean square errors (Eq. 22-409 23). In each case the range of error is relatively large reflecting the presence of a small number 410 of points that could be described as outliers, but that would, in practice, be part of an input data 411 set. The mean error (Eq. 22) is a useful indicator of model bias, and shows, for example, a 412 tendency for the bio-optical model to over-estimate absorption in the blue. In general, mean 413 error values are low indicating low bias over all. That said, Figure 6 shows that there is a 414 tendency to over-estimate particulate scattering at low values (<0.2 m⁻¹) and underestimate at high values $(0.2 - 1 \text{ m}^{-1})$. The root mean square error (RMSE, Eq. 23) provides typical error 415 magnitudes for each parameter. RMSE values vary spectrally from 0.03 to 0.006 m⁻¹ for 416 absorption, but are spectrally invariant at ~0.165 m⁻¹ and ~0.003 m⁻¹ for particulate scattering 417 418 and backscattering respectively.

419
$$ME = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - y_i')}{n}$$
(22)

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - y_i^{2})^2}$$
(23)

421 where *y* and *y*' are modelled and measured values respectively.

Table 3. Statistical comparison of the *in situ* and modelled IOP data sets.

	Wavelengths (nm)										
Statistics	412	440	488	510	532	555	650	676			
				an	W						
Minimum error	-0.207	-0.140	-0.116	-0.109	-0.099	-0.069	-0.021	-0.064			
Maximum error	0.172	0.156	0.094	0.111	0.038	0.046	0.026	0.045			
Mean error	0.010	0.015	0.008	0.005	0.002	0.004	0.005	0.001			
Root mean square error	0.032	0.029	0.017	0.013	0.009	0.008	0.006	0.007			
Linear correlation (r)	0.82	0.84	0.84	0.81	0.82	0.79	0.84	0.88			
				b	bp						
Minimum error	-2.012	-1.983	-2.064	-2.079	-2.088	-2.101	-2.019	-1.895			
Maximum error	2.054	1.698	1.290	1.160	1.177	1.089	1.297	1.575			
Mean error	0.013	0.008	-0.017	-0.026	-0.031	-0.037	-0.035	-0.027			
Root mean square error	0.163	0.156	0.160	0.164	0.168	0.172	0.166	0.157			
Linear correlation (r)	0.83	0.84	0.83	0.82	0.81	0.80	0.78	0.77			
				bı	р						
Minimum error	-0.056	-0.053	-0.053	-0.055	-0.044	-0.041	-0.045	-0.040			
Maximum error	0.038	0.048	0.015	0.010	0.011	0.010	0.029	0.005			
Mean error	0.000	0.000	-0.001	-0.002	0.000	0.000	-0.001	-0.001			
Root mean square error	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.004	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.002			
Linear correlation (r)	0.82	0.79	0.84	0.85	0.84	0.84	0.82	0.87			



Figure 6. Comparisons of modeled and measured: non-water absorption (a) and (b),
particulate scattering (c) and (d), and particulate backscattering (e) and (f) for blue (440 nm)
and red (676 nm) wavelengths.

3.2 Radiative transfer model validation

431 Underwater light fields were simulated for each station using Ecolight (Sequoia 432 Scientific Inc.) parameterised using the bio-optical model described above, together with 433 measured above-surface downwards irradiance values and solar zenith angles. Simulated underwater radiometry outputs were validated against in situ spectral E_d and L_u measurements 434 435 (N = 452) and integrated (400 - 700 nm) photosynthetically available radiation, E_{PAR} and L_{PAR} 436 for all available depths (Figure 7). Correlations between modelled and measured radiometric 437 variables were generally very high (>0.85, Table 4) with E_d generally performing better than 438 L_u . Both E_d and L_u were systematically under-estimated at 676 nm, which is most likely a 439 consequence of not including chlorophyll fluorescence in the radiative transfer simulations. 440 The impact of this bias in the simulation of red wavelength radiometry on PAR estimates is 441 very weak, with both E_{PAR} and L_{PAR} having low bias and RMSE errors. E_{PAR} profiles were used 442 to calculate 1% and 10% light depths (euphotic and mid-euphotic depths respectively, Figure 443 8). These data showed significant correlations and low errors, with maximum errors of 6 m in 444 euphotic depth, and 8 m in mid-euphotic depth. With RMSE errors of 3.2 m and 2.6 m in 445 euphotic and mid-euphotic depths, respectively, it is clear that the integrated bio-optical / 446 radiative transfer model provides a reasonable representation of the penetration of spectrally 447 averaged sunlight with depth.

Figure 9 shows excellent correlations between measured and modeled radiancereflectance profile data where

450

$$R_{L}(\lambda) = L_{u}(\lambda, z) / E_{d}(\lambda, z)$$
(24),

with the exception of 676 nm where modelled values are significantly lower than
measurements, probably due to non-inclusion of algal fluorescence in the simulations.
Comparison of modelled surface remote sensing reflectance

454 $R_{rs}(\lambda) = L_{w}(\lambda, 0^{+}) / E_{d}(\lambda, 0^{+})$ (25)

455 with MERIS C2R data (Figure 10) also shows strong correlations except for 620 nm, where

modelled values are significantly overestimated. In this case, the discrepancy is probably a
consequence of inappropriate interpolation of input IOP data (555 and 650 nm are the nearest
input wavebands), leading to a poor parameterisation of the radiative transfer model.
Comparisons with other satellite data were less convincing, possibly reflecting sensitivity to
selection of atmospheric correction scheme and fidelity of match-up conditions.

462	Table 4.	Statistical	comparison	of in si	tu and	modeled	radiometry	y values.

	Wavelengths (nm)										
Statistics	412	440	488	510	532	555	650	676	PAR		
					Ed						
Minimum error	-0.2593	-0.2621	-0.2217	-0.1950	-0.1624	-0.1399	-0.1023	-0.1262	-1.00E+20		
Maximum error	0.1770	0.1677	0.2166	0.2038	0.2151	0.2177	0.1417	0.0962	1.00E+20		
Mean error	0.0132	0.0083	0.0188	0.0036	-0.0012	-0.0040	-0.0108	-0.0142	-4.67E+17		
Root mean square error	0.0673	0.0656	0.0676	0.0552	0.0493	0.0447	0.0280	0.0289	4.74E+19		
Linear correlation (r)	0.95	0.97	0.97	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.99	0.98	0.96		
					Lu						
Minimum error	-0.0024	-0.0031	-0.0043	-0.0044	-0.0037	-0.0042	-0.0014	-0.0012	-2.00E+18		
Maximum error	0.0047	0.0037	0.0021	0.0011	0.0024	0.0020	0.0004	0.0000	1.00E+18		
Mean error	0.0005	0.0001	-0.0005	-0.0008	-0.0001	-0.0002	-0.0001	-0.0002	-1.41E+17		
Root mean square error	0.0013	0.0010	0.0012	0.0012	0.0009	0.0009	0.0002	0.0002	5.55E+17		
Linear correlation (r)	0.92	0.93	0.93	0.95	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.85	0.89		





Figure 7. Comparisons of modeled and measured profiles of downwards irradiance, E_d , and upwards radiance, L_u , for blue (440 nm) and red (676 nm) wavelengths, and integrated across the photosynthetically active region, PAR (400 – 700 nm).





471 Figure 8. Comparison of modelled and measured euphotic and mid-euphotic depths. NB In-

situ radiometry measurements did not always reach the euphotic depth, reducing the number

473 of data points on this plot.



474 In Situ R_L555 (sr⁻¹) In Situ R_L676 (sr⁻¹)
 475 Figure 9. (a-c) Modelled profiles of radiance reflectance generally correlate well with *in situ*

476 measurements in the blue – green. (d) The model under-estimates red radiance reflectance as
477 it does not include the effect of chlorophyll fluorescence.



478 479

Figure 10. (a-e) Modelled above surface remote sensing reflectance corresponds well with MERIS data processed using the C2R algorithm for wavelengths in the blue-green. (f) Model performance is less satisfactory at 620 nm, potentially as a result of inadequate interpolation of input data to the model (555 and 650 nm the nearest input wavebands). NB. Includes data from both onshore and offshore stations.

485

486

4. Discussion and Conclusion

487 The integrated Case 1 and Case 2 Ligurian Sea bio-optical model developed here has 488 been shown to provide an effective characterization of the optical properties of the region. In 489 doing so, it is worth considering the various stages of model development that have been 490 incorporated into the validation scheme. Although the Case 1 elements of the bio-optical model 491 are relatively standard, the Case 2 section contains several innovations including statistical 492 partitioning of TSS and derivation of partial IOPs for non-biogenic particles. It also includes a 493 separation of CDOM contributions from biogenic (effectively phytoplankton) and non-494 biogenic (freshwater) sources. A scheme for partitioning the region into Case 1, Case 2 (non-495 biogenic particles) and Case 2 (freshwater influence) zones based on Chl, TSS and Salinity 496 values has been presented which is essential for correctly selecting the appropriate bio-optical 497 model for any given point in space. It is also worth emphasizing that the performance of the 498 model has been demonstrated using proxy values of Chl and TSS derived from in situ 499 fluorescence and turbidity measurements, which introduces another set of measurement 500 uncertainties into the analysis. The resulting comparisons with in situ IOP data are therefore 501 particularly encouraging given this added layer of data manipulation.

502 Our approach aims to use the bio-optical model to convert easily measured proxies (in 503 in this case Salinity, Fluorescence and Turbidity from CTD profiles) into IOP profiles and 504 ultimately allow estimation of spectral remote sensing reflectance. There are two crucial early 505 steps that need to be treated with due caution: (1) conversion of these simple proxies into OSC 506 concentrations, and (2) selection of Case 1 or Case 2 bio-optical models for any given data 507 point. There is considerable scope for further refinement of both steps beyond the very simple 508 approach adopted here. For example, there are many potential options for partitioning water masses using combinations of IOP, constituent data and other physical variables (McKee and 509

510 Cunningham 2006, Chang *et al.* 2006).

The utility of this bio-optical model for predicting underwater and water-leaving light fields has been tested through rigorous optical closure analysis against *in situ* and remotely sensed radiometry and AOPs. When considering the level of performance achieved, it should be recognized that direct optical closure between *in situ* IOPs and radiometry remains elusive and rarely demonstrated to date (Tzortziou *et al.* 2006). The degree of closure demonstrated here is therefore very encouraging and suggests that major features of the optical characteristics of the region have been satisfactorily captured in the bio-optical model.

518



Figure 11. (a)Percentage error of modeled $E_d PAR$ values using approach presented

here. (b) Anomaly of modelled euphotic depths for the approach developed here and previousstudies.

524 A major motivation for this work is to develop a bio-optical model that can be 525 incorporated into radiative transfer simulations to provide accurate predictions of underwater 526 photosynthetically available radiation. Figure 11a shows the distribution of percentage errors 527 in modeled PAR (E_d) across all available stations and depths for this data set, with 80% of 528 points falling within $\pm 20\%$ and a 95 % prediction interval of $\pm 33\%$. Predictions of euphotic 529 depth from the approach developed here compare favourably (Figure 11b) against values 530 calculated from previous approaches of Lacroix & Nival 1998, and Raick et al. 2005 which do 531 not account for non-algal contributions. The Lacroix & Gregoire (2002) model is closer in 532 performance to the model developed here, benefitting from a slightly more representative 533 underwater light field model than the earlier study. However, analysis of performance 534 separating into onshore and offshore groups (Figure 12) highlights the benefit of directly 535 accounting for both non-biogenic particles and freshwater sources of CDOM for modeling 536 euphotic depth in optically complex onshore stations.



Figure 12. (a) Euphotic depth is modelled for offshore waters with similar accuracy by the model presented here and the previous model by Lacroix and Gregoire (2002). (b) The Lacroix and Gregoire (2002) model over-estimates euphotic depth for optically complex on shore waters. The model presented here performs better in these waters as it captures the effect of non-algal materials as well as phytoplankton.

The Ligurian Sea bio-optical model developed here has been specifically designed to be able to accommodate a wide variety of potential data sources and to integrate into ecosystem models with minimal need for adaptation. Generating estimates of *Chl*, *TSS* and *Salinity* from *in situ* data is reasonably straightforward, though there is obviously scope for complications under some circumstances e.g. strong differences in fluorescence: *Chl* can occur under light, nutrient or species composition gradients. Nonetheless, the performance of the model across 550 the wide range of conditions encountered in this data set suggests that such effects may not be 551 fatal to performance under reasonably common circumstances.

552 OCRS is a potentially important data source for assimilation and validation of coupled 553 physical-ecosystem models, with optical closure against measured reflectance data, such as is 554 demonstrated here, being a useful tool for tracking model performance. Chang et al. (2006) 555 have shown how it might be possible to use reflectance spectra for further refinement of water 556 masses. However, caution is required in the interpretation of OCRS standard products in 557 optically complex waters. An example of where due caution is required is illustrated in Figure 558 1. Standard OCRS *Chl* products based on blue-green reflectance ratios tend to perform poorly 559 in turbid coastal waters (e.g. McKee et al. 2007), with high sediment levels resulting in the 560 return of over-estimates of Chl. This is most likely the case with the Arno plume seen in the 561 centre of Figures 1 (c and d). It would be essential to establish the performance of OCRS 562 algorithms in the region of interest before using such data to estimate *Chl* and *TSS*. Obtaining 563 Salinity from space is even more challenging, with sensors such as the now-defunct Aquarius 564 offering much lower resolution than would be required to resolve important features such as 565 the Arno plume that features strongly in this area. Direct estimation of CDOM absorption from 566 ocean colour remote sensing, if available, would provide a welcome alternative data source for 567 this kind of application. Whilst ocean colour CDOM products are available, it is not clear that 568 they are able to achieve the level of discrimination between dissolved CDOM and detrital 569 particulate absorption that is necessary for this application. This is an area that requires further 570 development at this time. On the modeling side, both *Chl* and *Salinity* are commonly used 571 model currencies that fit seamlessly with the bio-optical model for the Ligurian Sea. However, 572 the non-biogenic TSS component requires inclusion of benthic resuspension and lateral 573 transport of mineral particles to be included in the coupled physical-ecosystem model (Everett 574 et al. 2007, Sheng and Kim 2009). This feature is not included by default in many such models and introduction of these processes would potentially impact on computation time and would require specific validation. However, given the influence on euphotic depth and light availability for photosynthesis, and the impact on remote sensing reflectance signals that are often proposed for model assimilation and validation schemes, it seems clear that modeling mineral particle transport and dispersal is a necessary step for shallow coastal waters. This work strongly points towards this being an important area for coastal and shelf sea model development.

582 The next logical step in this work is to attempt to incorporate a radiative transfer model 583 using the bio-optical relationships established here into a coupled physical-ecosystem model 584 for the Ligurian Sea and compare performance with and without (a) any light field model, (b) 585 a Case 1 only bio-optical model, and (c) the integrated Case 1 and Case 2 bio-optical model 586 (Mobley et al. 2015). As well as directly impacting on phytoplankton productivity estimates, 587 there is scope to influence solar heating of the water column with potential impacts on 588 stratification and possibly circulation in some cases (Murtugudde et al. 2002). Further efforts 589 along this line of research are planned.

- 590
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