Calculation of UV attenuation and colored dissolved organic matter absorption spectra from measurements of ocean color

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1. Introduction

[2] The absorption of ultraviolet and visible radiation by colored or chromophoric dissolved organic matter (CDOM) drives much of marine photochemistry. It also affects the penetration of ultraviolet radiation (UV) into the water column and can confound remote estimates of chlorophyll concentration. Measurements of ocean color from satellites can be used to predict UV attenuation and CDOM absorption spectra from relationships between visible reflectance, UV attenuation, and absorption by CDOM. Samples were taken from the Bering Sea and from the Mid-Atlantic Bight, and water types ranged from turbid, inshore waters to the Gulf Stream. We determined the following relationships between in situ visible radiance reflectance, $L_u/E_d(\lambda)$ (sr$^{-1}$), and diffuse attenuation of UV, $K_d(\lambda)$ (m$^{-1}$): $K_d(323\text{ nm}) = 0.781[L_u/E_d(412)/L_u/E_d(555)]^{-1.07}$; $K_d(338\text{ nm}) = 0.604[L_u/E_d(412)/L_u/E_d(555)]^{-1.12}$; $K_d(380 \text{ nm}) = 0.302[L_u/E_d(412)/L_u/E_d(555)]^{-1.24}$. Consistent with published observations, these empirical relationships predict that the spectral slope coefficient of CDOM absorption increases as diffuse attenuation of UV decreases. Excluding samples from turbid bays, the ratio of the CDOM absorption coefficient to $K_d$ is 0.90 at 323 nm, 0.86 at 338 nm, and 0.97 at 380 nm. We applied these relationships to SeaWiFS images of normalized water-leaving radiance to calculate the CDOM absorption and UV attenuation in the Mid-Atlantic Bight in May, July, and August 1998. The images showed a decrease in UV attenuation from May to August of approximately 50%. We also produced images of the areal distribution of the spectral slope coefficient of CDOM absorption in the Georgia Bight. The spectral slope coefficient increased offshore and changed with season.

INDEX TERMS: 4552 Oceanography: Physical: Ocean optics; 4850 Oceanography: Biological and Chemical: Organic marine chemistry; 4275 Oceanography: General: Remote sensing and electromagnetic processes (0689); KEYWORDS: remote sensing, SeaWiFS, colored dissolved organic matter, diffuse attenuation of downwelling radiation, $K_d$, ultraviolet radiation

Absorbance by CDOM at visible wavelengths can also interfere with estimates of chlorophyll concentration made from remotely sensed data [Carder et al., 1989; Michaels and Siegel, 1996]. To evaluate all these processes quantitatively, it is essential to know the shape and magnitude of the CDOM absorption spectrum, which varies widely among locations and seasons [Michaels and Siegel, 1996; Højerslev, 1998].

A number of researchers have developed algorithms to relate remotely sensed properties to in situ absorption or fluorescence by CDOM or to the concentration of dissolved organic carbon, DOC [Fenton et al., 1994; Vodacek et al., 1995; Ferrari et al., 1996]. Hochman et al. [1994] and Hoge et al. [1995] used the water-leaving radiance at 443 nm calculated from CZCS (Coastal Zone Color Scanner) data together with an assumed CDOM absorption spectral slope coefficient to determine \( a_{\text{CDOM}} \) in situ. Kahru and Mitchell [2001] used a ratio of SeaWiFS (Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor) normalized water-leaving radiance at 443 and 510 nm to calculate \( a_{\text{CDOM}} \) at 300 nm, which they suggested could be used with an assumed spectral slope to calculate the full absorption spectrum.

In addition to the CZCS channels, SeaWiFS has a detector for upwelling radiance at 412 nm. One of the reasons for including this sensor was to facilitate remote estimates of dissolved organic matter [Nelson, 1997]. Here, we present empirically derived relationships that make use of measurements at 412 nm to allow the accurate calculation of \( a_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda) \), the slope coefficient of the \( a_{\text{CDOM}} \) spectrum, and UV attenuation from remotely sensed reflectance data, without the assumption of a single spectral shape for the CDOM absorption spectrum.

2. Methods

2.1. Approach

Austin and Petzold [1981] showed that the diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling visible irradiance, \( K_d(\lambda) \) (m\(^{-1}\)), could be estimated from the ratio of the upwelling irradiance, \( I_u(\lambda) \), at two wavelengths measured by CZCS. The wavelength ratio approach is also applied to the prediction of chlorophyll concentration in surface waters [Gordon et al., 1983; Aiken et al., 1992], and images of global ocean chlorophyll concentrations and \( K(490) \) are now produced routinely from SeaWiFS data (SeaWiFS Project, http://seawifs.gsfc.nasa.gov/SEAWIFS.html (verified 12 May 2000)). SeaWiFS does not have UV detectors; atmospheric interference makes direct satellite measurements of UV upwelling radiance from the ocean extremely difficult. However, it seems reasonable to apply the reflectance ratio method to the UV, since the components of seawater which absorb UV radiation also absorb visible radiation.

To produce synoptic estimates of \( a_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda) \) and of photochemical production rates from remotely sensed data, Cullen et al. [1997] suggested an approach in several steps which would make use of the 412 nm sensor: (1) relate satellite measurements of water-leaving radiance to in situ radiance reflectance, defined as the ratio of upwelling radiance to downwelling irradiance; (2) find empirical relationships between the ratio of reflectance at two visible wavelengths (412 nm and 555 nm) and \( K_d \) at several UV wavelengths; (3) calculate spectrally resolved total UV absorption from \( K_d(\lambda) \); (4) determine the magnitude of absorption by particles, particularly phytoplankton; (5) subtract absorption due to particles and water from the total to calculate the CDOM absorption; and (6) apply an action spectrum to calculate photochemical production. The estimates of absorption and attenuation could be combined with measurements or estimates of surface irradiance to calculate absorption by CDOM as a function of depth. We modified the Cullen et al. [1997] approach by finding direct, empirical relationships between \( K_d(\lambda) \) and \( a_{\text{CDOM}} \) at corresponding wavelengths rather than calculating \( a_{\text{CDOM}} \) by difference.

2.2. Sample Locations

Four cruises were undertaken in the Mid-Atlantic Bight in the summers of 1996, 1997, and 1998 and one in the Bering Sea in June 1997. Sample locations are shown in Figure 1. During the July 1997 cruise aboard the R/V Seward Johnson, optical casts were made at five stations along cross-shelf transects. Optical casts were made aboard the R/V Cape Henlopen in May and August 1997 and in July 1998 at 11, 24, and 37 stations, respectively. In the Bering Sea aboard the R/V Wecoma, optical casts were made at 13 stations along a cross-shelf transect.

2.3. Sample Collection and Storage

At each station water was collected from the surface, and at many stations samples were also collected from below the mixed layer using a CTD rosette. Water samples were filtered to remove particles, including bacteria; during the first Mid-Atlantic Bight cruise in 1997, samples were filtered on board whatman GF/F (nominal pore size 0.7 \( \mu \)m) filters and then refiltered through 0.2 \( \mu \)m Schleicher and Schuell Nylon 66 membrane filters on return to the lab. Water taken during the other cruises was immediately filtered through 0.2 \( \mu \)m Schleicher and Schuell Nylon 66 filters. During the August 1997 cruise, samples were pressure-filtered using a peristaltic pump with a 0.2 \( \mu \)m in-line filter; samples from the other cruises were vacuum-filtered. Water samples were stored for less than a year in the dark at 4°C in amber glass bottles to minimize biological activity and photochemical breakdown of CDOM. Related studies on seawater have shown no measurable change in absorption at 350 nm over three months of storage under these conditions: measurements of CDOM absorption made on 0.2-\( \mu \)m-filtered water from the Suwannee River in Georgia showed no measurable change in absorbance after at least three years of storage (W. L. Miller, unpublished data, 1995); water filtered through GF/F filters, stored for up to three months and then refiltered through 0.2 \( \mu \)m filters was found to have the same absorption coefficient at 350 and 440 nm as water filtered through 0.2 \( \mu \)m filters and measured immediately (S. C. Johannessen, unpublished data, 1997).

2.4. Absorption Measurements

Spectral absorption was measured in a 10 cm quartz flow cell in a Hewlett Packard HP 8453 diode array spectrophotometer, blanked against Barnstead Nanopure UV-treated distilled water. Spectral absorption, \( A_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda) \) (dimensionless) was measured from 190 nm to 1100 nm,
and the values were converted to absorption coefficient, $a_{CDOM}(\lambda) \ (m^{-1})$, according to the relation:

$$a_{CDOM}(\lambda) = 2.303 \ A_{CDOM}(\lambda)/l$$

[Miller, 1997] where $l$ is the path length of the spectrophotometer cell (m). Table 1 lists the symbols and abbreviations used in this paper. Scattering by fine particles, blank drift (in single beam spectrophotometers), and a difference between the index of refraction of the seawater sample and of the distilled water blank can all affect the measured spectral absorption. Instead of correcting for each problem individually, an equation was fit to the absorption spectra to solve for an offset ($a_0$) at higher wavelengths where CDOM absorption decreases to zero:

$$a_{CDOM}(\lambda) = Ce^{-S\lambda} + a_0$$

Each absorption spectrum was fit to this relationship over the range 280–550 nm, where $C \ (m^{-1})$ and $a_0 \ (m^{-1})$, and $S \ (nm^{-1})$ were determined by nonlinear least squares regression. The parameter $S$ is the slope coefficient of CDOM absorption. The offset, $a_0$, was then subtracted from the whole spectrum to correct $a_{CDOM}$ for the offset. (The offset was always less than 7% of the absorption coefficient at 300 nm and less than 14% of that at 350 nm.) The fit was not used for any purpose other than to provide an offset value for the correction of $a_{CDOM}(\lambda)$.

[11] This subtraction, like other commonly used constant offset corrections of CDOM absorption spectra, assumes that the scattering, blank drift and difference in the index of refraction are all independent of wavelength, an assumption which may not be valid for scattering by very fine particles. The use of an equation of this form to fit CDOM absorption data has been described by Markager and Vincent [2000], Stedmon et al. [2000], Johannessen [2000] and Johannessen and Miller [2001].

2.5. In Situ Radiometric Measurements

[12] Two instruments were deployed at each optical station. A Satlantic SeaWiFS Profiling Multichannel Radiometer (SPMR) measured downwelling irradiance at depth in twelve channels (2 nm bandwidth for UV, 10 nm for visible channels; acquisition rate 6 Hz) centered on the following wavelengths: 305 (UVB), 323 (UVA/UVB boundary), 338 (UVA), 380 (UVA), 412, 443, 490, 510, 532, 555, 670, 683, and 700 nm. The visible channels coincided with those of the radiance sensors on the SeaWiFS satellite (SeaWiFS Project, http://seawifs.gsfc.nasa.gov/SEAWIFS.html (verified 12 May 2000); Satlantic Inc., http://www.satlantic.com/ (updated 2000 and verified 12 May 2000), although the SeaWiFS bandwidth was wider (20 nm for 412–555 nm; 40 nm for 670–700 nm). The diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling irradiance was calculated over the first optical depth (from the surface to the depth at which the downwelling irradiance fell to 1/e of its surface value) using a statistical fit to the irradiance data with the Matlab\textsuperscript{10} routine “ksurf” (written and provided by R.F. Davis, Dalhousie Univ.). The routine made use of the relationship:

$$K_d(\lambda, z + 1/2\Delta z) = \ln(E_d(\lambda, z)/E_d(\lambda, z + \Delta z))/\Delta z$$

(Kirk, 1994) where $E_d(\lambda, z) \ (Wm^{-2} nm^{-1})$ is downwelling irradiance measured at the first depth, $E_d(\lambda, z + \Delta z)$ is the downwelling irradiance at the subsequent depth, and $\Delta z$ is the change in depth, z (m), between two consecutive measurements (typically about 12 cm). The standard deviation of $K_d$ measurements at UV and blue wavelengths, based on replicate profiles, ranged from 2% for open ocean stations to 6% for inshore stations. (Replicate profiles help to assess the error in the Kd estimate introduced by wave focusing [Zaneveld et al., 2001]). Profiles were dark-corrected using the dark calibration values determined at the Satlantic Inc. calibration laboratory prior to and following each cruise. Deviations from dark values in situ have little effect on estimates of $K_d$ in the first optical depth, except at short wavelengths (in this case 323 nm), where the limit of detection may be reached within the first optical depth at some stations.

[13] A Satlantic Ocean Color Radiometer, OCR, simultaneously measured incident downwelling irradiance just above the ocean’s surface in the same thirteen wave bands as the profiler and also at 590 nm. It provided a surface reference for the profiler’s irradiance measurements to correct for changes in incident irradiance, $E_d(\lambda, 0^\circ)$, during
the profile. The OCR also measured upwelling radiance just below the water’s surface (depth ranged from 0 to 15 cm below the surface) in the same fourteen channels. Radiance reflectance (sr−1) was calculated as the ratio of upwelling radiance, $L_a(\lambda, 0^-)$ (W m−2 nm−1 sr−1) just below the surface, to downwelling radiance, $E_d(\lambda, 0^-)$ (W m−2 nm−1) just above the surface [from Kirk, 1994]:

$$\text{Radiance reflectance}(\lambda) = \frac{L_a(\lambda, 0^-)}{E_d(\lambda, 0^-)}$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

3. Results

3.1. Calculation of $K_d(\lambda)$ From Reflectance

[14] The diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling irradiance at each of 323, 338 and 380 nm was plotted against several ratios of visible reflectance to find the strongest correlation. Of the ratios tried, the ratio of reflectance at 412 nm to reflectance at 555 nm predicted $K_d$ at 323, 338, and 380 nm most robustly (Figure 2). (Although by convention the $y$ axis is reserved for the dependent variable, the purpose of the plot was to find an equation that could be used to predict $K_d$ from reflectance.) For clarity, error bars (see “Methods” section) are omitted from Figure 2. Reflectance at 412 nm alone predicted $K_d$ at 323, 338 and 380 nm fairly well for those stations outside of the very turbid Delaware and Chesapeake Bays (data not shown). However, the $L_a/E_d(412)/L_a/E_d(555)$ ratio allowed the inclusion of all stations in a single relationship. Regressions on these data yielded the following empirical relationships (n = 53):

$$K_d(323\text{nm}) = 0.781\left[\frac{L_a}{E_d(412)/L_a/E_d(555)}\right]^{-1.07} \quad r^2 = 0.91$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

$$K_d(338\text{nm}) = 0.604\left[\frac{L_a}{E_d(412)/L_a/E_d(555)}\right]^{-1.12} \quad r^2 = 0.91$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

$$K_d(380\text{nm}) = 0.302\left[\frac{L_a}{E_d(412)/L_a/E_d(555)}\right]^{-1.24} \quad r^2 = 0.95$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

3.2. Calculation of CDOM Absorption Coefficient From $K_d$

[15] CDOM is thought to be responsible for most of the UV attenuation in the ocean [Bricaud et al., 1981]. To determine the proportion of $K_d(\text{UV})$ due to CDOM, and to investigate how that proportion varied with location, measured $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ was plotted against measured $K_d$ at corresponding wavelengths for all stations (Figure 3). $K_d$ predicts $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ well at 323 and 338 nm, and reasonably well at 380 nm; the correlation breaks down at longer wavelengths where other components, particularly phyto-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Notation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a(\lambda)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$a_0$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$a_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda)$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$a_{\text{CDOM}}$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$A_{\text{CDOM}}(\lambda)$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$b(\lambda)$</td>
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<td>$C$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$H_d(\lambda)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$K_d(\lambda)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$l$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_a(\lambda, 0^-)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_a(\lambda)/E_d(\lambda)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$L_u(\lambda, 0^-)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mu_d(\lambda)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$nL_u(\lambda)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$S_{ACDOM}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SeaWiFS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$z$</td>
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</table>
plankton pigments, absorb more strongly. $K_d$ and $a_{CDOM}$ seem to be related linearly. The following regression equations were determined for water taken from a wide variety of environments—from coastal to off shelf, blue waters in the Bering Sea and from the coast to the Gulf Stream in the Mid-Atlantic Bight ($n = 33$): 

$$a_{CDOM}(323) = 0.904 K_d(323) - 0.00714; \quad r^2 = 0.93$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

$$a_{CDOM}(338) = 0.858 K_d(338) - 0.0190; \quad r^2 = 0.92$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

$$a_{CDOM}(380) = 0.972 K_d(380) - 0.0171; \quad r^2 = 0.66$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

Table 2 gives 95% confidence intervals for the slope coefficients and intercepts given in equations (8)–(13). The intercept values above are within the uncertainty of the absorption measurements, and Table 2 shows that 0 is well within their 95% confidence intervals. This suggests that at each UV wavelength, CDOM absorption contributes a constant proportion of attenuation. (A small negative intercept is consistent with contributions to absorption from other sources.) We found that the six samples from inside the turbid Delaware and Chesapeake Bays did not fit the above relationships. However, while the number of bay samples was too low to give convincing statistics, the plots of $a_{CDOM}$ versus $K_d$ for these samples were also strikingly linear (Figure 3 inset). The equations of the best fit regression lines to the bay data are:

$$a_{CDOM}(323) = 0.308 K_d(323) + 0.0463; \quad r^2 = 0.97; \quad n = 5$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

$$a_{CDOM}(338) = 0.259 K_d(338) + 0.171; \quad r^2 = 0.94; \quad n = 6$$  \hspace{1cm} (12)

$$a_{CDOM}(380) = 0.183 K_d(380) + 0.400; \quad r^2 = 0.97; \quad n = 5$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)

Figure 2. In situ diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling irradiance at three UV wavelengths versus the ratio of in situ reflectances at 412 and 555 nm ($n = 53$) on a log-log scale. Trend lines represent equations (5)–(7) in the text.
organic or organically coated particles and from increased particle backscattering.

3.3. Calculation of $K_d$ and CDOM Absorption Coefficient From Satellite Data

[17] The empirical relationships described in equations (5)–(7) were applied to three SeaWiFS archive data scenes to evaluate their use as predictors of $K_d$. The satellite data were level 3, monthly binned images with 9 × 9 km resolution from May, July, and August 1998. The satellite was not operational during the 1996 and 1997 cruises, but the July 1998 image includes the period of the last cruise.

[18] Images of normalized water-leaving radiance at 412 and 555 nm from the Distributed Active Archive Center (from the August–September 1998 reprocessing; http://daac.gsfc.nasa.gov/(updated 10 May 2000 and verified 12 May 2000)), were used to calculate a reflectance ratio ($L_u/E_d(412)/L_u/E_d(555)$) at each pixel as described below.

Figure 3. Absorption coefficient of CDOM versus in situ diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling irradiance at three UV wavelengths (n = 33). “Bay” data from Delaware and Chesapeake Bays are inset. Trend lines represent equations (8)–(13) in the text. See Table 2 for confidence intervals.
## Table 2. Coefficients and Confidence Intervals for Relationships Between $a_{CDOM}$ and $K_d$ at Three UV Wavelengths for Offshore (n = 33) and Bay (n = 6) Samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wavelength (nm)</th>
<th>Slope Coefficient</th>
<th>Slope Lower 95% CL</th>
<th>Slope Upper 95% CL</th>
<th>Intercept</th>
<th>Intercept Lower 95% CL</th>
<th>Intercept Upper 95% CL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>323</td>
<td>0.904</td>
<td>0.809</td>
<td>0.998</td>
<td>-0.0071</td>
<td>-0.0771</td>
<td>0.0628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>338</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>0.956</td>
<td>-0.0190</td>
<td>-0.0751</td>
<td>0.0370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>380</td>
<td>0.972</td>
<td>0.699</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>-0.0171</td>
<td>-0.0964</td>
<td>0.0622</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*See equations (8)–(13) in the text and Figure 3.*

Normalized water leaving radiance, $nL_w (\text{Wm}^{-2} \text{nm}^{-1} \text{sr}^{-1})$, is related to water-leaving radiance, $L_w(0^-)$ (Wm$^{-2}$ nm$^{-1}$ sr$^{-1}$), by the following equation (modified from Fraser et al. [1997]):

$$nL_w = L_w(0^+)(F_o/E_o(0^+))$$

where $F_o$ is mean extraterrestrial solar irradiance corrected for Earth-Sun distance and orbital eccentricity (Wm$^{-2}$ nm$^{-1}$), and $E_o(0^-)$ is downwelling irradiance measured just above the surface of the ocean (Wm$^{-2}$ nm$^{-1}$). The wavelength dependence of the variables is left implicit to simplify the equations. Since the OCR reference measures upwelling radiance just below the surface of the ocean, $L_u(0^-)$ (Wm$^{-2}$ nm$^{-1}$ sr$^{-1}$), was calculated from $L_w(0^-)$, according to Gordon and Clark [1981]:

$$L_u(0^+) = \sim 0.57 L_u(0^-)$$

Substituting for $L_u(0^-)$ in equation (14), the ratio of water-leaving radiance at 412 nm to that at 555 nm was related to the ratio of the measurable, in situ reflectance at those wavelengths:

$$\frac{nL_w(412)}{nL_w(555)} = \frac{0.57 F_o(412) L_u(412, 0^-)/E_o(412, 0^-)}{0.57 F_o(555) L_u(555, 0^-)/E_o(555, 0^-)}$$

Equations (16) and (17) were calculated according to Gordon et al. [1983].

$$F_o(\lambda) = H_o(\lambda)(1 + e \cos(2 \pi (D - 3)/365))^2$$

where $H_o(\lambda)$ is the mean extraterrestrial solar irradiance (Wm$^{-2}$ nm$^{-1}$), and $e$ is the eccentricity of the Earth’s orbit (0.0167) [Gordon et al., 1983]. Gregg and Carder [1990] give the following values for $H_o(\lambda)$:

$$H_o(412) = 1.812 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{nm}^{-1}$$

$$H_o(555) = 1.896 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{nm}^{-1}$$

Using the empirical relationships described in earlier sections of this paper and the reflectance ratio $L_w/E_o(412)/L_w/E_o(555)$ calculated from the SeaWiFS normalized water-leaving radiance values at each pixel, $K_d$ and $a_{CDOM}$ were calculated at 323, 338 and 380 nm. Figure 4 shows maps of calculated $K_d$ at 323 nm for May, July, and August 1998 in the Mid-Atlantic Bight. SeaWiFS images are unreliable in areas with high concentrations of particles in the water [Kahru and Mitchell, 1999], because the algorithm used to calculate $nL_w(412)$ relies on the assumption that all the radiation at 670 nm incident on the surface of the water is absorbed [Fraser et al., 1997]. That assumption is not valid in areas of high particle concentration. The problem is often manifested in negative nearshore $nL_w(412)$ values. For this study, an arbitrary cutoff value of $2.0 \times 10^{-3}$ Wm$^{-2}$ nm$^{-1}$ sr$^{-1}$ was chosen, and all pixels with $nL_w(412)$ or $nL_w(555)$ below that value were masked. Masked pixels are shown in black in Figure 4, as is land. (Of course, the in situ measurements of reflectance at 412 nm are not subject to atmospheric interference, so they provide a way to ground truth the satellite measurements.)

While most of the in situ data were collected before the SeaWiFS satellite was operational, values of $K_d$ measured at 323, 338, and 380 nm at three stations during the July 1998 cruise compared well with those calculated at the nearest pixel from the monthly binned, July 1998 SeaWiFS image (Table 3). The stations were chosen to represent midshelf, shelf break and offshore waters. We also compared $K_d$ values determined in August 1997 in the Gulf Stream with those calculated for the nearest pixel in August 1998 (Table 3). The modeled $K_d$ at 323 nm was within 10% of the measured value at each station. The modeled values of $K_d$ at 338 and 380 nm were within 30% of the measured values at the midshelf station and within 6% in the Gulf Stream. At the midshelf and shelf break stations the modeled $K_d$ values were all higher than the actual values, probably as a result of problems with the atmospheric correction in the presence of particles or of a high concentration of CDOM (as explained above).
9 km × 9 km bin using the modeled \( K_d \) values was within 20% of that determined from the in situ \( K_d \) values at the station in the same area. Clearly, the relationships presented above give a good estimate of UV attenuation in the ocean.

We applied the relationships presented in equations (5)–(10) to produce an image of the areal distribution of diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling irradiance (m\(^{-1}\)) at 323 nm in the Mid-Atlantic Bight, calculated from SeaWiFS normalized water-leaving radiance data, binned to 9 km × 9 km, monthly resolution: (a) May 1998, (b) July 1998, and (c) August 1998.

### Table 3. Comparison of \( K_d \) Values Determined in Situ and Calculated From a SeaWiFS Ocean Color Image

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Station</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>In Situ ( K_d ), m(^{-1})</th>
<th>Modeled ( K_d ), m(^{-1})</th>
<th>% Diff. (Model/In Situ)</th>
<th>% Slope Coeff. Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M9807-7</td>
<td>38.36°N, 74.47°W</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.0155</td>
<td>0.0178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>323</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0.0185</td>
<td>0.0183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9807-37</td>
<td>38.00°N, 74.04°W</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td>0.0182</td>
<td>0.0178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>0.334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9807-14</td>
<td>37.12°N, 73.83°W</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>0.0229</td>
<td>0.0229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>323</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>0.405</td>
<td>0.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M9708-15</td>
<td>36.02°N, 72.29°W</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>0.0200</td>
<td>0.0200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>323</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>0.334</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the M9807 stations, both the measurements and the satellite image were taken in July 1998. The \( K_d \) values for station M9708-15 (Gulf Stream) were calculated from in situ measurements in August 1997 and from a satellite image of August 1998.
of the CDOM absorption slope coefficient in the Georgia Bight in January and July 1999 (Figure 6) from SeaWiFS archive images. The slope coefficients are based on the CDOM absorption coefficient at 323 and 338 nm. (SeaDAS, the program used to make the image, does not do nonlinear regressions.) Pixels where the normalized water-leaving radiance at 412 nm is unreliable, as described for Figure 4, are masked in black.

[23] Using equations (5)–(10), calculated $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ slope coefficients, and in situ reflectance data, we compared our predicted $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ at 350 nm with the measured absorption coefficients for the same station. The nonzero intercepts of equations (8)–(10) make the determination of $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ and the slope coefficient of $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ less certain in clear waters, where the calculated absorbance values converge to the equation intercepts. However, the $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ at 350 nm calculated using the slope coefficients agreed with the measured values to within 6–50% at various stations. We also compared our extrapolated $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ at 300 nm with that predicted by the Kahru and Mitchell [2001] model. The two models agreed to within 10% in blue water, and 30–40% in coastal water.

4. Discussion

[24] The relationships between reflectance and $K_d$ apply to all five cruises, over the whole summer in the Mid-Atlantic Bight, and in June in the Bering Sea (Figure 2). They describe variability over a wide range of water types, from turbid, inshore waters to clear, oligotrophic, offshore waters, although the Bering Sea samples seem to fall as a group somewhat lower in $K_d$ (323 and 338 nm) than do the Mid-Atlantic Bight samples. The difference between the oceans may be the result of differences in the spectral backscattering and absorption ratios due to increased pigment packaging effects and/or a lower ratio of detrital to phytoplankton absorption in high-latitude than in midlatitude waters [e.g., Mitchell, 1992; Reynolds et al., 2001]. The general relationships represent the central trends for the conditions in the regions considered. They will likely be widely applicable, although they require further testing in the winter and in other locations.

[25] The relationships between $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ and $K_d$ appear to be linear at 338 and 323 nm (Figure 3). (A linear relationship can also be applied to the data at 380 nm, but with less confidence.) Some of the scatter in Figure 3 might be due to the variety of times of day and latitudes at which the $K_d$ measurements were made, which would change the geometry of the irradiance entering the water.

[26] $K_d$ is not the same as total absorption. It depends on the geometric distribution of radiation, which is influenced by scattering, Sun angle and atmospheric conditions. The average cosine of downwelling irradiance, $\overline{\cos(l)}$, is used to convert from $K_d(\lambda)$ to $a(\lambda)$ according to the following relation [Kirk, 1994]:

$$a(\lambda) = K_d(\lambda)\overline{\cos(l)}$$

(18)

The relationships between $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ and $K_d$ presented in equations (8)–(10) show that if $\overline{\cos(l)}$ in equation (18) were taken to be approximately 0.7 as is usual for visible radiation [see Ciotti et al., 1999], $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ would be greater than the total absorption coefficient calculated as $K_d(\lambda)\overline{\cos(l)}$. (Table 2 shows that the slopes of equations (8)–(10) are significantly greater than 0.7.) Previous work has shown the same paradox [Morris et al., 1995; DeGrandpre et al., 1996; Mitchell et al., 2002].

[27] Empirical and theoretical evidence suggests that $\overline{\cos(l)}$ must be higher than the values normally used for diffuse visible radiation. Measurements with a HobiLabs HydroRad-4 in Lake Superior, where optical conditions are similar to those in the midshelf region of the Mid-Atlantic Bight, show that $\overline{\cos(l)}$ is higher at shorter wavelengths and is 0.9 at 400 nm (A. Vodacek, personal communication, 2001). Mitchell et al. [2002] also found high values of $\overline{\cos(l)}$ for UV radiation. This result is supported by theory. Kirk [1994] and Bannister [1992] show with Monte Carlo simulations that the asymptotic $\overline{\cos(l)}$ increases as the ratio of scattering, $b(\lambda) \text{ (m}^{-1})$, to total absorption, $a(\lambda) \text{ (m}^{-1})$, decreases, and
approaches 1 as \( \frac{b(\lambda)}{a(\lambda)} \) approaches 0 for vertically incident light. The ratio \( \frac{b(\lambda)}{a(\lambda)} \) must be lower for UV than for visible radiation: absorption increases exponentially (proportional to \( e^\lambda \)) with decreasing wavelength, while scattering only increases (with decreasing wavelength) proportionally to wavelength to the power of 0–1 [Gordon et al., 1988] or 2 [Sathyendranath et al., 1989]. From Bannister’s [1992] model, a \( m_c \) of 0.9–0.97 for UV radiation is quite possible. The relationships between \( a_{CDOM} \) and \( K_d \) presented in equations (8)–(10) are consistent with this range of values of \( m_c \) for UV radiation. (Where individual values of \( m_c \) exceed 1, there must be an error associated with

Figure 6. Slope coefficient for CDOM absorption spectra (nm\(^{-1}\)) in the Georgia Bight, calculated from SeaWiFS normalized water-leaving radiance data, binned to 9 km \( \times \) 9 km, monthly resolution: (a) January 1999 and (b) July 1999.
the absorption and/or $K_d$ measurements, possibly due to wave focusing (e.g., Zaneveld et al., 2001).)

[28] Accepting that $\tau_{ww}$ might be close to 1 for UV radiation, CDOM appears to absorb about 90% of the incident UV radiation (equations (8)–(10)) in the offshore samples. This does not seem unreasonable in the open ocean where most of the CDOM comes from the decomposition of phytoplankton [Kalle, 1966], the only other open ocean component whose UV absorption varies seasonally. In the Delaware and Chesapeake Bays, CDOM is responsible for much less of the total attenuation than it is offshore. Both bays are visibly turbid, so particles probably absorb and scatter much of the incident radiation.

[29] The variation among the ratios $a_{CDOM}/K_d$ reported at 323, 338, and 380 nm requires some explanation. It might result from errors in the determination of $K_d$, wavelength-dependent variation of $\tau_{ww}$ or of the $a/b/a$ ratio, or from absorption by other components, such as the photoprotective mycosporine-like amino acid pigments, MAAs. These pigments are produced by some phytoplankton and absorb most strongly between 300 and 360 nm [Karentz et al., 1991; Vernet and Whitehead, 1996]. Interactions of this nature could represent a limitation to the remote determination of CDOM absorption coefficients, since, in a phytoplankton bloom which produces a high concentration of MAAs, the relationships developed above might not apply. The particularly high ratio of $a_{CDOM}$ to $K_d$ reported for 380 nm should be used with caution because of the low correlation coefficient of that relationship ($r^2 = 0.66$).

[30] Figure 4 shows a distinct seasonal change in UV attenuation. $K_d$ at 323 nm appears to have decreased by about 50% from May to August. Overall, the areas of low attenuation seem to have moved northward. Both coastal and offshore areas became more transparent to UV throughout the summer, although it is not possible from these images to determine whether the change was due more to in situ photobleaching of water or to decreased terrestrial runoff. Attenuation at 338 and 380 nm follows the same pattern, as does the CDOM absorption coefficient (data not shown), which is tied directly to $K_d$ in the equations used to generate the images. Vodacek et al. [1997] attributed a measured summertime decrease in surface layer absorbance by CDOM to photobleaching associated with prolonged shallow stratification of the surface layer. Increased penetration of UV combined with a shallowing of the surface mixed layer must result in higher exposures of phytoplankton and bacteria to UV in late summer.

[31] Figure 6 illustrates several points. As for $K_d$, the simple relationships derived in this work do not require the assumption of a single slope coefficient for all CDOM absorption spectra. There is a unique slope for every magnitude of the CDOM absorption coefficient at a given wavelength. The calculated slope coefficient of the log linearized CDOM absorption coefficient spectrum increases with distance from shore in the Georgia Bight (Figure 5), from about 0.014 nm$^{-1}$ close to shore to about 0.028 nm$^{-1}$ offshore, which is consistent with in situ measurements by Vodacek et al. [1997] ($0.01$ to $0.034$ nm$^{-1}$ in the Mid-Atlantic Bight) and Johannessen [2000]. Seasonal changes are also apparent in this figure. In July the slope coefficient is generally higher than it is in January, and it increases more quickly and less smoothly with distance from shore. Our method cannot predict changes in slope coefficient independent of changes in the magnitude of UV attenuation. However, it is relevant that the higher slope coefficient offshore may be due to photobleaching, as suggested by Vodacek et al. [1997] for the Mid-Atlantic Bight. The more distinct zonation apparent in the July figure may relate to lower terrestrial runoff and increased stability of the water column, but it is difficult to ascertain the causes of the patterns in these remote measurements.

5. Conclusion

[32] The empirical relationships reported here may be used to calculate UV attenuation and CDOM absorption coefficients from remotely sensed visible reflectance data. The relationships specify an increase of the spectral slope coefficients for both attenuation and CDOM absorption as attenuation and absorption decrease, although the spectral slope coefficient of CDOM absorption should be used with caution in waters with low $K_d$. The empirical relationships we describe apply over a wide range of water types, in two oceans. Their application to the Mid-Atlantic Bight shows a distinct seasonal change in UV attenuation. The $a_{CDOM}$ slope coefficient image produced for the Georgia Bight shows that they give reasonable remote estimates for this important optical property. The main uses of these relationships will probably be to correct chlorophyll algorithms, to calculate photochemical reaction rates, and to help determine where and when to study in situ changes in optical properties.

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