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1 **System Vicarious Calibration for Ocean Color Climate Change Applications:**
2 **Requirements for *In Situ* Data**

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30 ABSTRACT

31 System Vicarious Calibration (SVC) ensures a relative radiometric calibration to satellite ocean color
32 sensors that minimizes uncertainties in the water-leaving radiance L_w derived from the top of atmosphere
33 radiance L_T . This is achieved through the application of gain-factors, g -factors, to pre-launch absolute
34 radiometric calibration coefficients of the satellite sensor corrected for temporal changes in radiometric
35 sensitivity. The g -factors are determined by the ratio of simulated to measured spectral L_T values where
36 the former are computed using: *i.* highly accurate *in situ* L_w reference measurements; and *ii.* the same
37 atmospheric models and algorithms applied for the atmospheric correction of satellite data. By analyzing
38 basic relations between relative uncertainties of L_w and L_T , and g -factors consistently determined for the
39 same satellite mission using different *in situ* data sources, this work suggests that the creation of ocean
40 color Climate Data Records (CDRs) should ideally rely on: *i.* one main long-term *in situ* calibration
41 system (site and radiometry) established and sustained with the objective to maximize accuracy and
42 precision over time of g -factors and thus minimize possible biases among satellite data products from
43 different missions; and additionally *ii.* unique (i.e., standardized) atmospheric model and algorithms for
44 atmospheric correction to maximize cross-mission consistency of data products at locations different
45 from that supporting SVC. Finally, accounting for results from the study and elements already provided
46 in literature, requirements and recommendations for SVC sites and field radiometric measurements are
47 streamlined.

48
49 Keywords: Ocean Color, System Vicarious Calibration, Climate Data Record

50 1. Introduction

51 In recent decades, measurements of ocean color from earth-orbiting satellite sensors have
52 demonstrated high value for a number of applications ranging from regional water quality assessment
53 (e.g., Attila et al. 2013) to global climate change investigations (e.g., Behrenfeld et al. 2006). Confidence
54 in results from these applications, however, depends on accuracy of the satellite-derived data products.
55 The primary ocean color product is the spectral water-leaving radiance L_w , i.e., the radiance emerging
56 from the sea that is retrieved from the total radiance L_T detected by the satellite, whose accuracy
57 determines those of satellite-derived data products. These include the spectral distribution of the
58 normalized water-leaving radiance L_{wN} (i.e., the water-leaving radiance that would occur with no
59 atmosphere, the sun at the zenith and at the mean sun-earth distance) or of the equivalent remote sensing
60 reflectance R_{RS} , applied to determine geophysical quantities such as the near-surface chlorophyll-a
61 concentration (*Chla*).

62 Early accuracy requirements for satellite ocean color data products generally refer to the work of
63 Gordon and Clark (1981), Gordon et al. (1983) and Gordon (1987). By considering oligotrophic waters,
64 they indicated a 5% uncertainty for L_w in the blue spectral region to allow for the determination of *Chla*
65 concentration with a 35% maximum uncertainty. Subsequently, spectrally independent uncertainties of
66 5%, with a 1% inter-band uncertainty, were included among the objectives of the Sea-viewing Wide
67 Field-of-view Sensor (SeaWiFS) mission (Hooker et al. 1992). These target uncertainties were later
68 retained for successive missions and have become a science requirement for the ocean color community.

69 Achievement of the spectrally independent 5% uncertainty target in satellite-derived L_w is mostly
70 challenged by the accuracy of the absolute radiometric calibration of satellite optical sensors and
71 additionally by uncertainties in the quantification of the large atmospheric perturbations affecting L_T . In
72 particular, current uncertainties of approximately 2-3% (Butler et al. 2007, Eplee et al. 2011, Esposito et
73 al. 2004) in the absolute radiometric calibration of satellite sensors in the visible spectral region and the
74 additional uncertainties affecting the atmospheric correction process generally larger than a few percent
75 (IOCCG 2010), may lead to large differences among multi-mission L_w data (Zibordi et al. 2006).

76 These limitations can be resolved through the so-called System Vicarious Calibration (SVC) that
77 determines vicarious adjustment gain-factors g (hereafter g -factors) for absolute radiometric calibration
78 coefficients of satellite sensors (Gordon 1998) through simulation of top-of-atmosphere L_T using: *i.*
79 highly accurate *in situ* L_w reference measurements; and *ii.* the same atmospheric models and algorithms
80 as applied for the atmospheric correction of satellite data. The g -factors, determined by the ratio of
81 simulated to measured spectral L_T values, aim at minimizing the combined effects of: *i.* uncertainties due
82 to the absolute pre-flight radiometric calibration and characterization of the satellite sensor after
83 correction for sensitivity change with time; and *ii.* inaccuracy of the models and algorithms applied in
84 the atmospheric correction to determine L_w from L_T . Clearly, the SVC process allows the determination
85 of L_w with the lowest uncertainty when satellite observation conditions are equivalent to those
86 characterizing the data applied for the calculation of g -factors (i.e., when mean biases affecting the SVC
87 and the regular atmospheric correction processes are identical and fully compensate each other). It must
88 be emphasized that the system nature of SVC requires re-computing g -factors after any change in the
89 models or algorithms applied for the atmospheric correction, or any significant change in instrument
90 absolute or temporal calibration knowledge.

91 By considering uncertainty requirements for satellite-derived L_w applicable for the construction of
92 Climate Data Records (CDRs), which serve as core climate benchmark observations, the present work
93 investigates the calibration needs for L_T with the objective of discussing requirements for *in situ* L_w data
94 suitable for the determination of g -factors.

95

96

97 **2. System Vicarious Calibration Requirements**

98 Vicarious calibration broadly refers to the indirect calibration of satellite sensors through simulation of
99 top-of-atmosphere data (Koepke 1982). Generic vicarious calibration methods based on atmospheric
100 models and algorithms different from those applied for the operational data processing cannot reduce
101 absolute uncertainties in derived radiometric calibration factors below a few percent (IOCCG, 2013).

102 This may lead to very large uncertainties in satellite-derived L_w (see §2.1). Consequently, unlike SVC
103 that minimizes uncertainties in retrieved L_w (Gordon 1998), generic vicarious calibration methods are
104 best applied for the quality check of pre-launch absolute radiometric calibrations of satellite ocean color
105 sensors.

106 In view of supporting the discussion on accuracy and precision needs for g -factors from SVC, the
107 following subsections will review: *i.* requirements for the construction of CDRs from satellite-derived
108 L_w ; and *ii.* legacy requirements for *in situ* L_w reference measurements.

109

110 ***2.1 Requirements for CDRs of L_w***

111 CDRs of Essential Climate Variables (ECVs) are intended to support climate change investigations
112 through time-series of core benchmark observations with enough accuracy to allow the detection of long-
113 term trends embedded in large natural variations (Leroy et al. 2008).

114 Requirements for the generation of a CDR of satellite-derived L_{WN} from L_w (WMO 2011), which is the
115 fundamental satellite ocean color ECV, include:

116 1. Radiometric uncertainty lower than 5% in the blue and green spectral regions (downscaled with
117 respect to the spectrally independent 5% uncertainty target listed among the objectives of several ocean
118 color missions);

119 2. Stability better than 0.5% over a decade.

120 The requirement on uncertainty is essential to understand climate-driven processes and changes, while
121 the requirement on stability is essential to confidently determine long-term changes or trends (Ohring et
122 al. 2005).

123 As already anticipated, the strict requirement of 5% maximum uncertainty for L_w determined from L_T
124 at relevant wavelengths, requires the application of SVC. While this need is commonly accepted by the
125 satellite ocean color community, the accuracy and precision required for g -factors for different missions
126 supporting the creation of CDRs appears less consolidated.

127 To strictly address such a need, the relationship linking uncertainties in L_w and L_T is hereafter
 128 investigated through the use of the measurement equation. Specifically, in the absence of atmospheric
 129 gaseous absorption and sun glint and foam perturbations, the top-of-atmosphere radiance L_T can be
 130 related to L_w through the following simplified model

131

$$132 \quad L_T = L_R + L_A + L_w t_d \quad (1)$$

133 where L_R and L_A indicate the Rayleigh and aerosol atmospheric radiance contributions, and t_d is the
 134 diffuse atmospheric transmittance that varies with atmospheric path-length and constituents. By
 135 assuming the values of L_R and L_A are exactly determined for any given observation condition, following
 136 the Guide to the Expression of Uncertainty in Measurement (JCGM, 2008) Zibordi and Voss (2014)
 137 provided equations relating absolute uncertainties of L_T , $u(L_T)$, to those of L_w , $u(L_w)$, and also linking
 138 relative uncertainties $u(L_T)/L_T$ to $u(L_w)/L_w$. In agreement with their work, $u(L_T)$ and $u(L_T)/L_T$ are given by

139

$$140 \quad u(L_T) = u(L_w) t_d \quad (2)$$

141 and

$$142 \quad \frac{u(L_T)}{L_T} = \frac{u(L_w)}{L_w} t_d \frac{L_w}{L_T}. \quad (3)$$

143 For the purpose of this study centered on SVC, the uncertainties related to the atmospheric correction
 144 process do not influence the determination of L_w because both SVC and the atmospheric correction rely
 145 on the same robust atmospheric models and algorithms. Thus, to a first approximation Eq. 2 indicates
 146 that the absolute uncertainties $u(L_T)$ and $u(L_w)$ are solely related by the factor t_d . Differently, Eq. 3 shows
 147 that relative uncertainties $u(L_T)/L_T$ and $u(L_w)/L_w$ are additionally related by the ratio L_w/L_T . Because of
 148 this, while the relation between absolute uncertainties only slightly varies with the atmospheric optical
 149 properties through t_d , the dependence between relative uncertainties is highly variable with both marine
 150 and atmospheric optical properties, which affect the term $t_d \cdot L_w/L_T$. Thus, while satellite-derived L_w may

151 exhibit similar absolute uncertainties for data collected over different water types, the corresponding
152 relative uncertainties may largely differ as a function of L_w and L_T . Considering that requirements for
153 satellite ocean color CDRs are provided in relative terms (e.g., see Ohring et al. 2005 and WMO 2011),
154 the following analysis only focuses on relative uncertainties.

155 Rearranging Eq. 3 as a function of $u(L_T)/L_T$, for which a realistic spectrally independent radiometric
156 uncertainty of 2% is assumed together with an ideal value of $t_d=1$, $u(L_w)/L_w$ would be approximately
157 20%, 40% and 200% for L_w/L_T equal to 0.10, 0.05 and 0.01, respectively. These uncertainty values,
158 which may tentatively refer to blue, green and red wavelengths in oligotrophic waters, show the
159 impossibility of meeting science requirements when only relying on current absolute radiometric
160 calibration uncertainties, even assuming an exact quantification of the atmospheric perturbations.

161 Conversely, the application of Eq. 3 assuming $t_d=1$ and a spectrally independent uncertainty of 5% for
162 L_w , implies values of $u(L_T)/L_T$ as low as 0.5%, 0.25% and 0.05% for L_w/L_T equal to 0.10, 0.05 and 0.01,
163 respectively. These values provide an estimate for the required spectral uncertainties of absolute
164 radiometric calibrations for satellite ocean color sensors and further confirm that: *i.* even assuming that
165 the uncertainties in $u(L_w)/L_w$ due to atmospheric correction are negligible, the sole uncertainties currently
166 affecting in-flight absolute radiometric calibration are an impediment to meet ocean color science
167 requirements for CDRs; and that *ii.* SVC is the only viable alternative to overcome limitations due to
168 uncertainties in absolute radiometric calibration and atmospheric correction. It is additionally observed
169 that, even accounting for future developments in absolute radiometric calibration, that are expected to
170 considerably reduce uncertainties (Cramer et al. 2013 and Levick et al. 2014), SVC will still remain an
171 essential component of any ocean color mission to minimize effects of inaccurate atmospheric
172 corrections.

173

174 ***2.2 Legacy Requirements for SVC sites and data***

175 Early indications on the appropriateness of SVC sites for global missions (mostly derived from Gordon
176 (1998)) include:

177 i. Cloud free, very clear and maritime atmosphere with aerosol optical thickness $\tau_a < 0.1$ in the visible,
178 which maximizes the potential number of satellite and *in situ* coincident data (i.e., matchups) and
179 additionally optimizes the performance of the atmospheric correction process;

180 ii. Horizontally uniform L_w over spatial scales of a few kilometers to increase the comparability
181 between satellite and *in situ* data at different spatial resolutions;

182 iii. Mesotrophic waters to minimize the effects of *in situ* L_w measurement uncertainties in the blue
183 spectral region (this requirement has been considered less stringent with respect to the previous two,
184 leading to consider oligotrophic waters as an appropriate alternative);

185 iv. Coincident aerosol measurements to assess the atmospheric correction process.

186 In situ L_w data applicable for SVC are expected to have low uncertainty through the application of
187 state-of-the-art instrumentation, data reduction and quality assurance/control. Indications, mostly derived
188 from Clark et al. (2002), include the need for:

189 i. Hyper-spectral measurements to cover any ocean color spectral band regardless of its center-
190 wavelengths and spectral responses;

191 ii. Fully characterized *in situ* radiometers to minimize uncertainties and allow their comprehensive
192 quantification;

193 iii. Traceability of data to the International System of Units (SI) to ensure consistency with community
194 shared measurement methods and standards.

195 Also, in the case of global data products contributing to the construction of CDRs, SVC should be
196 applied using *in situ* L_w from measurement sites representative of the most common satellite observation
197 conditions, i.e., the world oceans. The determination of regional g -factors has also been proposed for
198 areas exhibiting unique optical features (Franz et al. 2007). It is, however, recognized that this solution is
199 mostly intended to support local applications where accurate *in situ* L_w data exist.

200 Ultimately, the limited number of highly accurate *in situ* data and their high costs challenge SVC at
201 large. This has generated debates on the suitability of a number of data sources for SVC and also
202 motivation for various studies to explore legacy requirements. These studies have produced a number of

203 g -factors for the same satellite sensor relying on equivalent versions of the atmospheric correction code,
204 but using L_w from different sources. As will be shown later, results offer the great opportunity to
205 investigate differences among actual g -factors in view of discussing implications for the creation of
206 CDRs.

207

208

209 **3. Literature data**

210 Among *in situ* systems specifically designed to support SVC for satellite ocean color sensors, only two
211 ensured almost continuous data collection across a number of satellite ocean color missions. These are: *i.*
212 the Marine Optical Buoy (MOBY) developed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
213 (NOAA) and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) for the SeaWiFS and the
214 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) (Clark et al. 1997); and *ii.* the Buoy for the
215 Acquisition of a Long-Term Optical Time Series (Bouée pour L'acquisition de Séries Optiques à Long
216 Terme, BOUSSOLE), developed for the Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS) by the
217 Laboratoire d'Océanographie de Villefranche (LOV) in collaboration with a number of agencies
218 (Antoine et al. 2008a).

219 Aside from MOBY and BOUSSOLE (Eplee et al. 2001, Franz et al. 2007, Bailey et al. 2008), a
220 number of alternative data sources were considered for SVC of SeaWiFS data (see Table 1). These
221 included *in situ* data sets obtained by combining measurements from a variety of instruments and
222 reduction schemes (Bailey et al. 2008), data from specific coastal areas commonly applied for regional
223 investigations (Mélin and Zibordi 2010), as well as modeled data (Werdell et al. 2007). Derived g -
224 factors, consistently determined by applying the scheme detailed in Franz et al. (2007) and the SeaWiFS
225 Data Analysis System (SeaDAS, Fu et al. 1998) software package (version 5), are summarized in Table
226 2.

227 In agreement with Franz et al. (2007) and with specific reference to SeaWiFS center-wavelengths, g -
228 factors are assumed fixed and equal to unity at 865 nm, while the value at 765 nm is computed by

229 imposing a pure maritime aerosol model for locations in the oligotrophic gyres of the southern
 230 hemisphere. Spectral g -factors in the visible, which are those listed in Table 2, are successively
 231 determined from the average of individual factors computed imposing *in situ* reference water-leaving
 232 radiances as target values for the satellite-derived L_w . It is important to note that the averaging reduces
 233 the effects of random contributions to uncertainties in g -factors, but it does not remove the effects of any
 234 bias.

235 Recalling that unity g -factors indicate no correction, the values in Table 2 exhibit high consistency
 236 with differences generally within a few tenths of percent. The standard deviation, σ_g , gives an indication
 237 of the precision affecting the SVC process as mostly resulting from *in situ* radiometer stability or varying
 238 observation conditions. It is noted that the number of matchups used for SVC in all cases is larger than
 239 the approximate 40 estimated by Franz et al. (2007) to determine sufficiently precise g -factors for
 240 SeaWiFS using MOBY data. However, it is expected that such a number, implicitly referred to
 241 SeaWiFS-MOBY matchups, may change when considering observation conditions different from those
 242 offered by the MOBY site or satellite sensor performances different from those of SeaWiFS.

243 General elements on the various data sources utilized for the determination of the g -factors listed in
 244 Table 2 are summarized in the following sub-sections.

245

246 Table 1. General elements on the various sources utilized for SVC of SeaWiFS data: measurement
 247 method, spectral features and site location (see text for additional details).

Data Source	L_w Method	Spectral Features	Site
MOBY	In-water, fixed depths	Hyper-spectral	Pacific Ocean (Hawaii)
MOBY-MS	In-water, fixed depths	Reduced resolution	Pacific Ocean (Hawaii)
BOUSSOLE	In-water, fixed depths	Multi-spectral	Ligurian Sea
NOMAD	Various	Various	Various
AAOT	Above-water	Multi spectral	Adriatic Sea
HOT-ORM	Modeled	User definable	Pacific Ocean (Hawaii)
BATS-ORM	Modeled	User Definable	Atlantic Ocean (Bermuda)

248

249 Table 2. Values of g -factors (g) and related standard deviations (σ_g) determined for SeaWiFS at its
 250 center-wavelengths. N indicates the number of matchups used for their determination, and Y the
 251 approximate number of measurement years.

	Wavelength		412		443		490		510		555		670	
Data Source	Y	N	g	σ_g										
⁽¹⁾ MOBY	7	166	1.0368	0.009	1.0132	0.009	0.9918	0.008	0.9982	0.009	0.9993	0.009	0.9729	0.007
⁽¹⁾ MOBY-MS	7	166	1.0401	0.009	1.0136	0.009	0.9949	0.008	0.9937	0.009	0.9958	0.009	0.9691	0.007
⁽¹⁾ BOUSSOLE	3	46 ⁽⁴⁾	1.0402	0.005	1.0129	0.027	0.9961	0.033	1.0015	0.031	1.0007	0.021	0.9672	0.006
⁽¹⁾ NOMAD	7	64	1.0395	0.013	1.0135	0.013	0.9967	0.014	0.9962	0.017	0.9989	0.013	0.9693	0.009
⁽²⁾ AAOT	5	99	1.0425	0.012	1.0143	0.014	0.9969	0.018	0.9977	0.019	1.0034	0.022	0.9819	0.020
⁽³⁾ HOT-ORM	7	176	1.0300	0.015	1.0086	0.012	0.9879	0.009	0.9979	0.008	1.0046	0.009	0.9718	0.006
⁽³⁾ BATS-ORM	7	241	1.0345	0.018	1.0020	0.016	0.9814	0.013	0.9941	0.011	1.0016	0.011	0.9731	0.006

252 ⁽¹⁾ Bailey et al. (2008), ⁽²⁾ Mélin and Zibordi (2010), ⁽³⁾ Werdell et al. (2007). ⁽⁴⁾ 5 matchups at 412 nm, only.

253

254 **3.1 MOBY and MOBY-MS**

255 Since 1997, MOBY has been deployed approximately 11 nautical miles from Lanai (Hawaii) in 1200
 256 m water depth (Clark et al. 1997, Clark et al. 2002). The site was selected based on requirements for an
 257 ideal SVC location and accounting for the need to ensure economical and convenient access to shore
 258 facilities.

259 The main components of the MOBY system are: *i.* a spar buoy tethered to a moored buoy; and *ii.* a
 260 hyper-spectral radiometer operating in the 340-955 nm spectral region with 1 nm resolution, coupled via
 261 fiber optics to a number of radiance and irradiance collectors. These collectors ensure measurements of
 262 in-water downward irradiance and upwelling radiance at 1, 5 and 9 m depth. Above-water downward
 263 irradiance is additionally measured at 2.5 m above the sea surface. The MOBY radiometer system
 264 undergoes regular characterizations and calibrations to guarantee high accuracy and traceability of data
 265 to the US National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST). Internal system sources allow daily
 266 monitoring of radiometric stability. By statistically combining uncertainty contributions including those
 267 related to the calibration source and its transfer, radiometric stability during deployments, and

268 environmental effects, Brown et al. (2007) showed the capability of reducing uncertainties to
269 approximately 3% in the 412-666 nm spectral interval for upwelling radiance L_u used to determine L_w .

270 A total of 166 MOBY-SeaWiFS matchups fulfilling strict SVC criteria (Bailey and Werdell 2006,
271 Franz et al. 2007) over a 7-year period, were applied by Bailey et al. (2008) to produce the SeaWiFS g -
272 factors. Criteria for the inclusion of SeaWiFS data resulting from the average of L_w values from the 5×5
273 pixels centered at the MOBY site, are: no processing flag raised (e.g., indicating cloud contamination,
274 glint perturbations, navigation problems or failure of the atmospheric correction); satellite viewing angle
275 less than 56 degrees; sun zenith angle less than 70 degrees; $Chla$ lower than $0.2 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$; τ_a in the near
276 infrared lower than 0.15; and coefficient of variation less than 0.15 for L_{WN} in the blue-green spectral
277 regions and τ_a in the near-infrared. It is anticipated that similar matchup selection criteria were applied to
278 the other datasets included in this review.

279 The qualified matchups were constructed by convolving MOBY hyperspectral L_w data with the actual
280 SeaWiFS spectral band responses. Bailey et al. (2008) also considered the parallel case of MOBY L_w
281 averaged over 10 nm bandwidths with center-wavelengths corresponding to those of SeaWiFS. These g -
282 factors, referred to as MOBY-Multispectral (MOBY-MS), provide the unique opportunity to look into
283 changes only due to differences in spectral resolution. In fact the radiometer system and measurement
284 conditions are exactly the same for both hyperspectral and derived multispectral data.

285

286 **3.2 BOUSSOLE**

287 BOUSSOLE, operated in the Ligurian Sea since 2003, has been deployed at approximately 32 nautical
288 miles from the coast in 2440 m water depth and relies on a moored buoy optimized to maximize its
289 vertical stability and minimize the shading effects of its superstructure (Antoine et al. 2008a). Optical
290 instrumentation on the buoy includes 7-band commercial radiometers with 10 nm bandwidth in the 400-
291 700 nm spectral region. In-water upwelling radiance, upward irradiance, and downward irradiance are
292 measured with radiometers deployed at 4 and 9 m depths, while the downward irradiance is also

293 measured at 4 m above the sea surface. Spectrally independent uncertainty values of approximately 6%
294 have been declared for the normalized remote sensing reflectance determined from L_w (Antoine et al.
295 2008b). Since 2008, BOUSSOLE is also equipped with hyperspectral radiometers to measure the in-
296 water upwelling radiance and downward irradiance, and the above-water downward irradiance. Data
297 from these instruments, which are not part of this study, will be relevant for vicarious calibration
298 activities of future missions.

299 A significant difference characterizes the extrapolation methods applied to subsurface radiometric data
300 from MOBY and BOUSSOLE. While MOBY values are simply determined from the linear fit of log-
301 transformed radiometric measurements with respect to depth, BOUSSOLE sub-surface values result
302 from the propagation of the 4 and 9 m depth values to the surface through models. This latter data
303 reduction scheme, requiring estimates of $Chla$, takes into account Raman effects and the related
304 nonlinearity of the log-transformed radiometric measurements with depth. Differences between the linear
305 fits of log-transformed radiometric measurements and modelled values, are within a few percent at 412
306 nm but increase up to several tens percent at 670 nm (Antoine et al. 2008b).

307 BOUSSOLE data were also considered by Bailey et al. (2008) for the determination of SeaWiFS g -
308 factors. Specifically, 46 matchups were identified from approximately a 3-year data record by relaxing
309 the inclusion criteria on $Chla$ (0.25 instead of 0.20 $\mu\text{g l}^{-1}$). However, only 5 matchups were available for
310 the 412 nm center-wavelength due to unavailability of the spectral band during some deployments.

311

312 **3.3 NOMAD**

313 The NASA bio-Optical Algorithm Data set (NOMAD, Werdell and Bailey 2005) includes multi-site
314 and multi-source data resulting from the reprocessing and strict quality control of radiometric
315 measurements from the SeaWiFS Bio-Optical Archive and Storage System (SeaBASS). The variety of
316 measurement methods, instruments, calibration and also data reduction schemes, make it difficult to
317 assign well-defined uncertainties to the NOMAD radiometric data set.

318 The SeaWiFS g -factors determined from NOMAD (Bailey et al. 2008) were computed using 64
319 matchups fulfilling SVC selection criteria –out of a total of 1039. These field radiometry data result from
320 overall 3475 quality controlled measurements out of 15400 from 1350 field campaigns included in
321 SeaBASS. These numbers clearly indicate the difficulty of supporting SVC with *in situ* L_w data from
322 repositories constructed for applications more focused on validation and development rather than
323 vicarious calibration.

324

325 **3.4 AAOT**

326 In contrast with MOBY and BOUSSOLE data, which are collected with systems specifically designed
327 to support SVC, time-series data from a number of globally distributed coastal sites established to
328 support satellite ocean color validation activities are accessible through the Ocean Color component of
329 the Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET-OC, Zibordi et al. 2009). AERONET-OC field radiometers
330 perform multispectral L_w measurements at a number of ocean color bands with center-wavelengths in the
331 410-1020 nm spectral region and 10 nm bandwidth. Data collection, reduction and quality control rely
332 on standardized methods (Zibordi et al. 2009) assuring cross-site consistency to data products. Among
333 AERONET-OC sites, the Acqua Alta Oceanographic Tower (AAOT, often indicated as ‘Venise’),
334 located in the northern Adriatic Sea at approximately 8 nautical miles from the main land, since 2003 has
335 provided an almost uninterrupted series of data largely applied for the validation of multi-mission ocean
336 color radiometric data (e.g., Zibordi et al. 2006, Mélin et al. 2011, Zibordi et al. 2012). Uncertainties of
337 5% in the blue-green and 8% in the red spectral regions have been quantified for the AAOT fully quality
338 assured normalized water-leaving radiance determined from L_w (Gergely and Zibordi 2014).

339 AERONET-OC data from the AAOT were used by Mélin and Zibordi (2010) for the determination of
340 regional SeaWiFS g -factors. Specifically, 99 qualified matchups were identified from a 5-year data set
341 by relaxing some selection criteria (e.g., accepting $Chla$ up to $3 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ and coefficient of variation up to
342 0.20 in the blue-green spectral region for satellite data). A particular effort was devoted to correct *in situ*
343 L_w spectra for the effects of differences in center-wavelengths with respect to SeaWiFS bands.

344 Results from the study give insight on the relevance of coastal vicarious calibration sites for regional
345 investigations and additionally provide elements to evaluate their suitability for global applications. Still,
346 the spatial and inter-annual variability of both atmospheric and water optical properties in the region do
347 not support the selection of the AAOT as a SVC site for the creation of CDRs.

348

349 **3.5 HOT-ORM and BATS-ORM**

350 Ocean Reflectance Models (ORM) are an additional source of radiance spectra (Morel and Maritorena,
351 2001) expected to be of suitable accuracy for oceanic waters. Even though these models are mostly
352 relevant for bio-optical investigations or as diagnostic tools, their usefulness for SVC has been
353 investigated by Werdell et al. (2007) to verify their fitness for historical satellite ocean color sensors (i.e.,
354 CZCS and OCTS) for which an extensive time-series of *in situ* radiometric measurements do not exist.

355 The SeaWiFS *g*-factors determined using ORM methodology include those relying on the *Chla* time-
356 series from the U.S. Joint Global Ocean Flux Study (JGOFS) Bermuda Atlantic Time-series Study
357 (BATS) and Hawaiian Ocean Time-series (HOT). Specifically, ORM-BATS *g*-factors were determined
358 using 241 matchups from 1998 to 2004, while ORM-HOT *g*-factors were computed for the same period
359 with 176 matchups (Werdell et al. 2007). Comprehensive uncertainty estimates for modeled L_w were not
360 provided.

361

362

363 **4. Analysis and discussion**

364 It shall be noted that the *g*-factors in Table 2 were determined with an earlier version of the SeaDAS
365 processor (i.e., version 5) based on an atmospheric model and pre-launch absolute calibration factors
366 (specifically at 412 nm) different from those currently in use. Because of this, the *g*-factors in Table 2
367 need to be considered outdated for present SeaWiFS data processing. Still, they are the result of a unique
368 combination of investigations and remain a convenient data set to explore effects of differences among
369 *g*-factors in the creation of CDRs. Making use of these data, the following analysis focuses on percent

370 differences between g -factors determined from MOBY data, g^{MOBY} , and those from other data sources, g ,
 371 computed as

$$372 \quad \Delta g = 100 \frac{g - g^{MOBY}}{g^{MOBY}} \quad (4)$$

373 The choice of the g -factors from MOBY as the reference is justified by its ideal location (exhibiting
 374 oligotrophic waters and maritime aerosol, in addition to annual cycles of small amplitude) and an
 375 extensive characterization of field radiometers and careful examination of radiometric uncertainties. This
 376 choice, however, has not to be interpreted as implicitly advocating the use of MOBY for SVC of any
 377 satellite ocean color mission.

378 For completeness it is also mentioned that the HOT-ORM and BATS-ORM g -factors included in
 379 Table 2, were discussed by Werdell et al. (2007) with respect to the older MOBY g -factors determined
 380 by Franz et al. (2007) on the basis of 150 match-ups. Those g -factors exhibit spectrally averaged
 381 differences of -0.09% with respect to the more recent values by Bailey et al. (2008) used in the current
 382 analysis. Still, the changes in the values of Δg for HOT-ORM and BATS-ORM resulting from the
 383 application of the g -factors from Franz et al. (2007) instead of those from Bailey et al. (2008), does not
 384 affect the following discussion and conclusions.

385

386 Table 3. Relative percent differences Δg between SeaWiFS g -factors determined using Eq. 4 applied to
 387 data in Table 2. The values in bold indicate Δg exceeding $\pm 0.3\%$ in the blue-green spectral regions and
 388 $\pm 0.1\%$ in the red.

Wavelength	412	443	490	510	555	670
Data Source	Δg [%]					
MOBY-MS	+0.32	+0.04	+0.31	-0.45	-0.35	-0.39
BOUSSOLE	+0.33	-0.03	+0.43	+0.33	+0.14	-0.59
NOMAD	+0.26	+0.03	+0.49	-0.20	-0.04	-0.37
AAOT	+0.55	+0.11	+0.51	-0.05	+0.41	+0.93
HOT-ORM	-0.66	-0.45	-0.39	-0.03	+0.53	-0.11
BATS-ORM	-0.22	-1.11	-1.05	-0.41	+0.23	+0.02

389

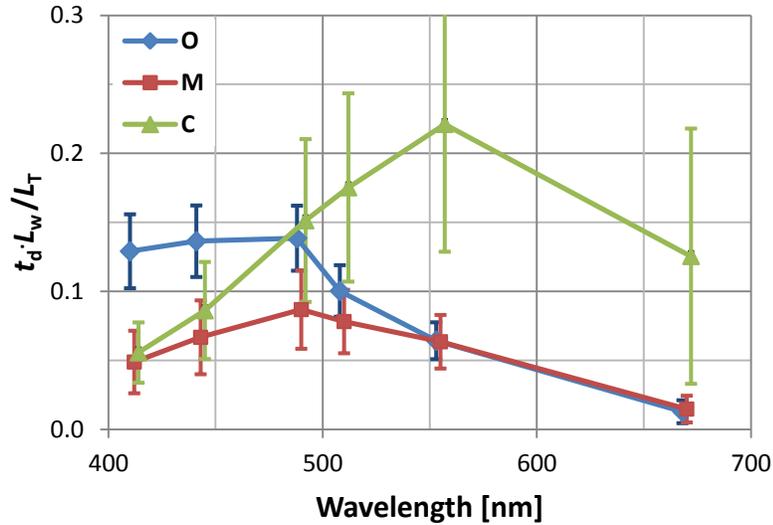
390 The Δg values in Table 3 from the same data source (i.e., inter-band) or across data sources (i.e., intra-
391 band) are generally lower than $\pm 0.5\%$.

392 At a first scrutiny, the values of Δg determined for the AAOT and HOT-ORM appear to slightly differ
393 from those determined for a more ideal site like BOUSSOLE or from a very large pool of data like
394 NOMAD. Also interesting are the values of Δg determined for MOBY-MS, which clearly indicate the
395 appreciable effects of non-matching spectral bands or SeaWiFS out-of-band responses, and consequently
396 the importance of *in situ* hyperspectral L_w data.

397 Excluding HOT-ORM and BATS-ORM, the values of Δg exhibit high intra-band consistency between
398 412 and 490 nm, while they show a larger spread between 510 and 670 nm. Excluding a few spectral
399 values from HOT-ORM (i.e., 412 nm), BATS-ORM (i.e., 443 and 490 nm) and AAOT (i.e., 670 nm), Δg
400 is generally lower than $\pm 0.5\%$ for all the data sources.

401 In view of more quantitatively investigating differences in g -factors, Eq. 3 is applied to compute
402 $u(L_T)/L_T$ as a function of $u(L_w)/L_w$ accounting for actual mean spectral values of the term $t_d \cdot L_w/L_T$
403 determined using 1997-2010 SeaWiFS data for three different locations: the MOBY site in the Pacific
404 Ocean with mean satellite-derived $Chla$ of $0.08 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ representing oligotrophic waters (O); the
405 BOUSSOLE site in the Ligurian Sea with mean $Chla$ of $0.36 \pm 0.37 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$ representing mesotrophic
406 waters (M); and the AAOT coastal site in the northern Adriatic Sea with mean $Chla$ of $1.74 \pm 1.40 \mu\text{g l}^{-1}$
407 representing coastal waters moderately dominated by sediments (C). When considering all three water
408 types (see Fig. 1), $t_d \cdot L_w/L_T$ exhibits a large range of mean values spanning from approximately 0.07-0.14
409 at 490 nm, 0.06-0.22 at 555 nm and 0.01-0.12 at 670 nm. These differences are mostly due to site
410 dependent changes in L_w and L_A , both contributing to L_T (see Eq. 1).

411 As already stated in §2.1, the following analysis assumes the uncertainties related to the atmospheric
412 correction process do not affect the determination of satellite-derived L_w because of the use of the same
413 atmospheric models and algorithms for SVC and for atmospheric correction.



414

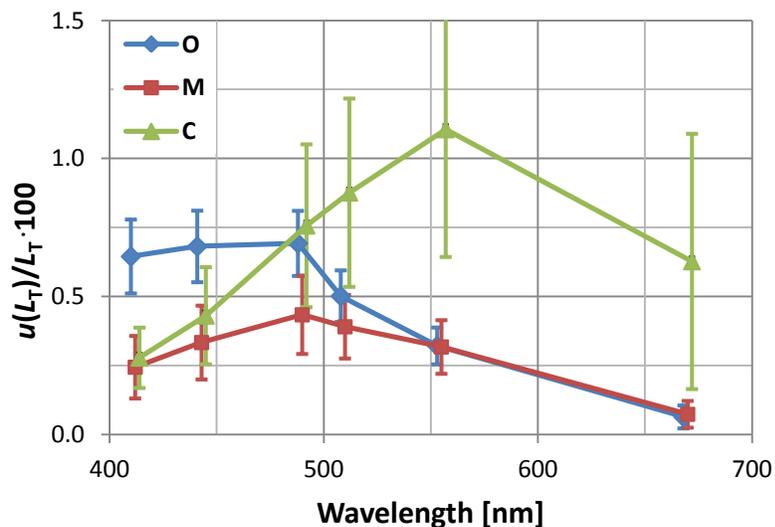
415 Figure 1. Spectral values of $t_d \cdot L_w / L_T$ for oligotrophic (O), mesotrophic (M) and coastal (C) waters.
 416 Mean values and standard deviations σ (indicated by the vertical error bars), result from the analysis of
 417 814, 1487 and 1045 SeaWiFS data extractions, respectively. The center-wavelengths between spectra
 418 have been shifted by ± 2 nm to increase readability.

419

420 Fig. 2 summarizes results from the application of Eq. 3 using identical spectrally independent relative
 421 uncertainties for *in situ* L_w (i.e., 5%). The derived values of $u(L_T) / L_T$ exhibit a significant spectral
 422 dependence and, as expected, are smaller when $t_d \cdot L_w / L_T$ is smaller (i.e., in correspondence with the
 423 lower values of L_w). Specifically, the lowest $u(L_T) / L_T$ are observed for mesotrophic waters with values
 424 included in the range of approximately 0.2-0.5% in the blue-green spectral regions, and dropping below
 425 0.1% at 670 nm. The values observed for the oligotrophic waters are higher in the blue spectral region
 426 with values approaching 0.7%. In agreement with the higher values of L_w , $u(L_T) / L_T$ computed for the
 427 coastal waters reach 1.1% at 555 nm and 0.6% at 670 nm. It is mentioned that differences in the
 428 observation conditions at the various sites or in the spectral values of $u(L_w) / L_w$, may lead to $u(L_T) / L_T$
 429 different from those presented in Fig. 2. Additionally, the relative combined uncertainty value of L_T
 430 determined from a number N of *in situ* L_w data obtained with equivalent observation conditions would

431 decrease with respect to the value of $u(L_T)/L_T$ from an individual L_w due to the statistical averaging of the
 432 random component of uncertainties.

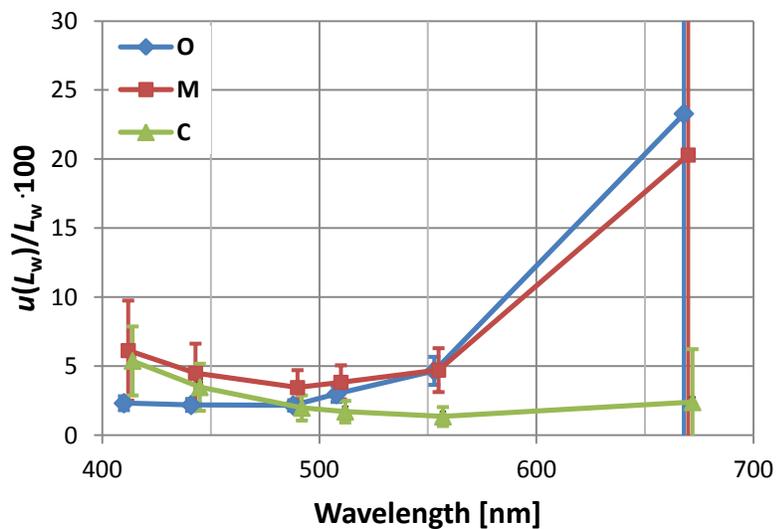
433



434

435 Figure 2. Relative uncertainties $u(L_T)/L_T$ determined assuming a spectrally independent 5% uncertainty
 436 value for L_w with the mean values of $t_d \cdot L_w/L_T$ given in Fig. 1 for different water types: oligotrophic (O),
 437 mesotrophic (M) and coastal (C). The vertical bars refer to values determined with $t_d \cdot L_w/L_T \pm \sigma$.

438



439

440 Figure 3. Relative uncertainties $u(L_w)/L_w$ determined assuming a spectrally independent 0.3% uncertainty
441 value for L_T and the mean values of $t_d \cdot L_w/L_T$ given in Fig. 1 for different water types: oligotrophic (O),
442 mesotrophic (M) and coastal (C). The vertical bars refer to values determined with $t_d \cdot L_w/L_T \pm \sigma$.

443

444 Rearranging Eq. 3, relative uncertainties in satellite-derived L_w , can be investigated as a function of
445 $u(L_T)/L_T$. By assigning a spectrally independent value of 0.3% to $u(L_T)/L_T$ (i.e., a value that occurs often
446 for $|\Delta g|$ in Table 3), results displayed in Fig. 3 indicate that the 5% uncertainty requirement in satellite-
447 derived L_w generally cannot be met in the red for oligotrophic and mesotrophic waters, and is
448 challenging in the blue mostly at 412 nm for mesotrophic and coastal waters. Because of this, the 0.3%
449 value assigned to $u(L_T)/L_T$, could be considered a rough upper threshold for the uncertainties of g -factors
450 allowing to meet the 5% science requirement for $u(L_w)/L_w$ in the blue-green spectral regions. The same
451 $u(L_w)/L_w$ values displayed in Fig. 3 also indicate that the application to different missions of g -factors
452 determined with independent *in situ* data sources and exhibiting typical differences of 0.3% in the blue-
453 green spectral regions with respect to the values obtained with an identical *in situ* data source, may
454 introduce mission dependent biases of several percent in multi-mission CDRs. These biases would
455 hinder stability requirements in satellite-derived products even when applying the same atmospheric
456 correction code to the processing of data from different missions. This result is confirmed by practical
457 assessments presented in Werdell et al (2007) showing that for deep waters $\Delta g \sim 0.3\%$ may lead to biases
458 of 4% in L_w at 555 nm.

459 In addition, the spectral differences affecting the values of Δg from the same data source or across data
460 sources (see Table 3), may lead to significant spectral inconsistencies in CDRs. These inconsistencies
461 (i.e., substantial inter-band spectral changes of Δg) would affect the capability of meeting the 1% inter-
462 band uncertainty for L_w included in some mission objectives and likely the 3% stability requirement for
463 an ECV like *Chla* (WMO 2011), which is commonly derived from spectral ratios of L_w .

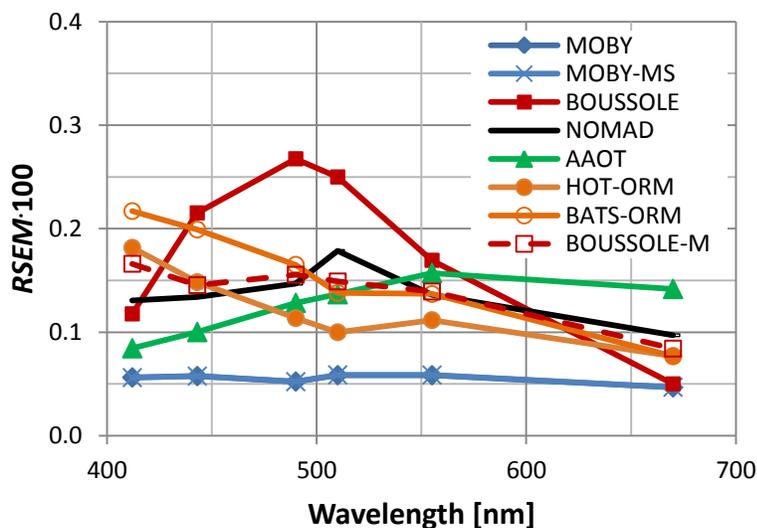
464 A statistical index that can be of interest to discuss stability requirements for the construction of CDRs
 465 from different satellite missions, is the relative standard error of the mean (*RSEM*) of *g*-factors *g*
 466 determined from

$$467 \quad RSEM = (\sigma_g/g)/\sqrt{N_y} \quad (5)$$

468 with σ_g standard deviation of *g* assumed invariant with time for each considered data source, and N_y
 469 the scaled number of match-ups per decade (i.e., $N_y=10 \cdot N/Y$ where *N* is the number of actual matchups
 470 and *Y* the number of measurement years).

471 The scaling of the number of matchups over a decade, that forces the assumption of continuous
 472 availability of measurements for each *in situ* data source during the considered period, is only applied to
 473 facilitate the comparability of *RSEM* values for data which were available for a limited number of years
 474 at the time of this study. Nevertheless, continuous operation and delivery of measurements are required
 475 for any *in situ* SVC data source contributing to the creation of CDRs,

476



477
 478 Figure 4. Plot of the standard percent error of the mean (*RSEM*) for the SeaWiFS *g*-factor given in
 479 Table 2 and additionally for MERIS *g*-factors determined with BOUSSOLE data (i.e., BOUSSOLE-M).

480

481 In view of supporting such a discussion on stability requirements through actual numbers, Fig. 4
482 displays *RSEM* values computed using the data in Table 2.

483 The notably low values of *RSEM* determined with the MOBY and MOBY-MS data suggest high
484 measurement precision likely explained by very stable measurement conditions, systematic calibration
485 and characterization of field radiometers, robust quality assessment of field measurements and quality
486 control of data products. The higher *RSEM* values resulting from the other data sources are likely
487 explained by a number of factors including (but not restricted to): *i.* measurement conditions perturbed
488 by time-dependent changes in the marine and atmospheric optical properties or observation geometry; *ii.*
489 instability of the *in situ* measurement system when challenged by environmental perturbations during
490 deployments (e.g., bio-fouling) or by variable performance of radiometer systems operated during
491 successive deployments, or even by different measurement methods when considering a combined data
492 set; *iii* or a relatively small of number of matchups N_y per decade.

493 The large *RSEM* values determined for BOUSSOLE, which refer to field radiometric measurements
494 performed during the early deployment phase of the buoy system, are due to large σ_g and a relatively
495 small number of matchups. Successive improvements in quality assurance and control of the radiometric
496 measurements have led to a great reduction of σ_g . This is shown by the BOUSSOLE-M *RSEM* values
497 also displayed in Fig. 4, and computed applying recent σ_g of *g*-factors determined for the Medium
498 Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS). These updated values of σ_g , which refer to a 7-year
499 measurement period, vary between 0.006 and 0.012 with N ranging from 15 to 42.

500 Overall, the previous findings suggest that any element affecting reproducibility of measurements and
501 observation conditions with time, and thus challenging the precision of *in situ* reference measurements,
502 should be minimized to lessen perturbations affecting the random component of uncertainties for *g*-
503 factors and thus the stability requirement for CDRs resulting from the combination of multi-mission
504 satellite-derived data. In addition, frequent swaps of radiometer systems exhibiting similar measurement
505 uncertainties should be considered an important best practice. In fact, the measurement uncertainties

506 would average over the number of deployments occurring during each satellite mission. This is expected
507 to increase the probability of achieving equivalent precision for g -factors applicable to the processing of
508 satellite data from independent missions.

509 To conclude, the 0.5% stability requirement over a decade (WMO 2011) entails maximum
510 uncertainties of approximately 0.05, 0.025 and 0.005% in g -factors, assuming generic values of 0.10,
511 0.05 and 0.01 for the term $t_d \cdot L_w / L_T$. These uncertainties are comparable to the *RSEM* values determined
512 for MOBY in the blue-green spectral regions over a period of approximately 10 years, while they are
513 significantly lower than those determined from the other *in situ* data sources (see Fig. 4). This result
514 further indicates: *i.* the need for long-term highly consistent *in situ* data applicable to SVC in view of
515 minimizing any appreciable perturbation that may affect the determination of g -factors over time for
516 different or successive satellite missions; and *ii.* caution in using data from sole or multiple sources,
517 which may refer to measurement conditions difficult to reproduce for different missions.

518 Additionally, the application of mission-independent atmospheric models and algorithms for the
519 atmospheric correction process is critical.

520

521

522 **5. Summary and Recommendations**

523 SVC does not literally lead to the absolute radiometric calibration of the satellite sensor. Rather,
524 assuming equivalent observation conditions characterizing both SVC and atmospheric correction
525 processes, SVC forces the determination of satellite-derived L_w with an uncertainty comparable to that of
526 the *in situ* reference L_w applied for the indirect calibration process. This is achieved through vicarious
527 adjustment gain-factors (i.e., g -factors), which are applied to the top of atmosphere radiances L_T after full
528 instrument calibration (e.g., following pre-launch absolute calibration and characterization, and
529 additionally, corrections for temporal changes in radiometric sensitivity as determined through the
530 sensor-specific on-orbit calibration system).

531 The investigation presented in this work highlights that the relative uncertainty that may affect g -
532 factors, to a first approximation depends on the term $t_{\text{d}} \cdot L_{\text{w}} / L_{\text{T}}$ and on the uncertainties affecting *in situ* L_{w}
533 data. This finding and differences among g -factors determined for the SeaWiFS spectral bands using
534 various data sources, but relying on the same atmospheric models and atmospheric correction
535 algorithms, provide suggestions on the suitability of *in situ* L_{w} data sources for SVC devoted to support
536 the construction of CDRs. Specifically, when considering the blue and green center-wavelengths
537 commonly applied for the determination of *Chla*, satellite-derived L_{w} resulting from the application of g -
538 factors differing by as little as 0.3% can result in spectral biases close to 5%. These biases are several
539 times higher than the 0.5% target stability value per decade indicated for satellite ocean color data
540 products expected to contribute to CDRs. Thus, in view of avoiding inconsistencies in long-term data
541 records resulting from the combination of satellite products from multiple missions, a careful evaluation
542 of sites and *in situ* measurements supporting SVC is needed. In particular, the determination of g -factors
543 by combining match-ups from multiple sites, which is often a viable solution to shorten the otherwise
544 long time needed to accumulate a relatively large number of matchups satisfying early mission needs or
545 mission-specific objectives, has to be regarded as a potential source of artifacts for CDRs. In fact, even
546 assuming equivalent uncertainties for *in situ* data from different sources and a single atmospheric
547 correction code, differences in g -factors may result from a diverse performance of the atmospheric
548 correction process at different sites due to differences in satellite observing geometries or marine and
549 atmospheric optical properties. Further, differences in the performance of various *in situ* radiometer
550 systems may also affect the accuracy and precision of g -factors through those of the *in situ* L_{w} data and
551 thus also affect the stability requirements of CDRs.

552 In view of defining strategies for the upcoming satellite ocean color missions, the previous findings
553 and considerations suggest that the creation of ocean color CDRs should ideally rely on: *i.* one main
554 long-term *in situ* calibration system (site and radiometry) established and sustained with the objective to
555 maximize accuracy and precision over time of g -factors and thus minimize possible biases among
556 satellite data products from different missions; and *ii.* unique (i.e., standardized) atmospheric models and

557 algorithms for atmospheric corrections to maximize cross-mission consistency of data products at
558 locations different from that supporting SVC.

559 Accounting for results from this study and any element already provided in literature, it is expected
560 that an ideal ocean color SVC site should meet the following general requirements:

- 561 1. Located in a region chosen to maximize the number of high-quality matchups by trading off factors
562 such as best viewing geometry, sun-glint avoidance, low cloudiness, and additionally set away from
563 any continental contamination and at a distance from the mainland to safely exclude any adjacency
564 effect in satellite data;
- 565 2. Exhibiting known or accurately modeled optical properties coinciding with maritime atmosphere and
566 oligotrophic/mesotrophic waters, to represent the majority of world oceans and minimize relative
567 uncertainties in computed g -factors;
- 568 3. Characterized by high spatial homogeneity and small environmental variability, of both atmosphere
569 and ocean, to increase precision of computed g -factors.

570 Any field radiometer system supporting SVC should rely on advanced *in situ* measurement
571 technologies, data reduction methods and quality assurance/control schemes to minimize relative
572 standard uncertainties in *in situ* L_w to within state-of-the-art values. In particular, uncertainty target
573 values should be 3-4% in the blue-green spectral regions and, even though not relevant for GCOS,
574 tentatively below 5% in the red, with inter-band uncertainties lower than 1% . In particular, accounting
575 for findings from this study and from literature and without advocating the adoption of any existing SVC
576 radiometry system, the fulfillment of the following wide-range requirements for *in situ* radiometric
577 measurements should be considered of utmost importance:

- 578 i. Hyperspectral field data with sub-nanometer resolution to allow system vicarious calibration of any
579 satellite ocean color sensor regardless of its center-wavelengths and spectral responses, and thus
580 ensure minimization of inter-band uncertainties;

- 581 ii. State-of-the-art absolute calibration traceable to National Metrology Institutes (i.e., tentatively with
582 target standard calibration uncertainty lower than 2% for radiance and stability better than 0.5% per
583 deployment) and comprehensive characterizations of radiometers in terms of linearity, temperature
584 dependence, polarization sensitivity and stray light effects, in view of minimizing measurement
585 uncertainties and allowing for accurate determinations of uncertainty budgets;
- 586 iii. Application of quality assurance/control schemes minimizing effects of measurement perturbations
587 like those (when applicable) due to infrastructure shading, radiometer self-shading, wave
588 perturbations, bio-fouling, and additionally scheduling regular checks of *in situ* systems and frequent
589 swap of radiometers, as best practice to maximize long-term accuracy and precision of *in situ*
590 reference radiometric data;
- 591 iv. Data rate ensuring generation of matchups for any satellite ocean color mission with time differences
592 appropriate to minimize variations in bi-directional effects due to changes in sun zenith and daily
593 fluctuations in the vertical distribution of phytoplankton.

594 In addition to requirements for establishing an ideal SVC site and generating *in situ* radiometric data
595 with the needed accuracy and precision, the supplementary capability of continuously characterizing
596 both the atmospheric (e.g., τ_a) and water (e.g., inherent) optical properties would provide additional
597 important elements for the quality assurance of matchups applicable to determine *g*-factors.

598 It is reminded that strategies for the construction of CDRs also suggest establishing and maintaining
599 secondary *in situ* long-term systems with performance equivalent to the main one in terms of data
600 accuracy, precision and measurement conditions. This recommendation is enforced by the fundamental
601 need to allow for redundancy ensuring fault-tolerance to SVC and additionally to provide optimal means
602 for continuous verification and validation of satellite primary data products including the capability to
603 accurately investigate systematic effects induced by different observation conditions (i.e., viewing and
604 illumination geometry, atmosphere and water types).

605 It is finally mentioned that the need to standardize the atmospheric correction process for multi-
606 mission data contributing to CDRs is a requirement as relevant as the availability of *in situ* data from one

607 ideal SVC site. This operational need, however, should not be seen as an impediment to further advance
608 atmospheric models and atmospheric correction algorithms.

609

610

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614 vicarious calibration which encouraged this study.

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616 design, implementation and long-term operation of MOBY.

617

618 The contents of this paper reflect the views of the authors and should not be interpreted as an official
619 statement of policy, decision, or position on behalf of any of the organizations mentioned.

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768

769 Figure 1. Spectral values of $t_d \cdot L_w / L_T$ for oligotrophic (O), mesotrophic (M) and coastal (C) waters.
770 Mean values and standard deviations σ (indicated by the vertical error bars), result from the analysis of
771 814, 1487 and 1045 SeaWiFS data extractions, respectively. The center-wavelengths between spectra
772 have been shifted by ± 2 nm to increase readability.

773

774 Figure 2. Relative uncertainties $u(L_T) / L_T$ determined assuming a spectrally independent 5% uncertainty
775 value for L_w with the mean values of $t_d \cdot L_w / L_T$ given in Fig. 1 for different water types: oligotrophic (O),
776 mesotrophic (M) and coastal (C). The vertical bars refer to values determined with $t_d \cdot L_w / L_T \pm \sigma$.

777

778 Figure 3. Relative uncertainties $u(L_w) / L_w$ determined assuming a spectrally independent 0.3% uncertainty
779 value for L_T and the mean values of $t_d \cdot L_w / L_T$ given in Fig. 1 for different water types: oligotrophic (O),
780 mesotrophic (M) and coastal (C). The vertical bars refer to values determined with $t_d \cdot L_w / L_T \pm \sigma$.

781

782 Figure 4. Plot of the standard percent error of the mean (*RSEM*) for the SeaWiFS *g*-factor given in
783 Table 2 and additionally for MERIS *g*-factors determined with BOUSSOLE data (i.e., BOUSSOLE-M).

784

Figure 1
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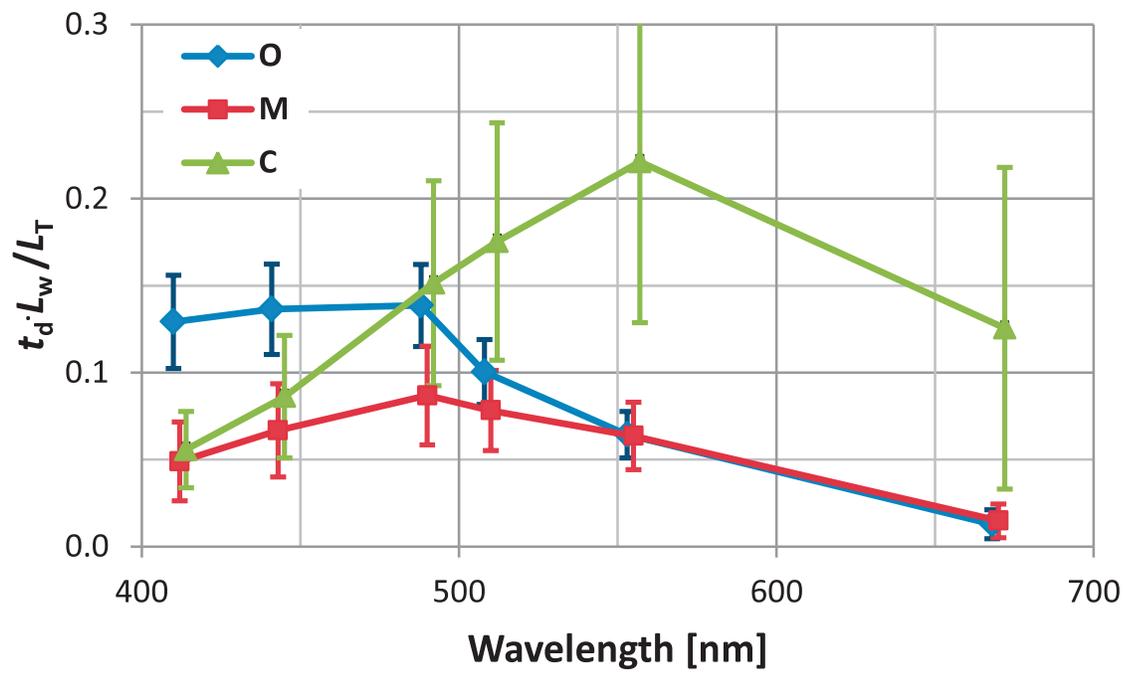


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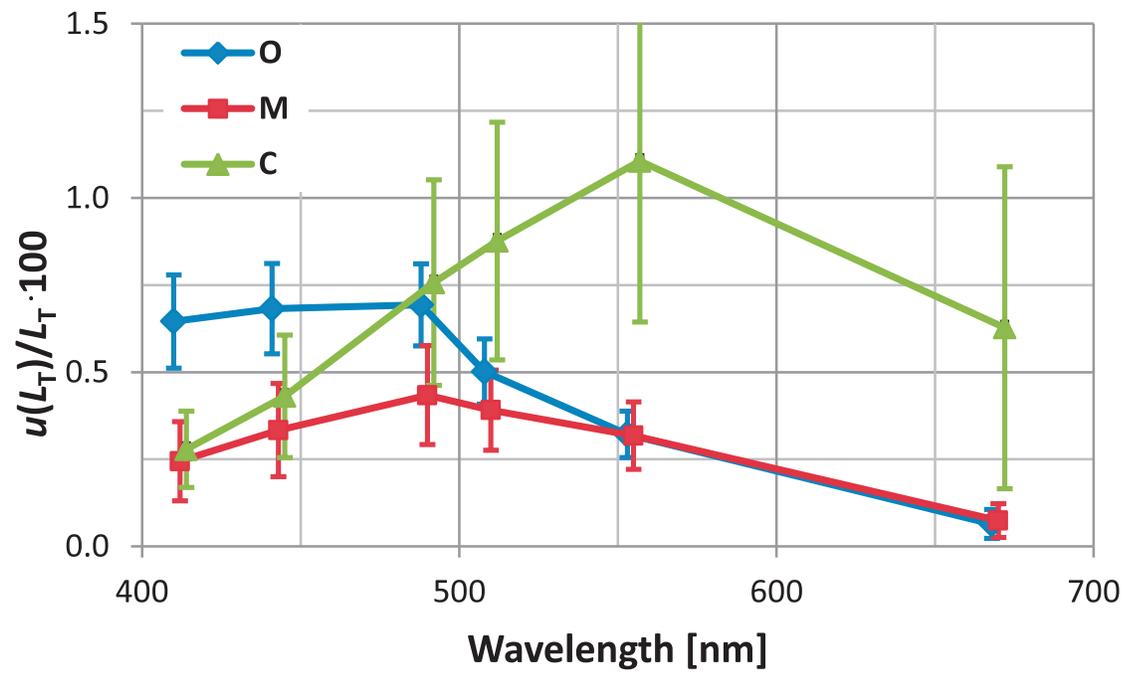


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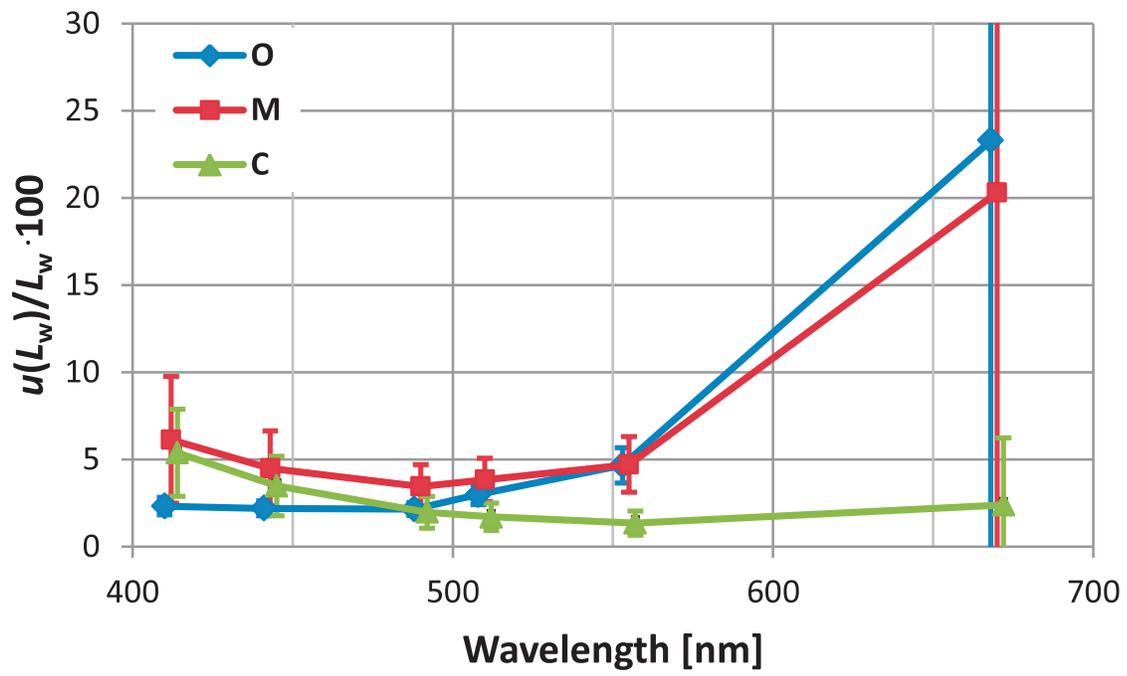


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