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## Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document (ATBD)

### ATBD 2.12


**Pigment index, sediment and *gelbstoff* retrieval from  
directional water leaving radiance reflectances using inverse  
modelling technique**

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## 1. Abstract

The document describes a procedure to retrieve the concentrations of phytoplankton pigment, suspended matter and *gelbstoff* from water leaving radiance reflectance data of the Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS), which will be operated on the environmental remote sensing satellite ENVISAT of the European Space Agency ESA. The key features of the presented algorithm are the capability to treat a wide range of concentrations which covers open ocean case I water as well as turbid case II waters, and to consider the non-isotropic character of the water leaving radiance, which depends on the solar and observation angles, the sea surface roughness as well as on the single scattering albedo,  $\omega$ , and the phase functions of the water and its constituents. In order to provide a global scope of the algorithm, three proxy components have been selected to represent the optical properties of a wide range of water constituents: phytoplankton pigment with variable specific absorption (Morel 1988), non-absorbing scattering particles to represent any suspended particles, and *gelbstoff* to represent any absorbing organic matter.

Input to the algorithm are the directional water leaving radiance reflectances,  $\rho_w$ , of 8 MERIS bands, which are defined as  $\rho_w(\theta_v, \Delta\phi_v) = L_w(\theta_v, \Delta\phi_v) / E_d(\theta_s)$ , with  $L_w$ , the water leaving radiance, and  $E_d$ , the down-welling irradiance just above the sea surface, and the three angles,  $\theta_v$ , the zenith angle of the observation angle,  $\Delta\phi_v$ , the observation azimuth relative to the sun azimuth, and  $\theta_s$ , the solar zenith angle. This input interface requires data which are corrected for atmospheric effects including radiance which is specularly reflected at the water surface. The atmospheric correction procedure is described in ATBD 2.7.

Output of the procedure are the concentrations of non absorbing suspended matter and phytoplankton pigment and the *gelbstoff* absorption at 440 nm.

The algorithm is a multiple non-linear regression method ("Neural Network"). Its coefficients are determined from a table of input (the 8 reflectances and 3 angles) and corresponding output variables (3 concentrations) using a feed forward backpropagation optimisation ("training") technique. The table of water leaving radiance reflectances as a function of the concentration of the 3 water constituents and the three angles is produced by radiative transfer




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simulations using a Monte Carlo radiative transfer model, which has been optimised for computing large data sets of upward directed directional water leaving radiance reflectances.

The test of the algorithm demonstrates:

- Concentrations of phytoplankton pigment, *gelbstoff* and suspended matter can be determined from randomly mixed compositions of these constituents over a large concentration range.
- The error in the retrieval of a constituent at low concentration increases with increasing concentrations of the two other substances. This error and, thus, the scope of the algorithm for a given error range can be determined from the tests.
- Random errors in the input reflectances produce a similar error behaviour of the output concentrations.
- The algorithm works also for the retrieval of phytoplankton pigment at low concentrations of suspended matter and *gelbstoff* (case I water, as found in the open ocean) and shows a linear behaviour over the tested concentration range of four decades, i.e.  $< 0.003$  to  $> 30 \text{ mg/m}^3$ . Thus, the same algorithm covers case I and case II water with the maximum possible accuracy.
- The routine includes an algorithm to detect and flag reflectances and retrieved concentrations which are out of the NN training range.
- The computational performance of the NN is high and amounts to about  $10^4$  pixels/s (Ultra Sparc 1).



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## 2. Preface

This Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document (ATBD) describes a procedure for retrieving concentrations of suspend matter, phytoplankton pigment, and *gelbstoff* of coastal and open ocean waters from directional water leaving radiance reflectance spectra. The procedure expects atmospherically corrected directional reflectance spectra. The algorithm is based on inverse modelling of the radiative transfer using a Monte Carlo photon tracing code. The parametrisation is done by a multiple non-linear regression procedure ("neural network ", NN) which coefficients are determined from a table of reflectances, angles and the corresponding concentrations by the feed-forward back-propagation optimisation technique. The training and test data sets are produced using Monte Carlo simulations for a concentration range which covers case I and case II waters and all potential illumination and observation angles of MERIS images.

The algorithm uses directional reflectances since the subsurface and the water leaving radiances are not isotropically distributed. The angular distribution depends on the solar zenith angle, the observation angle, the sea surface roughness and on the concentration and composition of the water constituents. Since the angular influence cannot be separated from the retrieval of the concentrations, the presented procedure uses a model and the parametrisation of its inverse which includes the observation and sun angles.

### 2.1 ATBD 2.12 History

The procedure is different in the following way from the first version of Neural Network based inverse modelling algorithm, which is described in the ATBD 2.12 of October 1995 (DOC: PO-TN-MEL-GS-0005, Issue. 1):

- It is based on a Monte Carlo Simulation for radiative transfer in atmosphere and water and, thus, includes the solar and observation angles. These angles are variables in the NN procedure so that the angular dependence of the water leaving radiance reflectance is considered.
- The concentration range covers case I and case II waters. The same optical properties of the phytoplankton pigment are used for case I water, so that case II is treated here as a special case of case II water.





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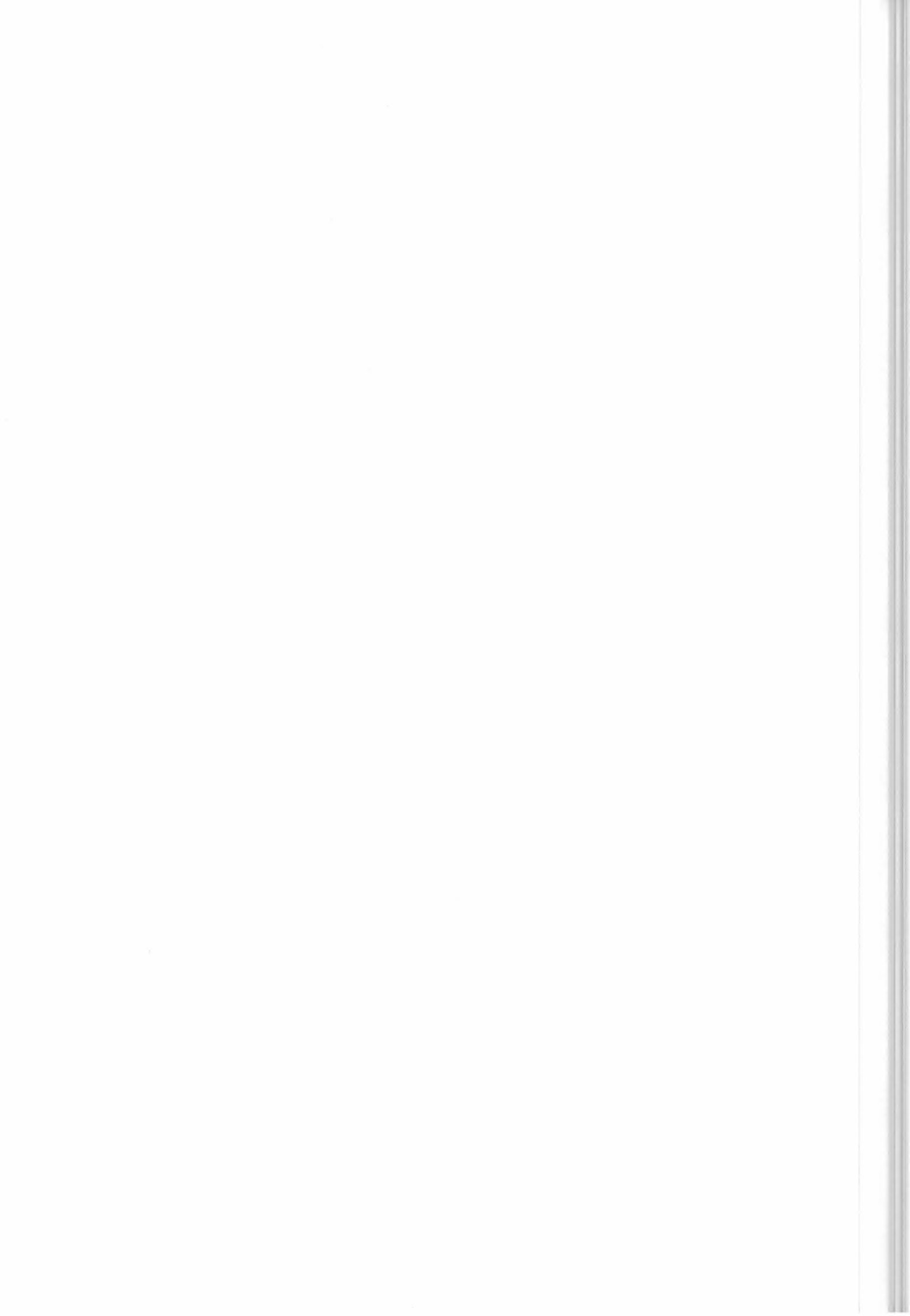
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- The atmosphere and a wind driven rough sea surface is included to give a realistic radiance distribution below the water surface. It is modelled in the same way for case I and case II water. The atmospheric correction is not included in this version. The input are atmospherically corrected directional reflectances (not normalised) and the solar and observation angles above the sea surface.





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### 3. Introduction

Coastal zones are attracting increasingly interest because they are the most populated and utilised areas of the earth. The development of the ecological quality of these zones including the quality of the coastal water is a key issue of coastal zone management. Investigation and monitoring require new approaches including remote sensing because of the heterogeneous distribution of water properties and their rapid changes. MERIS will be an instrument which specifically addresses the need of coastal zones.

Many coastal zones in Europe and in the world are characterised by high concentrations of suspended matter which is transported by rivers into the sea, or, in case of shallow seas, are stirred up from the ground by the shear stress of tidal or wind induced currents and waves. Furthermore, aeolian transport of desert dust can enrich the water with mineralic suspended material. The implication is that standard algorithms based on colour ratios which have been developed for the determination of phytoplankton pigments are not applicable to these types of water since suspended matter influences the whole blue to red spectral range.

A further important constituent which modifies the back-scattered light of the ocean is yellow substance. It consists of various highly polymerised dissolved organic molecules which are formed from all kinds of degradation products of organisms. Its origin is partly marine plankton, but mainly it is transported by rivers into the coastal sea. These chemically uncharacterised fraction of organic constituents were named *gelbstoff* by Kalle (1949) who first investigated its influence on ocean optics. Beside its effect by contaminating the spectral signal of phytoplankton it is of increasing interest in global and regional carbon cycle studies since it amounts to 70% of the dissolved organic material in the ocean (Spitzzy & Ittekkott, 1986). The resulting problem for remote sensing from these two water constituents is that they influence the water leaving radiance in addition to the effect of phytoplankton pigments. For these cases it is difficult to separate the influence of each substance. Model simulations for high concentrations of all three substances (as found in many coastal areas) show that a correct determination of one constituent is only possible if also the other constituents which determine the water leaving radiance are determined correctly. Furthermore it can be shown (Doerffer 1979, Doerffer & Schiller 1994) that the error of as well as the optimum spectral range for the retrieval of a substance depends on the concentrations of the others. Altogether one has to deal



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with a complex and highly non-linear system for which simple solutions based on empirically derived colour ratios are insufficient.

In order to solve the two problems, i.e. separation of the three groups of substances and atmospheric correction over turbid waters, an inverse modelling technique has been developed at the GKSS Research Centre which takes all 4 components into account. This technique has been successfully applied to ship and aircraft data and data of the Coastal Zone Colour Scanner CZCS, e.g. Doerffer and Fischer (1994). Although the CZCS had only 4 channels available for the retrieval and had only a rather limited accuracy, the inverse modelling technique turned out to be sufficiently robust even for these data. Using simulated MERIS data which were calculated from high resolution aircraft radiance spectra (GKSS 1994) it could be demonstrated that even in very turbid coastal waters of the German Bight the contribution by phytoplankton pigments, suspended matter, *gelbstoff* and aerosols could clearly be separated. However, the method requires the operation of a simplified radiance transfer model within an optimisation loop on a pixel by pixel bases. This approach has two limitations: (1) with presently available processors the computational effort exceeds the limits for an operational mass production for global coverage; (2) the simplification of the model, which is required to reduce the computational effort, limits the accuracy of the retrieval. Within this ATBD we have therefore investigated the use of a complex model and the parametrisation of its inversion with a Neural Network as an alternative.

The following document describes the algorithm for the retrieval of concentrations of phytoplankton pigment, total suspended matter and *gelbstoff* from water leaving radiance reflectance data of the Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer MERIS. The procedure includes the influence of the non-isotropic character of the water leaving radiance reflectance and its dependence on sun and observation angles as well as on the concentration of the water constituents. The angular dependence of the water leaving radiance and reflectance was identified as a major problem for accurate measurements and, thus, has been discussed in many publications (see e.g. Fischer & Graßl, 1984); a comprehensive analysis using Monte Carlo simulation is given by Morel & Gentili, 1991, 1993). Although the algorithm considers the complex nature of the water leaving radiance reflectance, its parametrisation by the NN avoids any iterative procedures and, thus, provides the high computational efficiency which is required for the operational mass production of level - II concentration maps.





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## 4. Algorithm Overview and Background Information

### 4.1 Algorithm Identification

#### Algorithm name

Inverse radiative transfer modelling technique (IRTM-NN)  
with neural network parametrisation

#### Product names:

1. Phytoplankton pigment index expressed as (MERIS.CASE2.PIG)  
chlorophyll-a concentration, unit:  $\mu\text{g/l}$
2. non-absorbing suspended particle (MERIS.CASE2.NSP)  
concentration (NSP), unit:  $\text{mg/l}$
3. *Gelbstoff* (yellow substance) absorption at (MERIS.CASE2.YS)  
440 nm, unit:  $\text{m}^{-1}$

The spectral channels of MERIS enable that other variables may be retrieved in addition or as an alternative, but this extension has not yet been investigated:

- the organic fraction of suspended matter,
- separation of two types of yellow substance, originating from rivers or produced in the ocean and differing in their spectral exponents,
- "Red Tides", which are plankton blooms which discolour the water by carotinoids
- quantum efficiency of the sun light stimulated fluorescence when including the fluorescence channel at 682 nm.

### 4.2 Algorithm Overview


The widely applied algorithm used to determine the chlorophyll concentration in open ocean waters from radiance or reflectance data (such as of the Coastal Zone Color Scanner, CZCS<sup>1</sup>) is based on the ratio of radiances or reflectances measured in one of the green channels between 520 and 550 nm and in the blue channel around 440 nm. This ratio describes the blue-green colour shift which occurs with increasing chlorophyll concentrations. The regression

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<sup>1</sup> operated on the satellite Nimbus 7 from 1978 to 1986





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coefficients between the radiance ratios after atmospheric correction and the chlorophyll concentrations have been determined from numerous water samples taken by many researchers in various areas of the global oceans.

A further prerequisite for any algorithm is an accurate atmospheric correction, since the atmospheric contribution to the total radiance at the satellite surmounts 90%. Various papers have discussed different versions of this procedure; their underlying principles are summarised in an overview by Gordon and Morel [1983].

Most of the open ocean areas belong to case I water, where only one optical class of water constituents, i.e. chlorophyll and covarying substances such as detritus determine the colour ratio; all other waters with more than one constituent belong to case II, e.g. areas such as the North Sea, the Baltic Sea, and many other coastal regions of the world oceans.

A further problem of turbid waters is the atmospheric correction. Over case I water it is based on the assumption that the radiance in the NIR channels (where the absorption of water is very high) is only the atmospheric path radiance including the specularly reflected sky and sun light. This method cannot be applied to case II type waters with very high suspended matter concentrations which cause that the backscattering of water cannot be neglected. The inverse radiative transfer modelling technique (IRTM) is an approach to solve this problem.

In principle, a radiative transfer model is used which describes the process of remote sensing, that is, the flux of sunlight into the ocean and back to the sensor. By varying the concentrations and other parameters, such as the aerosol path radiance, with the help of an optimisation procedure, the deviation between calculated and measured spectra is minimised.

The technique has first been applied by Jain and Miller (1976) to radiance spectra of water surfaces by using a two-flow approximation for describing the irradiance transport. A similar approach was applied to airborne radiances by Fischer (1984), who used a radiative transfer model based on the matrix operator method (MOMO). However, due to the high amount of computer time needed for the MOMO, the method could only be applied to single scan lines of the CZCS (Fischer & Doerffer, 1987). The combination of the highly accurate MOMO model with a simple and fast two-flow approximation for the inverse modelling has been successfully applied to full CZCS scenes by Doerffer and Fischer [1994]. Although the procedure did not contain any empirical relations between in situ and satellite data (besides the optical properties of the four parameters measured in part of the area of the CZCS scene), a comparison of a



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CZCS scene inversion with ship measurements showed an agreement of the results within the error range of the ship measurements (Puls et al., 1994).

However, even with a simple model this inversion method requires an amount of computational time which is not acceptable for the mass production of a ground segment. For a CZCS scene of 900 scan lines approximately 1h of computing time is used on a SUN Ultra Sparc 1. To increase the computational efficiency two techniques have been studied for the parametrisation of the full model. One is the parametrisation of the inverse model by Chebychev expansion. Depending on details of the parametrisation and the desired accuracy, a reduction of computational time by up to a factor 100 is possible with this technique [Schiller and Doerffer, 1993]. The other possibility is the application of a neural network (NN), which is a multiple, non-linear regression technique (Buckton et al., 1995; Schiller and Doerffer, 1997). This approach leads to an even higher reduction, but requires a careful and elaborate determination of the multiple coefficients ("training phase").

Essential for inverse modelling but implicitly also for all other algorithms is the knowledge of the optical properties of the water constituents and aerosols. Therefore, work has to be focused on establishing data sets of the specific optical properties of water constituents and related spectral high resolution radiance spectra for different regions and seasons.



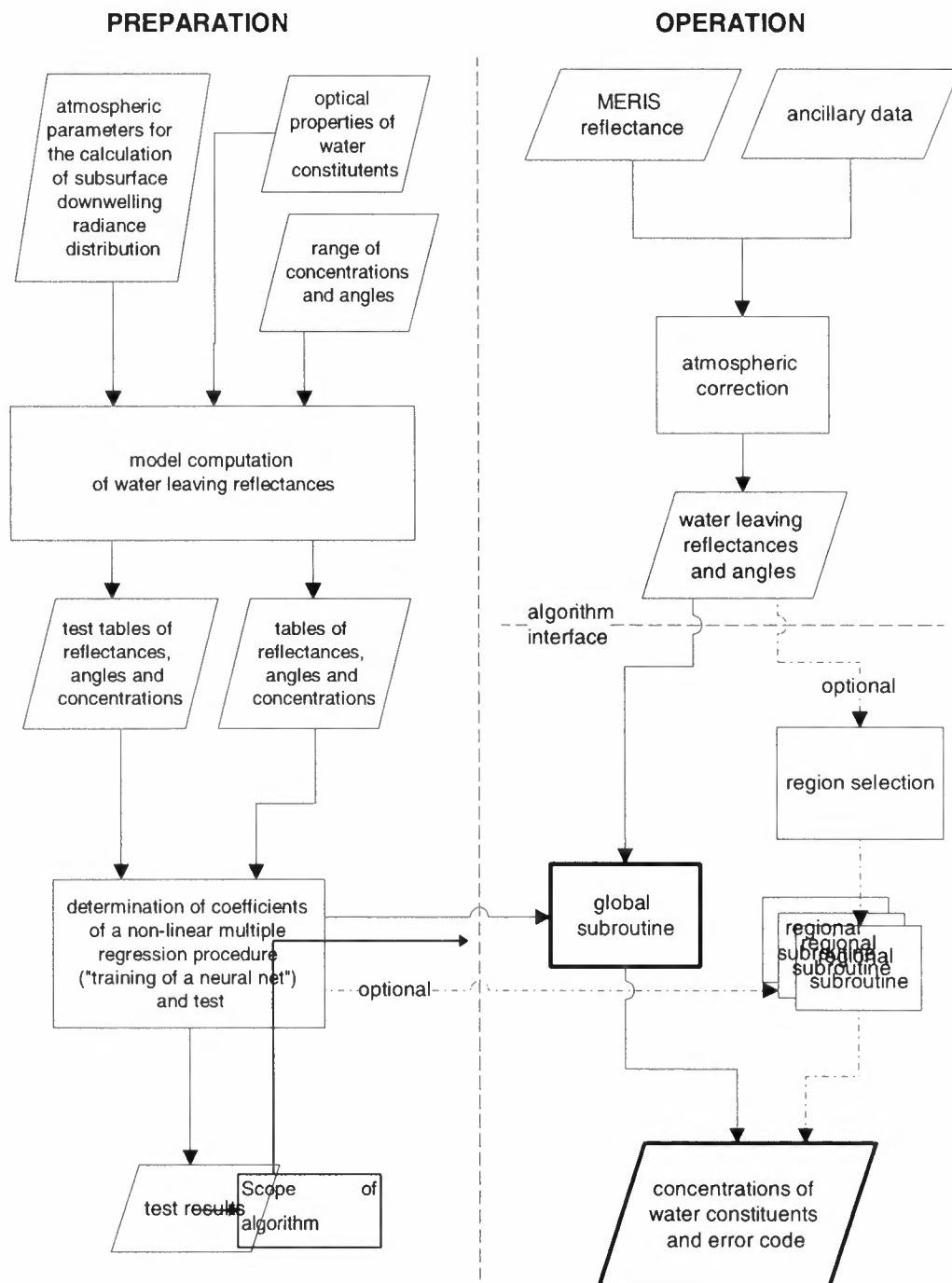


Figure 1 Scheme of the algorithm based on inverse modelling of radiative transfer and its parametrisation with a multiple non-linear regression procedure ("feed forward backpropagation neural network"). The scheme includes the option of different training sets for different coastal regions.



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## 5. Algorithm Description

This section describes the entire algorithm. The algorithm is based on directional water leaving radiance reflectances, i.e. using the actual solar and observation angle pixel-by-pixel. Reflectance is favoured because MERIS will be calibrated with a reflectance standard against the sun. The algorithm requires as input atmospherically corrected reflectance data and the actual solar and observation angle. The multiple non-linear regression procedure is developed from radiative transfer calculations which includes a wide range of concentrations to cover case I and case II water properties and the potential solar and observation angles. A scheme of the algorithm is given in Fig. 1

### 5.1 Theoretical Description

The following sections provide the theoretical basis of the algorithm. We discuss the basic physics of the algorithm, explain the inverse modelling approach and describe its parametrisation by a neural network.

### 5.2 Physics of the Algorithm

The directional water leaving radiance reflectance  $\rho_w(\theta_v, \phi_v)$  associated with the water leaving radiance  $L_w(\theta, \phi)$  and the down-welling irradiance above the sea surface  $E_d$  is defined to be:

$$\rho_w(\theta_v, \phi_v) = L_w(\theta_v, \phi_v) / E_d(\theta_s)$$

where  $\theta_v$  and  $\phi_v$  are the zenith and azimuth observation angles respectively.  $E_d$  depends on the solar zenith angle,  $\theta_s$ , for the pixel under examination.

For convenience we will denote the wavelength dependency in the following chapters only where necessary.

In the procedure the contribution by sunlight induced fluorescence of *gelbstoff* and phytoplankton as well as the inelastic scattering caused by the Raman effect have been neglected.

The down-welling irradiance at the sea surface  $E_d$  is defined as:

$$E_d = t_0 F_0(\theta_s) + \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} L_{sky}(\theta_{sky}, \phi_{sky}) \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$





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where  $F_0$  is the extraterrestrial solar irradiance under the solar zenith angle  $\theta_s$ ,  $t_o$  is the diffuse and direct transmission of sunlight through the atmosphere,  $L_{sky}$  is the sky radiance under the zenith angle  $\theta_{sky}$  and the azimuth angle  $\phi_{sky}$ .

Input to the algorithm are the water leaving directional radiance reflectances, which have to be derived from the reflectances at satellite altitude,  $\rho_{toa}$ . This procedure is described in ATBD 2.7.

The water leaving directional radiance reflectance for the considered 8 MERIS bands depends on the following processes and quantities:

- spectral and angular distribution of the down-welling radiance just above the water surface, which is mainly a function of the solar zenith angle, the transmittance through the atmosphere including the ozone layer, Rayleigh scattering by air molecules and Mie scattering by aerosols,
- a rough sea surface, where part of the down-welling and upwelling radiance is reflected and the transmitted radiance is randomly refracted according to the wave slope distribution,
- scattering and absorption by pure water and its constituents in the water column.



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### 5.2.1 The Monte Carlo Radiative transfer model

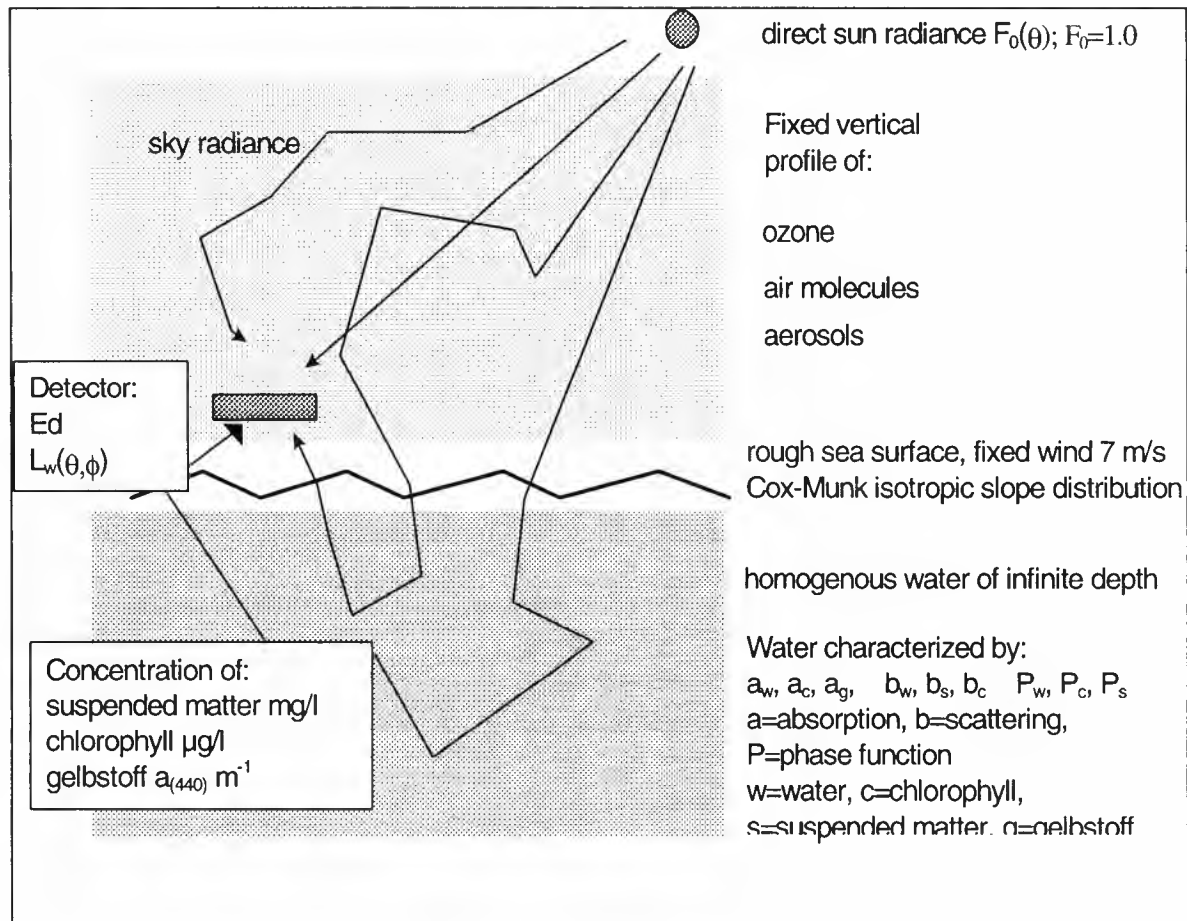



Figure 2 - Scheme of Monte Carlo procedure for calculating water-leaving reflectance

The procedure used to determine the relationship between the water constituents and the solar angle on one hand and the water leaving radiance reflectance and the observation angles on the other hand is an angular resolving ocean-atmosphere photon tracing Monte Carlo radiative transfer code which was developed by GKSS based on publications by Gordon (1994), Mobley(1994), Morel & Gentili (1991); the main processes are outlined in Fig. 2.

It has the following features:

- atmosphere with 50 layers using vertical profiles for scattering by air molecules (Rayleigh scattering), ozone absorption and scattering and absorption by three different aerosols.
- air/sea interface with flat or wind dependent rough sea surface
- unstratified water column



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- bottom at a depth with no effect on water leaving radiance

Processes which are not included in the simulation are:

- polarisation
- any inelastic scattering (fluorescence, Raman scattering)
- wind direction

The detector is positioned just above the water surface for counting the down-welling irradiance and the angular dependent upwelling radiance.

Photons start with a weight of unity (1) for all wavelengths at top of atmosphere (layer 51 of the model atmosphere) from a sun disc of 0.5 degree apparent diameter. The weight is multiplied with the cosine of the sun zenith angle. At each event the photon weight is multiplied with the single scattering albedo,  $\omega_0$ , of the layer in which the event happens, to take into account for the probability of absorption. The travel distance between two interaction events is calculated from a random pull. The type of scattering is determined from the concentration mixture of the different media or constituents in water or air. Probability tables for the random pull of the type of scattering are pre-generated for each layer. The scattering angle, theta, at each event is randomly pulled from large tables which contain, for each media or constituent, the pre-calculated probabilities for the scattering angle in theta. The weights of photons which reach the air/sea interface layer in down-welling direction are counted for calculating the down-welling vector irradiance. All photons reaching the surface penetrate into the water, their weights are corrected for the probability of reflection. All photons which reach the interface layer from below the water surface in upward direction are split into two weights. The reflected photon survives in the water with the probability of reflection. The remaining refracted weight, after changing its direction according to the sea surface slope, is counted just above the surface together with its zenith and azimuth angle. The wave slope angles are randomly pulled from a probability table which is calculated using the Cox & Munk (1954) wind dependent sea surface slope distribution. This distribution is isotropic with respect to the azimuth, i.e. it does not take into account the wind direction.

The photon dies when its weight has decreased below a minimum weight. The predefined minimum weight is adapted from the first 2000 photons which have reached the radiance detector in order to reduce the variance. The simulation for one case and one wavelength is completed when a predefined number of photons have reached the radiance detector, i.e. the



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number of started photons is variable in order to account for strong differences in  $\omega_0$  of different concentration mixtures and wavelengths.

One major problem is the reduction of variance when calculating the angular distribution of the water leaving radiance. Standard photon counting with discrete small cones require a large number of photons which leads to an extreme high computational effort and can practically not be used for a mass production as required for the set up of training tables or simulation of images. Thus, we approximate the angular distribution of the photon by a series of spherical harmonics. Each arriving photon contributes to an update of the first and second moments of the spherical harmonics (the second moment allows the estimation of the standard deviations of the first moments). In the evaluation process the number of moments are reduced so that only moments remain with  $> 3$  standard deviations apart from zero. The number of moments can be reduced separately for zenith and azimuth angles in the evaluation process. The resulting function can then be used to calculate the radiance at any observation angle without a new MC run. One important step in the development was to find the optimum cut-off of the approximating series for a correct description of the angular distribution and the corresponding number of photons which have to be collected to determine all the moments with the required statistical significance.





### 5.2.2 Wavelengths used for simulations

The following MERIS bands are used for the simulation:

Channel number	Wavelength [nm]
1	412
2	443
3	490
4	510
5	560
6	620
7	665
9	705

Furthermore, for producing the test data set, channels 13 (775 nm) and 14 (865 nm) were included. The chlorophyll fluorescence band at 681.25 nm has been omitted, since the fluorescence effect has not been considered in the present simulations.

### 5.2.3 The atmosphere


The atmosphere is modelled here only to determine the down-welling irradiance just above the sea surface,  $E_d$ , and a realistic downward directed radiance distribution just below the sea surface for different solar zenith angles. It is not used for atmospheric correction. Except the solar zenith angle all properties of the atmosphere are fixed for this purpose. The atmosphere model is a typical ocean atmosphere with maritime aerosol type with 70% humidity to meet the requirements of case I and case II water. No absorption by atmospheric gases is assumed for the considered 8 (10) MERIS bands. The atmosphere is defined in the document PO-TN-MEL-GS-0016, July 23, 1996, this project (ACRI, 1996).

The atmosphere is modelled with 50 layers, each 1 km thick, photons start at the top of layer 50. Fig. 3 shows the vertical distribution.

#### 5.2.3.1 Pressure at ground

The atmospheric pressure at sea level is fixed to 1013.25 hPa (standard atmosphere).



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### 5.2.3.2 Rayleigh scattering

The vertical profile of the Rayleigh scattering coefficient (air molecules) is given by Elterman(1968) for the standard atmospheric pressure of 1013.25 hPa at sea level.

The profiles with 50 1 km-layers are tabulated for each MERIS channel in 8 files (rpmerxxx.txt, where xxx is the wavelength as listed above).

### 5.2.3.3 Ozone layer

The vertical ozone profile is taken from Elterman(1968). The density profile which is given in cm ozone per km for a surface pressure of 1013.25 hp is tabulated in the file ozprofel.txt. The total ozone column content is 0.34 cm. The extinction profiles with 50 1-km-layers are tabulated for each MERIS channel in 8 files (opmerxxx.txt, where xxx is the wavelenth as listed above). The ozone absorption spectrum is given in file ozspek1.txt.

### 5.2.3.4 Aerosol

To be consistent with case I water simulation and algorithms a maritime atmosphere is defined also for case II water. The vertical profiles and optical properties are taken from WMO report WCRP-112 (1986).

#### 5.2.3.4.1 Aerosol types

Three aerosol types are used to model the case I and case II atmosphere:

- maritime aerosol with a humidity of 70% (Shettle & Fenn, 1979)
- continental aerosol (WMO report WCRP-112, 1986)
- stratospheric aerosol which is represented by a 75% solution of sulfuric acid in water (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) (WMO report WCRP-112, 1986)

The normalised extinction coefficients and single scattering albedos are tabulated for the 3 aerosol types and in addition for the urban aerosol type for each of the 8 MERIS bands in the files csmerxxx.txt, where xxx is the wavelength as listed above.

#### 5.2.3.4.2 Aerosol phase functions

Aerosol phase functions and single scattering albedos were computed using the MIE code developed at LPCM<sup>2</sup>, and the inputs (complex indices of refraction and particle size

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<sup>2</sup> the phase functions have been provided by David Antoine, LPCM



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distribution) given in Shettle & Fenn (1979) and World Climate Research Program, WMO document WCRP-112 (1986).

The single scattering albedos and the phase functions for the 8 MERIS channels are tabulated in the following files with xxx the wavelength:

- maritime aerosol 70% humidity: gm70\_xxx.txt
- continental aerosol: gcon\_xxx.txt
- stratospheric aerosol: ghso\_xxx.txt

The 75 angles of the aerosol phase functions are listed in file wink.txt. The single scattering albedos of these files are used for the calculations.





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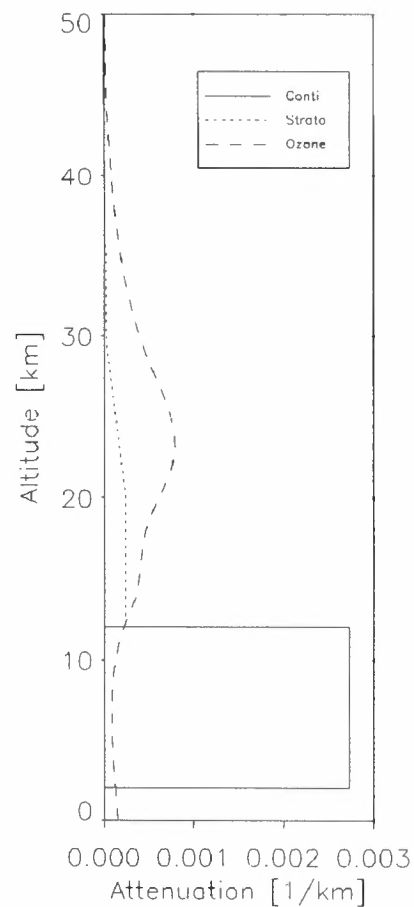
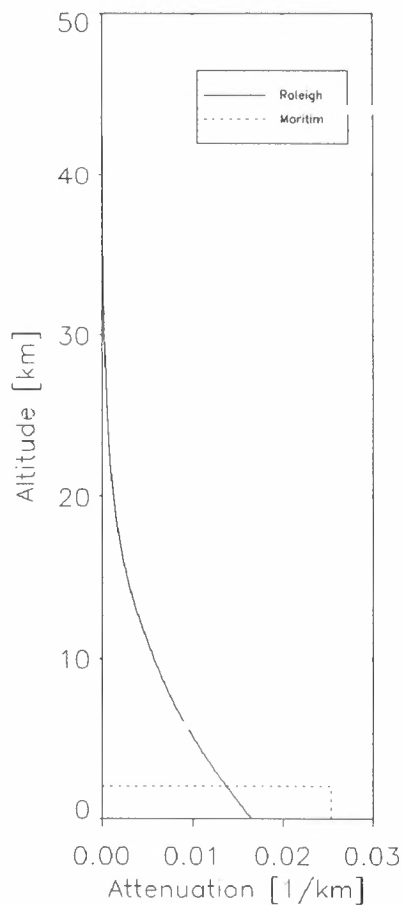
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### 5.2.3.4.3 Aerosol vertical profile

The first two km (layers 1 and 2) consist of the maritime aerosol type with an aerosol extinction at 550 nm of  $0.025 \text{ km}^{-1}$ . The layers 3-12 consist of the continental aerosol type with an extinction of  $0.0025 \text{ km}^{-1}$  and the layers 13-50 of stratospheric aerosol type. The extinction of the stratospheric aerosol is altitude dependent (see figure 3).

The vertical aerosol extinctions for these three types for 550 nm are tabulated in file profilma.txt.







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*Figure 3 Attenuation of the model atmosphere at 510 nm (MERIS channel 4) as used for the simulation of this ATBD: Rayleigh scattering (Rayleigh), maritime aerosol with 70% humidity (Maritim), continental aerosol (Conti), stratospheric aerosol (Strato) and ozone (Ozone)*

#### 5.2.4 Sun irradiance

As all calculations are done in terms of reflectances, sun irradiance is assumed to be equal 1 for all wavelengths.

#### 5.2.5 Air/sea interface

The rough sea surface is modelled according to Cox & Munk (1954) for a wind speed of 7 m/s. A wind direction is not given; the azimuth distribution of the wave slopes is isotropic. Whitecaps are not accounted for.

The frequency distribution of wave slopes is of Gaussian type with  $\sigma^2 = 0.003 + 0.00512v_w$ , and  $v_w$  the wind-speed in m/s.

The relationship between random numbers  $\rho_{\theta_n}$  and  $\rho_{\phi_n}$  uniformly distributed on the unit interval (0,1) and the angle between the normal to the wave facet and the normal to the level surface,  $\theta_n$ , and  $\phi_n$  is:

$$\rho_{\theta_n} = \frac{2}{\sigma^2} \int_0^{\theta_n} \exp\left(-\frac{\tan^2 \theta_n}{\sigma^2}\right) \tan \theta_n \sec^2 \theta_n d\theta_n$$

$$\phi_n = 2\pi\rho_{\phi_n}$$


For calculating the specular reflectance at the air/sea interface  $\rho(\theta_s)$  and  $\rho(\theta_v)$ , and transmittance through the interface, the law of refraction (Snell's law) is applied with a refractive index for seawater of 1.334.

#### 5.2.6 Water properties

##### 5.2.6.1 Depth of remotely sensed layer

We assumed that the water depth,  $z$ , is much larger than the signal depth  $z_{90}$ , which is the depth from which 90% of the signal measured at the surface comes from.



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#### 5.2.6.2 Water constituents

The path of the photon through the water column is determined beside pure seawater by 3 groups of substances. Composition and optical properties of case II water constituents are extremely variable on a global scale. Since a global algorithm was required, the water constituents are represented here by the following proxy components, which may not be identical with actual constituents: phytoplankton (and associated organic matter) is represented by the global pigment index of case I water (Morel, 1988), suspended matter by non-absorbing scattering particles (non-absorbing suspended particles, NSP) and non-chlorophyllous coloured dissolved and suspended organic matter by *gelbstoff* (yellow substance).

The concentration units are:

Phytoplankton (and associated organic matter): expressed by the concentration of chlorophyll *a* ( $\mu\text{g/l}$ )

Non-chlorophyllous suspended matter: it is assumed that this component is solely represented by non-absorbing mineral particles. Its concentration is expressed by its total scattering coefficient at 550 nm [ $b_p(550)$ ;  $\text{m}^{-1}$ ]. It can be *a posteriori* converted into mass concentration per unit volume of suspended matter using a given mass-specific total scattering coefficient [ $b_p^*(550)$ ]. According to Kronfeld(1988) we used a conversion factor of 0.125, i.e.

$$b_p(550) = [\text{NSP mg/l}] * 0.125$$

Coloured dissolved organic matter (yellow substance or *gelbstoff*): expressed by its absorption coefficient at 440 nm [ $a_y(440)$ ;  $\text{m}^{-1}$ ]. It can be *a posteriori* converted into mass concentration per unit volume of dissolved organic matter DOC using a given mass-specific absorption coefficient [ $a_y^*(440)$ ], for the North Sea this factor is in the order of 0.1.

#### 5.2.6.3 Vertical distribution

It is assumed that all substances are homogeneously distributed in the water-column. For many coastal waters, this is a realistic assumption, especially within the  $z_{90}$  layer.

#### 5.2.6.4 Inherent optical properties of water and its constituents

The properties adopted here are documented in the "Case II Algorithm Tests Specification", DOC Ref. No. PO-TN-MEL-GS-0016, s. Appendix C). The optical properties of phytoplankton are the same as for case I water. They are taken from the publication of Morel (1988), which describes a mean global case I water pigment index with concentration



dependent spectral absorption coefficients. Thus, in case of the absence of suspended matter and *gelbstoff*, there is no difference between the case I and case II water model. This offers the opportunity to cover both water types with one inverse modelling algorithm.

**5.2.7 Ancillary data**

Since the atmospheric correction is not included in this version of the inverse modelling algorithm, only a few ancillary data are needed for the calculation of flags. However, these procedures are outside the scope of this ATBD. Also the decision for not passing a pixel to the algorithm by using these flags is made outside this algorithm. The following list contains variables which are needed to calculate these flags.

Parameter	Unit	Source
wind speed	m/s	numerical weather model, weather maps
navigation data	time, position, sun and viewing angles	ENVISAT tracking
water depth	m	bathymetric maps

*Table 1 Ancillary Data*

**5.2.7.1 Wind speed**

The wind speed is required for calculating the wave slope distribution, which in turn is used to calculate the sun glitter contribution  $L_g$  and the contribution from whitecaps  $L_{wc}$ . A special procedure for coastal zones, where the whitecap distribution differs from that of open ocean areas, is not available.

The glint-mask flags sun glint - contaminated areas in a MERIS image which cannot be used for retrieval.

Data have to be taken from weather maps and numerical models.

**5.2.7.2 Navigational data**

The algorithm requires the knowledge of the sun and observation angles for each of the pixels. Exact navigational data are required as ancillary data to calculate these angles.

**5.2.7.3 Water depth**

The water leaving radiance of shallow coastal waters may also be effected by the reflection of the bottom. These areas have to be masked and flagged using bathymetric maps. The decision



for not passing a pixel to the algorithm due to shallow water is made outside the described algorithm.

**5.2.8 Concentration and angular range**

The range of concentrations used for calculating the table and, thus, the scope of the procedure is given in table 2. Concentrations for the tables are randomly generated with constant probability from the log of the concentration within this range.

Ranges of independent variables for calculating water leaving radiance reflectances			
Variable	concentration unit	min	max
phytoplankton pigment, chlorophyll <i>a</i>	µg/l	0.003	50
mineralic suspended matter	mg/l	0.03	50
<i>gelbstoff</i> , absorption at 440 nm	<i>a</i> (440) m <sup>-1</sup>	0.002	2
solar zenith angle	degree	0	75
viewing zenith angle	degree	0	41
difference between solar and viewing azimuth	degree	0	180

*Table 2 Ranges of variables for training the ffNN*





for not passing a pixel to the algorithm due to shallow water is made outside the described algorithm.


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Ranges of independent variables for calculating water leaving radiance reflectances			
Variable	concentration unit	min	max
phytoplankton pigment, chlorophyll <i>a</i>	µg/l	0.003	50
mineralic suspended matter	mg/l	0.03	50
<i>gelbstoff</i> , absorption at 440 nm	$a(440) \text{ m}^{-1}$	0.002	2
solar zenith angle	degree	0	75
viewing zenith angle	degree	0	41
difference between solar and viewing azimuth	degree	0	180

*Table 2 Ranges of variables for training the ffNN*



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## 5.3 Mathematical Description of the Algorithm

### 5.3.1 Standard inverse modelling technique

The inverse modelling procedure which has been developed for the evaluation of CZCS data of the North Sea and Baltic Sea is based on a simple model (single scattering in atmosphere, two-flow approximation for the radiative transfer in the water, s. chapter 4.2). The optimisation procedure is the simplex-algorithm developed by Nelder & Mead (1965). The procedure is applied on a pixel by pixel basis. Errors are calculated using the Hesse Matrix. The concentrations of total suspended matter, phytoplankton chlorophyll, *gelbstoff* and the aerosol path radiance at 670 nm are derived as independent variables. Due to the limited number of spectral channels and the absence of spectral channels in the near infrared spectral range, it was necessary to include the atmospheric correction implicitly into the procedure. The method as indicated in Fig. 4 is described in general in Doerffer (1992), and Doerffer & Fischer (1994). Comparison with ship data of experiments in 1979 and 1986 on a statistical basis show good agreement. The procedure has also been adapted to simulated MERIS data as derived from radiance spectra measured from an aircraft with the Airborne Optical Multichannel Analyzer (AR-OMA) over coastal waters of the North Sea.

As seen from the scheme, the knowledge of the specific optical properties of the water constituents is a key issue for the success of an inversion. This has been tested for different parts of the Baltic Sea with different spectral absorption coefficients of phytoplankton.





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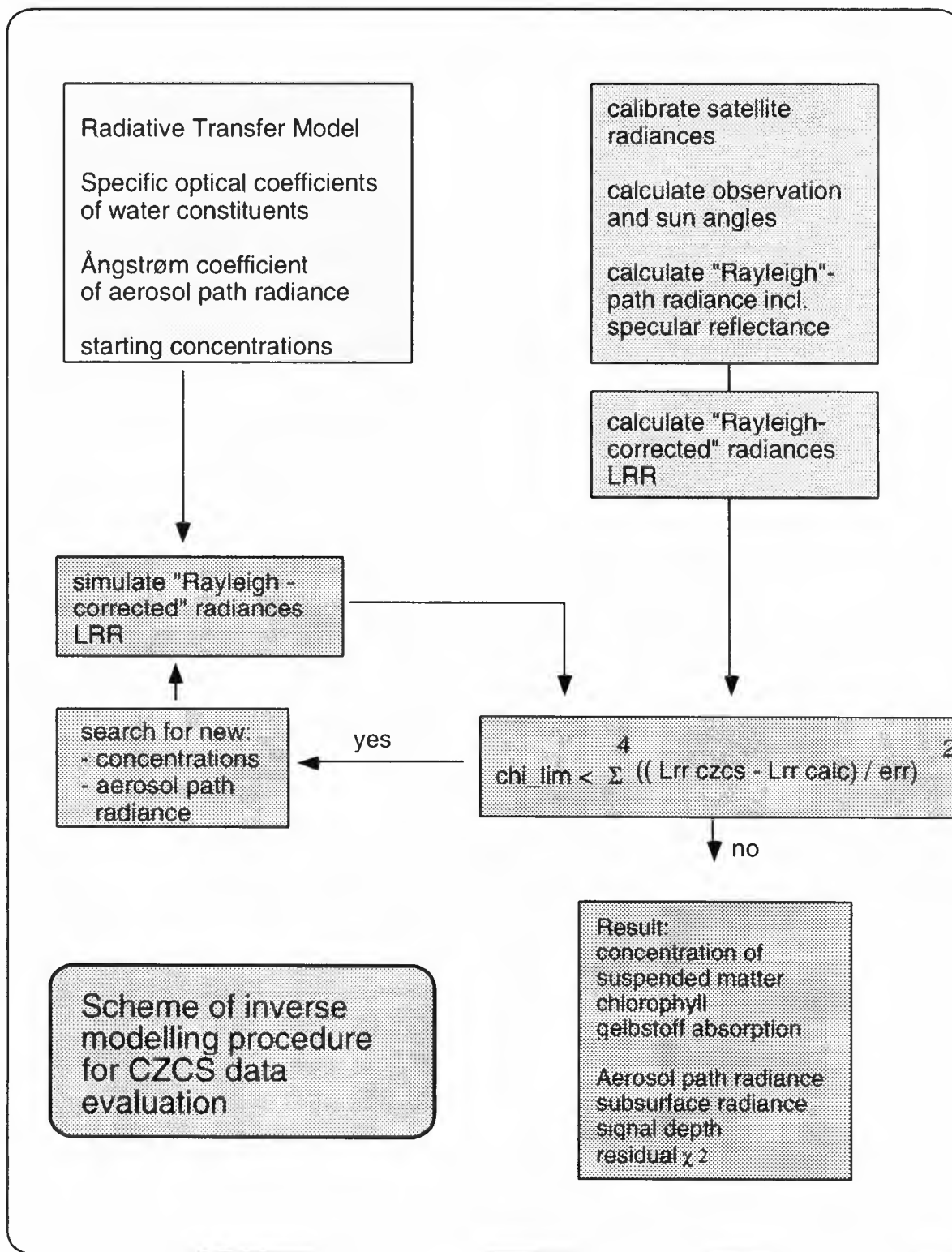



Figure 4 Inverse modelling procedure for CZCS data



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### 5.3.2 Parametrisation of the inverse modelling technique by a multiple non-linear regression technique ("Neural Network").

This section describes our method for implementing the inverse modelling technique in form of a neural network (NN). The basic idea is to replace the optimisation loop within the inverse modelling procedure by a table of 6 independent input variables, i.e. the (1) concentrations of phytoplankton pigment, (2) *gelbstoff* and (3) suspended matter, (4) the solar zenith angle, (5) viewing zenith angle and (6) the difference between the solar and viewing azimuth angle, and 8 output variables, which are the water leaving radiance reflectances. This table is used to determine the coefficients of the non-linear multiple regression procedure ("neural network") by minimising the difference between the 3 concentrations used to compute the reflectances and the 3 corresponding concentrations which were produced by the neural network. The optimisation procedure, i.e. the feed forward backpropagation algorithm, is applied to a large data set ("training" of the NN).

#### 5.3.2.1 Outline of the emulation technique

Suppose there is a radiative transfer model (RTF)  $f$  which calculates spectral reflectances  $\overline{\rho}$  from concentrations  $\overline{c}$  of  $n$  water constituents, such as phytoplankton pigments, *gelbstoff*, total suspended matter, and some parameters  $p$

$$\overline{\rho} = f_p(\overline{c})$$

In order to derive  $c$  from measured reflectances  $\rho_{meas}$  one needs the inverse model

$$\overline{c} = f_p^{-1}(\overline{\rho}_{meas.})$$

The common procedure to realise the inverse model is the least square method. That means one iterates an optimisation loop until

$$\chi^2(\overline{c}) = \sum \left( \frac{\overline{\rho}_{i,meas.} - \rho_i(f(\overline{c}))}{\Delta \rho_{i,meas.}} \right)^2 \rightarrow Minimum$$


The model is then inverted for the given reflectances if the minimisation is successful.

As stated above the utilisation of the inverse model is quite a heavy computational task since it has to be performed on a pixel by pixel basis. Therefore we look for possibilities to improve the performance:

The calculation of the inverse model can be regarded as an interpolation task. With the use of a RTM one can generate a large table with randomly chosen concentrations and parameters on





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one side and the calculated reflectances on the other side. In principle one could use this table to get the desired concentration from the combination of reflectances and parameters by interpolation. Technically this will not be feasible; the table would be simply too large due to its high dimension. But there are a number of methods which can be used to construct an approximating function from such a table, like projection pursuit, neural networks, radial basis functions and tensor product methods. Once an approximating function is constructed it can be used to effectively do the desired interpolation. It will emulate the inverse model using much less computer time than the inverse model itself would need.

One way is the usage of a Chebyshev-Expansion of the inverse model. This method becomes intractable if more than three eigenvalues of the covariance matrix of the reflectances are significantly different from zero. It turned out that this method cannot reasonably be used for MERIS data for this reason, particularly for turbid coastal water when the atmospheric correction has to be solved implicitly in the retrieval procedure.

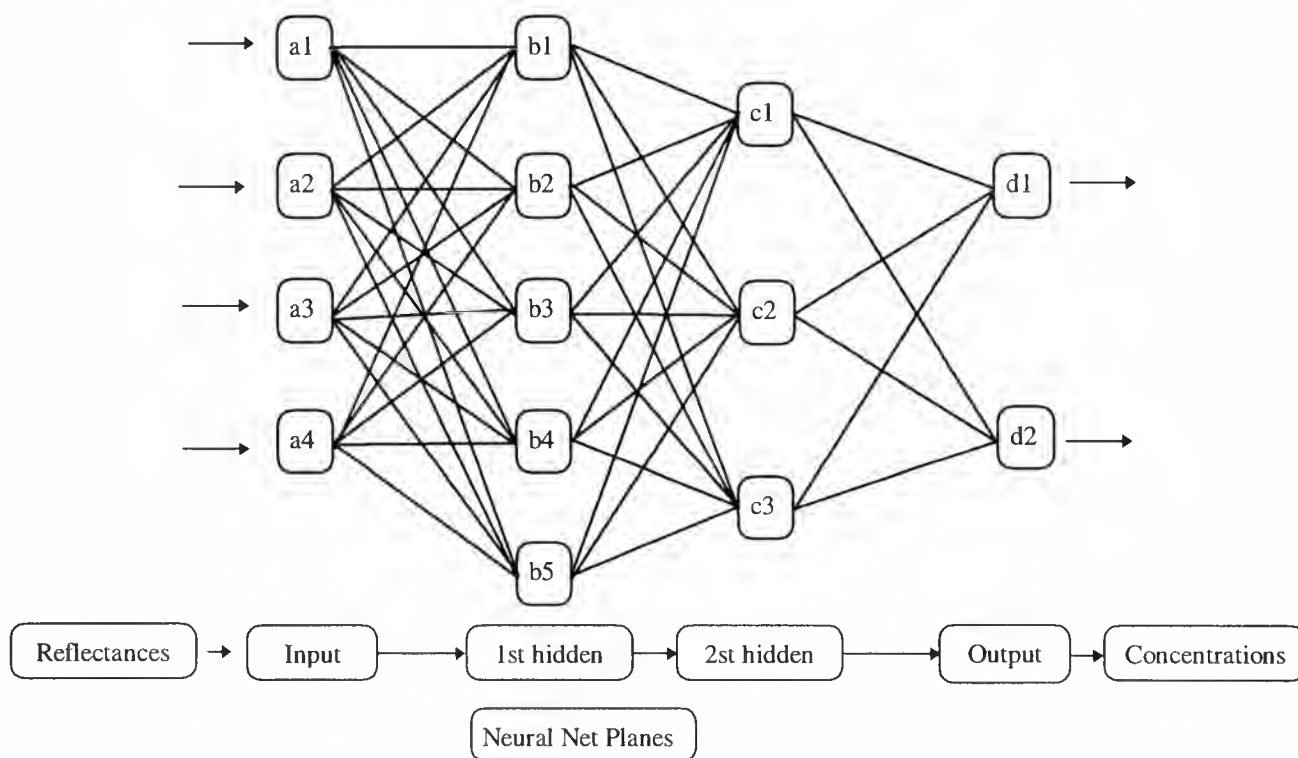
Another way for the approximation, which has been turned out as most effective, is the use of a neural network. This is mathematically a multiple non-linear regression technique. For the parametrisation of the inverse model a feed forward error-backpropagation network (ffNN) was chosen for its simplicity (Rumelhard et al., 1986). In the following the essentials of this type of network is summarised.

#### **5.3.2.2 The "neural network" procedure**

ffNN are organised by layers with an input layer, an output layer and one or more hidden layer(s) between them. Each layer consists of 'neurones': the input layer has as many 'neurones' as there are input values, the output layer has as many 'neurones' as there are output values necessary and the hidden layer(s) need a problem-dependent number of 'neurones'.

Neighbouring layers are linked: each 'neurone' in one layer has a link to each 'neurone' of the next (neighbouring) layer. Each link has a weight ( $w$ ).





*Figure 5 Example of a Neural Net with two hidden layers. The used NN is more complex because of the 11 input 'neurones' (8 MERIS channels, 3 angles) and 3 output neurones (3 concentrations)*



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Each 'neurone' calculates its output value  $o$  according to

$$o = s(-bias + \sum_{\text{incominglinks}} w_i x_i)$$

where

$bias$  is a value specific for each neurone

$w_i$  is the weight of the link

$x_i$  is the output-value of the link in the preceding layer (the 'neurons' in the input-layer have only one incoming link and  $x_i$  are the output values of the input layer)

$s$  is a non-linear function taking the form of a 'sigmoid', that is, it assumes monotonically increasing values between 0 and 1 as the value of the argument goes from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$ . The most popular choice (used also in this ATBD) is the logistic function (s. Fig. 6).

The ffNN works sequentially: at first the input-values are applied to the input-neurones and this is already the output of the first layer. Then all neurones of the first hidden layer calculate their outputs by summing up the weighted inputs, shifting this sum by the bias-value and applying the 'sigmoid'. This is repeated for the next layer and so on until the output-layer is reached - giving the network-result for the applied input.

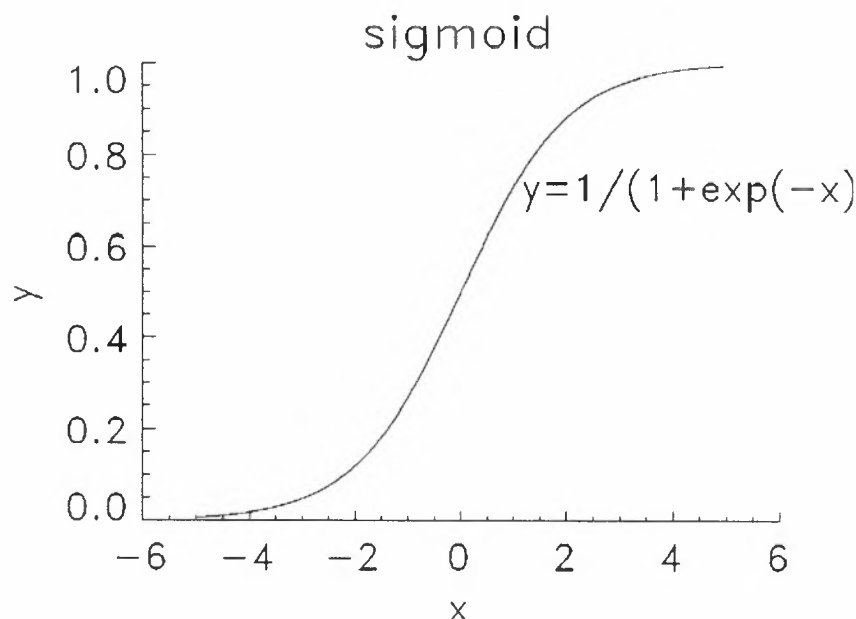
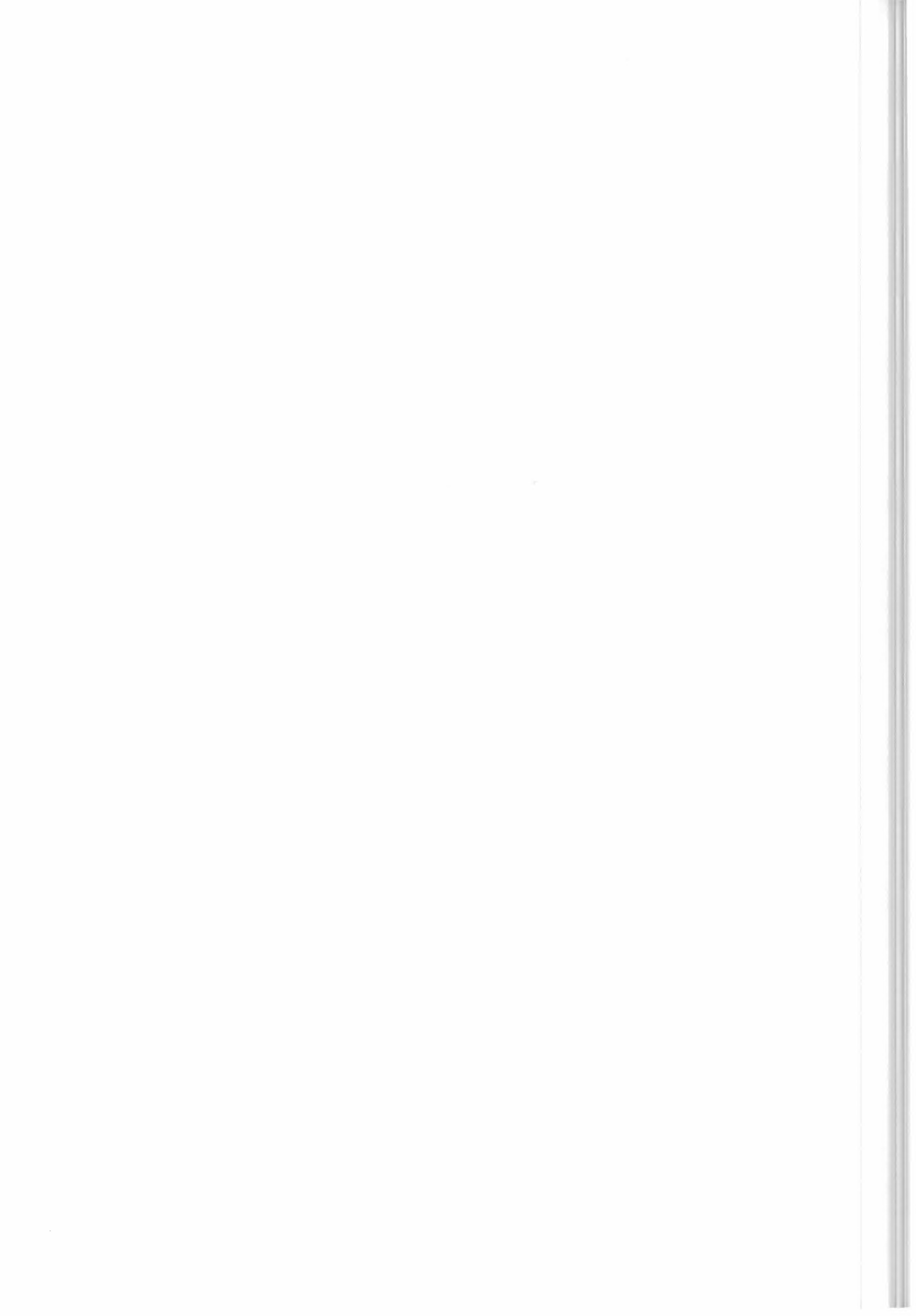


Figure 6 The logistic function (sigmoid)



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The multiple non-linear regression realised by the ffNN depicted in fig. 5 so reads

$$y_l = s(-d_l + \sum_{k=1}^3 w_{kl} \cdot s(-c_k + \sum_{j=1}^5 v_{jk} \cdot s(-b_j + \sum_{i=1}^4 u_{ij} x_i)))$$

For a useful ffNN one has to fit the diverse parameters (biases, link weights). It is the same problem as in a polynomial fit to a simple set of measurements - but due to the high dimensionality of the dependent as well as the independent variables the determination of the coefficients is more complex. One generates two sufficiently large sets of corresponding input-output-vectors - one set is used as 'teaching'-sample and the other set as 'test'-sample. During 'teaching' the values of the biases of all neurones as well as the weights  $u, v, w, \dots$  of all the links are changed so as to minimise an error-function. In the 'teaching-phase' the errors are propagated against the normal processing direction: they are backpropagated from the output-layer to the input-layer - this is why such nets also are called 'backpropagation networks'. The criterion for a successful training is then the sum of squares of the difference between the output of the net  $y$  and the corresponding table entries:

$$\sum_{\text{'teaching-sample'}} (\mathcal{P}_{desired} - \mathcal{P}_{ffNN})^2$$


After this minimisation-procedure it is necessary to check if the resulting net has 'generalisation-power', i.e. if it is able to produce reasonable results also for input-values which were not 'shown' to it before, i.e. data which were not included in the 'training set'. Like in a polynomial fit with too many parameters it could happen that the fit reproduces the points used to fit the parameters but shows bewildering behaviour at places between ("overtraining"). For this task the second ('test') set is used.

### 5.3.3 Construction of a ffNN for inverting MERIS data

For testing the behaviour and performance of the neural network a ffNN was designed for retrieving the concentrations of suspended matter, *gelbstoff* and phytoplankton pigment from MERIS radiance spectra by inverse modelling. Eight of the first 9 spectral channels which are presently under discussion but not yet fixed have been used for the inversion. The fluorescence and all "atmosphere channels" in the near infrared have been excluded. In subsection 5.3.3.1 the construction of the approximating ffNN for Meris data is described. Results from this ffNN





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are discussed in subsection 5.3.4. Aspects of the operational usage of the ffNN are presented in subsection 5.4.

### **5.3.3.1 The construction of the actual ffNN approximating the inverse model**

Within this section we demonstrate the use of the ffNN procedure to derive concentrations from water leaving radiance reflectances and demonstrate its performance.

The Monte Carlo model as outlined in chapter 3 was used to calculate the water leaving radiance reflectances. The ranges of interest of the variables were defined to be those given in Table 2. The values were chosen to cover case I open ocean and turbid coastal waters. The software which was used for designing the ffNN is the Stuttgart Neural Network Simulator SNNS v3.1 (SNNS 1995). The steps to construct the emulating Neural Network for the inverse model for Meris data were as follows:

#### **Construction of the 'teaching'- and test-data-set**

##### **'Teaching'-sample:**


Values of each of the independent variables (3 concentrations and sun zenith distance) were randomly pulled from their min - max range (see table 2); the concentrations were pulled from the logarithmic scale. Using these input data the water leaving radiance function was calculated with the Monte Carlo code. Five different observation angles from the predefined range (s. table 2) were then randomly pulled and the corresponding radiances were calculated, divided by the down-welling irradiance at the sea surface to get the water leaving radiance reflectances, i.e. for each MC run 5 reflectance spectra were calculated. Covering equidistantly the  $\log(\min)$ - $\log(\max)$  - range leads to a higher density at small values of the variables rather than at large values, which reflects the real situation. So during the 'teaching phase' the ffNN is tuned more at small values thereby achieving roughly constant *relative* errors instead of roughly constant errors. Altogether 57240 MERIS spectra have been computed from which 45792 have been used for training of the NN.

##### **Test-sample:**

The test-sample, which were the remaining 11448 spectra, were again chosen as randomly (uniformly distributed) from the  $\log(\min)$ - $\log(\max)$  -ranges.

In both samples the 3 concentration components were transformed to the range [0,1]. This transformation is done to adapt the input to the output-range of the ffNN and additionally eases the control of the errors.



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## **Construction of the ffNN:**

### **Preparation:**

A feedforward/backpropagation-NN with 11 'neurones' in the input layer (reflectances in 8 MERIS bands + 3 angles), 50 'neurones' in the first hidden layer and 12 'neurones' in the second hidden layer was defined. The output layer contained three 'neurones'. The NN became fully connected (each 'neurone' of a layer connected with each 'neurone' of the following layer) and was initialised by assigning random numbers (uniformly in (0,1)) to the weights and biases.

### **'Teaching':**

For error-minimisation the backpropagation method with momentum and flat spot term was used. The 'teaching'-sample was applied to the ffNN in random order. At start the control parameters were set as follows: learning factor 0.6, momentum factor 0.2 and flat spot term 0.02. Each time if the error-function did not decrease anymore the minimisation-parameters were divided by 3. The minimisation was continued until the error function was down to 211 corresponding to an average output error of 6.8%.

### **Test:**

One problem in NN training is to find the right numbers of hidden layers and the number of 'neurones' within these layers as well as the number of cases used for training in order to optimise the accuracy and avoid over-training which could weaken the interpolation power of the NN. The following procedure has been used to optimise the NN. During 'teaching' it was checked that the error function of the test-sample agreed with the error function of the 'teaching-sample' in proportion of the sample sizes. At the end of the minimisation the error function of the test-sample was at 54, indicating a good generalisation.

### **Usage:**

The weights and biases obtained by the 'teaching' of the ffNN were used to generate a C-function realising the ffNN with roughly no organisational overhead, i.e. the necessary expressions contained the numbers directly. Also the backtransformation from the (0,1)-interval for the components was built into this function. So this function could be used to derive the concentrations from the water leaving radiance reflectances of the test-sample for comparison as well as for timing (s. Appendix A).



#### 5.3.4 Results of testing the NN

The above mentioned C-function was used to derive the concentrations (suspended matter, phytoplankton chlorophyll, *gelbstoff*) from the reflectances of the test-sample. The relationship between the test input for designing the neural network and the results from the ffNN are plotted in the following figures. It has to be mentioned here that due to the tight schedule for the development, the training and test data set were calculated with limited accuracy (20000 photons at detector), furthermore the training was not completed up to the optimal end. For the final version the accuracy will be improved.

We have first analysed the extreme case II waters in which all three substances can randomly vary within the range used for training the neural network (table 2). This kind of water would be typical for some turbid estuaries. Fig. 7 - 9 show the results on a logarithmic scale.

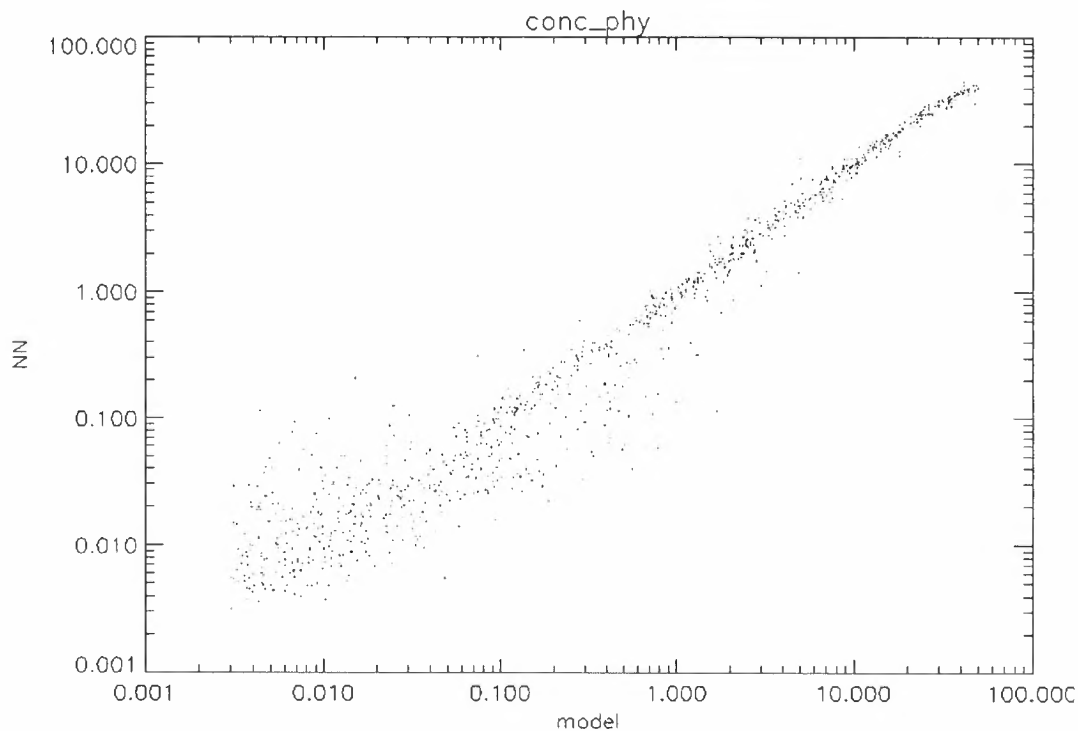
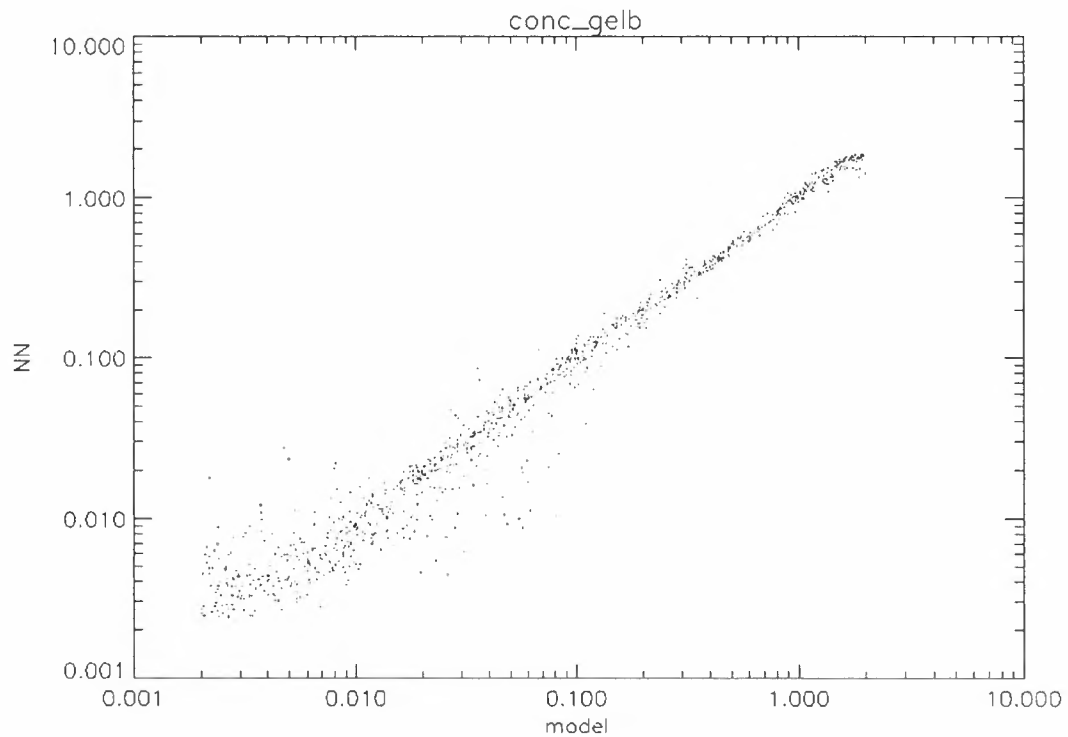
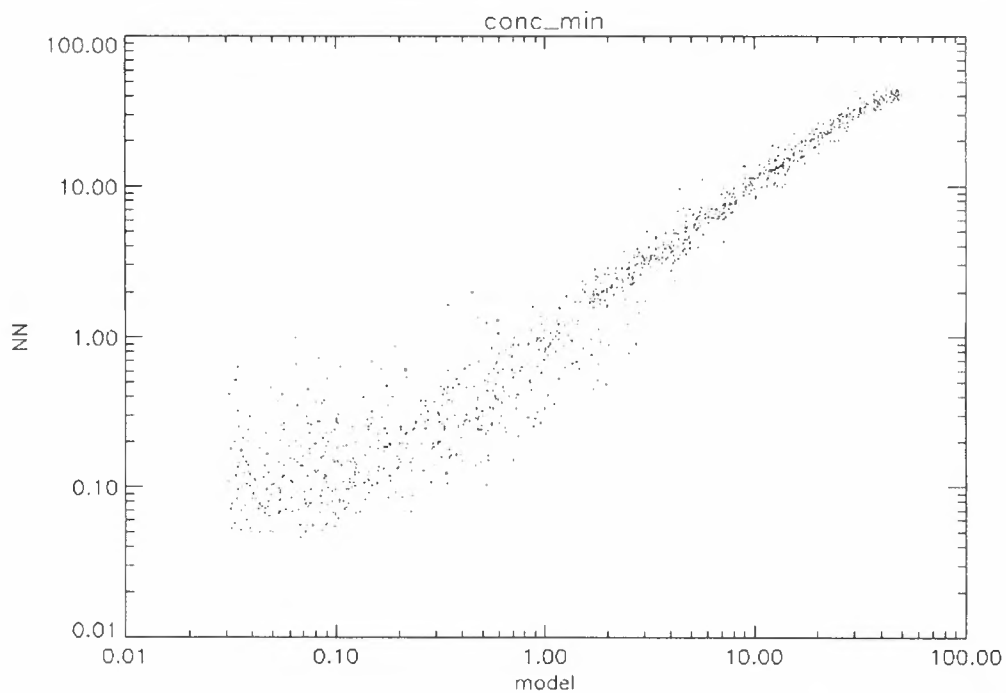


Figure 7 Relationship between the input and NN derived concentration of Chlorophyll






*Figure 8 Relationship between the input and NN derived concentration of gelbstoff*



*Figure 9  
Relationship between the input and NN derived concentration of suspended matter*





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#### 5.3.4.1 Definition of the scope

One can see that the error is acceptable at higher concentrations but increases strongly when the concentration becomes so low that the optical effect of that substance becomes negligible with respect to the high concentrations and strong fluctuations of the other two components. Thus the composition of water constituents defines here the scope of the algorithms; for turbid estuarine water it comprises about the following concentration range:

phytoplankton pigment (chl. a):	1 - 50 $\mu\text{g/l}$
<i>gelbstoff</i> absorption $a(440)$ :	0.1 - 2 $\text{m}^{-1}$
mineralic suspended matter:	1 - 50 $\text{mg/l}$

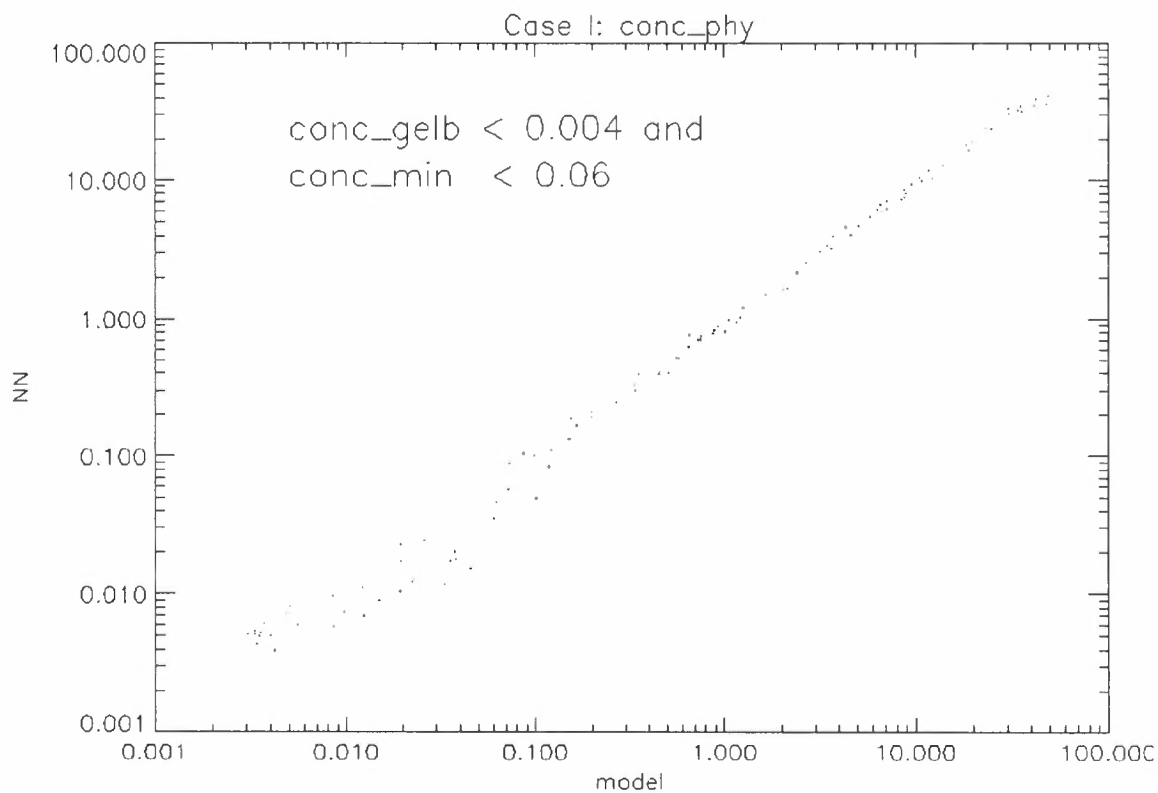
Obvious is the linear relationship within this scope and nearly the same error for all 3 components. The figure also shows that thanks to the construction of the 'teaching'-sample the relative error of the derived quantities is nearly constant. The agreement seen there is sufficient for this range but can still be improved by Monte Carlo runs with more photons and a longer training phase. However outside the estimated scope there is little chance to improve the retrieval by better training due to the physical problem.

However, for other water types, such as the North Sea and Baltic Sea with less suspended matter and *gelbstoff* concentrations, the error is much smaller.

#### 5.3.5 Application to Case I water


One major question of this ATBD is whether the same neural network as trained for case II water can also be used to retrieve the pigment concentration of case I water, which is water with very low concentrations of suspended matter and *gelbstoff*. For this test all cases were selected where the suspended matter concentration was below 0.06  $\text{mg/l}$  and *gelbstoff* concentration below  $a(440)$  of 0.004  $\text{m}^{-1}$ . Fig. 10 shows the result of this test. One can clearly see that the NN responds linearly and with an acceptable error over the full concentration range of 4 decades, i.e. pigment concentration from 0.003 - 50  $\mu\text{g/l}$ , which was used for training. Consequently, the same network can be used for case I and case II waters, provided that the inherent optical properties of phytoplankton in case I and case II areas are the same.





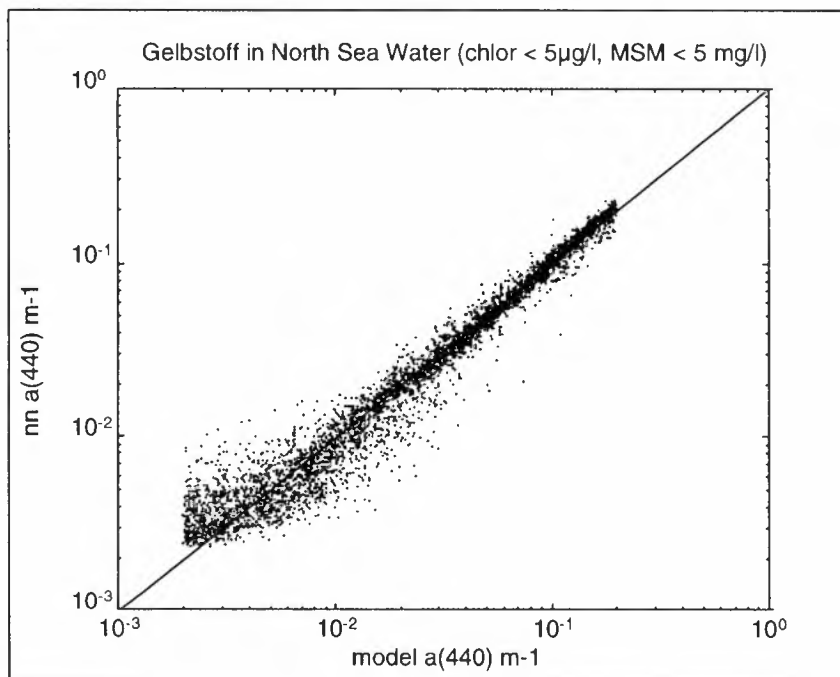
*Figure 10 Input and NN derived concentration of phytoplankton pigment for Case I water*



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### 5.3.6 Typical concentrations for North Sea water

The results for typical concentrations of the North Sea are given in fig. 11 -13.



*Figure 11 Input and NN derived concentration of gelbstoff for typical north Sea water*



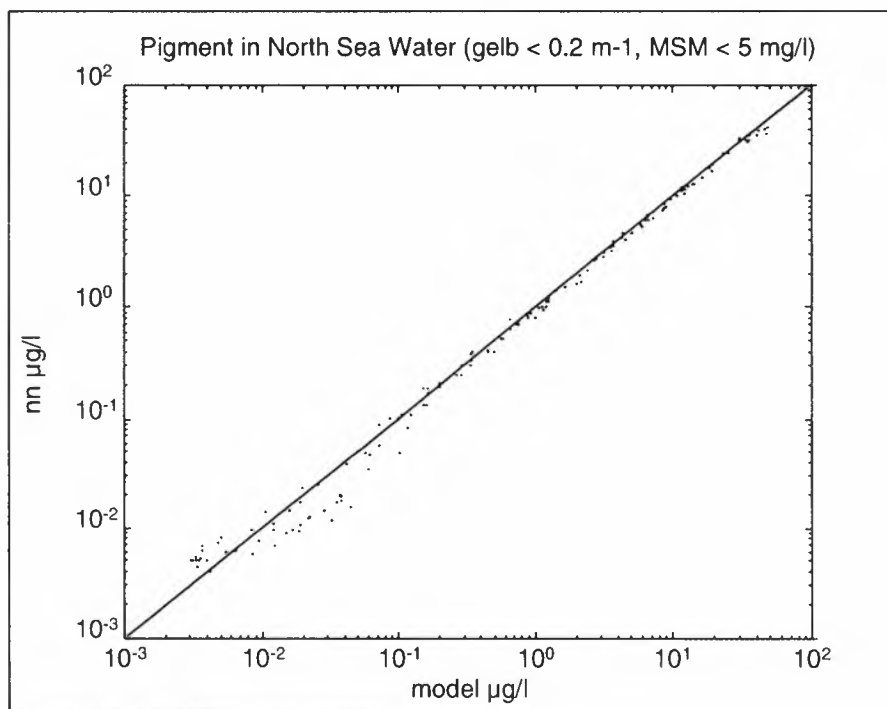


Figure 12 Input and NN derived concentration of phytoplankton pigment (chlorophyll a) for typical North Sea water

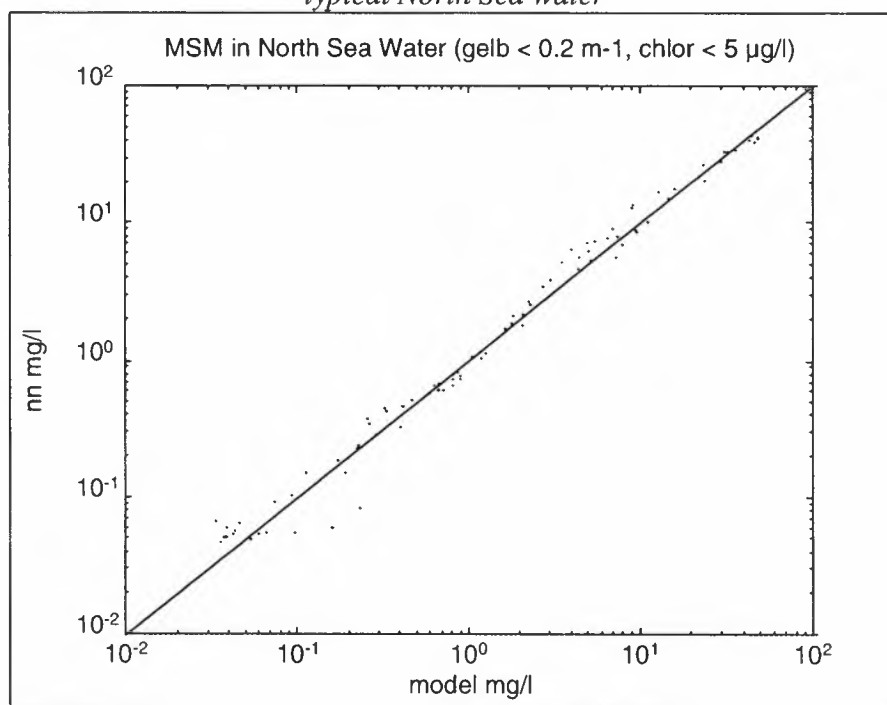
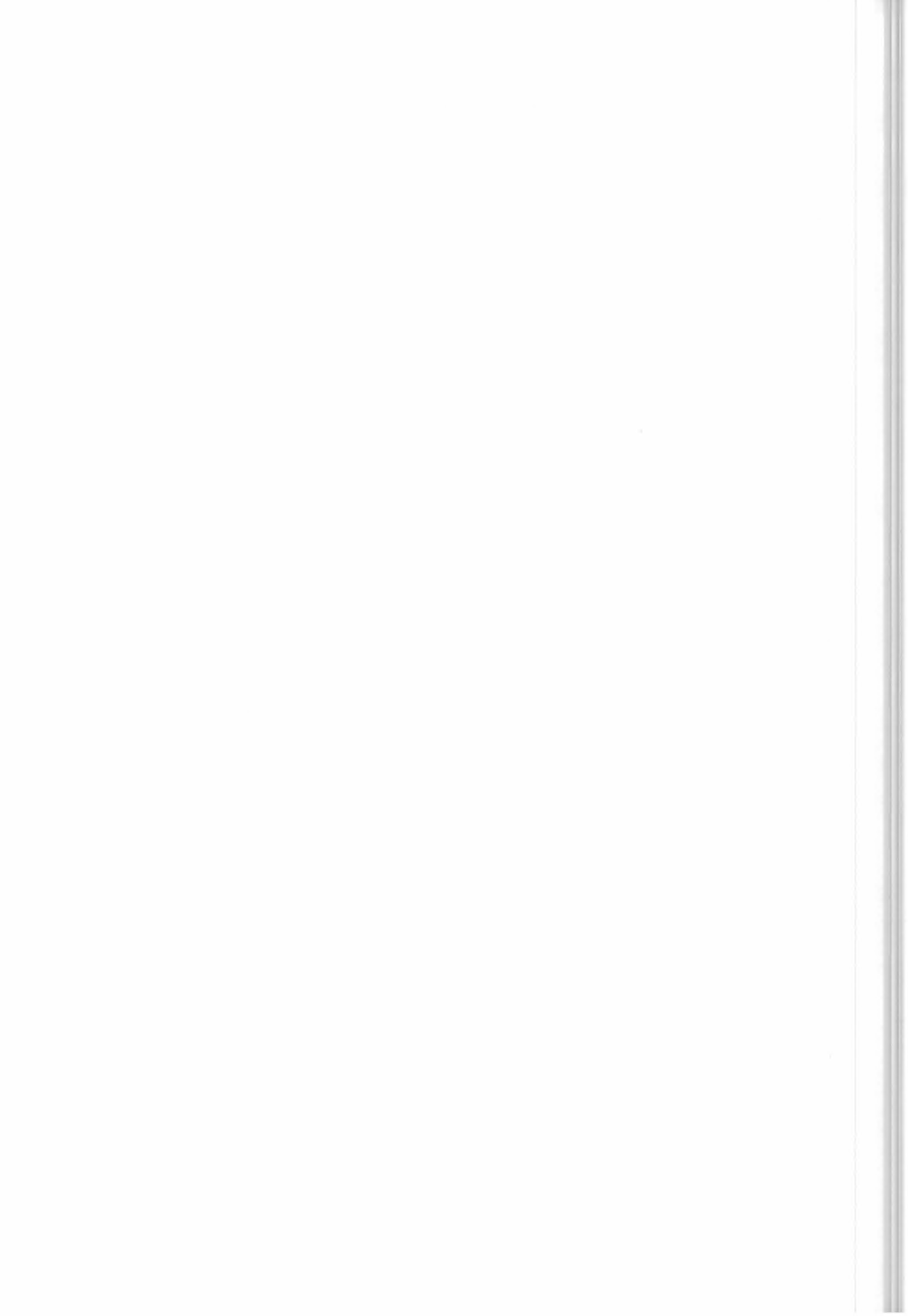



Figure 13 Input and NN derived concentration of mineralic suspended matter for typical North Sea water





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### 5.3.7 Robustness against random errors of the input

A further important question is if the ffNN inversion method is robust against errors in the input, i.e. the reflectances. Two types of error tests have been performed.

In the first test series, the simulated MERIS test spectrum was changed by multiplying the whole spectrum with a  $N(1, 0.01)$ -distributed random number. In the second test series, the reflectance of each channel was multiplied with a  $N(1, 0.01)$ -distributed random number independently. For each test the spectrum was modified 500 times.

The envelope of the spectrum, which have been modified in total is given in fig. 14, the results of the error test in fig. 15-17. The results show that the output error (i.e. in terms of concentration) is very close to the input error for pigment and *gelbstoff*. However, since the algorithm concerning the suspended matter part is sensitive against the height of the reflectance of all channels, the variance of the output is large for suspended matter. The spectra where the channels were distributed independently are shown in fig. 18. The resulting concentration distributions for *gelbstoff* and pigments are given in fig. 19-20. We conclude that the stability of the approximating ffNN and its ability to interpolate is very high.

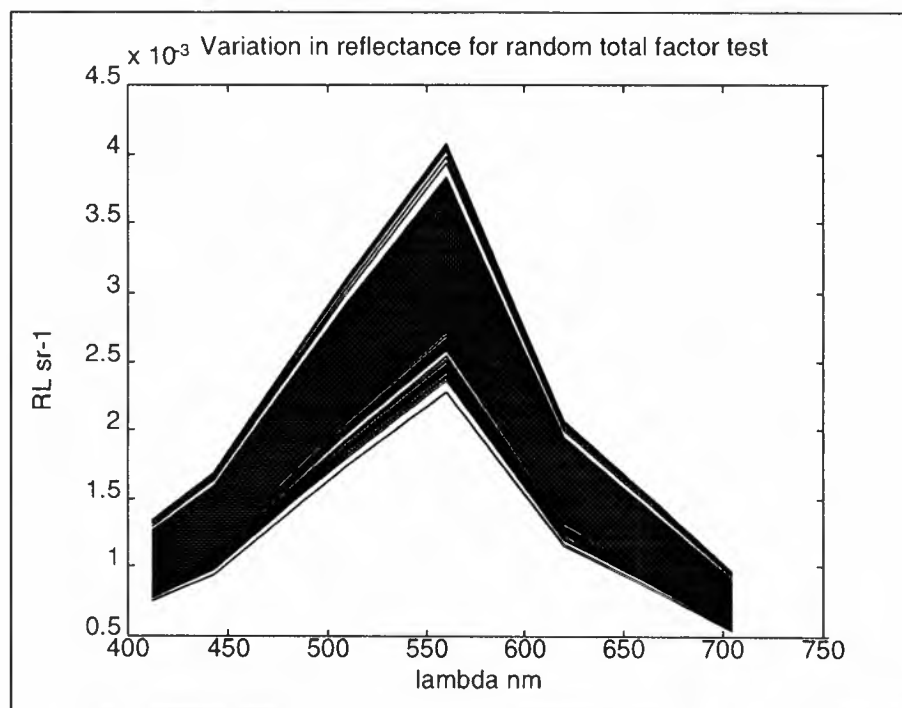


Figure 14 Variation of reflectance spectra produced by multiplying the whole spectrum with a  $N(1, 0.01)$ -distributed random number. Target concentration for chlorophyll is 4  $\mu\text{g/l}$ , NSP 2  $\text{mg/l}$  and *gelbstoff* absorption at 440 nm of 0.5  $\text{m}^{-1}$ .



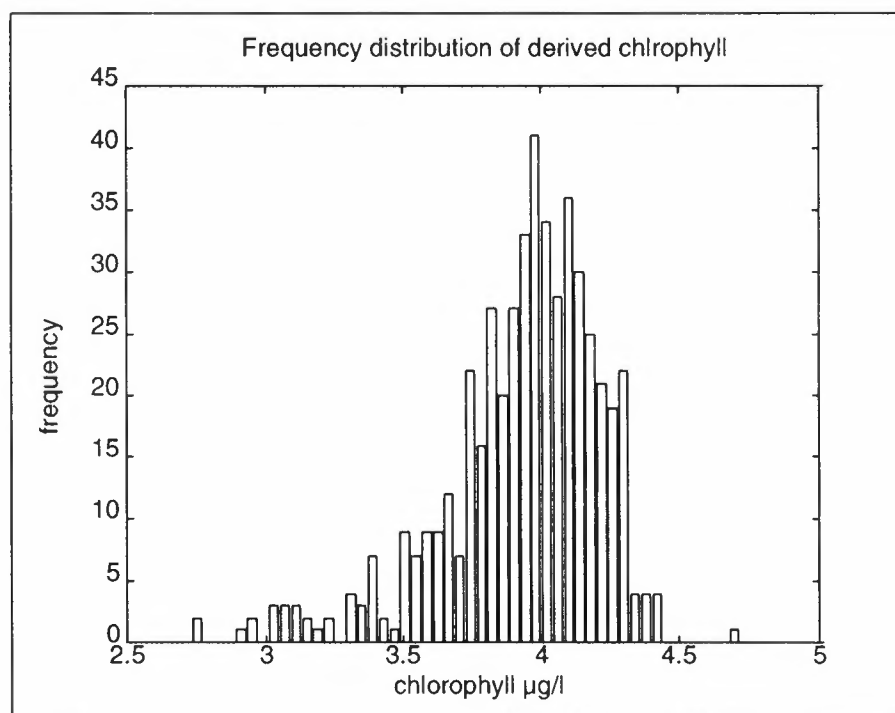


Figure 15 Output error for chlorophyll caused by reflectances with a noise of 10%

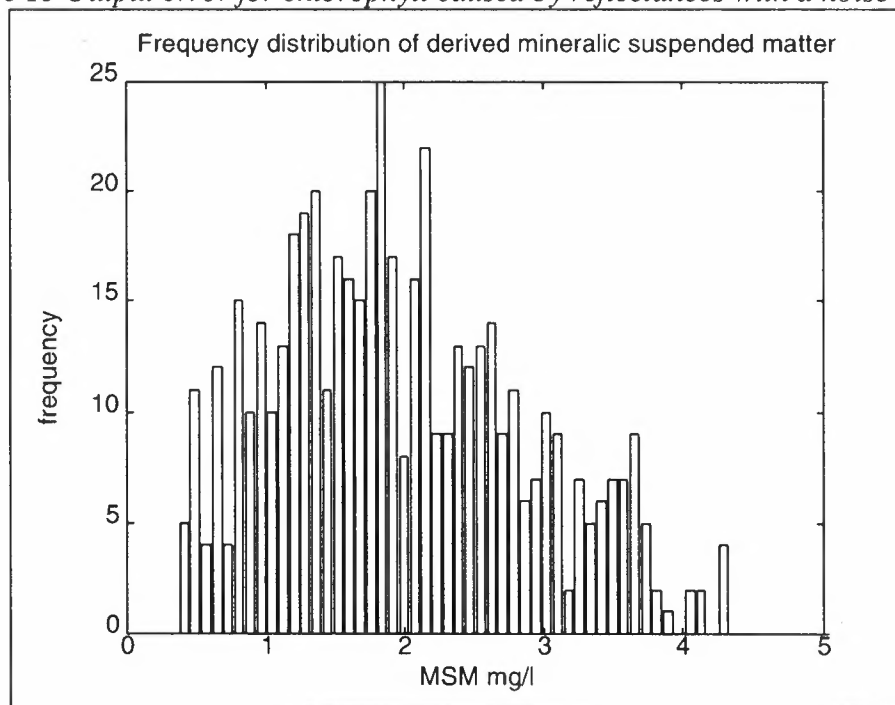


Figure 16 Output error for suspended matter caused by reflectances with a noise of 10%



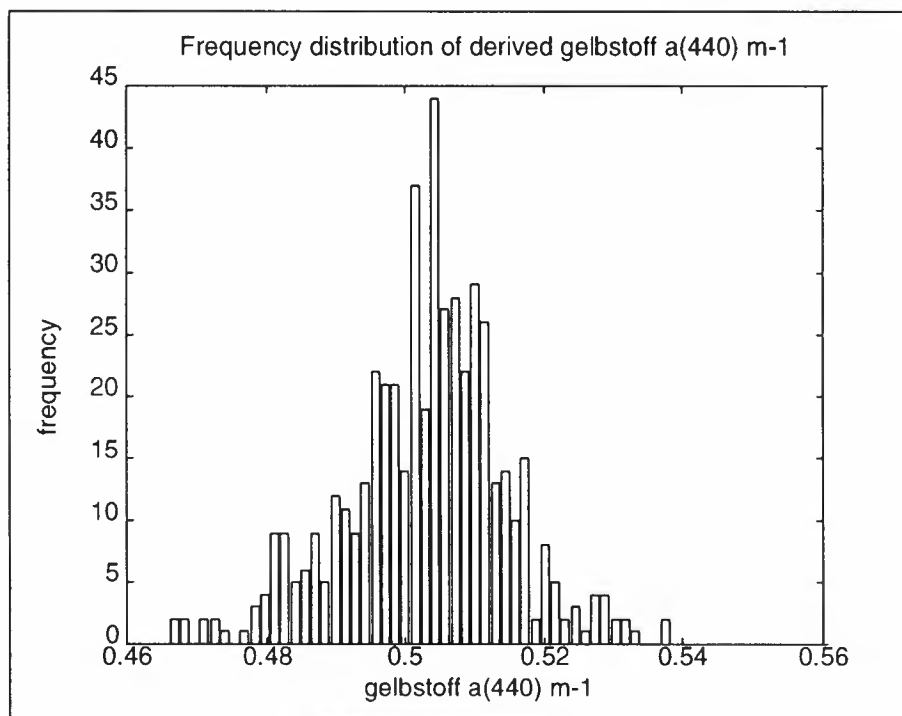


Figure 17 Output error for gelbstoff caused by reflectances with a noise of 10%

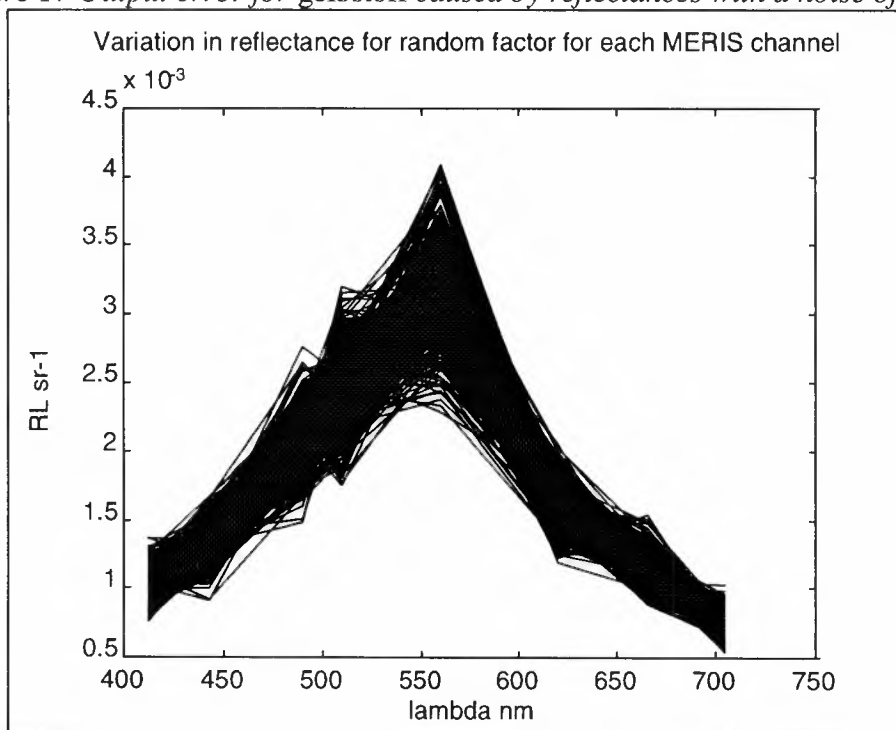


Figure 18 Variation of the spectrum with random noise (standard deviation 10% of reflectance) independent for each channel





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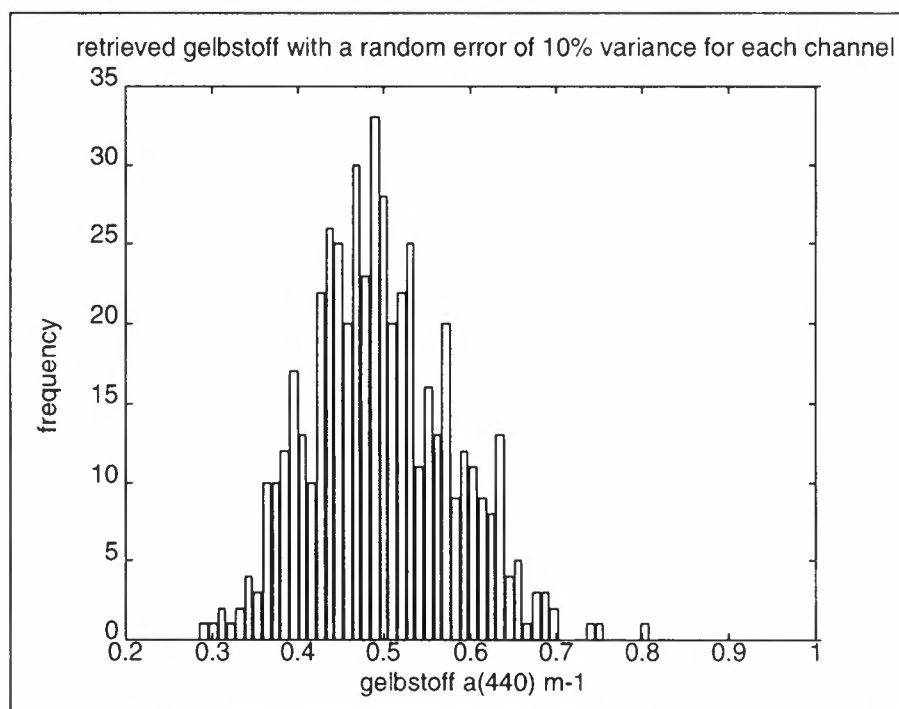


Figure 19 Result for gelbstoff, target concentration is  $a(440\text{nm})$  of  $0.5 \text{ m}^{-1}$

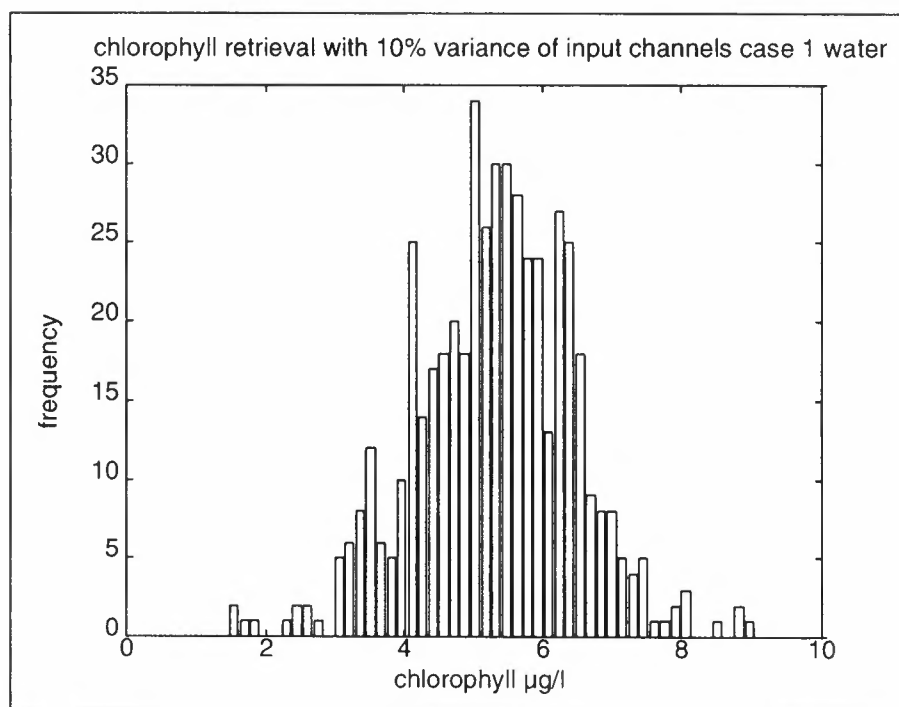



Figure 20 Result for chlorophyll with a target concentration of  $5.8 \mu\text{g/l}$





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## 5.4 Practical Considerations

This part of the ATBD describes practical considerations for implementing the ffNN inverse modelling approach for mass production. The whole problem can be divided in the following parts:

1. Determination of the specific optical properties for different coastal areas and/or seasons.
2. Construction of a Neural Network for global application and, in addition as an option, special NN's for different areas and seasons resulting in a library of subroutines.
3. Test of the NN.
4. Implementation of the NN into the evaluation procedure, which requires the calculation of the water leaving radiance reflectances.


### 5.4.1 Programming and Procedural Considerations

One important step is the construction of the ffNN by training resulting in a subroutine (output in C-language) for implementation in the evaluation procedure. The training program we used is the Stuttgart Neural Network Simulator, version 3.1. During this training phase the scope of the algorithm is determined. It depends on the chosen range of concentration and the intervals as well as the number and nature of independent variables. The test, as shown above, provides the possibility to restrict the scope for a defined acceptable error for different water cases. With present available workstations the training phase is rather time consuming (see above). But since the training has to be performed only once, this part of the work is comparable small compared to the time used for mass production. Future computer systems will allow a much faster training. Because the high number of entries for the training we have selected for the first issue a simple radiative transfer model. The application of more sophisticated and thus more accurate models such as developed in this issue requires more computational effort. However, the runtime of the ffNN is independent of the complexity of the training model.

### 5.4.2 Computational effort

The calculation of the data set for training and testing of the NN and the training phase itself is the most time consuming part of the procedure. The MC model version used for this ATBD required about 10 - 12 minutes per MC run on a SUN ULTRA SPARC I or a PENTIUM 166 MHZ PC, from which 5 spectra with different viewing directions were computed. For the training of the NN about 12000 MC runs with 60 000 spectra were produced, 20% of these



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cases were used for testing, i.e. the production of the table costs about 1800 - 2000 hours, corresponding to about 80 days. Since we used about 15 workstations for this task running in the background, the time reduced to 1 week for producing the tables. Another week of computing time was necessary for training the NN (3 workstations used in parallel).

The emulation of the inverse model by the NN is very fast:  $10^6$  calls (corresponding to pixels, image with  $1000 * 1000$  cloud free water pixels) spent about 2 minutes at a SUN ULTRA SPARC 1. The ffNN is about  $10^6$  times faster than the forward model. It must be mentioned that the time needed by the ffNN is independent from the model; it would not be larger even if the model to be inverted includes more processes such as fluorescence or polarisation). The accuracy and the speed of the ffNN allow its operational usage. However, more sophisticated models need more computational effort for calculating the training set. Since the training has to be performed only once or whenever an update is necessary due to improved knowledge or regional aspects the training time is of minor importance. A retraining of the NN such as for other optical properties requires significantly less computations.

### **5.4.3 Calibration, Initialisation, and Validation**

The main requirement is the knowledge of the specific optical properties of water constituents. These have to be determined by laboratory and field measurements. The validation of remotely sensed data of coastal waters is rather difficult because of the high dynamics. A direct comparison between the results of individual pixels and water samples is only possible in waters with low exchange rates. Another possibility is to use ship-borne measurements of radiance spectra to test the inverse modelling procedure.

Data of the specific optical properties have to be sampled in different areas in order to build a mean ffNN representing a mean coastal water and the library of regional adapted ffNNs.

### **5.4.4 Quality Control and Diagnostics**

As proposed in the theoretical part, we propose to test the result of the ffNN inverse modelling on a random basis or whenever changes in the water mass occurs by using the resulting concentrations in a forward model and then compare the model reflectances with the measured. Furthermore, the inverse modelling procedure can be analysed with respect to its error behaviour for various compositions of water constituents. It has been shown, that the accuracy of the retrieval of one substance depends very much on the concentrations of the



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other constituents. The accuracy and thus the scope of the algorithm for a given type of water will be predicted by model calculations.

#### 5.4.5 Operational runtime checks of the ffNN

In the operational usage of the ffNN one should plan to check the results regularly by using the calculated concentrations as input of a forward model. The resulting reflectances should be in agreement with the measured reflectances. Deviations could arise e.g. when the water constituents have optical properties not included in the model at the time of construction and training of the ffNN. Then the reflectances measured by the satellite when given to the ffNN still would result in some concentrations. But reflectances calculated by the model using these concentrations as input will disagree with those measured. This check should be made outside the normal production stream, since it requires time consuming forward calculations.

The procedure would include two steps:

1. use the concentrations  $c_{NN}$  obtained by the ffNN from  $\rho_{meas.}$  as input to the model to calculate  $\rho_{Mod}$ .
2. if  $(\rho_{meas} - \rho_{Mod})^2$  exceeds a prescribed threshold flag the results of the region as invalid.

#### 5.4.6 Exception Handling


The input (reflectances, angles) and output (concentrations) of the routine are checked if they are within the range used for the generation of the training table. This check is included in the NN subroutine which contains the lower and upper limits of all variables of the training set. If one of the input or output variables is outside its range, an error code is set which identifies the variables which are outside. It should be used to flag this pixel with the "out of scope flag".

A further enhancement of this procedure could consider the concentrations of all three substances. If for the concentration of one substance the concentration of one of the other substance is too high to give a result within the acceptable error range, an additional warning flag "out of error range" could be set. Although the realisation of this feature is not difficult, it is implemented only as a dummy in the present version, before a detailed error study has been made.

#### 5.4.7 Regional differences

In this study the model was used with optical parameters for suspended matter etc. which are very general. In order to improve the described method for specific areas a regionalisation will



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be necessary. Obviously one needs the optical parameters of the water constituents for the different regions of interest. Then for these regions the function or subroutine representing the ffNN can be constructed as described above by retraining the net (which much less training time than used for the original net). It would be possible to set up a library with a standard ffNN subroutine and dedicated ffNN routines for different coastal regions of the world and then, whenever an image covers the region, the specific subroutine is selected. One could either use a general ffNN-procedure which reads a file with the net-parameters for the region in question or one could switch between different ffNN's with built-in-parameters.

#### 5.4.8 Data Dependencies

The data required for the procedure are:

- specific optical properties of water constituents (absorption and scattering coefficients, phase functions of phytoplankton and suspended matter)
- typical mean spectral properties of the atmosphere (only for calculating the down-welling radiance distribution at the surface)
- Input to the procedure are: the water leaving radiance reflectances of 8 MERIS bands at the following central wavelengths 412, 442, 490, 510, 560, 620, 665, 705 nm, the viewing and solar zenith angle and the difference between the azimuth of the solar and viewing direction.
- ancillary data as listed in chapter 4.2.2.
- Flags: shallow water, sun glitter

#### 5.4.9 Dependencies on other procedures

The algorithms depends on an atmospheric correction routine which converts TOA reflectances into water leaving radiance reflectances. Issue 3 of the ATBD will include the atmospheric correction part.

#### 5.4.10 Output Products

The output products of this algorithm are:

- concentration of phytoplankton pigment [ $\mu\text{g/l}$ ]
- concentration non-absorbing suspended matter [ $\text{mg/l}$ ]
- *gelbstoff* absorption  $a(440 \text{ nm})$  [ $\text{m}^{-1}$ ]





- an error code, if one of the input variables or the retrieved concentrations is outside the range of the training table or is outside the acceptable error. The code identifies these variables.
- optional signal depth and or depth of euphotic zone [m].

a further variable which can be computed is the organic part of the suspended matter [%]. However, this requires additional sensitivity studies and the definition of its specific optical properties.

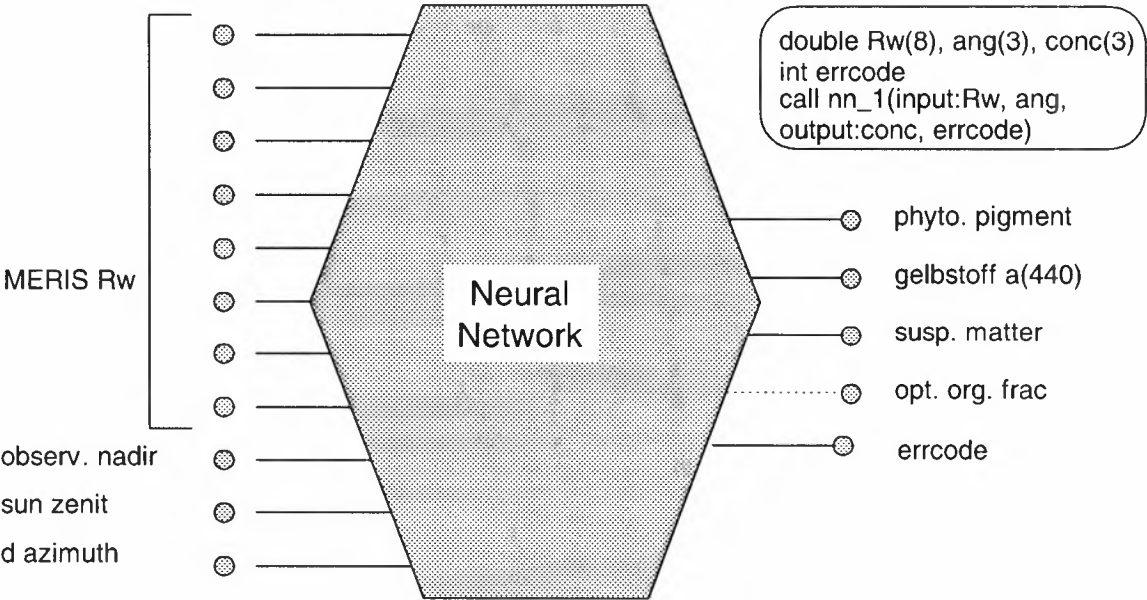



Figure 21 - Interfaces of the Neural Network in the MERIS processing chain



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## 6. Assumptions and Constraints

The present version of the fFNN inverse modelling approach has the following assumptions and constraints:

- the atmospheric correction is not included. In some very turbid waters the atmospheric path radiance may not be determined independently from the retrieval of the substances.
- Polarisation, fluorescence of phytoplankton and *gelbstoff* and Raman scattering are not included.
- The wave slope distribution is assumed to be isotropic with respect to the azimuth angle.

## 7. Test and validation of the procedure

The final preparation of the algorithm requires extensive sensitivity studies in particular with respect to the three components which represent actual water constituents. Furthermore the algorithm has to be validated with simulated and real data. A detailed validation plan is given in Appendix B.

### 7.1 Test of the Monte Carlo Model

The model is tested by using the canonical test cases for hydro-optical models as described in Mobley et al. (1993). These tests were applied to a number of different models including Monte Carlo, Variance Imbedding and Matrix Operator Models. The following tests are applied to the MC model used here:

- test 1: pure Rayleigh scattering water with an  $\omega_0$  of 0.2 and 0.9, no atmosphere, flat surface
- test 2: suspended matter scattering with an  $\omega_0$  of 0.2 and 0.9, no atmosphere, flat surface
- test 4: as test 2 with  $\omega_0$  of 0.9, but with atmosphere
- test 5: as test 2 with  $\omega_0$  of 0.9, but with rough sea surface, solar zenith angle  $80^\circ$

In addition the radiance distribution was compared, as given in Fig. 8 of Mobley et al. (1993) for the upward directed radiance hemisphere for problem 2.

All tests were passed, results were within the deviations between the models as published in the test report.

### 7.2 Test of the Neural Network

The neural network is tested with a test data set which is independent from the training data set. More than 11000 different constellations of concentrations and angles have been used and



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applied to the NN. The resulting concentrations have been compared with the concentrations used to model the water leaving radiance reflectances (s. results above).

The error behaviour is tested by modifying the specific optical properties for each channel independently as well as altogether according to a Gaussian noise curve.

### **7.3 Test with real data**


Radiance measurements from a ship and low flying aircraft will be used to test the procedure. This data for the MERIS channels is available at GKSS from various flights and cruises in the North Sea. However, the inherent optical properties of the water constituents of the test area have to be known. One further possibility for such a test is the COASTLOOK data set, expected by 1998.

## **8. Future Actions**

For improving the present ffNN inverse modelling version the following investigations, developments and tests are necessary:

- Improvement of the forward calculations (reduction of statistical errors, particularly for the test cases)
- Improvement of the model by including polarisation and inelastic scattering
- Detailed error analysis of the model for MERIS
- Definition of the scope of the algorithm for different water cases
- Atmospheric correction using NN techniques as for the retrieval of water constituents
- Mixing factor between different aerosols as another independent variable for improvement of the imbedded atmospheric correction
- Analysis of the effects of cirrus clouds in addition to aerosols
- Set-up of a data bank of specific optical properties for different coastal regions, partly by regional networks.
- Validation of the procedure using MERIS data simulated with aircraft data or from other satellites (MOS and SeaWiFS are now available).



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## 10. Appendix A: Example of a ffNN procedure (C - language)

### 10.1 Example for the usage of the NN

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <math.h>
#include "macro_basis.c"

#define NVAR 14

#include "nnfr.c"

/* generate file to compare model input with NN output */

void
main(argc, argv)
    int      argc;
    char     *argv[];
{
    long      i, j, ndat;
    long      flagres;
    FILE      *fpin1, *fpres1;
    double    var[NVAR], out[3], dum;

    if (argc != 3) {
        fprintf(stderr, "call with model_res to_plot\n");
        exit(-1);
    }
    if ((fpin1 = fopen(argv[1], "r")) == NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s read-open error\n", argv[1]);
        exit(-1);
    }
    if ((fpres1 = fopen(argv[2], "w")) == NULL) {
        fprintf(stderr, "%s write-open error\n", argv[2]);
        exit(-1);
    }
    ndat=57240;
    loop(i, ndat) {
        if ( (i%5) != 0 ) {
            loop(j, NVAR) fscanf(fpin1, "%lf", &var[j]);
            fscanf(fpin1, "%lf", &dum);
        } else {
            loop(j, NVAR) fscanf(fpin1, "%lf", &var[j]);
            fscanf(fpin1, "%lf", &dum);
            nnfr(var, out, &flagres);
            if(flagres == 0) {
                fprintf(fpres1, "%7.3lf %7.3lf %7.3lf %7.3lf %7.3lf\n",
                    var[11], var[12], var[13],
                    out[0], out[1], out[2]);
            } else {
                printf("flagres=%ld\n", flagres);
            }
        }
    }
}
```



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## 10.2 Example of the subroutine which checks the errors and calls the NN generator

```
#include "50x12.202.c" /* this is the nn routine generated by the training
run */
```

```
void nnfr(double *nn_in,double *nn_out,long *flag)
/*
```

```
nn_in input to NN:
```

```
0      sun_theta   rad
1      view_theta  rad
2      view_phi    rad
3-10   reflectances
```

```
nn_out result from NN:
```

```
0      conc. chlorophyll mug/l
1      conc. gelbstoff          a(440 nm) m-1
2      conc. susp. matter      mg/l
```

```
*flag indicates problems:
```

```
0      no problem
bit 1 nn_in[0]<loinp[0]
bit 2 nn_in[0]>hiinp[0]
bit 3 nn_in[1]<loinp[1]
bit 4 nn_in[1]>hiinp[1]
.....
bit 21 nn_in[10]<loinp[10]
bit 22 nn_in[10]>hiinp[10]
.....
bit 23 nn_out[0]<lores[0]
bit 24 nn_out[0]>hires[0]
.....
bit 27 nn_out[2]<lores[2]
bit 28 nn_out[2]>hires[2]
```

following three bits are presently not used, but for future version can be used for flagging out of error range as output parameter

```
bit 29 nn_out[0] res[0] out of error range
bit 30 nn_out[1] res[1] out of error range
bit 31 nn_out[2] res[2] out of error range
```

```
*/
```

```
{
```

```
double loinp[11]={      0.000574,0.000000,0.000141,0.000052,
                        0.000061,0.000076,0.000086,0.000108,
                        0.000068,0.000049,0.000023      };
double hiinp[11]={      1.309000,0.715600,3.142000,0.172700,
                        0.178200,0.159300,0.124200,0.084930,
                        0.025000,0.016750,0.008868      };
double lores[3] =({      0.003006,0.002001,0.030017      });
double hires[3] =({      49.84908,1.999906,49.89895      });
long i, fl;
```

```
(*flag)=0;
```

```
fl=1;
```

```
for(i=0;i<11;i++) {
```





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```

        if(nn_in[i]<loinp[i]) (*flag)+=fl;
        fl*=2;
        if(nn_in[i]>hiinp[i]) (*flag)+=fl;
        fl*=2;
    }

    nn_calculate(nn_in, nn_out);

    for(i=0;i<3;i++) {
        nn_out[i]=exp(nn_out[i]);
        if(nn_out[i]<lores[i]) (*flag)+=fl;
        fl*=2;
        if(nn_out[i]>hires[i]) (*flag)+=fl;
        fl*=2;
    }
}

```

### 10.3 Example of a subroutine produced by the NN generator

(only first and last sections of the function are given)

```

#define NEURON_FL double
#include <math.h>
void nn_calculate(in,out) NEURON_FL *in, *out;
/* generated from 50x12.202.neted and mcrange.res */
{
    NEURON_FL out1;
    NEURON_FL out2;
    NEURON_FL out3;
    .
    .
    .
    NEURON_FL out72;
    NEURON_FL out73;
    NEURON_FL sum;

    out1=(in[0]-0.000574)*0.764277;
    out2=(in[1]-0.000000)*1.397429;
    out3=(in[2]-0.000141)*0.318283;
    out4=(in[3]-0.000052)*5.792132;
    .
    .
    .
    .
    +out72*(9.918880)
        +out73*(0.329040)
    ;
    out[1]=-6.214000+6.907100/(1.0+exp(-(-1.182050+sum)));
    sum=out62*(0.078510)
        +out63*(-3.247670)
        +out64*(4.673970)
        +out65*(-1.852820)
        +out66*(2.711750)
        +out67*(-1.967490)
        +out68*(0.022500)
        +out69*(2.033660)

```





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```
+out70*(2.069980)
+out71*(-2.124820)
+out72*(3.086220)
+out73*(-0.428700)
;
out[2]=-3.506000+7.418000/(1.0+exp(-(0.798560+sum)) );
}
```



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## 11. Appendix B: Validation Plan for case II water algorithm

### **Validation Plan for the Case II water IMT-NN algorithm for the retrieval of water constituent concentrations from MERIS water leaving reflectance data**

Roland Doerffer

GKSS

21. November 1997

Version 0.1

- Draft -

#### **11.1 Reference Documents**

RD5. Specification for Case II Coastal Water Reference Model, PO-TN-MEL-GS-0016

RD6. Algorithm Theoretical Basis Document, PO-TN-MEL-GS-0005

#### **11.2 Introduction**

One major part of the development of a case II water algorithm for the Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer MERIS is the algorithm validation. It will prove if the theory and the model, on which the algorithm is based, is correct and it will demonstrate how the algorithm performs under various simulated and measured conditions. The result of the validation will be used to set up an error budget and to define the scope of the algorithm. This information will enable the user of the data to assess under which conditions he can expect results with an acceptable error and which conditions he has to check when using MERIS data of case II water. Furthermore, the algorithm should indicate conditions which are out of its scope.

The results of the validation will be documented in the Algorithm Validation document (AVD).

#### **11.3 Basic Scope of the Algorithm**

The case II water algorithm (RD6) is based on a water model which was defined to represent a mean global case II water (RD5). Because it is known that such mean optical properties do not



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exist and that coastal waters include a large range of different constituents with different optical properties which deviate significantly from these mean properties, it was decided to represent case II water by three components which are not necessarily identical with real substances. These components are:

- pure sea water
- mean global phytoplankton pigment
- a scattering component to represent any suspended matter
- absorbing component, to represent *gelbstoff* and the absorbing organic component of suspended matter (organic detritus)

The validation of the algorithm has to demonstrate if these components represent the main three optical classes of sea water constituents (phytoplankton, suspended matter (SPM) and *gelbstoff*) in a proper way and if the derived concentrations can be related to the actual concentrations.

Conversion factors between scattering or absorption and concentration units have been used to provide concentrations in the data product rather than optical units. However, it may be necessary for the user to recalculate the concentrations with other conversion factors depending on his local conditions.

Furthermore, the scope of the algorithm is defined by:

- deep ocean (water depth  $\gg$  signal depth  $z_{90}$  at spectral channel with minimum attenuation)
- homogenous vertical distribution
- homogenous horizontal distribution within one pixel
- neglectable influence due to inelastic scattering (fluorescence, Raman scattering)


## 11.4 Validation

### 11.4.1 Validation with simulated data

Simulated water leaving radiance reflectances which are based on the same model as used for training are the only test data which are strictly within the scope of the algorithm. Furthermore they provide the possibility to simulate well defined errors and study the sensitivity of the algorithm. The following tests will be performed:





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#### **11.4.1.1 Sensitivity to reflectance errors**

Errors in reflectances (random per channel and random per total spectrum) will be simulated and tested

#### **11.4.1.2 Sensitivity to geometry**

Random errors in viewing geometry will be simulated and tested

#### **11.4.1.3 Sensitivity to wind**

The directional water leaving radiance reflectance is computed for training for "standard" ocean and atmosphere conditions including a rough water surface at wind speed of 7 m/s. The roughness of the sea surface is based on the Cox and Munk model for wave slope distribution. The sensitivity for different wind speeds will be studied using radiative transfer simulations computed for different wind speeds for typical case I and case II water conditions.

#### **11.4.1.4 Sensitivity to IOP**


The algorithm will be tested with simulated water leaving radiance reflectances which are based on the specific optical properties as determined from COASTLOOC and similar data sets of the Mediterranean Sea and the North Sea.

#### **11.4.2 Validation with field measurements**

Water leaving radiance reflectances will be determined from radiance spectra measured from above the water surface. Since the water leaving radiance and the water leaving radiance reflectance can not be measured directly, the following measurements will be performed for each sample:

The water surface radiance ( $L_{wr}$ ) is measured from above the water surface under an angle with minimum sky and sun glitter (20 degree off nadir, azimuth opposite to sun). Since this measurement includes the radiance which leaves the water body and the specularly reflected skylight, the radiance of that piece of sky ( $L_{sky}$ ) is measured which is reflected by the water surface into the sensor. Subtracting this sky radiance using a specular reflectance of 0.02 the water leaving radiance can be computed ( $L_w = L_{wr} - L_{sky} \cdot 0.02$ ). Third measurement is the radiance of a calibrated spectralon reflection plate ( $L_{ref}$ ), which represents the down-welling irradiance (direct sun and sky light) when multiplied by PI.



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The water leaving radiance reflectance is then determined from these three measurements as:

$$L_{wr} = (L_{wat} - L_{sky} * 0.02) / (L_{ref} * PI)$$

These water leaving radiance reflectances will be used as test spectra for the neural network. The concentrations derived from simultaneously taken water samples will be compared with the result of the NN routine.

Prerequisite for these measurements are cloud-free sky conditions, a sun elevation > 20 degree and a wind speed of < 4 m/s.

#### **11.4.3 Validation with airborne measurments**

Radiance spectra measured from an aircraft flying in low altitude (150 - 300 m) will be used to test if the three groups of substances can be separated in a proper way under realistic conditions of case II water. The flight transects will follow the salinity gradient from the coast to the open sea to meet various water bodies with high and low concentrations of each constituent. The data will be corrected for Rayleigh scattering of the atmosphere. Although single spectra cannot be validated directly by in situ measurements, the concentration profile along the transect can be compared with the known horizontal distribution of substances in the German Bight: *gelbstoff* follows a gradient from the Elbe estuary into the North Sea which corresponds inversely to the gradient in salinity; concentration of suspended matter is high in the estuary and above shallow areas (reflects the topography) and phytoplankton pigment is variable and independent from the distribution of the two other groups.


The flights will be performed preferably during MOS overflight in order to check the atmospheric correction of MOS radiances.

Prerequisites are a cloudless atmosphere and a low aerosol content (horizontal visibility > 20 km).

#### **11.4.4 Validation with MOS data**

The imaging spectrometer MOS offers the opportunity to test MERIS algorithms, because it has similar spectral bands and with 500 m a similar pixel size. MOS flies on board the Indian Earth observation satellite IRSP3; it was designed and is operated by the German Aerospace Centre (DLR). Different are the swath width with only +/- 7 degrees and the bands in the near infrared range.



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Since only level 1b data are provided by DLR, it is necessary to apply an atmospheric correction procedure prior to the test of the case II water algorithm. Presently an atmospheric correction algorithm is under development at GKSS under contract from ESRIN. As soon as this algorithm is available and tested, water leaving radiance reflectance data of MOS can be provided for testing the case II water algorithm.

For the retrieval of water constituents MOS bands 1-6 will be applied. Band 7 (650 nm) has an offset error which occurrence cannot be predicted and, thus, be corrected.

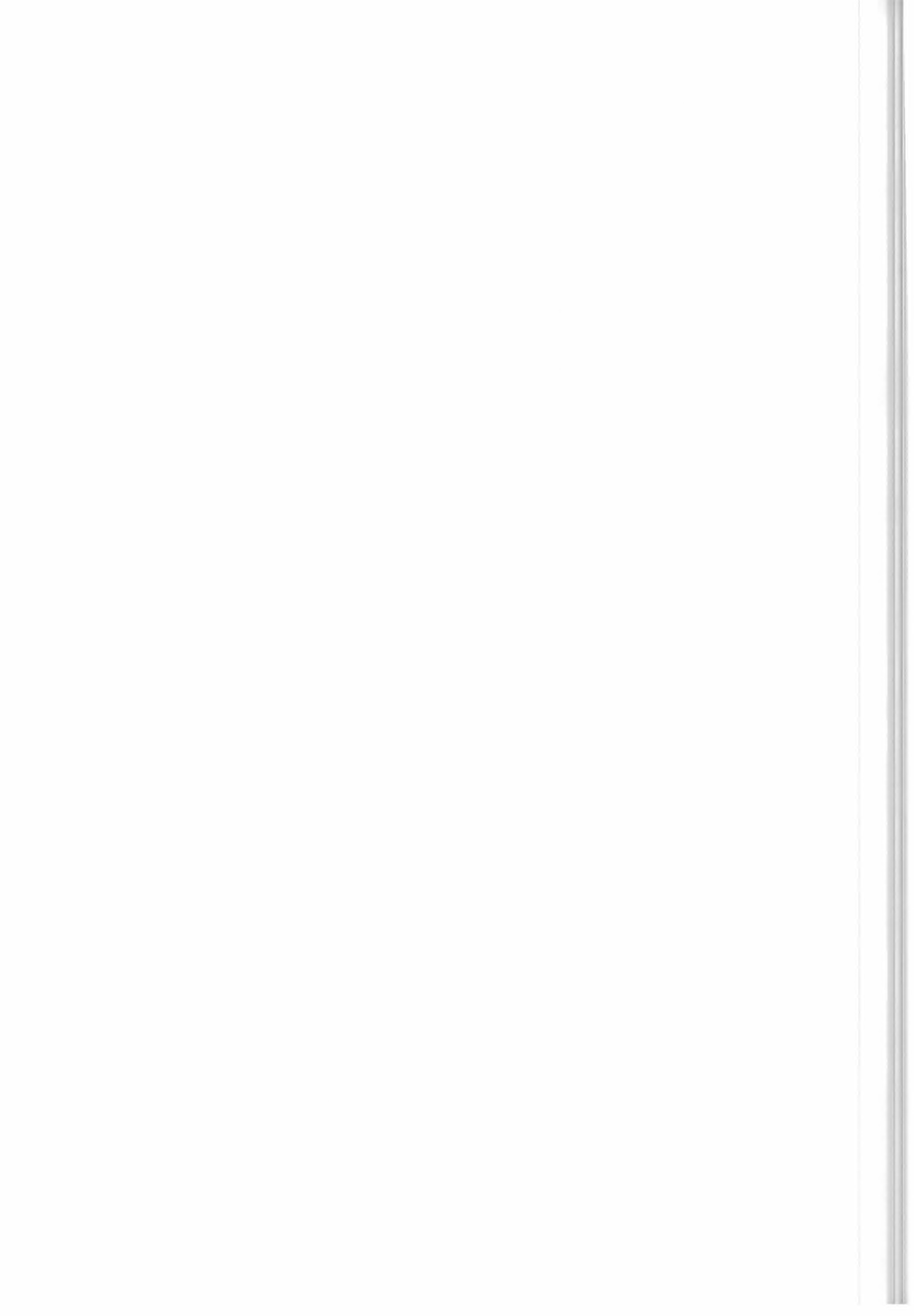
### 11.5 Out of scope tests

The neural network case II water algorithm includes a test which proves if the incoming reflectances and computed concentrations are within the range which was used for training the net. An out of training range flag is set, when either a reflectance or a concentration value is outside this range. This flag will be tested by using simulated data which are out of the training range and with real data (shipborne, airborne, MOS) which include exceptional conditions such as exceptional plankton blooms (red tides).

### 11.6 Determination of Errors

The error of the concentration of a water constituent derived from remote sensing data depends on mainly four conditions:

1. Agreement between the water model and the actual conditions, in particular concerning the following:
  - The model components represent the actual composition of water constituents,
  - Specific inherent optical properties of water constituents,
  - Vertical and horizontal within-pixel distribution is homogenous,
  - Water depth  $\gg$  signal depth (reflectance by sea bottom can be neglected),
  - No floating substances including foam.
2. concentration of other water constituents which are described in the model
3. accuracy of the input data, i.e. the water leaving radiance reflectances, which depends on instrumental errors and errors in atmospheric correction.
4. Accuracy and sensitivity of the neural network



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Any deviations summarised under (1) may lead not only to quantitative errors but also to errors with respect to a correct identification of a substance (e.g. suspended matter is interpreted as phytoplankton). Thus, the user has to verify for his area the conditions described under "Scope of algorithm". He has to characterise his area with respect to water depth, typical optical depth, typical vertical distribution, within-pixel patchiness, typical specific optical properties and compare with model assumptions.

However, during the validation, the sensitivity of the algorithm against these conditions will be tested for some European areas which, however, represent already a wide range of possible conditions.

The errors induced by 2-3 will be determined by a systematic test using simulated errors. This minimum error of the algorithm will be defined by using the test data set. It is computed with the same Monte Carlo code and parameters as used for the training set with random polls of concentrations from the test range.


### 11.7 Determination of the Scope of Algorithm

The scope of the algorithm is mainly defined by the water model which is used for the forward radiative transfer calculations to compute the training table. Strictly, any deviations from this model produce a condition which is out of scope. However, since a certain error will be tolerated by the algorithm, the scope of the algorithm depends on the acceptable error, which, furthermore, depends on the scientific problem and the relationship of this error to the natural variability within the area and period under research. Consequently, different acceptance ranges around the true value have to be defined for calculating the scope of algorithm. Here, the scope is defined for 3 error ranges, (1) an error range of  $\pm 0.405$  on the logarithmic scale, which is a factor of 1.5, (2) of  $\ln \pm 0.693$  which corresponds to a factor of 2 and (3) an error of  $\ln \pm 2.31$  which corresponds to one order of magnitude.

The scope of algorithm for these three error ranges will be computed as a function of the error of the input reflectance and the concentration of other substances.





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## 12. Appendix C: Case II water model (by M. Babin and R. Doerffer)

### Title: SPECIFICATIONS FOR CASE II COASTAL WATER REFERENCE MODEL

**Doc. no:** PO-TN-MEL-GS-0016

**Issue:** Draft

**Revision:** 0


**Date:** 23 July 1996

	<u>Function</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Company</u>	<u>Signature</u>	<u>Date</u>
<b>Prepared:</b>		M. Babin	ACRI		
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<b>Approved:</b>	Project Manager	F. Montagner	ACRI		
<b>Released:</b>			ESA		

### Change Record

<u>Issue</u>	<u>Revision</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Change pages</u>
Draft	0	23/07/96	Initial Draft	-



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## 1. - Purpose

The specification provided here will be used in the frame of MERIS Level 2 Algorithms development, for case II water radiative transfer calculations and for testing of algorithms. They are selected from various measurements and calculations in coastal and open sea. Actual optical properties may deviate from the given values.

## 2. - Coastal Water Optical Properties

### 2.1 - Remotely sensed layer

The geometrical thickness of the vertical water layer from which 90% of the remotely sensed ocean colour signal comes from (denoted  $Z_{90}$ ; m) can be approximated by (Gordon and McCluney 1975):

$$Z_{90} = 1/K_d \quad (1)$$

at all wavelength, where  $K_d$  ( $m^{-1}$ ) is the vertical attenuation coefficient for downward irradiance. Here, we assume that:

$$z \gg Z_{90}$$

where  $z$  (m) is the geometrical thickness of the water column.


### 2.2 - Water constituents

The apparent optical properties of surface sea waters will be determined according to the concentrations and inherent optical properties of 4 groups of substances: pure sea water, phytoplankton (and associated organic matter), total non-chlorophyllous suspended matter, and coloured dissolved organic matter (yellow substance or *gelbstoff*).

The concentration units are:

**phytoplankton (and associated organic matter):** expressed by the concentration of chlorophyll *a* ( $mg\ m^{-3}$ ).



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**total non-chlorophyllous suspended matter:** it is assumed that this component is solely represented by non-absorbing mineral particles and its concentration is expressed by its total scattering coefficient at 550 nm [ $b_p(550)$ ;  $m^{-1}$ ]<sup>3</sup>.

**coloured dissolved organic matter (yellow substance or *gelbstoff*):** expressed by its absorption coefficient at 440 nm [ $a_Y(440)$ ;  $m^{-1}$ ].

### 2.3 - Vertical distribution

It is assumed that all substances are homogeneously distributed in the water column. For many coastal waters, this is a realistic assumption, especially when considering the  $Z_{90}$  layer.

### 2.4 - Inherent optical properties of water and its constituents

Sea water apparent optical properties will be determined from the individual spectral absorption and elastic scattering properties, i.e. the absorption coefficient,  $a(\lambda)$ , and the volume scattering function,  $\beta(\theta, \lambda)$ . The latter is expressed as:

$$\beta(\theta, \lambda) = \frac{d\Phi(\theta, \lambda)}{\Phi_o(\lambda)} \frac{1}{d\omega dr} \quad (2)$$

where  $\Phi_o(\lambda)$  is the radiant flux on the cross-sectional area,  $d\Phi(\theta, \lambda)$  is the radiant flux scattered in the element of solid angle  $d\omega$  oriented at angle  $\theta$ , and  $dr$  is the thickness of the volume element. Here, the volume scattering is expressed through:

$$\beta(\theta, \lambda) = b(\lambda) \tilde{\beta}(\theta) \quad (3)$$


where  $b(\lambda)$  is the total scattering coefficient and  $\tilde{\beta}(\theta)$  is the normalised volume scattering function<sup>4</sup>:

$$\tilde{\beta}(\theta) = \frac{\beta(\theta)}{b} \quad (4)$$

<sup>3</sup> If desired, it can be *a posteriori* converted into mass concentration per unit volume using a given mass-specific total scattering coefficient [ $b_p^*(550)$ ].

<sup>4</sup> Note that the **phase function**,  $p(\theta)$ , is equal to  $4\pi\tilde{\beta}(\theta, \lambda)$ .



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Note that the wavelength dependency of  $\tilde{\beta}(\theta)$  is neglected. Thus, the bulk sea water inherent optical properties will be input in radiative transfer calculations as  $a(\lambda)$ ,  $b(\lambda)$  and  $\tilde{\beta}(\theta)$ .  $a(\lambda)$  and  $b(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}(\theta)$  can be broken into individual contributions by the different water constituents:

$$a(\lambda) = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n(\lambda) \quad (5a)$$

$$b(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^N b_n(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}_n(\theta) \quad (5b)$$

where  $n$  denote a given sea water constituent.

#### 2.4.1 - Pure sea water and phytoplankton

In Case I waters, the relative proportions of phytoplankton and related derivatives are well correlated with chlorophyll  $a$  concentration ( $[chl]$ ) (Carder *et al.* 1986), and  $a$  and  $b$  are tightly correlated with  $[chl]$  (see Morel 1987). Therefore, absorption and scattering coefficients for case I waters, respectively  $a_1(\lambda)$  and  $b_1(\lambda)$ , can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} a_1(\lambda) &= a_w(\lambda) + a_{chl}(\lambda) \\ b_1(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}_1(\theta) &= b_w(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}_w(\theta) + b_{chl}(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}_{chl}(\theta) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where the subscripts "w" and "chl" denote pure sea water, and phytoplankton and derivatives, respectively. Here,  $a_1(\lambda)$  and  $b_{chl}(\lambda)$  are determined as a function of chlorophyll concentration as described by Morel (1988) and Morel and Antoine (1994):

$$a_1(\lambda) = K_d(\lambda)u(\lambda) \quad (7)$$

where  $K_d(\lambda)$  is total vertical attenuation coefficient, which is given as a function of  $[chl]$  by Morel (1988) and Morel and Antoine (1994), from 300 to more than 1000 nm.  $u$  is determined iteratively as described by Morel (1988).  $b_w(\lambda)$  is determined from (Morel 1974):

$$b_w = 0.00288(\lambda / 500)^{-4.32} \quad (8)$$

and  $b_{chl}(\lambda)$  from (Gordon and Morel 1983):

$$b_{chl}(\lambda) = 0.30[chl]^{0.62}(550 / \lambda) \quad (9)$$

Here, the normalised volume scattering function of pure sea water (refraction index = 1.334) adopted is that published by Morel (1966), which can be expressed as:





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$$\tilde{\beta}_w(\theta, \lambda) = \frac{3}{4\pi(3+p)}(1 + p \cos^2 \theta) \quad (10)$$

where the parameter  $p$  equals 0.84. For phytoplankton and derivatives  $\beta_{chl}(\theta)$ , the normalised volume scattering function given by Petzold (1972) must be applied. Petzold's  $\tilde{\beta}(\theta)$  values are listed in Table 2.4.1-1 below and plotted in Fig. 2.4.1-1.



$\theta$	$\tilde{\beta}(\theta)$	$\theta$	$\tilde{\beta}(\theta)$
1.00E-01	1.77E+03	5.00E+01	2.28E-02
1.26E-01	1.30E+03	5.50E+01	1.70E-02
1.58E-01	9.50E+02	6.00E+01	1.31E-02
2.00E-01	6.99E+02	6.50E+01	1.05E-02
2.51E-01	5.14E+02	7.00E+01	8.49E-03
3.16E-01	3.76E+02	7.50E+01	6.98E-03
3.98E-01	2.76E+02	8.00E+01	5.84E-03
5.01E-01	2.01E+02	8.50E+01	4.95E-03
6.31E-01	1.44E+02	9.00E+01	4.29E-03
7.94E-01	1.02E+02	9.50E+01	3.78E-03
1.00E+00	7.16E+01	1.00E+02	3.40E-03
1.26E+00	4.96E+01	1.05E+02	3.12E-03
1.58E+00	3.40E+01	1.10E+02	2.91E-03
2.00E+00	2.28E+01	1.15E+02	2.80E-03
2.51E+00	1.52E+01	1.20E+02	2.69E-03
3.16E+00	1.00E+01	1.25E+02	2.57E-03
3.98E+00	6.58E+00	1.30E+02	2.48E-03
5.01E+00	4.30E+00	1.35E+02	2.38E-03
6.31E+00	2.81E+00	1.40E+02	2.33E-03
7.94E+00	1.82E+00	1.45E+02	2.31E-03
1.00E+01	1.15E+00	1.50E+02	2.36E-03
1.50E+01	4.89E-01	1.55E+02	2.51E-03
2.00E+01	2.44E-01	1.60E+02	2.66E-03
2.50E+01	1.47E-01	1.65E+02	2.83E-03
3.00E+01	8.61E-02	1.70E+02	3.03E-03
3.50E+01	5.93E-02	1.75E+02	3.09E-03
4.00E+01	4.21E-02	1.80E+02	3.15E-03
4.50E+01	3.07E-02		

Table 2.4.1-1. Normalised volume scattering function published by Petzold (1972).



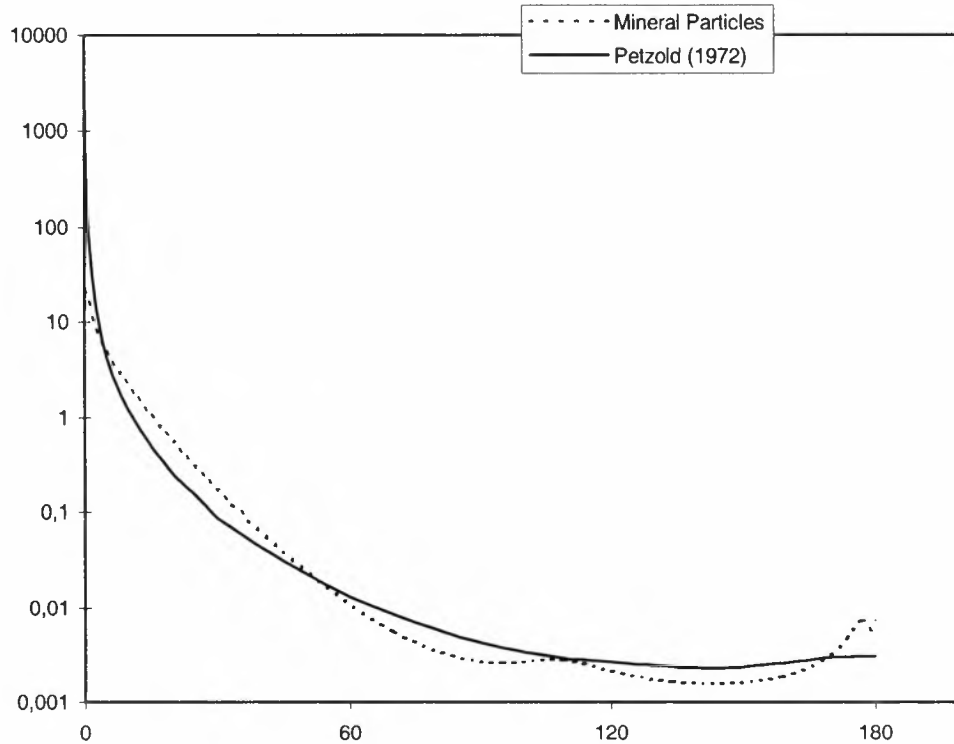



Figure 2.4.1-1. Normalised volume scattering function published by Petzold (1972), and computed for mineral particles as described below in Section 2.4.2.

## 2.4.2 - Non-chlorophyllous suspended sediments and gelbstoff

In case II waters, humic and fulvic acids from terrestrial origin (often collectively denoted "yellow substance" or "*gelbstoff*"), which represent about 70% of dissolved organic matter (Spitzzy and Ittekkot 1986), are a major contributor in light absorption by non-chlorophyllous matter. In coastal waters and, in some cases, in areas neighbouring upwelling regions (Carder *et al.* 1991), *gelbstoff* absorption often largely exceeds that of phytoplankton. Therefore, it strongly influences reflectance. High suspended sediment load is also often observed in the vicinity of river runoffs (river plumes) and near the coast line due to re-suspension of sediments. Such suspended mineral sediments have high scattering coefficients and, depending on the site, i. e. on their chemical composition, various contributions to absorption (Whitlock *et al.* 1981, Ahn 1990). In this study, we computed *gelbstoff* absorption and sediment scattering as described in Sathyendranath *et al.* (1989):

$$a_y(\lambda) = a_y(440)e^{-0.014(\lambda-440)} \quad (11)$$



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$$b_x = b_x(550)(\lambda / 550)^{-n} \quad (12)$$

where  $a_y(\lambda)$  is the *gelbstoff* absorption coefficient,  $b_x(\lambda)$  is the sediment scattering coefficient,  $n$  is a constant that determines the spectral dependency of  $b_x(\lambda)$ .

Thus, the bulk absorption and scattering properties of sea water can be expressed as:

$$a(\lambda) = a_1(\lambda) + a_y(\lambda) \quad (13)$$

$$b(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}(\theta) = b_1(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}_1(\theta) + b_x(\lambda)\tilde{\beta}_x(\theta) \quad (14)$$

using Eqs. 6 to 12. For mineral particles, a phase function ( $\tilde{\beta}_x(\theta)$ ) was determined from Mie calculations assuming a particle size spectrum following a Junge distribution with the exponent,  $m$ , equal to 4 and a size range going from 0.45 to 20  $\mu\text{m}$ , and a refraction index equal to 1.15. For such particles,  $n$  in Eq. 12 equals 0.812. Corresponding  $\tilde{\beta}(\theta)$  values are listed in Table 2.4.2-1 below and plotted in Fig. 2.4.1-1 above.

