1	Improving low-quality satellite remote sensing reflectance at
2	blue bands over coastal and inland waters
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Abstract

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The satellite remote sensing reflectance $(R_{rs}(\lambda))$ at two short blue bands (410 or 412 nm and 443 22 nm) are prone to large uncertainties in coastal and inland waters, prohibiting algorithms from generating reliable ocean color products associated with these bands. In this study, we developed an algorithm to estimate $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ when the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ in blue bands suffer from 24 25 large uncertainties. The algorithm first determines the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shape from the satellitemeasured $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ values at three wavelengths of 48x (486, 488, or 490), 55x (547, 551, or 555), 26 and 67x (667, 670, or 671) nm. The algorithm then derives $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ from the estimated $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shape with algebraic formulations. We assessed the algorithm 28 performance with satellite (SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP) and in situ $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ matchups 29 from global waters. It is shown that the uncertainties of estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are 30 substantially smaller than the original satellite products when applicable. Besides, implementation of the algorithm contributes to a significant increase in the number of utilizable 32 33 $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ values. The algorithm is relatively stable and is best applicable to the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra for which the $R_{rs}(48x)$ and $R_{rs}(55x)$ measurements are subject to small 34 35 uncertainties. The demonstrations support the application of the blue-band estimation algorithm to a wide range of coastal waters. 36

- 37 **Keyword:** Remote sensing reflectance; Blue bands; Spectral shape; Atmospheric correction;
- SeaWiFS; MODIS; VIIRS. 38

1. Introduction

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Ocean color satellites provide a means of collecting remote sensing reflectance $(R_{rs}(\lambda))$ on spatial and temporal scales unattainable by conventional in situ measurements. The $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data allow for the derivation of important biological and biogeochemical properties of the upper oceans, such as phytoplankton chlorophyll-a concentration (Chl) (Hu et al., 2012; McClain, 2009; Wang and Son, 2016), phytoplankton light absorption (Wang et al., 2017; Wei and Lee, 2015), colored dissolved organic matter (CDOM) absorption (Mannino et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2016a; Yu et al., 2016), and primary production (Behrenfeld et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2015a), etc. For reliable estimation of these bio-optical properties, it is vital to obtain accurate $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ product from satellites over a wide spectral domain, particularly at the blue bands of 41x (410 or 412) nm and 443 nm. The ocean color satellites, including the decommissioned Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view (SeaWiFS, 1997–2010) and the operational Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) onboard the Aqua satellite (MODISA, 2002-present) and Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) onboard the Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership satellite (VIIRS-SNPP, 2011–present), retrieve $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ from the radiance measured at the top of atmosphere (TOA) through atmospheric correction (AC). Operational AC algorithms usually start with the selection of an aerosol model by assuming null contribution of waterleaving radiance $(L_w(\lambda))$ at the near-infrared (NIR) or shortwave infrared (SWIR) bands (Antoine and Morel, 1999; Gordon and Wang, 1994; Wang, 2007; Wang and Shi, 2007). This "blackpixel" assumption works well in open oceans, but is faced with some difficulties in coastal regions using the NIR and SWIR approach. The strongly absorbing aerosols, for instance, can be prominent in the coastal waters near anthropogenic sources of fossil-burning products, soot, and smog, or under the influence of dust transport. The weakly or strongly absorbing aerosols are hardly discriminable from radiance measurements in the NIR/SWIR domain but quite distinctive at short blue wavelengths (IOCCG, 2010). That being said, the standard AC schemes cannot correctly estimate the strongly absorbing aerosols and often fail to yield robust $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ products at the blue wavelengths in many coastal regions due to lack of aerosol vertical distribution information (IOCCG, 2010; Kahn et al., 2016). As a consequence, and expectedly, the satellitederived $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ products are prone to large uncertainties in the coastal waters (Antoine et al., 2008; Feng et al., 2008; Hlaing et al., 2013; Qin et al., 2017; Zibordi et al., 2009). Apart from atmospheric correction, the large uncertainty in satellite $R_{rs}(41x)$ product is also related to system vicarious calibration and instrument degradation (Franz et al., 2018). The relatively large uncertainties at blue bands and the subsequent lack of utilizable data at these two bands add to the difficulties of satellite ocean color applications in coastal regions (Mouw et al., 2015). To address the blue-band $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ quality issues, a great deal of effort has been invested. Gordon et al. (1997) and Chomko and Gordon (2001) developed an AC procedure to quantify the strongly absorbing aerosol contribution under dust-dominating conditions. Application of their methods, however, remains impractical because the vertical distribution of absorbing aerosols in the atmosphere is not known a priori (Banzon et al., 2009; IOCCG, 2010). In another case study, Hu et al. (2000) tested a nearest-neighbor method to account for the aerosol contribution at the NIR bands, with reasonable results. Variants of the standard AC schemes also emerged. Oo et al. (2008) reported improved atmospheric correction for turbid coastal waters by placing constraints onto $R_{rs}(412)$ within their AC procedures. For highly absorptive waters, He et al. (2012) proposed null water-leaving radiance at 412 nm so as to make a guess of the aerosol contribution

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at that band, which was then used for atmospheric correction. In analogy, Wang and Jiang (2018) forced the negative $R_{rs}(410)$ values from VIIRS-SNPP to zeroes to estimate the aerosol contributions and ultimately to obtain improved $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ products.

Besides the above contributions, there exists another line of methodology to deal with the blue-band $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ measurements. Basically, this category of methods attempts to "correct" the problematic blue-band $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data. In this regard, Ransibrahmanakul and Stumpf (2006) tested a power-law function to account for the spectral artifacts caused by the absorbing aerosols in the northeast U.S. coasts. D'Alimonte et al. (2008) derived multi-linear regression coefficients from satellite and *in situ* $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ matchups and further applied those coefficients to estimate $R_{rs}(412)$ for the same region. Undoubtedly, all strategies mentioned above have demonstrated varying degrees of success, specific to the sensors, dataset, or environments, in improving blue-band $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ quality. Yet, it remains an open question to implement such algorithms as a universal approach to global coastal and inland waters where the satellite $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ data are of low quality.

The blue-band $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data are needed for many bio-optical retrievals in the upper water columns. Among others, $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are indispensable for many semi-analytical algorithms to retrieve the phytoplankton and CDOM absorption coefficients from multiband satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ (IOCCG, 2006; Lee et al., 2002; Wei et al., 2019; Werdell et al., 2013). $R_{rs}(443)$ data may also be required for Chl estimation in both open and coastal oceans (Hu et al., 2012; O'Reilly et al., 1998; Wang and Son, 2016). Use of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ data with large errors can result in unrealistic retrievals for the water bio-optical properties (Werdell et al., 2018) and biased Chl products (Hyde et al., 2007). It is also risky that merging of such satellite products may generate spurious trends in ocean color time series. In order to best interpret the large-scale

and long-term ocean color retrievals, this long-standing problem associated with the blue-band satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ measurements needs to be resolved.

In this study, we propose a spectral shape based algorithm to estimate $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ when the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra at blue bands are subjected to large uncertainties. Such estimation will help ultimately enhance the bio-optical retrievals with the ocean color algorithms requiring $R_{rs}(41x)$ and/or $R_{rs}(443)$ data. In the following, we first describe the evaluation data from SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP, the proposed algorithm, and relevant analyses (Section 2). Next, we demonstrate the algorithm performance in estimating $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ by comparison with *in situ* matchup measurements (Section 3). Finally, we discuss the algorithm applicability, uncertainty, potential impacts on satellite bio-optical retrievals, and potential applications to satellite image processing (Section 4).

2. Data and methods

2.1 Satellite and in situ $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ matchups

The present study is based on satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra and concurrent *in situ* matchup measurements. There were 2540 and 3639 matchups extracted for SeaWiFS and MODISA, respectively, from the SeaWiFS Bio-optical Archive and Storage (SeaBASS) (Werdell and Bailey, 2005). A total of 2348 matchups were also assembled for VIIRS-SNPP, with the *in situ* and satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ obtained from SeaBASS and NOAA CoastWatch, respectively. The $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ matchups were constructed in accordance with the availability of *in situ* data and the filtering criteria for satellite data (Bailey and Werdell, 2006; Mélin et al., 2011; Zibordi et al., 2009). First, the satellite data within a 5×5 pixel box centered at the *in situ* measurement location were considered. Second, the satellite data within the box were checked with the quality-flagging

system (QFS), l2_flags: all pixels flagged as land, cloud, stray light, high glint, low radiance at 555 nm, high TOA radiance, or atmospheric correction failure were excluded from subsequent analysis. The third criterion applied was that at least 50% of the satellite pixels within the box are valid. Then, it was ensured that the solar zenith angle and sensor zenith angle are within 70° and 60°, respectively. The maximum time difference between satellite overpass and in situ sampling was set to \pm 3 hours. The allowed maximum coefficient of variation of $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ inside the pixel box was by default 15%. To make sure of clear sky, the criterion for maximum difference between the in situ measured and modeled solar irradiance at sea surface is 20%. Figure 1 shows the geographic locations for the in situ and satellite matchups, most of which are located in nearshore regions with water depth shallower than 1000 m. We note that the 5×5 pixel box and the time interval of ± 3 hours are a compromise between the number of matchups and the quality of matchups determined for global waters by SeaBASS. Zibordi et al. (2009) and Mélin et al. (2011) recommended more restricted criteria with a 3×3 pixel box and a time interval of ± 2 hours for satellite validations in coastal waters. For the data sets used in this study, we tested the sensitivity of matchups to the different pixel boxes and time intervals but found negligible difference in the uncertainties of the resulted matchups. The criterion of ± 2 h time difference, however, reduced significantly the number of matchups by < ~10%. This observation justifies the use of the data filtering criteria of 5×5 pixels and ±3 hours. SeaWiFS and MODISA $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data were generated with the *l2gen* package at the NASA Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG) during the latest reprocessing (R2018.0). The atmospheric correction was based on the classical scheme of Gordon and Wang (1994) and implemented with an iterative scheme to estimate the aerosol radiance at the NIR bands (Bailey et al., 2010). A total of 80 aerosol distributions were established and used during the processing

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(Ahmad et al., 2010). The SeaWiFS $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ products have five bands centered at 412, 443, 490, 155 555, and 670 nm, while the MODISA $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data have approximately the same nominal center 156 wavelengths, including 412, 443, 488, 547, and 667 nm. 157 The VIIRS-SNPP $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data were processed with the Multi-Sensor Level-1 to Level-2 158 (MSL12) ocean color data processing system at the NOAA Center for Satellite Applications and 159 Research (STAR). MSL12 is based on the NASA SeaWiFS Data Analysis System (SeaDAS) 160 161 version 4.6 with modifications. Unlike SeaWiFS and MODISA processing, MSL12 used the aerosol look-up table (LUT) of 12 aerosol models derived from Shettle and Fenn (1979). The 162 VIIRS-SNPP $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data were generated with the NIR-SWIR atmospheric correction algorithm 163 (Wang, 2007; Wang and Shi, 2007; Wang et al., 2009). In addition, the algorithm of Wang and 164 Jiang (2018) was used to estimate the blue-band $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ wherever $R_{rs}(410)$ is negative. The 165 resultant VIIRS-SNPP $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data have five wavelengths at 410, 443, 486, 551, and 671 nm; and 166 no negative $R_{rs}(410)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ values exist. 167 We computed the quality assurance (QA) scores for each of the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra to 168 quantitatively assess their data quality. The QA model (Wei et al., 2016b) was initially designed 169 170 with nine visible bands, collectively representing the heritage and operational ocean color sensors. In the present study, we only considered the five "common" spectral bands centered 171 around 412, 443, 488, 551, and 670 nm. As such, all the QA scores are distributed at six discrete 172 levels of 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, and 1, with 1 representing the highest quality and 0 the lowest 173 174 quality. Use of such common bands for the QA derivation facilitates the subsequent comparison of the obtained QA scores among different ocean color sensors. Recognizing the slight difference 175 176 between three ocean color sensors' nominal center wavelengths and the five common bands of the QA model, we stress that this difference has a limited impact on the QA results. In Figure 2, 177

we compare the frequency distribution of QA scores for three satellite sensors. According to the comparison, about 50% of satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data have the highest quality with QA = 1 and 30% of them show relatively good quality with QA = 0.8. The rest 20%, however, are found with lower quality scores (QA \leq 0.6). In subsequent analysis, the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data are divided into three subgroups: high-QA (QA \geq 0.8), moderate-QA (0.4 \leq QA \leq 0.6), and low-QA (QA \leq 0.2) data. The moderate- and low-QA data are the focus of our analysis.

2.2 Blue-band estimation algorithm

- The blue-band estimation (BBE) algorithm consists of three components: a look-up table for the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shapes, spectral matching, and spectral estimation. The three components are described in below with details.
- 189 (1) $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shapes

The $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shapes are represented by a total of 1768 normalized remote sensing reflectance spectra, $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$. These spectra were derived from hyperspectral $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra (400–700 nm), which were originated from both *in situ* measurements and radiative transfer simulations. A description of the measurements and simulations can be found in Wei et al. (2016b) and Wei et al. (2019), respectively. The $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra are representative of a wide range of waters with Chl varying from ~0.02 mg m⁻³ to > 50 mg m⁻³. The hyperspectral $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data were sub-sampled into five discrete bands at 412, 443, 488, 551, and 670 nm. The differences in the nominal center wavelengths among three sets of satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ products are suppressed as they are not critical in the present context. The obtained five-band $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra were then normalized by their respective root of the sum of squares (RSS), leading to

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$$nR_{rs}(\lambda_i) = \frac{R_{rs}(\lambda_i)}{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{5} R_{rs}(\lambda_i)^2\right]^{1/2}}, i = 1, 2, 3, 4 \text{ and } 5$$
 (1)

where $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ is dimensionless and the subscripts 1–5 correspond to the five bands from 412 nm to 670 nm. The $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra are characteristic of a few unique features. First, the $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral ratios at any two random bands remain the same with those of the corresponding $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra. Second, the spectral curvature of $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ remains unchanged in comparison to $R_{rs}(\lambda)$. Third, the magnitudes of $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ always vary between 0 and 1. Last, the sum of squares of $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ at all five bands is equal to 1. In this context, these $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra describe the spectral shapes for the corresponding $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra.

In Figure 3, we illustrate the range of variation of the spectral values at 41x and 443 nm and related spectral ratios for the normalized reflectance of the LUT (denoted $nR_{rs}^{lat}(\lambda)$) and those for

In Figure 3, we illustrate the range of variation of the spectral values at 41x and 443 nm and related spectral ratios for the normalized reflectance of the LUT (denoted $nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda)$) and those for the *in situ* data concurrent with satellite overpass. The evaluation data and the LUT exhibit a very similar pattern of variation, with the latter spanning over a slightly wider range. Most of the evaluation data have $nR_{rs}(41x)$ and $nR_{rs}(443)$ lower than 0.7 and 0.6, respectively. The $nR_{rs}(41x)/nR_{rs}(443)$ and $nR_{rs}(443)/nR_{rs}(55x)$ ratios of the evaluation data are confined within a much narrower domain (0.6–1.1 and 0.2–1.1, respectively) than the LUT. Outliers do exist, particularly for the SeaWiFS matchup data. Overall, the range of variation of all data sets shown in Figure 3 is about the same as that of the compiled data in Valente et al. (2016).

(2) Spectral matching

For a satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectrum in question, the first step is to determine a "true" spectral shape as a reference. For this purpose, we take advantage of the fact that satellite $R_{rs}(48x)$ and $R_{rs}(55x)$ measurements usually have good quality (Antoine et al., 2008; Hlaing et al., 2013; Zibordi et al., 2009). The $R_{rs}(67x)$ data are sometimes subjected to large uncertainties, but their impact on the

model performance is limited; we will discuss this problem in the sensitivity analysis in Section 3.4. As such, the satellite $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ can be used as a basis for further processing. First, following the spectral angle mapper (SAM) (Kruse et al., 1993), we quantify the spectral similarity between satellite-derived $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ values and each of the $nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda)$ spectra by the cosine distance

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$$d = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=3}^{5} \left[nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda_i) \square R_{rs}(\lambda_i) \right]}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=3}^{5} \left[nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda_i) \right]^2 \sum_{i=3}^{5} \left[R_{rs}(\lambda_i) \right]^2}}$$
 (2)

where d is the cosine distance between the vectors of $nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda)$ and satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ at 48x, 55x, and 67x nm bands. Second, we search for the minimum d and locate the corresponding $nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda)$ spectrum from the LUT. Such selected $nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda)$ spectrum is regarded as the spectral shape for the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ in question.

232 (3) Spectral estimation

According to Eq. (1), the satellite $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ in question can be normalized as below

$$\begin{cases}
\frac{R_{rs}(41x)}{\left[R_{rs}(41x)^{2} + R_{rs}(443)^{2} + R_{rs}(48x)^{2} + R_{rs}(55x)^{2} + R_{rs}(67x)^{2}\right]^{1/2}} = nR_{rs}(41x) \\
\frac{R_{rs}(443)}{\left[R_{rs}(41x)^{2} + R_{rs}(443)^{2} + R_{rs}(48x)^{2} + R_{rs}(55x)^{2} + R_{rs}(67x)^{2}\right]^{1/2}} = nR_{rs}(443)
\end{cases} \tag{3}$$

where $R_{rs}(41x)$, $R_{rs}(443)$, $nR_{rs}(41x)$, and $nR_{rs}(443)$ are unknown. Since we have determined the spectral shape through spectral matching, we substitute $nR_{rs}(41x)$ and $nR_{rs}(443)$ in Eq. (3) with $nR_{rs}^{lut}(412)$ and $nR_{rs}^{lut}(443)$, respectively. As a result, Eq. (3) can be rewritten as

$$\begin{cases}
R_{rs}(41x) = \left[\frac{R_{rs}(48x)^2 + R_{rs}(55x)^2 + R_{rs}(67x)^2}{nR_{rs}^{lut}(488)^2 + nR_{rs}^{lut}(551)^2 + nR_{rs}^{lut}(670)^2} \right]^{1/2} \times nR_{rs}^{lut}(412) \\
R_{rs}(443) = \left[\frac{R_{rs}(48x)^2 + R_{rs}(55x)^2 + R_{rs}(67x)^2}{nR_{rs}^{lut}(488)^2 + nR_{rs}^{lut}(551)^2 + nR_{rs}^{lut}(670)^2} \right]^{1/2} \times nR_{rs}^{lut}(443)
\end{cases}$$

- where $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are estimated by both satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data at the three bands of 48x,
- 241 55x, and 67x nm and $nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda)$ data.

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2.3 Metrics for uncertainty evaluation

- The relative difference (ε) was computed to assess the uncertainty of satellite products
- including $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral values at 41x, 443, 48x, 55x, and 67x nm, and the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral ratios
- 246 at 41x and 443 nm band, i.e., R_{443}^{41x} , and the ratios at 443 and 55x nm, i.e., R_{55x}^{443} , as

$$\mathbf{\varepsilon} = \frac{S_1 - S_2}{S_2} \times 100\% , \qquad (5)$$

- where S_1 and S_2 refer to the satellite-derived values and the corresponding in situ values,
- respectively. The median of the relative difference $(\bar{\epsilon})$ or bias was derived as

$$\overline{\varepsilon} = median \left\{ \frac{S_1 - S_2}{S_2} \right\} \times 100\% . \tag{6}$$

Further, we derived the absolute percentage difference (APD, denoted as $|\overline{\epsilon}|$) as

$$\left| \overline{\varepsilon} \right| = median \left\{ \left| \frac{S_1 - S_2}{S_2} \right| \right\} \times 100\% . \tag{7}$$

- 253 The root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) was also computed to assess the accuracy of satellite
- 254 products, as

$$RMSD = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (S_{i,1} - S_{i,2})^{2}} .$$
 (8)

In analogy to $\overline{\epsilon}$, the unbiased relative difference (denoted as $\overline{\Phi}$) was calculated as,

$$\overline{\phi} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{S_{i,1} - S_{i,2}}{S_{i,1} + S_{i,2}} \times 100\% , \qquad (9)$$

where $S_{i,1}$ and $S_{i,2}$ are the inherent optical properties derived from the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data and in situ $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ matchup data. The unbiased absolute percentage difference (UPD, denoted as $|\bar{\Phi}|$) was

$$\left|\overline{\phi}\right| = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left| \frac{S_{i,1} - S_{i,2}}{S_{i,1} + S_{i,2}} \right| \times 100\% . \tag{10}$$

2.4 Sensitivity analysis

The sensitivity of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ estimation to the uncertainties of the algorithm input values of $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ was assessed with the IOCCG (2006) synthetic $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data after adding uncertainties to $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$. The hyperspectral $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data of IOCCG (2006) were first sampled at 412, 443, 488, 551, and 670 nm. The resultant multiband $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra were then clustered based on the cosine distance as quantified by Eq. (2). To simplify, we assumed three classes to represent these spectra (Classes-1, -2, and -3). As shown in Figure 4, each of three classes is characteristic of a distinctive spectral shape, roughly corresponding to blue, blue-green, and green-yellow colors. For Class-1 water, the maximum spectral values are often present in the blue bands, while $R_{rs}(670)$ is usually very small. In terms of the trophic status, Class-1 is found with low Chl of 0.03–0.7 mg m⁻³ (0.14 mg m⁻³ on average). Class-2 water is characteristic of moderate $R_{rs}(412)$ and $R_{rs}(670)$ values, and generally of moderate Chl, ranging from 0.3 to 10.0 mg m⁻³ (1.6 mg m⁻³ on average). Class-3 waters are representative of relatively turbid environments, with high $R_{rs}(670)$ but relatively small $R_{rs}(412)$ values, where Chl are high, varying from 1.5 to 30.0 mg m⁻³ (15 mg m⁻³ on average).

In the following, the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra within each of three classes were used to synthesize errordisturbed reflectance, $\tilde{R}_{rs}(\lambda)$. We investigated a simplified situation where only one of $R_{rs}(488)$, $R_{rs}(551)$, or $R_{rs}(670)$ values was subjected to uncertainty, while the other two were error-free.

The error-disturbed $\tilde{R}_{rs}(\lambda)$ value was simulated as below

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$$\tilde{R}_{rs}(\lambda_i) = R_{rs}(\lambda_i) \times (1 + 2\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \cdot \Re)$$
 (11)

where λ_i refers to 488, 551, or 670 nm, ε is the relative error varying from –50% to 50% (with a 5% step), and \Re is a random value between 0 and 1. For each ε , Eq. (11) was repeated 100 times, leading to a total of 17300, 13700, and 19000 error-disturbed $\tilde{R}_{rs}(\lambda_i)$ values for Classes-1, -2, and -3, respectively. From these synthetic reflectance, new $R_{rs}(412)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ values were estimated with the BBE algorithm and then compared with known values to quantify their difference.

It is noted that the uncertainty of satellite-derived $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ products remains difficult to characterize as it is not only spectrally variable but dependent on environmental conditions as well as instrumental calibration (Antoine et al., 2008; Hu et al., 2013; Wei et al., 2018). To gain further perspective, we considered four simplistic scenarios with different combinations of uncertainties simultaneously assigned to $R_{rs}(488)$, $R_{rs}(551)$, and $R_{rs}(670)$. Table 1 lists the amplitudes of the absolute percentage errors commonly observed in the ocean color satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ products (Antoine et al., 2008; Hlaing et al., 2013; Zibordi et al., 2009). In addition, we also considered a particular scenario with zero uncertainty for the purpose of comparison. The following model was used to create error-disturbed $\tilde{R}_{rs}(\lambda)$ at 488, 551, and 670 nm,

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$$\tilde{R}_{rs}(488,551,670) = R_{rs}(488,551,670) \cdot \left[1 + 2(2\Re - 1) \cdot |\bar{\epsilon}|_{488,551,670} \right]$$
 (12)

where |₹|_{488,551,670} refers to the absolute percentage errors at 488, 551, and 670 nm in Table 1 and

 \Re is a random number between 0 and 1. Eq. (12) predicts spectrally coherent uncertainties, where the relative errors share the same positive or negative signs at 488, 551, and 670 nm. As the above, Eq. (12) was repeated 100 times for each $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectrum within each water class to generate the corresponding $\tilde{R}_{rs}(\lambda)$ values.

3. Results

3.1 Comparison of satellite and *in situ* $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ matchups

We first assessed the satellite $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ uncertainties based on the satellite and *in situ* matchups as the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data quality at these three bands is important for the implementation of the BBE algorithm. Comparisons of three groups of analyses in Table 2 indicate that the satellite $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ are prone to increasingly larger uncertainties with the decrease of QA scores, and *vice versa*. For the high-QA satellite data, specifically, $R_{rs}(48x)$ and $R_{rs}(55x)$ only suffer an absolute relative difference of 10%–13% and a negative bias varying between 0% and -10%. Even at the red band of 67x nm, the analyses show a fairly small uncertainty for the reflectance values, with $|\overline{\epsilon}|$ varying between 11% and 22% and $\overline{\epsilon}$ between -16% and 2%. In comparison to high-QA data, the moderate-QA group has much fewer data points. Also, $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ measurements in this group are found with increased uncertainties, particularly for $|\overline{\epsilon}|$. The low-QA group only accounts for a very small portion of the satellite measurements used herein. Their $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ measurements are susceptible to almost doubled relative differences (with $|\overline{\epsilon}|$ up to 45%) and biases (with $\overline{\epsilon}$ beyond -44%), in comparison to the high-QA group.

Similar to $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$, the uncertainties of satellite $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are also found to increase with decreasing QA scores (Table 3). Taking MODISA as an example,

the $R_{rs}(412)$ uncertainty increased from $|\overline{\epsilon}| = 27\%$ in high-QA group to $|\overline{\epsilon}| = 51\%$ for moderate-QA group, and finally to $|\overline{\epsilon}| = 89\%$ for low-QA data. It is also noted that many SeaWiFS and MODISA $R_{rs}(412)$ values in these datasets are negative, but it is rare to observe negative $R_{rs}(410)$ values for VIIRS-SNPP due to a recent improvement made by Wang and Jiang (2018). Exclusion of these negative $R_{rs}(41x)$ data from evaluation, however, has resulted in a significant reduction in the total numbers of available matchups for $R_{rs}(41x)$. Particularly for SeaWiFS and MODISA, the numbers of $R_{rs}(412)$ matchups for moderate- and low-QA subgroups are about 15%–30% less than $R_{rs}(443)$. The uncertainties of satellite $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are generally greater than the corresponding $R_{rs}(48x)$ and $R_{rs}(55x)$, which is consistent with earlier analyses (Hlaing et al., 2013; Qin et al., 2017; Zibordi et al., 2009). This feature can be partly attributable to the relatively small values of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ in the evaluation data, and partly to the relatively large uncertainty of in situ measurements at these two bands in coastal waters (also see Hooker et al., 2002). The correspondence between increasing uncertainties and decreasing QA scores for satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ measurements has several implications. Firstly, it provides a first-hand evidence that the QA scores are a useful measure of the overall data quality for satellite-derived $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra. Secondly, it is important to note that the satellite validation analyses (e.g., Hlaing et al., 2013; Qin et al., 2017; Wei et al., 2018) tend to consider all available matchups as a whole, in which the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra with different QA scores are mixed. Since the moderate- and low-QA score data often account for a relatively small percentage of the available data (see Figure 2), their relatively larger uncertainties are often suppressed and less likely to dominate the overall uncertainty. The above analyses provided a feasible way to identify specific subgroups of the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ measurements based on their QA scores.

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3.2 Estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$

The evaluation results for BBE-estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are also included in Table 3 for direct comparison with the original satellite products. Notably, all those initially negative $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ values for SeaWiFS and MODISA are now restored to positive values, leading to a significant increase in the total number of utilizable $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ data. The larger numbers of positive $R_{rs}(41x)$ values could enhance the effectiveness of subsequent biooptical retrievals as many semi-analytical inversion algorithms (Carder et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2002; Wei and Lee, 2015; Werdell et al., 2013) require $R_{rs}(410)$ or $R_{rs}(412)$ as input to separate phytoplankton and CDOM, which will be discussed later in Section 4. Partly because of the change of the number of observations, however, the BBE-estimated $R_{rs}(412)$ for SeaWiFS did not show a reduction in its uncertainties, rather experienced some degree of increase in | ₹|, from 22% to 36% for the moderate-QA group. In comparison to MODISA, the estimated $R_{rs}(412)$ data exhibited a slight increase in the biases ($\overline{\epsilon}$ increased from -6% to -8% for moderate-QA group); this is to a large degree a result of the large biases associated with $R_{rs}(488)$, $R_{rs}(547)$, and $R_{rs}(667)$ (Table 2). On the other hand, without much change to the total number of the VIIRS-SNPP observations, the estimated $R_{rs}(410)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ data show much reduced uncertainties for both moderate- and low-QA groups. Overall, very limited improvements were found for the high-QA data of three satellites. This phenomenon may be further explained from the following two perspectives. First, the high QA scores imply that the R_{rs} spectra are already of high quality. Estimations with the BBE algorithm may thus be superfluous for high-QA data. Second, part of the normalized remote sensing reflectance spectra within the LUT are also used by the QA model (Wei et al., 2016b); it is technically difficult to further improve the spectral shapes of satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data by the BBE algorithm. As a matter of fact, as indicated in Table 3, the original high-QA satellite data appear most accurate. They will less likely benefit from an estimation scheme as developed here.

To further highlight the model performance, we contrasted the satellite $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ with *in situ* matchups for the moderate-QA group of data in scatterplots (Figure 5), with the BBE-estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ overlaid for comparison. Note that these illustrations have included all available matchup data in this subgroup, including positive and negative values. As shown in the plots, many SeaWiFS and MODISA $R_{rs}(412)$ values are negative, and even some of the corresponding $R_{rs}(443)$ data are negative as well. Unlike SeaWiFS and MODISA, the BBE estimates of $R_{rs}(412)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are all physically meaningful values. The estimated $R_{rs}(412)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are distributed much more tightly around the 1:1 line than the original satellite data (for SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP). As a result, the linear regression slopes for the BBE estimates and the *in situ* matchups are generally much closer to unity.

3.3 $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral ratios

Since the BBE algorithm is based on the knowledge of the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shapes, it is expected that such estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ should yield improvement on the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral ratios. We derived the ratios of $R_{rs}(443)$ to $R_{rs}(55x)$ and $R_{rs}(41x)$ to $R_{rs}(443)$ and compared them with those of *in situ* matchup data in Table 4. Among three subgroups of data, very limited differences are observed in R_{443}^{41x} and R_{55x}^{443} for the high-QA group, which is consistent with the analyses of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ uncertainties in Table 3. For the moderate-QA data, the presence of many negative $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ data have resulted in either negative R_{443}^{412} or sometimes positive outliers and some negative R_{55x}^{443} values (see scatterplots in Figure 6). The

BBE algorithm improved both R_{443}^{41x} and R_{55x}^{443} with overall reduced uncertainties and significantly increased the number of utilizable data (by as much as ~20% for the moderate-QA data). The improvement in the spectral band ratios, along with estimated spectral values, is important for bio-optical inversion, in that they are indispensable for many empirical ocean color algorithms (Morel and Gentili, 2009; O'Reilly et al., 1998) and semi-analytical algorithms (IOCCG, 2006; Werdell et al., 2018). We will discuss the potential impact on bio-optical retrievals in Section 4.3.

3.4 Sensitivity of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ estimation

The sensitivity of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ estimation to the input $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ values at 48x, 55x, or 67x nm is illustrated in Figure 7. Several important conclusions can be readily reached from the comparisons. First, the minimum uncertainty of estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ ($|\overline{\epsilon}| \approx 15\%$) is observable with error-free input $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data for all classes of waters, which can be considered as the inherent uncertainty for the BBE algorithm. Second, it is found that the estimations for $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ are most sensitive to the uncertainty of $R_{rs}(48x)$. For instance, when $R_{rs}(48x)$ has $\varepsilon = 30\%$, the BBE-estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ can be subjected to an uncertainty as large as $|\overline{\epsilon}| = 50\%$ –60% over three classes of waters. The uncertainty of input $R_{rs}(55x)$ plays a secondary role; according to our analysis, an error of $\varepsilon = 30\%$ with $R_{rs}(55x)$ will result in a smaller uncertainty for $R_{rs}(41x)$, with $|\overline{\epsilon}|$ less than 35%. In contrast, the uncertainty of $R_{rs}(67x)$ appears to be the least important element to influence the $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ uncertainties.

The above-revealed differential dependency of the algorithm uncertainty on specific wavelengths can be explained by the uncertainty propagation of the BBE algorithm. In Eq. (13), the uncertainty of $R_{rs}(41x)$ is expressed as a function of the input $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ and $nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda)$ values and

the associated uncertainty at a specific band λ_j (48x, 55x, or 67x nm), following the principle of uncertainty propagation,

$$u(41x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{R_{rs}(48x)^{2} + R_{rs}(55x)^{2} + R_{rs}(67x)^{2}}} \cdot R_{rs}(\lambda_{j}) \cdot u(\lambda_{j})$$

$$\frac{nR_{rs}^{lut}(412)}{\sqrt{nR_{rs}^{lut}(488)^{2} + nR_{rs}^{lut}(551)^{2} + nR_{rs}^{lut}(670)^{2}}}$$
(13)

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In Eq. (13), we assumed zero uncertainty for $nR_{rs}^{lut}(\lambda)$ and uncorrelated input quantities. As the two fractional terms in Eq. (13) are certain for a given satellite reflectance spectrum, u(41x) is sensitive to the input value for $R_{rs}(\lambda_i)$ and associated uncertainty $u(\lambda_i)$. Recalling Figure 4, $R_{rs}(67x)$ are usually smaller than $R_{rs}(48x)$ and/or $R_{rs}(55x)$ in the test data, the uncertainty propagation of the $R_{rs}(67x)$ uncertainty to the total uncertainty is thus relatively less critical. In extremely turbid waters, the $R_{rs}(67x)$ values can be very large; but the corresponding uncertainties tend to be small. For Class-1 waters, $R_{rs}(48x)$ are almost always higher than $R_{rs}(55x)$, thus playing a dominant role in the resulted $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$. For Class-2 waters, there are some instances where $R_{rs}(55x)$ are comparable to or even higher than $R_{rs}(48x)$; under these situations, $R_{rs}(55x)$ may play a more important role (e.g., Figure 7c). Based on this analysis, the BBE algorithm may be applicable to a wide range of environments. According to the five combinations of uncertainties (Table 1), the increase of the uncertainties in input $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ leads to increased uncertainties in estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ (Table 5). In particular, the absolute percentage differences for $R_{rs}(41x)$ herein experienced a huge jump, from 9% to 56%. But, recall that the $|\overline{\epsilon}|$ for moderate-QA satellite $R_{rs}(48x)$ and $R_{rs}(55x)$ data are generally between 12% and 23% (Table 2). That is to say, the simulation No. 3 best describes the realistic situations, in which the $|\overline{\epsilon}|$ for estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ varies between 25% and 37%, a range close to the evaluation results in Table 3. Besides, our analyses indicate a weak dependency of $R_{rs}(41x)$ uncertainty on the class of water. The BBE algorithm tends to bias the estimation of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ for Class-3, for which the $nR_{rs}(41x)$ and $nR_{rs}(443)$ values are often relatively smaller (recall Figure 4).

4. Discussion

4.1 Why the algorithm works

The BBE algorithm infers the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shapes through a spectral matching procedure using initial satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ values measured at 48x, 55x, and 67x nm and subsequently estimates $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$. It is based on an implicit assumption that the normalized satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ values at 41x and 443 nm are approximately equal to those selected from the LUT after the spectral matching. According to the validation results, this assumption is reliable for the estimation of $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ at blue bands. The algorithm's success benefits from the following two facts. First, the $R_{rs}(48x)$ and $R_{rs}(55x)$ values generated from satellites are relatively accurate (Table 2) (also see Antoine et al., 2008; Hlaing et al., 2013; Qin et al., 2017; Zibordi et al., 2009). Second, the algorithm remains least sensitive to $R_{rs}(67x)$ for most waters (Figure 7). These factors favor and facilitate the optimal performance of the BBE algorithm.

The light absorption and scattering properties of optically active constituents determine the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra, simplified as the following (Gordon et al., 1988),

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$$R_{rs}(\lambda) \approx \frac{b_{bp}(\lambda) + b_{bw}(\lambda)}{a_{ph}(\lambda) + a_{dg}(\lambda) + a_{w}(\lambda) + b_{bp}(\lambda) + b_{bw}(\lambda)}$$
(14)

where $b_{bp}(\lambda)$ and $b_{bw}(\lambda)$ are the scattering coefficients due to particulates and pure seawater, respectively; $a_{ph}(\lambda)$, $a_{dg}(\lambda)$ and $a_{w}(\lambda)$ refer to the absorption coefficients of phytoplankton, colored detrital material (including CDOM and detritus), and pure seawater, respectively; and,

 $a_w(\lambda)$ and $b_{bw}(\lambda)$ are often taken as wavelength-specific constants (Lee et al., 2015b; Mason et al., 2016; Zhang and Hu, 2009). Among all these inherent optical properties (IOPs), the $b_{bp}(\lambda)$ spectrum is monotonous under most circumstances and can be described by a power-law function. Thus, the spectral variability of $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ is mostly dominated by light absorption spectra. The light absorption of phytoplankton is contributed by various pigments (Bricaud et al., 1995; Bricaud et al., 2004). In the visible domain, $a_{ph}(\lambda)$ values are spectrally interdependent (Bricaud et al., 1998; Lee et al., 1998; Sathyendranath et al., 1987). Further, the light absorption of colored detrital material is also spectrally dependent and can be simplified by an exponential decay model. Given the spectral dependency of IOPs, $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ values are as a matter of fact interconnected with $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$. This is the basis on which $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ can be estimated from Eq. (14). The accuracy of model estimation will primarily depend on the degree of our understanding of the IOPs and the IOP- R_{rs} relationships.

4.2 Algorithm limitations

We reiterate that the BBE algorithm is by no means intended to replace the measurements of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ from satellite ocean color sensors. Rather, it provides a workaround to estimate $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ when the satellite-derived $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra are highly questionable and are almost useless in blue bands. Like other remote sensing algorithms, the BBE algorithm is subject to uncertainties and limitations. Fully understanding the estimation uncertainty will require advanced statistical methodologies (Jay et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2005) and knowledge of the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ uncertainty in various waters (e.g., Hu et al., 2013). According to our preliminary analyses, the error propagation from $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ can be a primary source of uncertainty for model-estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$. Besides, a few other

contributing factors merit further discussion. First, the proposed spectral matching procedure uses the reflectance at three base wavelengths of 48x, 55x, and 67x nm. The use of a subset of wavelengths for water optical classification may introduce uncertainties, which further propagate to the estimation of the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shapes, and finally to the estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$. The results in Figure 7 and Table 5 are based upon the IOCCG (2006) data, which are well represented by the LUT. The uncertainties ($|\overline{\epsilon}| \le 13\%$, $-10\% \le \epsilon \le 1\%$, and 0.0004 < RMSD < 0.002 sr^{-1}) derived with error-free $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ are basically equivalent to the algorithm residual uncertainties originated from the use of three-band reflectance. Second, it is difficult (if not impossible) for the LUT to characterize all $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral shapes occurring in natural waters. In spite of the satisfactory validation results presented herein, there might exist peculiar waters not represented by the current LUT. Thus, it is necessary to continue to enrich the LUT towards a universal application. Third, the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectrum is determined by the water IOPs including the spectral slope (S_{dg}) for $a_{dg}(\lambda)$. Variation of S_{dg} alone can cause substantial variability for $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ in short blue bands (Wei et al., 2016a), in which case the estimation of $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ will suffer from uncertainty. Lastly, the BBE algorithm has simplified the spectral settings to five common bands (412, 443, 488, 551, and 670 nm), which ignored the discrepancy of center wavelengths among SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP. Based on IOCCG (2006) data, we evaluated the potential impact on $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ values due to this ignorance. Comparing with the common bands, the $R_{rs}(41x)$, $R_{rs}(48x)$, $R_{rs}(55x)$, and $R_{rs}(67x)$ are subject to relatively small differences, with $|\overline{\epsilon}| = 1.1\%$, 1.7%, 4%, and 3.6%, respectively. These uncertainties are much smaller than the inherent uncertainties of the BBE algorithm and/or those from measurements, thus not important in this context. Although IOCCG synthetic data are not inclusive of every types of waters in nature, the uncertainty analysis based on them should

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provide a representative assessment. The algorithm uncertainty can be further explored when the uncertainty of satellite-derived $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra is better known.

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4.3 Potential improvement on bio-optical retrievals

The primary purpose of maintaining high-quality satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ measurements is to provide the aquatic science community with reliable bio-optical retrievals. To demonstrate the contributions of the algorithm, we derived $a_{ph}(443)$ and $a_{dg}(443)$ from the original satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data, estimated $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data at blue bands, and in situ $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ matchups, using the quasi-analytical algorithm (QAA) (Lee et al., 2002). According to the results of uncertainty analysis (Table 6), the implementation of the BBE algorithm has exerted negligible impacts on the $a_{ph}(443)$ and $a_{dg}(443)$ retrievals for the high-QA satellite data. This is consistent with the observation in Section 3 in which the BBE algorithm was shown unable to make substantial improvements to $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ for the high-QA satellite data (Table 3). For the moderate-QA data, the retrievals of $a_{dg}(443)$ from BBE-estimated R_{rs} spectra are much more accurate than those from the original satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data (except for SeaWiFS), with much reduced $|\bar{\Phi}|$, $\bar{\Phi}$, and RMSD. Also inspiringly, the total number of valid $a_{ph}(443)$ and $a_{dg}(443)$ retrievals from SeaWiFS and MODISA are increased by as much as 15%-30%. This improvement is significant as accurate, and potentially more representative, data points will be accounted for in relevant ocean color applications. Similar increases in the number of bio-optical products and decreases in $a_{dg}(443)$ uncertainty are also found in the low-QA SeaWiFS and MODISA data. In contrast, no significant change in the total numbers of $a_{ph}(443)$ and $a_{dg}(443)$ retrievals are observed for VIIRS-SNPP, mostly because VIIRS-SNPP has nearly no negative $R_{rs}(410)$ or $R_{rs}(443)$ values (see Figure 5 and Figure 6).

4.4 Condition of applicability

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It is important to understand the condition of applicability under which the BBE algorithm can be best used to estimate $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$. The quality flagging system is the qualitycontrol measure adopted by space agencies like NASA and NOAA to generate scientific quality data (Bailey and Werdell, 2006; Mikelsons et al., 2020). In practice, the often-used filtering flags include land, cloud, stray light, high glint, low radiance at 55x nm, high TOA radiance, and atmospheric correction failure, etc. The pixels passing the flag check will be regarded as good quality and included in the higher-level products. The satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data used for our analyses have been checked for valid quality flags also. The QA scoring system (Wei et al., 2016b) is a quantitative measure for the quality of each $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectrum, which can further help to identify questionable data. The present study has considered both the flags and the QA scores. According to Figure 2, about 20% of the satellite data available for validation analysis, which have passed the quality flag filtering, are found to have moderate- or low-QA scores (QA \leq 0.6). This portion of satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra is characteristic of high uncertainties and can be further improved by the BBE algorithm. In Figure 8, we illustrate the percentage of moderate- and low-QA satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ in the U.S. coastal and inland waters. Within each plot, the pixels have passed the quality flag filtering. Obviously, the "correctable" satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ products are mostly found in the nearshore waters, where the atmospheric conditions and water optical properties are most likely complex. Despite the positive results (Table 3 and Table 4), it is without doubt that estimating $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ with the BBE algorithm in such complex waters can sometimes be challenging, especially when the LUT does not sufficiently characterize the complex water optical variations. There is a continuous need for accumulation and inclusion of representative in *situ* $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra in the LUT.

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4.5 Satellite ocean color image processing

The coastal waters are typical of high absorption and scattering properties, with nonnegligible water-leaving radiance at the NIR bands (Siegel et al., 2000; Wang and Shi, 2005). Close to sources of air pollutions, the types of aerosols are complex and more difficult to predict (IOCCG, 2010). The oceanic and atmospheric conditions together render a very critical situation for atmospheric correction. Here, we used an imagery of the northern Gulf of Mexico captured by VIIRS-SNPP to demonstrate the BBE algorithm performance. As shown in Figure 9a, the original image was processed with the latest MSL12 ocean color data processing system, which incorporated the Wang and Jiang (2018) algorithm. It is shown that the $R_{rs}(410)$ values are extremely low in the northern shelf waters, many of which are infinitesimally close to zero. According to the quality flags, there possibly existed strongly absorbing aerosols over a great number of pixels in these waters (highlighted by the dashed line in Figure 9a). To implement the BBE algorithm, all the pixels were first subjected to the quality check for land, cloud, stray light, high glint, and high TOA, etc. Then, the moderate- and low-QA pixels were identified and finally $R_{rs}(410)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ were estimated with the proposed algorithm. The new $R_{rs}(410)$ image is presented in Figure 9b, which includes the model-estimated $R_{rs}(410)$ values at low- and moderate-QA pixels and the original values at high-QA pixels. It is obvious that the close-tozero pixels are rectified to much larger values; some originally higher $R_{rs}(410)$ values are decreased. As a result, the estimated $R_{rs}(410)$ image over the Mississippi Delta waters has shown characteristics of spatial pattern with realistic gradients and amplitudes.

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5. Conclusions

Accurate retrieval of remote sensing reflectance in the two short blue bands of 41x nm and 443 nm in coastal and inland waters from ocean color satellites has been a challenge because of the complex oceanic and atmospheric properties. Whereas great effort has been put in, a considerable proportion of satellite reflectance products are still found susceptible to large uncertainties. In this study, we developed a spectral shape based algorithm to estimate $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$. The algorithm uses a spectral-matching procedure to determine the spectral shapes for the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra in question based on the initial satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ measurements at the three wavelengths of 48x, 55x, and 67x. This is a novel attempt to complement and enhance the existing efforts for atmospheric correction. Evaluation with satellite (SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP) and in situ $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ matchups in global oceans, with most of the data located within coastal waters, shows that the estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ have much-reduced uncertainties with respect to the initial satellite data. It can be expected that such estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ data will enhance the quality of bio-optical retrievals for the absorption coefficients of phytoplankton and CDOM and detritus, and increase the quantities of utilizable bio-optical products. Despite the inherent uncertainty (~10%), the algorithm is shown to be applicable to a wide range of waters. Recognizing that the current algorithm cannot characterize every spectral shapes in nature, we stress the necessity to further enrich the data pool included in the LUT.

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798	List of Figure Captions
799 800 801 802	Figure 1. Satellite matchup stations for SeaWiFS (denoted by open circles "○"), MODISA (denoted by crosses "+"), and VIIRS-SNPP (denoted by open diamonds "◇") in the global oceans. The background image refers to the annual chlorophyll-a concentration for 2010 derived from SeaWiFS.
803 804 805	Figure 2. Frequency distribution of the QA scores for SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data. The QA scores are calculated based on the five "common" bands of 41x, 443, 48x, 55x, and 67x nm.
806 807 808	Figure 3. Ranges of $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ values used in different data sets. Note that the in situ matchup data are used to describe the variability of corresponding satellite missions in order to avoid the negative $nR_{rs}(41x)$ values.
809 810 811	Figure 4. Normalized remote sensing reflectance spectra representative of three distinctive optical water classes based on the IOCCG (2006) $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data at 412, 443, 488, 551, and 670 nm. The shaded areas describe the range of variation of the spectral values of $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$.
812 813 814 815 816	Figure 5. Comparison of moderate-QA (0.4 The shaded areas $\operatorname{desc} R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data and in situ measurements at 41x and 443 nm bands. The symbols of red " \bigcirc " and blue "+" denote the results before and after the implementation of the BBE algorithm. Linear regression results are also plotted for two data sets. Note that the scatterplots have included all available data points, positive and negative.
817 818 819 820	Figure 6. Comparison of moderate-QA ($0.4 \le QA \le 0.6$) satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral ratios with in situ matchups. The symbols of red lite 1 available data points, positive and negative. the implementation of the BBE algorithm. Linear regression results are also plotted for two data sets. Note that the scatterplots have included all available data points, positive and negative.
821 822 823	Figure 7. Uncertainty of estimated Rrs(412) and Rrs(443) induced by erroneous Rrs(λ) at 488, 551, or 670 nm bands. The first, second, and third rows refer to Class 1, Class 2, and Class 3 waters, respectively, corresponding to Figure 4.
824 825 826 827 828	Figure 8. Percentage of moderate-QA and low-QA satellite data in (a) the U.S. west coasts (b) the U.S. east coasts. The two highlighted areas are (c) the Vancouver Island and (d) Massachusetts Bay and the Gulf of Maine. The percentage data shown here are derived from the MODISA Level 3 mapped (9 km) daily remote sensing reflectance products in 2003, with the QA scores computed based on the $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ at five bands (412, 443, 488, 547, and 667 nm).
829 830 831	Figure 9. (a) VIIRS-SNPP $R_{rs}(410)$ image in the northern Gulf of Mexico (Image id: V2016048190213_NPP_SCINIR_L2). (b) The same image but with estimated $R_{rs}(410)$ for moderate- and low-QA pixels. White pixels indicate the failure of quality checks for land, cloud,

- stray light, high glint, and/or high TOA, etc. The dashed line in (a) indicates where the strongly
- absorbing aerosols occur, and the negative $R_{rs}(410)$ values are likely to present, according to the
- quality flags.

Table 1. Synthesized combinations of absolute percentage errors $|\overline{\epsilon}|$ for $R_{rs}(488)$, $R_{rs}(551)$, and $R_{rs}(670)$ data for uncertainty analysis.

	Cla	ass $1 (N = 1)$	73)	Cla	ass $2 (N = 1)$	37)	Class 3 (N = 190)			
	$R_{rs}(488)$	$R_{rs}(551)$	$R_{rs}(670)$	$R_{rs}(488)$	$R_{rs}(551)$	$R_{rs}(670)$	$R_{rs}(488)$	$R_{rs}(551)$	$R_{rs}(670)$	
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
2	5%	5%	20%	15%	10%	20%	15%	10%	15%	
3	10%	15%	30%	20%	15%	30%	20%	15%	20%	
4	20%	20%	45%	25%	20%	35%	25%	20%	25%	
5	30%	20%	60%	30%	20%	40%	30%	25%	30%	

 * The chlorophyll-a concentration (\pm standard deviation) for each water class is as below: Class 1, Chl = 0.14 (\pm 0.13) mg m⁻³; Class 2, Chl = 1.6 (\pm 1.8) mg m⁻³; Class 3, Chl = 15 (\pm 9) mg m⁻³.

Table 2. Uncertainties of satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ values at three wavelengths (48x, 55x, and 67x nm) generated from SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP in the global waters. The uncertainties are calculated based upon the satellite and *in situ* matchups. The data are divided into three subgroups according to the QA scores of the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra. Negative values are excluded from analysis.

		SeaWiFS				MODISA			VIIRS-SNPP		
		$R_{rs}(490)$	$R_{rs}(555)$	$R_{rs}(670)$	$R_{rs}(488)$	$R_{rs}(547)$	$R_{rs}(667)$	$R_{rs}(486)$	$R_{rs}(551)$	$R_{rs}(671)$	
	ε	46%	23%	21%	40%	22%	28%	34%	27%	48%	
$QA \leq$	$\overline{\epsilon}$	-45%	-23%	-19%	-37%	-21%	-26%	-19%	-17%	-24%	
0.2	RMSD 1	0.0011	0.0006	0.0002	0.0007	0.0006	0.0002	0.0009	0.0005	0.0002	
	N *	92	95	81	101	101	91	24	24	22	
0.4	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	18%	15%	11%	24%	16%	37%	18%	11%	23%	
0.4 ≤	$\overline{\epsilon}$	-10%	-7%	0%	-20%	-15%	-31%	-5%	-5%	-1%	
$QA \le 0.6$	RMSD	0.0006	0.0004	0.0000	0.0007	0.0005	0.0002	0.0004	0.0003	0.0002	
	N	359	359	321	576	576	515	239	239	236	
	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	10%	11%	11%	13%	11%	22%	13%	11%	20%	
$QA \ge$	$\overline{\epsilon}$	0%	-4%	0%	-10%	-9%	-16%	-10%	-9%	2%	
0.8	RMSD	0.0004	0.0004	0.0001	0.0005	0.0005	0.0002	0.0006	0.0005	0.0002	
	N	2055	2055	1999	2932	2932	2866	2148	2148	2134	

850 ¹ RMSD is given in absolute units of sr⁻¹.

Table 3. Uncertainties of satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ values at two blue bands (41x and 443 nm) generated from SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP in the global waters. The uncertainties are calculated based upon the satellite and *in situ* matchups. The data are divided into three subgroups according to the QA scores of the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra. Negative values are excluded from analysis.

Original data										
		SeaWiFS		MOL	DISA	VIIRS-SNPP				
		$R_{rs}(412)$	R _{rs} (443)	$R_{rs}(412)$	$R_{rs}(443)$	$R_{rs}(410)$	$R_{rs}(443)$			
QA ≤ 0.2	<u> </u> ε	82%	71%	89%	62%	80%	32%			
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	-52%	-64%	10%	-52%	42%	11%			
	RMSD	0.0024	0.0017	0.0018	0.0007	0.0016	0.0008			
	N	29	61	35	75	23	23			
$0.4 \le QA \le 0.6$	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	22%	31%	51%	38%	83%	38%			
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	0%	-14%	-8%	-11%	36%	20%			
	RMSD	0.0009	0.0008	0.0010	0.0007	0.0013	0.0007			
	N	279	346	450	561	235	239			
$QA \ge 0.8$	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	17%	18%	27%	17%	28%	19%			
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	0%	4%	3%	3%	7%	5%			
	RMSD	0.0007	0.0007	0.0006	0.0005	0.0008	0.0006			
	N	2049	2055	2913	2932	2148	2148			

BBE-estimated data

		SeaV	SeaWiFS		DISA	VIIRS	VIIRS-SNPP	
		$R_{rs}(412)$	$R_{rs}(443)$	$R_{rs}(412)$	$R_{rs}(443)$	$R_{rs}(410)$	$R_{rs}(443)$	
QA ≤ 0.2	<u> </u> ε	59%	39%	51%	36%	52%	42%	
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	30%	-17%	-3%	-17%	21%	4%	
	RMSD	0.0008	0.0006	0.0004	0.0004	0.0012	0.0009	
	N	95	95	101	101	24	24	
$0.4 \le QA \le 0.6$	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	36%	23%	39%	30%	41%	28%	
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	8%	-4%	-6%	-13%	18%	10%	
	RMSD	0.0009	0.0007	0.0006	0.0005	0.0006	0.0005	
	N	359	359	576	576	239	239	
$QA \ge 0.8$	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	22%	17%	28%	18%	27%	19%	
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	-1%	-2%	0%	-2%	1%	0%	
	RMSD	0.0009	0.0007	0.0006	0.0005	0.0007	0.0005	
	N	2055	2055	2932	2932	2148	2148	

Table 4. Uncertainties of satellite retrieved $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral ratios, R_{443}^{41x} and R_{55x}^{443} , for SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP in the global waters. The uncertainties are calculated based upon the satellite and *in situ* matchups. The data are divided into three subgroups according to the QA scores of the satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra. Negative values are excluded from analysis.

With original $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ data										
		SeaWiFS		MOI	MODISA		VIIRS-SNPP			
		R_{555}^{443}	R_{443}^{412}	R_{547}^{443}	R_{443}^{412}	R_{551}^{443}	R_{443}^{410}			
$QA \le 0.2$	<u>ε</u>	62%	60%	53%	58%	44%	39%			
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	-52%	-32%	-38%	34%	44%	33%			
	RMSD	0.4495	0.4718	0.2224	0.5126	0.4925	0.4135			
	N	61	29	75	35	23	23			
$0.4 \le \mathrm{QA} \le 0.6$	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	24%	16%	36%	25%	37%	43%			
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	-4%	-3%	3%	-7%	30%	10%			
	RMSD	0.2452	0.1455	0.1982	0.2159	0.2358	0.3329			
	N	346	279	561	450	239	235			
$QA \ge 0.8$	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	17%	9%	17%	12%	18%	12%			
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	11%	-1%	13%	-1%	15%	1%			
	RMSD	0.1848	0.0812	0.1053	0.1015	0.1272	0.1002			
	N	2055	2049	2932	2913	2148	2148			

With BBE-estimated $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ data

		SeaWiFS		MOI	DISA	VIIRS	-SNPP
		R_{555}^{443}	R_{443}^{412}	R ₅₄₇ ⁴⁴³	R_{443}^{412}	R_{551}^{443}	R_{443}^{410}
$QA \le 0.2$	<u></u> ε	35%	41%	29%	29%	31%	23%
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	6%	36%	-3%	25%	16%	3%
	RMSD	0.1615	0.3145	0.0940	0.2298	0.3699	0.2163
	N	95	95	101	101	24	24
$0.4 \le \mathrm{QA} \le 0.6$	$ \overline{\epsilon} $	18%	20%	22%	16%	25%	18%
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	0%	11%	1%	5%	18%	5%
	RMSD	0.1988	0.1838	0.1288	0.1390	0.1405	0.1672
	N	359	359	576	576	239	239
$QA \ge 0.8$	<u>ε</u>	15%	12%	16%	13%	16%	13%
	$\overline{\epsilon}$	4%	0%	7%	1%	9%	1%
	RMSD	0.1594	0.1125	0.0938	0.1123	0.1057	0.1149
	N	2055	2055	2932	2932	2148	2148

Table 5. Combined uncertainty for the estimated $R_{rs}(412)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ as a result of the uncertainty propagation from the input $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra at 488, 551, and 670 nm. The uncertainties for the input $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectra are tabulated in Table 1.

			$R_{rs}(412)$				$R_{rs}(443)$			
	Chl	No.	<u> ε</u>	$\overline{\epsilon}$	RMSD	N	<u> ε</u>	$\overline{\epsilon}$	RMSD	N
		1	13%	-10%	0.0020	173	7%	-5%	0.0009	173
	0.14+0.12	2	16%	-6%	0.0021		10%	-4%	0.0011	
Class 1	0.14±0.13 mg m ⁻³		25%	-4%	0.0035		17%	-2%	0.0021	
	mg m	4	40%	-1%	0.0057		32%	0%	0.0036	
		5	56%	-1%	0.0077		47%	1%	0.0051	
	1.6.1.0	1	9%	-2%	0.0008	137	4%	-1%	0.0004	137
		2	28%	-3%	0.0015		22%	0%	0.0012	
Class 2	1.6±1.8	3	35%	-3%	0.0019		29%	-1%	0.0016	
	mg m ⁻³	4	41%	-2%	0.0023		35%	-1%	0.0020	
		5	46%	-2%	0.0027		40%	-1%	0.0023	
		1	13%	1%	0.0008	190	6%	0%	0.0005	190
Class 3	15.0	2	30%	11%	0.0011		22%	8%	0.0009	
	15±9 mg m ⁻³	3	37%	18%	0.0013		27%	12%	0.0011	
	mg m	4	43%	24%	0.0016		31%	16%	0.0014	
		5	47%	30%	0.0018		35%	20%	0.0016	

Table 6. Uncertainties of $a_{ph}(443)$ and $a_{dg}(443)$ derived from the original satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data and estimated $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data at blue bands. The uncertainties are calculated with regard to the retrievals from corresponding in situ $R_{rs}(\lambda)$. All negative $R_{rs}(41x)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ values and negative $a_{ph}(443)$ and $a_{dg}(443)$ retrievals are excluded from the comparison. Negative values are excluded from analysis.

		With orig	nal $R_{rs}(41x)$	and $R_{rs}(443)$ d	ata			
		Sea	WiFS	MOI	DISA	VIIRS-SNPP		
		$a_{ph}(443)$	<i>a</i> _{dg} (443)	<i>a_{ph}</i> (443)	$a_{dg}(443)$	$a_{ph}(443)$	$a_{dg}(443)$	
$QA \le 0.2$	$ \bar{\Phi} $	46%	136%	56%	142%	38%	132%	
	φ	0%	34%	-12%	4%	-4%	-91%	
	RMSD	0.0213	0.2878	0.0464	0.3031	0.0195	0.0359	
	N	7	29	16	28	15	19	
$0.4 \le \mathrm{QA} \le 0.6$	$ \bar{\Phi} $	48%	64%	67%	89%	47%	117%	
	$\bar{\Phi}$	-26%	15%	-42%	-3%	-10%	-24%	
	RMSD	0.0070	0.0179	0.0324	0.0679	0.0334	0.2291	
	N	169	268	261	418	116	190	
$QA \ge 0.8$	$ \bar{\Phi} $	44%	42%	49%	58%	41%	57%	
	ф	-21%	-4%	-21%	-13%	-10%	-11%	
	RMSD	0.0155	0.0144	0.0314	0.0494	0.0260	0.0477	
	N	1786	2024	2258	2873	1685	2088	
		With BBE-est	timated $R_{rs}(4)$	1x) and $R_{rs}(44$	3) data			
		Sea	WiFS	MOI	MODISA		-SNPP	
		$a_{ph}(443)$	$a_{dg}(443)$	$a_{ph}(443)$	$a_{dg}(443)$	$a_{ph}(443)$	$a_{dg}(443)$	
$QA \le 0.2$	$ \bar{\Phi} $	87%	105%	78%	82%	58%	72%	
	φ	34%	-15%	33%	-14%	-55%	12%	
	RMSD	0.1908	0.3423	0.1680	0.2426	0.0249	0.0524	
	N	55	107	66	118	15	20	
$0.4 \le \mathrm{QA} \le 0.6$	$ \bar{\Phi} $	51%	66%	59%	59%	62%	69%	
	φ	5%	-16%	-19%	5%	-32%	-21%	
	RMSD	0.0102	0.0333	0.0367	0.0694	0.0435	0.0868	
	N	202	345	327	548	118	219	
$QA \ge 0.8$	$ \bar{\Phi} $	45%	48%	50%	57%	49%	56%	
	φ	-13%	0%	-13%	-11%	-8%	-7%	
	RMSD	0.0155	0.0211	0.0320	0.0566	0.0306	0.0532	
	N	1791	2030	2268	2907	1685	2102	

List of Figure Captions

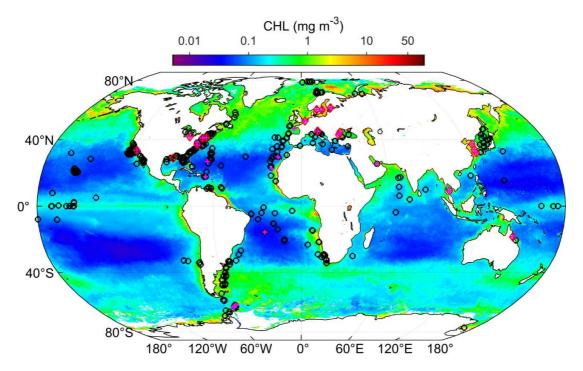


Figure 1. Satellite matchup stations for SeaWiFS (denoted by open circles "o"), MODISA (denoted by crosses "+"), and VIIRS-SNPP (denoted by open diamonds "o") in the global oceans. The background image refers to the annual chlorophylla concentration for 2010 derived from SeaWiFS.

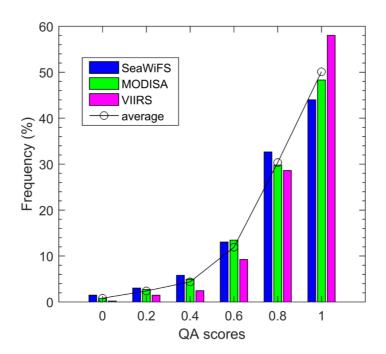


Figure 2. Frequency distribution of the QA scores for SeaWiFS, MODISA, and VIIRS-SNPP $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data. The QA scores are calculated based on the five "common" bands of 41x, 443, 48x, 55x, and 67x nm.

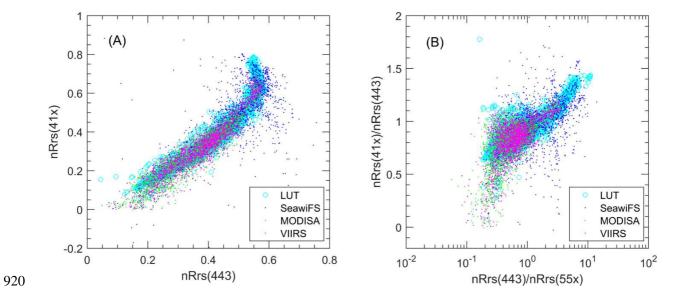


Figure 3. Ranges of $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$ values used in different data sets. Note that the *in situ* matchup data are used to describe the variability of corresponding satellite missions in order to avoid the negative $nR_{rs}(41x)$ values.

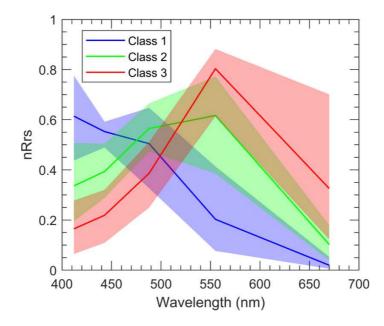


Figure 4. Normalized remote sensing reflectance spectra representative of three distinctive optical water classes based on the IOCCG (2006) $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data at 412, 443, 488, 551, and 670 nm. The shaded areas describe the range of variation of the spectral values of $nR_{rs}(\lambda)$.

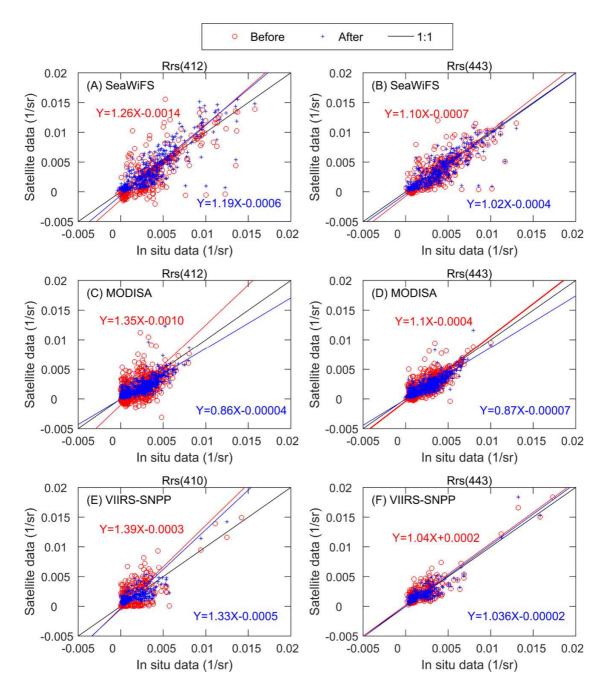


Figure 5. Comparison of moderate-QA $(0.4 \le \text{QA} \le 0.6)$ satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ data and in situ measurements at 41x and 443 nm bands. The symbols of red " \circ " and blue "+" denote the results before and after the implementation of the BBE algorithm. Linear regression results are also plotted for two data sets. Note that the scatterplots have included all available data points, positive and negative.

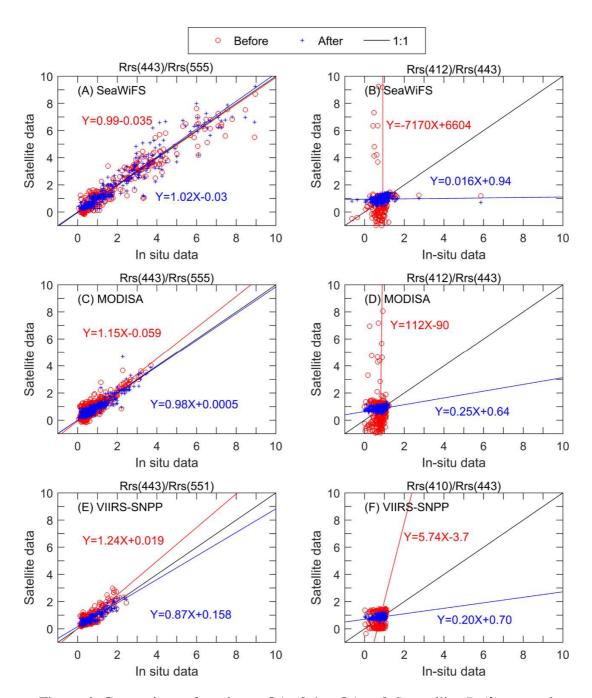


Figure 6. Comparison of moderate-QA ($0.4 \le \text{QA} \le 0.6$) satellite $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ spectral ratios with *in situ* matchups. The symbols of red " \circ " and blue "+" denote the results before and after the implementation of the BBE algorithm. Linear regression results are also plotted for two data sets. Note that the scatterplots have included all available data points, positive and negative.



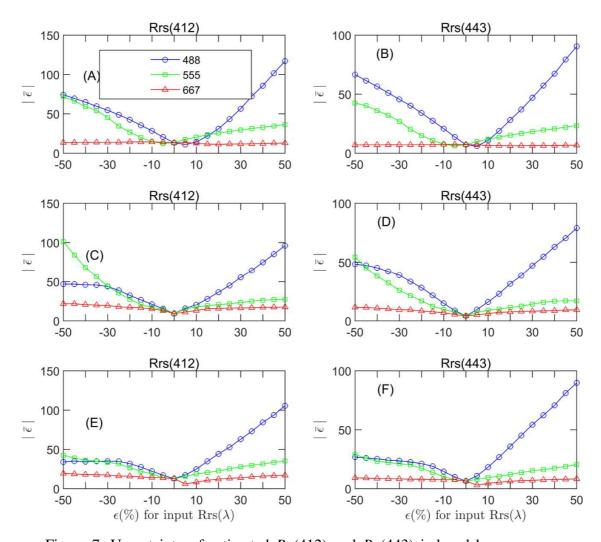


Figure 7. Uncertainty of estimated $R_{rs}(412)$ and $R_{rs}(443)$ induced by erroneous $R_{rs}(\lambda)$ at 488, 551, or 670 nm bands. The first, second, and third rows refer to Class 1, Class 2, and Class 3 waters, respectively, corresponding to Figure 4.

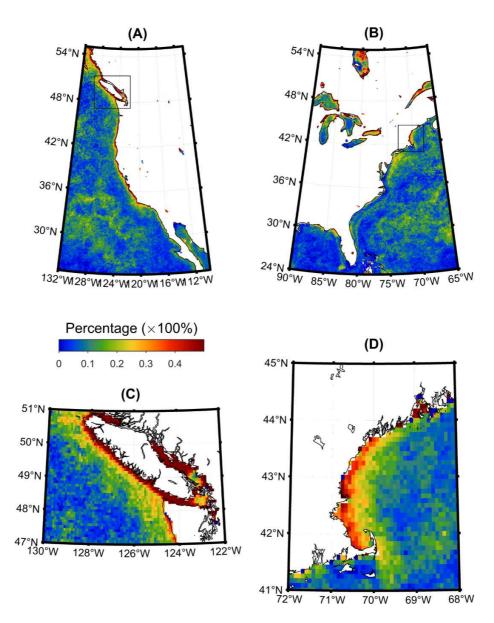
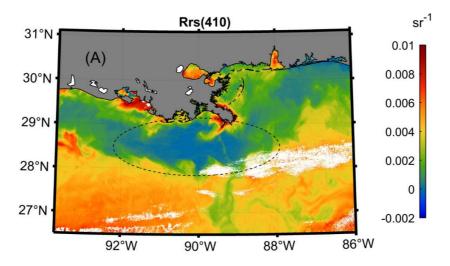


Figure 8. Percentage of moderate-QA and low-QA satellite data in (a) the U.S. west coasts and inland waters; and (b) the U.S. east coasts and inland waters. The two highlighted areas are (c) the Vancouver Island and (d) Massachusetts Bay and the Gulf of Maine. The percentage data shown here are derived from the MODISA Level 3 mapped (9 km) daily remote sensing reflectance products in 2003, with the QA scores computed based on the R_{rs} at five bands (412, 443, 488, 547, and 667 nm).



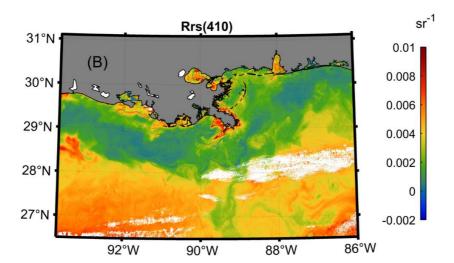


Figure 9. (a) VIIRS-SNPP $R_{rs}(410)$ image in the northern Gulf of Mexico (Image id: V2016048190213_NPP_SCINIR_L2). (b) The same image but with estimated $R_{rs}(410)$ for moderate- and low-QA pixels. White pixels indicate the failure of quality checks for land, cloud, stray light, high glint, and/or high TOA, etc. The dashed line in (a) indicates where the strongly absorbing aerosols occur, and the negative $R_{rs}(410)$ values are likely to present, according to the quality flags.