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3 **Remote Sensing and Water Quality Indicators in the Korean West Coast: Spatio-**
4 **temporal Structures of MODIS-derived Chlorophyll-a and Total Suspended Solids**

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6 Hae-Cheol Kim ^a, Seunghyun Son ^b, Yong Hoon Kim ^c, Jong Seong Khim ^d, Jungho Nam ^e, Won Keun
7 Chang ^e, Jung-Ho Lee ^f, Chang-Hee Lee ^{g*} and Jongseong Ryu ^{f,*},

8
9 ^a*I.M. Systems Group at NOAA/NWS/NCEP, Rockville, MD, USA*

10 ^b*CIRA at NOAA/NESDIS/STAR, Fort Collins, CO, USA*

11 ^c*Department of Earth and Space Sciences, West Chester University of Pennsylvania, West Chester, PA, USA*

12 ^d*School of Earth and Environmental Sciences & Research Institute of Oceanography, Seoul National University, Seoul,*
13 *Republic of Korea*

14 ^e*Korea Maritime Institute, Pusan, Republic of Korea*

15 ^f*Department of Marine Biotechnology, Anyang University, Ganghwa-gun, Incheon, Republic of Korea*

16 ^g*Department of Environmental Biotechnology, Myongji University, Yongin, Republic of Korea*

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24 *** Co-corresponding authors**

25 J. Ryu

26 Department of Marine Biotechnology, Anyang University, Ganghwagun, Incheon, Republic of Korea

27 Telephone: +82 32 930 6033; fax: +82 32 930 6215. E-mail: jsryu@anyang.ac.kr

28 C.H. Lee

29 Department of Environmental Engineering and Biotechnology, Myongji University, Yongin, Gyeonggi-do 449-728,

30 Republic of Korea

31 Telephone: +82 31 330 6698; fax: +82 31 601 3156, E-mail: changhee@mju.ac.kr

32 **ABSTRACT**

33 The Yellow Sea is a shallow marginal sea with a large tidal range. In this study, ten areas located along
34 the western coast of the Korean Peninsula are investigated with respect to remotely sensed water quality
35 indicators derived from NASA MODIS aboard of the satellite Aqua. We found that there was a strong
36 seasonal trend with spatial heterogeneity. In specific, a strong six-month phase-lag was found between
37 chlorophyll-a and total suspended solid owing to their inversed seasonality, which could be explained by
38 different dynamics and environmental settings. Chlorophyll-a concentration seemed to be dominantly
39 influenced by temperature, while total suspended solid was largely governed by local tidal forcing and
40 bottom topography. This study demonstrated the potential and applicability of satellite products in
41 coastal management, and highlighted find that remote-sensing would be a promising tool in resolving
42 orthogonality of large spatio-temporal scale variabilities when combining with proper time series
43 analyses.

44

45 **Keywords:** Chlorophyll-a, Suspended solids, Surface temperature, Remote sensing, Yellow Sea

46

47

48 Coastal environments throughout the world are now experiencing unprecedented anthropogenic
49 eutrophication, hypoxia and harmful algal blooms due to increased human activities and subsequently
50 increased nutrient loadings (Anderson et al., 2002; Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008). Because of their
51 significant role in human well-being relying upon them, deterioration of water quality indicators (e.g.,
52 water temperature, dissolved oxygen, chlorophyll, inorganic nutrients, heavy metals, total suspended
53 solid, etc.) can be potentially catastrophic for marine ecosystems as species are threatened by conditions
54 which are no longer suitable for their survival (Bierman et al., 2011). As a result, monitoring changes in
55 spatio-temporal patterns of water quality (WQ) in both terrestrial and marine ecosystems, and
56 interpretation of the implications have been important across disciplines these days, such as
57 environmental/marine sciences and socio-economics. However, it is inherently difficult to properly
58 address varying spatial and temporal scales of WQ for application to coastal marine waters monitoring
59 and assessment (Bierman et al., 2011).

60

61 Recently, the application of satellite and airborne remote sensing imagery to collect WQ information has
62 become more frequent (Goetz et al., 2008). Remotely sensed datasets are generally more comprehensive
63 than those directly measured *in situ* in that they provide greater spatial coverage with finer resolution and
64 often increased temporal frequency and resolution. This makes remote-sensing approach a rich source
65 of data. However, the large amount of data also embeds challenges for the extraction of meaningful
66 information of WQ parameters. Remotely-sensed sea surface temperature (SST) is one of the most
67 important oceanic and atmospheric variables which has been widely used in a variety of researches to
68 develop an understanding of ocean dynamics, as well as physical and biogeochemical processes in the
69 upper ocean (Park et al., 2015). For example, the year-to-year variations of SST in the Yellow Sea (YS)
70 may significantly affect the Korean, Chinese and Japanese climate, and thus it is important to examine
71 the characteristic variability of SST, which may help assess the climate variability and its down-scaled
72 impacts over the YS and adjacent countries (Yeh and Kim, 2010).

73

74 The global distribution of chlorophyll-a (Chl-a), the direct proxy for phytoplankton biomass (Cullen,
75 1982), shows Chl-a rich regions located along the coasts and continental shelves, mostly because of a
76 strong nutrient supply from continents. The visualization of satellite images is the primary technique
77 used to identify their presence, in particular when phytoplankton blooms occur as a regular event in a
78 specific ocean region (Srokosz and Quartly, 2013), or in regions where they are not usually expected
79 such as oligotrophic gyres in North Pacific (Wilson, 2003; Wilson et al., 2008). During the last decade,

80 there has been an increase in peer-reviewed publications on the study of algal blooms using ocean color
81 satellite data (Blondeau-Patissier et al., 2014). Algal blooms in coastal ocean regions have mainly been
82 the primary focus of those studies mostly because of the direct connectivity between land and coastal
83 waters (Gazeau et al., 2004). Additionally, the second and third generation development of satellite ocean
84 color sensors allowed more accurate retrieval of phytoplankton proxies in coastal waters (Shen et al.,
85 2012).

86
87 Recent reviews on satellite ocean color remote sensing have reported on the scientific advances, societal
88 benefits (IOCCG, 2008) and applications to coastal ecosystem management (Kratzer et al., 2014; Klemas,
89 2011), including fisheries (Wilson, 2011) and harmful algal blooms detection (Shen et al., 2012). These
90 ocean color datasets allow for the derivation of ecological baselines which can then be used to detect and
91 anticipate changes in the ocean systems' dynamics (Siegel et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2009; Smetacek and
92 Cloern, 2008). Archived earth observation data can be used in hindsight to assess prevailing bloom
93 conditions and to identify biological and physical parameters that triggered or terminated an algal event
94 (Kahru et al., 1993).

95
96 In coastal waters, total suspended solid (TSS) can be an important factor controlling biological processes
97 (Doxaran et al., 2003) and its distribution and variations can be strongly influenced by tides and river
98 discharge (Stumpf and Pennock, 1989; Son et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2014). TSS is also important in light
99 penetration and water movements in the coastal waters (Son et al., 2014). Thus, accurate estimation of
100 TSS is critical to understand the thermal structure of upper water columns and physical processes (Lewis
101 et al., 1990; Morel and Antoine, 1994; Sathyendranath et al., 1991) as well as biological processes (e.g.,
102 phytoplankton photosynthesis) in the ocean euphotic zone (Platt et al., 1988; Sathyendranath et al., 1989).

103
104 There have been extensive studies on spatial and temporal distribution of SST, Chl-a, and TSS both in
105 the offshore and coastal regions of the YS (Park and Oh, 2000; Xie et al., 2002; Ahn et al., 2004; Chu et
106 al., 2005; Yeh and Kim, 2010; Wei et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2013; Son et al., 2014; Park et al., 2015;).
107 None of the studies, however, attempt to address these three components combined with respect to the
108 interactive dynamics between them, and few studies have compared WQ data derived from satellite with
109 *in situ* monitoring data. The research objectives of this paper include: 1) examining spatial and temporal
110 variability of SST, Chl-a and TSS in the YS; 2) ground-truthing of satellite data based on long-term

111 monitoring data *in situ*, 3) presenting applicability of satellite-based SST, Chl-a and TSS data with better
112 descriptions of spatio-temporal patterns over larger areas of the YS to WQ management.

113

114 The Yellow Sea (YS) is a marginal sea with shallow depth (c.a. 44m; Wei et al., 2010) and large tidal
115 range reaching up to 10m (Choi and Kim, 2006). In the present study, 10 regions in Korean west coast
116 (KWC), where satellite data were acquired, are delineated by bays and river discharges as follows (Fig.
117 1): Gyeonggi Bay (A1); Asan Bay (A2); Taean Coast (A3); Cheonsu Bay (A4); Boryeong Coast (A5);
118 Seocheon Coast (A6); Saemangeum Dike (A7); Gochang Coast (A8); Mokpo Bay (A9); and Wando
119 Coast (A10). Geographical coordinates of delineated boundaries of each are listed in Table S1.

120

121 To provide spatial distribution and temporal trends of WQ in the study area, SST, Chl-a, TSS of surface
122 waters were analyzed based on the *in situ* data provided by Marine Environmental Monitoring System
123 of Korea (K-MEMS). As for the purpose of regional comparison, 10 regions are allocated along KWC
124 (Fig. 1). Han River estuary was set as a northern limit and Wando Coast as a southern limit of the
125 boundary. K-MEMS has been seasonally monitoring SST, Chl-a and TSS at a total of 105 stations in
126 the study area since 1997 to the present.

127

128 The ocean color and sea surface temperature data from the NASA Moderate Resolution Imaging
129 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) on the satellite Aqua are available from the NASA's Ocean Color website
130 (<http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/>) supported by the Ocean Biology Processing Group (OBPG) at
131 NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center. MODIS-Aqua Level-2 daily ocean color products such as Chl-
132 a and remote sensing reflectance (R_{rs}) at various wavelengths ($R_{rs}(\lambda)$), and day time SST covering the
133 KWC waters (Fig. 1) were obtained from the NASA ocean color website for the period of July 2002 to
134 December 2014. The MODIS-Aqua level-2 ocean color data were derived using the standard
135 atmospheric correction algorithm with the near infrared (NIR) radiance corrections (Bailey et al., 2010;
136 Stumpf et al., 2003). The MODIS Chl-a data are derived using the NASA standard ocean color
137 chlorophyll algorithm for MODIS (OC3M) (O'Reilly et al., 2000). The day time MODIS SST product
138 from the NASA OBPG are derived using the long-wave SST algorithm with MODIS bands at 11 and
139 12 μm (Minnett et al., 2004). More information about the MODIS-Aqua Level-2 data can be found at
140 the OBPG website ([http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/WIKI/OCReproc2013\(2e\)0MA.html](http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/WIKI/OCReproc2013(2e)0MA.html)). Those
141 Level-2 data were remapped to a standard Mercator projection at 1×1 km spatial resolution for the
142 study area.

143

144 The regional TSS model (Siswanto et al., 2011; Son et al., 2014) using R_{rs} at 3 wavelengths (488, 547,
145 and 667 nm) were applied to the remapped daily MODIS-Aqua data to generate TSS maps in KWC as
146 follows:

$$147 \quad \text{Log}(TSS) = 0.649 + 25.623 \cdot [R_{rs}(555) + R_{rs}(670)] - 0.646 \cdot \frac{R_{rs}(490)}{R_{rs}(555)} \quad (1)$$

148

149 Monthly and climatology monthly composite SST, Chl-a, and TSS images were generated using the
150 daily MODIS-derived products to characterize spatial and temporal variation of SST, Chl-a, and TSS in
151 the Yellow and East China Seas. Time series of a long-term climatology (mean distribution of all
152 months from July 2002 to December 2014) and monthly climatological images (12-year mean for each
153 month) of SST, Chl-a and TSS from the MODIS-Aqua data were generated for the 10 study regions
154 (Fig. 1 and Table S1).

155

156 In this study, authors used MODIS-derived data set from the 10 regions to decompose into principal
157 components to examine spatio-temporal structure of Chl-a and TSS. In general, empirical orthogonal
158 function (EOF) is used to analyze spatial structure by decomposing of spatial multivariate data. EOF
159 analysis is a principal component analysis (PCA) applied to a group of time series over a certain spatial
160 range, such as multiple points or 2-D field data sets. A new time series of coherent variations (a.k.a.,
161 scores) was created from original time series and eigenvectors of covariance matrix (a.k.a., loadings)
162 from EOF analysis. The time series of coherent variation for the major principal component (PC1 or
163 EOF mode 1 explaining temporal pattern) was then filtered removing seasonality in order to focus on
164 inter-annual variability and was compared using cross-spectral analysis to compute lags between the
165 two time series.

166

167 After seasonality removed, filtered time series of coherent variation (i.e., scores) for the major principal
168 component (PC1 or EOF mode 1) from Chl-a time series was compared against NIÑO3.4, which is a
169 representative climate index for one of El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) indices. The NIÑO3.4 is
170 defined by mean SST over the region of 5° S - 5° N and 170° W - 120° W. It has been reported that
171 this is a region of great climate variability in ENSO time scale and has proximity to the area where
172 there is important effect in shifted SST on the precipitation patterns over a large region in the western
173 Pacific Ocean (Trenberth, 1997). Monthly NIÑO3.4 data (version ERSST.V3B);

174 www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov/data/indices/) were obtained from the Climate Prediction Center (CPC) of
175 National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) at National Oceanic and Atmospheric
176 Administration (NOAA).

177

178 A cross-correlation (XCF) analysis was also performed over the long-term time series of MODIS-
179 derived monthly Chl-a and TSS. Cross-correlation analysis is a statistical method in finding how far
180 any two time series are apart (i.e., time lags) and how strong cross spectral power they have (signs
181 determine if the two time series are positively or negatively correlated). Cross spectral power gives
182 frequencies of the two time series and cross-correlation coefficients are the indicator of the lag where
183 the two time series are best aligned. Therefore, if the two time series have the same frequency with a
184 phase-lag, the cross spectrum of the two series will yield the same spectral power structure that each
185 individual time series reveals.

186

187 Long-term climatology imageries of MODIS-derived SST, Chl-a, and TSS from all months during the
188 period of July 2002 through December 2014 are presented for the Korean west coastal waters to provide
189 mean spatial patterns (Fig. 2). Overall, SST increases toward the south in general (Fig. 2a). Relatively
190 lower SST appears over the A1 (Gyeonggi Bay) due to strong tidal currents and shallow bathymetry,
191 while SST is relatively higher around the Wando Coast (A10) although there is strong tidal mixing.
192 Spatial distributions of Chl-a and TSS concentrations reveal somewhat similar patterns that the
193 concentrations are higher along the coasts and lower offshore (Figs. 2b and 2c). However, relatively
194 higher Chl-a values are observed in the southern part of the area A1 (e.g., Lake Sihwa), A4 (Cheonsu
195 Bay) and A7 (Saemangeum Dike), while higher TSS values are dominant over large areas of the A1
196 (Gyeonggi Bay), A9 (Mokpo Bay) and A10 (Wando Coast) due to their local characteristics, such as
197 shallow bathymetry and strong tidal mixing.

198

199 Monthly climatological (2002–2012) images of MODIS-derived SST, Chl-a, and TSS for the KWC are
200 derived (Fig. 3). In general, spatial distributions of the climatological monthly SST, Chl-a, and TSS
201 images are similar to that from the climatology images from July 2002 to December 2014 shown in Fig.
202 2, and there are strong seasonal variabilities over the entire study areas.

203

204 The MODIS-derived SST images show that SST is lower in the coastal waters (lowest in Gyeonggi Bay)
205 while SST is higher offshore waters and southern YS over all months (Fig. 3a). The lower SST along

206 the coasts, especially in Gyeonggi (A1) and Wando Coast (A10) area, is caused by strong vertical mixing
207 due to the tidal currents and shallow bathymetry. Lower SST appears in winter months (with lowest in
208 February with mean SST by about 2°C in A1) and higher SST in summer months (highest in August with
209 mean SST by about 28°C in the entire KWC).

210

211 Monthly climatology of the MODIS imageries provides that Chl-a concentrations are higher onshore of
212 the KWC and lower in the middle and south offshore of the YS in most of months (Fig. 3b). However,
213 in the middle of the YS, Chl-a concentrations are higher in spring months (March to May) and autumn
214 (November to December). The highest Chl-a values in April would be related to spring phytoplankton
215 bloom in the middle of the YS. The lowest Chl-a values appear during the summer months in the middle
216 of YS. However, relatively higher Chl-a concentrations are shown in summer season along the KWC
217 (e.g., highest SST values in August from A4 and A7).

218

219 General spatial distributions of the MODIS-derived monthly TSS reveal similar patterns to those long-
220 term climatological TSS from 2002 to 2014, showing higher TSS along the KWC (especially, in A1 of
221 Gyeonggi Bay and A10 of Wando Coast area) and lower in offshore (minimum in the middle of the YS)
222 (Fig. 3c). The TSS values are highest in winter (December to March) and lowest in summer months
223 (July to August) in all regions. The maximum TSS values are shown in A1 (Gyeonggi Bay) and A10
224 (Wando Coast) region (about 10 –12 mg L⁻¹ on average) in the winter months. The ribbon-shaped
225 features are always shown in A1 over all months, which is attributed to the tidal asymmetry effect (Jay
226 and Musiak, 1994) because Gyeonggi Bay is under estuarine regime where fresh- and salt-water mixing
227 occurs more actively than other 9 regions (Son et al., 2014).

228

229 This section describes the temporal variability of SST, Chl-a, and TSS in each region for the past 10
230 years (2004-2014), by analyzing both satellite-derived and *in situ* observation data. Figure 4a shows the
231 time series of SST in 10 regions. Red circles represent the data seasonally observed *in situ* observed,
232 while the blue lines are for the MODIS-derived monthly SST. The most striking feature is the seasonal
233 variability of SST, whereby warm during summer and cold during winter. In general, MODIS-derived
234 SST matches very well with the observation data particularly in northern regions (e.g., A1 - A6). In the
235 southern areas (e.g., A7 - A10), the MODIS-derived values tend to slightly overestimate the SST
236 especially during winter, but the discrepancies are not noticeable.

237

238 Time-series of Chl-a for each region is plotted in Fig. 4b. When compared to SST, one can note that the
239 discrepancy between the observation and MODIS-derived Chl-a concentrations which are two or three
240 times larger in magnitude than the *in situ* measurements. Overall, the observation data range 0 to 5 μg
241 L^{-1} for most periods other than some spikes. Those spikes occur early spring (February or March) in A1
242 and A2, which thought to represent early-spring blooming in the coastal areas (Fig. 4a and 4b). Some
243 exceptional cases of these spikes occurring during summer months in A3 - A8 can be found in both
244 observation and MODIS-derived data during 2005-2007 (Fig. 4b). Chl-a concentration in A4 (Cheonsu
245 Bay) shows the highest values out of all 10 regions, which are consistent in both observation and MODIS-
246 derived data. Some of spikes are coherent among regions, but hard to find the trend in spatial coherency.
247 MODIS-derived data overestimate *in situ* Chl-a except for regions of A9 and A10.

248
249 Figure 4c depicts the temporal variability of TSS in 10 regions. Similar to the case of Chl-a, there exists
250 discrepancy between *in situ* measurements and MODIS-derived TSS. In general, the MODIS-derived
251 TSS is smaller than the *in situ* measurements with little exception, contrary to Chl-a cases.

252
253 An empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis (a.k.a., principal component analysis: PCA) is applied
254 to the long-term time series of MODIS-derived monthly Chl-a and TSS data from 10 regions (Fig. 5, 6
255 and 7). As mentioned earlier, a PCA is a statistical tool to decompose multiple variables into principal
256 components having orthogonality, and these components can be ranked with respect to its contribution
257 that can explain variances of the time series. Eigenvectors of the co-variance matrix from the MODIS-
258 derived Chl-a and TSS at 10 regions are plotted in 2-dimensional X-Y space with X being PC1 and Y
259 being PC2 (Fig. 5a and 5b), respectively. Variance explained by 10 PCs for the same time series data
260 sets are also presented.

261
262 It is noteworthy that loadings from both Chl-a and TSS times series are located on the positive axis of
263 PC1 (upper right and lower right quadrant) which represents temporal structure (Fig. 5a and 5b). This
264 indicates that all 10 regions have similar and strong seasonal patterns of Chl-a and TSS and their
265 variances can be significantly explained by PC1 (47.3% and 74.6%, respectively). However, PC2,
266 representing spatial structure, reveals somewhat different features than PC1 has shown. Loadings from
267 each region are clustered into two groups along the PC2 axis (see colored circles grouping 10 regions
268 into two in Fig. 5a and 5b). Bays from the northern part of the YS (A1 and A2) are grouped together
269 with those from the south (A9 and A10) in the positive axis of the PC2 (upper right quadrant) for Chl-a

270 (Fig. 5a) and negative axis of the PC2 (lower right quadrant) for TSS time series (Fig. 5b), respectively.
271 This indicates that Chl-a and TSS behaviors in the north (A1 and A2) and south (A9 and A10) are
272 different from the rest regions (A3-A7, e.g., Saemangeum Dike and Cheonsu Bay). This synoptic
273 heterogeneity was previously described in the monthly climatological characteristics.

274

275 To determine time lags between the two time series, a cross-correlation function (XCF) is applied to the
276 long-term time series of MODIS-derived monthly Chl-a and TSS. Figure 6 presents PC1 (EOF mode 1)
277 from Chl-a time series overlaid by that from the TSS time series. It was found that there is a strongly
278 negative correlation in the PC1 (EOF mode 1) from the two time series (Fig. 6a). This was statistically
279 supported by strongly negative cross spectral power at the frequency of 1 year (Fig. 6b) indicating that
280 both Chl-a and TSS time series have 1-year frequency but their peaks are negatively correlated. The
281 coherence of the 1-year frequency is about 0.85 which was found to be statistically significant ($p < 0.05$)
282 within 95% confidence level (Fig. 6c). In this XCF analysis, even if not statistically significant, it was
283 found that there is a 6-month phase-lag between the two PC1 of Chl-a and TSS time series data and the
284 correlation coefficient of this phase-shift is 51% (Fig. 6d). This negative correlation between the two
285 properties was also shown in the PCA data structure in Fig. 5. One can note that these two groups (north
286 and south regions vs. middle regions) reveal inversed relationship between the Chl-a and TSS time series.
287 For example, those regions with positive PC2 (upper right quadrant) of Chl-a are located in the negative
288 side of PC2 (lower right quadrant) in TSS, and on the contrary, those regions with negative PC2 (lower
289 right quadrant) of Chl-a are located in the positive side of PC2 (upper right quadrant) in TSS. This
290 finding is an interesting feature and will be discussed later.

291

292 It is noted that the MODIS-derived Chl-a concentrations would be overestimated in the coastal waters
293 due to non-algal components such as colored dissolved organic matters (CDOM) and suspended
294 sediments (SS) since the Chl-a algorithm (OC3) for the MODIS data works well for the clear open ocean
295 waters. The YS belongs to the marginal seas with “Case 2” optical complexities although central area
296 of the YS is characterized as “Case 1” water during the summer months (Yoo and Park, 1998), which
297 was also confirmed by the present study (Fig. 3b; see section 3.2 for more detail). This “Case 2” water
298 characteristics may be due to the large volume of freshwater discharge from Yangtze and Han Rivers
299 (Shen et al., 1998; Lee et al., 2013), and to strong tidal mixing and shallow bathymetry in coastal regions
300 of the YS (Ahn et al., 2004). It is also due, in part, to the bifurcation of the Kuroshio Current and its

301 complicated physical properties transporting suspended materials into the YS (Lie et al., 1998, 2001;
302 Tseng et al., 2000; Lie and Cho, 2002; Ichikawa and Beardsley, 2002; Chu et al., 2005)

303

304 Despite the fact that TSS adds optical complexities to ocean color retrieval (Chl-a) and that both Chl-a
305 and TSS concentrations are, in general, found to be high along the KWC, there are some spatial patterns
306 that can distinguish Chl-a departure from TSS images in the KWC. While TSS is significantly higher in
307 the A9 (Mokpo Bay) and A10 (Wando Coast), Chl-a is relatively lower than other KWC regions by
308 examining seasonal Chl-a climatology patterns (Fig. 3b). In specific, this decoupling was pronounced
309 during the plant growing season (April and May). Region A9 and A10 show low Chl-a concentration
310 even when there are offshore (middle of the YS) blooms occur in April (Fig. 3b), and TSS climatology
311 still reveals higher concentration during the same months in those regions (Fig. 3c).

312

313 On the contrary, regions located in the middle part of the KWC (e.g., A3-A6), Chl-a concentrations are
314 relatively higher during April through September (see Fig. 3b), but TSS values are relatively lower
315 compared to adjacent regions (e.g., A1, A2, A9 and A10) for the same months (Fig. 3c). The same
316 feature was found in *in situ* measurements collected from A4–A6 regions during 2005–2007 (Fig. 4b).
317 This indicates that despite the algorithmic limitation of “Case 1” ocean color product when applied to
318 “Case 2” waters, the spatial distribution of MODIS-derived Chl-a in the KWC gives synoptic information
319 about regional trends and patterns over larger areas and longer time periods, without necessarily having
320 too much bias due to coastal TSS. However, authors should point out that it is not clear whether
321 discrepancies between satellite-derived data and *in situ* measurements are due to optical algorithms in
322 the turbid waters or due to mismatches of sampling period (monthly and quarterly) and spatial averaging.
323 Until this question is resolved, these apparent differences will limit the quantitative usefulness of this
324 approach to informing ecosystem managers. Continued efforts of coastal optical calibration/validation
325 surveys are necessary in order to more accurately and quantitatively partition each water quality
326 constituents (e.g., Chl-a, TSS, CDOM) from the optically complex coastal waters.

327

328 As previously described, the MODIS-derived TSS show strong seasonality of higher values during winter
329 and lower values during summer. However, this seasonality pattern is not clear in the *in situ*
330 measurements from K-MEMS (Fig. 4c). This could be attributed to the spatial heterogeneity of TSS,
331 where high concentration of sediment may occur as patchy and point observation data may not be
332 representative for the region. It is hard to find correlation among regions, which indicates that the

333 processes controlling TSS could be local rather than regional. TSS is strongly affected by resuspension
334 and physical processes, such as wind-induced winnowing, tidal currents and bottom topography, which
335 makes it difficult to accurately estimate TSS concentration remotely from the space (Kang et al., 2009;
336 Choi et al., 2012). In addition, increased human activities, such as coastal land cover/land use changes
337 and coastal engineering projects, add more complexities in the coastal physical processes and dynamics
338 of water quality indicators (Choi et al., 2012; Jung and Kim, 2005). Recently, there have been studies
339 on diurnal features of TSS changes in the KWS, YS and East China Sea using Geostationary Ocean Color
340 Imager (GOCI) sensor (Kim et al., 2014; Son et al., 2014) to investigate physics-induced (mostly, tides
341 and topography) hour-to-hour variations of TSS. However, it should be noted that neither MODIS-
342 derived TSS nor K-MEMS *in situ* measurements in this study reflect high temporal frequency (hourly
343 time scale) signatures. Thus, satellite-derived TSS data and results presented here are more suitable for
344 analyzing the regional and monthly climatological characteristics of suspended sediment distribution in
345 the KWS. Son et al. (2014) investigated temporal variations in TSS concentration in the turbid coastal
346 waters (including Gyeonggi Bay and Wando Coast), and also suggested that the satellite approaches can
347 be applicable to synoptic studies of sediment dynamics in these areas influenced by strong tidal current.

348

349 Figure 5 reveals that almost all the PC1's from the MODIS-derived Chl-a and TSS at the study regions
350 (except for A9) in the KWC are located on the positive side of PC1 axis, which implies that all the regions
351 have very similar temporal structure, while there exists spatial heterogeneity in the two time series
352 indicated by two clusters along the PC2 axis. Although having almost the same temporal structure
353 mentioned above, it is notable that the distribution of Chl-a along the PC1 shows a more widely spread
354 pattern than that of TSS which has a more or less narrowly aligned pattern along the PC1. In fact, biplot
355 structure of TSS resembles that of SST (not shown in Fig. 5), which indicates that TSS concentration is
356 more or like a quasi-conservative tracer (i.e., depending on seasonality); whereas, Chl-a shows a non-
357 conservative property having intrinsic biological processes governing local growth and loss of
358 phytoplankton biomass. Besides differences in the intrinsic rate, another possible explanation may
359 include resuspension-induced TSS dynamics. Wynne et al. (2006) reported that inorganic sediment
360 contributes up to 94% of total resuspended materials in the Texas coasts, while resuspended benthic algae
361 is 6%. This may indirectly explain why TSS, as a quasi-conservative tracer, strongly influenced by
362 physical processes revealed similar structure to SST in eigenvectors of covariance matrices (i.e.,
363 loadings).

364

365 Then what caused spatial heterogeneity in both Chl-a and TSS time series? Choi et al. (2003) found that
366 relatively low primary production is found near Gyeonggi Bay (A1) and the southwestern KWC (A9 and
367 A10), while central waters of the YS is productive during the field campaign in 1997 (February, April,
368 August, October and December). In addition, high Chl-a concentration was found near the Taean coastal
369 area (A3) and Cheonsu Bay (A4) where there was tidal front extended from the offshore (Choi, 1987;
370 Seung et al., 1990; Choi et al., 1995). Similar spatial pattern was found in the monthly climatology of
371 MODIS-derived Chl-a as previously mentioned (Fig. 3b). In general, chlorophyll dynamics in the coastal
372 zones is influenced by temperature for growth, nutrients loadings, species composition (size fraction) of
373 phytoplankton, light condition, and mixing/stratification. The YS and KWC have many complexities
374 with respect to land-sea hydrology, tidal influences, seasonal bottom cold water mass and current features
375 associated with Kuroshio bifurcations (Lie, 1986; Choi, 1987; Seung et al., 1990; Choi et al., 1995).

376
377 Tidal currents-induced resuspension and transport are dominating processes in TSS dynamics (Lee et al.,
378 2013; Son et al., 2014). Diurnal (hour-to-hour) variations in TSS assessed with GOCI clearly
379 demonstrated that TSS dynamics in Gyeonggi Bay (near A1 and A2) and Wando Coast (near A9 and
380 A10) is strongly influenced by tidal currents, e.g., tidal asymmetry effect in stratification (see the
381 discussion in Son et al., 2014), while other middle regions of the KWC (e.g., Taean Coast, Cheonsu Bay,
382 Saemangeum Dike) do not seem to have as strong tidal effects as Gyeonggi Bay and Wando Coast have
383 because tidal influence and topographical settings are different.

384
385 Although minor discrepancies exist between the two PC1's from MODIS-derived Chl-a and TSS, both
386 time series are found to have strong cross spectral power at the frequency of 1 year (Fig. 6b), which
387 implies that there is a strong seasonality in both properties. Interestingly, the phase between the two is
388 6 months apart (Fig. 6a and 6d). This strong negative cross correlation is presumed to be largely due to
389 strong seasonal variabilities that YS environmental factors have. Son et al. (2014) reported that the
390 sediment dynamics of the YS and East China Sea is characterized with strong seasonality, showing
391 highest in winter and lowest in summer months. This seasonal pattern is related to many factors that also
392 affect SST in the region, such as monsoon, advection, vertical mixing and bottom topography (Furey and
393 Bower, 2005, Xie et al., 2002). In specific, basin scale atmospheric pressure system (i.e., monsoon) and
394 the bathymetry effects play a critical role in creating these seasonal trends because these two factors will
395 change features of wind-induced mixing (waves and surface currents), resuspension, and thus, TSS
396 dynamics, consequently. Likewise, overall chlorophyll dynamics in the coastal zones is strongly

397 influenced by optimal temperature, nutrients and light availability for photosynthesis. Although
398 complicated oceanographic conditions exist, phytoplankton growth generally occurs during spring,
399 summer and fall season in the YS and KWC regions (Choi, 1987; Lie, 1986; Seung et al., 1990; Choi et
400 al., 1995). Therefore, authors speculate that 6-month phase-lag between MODIS-derived Chl-a and TSS
401 is largely due to strong inversed seasonality caused by different sets of drivers both properties have. It
402 is not clear whether there is a certain connection in ecosystem dynamics between the two properties.

403

404 So far, there have been few studies between year-to-year variations of SST in the YS with basin-scale
405 changes, such as linking to ENSO (Park and Oh, 2000; Wu et al., 2005), although some researchers
406 focused on long-term warming trends of SST related to atmospheric patterns (Yeh and Kim, 2010; Park
407 et al., 2015). It has been believed that there is a rather distinct teleconnection between changes in winter
408 SST in the YS and ENSO. The present study found that there was a significant positive cross-correlation
409 between the PC1 of SST measurements from K-MEMS and NIÑO3.4 index (not shown). Interestingly,
410 the teleconnection of the PC1 from the Chl-a time series with NIÑO3.4 differed from the above SST
411 case. Figure 7 presents PC1 (EOF mode 1) from chlorophyll time series overlaid by NIÑO3.4 index that
412 is a representative climate index for ENSO. Positive index represents warmer than normal (El Niño
413 mode) and negative index represents colder than normal (La Niña mode), respectively. Although not
414 significant, it is notable that there is slight negative cross-correlation between the PC1 coefficients and
415 NIÑO3.4 (Fig. 7d), which was also found in K-MEMS measurements with different time-lags (not
416 shown). Authors speculate that this negative relationship may be related to ENSO-induced changes in
417 terrestrial settings (e.g., quality and quantity of riverine discharges), changes in far-field physical
418 processes (e.g., mixing patterns in the offshore of the YS and Kuroshio bifurcations, possibly), and/or
419 changes in phytoplankton physiological responses or community structures. It certainly requires further
420 investigation in the future.

421

422 There are many eutrophication assessment frameworks: Marine Strategy Framework Directive in
423 European Commission; Australian National Water Quality Management Strategy; Oslo Paris (OSPAR)
424 Commission Common Procedure; Water Framework Directive (WFD) in European Union; French
425 Research Institute for Exploration of the Sea (IFREMER) method; Helsinki Commission (HELCOM)
426 Eutrophication Assessment Tool; USA the National Coastal Assessment and National Aquatic Resource
427 Assessment (Park, et al., 2010; Devlin et al., 2011; Ferreira et al., 2010; Dekker and Hestir, 2012).

428 However, few management decisions are made based on satellite-derived products (Schaeffer et al.,
429 2013).

430

431 Good ecosystem-based coastal managements always require comprehensive and quality-assured data and
432 this requirement cannot be fulfilled by only spatio-temporally limited, cost and labor intensive *in situ*
433 monitoring data (Bierman et al., 2011). Remote sensing can provide information embedding various
434 spatio-temporal scales and complex dynamics of coastal processes (Schaeffer et al., 2013; Kratzer et al.,
435 2014). For example, remote-sensing technique successfully monitored toxic cyanobacterial blooms in
436 the Baltic Sea (Kahru et al., 2007; Kononen and Leppanen, 1997), Great Lakes and the eastern USA
437 (Lunetta et al., 2015). Although this kind of success stories encourages management level to incorporate
438 remotely sensing tool as a component of integrated coastal zone management, it should be kept in mind
439 that satellite technique cannot solve all the problems managers and policy makers may have, and that
440 there are technical and logistic limitations to be resolved (e.g., product accuracy, data continuity,
441 programmatic support and cost issues discussed in Schaeffer et al., 2013).

442

443 In conclusion, MODIS-derived water quality indicators from the Korean west coast waters indicate that:
444 1) there is a strong seasonality in decomposed principal components of SST, Chl-a and TSS time series
445 with spatial heterogeneity between the north-south group (Gyeonggi Bay, Mokpo Bay, Wando Coast)
446 and mid-coast group (Cheonsu Bay, Boryeong Coast, Saemangeum Dike); 2) there is a six-month phase-
447 lag between Chl-a and TSS due to strongly inversed seasonality both properties have, which can be
448 explained by different dynamics between the two. Chl-a in the coastal zones is influenced by temperature
449 for growth, while TSS is strongly influenced by tidal forcings and bottom topography; 3) Chl-a may
450 possibly be tele-connected with ENSO events negatively. Remote-sensing technique can provide
451 quantitative and supplemental information and serve as an important decision supporting tool in coastal
452 management.

453

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459

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619 294.

621 **Figure captions**

622

623 Figure 1. Map of the west coast of Korea (West Sea, eastern part of the Yellow Sea), showing 10
624 regions (colored boxes) where satellite data were acquired; and 105 monitoring stations where water
625 quality indicators were measured *in situ* (red dots). These ten regions are delineated by bays and river
626 discharges. Names of bays and coasts representing each area are as follows: Gyeonggi Bay (A1); Asan
627 Bay (A2); Taean Coast (A3); Cheonsu Bay (A4); Boryeong Coast (A5); Seocheon Coast (A6);
628 Saemangeum Dike (A7); Gochang Coast (A8); Mokpo Bay (A9); and Wando Coast (A10). Water
629 quality indicators were seasonally monitored along the west coast of Korea by the Korea Marine
630 Environmental Monitoring System (K-MEMS) since 1997 to the present (a total of 105 stations).

631

632 Figure 2. MODIS-derived long-term climatology images in the west coast of Korea (July 2002-Dec
633 2014). (a) sea surface temperature (SST), (b) chlorophyll-a (Chl-a), and (c) total suspended solids
634 (TSS) of surface waters.

635

636 Figure 3. MODIS-derived monthly climatological images in the west coast of Korea (12-year mean for
637 each month, July 2002-Dec 2014). (a) sea surface temperature (SST), (b) chlorophyll-a (Chl-a), and (c)
638 total suspended solids (TSS) of surface waters.

639

640 Figure 4. eleven-year time series data sets of (a) sea surface temperature (SST), (b) chlorophyll-a (Chl-
641 a), and (c) total suspended solids (TSS) in 10 regions (A1-A10). Solid red lines with square symbols
642 represent quarterly *in situ* measurements from K-MEMS stations, and solid blue lines represent
643 MODIS-derived monthly data.

644

645 Figure 5. Biplots of MODIS-derived (a) chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) and (b) total suspended solids (TSS)
646 from 10 regions. Circles represent two groups of regions revealing spatial heterogeneity along the
647 principal component (PC) 2 axis. Variance explained by 10 PCs are presented for (c) Chl-a and (d)
648 TSS. PC1 and 2 represent temporal and spatial decomposition of the original time series data. The
649 strongest explanation power that PC 1 has is 47.3% (Chl-a) and 74.6% (TSS).

650

651 Figure 6. Time series analysis of chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) and total suspended solids (TSS) derived
652 monthly from MODIS (July 2002-Dec 2014). (a) Principal component 1 (EOF mode 1) of Chl-a time

653 series overlaid by that of TSS time series. (b) Cross spectral power, (c) coherence and (d) cross
654 correlation coefficients for time lags are presented. Horizontal dashed lines in grey and black color in
655 (c) and (d) represent upper (95%) and lower (90%) limits of confidence interval, respectively. The
656 vertical dashed line in (d) represents the point where the two time series have no phase-shift (zero
657 phase-shift).

658

659 Figure 7. Time series analysis of monthly chlorophyll-a (Chl-a) derived from MODIS (July 2002-Dec
660 2014). (a) Principal component 1 (EOF mode 1) of Chl-a time series overlaid by NIÑO3.4 index.
661 Positive index represents warm years when El Niño mode happens and negative index represents cold
662 years when La Niña mode happens. (b) Cross spectral power, (c) coherence and (d) cross correlation
663 coefficients for time lags are presented. Horizontal dashed lines in grey and black color in (c) and (d)
664 represent upper (95%) and lower (90%) limits of confidence interval, respectively. The vertical dashed
665 line in (d) represents the point where the two time series have no phase-shift (zero phase-shift).