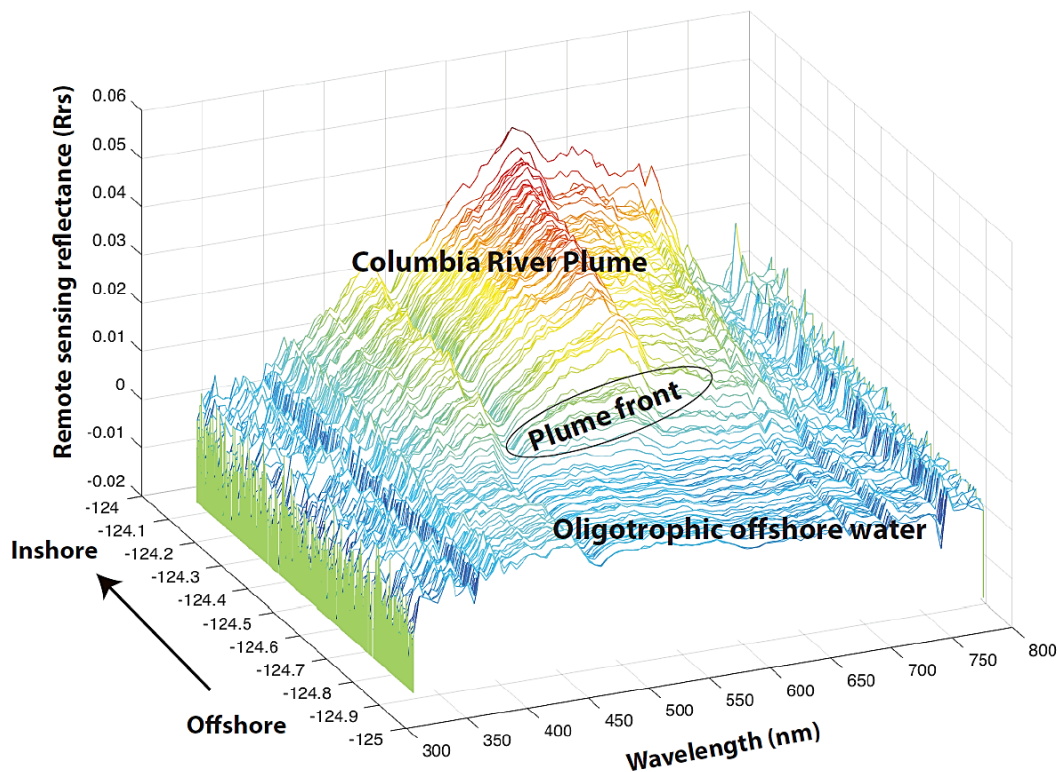


# Pacific Continental Shelf Environmental Assessment (PaCSEA): Characterization of Seasonal Water Masses within the Northern California Current System Using Airborne Remote Sensing off Northern California, Oregon, and Washington, 2011–2012



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By

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Bureau of Ocean Energy Management  
Pacific OCS Region**



## DISCLAIMER

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## CITATION

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## ABOUT THE COVER

Cover image: Remote sensing reflectance hyperspectrograph for PaCSEA Transect 29 depicting a bimodal, tidal river plume off the Colombia River, Washington, January 2011. Courtesy of Jennifer Schulien (USGS).

## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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## List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

Au	Absorbance units
BOEM	Bureau of Ocean Energy Management
Chla	Chlorophyll <i>a</i>
CCS	California Current System
NCCS	Northern California Current System
$a_{CDOM}$	absorption of Colored Dissolved Organic Matter CRP Columbia River Plume
°C	Degrees Celsius
GPS	Global Positioning System
h	Hour
HR3	HydroRad3
km	Kilometers
$L_d$	Downwelling Radiance
$E_d$	Downwelling Irradiance
$L_u$	Upwelling Radiance
$nL_w$	Normalized water-leaving radiance
m	Meters
MODIS	Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
NASA	National Aeronautical and Space Administration
NOAA	National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
nm	Nanometers
NM	Nautical Miles
NPP	Net Primary Production
OWEI	Offshore Wind Energy Infrastructure
OCS	Outer Continental Shelf
PaCSEA	Pacific Continental Shelf Environmental Assessment
Rrs	Remote Sensing Reflectance
SST	Sea Surface Temperature
s	Second
USGS-WERC	U.S. Geological Survey-Western Ecological Research Center
W	Watts



# 1 Introduction

Interest in developing renewable energy in the ocean has recently increased, some of which will include power generation infrastructure and support activities located within continental shelf (and potentially deeper) waters off the U.S. Pacific coast, beyond state waters (i.e., outside three nautical miles [NM]). The Bureau of Ocean Energy Management (BOEM) is currently considering renewable energy proposals off the coast of Oregon, California, and Hawaii (BOEM 2017). The 2011–2012 USGS Pacific Continental Shelf Environmental Assessment study (PaCSEA, Adams et al., 2014) was intended to provide up-to-date information on species composition, distribution, abundance, seasonal variation, and habitat utilization among marine birds and mammals on the outer continental shelf (OCS) within a broad region of the northern California Current System (NCCS; herein, the region between Fort Bragg, California [39.3°N] to Grays Harbor, Washington [47°N]). The NCCS supports abundant populations of seabirds and marine mammals, but comprehensive aerial surveys have not been conducted during certain months (e.g., winter) or were conducted two to four decades ago. Briggs et al., (1987) conducted extensive low-elevation surveys for marine birds and mammals off central and northern California from February 1980 through January 1983, and Bonnell et al., (1992), Briggs et al., (1992), and Green et al., (1992) conducted similar, extensive aerial surveys from April 1989 to September 1990 off Oregon and Washington. Suryan et al., (2012) provided a review of surveys conducted off Oregon and a similar effort also gathered existing seabird abundance data off Washington to create species distribution models using environmental predictors (Menza et al., 2016). *In situ* sensing of the ocean environment in the aerial surveys prior to PaCSEA was limited to sea surface temperature (SST) measured with pyrometry and composite imagery of the ocean collected via earth-orbiting satellites.

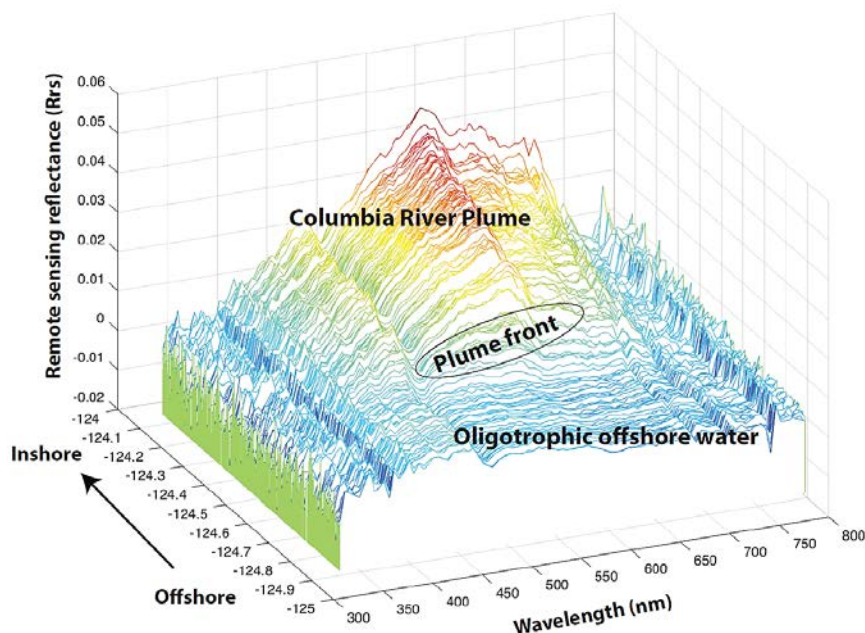
Our three primary objectives for PaCSEA were to (1) conduct aerial at-sea surveys of seabirds and marine mammals in shelf and slope waters off northern California, Oregon, and Washington and summarize species and seasonal at-sea densities, (2) conduct a comparison with existing similar surveys in northern California, Oregon, and Washington, and (3) validate and enhance aerial survey data for numerically abundant indicator species and certain resident breeding and non-resident migratory seabird species. Objective 1 included enhancing *in situ* remote sensing of the ocean by including a hyperspectral radiometer to collect continuous, ocean color data during surveys. Data generated using remote sensing were intended to assist resource managers in the evaluation of proposed renewable energy sites and environmental review of specific project proposals received by BOEM. In addition, new data regarding seabird density distributions along with data on environmental factors will enhance continuing efforts to apply predictive modeling for (1) species distributions (Nur et al., 2011; see also, Data Synthesis and High-resolution Predictive Modeling of Marine Bird Spatial Distributions on the Pacific OCS [BOEM PC-15-01]) and (2) applied vulnerability assessments among seabirds in the CCS to offshore wind energy infrastructure (OWEI; Adams et al., 2016, Kelsey et al., 2018). Here, we report sea surface temperature, derived ocean color chlorophyll *a* (Chl<sub>a</sub>), absorption by colored dissolved organic matter ( $a_{CDOM}$ ), proxy particle load, and statistically-derived water mass classifications for all surveys flown during the 2011–2012 PaCSEA study.

## 1.1 Study region, oceanography, and ecology

The California Current System (CCS) is an eastern boundary current spanning the region from Baja California, Mexico to British Columbia, Canada and extending up to 1,000 km offshore (Huyer 1983, Miller et al., 1999). Despite a poleward decrease in wind-driven Ekman transport, surface concentrations of Chl<sub>a</sub> increase with latitude (Ware and Thomson, 2005). Intermittent upwelling with periods of

relaxation occur at time scales of 2–10 days (coincident with time-scales of phytoplankton blooms). Frontal boundaries related to the Columbia River, submarine canyons that enhance coastal upwelling, internal waves generated by remote winds, broad continental shelves, and coastlines without capes (and associated local bathymetry) make the NCCS one of the most productive areas within the CCS (Hickey and Banas, 2008; Hickey et al., 2006).

The Columbia River plume (CRP) is one of the most important habitat features in the NCCS, supplying 77% of the total freshwater discharge from San Francisco, California to the Strait of Juan de Fuca, Washington (Hickey et al., 1998). The CRP also is a major source of dissolved and particulate organic material, nutrients, and trace metals to the NCCS (Hickey et al., 2005; Aguilar-Islas and Bruland, 2006). Although the Columbia River has relatively low iron concentrations compared with other rivers in the U.S. and is not a major source of nitrogen to the region (nitrogen is primarily utilized in the estuary before entering the Pacific Ocean), upwelling and re-suspension of estuarine sediments during low tide supply enough iron such that nitrogen ultimately limits phytoplankton growth in the region (Bruland et al., 2008; Kudela and Peterson, 2009). The Columbia River provides important nutrients to support marine productivity, especially during periods of weak upwelling (Kudela et al., 2010).



**Figure 1. Remote sensing reflectance hyperspectrograph over the CRP region**

Example of along-transect (#29, Columbia River line) hyperspectrograph of remote sensing reflectance (Rrs) collected from an aircraft-mounted radiometer during survey of the Columbia River. Plume water is easily detectable and contrasts markedly with offshore oligotrophic waters of the inner California Current.

Elevated net primary production (NPP) in this region fuels transfer of energy to higher trophic levels (Kudela et al., 2010). Zooplankton biomass is enhanced within ‘aged’ plume water and concentrated along strong density gradients within the plume’s pycnocline and at the plume boundary (Peterson and Peterson, 2008). South of the CRP, approximately 55-km offshore of Oregon (44°N, 125°W), Heceta Bank is another ‘hotspot’ in the NCCS where a unique biochemical environment promotes high phytoplankton NPP (Hickey and Banas, 2003). Both the CRP and Heceta Bank also support diverse and abundant mesopredators including fishes, seabirds, and marine mammals and are particularly important

when normal conditions change and the subsequent nutrient flux is reduced (i.e., during El Niño events; Ainley et al., 2005; Adams et al., 2012, Zamon et al., 2014). Many fisheries, including Pacific salmon (*Onchyrinchus* spp.), northern anchovy (*Engraulis mordax*), and Pacific sardine (*Sardinops sagax*), exist along the coast, making effective management of coastal and marine resources in the NCCS both ecologically and economically important. To inform management and marine spatial planning, classification of regions of similar water properties over appropriate spatial scales may provide useful descriptions of species habitats (Longhurst et al., 1995; Devred et al., 2007) and help efforts to better predict species distributions (Louzao et al., 2012) and species abundances at sea (Menza et al., 2016).

Here, we use ocean color measurements (Figure 1) and sea surface temperature (SST) data collected with sensors mounted on low-flying aircraft to characterize NCCS water masses and identify patterns among seasons and between years. To accomplish this, we applied k-means clustering to measured and derived ecologically-relevant physical and bio-optical variables (SST, Chla, absorbance by colored dissolved organic matter [ $a_{CDOM}$ ], proxy particle load). These classifications will be used in the future to evaluate species habitat distributions in the NCCS.



**Figure 2. Survey aircraft**

Survey aircraft used during the PaCSEA program. Partenavia P-68 Observer (left; Aspen Helicopters, Oxnard, CA) and Commander AC-500 (right; GoldAero, Arlington, WA). Photo courtesy J. Felis, USGS.

## 2 Methods

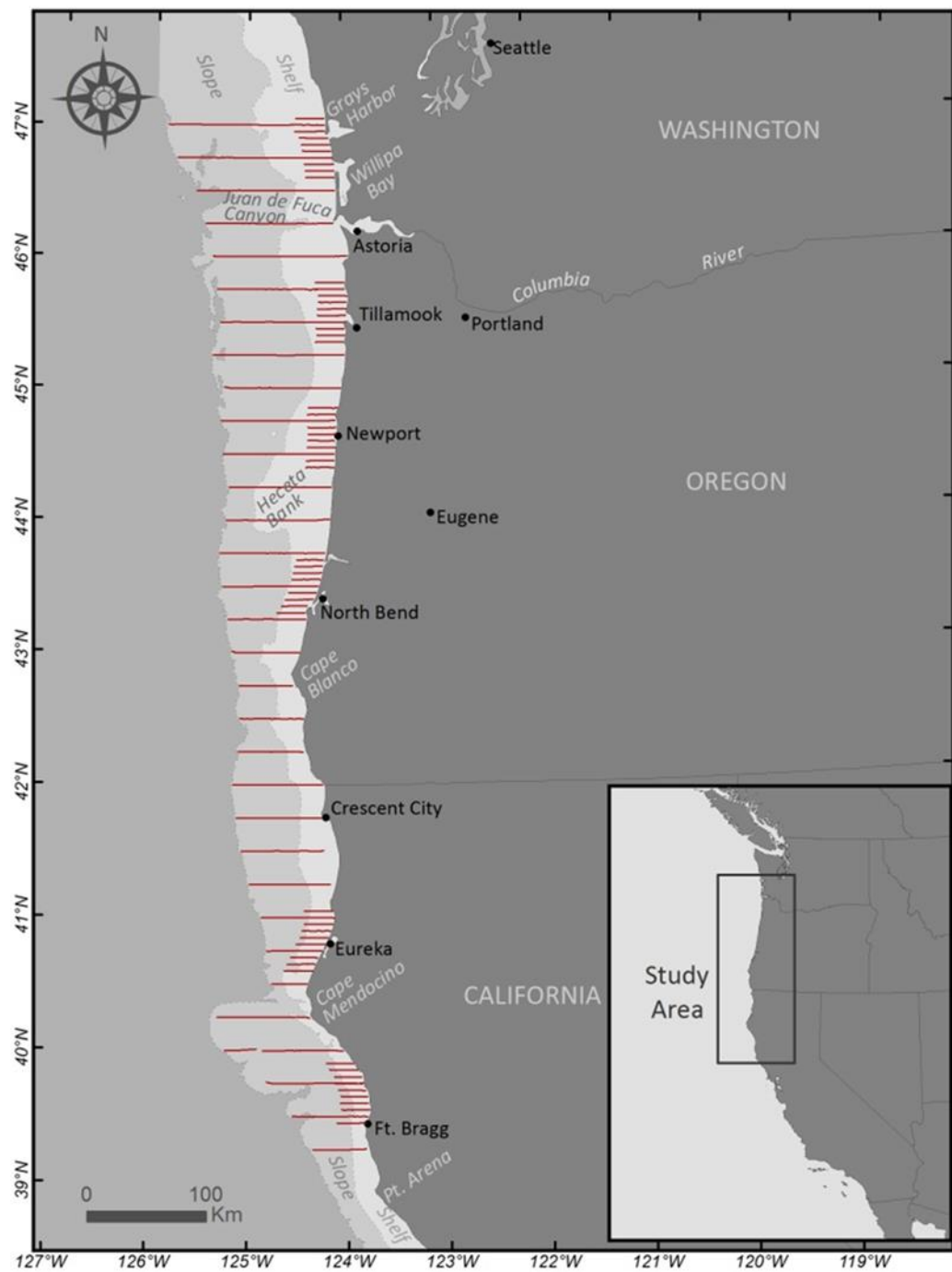
### 2.1 Aerial surveys and aircraft remote sensing

We conducted six low-altitude aerial surveys (twin-engine, fixed, high-wing aircraft: Partenavia P-68, Aspen Helicopters, Oxnard, California, or Commander AC-500, GoldAero, Arlington, Washington; Figure 2). We flew 32 east-west-oriented uniform transects (spaced at 15' latitude [27.8-km] intervals) when possible to the 2000-m isobath (includes shelf, slope, and rise waters) to ensure comparable spatial and temporal coverage with similar historic datasets. The primary survey area extended from Fort Bragg, California (39.3°N) to Grays Harbor, Washington (47°N) and focused on federal waters outside of the 3-mile boundaries (Figure 3). We designed our at-sea surveys so they would be comparable with historic transect lines off northern California (Briggs et al., 1987) and off Oregon and Washington (Briggs et al., 1992). We included six focal-area surveys nested within the overall broad transect survey area at the request of BOEM (Figure 3). Each focal-area survey consisted of ten, 25-km long, parallel transect lines targeting shelf waters and spaced at 6-km intervals. This pattern (broad survey lines and focal-area survey lines) was surveyed during each of three oceanographic seasons: summer during upwelling (23–30 June 2011 and 1–5 July 2012), autumn during upwelling/relaxation (7–19 October 2011 and 19–24 September 2012), and winter during downwelling (14–26 January 2011 and 17–27 February 2012). Aerial survey methods follow Mason et al. (2007) with slight modifications. Surveys were flown at 160 km h<sup>-1</sup>, and we used a Global Positioning System (GPS) unit linked to a laptop computer that allowed us to simultaneously collect coordinates (WGS-84 map datum), sea surface temperature (SST, degrees Celsius [°C]) determined via a belly-mounted pyrometer, and ocean color data via an onboard radiometer. Remote sensing data were collected simultaneously with seabird abundance and distribution observations (see Adams et al., 2014).

### 2.2 Environmental remote sensing

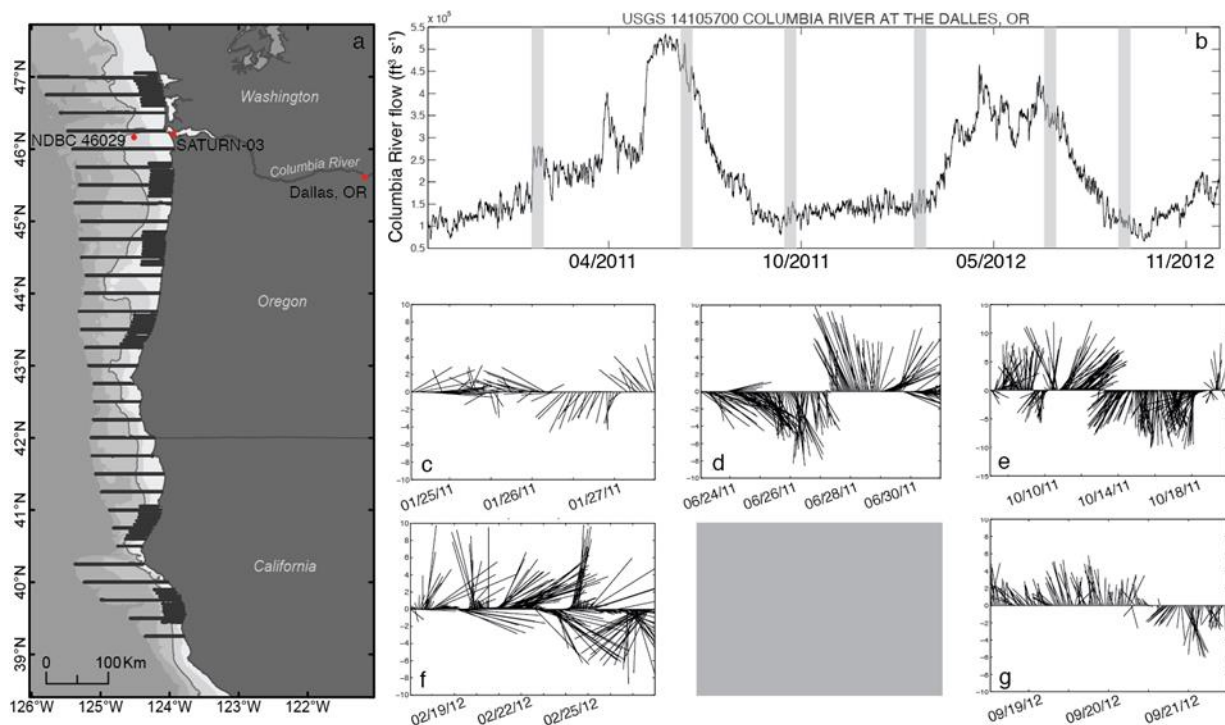
Raw HydroRad3 (HR3; HOBI Labs, Bellevue, Washington) measurements of downwelling irradiance ( $E_d$ ), downwelling radiance ( $L_d$ ), and upwelling radiance ( $L_u$ ) were first calibrated and processed to full engineering units using manufacturer-supplied calibration constants (RadSoft Version 1.1, HOBI Labs, Inc., Bellevue, Washington). These data were imported into Matlab (Version 2011a Student; MathWorks, Natick, MA) and attributed with GPS flight data (geographic coordinates) based on date and time. Full hyperspectral data (0.3-nm intervals) then were reduced to 5-nm intervals using linear interpolation. We distinguished spikes representing bad data from very high real values by examining gradients between sequential points.

The downwelling irradiance ( $E_d$ ) was multiplied by 0.97 following Doxaran et al. (2012) to account for air-sea transmittance and Fresnel reflection. The upwelling radiance ( $L_u$ ) was divided by 0.54 to account for the partial reflection and transmission of the upwelled radiance through the sea surface (Mobley 1999). We corrected  $L_u$  for sun angle and calculated water-leaving radiance ( ${}_nL_w$ ) according to Gordon and Voss (1999). Because the survey aircraft were flown at low altitude (60-m ASL), absorption and scattering in the atmosphere were assumed to be negligible. We calculated remote-sensing reflectance ( $R_{rs}$ ) according to the SeaWiFS Optics Protocol (Mueller et al., 2003). Chla was calculated using the CALFIT algorithm (Kahru et al., 2012), which is an optimization of the fourth-order polynomial coefficients of the OCv-type chlorophyll algorithms refined for use in the CCS. Absorbance by CDOM ( $a_{CDOM}$ ) was estimated using the algorithm originally developed for use with Sea-Viewing Wide Field-of-View Sensor (SeaWiFS) data (Kahru and Mitchell, 2001). The normalized water-leaving radiance at 555 nm ( ${}_nL_w[555]$ , scaled 0–1.0) was used as proxy particle load (Otero and Siegel, 2004).



**Figure 3. Study area**

Pacific Continental Shelf Environmental Assessment (PaCSEA) study area showing 32 broad transects, six focal-area transect zones, and geographic place names referenced in text.



**Figure 4. Survey area, Columbia River flow, and winds**

A map of the survey area with transect lines is shown in panel a. The 100-m, 1000-m, and 2000-m isobaths are shaded. (b) Columbia River flow rates from The Dalles, Oregon. The gray boxes show the survey dates. Data have been smoothed using a running mean. Winds (c-g) from the National Data Buoy #46029 located at the mouth of the Columbia River plume. No wind data available for the July 2012 survey period (gray panel).

We considered excluding all data collected during cloudy to partially cloudy conditions (above the survey aircraft), but this would have drastically reduced the number of remote sensing observations. Clouds alter both the magnitude and spectral shape of incident light, which consequently affected  $nL_w$ . Therefore, we divided spectral  $nL_w$  by the integrated area for the full wavelength range to account for the effect of changing magnitude of incidental light. This normalization was necessary because survey data were collected during both cloudy and cloud-free conditions. Although no correction could be made when the spectral quality of light was altered by clouds, dividing by the integral effectively normalized the spectra to a common scale.

To evaluate coarse-scale, seasonal and inter-annual variability in ocean conditions, we present monthly composite averages of Chla concentrations determined using the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS). Additionally, we compared two sub-regions of daily 1-km MODIS Chla values to HR3-derived measurements to evaluate the ability of the HR3 to retrieve meaningful ocean color data from our low-elevation survey aircraft. To do this, we downloaded MODIS L1B data from the LAADS website (<https://ladsweb.nascom.nasa.gov/data/>) and processed these to L2 data using SeaDAS Version 7.2. To correct MODIS L1B data for atmospheric effects, we used a modified atmospheric correction scheme ( $aer\_opt = 1$ ; relative humidity = 75%; aerosol fraction = 0.01) appropriate for the CCS (Ryan et al., 2009).



## 2.3 Additional environmental data

For 2011–2012, we compiled USGS stream gage river discharge rates for the Columbia River at The Dalles, Oregon (45.608°N, 121.172°W; [http://waterdata.usgs.gov/nwis/inventory/?site\\_no=1410570](http://waterdata.usgs.gov/nwis/inventory/?site_no=1410570); Figure 4). Wind speed and direction data were acquired from the National Data Buoy Center #46029, located near the Columbia River mouth (46.159°N, 124.514°W) ([http://www.ndbc.noaa.gov/station\\_history.php?station=46029](http://www.ndbc.noaa.gov/station_history.php?station=46029); Figure 4), and *in situ* Chla measurements for the Columbia River estuary were made available by the Center for Coastal Margin Observation and Prediction (CMOP) SATURN-03 platform (46.208°N, 123.943°W) ([http://www.stccmop.org/datamart/observation\\_network/fixestation?id=saturn07](http://www.stccmop.org/datamart/observation_network/fixestation?id=saturn07); Figure 4).

## 2.4 K-means cluster analysis

We used k-means cluster analysis (Matlab Student Version 2011a), a feature-based classification technique, to delineate and characterize water masses in the NCCS. Feature-based classification uses the inherent variability in multivariate data to reveal structure, making no *a priori* knowledge necessary (Martin Traykovski and Sosik, 2003; Jain, 2010) and thus, introducing less bias (Palacios et al., 2012). Input variables used in our k-means analysis included SST, log<sub>10</sub> transformed Chla,  $a_{CDOM}$ , and proxy particle load (i.e.,  $nL_w[555]$ ). All variables were re-scaled from 0–1, to weight them equally for our k-means water mass classifications. The k-means clustering analysis computed clusters based on the squared Euclidean distance from the mean of each cluster. For this analysis, with the exception of January 2011 (regionally-limited data set,  $k = 3$ ), we set  $k = 4$ , following Thomas and Weatherbee (2006), who found four water masses to persist in the CRP region of the CCS. We chose k-means cluster analysis rather than hierarchical, or fuzzy c-means clustering, because k-means is considered more robust for clustering data with lower signal-to-noise ratios (Martin Traykovski and Sosik, 2003; Jain, 2010).

# 3 Results and discussion

## 3.1 Aerial survey effort

We conducted replicated surveys off northern California, Oregon, and southern Washington on 14–26 January 2011, 23–30 June 2011, 7–19 October 2011, 17–27 February 2012, 1–5 July 2012, and 19–24 September 2012 (Table 1). Inclement weather occasionally interfered with survey effort. For example, we were not able to complete focal-area surveys during February 2012 within the Nehalem and Grays Harbor target zones, although we were able to complete surveys along several broad lines that overlapped these areas. Also, U.S. Department of the Interior aviation flight restrictions for extended overwater operations constrained our maximum offshore extent to 50 NM during February, July, and September 2012 surveys. This restriction only affected survey coverage of the far offshore slope waters (>200-m depth) off northern Oregon and southern Washington, where the continental shelf broadens. We completed a total 26,752 km of standardized survey effort (not including coastal and offshore deadhead segments between transect lines; Table 1). Effort allocated according to bathymetric domain (i.e., depth strata) was approximately proportional to areas occupied by the bathymetric domains of the shelf-slope region, with additional effort targeting regions of the continental shelf (mostly <200-m depth) within the focal areas. Effort was similar among seasons (winter, summer, and autumn) and between years. With respect to depth strata, 47% (12,646 km) covered the slope domain (200–2000-m depth), 33% (8887 km) covered the inner-shelf (0–100-m depth), and 20% (5219 km) covered the outer-shelf (Table 1).

**Table 1. Summary of low-elevation aerial survey effort (linear km surveyed) during PaCSEA surveys off northern California, Oregon, and southern Washington.**

Year	Month	Survey Dates	Depth Stratum			All Depths
			0–100 m	100–200 m	200–2000 m	
2011	January	January 14–26	1,780	991	2,285	5,056
	June	June 23–30	1,572	874	2,382	4,828
	October	October 7–19	1,487	893	2,277	4,657
2012	February	February 17–27	1,114	752	1,626	3,492
	July	July 1–5	1,451	846	2,055	4,352
	September	September 19–24	1,483	863	2,021	4,367
All Surveys			8,887	5,219	12,646	26,752

### 3.2 Remote sensing

Winter surveys revealed the least amount of regional variability in SST (Figure 5). In January 2011, coolest temperatures (5–6°C) were confined to the relatively small region nearshore off the Columbia River, Willapa Bay, and Grays Harbor. The region of coolest water was more extensive in February 2012 and reached beyond the shelf into the slope domain (i.e., >200 m depth) and farther south off northern Oregon. The onset of regional upwelling during spring and summer caused increased heterogeneity in the SST of the PaCSEA region. In June 2011, relatively warmer waters (16–18°C) emanating from the Columbia River appeared to be transported toward the southwest and extended at least to the slope domain (>200 m depth) off central Oregon (Figure 5). Closer to shore, cold waters (11–12°C) occurred off south-central Oregon north of Cape Blanco (Figure 5). There was no distinct CRP in July 2012, and the region of upwelling did not extend north of Cape Blanco (Figure 5). Fall surveys during October 2011 and September 2012 revealed SST distributions associated with low river flow and regional, autumn relaxation events, though there was a signature of sustained coastal upwelling during September 2012 off central-southern Oregon (Figure 5). October 2011 surveys revealed incursions of warmer waters north of Cape Blanco, Oregon, and south of Cape Mendocino, with small pockets of cooler waters near Cape Mendocino. In September 2012, the signal from warmer offshore waters was evident over the slope domain north of Cape Blanco outside a thin band of cooler waters adjacent to the coast (Figure 5).

Capturing small-scale variability in Chla derived from remote sensing satellite data is particularly challenging in regions like PaCSEA that have persistent seasonal cloud cover. Monthly 4-km MODIS composite Chla images during January 2011 and February 2012 revealed the least amount of variability and the least concentrations overall in regional surface Chla throughout the NCCS (Figure 6). The airborne HR3 measurements show the opposite pattern, with greater median Chla concentrations (Figure 7, Table 3). This discrepancy likely results from small-scale (daily, ≤1-km) variability missed when data are averaged over greater spatiotemporal scales (e.g., MODIS composite imagery). Additionally, the relatively short snapshots acquired from *in situ* airborne measurements are not necessarily representative of average seasonal conditions, and therefore monthly MODIS composites are useful for providing seasonal context.

Although summer Chla concentrations were greatest over the inner-shelf with some discrete hotspot regions, satellite and airborne data demonstrated important differences in distribution patterns. During June 2011, the greatest satellite-based Chla concentrations were associated with the Cape Blanco/Heceta Bank region off Oregon and the Cape Mendocino region off northern California (Figure 6). *In situ* HR3 data revealed comparable Chla data to satellite Chla concentrations in the Cape Blanco/Heceta Bank



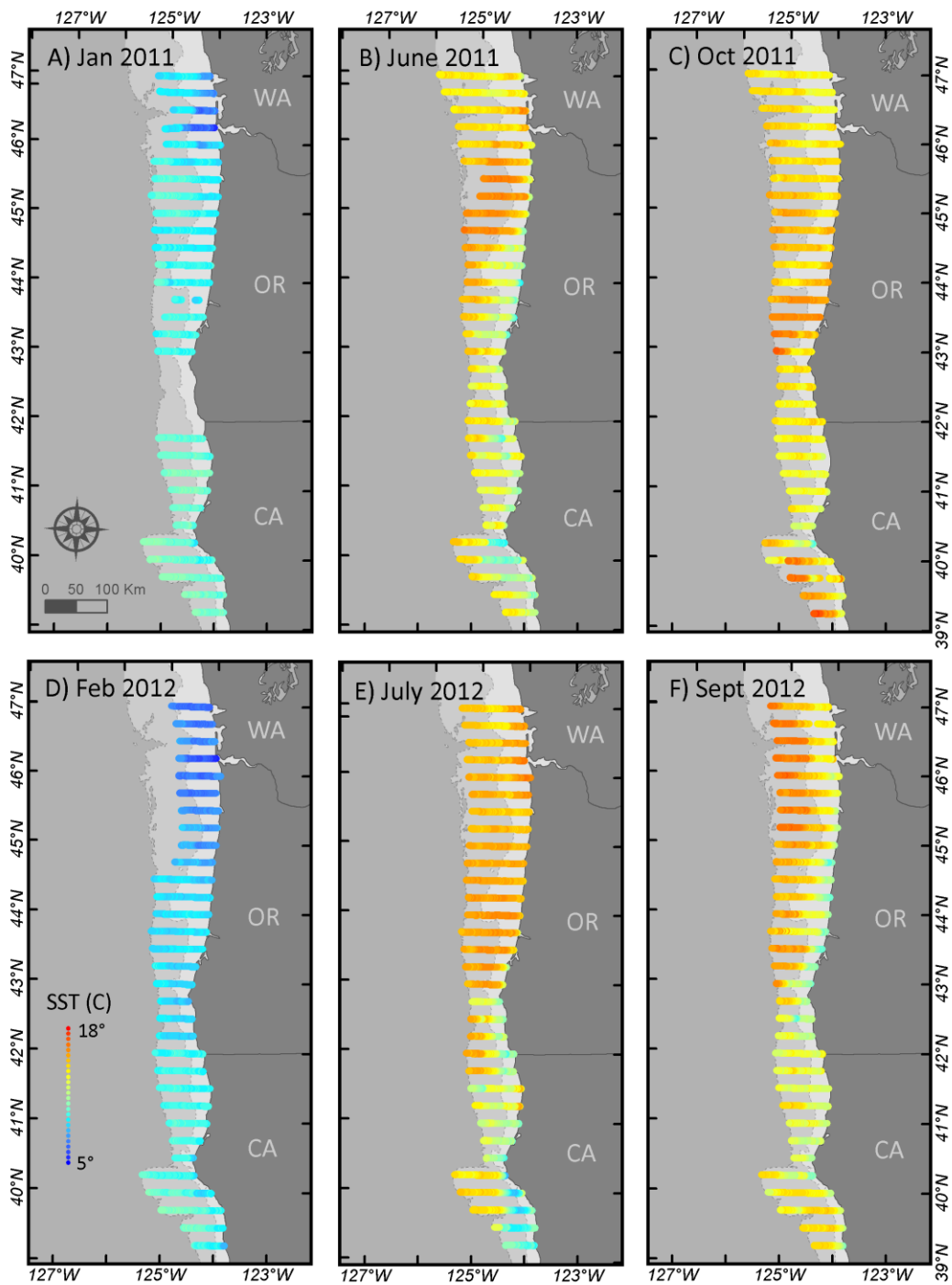
region but lesser magnitude Chla off the Columbia River mouth (Figures 6, 7). Satellite Chla during July 2012 displayed a similar pattern as June 2011, but areas of relatively greater Chla concentrations extended farther north through central Oregon, but not south of Cape Mendocino (Figure 6). The SW offshore bulge of the CRP observed during June 2011 is not as extensive during July 2012 and slightly greater Chla concentrations were instead elevated to the north and south of the Columbia River mouth along the inner shelf (Figures 6, 7).

Patterns in autumn Chla distributions were generally consistent between MODIS and HR3 platforms (Figures 6, 7). October 2011 satellite and HR3 data revealed greatest surface Chla concentrations near the shelf break off Grays Harbor, Washington, near the Columbia River Plume, near the California/Oregon border, and south of Cape Mendocino, California (Figures 6, 7). During September 2012, greatest Chla concentrations were observed off south-central Oregon near Heceta Bank and over the inner-shelf from Cape Blanco, Oregon south to Cape Mendocino, California (Figures 6, 7).

We observed important differences between satellite and airborne Chla measurements in the winter and summer surveys, which highlights the benefits of collecting ocean color data from low-flying aircraft. The ability to survey during periods when cloud cover would obscure satellite remote sensing is particularly critical in regions of persistent cloud cover. Furthermore, airborne data collected during *in situ* sampling should be more closely associated with simultaneous observations of marine birds and mammals, thereby providing an alternative to more limited and spatiotemporally mismatched composite satellite data.

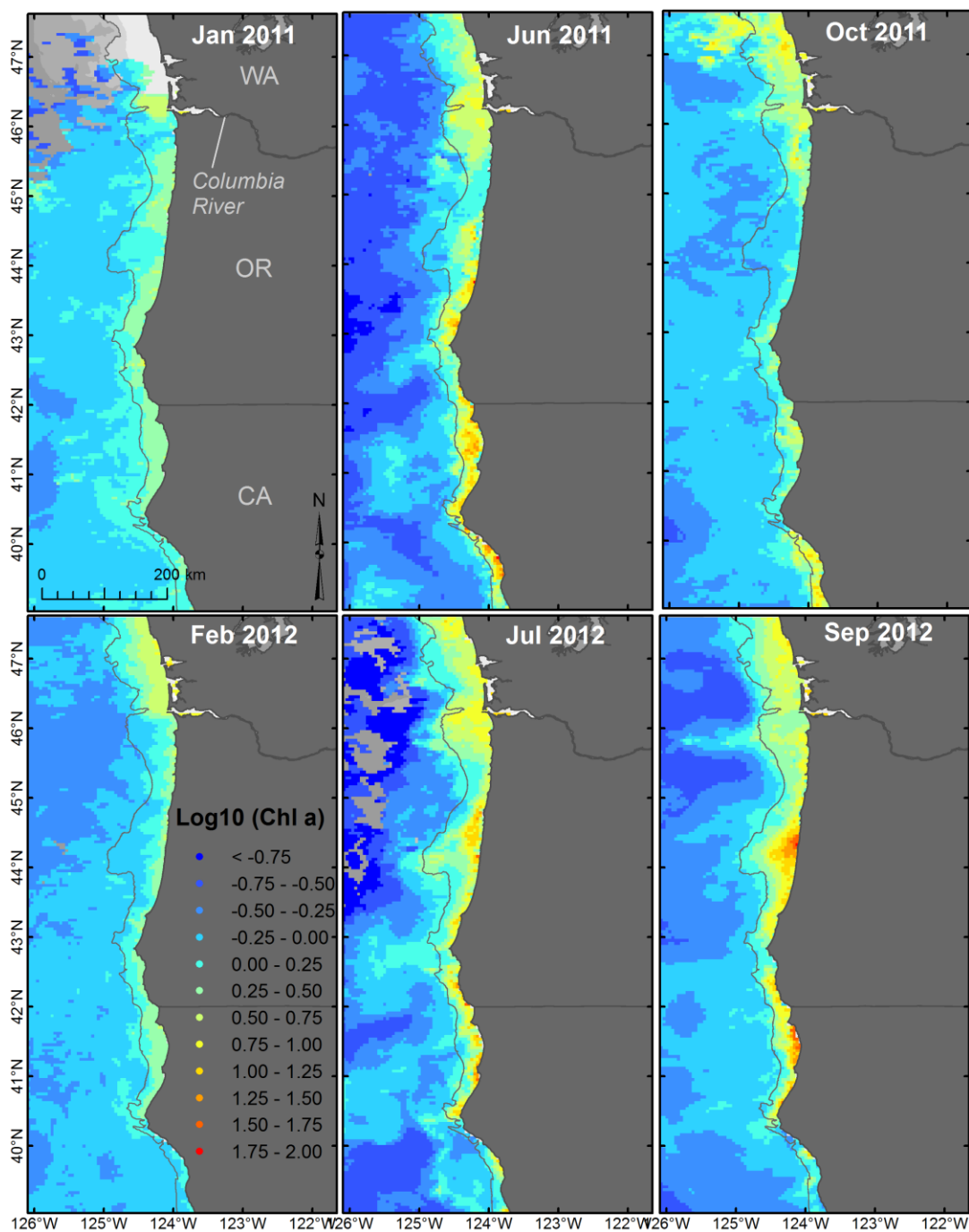
**Table 2. Airborne flights with concurrent environmental data. USGS stream gage river discharge rates from The Dalles, Oregon are in units of cubic feet per second. Wind speed and direction are observations from the National Data Buoy #46029, located near the Columbia River mouth. Wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) is averaged over an eight-min period and wind direction is the direction the wind is coming from in degrees clockwise from true north. Median values are in parentheses.**

Flight Period	Latitude Range	Longitude Range	% Usable HR3 Data	River Flow	Wind Speed	Wind Direction
25–27 January 2011	45.496N–47.069N	125.327W–123.956W	99	$1.86 \times 10^5$ – $2.67 \times 10^5$	0–10.6 (3.9)	4–359 (176)
23–30 June 2011	39.250N–47.050N	125.899W–123.791W	96	$4.16 \times 10^5$ – $4.79 \times 10^5$	0.2–10.5 (5.4)	1–358 (277)
7–19 October 2011	39.250N–47.051N	125.889W–123.780W	99	$1.10 \times 10^5$ – $1.44 \times 10^5$	0.1–12.6 (6.2)	1–360 (184)
18–27 February 2012	39.249N–47.006N	125.362W–123.794W	94	$1.30 \times 10^5$ – $1.63 \times 10^5$	0.1–14.1 (6.5)	1–358 (201)
1–5 July 2012	39.247N–47.053N	125.416W–123.783W	96	$3.63 \times 10^5$ – $3.97 \times 10^5$	1.4–10.1 (6.4)	1–360 (334)
19–24 September 2012	39.250N–47.052N	125.421W–123.784W	99	$1.05 \times 10^5$ – $1.24 \times 10^5$	0–11.3 (5.2)	1–359 (172)



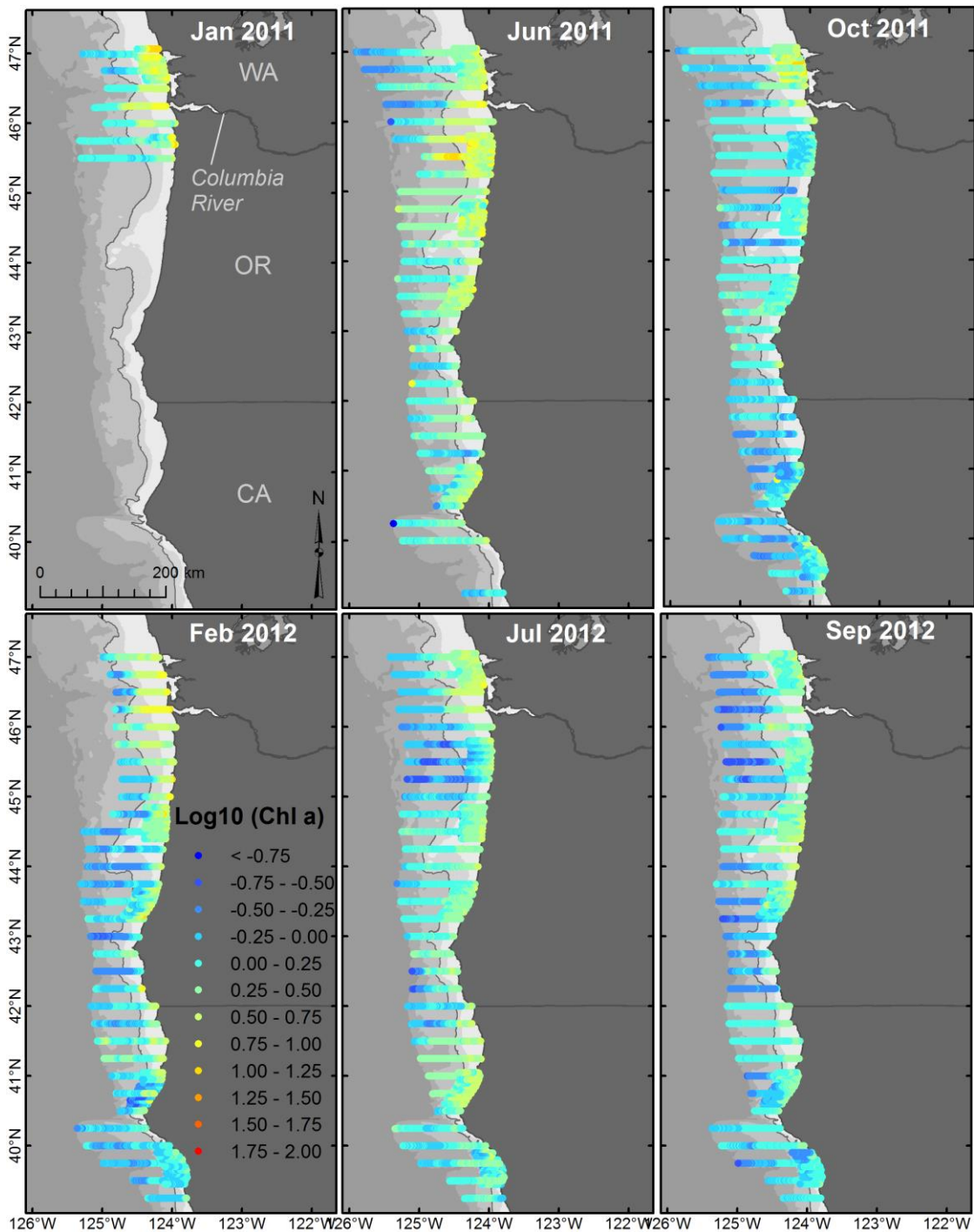
**Figure 5. Sea surface temperature**

Sea surface temperature (SST, °C) from aircraft-mounted infrared pyrometer collected along replicated, broad transect surveys during winter (A, D), summer (B, E), and fall (C, F). Gaps in (A) off southern Oregon represent missing temperature data only and do not reflect patterns in continuous survey trackline effort.



**Figure 6. Monthly MODIS satellite imagery**

Monthly composite Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) satellite imagery (NASA Aqua MODIS Chlorophyll a,  $\log_{10} \text{ mg Chl a m}^{-3}$ ; 4-km pixel resolution) for the northern California Current Region during each of the six PaCSEA survey windows. NASA's OceanColor Web distributes chlorophyll a concentration data from NASA's Aqua Spacecraft. Available via <https://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/> (accessed 28 August 2019).

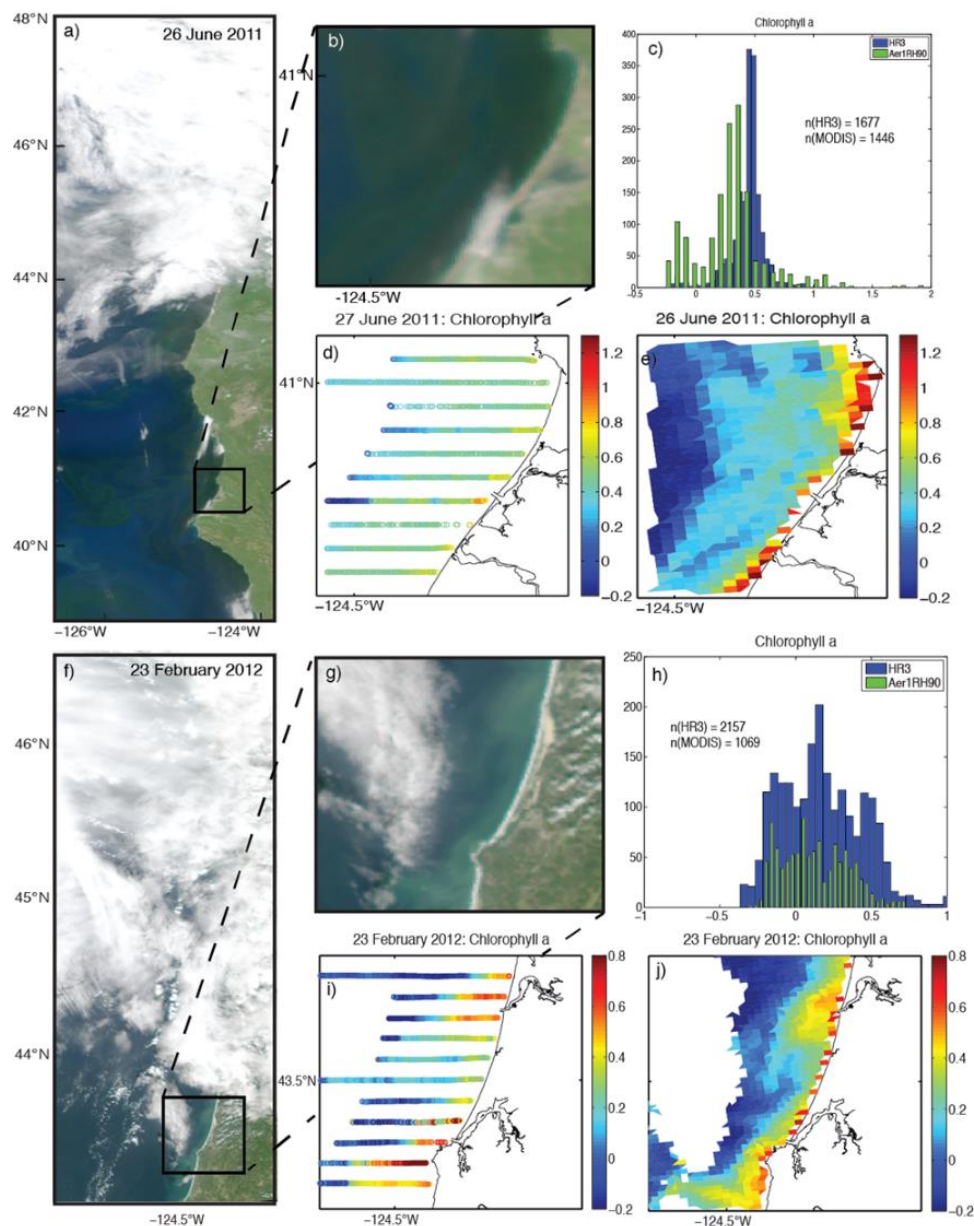


**Figure 7. Chlorophyll a concentrations derived from HydroRad3 ocean color**

Chlorophyll a concentrations ( $\log_{10}[\text{mg Chl } a \text{ m}^{-3}]$ ) derived from airborne HR3 data shown on the same scale for all surveys, and with the same color-ramp as Figure 6.

### 3.2.1 Airborne HR3 matchups with MODIS satellite data

The best two MODIS to HR3 matchups are shown in Figure 8. Only subsets of the MODIS images were cloud-free and thus available for matchup to HR3 data. Using the modified atmospheric correction scheme, the distributions of Chla values between sensors were similar (Figure 8c, h) and the structure and gradients of Chla in the HR3 data were realistic and comparable with MODIS images (Figure 8d, e, i, j).



**Figure 8. MODIS satellite remote-sensing matchups with HydroRad3**

MODIS satellite remote-sensing matchups to HydroRad3 *in situ* chlorophyll *a* data. Panels a-e show data from 26–27 June 2011 and panels f–j show data from 23 February 2012 included are zoomed visible images (b, g), histograms showing frequency (y-axes) distributions (c, h), and survey and MODIS chlorophyll *a* concentrations ( $\log_{10}$  [ $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ]) (d, e) and (i, j), respectively.



### 3.3 K-means clustering analysis

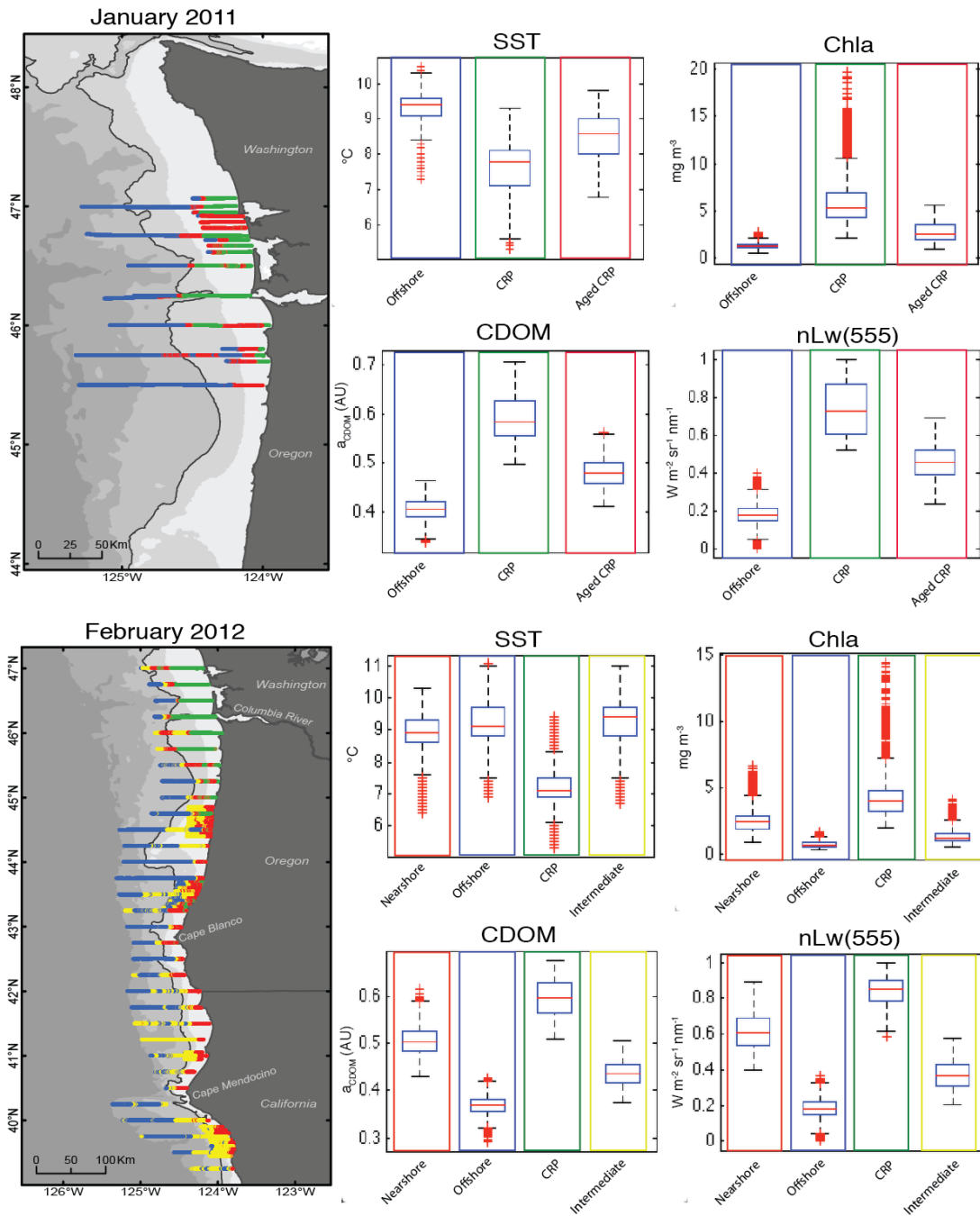
#### 3.3.1 Winter surveys

The winter 2011 survey period lasted from 14–26 January, but HR3 ocean color data were only available for the northern section of the survey region, including the CRP sampled during 25–27 January. Columbia River discharge during the survey period was moderate and relatively constant, and wind stress was relatively weak (Table 2, Figure 4). K-means clustering identified a bi-directional *CRP* water mass (hereafter, italics are used to identify water mass descriptors) that bulged at the Columbia River mouth (Figure 9). *CRP* was the coldest water mass (7.8°C median value; Table 3) and had the greatest median Chla (5.3 mg m<sup>-3</sup>),  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$  (0.6 Au), and proxy particle load (0.7) (Table 3). *Offshore* water was the warmest (9.4°C median value; Table 3) and had the lowest median Chla (1.3 mg m<sup>-3</sup>),  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$  (0.4 Au) and proxy particle load (0.2) (Table 3, Figure 9). *Aged CRP* water had intermediate values for all variables, and clustering analysis likely identified waters where *CRP* water mixed with *offshore* water (SST = 8.6°C, Chla = 2.6 mg m<sup>-3</sup>,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$  = 0.5 Au, proxy particle load = 0.5) (Table 3). The boundary between *aged CRP* and *offshore* waters was located over the continental shelf except for the transect intersecting the Columbia River mouth, where *CRP* water extended beyond the shelf break (>200-m depth; Figure 9).

The 2012 winter survey period (18–27 February) was characterized by moderate river flow (less flow than during the 2011 winter survey period) and variable, strong winds (Table 2, Figure 4). K-means clustering again identified a bi-directional *CRP* water mass (44.5°N to 47°N, the northern extent of survey area). Similar to the 2011 winter survey, *CRP* water was the coldest water mass (7.1°C) and had the greatest median Chla (3.9 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) (Table 3, Figure 9). More extensive regional coverage and best clustering with  $k = 4$  allowed identification of more variable watermasses during winter 2012. *Aged CRP* identified during 2011 were better described by *nearshore* and *intermediate* waters, with the boundary between the two types located over the outer continental shelf between the 100-m and 200-m isobaths. Kudela et al. (2006) found the continental shelf was a natural boundary between optically-distinct shelf and open ocean waters, consistent with the frontal region identified here using k-means clustering. The *intermediate* water mass had similar SST compared with *nearshore* and *offshore* waters, and extended over Heceta Bank off Oregon. The SST of *nearshore* water (8.9°C) was similar to *intermediate* (9.4°C) and *offshore* (9.1°C) waters and had greater Chla (2.4 mg m<sup>-3</sup>),  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$  (0.6 Au), and proxy particle load (0.7) compared with *intermediate* and *offshore* waters (Table 3, Figure 9). This pattern indicated that upwelling did not appear to be the primary mechanism supplying nutrients to this water mass, consistent with expectations during no/low upwelling during winter (Banas et al., 2009). We suggest stream/river discharge and interaction with the bottom through enhanced mixing during storm events were the primary sources of nutrient input during this winter survey period.

**Table 3. Summary of k-means clustering results. Color ID refers to water mass descriptors presented in Figures 9–11. Percent of pixels (a measure of area), and ranges for sea surface temperature (SST), chlorophyll *a* (Chla; mg Chla m<sup>-3</sup>), absorption coefficient of colored dissolved organic material (a<sub>CDOM</sub>) and detritus, and a proxy particle load (n<sub>Lw</sub>[555]) are shown. a<sub>CDOM</sub> and proxy particle load values have been rescaled from 0–1.0; median values are in parentheses.**

Survey	Water Mass #	Water mass Descriptor	Color ID	% Pixels	SST (°C)	Chla (mg m <sup>-3</sup> )	a <sub>CDOM</sub> (Au)	Particle load
Jan-2011	1	Offshore	Blue	46	7.3–10.5 (9.4)	0.4–2.3 (1.3)	0.3–0.5 (0.4)	0–0.4 (0.2)
	2	CRP	Green	30	5.3–9.3 (7.8)	2.1–19.8 (5.3)	0.5–0.7 (0.6)	0.5–1.0 (0.7)
	3	Aged CRP	Red	24	6.8–9.8 (8.6)	1.0–5.6 (2.6)	0.4–0.6 (0.5)	0.2–0.7 (0.5)
Jun-2011	1	Aged CRP	Yellow	25	13.0–16.3 (14.6)	1.0–8.3 (2.3)	0.4–0.5 (0.5)	0.3–0.7 (0.3)
	2	CRP	Green	10	10.0–16.7 (15.0)	1.9–18.4 (4.9)	0.5–0.7 (0.6)	0.5–1.0 (0.6)
	3	Offshore	Blue	29	10.4–15.9 (13.8)	0.3–2.5 (1.1)	0.3–0.5 (0.4)	0–0.5 (0.2)
	4	Nearshore	Red	36	7.8–13.4 (11.9)	1.0–10.0 (2.7)	0.4–0.6 (0.5)	0.2–0.9 (0.3)
Oct-2011	1	Warm offshore	Red	37	13.5–16.8 (14.8)	0.6–4.9 (1.5)	0.4–0.5 (0.4)	0.1–0.6 (0.3)
	2	CRP & nearshore	Green	11	11.4–15.7 (13.3)	1.0–19.4 (2.7)	0.4–0.7 (0.5)	0.4–1.0 (0.6)
	3	Offshore	Blue	34	10.5–17.3 (13.8)	0.3–1.5 (0.7)	0.3–0.5 (0.4)	0–0.4 (0.2)
	4	Intermediate	Yellow	18	9.8–14.8 (13.3)	0.7–6.1 (1.4)	0.4–0.5 (0.4)	0.2–0.8 (0.4)
Feb-2012	1	Nearshore	Red	19	6.4–10.3 (8.9)	0.9–6.6 (2.4)	0.5–0.9 (0.6)	0.4–1.0 (0.7)
	2	Offshore	Blue	34	6.9–11.1 (9.1)	0.3–1.6 (0.6)	0.3–0.6 (0.4)	0–0.4 (0.2)
	3	CRP	Green	11	5.3–9.4 (7.1)	1.9–14.4 (3.9)	0.5–0.9 (0.6)	0.5–1.0 (0.8)
	4	Intermediate	Yellow	35	6.7–11.0 (9.4)	0.5–4.1 (1.2)	0.4–0.6 (0.5)	0.2–0.6 (0.4)
Jul-2012	1	Intermediate	Yellow	31	12.7–16.4 (15.2)	0.8–2.5 (1.6)	0.4–0.5 (0.4)	0.3–0.6 (0.4)
	2	CRP & nearshore	Green	21	11.8–16.7 (15.1)	1.3–7.3 (2.7)	0.4–0.6 (0.5)	0.4–0.9 (0.5)
	3	Offshore	Blue	22	11.6–15.8 (14.8)	0.2–1.2 (0.7)	0.3–0.4 (0.4)	0–0.4 (0.2)
	4	Nearshore south	Red	26	7.9–13.2 (11.2)	0.5–7.1 (2.0)	0.4–0.7 (0.5)	0.2–1.0 (0.5)
Sep-2012	1	Intermediate	Yellow	32	10.1–16.5 (13.6)	0.4–2.0 (1.1)	0.3–0.5 (0.4)	0.2–0.5 (0.3)
	2	Nearshore	Red	26	9.2–12.9 (11.6)	0.6–5.8 (1.8)	0.4–0.5 (0.4)	0.3–1.0 (0.5)
	3	Offshore north	Blue	19	11.3–16.9 (15.4)	0.3–1.1 (0.4)	0.3–0.4 (0.4)	0–0.4 (0.2)
	4	CRP	Green	23	12.1–15.9 (13.8)	0.9–6.8 (1.8)	0.4–0.6 (0.5)	0.3–0.9 (0.6)



**Figure 9. K-means results for winter surveys**

Water mass classifications are indicated by color. The box plots on the right show the distribution of sea surface temperature (SST), chlorophyll a (Chla), absorption of colored dissolved organic material ( $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ ) and detritus, and proxy particle load ( $n\text{Lw}[555]$ , scaled 0–1.0) for each water mass. For whisker plots, red horizontal line indicates the the median, and the bottom and top edges of the box indicate the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles, respectively. The whiskers extend to the most extreme data points not considered outliers, and the outliers are plotted individually using the red '+' symbol.



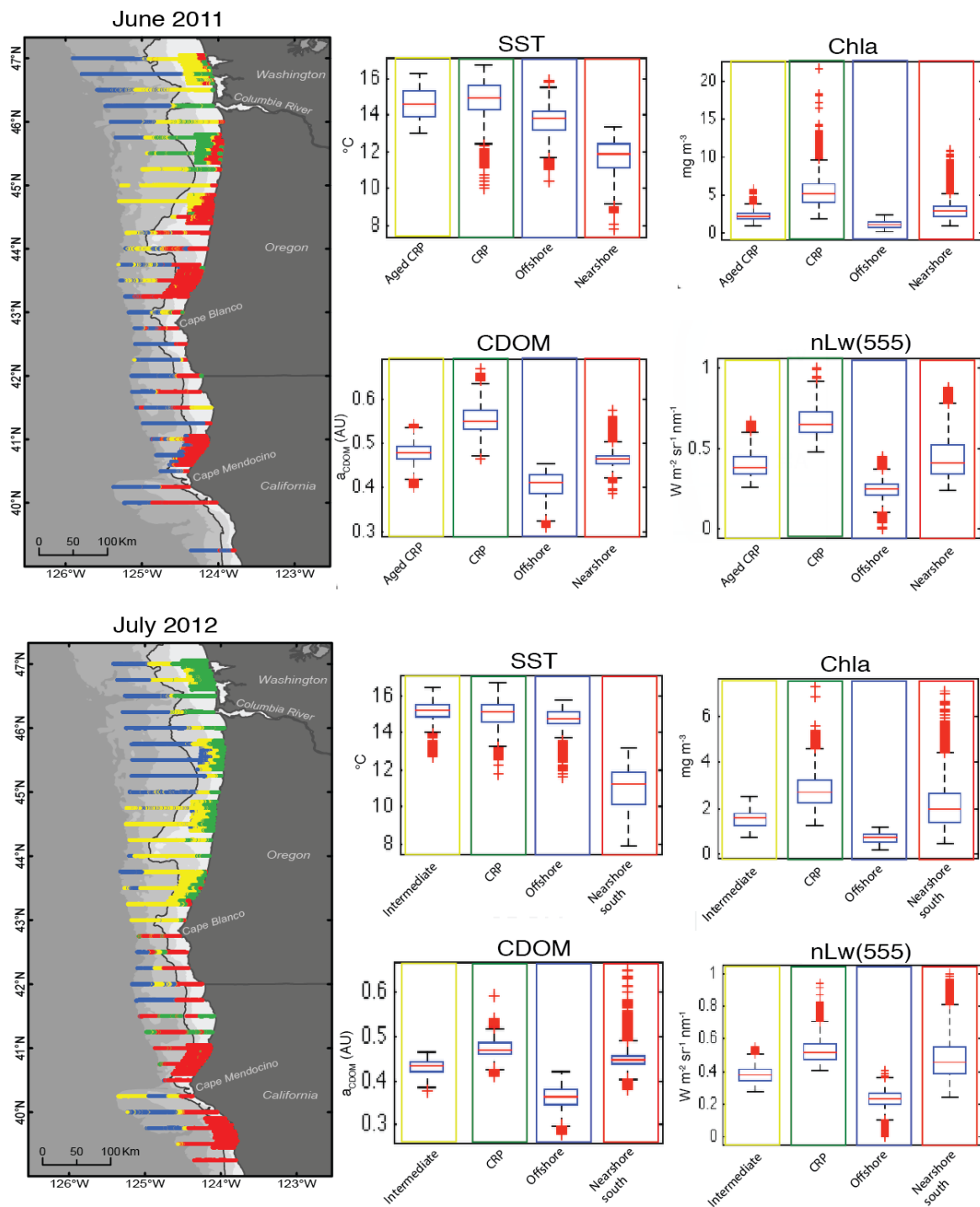
### 3.3.2 Summer surveys

During summer 2011, we sampled from 23–30 June. River discharge was the greatest recorded throughout any of the survey periods, and the wind was relatively strong, changing direction partway through the survey (Table 2, Figure 4). *CRP* water clustered separately from *aged plume* water, which extended about 200 km southwest from the Columbia River mouth (Figure 10). The SST of the *CRP* water was similar to *aged plume* water (15.0°C versus 14.6°C), but *CRP* water had greater Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load (4.9 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.6 Au, and 0.6 versus 2.3 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.5 Au, and 0.3, respectively; Table 3, Figure 10). *Offshore* water extended the length of the survey area and had the lowest median Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load (1.1 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.4 Au, and 0.2, respectively). The median SST (13.8°C, Table 3, Figure 10) was intermediate compared with the other water masses identified. *Nearshore* (newly upwelled) water was the coldest (11.9°C) and had similar Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load as the *aged plume* (2.7 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.5 Au, and 0.3, respectively, versus SST = 14.6°C, 2.3 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.5 Au, and 0.3, respectively; Table 3, Figure 10). The boundary between these two water masses was located at the shelf break or offshore (Figure 10).

During the July 2012 survey period, the boundaries of the *CRP* were less distinct and different from clusters observed in 2011. We identified a unified cluster as *plume/nearshore* water (Figure 10). This water mass formed a bulge at the mouth of the Columbia River and extended northward (Figure 10). Very nearshore water south to Cape Blanco (<100 m depth) also clustered with this water mass. *Intermediate* water bordered the plume and extended south along the coast to Cape Blanco and across the shelf break (Figure 11). South of Cape Blanco, *nearshore south* water was colder (11.2°C) and had greater Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load (2.0 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.5 Au, and 0.5, respectively; Table 3, Figure 10), indicative of strong upwelling at Cape Mendocino and with the presence of a frontal boundary extending offshore. This thermal frontal boundary is well documented (Barth et al., 2000; Huyer et al., 2005; Venegas et al., 2008) and is hypothesized to be a response to differential forcing combined with bathymetry and coastline orientation. *Offshore* water, unlike the two nearshore water masses, extended the entire length of the survey and had the lowest median Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load (0.7 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.4 Au, and 0.2, respectively; Table 3; Figure 10).

*CRP* Chla concentrations in June 2011 and July 2012 ranged from 1.6–18.4 mg m<sup>-3</sup> (median = 4.9 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) and 12.3–16.7 mg m<sup>-3</sup> (median = 15.2 mg m<sup>-3</sup>), respectively. Chla at SATURN-03, located inside the Columbia River mouth (Figure 4), in June 2011 ranged from 2.5–8.0 mg m<sup>-3</sup> and July 2012 ranged from 2.5–6.0 mg m<sup>-3</sup>. In June 2011, river flow was high and the core plume was relatively small. Although upwelling was occurring (indicated by low coastal SST in the region), the range of plume Chla values overlapped with Chla concentrations measured in the estuary. However, the range of Chla in *aged plume* water was lower than the *CRP* perhaps indicating mixing effects or consumption by grazers. This is consistent with Peterson and Peterson (2008) who observed the greatest zooplankton concentrations in older, aged plume water. Likewise, we might expect to find greater relative abundances of mesotrophic fish and seabirds within *aged plume* water.

Conversely in July 2012, *CRP* & *nearshore* Chla concentrations were much higher than in the estuary. Relatively homogenous SST values across the continental shelf indicated that weak or no upwelling occurred north of Cape Blanco just prior to or during the July 2012 survey period. Elevated Chla concentrations observed in the *CRP* may have resulted from a northward flowing plume that blocked southward flow of California Current water, causing this water mass to be retained on the continental shelf, and consequently creating a more stable environment to promote phytoplankton growth. However, these data only provided a snapshot for the cumulative effects of multiple, dynamic ocean processes (i.e., tides, internal waves, upwelling preceding survey period) which also may have contributed to the observed pattern.



**Figure 10. K-means results for summer surveys**

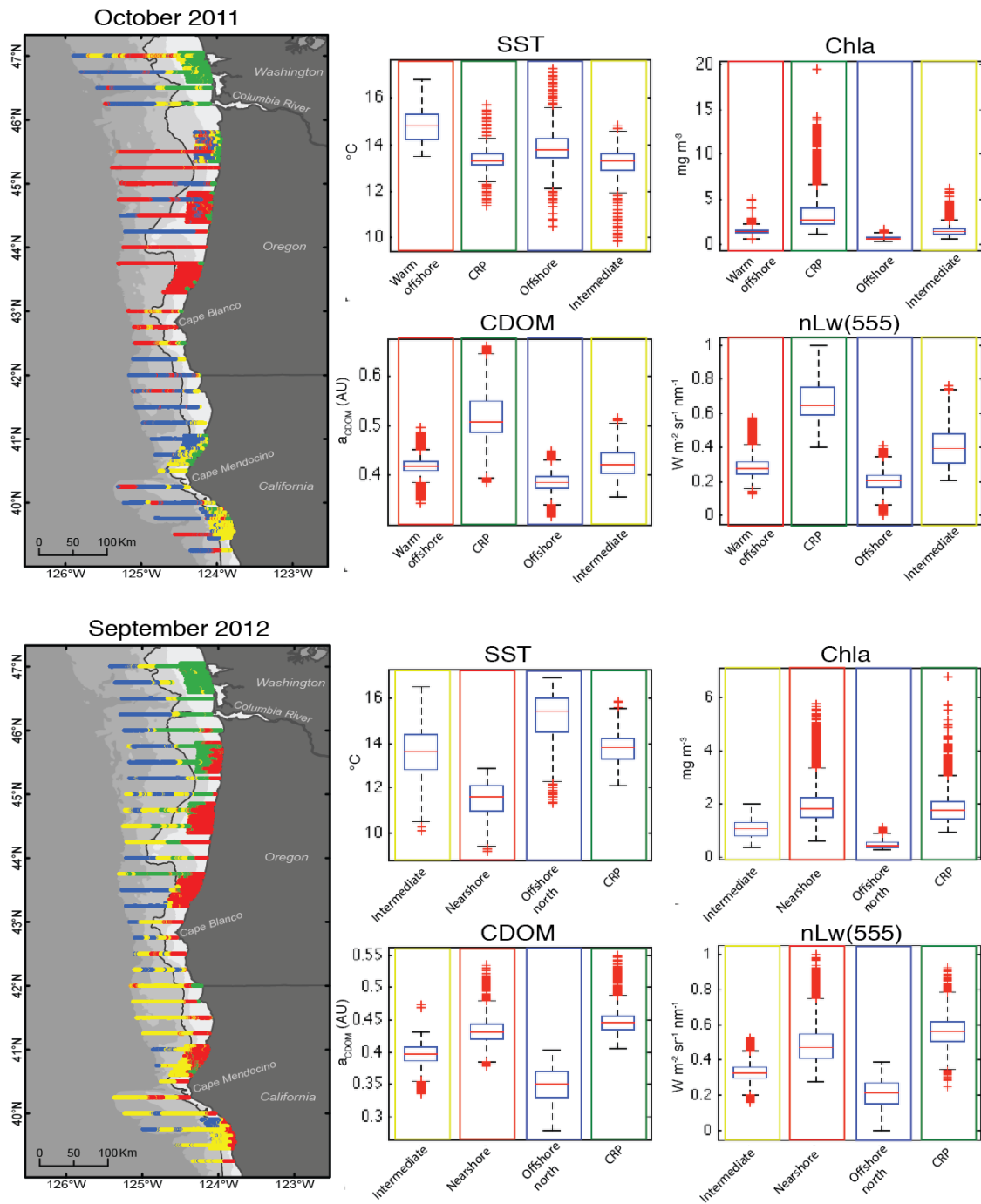
Water mass classifications are indicated by color. The box plots on the right show the distribution of sea surface temperature (SST), chlorophyll a (Chla), absorption of colored dissolved organic material ( $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ ) and detritus, and proxy particle load ( $nLw[555]$ , scaled 0–1.0) for each water mass. For whisker plots, red horizontal line indicates the the median, and the bottom and top edges of the box indicate the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles, respectively. The whiskers extend to the most extreme data points not considered outliers, and the outliers are plotted individually using the red '+' symbol.

### 3.3.3 Autumn surveys

The Autumn surveys (7–19 October 2011) occurred during the lowest Columbia River flow rates when wind speeds were among the greatest observed (Figure 4). K-means clustering identified *CRP* water extended offshore and north of the river mouth (Figure 11). Very nearshore water south of the plume and water around Cape Mendocino (*CRP* & *nearshore* water) had the greatest Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$  and proxy particle load, and clustered with *CRP* water (13.3°C, 2.7 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.5 Au, and 0.6, respectively; Table 3, Figure 11). *Intermediate* water (13.3°C, 1.4 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.4 m<sup>-1</sup>, and 0.4), both at the *CRP* boundary and around Cape Mendocino, likely resulted from mixing of *CRP* & *nearshore* water with *warm offshore* water (14.8°C, 1.5 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.4 m<sup>-1</sup>, and 0.3; Table 3, Figures 5, 11). A second *offshore* water mass extended the full latitudinal range of the survey area, and had the lowest median Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load (13.8°C, 0.7 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.4 Au, and 0.2, respectively; Table 3, Figure 11). We observed high Chla values north of the *CRP* during October 2011 (<100 m depth; >15 mg m<sup>-3</sup>). This pattern is similar to July 2012, and also indicates a northward flowing plume retained on the Washington shelf. It is possible that an additional nutrient source was entrained in the plume, allowing accumulation of phytoplankton biomass and greater Chla at the surface.

In contrast to October 2011, during 19–24 September 2012, we sampled during some of the weakest wind speeds observed. The *CRP* was bi-directional and extended southwestward near Heceta Bank. Isolated observations of similar waters occurred very nearshore between Capes Blanco and Mendocino (Figure 11). *CRP* water (13.8°C, 1.8 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.5 Au, and 0.6) had similar median SST as *intermediate* water (13.6°C, 1.1 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.4 Au, 0.3), but had greater Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load (Table 3, Figure 11). *Nearshore* water extended from south of the Columbia River to south of Cape Mendocino over a large portion of the continental shelf. This was the coldest water mass, with Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load similar to the *CRP* (11.6°C, 1.8 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.4 Au, and 0.5, respectively; Table 3, Figure 11). *Offshore* water was located predominantly north of Cape Blanco, and had the warmest SST with the lowest Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load (15.4°C, 0.4 mg m<sup>-3</sup>, 0.4 m<sup>-1</sup>, and 0.2, respectively; Table 3, Figure 11). The majority of observations were classified as *intermediate*, with SST similar to the *CRP*, and Chla,  $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ , and proxy particle load all of intermediate values, between *offshore* and *CRP* water. This water mass was located at the *CRP* boundary, where it mixed with *offshore* water, and extended throughout the length of the survey area.

During September 2012, weak, southerly, downwelling-favorable winds persisted for most of the survey, then switched to upwelling favorable winds. The plume region was sampled 23–24 September after several days of moderate NW winds (Figure 4g). A bi-directional *CRP* was consistent with alongshore wind stress that switched from southerly to northerly partially through the survey. Nearshore water had slightly greater median Chla (1.80 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) than *CRP* water (1.75 mg m<sup>-3</sup>), resulting from elevated Chla concentrations over Heceta Bank. Lower SSTs were observed nearshore north of Cape Blanco indicating nutrients in this water mass likely were at least in-part, upwelling-derived.



**Figure 11. K-means results for autumn surveys**

Water mass classifications are indicated by color. The box plots on the right show the distribution of sea surface temperature (SST), chlorophyll *a* (Chla), absorption of colored dissolved organic material ( $a_{\text{CDOM}}$ ) and detritus, and proxy particle load ( $nL_w[555]$ , scaled 0–1.0) for each water mass. For whisker plots, red horizontal line indicates the the median, and the bottom and top edges of the box indicate the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles, respectively. The whiskers extend to the most extreme data points not considered outliers, and the outliers are plotted individually using the red '+' symbol.

## 4 Summary and conclusion

This study has demonstrated that airborne ocean color and SST data can be used to characterize water masses associated with the NCCS, including the CRP. We observed variability in water mass boundaries between years and during all seasons, consistent with the expectation of a dynamic, bi-modal CRP (Hickey et al. 2005) and variable forcing driving upwelling. Aircraft-mounted sensors flown at relatively low altitude (60 m) allowed data to be collected when satellite data would have otherwise been unavailable due to cloud cover. For example, of 46 survey days, none had satellite remotely-sensed ocean color data (daily) in >50% of the image.

Aerial surveys have been used extensively to monitor seabird and marine mammal species abundance and distribution patterns at sea (Camphuysen et al., 2004; Buckland et al., 2012). Including an ocean color sensor and aerial pyrometer provides a means to collect *in situ* environmental data useful for investigating some of the underlying mechanisms driving these abundance patterns. Additionally, ocean color data collected from low-flying survey aircraft can be used for long-term monitoring of ocean properties, such as chlorophyll *a* concentrations and other derived properties. For example, during the past two decades, in the Chesapeake Bay, Harding et al., (1992), Harding et al., (1995), and Miller and Harding (2007) used low-flying aircraft to monitor phytoplankton dynamics during cloudy conditions at high spatial resolution. Including ocean color data sensed from low-flying aircraft during future surveys in the Pacific could provide important information on phytoplankton and water mass dynamics over multiple time-scales. Additional study in the future will use these data to assist in the quantification of NCCS seabird community patterns and evaluation of environmental predictors that may prove useful for predicting at-sea abundance.

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