

1 *Impact of missing data on the estimation of ecological*
2 *indicators from satellite ocean-colour time-series*

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13 Abstract

14 Ocean-colour remote sensing provides high-resolution and global-coverage of
15 chlorophyll concentration, which can be used to estimate ecological indicators and to
16 study inter-annual and long-term trends in the state of the marine ecosystem. To date,
17 the record of ocean-colour observations is a rich one, including data from a number of
18 sensors spanning more than three decades. The ESA Ocean-Colour Climate Change
19 Initiative has advanced seamless merging of ocean-colour observations from missions
20 during the period 1990s to 2010s. However, comparison of these more recent
21 observations with records from 1970s to 1980s remains a complex undertaking,
22 particularly for absolute values of chlorophyll concentration, primarily due to
23 differences in the sensors. A further impediment to the analysis of the past records is
24 the non-uniform distribution of gaps in the observations, in both time and space
25 dimensions, when data from two or more sensors are compared. Here, we use the
26 CZCS gap distribution from the Coastal Zone Color Scanner (CZCS, 1978-1986) as a
27 mask to evaluate the impact that missing data may have on the estimation of six
28 ecological indicators, when using the Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor
29 (SeaWiFS) data set. Specifically, we evaluate the precision and accuracy of indicators
30 by computing the root-mean-square-error (RMSE) and the bias arising purely from
31 missing data. We develop an original resampling method allowing comparison of
32 indicator estimates between SeaWiFS reference time-series and SeaWiFS time-series
33 with CZCS-like gaps. We reduce some of the sampling gaps by applying a linear
34 interpolation procedure, and compute multi-year averages of the indicators for every
35 one-by-one degree pixel where sufficient data are available. Indicators from SeaWiFS
36 reference and SeaWiFS with CZCS-like gaps are compared. Lowest uncertainty
37 arising from missing data is observed in the indicators of annual mean and median

38 chlorophyll concentration (global mean RMSE of 8% and $|\text{bias}| \leq 1\%$), while higher
39 uncertainty is recorded for the peak chlorophyll values and the duration of the
40 phytoplankton growing period (global mean RMSE of 33 and 47% respectively and
41 $|\text{bias}| \leq 20\%$). Timing of initiation of the increasing phase of chlorophyll
42 concentration in the seasonal cycle and timing of peak chlorophyll are subject to a
43 global mean RMSE of nearly two months and a bias of two weeks or less. The present
44 quantitative evaluation of uncertainty due to missing data demonstrates that, when
45 pooled to create a nine-year climatology at 8-day temporal resolution, the coverage of
46 CZCS is adequate for many climate-related studies on the marine ecosystem.

47 Phytoplankton annual mean biomass can be estimated with low error in
48 approximately 95% of the global oceans (i.e. regions where the indicators can be
49 estimated with RMSE values of less than 30% and bias within $\pm 10\%$), and the
50 phenological patterns can be estimated with low error in approximately 25% of the
51 global oceans.

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54 Keywords: CZCS, SeaWiFS, Ecological indicators, Chlorophyll-a, Phenology,
55 Missing data, Uncertainty.

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57 1. Introduction

58

59 In the marine environment, ecological indicators have been developed to
60 provide specific information relevant to the evaluation of the state of the marine
61 ecosystem (Borja et al., 2008; Platt and Sathyendranath, 2008; Cardoso et al., 2010;
62 Ferreira et al., 2011; Tett et al., 2013). The function of an indicator may be to depict
63 the condition of the environment, to provide early-warning signals or to register long-
64 term trends (Niemi and McDonald, 2004). The state of the first trophic level of the
65 marine ecosystem can be characterized by the annual cycle of phytoplankton. In-situ
66 or remote-sensing observations of chlorophyll concentration, a proxy for
67 phytoplankton biomass, have been used to depict changes in the annual cycle of
68 phytoplankton (Platt and Sathyendranath, 1996; Platt and Sathyendranath, 2008).
69 Some indicators, for instance, the mean, median and maximum concentrations or
70 biomasses of phytoplankton in a given year, are generally expressed in units of mass
71 of chlorophyll or carbon per unit volume of water. Other indicators correspond to the
72 patterns of the annual cycle of phytoplankton, and are referred to as phenology (i.e.
73 timing of periodic events). These phenological metrics describe phases in the annual
74 cycle, and carry units of time (e.g. days, weeks, month...). Such indicators include the
75 timings of initiation, peak, termination and the duration of phytoplankton growing
76 period (blooming period) in a given season.

77 The most cost-efficient datasets available to implement ecological indicators
78 are provided by ocean-colour remote sensing observations (Platt et al., 2009). These
79 data sets have the additional advantage of having high spatial resolution, high
80 sampling frequency and global coverage. The first satellite sensor developed
81 specifically to study ocean-colour properties was the Coastal Zone Color Scanner

82 (CZCS). It was launched by NASA in October 1978 and remained operational for
83 seven and a half years, until June 1986. A decade later, the Ocean Colour and
84 Temperature Scanner (OCTS) was launched by the Japanese Space Agency
85 (NASDA) in November 1996 and it collected ocean colour data until June 1997. The
86 next major satellite instrument for ocean colour was the Sea-viewing Wide Field-of-
87 View Sensor (SeaWiFS), which functioned for more than 13 years from September
88 1997 until December 2010. The spacecraft and SeaWiFS were owned and operated by
89 Orbital Sciences and subsequent commercial entities. NASA purchased the data, and
90 was then responsible for processing, quality control, and data distribution to approved
91 researchers. In 2002, two additional sensors began acquiring ocean-colour data: the
92 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) launched by NASA, and
93 the MEdium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS) launched by the European
94 Space Agency (ESA). MERIS ceased operations in early 2012, but MODIS is still
95 operating, though well past its design lifespan. Further information about historical,
96 current and scheduled ocean-colour sensors can be found on the International Ocean
97 Colour Coordinating Group (IOCCG) website at
98 http://www.ioccg.org/sensors_ioccg.html.

99 The use of data from the CZCS period could possibly allow us to extend the
100 ocean-colour-based record of ecological indicators backwards in time to the period
101 1978 – 1986, when CZCS was operational. However, the CZCS mission was
102 exploratory: it had limited spatial coverage and spectral bands, and it did not overlap
103 with other ocean-colour sensors (making it difficult to correct for any potential inter-
104 sensor bias). Because of the absence of overlapping periods, the merging of ocean-
105 colour data such as implemented by the ESA Ocean Colour-Climate Change Initiative
106 using SeaWiFS, MODIS and MERIS (Hollman et al. 2013), is not possible with the

107 CZCS. Nevertheless, a number of efforts have been made to improve the precision
108 and accuracy of the CZCS archive and effectively compare it with ocean-colour data
109 from follow-on missions. Gregg and Conkright (2002) re-analysed the archive by
110 blending the CZCS ocean-colour data with in-situ chlorophyll measurements to
111 minimise possible bias in the satellite-derived fields. In the re-analysis effort of
112 Antoine et al. (2005), the authors revised the CZCS data processing algorithms to
113 generate an improved, revised CZCS chlorophyll data set. Then, to allow an inter-
114 comparison between the CZCS and SeaWiFS sensors, they applied the same revised
115 algorithms to SeaWiFS data over the period 1998-2002. However, the regional
116 increases and decreases in absolute values of chlorophyll shown in these two
117 publications are not straightforward to reconcile. More generally, taking into account
118 also the findings based on in-situ observations, the debate on multi-decadal trends in
119 phytoplankton biomass is still open (Boyce et al., 2010; Mackas et al., 2011;
120 Rykaczewski and Dunne, 2011; McQuatters-Gollop et al., 2011; Raitsos et al., 2013;
121 Wernand et al., 2013).

122 Given the unique availability of observations from the CZCS during the period
123 1978-1986, and the critical importance of determining long-term trends in the marine
124 ecosystem, scrutiny is required to determine the impact of missing data in the CZCS
125 record on the estimation of ecological indicators. The spatial and temporal coverage
126 of remotely-sensed data is limited by sun-glint, clouds, atmospheric aerosol, sensor
127 saturation over ice, sand or snow, and high solar zenith angle. During the exploratory
128 mission of the CZCS sensor, the collection of observations was limited for all the
129 reasons above, but in addition, also by power and data recorder limitations, which led
130 to the priority being set on observations in the coastal regions and in the Northern
131 Hemisphere. The distribution of missing data in the CZCS time-series has been

132 evaluated at monthly resolution (Antoine et al., 2005). However, monthly resolution
133 is not sufficient to assess inter-annual variability and trends in phytoplankton
134 phenology, which are driven by natural or anthropogenic forcing (Chiba et al., 2008,
135 Thomalla et al., 2011, Racault et al., 2012; González Taboada and Ricardo Anadón,
136 2014).

137 The present study aims to: 1) evaluate the distribution of missing data in the
138 CZCS 1978-1986 time-series at a resolution of 8-days in the global oceans; 2)
139 perform a sensitivity analysis for assessing the error that the distribution of missing
140 data in the CZCS time-series may have on the estimation of six ecological indicators;
141 and 3) compare the error associated with missing data when estimating the indicators
142 from time-series, with and without applying an interpolation scheme to fill some of
143 the missing data.

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146 2. Material and Methods

147

148 2.1 Remotely-sensed ocean-colour data

149

150 Synoptic fields of chlorophyll concentration were retrieved for the periods
151 1978-1986 and 1997-2010 from NASA Ocean Color Web
152 <http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov>. The R2010.0 reprocessing of Level 3 Mapped
153 chlorophyll concentrations from both CZCS and SeaWiFS were both downloaded at
154 9-km spatial resolution and 8-day temporal resolution. To reduce gaps in the global
155 oceans time-series, the data were re-gridded to $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ boxes (Fig. 1).

156

157 2.2 Estimation of ecological indicators

158

159 The annual cycle of phytoplankton was characterized by estimating six well-
160 established ecological indicators from remote-sensing observations of chlorophyll
161 concentrations (Platt and Sathyendranath, 1996; Platt and Sathyendranath, 2008). The
162 selected indicators are: 1) annual mean chlorophyll; 2) median chlorophyll; 3) annual
163 maximum chlorophyll; 4) timing of initiation of the phytoplankton growing period; 5)
164 timing of peak of the phytoplankton growing period; and 6) duration of the
165 phytoplankton growing period. The first three indicators are based on absolute values
166 of chlorophyll concentration, whereas the last three can be calculated using relative
167 changes in the field of chlorophyll. Timing of the peak in the phytoplankton growing
168 period corresponds to when chlorophyll concentration reaches maximum amplitude in
169 the annual cycle. The timings of initiation and termination of phytoplankton growth
170 are detected using changes relative to a threshold of the long-term median plus 5%
171 (Siegel et al., 2002; Racault et al., 2012). The duration of the growing period is
172 estimated as the time elapsed between initiation and termination. Phenology estimates
173 are calculated using 8-day composites, which is the temporal resolution of the
174 chlorophyll data used.

175

176 2.3 Sensitivity analysis of the impact of missing data

177

178 The question we wish to address is whether the additional gaps in CZCS data
179 compared with SeaWiFS data could lead to differences in the estimation of ecological
180 indicators. Therefore, in the sensitivity analysis presented here, we treat SeaWiFS as
181 the reference data set, and we use the CZCS gap distribution as a mask to create a

182 SeaWiFS data set with CZCS-like gaps. Thus, we can investigate the impact that
183 missing data may have on determination of ecological indicators from two consistent
184 ocean-colour data sets (i.e. SeaWiFS reference and SeaWiFS with CZCS-like gaps) in
185 terms of calibration and algorithms. To avoid bias associated with the significant
186 increase in missing data in chlorophyll observations after 2007 in the SeaWiFS
187 sensor, the sensitivity analysis was performed using SeaWiFS data from 1998-2007.

188 Error in the estimation of ecological indicators was evaluated using two
189 measures: the root-mean-square-error (RMSE) and the bias. The procedure to
190 evaluate the error is presented in the flow diagram (Fig. 1) and described in the
191 following steps: 1) a SeaWiFS nine-year chlorophyll time-series was selected as the
192 reference from the 10 years of available data during 1998-2007 (by drawing out,
193 without duplication); 2) the SeaWiFS nine-year time-series was sub-sampled to
194 simulate the distribution of missing data in the nine-year CZCS time-series,
195 generating a SeaWiFS time-series with CZCS-like gaps; 3) nine-year climatologies
196 were computed for the SeaWiFS reference time-series and the SeaWiFS time series
197 with CZCS-like missing data; 4) the six ecological indicators were estimated from
198 each climatology; and 5) the difference δ defined as:

199 Equation (1):
$$\delta = \text{ind}_{\text{gaps}} - \text{ind}_{\text{ref}}$$

200 was computed, with ind_{ref} representing the ecological indicator estimated from the
201 SeaWiFS reference climatology and ind_{gaps} representing the same indicator
202 estimated from the SeaWiFS climatology with CZCS-like gaps. The entire procedure
203 was repeated for each one-degree pixel of the global oceans. In addition, a relative
204 difference δ_r was estimated for the indicators of maximum amplitude, annual mean,
205 median and duration:

206 Equation (2):
$$\delta_r = \frac{\delta}{\text{ind}_{\text{ref}}} .$$

207 To account for the sensitivity of difference estimates to the choice of the
208 particular years in the time series, we generated a total of 25 unique SeaWiFS
209 reference time-series by drawing out, without duplication, nine years from the 10
210 years of SeaWiFS data (1998-2007). Then, at each given pixel of the oceans where
211 indicator estimates were available, the magnitude of the error was measured using the
212 root-mean-square-error RMSE as follows:

213 Equation (3):
$$RMSE(\delta) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{25} \delta_i^2}{25}} ; \text{ and}$$

214 Equation (4):
$$RMSE(\delta_r) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{25} \delta_{ri}^2}{25}} ;$$

215 Moreover, at each pixel, the bias was computed as:

216 Equation (5):
$$Bias(\delta) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{25} \delta_i}{25} ; \text{ and}$$

217 Equation (6):
$$Bias(\delta_r) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{25} \delta_{ri}}{25} .$$

218 Next, to reduce the number of missing data in the SeaWiFS reference and in the
219 SeaWiFS with CZCS-like gaps time-series, a spatial and temporal linear interpolation
220 was performed (see gap filling “option” in Fig. 1) and the error estimation procedure
221 described in equations (1) to (6) was re-applied. The interpolation scheme was applied
222 sequentially in the order: longitude, latitude, and time. Specifically, the gaps were
223 filled with the average value of the surrounding grid points along the indicated axis.
224 The averaging window had a width of three points and the surrounding points were
225 weighted equally. Along the indicated axis, if one of the points bordering the gap was
226 invalid, it was omitted from the calculation. If the two surrounding points were
227 invalid, then the gap was not filled (the interpolation scheme is illustrated in Fig. 1).

228 The outcome of the sensitivity analysis is an evaluation of the RMSE
229 (providing information on the precision of the error) and the bias (corresponding to a

230 measure of accuracy of the error) in the estimation of the six ecological indicators due
231 to the missing data in the CZCS time-series (with and without interpolation
232 procedure). It is noteworthy that the CZCS time-series is used here only to identify
233 the spatio-temporal distribution of the missing data. The indicators are actually
234 estimated from the SeaWiFS observations (i.e. with and without CZCS-like sub-
235 sampling, and with and without interpolation). Therefore, any difference in the
236 estimated ecological indicators arises from differences in the gaps between the two
237 datasets analysed.

238

239

240 3. Results

241

242 3.1 Spatio-temporal distribution of ocean-colour observations

243

244 Large differences are apparent in the spatial coverage of the SeaWiFS and
245 CZCS missions (Fig. 2a and 2b). In the SeaWiFS data collection, the number of
246 scenes (i.e. 8-day composites) decreases markedly poleward of 30°N and 30°S,
247 following the latitude-dependent increase in the solar zenith angle during the winter
248 season (Fig. 2a). The tropics and subtropics are not affected by high-sun zenith angle,
249 and the reduction in the number of scenes is caused mainly by atmospheric aerosols,
250 sun-glint and persistent clouds (e.g. during the monsoon season). The tropical regions
251 with lowest coverage include the coasts of Western Africa and South-Western
252 America, the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal (Fig. 2a). During the CZCS mission,
253 in addition to the reduction of scenes due to all the same reasons as in the case of
254 SeaWiFS, the collection of data was further limited by low duty cycle. The spatial

255 coverage of the CZCS is better in coastal regions and in the Northern Hemisphere,
256 with the highest density of 8-day composites observed in upwelling regions, the
257 Arabian and Mediterranean Seas, and along the coasts of Europe, North-Eastern
258 Africa, Northern America and Eastern as well as Western Australia (Fig. 2b). When a
259 linear interpolation procedure (i.e. interpolating spatially- and temporally-adjacent
260 values) is applied to 8-day composites of ocean-colour data from SeaWiFS and from
261 CZCS, the density of data increases by 2% for SeaWiFS over the period 1997-2011
262 and by 91% for CZCS over the period 1978-1986 in the global oceans (Fig. 2c and
263 2d). In other words, the interpolation procedure nearly doubled the spatio-temporal
264 coverage of CZCS data.

265 Since we are evaluating the gaps in CZCS data compared with SeaWiFS, the
266 coverage of the CZCS is estimated as a percentage of the SeaWiFS climatological
267 coverage (Fig. 3a). On average, during the period 1978-1986, the global ocean
268 coverage of CZCS reaches 19% of the SeaWiFS climatological coverage, with 12%
269 of the observations located in the Northern Hemisphere and 6.5% in the Southern
270 Hemisphere. Moreover, a major reduction in sampling occurred in the global oceans
271 in the Spring of 1982 after the volcanic eruption of “El Chichon” released large
272 quantities of ash into the atmosphere (Michalsky et al., 1990; Antoine et al., 2005). In
273 the following years, the sampling density remained low, particularly during the
274 summers 1984 and 1985, when nearly no observations were recorded. When the
275 linear interpolation procedure is applied, the mean (1978-1986) global ocean coverage
276 of CZCS reaches 40% (Fig. 3b).

277

278 3.2 Error associated with missing data on the estimation of ecological indicators

279

280 The distribution of RMSE in the global oceans is shown in Figure 4 and as a
281 function of the percentage of missing data of the CZCS sensor in Figure 5. The bias (a
282 measure of accuracy) in the estimated indicators in the global ocean is shown in
283 Figure 6 and as a function of the percentage of missing data of the CZCS sensor in
284 Figure 7. Global averages of RMSE and bias are provided in Tables 1 and 2.

285

286 3.2.1 Phytoplankton biomass indicators

287

288 The distribution of RMSE values for peak chlorophyll shows large variations
289 throughout the global oceans (Fig. 4a). Lower RMSE values tend to be observed
290 where the percentage of missing data was lower (i.e. fewer missing data). This
291 tendency is more clearly apparent after a linear interpolation has been applied to fill in
292 some of the missing data. Peak chlorophyll RMSE values of 30% or less are generally
293 observed in coastal regions, across the North Atlantic ocean, the eastern North Pacific
294 ocean and the western coast of Australia. The percentage of ocean coverage with
295 RMSE below 30% reaches 56% after applying linear interpolation (Table 1).
296 Interestingly, the shape of the distribution of the RMSE remains similar before and
297 after applying linear interpolation (Fig. 5c and 5d), indicating that the effect of
298 interpolation is uniform across all the regions.

299 The missing data in the CZCS sampling induce a bias of +16% on average on
300 the estimation of peak chlorophyll concentration (Table 2). The bias appears positive
301 throughout most of the global oceans (Fig. 6a) indicating that peak chlorophyll
302 concentrations tend to be over-estimated in the multi-year SeaWiFS climatology with
303 missing data, compared with the multi-year SeaWiFS reference climatology. In
304 regions of the oceans where the percentage of missing data (in the SeaWiFS time-

305 series with CZCS-like gaps) is less than 65%, the bias in peak chlorophyll
306 concentration is positive with values ranging between +5 and +25% (Fig. 7c).
307 However, when the percentage of missing data is particularly high (i.e. greater than
308 95%), the bias in peak chlorophyll concentration appears negative (i.e. peak
309 chlorophyll values estimated from the climatology with gaps tend to be lower, Fig.
310 7c). The positive biases in peak chlorophyll may be counter intuitive, in the sense that
311 in any given year, one anticipates that missing data would lead to estimated peak
312 values equal to, or less than the reference dataset. However, when dealing with multi-
313 year climatologies, one of the consequences of missing data is that a high peak value
314 in any single year does not get averaged with lower values from other years if data are
315 missing from those other years. But as gaps in data increase, the probability of
316 missing all peak values increases, leading to negative bias. Such negative bias values
317 are observed over large regions of the Southern Ocean where the sampling coverage
318 of the CZCS was particularly limited (Fig. 2b and 6a). After applying the
319 interpolation procedure, the results are spatially more homogeneous (i.e. positive bias
320 values throughout the global oceans), and the bias values are noticeably reduced in
321 large regions of the global oceans (Fig. 6a). Interestingly, the interpolation procedure
322 had limited influence on the shape of the bias distribution as a function of the
323 percentage of missing data in the SeaWiFS time-series with CZCS-like gaps (Fig. 7c,
324 d).

325 The RMSE values for climatological mean and median indicators are
326 particularly low, with average values of 13 and 14% for the global oceans (before
327 applying a linear interpolation; Fig. 4b, c and Table 1). RMSE values for these two
328 indicators are below 30% in more than 90% of the oceans (Fig. 4b, c) and the
329 interpolation procedure had a very limited influence on the spatial distribution of the

330 RMSE (Fig. 4b, c). The RMSE for the climatological mean and median indicators
331 increases exponentially with increasing missing data (Fig. 5e-h). Moreover, the shape
332 of the curve describing RMSE as a function of missing data remained similar before
333 and after applying the interpolation procedure. The biases in the estimated
334 climatological mean and median chlorophyll concentrations are -0.5% and -2%
335 respectively on average in the global oceans (Fig. 6b, c; Table 2). These bias values
336 change to +1% and -0.5% respectively after applying the interpolation procedure (Fig.
337 6b, c and Table 2). It is noteworthy that for these two indicators, the bias estimates
338 alternate between positive and negative values throughout the global oceans. This
339 pattern is also clearly apparent when the bias is plotted as a function of the percentage
340 of missing data (Fig. 7e-h). For these two indicators, when the percentage of missing
341 data is <50%, the bias is constrained within $\pm 5\%$, which is particularly low compared
342 with the bias associated with peak chlorophyll concentration.

343

344 3.2.2 Phytoplankton phenology indicators

345

346 In this analysis, only the ocean pixels for which all phenological metrics (i.e.
347 timings of initiation, peak, termination, and duration) could be estimated are shown
348 on the maps of the distribution of the RMSE and bias (Fig. 4d-f and Fig. 6d-f). Before
349 applying the interpolation procedure, the phenology indicators could be estimated
350 over 25% of the global oceans. This figure increases to 70% after applying the
351 interpolation (which was applied prior to the calculation of the climatology from
352 which the indicators are estimated, as described in the method section). The
353 identification of timings of specific events, such as those of initiation and termination,
354 are particularly sensitive to the presence of missing data in the time-series. As a

355 result, the calculation of the duration (which is estimated as the difference between
356 the timings of initiation and termination) can fail. The increase in spatial coverage of
357 the indicators achieved, once the interpolation is implemented, highlights the critical
358 importance of estimating phenology indicators from the most temporally-complete
359 time-series.

360 The missing data in the CZCS sampling induce on average, over the global
361 oceans, a RMSE and a bias of 57% and -43% respectively (before applying the
362 interpolation); and 47% and -20% respectively (after applying the interpolation) on
363 the estimated duration of phytoplankton growing period (Fig. 4d, Fig. 6d, and Tables
364 1 and 2). Negative bias values are observed throughout most of the global oceans,
365 indicating that when missing data are present in the SeaWiFS time-series with CZCS-
366 like gaps, the duration tends to be under-estimated compared with the SeaWiFS
367 reference time-series with more data. The RMSE values decreased in those ocean
368 regions where the percentage of missing data was lower. Before applying the
369 interpolation, 8% of all of the pixels in the oceans presented an RMSE of 30% or less,
370 whereas after applying the interpolation, 26% of all of the ocean pixels showed an
371 RMSE of 30% or less (Table 1). As with the indicators of climatological mean,
372 median and peak chlorophyll, the plot of RMSE and bias in the estimated duration as
373 a function of the percentage of missing data in CZCS, showed similar patterns with
374 and without the linear interpolation procedure (Fig. 5i-j and Fig. 7i-j), except for
375 percent missing data <30%. It is probable that the increase in RMSE observed in Fig.
376 5i is due to the low number of observations in those class intervals (i.e. only
377 eight pixels in the global oceans presented missing data between 20-25%). The
378 bias in the duration estimates drops below 10% when the percentage of missing data
379 (in the SeaWiFS time-series with CZCS-like gaps) is less than 60% (Fig. 7i).

380 On average, the RMSE in the estimation of the timings of initiation and peak
381 are 76 and 75 days respectively. After applying the interpolation procedure, the
382 RMSE was reduced to 61 and 62 days for the timings of initiation and peak
383 respectively (Fig. 4e, f; Table 1). Similar to the estimated duration, the RMSE
384 decreased in ocean regions where the percentage of missing data was lower. In the
385 case of the timings of initiation and peak, without applying interpolation, 11% of all
386 of the ocean pixels presented an RMSE of 30 days or less, whereas, with
387 interpolation, the percentage increased to 27 and 24% (Table 1).

388 The bias values were equal to -10 and -24 days on average in the global
389 oceans for the timings of bloom initiation and peak chlorophyll respectively (Fig. 6e,
390 f, Table 2). Negative bias values indicate that the estimated timings tend to be earlier
391 in the climatological seasonal cycle with missing data compared with the SeaWiFS
392 reference climatology data set. After applying the interpolation, the number of ocean
393 pixels for which the timings of initiation and peak could be estimated increased
394 markedly and their average bias values decreased to -1 and -13 days respectively.
395 Ocean pixels with less than 65% missing data show a bias of less than 30 days (~1
396 month) for timings of both initiation and peak (Fig. 7k-n).

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398

399 4. Discussion and Conclusions

400

401 4.1 Sensitivity of ecological indicators to the distribution of missing data in the CZCS
402 time-series

403

404 The present sensitivity analysis provides an original assessment of the impact
405 that the distribution of the missing data in the CZCS time-series is having on the
406 estimation of six ecological indicators. The impact estimated here is based on multi-
407 year composite of an annual cycle in phytoplankton dynamics, and not on a year-to-
408 year basis, in which case the gaps, and hence the uncertainties, would be greater. The
409 selected indicators are key to characterize and monitor the composition, structure and
410 functioning of the marine ecosystem on seasonal, interannual, decadal and longer
411 time-scales. Thus, an evaluation of the confidence range in the estimates is essential,
412 especially for detection of trends influenced by large-scale environmental and climate
413 drivers (Vantrepotte and Mélin, 2009; Martinez et al., 2011; Thomalla et al., 2011;
414 Racault et al., 2012; Zhai et al., 2013; González-Taboada and Ricardo-Anadón, 2014).

415 Annual coverage of chlorophyll data in the CZCS record is low compared
416 with that of more recent sensors such as SeaWiFS and the distribution of the CZCS
417 missing data is non-uniform both spatially and temporally (Fig. 2 and 3). These gaps
418 make it difficult to estimate phenology indicators on annual time-scale, which is why
419 the present analysis is limited to multi-year climatologies. To further limit the
420 negative impact of missing data, data were averaged spatially (i.e. re-gridding 4 km x
421 4 km to 1° x 1° grid-box), though we have maintained the 8-day temporal resolution
422 as a requirement for studying phenology (Fig. 1). Other approaches to reducing
423 missing data include implementation of interpolation procedures: gaps can be filled
424 by interpolating spatially and temporally-adjacent values (e. g., Beaugrand et al.,
425 2008; Pottier et al., 2008; Racault et al., 2012) or by using the climatology of the
426 annual cycle as a basis for interpolating across gaps for particular years in a time-
427 series (Land et al., 2014). The use of climatology allows us to constrain potential
428 errors in phenology estimates, which are associated with missing data in annual time-

429 series (Cole et al., 2012; Land et al., 2014). In spite of the limitations imposed by
430 missing data, the 8-day climatology of CZCS provides the most comprehensive
431 dataset available to compute many ecological indicators during the 1970s and 1980s
432 and to study their long-term changes in relation to climate drivers by comparison with
433 later satellite sensors such as SeaWiFS, MERIS or MODIS.

434 The indicators of annual mean and median chlorophyll concentrations showed
435 the lowest RMSE and bias associated with the presence of missing data (Fig. 4b, c,
436 Fig. 5e-h and Tables 1 and 2). Low RMSE and bias values indicate that the mean and
437 median chlorophyll concentrations can be estimated with relatively high confidence
438 from a climatology which includes the gap distribution of the CZCS time-series. This
439 feature is consistent throughout the global oceans. The linear interpolation procedure
440 (i.e. spatial and temporal filling of missing data with adjacent values performed
441 before calculating the climatology) reduced the global average of RMSE values in the
442 median and the mean from 12 and 13% respectively to 8% (for both). The magnitude
443 of the RMSE increased with increasing missing data (Fig. 5e-h). In addition, for these
444 two indicators, the mean bias for the global oceans was particularly low (within $\pm 2\%$)
445 regardless of application of the interpolation procedure. But of course the global
446 averages do not tell the whole story, and what is really important is the regional
447 distribution of uncertainties. In fact, regionally, the bias could be greater, reaching
448 $\pm 8\%$. Even though the uncertainties in these indicators are relatively low, they are
449 based on absolute values of chlorophyll concentrations, and hence would be
450 vulnerable to any inter-sensor biases in estimated chlorophyll values arising from
451 differences in sensor design or in algorithms. Such potential errors would also have to
452 be quantified before these indicators derived from CZCS and SeaWiFS can be
453 compared.

454 The indicators of peak chlorophyll concentration and duration of the bloom
455 have higher RMSE (33 and 47% on average respectively for the global oceans) and
456 bias (+18 and -20% on average respectively for the global oceans) associated with the
457 presence of missing data even after interpolation (Fig. 4a, 4d, Fig. 6a, 6d, and Tables
458 1 and 2). The RMSE and bias values are lower in oceanic regions where the density of
459 data collected during the CZCS time-series is higher, demonstrating the sensitivity of
460 these indicators to missing data. As a result, the reduction of gaps in data using linear
461 interpolation significantly decreases the RMSE and bias for both the peak chlorophyll
462 concentration and the duration estimates (Fig. 4a, 4d, Fig. 6a, 6d). The regions with
463 higher confidence (i.e. RMSE values < 30% and bias < 10%) on the estimations of
464 peak chlorophyll concentration and duration of the growing period include the North
465 Atlantic Ocean between 10°N-50°N, the Pacific Ocean between 10°N-40°N, the
466 western coast of North America, the eastern coast of Africa, and the eastern and
467 western coast of Australia and New Zealand. Outside of these regions, the RMSE and
468 bias tend to increase markedly, because of reduction in the density of observations,
469 rendering difficult the detection of long-term trends in these indicators.

470 The timing of bloom initiation and timing of peak chlorophyll estimated from
471 SeaWiFS with CZCS-like gaps climatology had RMSE values of 62 and 61 days
472 respectively on average for the global oceans (Table 1). The high RMSE values
473 reported here underline the sensitivity of indicators of timing of events to the missing
474 data in the CZCS sampling. The mean biases for the global oceans in the timings of
475 initiation and peak were -1 and -13 days respectively, after applying linear
476 interpolation (Table 2). The linear interpolation used here to fill gaps in data nearly
477 doubles (Table 1) the number of pixels in the global oceans where these phenology
478 indicators can be estimated with an RMSE of less than one month (~30 days).

479 Moreover, the linear interpolation allows the phenological estimates to gain coherence
480 in most of the coastal regions, across the North Atlantic Ocean, the eastern North
481 Pacific Ocean and the western coast of Australia (Fig. 4e, f and Fig. 6e, f). Increased
482 confidence in the phenology estimates, even over limited regions of the oceans, is
483 extremely useful for the detection of long-term trends or differences.

484 The error estimates (RMS uncertainty and bias) presented here are specifically
485 designed to evaluate the impact of the distribution of missing data in the CZCS
486 sampling, compared with the SeaWiFS coverage. The computed biases provide a
487 basis for correcting for systematic differences in estimates of these ecological
488 indicators for every one degree grid for which the computations have been carried
489 out. The RMSE, once corrected for the bias, yields the standard deviation in the
490 results, which can then be used to constrain interpretation of differences in indicators
491 estimated from SeaWiFS with CZCS-like gaps and SeaWiFS reference data sets: the
492 observed differences cannot be significant if they are less than the standard deviation
493 in the results.

494 Cole et al. (2012) estimated the differences between phenology metrics from
495 the GlobColor time-series and those from the NASA Ocean Biogeochemical Model
496 (treated as the gap-free time series). In sub-polar regions, where the percentage of
497 missing data is high, the authors showed typical differences of 30 days for the timing
498 of initiation and 15 days for the timing of peak. The differences were lower (typically
499 below 20 days for the timing of initiation and less than 10 days for the timing of peak)
500 in the tropics and the subtropics where the percentage of missing data is low. Though
501 their measures of errors are different from ours, their results are coherent with ours, in
502 the sense that the RMSE and bias values shown here decrease when the percentage of
503 missing data decreased.

504 A further cautionary note is that the present study identifies and quantifies
505 only one source of uncertainty: gaps in data. Other factors will have an influence on
506 the uncertainty associated with the estimation of phenological indicators. Although it
507 is beyond the scope of the present study, it would be extremely interesting to provide
508 a comprehensive analysis of the propagation of uncertainties associated with: (1) the
509 presence of missing data due to persistent cloud cover, high-sun zenith angle, and
510 sensor sampling; (2) the variability of the annual chlorophyll cycle; and (3) the
511 uncertainties in the calibration of satellite sensors and in the chlorophyll-retrieval
512 algorithm (Moore et al., 2009).

513 All the results presented here are based on analyses carried out using multiple
514 sets of years. This was done to increase the generality of results and to avoid the
515 impact of any particular year or a particular combination of years on the results.
516 However, when actual comparisons are made between phytoplankton indicators from
517 particular sets of CZCS years and SeaWiFS years, it would be more useful to repeat
518 the analyses presented here, but for those particular sets of years, to evaluate the
519 uncertainties for that special case.

520 In summary: 1) lowest uncertainty due to missing data is observed in the
521 indicators of annual mean and median chlorophyll concentration (global mean RMSE
522 $< 10\%$ and $|\text{bias}| \leq 1\%$) while higher uncertainty is observed for peak chlorophyll and
523 duration (global mean RMSE $< 50\%$ and $|\text{bias}| \leq 20\%$) and for timing metrics (global
524 mean RMSE < 2 months and $|\text{bias}| \leq 2\text{ weeks}$); 2) gap filling (by linear interpolation)
525 increases precision by 4-10% and ~ 2 weeks (global mean RMSE) and increases
526 accuracy by 0.5-13% and ~ 10 days (global mean $|\text{bias}|$); 3) regional differences are
527 apparent, and lowest uncertainty is recorded where CZCS coverage is greater than
528 40%.

529

530 4.2 Implications for estimation of long-term trends in ecological indicators

531

532 The low error values for annual mean and median chlorophyll concentrations
533 indicate a low sensitivity of these two indicators to the distribution of missing data in
534 the CZCS time-series, lending confidence that the assessments of decadal changes
535 reported in the re-analysis efforts of Gregg and Conkright (2002) and Antoine et al.
536 (2005) were not affected much by the missing data. They had applied the CZCS data
537 distribution to SeaWiFS to minimize, if not eliminate, the impact of differing data
538 distributions in comparing average chlorophyll levels. Therefore, the discrepancies in
539 the decadal changes reported in the two publications are probably a consequence of
540 the differences in the approaches followed by the two authors. For example, Gregg
541 and Conkright (2002) blended in situ results with remotely-sensed data, whereas
542 Antoine et al. (2005) avoided using in-situ data, relying instead on an improved
543 algorithm. Other factors influencing the estimation of long-term trends include the
544 direction or sign of the dominant climate drivers (such as El Niño Southern
545 Oscillation, or ENSO) occurring during the periods under assessment (Martinez et al.,
546 2009). In fact, Gregg and Conkright (2002) compared the CZCS 1979-1986 archive
547 with SeaWiFS 1997-2000 data, whereas Antoine et al. (2005) compared the CZCS
548 (1978-1986) and SeaWiFS (1998-2002) records. Both the CZCS and SeaWiFS
549 periods were marked by major El Niño (1997) and La Niña (1998) events, which
550 profoundly influence phytoplankton production, composition and phenology in the
551 global oceans (Dandonneau et al., 1986; Harris 1987; Comiso et al., 1993; Chavez et
552 al., 1999; Behrenfeld et al., 2001; Yoder and Kennelly, 2003; Hirawake et al., 2005;
553 Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Chavez et al., 2011; D'Ortenzio et al., 2012). This also raises

554 the possibility that the characteristics of the errors associated with missing data may
555 also be specific to the pairs of CZCS and SeaWiFS years considered in any particular
556 analysis. It would therefore be prudent to repeat the analysis presented here, but for
557 the particular years relevant for any analyses, to lend further confidence that the
558 missing data do not introduce any significant errors into the results.

559 Given the rapid response of phytoplankton chlorophyll concentration to these
560 variations in climate and environmental conditions, as well as the sensitivity of
561 absolute chlorophyll values to sensor-specific differences in chlorophyll retrieval,
562 indicators of phytoplankton phenology (which are not sensitive to errors in the
563 absolute values of chlorophyll) may be robust for studying long-term climate change
564 impacts on the state of the first trophic level of the marine ecosystem. However,
565 phenological studies do require data well distributed in time, to enable resolution of
566 timings of seasonal events with sufficient precision. The sensitivity analysis presented
567 here provides the first comprehensive and quantitative evaluation of errors in
568 ecological (including phenological) indicators associated with gaps in the CZCS data,
569 when pooled to create a nine-year climatology at 8-day temporal resolution. The
570 results demonstrate that the coverage of CZCS is adequate for many climate-related
571 studies on the marine ecosystem. Phytoplankton annual mean biomass can be
572 estimated with low error from the nine-year climatology in approximately 95% of the
573 global oceans and the phenological patterns can be estimated with low error in
574 approximately 25% of the global oceans (i.e. regions where the indicators can be
575 estimated with RMSE values of less than 30% and bias within $\pm 10\%$). In particular,
576 oceanic regions where estimates of ecological indicators can be used reliably to
577 extend the remote-sensing record back three decades and thus assess long-term trends
578 in the state of the marine ecosystem, include the North Atlantic Ocean between 10°N-

579 50°N, the Pacific Ocean between 10°N-40°N, the western coast of North America, the
580 eastern coast of Africa, and the eastern and western coast of Australia and New
581 Zealand.

582 It is noteworthy that the surest way to avoid errors of the type discussed here
583 is to limit the analysis to areas where the CZCS observations are matched in time with
584 SeaWiFS, and where the temporal resolution is sufficient to extract the indicators with
585 sufficient confidence. But, as one can see from Figure 3, for any given 8-day
586 composite, areas of the world where we have both SeaWiFS and CZCS data are
587 limited to approximately 30-40%, and even in these areas the uncertainties due to
588 missing data can be high for some of the indicators (Tables 1 and 2). The analysis
589 carried out here suggests ways in which the areal coverage can be extended by linear
590 interpolation. Furthermore, having an idea of the potential bias (Table 2), this type of
591 errors can be corrected for, and knowing the RMSE allows us to place confidence
592 intervals on the results. Finally, these results demonstrate some of the issues
593 associated with comparing or blending phytoplankton datasets with different spatial
594 and temporal coverage. The method developed here helps to assess uncertainties in
595 comparison of two phytoplankton datasets (CZCS and SeaWiFS) arising from this
596 source, and thus, to improve confidence in inferred long-term trends (Mackas et al.,
597 2011).

598

599

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795 List of Figure Captions

796

797 Fig. 1: Schematic view of the data processing steps to estimate the six ecological
798 indicators used to quantify the uncertainty due to the distribution of gaps in the CZCS
799 time-series. The steps numerated 1) to 5) are further described in the method section.
800 The gap-filling step is marked with a star (*) as it was only applied in the analyses
801 labelled “after applying a linear interpolation” (shown in Figs. 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7).

802

803 Fig. 2: Spatial density of ocean-colour data from CZCS (1978-1986) and SeaWiFS
804 (1997-2010) in the global oceans. (a) SeaWiFS coverage before applying linear
805 interpolation to fill gaps; (b) CZCS coverage before applying linear interpolation to fill
806 gaps; (c) SeaWiFS coverage after applying a linear interpolation to fill some of the
807 missing data; (d) CZCS coverage after applying a linear interpolation to fill some of
808 the missing data. The colour scale indicates the number of 8-day composites available
809 during the sensors’ periods of operation.

810

811 Fig. 3: Temporal density of CZCS 8-day composites expressed as percentage of
812 SeaWiFS climatological coverage (i.e. the latter is treated as the reference against
813 which the former is compared). (a) CZCS percentage coverage before applying linear
814 interpolation; (b) CZCS coverage after applying linear interpolation to both CZCS and
815 SeaWiFS time-series. In black, coverage for the global oceans and in blue, coverage
816 for the Northern Hemisphere. The coverage for the Southern Hemisphere corresponds
817 to the difference between global and Northern Hemisphere coverage. An assessment of
818 the temporal density of CZCS data at monthly resolution is available from the NASA

819 ocean color webpage about CZCS mission at:
820 http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/CZCS/czcs_datacollect.html.

821

822 Fig. 4: Root-mean-square-error (RMSE) on the estimation of six ecological indicators
823 arising solely from missing data. The RMSE is calculated as the difference between the
824 estimates from the SeaWiFS time-series with CZCS-like gaps minus the estimates from
825 the SeaWiFS reference time-series. (a-d) RMSE are expressed in percent and (e-f)
826 RMSE are expressed in days. Left panel: RMSE before applying linear interpolation to
827 fill missing data; Right panel: RMSE after applying linear interpolation to fill missing
828 data (see Fig. 2 and 3 for changes in data coverage). Black colour indicates that the
829 indicators could not be estimated (because there were too few data available).

830

831 Fig. 5: Root-mean-square-error (RMSE) of each indicator as a function of the gaps. The
832 percentage of missing data is estimated at each pixel as the fraction of the total number
833 of 8-day composites in the SeaWiFS nine-year climatology with the CZCS-like gaps to
834 the total number of 8-day composites in the SeaWiFS reference nine-year climatology.
835 Left panel: Before applying linear interpolation to fill missing data; Right panel: After
836 applying linear interpolation to fill missing data. (a) and (b) Number of pixels in the
837 global oceans for every increment of 5% in missing data. (c) to (n) Median RMSE
838 values (plain black line) and upper and lower quartiles (dashed black lines) for each
839 class interval of 5% missing data for the six ecological indicators discussed in this paper.
840 Note that, for the left panel, no RMSE values are presented for percentage of missing
841 data <20% because of lack of data. It is probable that the increase in RMSE at the low
842 end of missing values for the phenology metrics (i, k and m) is associated with low
843 number of observations in those class intervals.

844

845 Fig. 6: Bias on the estimation of six ecological indicators arising solely from missing
846 data. The bias is calculated as the difference between the indicator estimates from the
847 SeaWiFS time-series with CZCS-like gaps minus the estimates from the SeaWiFS
848 reference time-series. (a-d) Bias values are expressed in percent and (e-f) Bias values
849 are expressed in days. Left panel: Bias before applying linear interpolation to fill
850 missing data; Right panel: Bias after applying linear interpolation to fill missing data
851 (see Fig. 2 and 3 for changes in data coverage). Black colour indicates that the indicators
852 could not be estimated (because of there were too few data available).

853

854 Fig. 7: Bias of each indicator as a function of the gaps. The percentage of missing data
855 is estimated at each pixel as the fraction of the total number of 8-day composites in the
856 SeaWiFS nine-year time-series with the CZCS-like gaps to the total number of 8-day
857 composites in the SeaWiFS reference nine-year climatology. Left panel: Before
858 applying linear interpolation to fill missing data; Right panel: After applying linear
859 interpolation to fill missing data. (a) and (b) Number of pixels in the global oceans for
860 every increment of 5% in missing data. (c) to (n) Median bias values (plain black line)
861 and upper and lower quartiles (dashed black lines) for each class interval of 5% missing
862 data for the six ecological indicators discussed in this paper.

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