

**State of Climate 2011 - Global Ocean Phytoplankton**

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52 Phytoplankton photosynthesis in the sun lit upper layer of the global ocean is the  
53 overwhelmingly dominant source of organic matter that fuels marine ecosystems.  
54 Phytoplankton contribute roughly half of the global (land and ocean) net primary  
55 production (NPP; gross photosynthesis minus plant respiration) and phytoplankton  
56 carbon fixation is the primary conduit through which atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
57 interact with the ocean's carbon cycle. Phytoplankton productivity depends on the  
58 availability of sunlight, macronutrients (e.g., nitrogen, phosphorous), and micronutrients  
59 (e.g., iron), and thus is sensitive to climate-driven changes in the delivery of these  
60 resources to the euphotic zone.

61

62 From September 1997 until December 2010, a near-continuous record of global satellite  
63 ocean color observations was available from the Sea viewing Wide-Field of view Sensor  
64 (SeaWiFS) mission (e.g., McClain et al. 2004; McClain, 2009). Great efforts were made  
65 to insure the stability and accuracy of the SeaWiFS radiometric calibration enabling  
66 investigators to address relationships among ocean environmental conditions and  
67 phytoplankton productivity (e.g., Behrenfeld et al. 2006; McClain, 2009; Siegel et al. in  
68 review). The ecosystem property most often derived from ocean color data is surface  
69 chlorophyll concentration (Chl). Chl provides a measure of phytoplankton pigments and  
70 its variability reflects the combined influences of changes in phytoplankton biomass and  
71 its physiological responses to light and nutrient levels (e.g., Falkowski, 1984; Behrenfeld  
72 et al. 2005, 2008; Siegel et al. 2005; Siegel et al. in review). Figure 1 shows the SeaWiFS  
73 mission mean (Oct 1997 to Nov 2010) fields of Chl. Values of Chl span three orders of  
74 magnitude globally (0.03 to >30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) and its spatial patterns mimic large scale,  
75 climatological patterns in Ekman pumping and seasonal convective mixing (Sverdrup,  
76 1955; Yoder et al. 1993). Higher values of Chl are found in regions of seasonal deep  
77 mixing (e.g., North Atlantic and in the Southern Ocean) and sustained vertical upwelling  
78 (e.g., Equatorial Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, off California and Peru coasts), while low  
79 values are found in the low-nutrient, permanently stratified central ocean gyres (Fig. 1).

80

81 Unfortunately the SeaWiFS ceased operating in December 2010 and assessments of  
82 global ocean phytoplankton for 2011 require other satellite data assets. Here we use  
83 observations from NASA's Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS)  
84 on the Aqua platform and the European Space Agency's (ESA) Medium-Resolution  
85 Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS) instruments. Observations of chlorophyll concentration,  
86 using bio-optical algorithms similar to the SeaWiFS operational algorithms, were  
87 available from both sensor data sets and monthly binned imagery were available starting  
88 in July 2002 for both MODIS and MERIS. Raw data from the two satellite sensors are  
89 collected and processed by different groups, although many of the same field data and  
90 algorithms are employed for both (processing details are in the references listed in the  
91 caption for figure 2). Importantly, the methods and source data used to track temporal

92 changes in the satellite calibrations are different for MODIS and MERIS (e.g., NRC,  
93 2011).

94  
95 Anomalies of  $\log_e(\text{Chl})$  for the year 2011 for both MODIS and MERIS are shown in  
96 Figures 2a and 2b, respectively. Annual anomalies are calculated from monthly  
97 anomalies for each data set summed over the year 2011. Natural log transformations are  
98 commonly used to interpret data that vary over many orders of magnitude and  $\log_e(\text{Chl})$   
99 anomalies can be interpreted as the difference in Chl normalized by its mean value, or  
100 simply a percentage change (Campbell, 1995).

101  
102 Both MODIS and MERIS chlorophyll values in 2011 show differences from the long-  
103 term mean that are greater than 40% in many areas (Figs. 2a and 2b). A good  
104 correspondence is found in the spatial locations of anomalous Chl values between the two  
105 data sets, although the MODIS Chl anomalies appear to be more negative overall. Both  
106 data sets find high values of Chl for 2011 throughout much of the tropical Pacific Ocean,  
107 subtropical North Atlantic Ocean, tropical Indian Ocean, and in portions of the Southern  
108 Ocean. Conspicuously low values of Chl during 2011 were found in the western Indian  
109 Ocean, the tropical Atlantic, and globally throughout the subtropics.

110  
111 The climate state of 2011 can be characterized by the development of a strong La Nina  
112 event during the second half of the year and a strong negative Pacific Decadal Oscillation  
113 (Reference to other parts of the SoC report). In fact, the “wishbone” shaped feature  
114 indicative of a La Nina transition can be seen in the log-transformed Chl distribution  
115 across the tropical Pacific (Figs. 2a and 2b). The 2011 SST anomaly (SSTA; Fig. 2c) is  
116 indicative of a reemergence of La Nina conditions, strengthening of negative PDO,  
117 development of a positive Indian Ocean Dipole, and above-normal SST values in the  
118 tropical N. Atlantic and mid-latitude southern oceans (Xue et al. this report). These  
119 patterns in SSTA imprint generally inverse signals in the Chl anomalies (compare Figs.  
120 2a & 2b with Fig. 2c). However the expected inverse relationship is not perfect and high/  
121 low Chl anomalies are found where the SSTA signals are mixed, such as in the tropical  
122 Indian Ocean.

123  
124 To place the year 2011 in a broader climatological context, we compare monthly  
125 anomalies of  $\log_e(\text{Chl})$  averaged over (Fig. 3a) the cool region of the northern hemisphere  
126 (NH) oceans (mean SST < 15°C), (Fig. 3b) the warm ocean (mean SST > 15°C), and  
127 (Fig. 3c) the cool region of the southern hemisphere (SH) oceans (Fig. 1 shows the  
128 location of the mean 15°C isotherm) for the SeaWiFS (red), MODIS (blue) and MERIS  
129 (green) data records. Anomalies are calculated as the difference in monthly log-  
130 transformed chlorophyll determinations for each 1° bin from the respective mission’s  
131 climatology and then summed over the three regions of interest. As before, the natural  
132 log-transformed anomalies can be interpreted as percent differences from normal  
133 conditions. This evaluation of long-term temporal anomalies follows procedures from  
134 previous State of Climate reports and other publications (e.g., Behrenfeld et al. 2006;  
135 2009; O’Malley et al. 2010; Siegel et al. 2011; in review).

136

137 For the most part, aggregate Chl anomalies are bounded approximately by  $\pm 10\%$   
138 differences from normal conditions for the cool ocean aggregates (Figs. 3a and 3c) and  
139 roughly  $\pm 4\%$  for the warm oceans (Fig. 3b). Conspicuous outliers are found for the  
140 MERIS mission early in the record (particularly for the cool ocean aggregates) and for  
141 the MODIS record in late 2011. Sampling is likely to have an important role in the  
142 dispersion of results for the high latitude aggregates during the winter because high solar  
143 zenith angles greatly reduce the extent of the regions where good ocean color  
144 assessments can be made. The MODIS record for the last part of 2011 is 15% to about  
145 30% lower than normal conditions, depending on the ocean region. This extreme result is  
146 neither expected nor supported by the MERIS data record, which instead shows positive  
147 Chl anomalies in late 2011 for the warm ocean (Fig. 3b).

148  
149 The disparity among satellite data records illustrated in figure 3, especially for 2011,  
150 clearly challenges our ability to distinguish global ocean ecosystem changes over  
151 interannual time scales. While the global aggregate time series (Fig. 3) shows only a fair  
152 correspondence between missions, the spatial patterns for 2011 anomalies look broadly  
153 similar for MODIS and MERIS (Figs. 2a and 2b, respectively). The calculation of the  
154 global aggregates averages over many regional-scale anomaly features, creating a time  
155 series where smaller, persistent biases become apparent. This means that details in  
156 satellite sensor performance, data processing, and tracing of radiometric standards are  
157 very important when global aggregates are created and long-term trends are interpreted  
158 (e.g., Antoine et al. 2005; Siegel and Franz, 2010; NRC, 2011; Siegel et al. in review).

159  
160 The SeaWiFS data record made extensive use of external standards (lunar views and  
161 intense ground efforts) to monitor changes in sensor gains and offsets over time and to set  
162 the sensor's absolute calibration (e.g., Franz et al. 2007; McClain et al. 2007; McClain,  
163 2009). The relative uncertainty levels in lunar calibrations for SeaWiFS's top of the  
164 atmosphere reflectance determinations were  $\sim 0.1\%$  (compared with the low-frequency fit  
165 relationship), making SeaWiFS the long-term standard against which other satellite ocean  
166 color records are compared (e.g., Franz et al. 2007; Eplee et al. 2011; NRC, 2011; Siegel  
167 et al. in review). The recent NRC report on "Sustained Ocean Color Observations" (NRC,  
168 2011) made important recommendations from lessons learned from previous ocean color  
169 missions such as SeaWiFS. Central was the importance of assessing changes in  
170 radiometric calibration over time and the repeated reprocessing of these data streams.

171  
172 Neither MODIS nor MERIS were designed to make monthly lunar views through the  
173 Earth viewing telescope that illuminates the complete optical path and all radiometric  
174 detectors (as SeaWiFS does). Consequently, other means have been employed to trace  
175 changes in sensor calibration over time (summarized in NRC, 2011). Briefly, MERIS  
176 relies on a dual solar diffuser approach where changes in the primary diffuser are  
177 monitored by a second diffuser that is infrequently exposed to sunlight (Rast and Bezy  
178 1999; Delwart and Bourg 2011). The tracking of radiometric changes in MERIS is further  
179 complicated by the sensor design, which employs multiple cameras with multiple  
180 detectors per camera to span the cross-track view. Similarly, MODIS temporal  
181 calibration is complicated by the scanner design, which relies on a rotating scan mirror  
182 (rather than a rotating telescope) for cross-track observation and leads to different

183 temporal changes at each scan angle. MODIS requires both a solar diffuser calibration  
184 and lunar observations to track changes in radiometric calibration (Xiong et al. 2010).  
185 However, these on-board measurements are insufficient to fully characterize the changes  
186 at all scan angles or to assess changes in polarization sensitivity (Franz et al. 2008) and  
187 additional calibration sources have been used to augment the on-board calibration system  
188 (Kwiatkowska et al. 2008; Meister et al. 2012). The MODIS Aqua data set presented here  
189 (version 2010.0) used SeaWiFS as a calibration source when it was available (Meister et  
190 al. 2012). The severe underestimates of Chl levels for 2011 shown in Fig. 3 are caused to  
191 large degree by the lack of SeaWiFS observations to cross-calibrate the MODIS sensor  
192 signals. Work is currently underway to use natural ground (cf., land) targets to correct the  
193 MODIS Aqua signals in the absence of SeaWiFS observations (B. Franz, pers. comm.  
194 February 2012). These are details, but the details are critical for assessing long-term  
195 changes in satellite ocean color observations – particularly at global scales.

196

197 In February of this year, the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) sensor  
198 on the Suomi NPP mission started acquiring science data. VIIRS’s contribution to our  
199 understanding of changes in the global ocean biosphere demands careful attention and  
200 characterization of its radiometric changes over time and will require the successive  
201 reprocessing of the entire data stream (see specific VIIRS recommendations in NRC,  
202 2011). The recent decision to acquire monthly lunar calibrations is an excellent step  
203 towards creating a climate quality data set from VIIRS. Similar requirements will also  
204 pertain to ocean color sensors on upcoming international missions, such as ESA’s Ocean  
205 Land Colour Instrument (OLCI) and Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency’s Second-  
206 Generation Global Imager (SGLI). The ability of these missions to extend the climate-  
207 quality ocean color time-series that started with SeaWiFS has yet to be determined, but  
208 establishment of temporal stability in the radiometric calibration will be a primary  
209 challenge. Finally, the Pre Aerosol Clouds and Ecosystem (PACE) mission is expected  
210 to have stringent requirements for tracking radiometric changes and one of its aims is to  
211 extend the climate quality observations started with SeaWiFS. The launch of the PACE  
212 mission is scheduled to occur no earlier than 2019.

213

214 The ecology and biogeochemistry of the oceans are constantly changing in response to  
215 climate variability and change. These changes of the ocean biosphere exhibit tremendous  
216 spatial heterogeneity that simply cannot be sampled adequately from point source or ship-  
217 based measurements (e.g., Siegel et al. in review). Viewing integrated global ocean  
218 responses is the province of satellite observations and, for the moment, our ability to  
219 visualize these changes is impaired. Regaining our full vision will require creative  
220 approaches for characterizing current space assets, continually reevaluating and  
221 reprocessing existing data sets, and focusing priorities of future sensors on the end-to-end  
222 mission requirements that ensure the retrieval of global, climate-quality data products  
223 over the lifetime of ocean sensor missions.

224

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301

302 **Figure Captions:**

303

304 **Figure 1:** Mean Chl distribution calculated over the entire SeaWiFS record from monthly  
305 level 3 imagery (November 1, 1997 to November 30, 2010) in units of  $\log(\text{mg Chl m}^{-3})$ .  
306 Also shown is the location of the mean 15°C SST isotherm (black line).

307

308 **Figure 2:** Spatial distribution of summed monthly anomalies for 2011 for (a) MODIS  
309  $\log_e(\text{Chl})$  (units are % difference from climatology), (b) MERIS  $\log_e(\text{Chl})$  (units are %  
310 difference from climatology) and (c) SST (units are °C). Anomalies are calculated on a 1  
311 degree basis as differences in the year 2011 from monthly mean distribution over  
312 available data from each mission. MODIS observations are from Reprocessing 2010.0  
313 (<http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/WIKI/OCRproc20100MA.html>). MERIS observations  
314 are from its third data processing  
315 ([http://earth.eo.esa.int/pcs/envisat/meris/documentation/meris\\_3rd\\_reproc/MERIS\\_3rd\\_Reprocessing\\_Changes.pdf](http://earth.eo.esa.int/pcs/envisat/meris/documentation/meris_3rd_reproc/MERIS_3rd_Reprocessing_Changes.pdf)). SST anomalies are based upon the Reynolds weekly SST  
316 version 2 (see Xue et al. this report for more details).

318

319 **Figure 3:** Monthly anomalies for  $\log_e(\text{Chl})$  averaged over a) the cool region of the  
320 northern hemisphere (NH) oceans (mean SST < 15°C), b) the warm ocean (mean SST >  
321 15°C) and c) the cool region of the southern hemisphere (SH) oceans for the SeaWiFS  
322 (red), MODIS (blue) and MERIS (green) data records. Figure 1 shows the location of the  
323 mean 15°C isotherm. Values are calculated from 1-degree gridded monthly log-  
324 transformed anomalies using each mission's climatology following procedures from  
325 previous State of Climate reports and other publications (e.g., Behrenfeld et al. 2006;  
326 2009; O'Malley et al. 2010; Siegel et al. 2011; in review).

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