# Long-term trends in the distribution of ocean chlorophyll

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#### Abstract

The concentration of chlorophyll-a (CHL) is an important proxy for autotrophic biomass and primary production in the ocean. Quantifying trends and variability in CHL are essential to understanding how marine ecosystems are affected by climate change. Previous analyses have focused on assessing trends in CHL mean, but little is known about observed changes in CHL extremes and variance. Here we apply a quantile regression model to detect trends in CHL distribution over the period of 1997-2022 for several quantiles. We find that the magnitude of trends in upper quantiles of global CHL (>90th) are larger than those in lower quantiles ([?]50th) and in the mean, suggesting a growing asymmetry in CHL distribution. On a regional scale, trends in different quantiles are statistically significant at high latitude, equatorial, and oligotrophic regions. Assessing changes in CHL distribution has potential to yield a more comprehensive understanding of climate change impacts on CHL.

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5	Key Points:

6	•	Long-term changes are detected in different aspects of the distribution of chlorophyll-
7		a (not just the mean state).
8	•	Oceanic chlorophyll-a high extremes are changing faster than chlorophyll-a mean
9		globally during 1997-2022.
10	•	On a regional scale, chlorophyll-a extremes trends are predominant at high lat-
11		itude $(+)$ , equatorial $(-)$ , and oligotrophic regions $(-)$ .

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#### 12 Abstract

The concentration of chlorophyll-a (CHL) is an important proxy for autotrophic biomass 13 and primary production in the ocean. Quantifying trends and variability in CHL are es-14 sential to understanding how marine ecosystems are affected by climate change. Previ-15 ous analyses have focused on assessing trends in CHL mean, but little is known about 16 observed changes in CHL extremes and variance. Here we apply a quantile regression 17 model to detect trends in CHL distribution over the period of 1997-2022 for several quan-18 tiles. We find that the magnitude of trends in upper quantiles of global CHL (>90th) 19 are larger than those in lower quantiles ( $\leq$ 50th) and in the mean, suggesting a growing 20 asymmetry in CHL distribution. On a regional scale, trends in different quantiles are sta-21 tistically significant at high latitude, equatorial, and oligotrophic regions. Assessing changes 22 in CHL distribution has potential to yield a more comprehensive understanding of cli-23

<sup>24</sup> mate change impacts on CHL.

## <sup>25</sup> Plain Language Summary

The marine environment is essential to nature and society, as it provides food and 26 other important services such as Earth's climate regulation and habitat for species. Ma-27 rine primary productivity is increasingly stressed due to global climate change. Detect-28 ing the impact of climate change on primary producers should be a priority given their 29 critical role in the climate system. Most studies focus on the impact of climate change 30 31 by evaluating the mean state of primary productivity, but little is known about whether and how climate change is impacting variance and extremes. Here we assess changes in 32 chlorophyll-a (CHL), which is an important proxy for primary production of marine ecosys-33 tems. We quantify long-term changes in different aspects of the CHL distribution (mean, 34 variance, and extremes) using a quantile regression model. We find that CHL high ex-35 tremes and variability are slightly intensified globally during the 26 years of observational 36 record. Trends in regional scales, especially in high-latitude and North Atlantic Subtrop-37 ical Gyre, show that CHL high extremes have been increasing since 1997. Our results 38 suggest that more emphasis should be put into understanding the impact of climate change 39 on the variance and extremes of primary productivity for climate change adaptation and 40 mitigation. 41

#### 42 1 Introduction

Global climate change is increasingly affecting marine ecosystems, altering the ocean's 43 biological primary productivity. Based on coupled model projections, a global decline 44 in primary productivity is expected due to changes in temperature, light, nutrients, and 45 grazing (Bopp et al., 2013; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020), with potential repercussions on 46 marine ecosystems (Laufkötter et al., 2015), fisheries (Free et al., 2019), and the global 47 carbon cycle (Sarmiento et al., 2004). Marine phytoplankton contribute nearly half of 48 the global primary productivity (Field et al., 1998). Consequently, detecting the impact 49 of climate change on marine phytoplankton should be a priority given the critical role 50 that primary productivity play in physical and biogeochemical interactions in the ocean. 51

Chlorophyll-a (CHL) is an essential climate variable and an important proxy for 52 marine primary productivity (Bojinski et al., 2014; Hollmann et al., 2013). Satellite CHL 53 offers high temporal and spatial resolution to support global and regional assessments 54 of long-term changes in CHL (McClain, 2009; Blondeau-Patissier et al., 2014; Bindoff 55 et al., 2022). To date, studies of long-term trends in CHL have focused on changes in 56 the mean state (Gregg et al., 2005; Boyce et al., 2010; Henson et al., 2010; Boyce et al., 57 2010; Saulquin et al., 2013; Mélin, 2016; Henson et al., 2016; Hammond et al., 2020). Al-58 though assessing long-term trends in the mean is important for understanding how CHL 59 is changing, this does not depict a complete portrait of changes. Assessing changes in 60

variability and extremes may yield a more complete understanding of climate change impacts on CHL.

Ocean extremes and their impact on marine ecosystems have sparked a lot of at-63 tention and concern recently (Gruber et al., 2021). Marine heatwaves, low oxygen con-64 centrations, and high acidity events are expected to intensify and occur more often, with 65 impacts on organisms and ecosystems, further affecting ecosystem services and human 66 welfare (Gruber et al., 2021). Compound extreme events, where two or more ocean ex-67 tremes are happening synergistically (e.g., low oxygen and high temperature) are of par-68 ticular concern as they can contribute to biological and ecological impacts in different 69 ways (Gruber et al., 2021; Le Grix et al., 2021; Burger et al., 2022). Several studies have 70 considered how the ocean's variance may be responding to climate change, including sea 71 surface temperatures (Alexander et al., 2018), marine carbon dioxide (Landschützer et 72 al., 2018), sea ice (Tareghian & Rasmussen, 2013), sea level (Barbosa, 2008), and phy-73 toplankton biomass (Elsworth et al., 2022). A recent study showed that changes in vari-74 ance are omnipresent in different aspects of Earth's climate and span physical and ecosys-75 tem variables, and tend to be more predominant in variables that are typically not nor-76 mally distributed such as primary production (Rodgers et al., 2021). To our knowledge, 77 there is no prior assessment of change in global CHL distribution over the observational 78 period. 79

In this study, we provide a first assessment of changes in the whole CHL distribu-80 tion, since other aspects of the CHL distribution (e.g., extremes) may be equally or even 81 more important than the mean CHL. Our objective is to assess observed long-term trends 82 in CHL distribution globally and regionally. Two multi-mission satellite products are uti-83 lized to expand the variety of results on global and regional scales and reduce the effect 84 of the sensitivity of datasets. The impact of seasonality is also taken into account. We 85 estimate long-term trends in multiple quantiles of a time series using quantile regression 86 (QR), which together represent spatial and temporal changes in the distribution, includ-87 ing the tails representing extreme events (Cai & Reeve, 2013). 88

<sup>89</sup> 2 Data and Methodology

#### 2.1 Data

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We use two chlorophyll-a  $(mq/m^3)$  data products spanning 1997 to 2022. The first 91 one is derived from the ESA's Ocean Color Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCI) project 92 version 6.0 (Sathyendranath et al., 2019). This is a satellite multi-mission data product 93 computed from merging the remote-sensing reflectance of a set of sensors, including Sea-94 viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor (SeaWiFS), Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectro-95 radiometer onboard the Aqua (MODIS-A), Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer 96 (MERIS), Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS), and Ocean and Land Colour 97 Instrument (OLCI). The OC-CCI product is continuously corrected for biases (Mélin et 98 al., 2017). Additional analyses using the OC-CCI data product are included in the sup-99 porting information (Text S1). 100

The second dataset is derived from the GlobColour Project of the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS). This merged chlorophyll-a product is constructed by a combination of chlorophyll-a products directly computed for each sensor (SeaWiFS, MODIS-A, MERIS, VIIRS, and OLCI) (Garnesson et al., 2019), which provides a "cloud-free" product by space-time interpolation. While the focus of our analysis is on the OC-CCI dataset, we include additional analyses of GlobColour in the supporting information (Text S2) as a measure of sensitivity.

Both datasets cover from September 1997 to December 2022 and are gridded at 4 km spatial resolution and monthly temporal resolutions. They have been regridded from 110 a  $1/24^{\circ}$  grid to a 1° grid by averaging within 1 degree boxes. Before fitting the QR model, the monthly data is deseasonalized in both datasets assuming a constant seasonal cycle.

113 2.2 Quantile Regression Model

To quantify changes in CHL distribution, we estimate trends in different distribu-114 tion quantiles via QR (Koenker & Bassett Jr, 1978). While assessing change in the mean 115 of climate variables using ordinary least squares (OLS) provides extremely valuable in-116 formation, it does not provide insight into changing extremes and how overall variabil-117 ity is related to time-varying events (Abbas et al., 2019). The main difference with OLS 118 is that QR substitutes the conditional mean function in OLS for a conditional quantile 119 function (Koenker & Bassett Jr, 1978; Koenker & D'Orey, 1987). As such, instead of mod-120 eling the mean response in the regression model, QR models the response at a given quan-121 tile level. The QR model makes no assumptions about the distribution of the target vari-122 able and the residuals. Specifically, QR can identify opposite trends in statistical extremes 123 (upper and lower) that would remain hidden if focusing on means (Sankarasubramanian 124 & Lall, 2003). We use a QR model to assess trends of CHL in various quantile levels. 125 The model is given by: 126

$$y_t = \alpha_\tau + \beta_\tau t + \epsilon_{t\tau},\tag{1}$$

<sup>127</sup> where  $y_t$  is the response variable (i.e., CHL) at time t (in months) for the condi-<sup>128</sup> tional quantile  $\tau$ ,  $\alpha_{\tau}$  and  $\beta_{\tau}$  denote the intercept and slope for quantile level  $\tau$ , respec-<sup>129</sup> tively. Residuals are represented by  $\epsilon_{\tau}$ . The quantile regression model can be expressed <sup>130</sup> as  $y = f'(\alpha_{\tau}, \beta_{\tau}, t)$ . For given parameters  $\alpha_{\tau}$  and  $\beta_{\tau}$ , they are estimated by minimiz-<sup>131</sup> ing the sum of asymmetrically weighted absolute residuals

$$\sum_{t=1}^{n} \rho_{\tau}(y_t - f'(\alpha_{\tau}, \beta_{\tau}, t)),$$
(2)

where *n* is the data length and  $\rho_{\tau}$  represents the tiled absolute value function, which gives different weights to positive and negative residuals (Koenker & Hallock, 2001). The tiled absolute value function can be expressed as:

$$\rho_{\tau} = \begin{cases} \tau, & y_t \ge (\alpha_{\tau} + \beta_{\tau} t) \\ 1 - \tau, & y_t < (\alpha_{\tau} + \beta_{\tau} t) \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

We fit QR models at several quantile levels (5%, 10%, 50%, 90%, and 95% levels). As a comparison, OLS is also used here to fit trends in the mean CHL. The quantile regression model is implemented using the R package quantreg (Koenker et al., 2018).

#### 2.3 Serially Correlated Residuals

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<sup>139</sup> Monthly chlorophyll-a concentration may exhibit serial autocorrelation in time se-<sup>140</sup> ries, which may bias trend detection (Beaulieu et al., 2013). Here we assume that resid-<sup>141</sup> uals in CHL may follow a first-order autocorrelation (AR1) model. The quantile regres-<sup>142</sup> sion residuals at level  $\tau$ ,  $\epsilon_{\tau t}$ , are given by:

$$\epsilon_{\tau t} = \phi_{\tau} \epsilon_{\tau t-1} + \hat{\nu}_{\tau t}, \tag{4}$$

where  $\phi$  is the first-order autocorrelation coefficient and  $\hat{\nu}_{\tau}$  denotes white noise errors.

QR estimates may be biased in the presence of correlated errors (Koenker et al.,
2017). To verify the presence of autocorrelation in the residuals of the QR, we use a residualbased autocorrelation test, named the QF test (Huo et al., 2017). The test statistic is
given by:

$$QF_T = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T \tilde{\nu}_{\tau t}^2 - \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\nu}_{\tau t}^2}{\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\nu}_{\tau t}^2 / (T - p - k)},$$
(5)

where  $\hat{\nu}_{\tau t}^2$  denotes the residuals from the AR1 model fitted on the quantile residuals in Equation 4, implying the model under the alternative hypothesis  $(H_1 : \phi \neq 0)$ ,  $\hat{\nu}_{\tau t}^2$  denotes the residuals under the null hypothesis  $(H_0 : \phi = 0)$  in which all parameters for lagged residuals are joint to zero under the null hypothesis, T is the length of time series, p is the autocorrelation order, and k is the number of explanatory variables. The asymptotical distribution of the QF statistic is a chi-squared distribution with p degrees of freedom. More detailed information is presented in Huo et al. (2017).

<sup>156</sup> If serial correlation is detected in the residuals from the QF test, we transform the <sup>157</sup> time series by modifying the response variable (Cochrane & Orcutt, 1949):

$$y_t - \phi_\tau y_{t-1} = \alpha_\tau (1 - \phi_\tau) + \beta_\tau (t - \phi_\tau (t-1)) + \nu_{\tau t}, \tag{6}$$

Where  $\alpha_{\tau}$  and  $\beta_{\tau}$  are estimated from Equation 1. The autoregressive parameter 158  $\phi_{\tau}$  is estimated by first regressing the untransformed QR model and obtaining the resid-159 uals  $\hat{\epsilon}_t$ , then regressing  $\hat{\epsilon}_t$  on  $\hat{\epsilon}_{t-1}$ . Note that the first data point is lost in this process, 160 and there are n-1 residual terms  $\nu_{\tau t}$  after transformation. If the transformation was suc-161 cessful, the  $\nu_{\tau t}$  should be white noise. To account for potential sensitivity to the choice 162 of transformation method, We also use the Hildreth-Lu procedure (Hildreth & Lu, 1960). 163 This procedure is also a transformation based on differencing, but the Hildreth-Lu pro-164 cedure offers a simultaneous estimation of the autocorrelation of the disturbances and 165 the coefficients (Dufour et al., 1980). Results using Hildreth-Lu are included in the sup-166 porting information (Text S1; Figure S1). 167

#### 168 **3 Results**

#### 169

#### 3.1 Global Trends and Variability

On a global scale, trend estimates vary according to quantile levels (Figure 1). The magnitude of trend in the upper quantile of global CHL (95th) is larger than those in the middle and lower quantiles (<50th) (Figure 1a and 1b). As shown in Figure 1c and 1d, though the magnitude and uncertainty of global CHL trends differ by quantile level, most of the quantile levels show an increase in CHL. All trends are shown after removing serial correlation.

For the OC-CCI data product, all quantiles present a positive and significant trend 176 (Figure 1a and 1c). The CHL trends in upper quantile (95th) is the steepest with a mag-177 nitude of  $2.5 \times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, whereas the lower and middle quantiles show trends 178 with smaller magnitudes. These features suggest a slight increase in the variance of global 179 CHL given a more pronounced increase in the upper quantile than in lower quantiles, 180 although trend uncertainty is also larger for the 95th quantile. A positive trend of 1.2 181  $\times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> is detected by applying an OLS regression model that is almost 182 identical to trends in median CHL (50th quantile). It indicates that the average and me-183 dian global CHL are changing closely, and at a slightly lower pace than lower and up-184 per extreme concentrations. The 95 % confidence intervals in all quantile levels suggest 185 the larger uncertainty ( $\pm 0.5$  and  $\pm 1.2 \times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the lower and upper quan-186 tiles, compared to middle quantiles with  $\pm 0.2 \times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. 187



**Figure 1** Time series of monthly global mean CHL from 1997-2022 with trends fitted in different quantile levels from (a) OC-CCI product and (b) GlobColour product. Trends in different quantile levels (5th to 95th levels) with 95% confidence intervals from (c) OC-CCI product and (d) GlobColour product. Trends were fitted to transformed data to remove autocorrelation.

The trends and their variability in global CHL are similar for most quantiles in the 188 GlobColour data product (Figure 1b and 1d). Although negative trends are detected in 189 the 5th and 10th quantile levels, trends in upper and middle quantile levels are positive. 190 Again, upper quantile levels have a larger uncertainty (Figure 1d). A trend in CHL mean 191 is  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> that is very similar to trends in median CHL ( $0.5 \times 10^{-4}$  mg 192  $m^{-3} yr^{-1}$ ). The difference in trend sign between global CHL high and low imply an in-193 creasing variability over this period. This increase in variability is less pronounced in the 194 OC-CCI dataset, with the lower and upper quantiles having the same trend sign but dif-195 ferent magnitudes (Figure 1a). The results are not sensitive to a log-transformation of 196 CHL (Text S1; Figure S2 in supporting information). 197

#### 3.2 Regional Trends

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Trends estimated in each grid cell are presented in Figure 2. After a preliminary 199 analysis, the presence of autocorrelation was detected in most areas of the ocean (Fig-200 ure S3 in the supporting information). As such, a Cochrane-Orcutt transformation was 201 applied to remove autocorrelation from the data. It must be noted that this transfor-202 mation does not remove the trend signal, but only sieve the autocorrelation. As a com-203 parison, a different transformation procedure was used to remove autocorrelation from 204 the data, the Hildreth-Lu method (Figure S1 in the supporting information). Results 205 are consistent with the Cochrane-Orcutt transformation (Text S1; Figure S1 in the sup-206 porting information), suggesting that the results are robust to the choice of transforma-207 tion approach. 208

At the regional scale, trends in lower quantiles are more scattered (Figure 2a and 210 2b), and patterns become more apparent in the median and larger quantiles (Figure 2c,



Figure 2 Maps of CHL trends from the OC-CCI data product during 1997-2022 in (a)5th, (b) 10th, (c) 50th, (d) 90th, (e) 95th quantile levels, and (f) in CHL mean, respectively. Trends were fitted to transformed data to remove autocorrelation via the Cochrane-Orcutt procedure. The grey shadows are regions where trends are not significant at a 5% level.

2d, and 2e). Overall, regions with significant trends in the upper quantiles are mainly
located at high latitudes (+), in equatorial (-), and oligotrophic regions (-) (Figure 2d
and 2e). A few regions emerge with consistent patterns of change in North Pacific Subarctic Province, North Atlantic Drift Province, Subantarctic Province, Pacific Equatorial Province, North Pacific Subtropical Gyre, and North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre, and
are highlighted in Figure 2f. The regions are divided as defined by Longhurst (1995) (see
supporting information, Text S3).

In Figure 3, we further look into the regions with significant trends identified above. 218 We averaged grid cells in these regions and estimated trends with their respective con-219 fidence intervals. Trends in different quantiles may vary in magnitude and sign, suggest-220 ing that the shape of the CHL distribution is varying on a regional scale. Positive trends 221 dominate in the North Pacific Subarctic Province, North Atlantic Drift Province, and 222 Subantarctic Province (Figure 3a, 3b, and 3c). Trends in Subantarctic Province are pos-223 itive in all quantile levels, while the North Pacific Subarctic Province and North Atlantic 224 Drift Province exhibit similar patterns whereby trends in lower quantiles are not signif-225 icant and median and upper quantiles are significant and positive. In these three regions, 226 trends detected in different quantiles are consistent with an increasing variability over 227 the observational record. In low nutrient regions, namely the Pacific Equatorial Province 228 and North Pacific Subtropical Gyre, trends in the lower quantiles are significantly in-229 creasing even if negative trends are observed in the mean/median (Figure 3d and 3e). 230 It might indicate that CHL low extremes become less frequent during the recording pe-231 riod. Among these regions, Pacific Equatorial Province and North Pacific Subtropical 232 Gyre present consistent trends with an overall decrease in variability. The North Atlantic 233 Subtropical Gyre exhibits decreasing trends in middle quantile levels and increasing trends 234 at upper quantiles, suggesting a slightly increasing variance over time. Trend estimates 235 obtained by the OLS model closely follow those for the median in all of the regions (see 236 supporting information, Figure S4). 237

Most regions show increasing variability in CHL except Pacific Equatorial and North 238 Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province. The large variance of CHL relates to climate season-239 ality and dominates at high latitudes, sub-polar, and coastal waters. December, January, 240 and February (DJF) and June, July, and August (JJA) are two seasons that are com-241 monly used to analyze ocean phytoplankton blooms because they represent contrasting 242 environmental conditions that affect the growth and distribution of phytoplankton in the 243 ocean. The impact of regional seasonality is shown in the supporting information (Text 244 S1; Figure S5). 245

We also include results obtained on the GlobColour dataset in these regions to assess the sensitivity of our findings to the choice of the dataset in Text S2 (supporting information). In most regions, trends detected in different quantiles are consistent except for the North Atlantic Drift province and the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province (Figure S6, S7, and S8 in the supporting information).

#### <sup>251</sup> 4 Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, we provide a first assessment of changes in CHL distribution in the 252 global ocean over the 1997–2022 period. At the global scale, our results suggest that dif-253 ferent quantiles are changing at different paces, with CHL high extremes changing faster 254 than the rest of the distribution. This difference in pace results in an overall slight in-255 crease in CHL variability. At the regional scale, CHL high extremes are increasing at high 256 latitudes and decreasing in equatorial and oligotrophic regions. These changes are con-257 sistent with Earth System Models projections whereby high latitude oceans are light-258 limited while equatorial and oligotrophic regions are limited by nutrients (Doney, 2006; 259 Doney et al., 2012; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020). Furthermore, we show that changes at high 260 latitudes are more pronounced during DJF season, while changes in equatorial regions 261



**Figure 3** Regional CHL trends in OC-CCI data product in different quantile levels in regions, (a) North Pacific Subarctic Gyre Province, (b) North Atlantic Drift Province, (c) Subantarctic Province, (d) Pacific Equatorial Province, (e) North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province, and (f) North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre Province. The 95% confidence intervals for each regression are represented by the vertical lines. The red horizontal dashed line is zero.

dominate during JJA. This may be due to climate processes like El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) that tend to start during JJA in equatorial regions.

In a study focusing on analyzing phytoplankton carbon biomass in an Earth Sys-264 tem Model large ensemble, Elsworth et al. (2022) identified decreasing variability of global 265 phytoplankton variance from 1920-2100. Our results do not show an overall decreased 266 variability in CHL. This difference may be due to the differing periods of analysis. In-267 deed, our analysis focuses on the period 1997-2022, and changes detected over that pe-268 riod may be more indicative of decadal variability rather than long-term impact of cli-269 270 mate change over 1920-2100. Another explanation could be that the two studies are analyzing different variables. While previous studies have discussed the correlation between 271 the spatial distribution of CHL (used in this study) and phytoplankton carbon biomass 272 (Kostadinov et al., 2016; Martínez-Vicente et al., 2017), those variables tend to decou-273 ple especially in subtropical regions (Barbieux et al., 2018). Future work should focus 274 on analyzing CHL extremes and variability in models to assess whether long-term changes 275 in CHL variability and extremes are consistent with observations, in order to better un-276 derstand their drivers and anticipate future changes. 277

Regional trends differ from those at the global scale with mixed signs and larger 278 magnitudes. Regions with significant trends in upper quantiles include the North Pa-279 cific Subarctic Province (+), North Atlantic Drift Province (+), Subantarctic Province 280 (+), Pacific Equatorial Province (-), North Pacific Subtropical Gyre (-), and North At-281 lantic Subtropical Gyre (-), as shown in Figure 2f. Regional changes in upper quantiles 282 described above also correspond to changes in CHL variability with increase in the North 283 Pacific Subarctic Province, North Atlantic Drift Province, and Subantarctic Provinces, 284 and declining variability in Pacific Equatorial and North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province. 285 Those regions are characterized by noticeable ecological and biogeochemical seasonal vari-286 ability that is closely related to strong annual cycles in light, nutrients, temperature, wind 287 force, and zooplankton grazing at surface (Henson et al., 2010; Elsworth et al., 2022). 288 At the regional scale, large-scale climate patterns such as El Niño Southern Oscillation 289 (ENSO), Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), and North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) are 290 known drivers of CHL trends and variability (Corno et al., 2007; Zhai et al., 2013; Kang 291 et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2020; Le Grix et al., 2021). In the North Pacific Subarctic Gyres 292 and North Atlantic Drift Provinces, warming over the last two decades has resulted in 293 more phytoplankton blooming (Dunstan et al., 2018). Our results showing that CHL high 294 extremes are becoming more frequent are consistent with Dunstan et al. (2018) and Kahru 295 & Mitchell (2008) findings. Changes in the North Atlantic Drift region are more pronounced 296 than the North Pacific Subarctic Gyre, also consistent with previous analysis on phy-297 toplankton blooms (Westberry et al., 2016). As for the Southern hemisphere, seasonal 298 variation in the location of transition zones between subpolar and subtropical gyres co-299 incide with increasing CHL variance (Dunstan et al., 2018). This phenomenon may in-300 dicate that the increasing seasonal variance plays a role in the CHL distribution changes 301 detected here (Thomalla et al., 2023). Trends in Subantarctic Province are significantly 302 positive in all quantile levels. A possible explanation is that though iron limitation con-303 trols the Southern Ocean, sea surface warming could still be an important driver on sea-304 sonal phytoplankton blooms in this region instead of light or nutrients (Moore et al., 2013; 305 Laufkötter et al., 2015), resulting in positive and similar magnitude changes in CHL dis-306 tribution and their variability over the observational period. 307

Some limitations in this study may impact the validity of our results. First, the shortness of the record may impact our results, as we use observations over a period that is slightly shorter (26 years) than the recommended 30 years for assessing climate change impacts (WMO, 2018). More specifically, satellite ocean color datasets require multiple decades to distinguish long-term climate-related trends from natural variability(Henson et al., 2010; Beaulieu et al., 2013; Bindoff et al., 2022), although exact detection timescales vary depending on regional interannual and decadal variability and magnitude of trends (Henson et al., 2010). That said, previous studies aimed at estimating timescales of trend
detection in ocean CHL (Henson et al., 2010; Beaulieu et al., 2013) focused on mean changes
in CHL, not variability and extremes, and these detection times may be different here.
Recent studies also suggested that long-term trends in satellite ocean color may be detectable faster in reflectance rather than CHL (Cael et al., 2023; Dutkiewicz et al., 2019).
Assessing whether similar patterns can be detected in reflectance observations should
be the focus of a future study.

Second, merged time series of multimission products used here are susceptible to 322 323 biases, which may impact the CHL trends detected (Saulquin et al., 2013; Mélin, 2016; Mélin et al., 2017; Hammond et al., 2018). GlobColour merges multi-sensor CHL with 324 a specific flagging, but is not explicitly bias-corrected (Maritorena et al., 2010; Garnes-325 son et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2023). For the OC-CCI product, multi-sensors reflectance is 326 merged before CHL derivation, which results in a more constrained approach (Sathyen-327 dranath et al., 2017). As a result, long-term CHL trends detected in OC-CCI and Glob-328 Colour products differ in some regions (e.g., North Pacific Subarctic Gyre and North At-329 lantic Drift Provinces). By utilizing the two datasets, we reduce the sensitivity of our 330 results to the choice of datasets and bias correction algorithms, but we cannot entirely 331 eliminate the possibility of bias in trends detected introduced from using multiple mis-332 sion data products. 333

Third, few studies have used satellite-derived CHL datasets to analyze extremes 334 (Le Grix et al., 2021; Woolway et al., 2021). Bias due to high solar zenith angles, clouds, 335 and aerosols may affect the data (Le Grix et al., 2021; Gregg et al., 2009). Low sampling 336 rates of CHL extremes may also affect our results. The majority of the surface ocean is 337 characterized by low CHL levels in the Oligotrophic area, whereas high CHL levels are 338 only present in a small portion ( $\sim 1\%$ ) primarily located in coastal zones (Sathyendranath 339 et al., 2019; Van Oostende et al., 2018). Insufficient data in CHL extremes correspond-340 ing to lower and upper quantile levels result in higher uncertainties (larger confidence 341 intervals) for CHL trends. 342

Finally, we made assumptions when fitting the statistical model that may influence 343 the results. We assume that trends in different quantiles are linear, following previous 344 studies (Gregg et al., 2005; Boyce et al., 2010; Henson et al., 2010; Boyce et al., 2010; 345 Saulquin et al., 2013; Mélin, 2016; Henson et al., 2016; Hammond et al., 2020). More com-346 plex time dependence such as nonlinear trends or abrupt changes were not assessed as 347 linear trends can provide a first-order approximation to long-term changes and avoid over-348 fitting the data. Furthermore, the period of observations is quite short, so there is a risk 349 of overfitting with more complex time dependence. A constant seasonal pattern is as-350 sumed in our study, though some studies have shown that the CHL seasonal cycle might 351 vary over time (Vantrepotte & Mélin, 2009; Henson et al., 2013). A changing seasonal 352 cycle over the period of observation may bias trends detected here. However, changes 353 in seasonal cycle require longer time series to be detected than trends in the mean (Hen-354 son et al., 2013), and potential biases introduced here should be minimal. Quantile re-355 gression models used here assume independent errors. To deal with the presence of au-356 tocorrelation, we used pre-whitening methods. These approaches help reduce the risk 357 of a false detection (i.e., detecting a trend when there is none), but are also associated 358 with a reduced power of detection (Bayazit & Onöz, 2007). As such, significant trends 359 may not be detected. Results may also differ based on the pre-whitening approach used. 360 Here, we reduced this problem by using two different pre-whitening approaches, Cochrane-361 Orcutt and Hildreth-Lu procedures, and showed our results were not sensitive to the choice 362 of pre-whitening method (see supporting information). 363

To our knowledge, this is the first study assessing long-term changes in CHL distribution on a global scale, as opposed to focusing entirely on mean CHL. More information related to climate variables such as seasonal changes and their variability, as well as extreme conditions, are revealed by assessing trends in all quantile levels of the CHL

distribution. We conclude that over the satellite record, trends in CHL extremes are more 368 pronounced than that in the mean CHL. Henson et al. (2010) concluded that the cur-369 rent length of observation recording is insufficient to identify a climate change trend in 370 mean CHL and suggested that a time series of approximately 40 years is needed to sep-371 arate a global warming trend from natural variability. Our results show that trends in 372 CHL high extremes tend to have larger magnitudes and uncertainties than trends in the 373 mean, both of which may impact detection times. By considering the whole distribution 374 (not just the mean), we may be able to detect climate change-related trends faster and 375 more holistically, and better understand the effects of anthropogenic forcing on marine 376 ecosystems, which will enable us to make more effective decisions concerning socioeco-377 nomic systems that are affected by climate change (Henson et al., 2016). Future work 378 should focus on quantifying detection times in different aspects of CHL distribution to 379 develop the ability to formally detect the impact of climate change in marine ecosystems 380 as soon as possible. 381

## <sup>382</sup> 5 Open Research

Data Availability Statement

383

The OC-CCI data can be found on the open portal of ESA's climate office at this site: http://dx.doi.org/10.5285/1dbe7a109c0244aaad713e078fd3059a. The Glob-Colour data can be found on the GlobColour Project of Copernicus program at this site: https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00281. The R code used to produce the initial dataset, statistically analyze the quantile regression model, and reproduce the figures of the manuscript, is publicly available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8343435.

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1 2	Long-term trends in the distribution of ocean chlorophyll
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5	Key Points:

6	•	Long-term changes are detected in different aspects of the distribution of chlorophyll-
7		a (not just the mean state).
8	•	Oceanic chlorophyll-a high extremes are changing faster than chlorophyll-a mean
9		globally during 1997-2022.
10	•	On a regional scale, chlorophyll-a extremes trends are predominant at high lat-
11		itude $(+)$ , equatorial $(-)$ , and oligotrophic regions $(-)$ .

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#### 12 Abstract

The concentration of chlorophyll-a (CHL) is an important proxy for autotrophic biomass 13 and primary production in the ocean. Quantifying trends and variability in CHL are es-14 sential to understanding how marine ecosystems are affected by climate change. Previ-15 ous analyses have focused on assessing trends in CHL mean, but little is known about 16 observed changes in CHL extremes and variance. Here we apply a quantile regression 17 model to detect trends in CHL distribution over the period of 1997-2022 for several quan-18 tiles. We find that the magnitude of trends in upper quantiles of global CHL (>90th) 19 are larger than those in lower quantiles ( $\leq$ 50th) and in the mean, suggesting a growing 20 asymmetry in CHL distribution. On a regional scale, trends in different quantiles are sta-21 tistically significant at high latitude, equatorial, and oligotrophic regions. Assessing changes 22 in CHL distribution has potential to yield a more comprehensive understanding of cli-23

<sup>24</sup> mate change impacts on CHL.

## <sup>25</sup> Plain Language Summary

The marine environment is essential to nature and society, as it provides food and 26 other important services such as Earth's climate regulation and habitat for species. Ma-27 rine primary productivity is increasingly stressed due to global climate change. Detect-28 ing the impact of climate change on primary producers should be a priority given their 29 critical role in the climate system. Most studies focus on the impact of climate change 30 31 by evaluating the mean state of primary productivity, but little is known about whether and how climate change is impacting variance and extremes. Here we assess changes in 32 chlorophyll-a (CHL), which is an important proxy for primary production of marine ecosys-33 tems. We quantify long-term changes in different aspects of the CHL distribution (mean, 34 variance, and extremes) using a quantile regression model. We find that CHL high ex-35 tremes and variability are slightly intensified globally during the 26 years of observational 36 record. Trends in regional scales, especially in high-latitude and North Atlantic Subtrop-37 ical Gyre, show that CHL high extremes have been increasing since 1997. Our results 38 suggest that more emphasis should be put into understanding the impact of climate change 39 on the variance and extremes of primary productivity for climate change adaptation and 40 mitigation. 41

#### 42 1 Introduction

Global climate change is increasingly affecting marine ecosystems, altering the ocean's 43 biological primary productivity. Based on coupled model projections, a global decline 44 in primary productivity is expected due to changes in temperature, light, nutrients, and 45 grazing (Bopp et al., 2013; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020), with potential repercussions on 46 marine ecosystems (Laufkötter et al., 2015), fisheries (Free et al., 2019), and the global 47 carbon cycle (Sarmiento et al., 2004). Marine phytoplankton contribute nearly half of 48 the global primary productivity (Field et al., 1998). Consequently, detecting the impact 49 of climate change on marine phytoplankton should be a priority given the critical role 50 that primary productivity play in physical and biogeochemical interactions in the ocean. 51

Chlorophyll-a (CHL) is an essential climate variable and an important proxy for 52 marine primary productivity (Bojinski et al., 2014; Hollmann et al., 2013). Satellite CHL 53 offers high temporal and spatial resolution to support global and regional assessments 54 of long-term changes in CHL (McClain, 2009; Blondeau-Patissier et al., 2014; Bindoff 55 et al., 2022). To date, studies of long-term trends in CHL have focused on changes in 56 the mean state (Gregg et al., 2005; Boyce et al., 2010; Henson et al., 2010; Boyce et al., 57 2010; Saulquin et al., 2013; Mélin, 2016; Henson et al., 2016; Hammond et al., 2020). Al-58 though assessing long-term trends in the mean is important for understanding how CHL 59 is changing, this does not depict a complete portrait of changes. Assessing changes in 60

variability and extremes may yield a more complete understanding of climate change impacts on CHL.

Ocean extremes and their impact on marine ecosystems have sparked a lot of at-63 tention and concern recently (Gruber et al., 2021). Marine heatwaves, low oxygen con-64 centrations, and high acidity events are expected to intensify and occur more often, with 65 impacts on organisms and ecosystems, further affecting ecosystem services and human 66 welfare (Gruber et al., 2021). Compound extreme events, where two or more ocean ex-67 tremes are happening synergistically (e.g., low oxygen and high temperature) are of par-68 ticular concern as they can contribute to biological and ecological impacts in different 69 ways (Gruber et al., 2021; Le Grix et al., 2021; Burger et al., 2022). Several studies have 70 considered how the ocean's variance may be responding to climate change, including sea 71 surface temperatures (Alexander et al., 2018), marine carbon dioxide (Landschützer et 72 al., 2018), sea ice (Tareghian & Rasmussen, 2013), sea level (Barbosa, 2008), and phy-73 toplankton biomass (Elsworth et al., 2022). A recent study showed that changes in vari-74 ance are omnipresent in different aspects of Earth's climate and span physical and ecosys-75 tem variables, and tend to be more predominant in variables that are typically not nor-76 mally distributed such as primary production (Rodgers et al., 2021). To our knowledge, 77 there is no prior assessment of change in global CHL distribution over the observational 78 period. 79

In this study, we provide a first assessment of changes in the whole CHL distribu-80 tion, since other aspects of the CHL distribution (e.g., extremes) may be equally or even 81 more important than the mean CHL. Our objective is to assess observed long-term trends 82 in CHL distribution globally and regionally. Two multi-mission satellite products are uti-83 lized to expand the variety of results on global and regional scales and reduce the effect 84 of the sensitivity of datasets. The impact of seasonality is also taken into account. We 85 estimate long-term trends in multiple quantiles of a time series using quantile regression 86 (QR), which together represent spatial and temporal changes in the distribution, includ-87 ing the tails representing extreme events (Cai & Reeve, 2013). 88

<sup>89</sup> 2 Data and Methodology

#### 2.1 Data

90

We use two chlorophyll-a  $(mq/m^3)$  data products spanning 1997 to 2022. The first 91 one is derived from the ESA's Ocean Color Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCI) project 92 version 6.0 (Sathyendranath et al., 2019). This is a satellite multi-mission data product 93 computed from merging the remote-sensing reflectance of a set of sensors, including Sea-94 viewing Wide Field-of-view Sensor (SeaWiFS), Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectro-95 radiometer onboard the Aqua (MODIS-A), Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer 96 (MERIS), Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS), and Ocean and Land Colour 97 Instrument (OLCI). The OC-CCI product is continuously corrected for biases (Mélin et 98 al., 2017). Additional analyses using the OC-CCI data product are included in the sup-99 porting information (Text S1). 100

The second dataset is derived from the GlobColour Project of the Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service (CMEMS). This merged chlorophyll-a product is constructed by a combination of chlorophyll-a products directly computed for each sensor (SeaWiFS, MODIS-A, MERIS, VIIRS, and OLCI) (Garnesson et al., 2019), which provides a "cloud-free" product by space-time interpolation. While the focus of our analysis is on the OC-CCI dataset, we include additional analyses of GlobColour in the supporting information (Text S2) as a measure of sensitivity.

Both datasets cover from September 1997 to December 2022 and are gridded at 4 km spatial resolution and monthly temporal resolutions. They have been regridded from 110 a  $1/24^{\circ}$  grid to a 1° grid by averaging within 1 degree boxes. Before fitting the QR model, the monthly data is deseasonalized in both datasets assuming a constant seasonal cycle.

113 2.2 Quantile Regression Model

To quantify changes in CHL distribution, we estimate trends in different distribu-114 tion quantiles via QR (Koenker & Bassett Jr, 1978). While assessing change in the mean 115 of climate variables using ordinary least squares (OLS) provides extremely valuable in-116 formation, it does not provide insight into changing extremes and how overall variabil-117 ity is related to time-varying events (Abbas et al., 2019). The main difference with OLS 118 is that QR substitutes the conditional mean function in OLS for a conditional quantile 119 function (Koenker & Bassett Jr, 1978; Koenker & D'Orey, 1987). As such, instead of mod-120 eling the mean response in the regression model, QR models the response at a given quan-121 tile level. The QR model makes no assumptions about the distribution of the target vari-122 able and the residuals. Specifically, QR can identify opposite trends in statistical extremes 123 (upper and lower) that would remain hidden if focusing on means (Sankarasubramanian 124 & Lall, 2003). We use a QR model to assess trends of CHL in various quantile levels. 125 The model is given by: 126

$$y_t = \alpha_\tau + \beta_\tau t + \epsilon_{t\tau},\tag{1}$$

<sup>127</sup> where  $y_t$  is the response variable (i.e., CHL) at time t (in months) for the condi-<sup>128</sup> tional quantile  $\tau$ ,  $\alpha_{\tau}$  and  $\beta_{\tau}$  denote the intercept and slope for quantile level  $\tau$ , respec-<sup>129</sup> tively. Residuals are represented by  $\epsilon_{\tau}$ . The quantile regression model can be expressed <sup>130</sup> as  $y = f'(\alpha_{\tau}, \beta_{\tau}, t)$ . For given parameters  $\alpha_{\tau}$  and  $\beta_{\tau}$ , they are estimated by minimiz-<sup>131</sup> ing the sum of asymmetrically weighted absolute residuals

$$\sum_{t=1}^{n} \rho_{\tau}(y_t - f'(\alpha_{\tau}, \beta_{\tau}, t)),$$
(2)

where *n* is the data length and  $\rho_{\tau}$  represents the tiled absolute value function, which gives different weights to positive and negative residuals (Koenker & Hallock, 2001). The tiled absolute value function can be expressed as:

$$\rho_{\tau} = \begin{cases} \tau, & y_t \ge (\alpha_{\tau} + \beta_{\tau} t) \\ 1 - \tau, & y_t < (\alpha_{\tau} + \beta_{\tau} t) \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

We fit QR models at several quantile levels (5%, 10%, 50%, 90%, and 95% levels). As a comparison, OLS is also used here to fit trends in the mean CHL. The quantile regression model is implemented using the R package quantreg (Koenker et al., 2018).

#### 2.3 Serially Correlated Residuals

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<sup>139</sup> Monthly chlorophyll-a concentration may exhibit serial autocorrelation in time se-<sup>140</sup> ries, which may bias trend detection (Beaulieu et al., 2013). Here we assume that resid-<sup>141</sup> uals in CHL may follow a first-order autocorrelation (AR1) model. The quantile regres-<sup>142</sup> sion residuals at level  $\tau$ ,  $\epsilon_{\tau t}$ , are given by:

$$\epsilon_{\tau t} = \phi_{\tau} \epsilon_{\tau t-1} + \hat{\nu}_{\tau t}, \tag{4}$$

where  $\phi$  is the first-order autocorrelation coefficient and  $\hat{\nu}_{\tau}$  denotes white noise errors.

QR estimates may be biased in the presence of correlated errors (Koenker et al.,
2017). To verify the presence of autocorrelation in the residuals of the QR, we use a residualbased autocorrelation test, named the QF test (Huo et al., 2017). The test statistic is
given by:

$$QF_T = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T \tilde{\nu}_{\tau t}^2 - \sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\nu}_{\tau t}^2}{\sum_{t=1}^T \hat{\nu}_{\tau t}^2 / (T - p - k)},$$
(5)

where  $\hat{\nu}_{\tau t}^2$  denotes the residuals from the AR1 model fitted on the quantile residuals in Equation 4, implying the model under the alternative hypothesis  $(H_1 : \phi \neq 0)$ ,  $\hat{\nu}_{\tau t}^2$  denotes the residuals under the null hypothesis  $(H_0 : \phi = 0)$  in which all parameters for lagged residuals are joint to zero under the null hypothesis, T is the length of time series, p is the autocorrelation order, and k is the number of explanatory variables. The asymptotical distribution of the QF statistic is a chi-squared distribution with p degrees of freedom. More detailed information is presented in Huo et al. (2017).

<sup>156</sup> If serial correlation is detected in the residuals from the QF test, we transform the <sup>157</sup> time series by modifying the response variable (Cochrane & Orcutt, 1949):

$$y_t - \phi_\tau y_{t-1} = \alpha_\tau (1 - \phi_\tau) + \beta_\tau (t - \phi_\tau (t-1)) + \nu_{\tau t}, \tag{6}$$

Where  $\alpha_{\tau}$  and  $\beta_{\tau}$  are estimated from Equation 1. The autoregressive parameter 158  $\phi_{\tau}$  is estimated by first regressing the untransformed QR model and obtaining the resid-159 uals  $\hat{\epsilon}_t$ , then regressing  $\hat{\epsilon}_t$  on  $\hat{\epsilon}_{t-1}$ . Note that the first data point is lost in this process, 160 and there are n-1 residual terms  $\nu_{\tau t}$  after transformation. If the transformation was suc-161 cessful, the  $\nu_{\tau t}$  should be white noise. To account for potential sensitivity to the choice 162 of transformation method, We also use the Hildreth-Lu procedure (Hildreth & Lu, 1960). 163 This procedure is also a transformation based on differencing, but the Hildreth-Lu pro-164 cedure offers a simultaneous estimation of the autocorrelation of the disturbances and 165 the coefficients (Dufour et al., 1980). Results using Hildreth-Lu are included in the sup-166 porting information (Text S1; Figure S1). 167

#### 168 **3 Results**

#### 169

#### 3.1 Global Trends and Variability

On a global scale, trend estimates vary according to quantile levels (Figure 1). The magnitude of trend in the upper quantile of global CHL (95th) is larger than those in the middle and lower quantiles (<50th) (Figure 1a and 1b). As shown in Figure 1c and 1d, though the magnitude and uncertainty of global CHL trends differ by quantile level, most of the quantile levels show an increase in CHL. All trends are shown after removing serial correlation.

For the OC-CCI data product, all quantiles present a positive and significant trend 176 (Figure 1a and 1c). The CHL trends in upper quantile (95th) is the steepest with a mag-177 nitude of  $2.5 \times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, whereas the lower and middle quantiles show trends 178 with smaller magnitudes. These features suggest a slight increase in the variance of global 179 CHL given a more pronounced increase in the upper quantile than in lower quantiles, 180 although trend uncertainty is also larger for the 95th quantile. A positive trend of 1.2 181  $\times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> is detected by applying an OLS regression model that is almost 182 identical to trends in median CHL (50th quantile). It indicates that the average and me-183 dian global CHL are changing closely, and at a slightly lower pace than lower and up-184 per extreme concentrations. The 95 % confidence intervals in all quantile levels suggest 185 the larger uncertainty ( $\pm 0.5$  and  $\pm 1.2 \times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the lower and upper quan-186 tiles, compared to middle quantiles with  $\pm 0.2 \times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. 187



**Figure 1** Time series of monthly global mean CHL from 1997-2022 with trends fitted in different quantile levels from (a) OC-CCI product and (b) GlobColour product. Trends in different quantile levels (5th to 95th levels) with 95% confidence intervals from (c) OC-CCI product and (d) GlobColour product. Trends were fitted to transformed data to remove autocorrelation.

The trends and their variability in global CHL are similar for most quantiles in the 188 GlobColour data product (Figure 1b and 1d). Although negative trends are detected in 189 the 5th and 10th quantile levels, trends in upper and middle quantile levels are positive. 190 Again, upper quantile levels have a larger uncertainty (Figure 1d). A trend in CHL mean 191 is  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  mg m<sup>-3</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> that is very similar to trends in median CHL ( $0.5 \times 10^{-4}$  mg 192  $m^{-3} yr^{-1}$ ). The difference in trend sign between global CHL high and low imply an in-193 creasing variability over this period. This increase in variability is less pronounced in the 194 OC-CCI dataset, with the lower and upper quantiles having the same trend sign but dif-195 ferent magnitudes (Figure 1a). The results are not sensitive to a log-transformation of 196 CHL (Text S1; Figure S2 in supporting information). 197

#### 3.2 Regional Trends

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Trends estimated in each grid cell are presented in Figure 2. After a preliminary 199 analysis, the presence of autocorrelation was detected in most areas of the ocean (Fig-200 ure S3 in the supporting information). As such, a Cochrane-Orcutt transformation was 201 applied to remove autocorrelation from the data. It must be noted that this transfor-202 mation does not remove the trend signal, but only sieve the autocorrelation. As a com-203 parison, a different transformation procedure was used to remove autocorrelation from 204 the data, the Hildreth-Lu method (Figure S1 in the supporting information). Results 205 are consistent with the Cochrane-Orcutt transformation (Text S1; Figure S1 in the sup-206 porting information), suggesting that the results are robust to the choice of transforma-207 tion approach. 208

At the regional scale, trends in lower quantiles are more scattered (Figure 2a and 210 2b), and patterns become more apparent in the median and larger quantiles (Figure 2c,



Figure 2 Maps of CHL trends from the OC-CCI data product during 1997-2022 in (a)5th, (b) 10th, (c) 50th, (d) 90th, (e) 95th quantile levels, and (f) in CHL mean, respectively. Trends were fitted to transformed data to remove autocorrelation via the Cochrane-Orcutt procedure. The grey shadows are regions where trends are not significant at a 5% level.

2d, and 2e). Overall, regions with significant trends in the upper quantiles are mainly
located at high latitudes (+), in equatorial (-), and oligotrophic regions (-) (Figure 2d
and 2e). A few regions emerge with consistent patterns of change in North Pacific Subarctic Province, North Atlantic Drift Province, Subantarctic Province, Pacific Equatorial Province, North Pacific Subtropical Gyre, and North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre, and
are highlighted in Figure 2f. The regions are divided as defined by Longhurst (1995) (see
supporting information, Text S3).

In Figure 3, we further look into the regions with significant trends identified above. 218 We averaged grid cells in these regions and estimated trends with their respective con-219 fidence intervals. Trends in different quantiles may vary in magnitude and sign, suggest-220 ing that the shape of the CHL distribution is varying on a regional scale. Positive trends 221 dominate in the North Pacific Subarctic Province, North Atlantic Drift Province, and 222 Subantarctic Province (Figure 3a, 3b, and 3c). Trends in Subantarctic Province are pos-223 itive in all quantile levels, while the North Pacific Subarctic Province and North Atlantic 224 Drift Province exhibit similar patterns whereby trends in lower quantiles are not signif-225 icant and median and upper quantiles are significant and positive. In these three regions, 226 trends detected in different quantiles are consistent with an increasing variability over 227 the observational record. In low nutrient regions, namely the Pacific Equatorial Province 228 and North Pacific Subtropical Gyre, trends in the lower quantiles are significantly in-229 creasing even if negative trends are observed in the mean/median (Figure 3d and 3e). 230 It might indicate that CHL low extremes become less frequent during the recording pe-231 riod. Among these regions, Pacific Equatorial Province and North Pacific Subtropical 232 Gyre present consistent trends with an overall decrease in variability. The North Atlantic 233 Subtropical Gyre exhibits decreasing trends in middle quantile levels and increasing trends 234 at upper quantiles, suggesting a slightly increasing variance over time. Trend estimates 235 obtained by the OLS model closely follow those for the median in all of the regions (see 236 supporting information, Figure S4). 237

Most regions show increasing variability in CHL except Pacific Equatorial and North 238 Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province. The large variance of CHL relates to climate season-239 ality and dominates at high latitudes, sub-polar, and coastal waters. December, January, 240 and February (DJF) and June, July, and August (JJA) are two seasons that are com-241 monly used to analyze ocean phytoplankton blooms because they represent contrasting 242 environmental conditions that affect the growth and distribution of phytoplankton in the 243 ocean. The impact of regional seasonality is shown in the supporting information (Text 244 S1; Figure S5). 245

We also include results obtained on the GlobColour dataset in these regions to assess the sensitivity of our findings to the choice of the dataset in Text S2 (supporting information). In most regions, trends detected in different quantiles are consistent except for the North Atlantic Drift province and the North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province (Figure S6, S7, and S8 in the supporting information).

#### <sup>251</sup> 4 Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, we provide a first assessment of changes in CHL distribution in the 252 global ocean over the 1997–2022 period. At the global scale, our results suggest that dif-253 ferent quantiles are changing at different paces, with CHL high extremes changing faster 254 than the rest of the distribution. This difference in pace results in an overall slight in-255 crease in CHL variability. At the regional scale, CHL high extremes are increasing at high 256 latitudes and decreasing in equatorial and oligotrophic regions. These changes are con-257 sistent with Earth System Models projections whereby high latitude oceans are light-258 limited while equatorial and oligotrophic regions are limited by nutrients (Doney, 2006; 259 Doney et al., 2012; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020). Furthermore, we show that changes at high 260 latitudes are more pronounced during DJF season, while changes in equatorial regions 261



**Figure 3** Regional CHL trends in OC-CCI data product in different quantile levels in regions, (a) North Pacific Subarctic Gyre Province, (b) North Atlantic Drift Province, (c) Subantarctic Province, (d) Pacific Equatorial Province, (e) North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province, and (f) North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre Province. The 95% confidence intervals for each regression are represented by the vertical lines. The red horizontal dashed line is zero.

dominate during JJA. This may be due to climate processes like El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) that tend to start during JJA in equatorial regions.

In a study focusing on analyzing phytoplankton carbon biomass in an Earth Sys-264 tem Model large ensemble, Elsworth et al. (2022) identified decreasing variability of global 265 phytoplankton variance from 1920-2100. Our results do not show an overall decreased 266 variability in CHL. This difference may be due to the differing periods of analysis. In-267 deed, our analysis focuses on the period 1997-2022, and changes detected over that pe-268 riod may be more indicative of decadal variability rather than long-term impact of cli-269 270 mate change over 1920-2100. Another explanation could be that the two studies are analyzing different variables. While previous studies have discussed the correlation between 271 the spatial distribution of CHL (used in this study) and phytoplankton carbon biomass 272 (Kostadinov et al., 2016; Martínez-Vicente et al., 2017), those variables tend to decou-273 ple especially in subtropical regions (Barbieux et al., 2018). Future work should focus 274 on analyzing CHL extremes and variability in models to assess whether long-term changes 275 in CHL variability and extremes are consistent with observations, in order to better un-276 derstand their drivers and anticipate future changes. 277

Regional trends differ from those at the global scale with mixed signs and larger 278 magnitudes. Regions with significant trends in upper quantiles include the North Pa-279 cific Subarctic Province (+), North Atlantic Drift Province (+), Subantarctic Province 280 (+), Pacific Equatorial Province (-), North Pacific Subtropical Gyre (-), and North At-281 lantic Subtropical Gyre (-), as shown in Figure 2f. Regional changes in upper quantiles 282 described above also correspond to changes in CHL variability with increase in the North 283 Pacific Subarctic Province, North Atlantic Drift Province, and Subantarctic Provinces, 284 and declining variability in Pacific Equatorial and North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province. 285 Those regions are characterized by noticeable ecological and biogeochemical seasonal vari-286 ability that is closely related to strong annual cycles in light, nutrients, temperature, wind 287 force, and zooplankton grazing at surface (Henson et al., 2010; Elsworth et al., 2022). 288 At the regional scale, large-scale climate patterns such as El Niño Southern Oscillation 289 (ENSO), Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), and North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) are 290 known drivers of CHL trends and variability (Corno et al., 2007; Zhai et al., 2013; Kang 291 et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2020; Le Grix et al., 2021). In the North Pacific Subarctic Gyres 292 and North Atlantic Drift Provinces, warming over the last two decades has resulted in 293 more phytoplankton blooming (Dunstan et al., 2018). Our results showing that CHL high 294 extremes are becoming more frequent are consistent with Dunstan et al. (2018) and Kahru 295 & Mitchell (2008) findings. Changes in the North Atlantic Drift region are more pronounced 296 than the North Pacific Subarctic Gyre, also consistent with previous analysis on phy-297 toplankton blooms (Westberry et al., 2016). As for the Southern hemisphere, seasonal 298 variation in the location of transition zones between subpolar and subtropical gyres co-299 incide with increasing CHL variance (Dunstan et al., 2018). This phenomenon may in-300 dicate that the increasing seasonal variance plays a role in the CHL distribution changes 301 detected here (Thomalla et al., 2023). Trends in Subantarctic Province are significantly 302 positive in all quantile levels. A possible explanation is that though iron limitation con-303 trols the Southern Ocean, sea surface warming could still be an important driver on sea-304 sonal phytoplankton blooms in this region instead of light or nutrients (Moore et al., 2013; 305 Laufkötter et al., 2015), resulting in positive and similar magnitude changes in CHL dis-306 tribution and their variability over the observational period. 307

Some limitations in this study may impact the validity of our results. First, the shortness of the record may impact our results, as we use observations over a period that is slightly shorter (26 years) than the recommended 30 years for assessing climate change impacts (WMO, 2018). More specifically, satellite ocean color datasets require multiple decades to distinguish long-term climate-related trends from natural variability(Henson et al., 2010; Beaulieu et al., 2013; Bindoff et al., 2022), although exact detection timescales vary depending on regional interannual and decadal variability and magnitude of trends (Henson et al., 2010). That said, previous studies aimed at estimating timescales of trend
detection in ocean CHL (Henson et al., 2010; Beaulieu et al., 2013) focused on mean changes
in CHL, not variability and extremes, and these detection times may be different here.
Recent studies also suggested that long-term trends in satellite ocean color may be detectable faster in reflectance rather than CHL (Cael et al., 2023; Dutkiewicz et al., 2019).
Assessing whether similar patterns can be detected in reflectance observations should
be the focus of a future study.

Second, merged time series of multimission products used here are susceptible to 322 323 biases, which may impact the CHL trends detected (Saulquin et al., 2013; Mélin, 2016; Mélin et al., 2017; Hammond et al., 2018). GlobColour merges multi-sensor CHL with 324 a specific flagging, but is not explicitly bias-corrected (Maritorena et al., 2010; Garnes-325 son et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2023). For the OC-CCI product, multi-sensors reflectance is 326 merged before CHL derivation, which results in a more constrained approach (Sathyen-327 dranath et al., 2017). As a result, long-term CHL trends detected in OC-CCI and Glob-328 Colour products differ in some regions (e.g., North Pacific Subarctic Gyre and North At-329 lantic Drift Provinces). By utilizing the two datasets, we reduce the sensitivity of our 330 results to the choice of datasets and bias correction algorithms, but we cannot entirely 331 eliminate the possibility of bias in trends detected introduced from using multiple mis-332 sion data products. 333

Third, few studies have used satellite-derived CHL datasets to analyze extremes 334 (Le Grix et al., 2021; Woolway et al., 2021). Bias due to high solar zenith angles, clouds, 335 and aerosols may affect the data (Le Grix et al., 2021; Gregg et al., 2009). Low sampling 336 rates of CHL extremes may also affect our results. The majority of the surface ocean is 337 characterized by low CHL levels in the Oligotrophic area, whereas high CHL levels are 338 only present in a small portion ( $\sim 1\%$ ) primarily located in coastal zones (Sathyendranath 339 et al., 2019; Van Oostende et al., 2018). Insufficient data in CHL extremes correspond-340 ing to lower and upper quantile levels result in higher uncertainties (larger confidence 341 intervals) for CHL trends. 342

Finally, we made assumptions when fitting the statistical model that may influence 343 the results. We assume that trends in different quantiles are linear, following previous 344 studies (Gregg et al., 2005; Boyce et al., 2010; Henson et al., 2010; Boyce et al., 2010; 345 Saulquin et al., 2013; Mélin, 2016; Henson et al., 2016; Hammond et al., 2020). More com-346 plex time dependence such as nonlinear trends or abrupt changes were not assessed as 347 linear trends can provide a first-order approximation to long-term changes and avoid over-348 fitting the data. Furthermore, the period of observations is quite short, so there is a risk 349 of overfitting with more complex time dependence. A constant seasonal pattern is as-350 sumed in our study, though some studies have shown that the CHL seasonal cycle might 351 vary over time (Vantrepotte & Mélin, 2009; Henson et al., 2013). A changing seasonal 352 cycle over the period of observation may bias trends detected here. However, changes 353 in seasonal cycle require longer time series to be detected than trends in the mean (Hen-354 son et al., 2013), and potential biases introduced here should be minimal. Quantile re-355 gression models used here assume independent errors. To deal with the presence of au-356 tocorrelation, we used pre-whitening methods. These approaches help reduce the risk 357 of a false detection (i.e., detecting a trend when there is none), but are also associated 358 with a reduced power of detection (Bayazit & Onöz, 2007). As such, significant trends 359 may not be detected. Results may also differ based on the pre-whitening approach used. 360 Here, we reduced this problem by using two different pre-whitening approaches, Cochrane-361 Orcutt and Hildreth-Lu procedures, and showed our results were not sensitive to the choice 362 of pre-whitening method (see supporting information). 363

To our knowledge, this is the first study assessing long-term changes in CHL distribution on a global scale, as opposed to focusing entirely on mean CHL. More information related to climate variables such as seasonal changes and their variability, as well as extreme conditions, are revealed by assessing trends in all quantile levels of the CHL

distribution. We conclude that over the satellite record, trends in CHL extremes are more 368 pronounced than that in the mean CHL. Henson et al. (2010) concluded that the cur-369 rent length of observation recording is insufficient to identify a climate change trend in 370 mean CHL and suggested that a time series of approximately 40 years is needed to sep-371 arate a global warming trend from natural variability. Our results show that trends in 372 CHL high extremes tend to have larger magnitudes and uncertainties than trends in the 373 mean, both of which may impact detection times. By considering the whole distribution 374 (not just the mean), we may be able to detect climate change-related trends faster and 375 more holistically, and better understand the effects of anthropogenic forcing on marine 376 ecosystems, which will enable us to make more effective decisions concerning socioeco-377 nomic systems that are affected by climate change (Henson et al., 2016). Future work 378 should focus on quantifying detection times in different aspects of CHL distribution to 379 develop the ability to formally detect the impact of climate change in marine ecosystems 380 as soon as possible. 381

## <sup>382</sup> 5 Open Research

Data Availability Statement

383

The OC-CCI data can be found on the open portal of ESA's climate office at this site: http://dx.doi.org/10.5285/1dbe7a109c0244aaad713e078fd3059a. The Glob-Colour data can be found on the GlobColour Project of Copernicus program at this site: https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00281. The R code used to produce the initial dataset, statistically analyze the quantile regression model, and reproduce the figures of the manuscript, is publicly available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8343435.

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# Supporting Information for "Long-term trends in the distribution of ocean chlorophyll"

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# Text S1: Additional analysis performed on the OC-CCI data product

In this section, we provide additional analysis on the OC-CCI dataset. We provide more details on pre-whitening and also include results using a different pre-whitening approach and assess whether a log-transformation affects our results. We also assess the impact of regional seasonality on trends detected in several quantiles.

# S1.1 Additional details on trends and transformations

In the main text, we used the Cochrane-Orcutt transformation to remove autocorrelation before detecting trends in different CHL quantiles. Here, we use the Hildreth-Lu procedure (Figure S1) to deal with autocorrelation in the CHL time series. The magnitude of trends and significance area at a 5% level on a global scale are similar. We also include trends detected in log-transformed CHL to assess whether our results are sensitive to such a transformation (Figure S2). Trends are similar in both CHL and log-transformed CHL, and this transformation does not impact our results.

The autoregressive parameter  $\phi_{\tau}$  is estimated and has a similar value in two procedures (Figure S3). Note that only the 5th percent quantile level is shown, but the first-order autocorrelation level is similar in other quantiles. Additionally, Figure S4 shows the time

series of regional chlorophyll-a with regional trends in multiple quantile levels obtained with a Cochrane-Orcutt transformation.

# S1.2 Impact of Regional Seasonality

To better describe the impact of seasonality on long-term trends, we apply the quantile regression analysis on the time series of averaged CHL during DJF and JJA, respectively (Figure S5). Though the results show positive trends in the 95th quantile in the high latitudes of the North Pacific and North Atlantic, the area of significant trends almost double in DJF compared to that in the JJA (Figure S5b and S5d). The trends magnify with the increase of quantiles from the 50th to 95th quantile levels in both seasonal periods. In addition, trends and variability of CHL in the Southern Ocean are increasing over time in all quantile levels, particularly in the region around Antarctica, as shown in the main text. Although CHL in the Southern Ocean reaches its maximum during the austral spring and summer, i.e. DJF, whereas the magnitude slightly decreases during the winter months, i.e. JJA, more significant trends are detected in JJA (Figure S5b and S5d). These findings suggest that trends in CHL extremes high in the north hemisphere are mainly associated with DJF, but CHL extremes high are dominated by JJA in the southern hemisphere.

Notably, trends in the upper quantile level in the eastern Equatorial Pacific region exhibit an opposite seasonal pattern compared to trends in high latitudes (Figure S5b and S5d). Although negative trends are detected in the upper quantile levels in both winter and summer time, both magnitude and area of significant trends are larger in JJA.

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# Text S2: Additional analysis performed on the Globcolour data product

Here, we present comprehensive quantile regression results of the GlobColour data product, including maps of chlorophyll-a trends from 1997-2022 after a Cochrane-Orcutt transformation, trends and variability in different quantile levels estimated globally (Figure S6) and regionally.

# S2.1 Comparison of Two Data Products

Though positive trends in the upper quantile are larger than in the lower quantile in Subantarctic Province, the increasing variabilities of trends are consistent in all quantile levels in the two datasets (see main text and S7c). Trends in lower quantile are negative but are close to zero in most quantile levels in North Pacific Subarctic Gyres, North Pacific, and North Atlantic Subtropical Gyres (Figure S7a, S7e, and S7f). Conversely, trends in lower quantile are positive and negative in middle and upper quantile levels in North Atlantic Drift and Pacific Equatorial Province (Figure S7b and S7d). In these five regions, trends in all quantile levels are consistent with decreasing variability. Larger uncertainties are associated with low quantiles (5th and 10th), and uncertainties in the upper quantiles are far smaller and evenly with uncertainties in middle quantiles. Similarly, trend estimates obtained by the OLS model and median quantile level (50th) are overlapped, which is consistent in the two datasets (Figure S8).

# Text S3: Definition of regions in this study

Regions are defined by Longhurst (1995), according to physical forcing and biogeochemical characteristics. The regions mentioned in this study are corresponding with Longhurst Province. North Pacific Subarctic Province indicates Eastern and Western Pacific subarctic gyres (PSAE and PSAW). North Atlantic Drift Province indicates North Atlantic Drift (NADR). Subantarctic Province indicates Subantarctic water ring (SANT). Pacific Equatorial Province indicates North Pacific equatorial counter current (PNEC) and Pacific equatorial divergence (PEQD). North Pacific Subtropical Gyre indicates Northwest Pacific subtropical (NPTW). North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre indicates Northwest and Northeast Atlantic subtropical gyral (NASW and NASE).

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**Figure S1** Maps of CHL trends from the OC-CCI data product during 1997-2022 in (a) 5th, (b) 10th, (c) 50th, (d) 90th, (e) 95th quantile levels, and (f) in CHL mean, respectively. Trends were fitted to transformed data to remove autocorrelation via the Hildreth-Lu procedure. The grey shadows are regions where trends are not significant at a 5% level.



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**Figure S2** Maps of log-transformed CHL trends from the OC-CCI data product during 1997-2022 in (a) 5th, (b) 10th, (c) 50th, (d) 90th, (e) 95th quantile levels and (f) in CHL mean, respectively. Trends were fitted to transformed data to remove autocorrelation via the Cochrane-Orcutt procedure. The grey shadows are regions where trends are not significant at a 5% level.



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Figure S3 First-order autocorrelation in the residuals of the QF test in CHL from the OC-CCI data product. The grey shadows are regions where trends are not significant at a 5% level.



**Figure S4** CHL trends in OC-CCI data product in different quantile levels in regions, namely (a) North Pacific Subarctic Gyre Province, (b) North Atlantic Drift Province, (c) Subantarctic Province, (d) Pacific Equatorial Province, (e) North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province, and (f) North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre Province.



**Figure S5** CHL trends from the OC-CCI data product over 1997-2022 in (a) 50th quantile level trends in December, January, and February (DJF) CHL means (b) 95th quantile level trends in DJF CHL means (c) 50th quantile level trends in June, July, and August (JJA) CHL means, and (d) 95th quantile level trends in JJA CHL means. The orange boxes are regions of interest with trends significant in multiple quantiles. The overlapped stippling shows areas where the trends are not significant at a 5% level.



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Figure S6 Maps of CHL trends from the GlobColour data product during 1997-2022 in (a) 5th,
(b) 10th, (c) 50th, (d) 90th, (e) 95th quantile levels, and (f) in CHL mean, respectively. Trends were fitted to transformed data to remove autocorrelation via the Cochrane-Orcutt procedure. The grey shadows are regions where trends are not significant at a 5% level.





**Figure S7** Regional CHL trends in GlobColour data product in different quantile levels in regions, (a) North Pacific Subarctic Gyre Province, (b) North Atlantic Drift Province, (c) Subantarctic Province, (d) Pacific Equatorial Province, (e) North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province, and (f) North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre Province. The 95% confidence intervals for each regression are represented by the vertical lines. The red horizontal dashed line is zero.



**Figure S8** CHL trends in GlobColour data product in different quantile levels in regions, namely (a) North Pacific Subarctic Gyre Province, (b) North Atlantic Drift Province, (c) Subantarctic Province, (d) Pacific Equatorial Province, (e) North Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province, and (f) North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre Province.