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3 **Assessing the presence of discontinuities in the ocean color satellite record and their effects**
4 **on chlorophyll trends and their uncertainties**

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11 ***Key points***

12 1) Discontinuities in multi-sensor ocean color chlorophyll records are detected in ~70 % of
13 regions using a Bayesian space-time model

14 2) Discontinuities affect trend estimates in ~60 % of regions and can even bias the trends' sign
15 (opposite sign in ~13% of regions)

16 3) The uncertainty of trend estimates increases by an average of 0.20 %yr⁻¹ for a single
17 discontinuity and 0.59 %yr⁻¹ for two discontinuities

18 ***Abstract***

19 Ocean color sensors are crucial for understanding global phytoplankton dynamics. However, the
20 limited lifespans of sensors make multi-sensor datasets necessary for estimating long-term
21 trends. Discontinuities may be introduced when merging data between sensors, potentially

22 affecting trend estimates and their uncertainties. We use a Bayesian spatio-temporal model to
23 investigate the presence of discontinuities and their impacts on estimated chlorophyll trends. The
24 discontinuities considered are the introduction of MERIS, MODIS-Aqua, and VIIRS, and the
25 termination of SeaWiFS. Discontinuities are detected in ~70 % of regions, affecting trend
26 estimates (~60 % of regions have statistically different trends), and potentially even biasing trend
27 estimates (opposite sign in ~13 % of regions). Considering a single discontinuity increases trend
28 uncertainty by an average of 0.20% yr⁻¹ (0.59% yr⁻¹ for two discontinuities). This difference in
29 trend magnitude and uncertainty highlights the importance of minimizing discontinuities in
30 multi-sensor records and taking into account discontinuities when analyzing trends.

31 **Index terms:** 1635 1640 1986 1990 4855

32 **Keywords:** Chlorophyll, Bayesian Statistics, Spatio-Temporal Modeling, Discontinuities, Trend
33 Estimation.

34 **1 Introduction**

35 Ocean color satellite records can be used to assess how global phytoplankton biomass may be
36 affected by climate change. These records are especially suited to this task because of their high
37 spatial coverage and temporal resolution (e.g. McClain, 2009). However, there are major
38 challenges inherent to trend detection in chlorophyll-a (chl) derived from ocean color sensors.
39 These include the low signal-to-noise ratio, the large degree of natural variability, and the
40 shortness of the record (e.g. Beaulieu et al., 2013; Henson et al., 2010; Mélin et al., 2016;
41 Saulquin et al., 2013). A comparison of observational, i.e. in situ and satellite, chl observations
42 found that shorter datasets have conflicting, and larger magnitude, trend estimates when
43 compared to longer records (Boyce & Worm, 2015). The large magnitude of natural variability
44 can obscure a smaller magnitude long-term trend, thus challenging trend estimation.

45 To compensate for the shortness of any single ocean color record, multi-sensor datasets can be
46 used. These combine the available ocean color sensors using various approaches (e.g. Lavender
47 et al., 2015; Maritorena & Siegel, 2005). The four main ocean color sensors providing the
48 longest overlapping period of coverage to date are: Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer
49 (MERIS) (April 2002 to April 2012), Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer aboard
50 the Aqua satellite (MODIS-Aqua) (July 2002 to present), Sea-Viewing Wide Field-of-View
51 Sensor (SeaWiFS) (September 1997 to December 2010), and Visible Infrared Imaging
52 Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) (Jan 2012 to present). The approach used to combine satellite records
53 must fully compensate for the differences between the individual datasets, which can vary
54 temporally and spatially (Djavidnia et al., 2010). If the differences between datasets are not
55 accounted for discontinuities may be introduced, trends estimated from the combined record may
56 thus be biased and/or have increased uncertainty (Gregg & Casey, 2010). Such discontinuities
57 may include a permanent mean-shift in the observed value, i.e. a mean-shift discontinuity
58 (Weatherhead, 1998), which are considered here. Even with the use of multi-sensor records, the
59 maximum available length of chl record is still only approximately 20 years, from the launch of
60 SeaWiFS to present, shorter than the suggested ~30 years required to distinguish a climate
61 change driven chl trend from natural variability (Henson et al., 2016; 2010).

62 To assess the effects of potential discontinuities on trend estimation, we model the
63 discontinuities alongside the long-term trend as suggested in Weatherhead (1998). More
64 specifically, we use a Bayesian spatio-temporal model, which has been shown to provide an
65 accurate fit and complete assessment of uncertainty when estimating chl trends (Hammond et al.,
66 2017). We consider three major discontinuities in the satellite record: the launch of both the
67 MERIS and MODIS-Aqua sensors in the spring/summer of 2002, the termination of the

68 SeaWiFS sensor at the end of 2010, and the launch of the VIIRS satellite, providing data from
69 the start of 2012.

70 **2 Methods**

71 **2.1 Data**

72 The chl data come from version 3.1 of ESA's OC-CCI project (Lavender et al., 2015; available
73 at: <http://www.esa-oceancolour-cci.org/>). This product combines data from the SeaWiFS,
74 MERIS, MODIS-Aqua (NASA R2014.0.1 reprocessing), and VIIRS sensors to create a
75 continuous, bias-corrected monthly mean time-series running from September 1997 to December
76 2016 inclusive. Band-shifting and bias-correction techniques are used to combine the data from
77 individual sensors. The band-shifting is performed using a bio-optical model inversion (Mélin &
78 Sclep, 2012; 2015). The bias-correction is performed by adjusting pixel-level radiances to reduce
79 the difference between SeaWiFS and the other sensors; a time window with increased central
80 weight is used to correct seasonal biases (Chuprin et al., 2017; Djavidnia et al., 2010; Grant et
81 al., 2017). We process this dataset by downscaling to a 1° grid (by averaging within 1° boxes)
82 and by log-transforming chl values, after Campbell (1995).

83 As a comparison, we also perform the analysis on 1° gridded monthly mean data from the
84 GlobColour dataset (available at: <http://globcolour.info>) in which SeaWiFS, MERIS, MODIS-
85 Aqua (R2014.0.1), and VIIRS sensors are merged using the Garver, Siegel, Maritorena Model
86 (GSM) process (Maritorena & Siegel, 2005; Maritorena et al., 2010). The GSM process
87 combines sensor observations of water-leaving radiance to form a multi-source spectrum for
88 each pixel. The multi-source spectrum is then inverted with a semi-analytical ocean color model,
89 which describes the relationship between water-leaving radiance and the inherent optical
90 properties of seawater, including backscattering and absorption coefficients (Maritorena et al.,

91 2002; 2010). We use the Case 1 (open ocean) data only, as we do not consider coastal regions
92 (see above). A log-transformation is also used on the GlobColour chl data. To help explain
93 natural variability in the chl data, SST is used as a covariate. SST data are sourced from the
94 NOAA optimum interpolation v2 monthly mean data product (Reynolds et al., 2002; available
95 at: <http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/psd/data/gridded/data.noaa.oisst.v2.html>).

96 Trends are analyzed in 23 regions, based on those defined by Longhurst (1995, 1998). Coastal
97 and polar waters are excluded due to issues with the availability and quality of data. Longhurst
98 provinces are defined by biogeochemical and physical factors, and thus should have consistent
99 trend amplitude and direction (Hammond et al., 2017).

100 ***2.2 Model Formulation***

101 A hierarchical Bayesian spatio-temporal model is fitted separately in each of the 23 Longhurst
102 regions retained for analysis (i.e. we use an un-pooled model with region-based independent
103 fitting). This model uses all the data points inside each province and uses their spatial and
104 temporal relationship to produce a province-wide set of parameter estimates (e.g. of trend and
105 discontinuity). This approach provides a more accurate fit to observations and a more realistic
106 assessment of uncertainty, when compared to averaging gridded trend estimates across the region
107 (Hammond et al., 2017). The latter approach may also increase the risk of false positives (e.g.
108 Wilks, 2016).

109 The key equations are presented below. First, the relationship between observed chl $Z_{n,t}$ and its
110 true underlying value $O_{n,t}$ at location n and at month t is represented as:

$$Z_{n,t} = O_{n,t} + \varepsilon_{n,t} \quad (1)$$

111 where $\varepsilon_{n,t}$ is an independently normally distributed white noise process with zero mean and an
 112 unknown pure error variance, which primarily represents random measurement error (as well as
 113 environmental variability on scales finer than the grid spacing). A regression model is used to
 114 represent the true chl value (at grid point n and time t):

$$O_{n,t} = \mathbf{x}'_{n,t}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{a}'_n\mathbf{w}_{m,t} \quad (2)$$

115 This regression model is composed of the covariates (including intercept) $\mathbf{x}_{n,t}$, the regression
 116 coefficients (constant for each region) $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \beta_{Trend}, \beta_{SST}, \beta_{Disc}, \beta_{M1}, \dots, \beta_{M12})$, and the term
 117 $\mathbf{a}'_n\mathbf{w}_{m,t}$ representing spatial and temporal correlation.

118 The spatial correlation is represented by an exponential decay away from site n , and the temporal
 119 correlation by a first order autoregressive process (i.e. a function of the preceding month). The
 120 term \mathbf{a}'_n refers to the kriging coefficients at the grid (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_N) and the knot
 121 (m_1, m_2, \dots, m_M) locations. The knot locations are a reduced set of the grid locations, used to
 122 decrease the size of the spatial covariance matrix, allowing the large volumes of data used to be
 123 more efficiently computed. The term $\mathbf{w}_{m,t}$ represents the reduced spatio-temporal random effects
 124 at the knot locations.

125 The covariates include the date of the observation, the month (represented as factor levels where
 126 each month has an additional term, constant for all years), and SST. Time is used to estimate the
 127 temporal trend, the monthly factor is used to represent the seasonal cycle, and SST is used to
 128 isolate environmental variability. Including the SST term was shown to improve model fit as
 129 well as prevent issues with convergence (supporting information). As SST may capture a portion
 130 of the long-term chl trend, the trend estimated here represents the remaining long-term change
 131 not explained by SST variability. The regression coefficients correspond to the covariates as

132 follows: β_0 to the intercept, β_{Trend} to the trend, β_{SST} to SST, β_{Disc} to the mean-shift
 133 discontinuity, and $\beta_{M1}, \dots, \beta_{M12}$ to the monthly factor levels. Note that the monthly factor is not
 134 included in the Pacific Subarctic Gyres Province (East) (Region 18), because of the difficulty in
 135 identifying a stable phenology (supporting information Text S2).

136 The discontinuity covariate \mathbf{x}^{Disc} indicates the presence of a mean-shift (we do not consider
 137 gradual drift between sensors) and is represented as a factor that is different either side of the
 138 known time of discontinuity t_{Disc} (Weatherhead, 1998):

$$\mathbf{x}_t^{Disc} = \begin{cases} 0, & t < t_{Disc} \\ 1, & t \geq t_{Disc} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

139 We consider five scenarios based on major satellite inclusions and failures. The first is a scenario
 140 with no discontinuities (N-scenario). The second scenario has one discontinuity between the
 141 launches of the MERIS and MODIS-Aqua sensors in June 2002 (M-scenario). June 2002 is the
 142 time equidistant between their operational dates of April and July 2002, respectively. The third
 143 scenario has one discontinuity at the failure of the SeaWiFS satellite in December 2010 (S-
 144 scenario). The fourth scenario is when we consider both these discontinuities in the same model
 145 (MS-scenario). The final scenario is when all discontinuities mentioned above are considered,
 146 plus the launch of the VIIRS sensor in January 2012 (MSV-scenario). An additional scenario
 147 combining both the MERIS/MODIS discontinuity and the VIIRS discontinuity is considered in
 148 the supporting information (Text S3). For the multi-discontinuity scenarios (MS and MSV), the
 149 regression coefficient β_{Disc} includes additional t_{Disc} and \mathbf{x}^{Disc} terms to estimate all
 150 discontinuities (i.e. two t_{Disc} and \mathbf{x}^{Disc} terms for the MS-scenario and three for the MSV-
 151 scenario).

152 The modeling approach fits a full posterior distribution for each parameter. This study focuses on
153 the trend and discontinuity parameters with their posterior mode representing the best estimate.
154 The uncertainty of the trend and discontinuity estimates are represented by the 95 % credible
155 interval of the posterior, defined as the 95 % highest density interval (Kruschke, 2015). We
156 consider that a discontinuity is present if its magnitude is different from zero (i.e. its 95 %
157 credible interval excludes zero). When comparing the trends in each region, we consider them
158 likely to be statistically different from the baseline N-scenario if their 95 % credible intervals do
159 not overlap with those of the N-scenario.

160 The spTimer package in R is used to estimate the model fit (Bakar & Sahu, 2015). See the
161 supporting information and Hammond et al. (2017) for additional details on the model setup.

162 **3 Results**

163 *3.1 Discontinuity magnitudes and their effect on trend estimates*

164 The main text focuses on the ESA OC-CCI dataset; the scenarios using GlobColour data are
165 analyzed in the supporting information (Text S4). In the majority of the regions in this study, we
166 find that discontinuities are likely present and their magnitudes are large enough to affect trend
167 estimates. The degree and direction of the effect is dependent on both the discontinuity scenario
168 and region. We detect the presence of discontinuities in the majority of regions in all the
169 discontinuity scenarios considered, although fewer are detected in the multi-discontinuity
170 scenarios (Figure 1a). The majority of these regions also show that discontinuities affect trend
171 estimates (Figure 1b).

172 The difference in trend estimates between the single discontinuity scenarios and the N-scenario
173 is found to be inversely proportional to the discontinuity magnitude. The global average

174 differences compared to the N-scenario, computed using weighting for the area and mean chl in
175 each province, are as follows. We find that a discontinuity magnitude of $0.1 \log(\text{mg m}^{-3})$ leads to
176 a trend that is $-0.65\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ different, based on global averages (Figures 1a and 1b). The
177 discontinuity for the M-scenario is positive in most regions, leading to an overall negative trend
178 difference (average of $-0.54\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) (Figure 2). The opposite is found for the S-scenario (average
179 of $0.59\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$). For the MS-scenario, the sign of the difference is evenly distributed between
180 positive and negative (average difference $-0.028\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$). In about half (12) of regions the trend
181 difference for the MS-scenario lies between the trend differences for the two single discontinuity
182 scenarios, suggesting they are partially cancelling out (Figure 1b). The MSV-scenario shows
183 similar results to the MS-scenario with an average difference of $0.047\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Figures 1b & 3a).

184 The average magnitude of trend differences (i.e. when the direction/sign of trend difference is
185 omitted) is larger in the multi-discontinuity scenarios ($1.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for the MSV-scenario and
186 $0.85\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for the MS-scenario) than the single-discontinuity scenarios ($0.65\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for the M-
187 scenario and $0.81\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for the S-scenario). This can lead to a change of trend sign, i.e. from
188 increasing to decreasing or vice versa, for example this occurs in 5 regions in the MSV-scenario.
189 Despite differences between individual regions, there is no clear global pattern in either the trend
190 difference or the discontinuity magnitude. The full results are presented in the supporting
191 information, including an analysis using the GlobColour dataset that is found to show similar
192 results, albeit with a slightly higher average trend difference in most scenarios (Table S2 & S3).

193 *3.2 Effect of discontinuities on trend estimate uncertainties*

194 Taking into account discontinuities increases uncertainty in all scenarios and regions. A single
195 discontinuity increases trend uncertainty by an average of $0.21\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Figure 1c). For the MS-
196 scenario and MSV-scenario the increase in uncertainty is $0.64\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (Figure 1c & 3b). Individual

197 regions show a disparity in the degree of uncertainty increase. The regions with the highest
198 proportional increase in uncertainty, for the MSV-scenario relative to the N-scenario, are in the
199 tropical to subtropical North Atlantic (average of 210 %). The regions with the smallest
200 proportional uncertainty increase are typically found in the mid-latitude Pacific Ocean (average
201 of 140 %). See supporting information for full results, including analysis using the GlobColour
202 dataset, which is found to show similar results, albeit with a greater uncertainty difference in all
203 scenarios.

204 **4 Discussion**

205 *4.1 Ability to distinguish discontinuities and trends*

206 Our results depend on our ability to distinguish trends and discontinuities accurately. We conduct
207 a series of simulation studies to assess the model skill in accurately estimating trends and
208 discontinuities (supporting information Text S5). We generate 100 synthetic datasets, of the
209 same length as the present study, based on realistic values of chl, and its variability (with
210 independent randomly generated noise in each dataset), and then superpose a range of realistic
211 trends and discontinuities. We find that for these simulation studies the trend term is accurately
212 estimated to within $<1\%$, and the discontinuity term is accurately estimated to within
213 approximately 5% . This suggests that our approach is highly capable of identifying trends and
214 discontinuities, without confusing them with each other or with other components of chl
215 variability.

216 *4.2 How do discontinuities affect trend estimates?*

217 The trend difference between the MSV-scenario and the N-scenario has an average magnitude of
218 $1.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, and varies in the range $\pm 2.8\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, resulting in statistically different trends in 14 of
219 the 23 regions. In a study that analyzed the effect of inter-sensor bias on trend detection, Mélin

220 (2016) showed that a 5 - 6 % bias between two sensors can lead to significantly different trends.
221 This result was obtained by introducing artificial biases in the range 1 - 50 % when merging the
222 SeaWiFS and MODIS-Aqua sensors. This illustrates the strong effect that discontinuities in the
223 record can have, in agreement with the present study. However, Mélin (2016) also found that
224 trends estimated for oligotrophic subtropical gyres are particularly sensitive to discontinuities in
225 the record, which was attributed to the gyres' low natural variability. In our analysis,
226 oligotrophic gyres do not seem to show such a pattern, except for the Pacific oligotrophic gyres,
227 which show a larger than average trend difference ($2.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) in the MSV-scenario relative to the
228 N-scenario. The differences compared to Mélin (2016) are likely due to the substantial
229 differences in the datasets and methodologies. Here we take into account discontinuities in a
230 bias-corrected multi-sensor dataset using a spatio-temporal model with environmental variability
231 isolated using SST whereas Mélin (2016) analyzed synthetic records with discontinuities induced
232 prior to merging.

233 The discontinuity model in the present study represents a mean-shift, but biases between sensors
234 can also increase over time and change over seasonal cycles (Djavidnia et al., 2010). A gradual
235 drift in sensors' detected values may, like mean-shift discontinuities, directly affect trend
236 estimates. Mélin (2016) determined that any drift greater than 2 % per decade can alter the
237 conclusions of a trend analysis, which suggests this effect may be similarly important to mean-
238 shift discontinuities. We do not consider drift here, as over the short-term period of drift (several
239 years) it is likely to be confused with the trend estimate and lead to further increases in
240 uncertainty and changes to the trend estimates.

241 The MODIS-Aqua sensor is known to be affected by sensor ageing, particularly towards the end
242 of the study period, thus caution is advised for temporal analysis including the post-2012 period

243 (Mélin et al., 2017). To assess whether a drift in the MODIS-Aqua sensor may affect our results,
244 we compare the trends detected over the period 1997-2016 in the present study to the trends
245 detected over 1997-2013 in Hammond et al. (2017), which uses the ESA OC-CCI v2.0 dataset
246 with the R2013.0.1 reprocessing MODIS-Aqua data. In Hammond et al. (2017), trends were
247 detected in 17 of the 23 regions, as opposed to 19 such regions in the present study. The large-
248 scale latitudinal pattern (whereby higher latitudes tend to have more positive trends) is also
249 similar in both studies, 16 of the 23 regions in Hammond et al. (2017) have the same trend
250 directions as the N-scenario. Although there are differences between the two studies which may
251 be partly attributable to MODIS ageing effects, these are nevertheless minor and do not affect
252 our conclusions.

253 *4.3 How do discontinuities affect uncertainty in trend estimates?*

254 Our results show that discontinuities in a record will increase the uncertainty of long-term trends,
255 such that two discontinuities can double the uncertainty in trend estimates. Detection of trends in
256 the current multi-sensor record may be particularly sensitive to the timing of discontinuities
257 relative to decadal variability. The 1997/1998 El Niño event (Wolter & Timlin, 1998) lies before
258 the MERIS/MODIS discontinuity, and the 2015/2016 El Niño event (Levine & McPhaden, 2016)
259 follows the SeaWiFS and VIIRS discontinuities.

260 Trend detection may also be affected by the relative timing of discontinuities in the record. A
261 discontinuity in the middle of a time-series is expected to have the greatest effect, which will
262 decrease towards the beginning or end of the record (Beaulieu et al., 2013). The SeaWiFS
263 discontinuity is further from either end of the record than the MERIS/MODIS discontinuity
264 which may explain the larger uncertainty and trend differences seen in the S-scenario.
265 Conversely, the VIIRS and SeaWiFS discontinuities are only separated by 1 year, potentially

266 explaining the comparable results in the MSV-scenario and the MS-scenario. The increase in
267 trend uncertainty when taking into account discontinuities is likely to make trend detection more
268 challenging when using multi-sensor records, and will only increase as more sensors are
269 introduced in to the record. However, the timing of these discontinuities is important; the effect
270 on uncertainty of two temporally close discontinuities may be similar to one discontinuity.

271 The increase in trend estimate uncertainty when taking into account discontinuities occurs
272 because the statistical model is estimating the magnitude of specific discontinuities. This leads to
273 a greater degree of freedom as the model has extra terms to fit, which will increase with the
274 number of discontinuity terms. These discontinuities still exist even if not specified in the model
275 so studies neglecting to consider these terms will have a perceived, but inaccurate, smaller
276 uncertainty.

277 *4.4 Implications for multi-sensor ocean color records*

278 Work by Brewin et al. (2014) suggests that trends in monthly log-transformed chl, estimated
279 using least squares linear regression, show a similar regional pattern in the MERIS, MODIS-
280 Aqua, and SeaWiFS sensors. Additionally, Mélin et al. (2017) found that these individual
281 records, and VIIRS, show similar trends to the ESA OC-CCI dataset. However, the differences
282 we find here imply that using a space-time model that specifically includes discontinuities and
283 environmental variability (through the SST term) reveals additional information that would
284 otherwise be missed.

285 We find similar results using both the ESA OC-CCI dataset and GlobColour dataset (full details
286 in supporting information Text S4), i.e. that discontinuities are present in most regions and
287 impact trend estimates. More specifically, the discontinuity magnitudes, trend differences, and

288 trend uncertainty differences show a near 1:1 relationship between the two datasets. However,
289 discontinuity magnitudes are on average slightly larger in the GlobColour dataset, and although
290 this has a subtle effect on trend differences, the uncertainty differences in the GlobColour dataset
291 are also larger on average. This result may suggest a slightly larger bias in the GlobColour
292 dataset due to the different approaches used for merging satellite records. The ESA OC-CCI
293 dataset has been corrected for bias (Lavender et al., 2015), whilst the GlobColour data are not
294 explicitly bias-corrected but are instead merged by inversion with a bio-optical model
295 (Maritorena et al., 2010). The larger discontinuities in GlobColour could also be attributed to the
296 higher variance in this dataset (supporting information Table S4), which may impact quantities
297 estimated within the model. Nevertheless, our results are consistent with both datasets used
298 indicating the effect unaccounted discontinuities can have on trend detection.

299 **5 Conclusion**

300 We assess the presence of discontinuities in multi-sensor satellite records and their effect on
301 estimation of chl trends using a Bayesian spatio-temporal method. We estimate discontinuities in
302 our statistical model using a discrete factor, at the times dictated by three major discontinuities in
303 the ocean color record corresponding to the introduction of the MERIS and MODIS-Aqua
304 sensors in 2002, the loss of the SeaWiFS sensor at the end of 2010, and the introduction of the
305 VIIRS sensor in 2012.

306 When modeling all three discontinuities, we find their effect in 16 of 23 regions. These
307 discontinuities lead to a corresponding difference in trend estimates in 14 regions with a
308 maximum difference of $2.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, which can even change the direction of trend. The effect on
309 trend estimate uncertainty is dependent on the number of discontinuities taken in to account. If
310 we model just one of the above discontinuities, there is a $\sim 0.20\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ increase in uncertainty. If

311 we model two discontinuities, i.e. MERIS/MODIS & SeaWiFS or MERIS/MODIS & VIIRS, the
312 uncertainty rises by at least $0.064\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and by up to $1.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$, dependent on the region.
313 Modeling all three discontinuities produces similar results to modeling the two discontinuities as
314 listed above.

315 The bias in trend estimates and increase in their uncertainty when taking into account
316 discontinuities challenges the detection of long-term trends in multi-sensor records and stresses
317 the importance of using the best techniques to remove inter-sensor biases when creating these
318 records. Such techniques may include advanced statistical methods, potentially including the use
319 of spatio-temporal models, as well as launching missions with sufficient overlap in order to most
320 effectively cross-calibrate and merge records.

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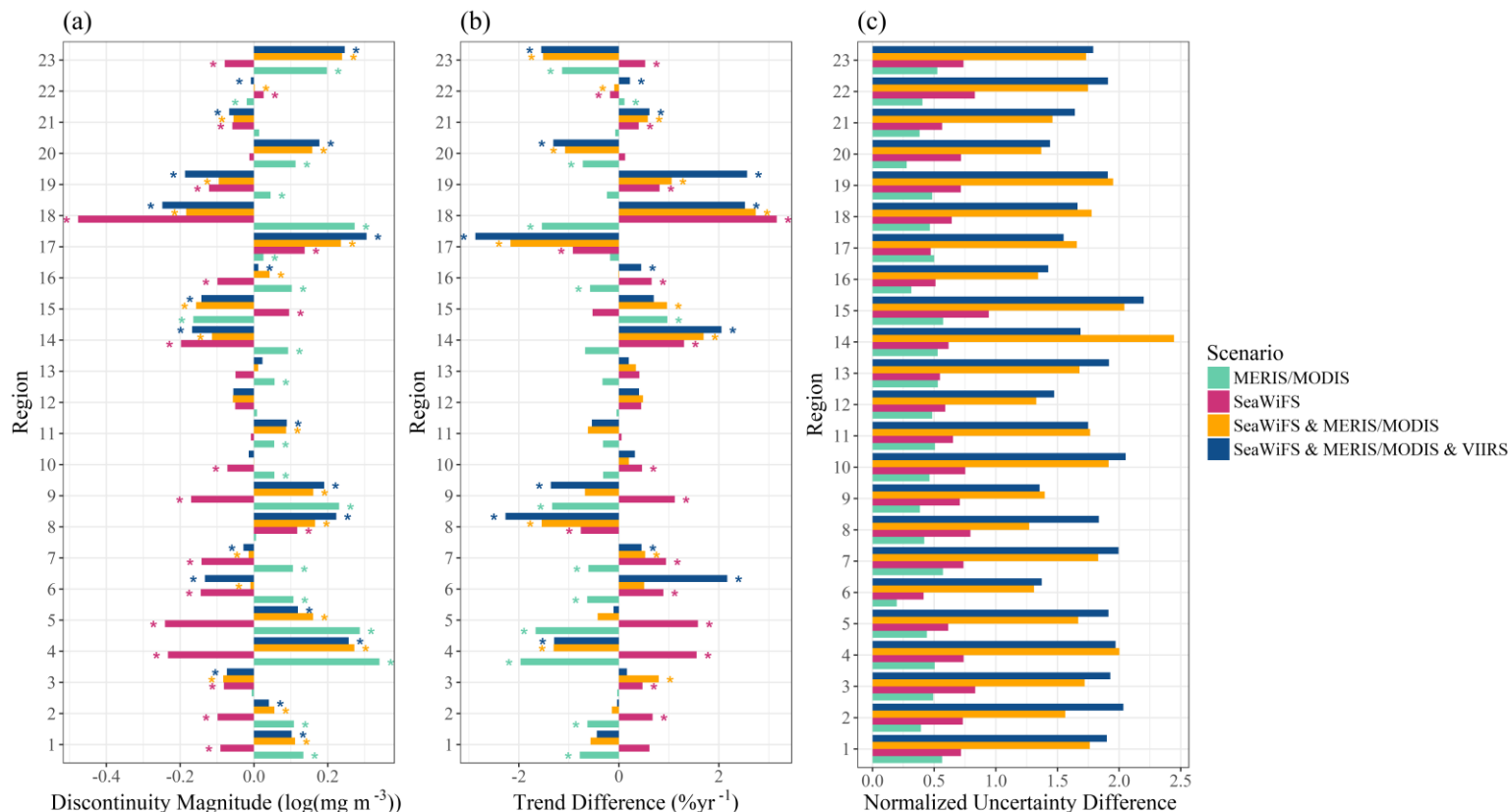
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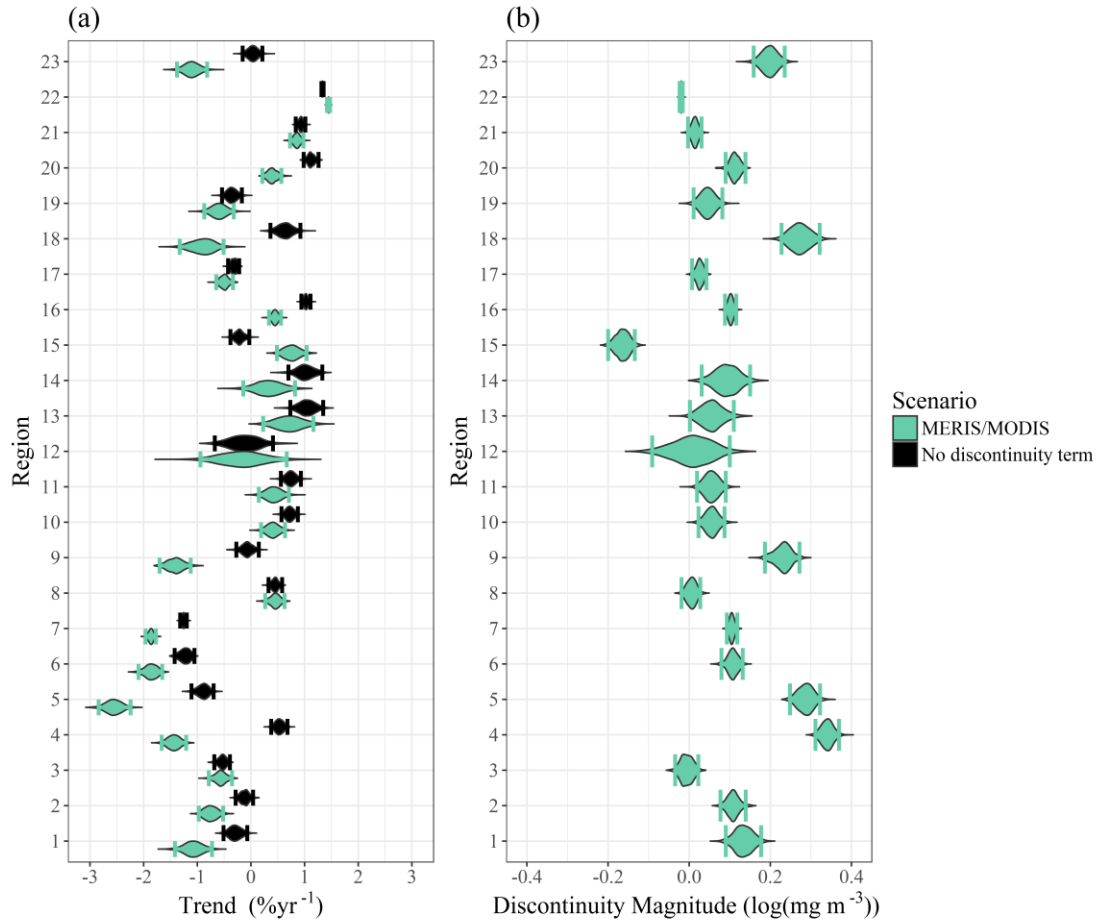
423

425 **Figures**

426 Figure 1. (a) Discontinuity magnitude for each region (averaged for the multiple discontinuity
 427 scenarios) as well as the differences in the (b) trend modal posterior density and (c) trend
 428 uncertainty (normalized to each region's trend uncertainty) between the models considering a
 429 discontinuity and the model with no discontinuity. For (a), * indicates that at least one
 430 discontinuity is different from zero, i.e. their 95 % credible intervals do not contain zero. For (b),
 431 * indicates regions where trends are different from the model with no discontinuity, i.e. their 95
 432 % credible intervals do not overlap. The uncertainty is defined as the width of the 95 % credible
 433 intervals. The scenarios are abbreviated in the main text as follows: N-scenario, (no discontinuity
 434 scenario), M-scenario (MERIS/MODIS scenario), S-scenario (SeaWiFS scenario), MS-scenario

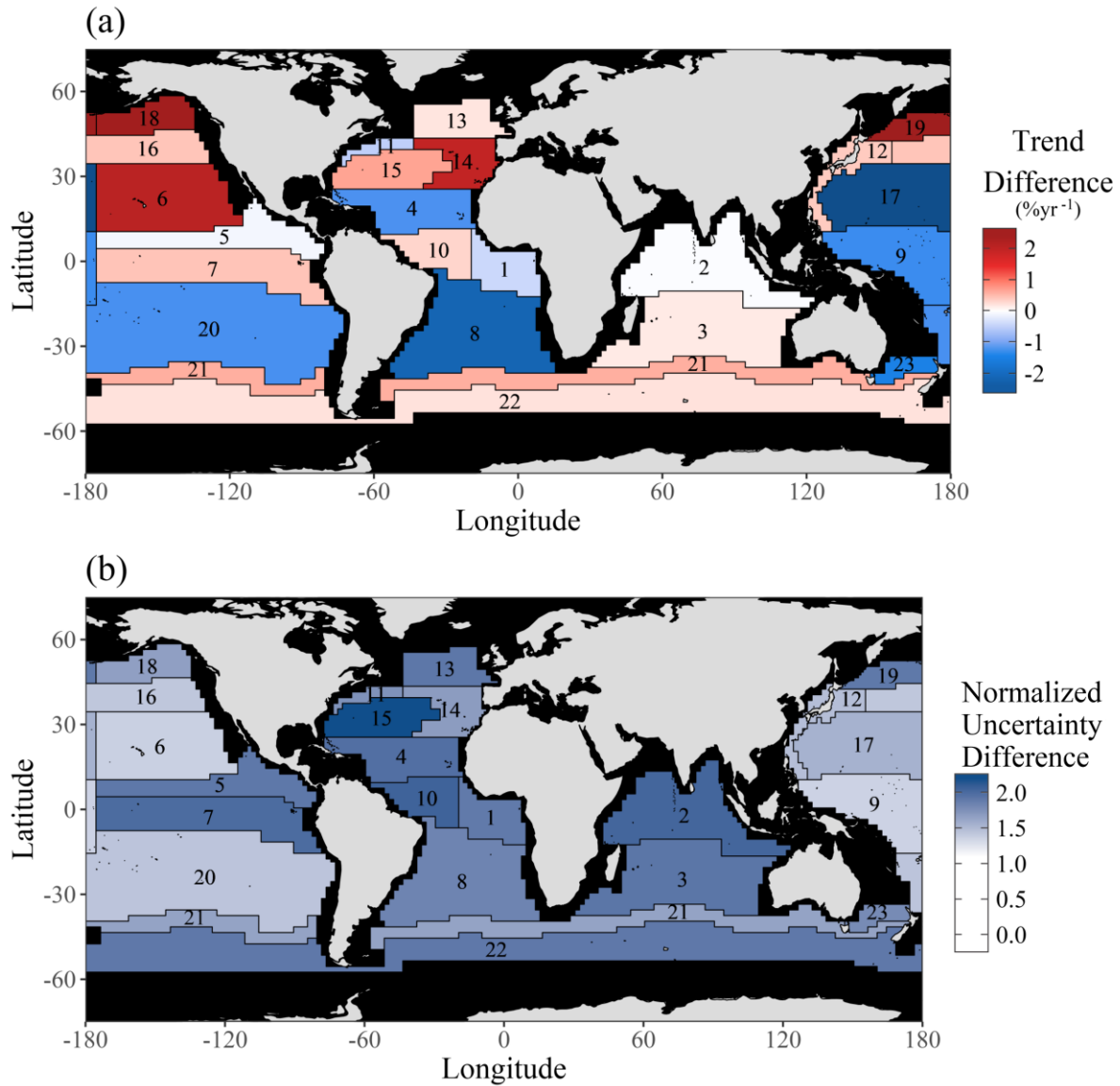
435 (SeaWiFS & MERIS/MODIS scenario), and MSV-scenario (SeaWiFS & MERIS/MODIS &
436 VIIRS scenario). Region names are as follows: (1) Eastern Tropical Atlantic Province, (2) Indian
437 Monsoon Gyres Province, (3) Indian South Subtropical Gyre Province, (4) North Atlantic
438 Tropical Gyral Province, (5) North Pacific Equatorial Countercurrent Province, (6) North Pacific
439 Tropical Gyre Province, (7) Pacific Equatorial Divergence Province, (8) South Atlantic Gyral
440 Province, (9) West Pacific Warm Pool Province, (10) Western Tropical Atlantic Province, (11)
441 Gulf Stream Province, (12) Kuroshio Current Province, (13) North Atlantic Drift Province, (14)
442 North Atlantic Subtropical Gyral Province (East), (15) North Atlantic Subtropical Gyral
443 Province (West), (16) North Pacific Polar Front Province, (17) North Pacific Subtropical Gyre
444 Province (West), (18) Pacific Subarctic Gyres Province (East), (19) Pacific Subarctic Gyres
445 Province (West), (20) South Pacific Subtropical Gyre Province, (21) South Subtropical
446 Convergence Province, (22) Subantarctic Province, and (23) Tasman Sea Province. See Figure 3
447 for a map of the regions.

448



449

450 Figure 2. Posterior probability density of (a) the trend in the MERIS/MODIS discontinuity
 451 scenario and the no discontinuity scenario, and (b) the discontinuity magnitude in the
 452 MERIS/MODIS discontinuity scenario, for each region. We consider the trends, estimated for
 453 the two scenarios to be statistically different if their 95 % credible intervals do not overlap. Note
 454 the increase in uncertainty when considering discontinuities and the inverse relationship between
 455 the discontinuity magnitude and the trend difference. Corresponding figures for the other
 456 scenarios can be found in the supporting information (Figures S6 – S9). Regions are plotted in
 457 Figure 3 and their names are listed in the caption for Figure 1.



458

459 Figure 3. Regional differences in (a) estimated trend and (b) associated uncertainty (normalized
 460 to each region's uncertainty), comparing the scenario with all discontinuities and the scenario
 461 with no discontinuities. Region names are listed in the caption for Figure 1. See Figure S5 for the
 462 trend estimates from the scenario with no discontinuity.

463