



1 A new global oceanic multi-model net primary productivity data product

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12 **Abstract.** Net primary production of the oceans contributes approximately half of the total global net
13 primary production and long-term observational records are required to assess any climate driven changes.
14 The Ocean Colour Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCI) has proven to be robust, whilst also being one of
15 the longest records of ocean colour. However, to date only one primary production algorithm has been
16 applied to this data product with other algorithms typically applied to single sensor missions. The data
17 product presented here addresses this issue by applying five algorithms to the OC-CCI data product, which
18 allows the user to interrogate the range of distribution across multiple models and to identify consensus or
19 outliers for their specific region of interest. Outputs are compared to single sensor data missions
20 highlighting good overall global agreement, with some small regional discrepancies. Inter-model
21 assessments address the source of these discrepancies, highlighting the choice of the mixed layer data
22 product as a vital component for accurate primary production estimates.

23

24 1 Introduction

25

26 Phytoplankton primary production and associated seasonal blooms play an important role in the carbon
27 cycle, being responsible for approximately 50% of total global net primary production (NPP) (Lurin, 1994;
28 Longhurst et al., 1995; Field et al., 1998; Carr et al., 2006; Buitenhuis et al., 2013). Global NPP estimates
29 are in the order of 50 Gt C per year (Longhurst et al., 1995; Field et al., 1998; Carr et al., 2006; Buitenhuis
30 et al., 2013; Antoine et al., 1996; Silsbe et al., 2016; Johnson and Bif, 2021). When this organic carbon is
31 sequestered to the ocean interior via the biological carbon pump (BCP) it can offset the flux of upwelled
32 pre-industrial dissolved inorganic carbon (Mikaloff Fletcher et al., 2007; Gruber et al., 2009). In that sense,
33 in the contemporary period, it does not play a significant role in the ocean uptake of anthropogenic carbon
34 dioxide (CO₂). However, the magnitude of the BCP is predicted to change in response to global climate



35 change, altering the ocean's ability to store carbon and hence atmospheric levels of CO₂ (Henson et al.,
36 2011; Bopp et al., 2013; Boyd et al., 2015; Tagliabue et al., 2021). In that sense, any natural or
37 anthropogenic perturbations to the strength and efficiency of the BCP have the potential to drive important
38 feedbacks on global climate change and thus need to be considered for a comprehensive understanding of
39 the trajectory of the ocean carbon sink. Recent studies have estimated that global NPP is indeed changing,
40 with declines ranging from 0.6 to 13% (Gregg and Rousseaux, 2019; Polovina et al., 2011; Chavez et al.,
41 2010; Behrenfeld et al., 2006) and increases of up to 2% (Saba et al., 2010). These changes are of concern
42 given that alterations in the contribution that the BCP plays in offsetting upwelling of DIC will impact the
43 net uptake of anthropogenic CO₂ (Henson et al., 2011). NPP also plays an important role in supporting
44 ecosystem function by sustaining biodiversity and the transfer of carbon, energy, and nutrients through
45 pelagic and benthic food webs. As such, any changes to the amount of bulk carbon being produced is likely
46 to impact the amount of carbon available for transfer to higher trophic levels via the marine food web with
47 implications for ecosystem health and fisheries success. It is the seasonal cycle that sets much of the
48 environmental variability in the factors that drive NPP, and it is the dominant mode of variability that
49 couples the physical mechanisms of climate forcing to ecosystem response in production, diversity and
50 carbon export (Monteiro et al., 2011). As such, understanding the seasonal evolution of NPP can provide a
51 sensitive index of climate variability through its dependence on physical processes that transport nutrients
52 and control the exposure of phytoplankton to sunlight (Summer and Lengfeller, 2008; Henson et al., 2009).
53 It is with this in mind that we seek to provide a data product that can be used to understand the extent to
54 which the seasonal characteristics of NPP are being modified by environmental conditions over sufficiently
55 long time periods. NPP has already been highlighted as a better indicator of environmental change and
56 disturbances in comparison to chlorophyll-a (Tilstone et al., 2023), highlighting its suitability for ecosystem
57 assessment of tipping points and abrupt change.

58
59 Phytoplankton NPP is strongly influenced by the physico-chemical conditions of the ocean, including light,
60 temperature, macronutrient and micronutrient concentrations. Climate change has already begun to elicit
61 widespread changes to these conditions, for example increases in temperature and heat content, increased
62 sea ice melt and enhanced precipitation all contribute to alterations of oceanic density and the subsequent
63 nutrient supply into the euphotic zone (Field et al., 2014; Rhein et al., 2013). Being able to understand how
64 these climate driven changes in the physico-chemical environment impact phytoplankton NPP is key to
65 addressing one of the most important scientific and policy challenges of the 21st century, namely being able
66 to predict long term trends in the ocean carbon - climate system. This challenge is exacerbated by the
67 sparsity of NPP data and a lack of continuous or regular in situ measurements for long enough periods to
68 address multi decadal changes associated with climate forcing.



69

70 Satellite based remote sensing of ocean colour is the only observational capability that can provide synoptic
71 views of upper ocean phytoplankton characteristics at high spatial and temporal resolution (~1km, ~daily)
72 and high temporal extent (global scales, years to decades). In many cases these are the only systematic
73 observations available for chronically under-sampled marine systems such as the Southern Ocean.
74 Empirical expressions of estimating NPP are built around long recognised dependencies between
75 phytoplankton biomass and environmental conditions (e.g., temperature, light and nutrients), with a
76 succinct review available in Westberry et al. (2023). The vertically Generalized Production Model (VGPM)
77 (Eppley, 1972; Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997) is a simpler satellite NPP model that relies on the
78 relationship between chlorophyll and temperature derived growth rates with no explicit spectral, temporal,
79 or vertical resolution. The Carbon-based Production Models (CbPM; Behrenfeld et al., 2005; Westberry et
80 al., 2008) rely on particulate backscattering estimates of phytoplankton carbon as a biomass indicator
81 instead of chlorophyll. This approach allows for some of the variability in chlorophyll to be attributed to
82 physiological adjustments to light and nutrients (e.g., photoacclimation), independent of changes in NPP.
83 The more recent CAFE model (Silsbe et al., 2016) builds upon this approach but in addition incorporates
84 the influence of non-algal absorption on the attenuation of the underwater light field, which if not accounted
85 for has a tendency to overestimate NPP (notably in coastal waters). Recently, considerable effort has been
86 invested to provide one of the longest records of ocean colour by merging data and correcting inter-sensor
87 biases from multiple ocean colour satellite sensors (Sathyendranath et al., 2019a), known as the Ocean
88 Colour Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCI). This time series of 25 years (as of 2023) has already been
89 utilised to provide estimates of trends in global NPP (Kulk et al., 2020), with results showing that trends in
90 NPP were linked to trends in chlorophyll-*a* and related to changes in the physico-chemical conditions of
91 the water column from inter-annual and multi-decadal climate oscillations. However, this study only
92 investigated one NPP algorithm as opposed to using a suite of different algorithms with varying sensitivities
93 to specific processes, as is done for the assessments of predicted change from earth system models in the
94 coupled model intercomparison project (CMIP).

95

96 Given the importance of NPP for assessing carbon budgets, ecosystem health and environmental change it
97 is becoming increasingly clear that users require easy access to appropriate data products. Unfortunately,
98 the global NPP algorithm applied to OC-CCI by Kulk et al. (Kulk et al., 2020) is not available for download
99 on the OC-CCI server. Although an NPP data product is available from Copernicus Marine Services, this
100 is only applied to the temporally limited GlobColour data product and similarly is only available for a single
101 NPP algorithm (Antoine and Morel, 1996). The most comprehensive suite of NPP algorithms is provided
102 by the Ocean Productivity website (<http://sites.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/custom.php>),



103 however these are also only applied to single sensor missions (SeaWiFS, MODIS, VIIRS) thus restricting
104 time periods of interest and preventing any longer-term assessments of change. Furthermore, it is difficult
105 for the user to ascertain exactly which ancillary data products (i.e., MLD criterion, nitracline) were being
106 used in the final empirical derivation of NPP.

107

108 Here we present a new ocean colour data product that incorporates 5 NPP algorithms applied to the 25-year
109 merged sensor OC-CCI time series. This multi-model data product provides a range of estimates of global
110 NPP from 1998 to 2022 at both 8-day and monthly resolution and at a spatial coverage of 25 km. The
111 distribution of the models are assessed across different oceanic biomes and long term observatory sites to
112 highlight either consensus or outliers. The outputs of these algorithms are assessed for any biases or
113 differences in comparison to the original outputs from single sensor missions and intra-algorithm
114 differences for the multi-sensor satellite record.

115

116 **2 Materials and Methods**

117

118 25 years of ocean colour data from 1998 – 2022 were downloaded from the OC-CCI server (8-day; 4 km;
119 v6.0; Sathyendranath et al., 2019), including chlorophyll *a* concentration (chl-*a*; mg m⁻³), backscatter at 443
120 nm (b_{bp} ; m⁻¹), the diffuse attenuation coefficient at 490 nm (K_d 490; m⁻¹), the phytoplankton absorption
121 coefficient at 443 nm (a_{ph} ; m⁻¹) and the detrital absorption coefficient at 443 nm (a_{dg} ; m⁻¹). As the OC-CCI
122 server does not contain the spectral slope of b_{bp} (η ; m⁻¹ nm⁻¹), it was calculated following equation 1 from
123 Pitarch et al. (2019) using remote sensing reflectance (R_{rs}) at 443 nm and 560 nm. Daily integrated
124 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR; mol photons m⁻² d⁻¹) data were downloaded from Glob-Colour
125 (<http://www.globcolour.info/>). Sea surface temperature (SST; °C) data were downloaded from the Group
126 for High Resolution Sea Surface Temperature (GHRSSST; <https://www.ghrsst.org/>). The Hadley EN4.2.2
127 gridded temperature and salinity profiles (Good et al., 2013) were converted to density (σ ; kg m⁻³) to derive
128 mixed layer depth (MLD; m) using the density thresholds of 0.03 kg m⁻³ (de Boyer Montégut et al., 2004)
129 and 0.125 kg m⁻³. Additional data for MLD were retrieved from HYCOM
130 (<https://www.hycom.org/data/globa0pt08>), for both density criteria (downloaded from
131 <http://sites.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/>).

132

133 For the primary analysis of the paper the outputs using the Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030$ kg m⁻³ MLD data product
134 was used (Ryan-Keogh, 2023d). The reason for this choice were concerns around the accuracy of the
135 HYCOM MLD data product to best represent in situ conditions. A trend analysis performed on all MLD
136 products and criterion (Figure A1) revealed distinct directional differences in the trends of Hadley versus



137 HYCOM, with the Hadley MLD product the only one to best represent the global MLD trends as outlined
 138 in Sallée et al. (2021). However, the outputs using Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (Ryan-Keogh, 2023a),
 139 HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (Ryan-Keogh, 2023b) and HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (Ryan-Keogh,
 140 2023c) are all available.

141

142 The nitracline depth was defined as the depth at which nitrate and nitrite was equal to $0.5 \mu\text{M}$ (Westberry
 143 et al., 2008), using the monthly data from the World Ocean Atlas 2018 (WOA18; (Garcia et al., 2019). The
 144 total backscattering of pure seawater ($b_{bw}; \text{m}^{-1}$) was derived as a function of SST and salinity following
 145 Zhang and Hu (2009), using monthly salinity data from WOA18 averaged for the top 20 m.

146

147 All data were regridded onto a regular grid of 25 km spatial resolution, using bilinear interpolation using
 148 the xESMF Python package (Zhuang, 2018), at 8-day temporal resolution. The remaining gaps were filled
 149 by applying a linear interpolation scheme in sequential steps of longitude, latitude and time (Racault et al.,
 150 2014) using a three-point window. If one of the points bordering the gap along the indicated axis was invalid
 151 it was omitted from the calculation, whilst if two surrounding points were invalid then the gap was not
 152 filled. Finally, the data were smoothed by applying a moving average filter of the previous and next
 153 timestep. For more details on this method see Salgado-Hernanz et al. (2019).

154

155 NPP ($\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) was calculated using 5 different algorithms, the ‘Eppley-VGPM’ model (Eppley, 1972),
 156 the ‘Behrenfeld-VGPM’ model (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997), the ‘Behrenfeld-CbPM’ model
 157 (Behrenfeld et al., 2005), the ‘Westberry-CbPM’ model (Westberry et al., 2008) and the ‘Silsbe-CAFE’
 158 model (Silsbe et al., 2016). Both Eppley-VGPM and Behrenfeld-VGPM models are chlorophyll based
 159 production models with a temperature-dependent derivation of photosynthetic efficiencies. The Behrenfeld-
 160 CbPM and Westberry-CbPM models are based upon deriving carbon biomass from backscatter coefficients
 161 and growth rates from chlorophyll-to-carbon ratios, with the Westberry-CbPM being spectrally resolved
 162 across 9 wavelengths. The Silsbe-CAFE model is an absorption based model that is spectrally resolved
 163 across 21 wavelengths, whilst also being resolved across the diel cycle from sunrise to sunset. For more
 164 details on which parameters are required for each model please see Table 1.

165

Chl- <i>a</i>	PA R	<i>b</i>_{bp}	<i>a</i>_{ph}	<i>a</i>_{dg}	<i>K</i>_d	η	<i>b</i>_{bw}	ML D	SST	Nitr acl ine	SSS
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<i>Eppley-VGPM</i>	✓	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓	×	×
<i>Behrenfeld-VGPM</i>	✓	✓	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	✓	×	×
<i>Behrenfeld-CbPM</i>	✓	✓	✓	×	×	✓	×	×	✓	×	×	×
<i>Westberry-CbPM</i>	✓	✓	✓	×	×	✓	×	×	✓	×	✓	×
<i>Silsbe-CAFE</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	×	✓

166 Table 1: Data variables, including chlorophyll-a (Chl-*a*; mg m⁻³), photosynthetically active radiation (PAR;
 167 mol photons m⁻² d⁻¹), backscatter at 443 nm (b_{bp} ; m⁻¹), phytoplankton absorption at 443 nm (a_{ph} ; m⁻¹), detrital
 168 absorption at 443 nm (a_{dg} ; m⁻¹), diffuse attenuation coefficient at 490 nm (K_d ; m⁻¹), the spectral slope of
 169 backscatter (η ; m⁻¹ nm⁻¹), the backscatter of pure water (b_{bw} ; m⁻¹), mixed layer depth (MLD; m), sea surface
 170 temperature (SST; °C), nitracline depth (m) and sea surface salinity (SSS), used in the derivation of net
 171 primary production using 5 models including the Eppley-VGPM, Behrenfeld-VGPM, Behrenfeld-CbPM,
 172 Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE.

173

174 For presentation purposes the global data were separated into biomes using the classification from Fay &
 175 McKinley (2014), while long-term observatories were selected as the Bermuda Atlantic Time Series (30.7-
 176 32.7°N, 59.2-61.2°W), the Hawaii Oceanic Time Series (21.8-23.8°N, 157-159°W), the Southern Ocean
 177 Time Series (46.0-48.0°S, 139-141°E) and the Porcupine Abyssal Plain observatory (48-50°N, 15.5-
 178 17.5°W).

179

180 For comparison to the OC-CCI outputs presented here, monthly NPP data of Eppley-VGPM, Behrenfeld-
 181 VGPM, Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE were downloaded from the Ocean Productivity website
 182 (<http://sites.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/>) for SeaWIFS (1998 - 2007) and MODIS (2003 -
 183 2019). Unfortunately, the NPP data for the Behrenfeld-CbPM is no longer available as it has been
 184 superseded by the Westberry-CbPM NPP data. Pearson's correlation coefficients (R^2) were calculated
 185 between the SeaWIFS/MODIS derived NPP and the OC-CCI derived NPP.

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187 3 Results & Discussion

188

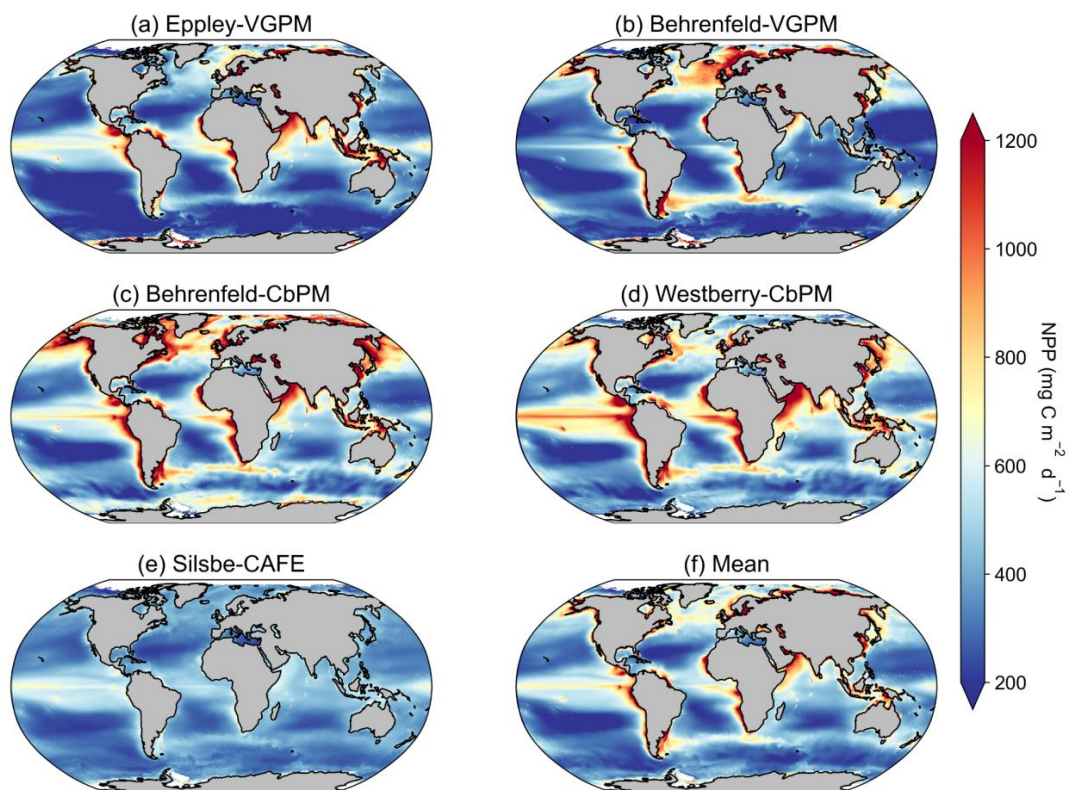


189 Comparing intra-model climatological means

190

191 The climatological means of each NPP model show a large degree of spatial heterogeneity, with higher
192 values associated with western boundary currents and at the equator (Figure 1). The temperature based
193 Eppley-VGPM and Behrenfeld-VGPM models (Figure 1a,b) show good agreement in terms of their ranges
194 and means (Table 2), but there are large differences particularly in the North Atlantic and the Arabian Sea
195 and equatorial Pacific. The carbon based Behrenfeld-CbPM and Westberry-CbPM models (Figure 1c,d)
196 show very good agreement in terms of their climatological means although discrepancies are nonetheless
197 evident (e.g. higher NPP in the Southern Ocean and North Atlantic in the Behrenfeld-CbPM and higher
198 NPP in the equatorial region in the Westberry-CbPM). The absorption based Silsbe-CAFE model (Figure
199 1e) has a much smaller range across the global ocean. A map of the coefficient of variation ($CV =$
200 $\sigma_{NPP}/\langle NPP \rangle$; Figure 2a) shows the highest values (depicting agreement between models) in the high
201 latitudes and in coastal regions. Unlike the comparison in Westberry et al. (2023) (which included
202 Behrenfeld-VGPM, Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE applied to MODIS data from 2003 to 2019), we
203 do not find lower CV values to be specifically associated with highly productive waters, nor do we find a
204 similar distribution for very high CV values. The Silsbe-CAFE model has the most peaked probability
205 distributions (PDF) of all the models (Figure 2b) with a narrow range, which is similar to that reported in
206 Westberry et al. (2023). The other models show a much lower peak and broader range with the two CbPM
207 models centred around a lower median distribution of NPP (more similar to that of Silsbe-CAFE) than the
208 slightly higher median NPP of the two VGPM models. When we examine the cumulative distributions
209 (CDF) of each model (Figure 2c), the medians were an order of magnitude higher in the Eppley-VGPM
210 ($1019.5 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and Behrenfeld-VGPM ($1206.6 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) in comparison to the Behrenfeld-CbPM
211 ($298.2 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), Westberry-CbPM ($531.1 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and Silsbe-CAFE ($495.5 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). Whilst
212 the median values for both Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE are similar to those reported in Westberry
213 et al. (2023), the Behrenfeld-VGPM values are much higher than what was previously reported (332 mg C
214 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), which is not necessarily surprising when considering that different SST, PAR and Chl-a products
215 are being used in this analysis.

216



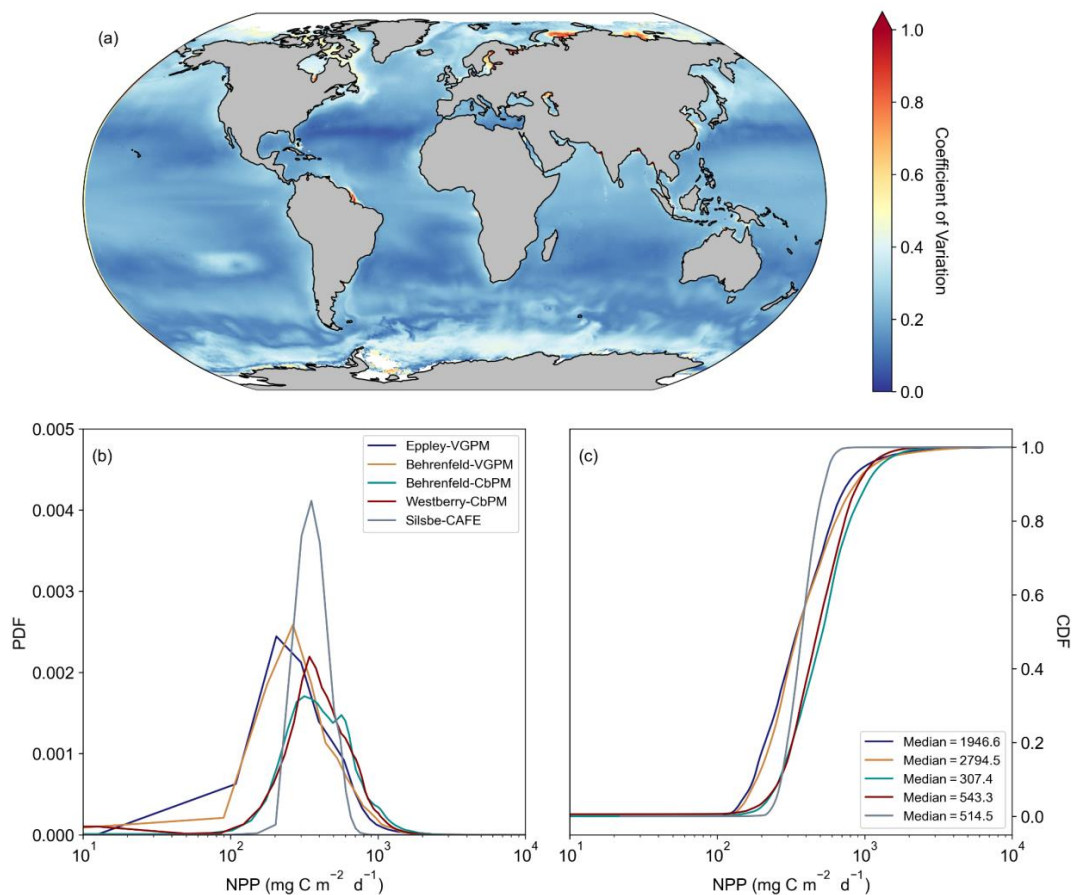
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218 Figure 1: Climatological means of net primary productivity (NPP) for the period of 1998-01-01 to 2022-

219 12-31 for the (a) Eppley-VGPM, (b) Behrenfeld-VGPM, (c) Behrenfeld-CbPM, (d) Westberry-CbPM, (e)

220 Silsbe-CAFE model and (f) the mean of all models.

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Figure 2: The distribution of the model net primary production (NPP) values. (a) the coefficient of variation, calculated as the inter-model standard deviation normalised to the inter-model mean. (b) Probability distributions (PDF) of the climatological mean NPP for each of the models. (c) Cumulative distributions of the climatological mean NPP for each of the models.

	MLD criterion	Min	Max	Mean±Stdev	Median	IQR	Global NPP
<i>Eppley-VGPM</i>	n/a	12.7	18941.2	457.8±464.4	347.4	311.2	68.3±2.8
<i>Behrenfeld-VGPM</i>	n/a	11.8	17289.1	485.2±470.7	352.0	317.8	69.2±2.6



Behrenfel d-CbPM	Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	7.4×10^{-8}	6933.1	596.7±362.9	517.9	368.5	86.1±2.5
	Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	7.9×10^{-13}	6605.1	458.8±293.3	387.3	308.7	69.2±1.8
	HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	1.7×10^{-11}	22459.4	655.3±770.0	488.0	349.7	77.6±6.3
	HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	2.0×10^{-11}	26208.4	743.0±1264.0	425.2	360.0	87.8±7.4
Westberry -CbPM	Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	9.7×10^{-29}	7183.2	545.6±292.3	477.8	331.8	84.6±2.6
	Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	1.9×10^{-28}	6894.5	456.8±279.6	380.5	318.7	73.0±2.3
	HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	3.2×10^{-12}	25505.9	506.7±267.0	451.6	310.4	78.0±3.3
	HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	9.1×10^{-157}	135462.7	454.1±323.8	390.8	302.8	70.1±3.5
Silsbe- CAFE	Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	22.1	1193.2	388.8±100.5	374.7	137.4	59.3±3.9
	Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	22.1	1193.2	383.1±100.9	365.2	141.1	58.9±3.8
	HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.03 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	22.3	1204.1	386.6±99.6	371.0	138.3	59.2±3.9
	HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$	17.9	1193.2	378.3±102.5	361.9	140.9	58.3±3.8

228 Table 2: The climatological global minimum, maximum, mean±standard deviation, median and
 229 interquartile range (IQR: 75th - 25th) for each net primary production model. Included is the sum of the



230 global NPP (Pg C yr^{-1}) from each model (averaged for each year from 1998 to 2022, including the standard
231 deviation), including the different MLD criterion used (where n/a means not applicable).

232

233 Investigating the difference in climatological means between each model and the ensemble model mean
234 highlights the regional distribution of positive and negative biases relative to the ensemble model mean
235 (Figure A2). For example, the two VGPM models show an opposite distribution in their relative differences
236 with Behrenfeld-VGPM being higher in the North-Atlantic, Arctic and Antarctic Circumpolar Current
237 (ACC) regions while Eppley-VGPM is higher in the equatorial region. Both CbPM models show a tendency
238 to overestimate NPP compared to other models except in the Arctic where the Westberry-VBPM is instead
239 lower than the ensemble model mean. Interestingly, although the climatological mean of the Silsbe-CAFE
240 appears lower than all other models (Figure 1) this is not globally consistent when expressed as a difference
241 which instead highlights that the Silsbe-CAFE overestimates NPP relative to other models in the
242 oligotrophic gyres and ACC region.

243

244 Finally, if we compare global oceanic NPP from the models with previous IPCC estimates of 50 Pg C m^{-2}
245 yr^{-1} , only the Silsbe-CAFE model has a similar range in NPP ($58.9 - 59.3 \text{ Pg C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), whereas the ranges
246 of all the other models are much higher ($68.3 - 87.8 \text{ Pg C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), with some estimates higher than
247 previously reported ($32.0 - 70.7 \text{ Pg C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$; Buitenhuis et al., 2013; Sathyendranath et al., 2019b).

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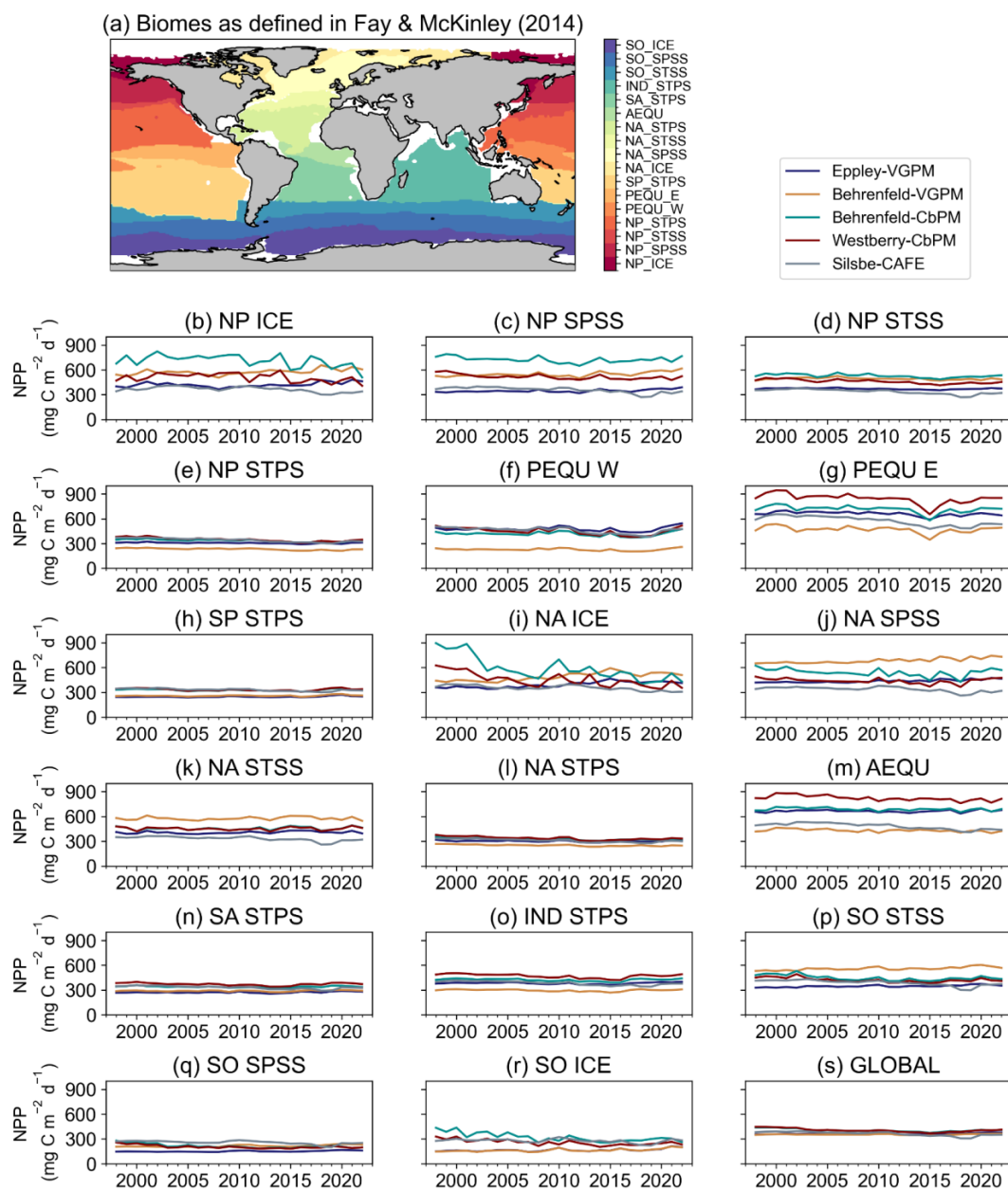
249 Interrogating spatio-temporal patterns of NPP Data Products

250

251 Fay and McKinley (2014) classified the global ocean into 17 biomes (Figure 3) according to distinct
252 biological (chl-*a* concentrations) and physical characteristics (SST, MLD and ice fraction). Splitting the
253 NPP data according to these biomes allows a regional comparison of inter model differences and
254 similarities. The annual model means of each NPP product range from a minimum value of 207.85 ± 38.67
255 $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in the Southern Ocean subpolar seasonally stratified (SO SPSS) biomes (Figure 3s) to a
256 maximum value of $652.21 \pm 135.06 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in the East Pacific equatorial biome (PEQU E) biome
257 (Figure 3g). When globally averaged (Figure 3s) the models appear to agree very well in their annual
258 climatologies of NPP, however when interrogated on a per biome basis, some discrepancies emerge. For
259 example, although there is particular good agreement in NPP in the oligotrophic gyres (Figure 3e,h,l,n),
260 large intra-model differences are particularly evident in the equatorial biomes (Figure 3f,g,m) and the high
261 latitude Atlantic and Pacific (Figure 3b,c,i,j). In some biomes there is also a tendency for models to merge
262 or diverge over time. For example, there is a large inter model spread in the early 2000's in the North
263 Atlantic and Southern Ocean ICE biomes (Figure 3 i, r), which narrows over time, while the opposite is



264 apparent in the North Atlantic Subpolar seasonally stratified biome (NA SPSS) biome (Figure 3j). Also
 265 worth noting are regions where all models agree except one, for example the comparatively lower NPP for
 266 the Behrenfeld-VGPM model in the West Pacific equatorial biome (PEQU W) (Figure 3f).
 267



268



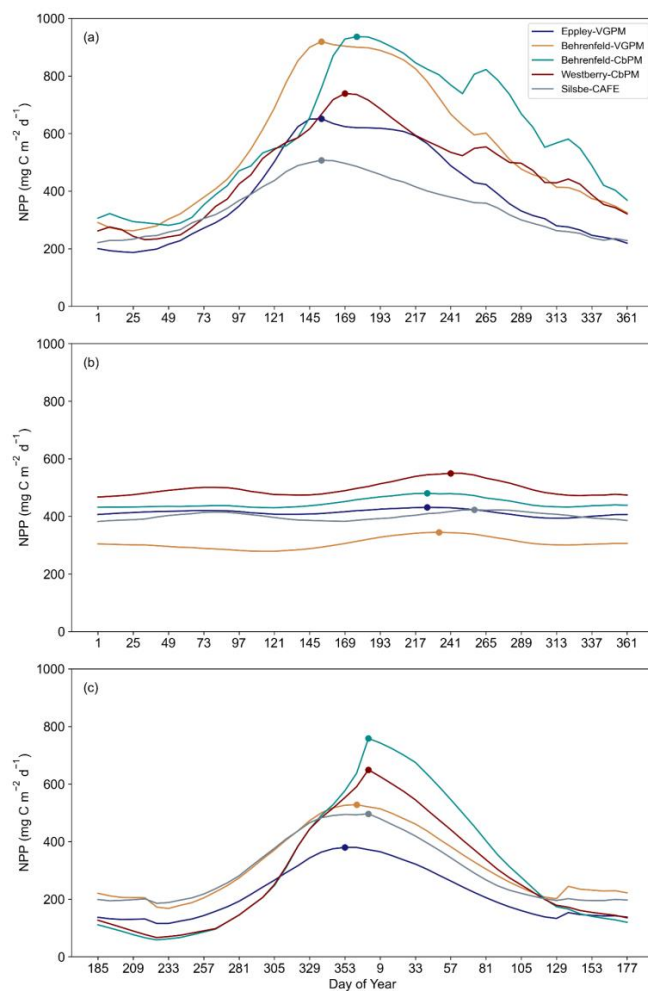
269 Figure 3: (a) Map of the mean biomes from Fay and McKinley (2014), where white areas represent regions
270 which do not fit into any biome classification. Annual means of net primary productivity (NPP; mg C m^{-2}
271 d^{-1}) from the Eppley-VGPM, Behrenfeld-VGPM, Behrenfeld-CbPM, Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE
272 model for the (b) North Pacific Ice biome (NP ICE), (c) North Pacific Subpolar seasonally stratified biome
273 (NP SPSS), (d) North Pacific Subtropical seasonally stratified biome (NP STSS), (e) North Pacific
274 Subtropical permanently stratified biome (NP STPS), (f) West Pacific equatorial biome (PEQU W), (g)
275 East Pacific equatorial biome (PEQU E), (h) South Pacific Subtropical permanently stratified biome (SP
276 STPS), (i) North Atlantic ice biome (NA ICE), (j) North Atlantic Subpolar seasonally stratified biome (NA
277 SPSS), (k) North Atlantic Subtropical seasonally stratified biome (NA STSS), (l) North Atlantic Subtropical
278 permanently stratified biome (NA STPS), (m) Equatorial Atlantic biome (AEQU), (n) South Atlantic
279 Subtropical permanently stratified biome (SA STPS), (o) Indian Subtropical permanently stratified biome
280 (IND STPS), (p) South Ocean Subtropical seasonally stratified biome (SO STSS), (q) Southern Ocean
281 Subpolar seasonally stratified biome (SO SPSS), (r) Southern Ocean ice biome (SO ICE) and (s) the global
282 ocean.

283

284 In the next model comparison, we combine biomes into three regions; the northern high latitude, equatorial
285 and southern high latitude to examine the seasonal cycle in NPP across the five models. Here, inter-model
286 differences become even more pronounced in terms of their minima, maxima and phenology of the seasonal
287 cycle (Figure 4). In the northern hemisphere biomes (Figure 4a; North Pacific and North Atlantic ice,
288 subpolar seasonally stratified and subtropical seasonally stratified biomes) there is a large range of
289 variability in maximum NPP, with the Behrenfeld-VGPM and Behrenfeld-CbPM exhibiting the highest
290 peak values (919.60 and $936.59 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, respectively) and the Silsbe-CAFE model exhibiting the
291 lowest peak value ($507.41 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). The timing of the peaks are also offset with the earliest peak
292 occurring in the Eppley-VGPM, Behrenfeld-VGPM and Silsbe-CAFE models at the start of June while the
293 Behrenfeld-CbPM and Westberry-CbPM models puts the timing of the peak a few weeks later in mid-June.
294 The southern hemisphere biomes (Figure 4c; Southern Ocean ice, subpolar seasonally stratified and
295 subtropical seasonally stratified biomes) similarly express a large range in amplitude of the seasonal peak
296 across all models, with both CbPM models exhibiting the highest values (758.15 and $649.42 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$,
297 respectively) whereas the Eppley-VGPM exhibits the lowest peak value ($379.62 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). The timing
298 of the peak is similar for Behrenfeld-CbPM, Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE in January with the
299 Eppley-VGPM and Behrenfeld-VGPM models placing the bloom peak earlier in December. The low
300 latitude and equatorial biomes (Figure 4b; North & South Pacific subtropical permanently stratified, North
301 & South Atlantic subtropical permanently stratified, Indian subtropical permanently stratified, Atlantic and
302 Pacific equatorial biomes) do not exhibit any clear seasonal cycle and have a lower range of variability



303 across all the models. The range of divergence is more similar to that of the seasonal troughs of NPP in the
304 Northern and Southern high latitude regions, although rates of NPP are not as low (mean for all models for
305 the time series = $412.85 \pm 69.86 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$).
306



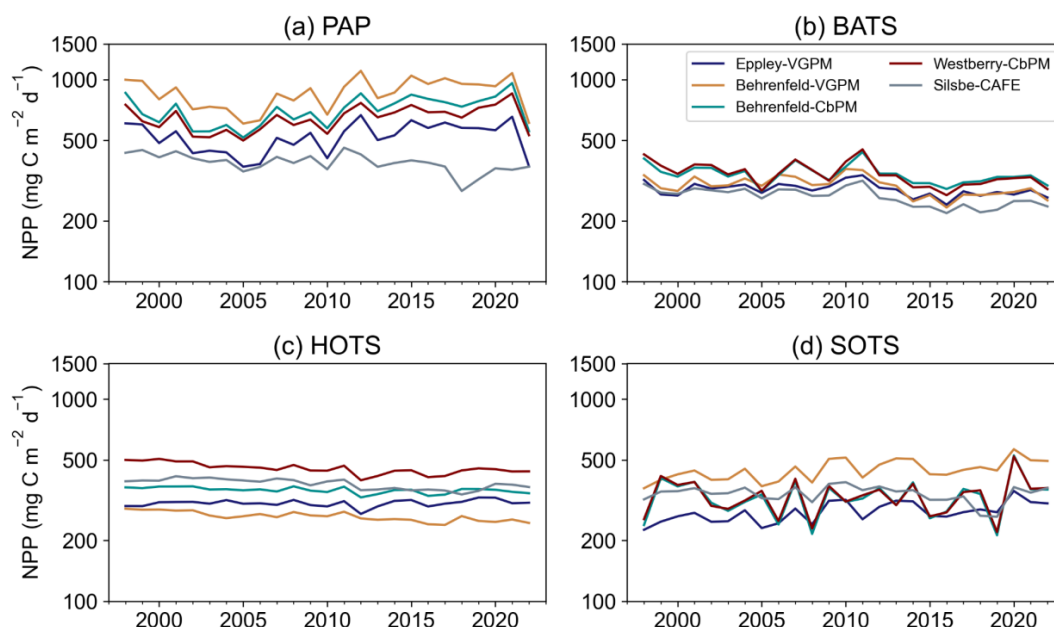
307
308 Figure 4: The seasonal cycle of net primary productivity (NPP; $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) from the Eppley-VGPM,
309 Behrenfeld-VGPM, Behrenfeld-CbPM, Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE models for (a) the northern
310 high latitude regions (NA ICE, NP ICE, NA SPSS, NP SPSS, NA STSS and NP STSS), (b) the equatorial
311 and low latitude regions (AEQU, PEQU E, PEQU W, IND STPS, NA STPS, SA STPS, NP STPS, SP
312 STPS) and (c) the southern high latitude regions (SO ICE, SO SPSS and SO STSS). Data is averaged across
313 the time period 1998 – 2022. Please note that for panel c the data has been shifted for the peak to appear in
314 the centre of the plot. The circles represent the timing of the annual maximum.



315

316 We further examined the variability between models by choosing 4 long-term observatory sites; the
317 porcupine abyssal plain observatory (PAP; Figure 5a), the Bermuda Atlantic Time Series (BATS; Figure
318 5b), the Hawaii Oceanic Time Series (HOTS; Figure 5c) and the Southern Ocean Time Series (SOTS;
319 Figure 5d). The BATS site has the lowest range of NPP with the smallest inter-model differences
320 ($305.12 \pm 45.54 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), while HOTS and SOTS express a similar range in NPP (351.86 ± 68.31 &
321 $345.42 \pm 76.54 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, respectively) and the PAP site has the highest range in NPP and greatest inter-
322 model differences ($625.83 \pm 190.81 \text{ mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$).

323



324

325 Figure 5: Annual means of net primary productivity (NPP; $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) from the Eppley-VGPM,
326 Behrenfeld-VGPM, Behrenfeld-CbPM, Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE models for (a) the Porcupine
327 Abyssal Plain (PAP) observatory, (b) the Bermuda Atlantic Time Series (BATS), (c) the Hawaii Oceanic
328 Time Series (HOTS), and (d) the Southern Ocean Time Series (SOTS).

329

330 Comparison with MODIS and SeaWiFS derived NPP

331

332 When first designed, these NPP models were originally implemented on both SeaWiFS and MODIS data
333 products. As such, we are able to compare the new OC-CCI derived NPP for all models presented here with
334 the original NPP from both SeaWiFS and MODIS that is downloadable from the Ocean Productivity



335 website (<http://sites.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/>). Spatial correlation maps were
336 subsequently derived for the Eppley-VGPM, Behrenfeld-VGPM, Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE
337 models using both SeaWIFS and OC-CCI derived NPP for the period of 1998-01-01 to 2007-12-31 (Figure
338 A3) and the MODIS and OC-CCI derived NPP for the period 2003-01-01 to 2019-12-31 (Figure A4).
339 Results show very good agreement for Eppley-VGPM (Figure A3a,b; Figure A4a,b) and Behrenfeld-
340 VGPM (Figure A3c,d; Figure A4c,d) for both SeaWIFS (median $R^2 = 0.83$ and 0.87 respectively) and
341 MODIS (median $R^2 = 0.85$ and 0.89 respectively) with some lower R^2 values evident in the equatorial
342 region. Correlations were generally poor for the Westberry-CbPM model for both SeaWIFS (median $R^2 =$
343 0.41) and MODIS (median $R^2 = 0.51$). Correlations against the Silsbe-CAFE model were good at higher
344 latitudes for both SeaWIFS and MODIS but poor in the equatorial region with the overall correlation being
345 worse for MODIS (median $R^2 = 0.65$) than for SeaWIFS (median $R^2 = 0.69$). However, the NPP data
346 products generated from SeaWIFS and MODIS for these respective time periods were derived using the
347 HYCOM MLD data product and not Hadley (as per the OC-CCI NPP product), which may account for
348 some of the observed variability and poor correlations. For consistency, we can instead similarly use the
349 HYCOM MLD with a density criterion of $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (Figure A5) to derive the OC-CCI NPP
350 product for comparison with SeaWIFS and MODIS products for the Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-CAFE
351 models (which both use MLD as input criteria unlike the VGPM models) (Ryan-Keogh, 2023b). Here we
352 see an overall improvement in the spatial correlation maps and distribution of R^2 which for Westberry-
353 CbPM increased in both SeaWIFS and MODIS to an $R^2 = 0.50$ and 0.60 , respectively, while for the Silsbe-
354 CAFE model the correlation increased to an $R^2 = 0.76$ and 0.70 (for SeaWIFS and MODIS, respectively).

355

356 The reasons for discrepancies between NPP products derived from OC-CCI versus SeaWIFS/MODIS can
357 culminate from differences in the satellite products themselves (which will not be investigated here), but
358 also from additional sources of variability that stem primarily from differences in the criteria of input
359 variables. For instance, the original Westberry-CbPM study used a mixed layer definition of $\Delta T_{10m} = 0.5^\circ\text{C}$,
360 whereas the NPP products applied here use a density criteria of $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$. If we instead derive
361 NPP from an MLD that is defined with a density criteria of $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (as per the alternative
362 MLD criterion listed on the Ocean Productivity website
363 (<http://sites.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/>)) (Ryan-Keogh, 2023c) we see a further
364 improvement in the spatial correlation of NPP for the Westberry-CbPM (Figure A5a-d), for both SeaWIFS
365 ($R^2 = 0.65$) and MODIS time periods ($R^2 = 0.74$) as well as the Silsbe-CAFE model for both SeaWIFS (R^2
366 $= 0.82$) and MODIS ($R^2 = 0.77$), with poor agreement still persisting in the equatorial Atlantic and Arabian
367 Sea.

368



369 Another potential source of variability for the Westberry-CbPM model specifically lies in the data source
370 used for determining the nitracline depth. Westberry et al. (2008) originally used the WOA01 data product
371 whereas here we have used the updated WOA18 product. As a brief investigation on differences between
372 datasets we looked at examples of the total number of nitrate data points in WOA09 and WOA13, 1186280
373 and 3603293 respectively, compared to WOA18, 4097914, representing increases of 203% and 14%
374 respectively. Further analysis investigated differences in the nitracline depth if derived using WOA13
375 versus WOA18 (Figure A7) results show that differences occupy the same spatial extent as the areas of
376 poor spatial correlation. Future versions of this product will need to incorporate updates to global nitrate
377 climatologies, such as the planned release of WOA23 which will greatly improve estimates of the nitracline
378 depth.

379

380 The remaining potential sources of variability, specific to the Silsbe-CAFE model, are the choice of salinity
381 data for deriving the backscattering of pure water (b_{bw}) and the derivation of the spectral slope of b_{bp} (η).
382 In Silsbe et al. (2016) they assumed a constant salinity of 32.5 for simplicity, whereas here we have used
383 monthly means of salinity taken from WOA18. The difference between this reference value and the monthly
384 means (Figure A8) show that areas such as the equatorial Pacific and Atlantic, which had the lowest spatial
385 correlations for the Silsbe-CAFE model, have some of the biggest differences in salinity. A sensitivity
386 analysis of the Zhang and Hu (2009) derivation of backscattering by pure water shows that the incorrect
387 implementation of salinity can have significant implications on the final value (Figure A9). As such we
388 recommend the use of monthly climatologies, but in the future it will become necessary to account for
389 changing salinities, particularly in polar regions where changes in sea ice extent is resulting in freshening
390 (Haumann et al., 2020). One potential data product could be the climate change initiative satellite based sea
391 surface salinity product (Boutin et al., 2021), which has already shown strong promise of capturing
392 variations in salinity that match in situ measurements from both Argo floats and ships. As OC-CCI does
393 not release η as a standard product we had to derive it using the Rrs data following equation 1 from Pitarch
394 et al. (2019). However, the wavelengths required for this derivation are 443 and 555 nm, with OC-CCI
395 having only 560 nm. Nevertheless, we find good agreement between MODIS derived η and OC-CCI η
396 across the global ocean (Figure A10), with only a few areas in the Arctic that have very low agreement
397 (median $R^2 = 0.78$).

398

399 **4 Conclusion**

400

401 The data product presented here provides a continuous record of global satellite derived NPP at 8-day and
402 monthly resolution using multiple algorithms applied to the OC-CCI product as the longest continuing

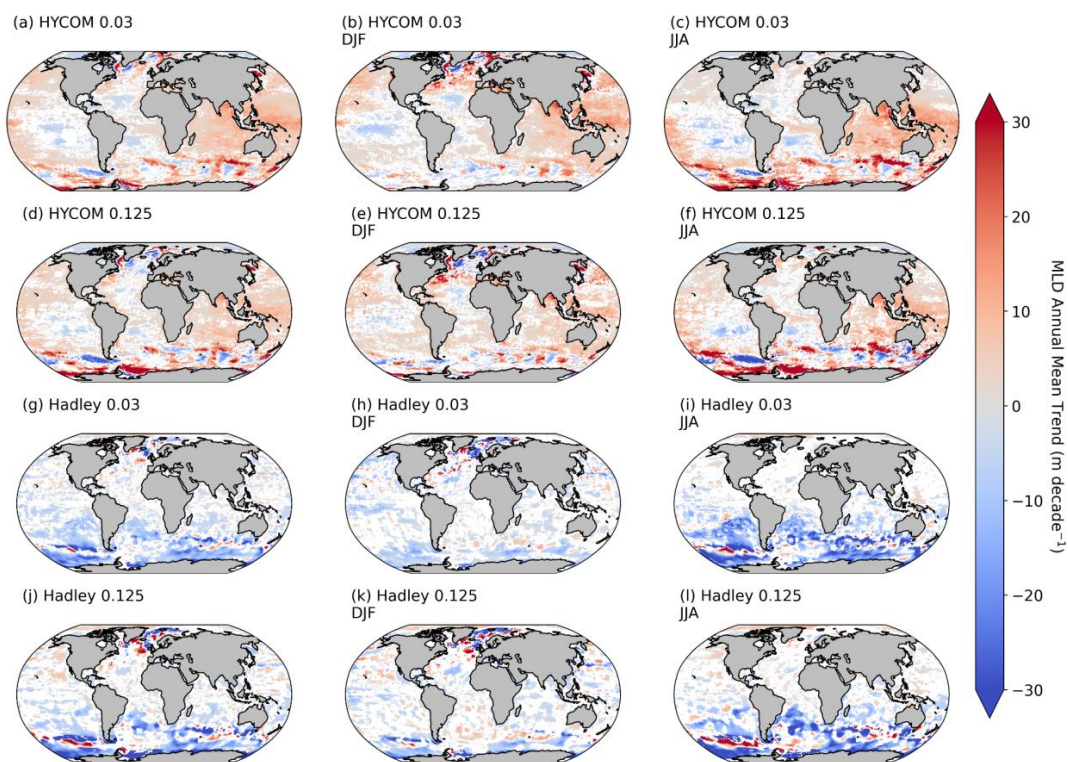


403 record of satellite ocean colour (Sathyendranath et al., 2019a). The purpose is not to advocate for the
404 suitability of one NPP model over another, as other studies have already highlighted the strengths and
405 weaknesses of different satellite NPP algorithms ability to capture the appropriate range of in situ NPP
406 measurements (Saba et al., 2011; Friedrichs et al., 2009; Carr et al., 2006; Campbell et al., 2002). Rather,
407 the strength in this multi-model data product lies in its ability to offer a range of NPP across different
408 algorithms either as a climatology or as a long-term climatic trend for a user's specific region of interest.
409 Additionally, by providing multiple algorithms the user can interrogate the distribution of NPP across
410 different models to identify consensus or outliers that can inform decisions on whether or not to retain or
411 reject specific algorithms in their regional analysis. Flexibility also exists on decisions around the mixed
412 layer depth with two different density criteria ($\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030$ or 0.125 kg m^{-3}) or products (HYCOM versus
413 Hadley) that can be altered to ensure that the MLD input best reflects the user's region of interest. Currently
414 the OC-CCI is released on an annual basis with specific corrections and adjustments made based upon
415 assessments of previous single sensor data streams and any new data sources. The multi-model data product
416 presented here will be updated on the same regular basis as and when OC-CCI data is updated, with
417 backwards corrections similarly applied to prevent the retention of erroneous values in the data record.
418 Future updates to this data product will similarly incorporate not only updated climatological mean values
419 (i.e., the planned release of WOA2023), but will also incorporate additional NPP algorithms, (i.e., SABPM;
420 Tao et al., 2017). to provide the user with a wide range of options for assessing climatological seasonal
421 cycles as well as trends and trajectories of oceanic productivity.

422

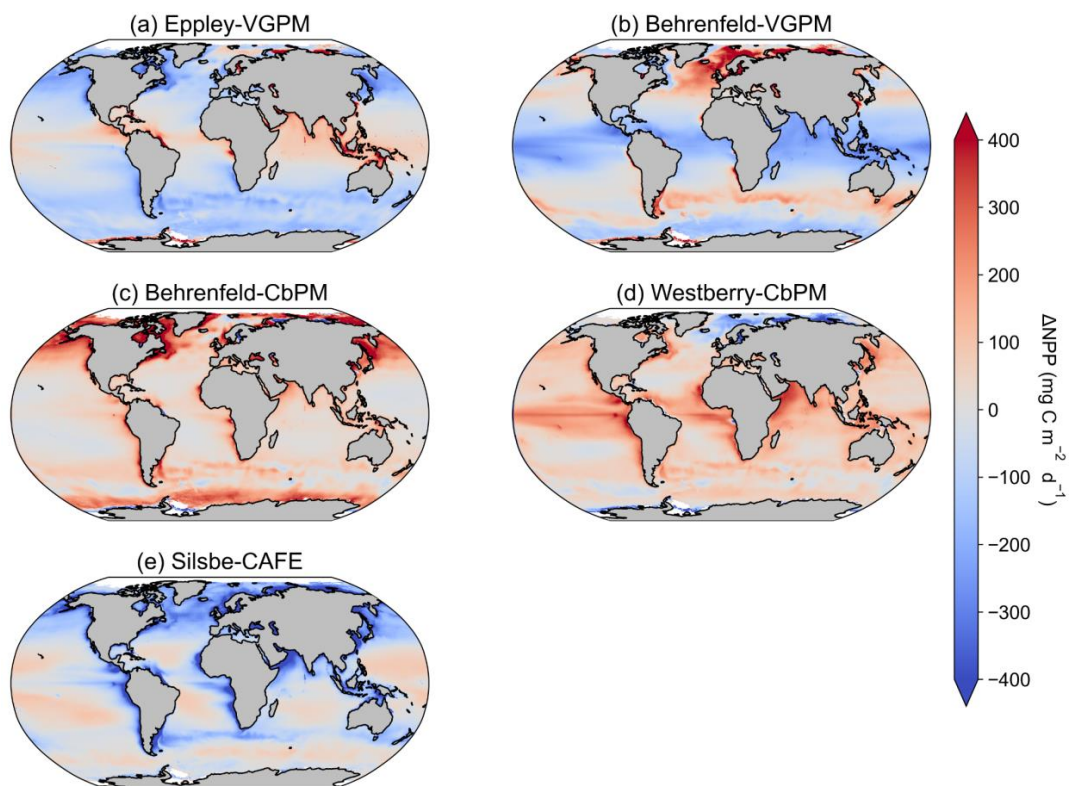
423 **Appendices**

424



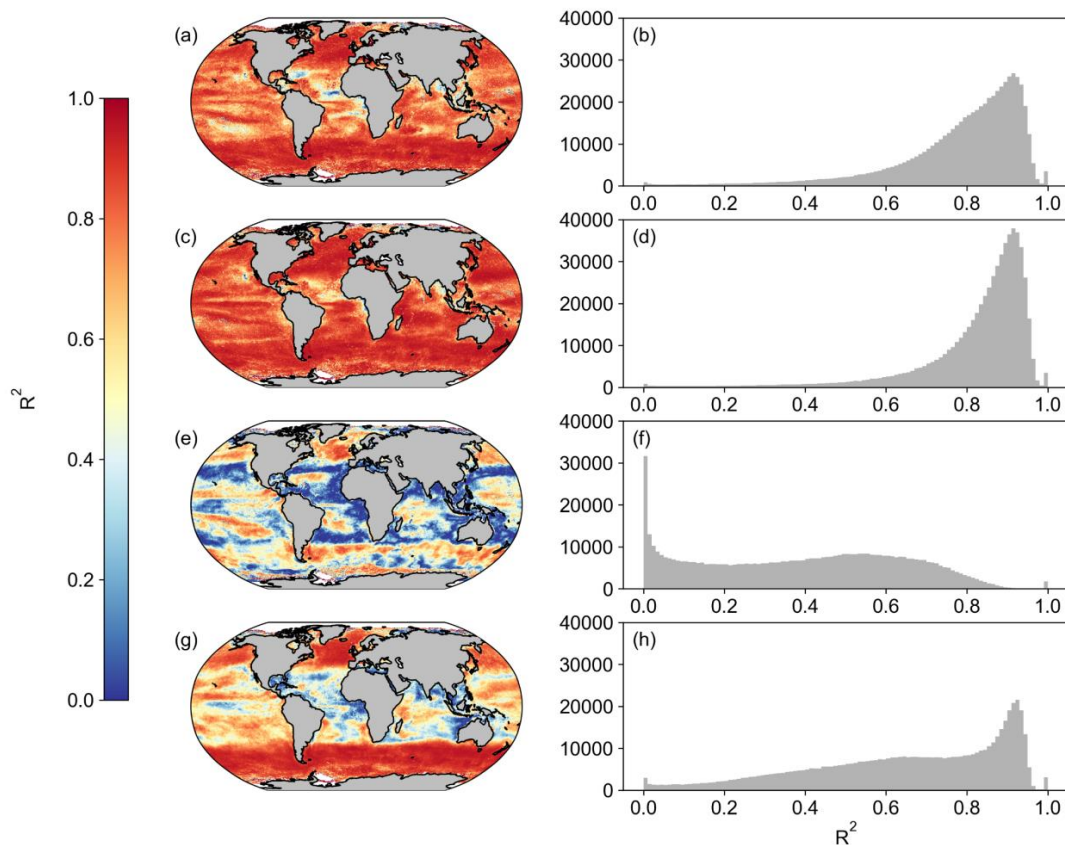
425

426 Figure A1: The annual mean trends of the different MLD data products HYCOM (a-f) and Hadley (g-l) for
427 the different criterion of $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (a-c,g-i) and $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (d-f,j-l) averaged for the
428 whole year (a,d,g,j), December to February (b,e,h,h) and June to August (c,f,i,l). Trend analysis performed
429 as described in Ryan-Keogh et al. (2023).



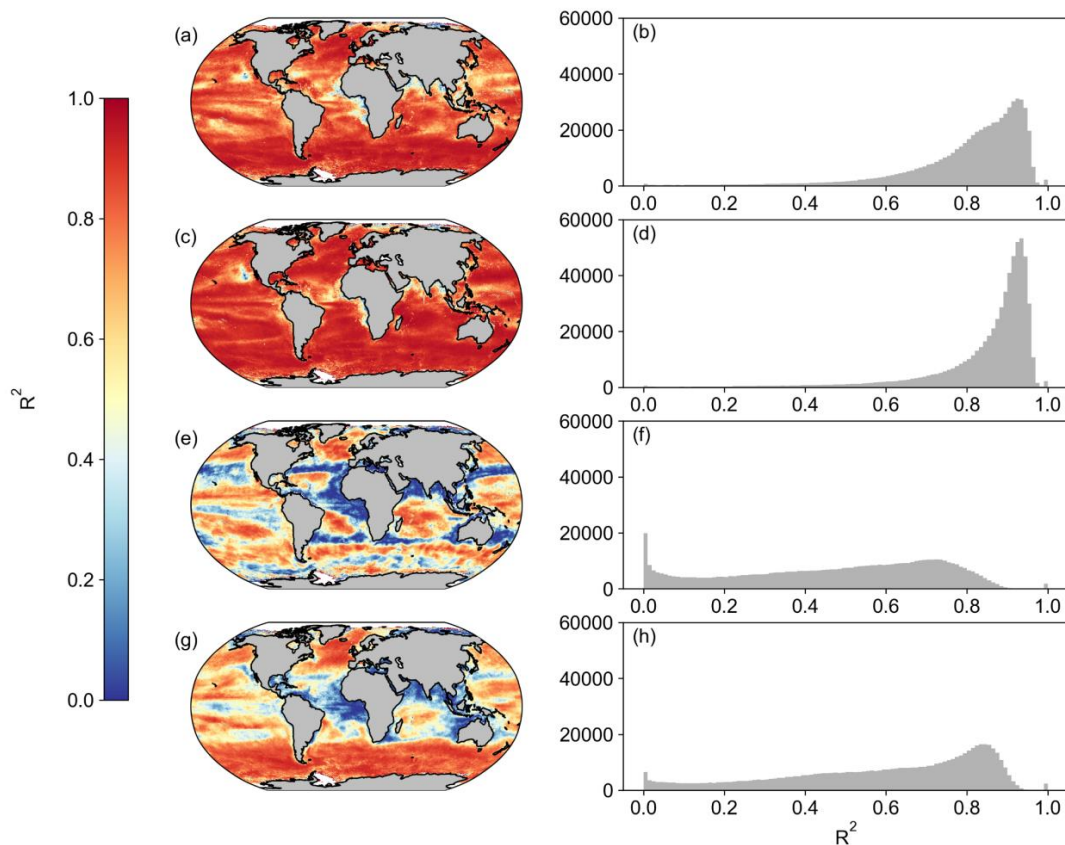
430

431 Figure A2: The difference in climatological mean [1998-2022] NPP between the inter-model mean and (a)
432 Eppley-VGPM, (b) Behrenfeld-VGPM, (c) Behrenfeld-CbPM, (d) Westberry-CbPM and (e) Silsbe-CAFE
433 models.



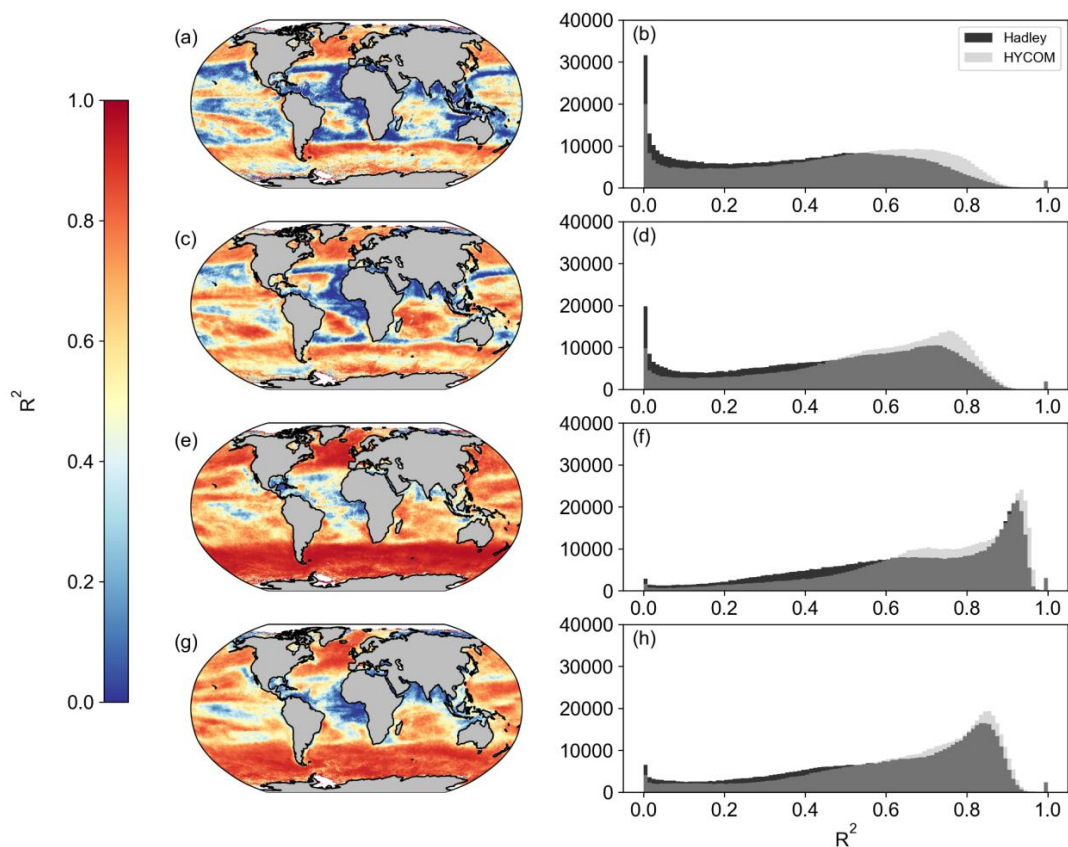
434

435 Figure A3: Spatial correlation maps and histograms of Pearson's correlation coefficient R^2 values between
436 SeaWIFS and OC-CCI for the period of 1998-01-01 to 2007-12-31 for (a,b) Eppley-VGPM, (c,d)
437 Behrenfeld-VGPM, (e,f) Westberry-CbPM and (g,h) Silsbe-CAFE. Please note that for Westberry-CbPM
438 and Silsbe-CAFE, the MLD product used for SeaWIFS is HYCOM and the MLD product for OC-CCI is
439 Hadley, both using the $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ criterion.



440

441 Figure A4: Spatial correlation maps and histograms of Pearson's correlation coefficient R^2 values between
442 MODIS and OC-CCI for the period of 2003-01-01 to 2019-12-31 for (a,b) Eppley-VGPM, (c,d) Behrenfeld-
443 VGPM, (e,f) Westberry-CbPM and (g,h) Silsbe-CAFE. Please note that for Westberry-CbPM and Silsbe-
444 CAFE, the MLD product used for SeaWIFS is HYCOM and the MLD product for OC-CCI is Hadley, both
445 using the $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ criterion.

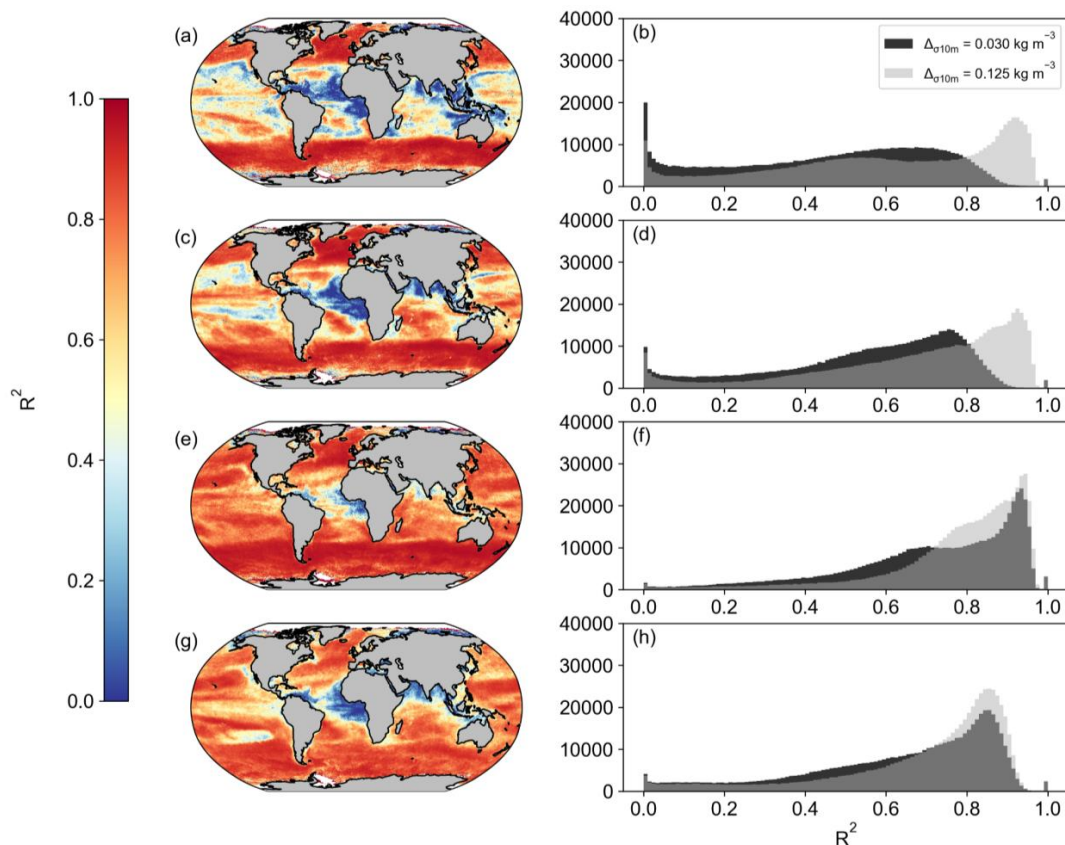


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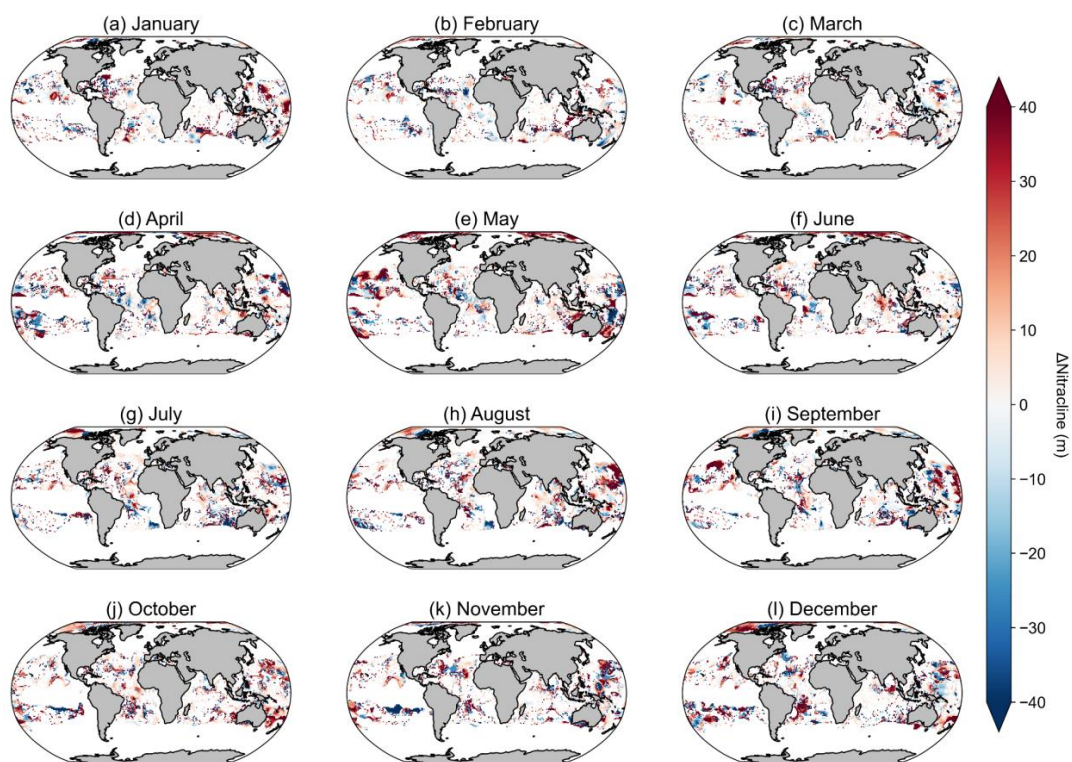
447 Figure A5: Spatial correlation maps and histograms of Pearson's correlation coefficient R^2 values between
448 SeaWiFS (a,b,e,f), MODIS (c,d,g,h) and OC-CCI for (a,b,c,d) Westberry-CbPM and (e,f,g,h) Silsbe-CAFE.

449 Please note that the MLD product used is HYCOM with the $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ criterion. Included in the
450 histograms are the Pearson's correlation coefficient R^2 values using the Hadley MLD data product (in black)

451 as displayed in Figures A3 and A4.



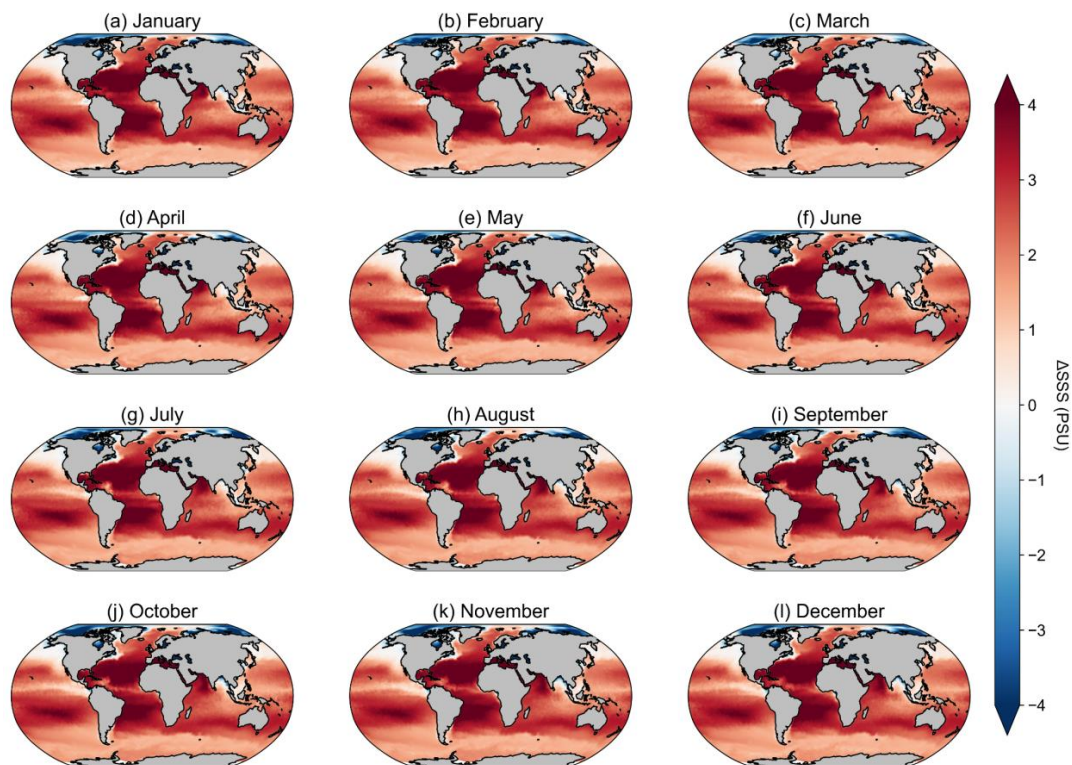
452
453 Figure A6: Spatial correlation maps and histograms of Pearson's correlation coefficient R^2 values using the
454 MLD criterion of $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (in grey) for (a,b) Westberry-CbPM SeaWIFS vs OC-CCI, (c,d)
455 Westberry-CbPM MODIS vs OC-CCI, (e,f) Silsbe-CAFE SeaWIFS vs OC-CCI and (a,b) CAFE MODIS
456 vs OC-CCI. Included in the histograms are the Pearson's correlation coefficient R^2 values using the MLD
457 criterion of $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (in black) as displayed in Figures A3 and A4.



458

459 Figure A7: Maps of the difference in nitracline depth, where the nitracline depth is calculated as the depth
460 at which nitrate + nitrite is equal to $0.5 \mu\text{M}$, between monthly WOA2013 and WOA2018.

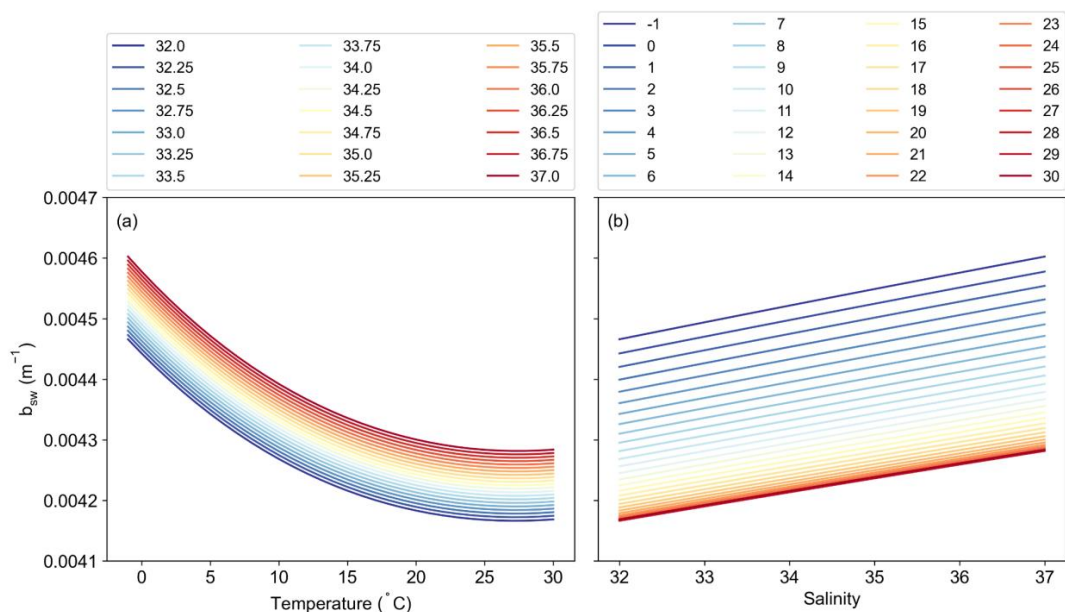
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462

463 Figure A8: Maps of the difference in sea surface salinity (SSS) from the WOA18 monthly climatology and

464 the reference SSS value used in Silsbe et al. (2016) of 32.5 PSU.



465

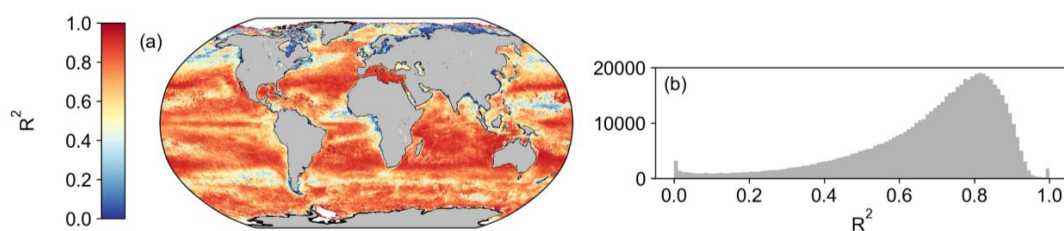
466 Figure A9: Sensitivity analysis of the calculation of the total backscattering of pure seawater (b_{sw} ; m^{-1}) as a

467 function of both (a) Temperature ($^{\circ}C$) (colour scale = Salinity) and (b) Salinity (colour scale = Temperature

468 ($^{\circ}C$)).



469



470

471 Figure A10: A spatial correlation map (a) and a histogram of Pearson's correlation coefficient R^2 values (b)
472 between monthly MODIS and OC-CCI derived spectral slope of b_{bp} (η) for the period of 2003-01-01 to
473 2019-12-31.

474

475 Data Availability

476

477 The primary manuscript data are available at: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7849935> (Ryan-Keogh,
478 2023d). The NPP products which used Hadley $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ data are available at:
479 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7858590> (Ryan-Keogh, 2023a). The NPP products which used HYCOM
480 $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.030 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ data are available at: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7860491> (Ryan-Keogh, 2023b).
481 The NPP products which used HYCOM $\Delta\sigma_{10m} = 0.125 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ data are available at:
482 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7861158> (Ryan-Keogh, 2023c). OC-CCI data were downloaded from
483 <https://www.oceancolour.org/>. SeaWIFS and MODIS NPP data products used for the comparison were
484 downloaded from the Ocean Productivity website
485 (<http://sites.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/>). The Hadley gridded temperature and salinity data
486 were downloaded from <https://www.metoffice.gov.uk/hadobs/en4/>. The HYCOM MLD data were
487 downloaded from the Ocean Productivity website
488 (<http://sites.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/>). PAR data were downloaded from
489 <http://www.globcolour.info/>. Sea surface temperature data were downloaded from <https://www.ghrsst.org/>.

490

491 Author Contribution

492

493 Conceptualization: TJRK, SJT

494 Formal Analysis: TJRK

495 Methodology: TJRK

496 Software: TJRK, NC, TM

497 Visualisation: TJRK



498 Writing - original draft: TJRK
499 Writing - reviewing & editing: TJRK, SJT, NC, TM

500

501 **Competing Interests**

502

503 The authors declare no competing interests.

504

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510 acknowledge Greg Silsbe for sharing the code for the CAFE algorithm.

511

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