

1 **Sensitivity of phytoplankton primary production**
2 **estimates to available irradiance under heterogeneous**
3 **sea-ice conditions**

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13 **Key Points:**

- 14 • Phytoplankton primary production under heterogeneous sea ice is highly spatially
15 variable.
- 16 • Transmittance sampled with profiling platforms improves the accuracy of primary
17 production estimates.
- 18 • Upscaling estimates at larger spatial scales using satellite sea-ice concentration further
19 reduced the error.

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Abstract

The Arctic icescape is becoming an increasingly complex mosaic composed of ridges, hummocks, melt ponds, leads and snow. Under such heterogeneous surfaces, drifting phytoplankton communities are experiencing a wide range of irradiance conditions and intensities that cannot be sampled representatively using single-point measurements. Combining experimentally derived photosynthetic parameters with transmittance measurements acquired at spatial scales ranging from hundreds of meters (using a Remotely Operated Vehicle, ROV) to thousands of meters (using a Surface and Under-Ice Trawl, SUIT), we assessed the sensitivity of water-column primary production estimates to multi-scale under-ice light measurements. Daily primary production calculated from transmittance from both the ROV and the SUIT ranged between 0.004 and 939 mgC m⁻² d⁻¹. Upscaling these estimates at larger spatial scales using satellite-derived sea-ice concentration reduced the variability by 22% (0.004-731 mgC m⁻² d⁻¹). The relative error in primary production estimates was two times lower when combining remote sensing and in situ data compared to ROV-based estimates alone. These results suggest that spatially extensive in situ measurements must be combined with large-footprint sea-ice coverage sampling (e.g., remote sensing, aerial imagery) to accurately estimate primary production in ice-covered waters. Also, the results indicated a decreasing error of primary production estimates with increasing sample size and the spatial scale of in situ measurements. Conversely, existing estimates of spatially integrated phytoplankton primary production in ice-covered waters using single-point measurements may be associated with large statistical errors. Considering these implications is important for modelling scenarios and interpretation of existing measurements in a changing Arctic ecosystem.

1 Introduction

The Arctic sea icescape is characterized by a mosaic composed of sea ice, snow, leads, melt ponds and open water. During the last decades, this arctic icescape has been undergoing major changes, including a reduction of sea ice cover and thickness (Meier et al., 2014), and increased drift speed (Kwok, Spreen, & Pang, 2013). A greater frequency of storm events is also making this icescape more prone to deformation (Itkin et al., 2017) and promotes lead formation. Because of this surface heterogeneity, light transmittance can be highly variable in space, even over short distances (Hancke et al., 2018; Katlein et al., 2015; Nicolaus, Petrich, Hudson, & Granskog, 2013). For example, Perovich, Roesler, and Pegau (1998) showed that ice and snow transmittance at 440 nm could vary by a factor of two over horizontal distances of 25 m. The relative contribution of various sea-ice features to under-ice light variability depends on the spatial scale under consideration and has significant implications for their application in physical and ecological studies and also determines the context in which results can be interpreted. For instance, at small scales (<100 m), local features such as melt ponds and leads have a strong influence on light penetration and fluctuations (Frey, Perovich, & Light, 2011; Katlein, Perovich, & Nicolaus, 2016; Massicotte, Bécu, Girard, Leymarie, & Babin, 2018). At larger scales (>100 m), it was argued that the variability of transmittance is mainly controlled by sea ice thickness (Katlein et al., 2015).

Calculation of primary production based on incubations or photosynthetic parameters derived from photosynthesis vs. irradiance curves (P vs. E curves) requires adequately measured or estimated values of irradiance. Because phytoplankton is exposed to a highly variable light regime while drifting under a spatially heterogeneous, and sometimes dynamic sea-ice surface, local irradiance measurements are not representative of the average irradiance experienced by phytoplankton over a large area (Katlein et al., 2016; Lange, Flores, et al., 2017). One major challenge in obtaining adequate irradiance estimates under spatially heterogeneous sea ice is that observations are often limited to time-consuming spot measurements made through boreholes. To overcome this drawback, different underwater

70 technologies have been developed to study the spatial variability of light transmission under
 71 spatially heterogeneous sea surfaces.

72 For the last decade, radiometers have been attached to remotely operated vehicles
 73 (ROV). Small sized ROVs can be deployed through small holes (<2 m) to cover areas in
 74 the order of a few hundreds of meters (Ambrose, von Quillfeldt, Clough, Tilney, & Tucker,
 75 2005; Katlein et al., 2015, 2017; Lund-Hansen et al., 2018; Nicolaus, Hudson, Gerland, &
 76 Munderloh, 2010). Navigating directly under sea ice, ROVs allow covering various types
 77 of sea ice, such as newly formed, ponded and snow-covered sea ice, as well as pressure
 78 ridges (Katlein et al., 2017). More recently, radiometers have been attached to the Surface
 79 and Under Ice Trawl (SUIT) net. The SUIT is a trawl developed for sampling meso- and
 80 macrofauna in the ice-water interface layer, allowing for greater spatial coverage on the order
 81 of a few kilometres (Flores et al., 2012; Lange, Flores, et al., 2017; Lange, Katlein, Nicolaus,
 82 Peeken, & Flores, 2016).

83 In a recent study, Massicotte et al. (2018) showed, that under spatially heterogeneous
 84 sea ice and snow surfaces, propagating measured surface downward irradiance just below sea
 85 ice $E_d(0^-)$ into the water column using upward attenuation coefficient (K_{L_u}) calculated from
 86 radiance profiles is a better choice compared to the traditional downward vertical attenuation
 87 coefficient K_{E_d} because it is less influenced by surface heterogeneity. However, while the
 88 method allows propagation of irradiance to depth from $E_d(0^-)$ more accurately, estimation
 89 of representative $E_d(0^-)$ remains difficult. Both ROV and SUIT aim to better describe the
 90 horizontal variability of $E_d(0^-)$ under heterogeneous sea ice. Since these technologies are
 91 designed to operate at different scales and in different conditions, they are likely to provide
 92 complementary information on the light regime experienced by drifting phytoplankton. In
 93 this study, we investigated the spatial variability of light transmittance measured from these
 94 two devices and combined them with satellite-derived sea ice concentrations. We further
 95 used these transmittance data measured at different horizontal spatial scales to quantify
 96 how they influence primary production estimates derived from photosynthetic parameters.
 97 The results provide new guidance on how to derive more representative primary production
 98 estimates under a heterogeneous and changing icescape.

99 2 Materials and Methods

100 2.1 Sampling campaign and study sites

101 Process studies on biological productivity and ecosystem interactions were carried out
 102 north of Spitsbergen during the international Transitions in the Arctic Seasonal Sea Ice Zone
 103 (TRANSSIZ) expedition aboard the RV Polarstern (PS92, ARK-XXIX/1) between the 19th
 104 of May and the 26th June of 2015. In total, eight process studies (stations 19 27, 31, 32, 39,
 105 43, 46 and 47) were carried out where the ship was anchored to an ice floe, typically for 36
 106 hours (Figure 1, Table 1). While the ship drifted anchored to ice floe on the port side of the
 107 ship, winch-operated instruments were deployed in the open water on the starboard side.
 108 Water samples for P vs. E curves were collected using a CTD/Rosette. On-ice station work
 109 included the deployment of a small observation class ROV under the ice to investigate the
 110 small-scale irradiance variability. Prior to arriving or directly after leaving each ice station,
 111 the SUIT was deployed for larger scale characterization of the under-ice irradiance field.
 112 Due to instrument failure, no SUIT data are available for station 32.

113 2.2 Sea-ice and snow thicknesses and concentrations

114 Ground-based multi-frequency electromagnetic induction soundings from a GEM-2
 115 (Geophex Ltd., Raleigh, NC, USA) were used to measure the total thickness of both sea
 116 ice and snow following the ROV survey grid. The snow thickness during GEM-2 surveys
 117 was measured with a Snow-Hydro Magna Probe instrument (SnowHydro LLC, Fairbanks,
 118 Alaska, USA) with a precision of 3 mm (Sturm et al., 2006). The instrument was inserted in

119 the snow approximately every 2 m. The combined GEM-2 and Magna Probe measurements
 120 started immediately after the ROV light transmission measurements were finished to ensure
 121 that the snow surface was undisturbed. Due to instrument failure of the Magna Probe, no
 122 snow measurements were available for stations 46 and 47. Sea-ice thickness was calculated
 123 as the difference between total snow and -ice thickness and snow depth. Sea ice concentra-
 124 tion (SIC) data were obtained from www.meereisportal.de and processed according to
 125 algorithms in Spreen, Kaleschke, and Heygster (2008).

126 2.3 Underwater light measurements

127 2.3.1 ROV measurements

128 ROV observations were taken using similar procedures as presented in Nicolaus and
 129 Katlein (2013) and Katlein et al. (2017) using a V8 Sii ROV (Ocean Modules, Atvidaberg,
 130 Sweden) and RAMSES-ACC-VIS (TriOs GmbH, Rastede, Germany) spectroradiometers
 131 mounted both on the ROV and in a fixed location above the sea-ice surface. The ROV was
 132 deployed through a hole drilled through the ice at a distance of more than 300 m from the
 133 ship. Optical measurements were performed along two perpendicular 100-m transects and
 134 in a push-broom pattern over a 100 m by 100 m area. Spectral downward irradiance (E_d ,
 135 $W m^{-2}$) between 320 and 950 nm was recorded above and below the surface to calculate
 136 spectral light transmittance as the ratio of irradiance transmitted through the snow/ice to
 137 incident irradiance. The sensors were triggered in *burst* mode with the sensors acquiring
 138 data as fast as possible. To account for ROV movement, all data with ROV roll and pitch
 139 angles larger than 10 degrees and with a distance of more than 3 m depth to the ice cover
 140 were rejected from further analysis. To account for light attenuation between the ice-water
 141 interface and the sensor, an exponential function was used to obtain the transmission at the
 142 ice-water interface:

$$143 \quad T(z_{\text{int}}) = \frac{T(z)}{e^{-K_{E_d}(\text{PAR}) \times -z}} \quad (1)$$

144 where $T(z_{\text{int}})$ is the transmittance of the ice and snow at the ice-water interface, $T(z)$ the
 145 PAR transmittance measured by the ROV at depth z (m) and $K_{E_d}(\text{PAR})$ is the downward
 146 diffuse attenuation coefficient of photosynthetically available radiation (PAR; m^{-1}) calcu-
 147 lated from $E(\text{PAR})$ vertical profiles (equation 2). At each station, at some point during
 148 the survey, the ROV measured a vertical irradiance profile between the surface and at least
 149 20 m depth. Photosynthetically available radiation downwelling irradiance ($E(\text{PAR}, z)$,
 150 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), was calculated as follow:

$$151 \quad E(\text{PAR}, z) = \frac{1}{hc} \frac{1}{N} \int_{400}^{700} \lambda E_d(\lambda, z) d\lambda \quad (2)$$

152 where h is Planck's constant, describing the energy content of quanta ($6.623 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$), c
 153 is the constant speed of light ($299\,792\,458 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), N is the Avogadro's number (6.022×10^{23}
 154 mol^{-1}) and $E_d(\lambda, z)$ is the measured irradiance at wavelength λ (nm) at depth z . Conversion
 155 from mol to μmol has been done using a factor of 1×10^6 . Note that planar, $E(\text{PAR})$, was
 156 converted to scalar irradiance, $\dot{E}(\text{PAR})$, using a conversion factor of 1.2 (Toole, Kieber,
 157 Kiene, Siegel, & Nelson, 2003). For each vertical $\dot{E}(\text{PAR})$ profile, $K_{\dot{E}_d}(\text{PAR})$ was calculated
 158 by fitting the following equation to the measured irradiance data:

$$159 \quad \dot{E}(\text{PAR}, z) = \dot{E}(\text{PAR}, z_{\text{int}}) e^{K_{\dot{E}_d}(\text{PAR})z} \quad (3)$$

160 where $\dot{E}(\text{PAR}, z_{\text{int}})$ is PAR at the ice-water interface and $K_{\dot{E}_d}(\text{PAR})$ is the diffuse
 161 vertical attenuation coefficient (m^{-1}) describing the rate at which $\dot{E}(\text{PAR})$ decreases with

162 increasing depth. It is assumed constant for a given station in all our calculations. The
 163 determination coefficients (R^2) of the non-linear fits (equation 3) varied between 0.936 and
 164 0.998.

165 2.3.2 SUIT measurements

166 On the SUIT, transmittance (T) and sea ice draft observations were made using a
 167 mounted environmental sensors array that included a RAMSES-ACC irradiance sensor
 168 (Trios, GmbH, Rastede, Germany), a conductivity-temperature-depth probe (CTD; Sea
 169 and Sun Technology, Trappenkamp, Germany), a PA500/6S altimeter (Tritech International
 170 Ltd., Aberdeen, UK), and an Aquadopp acoustic doppler current Profiler (ADCP; Nortek
 171 AS, Rud, Norway). A complete and detailed description of the full sensor array can be
 172 found in David, Lange, Rabe, and Flores (2015) and Lange et al. (2016). Sea ice draft was
 173 calculated from the CTD depth and altimeter measurements of the distance to the ice and
 174 corrected for sensor attitude using the ADCP's pitch and roll measurements according to
 175 Lange et al. (2016). Irradiance above the ice was measured with a RAMSES spectroradiometer
 176 mounted on the ship's crew's nest. Consistent with the ROV spectral measurements,
 177 the transmittance was calculated as the ratio of under-ice irradiance to incoming irradiance.
 178 SUIT-mounted downwelling irradiance measurements were acquired every 11 seconds during
 179 the haul. To account for SUIT movement, all data with SUIT roll and pitch angles larger
 180 than 15 degrees were rejected from further analysis. Note that we did not correct for the
 181 light attenuation between the ice-water interface and the sensor because contrary to the
 182 ROV, the SUIT frame is equipped with floats that keep it at the surface in open water or
 183 in contact with the sea ice.

184 2.4 Incident in-air $\mathring{E}(\text{PAR})$

185 A CM 11 global radiation pyranometer (Kipp & Zonen, Delft, Netherlands) installed
 186 next to the above mentioned RAMSES spectroradiometer in the crow's nest onboard the
 187 Polarstern was used for measuring incident solar photosynthetically available radiation,
 188 ($\mathring{E}(\text{PAR})$, W m^{-2}), at 10 minutes intervals. Conversion from shortwave flux in energy units
 189 to $\mathring{E}(\text{PAR})$ in quanta ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was achieved using a conversion factor of 4.49 (McCree,
 190 1972). Data were then hourly averaged. Calculated hourly $\mathring{E}(\text{PAR}, 0^+)$ were vertically
 191 propagated in the water column between 0 and 40 meters with 1-meter increments using
 192 the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathring{E}(\text{PAR}, z, t) &= \mathring{E}(\text{PAR}, 0^+, t) T(z_{\text{int}}) e^{-K_{\mathring{E}_d}(\text{PAR})z} \\
 &= \mathring{E}(\text{PAR}, z_{\text{int}}) e^{-K_{\mathring{E}_d}(\text{PAR})z}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{4}$$

195 where $\mathring{E}(\text{PAR}, 0^+, t)$ is the incident in-air hourly PAR derived from the pyranometer ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$),
 196 $K_{\mathring{E}_d}(\text{PAR})$ is derived from the ROV (see Table 1 and equation 3), z the water depth (m)
 197 and $T(z_{\text{int}})$ the snow and sea ice transmittance estimated using either the ROV or the SUIT
 198 data.

199 2.5 Photosynthetic parameters derived from P vs. E curves

200 To calculate photosynthetic parameters, seawater samples were taken from six depths
 201 between 1 and 75 m and incubated at different irradiance levels in presence of ^{14}C -labelled
 202 sodium bicarbonate using a method derived from Lewis and Smith (1983). Incubations
 203 were carried out in a dimly lit radiation van under the deck to avoid any light stress on the
 204 algae. Three replicates of 50 mL samples were inoculated with inorganic ^{14}C ($\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$,
 205 approximately $2 \mu\text{Ci mL}^{-1}$ final concentration). Exact total activity of added bicarbonate
 206 was determined by three 20 μL aliquots of inoculated samples added to 50 μL of an or-
 207 ganic base (ethanolamine) and 6 mL of scintillation cocktail (EcoLumeTM, Costa Mesa,

208 US) into glass scintillation vials. One mL aliquots of the inoculated sample were dispensed
 209 into twenty-eight 7 mL glass scintillation vials. The samples were cooled to 0°C in thermo-
 210 regulated alveoli. Within the array, the vials were exposed to 28 different irradiance levels
 211 provided by separate LEDs (LUXEON Rebel, Philips Lumileds, USA) from the bottom of
 212 each alveolus. Scalar PAR irradiance was measured in each alveolus prior to the incuba-
 213 tion with an irradiance quantum meter (Walz US-SQS + LI-COR LI-250A, USA) equipped
 214 with a 4π spherical collector. The incubation lasted for 120 minutes and the incubations
 215 were terminated by adding with 50 μ L of buffered formalin to each sample. Thereafter, the
 216 aliquots were acidified (250 μ L of HCl 50%) in a glove box (radioactive $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ was trapped
 217 in a NaOH solution before opening the glove box) to remove the excess inorganic carbon
 218 (three hours, Knap, Michaels, Close, Ducklow, and Dickson (1996)). In the end, 6 mL of
 219 scintillation cocktail was added to each vial prior to counting in a liquid scintillation counter
 220 (Tri-Carb, PerkinElmer, Boston, USA). The carbon fixation rate was finally estimated ac-
 221 cording to Parsons, Maita, and Lalli (1984). Photosynthetic parameters were estimated
 222 from P vs. E curves by fitting non-linear models based on the original definition proposed
 223 by Platt, Gallegos, and Harrison (1980) using equation 5 (see below).

224 2.6 Estimating primary production

225 Two different approaches were used to calculate primary production from estimated
 226 photosynthetic parameters.

227 *Method 1: under-ice only primary production* - This first approach relied on using
 228 $\dot{E}(\text{PAR})$ propagated in the water column only under the ice using the transmittance values
 229 derived from either the ROV or the SUIT, the $K_{\dot{E}_d}(\text{PAR})$ from the ROV and the hourly
 230 incident irradiance from the pyranometer. Primary production was calculated every hour at
 231 each sampling depth using $\dot{E}(\text{PAR}, z, t)$ measurements derived from both ROV and SUIT
 232 transmittance as follows:

$$233 P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}}(z, t) = P(z)(1 - e^{-\alpha(z,t)\frac{\dot{E}(\text{PAR},z,t)}{z}}) \times e^{-\beta(z,t)\frac{\dot{E}(\text{PAR},z,t)}{z}} + P0 \quad (5)$$

234 where $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}}$ device is primary production ($\text{mgC m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$) calculated using the $\dot{E}(\text{PAR}, z, t)$
 235 from the transmittances measured from a specific device (ROV, $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{ROV}}$ or SUIT, $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{SUIT}}$)
 236 as in equation 4, P is the photosynthetic rate ($\text{mgC m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$) at light saturation, α is the
 237 photosynthetic efficiency at irradiance close zero ($\text{mgC m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1} (\mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1})^{-1}$),
 238 β is a photoinhibition parameter (same unit as α). The superscript *device* can be either
 239 ROV or SUIT. While fits allowed a variable intercept ($P0$), which tended to be positive,
 240 we did not use $P0$ in the primary production computations as we assumed that it was due
 241 to methodological issues (e.g., light absorbed before incubation started for example). Daily
 242 primary production ($\text{mgC m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$) at each depth was calculated by integrating $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}}(z, t)$
 243 over a 24h period. Depth-integrated primary production ($\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) was then calculated
 244 by integrating daily primary production over the water column.

245 *Method 2: average production under ice and adjacent open waters* - The second ap-
 246 proach consisted of using a mixing model based on sea ice concentration (SIC) derived from
 247 satellite imagery to upscale at a larger spatial scale the estimates of primary production
 248 derived from the ROV and the SUIT. This approach was motivated by the fact that, even
 249 far away from the marginal ice zone, there were often large leads that increased the amount
 250 of light available to drifting phytoplankton and may have contributed to under-ice blooms in
 251 the vicinity as observed by Assmy et al. (2017). To account for this additional light source
 252 available for phytoplankton, primary production was calculated as follows:

$$253 P_{\text{mixing}}^{\text{device}} = \text{SIC} \times P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}} + (1 - \text{SIC}) \times P_{\text{openwater}} \quad (6)$$

254 where $P_{\text{mixing}}^{\text{device}}$ is the primary production calculated using the mixing model approach
 255 with the transmittance values from a specific device, SIC is the sea ice concentration averaged
 256 over an area of $\approx 350 \text{ km}^2$ (the mean of a 9-pixels square with the station within
 257 the center pixel). $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}}$ is the primary production calculated under ice using transmittance
 258 measurements (equation 5 & method 1 above) and $P_{\text{openwater}}$ the primary production
 259 calculated in open water by using a transmittance of 100%. For the mixing-model based
 260 SUIT-derived primary production, $P_{\text{mixing}}^{\text{SUIT}}$, transmittance observations higher than 10%
 261 were discarded to remove measurements made under very thin ice and in open leads to
 262 avoid accounting twice for open water. In the end, four types of primary production were
 263 considered (2 devices \times 2 approaches, Table 2).

264 2.7 Error on primary production estimates

265 For each of the four scenarios, the average primary production derived from all the
 266 transmittance values was viewed as an adequate description of the average primary production
 267 produced by drifting phytoplankton cells for a given area. The relative deviation of each
 268 individual primary production estimate to the average primary production over all stations
 269 was viewed as the error that one would make when sampling at a single point location. This
 270 relative error was calculated as follow:

$$271 \delta_P^{\text{device}} = \frac{|P^{\text{device}} - \bar{P}^{\text{device}}|}{\bar{P}^{\text{device}}} \times 100 \quad (7)$$

272 where δ_P^{device} is the relative error (%) associated to a specific device (ROV or SUIT),
 273 P^{device} the primary production estimate and \bar{P}^{device} the average primary production of the
 274 device (both in $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$).

275 2.8 Impacts of the number of in situ spot measurements on primary pro- 276 duction estimates

277 Because of the sea surface heterogeneity in the field, one needs to carefully choose the
 278 number of spot measurements in order to obtain representative values of primary production
 279 over a given area. Averaging a high number of local measurements is likely to give a
 280 better approximation of the average primary production over a given area. However, in the
 281 Arctic, it is difficult to sample a high number of uniformly dispersed sampling points due to
 282 logistical constraints. Using primary production estimates derived from the ROV and the
 283 SUIT, we calculated how the error would decrease on average when increasing the number
 284 of measurements uniformly sampled over a given area. To calculate this error, between 1
 285 and 250 values were randomly drawn from the full distribution of primary production values
 286 calculated with individual transmittance data from the ROV or SUIT, and used to calculate
 287 average primary production. One can view each of these 250 numerical experiments as
 288 possible number of spot measurements that one would perform in the field. Each numerical
 289 experiment was repeated 100 times to calculate an average and the standard deviation of
 290 the absolute difference between a given estimate of primary production and the reference
 291 primary production calculated with all transmittance measurements.

292 2.9 Statistical analysis

293 All statistical analysis and graphics were carried out with R 3.5.2 (R Core Team, 2018).
 294 The non-linear fitting for the P vs. E curves was done using the Levenberg-Marquardt
 295 algorithm implemented in the minpack.lm R package (Elzhov, Mullen, Spiess, & Bolker,
 296 2013).

3 Results

3.1 Characterization of the sea-ice and snow cover

GEM-2 and Magna Probe surveys along and across the ROV transects showed distinct differences in sea ice and snow thickness between the sampled stations. An overview of the total thickness (i.e., combined snow and ice thickness) is presented in Figure 2A. Overall, the mean ice thickness was 1.01 ± 0.52 m (mean \pm s.d.), the mean snow thickness was 0.32 ± 0.16 m and the mean total thickness was 1.33 ± 0.49 m (Figure 2B). Stations 19 and 47 were characterized by an average total thickness over the ROV transect of approximately 1 m, whereas the average total thickness at station 39 was approximately 2 m. For other stations, average total thickness varied around 1.4 m.

3.2 ROV and SUIIT transmittance measurements

A total of 9211 and 817 transmittance measurements distributed over the seven stations were collected from the ROV and SUIIT devices, respectively (Figure 3). Transmittance values ranged between 0.001% and 68% for the ROV and between 0.002% and 92% for the SUIIT (Figure 3). The transmittances measured by the SUIIT were generally higher (mean = 35%) by approximately one order magnitude than those measured with the ROV (mean = 2%). The SUIIT measurements were also covering greater ranges of transmittances compared to the ROV. Histograms showed that transmittance generally followed a bimodal distribution (most of the time occurring within the SUIIT data) with often one overlapping mode between the ROV and SUIIT values (Figure 3).

3.3 Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR)

Incident hourly $\dot{E}(\text{PAR})$, $\dot{E}(\text{PAR}, 0^+, t)$, measured by the pyranometer ranged between 190 and 1400 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Figure 4). Stations 32 and 39 experienced the highest incident $\dot{E}(\text{PAR}, 0^+, t)$ whereas stations 27 and 43 received the lowest amount of light. Over 24h periods, $\dot{E}(\text{PAR}, z_{\text{int}})$ calculated using SUIIT and ROV transmittances ranged between 0.005-1358 and 0.005-1012 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ respectively. Due to relatively high attenuation coefficients (Table 1), $\dot{E}(\text{PAR})$ decreased rapidly with depth and generally reached the asymptotic regime at maximum 30 m depth. The PAR diffuse vertical attenuation coefficients, $K_{\dot{E}_d}(\text{PAR})$, estimated from the ROV vertical profiles varied between 0.07 and 0.59 m^{-1} (Table 1).

3.4 Estimated primary production

Daily areal primary production derived from photosynthetic parameters and transmittance values ranged between 0.004 and 939 $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for P_{underice} and between 0.004 and 731 $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for P_{mixing} (Figure 5). In ROV-bases estimates, daily areal primary productions calculated using the two different approaches (P_{underice} and P_{mixing}) generally showed consistency especially when SIC was high. At stations 19 and 27, greater differences between P_{underice} and P_{mixing} were observed in ROV-based estimates due to lower sea ice concentrations (Table 1) which allowed for a greater weight of $P_{\text{openwater}}$ on the calculations. In SUIIT-based estimates, mean daily P_{underice} values were higher than P_{mixing} values at stations 19, 39 and 43, similar values at stations 27, 46 and 47, and lower values at station 31 (Figure 5). The differences between the two approaches in SUIIT data were related to the varying proportions of thin ice and open water during SUIIT hauls, which were reflected in the P_{underice} estimates. Overall, both ROV- and SUIIT based estimates agreed well with each other when the mixing approach (P_{mixing}) was applied.

3.5 Error on primary production estimates

Figure 6 shows the distributions of the relative errors around the calculated average of areal primary production (see black dots in Figure 5). Overall, the absolute relative errors (δ_P) were distributed over a range covering four orders of magnitude, between 0.1% and 1000% which is corresponding to absolute primary production error varying between 0.0001 and 640 mgC m⁻² d⁻¹. The lowest absolute errors (average \approx 50%) were associated with primary production estimates made using the mixing model approach (P_{mixing}). Larger absolute errors were made with P_{underice} derived from only using ROV (mean = 88%) and the SUIT (mean = 71%) transmittances.

3.6 Impacts of the number of in situ spot measurements on primary production estimates

Figure 7 shows the average relative error that one would make when averaging samples at a number of random locations varying between 1 and 250. For all scenarios, the mean relative error decreased exponentially with increasing number of chosen observations. The variability around the means also decreased with increasing number of observations (shaded areas in Figure 7). The greatest relative mean error (\approx 60-100%) occurred when only one primary production estimate was randomly selected from the distributions. The number of randomly selected observations to reach mean relative errors of 10%, 15%, 20% and 25% are presented in Table 3. Overall, about 25% the number of observations were needed to reach those targets when sampling from the distribution for P_{mixing} compared to the distribution of P_{underice} . Additionally, the number of observations required when using the SUIT transmittance to derive primary production estimation was also about 25% of the number of corresponding ROV-based measurements to reach the same error threshold.

4 Discussion

4.1 Multi-scale spatial variability of light transmittance

In the context of obtaining meaningful measurements of transmittance to accurately estimate $\dot{E}(\text{PAR}, 0^-)$, the challenge is to define the spatial extent at which light should be sampled. Based on a spatial autocorrelation analysis conducted in the central Arctic ocean, it was determined that transmittance values were uncorrelated (i.e., randomly spatially distributed) to each other after a horizontal lag distance of 65 m (Lange, Katlein, et al., 2017). This range is likely to be much smaller than the distance covered by drifting phytoplankton over a 24h period. Indeed, water currents around Svalbard have been found to vary between 0.14 and 0.21 m s⁻¹ (Meyer et al., 2017) These speeds are on the same order of magnitude as the sea ice drift speeds of 0.10. m s⁻¹ observed during the expedition. Assuming passive transport, this corresponds to a displacement varying between 8 and 18 km over a 24h period which is much greater than the 65 m distance at which transmittance was found to be randomly spatially distributed. Under such a large area, drifting phytoplankton is experiencing a wide range of irradiance conditions that can be hardly characterized by single-spot measurements or even with ROV and SUIT devices sampling over larger distances. In such context, measured transmittances should be upscaled at the spatial scale that is meaningful for the studied process. An easily applicable approach to upscale in-situ transmittance measurements consists of using sea ice concentration (SIC) derived from satellite imagery. A simple mixing model (equation 6), combining both in-situ transmittance measurements and SIC, can be used to upscale observations acquired locally to larger scales. Our results showed that using this approach reduced the relative error by approximately a factor of two when spatially integrating devices such as ROVs or SUIT are used to measure transmittance (Figure 5). Furthermore, this error was lower when using in-situ measurements acquired on a larger spatial scale using the SUIT. This strengthens the idea that one needs to characterize the light field over an area as large as reasonably possible so the full irradiance variability is captured.

391 Our study confirms earlier suggestions that estimating primary production from photo-
 392 synthetic parameters and transmittance measured at a single location does not provide
 393 a representative description of the spatial variability of the primary production occurring
 394 under a heterogeneous sea surface (Figure 6, Figure 7). Depending on the scale at which
 395 transmittance was measured, it was found that deriving primary production from photo-
 396 synthetic parameters using under-ice profile measurements alone would produce on average
 397 relative errors varying between 47% and 88% (Figure 6). In contrast, much lower errors
 398 (25%) were made when primary production estimates were upscaled using satellite-derived
 399 SIC (P_{mixing}). For stations with lower SIC (stations 19, 27, 31 and 39), primary production
 400 estimates were more constrained around the average (Figure 4) because $P_{\text{openwater}}$ had a
 401 greater weight in the calculation of P_{mixing} (see equation 5). For stations 43, 46 and 47
 402 where SIC was 100%, the spread around the mean was higher because only P_{underice} was
 403 contributing to the calculation of P_{mixing} . These results suggest that using a distribution
 404 of measured transmittances allows calculating a more representative transmittance average
 405 for a given area, but also provides additional knowledge on its spatial variability.

406 Although our results indicate that it is necessary to properly characterize the light field
 407 under the heterogeneous sea surface, the physiological state of the phytoplankton commu-
 408 nity also plays a major role on the sensitivity of the estimates to incoming irradiance. An
 409 important parameter of the physiological state of the phytoplankton community is the light-
 410 saturated photosynthesis regime, E_k an index of photoadaptation. When the phytoplankton
 411 community is adapted to low light intensity (e.g., Lacour, Larivière, & Babin, 2017), it is
 412 likely that variations in the surface light field have reduced impacts on the estimates because
 413 phytoplankton primary production is already near saturation. The degree of photoadaptation
 414 of the phytoplankton communities and their ability to adjust rapidly to a variable light
 415 field still remains to be evaluated.

416 **4.2 Influence of the number of sampling locations on primary production** 417 **estimation**

418 It was pointed out by Nicolaus and Katlein (2013) that it is difficult to characterize light
 419 conditions under sea ice over large areas and to quantify spatial variability on different scales
 420 due to important requirements in logistical and instrumental efforts. As with any missions
 421 in remote environments such as the Arctic, careful planning is needed to find the right
 422 balance between the sampling effort and the right amount of acquired information to study
 423 a particular phenomenon. Our results suggested that errors made by estimating primary
 424 production using photosynthetic parameters decreased exponentially with increasing number
 425 of transmittance measurements (Figure 7). Depending on the extent of the spatial scale
 426 at which transmittance is measured (order of meters for the ROV, order of kilometres
 427 for the SUIT) and the targeted error thresholds (10%, 15%, 20% or 25%), a number of
 428 measurements varying between four and 359 were sufficient to reasonably capture the spatial
 429 variability of sea ice transmittance to derive average primary production estimates over a
 430 given area. This shows, that local primary production estimated from just a single or even
 431 a handful of light observations has limited value.

432 **4.3 Implications for Arctic primary production estimates**

433 It is known that the annual primary production in the ice-covered Arctic is among the
 434 lowest of all oceans worldwide because both light and limited nutrient availability are the
 435 main limiting factors for phytoplankton growth under the ice. In a changing Arctic icescape,
 436 efforts have been devoted to better understand how phytoplankton primary productivity
 437 is responding to increasing light availability. Many studies have been conducted in the
 438 vicinity of an ice edge to characterize primary production occurring under the ice sheet
 439 (Arrigo et al., 2012, 2014; Mundy et al., 2009). However, in such studies, due to logistical
 440 constraints, the underwater light field was often characterized by a limited number of light
 441 measurements. Other approaches, based on 24h ship-board incubations performed under

442 incident light, have provided local estimates that were simply scaled to an assessment of
 443 percent ice-cover in the vicinity of the ship (Gosselin, Levasseur, Wheeler, Horner, & Booth,
 444 1997; Mei et al., 2003; Smith, 1995). Therefore, depending on whether light is measured
 445 under bare ice or in open water, the estimated primary production is either under- or
 446 overestimated. Different approaches based on remote sensing techniques and modelling
 447 have been used to reduce the high uncertainties associated with estimates derived from local
 448 in-situ measurements. However, in an ecosystem model intercomparison study, Jin et al.
 449 (2016) showed that under-ice primary production was very sensitive to the light availability
 450 computed by atmospheric and sea ice models, reinforcing the need to develop new integrative
 451 strategies to adequately characterize the light field at large scale under heterogeneous sea
 452 surfaces. Our results showed that upscaling primary production estimates derived from fine-
 453 scale local measurements using SIC derived from satellite imagery allowed reducing the error
 454 at larger spatial scales. Furthermore, it was found that even when SIC was high (>95%),
 455 the use of a mixing-model approach helped to obtain better estimates (Figure 5).

456 5 Conclusions

457 Advances in underwater technologies made it easier to characterize surface transmit-
 458 tance over large areas. Our results showed that combining photosynthetic parameters mea-
 459 sured in laboratory experiments with spatially representative transmittance values sampled
 460 with under-ice profiling platforms can significantly improve the accuracy of primary pro-
 461 duction estimates under heterogeneous sea surfaces. A good way forward to sample the
 462 under-ice light field on a large enough scale without the inherent biases of the ROV and
 463 SUIT deployment techniques would be the use of long-range autonomous underwater ve-
 464 hicles. Furthermore, upscaling in-situ measurements at larger scales using remote sensing
 465 data becomes necessary when the spatial scale of the studied process (e.g., a phytoplankton
 466 bloom) is greater than that which is realistically possible to measure in the field. This em-
 467 phasizes the need for spatially integrated observation approaches to characterize the light
 468 field in ice-covered regions in order to provide more representative primary production esti-
 469 mates.

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- 488 • ROV data (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.861048>)
- 489 • Incident radiation (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.849663>)
- 490 • Station list (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.848841>),

- 491 • SUIT data (submitted to Pangaea)
- 492 • Photosynthetic parameters (submitted to Pangaea)
- 493 • Sea-ice/snow thickness (submitted to Pangaea)

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