

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 composed by a mosaic 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-location 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 at which in situ measurements are performed. Conversely, existing estimates of spatially integrated phytoplankton primary production in ice-covered waters derived from single-location light 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 Ocean (AO) icescape is a mosaic composed of sea ice, snow, leads, melt ponds and open water. During the last decades, this AO icescape has been undergoing major changes, including a reduction in extent and thickness (Meier et al., 2014), and an 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 the surface heterogeneity of the AO icescape, 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 sea 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 (Frey, Perovich, & Light, 2011; Katlein, Perovich, & Nicolaus, 2016; Massicotte, Bécu, Lambert-Girard, Leymarie, & Babin, 2018). At larger scales (> 100 m), it was argued that the variability of transmittance is mainly controlled by sea ice thickness (Katlein2015).

Because phytoplankton is exposed to a highly variable light regime while drifting under a spatially heterogeneous, and sometimes dynamic sea-ice surface, single-location 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). This is why traditional primary production estimated using in situ incubations at single locations with seawater samples inoculated with ¹⁴C or ¹³C are also not appropriate because they reflect primary production under local light conditions, which is not representative of the range of irradiance experienced by drifting phytoplankton. A better option consists in calculating primary production using daily time series of incident irradiance, sea ice transmittance and in-water vertical attenuation coefficients, combined with photosynthetic parameters determined using

71 photosynthesis vs. irradiance curves (P vs. E curves) measured with short (under two hours)
 72 incubations of seawater samples inoculated with ^{14}C . However, this approach requires an
 73 adequate description of the underwater light field, which cannot be characterized using
 74 single-location measurements in a spatially heterogeneous sea ice surface. To better estimate
 75 primary production of phytoplankton under sea ice, the large-area variability in the light
 76 field should be adequately captured.

77 One major challenge in obtaining adequate irradiance estimates under spatially het-
 78 erogeneous sea ice is that observations are often limited to time-consuming single-location
 79 measurements made through boreholes. To overcome this limitation, different underwater
 80 technologies have been developed to study the spatial variability of light transmission under
 81 spatially heterogeneous sea-ice surfaces. For the last decade, radiometers have been attached
 82 to remotely operated vehicles (ROV). Small sized ROVs can be deployed through relatively
 83 small holes (< 2 m) to cover areas in the order of a few hundreds of meters (Ambrose,
 84 von Quillfeldt, Clough, Tilney, & Tucker, 2005; Katlein et al., 2015, 2017; Lund-Hansen et
 85 al., 2018; Nicolaus, Hudson, Gerland, & Munderloh, 2010). Navigating directly under sea
 86 ice, ROVs allow covering various types of sea ice, such as newly formed, ponded and snow-
 87 covered sea ice, as well as pressure ridges (Katlein et al., 2017). More recently, radiometers
 88 have been attached to the Surface and Under Ice Trawl (SUIT). The SUIT is a trawl de-
 89 veloped for sampling meso- and macrofauna in the ice-water interface layer, allowing for
 90 greater spatial coverage on the order of a few kilometers (Flores et al., 2012; Lange, Flores,
 91 et al., 2017; Lange, Katlein, Nicolaus, Peeken, & Flores, 2016).

92 In a recent study, Massicotte et al. (2018) showed that under spatially heterogeneous sea
 93 ice and snow surfaces, propagating measured surface downward irradiance just below sea ice
 94 $E_d(0^-)$ into the water column using upward attenuation coefficient (K_{L_u}) calculated from
 95 radiance profiles is a better choice compared to the traditional downward vertical attenuation
 96 coefficient (K_{E_d}), because it is less influenced by surface heterogeneity. However, while the
 97 method allows propagation of irradiance to depth from $E_d(0^-)$ more accurately, estimation
 98 of representative $E_d(0^-)$ remains difficult. Both ROV and SUIT aim to better describe the
 99 horizontal variability of $E_d(0^-)$ under heterogeneous sea ice. Since these technologies are
 100 designed to operate at different scales and in different conditions, they are likely to provide
 101 complementary information on the light regime experienced by drifting phytoplankton.

102 In this study, we investigated the spatial variability of light transmittance measured
 103 from these two devices and combined them with satellite-derived sea ice concentrations.
 104 We further used these transmittance data measured at different horizontal spatial scales
 105 to quantify how they influence primary production estimates derived from photosynthetic
 106 parameters. The main objective was to determine if combining multiscale under-ice trans-
 107 mittance observations with photosynthetic parameters could provide a better option to
 108 estimate primary production under sea ice compared to traditional in situ incubations per-
 109 formed at single locations using seawater samples inoculated with ^{14}C or ^{13}C . This study
 110 further aimed at addressing the sensitivity of the phytoplankton to heterogeneous irradi-
 111 ance. It provides new guidance on how to derive more representative primary production
 112 estimates under a heterogeneous and changing icescape.

113 2 Materials and Methods

114 2.1 Sampling campaign and study sites

115 Process studies on biological productivity and ecosystem interactions were carried out
 116 north of Spitsbergen during the international Transitions in the Arctic Seasonal Sea Ice Zone
 117 (TRANSSIZ) expedition aboard the RV Polarstern (PS92, ARK-XXIX/1) between the 19th
 118 of May and the 26th June of 2015. In total, eight process studies (stations 19 27, 31, 32, 39,
 119 43, 46 and 47) were carried out where the ship was anchored to an ice floe, typically for 36
 120 hours (Figure 1, Table 1). While the ship drifted anchored to ice floe on the port side of the

121 ship, winch-operated instruments were deployed in the open water on the starboard side.
 122 Water samples for P vs. E curves were collected using a CTD/Rosette. On-ice station work
 123 included the deployment of a small observation class ROV under the ice to investigate the
 124 small-scale irradiance variability. Prior to arriving or directly after leaving each ice station,
 125 the SUIT was deployed for larger scale characterization of the under-ice irradiance field.
 126 Due to instrument failure, no SUIT data are available for station 32.

127 **2.2 Sea-ice and snow thicknesses and sea-ice concentrations**

128 Ground-based multi-frequency electromagnetic induction soundings from a GEM-2
 129 (Geophex Ltd., Raleigh, NC, USA) were used to measure the total thickness of both sea
 130 ice and snow following the ROV survey grid. The snow thickness during GEM-2 surveys
 131 was measured with a Snow-Hydro Magna Probe instrument (SnowHydro LLC, Fairbanks,
 132 Alaska, USA) with a precision of 3 mm (Sturm et al., 2006). The instrument was inserted in
 133 the snow approximately every 2 m. The combined GEM-2 and Magna Probe measurements
 134 started immediately after the ROV light transmission measurements were finished to ensure
 135 that the snow surface was undisturbed. Sea-ice thickness was calculated as the difference
 136 between total snow and -ice thickness and snow depth. Due to instrument failure of the
 137 Magna Probe, no snow measurements were available for stations 46 and 47. The snow thick-
 138 ness displayed in table 1 is based on ice cores sampled at each station. Sea ice concentration
 139 (SIC) data were obtained from www.meereisportal.de and processed according to algorithms
 140 in Spreen, Kaleschke, and Heygster (2008).

141 **2.3 Underwater light measurements**

142 **2.3.1 ROV measurements**

143 ROV observations were taken using similar procedures as presented in Nicolaus and
 144 Katlein (2013) and Katlein et al. (2017) using a V8 Sii ROV (Ocean Modules, Atvidaberg,
 145 Sweden) and RAMSES-ACC-VIS (TriOs GmbH, Rastede, Germany) spectroradiometers
 146 mounted both on the ROV and in a fixed location above the sea-ice surface. The ROV was
 147 deployed through a hole drilled through the ice at a distance of more than 300 m from the
 148 ship. Optical measurements were performed along two perpendicular 100-m transects and
 149 in a push-broom pattern over a 100 m by 100 m area. Spectral downward irradiance (E_d ,
 150 $W m^{-2}$) between 320 and 950 nm was recorded above and below the surface to calculate
 151 spectral light transmittance as the ratio of irradiance transmitted through the snow/ice to
 152 incident irradiance. The sensors were triggered in *burst* mode with the sensors acquiring
 153 data as fast as possible. To account for ROV movement, all data with ROV roll and pitch
 154 angles larger than 10 degrees and with a distance of more than 3 m depth to the ice cover
 155 were rejected from further analysis. To account for light attenuation between the ice-water
 156 interface and the sensor, an exponential function was used to obtain the transmission at the
 157 ice-water interface:

$$158 \quad T(z_{\text{int}}) = \frac{T(z)}{e^{-K_{E_d}(\text{PAR}) \times -z}} \quad (1)$$

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

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

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

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

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 vertical attenuation coefficient (m $^{-1}$) describing the rate at which $\dot{E}(\text{PAR})$ decreases with increasing depth. It is assumed constant for a given station in all our calculations. The determination coefficients (R^2) of the non-linear fits (equation 3) varied between 0.936 and 0.998.

2.3.2 SUIT measurements

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

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

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

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

209 where $\overset{\circ}{E}(\text{PAR}, 0^+, t)$ is the incident in-air hourly PAR derived from the pyranometer ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$),
 210 $K_{\overset{\circ}{E}_d}(\text{PAR})$ is derived from the ROV (see Table 1 and equation 3), z the water depth (m)
 211 and $T(z_{\text{int}})$ the snow and sea ice transmittance estimated using either the ROV or the SUIT
 212 data.

213 2.5 Photosynthetic parameters derived from P vs. E curves

214 To calculate photosynthetic parameters (see the next section for a complete description
 215 of these parameters), seawater samples were taken from six depths between 1 and 75 m and
 216 incubated at different irradiance levels in presence of ^{14}C -labelled sodium bicarbonate using
 217 a method derived from Lewis and Smith (1983). Incubations were carried out in a dimly lit
 218 radiation van under the deck to avoid any light stress on the algae. Three replicates of 50 mL
 219 samples were inoculated with inorganic ^{14}C ($\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$, approximately $2 \mu\text{Ci mL}^{-1}$ final
 220 concentration). Exact total activity of added bicarbonate was determined by three 20 μL
 221 aliquots of inoculated samples added to 50 μL of an organic base (ethanolamine) and 6 mL of
 222 scintillation cocktail (EcoLumeTM, Costa Mesa, US) into glass scintillation vials. One mL
 223 aliquots of the inoculated sample were dispensed into twenty-eight 7 mL glass scintillation
 224 vials. The samples were cooled to 0°C in thermo-regulated alveoli. Within the array, the
 225 vials were exposed to 28 different irradiance levels provided by separate LEDs (LUXEON
 226 Rebel, Philips Lumileds, USA) from the bottom of each alveolus. Scalar PAR irradiance was
 227 measured in each alveolus prior to the incubation with an irradiance quantum meter (Walz
 228 US-SQS + LI-COR LI-250A, USA) equipped with a 4π spherical collector. The incubation
 229 lasted for 120 minutes and the incubations were terminated by adding with 50 μL of buffered
 230 formalin to each sample. Note that given the short incubation time, our method for deriving
 231 primary production likely provides values close to gross production (Lewis & Smith, 1983).
 232 Thereafter, the aliquots were acidified (250 μL of HCl 50%) in a glove box (radioactive
 233 $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ was trapped in a NaOH solution before opening the glove box) to remove the excess
 234 inorganic carbon (three hours, Knap, Michaels, Close, Ducklow, and Dickson (1996)). In
 235 the end, 6 mL of scintillation cocktail was added to each vial prior to counting in a liquid
 236 scintillation counter (Tri-Carb, PerkinElmer, Boston, USA). The carbon fixation rate was
 237 finally estimated according to Parsons, Maita, and Lalli (1984). Photosynthetic parameters
 238 were estimated from P vs. E curves by fitting non-linear models based on the original
 239 definition proposed by Platt, Gallegos, and Harrison (1980) using equation 5 (parameters
 240 are presented in the next section):

$$241 \quad P(z) = (1 - e^{-\alpha(z) \frac{\overset{\circ}{E}(\text{PAR}, z)}{z}}) \times e^{-\beta(z) \frac{\overset{\circ}{E}(\text{PAR}, z)}{z}} + P_0 \quad (5)$$

242 2.6 Estimating primary production

243 Two different approaches were used to calculate primary production from estimated
 244 photosynthetic parameters.

245 *Method 1: under-ice only primary production* - This first approach relied on using
 246 $\overset{\circ}{E}(\text{PAR})$ propagated in the water column only under the ice using the transmittance values
 247 derived from either the ROV or the SUIT, the $K_{\overset{\circ}{E}_d}(\text{PAR})$ from the ROV and the hourly
 248 incident irradiance from the pyranometer. Primary production was calculated every hour at
 249 each sampling depth using $\overset{\circ}{E}(\text{PAR}, z, t)$ measurements derived from both ROV and SUIT
 250 transmittance as follows:

$$251 \quad P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}}(z, t) = P(z) (1 - e^{-\alpha(z, t) \frac{\overset{\circ}{E}(\text{PAR}, z, t)}{z}}) \times e^{-\beta(z, t) \frac{\overset{\circ}{E}(\text{PAR}, z, t)}{z}} \quad (6)$$

252 where $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}}$ device is primary production ($\text{mgC m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) calculated using the $\overset{\circ}{E}(\text{PAR}, z, t)$
 253 from the transmittances measured from a specific device (ROV, $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{ROV}}$ or SUIT, $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{SUIT}}$),
 254 P is the photosynthetic rate ($\text{mgC m}^{-3} \text{h}^{-1}$) at light saturation, α is the photosynthetic effi-

255 ciency at irradiance close zero ($\text{mgC m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ($\mu\text{mol photon m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) $^{-1}$), β is a photoinhibition
 256 parameter (same unit as α). The superscript *device* can be either ROV or SUIT. While fits
 257 allowed a variable intercept (P_0), which tended to be positive, we did not use P_0 in the
 258 primary production computations as we assumed that it was due to methodological issues
 259 (e.g., light absorbed before incubation started). Photosynthetic parameters were linearly
 260 interpolated between 0 and 40 m depth by 1 m increment. Daily primary production
 261 ($\text{mgC m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$) at each depth was calculated by integrating $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}}(z, t)$ over a 24h period.
 262 Depth-integrated primary production ($\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$) was then calculated by integrating
 263 daily primary production over the first 40 m of the water column.

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

$$272 \quad P_{\text{mixing}}^{\text{device}} = \text{SIC} \times P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}} + (1 - \text{SIC}) \times P_{\text{openwater}} \quad (7)$$

273 where $P_{\text{mixing}}^{\text{device}}$ is the primary production calculated using the mixing model approach
 274 with the transmittance values from a specific device, SIC is the sea ice concentration aver-
 275 aged over an area of $\approx 350 \text{ km}^2$ (the mean of a 9-pixels square with the station within
 276 the center pixel). $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{device}}$ is the primary production calculated under ice using transmittance
 277 measurements (equation 6 & method 1 above) and $P_{\text{openwater}}$ the primary production
 278 calculated in open water by using a transmittance of 100%. For the mixing-model based
 279 SUIT-derived primary production, $P_{\text{mixing}}^{\text{SUIT}}$, transmittance observations higher than 10%
 280 were discarded to remove measurements made under very thin ice and in open leads to
 281 avoid accounting twice for open water. In the end, four types of primary production were
 282 considered (2 devices \times 2 approaches, Table 2).

283 **2.7 Error on primary production estimates**

284 For each of the four scenarios ($P_{\text{mixing}}^{\text{SUIT}}$, $P_{\text{mixing}}^{\text{ROV}}$, $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{SUIT}}$, $P_{\text{underice}}^{\text{ROV}}$), the average primary
 285 production derived from all the transmittance values was viewed as an adequate description
 286 of the average primary production produced by drifting phytoplankton cells for a given
 287 area. The relative deviation of each individual primary production estimate to the average
 288 primary production over all stations was viewed as the error that one would make when
 289 measuring light at a single location. This relative error was calculated as follow:

$$290 \quad \delta_P^{\text{device}} = \frac{|P^{\text{device}} - \bar{P}^{\text{device}}|}{\bar{P}^{\text{device}}} \times 100 \quad (8)$$

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

294 **2.8 Impacts of the number of in situ single-location light measurements on** 295 **primary production estimates**

296 Because of the sea surface heterogeneity in the field, one needs to carefully choose the
 297 number of single-location light measurements in order to obtain representative values of
 298 primary production over a given area. Averaging a high number of local measurements
 299 is likely to give a better approximation of the average primary production over a given

area. However, in the Arctic, it is difficult to sample a high number of uniformly dispersed sampling locations due to logistical constraints. Using primary production estimates derived from the ROV and the SUIIT, we calculated how the error would decrease on average when increasing the number of measurements uniformly sampled over a given area. To calculate this error, between 1 and 250 values were randomly drawn from the full distribution of primary production values calculated with individual transmittance data from the ROV or SUIIT, and used to calculate average primary production. One can view each of these 250 numerical experiments as possible number of single-location irradiance measurements that one would perform in the field. Each numerical experiment was repeated 100 times to calculate an average and the standard deviation of the absolute difference between a given estimate of primary production and the reference primary production calculated with all transmittance measurements.

2.9 Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis and graphics were carried out with R 3.6.0 (R Core Team, 2019). The non-linear fitting for the P vs. E curves was done using the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm implemented in the `minpack.lm` R package (Elzhov, Mullen, Spiess, & Bolker, 2013). The code used in this study is available under the GNU GPLv3 licence (<https://github.com/PMassicotte/transsiz>).

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 coeffi-

346 cients, $K_{\hat{E}_d}$ (PAR), estimated from the ROV vertical profiles varied between 0.07 and 0.59
 347 m^{-1} (Table 1).

348 3.4 Estimated primary production

349 Daily areal primary production derived from photosynthetic parameters and transmit-
 350 tance values ranged between 0.004 and 939 $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for P_{underice} and between 0.004
 351 and 731 $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ for P_{mixing} (Figure 5). In ROV-based estimates, daily areal primary
 352 productions calculated using the two different approaches (P_{underice} and P_{mixing}) generally
 353 showed consistency especially when SIC was high. At stations 19 and 27, greater differences
 354 between P_{underice} and P_{mixing} were observed in ROV-based estimates due to lower sea ice
 355 concentrations (Table 1) which allowed for a greater weight of $P_{\text{openwater}}$ on the calcula-
 356 tions. In SUIIT-based estimates, mean daily P_{underice} values were higher than P_{mixing} values
 357 at stations 19, 39 and 43, similar at stations 27, 46 and 47, and lower at station 31 (Figure
 358 5). The 10% transmittance threshold used to filter out SUIIT-based data explains why mean
 359 values of daily P_{underice} can be lower than those of based on ROV measurements. The differ-
 360 ences between the two approaches in SUIIT data were related to the varying proportions of
 361 thin ice and open water during SUIIT hauls, which were reflected in the P_{underice} estimates.
 362 Overall, both ROV- and SUIIT based estimates agreed well with each other when the mixing
 363 approach (P_{mixing}) was applied.

364 3.5 Error on primary production estimates

365 Figure 6 shows the distributions of the relative errors around the calculated average of
 366 areal primary production (see black dots in Figure 5). Overall, the absolute relative errors
 367 (δ_P) were distributed over a range covering four orders of magnitude, between 0.1% and
 368 1000% which is corresponding to absolute primary production error varying between 0.0001
 369 and 640 $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$. The lowest absolute errors (average $\approx 50\%$) were associated with
 370 primary production estimates made using the mixing model approach (P_{mixing}). Larger
 371 absolute errors were made with P_{underice} derived from only using ROV (mean = 88%) and
 372 the SUIIT (mean = 71%) transmittances.

373 3.6 Impacts of the number of in situ light measurements on primary pro- 374 duction estimates

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

386 4 Discussion

387 4.1 Primary production under heterogeneous sea ice

388 Vertically-integrated net primary production in the Arctic is known to be highly vari-
 389 able in both time and space (Hill, Ardyna, Lee, & Varela, 2018; Matrai et al., 2013). For
 390 example, primary production in the central Arctic Ocean estimated using photosynthetic
 391 parameters was found to vary between 18 and 308 $\text{mgC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ in ice-free waters, and be-

392 tween 0.1 and 232 mgC m⁻² d⁻¹ in ice-covered waters (Fernández-Méndez et al., 2015). Our
 393 primary production estimates generally fall within these ranges, although our highest values
 394 (731 - 939 mgC m⁻² d⁻¹) are roughly twice as high. There are many factors such as season,
 395 cloudiness, sea ice and snow, nutrient concentration, temperature and phytoplankton com-
 396 munity composition that can influence such variability. In a modeling exercise, Popova et
 397 al. (2010) found that shortwave light radiation and the maximum depth of winter mixing
 398 (which determine the amount of nutrients available for summer primary production) ex-
 399 plained more than 80% of the spatial variability of primary production in the Arctic. In our
 400 approach, the impact of light history, nutrients, temperature, and community composition
 401 are implicit in photosynthetic parameters and chl a concentration. The instantaneous effect
 402 of light variations is explicit.

403 4.2 Multi-scale spatial variability of light transmittance

404 In the context of obtaining meaningful measurements of transmittance to accurately
 405 estimate $E_0(\text{PAR}, 0^-)$, one challenge is to define the spatial extent at which light should be
 406 sampled. Based on a spatial autocorrelation analysis conducted in the central Arctic ocean,
 407 it was determined that transmittance values were uncorrelated (i.e., randomly spatially
 408 distributed) to each other after a horizontal lag distance of 65 m (Lange, Katlein, et al.,
 409 2017). This range is much smaller than the distance covered by drifting phytoplankton over
 410 a 24h period. Water currents around Svalbard have been found to vary between 0.14 and
 411 0.21 m s⁻¹ at this time of the year (Meyer et al., 2017). Such speeds are in the same order of
 412 magnitude as the average sea ice drift speeds of 0.10 m s⁻¹ observed during the expedition.
 413 On daily timescales, ice-motion is generally decoupled from Ocean currents and is rather
 414 driven by inertial oscillations and wind stress (Park & Stewart, 2016). This corresponds to
 415 a relative ice-water displacement varying between 3.5 and 18 km over a 24h period which is
 416 much greater than the scale of the spatial variability of transmittance, as well as the scale
 417 of most typical ice floes in this area. Under such a large area, drifting phytoplankton is
 418 experiencing a wide range of irradiance conditions that can be hardly characterized by a
 419 single-location light measurement. Our results showed that at medium spatial scales, the
 420 ROV and the SUIT are able to characterize the local sea-ice variability on the scale of one or
 421 a few individual ice floes. However, these technologies do not adequately capture the spatial
 422 variability that originate from larger scale features such as open water areas nor large leads
 423 that can increase the amount of light available to drifting phytoplankton (Assmy et al.,
 424 2017). Thus at larger spatial scales, satellite-derived information, such as SIC or lead cover
 425 products can provide important information on the panarctic context. Such information
 426 allows to upscale the estimates of primary production derived from the ROV and the SUIT
 427 to a larger spatial scale. Our results showed that using a simple mixing model (equation
 428 7), combining both in-situ transmittance measurements and SIC, can be used to upscale
 429 observations acquired “locally” to larger scales. This approach reduced the relative error by
 430 approximately a factor of two when spatially integrating devices such as ROVs or SUIT are
 431 used to measure transmittance (Figure 5). Furthermore, this error was lower when using
 432 in-situ measurements acquired on a larger spatial scale using the SUIT. This strengthens
 433 the idea that one needs to characterize the light field over an area as large as reasonably
 434 possible so the true irradiance variability is captured.

435 Our study confirms our earlier hypothesis that estimating primary production from pho-
 436 tosynthetic parameters and transmittance measured at a single location does not provide
 437 a representative description of the spatial variability of the primary production occurring
 438 under a heterogeneous sea surface (Figure 6, Figure 7). Depending on the scale at which
 439 transmittance was measured, it was found that deriving primary production from photo-
 440 synthetic parameters using under-ice profile measurements alone would produce on average
 441 relative errors varying between 47% and 88% (Figure 6). In contrast, much lower errors
 442 (25%) were made when primary production estimates were upscaled using satellite-derived
 443 SIC (P_{mixing}). For stations with lower SIC (stations 19, 27, 31 and 39), primary production
 444 estimates were more constrained around the average (Figure 4) because $P_{\text{openwater}}$ had a

greater weight in the calculation of P_{mixing} (see equation 7). For stations 43, 46 and 47 where SIC was 100%, the spread around the mean was higher because only P_{underice} was contributing to the calculation of P_{mixing} . These results suggest that using a distribution of measured transmittances allows calculating a more representative transmittance average for a given area, but also provides additional knowledge on its spatial variability.

Although our results indicate that it is necessary to properly characterize the light field under the heterogeneous sea surface, the physiological state of the phytoplankton community under the sea ice surface also plays a major role on the sensitivity of the estimates to incoming irradiance. An important parameter of the physiological state of the phytoplankton community is the light-saturated photosynthesis regime, E_k an index of photoadaptation. If a phytoplankton community was adapted to extremely low light intensity, as example, variations in the surface light field would have reduced impacts on the estimates because phytoplankton primary production might be systematically light-saturated. In this study, the average E_k was 65.2 ± 55.3 (range = 18.0 - 409.5) $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, whereas the average of all estimates of mean daily, under-ice irradiance made from ROV and SUIT measurements was 12.6 ± 7.6 (range = 3.0 - 26.4) $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Since the latter were generally much lower than E_k , phytoplankton were able to respond strongly to variability in the under-ice light field and take advantage of increased irradiance in occasional leads. This setting underscores the importance of adopting a dynamic approach to the estimation of primary production. However, the degree of photoadaptation of the phytoplankton communities and their ability to adjust rapidly to a variable light field still remains to be evaluated.

4.3 Influence of the number of sampling locations on primary production estimation

As with any scientific expedition in remote environments such as the Arctic, careful planning is needed to find the right balance between the sampling effort and the sufficient amount of acquired information to study a particular phenomenon. Our results suggested that errors made by estimating primary production using photosynthetic parameters decreased exponentially with increasing number of transmittance measurements (Figure 7). Depending on the extent of the spatial scale at which transmittance is measured (order of meters for the ROV, order of kilometers for the SUIT) and the targeted error thresholds (10%, 15%, 20% or 25%), a number of light measurements varying between four and 359 were sufficient to reasonably capture the spatial variability of sea ice transmittance to derive average primary production estimates over a given area. This shows, that local primary production estimated from just a single or even a handful of light observations has limited value.

4.4 Implications for Arctic primary production estimates

It is known that the annual primary production in the ice-covered Arctic is among the lowest of all oceans worldwide, because both light and limited nutrient availability are the main constraining factors for phytoplankton growth under the ice. In a changing Arctic icescape, efforts have been devoted to better understand how phytoplankton primary production is responding to increasing light availability (Fernández-Méndez et al., 2015; Vancoppenolle et al., 2013). Many studies have been conducted in the vicinity of an ice edge to characterize primary production occurring under the ice sheet (Arrigo et al., 2012, 2014; Mundy et al., 2009). However, in such studies, due to logistical constraints, the under-water light field was often characterized by a limited number of light measurements. Other approaches, based on 24h ship-board incubations performed under incident light, have provided local estimates that were simply scaled to an assessment of percent ice-cover in the vicinity of the ship (Gosselin, Levasseur, Wheeler, Horner, & Booth, 1997; Mei et al., 2003; Smith, 1995). Therefore, depending on whether light is measured under bare ice or in open water, the estimated primary production is either under- or overestimated. Different approaches based on remote sensing techniques and modelling have been used to reduce the

496 uncertainties associated with estimates derived from local in-situ measurements. However,
 497 in an ecosystem model intercomparison study, Jin et al. (2016) showed that under-ice pri-
 498 mary production was very sensitive to the light availability computed by atmospheric and
 499 sea ice models, reinforcing the need to develop new integrative strategies to adequately char-
 500 acterize the light field at large scale under heterogeneous sea ice surfaces. Our results show
 501 that upscaling primary production estimates derived from fine-scale local measurements us-
 502 ing SIC derived from satellite imagery allowed reducing the error at larger spatial scales.
 503 Furthermore, it was found that even when SIC was high ($> 95\%$), the use of a mixing-model
 504 approach helped to obtain better estimates (Figure 5).

505 Based on our results, different strategies can be easily adopted to obtain the best
 506 possible estimates of primary production under spatially heterogeneous sea ice surfaces.
 507 First, one should measure light transmittance or irradiance at a spatial scale fine enough to
 508 capture the horizontal variability that is meaningful for the studied process. The number
 509 of measurements should be chosen as a function of the sampling method and a reasonable
 510 degree of error (Figure 7, Table 3). Nowadays, this can be relatively easy achieved using
 511 ROV, SUIT or autonomous underwater vehicles (AUV). Secondly, under heterogeneous
 512 sea ice surface, one should use extinction coefficients derived from upward radiance (L_u)
 513 measurements to propagate PAR in the water column because it is less influenced by the
 514 geometric effects of sea ice surface compared to downward irradiance (Katlein et al., 2016;
 515 Massicotte et al., 2018). Finally, local measurements can be upscaled at higher spatial scale
 516 using remote-sensing data such as sea-ice concentration.

517 5 Conclusions

518 Advances in underwater technologies have made it easier to characterize surface trans-
 519 mittance over large areas even under dense sea ice. Our results show that combining pho-
 520 tosynthetic parameters measured in laboratory experiments with spatially representative
 521 transmittance values sampled with under-ice profiling platforms can significantly improve
 522 the accuracy of primary production estimates under heterogeneous sea surfaces. A good way
 523 forward to sample the under-ice light field on a large enough scale without the inherent biases
 524 of the ROV and SUIT deployment techniques would be the use of long-range autonomous
 525 underwater vehicles. Furthermore, upscaling in-situ measurements at larger scales using
 526 remote sensing data becomes necessary when the spatial scale of the studied process (e.g., a
 527 phytoplankton bloom) is greater than that which is realistically possible to measure in the
 528 field. This emphasizes the need for spatially integrated observation approaches to charac-
 529 terize the light field in ice-covered regions in order to provide more representative primary
 530 production estimates for the Arctic.

531 Acknowledgments

532
 533 We thank F. Bruyant, M. Beaulieu for carrying out the P vs. E curve measurements
 534 and providing us with the data. We thank Sascha Willmes for onboard processing of the
 535 ice and snow thickness data. We thank captain Thomas Wunderlich and the crew of ice-
 536 breaker Polarstern for their support during the TRANSSIZ campaign (AWI_PS92_00). This
 537 study was conducted under the Helmholtz Association Research Programme Polar regions
 538 And Coasts in the changing Earth System II (PACES II), Topic 1, WP 4 and is part
 539 of the Helmholtz Association Young Investigators Groups Iceflux: Ice-ecosystem carbon
 540 flux in polar oceans (VH-NG-800). BAL was partly funded during this study by a Vis-
 541 iting Fellowship from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada
 542 (NSERC). The project was conducted under the scientific coordination of the Canada
 543 Excellence Research Chair on Remote sensing of Canada's new Arctic frontier and the
 544 CNRS & Université Laval Takuvik Joint International laboratory (UMI3376). We also
 545 acknowledge the Sentinel North Strategy for their financial support. SUIT was devel-

546 oped by Wageningen Marine Research (WMR; formerly IMARES) with support from the
 547 Netherlands Ministry of EZ (project WOT-04-009-036) and the Netherlands Polar Pro-
 548 gram (project ALW 866.13.009). We thank Jan Andries van Franeker (WMR) for kindly
 549 providing the Surface and Under Ice Trawl (SUIT) and Michiel van Dorssen for techni-
 550 cal support with work at sea. Data for the light measurement used in this study can
 551 be found on Pangaea website. ROV data ([https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA](https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.861048)
 552 [.861048](https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.849663)), incident radiation (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.849663>), sta-
 553 tion list (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.848841>), SUIT data (submitted to
 554 PANGAEA (<https://doi.org/10.1594/pangaea>) and are in the curation process. It will
 555 be available in open access shortly.), photosynthetic parameters ([https://doi.org/10](https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.899842)
 556 [.1594/PANGAEA.899842](https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.899842)) and sea-ice/snow thickness ([https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/](https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.897958)
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