



# Modelling Kara Sea phytoplankton primary production: Development and skill assessment of regional algorithms



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## ARTICLE INFO

### Keywords:

Primary production  
Chlorophyll *a*  
Kara Sea  
Modelling primary production  
Chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate  
Efficiency of photosynthesis

## ABSTRACT

Empirical region-specific (RSM), depth-integrated (DIM) and depth-resolved (DRM) primary production models are developed based on data from the Kara Sea during the autumn (September–October 1993, 2007, 2011). The model is validated by using field and satellite (MODIS-Aqua) observations. Our findings suggest that RSM algorithms perform better than non-region-specific algorithms (NRSM) in terms of regression analysis, root-mean-square difference (RMSD) and model efficiency. In general, the RSM and NRSM underestimate or overestimate the *in situ* water column integrated primary production (IPP) by a factor of 2 and 2.8, respectively. Additionally, our results suggest that the model skill of the RSM increases when the chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate, efficiency of photosynthesis and photosynthetically available radiation (PAR) are used as input variables. The parameterization of chlorophyll (chl *a*) vertical profiles is performed in Kara Sea waters with different trophic statuses. Model validation with field data suggests that the DIM and DRM algorithms perform equally (RMSD of 0.29 and 0.31, respectively). No changes in the performance of the DIM and DRM algorithms are observed (RMSD of 0.30 and 0.31, respectively) when satellite-derived chl *a*, PAR and the diffuse attenuation coefficient ( $K_d$ ) are applied as input variables.

## 1. Introduction

Estimating the annual water column integrated primary production (IPP) (symbols and abbreviations are presented in Table 1) and studying its spatiotemporal variability on regional and global scales are among the main tasks of ocean biogeochemistry. Field studies provide *in situ* measurements but cannot quantify basin and global IPP dynamics without significant extrapolation (Berger, 1989; Bidigare et al., 1992; Koblenz-Mishke et al., 1970). This problem can be resolved by using bio-optical high resolution satellite-derived data (e.g., surface chl *a* ( $Chl_a$ )), sea surface temperature ( $T_o$ ) and incident photosynthetically available radiation (PAR) (Carder et al., 2004; McClain et al., 1998, 2004; O'Reilly et al., 1998) as input variables in the IPP models. Therefore, modelling IPP is the key approach in the investigation of primary productivity (e.g., Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997b; Carr et al., 2006; Platt and Sathyendranath, 1993).

Numerous IPP algorithm designs and assessments of their predictive capacity on global and regional scales have been developed during the “ocean colour satellite era” (from 1978 to the present) (Campbell et al., 2002; Carr et al., 2006; Friedrichs et al., 2009; Saba et al., 2010, 2011).

The results of four Primary Productivity Algorithm Round Robins (PPARR) allowed these authors to come to the following main conclusions: (i) the model's performance was independent of the algorithm's complexity, namely, the number of input variables, depth and wavelength resolution; (ii) all the models over- or underestimated the IPP by approximately a factor of 2; and (iii) the average model skill was significantly lower in shallow regions than in pelagic waters.

The same conclusions could be applied to the Arctic Ocean (AO) (Bélanger et al., 2013; Hill et al., 2013; Hill and Zimmerman, 2010; Matrai et al., 2013; Zhai et al., 2012). Hill and Zimmerman (2010) revealed that AO models over- or underestimated the observed IPP by a factor of 2 and that simple algorithms that were based on chl *a* performed better than more complex algorithms. Recently, descriptions of AO IPP models have been presented in terms of their efficiency (Babin et al., 2015; Y. Lee et al., 2015; Petrenko et al., 2013). These authors concluded that all the AO IPP models currently have significant limitations and should be used with caution.

One important factor causing problems in the development of robust IPP models for the Arctic Ocean is undersampling and a lack of suitable data on primary production and abiotic characteristics.

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Thus, comparatively few AO region-specific algorithms have been developed with Arctic Ocean datasets (Hill et al., 2013; Hill and Zimmerman, 2010; Matrai et al., 2013; Zhai et al., 2012) and applied to the assessment of AO IPP (Hill et al., 2013).

The accuracy of IPP models that were developed based on the World Ocean dataset decreases at the regional scale, and significant regional differences exist in the performance of algorithms (Campbell et al., 2002; Ishizaka et al., 2007; Z. Lee et al., 2015; Saba et al., 2010; Siegel et al., 2001). Therefore, we can assume that region-specific algorithms perform better than non-regional algorithms. The development of region-specific IPP algorithms for the Kara Sea seems obvious. The Kara Sea is characterized by specific environmental conditions that lead to particular processes of organic matter synthesis because of intense river runoff and a wide shelf zone (Dittmar and Kattner, 2003; Hanzlick and Aagaard, 1980; Holmes et al., 2012; Le Fouest et al., 2013; Stein, 2000). Fresh water discharge into the Kara Sea shelf leads to sharp stratification (Kubryakov et al., 2016; Zatsepin et al., 2010) and high particulate (POM) and coloured dissolved (CDOM) organic matter and terrigenous mineral suspension concentrations (Amon, 2004; Dittmar and Kattner, 2003; Rachold et al., 2004; Vetrov and Romankevich, 2004). Consequently, the Kara Sea waters are characterized by high turbidity, low transparency (average Secchi disk depth ( $Z_s$ ) of 8 m) and a small photosynthetic layer ( $Z_{ph}$ ) (22 m on average) (Burenkov et al., 2010; Demidov et al., 2014; Mosharov, 2010; Mosharov et al., 2016; Vedernikov et al., 1994). Therefore, the development of region-specific models could be one method to improve IPP estimation in the Kara Sea's optically complex waters.

Choosing appropriate model coefficients and input variables is very important to increase the algorithm's efficiency. As recently shown, the IPP in the Kara Sea during autumn weakly depends on the chl  $a$  concentration. On the other hand, the chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate ( $P_{opt}^b$ ) and PAR greatly affect the Kara Sea's primary production (Demidov et al., 2014). At the end of the vegetative season, the PAR level should be considered the main factor that defines the primary production in the Kara Sea. Ignoring the chl  $a$  vertical distribution, specifically, the subsurface chlorophyll maximum (SCM), may be another reason for decreasing of model's efficiency (Ardyna et al., 2013; Arrigo et al., 2011; Hill et al., 2013).

Thus, the main purposes of this study are as follows: (1) the development of a region-specific Kara Sea IPP depth-integrated (DIM) and depth-resolved (DRM) models; (2) the skill assessment of developed models with *in situ* and satellite datasets; (3) a comparison of the predictive skill of region-specific and non-region specific algorithms; (4) the assessment of the effect of photophysiological parameters and PAR on model performance; and (5) the parameterization of vertical chlorophyll profiles in waters with variable productivity and an investigation of the influence of the vertical chl  $a$  distribution on the model accuracy.

## 2. Data and methods

### 2.1. Data sources, sampling and Kara Sea trophic sub-regions

The field data that were used in the model's development were collected during three Kara Sea expeditions: the 49th cruise of the R/V "Dmitry Mendeleev" (from 30 August to 19 September 1993) and the 54th and 59th cruises of the R/V "Akademik Mstislav Keldysh" (from 9 September to 30 September 2007 and from 15 September to 4 October 2011, respectively) (Fig. 1a). Only two stations were established on 30 and 31 August and were included in the autumn database. The chl  $a$  concentration was measured at 113 stations and the primary production at 85 stations. The PP, chl  $a$  and PAR data that were used for model validation (Supplementary material S1) were collected at 31 sites during the 125th cruise of the R/V "Professor Shtokman" (from 3 September to 20 September 2013) (Fig. 1b). The PP and chl  $a$  data and the incident and subsurface PAR (see below) were used to calculate the

model coefficients and to obtain the average chl  $a$  vertical profiles.

The boundaries of the Kara Sea were established in a previous work (Hill et al., 2013). The sampling depths were defined after a preliminary sounding of temperature, conductivity and chlorophyll fluorescence by a CTD probe (Seabird Electronics; SBE-19 and SBE-32). Niskin bottles were deployed at the stations to obtain water samples from discrete depths within the upper 100-m layer. Trace metal cleaning procedures (e.g., Teflon coated covers and springs for the Niskin bottles) were used during all the cruises.

The Chl  $a$ , PP and PAR data were divided according to the trophic categories as determined by the surface chl  $a$  concentration (Morel and Berthon, 1989; Uitz et al., 2006) in the following ranges: 0.1–0.5 mg m<sup>-3</sup> (I); 0.5–1.0 mg m<sup>-3</sup> (II); 1.0–2.0 mg m<sup>-3</sup> (III) and > 2 mg m<sup>-3</sup> (IV). The average trophic level values of the primary productivity and abiotic parameters are presented in Table 2. The relative contributions of waters with different productivity in the Kara Sea regions and water masses (WM) (Demidov et al., 2014; Pivovarov et al., 2003) are presented in Fig. 2. Category I and II waters ( $Chl_0 = 0.1–1.0$  mg m<sup>-3</sup>) characterize the northern WM. The south-western WM was principally characterized by category I and III waters. Category II and III waters ( $Chl_0 = 0.5–2.0$  mg m<sup>-3</sup>) primarily characterized the river runoff WM. The high chl  $a$  concentration in the category IV waters ( $Chl_0 > 2.0$  mg m<sup>-3</sup>) is an inherent property of the Ob and Enisey estuaries (Fig. 2).

As recommended in previous studies of the vertical chl  $a$  distribution, stratified and mixed waters should be considered separately. The ratio of photosynthetic to upper mixed layers ( $Z_{ph}/UML$ ) was chosen as the index of water column stability (Morel and Berthon, 1989; Uitz et al., 2006). Here, we define the photosynthetic layer as the layer up to the compensation depth, where the PP that is measured by the radiocarbon method equals 0. Waters where  $Z_{ph}/UML > 1$  were considered as stratified and  $Z_{ph}/UML < 1$  as mixed. A sharp pycnocline in the upper 10-m layer was observed in the Kara Sea during the autumn (UML = 7–10 m). The photosynthetic layer commonly exceeded the UML and ranged on average from 6 to 47 m in different Kara Sea regions (Demidov et al., 2014). Thus, we considered all the Kara Sea waters as stratified and classified vertical chl  $a$  profiles according to entirely trophic categories.

### 2.2. Primary production, chlorophyll and light measurements

The methods for primary production and chl  $a$  determination are described in detail in previous studies (Mosharov, 2010; Mosharov et al., 2016; Vedernikov et al., 1994) and are summarized in Demidov et al. (2014). Primary production was estimated on board by using a radiocarbon technique (Steemann Nielsen, 1952). The chl  $a$  concentration was determined by using a spectrophotometric method (Jeffrey and Humphrey, 1975; SCOR-UNESCO, 1966) or fluorometrically (JGOFS, 1994). The PP and chl  $a$  data that were obtained by these methods were used for model development.

The intensity of the surface irradiance was measured with a pyranometer (Vedernikov et al., 1994) or an LI-190SA (LI-COR) sensor. The daily PAR was obtained from integration in the LI-1400 module for five-minute intervals (mol quanta m<sup>-2</sup>) and saved in the internal memory. The diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling solar radiation in the visible spectrum ( $K_d$ ) was measured by an alphanometer (Vedernikov et al., 1994). In the absence of underwater hydrooptical measurements,  $K_d$  was calculated by using empirical Kara Sea region-specific relationships among  $K_d$ , the Secchi depth ( $Z_s$ ) and  $Chl_0$  as shown in the Supplementary material (S2). Vertical profiles of underwater light were retrieved according to Beer's law.

### 2.3. Satellite ocean colour data, PAR, $K_d$ and chlorophyll region-specific algorithms

Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS-Aqua)

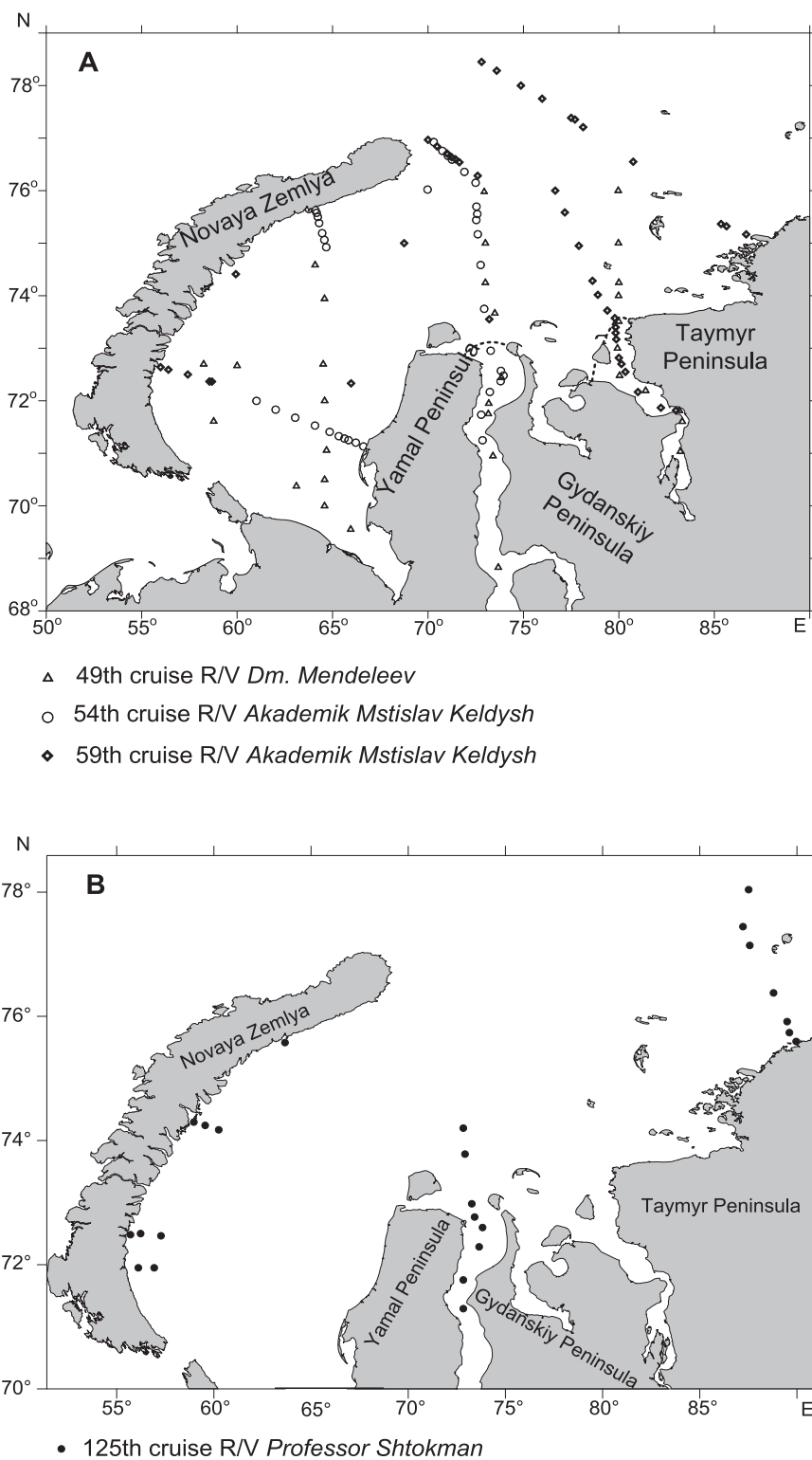


Fig. 1. Maps of the stations that were used for model development (A) and model validation (B).

Level 2 daily water-leaving reflectance ( $R_{rs}$ ) values at 10 spectral channels (412–869 nm) were obtained from the NASA's Goddard Space Flight Centre (NASA GSFC) ([www.oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/](http://www.oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov/)). Satellite-derived chl  $a$ , surface PAR, and diffuse attenuation coefficient ( $K_d$ ) values were applied as input variables. Keeping in mind specific environmental conditions in the Kara Sea, we used region-specific algorithms to derive Chl and  $K_d$  from satellite data; the surface PAR was derived by using the algorithms by Vazyulya et al. (2016).

All the satellite data products were calculated as average values over acceptable pixels around a given point (*in situ* and satellite match-up sites,  $N = 26$ ). A pixel was considered acceptable if it was without flags of cloudiness or land, and  $R_{rs} > 0$  for seven considered spectral bands within 488–678 nm; the data were treated by using software that was developed by Sheberstov and Lukyanova (2007).

The chlorophyll concentration was calculated with a novel formula:

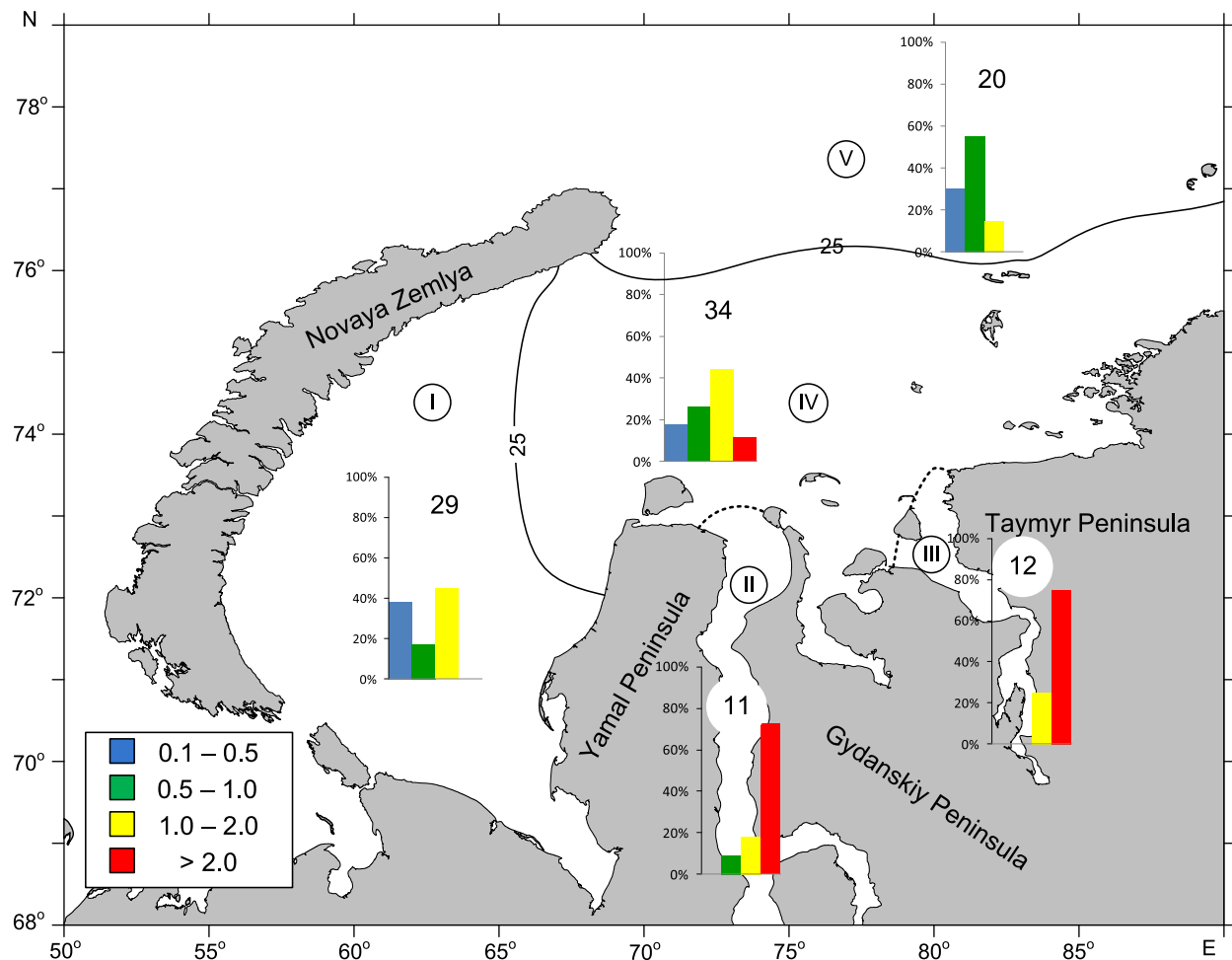


Fig. 2. Contribution (%) of the waters of different productivity (in terms of surface chl  $a$ ,  $\text{mg m}^{-3}$ ) in the Kara Sea water masses (WM) (Demidov et al., 2014; Pivovarov et al., 2003). I – Southwestern WM; II – Ob estuary; III – Enisey estuary; IV – River runoff WM; V – Northern WM (St. Anna's trough). The numerals above the bars are the number of measurements. Surface 25 psu isohaline is shown as a boundary of different WM.

$$\ln(\text{Chl}) = -6.64 \ln(R_{rs}(531)/R_{rs}(547)) - 0.265 (R^2 = 0.43; N = 69), \quad (1)$$

where  $R_{rs}(531)$  and  $R_{rs}(547)$  are the at-surface remote sensing reflectance at 531 and 547 nm MODIS spectral bands. This formula was derived based on satellite data for  $R_{rs}$  and directly measured chlorophyll concentrations in the Kara Sea in 2007, 2011, and 2013–2015 (the number of measurements  $N = 69$ ). This formula is similar to the formula by Kuznetsova et al. (2013) but differs from the latter in terms of its numerical coefficients and better corresponds to datasets with lower chlorophyll concentrations. For the above data, the mean chlorophyll concentration from the *in situ* data equalled  $0.70 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ , that from (1) equalled  $0.66 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ , and that from Kuznetsova et al. (2013) equalled  $1.00 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ; the standard deviations equalled  $0.34$  and  $0.43 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ , respectively.

A semi-analytical algorithm for solving the inverse problem was modified by Vazyulya et al. (2014) to calculate the spectral values of  $K_d(\lambda)$ . First, the CDOM absorption coefficient  $ag(443)$ , the spectral slope  $S$  and the particle backscattering coefficient  $bbp(555)$  were retrieved by using  $R_{rs}$  values from the wavelength range  $\geq 488 \text{ nm}$ , and then Gordon's formula (Gordon, 1989) was used to calculate the spectral values of  $K_d(\lambda)$ . The obtained values of  $K_d$  were extrapolated to the short-wave portion of the spectrum by using the previously derived system of basic functions.

The spectral values of the surface irradiance  $E_s(\lambda)$  for both the total and the direct and diffuse components for the entire visible range with steps of 20 nm were calculated by using MODIS Level 1 data and the SIO RAS (P. P. Shirshov Institute of Oceanology Russian Academy of

Science) algorithm (Kopelevich et al., 2003). Then, the  $K_d\text{-PAR}$  for the near-surface layer, which corresponds to a level of  $0.1 E_s\text{-PAR}$ , was calculated by using the obtained values of  $K_d(\lambda)$  and  $E_s(\lambda)$ .

As noted in previous works, the PAR model for MODIS-Aqua overestimates *in situ* values (Frouin et al., 2012). An analysis of the Kara Sea PAR dataset also shows the systematic overestimation of satellite-derived values ( $\text{PAR}_{\text{sat}}$ ) compared to measured values ( $\text{PAR}_{\text{meas}}$ ). On average, the  $\text{PAR}_{\text{meas}}/\text{PAR}_{\text{sat}}$  ratio equalled 0.64 ( $N = 30$ ;  $cv = 20\%$ ). We used this coefficient as the conversion factor of  $\text{PAR}_{\text{sat}}$  in  $\text{IPP}_{\text{mod}}$  calculations based on this empirical relationship.

#### 2.4. IPP model validation

The models were verified by using an independent database. Notably, verification against *in situ* data that were used in model parameterization can lead to anticipatory conclusions regarding the model's performance (Behrenfeld et al., 2002). The relationships between the measured and modelled IPP estimates were tested by using linear regression. The variance of the dependent values was defined by the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ). The slope and intercept of the linear regression determined the fitted line according to a 1:1 agreement.

The formulations that were used to calculate the model performance indices are presented in the Supplementary material (S3). The root-mean-square difference (RMSD) was used to assess the model's performance. The RMSD revealed differences between the log-transformed measured and modelled values and comprised both bias (systematic

**Table 1**  
The main variables and definitions used in the article.

Variable	Units	Definition
$IPP_{meas}$	$\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$	Measured depth-integrated primary production
$IPP_{mod}$	$\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$	Modelled depth-integrated primary production
$PP_z$	$\text{mg C m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$	Measured primary production at the depth $z$
$PP_{max}$	$\text{mg C m}^{-3} \text{d}^{-1}$	Maximum primary production value within water column
$Chl_0$	$\text{mg m}^{-3}$	Surface chl $a$ concentration
$Chl_z$	$\text{mg m}^{-3}$	Chl $a$ at the depth $z$
$Chl_{max}$	$\text{mg m}^{-3}$	Maximum chl $a$ concentration within water column
$Chl_{rel}$		Relative chl $a$ concentration within water column ( $Chl_z/Chl_{max}$ )
$Chl_{meas}$	$\text{mg m}^{-3}$	Measured chl $a$ concentration
$Chl_{mod}$	$\text{mg m}^{-3}$	Modelled chl $a$ concentration
$\frac{Chl_{meas}}{Chl_{mod}}$	$\text{mg m}^{-3}$	Averaged within photosynthetic layer chl $a$ concentration
$\frac{Chl_{mod}}{Chl_{ph}}$	$\text{mg m}^{-3}$	Averaged within photosynthetic layer chl $a$ concentration calculated by model
$Chl_{ph}$	$\text{mg m}^{-2}$	Photosynthetic layer integrated chl $a$
$k$		Index of chl $a$ vertical distribution ( $Chl_{ph}/Chl_0$ )
$P^b$	$\text{mg C (mg chl } a)^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	Chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate measured in ICES incubator
$P_{opt}^b$	$\text{mg C (mg chl } a)^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	Maximum chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate within a water column
$P_z^b$	$\text{mg C (mg chl } a)^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$	Chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate at the depth $z$
$P_{rel}^b$		Relative chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate ( $P_z^b/P_{opt}^b$ )
$P_{meas}^b$	$\text{mg C (mg chl } a)^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$	Measured daily chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate within a water column
$P_{mod}^b$	$\text{mg C (mg chl } a)^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$	Modelled daily chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate within a water column
$\psi$	$\text{g C (g chl } a)^{-1} \text{mol quanta}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$	Water column efficiency of photosynthesis
$I_0$ (PAR)	$\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$	Subsurface photosynthetically available radiation
$I_z$ (PAR)	Relative units	Photosynthetically available radiation at the depth $z$
$Z_{ph}$	m	Photosynthetic layer up to the compensation depth
$Z_s$	m	Secchi disk depth
$T_0$	°C	Surface temperature
$K_d$	$\text{m}^{-1}$	Diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling irradiance
$\zeta$		Optical depth ( $K_d z$ )

Symbols	Definition
PP	Primary production
IPP	Depth-integrated primary production
chl $a$	Chlorophyll $a$

Definitio- on	Abbreviation
RSM	Region-specific models
NRSM	Non-region specific models
PAR	Photosynthetically available radiation
UML	Upper mixed layer
SCM	Subsurface chl $a$ maximum
CDOM	Colour dissolved organic matter
POM	Particular organic matter
DIM	Depth-integrated models
DRM	Depth-resolved models

error) and variability ( $\sigma$  – random error) (Doney et al., 2009; Stow et al., 2009). The log-normalized RMSD has been used to assess the overall model performance in PPARR studies (Campbell et al., 2002; Friedrichs et al., 2009; Y. Lee et al., 2015; Saba et al., 2010, 2011). Models with lower RMSD have a higher skill and *vice versa*. RMSD values close to 0.3 indicate model over- or underestimation by a factor of 2. We calculated the mean bias ( $B$ ) of each model (S3) to assess over- or underestimated IPP ( $IPP_{meas}$ ).

The model performance can be shown as a single plot by using a target diagram (Jolliff et al., 2009). A target diagram illustrates the total RMSD as the distance from the origin, with  $B$  on the y axis and the unbiased root-mean-square difference (uRMSD) on the x axis. Models with standard deviations that overestimate the observed  $\sigma$  are plotted on the right side of the diagram, and models with  $\sigma$  that underestimate the observed standard deviation are plotted on the left. Thus, a target diagram shows how much the model over- or underestimates the mean

and variability of PP. The bias and uRMSD are normalized by  $\sigma$  and plotted relative to a circle with a radius of 1 (normalized  $\sigma$ ), which illustrates whether a model performs better than the mean of the observations. Models that are located inside the circle have positive model efficiency (ME) (Stow et al., 2009). If  $ME < 0$ , the mean of the observations provides a better approximation than the prediction by the model. This result suggests that the algorithm is of limited use.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Results of region-specific IPP model development

##### 3.1.1. Model developed by average PP, Chl $a$ and PAR ( $\Psi_{MOD}$ )

A brief model description is presented in Table 3. The Kara Sea  $\Psi_{MOD}$  was developed by using the basin average efficiency of the irradiance utilization by the phytoplankton in the water column



**Table 2**  
The average trophic level values of the primary productivity and abiotic parameters in the Kara Sea.

Parameter <sup>a</sup>	Trophic status <sup>b</sup>			
	0.1–0.5	0.5–1.0	1.0–2.0	> 2.0
$Chl_0$	$0.37 \pm 0.1$ 25	$0.74 \pm 0.12$ 30	$1.35 \pm 0.21$ 36	$3.39 \pm 1.13$ 20
$Chl_{ph}$	$13.05 \pm 6.53$ 21	$11.57 \pm 6.69$ 22	$12.56 \pm 6.88$ 24	$30.40 \pm 14.90$ 17
$IPP_{meas}$	$40 \pm 23$ 21	$43 \pm 36$ 22	$60 \pm 46$ 24	$142 \pm 109$ 17
$P_{opt}^b$	$1.03 \pm 0.57$ 21	$1.09 \pm 1.89$ 22	$0.96 \pm 0.60$ 24	$1.21 \pm 0.61$ 17
$Z_{ph}$	$38 \pm 23$ 21	$20 \pm 7$ 22	$14 \pm 8$ 24	$12 \pm 5$ 17
$\psi$	$0.57 \pm 0.39$ 22	$0.68 \pm 0.42$ 16	$0.88 \pm 0.75$ 15	$0.90 \pm 0.61$ 16
$K_d$	$0.210 \pm 0.147$ 25	$0.308 \pm 0.062$ 30	$0.447 \pm 0.129$ 36	$0.582 \pm 0.132$ 19
$I_0$	$7.32 \pm 4.43$ 23	$4.16 \pm 2.53$ 16	$4.60 \pm 3.48$ 15	$8.86 \pm 8.07$ 16
UML	$10 \pm 5$ 25	$8 \pm 4$ 30	$7 \pm 3$ 36	$10 \pm 7$ 20
$k$	$41.73 \pm 28.32$ 21	$16.3 \pm 79.65$ 22	$9.40 \pm 5.23$ 24	$8.93 \pm 2.92$ 17

<sup>a</sup> Average values and standard deviation ( $\pm \sigma$ ) are represented above the line and number of the data below the line.

<sup>b</sup> Waters of different trophic status were separated according to values of  $Chl_0$  ( $mg\ m^{-3}$ ).

**Table 3**  
Models description and data sources.

Abbreviation	Definition	Model type	Input data for model validation and type of the data	Sources	Model adaptation (region of development)
SCHL_reg	Algorithm that was based on empirical relation among surface chl $a$ and IPP	DIM	$Chl_0$ <i>in situ</i>	This article	Kara Sea (RSM)
$\Psi_{MOD}$	Model that was developed by average PP, chl $a$ and PAR	DIM	$Chl_0$ , PAR <i>in situ</i>	This article	Kara Sea (RSM)
VGPM	Vertically Generalized Production Model	DIM	$Chl_0$ , $P_{opt}^b$ , $Z_{ph}$ , PAR <i>in situ</i>	Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a	World Ocean (NRSM)
VGPM_Arc	VGPM that was modified by Arctic $P_{opt}^b - T_0$ relationship	DIM	$Chl_0$ , $T_0$ , PAR <i>in situ</i>	Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a; Cota et al., 2004	World Ocean (NRSM)
VGPM_TR	VGPM that was modified by averaged $P_{opt}^b$ in the different Kara Sea trophic regions (TR)	DIM	$Chl_0$ , $P_{opt}^b$ , PAR <i>in situ</i>	Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a, 1997b; this article	World Ocean (NRSM)
ZCHL_reg	Model that was based on empirical relation among Kara Sea $Chl_z$ and $PP_z$	DRM	$Chl_z$ <i>in situ</i>	This article	Kara Sea (RSM)
KSDRM	Kara Sea depth-resolved model	DRM	$Chl_0$ , PAR, $K_d$ <i>in situ</i>	This article	Kara Sea (RSM)
ArcPP	Model that was based on empirical relation among Arctic Ocean $Chl_z$ and $PP_z$	DRM	$Chl_z$ <i>in situ</i>	Hill et al., 2013	Arctic Ocean (NRSM)
$\Psi_{MOD_{sat}}$	Model that was developed by average PP, chl $a$ and PAR	DIM	$Chl_0$ , PAR satellite-derived	This article	Kara Sea (RSM)
$KSDRM_{sat}$	Kara Sea depth-resolved model	DRM	$Chl_0$ , PAR, $K_d$ satellite-derived	This article	Kara Sea (RSM)

( $\psi = P_{meas}^b/I_0$ ) (Falkowski, 1981) and the index of the vertical chl  $a$  distribution ( $k = Chl_{ph}/Chl_0$ ) (Campbell et al., 2002) as the model coefficients. The input variables were the surface chl  $a$  and daily incident solar radiation (PAR), parameters that can be easily measured in the field. Thus, the primary production in the water column can be calculated as follows:

$$IPP_{mod} = k \psi Chl_0 I_0 \quad (2)$$

Previously, this model was tested in the PPARR2 (Campbell et al., 2002) and was applied to investigate the PP spatial variability in the Drake Passage (Demidov et al., 2011). In the framework of the presented study, we calculated the average  $k \psi$  value as the Kara Sea region-specific coefficient. The geometric average of  $k \psi$  was applied consistently with its log-normal frequency distribution (Fig. 3) (Aitchison and Brown, 1957). The geometric average of the Kara Sea

$k \psi$  equalled 8.27:

$$IPP_{mod} = 8.27 Chl_0 I_0 \quad (3)$$

### 3.1.2. Parameterization of the vertical profiles of chlorophyll distribution and its use in the Kara Sea depth-resolved model (KSDRM)

The KSDRM was developed by using the maximal chlorophyll specific photosynthetic rate within the water column ( $P_{opt}^b$ ), underwater assimilation activity and vertical profiles of the chl  $a$  distribution. A conceptual formula of the IPP calculation is presented below:

$$IPP = \int_z^0 P_z^b Chl_z DL (dz) \quad (4)$$

where  $P_z^b$  is the chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate at depth  $z$ ,  $Chl_z$  is the chl  $a$  content at depth  $z$  and DL is the day length.

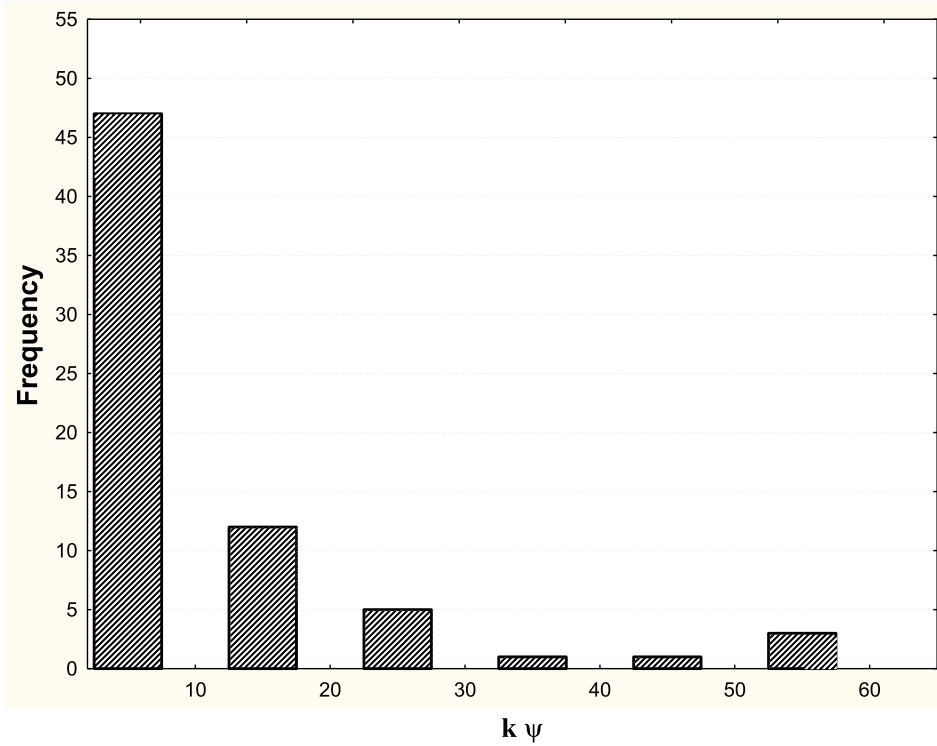


Fig. 3. Frequency distribution of the  $\Psi_{MOD}$  coefficient  $k \psi$  (model description see in the Table 3 and in the text of the article).

Modelled values of  $P_z^b$  were calculated based on the power dependence of  $P_{rel}^b$  ( $P_z^b/P_{opt}^b$ ) values on the relative PAR  $I_z$  (%  $I_0$ ) (Fig. 4):

$$P_{rel}^b = 11.65 I_z^{0.49} \quad (5)$$

hence,

$$P_z^b = (P_{opt}^b (11.65 I_z^{0.49})) / 100 \quad (6)$$

The maximum water column chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate ( $P_{opt}^b$ ) was obtained from the empirical relationship between  $P_{opt}^b$  and  $I_0$ , which was recently calculated by Demidov et al. (2014):

$$P_{opt}^b = 10^{-0.71+0.90 \log_{10} I_0} \quad (7)$$

By substituting formula (7) into Eq. (6),  $P_z^b$  can be calculated as follows:

$$P_z^b = ((10^{-0.71+0.90 \log_{10} I_0})(11.65 I_z^{0.49})) / 100 \quad (8)$$

The next step in the KSDRM's development is the calculation of the chl *a* concentration at each depth ( $Chl_z$ ) by using  $Chl_0$ . Previous studies noted that the shape of the vertical chl *a* curve depends on  $Chl_0$  and, consequently, on the trophic status of the region (Morel and Berthon, 1989; Uitz et al., 2006). Five-meter averages of vertical chl *a* profiles were created within the upper 55-m layer for each trophic category (Fig. 5). Every individual profile was normalized to the maximum chlorophyll value ( $Chl_z/Chl_{max}$ ) to overcome the non-normal chl *a* distribution within each depth bin and to illustrate the relative vertical chlorophyll pattern. The distribution of the normalized curves was considered relative to the optical depth  $\zeta = z K_d$ , where  $z$  is the geometric depth and  $K_d$  is the diffuse attenuation coefficient for downwelling irradiance. Then, the obtained profiles were mathematically approximated.

As seen in Fig. 5, the average normalized vertical chl *a* profiles were linearly approximated with high determination coefficients ( $R^2 = 0.65–0.96$ ) in the waters of trophic categories I and IV and exponentially ( $R^2 = 0.92$  and  $0.93$ ) in the waters of trophic categories II and III. In the category I waters, the curves within and below the euphotic layer (1% PAR) were approximated separately (Fig. 5). Interestingly, the chl *a* concentrations permanently decreased with depth for  $Chl_0 > 0.5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ . A homogenous chlorophyll distribution within the euphotic layer and a linear decrease below this layer were observed with relatively low  $Chl_0$  ( $0.1–0.5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ ). Registering  $Chl_{max}$  at the surface or within the subsurface layer, i.e.,  $Chl_{max} \approx Chl_0$ , is the principle for applying vertical chl *a* profiles in the KSDRM.

The chlorophyll content at each depth ( $Chl_z$ ) can be calculated by using the equations which are given in the Supplementary material (S4). Thus, we can calculate  $IPP_{mod}$  at each site within waters of different trophic status by substituting Eq. (8) and the  $Chl_z$  calculation

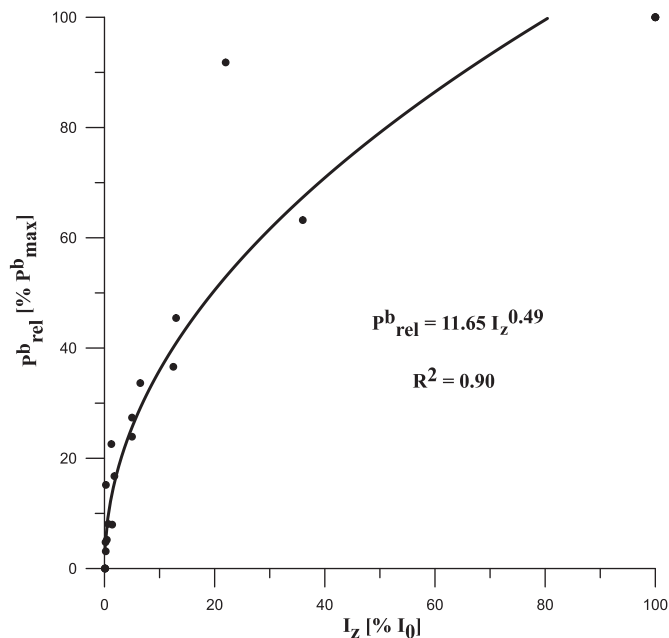


Fig. 4. Average values (in relative units) of chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate ( $P_{rel}^b$ ) vs. average relative values of subsurface PAR at depth  $z$  ( $I_z$ ).

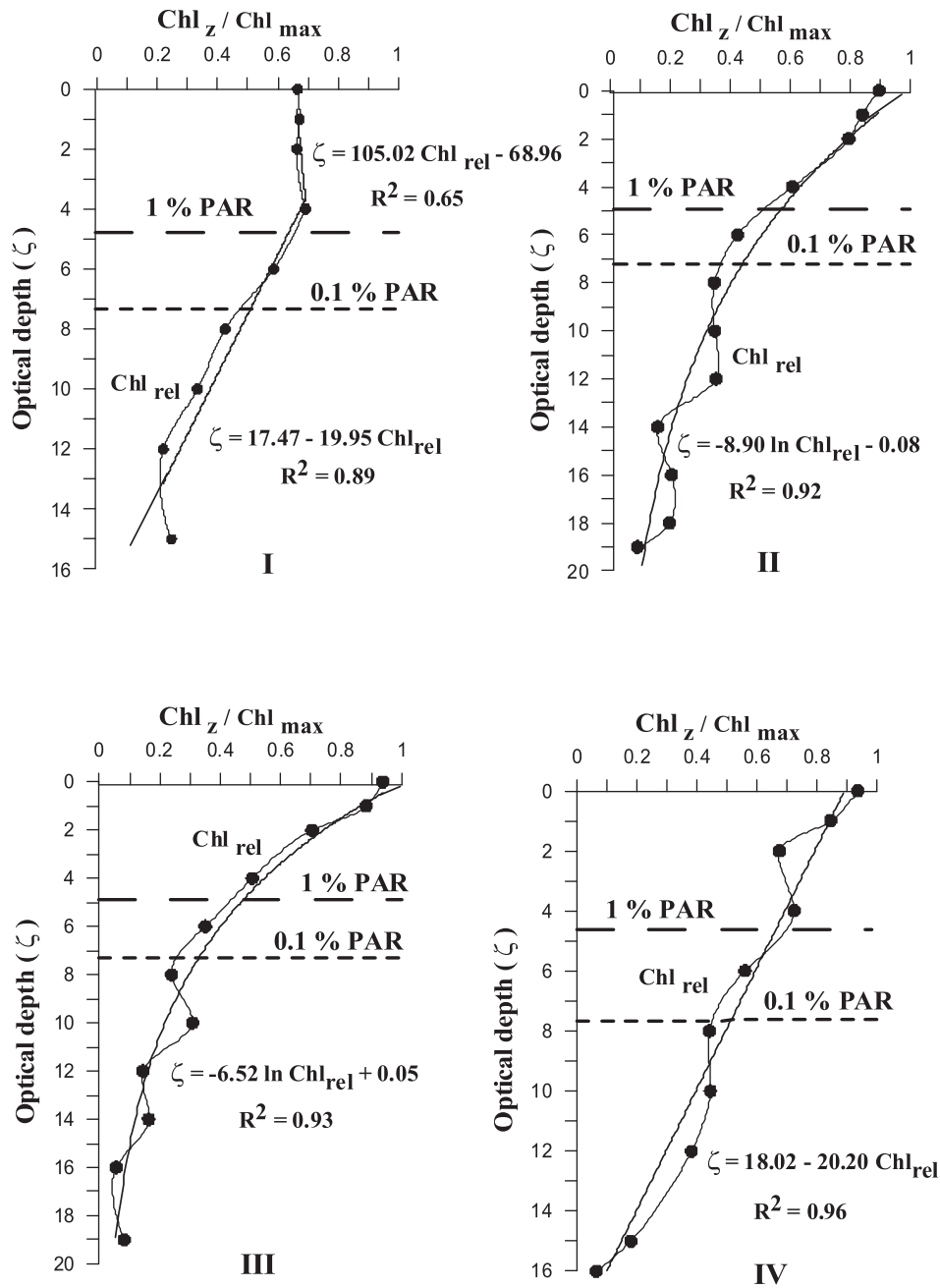


Fig. 5. Relationships among average chl *a* relative values ( $Chl_{rel} = Chl_z / Chl_{max}$ ) and optical depths ( $\zeta$ ) in the Kara Sea waters of different trophic status defined according to surface chl *a* concentration ( $Chl_0$ ): I –  $Chl_0$  ranged from 0.1 to 0.5  $mg\ m^{-3}$ ; II –  $Chl_0$  ranged from 0.5 to 1.0  $mg\ m^{-3}$ ; III –  $Chl_0$  ranged from 1.0 to 2.0  $mg\ m^{-3}$ ; IV –  $Chl_0 > 2.0\ mg\ m^{-3}$ . Horizontal lines are presented 1% and 0.1% PAR. Bold lines are fitted and dots are measured results.

(S4) into Eq. (4).

### 3.1.3. Empirical relationship between the Kara Sea $Chl_z$ and $PP_z$ (ZCHL<sub>reg</sub> model)

The relationship between the log-transformed Kara Sea primary production and chl *a* at all depths is presented in Fig. 6a. The equation of linear regression is

$$\log_{10} PP_z = 0.43 + 1.13 \log_{10} Chl_z (R^2 = 0.27; N = 355; p < 0.01) \quad (9)$$

This formula was applied to calculate the depth-resolved PP by using model curves of chl *a*'s vertical distribution. An analogous approach with the ARCSS-PP dataset has been applied by Hill et al. (2013) for Arctic Ocean IPP estimation.

## 3.2. Algorithm skill assessment with field data

### 3.2.1. Results of regression analysis

We tested Chl-based algorithms that were developed based on the Kara Sea dataset, i.e., region-specific models (RSM), by using field observations. The skill assessment of these algorithms was compared to that of non-region-specific algorithms (NRSM) (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a; Hill and Zimmerman, 2010). The results of the regression analysis (Fig. 7; Table 4) suggest that all the models predicted from 47 to 93% of the *in situ* IPP. The analysed algorithms were divided into five groups in terms of their coefficient of determination as an indicator of model predictive capacity. Models that were developed solely based on the chl *a* distribution within the water column ( $Chl_z$ ) (ZCHL<sub>reg</sub> and ArcPP) (Table 3) had the least predictive skill ( $R^2 = 0.40$ – $0.50$ ). The second category ( $R^2 = 0.50$ – $0.60$ ) included



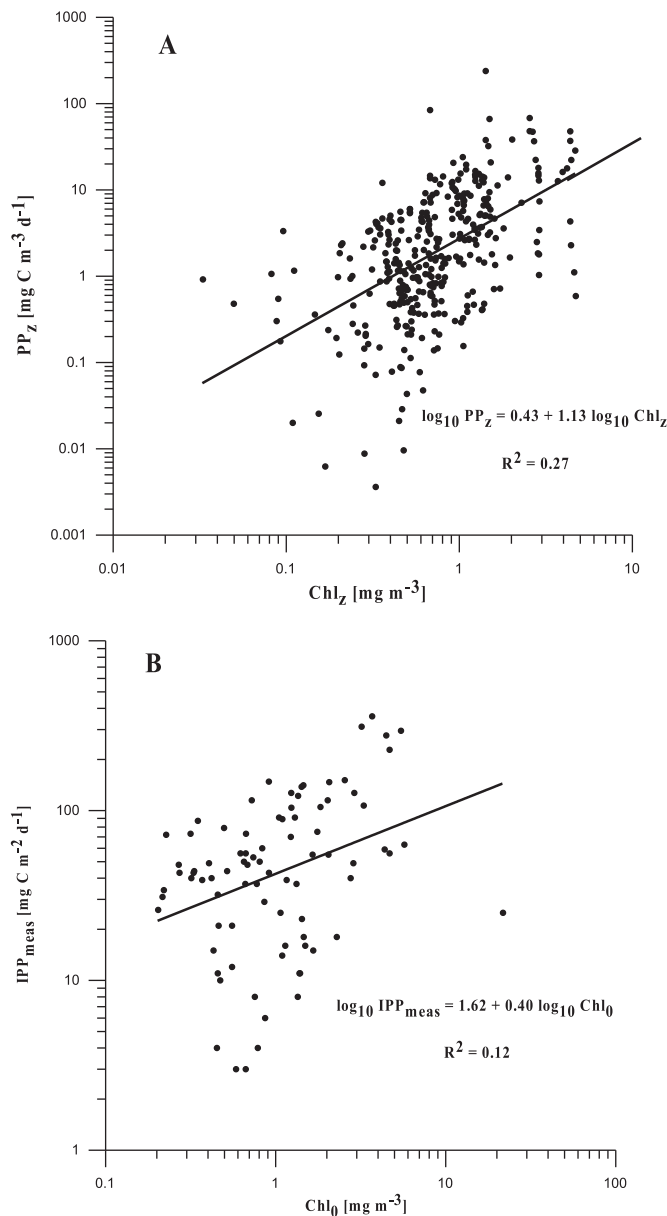


Fig. 6. (A) – primary production ( $PP_z$ ) vs. chl  $a$  ( $Chl_z$ ) for all depths and (B) – depth-integrated primary production ( $IPP_{meas}$ ) vs. surface chl  $a$  concentration ( $Chl_0$ ).

**Table 4**  
Regression statistics, performance indices for the log-transformed  $IPP_{meas}$  and  $IPP_{mod}$  and average values ( $\text{mg C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) for the each model type.

Model type	Averaged $IPP_{mod}^a$	Regression statistics				Performance indices				
		Slope	Intercept	$R^2$	$p$ value	$B$	$\sigma$	RMSD	uRMSD	ME
SCHL_reg	58 ± 38	0.40	1.05	0.65	< 0.01	0.07	0.23	0.32	0.31	0.53
$\Psi\_MOD$	90 ± 130	0.98	0.01	0.69	< 0.01	-0.03	0.56	0.31	0.30	0.58
VGPM	141 ± 175	1.02	0.21	0.93	< 0.01	0.24	0.50	0.27	0.13	0.66
VGPM_Arc	196 ± 188	0.59	1.19	0.60	< 0.01	0.51	0.36	0.59	0.30	-0.60
VGPM_TR	104 ± 106	0.62	0.84	0.58	< 0.01	0.21	0.39	0.37	0.31	0.37
ZCHL_reg	33 ± 29	0.55	0.48	0.50	< 0.01	-0.25	0.37	0.42	0.33	0.21
KSDRM	99 ± 113	0.74	0.59	0.74	< 0.01	0.17	0.41	0.29	0.24	0.62
ArcPP	160 ± 163	0.54	1.17	0.47	< 0.01	0.42	0.37	0.54	0.34	-0.34
Average $IPP_{meas}^a$	77 ± 94									

Slope and intercept – parameters of linear regression;  $R^2$  – coefficient of determination;  $p$  value indicates the significance level of each regression. Indices are mean model bias ( $B$ ), standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ), root-mean-square-difference (RMSD), unbiased root-mean-square-difference (uRMSD) and model efficiency (ME).

<sup>a</sup> Mean values and standard deviation are presented ( $N = 31$ ).

two modified VGPM types, which comprised (i)  $P_{opt}^b$ , which was calculated by the regional temperature relationship (VGPM\_Arc), or (ii) the average  $P_{opt}^b$  (VGPM\_TR). Better performance was observed for the regional IPP algorithms SCHL\_reg and  $\Psi\_MOD$  (third category) ( $R^2 = 0.60$ – $0.70$ ) and the depth-resolved KSDRM (fourth category) ( $R^2 = 0.70$ – $0.80$ ). The best performance ( $R^2 > 0.90$ ) (fifth category) was observed for the VGPM with the *in situ*  $P_{opt}^b$  as an input variable (Table 4).

A perfect algorithm in terms of regression analysis has a 1:1 relationship between the predicted and observed PP (slope = 1). The lowest value of the slope (0.40) was calculated for the simple model that was based on  $Chl_0$  (SCHL\_reg) (Fig. 7a). The best relationship between  $IPP_{mod}$  and  $IPP_{meas}$  was observed for  $\Psi\_MOD$  (slope = 0.98) (Fig. 7b) and VGPM (slope = 1.02) (Fig. 7g). A relatively high slope was calculated for the KSDRM (slope = 0.74) (Fig. 7d). The relationships between the predicted and observed IPP for the other algorithms ranged from 0.54 to 0.62 (Table 4).

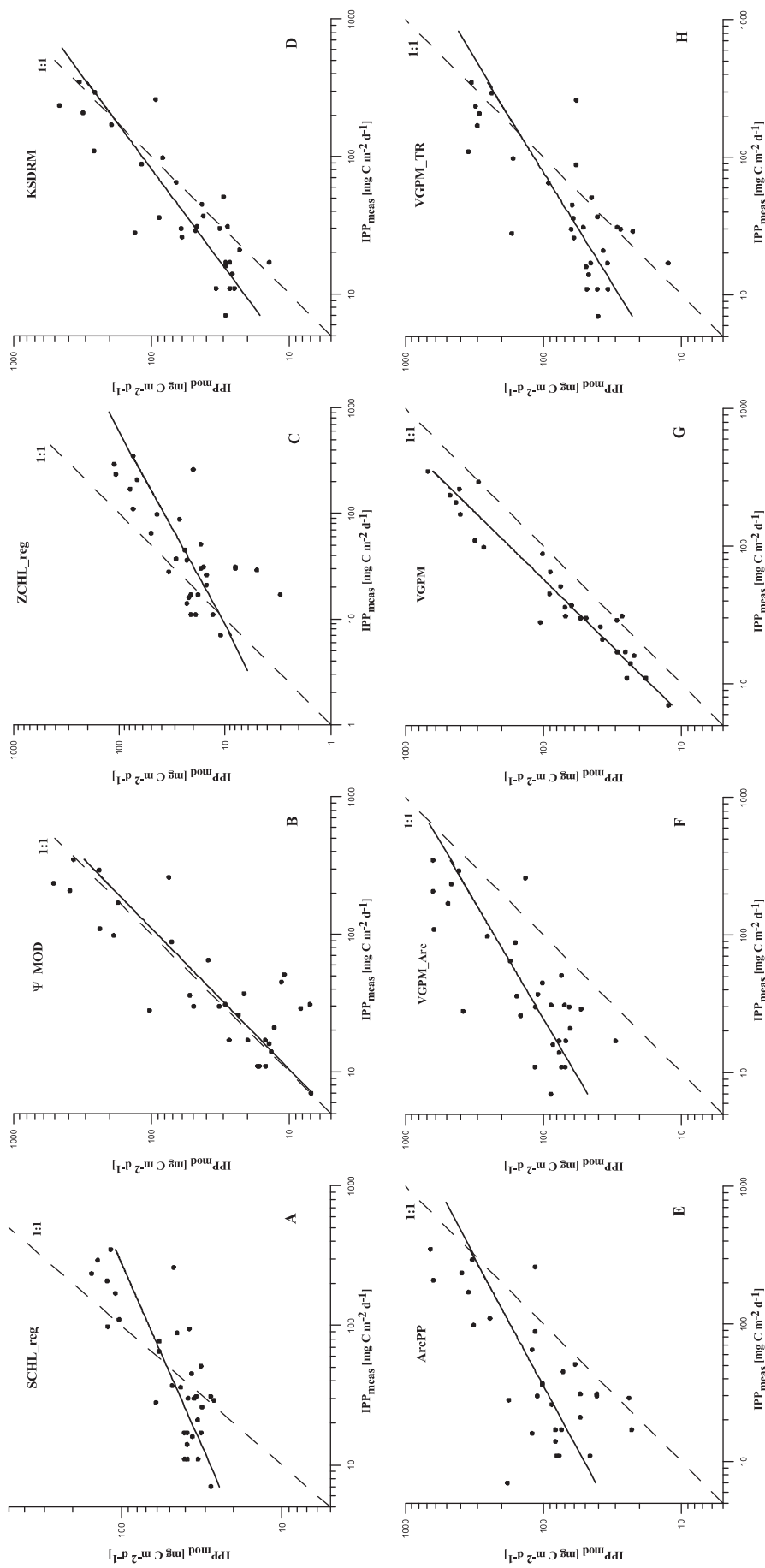
### 3.2.2. RMSD, model efficiency (ME), biases and variance

The RMSD and ME values are represented in Table 4 and Fig. 8. In terms of the individual model skill, the region-specific algorithms that were developed by using photoadaptive parameters ( $\Psi\_MOD$  and KSDRM), along with the VGPM (*in situ*  $P_{opt}^b$  as the input variable) (RMSD ranged from 0.27 to 0.31), had the best predictive capacity. The models that only considered the chlorophyll concentration (as an index of phytoplankton biomass) (SCHL\_reg and ZCHL\_reg), along with the modified VGPM and ArcPP, performed worse (RMSD ranged from 0.32 to 0.59). The same result was found when the ME was considered as a performance index. NRSM ArcPP and VGPM\_Arc had the least skill (RMSD equal to 0.59 and 0.54, respectively) and  $ME < 0$  (Fig. 8; Table 4).

We used a target diagram to illustrate the capacity of the models to estimate IPP better than the average value (Fig. 9). Symbols inside the circle (normalized standard deviation of the *in situ* IPP) indicate better performance versus the mean field data. As seen in Fig. 9, only two models (ZCHL\_reg and  $\Psi\_MOD$ ) underestimated the *in situ* depth-integrated PP. Additionally, all the algorithms overestimated the IPP variability. Thus, the modelled standard deviation exceeded the observed standard deviation. The performance indices in Table 4 also suggest that the region-specific models (SCHL\_reg,  $\Psi\_MOD$  and KSDRM) had the fewest biases.

### 3.2.3. Simulated vertical chl $a$ distribution and assimilation activity in the depth-resolved algorithm (KSDRM)

Simulated vertical chl  $a$  profiles were compared with the *in situ* chl  $a$  distribution in waters of different trophic status and are given in the Supplementary material (S5 and S6). Significant variability was present in the form of *in situ* chl  $a$  curves. The subsurface chlorophyll maximum



**Fig. 7.** Comparison of measured ( $IPP_{meas}$ ) and modelled ( $IPP_{mod}$ ) depth-integrated values of primary production that were calculated by different algorithms: (A) – model that was based on relationship between surface chl  $a$  and  $IPP_{meas}$ ; (B) – model that was developed by using average Kara Sea data ( $\Psi_{MOD}$ ); (C) – model that was based on relationship among  $CHL_z$  and  $PP_z$ ; (D) – Kara Sea depth-resolved model; (E) – model that was based on relationship among Arctic Ocean  $CHL_z$  and  $PP_z$  (Hill et al., 2013); (F) – VGPM modified by using average  $P^{opt}$  in the different Kara Sea trophic regions (TR) (model descriptions see in the Table 3).

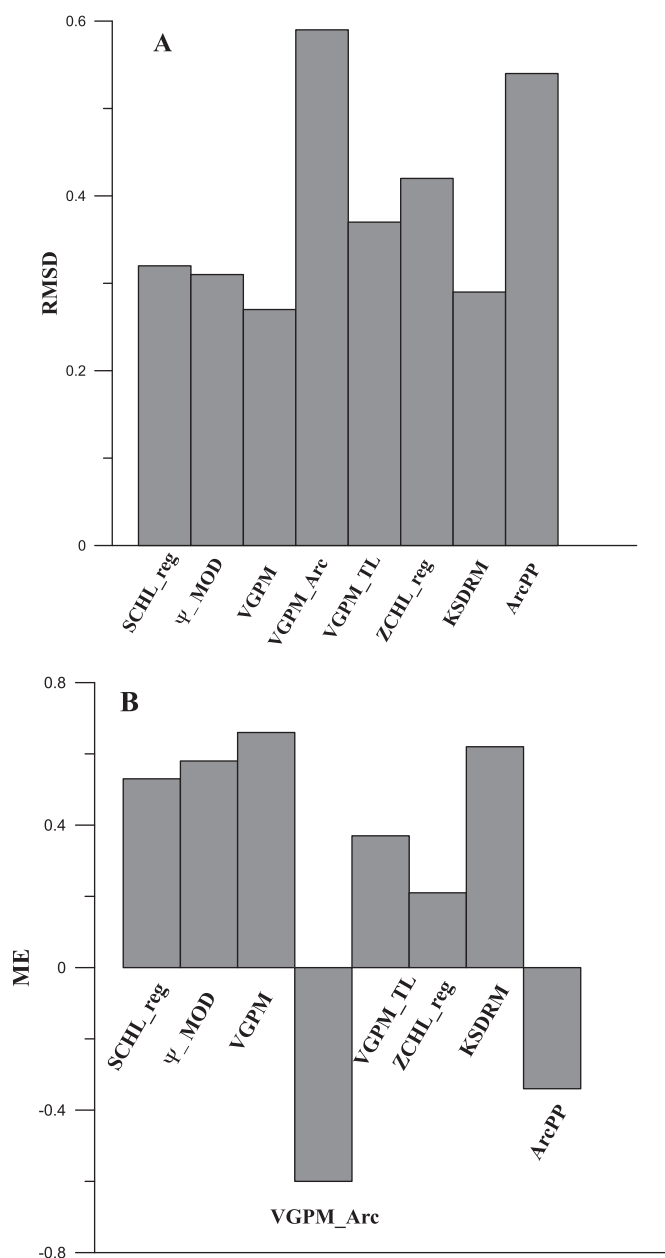


Fig. 8. Root-mean-square difference (RMSD) (A) and model efficiency (ME) of different Kara Sea models.

(SCM) was a common feature of the vertical chl *a* distribution in the waters of trophic category I ( $Chl_0$  ranged from 0.1 to 0.5 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) (S5). The presence of the SCM led to the divergence of the modelled and observed vertical chl *a* profiles. Conversely, no pronounced SCM was observed in the waters of categories II–IV (S6). A comparison of the modelled and observed profiles suggests that the predicted vertical distribution usually underestimated the *in situ* concentration in the top of the euphotic zone and often overestimated chl *a* below this layer (S5 and S6).

Evaluating the contributions of the chl *a* concentration and phytoplankton assimilation activity within the water column in the overall error of the IPP determination is important. Fig. 10a illustrates that the modelled chl *a* within the photosynthetic layer, which was expressed as the mean concentration ( $Chl_{mod}$ ), relatively satisfactorily predicted the observed values ( $Chl_{meas}$ ) ( $R^2 = 0.90$ ; RMSD = 0.21). On the contrary, weak correlation existed between the simulated following Eq. (5)–(8) and measured water column daily assimilation activity ( $R^2 = 0.42$ ;

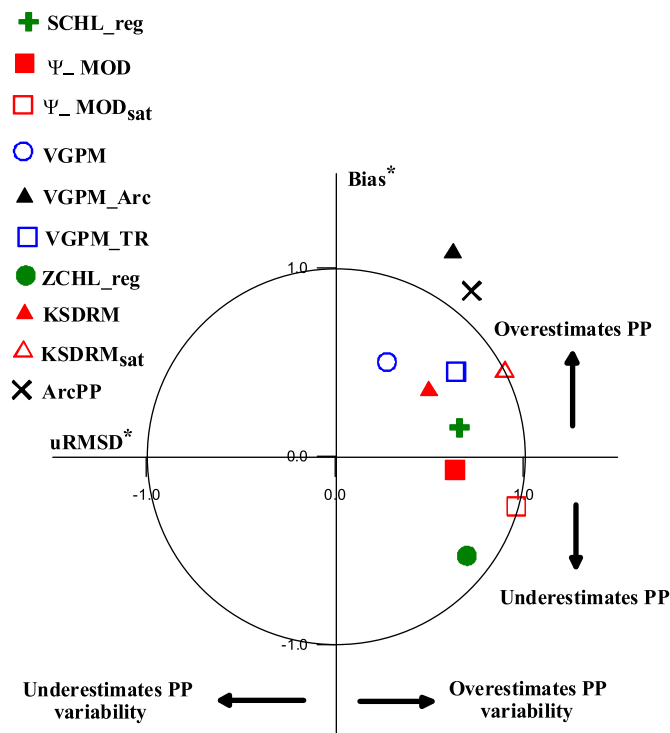


Fig. 9. Target diagram for the individual models. Bias\* and uRMSD\* are normalized  $B$  and uRMSD by using standard deviation of log-transformed  $IPP_{meas}$ . The solid circle is the normalized standard deviation of the log-transformed  $IPP_{meas}$  ( $\sigma = 0.477$ ).

RMSD = 0.43) (Fig. 10b). These results indicate a significant role of the accuracy in the determination of the chlorophyll-specific carbon fixation rate ( $P_z^b$ ) for the depth-resolved IPP algorithms.

### 3.3. Skill assessment of region-specific algorithms with satellite data as input variables

In this section, we compare the performance of region-specific algorithms with satellite-derived ( $\Psi\_MOD_{sat}$  and  $KSDRM_{sat}$ ) and *in situ* data as input variables (Table 3). The satellite-derived chl *a* ( $Chl_{sat}$ ) is the concentration within the penetration depth ( $1/K_d$ ). Regression analysis suggested that the average chl *a* in the Kara Sea average within the penetration depth was strongly correlated with  $Chl_0$  ( $R^2 = 0.99$ ; slope = 0.98;  $N = 104$ ) (Demidov et al., 2014).

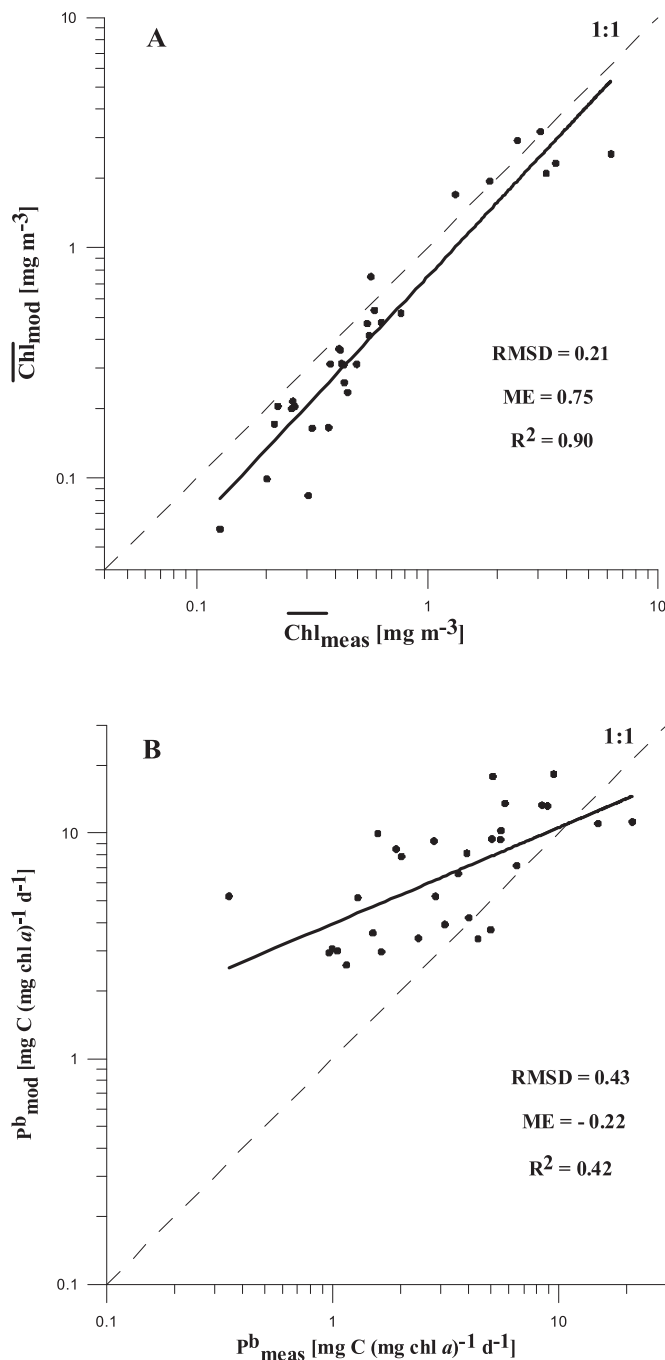
The performance of  $\Psi\_MOD_{sat}$  in terms of the RMSD did not vary with the application of  $Chl_{sat}$  from the region-specific algorithm and MODIS-Aqua PAR as input variables. On the other hand, the  $R^2$  and ME values decreased by a factor of 3.1 and 4.5, respectively (Tables 5 and 6 and Fig. 11).  $\Psi\_MOD_{sat}$ , similar to  $\Psi\_MOD$ , underestimated  $IPP_{meas}$  ( $B = -0.08$ ).

Interestingly, almost no differences were observed in the model predictive capacity between the KSDRM and  $KSDRM_{sat}$  in terms of the RMSD (0.31 and 0.29, respectively) and  $B$  (0.14 and 0.17, respectively) (Tables 4 and 5 and Fig. 11). On the other hand, the  $R^2$  of  $KSDRM_{sat}$  decreased by a factor of 2.7 compared to the KSDRM.

Comparing the predictive skill of the DIM ( $\Psi\_MOD_{sat}$ ) and DRM ( $KSDRM_{sat}$ ) is interesting. The regression statistics and performance indices, which are presented in Table 5, suggest that the differences in the model predictive capacity between  $\Psi\_MOD_{sat}$  and  $KSDRM_{sat}$  are negligible. Thus,  $KSDRM_{sat}$  and  $\Psi\_MOD_{sat}$  performed equally when satellite data were used as input variables.

## 4. Discussion

In this study, we presented the development of a Kara Sea regional



**Fig. 10.** (A) – comparison of measured ( $\overline{Chl_{meas}}$ ) and modelled ( $\overline{Chl_{mod}}$ ) chl *a* concentration averaged within photosynthetic layer; (B) – comparison of measured ( $P^b_{meas}$ ) and modelled ( $P^b_{mod}$ ) daily chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate within a water column.

**Table 5**

Results of region-specific Kara Sea model validation with MODIS-Aqua data. Regression statistics and performance indices for the log-transformed  $IPP_{meas}$  and  $IPP_{mod}$  are presented.

Model type	Regression statistics					Performance indices				
	Slope	Intercept	$R^2$	$N$	$p$ value	$B$	$\sigma$	RMSD	uRMSD	ME
$\Psi_{MOD_{sat}}$	0.42	1.02	0.22	26	0.02	-0.08	0.27	0.30	0.29	0.13
$KSDRM_{sat}$	0.44	1.19	0.27	26	0.01	0.14	0.26	0.31	0.27	-0.06

$\Psi_{MOD_{sat}}$  and  $KSDRM_{sat}$  – depth-integrated and depth-resolved Kara Sea region-specific models with satellite data as input variables. Slope and intercept – parameters of linear regression;  $R^2$  – coefficient of determination;  $p$  value indicates the significance level of each regression. Indices are mean model bias ( $B$ ), standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ), root-mean-square-difference (RMSD), unbiased root-mean-square-difference (uRMSD) and model efficiency (ME).

models and a comparison of the predictive skills of different algorithms. Below, we discuss the model skill of the depth-integrated, depth-resolved, simple and more complex algorithms. Additionally, the RSM and NRSM are compared.

#### 4.1. Comparison of the DIM and DRM algorithms

A comparative analysis of the model skill in terms of the regression statistics and performance indices implies that the differences in the predictive capacity of the Kara Sea depth-resolved and depth-integrated algorithms were insignificant (Table 4). The negligible differences in the performance between the DIM ( $\Psi_{MOD}$ ) and DRM (KSDRM) were consistent with Behrenfeld and Falkowski (1997a, 1997b), who concluded that the application of vertical chl *a* profiles did not significantly improve IPP estimation. Following these authors, the DIM algorithms explained  $\sim 85\%$  of the IPP variability, while only  $\sim 15\%$  of the variance could be explained by the vertical distribution of chl *a* and PAR. The results of the Kara Sea RSM development suggest that the vertical resolution increased the model performance in terms of the RMSD and ME by only  $\sim 7\%$  (Table 4). Regarding the patterns of the Kara Sea primary production characteristics, a minor difference between  $\Psi_{MOD}$  and KSDRM can be attributed to the strong contribution of surface PP to the IPP, the small photosynthetic layer and weak SCM development in most regions (Demidov and Mosharov, 2015). The chlorophyll distribution pattern was characterized, on average, by a maximum at the surface and linear or exponential decay with depth (Fig. 5). The contribution of the SCM's development, presumably in the category I waters, to the IPP was insignificant and ranged from 1 to 27% (Demidov et al., 2014). It is worth to note that vertical chl *a* distribution pattern during autumn presented in this article is consistent with the annual mean profile in the Kara Sea from the ARCSS-PP database (Arrigo and van Dijken, 2011). On the other hand, we realise that the Kara Sea vertical chlorophyll distribution dataset is restricted by autumn and number of profiles ( $N = 107$ ). Currently, we cannot go to the final conclusion about role of the vertical chlorophyll distribution in the Kara Sea primary production. Scarcity of the Kara Sea data is especially evident in comparison with other datasets that were used to describe the typical chlorophyll profiles in the different regions of the World Ocean: 5206 profiles (Ardyna et al., 2013), 1199 profiles (Cherkasheva et al., 2013), 4000 profiles (Morel and Berthon, 1989), 2419 profiles (Uitz et al., 2006).

The presented curves of the vertical chl *a* distribution in the Kara Sea are distinguished from those in Arctic Ocean PP models. Typically, the vertical chl *a* distribution is described as homogenous within the UML and is assumed to exponentially decrease downward (Arrigo et al., 2008; Pabi et al., 2008). A similar picture for post-bloom conditions was considered by Hill and Zimmerman (2010) in the Chukchi Sea. The homogenous chlorophyll distribution from the surface to the base of the euphotic zone was considered by these authors during the pre-bloom period. A constant chl *a* concentration throughout the depth of integration was used later for *in situ* and remotely sensed IPP estimations in the Arctic Ocean (Hill et al., 2013).

Unlike in the Kara Sea, the SCM is a common feature of the vertical water column structure in the Arctic Ocean (Brown et al., 2015;

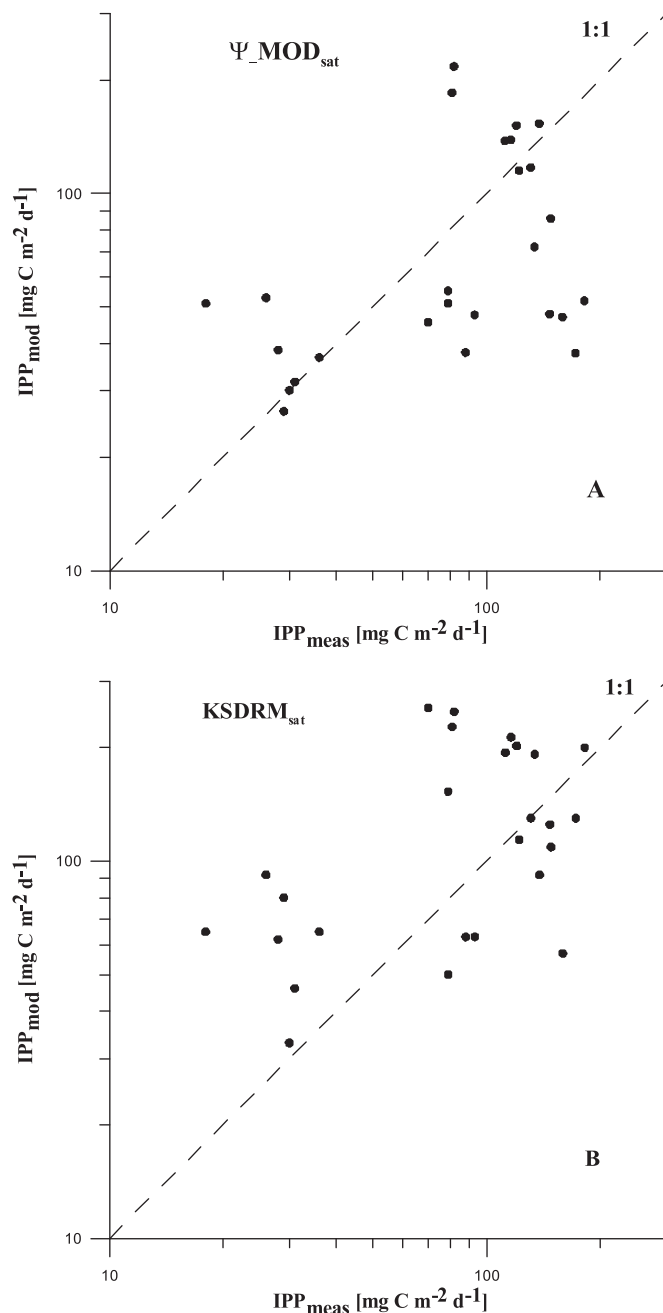


Fig. 11. Comparison of measured ( $IPP_{meas}$ ) and modelled ( $IPP_{mod}$ ) depth-integrated values of primary production that were calculated by using region-specific models with MODIS-Aqua data (chl  $a$ , PAR and  $K_d$ ) as input variables. A – depth-integrated  $\Psi_{MOD}$ ; B – depth-resolved KSDRM.

Cherkasheva et al., 2013; Martin et al., 2010, 2012). The SCM mainly forms during the post-bloom period, occasionally promoting a deep primary production maximum or smoothing PP profiles and essentially determining the annual IPP (Hill et al., 2013; Zhai et al., 2012). On the other hand, other authors noted that variations in the vertical chl  $a$  distribution have limited effects on AO IPP (Ardyna et al., 2013; Arrigo et al., 2011; Cherkasheva et al., 2013).

#### 4.2. Maximal water column chlorophyll specific carbon fixation rate ( $P_{opt}^b$ ) in the Kara Sea IPP models

The importance of accurate  $P_{opt}^b$  estimates in IPP models is widely known (Balch and Byrne, 1994; Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a), but difficulties exist in the determination of this parameter (Behrenfeld and

Falkowski, 1997b). Longhurst et al. (1995) proposed  $P_{opt}^b$  as a mean value for biogeochemical provinces to resolve this problem. Another approach is to establish a relationship between  $P_{opt}^b$  and an environmental factor that limits phytoplankton assimilation activity, e.g., the surface temperature (Megard, 1972; Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a).

In a previous study (Demidov et al., 2014), we attempted to determine the main abiotic factor that affects  $P_{opt}^b$  in the Kara Sea. We suggested that the incident PAR strongly influenced the chlorophyll-specific carbon fixation rate during the autumn. Thus, we concluded that  $I_0$  can be useful in the  $P_{opt}^b$  algorithm at the end of the vegetation season. Previously, Behrenfeld et al. (2002) revealed that the application of growth radiation as an input variable significantly improved photoacclimation models' predictive capacity compared to a temperature-dependent  $P_{opt}^b$  model, which constituted approximately 9% of the variance in the chlorophyll-specific carbon fixation rate. The irradiance-dependent model that was applied in our study constituted 27% of the variance in  $P_{opt}^b$ . The lack of a correlation between the measured and modelled values (Fig. 10b) provided additional evidence of the importance of  $P_{opt}^b$  algorithm enhancement.

Testing the influence of *in situ*  $P_{opt}^b$  as an input variable on model performance was also informative. Table 4 illustrates that the VGPM had optimal regression statistics (slope = 1.02;  $R^2 = 0.93$ ), the lowest regression error (RMSD = 0.27) and the highest model efficiency (ME = 0.66) when the measured  $P_{opt}^b$  was used as an input variable. Additionally, previous studies have shown that using the *in situ*  $P_{opt}^b$  in the VGPM increased the model performance. Ishizaka et al. (2007) verified the predictive capacity of the VGPM with the application of field observations in Sagami Bay (Japan). The use of the *in situ*  $P_{opt}^b$  in the model formula increased  $R^2$  from 0.43 to 0.48 compared to the original VGPM, where  $P_{opt}^b$  was calculated from the temperature dependence (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a). A better result was achieved by Isada et al. (2010) in the Oyashio region. Their application of the *in situ*  $P_{opt}^b$  in the VGPM improved the model's performance in terms of the coefficient of determination (an increase from 0.48 to 0.65). Additionally, using the *in situ*  $P_{opt}^b$  in the VGPM increased the model's predictive capacity in the Southern Ocean (Hirawake et al., 2011).

#### 4.3. Role of incident PAR as an input variable and photoadaptive parameters as model coefficients in the improvement of region-specific models

The chl  $a$  concentration is considered in the simplest models as the index of water column productivity (Eppley et al., 1985; Smith and Baker, 1978). In previous studies, chl  $a$  was used for IPP estimates in the Arctic Ocean (Hill and Zimmerman, 2010; Hill et al., 2013; Matrai et al., 2013), the Eurasian Arctic sector (Vetrov and Romankevich, 2011), the Southern Ocean (Puigcorb e et al., 2017) and the World Ocean (Vinogradov et al., 1996).

The relationship between chl  $a$  and PP was found to be a simple conversion factor without involving more complex parameterization with chlorophyll specific assimilation activity and irradiance. Hill et al. (2013) found a close relationship between the log-transformed chl  $a$  concentration and daily PP for all depths ( $R^2 = 0.66$ ) based on the ARCSS-PP dataset. These authors drew a conclusion regarding the possibility of predicting IPP without PAR and photoadaptive parameters as input variables based on these results. This conclusion was confirmed by the results of studies in the Beaufort Sea, where establishing a reliable relationship between the primary production and phytoplankton assimilation activity was not possible (Hill and Cota, 2005).

The results of our study demonstrate a minor correlation between chl  $a$  and PP at all depths ( $R^2 = 0.27$ ) (Fig. 6a; Table 4). Additionally, the regression analysis of  $Chl_0$  and  $IPP_{meas}$  revealed that only 12% of the variability in the Kara Sea IPP depended on the surface chl  $a$  (Fig. 6b; Table 4). Thus, the chl  $a$  concentration at the end of the vegetative



season was not an index of phytoplankton productivity within the photosynthetic layer. In the World Ocean,  $Chl_0$  defines < 50% of integrated primary production (Banse and Yong, 1990; Balch et al., 1992; Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997b). On the other hand, a strong correlation between  $IPP_{meas}$  and  $P_{opt}^b$  ( $R^2 = 0.64$ ) was established in the Kara Sea. Furthermore,  $IPP_{meas}$  and  $P_{opt}^b$  mainly depended on PAR (Demidov et al., 2014). In the other Arctic Seas, the role of light in PP also increases at the end of the growing season (Brugel et al., 2009; Hegseth, 1997; Platt et al., 1987; Yun et al., 2012). Thus, we expected that including  $P_{meas}^b$ ,  $\psi$  and  $I_0$  in the IPP algorithms would improve the model performance.

As seen in Table 4,  $\Psi\_MOD$  and KSDRM, which used  $P_{meas}^b$  and  $\psi$  as model coefficients and  $I_0$  as an input variable, predicted  $IPP_{meas}$  better than models that were solely based on chlorophyll concentration. This statement applies to both the regression statistics and performance indices. Interestingly, SCHL\_reg (a  $Chl_0$ -based model) had better predictive skill than ZCHL\_reg (a  $Chl_2$ -based model). Generally, the region-specific  $\Psi\_MOD$  and KSDRM algorithms performed approximately 1.5-fold better than ZCHL\_reg (RMSD = 0.29, 0.31 and 0.42, respectively).

The mean model biases suggest that ZCHL\_reg underestimated and SCHL\_reg overestimated the observed PP values (Table 4). Previously, Hill and Zimmerman (2010) concluded that Chl-based calculations underestimate depth-integrated PP in the Arctic Ocean. These authors applied a relationship between the chl  $a$  concentration and PP at all depths and in the ZCHL\_reg model. Thus, we can conclude that our results are consistent with those of Hill and Zimmerman. Additionally, our results are consistent with those of Carr et al. (2006). These authors noted that the simplest surface Chl-based model (Eppley et al., 1985) overestimated PP at high latitudes (in conditions of low PAR and  $T_0$ ).

#### 4.4. Advantages of the region-specific algorithms

Recent studies have reported the advantages of RSMs for AO IPP estimations (IOCCG, 2015; Y. Lee et al., 2015). Models that are developed with local databases operate with region-specific links between production characteristics and environmental factors. Theoretically, such models will perform better at local sites than algorithms that are created with datasets from other regions of the World Ocean.

We tested the predictive skill of some models that were developed for other Arctic Ocean regions (ArcPP) and the modified VGPM by using the Kara Sea dataset. The description of these models is given in the Supplementary material (S7). The results of the regression analysis and performance indices suggest that the VGPM with field  $P_{opt}^b$  data as an input variable demonstrated the best skill (Table 4; Fig. 7g) but overestimated the *in situ* IPP ( $B = 0.24$ ). Recently, the VGPM exhibited the best results in the Arctic Ocean (Petrenko et al., 2013) and in the Southern California Current System (Jacox et al., 2015; Kahru et al., 2009).

The difficulties in  $P_{opt}^b$  application are the inability to use this parameter directly as the simplest input variable during both *in situ* and remote observations. When the VGPM is used for IPP estimations,  $P_{opt}^b$  is calculated by using a polynomial equation that links  $P_{opt}^b$  and  $T_0$  (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997a). No correlation between  $P_{opt}^b$  and  $T_0$  was observed during the autumn in the Kara Sea as shown in the Supplementary material (S8). Following Hill and Zimmerman (2010), we used the relationship between  $P_{opt}^b$  and the incubation temperature to calculate  $IPP_{mod}$  (VGPM\_Arc) (S7). These calculations demonstrated a significant decrease in the model skill ( $R^2 = 0.60$ ; RMSD = 0.59; ME = -0.60). Another approach is the application of the average trophic level  $P_{opt}^b$  (Table 4) as an input variable (VGPM\_TR). This method improved the model skill ( $R^2 = 0.58$ ; RMSD = 0.37; ME = 0.37) compared to VGPM\_Arc (Table 4). Finally, we verified the Chl-based ArcPP model (Hill et al., 2013) by using the Kara Sea dataset and vertical chl  $a$  distribution (Fig. 5). This algorithm was the least applicable to the Kara Sea ( $R^2 = 0.47$ ; RMSD = 0.54; ME = -0.34).

The average RMSD of the RSM and NRSM were equal to  $0.34 \pm 0.05$  ( $N = 4$ ) and  $0.44 \pm 0.13$  ( $N = 4$ ), respectively and their average model biases (modulo values) were  $0.13 \pm 0.09$  ( $N = 4$ ) and  $0.35 \pm 0.12$  ( $N = 4$ ), respectively. The region-specific models (except ZCHL\_reg) underestimated or overestimated the *in situ* depth-integrated PP by a factor of 2. The NRSM overestimated the observed water column PP by a factor of 2.8. Thus, we can conclude that the region-specific algorithms performed better than the other models on average. However, we have to note that for all parameters the original VGPM showed highest or very similar skills than KSDRM and  $\Psi\_MOD$  which were the best for the RSM and can get reasonable results in the Case II water body of the Kara Sea but, as mentioned above, using of VGPM in most cases is limited due to difficulties in determining of  $P_{opt}^b$ . The other NRSMs that were considered in the present article and that were developed based on Case I waters datasets (Gordon and Morel, 1983; Jerlov, 1968) are not appropriate to assess the Kara Sea's IPP.

Notably, the developed Kara Sea region-specific models that were assessed by field experiments performed no better than algorithms that were tested in previous works (Carr et al., 2006; Friedrichs et al., 2009; Saba et al., 2010, 2011). These models were developed based on data from different regions of the World Ocean, were validated at different sites, and over- or underestimated the water column PP by a factor of 2. Nevertheless, the developed RSM in the Kara Sea performed better than the NRSM and demonstrated advantages during application.

#### 4.5. Influence of satellite-derived data input on the performance of the region-specific models

As mentioned above, the region-specific DIM ( $\Psi\_MOD$ ) and DRM (KSDRM) models performed equally when *in situ* data were used as input variables. Interestingly, the same conclusion could be reached when satellite-derived chl  $a$ , PAR and  $K_d$  were used for model validation (Table 5; Fig. 11). However, the application of satellite-derived data decreased the efficiency of both  $\Psi\_MOD_{sat}$  and  $KSDRM_{sat}$  in terms of the regression statistics, which is consistent with previous studies (Balch et al., 1992; Y. Lee et al., 2015).

Accurately determining the surface chlorophyll by remote sensing is critical to improve IPP estimation (e.g., Y. Lee et al., 2015). As seen in Fig. 12a, the region-specific algorithm overestimated the *in situ*  $Chl_0$  at values lower than  $0.6 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ . Nevertheless, this algorithm is currently optimal because of the large errors of standard MODIS models in optically complex waters (IOCCG, 2015). Our findings suggest that MODIS OC3M overestimated  $Chl_{meas}$  by a factor of 3–5 in the Kara Sea, which is dominated by CDOM absorption. However, a good correlation was established between satellite-derived and measured PAR and  $K_d$  (Fig. 12b, c).

## 5. Conclusions

In this study, we presented the results of the development and skill assessment of region-specific Kara Sea depth-integrated and depth-resolved IPP algorithms. The performance of the developed models was compared to those of models that were used to evaluate Arctic Ocean depth-integrated primary production. For the first time, IPP algorithms were designed for Arctic Ocean Case II waters. We attempted to resolve this problem because we believe that the IPP in Case I and Case II waters must be assessed separately by using region-specific algorithms. The results of comparison of RSM's and NRSM's predictive skills suggest that the former are more effective in the Kara Sea than the latter.

The irradiance-dependent  $P_{opt}^b$  model and vertical chl  $a$  profiles in waters of variable productivity were applied for KSDRM parameterization. Generally, the results of the comparison between the DIM and DRM algorithms suggested that the depth resolution did not affect the model's performance.

Thus, our results implied that the model skill was increased through (1) a regional approach and (2) involving photophysiological phyto-



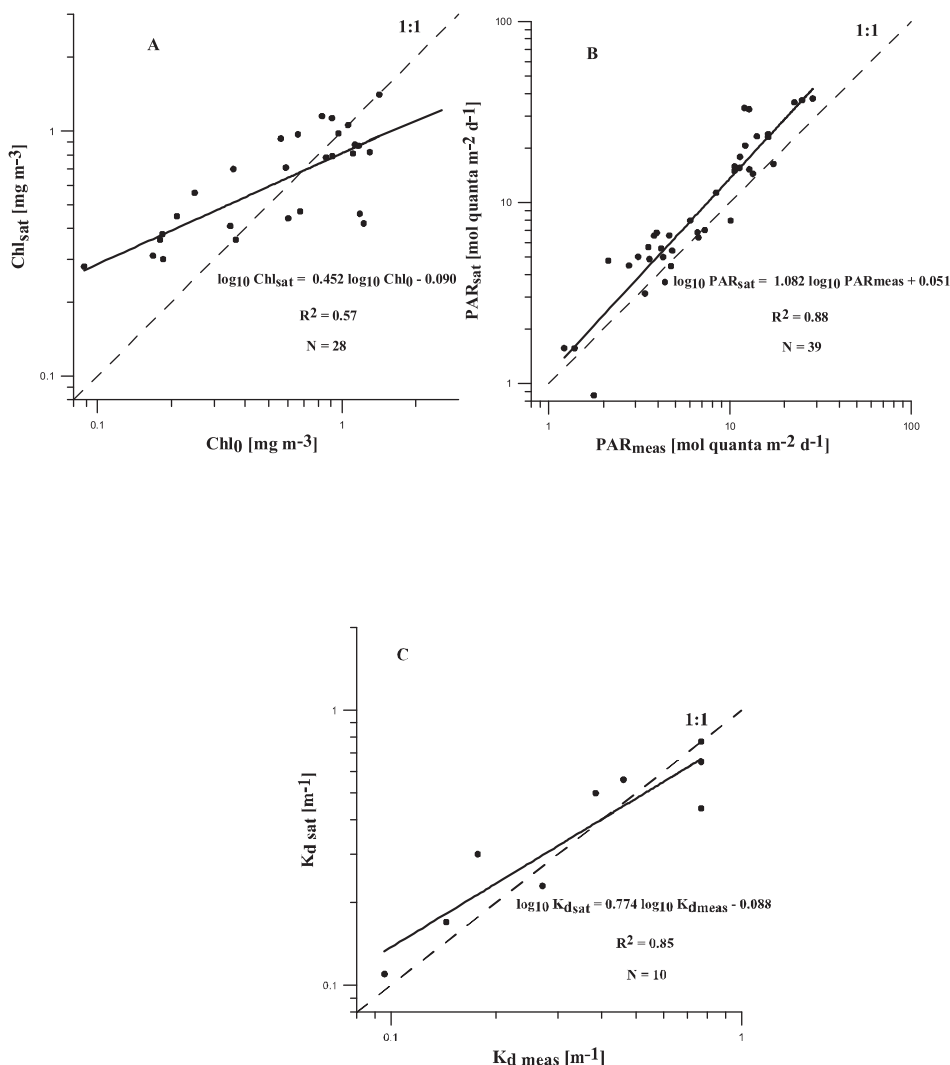


Fig. 12. Measured (*meas*) vs. satellite-derived (*sat*) values of surface chl *a* – (A); photosynthetically available radiation (PAR) – (B) and diffuse attenuation coefficient ( $K_d$ ) – (C).

plankton characteristics such as the water column daily assimilation activity, efficiency of photosynthesis and incident solar radiation rather than using the chl *a* concentration as a single input variable. Thus, we consider the  $\Psi_{MOD}$  and KSDR algorithms to be the best for predicting Kara Sea IPP.

Model validation with satellite-derived parameters showed that region-specific DIM  $\Psi_{MOD}$  and DRM KSDRM performed equally. Apparently,  $\Psi_{MOD}$  had advantages compared to the KSDRM because of its simplicity. Therefore, we recommend using  $\Psi_{MOD}$  for Kara Sea IPP estimation.

In conclusion, we should mention the limitations of using the developed models. The examined algorithms were exclusively designed based on an autumn dataset and should be applied to IPP calculations in other seasons with some caution. Nevertheless, we consider that the region-specific depth-integrated algorithm ( $\Psi_{MOD}$ ) currently can be implemented for IPP estimation in Arctic Ocean Case II waters by using satellite-derived datasets. Finally, increasing the *in situ* PP sample size and developing season-specific models is necessary to improve AO IPP evaluation.

## Acknowledgments

We are grateful to the GSFC NASA for the MODIS data. Thanks are given to Simakova U.V. (P.P. Shirshov Institute of Oceanology, Russian Academy of Sciences) for assistance during the work at sea in 2011 and

Stupnikova A.N. (P.P. Shirshov Institute of Oceanology, Russian Academy of Sciences) for the chlorophyll sample treatment during the work at sea in 2013 (125th cruise of R/V “Professor Shtokman”). We are also grateful to two anonymous reviewers for detailed reading, constructive criticism and useful recommendations. This work was supported by the Russian Foundation for Fundamental Research (project № 16-05-00050). Expeditionary observations and sample treatments were supported by the Russian Science Foundation (project № 14-50-00095, the scientific direction is “Ecosystems of strategically important marine regions of Russian Federation”). Development and application of satellite algorithms were supported by the Russian Science Foundation (project № 14-50-00095, the scientific direction is “Interaction of physical, biological and geological processes at coastal zone, shore waters and inland seas”).

## Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.seares.2017.05.004>.

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