Arctic in Rapid Transition: Priorities for the future of marine and coastal research in the Arctic

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Abstract :

Understanding and responding to the rapidly occurring environmental changes in the Arctic over the past few decades require new approaches in science. This includes improved collaborations within the scientific community but also enhanced dialogue between scientists and societal stakeholders, especially with Arctic communities. As a contribution to the Third International Conference on Arctic Research Planning (ICARPIII), the Arctic in Rapid Transition (ART) network held an international workshop in France, in October 2014, in order to discuss high-priority requirements for future Arctic marine and coastal research fields, including topics of oceanographic conditions, sea-ice monitoring, marine biodiversity, land-ocean interactions, and geological reconstructions, as well as law and governance issues. Participants of the workshop strongly agreed on the need to enhance interdisciplinarity in order to collect comprehensive knowledge about the modern and past Arctic Ocean's geo-ecological dynamics. Such

knowledge enables improved predictions of Arctic developments and provides the basis for elaborate decision-making on future actions under plausible environmental and climate scenarios in the high northern latitudes. Priority research sheets resulting from the workshop's discussions were distributed during the ICARPIII meetings in April 2015 in Japan, and are publicly available online.

Keywords : Early career scientists, Climate change, Interdisciplinary, New methodologies, Future research priorities

53 1. INTRODUCTION

54	The Arctic Ocean is currently responding to the significant global atmospheric warming
55	by dramatic pan-Arctic sea-ice loss (Steele et al., 2008; Serreze et al., 2009; Polyakov et al.,
56	2010, Meier et al., 2014). Strong reduction in areal ice coverage (ca. 16% per decade) is
57	accompanied by a decrease in winter sea-ice thickness by nearly 50% over the 1980-2008
58	period, shifting from a multi-year to a largely seasonal and much thinner ice cover (Kwok &
59	Rothrock, 2009; Comiso, 2012; Parkinson & Comiso, 2013). Resultant increase of open water
60	leads to further oceanic uptake of atmospheric heat which contributes to amplified warming
61	(Kellogg, 1975; Parkinson & Comiso, 2013). Thawing permafrost and increasing coastal
62	erosion mobilize substantial amounts of organic matter, which could be converted into
63	greenhouse gases thereby enhancing global warming (Schuur et al., 2015). Some projections
64	suggest that the Arctic Ocean may become seasonally ice-free as early as 2040 (Wang &
65	Overland, 2009). As a consequence, destinational and trans-Arctic maritime transportation
66	opportunities allowing for easier offshore explorations and exploitation of living and non-
67	living resources such as natural oil and gas (e.g., Gautier et al., 2009; Dodds, 2010;
68	Stephenson et al., 2011) will induce high risks for further anthropogenic harmful impacts on
69	the Arctic Ocean's vulnerable natural ecosystem. Therefore, a modern holistic scientific
70	approach is needed to understand the Arctic system: how it worked in the past, how it looks
71	today, how it is changing, and what it will be like in the future. Providing reliable projections
72	of future consequences is essential for protection-oriented operation and sustainable use of
73	natural resources by all Arctic states, but also by stakeholders, policy makers and land-use
74	managers from beyond the Arctic region, and not least Arctic inhabitants including
75	indigenous communities.

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As an international, integrative and multidisciplinary network of early career scientists (ECS) working in the Arctic, the Arctic in Rapid Transition (ART;

78 https://sites.google.com/a/alaska.edu/arctic-in-rapid-transition/) initiative has succeeded in 79 triggering a discussion on how such an approach in Arctic sciences may look like hereby 80 integrating various interdisciplinary concepts and processes (Figure 1). ART was founded in 81 2009 in order to establish a long-term pan-Arctic research network for ECS who study the 82 changes and feedbacks among all physical and biogeochemical components of the Arctic 83 Ocean and their ultimate impacts on biological productivity (Frey et al., 2010; Wegner et al., 84 2011; Forest et al., 2013; Kędra et al., 2015b). In 2013, ART became an official network of 85 the International Arctic Science Committee (IASC). The workshop Integrating spatial and 86 temporal scales in the changing Arctic System: towards future research priorities (ISTAS; 87 http://istas.sciencesconf.org/) jointly organized by ART, the Association of Polar Early Career 88 Scientists (APECS; http://www.apecs.is/), and the European Institute for Marine Studies 89 (IUEM; http://www-iuem.univ-brest.fr) took place 21-24 October 2014 at the IUEM in 90 Plouzané, France. Scientists from 13 different countries representing multiple fields of Arctic 91 research and various career stages met in order to discuss priorities of future Arctic research 92 in parallel and plenary sessions. Seven documents were produced following the ISTAS 93 discussion, identifying future Arctic research directions in specifically Arctic Oceanography, 94 Physical Processes in Sea Ice, Arctic Land-Ocean Interactions, Arctic Biodiversity, 95 Paleoceanographic Time Series from the Arctic Ocean, Proxy Calibration and Validation, and as a new component for the ART network Law in the Arctic. These documents were a 96 97 contribution to the Third International Conference on Arctic Research Planning (ICARP III) 98 that took place in Toyama, Japan in April 2015.

In this paper, we introduce future Arctic research priorities identified during the second
 ART workshop ISTAS by ECS - the upcoming generation in Arctic research. After a note on
 methods, future research priorities structured along the lines of the ART priority sheets

addressing different Arctic research fields are discussed. The paper concludes with a
discussion of ideas as to what early career researchers need from, but more importantly what
they can offer to, the Arctic scientific community in terms of addressing the challenges ahead
for Arctic research. With this note, we aim for an enhanced dialogue between scientists but
also for discussions beyond the research realm, such as promoted through ICARP and related
meetings, involving various external parties concerned with Arctic-related issues.

108

109 **2. METHODS**

110 Following the philosophy of ART and APECS, the ISTAS workshop emphasized the 111 active involvement and training of the next generation of Arctic scientists that will become 112 future leaders in Arctic research within the next decades. The main objective of this 113 interdisciplinary and international workshop was to congregate Arctic scientists from different 114 areas of expertise and various career stages in order to discuss future research priorities for 115 the Arctic Ocean. In total, 76 participants including 24 graduate students, 19 post-docs and 33 116 senior scientists from 13 countries (France, Russia, USA, Canada, Finland, Sweden, Spain, 117 Germany, Poland, Norway, United Kingdom, China, and Estonia) attended the workshop 118 representing various disciplines of Arctic sciences including biological and physical 119 oceanography, sea ice, marine biodiversity, land-ocean interactions, paleo-reconstruction and 120 biological archives, as well as law and economics (Figure 2).

121 The workshop was a mix of open plenary lectures providing overviews within different 122 fields of natural as well as social sciences, and parallel sessions for presentations of the 123 participant's current research. The natural variability in Arctic marine geo-ecosystems was 124 reviewed over various spatial and temporal scales in order to better understand the changing 125 Arctic marine system as a whole. Through plenary lectures open to the public, invited 126 speakers provided overviews of their respective field of research, presenting latest findings,

challenges, and points of view on future Arctic research directions. A plenary presentation
 about Arctic sustainability and resources followed by a discussion about multidisciplinarity
 provided insights into inter- and transdisciplinary research approaches with the aim of
 purposefully integrating Arctic natural and social sciences.

The material from all the presentations fed into discussions on future Arctic research priorities during the second half of the workshop. The final outcome of ISTAS was a series of short documents that highlight future research priorities for Arctic sciences including marine, cryosphere, atmosphere, terrestrial, and socio-economic research fields. These documents were termed *Priority Sheets*.

136 Post-workshop activities included several steps such as (i) the synthesis and writing of 137 priority sheets by topical groups which were also open for additional experts to join, (ii) post-138 workshop feedbacks by topical peers, invited specialists, and the ART Advisory Board, (iii) 139 synthesis of input provided by the ART Executive Committee, and (iv) feedback by the wider 140 scientific community after finalization of the priority sheets. In April 2015, the ART future 141 research priorities were first presented and distributed during the ART session Arctic in Rapid 142 Transition - future research directions from the perspective of early career scientists (session 143 chair: Makoto Sampei) at the Arctic Science Summit Week 2015 (ASSW 2015) in Toyama, 144 Japan. Part of the ASSW 2015 were the Fourth International Symposium on the Arctic 145 Research (ISAR-4) and the Third International Conference on the Arctic Research Planning 146 (ICARP III). The venue of ASSW 2015 thus provided the appropriate platform to further 147 disseminate and discuss the priority sheets during informal meetings, poster sessions and 148 social gatherings (Majaneva et al., 2015a; Morata et al., 2015; Wegner et al., 2015b). The 149 priority sheets were published online (https://sites.google.com/a/alaska.edu/arctic-in-rapid-150 transition/background-information/publications/art-priority-sheets) and archived at the 151 German National Library of Science and Technology (http://www.tib-hannover.de/en/).

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153 **3. FUTURE RESEARCH PRIORITIES**

Below, we introduce future Arctic research priorities as identified by participants duringthe ISTAS workshop.

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157 3.1. From Microphysics to Large-Scale Dynamics: Sea ice in the Arctic Ocean

158 While the recent retreat of Arctic sea ice is well documented (Meier et al., 2014), there 159 are still significant knowledge gaps concerning the understanding of internal processes of sea 160 ice and its drivers of change leading to substantial uncertainties also in long-term climate 161 model projections and seasonal forecasting (Tietsche et al., 2014; Serreze and Stroeve, 2015). 162 To tackle these uncertainties, a synergy between numerical and observational studies of the 163 complex ocean-ice-atmosphere-biosphere system on varying spatial and temporal scales is 164 crucial (Figure 2). Improving the reliability of projections of Arctic sea ice is a major priority 165 for the Arctic research community due to the socio-economic relevance of sea ice for the 166 living conditions of Arctic inhabitants, and especially indigenous peoples, its relevance for 167 marine trade, tourism, and exploration of marine resources, and not the least for its role in the 168 Arctic environmental system (Meier et al., 2014). 169 Major gaps and needs in current Arctic sea-ice physics research identified by the 170 participants of the ART ISTAS workshop (Renner et al., 2015) include 171 • Improved representation of sea ice in global climate models and its impact on ocean-172 ice-atmosphere interactions by highly resolved sea-ice thickness and snow depths 173 measurements on a pan-Arctic scale.

Appropriate tools and techniques are required for up- and downscaling of numerical
 model output, in-situ and remotely sensed observations. Experience from other
 disciplines should be utilised to develop statistical tools and Arctic sea ice reanalyses.

- 177 The surface state and properties of sea ice including the snow cover are poorly 178 documented and understood. New and improved techniques are needed for in situ and 179 remote observations as well as advanced model parameterisations. 180 Spatio-temporal uncertainties and biases in data products from model outputs, remote-181 sensing products, and observational records should be quantified. It is vital to agree on 182 standardized metrics and procedures for data collection and error assessments. 183 Data recovery, building of new time-series data streams, and continuation of current 184 time-series measurements, in particular for essential sea ice variables should be 185 prioritized. Data should be made openly accessible. 186 • Reassess and evaluate established but old conceptual models of Arctic sea ice in light 187 of new knowledge and developments. This requires funding for review work and increased collaborations between modellers and observationalists. 188
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190 **3.2.** Holistic Arctic Oceanography: Atmosphere-ocean exchange, Biogeochemistry, and

191 Physics

192 The very shallow continental shelves (0-200 m water depth) account for approximately 193 half of the Arctic Ocean's total area, with the central Arctic extending to over 5500 m in 194 depth. Its vast continental shelf areas are heavily influenced by surrounding landmasses 195 through river run-off and coastal erosion (Dittmar and Kattner, 2003, Stein, 2008). As a main 196 area of deepwater formation, the Arctic is one of the major "engines" of global ocean 197 circulation (Aagaard et al., 1991). Due to large freshwater inputs and sea ice, it is also 198 strongly stratified (Rudels et al., 1996). The Arctic Ocean's complex oceanographic 199 configuration is tightly linked to the atmosphere, the land, and the cryosphere (Figure 2). The 200 physical dynamics not only drive important climate and global circulation features but also 201 control biogeochemical cycles and ecosystem dynamics. The current and forecasted changes 202 in Arctic sea-ice thickness and distribution, air and water temperatures, and water column

203	stability result in measurable shifts in the properties and functioning of the ocean and its
204	ecosystems. These include the exchange of heat and gases across the atmosphere-ocean
205	interface, wind-driven circulation and mixing regimes, light and nutrient availability for
206	primary production, food web dynamics, and export of material to the deep ocean (Findlay et
207	al., 2015b; Katlein et al., 2015). In anticipation of these changes, extending our knowledge of
208	Arctic oceanography and these complex changes has never been more urgent. Over the last
209	decades there have been significant developments in Arctic oceanographic research, yet we
210	still lack an in-depth understanding around some of the key environmental processes at
211	varying spatial and temporal scales. Combining new technologies (i.e., autonomous
212	platforms, satellites, evolving biological methods, isotope technologies, biomarkers and
213	modelling), and bringing together oceanographic sub-disciplines, will be crucial to
214	successfully understanding the Arctic Ocean as a coupled environmental system, and how it
215	should be managed in the future.
216	In order to link plans for future societal use of the Arctic Ocean (e.g., for shipping and
217	exploitation of living and non-living marine resources) with climate change, ecosystem and
218	biogeochemical studies, we need to develop an interdisciplinary approach (Findlay et al.,
219	2015a). This includes increasing our understanding of:
220	• The cycling of carbon and nutrients, including the terrestrial input and its role in ocean
221	chemistry. Internal cycling (i.e., of primary production, export and carbon sequestration)
222	as well as connections to the benthos and how microbes impact on these cycles need to be
223	investigated.
224	• The ecosystem functioning, including how energy is transferred through trophic levels.
225	• The freshwater, including quantifying the freshwater budget and its potential to changing
226	the oceanic chemical composition (i.e., salinity, alkalinity and pH). We need to
227	understand how freshwater impacts the stability of the halocline and nutricline.

The forming mechanisms, dynamics, and variability of the cold halocline, the exchange
 processes between the halocline and surrounding water masses, and the degree of
 influence by the halocline on the sea-ice characteristics and vertical exchanges of water
 properties and matter.

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233 3.3. Linked through Permafrost: Land-Ocean Interactions in the Arctic

234 Most Arctic coasts are permafrost coasts. The permanently frozen ground extends 235 below sea level on the shallow Arctic shelves as submarine permafrost. There is evidence in 236 northern Alaska and the Laptev Sea area for recent acceleration in the rate of coastal erosion 237 (e.g., Günther et al., 2015) related in parts to more open water and higher wave energy due to 238 reduced sea-ice coverage, rising sea level, and more rapid thermal abrasion along coasts with 239 high volumes of ground ice. Nearshore zones are transient zones for terrigenous matter, which 240 arrives via coastal erosion, river discharge, and sea ice (e.g., Forbes, 2011). Recent flux 241 estimates of sediment and organic carbon from coastal erosion into the Arctic Ocean are around 430 Tg (Tg = 10^{12} gram) sediment per year and 4.9-14.0 Tg organic carbon per year 242 243 (Wegner et al., 2015a). Yet, the fate of terrestrial material, its contribution to greenhouse gas 244 emissions and ocean acidification and impact on nearshore ecosystems is poorly understood. 245 Currently, the climate debate outshines the many lines of consequences that accelerating 246 coastal erosion bear to society with immediate impact on coastal infrastructure and cultural 247 heritage.

Potential impacts of increasing erosion on primary production need to be identified.
This is important not only to comprehensively assess Arctic carbon and nutrient cycles but
also to secure food for Arctic indigenous coastal communities (Fritz et al., 2015b). To achieve
a holistic understanding of Arctic permafrost land-ocean interactions in future
interdisciplinary research we recommend to:

253 • Address past, modern and future dynamics of Arctic coastal erosion, and the related 254 biogeochemical fluxes and implications for climate change by developing conceptual 255 models for erosion on geological timescales and empirical models for future scenarios. 256 Develop an understanding of submarine permafrost dynamics on Arctic continental 257 shelves regarding aggradation and degradation. 258 Track the linkages between the Arctic Ocean and the terrestrial hydrological cycle 259 with special emphasis on lateral water and material fluxes. 260 • Quantify the impacts of environmental change on Arctic local communities, on 261 ecosystem services, and socioeconomic dynamics.

262

263 3.4. Arctic Marine Biodiversity: from Individuals to Pan-Arctic

264 The disproportionally fast warming of the Arctic together with massive reduction of sea 265 ice thickness and extent (Wang & Overland 2009; Duarte et al. 2012; Parkinson and Comiso 266 2013) will affect all levels of marine biodiversity from taxonomic and genetic to functional, 267 physiological and community diversity (Moline et al. 2008; Cheung et al. 2009; Bluhm et al. 268 2011; Philippart et al. 2011). Shifts in biodiversity can directly and indirectly change species 269 interactions and ecosystem processes resulting in large cascading changes with implications 270 for the entire Arctic ecosystem (Slagstad et al. 2011; Wassman et al. 2011; Ji & Varpe 2013; 271 Post et al. 2013; Kedra et al. 2015a) and thus for ecosystem services (e.g., food production in 272 the form of fisheries but also the cultural heritage of hunting practices as well as tourism). As current observations and predictions suggest an ice-free Arctic summer likely to occur within 273 274 the next few decades (Cavalieri & Parkinson 2012) possible effects of Arctic biodiversity are 275 of critical concern.

Projected increasing human presence in a changing Arctic requires good knowledge of
marine biodiversity on multiple temporal scales, ranging from seasonal and interannual to
decadal; and spatial scales, ranging from local through regional to pan-Arctic. Also the

279	integration and connections between these various scales is important taking into
280	consideration all biological levels varying from genetics to organisms and populations.
281	Importantly, we need to elaborate the resilience, plasticity, and adaptation capacity of Arctic
282	marine species and the response of the (changing) Arctic biodiversity to multiple and
283	cumulative pressures (Majaneva et al., 2015b). To achieve this, we suggest to:
284	• Increase biodiversity knowledge on spatial scales, especially in deep sea and sympagic
285	ecosystems and on a pan-Arctic scale.
286	• Expand biodiversity knowledge on temporal scales, with special focus on the
287	dark/winter season and building multidecadal time series.
288	• Improve biodiversity knowledge on microbial communities and benthic ecosystems
289	including molecular approaches.
290	• Integrate functional and physiological diversity with taxonomic and genetic diversity
291	regarding biological traits as well as cold and dark adaptation.
292	• Develop indicators for response(s) to environmental pressures and changes.
293	
294	3.5. Looking Back: Paleo-Oceanographic Time Series from Arctic Sediments
295	Marine sediment cores hold essential environmental information beyond the period of
296	historical and observational data acquisition. Reconstructing past climatic and oceanographic

297 changes in the Arctic Ocean significantly contributes to our understanding of long-term

298 feedback mechanisms and their relationships to global environmental changes. In particular,

299 Arctic climate excursions during the present (Holocene) and earlier interglacials are crucial

300 references for recent and future climate changes (Kinnard et al., 2011). Comparatively poorly

- 301 constrained age models of sediment cores obtained from the Arctic Ocean's abyssal region
- 302 and a lack of temporal resolution in slowly deposited sediments are still fundamental
- 303 challenges in Arctic marine geology (Backman et al., 2004). Overcoming these obstacles will
- 304 be a key research priority in the near future, and can be met by the acquisition of sediment

records from high sedimentation areas, marginal settings, and through the application of
advanced seafloor drilling technologies (O'Regan et al., 2015). Future geological approaches
in the Arctic Ocean may thus focus on:

- An improved chronological control of Arctic sedimentary records in order to correlate
 geological features of the Arctic Ocean to the global ocean system.
- High-resolution sedimentary records retrieved from Arctic shelves and margins.
- Seeking analogues in Arctic geologic history to present and future climate warming.
- The integration of marine and terrestrial datasets to reconstruct past land-ocean
- 313 linkages (see 3.3).
- Acoustic mapping of seabed and shallow sub-seabed combined with chronological and
 proxy data.
- The utilization of ground-truthing technologies.
- 317

318 3.6. Geological Climate Indicators: 'Ground-truthing' Proxies with Modern Data

319 A further challenge in marine geology is the understanding and calibration of climate 320 indicators to reliably reconstruct environmental parameters from Arctic Ocean sediments. 321 Indirect or proxy climate indicators ('proxies') provide knowledge on environmental 322 conditions in the past Arctic Ocean (e.g., Müller et al., 2009; Stein et al., 2012; de Vernal et 323 al., 2013). They include fossilized benthic or planktic organisms, preserved biomarkers, 324 organic matter, but also lithic particles transported either by sea ice, glacial ice, or ocean 325 currents. 'Ground-truthing' proxies with modern data, e.g., comparing the distribution and 326 conditions of microfossils in relation to environmental factors is crucial for reconstructions of 327 past environmental conditions from sediment cores such as sea surface temperatures and 328 salinity or sea-ice cover (e.g., Husum and Hald, 2012; Ho et al., 2014; Pados and Spielhagen, 329 2014). Uncertainties often arise from imperfect knowledge of the detailed response of a proxy 330 to its environment. Novel proxies but also existing proxy calibrations are not yet sufficiently

331	elaborated in the Arctic Ocean due to temporal and/or spatial biases. Improved proxy-to-
332	environment calibrations are thus needed to understand how different aspects of the Arctic
333	changed in the past, and will potentially change in the future (Werner et al., 2015). Close
334	collaboration between geoscientists, oceanographers, biologists, and modellers is needed in
335	order to focus on key aspects of proxy calibration studies in the Arctic Ocean (Figure 1).
336	These include:
337	• The evaluation and calibration of existing proxies for a quantitative assessment of past
338	environmental conditions (e.g., temperature, salinity, sea ice).
339	• The development of novel proxies (e.g., for stratification, ocean acidification) by
340	adopting reliable methods to track present-day changes in water mass properties.
341	• The assessment of seasonal cycles in Arctic Ocean productivity and nutrient cycling to
342	distinguish between annual and seasonal signals of microfossil records.
343	• The quantitative assessment of organic and inorganic matter fluxes to the sea floor,
344	and potential impact of sea ice and ocean currents on particle transport and
345	accumulation.
346	
347	3.7. Arctic Law and Governance
348	Over the last years, research in Arctic law and governance has seen a large array of
349	studies (for an overview see Arctic Governance Project, http://www.arcticgovernance.org),
350	which highlights the increasing importance of the Arctic against the background of the
351	significant climatic and environmental changes occurring in the North. Arctic law and
352	governance has a crucial role in making sense of the natural processes and their rapid changes
353	for subsequent societal implications, encompassing social, cultural, political and economic
354	processes and developments. Law and governance are hereby not only means to study and

- describe such processes and developments but also actively shape, influence and decide what

we make of the changing Arctic climate and environment for societies within and outside theArctic region.

358 Academic studies in Arctic law and governance have been focusing on a variety of 359 topics over the last few years including, amongst others:

360

• Institutions, regimes and forums dealing with Arctic governance on various scales,

- Gaps in Arctic regulations and necessary reforms (e.g., Koivurova and Molenaar,
 2010),
- Questions of sovereignty and sovereign rights, e.g. concerning extended continental
 shelves in the Arctic Ocean especially among the five Arctic states who border the
 Arctic Ocean (e.g., Elferink et al., 2001), and
- Questions of cooperation and conflict (e.g., Keil, 2014, 2015) as well as security
 questions, ranging from traditional, military issues of security to a more
 comprehensive understanding of security including human and environmental
 security (e.g., Young, 2011).

While these approaches provide highly relevant inputs to our understanding of Arctic law and governance processes, systems, and actors, a lot remains to be done in terms of topics we need to address and how we are going about studying, understanding and making sense of those topics mentioned above (Beurier et al., 2015; Keil, 2016 This could be done by:

Systematic discussion about the meaning of who and what qualifies as "Arctic" or
 "non-Arctic" against the background of the region's history and the current process of
 globalization. We need studies on different scales of governance and how these
 interact to provide a regional-sensitive outlook taking into account the social, political,
 economic, environmental, and climatic circumstances in different Arctic regions,
 A transdisciplinary understanding of Arctic law and governance with regard to an

380 increasing number of actors in Arctic governance,

A better understanding of the Arctic as a case in the sense of detecting larger law and
 governance processes and developments,

Implementation of laws and regulations, including connected legal and political
 difficulties and challenges. This should focus on areas of high relevance given
 increasing human activities in the region, including environmental pollution in the
 Arctic, threats to Arctic biodiversity, and impacts from new or increasing activities
 such as shipping and resource development. This needs to include the consideration of
 existing institutions but also the usefulness and viability of new forms of governance
 such as a *Regional Sea Convention* for the Arctic.

390

391 4. DISCUSSION

392 Drawing upon the multiple research needs as outlined above, it becomes clear that 393 Arctic research faces many challenges and requires scientists, in addition to pure scientific 394 efforts, to open up to many different cross-disciplinary activities. For reaching a full-scale 395 understanding of the Arctic, scientists need to increase their utilization of collaborative 396 methods and activities which combine the classical, but often logistically challenging, field 397 experiments with autonomous efforts (e.g., glider data) and large-scale products (e.g., remote 398 sensing data and numerical models). Also, less traditional ways in communication and interaction (e.g., social networks) as well as interrelations with coastal communities are 399 400 needed to cover all aspects and concerns about the change of the Arctic.

401 However, the major precondition to enable a future holistic understanding of Arctic
402 systems is to ensure long-term and stable funding for the next generation of Arctic scientists
403 (see chapter 4.2.).

404

405 4.1. Cooperation and Communication across Disciplines

406 Appropriately addressing these many interactive research needs requires close 407 communication and collaboration amongst the members of the international scientific 408 community, but also outreaching activities involving societal stakeholders and representatives 409 of various groups with Arctic-related interests. State-of-the-art, borderless and year-round 410 access to both marine and terrestrial study areas, research stations and vessels as well as 411 deployment of novel technologies and infrastructures are key prerequisites to allow for providing answers to research questions such as those outlined. To all these activities, the 412 413 Arctic coastal communities need to be included. Local stress in the communities potentially 414 caused by changes in sea ice, resource development and increasing ship traffic may also limit 415 scientific activities around coastal communities e.g., during the traditional hunt period. 416 Cross-discipline collaborations involving various research fields is challenging also 417 within the scientific community. In order to conduct interdisciplinary collaborations we need 418 to understand at least the basics of the respective other disciplines, including the main 419 principles and questions each discipline addresses and which uncertainties and challenges 420 researchers in this discipline are confronted with. Endowed with such a basic understanding, 421 we will be able to identify possible synergies across our fields and opportunities for

422 complementing each other's work (Figure 1).

423 Communication but also willingness to delve into completely foreign areas is thus key 424 for interdisciplinary work to succeed, especially since methodologies, data and research 425 results are often not easily comparable. As one example, while some research fields aim more 426 towards generating specific results on dedicated temporal and spatial scales, others aim more 427 towards the generalizing their findings. Integrating these two very different approaches can be 428 difficult but a holistic understanding of Arctic systems needs both perspectives. Efforts 429 needed here include the translation of specialized research outcomes into more general debates of Arctic studies. In other words, specific case studies need to be embedded into the 430 431 broader scope that they are a part of. This would provide a fruitful basis for discussion among

researchers of various disciplines. In short, cross-discipline collaboration requires scientists to
put their specific results into a larger perspective in order to trigger communication amongst
different groups.

435 The formation of interdisciplinary master programs during the last few decades, in parallel to an increasing societal awareness of cross-disciplinarity in previously rather 436 437 conservatively-taught, descriptive science courses (e.g., geography, physics, chemistry), 438 indicates that sciences have opened to more interdisciplinary viewpoints (e.g., Newell, 2001). 439 Having benefited from this new perception in sciences at university level, the upcoming 440 generation of Arctic scientists is most aware of interdependencies between all different parts 441 of the complex Arctic system including natural as well as socio-economic processes. 442 Integrated studies of coupled human and natural systems have elucidated new and complex 443 patterns that otherwise would have not been identified (Liu et al., 2007). Allowing ECS to 444 collaborate early with other researchers and help forming interdisciplinary pathways by 445 organizations such as IASC, APECS, and ART enables a rapid transfer of early career 446 experience into established circles of Arctic research.

447 Fieldwork and other research activities jointly carried out by multidisciplinary groups 448 are another important aspect of stronger collaboration and communication. In order to provide 449 satisfying conditions to each working group, different needs have to be identified to provide 450 individual sampling and data monitoring after standardized protocols. Well-organized 451 logistics and a thought-through chronological protocol of individual fieldwork procedures 452 need to be determined to avoid interferences between the groups. That said, interdisciplinary 453 work always requires high flexibility from all different parties and a strong willingness to 454 compromise in order to reach common goals of the joint research program. As an example of 455 collaboration and communication through fieldwork the ART-initiated expedition 456 TRANSSIZ is briefly described in section 4.1.1.

457

4.1.1. The TRANSSIZ Cruise – Example for Interdisciplinary Research in the Arctic 458 459 Ocean

460 The RV Polarstern expedition PS92, Transitions in the Arctic Seasonal Sea Ice Zone 461 (TRANSSIZ) was planned and organized by the ART network as an interdisciplinary field campaign of international early career scientists with various research backgrounds. The 462 463 cruise took place from 19 May to 28 June 2015 (Figure 3) and involved a young and 464 interdisciplinary team of 51 scientists from 11 countries (Peeken, 2016). 465 Following the research questions outlined in the ART Science Plan (Wegner et al., 466 2010) and the key points of Arctic research identified in the ART priority sheets (see chapter 467 3), the TRANSSIZ cruise aimed at conducting ecological and biogeochemical early-spring 468 process studies within the marginal ice zone close to the major gateway of Atlantic Water 469 entering the Arctic Ocean. Key to the program were process studies carried out during eight 470 sea-ice stations between 81° 11' N, 19° 8' E and 81° 54' N, 9° 44' E (for details see Peeken, 471 2016). By comparing data from the Barents Sea shelf across the shelf break and into the deep 472 basin, results from the TRANSSIZ cruise will allow for an improved understanding of the 473 ecosystem functioning and biogeochemical cycles during the transition from spring to 474 summer, and how it compares to geological time scales.

475

476 4.2. Transdisciplinary Efforts

477 Next to stronger collaboration within the scientific community, researchers have to 478 engage more strongly in transdisciplinary efforts, i.e., in enabling and facilitating dialogues 479 about scientific processes and findings with the larger society but also with coastal 480 communities. Trandisciplinarity differs from interdisciplinarity in the sense that it reaches out 481 to stakeholders beyond academia, and aims to engage them throughout the research process. 482 This is crucial in order to ensure the translation of scientific findings into social processes like 483 political and individual decision-making, law-making etc., but also to ensure societal

484 legitimacy of scientific work, which requires societal actors to understand and to feel included 485 and concerned by researchers' efforts. This also includes improving the public's general 486 knowledge about e.g., globally relevant teleconnections from the Arctic such as sea-level rise 487 that may eventually affect their own personal living conditions. In this context, Arctic 488 indigenous peoples playing a particular role due to their special legal rights (Fritz et al., 489 2015a; Larsen & Fondahl, 2015) have to be seriously involved. Finally, scientists increasingly 490 view themselves as part of the stakeholder world interested in, affected by and affecting 491 Arctic research. Not least, the scientific community is part and parcel of societal processes by 492 co-deciding what will be studied in the first place and which aspects are highlighted or omitted. 493

494 While efforts have been made to communicate between science, politics and society 495 through scientific advisory bodies such as the European Polar Board, the Arctic Council, or 496 the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, these communication lines are often 497 hampered by the relative closeness of these groups. Also limited resources in terms of money, 498 time and human resources in order to participate in such exchange and communication efforts 499 play a crucial role, not least among Arctic indigenous peoples. Also, ECS are only very rarely 500 represented in meetings where recommendations to stakeholders and decision-makers are 501 discussed.

502 However, ECS have been strongly involved with reaching out to the general public 503 since the International Polar Year 2007–2008 (Salmon et al., 2011). The ICARP III process 504 provided an opportunity especially also for ECS to get actively involved in transdisciplinary 505 efforts to communicate the global importance of the Arctic to policy-makers and the broader 506 public (Fritz et al., 2015a). The ART network has thus produced the priority sheets aiming at 507 actively contributing to ICARP III related consulting and decision-making processes from an 508 early career perspective (IASC, 2016). As an example, the priority sheets were used in the 509 discussion and formation of the recent UK Natural Environment Research Council call:

510 Changing Arctic Ocean: Implications for marine biology & biogeochemistry. The scoping 511 group used the documents to provide evidence to the UK Science and Innovation Strategy 512 Board to persuade them to fund Arctic Ocean research (David Thomas, chair of scoping 513 group, pers. comm.) and they were also cited in the call Announcement of Opportunity 514 (http://www.nerc.ac.uk/research/funded/programmes/arcticocean/news/ao-outline/ao/). 515 Involvement of ECS as well as societal actors early on in the research process will 516 ensure the success of transdisciplinary efforts for addressing the various Arctic research tasks 517 as outlined above and to ensure their positive influence on long-term Arctic sustainable 518 development (Chabay et al., under review).

519

520 4.3. Request for Money, Mentors, and Material

521 As ECS we need the support from the existing Arctic science community to profit from 522 their resources and experience. This especially includes ensuring stable career prospects by 523 providing a more consistent funding base to support ECS activities. This involves financial 524 support for long-term contracts but also mentoring and advising with regard to both scientific 525 expertise and career management (see also Majaneva et al., in review, this issue), the latter 526 potentially preparing ECS also for alternative pathways e.g., in governmental and private 527 sectors. Funding systems also need to adapt to the new requirements of Arctic research as 528 outlined above, i.e., to provide for incentives and structures to conduct inter- and 529 transdisciplinary research. Given the limited experience with difficulties of planning and conducting large-scale research projects, funding programmes need to adjust for example in 530 531 terms of longer funding periods, better opportunities for follow-up funding, better 532 coordination between national funding agencies to facilitate cross-border projects, and 533 reducing administrative burdens to allow (especially early career) researchers to invest the 534 majority of their time and resources into research.

535 Further, funding programs need to provide resources to research projects, which not 536 necessarily solely focus on the collection of new data, but on combining and making new 537 sense of existing data sources but from an interdisciplinary perspective. Institutes and funding 538 agencies are still mostly organized along disciplinary lines. It is thus often difficult to raise 539 funds for e.g., a physicist and a biologist from the same funding source. Finally, while many 540 funding calls nowadays call for the engagement of societal stakeholders in the research 541 process, the temporal and material resources are seldom sufficiently provided for such an 542 endeavour, since engagement with stakeholders often requires the establishment of close 543 relationships and trust in order for a transdisciplinary process to work. These are by nature 544 time- and resource-intensive processes, and also require (early career) researchers being able 545 to spend sufficient amounts of time on a project.

546 Collaboration with industries may offer a source of additional funding. If doing so, 547 scientific projects, however, need to be kept independently from any industrial interest in the 548 sense of preventing business interest from guiding (or in the worst case distorting) research 549 processes and outcomes. But learning about the practical needs of companies, e.g., in the form 550 of internships, enhances dialogue between business and science hereby preparing for mutual 551 initiatives shaping the Arctic's future.

552

553 5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

554 Developing priorities for future Arctic marine and coastal sciences was one of the 555 major goals since ART was established in 2009 during the ART Initiation workshop in 556 Fairbanks, Alaska. With the priority sheets now at hand, we invite the Arctic scientific 557 community to suggest additional priority sheets about topics that have not yet been covered 558 and to provide ideas as to how these can be incorporated in science-society discussions about 559 Arctic change and challenges. As a contribution to the ICARP III process, we hope that these 560 research priorities for future directions of Arctic sciences will be taken into consideration by

national and international funding calls, research programs and projects in close consultationwith non-scientific parties and ECS.

563

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582

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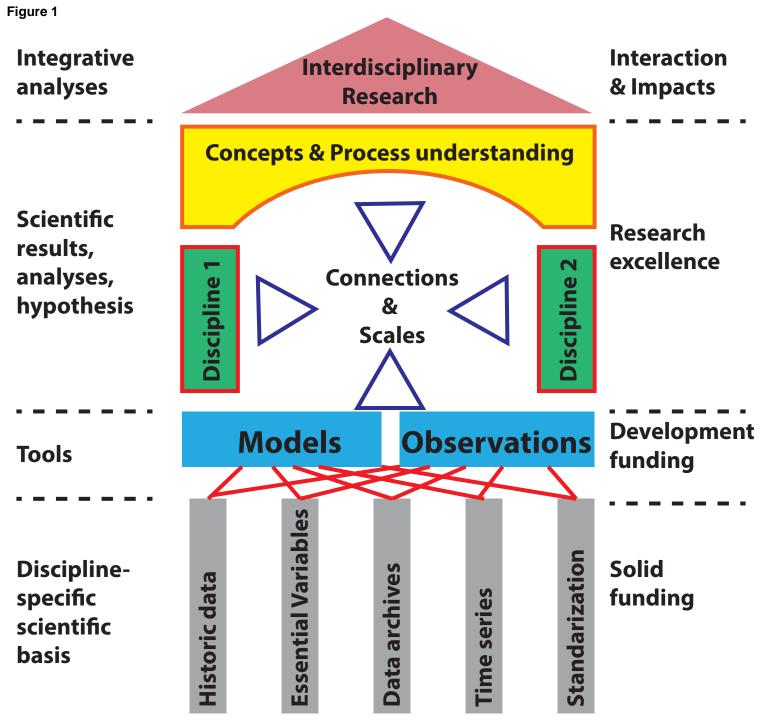
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803 Figure captions

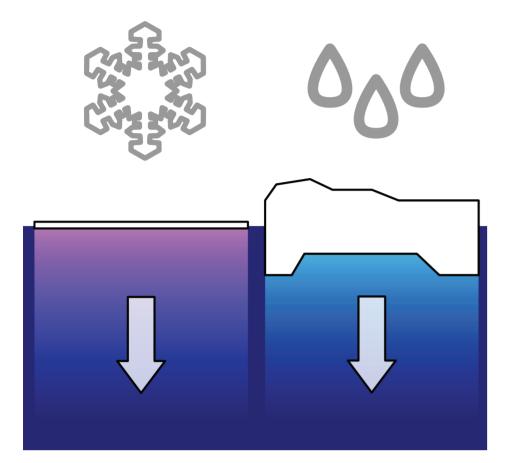
804 Figure 1. Interdisciplinary Arctic research: Integration of concepts and processes. The house 805 design (slightly modified after Renner et al., 2015) illustrates different levels of key 806 elements that need to be maintained and build up to allow successful and sustainable 807 interdisciplinary research in the coming decades. Research needs are to be based on 808 discipline-specific existing knowledge, data sets and methods that have to be continued 809 and developed further. Excellent research across disciplines will allow to connect the 810 various approaches, and to establish new and to extend existing connections. Bridges over 811 temporal and spatial scales, enhanced communication, and personal links are key 812 requirements for this interaction. Finally, this will lead to advances in our process 813 understanding, including innovative concepts and ideas in Arctic sciences.

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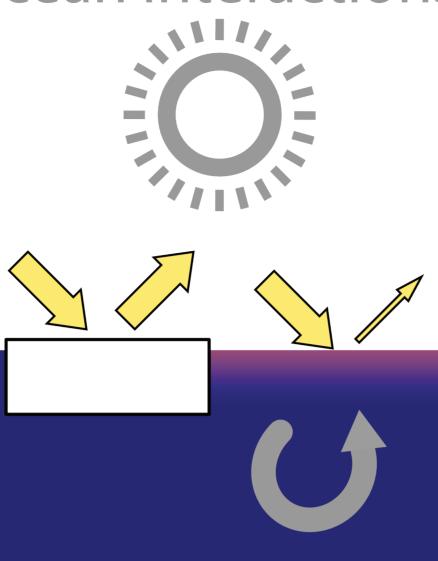
- **Figure 2.** Feedbacks and interactions between various components of the Arctic system with
- 816 arrows indicating various linkages (after Renner et al., 2015).
- **Figure 3.** Participants of the TRANSSIZ expedition in front of the German research
- 819 icebreaker RV Polarstern (Photo: Ilias Nasis).

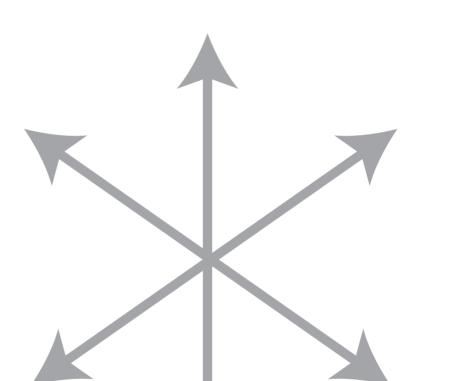


lce-ocean interactions

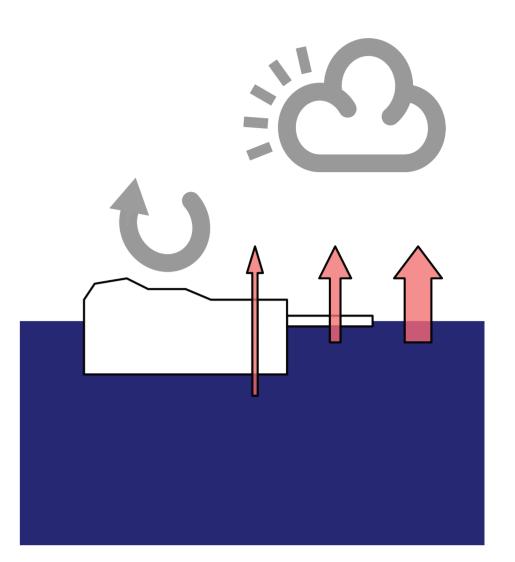


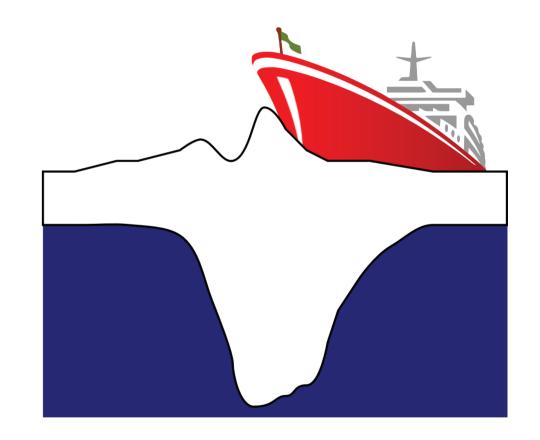
Atmosphere and ocean interactions

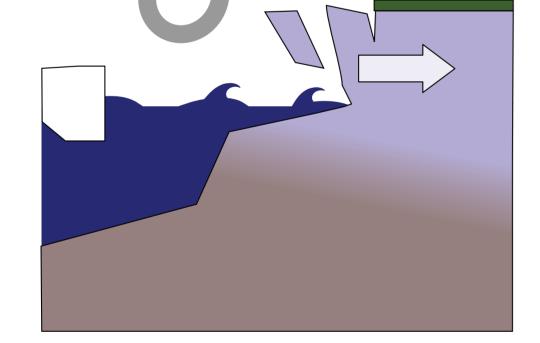




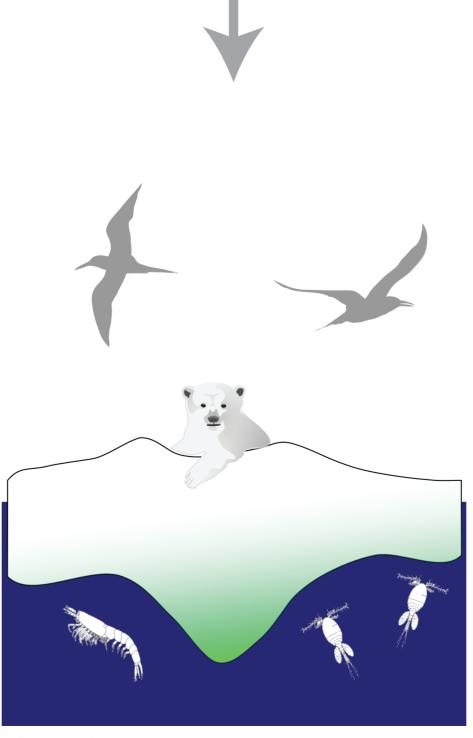
Ocean energy and mass budgets







Coastal erosion and permafrost thawing



Marine ecosystems

Economy and society

