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Key Points:

- The background backscattering of non-algal particles decrease from Northern to Southern Hemispheres at the surface and in the euphotic layer
- The background backscattering of NAP has a clear seasonal cycle in the productive areas and a smooth cycle in oligotrophic seas
- The spatial, temporal, and vertical variability of background backscattering of NAP has to be taken into account in ocean carbon studies

Supporting Information:

- Supporting Information S1

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Global Variability of Optical Backscattering by Non-algal particles From a Biogeochemical-Argo Data Set

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Abstract Understanding spatial and temporal dynamics of non-algal particles in open ocean is of the utmost importance to improve estimations of carbon export and sequestration. These particles covary with phytoplankton abundance but also accumulate independently of algal dynamics. The latter likely represents an important fraction of organic carbon, but it is largely overlooked. A possible way to study these particles is *via* their optical backscattering properties (b_{bp}) and relationship with chlorophyll-*a* (Chl). To this aim, we estimate the fraction of b_{bp} associated with the non-algal particle portion (b_{bp}^k) that does not covary with Chl by using a global Biogeochemical-Argo data set. We quantify the spatial, temporal, and vertical variability of b_{bp}^k . In the northern productive areas, b_{bp}^k is a small fraction of b_{bp} and shows a clear seasonal cycle. In the Southern Ocean, b_{bp}^k is a major fraction of total b_{bp} . In oligotrophic areas, b_{bp}^k has a smooth annual cycle.

1. Introduction

In the ocean, the pool of non-algal particles (NAPs) includes (i) heterotrophic organisms such as bacteria, micrograzers, and viruses, (ii) organic particles of detrital origin such as faecal pellets and cell debris, (iii) mineral particles of both biogenic (e.g., calcite liths and shells) and terrestrial origin (e.g. clays and sand), (iv) bubbles (Sosik, 2008), and (v) plastics. Understanding of the spatial and temporal dynamics of NAP in the open ocean can improve estimations of carbon export and sequestration (Azam et al., 1983; Bishop & Wood, 2009). NAP can covary with phytoplankton abundance or accumulate regardless of algal dynamics. In such a context, a possible way to monitor these particles and distinguish between these two fractions is *via* their optical backscattering properties and relationship with chlorophyll-*a*. Unfortunately, only a few studies have concerned the backscattering properties of NAP up to date (b_p NAP; units of m^{-1} ; Cho & Azam, 1990; Morel & Ahn, 1990, 1991; Stramski & Kiefer, 1991), as a consequence of the difficulties in directly measuring this optical coefficient. Indeed, optical backscattering sensors measure backscattering of all particles suspended in seawater (b_{bp} ; units of m^{-1} ; Dall'Olmo et al., 2009, 2012; Westberry et al., 2010), which includes algal particles among the others. The NAP signal cannot be separated from that of phytoplankton. However, total b_{bp} offer the great advantage to be measured by satellite and in situ from Biogeochemical-Argo (aka BGC-Argo) floats. Using b_{bp} , we can thus observe the global ocean with high spatial and temporal resolutions.

The first attempt to derive b_p NAP in the open waters was by Behrenfeld et al. (2005, hereafter Be05) using 5 years of ocean color remote sensing data. They computed the fraction of the b_{bp} that does not covary with phytoplankton chlorophyll-*a* concentration (Chl; units of mg/m^3) and estimated it as the offset of a linear regression between satellite-derived b_{bp} and Chl when Chl concentrations were $>0.14 mg/m^3$. This offset was defined as the *background* of the b_p NAP (hereafter b_{bp}^k ; units of m^{-1}) and refers only to a fraction of the total b_{bp} signal caused by NAP that thus does not covary with Chl (i.e., phytoplankton).

In Be05, b_{bp}^k is assumed to be a constant value both in space and time (i.e., $3.5 \cdot 10^{-4} m^{-1}$). Be05 attributed it to “a stable heterotrophic and detrital component of the surface particle population and therefore

independent of the phytoplankton dynamics.” Recently, Bellacicco et al. (2016, hereafter B16) applied Be05’s approach for distinct bioregions and seasons in the Mediterranean Sea and showed that b_{bp}^k has instead a marked regional and seasonal variability. Such a result thus confirmed that the heterotrophic and detrital components at the sea surface are neither negligible nor stable but highly variable in seawater (Siokou-Frangou et al., 2010). These observations were consistent with field observations of Chl and b_{bp} from the BOUSSOLE buoy in which the Chl- b_{bp} relationship was highly dependent on the season of the area (Antoine et al., 2011). The variability of the b_{bp}^k by B16 was also later confirmed by Bellacicco et al. (2018) for the global ocean (hereafter B18). Indeed, B18 highlighted two distinct oceanic areas: the productive subpolar North Atlantic Ocean, where b_{bp}^k and particle biomass (i.e., phytoplankton cells) are anticorrelated, and the Southern Ocean, where b_{bp}^k signal is mainly driven by inorganic particles, such as algal coccoliths (Balch, 2018, Balch et al., 2016), bubbles, or foam that occur in the stormy seas (Stramski et al., 2004). However, ocean-color data used in these works are only sensitive to the surface layer. The increasing number of BGC-Argo floats, equipped with b_{bp} sensors, can therefore expand the analysis to underlying layers.

The relationship between b_{bp} and Chl is also influenced by phytoplankton specific composition and diversity (e.g., size, shape, and internal structure), physiology (e.g., photoacclimation), and the nature of NAP itself (Dall’Omo et al., 2009, 2012; Stramski et al., 2004). Therefore, an analytical fit between b_{bp} and Chl that includes these factors may improve b_{bp}^k estimations. In such a context, Brewin et al. (2012, hereafter Br12) presented a relationship between b_{bp} and Chl that accounted for modifications in phytoplankton size. The model, based on surface in situ observations, included separated b_{bp} terms for small and large cells that dominated the overall fit at different Chl ranges. This model also estimated b_{bp}^k , as the *offset* of the fit between b_{bp} and Chl in clear waters where this relationship converged to a flat value for low Chl values. The b_{bp}^k parameter was interpreted as a constant *background* of NAP (e.g., heterotrophic bacteria, detritus, viruses, and minerogenic particles), possibly partly influenced by very small phytoplankton (e.g., prochlorophytes).

In this study, the Br12 model is applied to an extensive global data set of Chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence, here converted in Chl, and b_{bp} (700) measurements acquired from BGC-Argo profiling floats. In detail, we estimate b_{bp}^k across different oceanic areas (i.e., from productive to ultraoligotrophic zones), months, and in two distinct layers of the water column: at the surface and within the euphotic layer. To interpret our estimations of b_{bp}^k , we use as a reference of the b_{bp}^k value in each region the median b_{bp} at 950–1,000 m also derived from BGC-Argo observations. At these depths b_{bp} is entirely due to the fraction of NAP that does not covary with Chl (Poteau et al., 2017).

2. Data and Methods

2.1. The BGC-Argo Data Set

An array of 425 BGC-Argo profiling floats was deployed around the World’s oceans as part of several national and international programs (<http://biogeochemical-argo.org>) and collected data from 30 May 2010 to 31 December 2018 every 1 up to 10 days. These floats acquired 0–1,000-m vertical profiles of pressure, temperature, and salinity by a Seabird Scientific SBE 41 Conductivity-Temperature-Depth sensor, Chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence (FChl_a; excitation at 470 nm, emission at 695 nm), and the angular scattering function at 700 nm by Seabird-WetLABS combo sensors (mostly FLBB, ECOTRIPLET, or MCOMS). Chlorophyll-*a* fluorescence is then converted to Chl concentration (units of mg/m³) and the angular scattering to particulate optical backscattering coefficient b_{bp} (units of m⁻¹; see supporting information). All the data were downloaded from the Coriolis database (<ftp://ftp.ifremer.fr/ifremer/argo/dac/coriolis>) and quality controlled (see supporting information). The BGC-Argo floats (more than 35,000 correspondent Chl and b_{bp} data) over global ocean used in the present study are partitioned into 18 areas (Figure 1). The data set of Chl and b_{bp} here used represents the update version of the databases BOPAD-prof and BOPAD-surf by Organelli et al. (2017). The depth of euphotic zone, Z_{eu} (units of m), which is the depth where PAR reaches 1% of its surface value, was estimated from the Chl profile through the iterative process described in Morel and Maritorena (2001). Subsequently, the first optical depth, Z_{pd} (units of m), was calculated as $Z_{eu}/4.6$

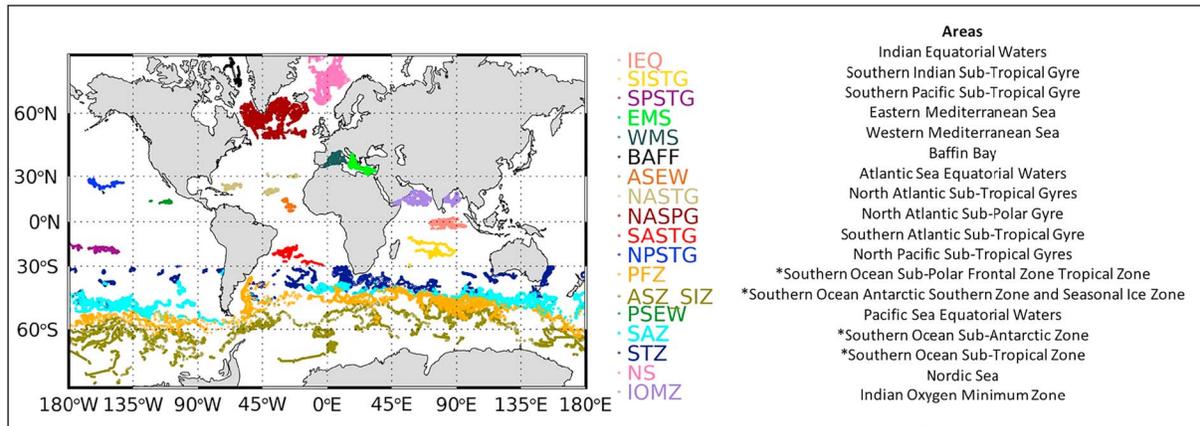


Figure 1. Geographical distribution of the BGC-Argo data set on a global ocean scale. Each color represents sampling areas and abbreviations. * indicates data acquired in four regions below 30°S, which have been delineated by using temperature profiles (Gray et al., 2018): Sub-Tropical Zone (STZ) with a temperature at 100 m above 11 °C; the Sub-Antarctic Zone (SAZ) with a temperature at 400 m below 5 °C; the Polar Frontal Zone (PFZ) with the minimum temperature between 0 and 200 m above 2 °C; and the Antarctic Southern Zone and Seasonal Ice Zone (ASZ_SIZ) minimum temperature between 0 and 200 m below 2 °C.

(Morel, 1988). Finally, for each profile, the mean and standard deviation of Chl and b_{bp} were calculated within (i) the surface layer: the layer between sea surface and the first optical depth; (ii) the euphotic layer: the layer between sea surface and euphotic zone; and (iii) the bottom layer: the layer between 950 and 1,000 m.

2.2. b_{bp}^k Estimation: The Model

In this study, the model developed by Brewin et al. (2012) is used to compute b_{bp}^k . The b_{bp} is modeled as a function of Chl and takes into account the fractional contributions of small and large phytoplankton, as follows:

$$b_{bp} = C_1^m \cdot [b_{bp,1}^* - b_{bp,2}^*] [1 - e^{-S_1 \cdot \text{Chl}}] + b_{bp,2}^* \cdot \text{Chl} + b_{bp}^k \quad (1)$$

where the subscripts 1 and 2 refer to two populations of phytoplankton cells partitioned according to size: 1 is for cells $< 20 \mu\text{m}$, while 2 is for cells $> 20 \mu\text{m}$; $b_{bp,1}^*$ and $b_{bp,2}^*$ refer to the Chl-specific b_{bp} coefficients associated with environments dominated by the two populations of phytoplankton; C_1^m and S_1 refer to the maximum Chl concentration population 1 can reach and the initial slope relating the Chl concentration of population 1 to total Chl, respectively. The term b_{bp}^k refers to the background b_{bp} coefficient. The general equation of the model can be simplified as

$$b_{bp} = c \cdot [1 - e^{(-S_1 \cdot \text{Chl})}] + b_{bp,2}^* \cdot \text{Chl} + b_{bp}^k, \quad (2)$$

in which $b_{bp,2}^*$ is the slope, b_{bp}^k is the intercept of the fit, while $c = C_1^m [b_{bp,1}^* - b_{bp,2}^*]$ and S_1 terms are the coefficients of the nonlinear part of the model. The $b_{bp,2}^*$, b_{bp}^k , c and S_1 coefficients are found from fitting equation (2) to b_{bp} and Chl data by using the iterative bisquare method (see paragraph 2.3). The initial guess for the four parameters are reported in Table S1. These values are in the range and order of magnitude of the values reported in Brewin et al. (2012). This model reduces to the Be05, Blc16, and Blc18 linear models if the nonlinear term is discarded out, which would be the case where $b_{bp,1}^*$ and $b_{bp,2}^*$ tend to the same value. This model represents an evolution of the previous published model (i.e., Be05, Blc16, and Blc18) because it takes into account the phytoplankton populations variability in the Chl- b_{bp} relationship and thus for b_{bp}^k estimations. In addition, the inclusion of the nonlinear term introduces more flexibility reducing the fit errors for the areas here analyzed (see Figures S1 and S2).

Equation (2) is applied to each area (spatially resolved with the temporal aggregation approach reported in Figure 1) and for every month (spatially and temporal-resolved approach) for the two layers.

The ratio between the b_{bp}^k value found in the surface and in the bottom layers and analogously for the euphotic layer enables understanding the difference between upper and deeper layers for each area of interest. It is computed as

$$\widehat{b}_{bp}^k = \frac{b_{bp,surface}^k}{b_{bp,bottom}^k} \quad (3a)$$

$$\widehat{b}_{bp}^k = \frac{b_{bp,euphotic}^k}{b_{bp,bottom}^k} \quad (3b)$$

In addition to this ratio, \overline{b}_{bp}^k is here defined as the fraction of the b_{bp}^k with respect to the median b_{bp} (in %) giving an understanding on the relationship between NAP and particle biomass in the different areas, and the layers, of the ocean:

$$\overline{b}_{bp}^k = \frac{b_{bp}^k}{b_{bp}} \quad (4)$$

2.3. Model Fit and Statistics

For all the computations, Chl measurements below the value of 0.01 mg/m^3 are considered too noisy for a proper estimation of b_{bp}^k and are filtered out from the data set. The model in equation (2) is fitted to the data using the iterative bisquare method, which minimizes a weighted sum of squared errors, where the weight given to each data point decreases with the distance from the fitted curve (Huber, 1981). Therefore, the error function is sensitive to the bulk of the data and the effect of outliers is thus reduced. This error function is minimized through the Trust-Region algorithm (Moré & Sorensen, 1983), and the final fit estimate is found after a maximum of 400 iterations. For each b_{bp}^k the 95% confidence intervals and two standard deviation as confidence limit ($\pm 2\sigma$) are computed. In order to assess the model performance for the b_{bp}^k calculation, the root-mean-square (RMS; in m^{-1}) error between the modeled- b_{bp} and measured- b_{bp} are computed. The RMS is calculated according to

$$\text{RMS} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (b_{bp,modeled,i} - b_{bp,measured,i})^2}$$

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Global Overview of b_{bp}^k

Aggregated quality-controlled data within the surface layer for all areas and months ($N = 36,067$) are shown in Figure 2a. The b_{bp} coefficients increase with Chl but with relatively constant b_{bp} for low Chl values (Figure 2a). This behavior is consistent with previous observations by Behrenfeld et al. (2005) and Brewin et al. (2012) and is considered to be the consequence of two distinct oceanic conditions: *photoacclimation dominance* and *biomass dominance* of Chl signal. The former is typical of oligotrophic areas (e.g., subtropical gyres) where variability of Chl is uncoupled with biomass and the process of acclimation to light and nutrients drives Chl variations (Barbieux et al., 2018; Halsey & Jones, 2015; Siegel et al., 2013). On the reverse, the latter case is typical of most productive areas where Chl and b_{bp} strongly covary (Dall'Olmo et al., 2009, 2012; Westberry et al., 2010). The high Chl- b_{bp} covariability is a clear indication that particles (and biomass) covary with phytoplankton abundance, while the physiological photoacclimation process plays a secondary role in determining the Chl variations.

Here, the application of the Br12 model to these BGC-Argo data leads to a b_{bp}^k equal to $5.0 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m}^{-1}$ at the surface, a value higher than that found by Be05 ($3.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m}^{-1}$ at 443 nm). On the other hand, Br12 reported $7.0 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m}^{-1}$ for 470 nm and $5.6 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m}^{-1}$ at 526 nm. Blc18 found a median b_{bp}^k value equal to $9.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m}^{-1}$ based on 19 years of ocean color data. These values are comparable as the spectral variability is limited in case

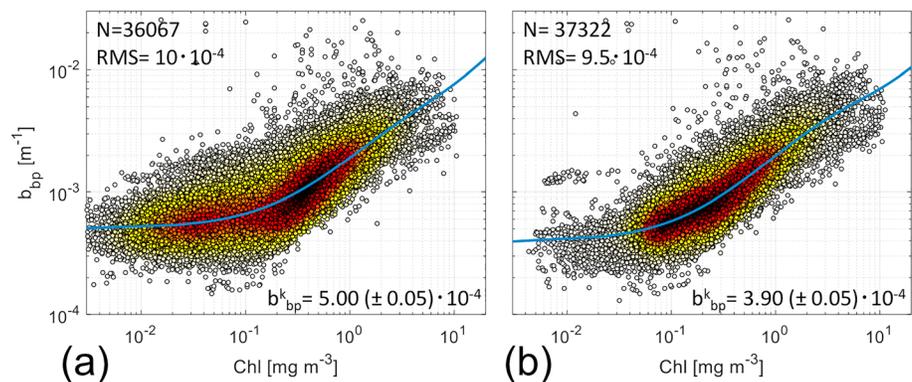


Figure 2. Plot density between Chl and b_{bp} (700) within the surface layer (panel a) and the euphotic layer (panel b). Both panels include the number of observations (N) and the RMS (in m^{-1}). The b_{bp}^k estimation (in m^{-1}) with two standard deviation as confidence limit ($\pm 2\sigma$) is also reported. Chl values <0.01 mg/m^3 are not included in the fit computations. The plots are presented in logarithmic scale in both axes though the fit has been calculated in linear scale. Dot density is indicated as color from white (low density) to black (high density).

of b_{bp} ($\pm 30\%$ between 443 and 700 nm when assuming b_{bp} decreasing as a power law with slope equal to 0.7). In relative terms, our study shows that b_{bp}^k dominate within the surface layer as it accounts for $\pm 57\%$ of the total b_{bp} measured by all BGC-Argo floats, a remarkably high percentage.

An increased Chl- b_{bp} covariability is observed within the euphotic layer (Figure 2b; $N = 37,322$). The derived b_{bp}^k is not comparable to our estimates from the surface layer or from previous satellite observations because it includes deeper layers where there is high particle concentration, as, for example, oligotrophic areas such as the subtropical gyres and the eastern Mediterranean Sea (Barbieux et al., 2018; Volpe et al., 2007). The first estimation of b_{bp}^k for this layer is a value of $3.9 \cdot 10^{-4} m^{-1}$ and accounts for $\pm 45\%$ of the total b_{bp} , suggesting that in the euphotic layer NAPs are more correlated to Chl than at the surface.

3.2. Geographical Distribution of b_{bp}^k

Figure 3a shows b_{bp}^k estimations for the surface, euphotic, and bottom layers within each geographical area sampled by BGC-Argo floats. In surface layer, the range of variability spans between 10^{-4} and $10^{-3} m^{-1}$, consistent with global ocean color estimations (Bellacicco et al., 2018). Lower variability characterizes the euphotic layer (of a factor of ~ 6), from $\sim 1.0 \cdot 10^{-4} m^{-1}$ to $6.0 \cdot 10^{-4} m^{-1}$. For the bottom layer, variability is the lowest, between $2.0 \cdot 10^{-4}$ and $4.0 \cdot 10^{-4} m^{-1}$. The two upper layers display a latitudinal gradient, with a general b_{bp}^k decrease from northern to southern oceans. b_{bp}^k in the bottom layer does not show a clear geographical pattern and remains relatively constant across all sampled oceanic areas.

Figure 3b shows the $\widehat{b_{bp}^k}$ for each area, the ratios between the spatially resolved b_{bp}^k found at the surface and euphotic layers with the estimation for the bottom layer. Globally, $\widehat{b_{bp}^k}$ is higher in the upper layer than the at the bottom from middle to low latitudes, while b_{bp}^k at the bottom is higher than at the surface in most productive seas such as the NASPG, SAZ, PFZ, and ASZ_SIZ areas (Alkire et al., 2014; Arteaga et al., 2018; Uitz et al., 2009). In these areas, $\widehat{b_{bp}^k}$ is only a small fraction of the total b_{bp} in surface waters ($<20\%$; Figure 3c) as a consequence of the higher relative variability in the b_{bp} and phytoplankton abundance (Alkire et al., 2014). In the NASPG, characterized by high phytoplankton biomass, $\widehat{b_{bp}^k}$ is lower than 10%. It means that b_{bp} is more dominated by particles that covary with phytoplankton cells (see equation (1)), thus being more influenced by phytoplankton dynamics.

In the Southern Ocean (i.e., STZ, SAZ, PFZ, and ASZ_SIZ areas), $\widehat{b_{bp}^k}$ ranges from 15% (i.e., PFZ) to 60% (i.e., STZ) for surface waters suggesting inorganic particles (e.g., coccoliths) can also drive the b_{bp}^k signal (Figure 3c). Indeed, coccoliths concentrations covary with b_{bp} because they scatter light with high

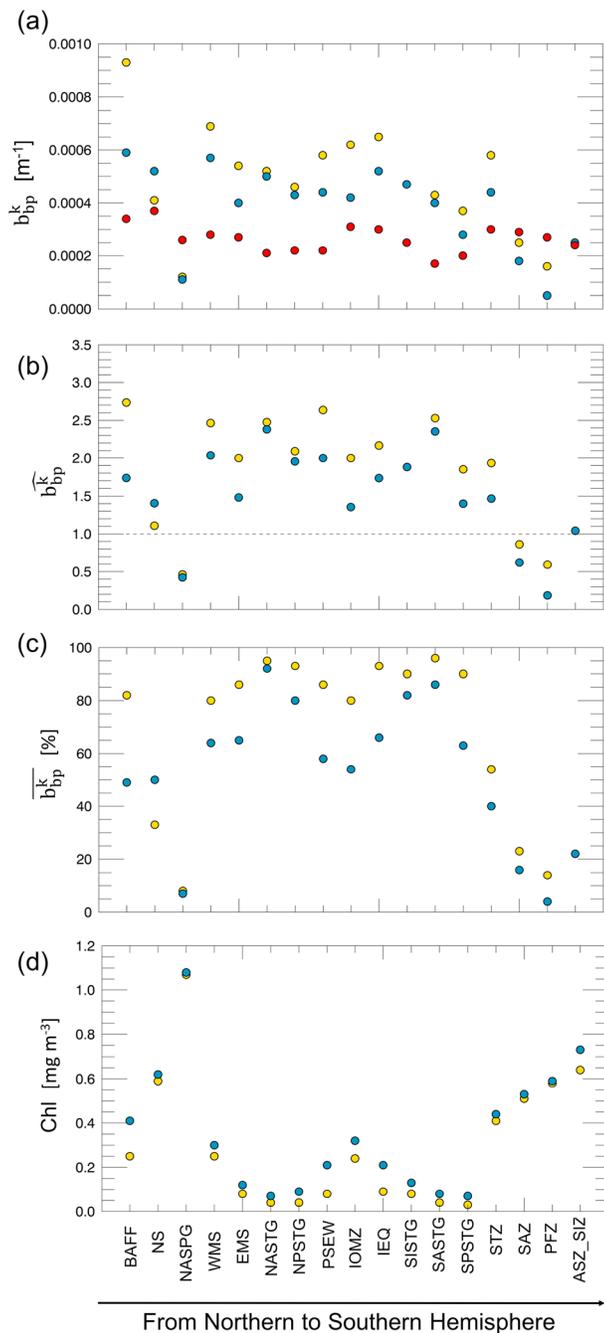


Figure 3. (a) Geographical distribution of b_{bp}^k (in m^{-1}) in the three layers: surface (gold), euphotic (blue), and bottom (red). (b) The b_{bp}^k for the surface (gold) and euphotic (blue) layers for each area. The dashed line indicates the case where b_{bp}^k estimates between surface or euphotic layer with bottom layer are close to the same value. (c) The b_{bp}^k (in %) for each area and layer (gold for surface layer; blue for euphotic layer). The model performance, in terms of RMS (m^{-1}) and interval of confidence at 95% for each b_{bp}^k estimation, is reported in the supporting information (see Figures S3 and S4 and Table S2). ASEA area is not included in this analysis due to the low performance of the model and highest uncertainties in b_{bp}^k assessment in both layer (for details see the supporting information). Note that the areas have been sorted from the Northern to the Southern Hemisphere. (d) The mean Chl values for each region and layers (gold for surface layer and blue for euphotic layer). See Figure 1 for locations and abbreviations.

efficiency (Balch, 2018; Balch et al., 2016). The b_{bp}^k values, and their order of magnitude, are consistent with measurements of b_{bp} from $CaCO_3$ reported in Balch et al. (2016) along the Great Calcite Belt (their Figure 2c). Thus, in these areas of the Southern Ocean, the b_{bp}^k may be related to the coccolithophorids seasonality (i.e., skeleton compounds of no longer living cells; b_{bp}^k is the b_{bp} when Chl is zero; Balch et al., 2016; Balch, 2018; Bellacicco et al., 2018).

In less productive areas (e.g., EMS, IEQ, NASTG, SISTG, SASTG, and SPSTG; Figure 3d), $\overline{b_{bp}^k}$ is greater than 80% at the surface layer, consistent with previous findings (Bellacicco et al., 2018; Brewin et al., 2012). These areas are characterized by limited nutrients availability determining low phytoplankton biomass, especially picophytoplankton- and nanophytoplankton-dominated communities (Bricaud et al., 2004, 2010; Mignot et al., 2014), which are rapidly recycled in the surface layer thus supporting relatively high bacterial and detrital biomass. For the euphotic layer, much of the b_{bp} can be related to phytoplankton biomass as highlighted by a lower $\overline{b_{bp}^k}$ value of around 60%. This is the consequence of the subsurface chlorophyll maximum, which is deeper in the subtropical gyres and oligotrophic seas as found by Mignot et al. (2014) and Barbieux et al. (2018). It determines that, at depth, there is an increase of phytoplankton biomass and of NAP covarying with phytoplankton: The b_{bp}^k coefficient indeed decreases from the surface to the euphotic layers (Figure 3a).

3.3. Seasonal Variability of b_{bp}^k

The b_{bp}^k values within surface and euphotic layers show a clear seasonal cycle with maxima during the productive periods ($b_{bp}^k > 5.0 \cdot 10^{-4}$) and minima during the low productive periods ($b_{bp}^k < 4.0 \cdot 10^{-4}$) in all the areas outside the oligotrophic seas (e.g., NS, NASPG, WMS, EMS, STZ, SAZ, PFZ, and ASZ_SIZ; Figure 4).

In the NASPG, b_{bp}^k shows high values during the well-known spring bloom and low values from December to April (Alkire et al., 2014; Briggs et al., 2011; Mignot et al., 2018). In the Southern Ocean, and especially SAZ, PFZ, and ASZ_SIZ areas, b_{bp}^k shows the maxima values from December to April (i.e., period of bloom), while the minima are detected in the period May–September.

In the Mediterranean Sea (i.e., WMS and EMS), the seasonal cycle varies within the subbasins showing different amplitude and shape, clearly linked to the regional trophic regimes. WMS shows b_{bp}^k values higher than the eastern ones confirming the presence of a general decreasing eastward gradient for this coefficient. In the western basin of Mediterranean Sea, deep water formation dynamics and/or the generally shallow nutricline results in a maximum value in April. On the contrary, maxima generally occur earlier between February and March in the eastern Mediterranean basin. These results confirm Bellacicco et al. (2016) findings for this semienclosed basin. In their work, b_{bp}^k was demonstrated to be variable both in space and time with a marked seasonality in the different bioregions of both the subbasins. As shown by Bellacicco et al. (2016), periods characterized by lower b_{bp}^k (e.g.,

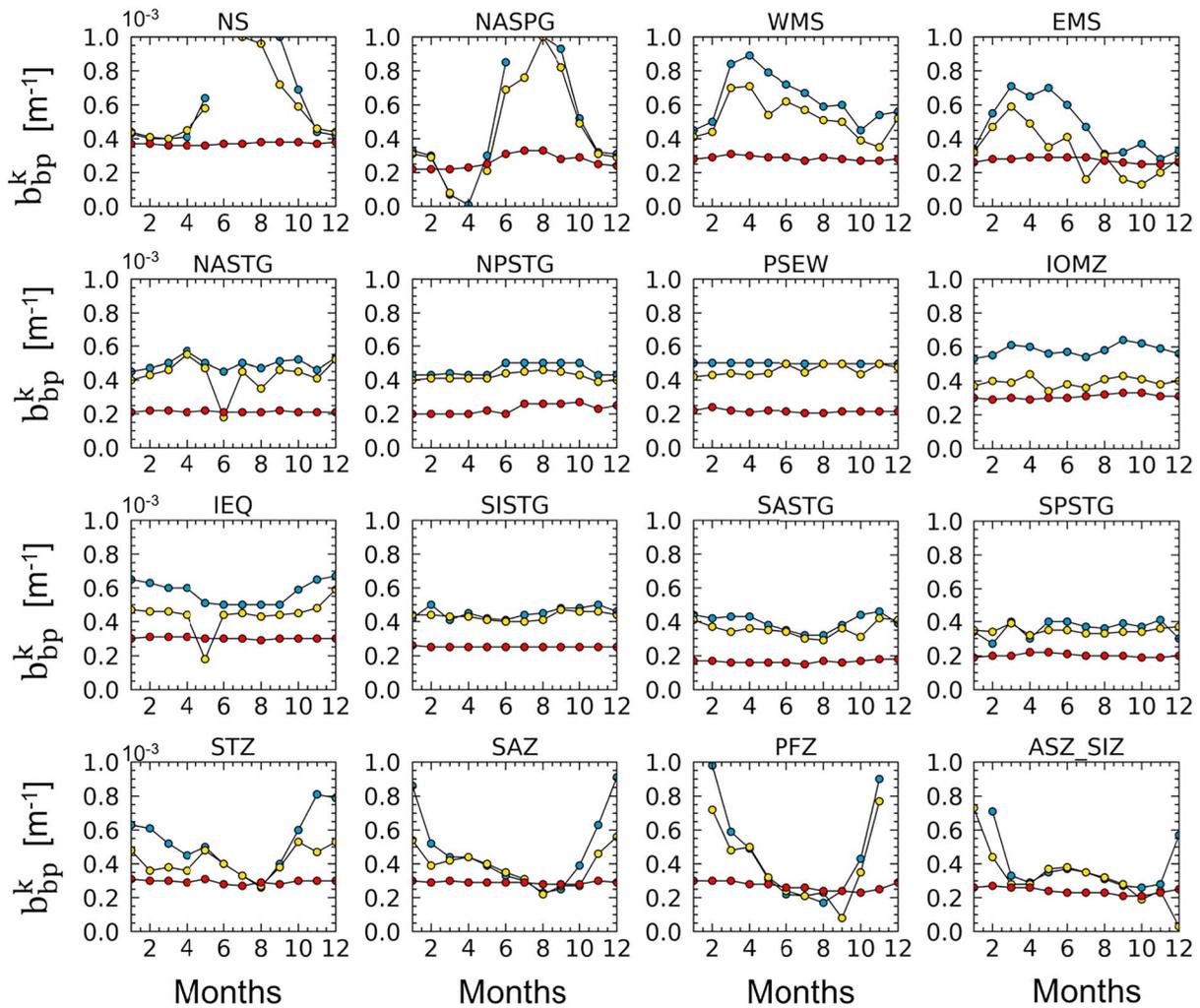


Figure 4. Temporal variability of b_{bp}^k (in m^{-1}) for each area and all the three layers: surface (gold), euphotic (blue), and bottom (red). The model performance, in terms of RMS (m^{-1}) and interval of confidence at 95% for each monthly b_{bp}^k estimation, is reported in the supporting information (see Tables S3–S5). ASEW and BAFF areas are not included in the analysis due to the absence/limited number of observations that prevents the description of the annual cycle. See Figure 1 for locations and abbreviations.

summer) are also associated with higher variability and uncertainties in the estimations. This is valid for the b_{bp}^k both in the surface and euphotic layers and has to be taken into account in the interpretation of these results (see Tables S3 and S4).

The b_{bp}^k at the bottom layer shows a smoother seasonal cycle in respect to what occur in the upper layers. As found by Poteau et al. (2017), an annual cycle is only observed at the Southern Ocean and subpolar North Atlantic area, regions with the largest amplitude in the seasonal cycles at the surface and euphotic layer (Figure 4) due to blooms of large phytoplankton (Alkire et al., 2014; Barbieux et al., 2018). Poteau et al. (2017), indeed, suggested that the b_{bp}^k at the depth can be mostly related to disaggregation of these large settling particles.

The seasonal cycle of b_{bp}^k in the less productive seas for all the layers is low, suggesting low NAP seasonal variations (e.g., detrital matter, heterotrophic bacteria, and virus). The b_{bp}^k estimation for each month appears to be nearly constant throughout the year (Figure 4), and thus, b_{bp} may be controlled mostly by b_{bp}^k , as highlighted also in Figure 3c.

4. Conclusions

In this work, an extensive global data set of Chl and b_{bp} (700) measurements acquired from Biogeochemical-Argo (BGC-Argo) profiling floats was analyzed. Specifically, we investigated and describe the spatial, vertical, and temporal variability of b_{bp}^k at global scale. The main results are the following:

1. b_{bp}^k shows a similar order of magnitude in both surface and euphotic layers, as previously published works based on ocean color data: ranging between 10^{-4} and 10^{-3} m^{-1} .
2. In the surface layer, the b_{bp}^k increase from Southern to the Northern Hemisphere, confirming what was found by Bellacicco et al. (2018) using ocean color data.
3. In the surface layer of most productive areas (e.g., NASPG), the b_{bp}^k is only a small fraction of the total b_{bp} (<20%), while in the oligotrophic waters, b_{bp}^k is the main contributor to the total b_{bp} (>80%). In the euphotic layer of the oligotrophic areas, the b_{bp}^k has a lower contribution to the total b_{bp} (average value of 65%).
4. In the surface and euphotic layers, the b_{bp}^k shows strong seasonal variability in the main productive areas of the global ocean, such as NASPG and the Southern Ocean areas. b_{bp}^k has instead a weak temporal variability in the low productivity areas, such as the subtropical gyres. This is valid also for the b_{bp}^k estimations at the bottom layer.

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The b_{bp}^k is a key parameter for satellite estimations of phytoplankton biomass in terms of carbon (Behrenfeld et al., 2005, 2016; Bellacicco et al., 2016, 2019, 2018; Martínez-Vicente et al., 2017; Westberry et al., 2008, 2016). Recently, Bellacicco et al. (2018) highlighted the difference (of around a factor of 2) in the phytoplankton carbon biomass estimation from space by using a b_{bp}^k variable in space, rather than a single value. Consequently, inclusion of this reported spatial-temporal and depth variations of b_{bp}^k into phytoplankton carbon models may help to improve their predictions from remote sensing data (Martínez-Vicente et al., 2017) but also from BGC-Argo floats (Mignot et al., 2014, 2018).

Remote optical-based predictions and interpretation of phytoplankton carbon models would also benefit from a better understanding of NAP composition and which particles generate the b_{bp} signal across the world's oceans. Indeed, submicron detrital particles have long been considered as the main source of b_{bp} (Stramski et al., 2004). However, Organelli et al. (2018) has highlighted that b_{bp} is mainly due to particles with diameters between 1 and 10 μm , which may also include NAP and aggregates. This latter study thus opens the way to new questions on the sources of the open-ocean b_{bp} signal that are critical to improving our interpretation of open-ocean b_{bp} .

Future research challenges should therefore be directed to (i) understand the drivers of the observed spatio-temporal variability and explore the composition of NAP across the world's oceans and how it influences the b_{bp} and b_{bp}^k signal; (ii) study the impact on biogeochemistry of b_{bp}^k , for example, on the particles assemblage in different ocean trophic regimes (i.e., subpolar and subtropical); (iii) include b_{bp}^k spatial and temporal variability into phytoplankton carbon estimations from space and its connections with phytoplankton physiology; and most importantly (iv) advance technology for (autonomous) optical measurements of NAP directly, for example, by exploiting the birefringence properties of mineral particles such as calcite compounds (Bishop & Wood, 2009; Guay & Bishop, 2002) and acquire spectral angular scattering to better understand the influence of bubbles and plastics (Twardowski et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 1998).

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