# Knowledge gaps in quantifying the climate change response of biological storage of carbon in the ocean

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#### Abstract

The ocean is responsible for taking up approximately 25% of anthropogenic CO2 emissions and stores > 50 times more carbon than the atmosphere. Biological processes in the ocean play a key role, maintaining atmospheric CO2 levels 200 ppm lower than they would otherwise be. The ocean's ability to take up and store CO2 is sensitive to climate change, however the key biological processes that contribute to ocean carbon storage are uncertain, as are their response and feedbacks to climate change. As a result, biogeochemical models vary widely in their representation of relevant processes, driving large uncertainties in the projections of future ocean carbon storage. This review identifies key biological processes that affect how carbon storage may change in the future in three thematic areas: biological contributions to alkalinity, net primary production, and interior respiration. We undertook a review of the existing literature to identify processes with high importance in influencing the future biologically-mediated storage of carbon in the ocean, and prioritised processes on the basis of both an expert assessment and a community survey. Highly ranked processes in both the expert assessment and survey were: for alkalinity – high level understanding of calcium carbonate production; for primary production – resource limitation of growth, zooplankton processes and phytoplankton loss processes; for respiration – microbial solubilisation, particle characteristics and particle type. The analysis presented here is designed to support future field or laboratory experiments targeting new process understanding, and modelling efforts aimed at undertaking biogeochemical model development.

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2	carbon in the ocean
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13	
14	Key Points:
15	• Key processes needed to improve projections of the response of ocean carbon storage
16	to climate change identified
17	• Three themes are addressed: net primary production, interior respiration, and
18	biological contributions to alkalinity
19	• An expert assessment and community survey used to rank processes according to
20	importance and uncertainty levels
21	

#### 22 Abstract:

23 The ocean is responsible for taking up approximately 25% of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions 24 and stores > 50 times more carbon than the atmosphere. Biological processes in the ocean 25 play a key role, maintaining atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels 200 ppm lower than they would 26 otherwise be. The ocean's ability to take up and store CO<sub>2</sub> is sensitive to climate change, 27 however the key biological processes that contribute to ocean carbon storage are uncertain, as 28 are their response and feedbacks to climate change. As a result, biogeochemical models vary 29 widely in their representation of relevant processes, driving large uncertainties in the 30 projections of future ocean carbon storage. This review identifies key biological processes 31 that affect how carbon storage may change in the future in three thematic areas: biological 32 contributions to alkalinity, net primary production, and interior respiration. We undertook a 33 review of the existing literature to identify processes with high importance in influencing the 34 future biologically-mediated storage of carbon in the ocean, and prioritised processes on the 35 basis of both an expert assessment and a community survey. Highly ranked processes in both 36 the expert assessment and survey were: for alkalinity – high level understanding of calcium 37 carbonate production; for primary production – resource limitation of growth, zooplankton 38 processes and phytoplankton loss processes; for respiration - microbial solubilisation, 39 particle characteristics and particle type. The analysis presented here is designed to support 40 future field or laboratory experiments targeting new process understanding, and modelling 41 efforts aimed at undertaking biogeochemical model development.

42

#### 43 **1. Introduction:**

44 Biological processes contribute significantly to oceanic storage of CO<sub>2</sub> by maintaining 45 a lower concentration of carbon in the surface than in the deep ocean. However, how 46 biological processes will respond to climate change and the subsequent feedbacks to ocean 47 carbon storage are poorly known. As a consequence, the IPCC Assessment Report 6 Working 48 Group I report (Canadell et al., 2021) concluded with high confidence that climate change 49 will result in alterations to the magnitude and efficiency of biological contributions to carbon 50 storage, but that there is low confidence in the magnitude or even sign of these biological 51 feedbacks. This level of uncertainty is reflected in the discrepancies between observation and 52 model based estimates of ocean carbon storage (e.g. Friedlingstein et al., 2022), part of which 53 may be due to poorly represented biological processes. As the contribution of biological 54 processes to ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake and storage is expected to gain greater importance with 55 continued climate change (Hauck et al., 2015), improving model representation of these

56 processes (which requires improved observational constraints) is essential. Major knowledge 57 gaps result from the number and complexity of processes involved in biological carbon 58 storage and a lack of observations with which they can be constrained. This lack of data 59 limits both the fundamental understanding of relevant processes, and the development and 60 validation of biogeochemical models as the data are rarely available on the large spatial and 61 long temporal timescales required. The availability of robust model parameterisations is thus 62 limited, resulting in a lack of consensus among climate models on which biological processes 63 should be included (or excluded), and hence significant uncertainty in the magnitude and sign 64 of biological feedbacks to climate change. However, even if sufficient data to build a parsimonious and mechanistic parameterisation of every possible process existed, it is not 65 66 likely to be feasible to include them all in coupled climate model experiments due to computational constraints. There is therefore a need to prioritise key processes which: a) are 67 68 significant contributors to biological carbon storage and/or its climate feedback, b) have the 69 potential (with appropriate fieldwork, lab experiments or data synthesis) to generate sufficient 70 data to act as robust model constraints and/or develop new parameterisations suitable for 71 inclusion in Earth System Models (ESMs), c) are computationally tractable (i.e. the process 72 can be incorporated in a model without a prohibitive computational cost), and d) are relevant 73 on the centennial, global scale of IPCC-class climate models.

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Here, we identify major knowledge gaps in relation to biological processes that have an influence on determining the future biologically-mediated storage of carbon in the ocean. We focus on 3 'Challenges' (<u>https://bio-carbon.ac.uk/</u>) relevant to better constraining the biological processes that contribute to ocean carbon storage: biological contributions to alkalinity, net primary production and interior respiration.

80

# 81 1.1: Challenge 1 - Biological contributions to alkalinity

82 Air-sea CO<sub>2</sub> exchange enables seawater CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations to maintain equilibrium with atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The alkalinity of seawater is a key chemical 83 determinant of the proportion of the dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in seawater that exists 84 as CO<sub>2</sub>. Alkalinity is therefore the primary control on how much DIC seawater can hold. A 85 86 mechanistic understanding of all of the biogeochemical processes leading to changes in 87 surface alkalinity is lacking (Middelburg et al., 2020). ESMs therefore simplify and/or ignore 88 potentially relevant processes, resulting in the failure of models to capture observed surface 89 alkalinity in key CO<sub>2</sub> sink regions (Lebehot et al., 2019). This results in a significant

90 overestimation of contemporary surface ocean CO<sub>2</sub> trends in the Atlantic (by 20-40%) and is therefore likely to impact 21<sup>st</sup> century projections of ocean CO<sub>2</sub> uptake (Lebehot et al., 2019). 91 92 There is a great diversity in how ESMs represent alkalinity and the main driver of its vertical 93 gradient in the ocean, the carbonate pump (Planchat, Kwiatkowski, et al., 2023). In particular, few ESMs consider aragonite in addition to calcite, and none of them represent benthic 94 95 calcifiers. The spatial distribution of CaCO<sub>3</sub> export at 100 m also varies greatly between 96 ESMs. Finally, there is substantial divergence between models in the way CaCO<sub>3</sub> dissolution 97 is influenced by the saturation state, which is projected to decrease over the course of the 98 century (Canadell et al., 2021). More importantly, there are limited representations of the 99 dependency of CaCO<sub>3</sub> production on the saturation state, despite evidence suggesting its 100 impact on surface alkalinity projections (Planchat, Bopp, et al., 2023). The surface 101 distribution and mean global profile of alkalinity improved between CMIP5 and CMIP6, 102 predominantly due to an increase in the strength of the carbonate pump, but this is likely to 103 have little effect on the magnitude of the projected ocean carbon sink due to negligible 104 changes in the Revelle factor (Planchat, Kwiatkowski, et al., 2023).

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106 The surface concentration of alkalinity is modified by surface freshwater fluxes or 107 processes that redistribute alkalinity vertically within the water column (Millero, 2007). 108 Alkalinity is removed from and returned to seawater through redox reactions (e.g. 109 nitrification) and formation and dissolution of carbonate minerals. Vertical structure in alkalinity is generated through the formation, sinking and remineralisation of organic matter 110 111 and particularly biological carbonates (e.g. plankton 'shells'). The diversity of processes 112 which contribute to the vertical redistribution of alkalinity, and the complexity of the 113 associated ecosystem functions, result in ESMs excluding all but the most well-understood 114 processes. For example, models tend to: a) assume all calcium carbonate is produced with a 115 pure calcite mineralogy (Yool et al., 2013), b) that its production is in a fixed ratio with one 116 or more (typically non-calcifying) phytoplankton types (Collins et al., 2011), or as a function of temperature or latitude, and c) the dissolution of calcite is governed purely by overly 117 118 simplified seawater thermodynamics (Yool et al., 2013). In practice, open ocean carbonates 119 are produced with a range of chemistries and crystalline structures (e.g. aragonite, calcite and 120 high Mg-calcite, impacting the mineral solubility; Salter et al., 2017), from organisms 121 ranging from pelagic calcifiers (plankton and fish) to benthic calcifiers (e.g. corals, bivalves 122 and gastropods), impacting the  $CaCO_3$  distribution, morphology, export pathways and 123 sinking speeds. Carbonates are also dissolved in microenvironments ranging from the guts of grazers to sediment pore-waters (White et al., 2018) and sinking aggregates containingorganic matter (Subhas et al., 2022).

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## 127 *1.2: Challenge 2 - Net primary production (NPP)*

128 Current models disagree markedly on the magnitude of contemporary NPP and 129 projections do not agree on even the sign of global NPP changes by the end of the century 130 (Figure 1; CMIP6 models, SSP5-8.5 scenario), with inter-model uncertainty in projections 131 actually increasing since the previous generation of CMIP5 models, especially at regional 132 scales (Kwiatkowski et al., 2020; Tagliabue et al., 2021). Uncertainty in NPP projections 133 across CMIP6 models results from a combination of factors regulating both resource 134 limitation of phytoplankton growth and the loss processes that control phytoplankton 135 standing stocks (Laufkötter et al., 2015). Both components can vary as a function of the 136 different phytoplankton functional types included in models. Moreover, due to the simple 137 parameterisations implemented, it is unlikely that the inter-model uncertainty across CMIP6 138 models represents the true uncertainty in both contemporary or future NPP (Tagliabue et al., 139 2021). Despite progress, we lack a critical appraisal of how inter-model differences and 140 missing processes contribute uncertainty to NPP projections.

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142 Key to the rate and efficiency of projected NPP is the way in which models represent 143 the physiology and metabolism of plankton and changes to nutrient supply. Differences in 144 how models parameterise phytoplankton nutrient limitation and resource demands, as well as 145 zooplankton recycling that can amplify or dampen mixing-driven nutrient supply, are a key 146 determinant of inter-model variability (Laufkötter et al., 2015; Tagliabue et al., 2021). For 147 instance, in some regions small changes to nutrient uptake assumptions can modulate the sign 148 of NPP change (Tagliabue et al., 2020). Also important are differences across models in 149 external nutrient input pathways and their sensitivity to change, e.g. aerosols (Yool et al., 150 2021), ice sheets (Kwiatkowski et al., 2019), land-ocean river fluxes (Terhaar et al., 2019) and whether they include anthropogenic nutrient inputs (Yamamoto et al., 2022). An 151 emerging source of inter-model uncertainty concerns the response of marine N<sub>2</sub> fixers, which 152 153 can respond to climate changes more rapidly than primary producers and, because they also 154 represent a source of new nitrogen, contribute to NPP trends (Bopp et al., 2021; Wrightson & 155 Tagliabue, 2020). Lastly, we lack sufficient understanding of the role of plankton diversity, 156 acclimation or adaptation, and response to multiple concurrent drivers, to develop 157 parameterisations appropriate for inclusion in ESMs (Boyd et al., 2018; Martiny et al., 2022).

## 159 1.3: Challenge 3 - Interior respiration

160 Climate models vary widely in their parameterisation of processes responsible for 161 particle formation and respiration, resulting in high uncertainty in future projections of 162 particulate organic carbon (POC) flux. Current model projections do not even agree on the sign of change in POC export from the upper ocean by 2100 (Figure 1), with models 163 164 disagreeing on whether export will increase or decrease over 84% of the ocean (CMIP6, 165 SSP5-8.5; Henson et al., 2022). Uncertainty in model projections of export has actually increased since the previous generation of CMIP5 models (Laufkötter et al., 2016). 166 Preliminary assessment of POC flux to 1000m in CMIP6 models suggests similar inter-model 167 168 disagreement for deep fluxes and the transfer efficiency (POC flux at 1000m/POC flux at 169 100m), a measure of the efficiency of the biological carbon pump (Figure 1; Wilson et al., 170 2022).

171

172 Factors altering the efficiency and functioning of interior respiration include those due 173 to altered microbial, phytoplankton and zooplankton community structure (Fu et al., 2016), 174 which alters both the magnitude of POC export from the upper ocean and the type of sinking 175 material produced. A reduction in the viability of calcifying organisms due to ocean 176 acidification may affect biological carbon pump efficiency by reducing the amount of 177 material available to ballast POC (Matear & Lenton, 2014). Other climate effects such as 178 warming and changing nutrient availability could result in alterations to the magnitude and 179 efficiency of the biological carbon pump via changes in phytoplankton community 180 composition (Cabré et al., 2015), which potentially alters particle composition and size, 181 respiration rate and aggregation/fragmentation of sinking particles. Variable organic matter 182 stoichiometry may increase the amount of carbon stored via biological processes relative to the amount of NPP, and so fixed stoichiometry models (as typically used in CMIP6) may 183 184 underestimate ocean carbon uptake (Kwiatkowski et al., 2018). Additionally, higher water temperatures will tend to increase organismal metabolic rates, more so for respiration than for 185 186 NPP (Boscolo-Galazzo et al., 2018; Cavan et al., 2019). Resolving uncertainties in future projections of interior respiration is critical, as any increase in respiration would shoal the 187 188 depth to which organic carbon penetrates into the deep ocean, which would tend to create a 189 positive feedback between respiration and atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentration (Kwon et al., 190 2009; Segschneider & Bendtsen, 2013), and vice versa.

#### 192 *1.4: Project aims*

The aim of this work is to identify major knowledge gaps in relation to biological processes that have an influence on determining the future biologically-mediated storage of carbon in the ocean within 3 'Challenges'. We prioritised these knowledge gaps through both an expert assessment of the literature conducted by the project team (which consists of the authors of this paper) and an international community-wide survey. Finally, we compare the results of both methods and speculate how to overcome barriers to inclusion of key processes in ESMs.

200

## 201 **2. Methods:**

202 We followed a similar framework as an earlier gap analysis focused on export fluxes 203 (Henson et al., 2022). In this project, we assessed processes in the 3 Challenge themes 204 described above and extended the reach of our assessment by incorporating an international 205 community survey. Our initial task was to undertake a literature review to identify published 206 articles describing (ideally quantitatively) the significance of a particular biological process 207 or processes on ocean carbon storage. We reviewed papers that used observations, experimental work, and/or modelling approaches, and papers that focused both on 208 209 contemporary conditions and the response to future climate change. In total, we reviewed 193 210 papers and collated information regarding the importance and uncertainty in each process into 211 extensive evidence tables (Tables S1-S3).

212

213 On the basis of the literature review, we sorted the identified processes into groups. 214 This was necessary to reduce the number of possible process categories to ~ 15 per 215 Challenge. Each group may encompass several sub-processes. For example, within the 216 primary production Challenge, we identified a group of processes that we term 'Resource 217 limitation of growth'. This includes limitation by all the major macronutrients, i.e. nitrate, 218 phosphate and silicate, although we recognise that the supply mechanisms of, and NPP 219 response to, different nutrients may differ. These groupings were necessary to assist both 220 with our expert assessment and the community survey. Greater than 15 categories would have 221 made the survey design and analysis difficult, as well as made the survey so long as to be off-222 putting to respondents. The process categories within each Challenge, and the short 223 descriptive text used in the survey to clarify what each category encompasses, are given in 224 Tables 1-3.

226 The expert assessment of the identified processes was undertaken by the authors of 227 this study. We assessed each process for its 'Importance' and 'Uncertainty' and assigned each 228 a low, medium or high rating. We defined Importance as a process having a 229 substantial/moderate/weak (for high/medium/low rating) influence on determining the future 230 biologically-mediated storage of carbon in the ocean. We defined Uncertainty as a process 231 having minimal/some/strong (for high/medium/low rating) supporting evidence, and 232 additionally contrasting evidence with no consensus reached by the scientific community 233 (high uncertainty), or no clear consensus reached by the scientific community (medium 234 uncertainty), or consensus has been reached by the community (low uncertainty).

235

For the expert assessment, each member of the project team evaluated the evidence gathered from the literature review and independently assigned an Importance and Uncertainty rating to each process, based on the presented evidence (Tables S1-S3). After the results had been compiled, we met to discuss our individual results and reach consensus on the final ratings, focusing our discussions primarily on those processes for which there was disagreement.

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# 243 2.1: Community survey development, data collection and analysis

To obtain a broad sample of responses, a questionnaire was developed in English (the full survey is provided in Supplementary Text 1). The survey was distributed in autumn 2022 using social media and through the authors' professional and personal networks, resulting in 120 complete responses. Quantitative data were analysed in R v4.1.0 using the Tidyverse collection of packages (Wickham et al., 2019). Likert data were analysed using the 'Likert' function from the Likert package in R.

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251 Section A of the survey collected demographic information (age, gender identity, 252 education, location). Section B gathered information about respondent's scientific expertise 253 (area of expertise, career stage, length of time in oceanography). The remainder of the 254 questionnaire captured respondent's views on the key processes for the 3 Challenges of net 255 primary production, interior respiration and biological contributions to alkalinity. These were 256 defined to participants as "Net Primary Productivity is the net rate at which marine life 257 converts dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> into organic carbon", "Interior respiration refers to the biological 258 processes controlling the conversion of organic carbon contained in non-living material into 259 inorganic carbon" and "Biological contributions to alkalinity are the inputs and range of 260 natural biological processes that act to alter seawater alkalinity". The aim of the survey was to rank those processes which, if included in global climate models, could potentially 261 262 decrease uncertainty in projections of future ocean carbon storage. Respondents had the 263 option to skip any questions in any Challenge that they felt were outside their area of 264 expertise. Respondents were asked to choose and rank the top 3 processes they thought had 265 an important influence on determining the future biologically-mediated storage of carbon in 266 the ocean associated with each of the 3 Challenges. The topic of each Challenge was first 267 defined before respondents were asked about their level of expertise 268 (high/moderate/some/little/no expertise) in each Challenge area. Respondents could choose 269 not to complete the process selection for a particular Challenge. They were then asked their 270 opinion on the importance of the Challenge, using a 5-point Likert scale. Respondents were 271 asked to rank, in order of importance, the top three processes associated with the role of that 272 Challenge in ocean carbon storage. Anonymised survey results are available in Data Set S1.

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Ethics Statement: All respondents completed the survey themselves and gave their permission to use the results. Individuals were not identifiable from the data provided. The survey described in this paper was reviewed and approved by the University of Plymouth Science and Engineering Research Ethics Committee.

278

#### 279 **3. Results:**

280 The importance and uncertainty ratings assigned to each process by the expert 281 assessment are given in Tables 1-3, with the evidence supporting these assessments in Tables 282 S1-S3. In the following sections, we briefly discuss the rationale for identifying processes as 283 having high importance. We do not provide details in the main text of the rationale for 284 identifying processes as having medium or low importance, but the supporting evidence is given in Tables S1-S3. Note that 'high' importance in this study indicates that there is strong 285 evidence for a particular process's importance, and that processes or fields of research which 286 287 have been understudied are therefore likely to present fewer topics rated as high importance.

288

# 289 3.1: Biological contributions to alkalinity - expert assessment

Of the 15 shortlisted processes considered significant for biological contributions to alkalinity, two were ranked as having high importance based on the available evidence: high level understanding of calcium carbonate production and rain ratio.

294 High level understanding of calcium carbonate production refers to the amount and 295 distribution of biological CaCO<sub>3</sub> production and its sensitivity to climate change. A change in 296 calcification induces a surface alkalinity and DIC anomaly in a 2:1 ratio and thus has a direct 297 consequence on the air-sea carbon flux and ocean buffer capacity. However, although 298 projections of this anomaly are generated by ESMs (Planchat, Kwiatkowski, et al., 2023), it is 299 difficult to verify the projected changed over the observational era due to the small amplitude 300 of the alkalinity anomaly (Ilyina et al., 2009), and the overprinting of any biological 301 alkalinity signals by water-cycle change driven changes. Furthermore, the impacts of climate 302 change and ocean acidification on calcifiers are likely to be highly region- and taxa-303 dependent, due to the spatial heterogeneity in environmental stressors (e.g. with respect to 304 acidification; Orr et al., 2005) and the heterogeneity in sensitivity of calcifiers to these 305 changes (e.g. Leung et al., 2022; Seifert et al., 2020). For example, increased light availability 306 in the polar regions could favour calcification by coccolithophores, while shoaling of the 307 saturation horizons could threaten pteropods or cold-water corals (Leung et al., 2022; Orr et 308 al., 2005). In the tropics, increased temperature could significantly impact corals through 309 bleaching events (Bindoff et al., 2019).

310 It should be noted that although calcification induces biological carbon storage, via sinking of 311 particulate inorganic carbon to the interior ocean, it also induces outgassing of  $CO_2$  from the 312 ocean surface, due to the imbalance in carbonate chemistry that it causes.

313

314 Rain ratio is the ratio between the export of particulate inorganic carbon (PIC) and 315 POC. Assessing changes in this ratio in response to climate change and ocean acidification is 316 central to estimating the overall impact of biology on alkalinity and DIC in the ocean surface 317 layer. The rain ratio anomaly can be used to estimate biologically-mediated changes in 318 surface carbonate chemistry, and hence in air-sea carbon flux (Humphreys et al., 2018), as 319 well as, in the longer term, the ocean's buffer capacity in the face of rising atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> 320 concentration (Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). Yet, although POC export remains uncertain 321 in ESM projections, most models show a decrease (Henson et al., 2022) while the sign of 322 change in the projected PIC export is more uncertain, driving divergent rain ratio anomalies 323 in projections (Planchat, Bopp, et al., 2023).

324

## 325 3.2: Net primary production - expert assessment

326 Of the 15 shortlisted processes considered significant for NPP, four were ranked as 327 having high importance for reducing uncertainty in future model projections based on the available evidence. These were resource limitation of growth, phytoplankton loss processes,nitrogen fixation and zooplankton processes.

330

331 *Resource limitation of growth* was the top ranked process due to its central and well 332 understood role as a bottom-up driver of oceanic primary production. Within this process 333 grouping, we identified phytoplankton growth limitation by macronutrients, micronutrients, 334 or light, and more specific forms of co-limitation of growth by nutrients and light, multiple 335 nutrient types and the role of inorganic and organic nutrient limitation as being of particular 336 importance. There is a rich body of observational literature supporting these forms of growth 337 limitation and whilst most ESMs currently represent macronutrient, light and micronutrient 338 (e.g. iron) limitation to varying extents, there are nuances to these relationships that require 339 refinement and development in order to improve confidence in model projections (Laufkötter 340 et al., 2015; Steinacher et al., 2010; Tagliabue et al., 2020).

341

342 *Phytoplankton loss processes*, including mortality and zooplankton grazing, were also 343 considered to be of high importance as they modulate the standing stocks of primary 344 producers, and models tend to derive NPP rates as the product of resource-limited growth and 345 standing stocks (Bindoff et al., 2019). Under the simplest scenario, grazing or mortality rates 346 that are set too high act to depress NPP, whereas when rates are too low NPP may be higher 347 than observational estimates. On more regional scales recent inter-model comparisons 348 demonstrate that correctly representing zooplankton grazing, for example, can significantly 349 alter the balance between production and grazing in low latitude regions, particularly in 350 response to thermal changes (Laufkötter et al., 2015). Viral mortality is also increasingly 351 recognised as a key factor with the potential to control bloom formation and termination, yet 352 viruses remain poorly described in marine ecosystem models and are largely absent in ESMs 353 (Flynn et al., 2021).

354

*Nitrogen fixation* is a globally significant source of new nitrogen to the ocean that may compensate stratification-driven declines in nitrate availability (Bindoff et al., 2019), yet its role in aiding the biological storage of carbon in the ocean in the context of a changing climate remains unclear (Bopp et al., 2022). Modelling studies that have demonstrated significant differences in model estimates of NPP when nitrogen fixation is included or excluded indicate a crucial role for this process in centennial-scale projections of ocean productivity (Bopp et al., 2022; Tagliabue et al., 2021; Wrightson & Tagliabue, 2020). Furthermore, recent observational studies have greatly expanded the geographic range and taxonomic identities of diazotrophic organisms in the ocean (e.g. Sipler et al., 2017). Overall it is clear that  $N_2$  fixation will likely play an important role in future projections of NPP change (Bopp et al., 2022; Paulsen et al., 2017; Wrightson & Tagliabue, 2020), with uncertainty associated with the response of different groups of nitrogen fixers and their physiological feedbacks in a changing climate (Wrightson et al., 2022).

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369 Zooplankton processes were also a highly ranked category, with this grouping 370 including specific processes such as rates of zooplankton growth, respiration and grazing, and 371 also the role zooplankton play in nutrient recycling. Zooplankton are a critical component of 372 the ocean food web and it is already recognised that improved representation of zooplankton 373 in ESMs will likely improve estimates of carbon cycling (Petrik et al., 2022). Furthermore, 374 increased uncertainties in NPP projections may arise due to inter-model differences in the parameterisation of grazing rates, particularly their response to temperature changes 375 376 (Tagliabue et al., 2021). With regards to nutrient excretion, mesozooplankton nutrient 377 regeneration may provide a significant fraction of the total phytoplankton and bacterial 378 production requirements (Hernández-León et al., 2008) and how their recycling rates respond 379 in a changing climate can vary markedly (Richon & Tagliabue, 2021).

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## 381

#### 3.3: Interior respiration - expert assessment

For interior respiration we concluded that, of the 15 processes assessed, 6 of them had high importance based on the available evidence: biotic fragmentation, aggregation, preferential remineralisation, microbial solubilisation, particle characteristics and particle type.

386

387 Biotic fragmentation refers to the breaking-up of particles into smaller pieces, 388 predominantly via zooplankton flux feeding or swimming. Fragmentation is likely to be highly significant in controlling flux attenuation, with recent estimates finding that, at least 389 390 during high flux events, fragmentation contributes ~ half of flux loss in the mesopelagic 391 (Briggs et al., 2020), although this study was unable to distinguish between biotic and abiotic 392 (via turbulence or shear) fragmentation. The swimming action of Euphausids readily 393 fragments particles and at typical abundances could interact with 50-100% of particles in the 394 upper 100m of the ocean (Dilling & Alldredge, 2000; Goldthwait et al., 2004). Alternatively 395 (or additionally) fragmentation may occur as a consequence of flux-feeding whereby

396 zooplankton consume marine aggregates or fecal pellets and in the process break off small 397 fragments of the particle, either unintentionally (sloppy feeding; Lampert, 1978) or 398 deliberately to increase the nutritional content of particles for subsequent ingestion (microbial 399 gardening; Mayor et al., 2014). In a modelling study, particle fragmentation by small 400 copepods was predicted to account for ~ 80% of the flux attenuation of fast sinking particles 401 (Mayor et al., 2020).

402

403 Aggregation refers to the formation of larger particles from smaller ones which can be 404 mediated by sticky exudates that increase the success rate of collisions. As single cells are 405 rarely sufficiently large or dense to sink independently, aggregation must take place in the 406 upper epipelagic or mesopelagic to account for the presence of phytoplankton material in 407 deep sediment traps (Durkin et al., 2021). Observation and model-based studies have 408 concluded that aggregation is an essential precursor to large flux events (Gehlen et al., 2006; 409 Jackson, 2005; Martin et al., 2011). Aggregation has been shown to occur by the production 410 of transparent exopolymer particles (TEP) by diatoms, possibly in response to nutrient 411 limitation (Martin et al., 2011), or via differential settling whereby faster sinking particles 412 'catch up' with slower sinking particles and coagulate (Riebesell, 1991). Despite its role as a 413 significant means of particle formation and transformation, the mechanisms underlying how, 414 when and why aggregation occurs remain poorly known.

415

416 Preferential remineralisation describes the differences in remineralisation depth of 417 the constituents of particulate organic matter relative to carbon. In sinking organic matter, 418 phosphate and nitrate tend to be preferentially and rapidly remineralised relative to carbon 419 (Anderson & Sarmiento, 1994; Schneider et al., 2003). The drawdown of excess carbon 420 relative to nitrogen or phosphate ('carbon over-consumption') represents a potential negative 421 feedback mechanism, as it results in additional drawdown of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Riebesell et 422 al., 2007). Modelling work suggests that C:P or C:N variability in the mesopelagic can alter 423 the strength of carbon sequestration by ~ 20% (Tanioka et al., 2021; Tian et al., 2004).

424

*Microbial solubilisation* is the respiration of dissolved and particulate organic material by microbial communities, where rates may be impacted by environmental conditions, the microbial community structure, metabolic rates and growth efficiency. The influence of temperature, oxygen concentration and pressure on rates of microbial respiration are reasonably well understood (Amano et al., 2022; Cavan et al., 2019; Weber & Bianchi, 2020) and are implicitly incorporated into some biogeochemical models (Laufkötter et al.,
2017). However the relative contributions to respiration by particle-attached or free-living
microbial communities is not well-constrained, and neither are the details of how microbial
ecology affect respiration, such as the conditions under which colonies may be established on
sinking particles, mortality rates, and cell attachment and detachment (Nguyen et al., 2022).

435

436 Particle characteristics describes the size, shape, porosity, density and strength of 437 particles. These characteristics can alter particle sinking speeds, and their susceptibility to 438 remineralisation and aggregation/fragmentation. Sinking speed is often considered to be 439 directly linked to particle size via Stokes' Law, however several studies have found no clear 440 correlation (Iversen & Lampitt, 2020; Williams & Giering, 2022), although large data 441 syntheses seem to show some connection (Cael et al., 2021). Instead, the particle's excess 442 density and/or morphology are likely to be critical factors (Prairie et al., 2019; Trudnowska et 443 al., 2021). Most global climate models only distinguish two particle sizes at most (Henson et 444 al., 2022), although size-resolving schemes have been used in uncoupled simulations (Kriest 445 & Oschlies, 2008). There are as yet insufficient observations to establish the links between 446 remineralisation potential and particle shape, porosity or strength.

447

448 Particle type refers to whether a particle is, for example, a fecal pellet, aggregate, 449 carcass etc., which will affect the sinking speed, and their susceptibility to remineralisation 450 and aggregation/fragmentation. The phytoplankton and zooplankton community composition 451 will also affect the types of particles generated. The details of the sinking particle type, e.g. 452 whether diatom frustule, zooplankton carcass, diazotrophs, salps etc. plays a strong role in 453 setting the sinking velocity and thus carbon storage (e.g. Bonnet et al., 2023; Durkin et al., 454 2021; Halfter et al., 2022; Maerz et al., 2020; Steinberg et al., 2023), with sometimes 455 contradictory evidence in the literature for the importance of different particle types (e.g. salp 456 fecal pellets; Iversen et al., 2017; Steinberg et al., 2023). The complexity of the possible particle types, and how they may combine into multi-component aggregates, and the lack of a 457 458 direct correspondence with remineralisation potential presents a major challenge for robust 459 modelling of the biological carbon pump.

460

For all of the processes identified above as having high importance to interior biological carbon storage, there are significant remaining uncertainties regarding the mechanisms at play. In addition, observational constraints mean that there is little information on how these processes may vary temporally and spatially. Both of these factors make
incorporating the interior respiration processes we identify as 'high importance' into
biogeochemical models challenging.

467

### 468 *3,4: Community survey results*

469 In total, we received 120 responses to the community survey (Data Set S1). The 470 demographics of the respondents are shown in Figure 2. For those who declared their gender 471 identity, 51% of respondents identified as female, 47% identified as male, and 1.8% 472 identified as non-binary. The majority of respondents had attained a PhD-level qualification 473 (78%), with the most common career stages being lecturer/professor (30%), research scientist 474 (25%) and post-doc researcher (13%). The country in which respondents currently worked 475 showed a wide geographical spread, albeit with a predominance from the global north, with 476 all continents (except South America) having at least one respondent. The majority of 477 respondents currently worked in the UK (54%), as might be expected given that the BIO-478 Carbon programme is UK-funded. A range of expertise was captured in the survey, with 479 those focusing on modelling (45 respondents) and observations (48 respondents) roughly 480 equally represented, with fewer focusing on experimental work (27 respondents). The 481 majority of respondents identified as biogeochemists (63 respondents) or marine ecologists 482 (49 respondents). Note that respondents could choose more than one answer for these two 483 questions.

484

In total, 105, 88 and 61 respondents completed the sections on NPP, interior respiration and biological contributions to alkalinity, respectively. Of these, those with high or moderate expertise numbered 57, 40 and 23, respectively. We only present results from those who considered themselves to have high or moderate expertise, noting that this is only approximately half of those completing the ranking for a particular Challenge and in some cases, particularly for alkalinity, represents a rather small sample size. The overall ranking of processes from the community survey is shown in Figure 3.

492

The self-identified field of expertise of the respondents sometimes changed the ranking of the processes, although generally the top 5 were similar (Figure 4). For NPP, resource limitation of growth, zooplankton processes, phytoplankton loss processes and organic matter cycling were in the top 5, regardless of field of expertise. For those identifying as modellers, food web complexity was additionally in the top 5; for observationalists and 498 experimentalists, phytoplankton adaptation and acclimation made the top 5 processes. For 499 interior respiration, microbial solubilisation, organic matter lability, particle characteristics 500 and zooplankton processes were in the top 5, regardless of expertise. Additionally, particle 501 type made the top 5 for modellers and observationalists, and biotic fragmentation for 502 experimentalists. For alkalinity, there was somewhat more disparity in the top 5 processes 503 between expertise, however note that only 4 respondents identifying as experimentalists with 504 high/moderate expertise in alkalinity participated. All fields of expertise agreed that high 505 level of understanding of calcium carbonate production, riverine supply of alkalinity and 506 biotically mediated dissolution are in the top 5 most important processes, with physiology of 507 sedimentary calcium carbonate production, processes, primary production and 508 remineralisation, rain ratio, and plankton community making the top 5 for different expertise 509 groups. Additional segregation of expertise into field of study (e.g. biogeochemistry, ecology 510 etc.) is reported in Figure S1 but not discussed further due to the small sample size in many 511 categories.

## 512

# 513 **4. Discussion:**

514 We identified some key knowledge gaps associated with the biological storage of 515 carbon, which were prioritised on the basis of their potential to reduce uncertainty in model 516 estimates of the future biologically-mediated storage of carbon in the ocean. In general, the 517 expert assessment and community survey agreed in terms of the most significant processes (Figure 3). For example, resource limitation of growth (for NPP), microbial solubilisation 518 519 (for interior respiration) and high level understanding of calcium carbonate production (for 520 alkalinity) were within the top ranking processes for both the survey and expert assessment. 521 Some significant differences did emerge however, such as the low ranking of  $N_2$  fixation (for 522 NPP) in the survey, which was ranked as high importance in the expert assessment. These 523 differences may arise from a combination of the pre-existing bias in the literature used for the 524 expert assessment and potentially the inherent limitations of a community survey. Whereas 525 the project team spent considerable time on combing the literature, assessing the papers, 526 assembling the evidence tables, and discussing the results to reach consensus on the rankings, 527 the community survey was designed to be completed in approximately 15 minutes and 528 respondents were not provided with the evidence collated for the expert assessment.

529

530 Although processes may have been identified as important here, unless it is tractable 531 to observe them in sufficient detail to develop efficient model parameterisations, 532 incorporating many of these processes into climate models remains challenging. 533 Parameterisations for the ocean biogeochemistry component of climate models can be 534 developed from theory, idealised simulations, laboratory experiments or field observations. In 535 order to develop a robust parameterisation for a process, observations from a single 536 experiment or field programme alone (or even a handful of data points) are rarely sufficient. 537 Instead, data representative of a broad range of environmental conditions are ideally required, 538 which, in the field, demands good spatial and seasonal coverage, and also international 539 cooperation to collate such data. Data synthesis activities are crucial to these efforts, as are 540 attempts to standardise sampling and analysis protocols to generate directly inter-comparable 541 datasets.

542

543 Parameterisation of many of the processes identified in this study requires data 544 collection at sea. The growing adoption and use of autonomous technologies has greatly 545 increased the amount of field data available, particularly by providing the opportunity to 546 resolve temporal and vertical variability, and in the case of the BGC-Argo network, spatial 547 variability as well. Although new methods and novel sensors (e.g. Estapa et al., 2019; Giering 548 et al., 2020) to obtain biogeochemically-relevant data (e.g. Briggs et al., 2020; Clements et 549 al., 2022) from autonomous vehicles have emerged, nevertheless many of the processes 550 identified here cannot be observed remotely, or inferred through proxies, for example 551 organism-particle interactions, nutrient recycling rates, microbial activity etc. This presents 552 challenges for model development but also opportunities for observational and experimantal 553 programmes to broaden efforts to capture new information about relevant processes or for 554 focussed process studies.

555

556 Even with additional sources of data, challenges remain in incorporating additional 557 processes into the ocean biogeochemistry component of climate models. Developing robust 558 parameterisations requires observations or experiments across a wide dynamic range of 559 conditions, and evaluating model results requires independent data with the appropriate 560 spatial and seasonal coverage. Adding additional parameterisations to models increases the 561 complexity, and so run time and storage requirements which, particularly in the case of global 562 ESMs, may be prohibitive. Therefore, demonstrating that the additional processes have a 563 significant impact on the relevant components of the model, which will depend on the 564 objectives for developing the model (which can be diverse), is important. In the context of 565 our work here, the objective may be to improve representation of ocean carbon fluxes, such 566 as net primary production or the strength of the biological carbon pump, and their climate 567 feedbacks for example. Demonstrating an impact on model performance may be achieved 568 through 1-D 'test bed' versions of climate models which can be simply and quickly run, 569 potentially through sensitivity simulations with multiple permutations to establish the form or 570 parameter values needed to represent an additional process. Alternatively, offline physics 571 from coupled model output can be used to run multiple experiments at global scale that may 572 be highly complex (e.g. Bopp et al., 2022; Tagliabue et al., 2020; Wrightson et al., 2022). 573 Rapid testing of alternate or additional parameterisations in a 3-D framework can also be 574 achieved using the transport matrix method (Khatiwala, 2007).

575

576 Our literature review and community survey highlighted several processes that have 577 high importance and high uncertainty which may act as focal areas for future projects. More 578 broadly, maximising the gains from modelling, fieldwork and experimental studies relies on 579 collaboration between communities. Co-design of research projects from the outset can 580 ensure outputs will be useful to both communities, as well as fostering early recognition of 581 emerging research topics and potential limitations. Considering the potential for scaling-up 582 field or experimental data at the project planning stage, for example through empirical or 583 mechanistic relationships with commonly observed (and modelled) environmental variables 584 will ensure the broadest applicability of the project results. This will require data synthesis 585 activities to be embedded in research programmes, as the information obtained from a single 586 project is rarely sufficient to provide data on the large space and time scales necessary for 587 model development and validation. Data synthesis is most effective and impactful when data 588 is shared openly and hence wide collaboration is facilitated. Exploring how model behaviour 589 reflects differences in model parameterizations, functional equations, and parameter values in 590 both the euphotic and mesopelagic zones and conducting sensitivity analyses will assist in 591 ensuring alterations to biogeochemical models are both parsimonious and robust.

592

593 Significant challenges lie ahead in modelling the diversity of living organisms' 594 responses to climate forcing and the subsequent feedbacks through the ocean's carbon cycle. 595 Identifying high priority knowledge gaps is a crucial first step in this process and requires 596 synergy across observational, experimental and modelling communities.

597

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- 602
- 603**Open Research:** Full anonymised results of the community survey are available as part of604theSupportingInformation(DataSetS1)andfrom605http://dx.doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10435533
- 606

**Table 1:** Expert assessment of importance and uncertainty in processes related to the biological contribution to alkalinity.

 609

Process	Definition	Importance	Uncertainty
High level understanding of calcium carbonate production	e.g. the amount and distribution of biological CaCO <sub>3</sub> production and its sensitivity to future environmental change.	High	Medium
Rain ratio	High-level controls on Particulate Inorganic Carbon to Particulate Organic Carbon (PIC:POC) ratio of export.	High	Medium
Mineralogy of calcium carbonate production	Production of calcium carbonates such as aragonite and high magnesium calcite which have higher solubilities than standard calcite.	Medium	High
Plankton community	Our understanding of and ability to represent calcifiers within the planktonic ecosystem models.	Medium	High
Fish derived carbonates	Carbonates produced in the guts of bony fish.	Medium	High
Biotically mediated dissolution	Dissolution of CaCO₃ in zooplankton/fish guts and within fecal pellets and aggregates.	Medium	Medium
Abiotic dissolution	Dissolution of CaCO <sub>3</sub> in undersaturated waters.	Medium	Medium
Riverine supply of alkalinity	Alkalinity input to the ocean via rivers.	Medium	Medium
Physiology of CaCO <sub>3</sub> production	How CaCO <sub>3</sub> is produced by different organisms.	Low	High
Sedimentary processes	Alkalinity fluxes across the sediment-water interface, in response to processes such as anaerobic sulphate reduction.	Low	High
Calcium carbonate within sea ice	Formation and dissolution of carbonates changing the total alkalinity to dissolved inorganic carbon ratio within sea ice.	Low	High
Nutrient cycling	Processes beyond primary production and remineralisation such as nitrification/denitrification.	Low	Medium
Organic alkalinity	Contribution of weakly acidic functional groups present in Dissolved Organic Matter.	Low	Medium
Primary production and remineralisation	Assimilation and release of nutrients that contribute to total alkalinity.	Low	Low

612 613 614 615 Table 2: Expert assessment of importance and uncertainty in net primary production processes.

Process	Definition	Importance	Uncertainty
Resource limitation of	Limitation of phytoplankton growth by both	Ulah	Madium
growth	major and micro nutrients and light.	High	Medium
Phytoplankton loss	All losses of phytoplankton biomass to grazing	Ulah	8.4 o dium
processes	or mortality.	High	Medium
N <sub>2</sub> fixation	Conversion of dinitrogen into fixed nitrogen by diazotrophs.	High	Medium
Zooplankton processes	Activity of zooplankton, encompassing grazing, nutrient recycling etc.	High	Medium
Phytoplankton adaptation, acclimation	Ability of phytoplankton to adjust their physiology in response to environmental changes.	Medium	High
Microbial loop	Turnover of organic nutrients and carbon by bacteria.	Medium	High
Response to thermal stress	How plankton are parameterised to respond to temperatures exceeding their thermal optimum.	Medium	High
Phytoplankton physiology	The cellular functioning of phytoplankton, including their photosynthesis, respiration and nutrient acquisition traits.	Medium	Medium
Plankton metabolism	Chemical processes that occur within individual organisms.	Medium	Medium
External nutrient inputs	Supply of nutrients into the ocean from rivers, sediments, atmosphere and hydrothermal venting.	Medium	Medium
Micronutrients	Nutrients typically present at low concentration - including iron, manganese, zinc, cobalt, nickel.	Medium	Medium
Organic matter cycling	Transformation of dissolved and particulate organic matter into inorganic forms, including acquisition of organic nutrients.	Low	High
Food web complexity	The number of groups in a food web (including plankton, bacteria, fish and viruses) and their interactions.	Low	High
Mixotrophy	Plankton that utilise both autotrophy and heterotrophy.	Low	High

619	<b>Table 3:</b> Expert assessment of importance and uncertainty in interior respiration processes.
620	

Process	Definition	Importance	Uncertaint
Biotic	Fragmentation of particles into smaller pieces by the	High	Medium
fragmentation	action of zooplankton flux feeding or swimming.	півії	Wedium
Aggregation	Formation of larger particles by the aggregation of		
	smaller particles. Transparent Exopolymer Particles (TEP)	High	Medium
	and other sticky exudates may increase the success rate	півії	Wedium
	of collisions.		
Preferential	Preferential remineralisation of elements relative to		
remineralisation	carbon of dissolved organic matter (DOM) and particulate	High	Medium
	organic matter (POM)		
Microbial	Microbial respiration of dissolved and particulate organic		
solubilisation	material. The rate of solubilisation may be impacted by		
	the microbial community and metabolic rates and growth	High	Medium
	efficiencies. Pressure, temperature and oxygen	Ū	
	concentration, and other factors will impact these rates.		
Particle	The size, morphology, porosity and density of particles		
characteristics	which can affect their sinking speed and susceptibility to		
	remineralisation, fragmentation or (dis)aggregation	High	Medium
	(excluding the role of ballast).		
Particle type	The type of particle (e.g. fecal pellet, aggregate, single		
	cell, carcass, mucus web) will affect the sinking speed and		
	susceptibility to remineralisation or	High	Medium
	fragmentation/aggregation.		
Zooplankton	Daily vertical migration of zooplankton between euphotic		
vertical migration	and mesopelagic depths. Also referred to as active flux,		
	with excretion, egestion, respiration and mortality	Medium	High
	occurring in the mesopelagic.		
Fish-mediated	Daily vertical migration of fish and their contribution to		
processes	flux via fecal pellet production.	Medium	High
Ontogenetic	Seasonal migration of zooplankton to mesopelagic depths		
migration	where they remain over winter (also referred to as the	Medium	High
ingration	lipid pump).	Weatan	
Mineral ballasting	Biomineral (biogenic silica, calcium carbonate) or		
	lithogenic (dust) material which increases the specific	Medium	Medium
	density and sinking speed of particles.	Weardin	Wiedidini
Organic matter	Particulate organic matter and dissolved organic matter is		
lability	composed of compounds of varying lability, with some	Medium	Medium
lability	more readily remineralised than others.	Wealdin	Weddun
Zooplankton	Zooplankton particle interactions (e.g. grazing, fecal		
processes	pellet production, coprophagy) excluding biotic	Medium	Medium
processes		weulum	Wedlum
Fataonaumatia	fragmentation and diel vertical migration.		
Ectoenzymatic	Microbial excretion of extracellular enzymes to degrade	Low	High
hydrolosis	complex organic compounds.		
Viral infection	Viral infection of cells can lead to cell lysis. This may lead		
	to the viral shuttle, i.e. increased secretion of sticky	1	112-1
	material promoting aggregation, or to the viral shunt, i.e.	Low	High
	increased DOC production and a reduction in transfer of		
AL 1	carbon to higher trophic levels.		
Abiotic	Fragmentation of particles into smaller pieces by	Low	Medium
fragmentation	turbulence or shear.		

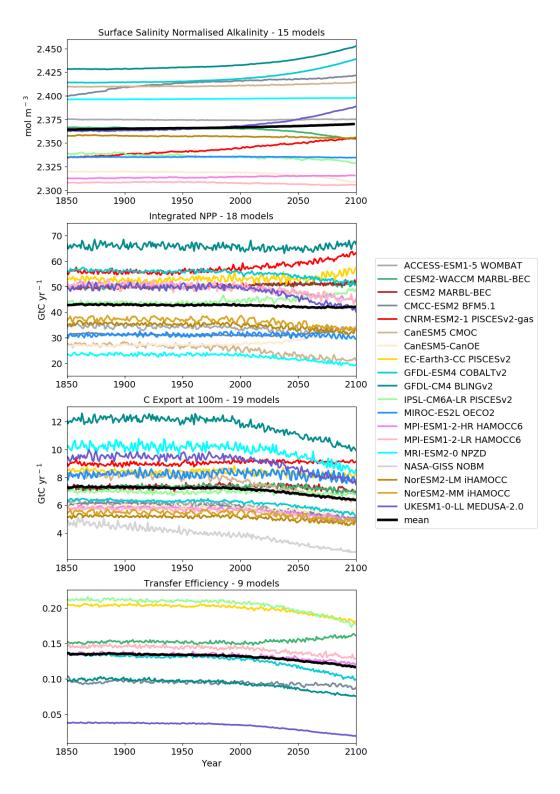


Figure 1: Time series of global mean salinity normalised alkalinity, NPP, POC flux at 100m
and transfer efficiency (POC flux at 1000m/POC flux at 100m) for the period 1850-2100
(scenario SSP5.8-5) taken from the CMIP6 model output archive. Thick black line shows the
multi-model mean.

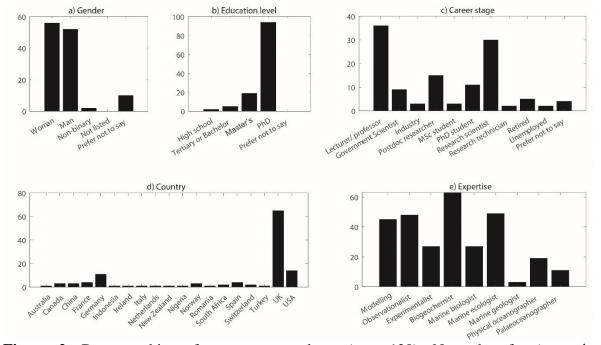
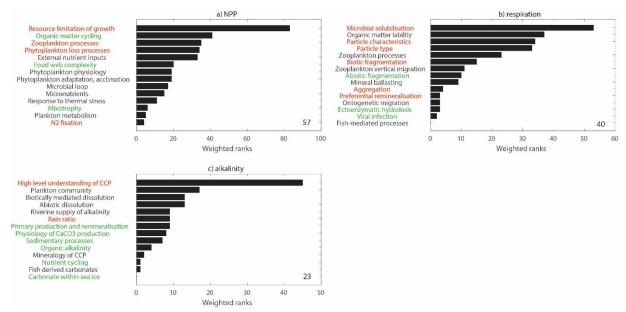


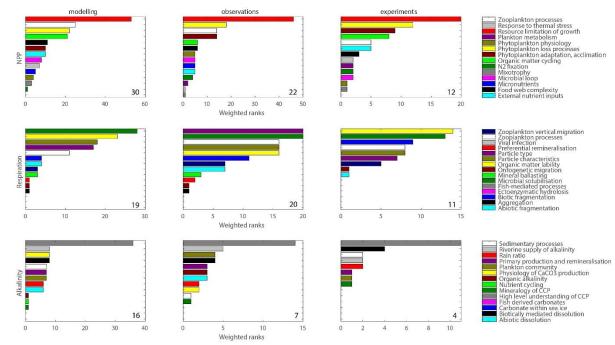
Figure 2: Demographics of survey respondents (n = 120). Note that for 'expertise' respondents could choose more than one category.



640

**Figure 3:** Community survey ranking of processes important to determining the future biologically-mediated storage of carbon in the ocean associated with each of the 3 Challenges. Only those respondents who assessed their expertise as high or moderate for a particular Challenge were included in the analysis. Responses are weighted so that the 1<sup>st</sup> ranked choice = 3 points, 2<sup>nd</sup> ranked choice = 2 points, and the 3<sup>rd</sup> ranked choice = 1 point. Numbers in bottom right corner of plots indicate number of respondents in that category. CCP = calcium carbonate production. Processes marked in red (green) were rated as having high (low) importance in the expert assessment.

639





**Figure 4:** Community survey ranking of processes, plotted according to expertise of the respondent. Only those respondents who assessed their expertise as high or moderate for a particular Challenge were included in the analysis. Note that respondents could choose more than one option for their expertise (or none). Numbers in bottom right corner of plots indicate number of respondents in that category. CCP = calcium carbonate production.

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