Dear Dr. Wilson,
first of all we would like to thank you for the time you spent on our manuscript and for the valuable comments and suggestions, which will certainly help to improve our manuscript. Please find below our general response and a detailed point-by point reply to your comments.

General response:
You and reviewer#2 suggested to separate the modeling section into another paper and agreed that the way we introduced "Excess POC flux" was confusing. Furthermore in your opinion calculating organic carbon fluxes into the deep sea based on our current mechanistic understanding is not helpful due to the large uncertainty of the required parameter values and you disagree with the approach that we adapted the equation introduced by Henson et al. 2011 to calculate export production based on primary production to the regional distinctions at our traps sites. You also did not accept the way we interpret the large differences in export production which occur if primary production is converted into export production by using the equation introduced by Henson et al. 2011 and Eppley and Peterson 1979.

We appreciate your suggestions and will defer the modeling section into another paper. We also agree to delete Excess POC flux approach from the ms. However, correlations only indicate possible links, but without a mechanistic explanation the nature of the links remains elusive. Equation 10, which was obtained from Banse 1990, describes the individual processes controlling the carbon flux into the deep sea: export production, respiration and sinking speed. We derived export production from primary production by using three different and well-accepted approaches and choose parameter values from the literature to calculate respiration rates and sinking speeds. Due to the large uncertainties, parameter value can be selected in a way that precision decreases. In contrast, selecting parameter values to improve the correlation between calculated and observed organic carbon fluxes is a way to constrain their range. The correlation between the calculated and measured fluxes is a measure of the precisions of this modeling approach. It supports the interpretation of results we obtained from the correlation between POC fluxes and ballast minerals and MLR because it explains the underplaying nature of the links established by the correlations. One problem is the large difference in export production obtained by the three different equations we used to convert primary into export production. Reviewer#2 suggests that this is addressed in an expanded discussion. You in turn suggested to state that the equation introduced by Henson et al. 2011 cannot be applied to our sediment trap data. You also disapproved to adapt it to the data we obtained at our trap site by modifying a constant. At this point we do not agree. Export production is an ecosystem function and ecosystem change temporally and spatially. Accordingly, also the constant in the famous and widely used Martin equation was often changed. Since export production derived from the modified Henson et al. 2011 equation and the selected parameter values to calculate sinking speeds and respiration agrees well to our sediment trap data (see Fig. 7c) we are convinced that our approach is suitable to study the relative importance of the individual ballast material on the organic carbon flux. Considering these aspects and your very constructive and helpful minor

comment we were very surprised that you finally recommended to reject the paper, which to our opinion is not justified.

Point to point response

Introduction:
50 to 65% based on modelling and observations Much more up to date citations needed: Ito and Follows (2005); Marine Research DeVries et al., (2012) GRL, Duteil et al., (2013) BG
This can be done but we would suggest to give credits to those authors who discovered it for the first time

also: Iron limitation, balance of nutrient flux vs. utilization
yes but in winter it is light and adding a discussion about iron further complicates the ms.

odd terminology
was changed.

"is stored", preformed nutrients are a measure (or proxy) of the efficiency of biological utilisation of upwelled nutrients
They are used as such but according to Broecker et al. 1985 their concentration can directly be calculated below the surface mixed layer.

"up to", and is spatially variable, see DeVries et al., (2012) GRL
This was considered and we added a new paragraph referring to the results obtained by DeVries et al (2012).

sequesters CO2 in sediments, is reactive/responsive over longer timescales. See Hulse et al., (2017) Earth Science Reviews
Yes, we agree and have not said anything different. However this sentence was deleted from the ms

maybe better termed lower export efficiency, or refer to the ratio of primary production to export production
This was changed.

is it relevant in a discussion about the uptake of anthropogenic CO2? At least this may be more influential on the longer term uptake and fate of anthropogenic CO2.
Yes, this is widely believed but do we have a prove? Do we know to which extent e.g. human induced erosion are already enhance the CO2 uptake of the organic carbon pump by increasing the ballast effect?

This the first time modelling has been mentioned in the introduction. The modelling needs context too, e.g., what other models have been applied and how? Have they been focussed on CaCO3 rather than lithogenic?

We agree to separate the modeling section into another paper.
However, we were pleased to read that Dr. Wilson agrees with us that the POC export (and thus the ballast effect) does not affect the CO2 uptake if all nutrients in the surface ocean are utilized and exported as organic matter. This is what we wanted to show with our modeling exercise.

Study area
The level of detail is commendable but it detracts from the specific discussion on ballasting.

The descripting of the study area was shortened

Methods
was a intercept included here or not? does it make a difference to the carrying coefficients?
We included an intercept. This did not change results, which are shown in table 7

divide by sum of %s not by 100 as they do not always equal 100 in Table 3

Table 3 shows the POC flux and not the organic matter flux (OM) which POC flux * 1.8. Considering the OM flux its amounts to 100%.

would be nice to state these parameter units and values closer to the equation
It was moved closer to the equation.

what is the effect if you use a different remineralisation rate from this range? how does this compare to the study sites? again what would the impact of this parameter choice have on your results?

The choice of parameters could strongly affect the result. However, the equations describe our current mechanistic understanding (see Eq. 10 and Banse 1990). We chose parameters from the literature and used it along with equations to calculate fluxes. The correlation between calculated and measured fluxes is a measure to which extent we can explain the measured fluxes with our current mechanistic understanding. This supports the interpretation of results obtained from statistical analysis, which we provided additionally.

Results and discussion
Would you expect a significant difference for resuspended forams and why? i.e., seasonal differences or annual differences?
I wasn't expecting paleo-proxies to appear!

Yes, because forams resuspended from sediment should be from different seasons, are older and could even be affected by diagenesis.

is this the sediment trap data divided by export production...if so needs to be more explicit

Yes, the statement that "16.5 ±5% and 46.5±5% of the exported organic matter reach the traps" means that we divided sediment trap data by export production and multiplied the result with 100.

note that two of these are statistical fits to SST data so this is unsurprising
I don't quite understand the logic of plotting this as this is a comparison of export production estimates and this paper is about lithogenic fluxes not export models.

This paper is about the role of lithogenic matter as ballast material and the ballast effect increases the fraction of export production, which reaches the deep sea. To quantify this fraction we also need to know export production.

it's important to note that eq.1 is a step function changing at 200 g C m-2 yr-1 so some variability is due to this.

This part was deleted from the ms.

is michaelis menten an appropriate function here...or at least is it being interpreted mechanistically? is this fitted and how? what's the r2? The fit seems worse at lower export production?
perhaps a map with dots coloured by the values on the y-axis on Fig. 7a would help show this better
I do not understand this step. Please state explicitly what is done.

This part was also deleted from the ms.

This is not clear from 7b? What are criteria for excluding data in 7b and 7c?

This was modified and the criteria was a lithogenic matter content of < 25% and > 25%.

a contour or ternary plot may be better to compare poc, CaCO3 and lithogenic simultaneously?

This was done see figure 9.

given the prevalence of this approach in previous work, it would seem like a good starting point for the results before then exploring in more detail.
Since reviewer #2 suggested to add a discussion about the reliability of sediment trap data it was to our understanding impossible to follow this suggesting. Hope that you share our opinion.

why are these separated from the other data?
Again what are the criteria for exception?
Again, a contour/ternary/spatial plot might help pick out these relationships better
See above, the criteria was a lithogenic matter content of < and > 25% and a ternary plot was added (see Fig. 9)

also came to a similar conclusion in Wilson et al., (2012)!

ok!

This is somewhat unsurprising given the density parameter choices

We agree but densities are as they are.

is this because the export schemes capture the broad trend? If so, would a fixed sinking rate also correlate with the measurements? This would act as a control experiment, i.e., does adding density significantly improve your estimated POC flux estimates or not?

Yes it does and it is a crucial aspect which was included into the discussion.

This is a statistical fit to global data, therefore changing the parameter values seems invalid. Instead comment that the model maybe doesn't fit well in this region based on the mismatch with POC fluxes?
This needs far more discussion and evidence to state this, which would be well beyond this manuscript. It is inconsistent with the way in which eq. 3 has been used in other studies.
see above
Here we disagree. Adaption of an equation to regional distinctions is to our opinion acceptable because export production is an ecosystem function and ecosystem change temporally and spatially. Accordingly, also the constant in the famous Martin equation was often changed.

Separation of the modeling section into another paper solved the following issuses:
It would be good to have a table of parameters names, descriptions, values and units. There are still a few missing details that are needed to reproduce the model, such as volume of boxes.
This seems large but it's difficult to know for this type of box model...are there comparisons against other models?
See Chuck et al., (2005) Tellus for one direct example
surprisingly small timestep for this resolution!
is this correct? Would give a PIC:POC of 1.42 which is much larger than observed

more like 0.1-0.2 Or is a typo and is actually PIC:POC not POC:PIC?
where are these derived from? annual means of global observations?
what is 2.18?
what is the value of alpha?
what is this function? A CO2SYS style function?
state somewhere the stoichiometric ratios used (0.15 = 16/106 and 2)
Are these values for a spun-up control run?
I am concerned about the value of fraction (0.0005).
Firstly it needs units of per time (year?).
Secondly, this suggests that not all nutrients in the surface ocean are consumed. For low latitudes, you would expect ~all nutrients to be consumed (e.g., Sarmiento and Toggweiler 1984, Nature). Although here the surface box represents an average of low and high latitudes?
This means you have a fixed production also, i.e., no response to nutrient concentrations. What is the effect of this? What happens if the nutrient concentrations cannot support the flux? Other models (e.g., Chuck et al., 2005, Tellus) have used a Michaelis-Menten style uptake.
You have no pelagic ecosystems in this model!
this is a global ocean model, lithogenic fluxes are not global but spatially variable so is not an appropriate model.

Why choose these values? Why are they representative of lithogenic fluxes?
How? Are the parameters as per the control run for this experiment except POC production?
preformed nutrients are the metric/proxy for utilisation of nutrients
How is this calculated?
How representative are preformed nutrients without a Southern Ocean?
I don't understand this sentence...if preformed nutrient = 0, then biological utilisation of nutrients is complete so how would ballasting impact this?
which are the concentrations?
Do you set POC production equal to the PO4 inventory of the surface box?
this does not make sense
preformed nutrients are a consequence of circulation and biology in the southern ocean
this model is not able to support this because it has no representation of high latitudes
You have built a numerical model so use it to it's full advantage and quantify these statements.
model doesn't have an "overturning circulation"

Is so, then it's unsurprising that POC changes have no effect on pCO2 because you have forced it to be this way.
This is what we wanted prove with our model

This would be different if you had a Michaelis-menten style uptake function.

Dear reviewer #2,
thank you for the time you spent on reviewing our manuscript and your valuable comments. You and Dr. Wilson who also acted as reviewer agreed that the way we introduced "Excess POC flux" was confusing and suggested to delete the modeling from the manuscript. As pointed already out in our response to Dr. Wilson we will remove the modeling and the "Excess POC Flux" section from the manuscripts.
Furthermore you criticized that our manuscript is difficult to read because of imprecise phrasings and messages, which are hidden behind convoluted sentences. The great detail at which Dr. Wilson commented on our manuscript indicates to us that it may be not as unfit as asserted by you. However, we are convinced that your suggestions to give a clear message at the start of each section and to standardize the terminology used will make our manuscript much stronger. Please find below our detailed point-by point reply to your comments.

Point to point reply

Abstract :
Page 1, line 15:
"our results suggest that a preferential export of organic matter in slower-sinking particles reduces the transfer efficiency of exported organic matter in high-productive systems compared with low-productive regions."
What is meant by comparing "systems" to "regions"? Is the comparison between sites or between seasons? Fig. 7, that is presumably referred to here, uses data (not shown individually) split by seasons. The authors intention is not clear; do they mean that both high-and low transfer efficiencies can exist at different seasons at one site, or do they mean that they differ between sites on the annual average? With unclear wording, this is difficult to decide. As noted below, the seasonal data (split into its components POC/lithogenic/carbonate etc.) should be shown in this manuscript.
Line 20
"By enhancing the export of organic matter into the deep sea, the ballast effect increases the residence time of these nutrients in the ocean" presumably the deep ocean is meant – nutrient residence times in the (entire) ocean remain dependant on sources and sinks, which are not affected by the ballast effect.

The abstract was changed

Introduction:
P3, lines 23-24: The rationale to this box model – why, state-of-the art etc. should be given, or the box model left out of the paper altogether.

Was done.

P3, line 25 onwards. Part 2. "Study Site" is a lot of textbook information, it is not clear what is necessary for this paper. Should be shortened and made more concise.

Was shortened.

Methods: P5, line 17-22: should be part of discussion, not methods

This section is now in the discussion

P5, line 25 variability is < 17% not <+ 17%

'+/-' was be deleted.

P5, line 26. What justification do they have for ignoring inter-annual differences in flux -just the relative standard deviation (not the standard deviation, as they say), compared to a general trapping efficiency (literature value), is doubtful reasoning. Especially in an area where inter-annual differences in the strength of the monsoon can be expected to cause corresponding flux differences, this needs to be expanded on. Though relative SD is "only" 17%, the ranges are large – between 43 and 69 gC/m2/yr (over 50% difference) at WAST for example. The authors may be missing important insights by ironing over inter-annual variations.

The respective data are given in Tab. 2 and we included some more information into the text. However, we also tried to link the observed interannual variability to changes in the monsoon but so far results are not very promising. Including a discussion about such a problematic issue is beyond the scope of this paper.

P5, line 28. The seasons are referred to differently throughout the manuscript – winter/ winter monsoon, summer / summer monsoon, intermonsoon, rainy season. This makes laborious reading; please standardize.

It was standardized.

General questions on methods:
When delineating seasons have the authors accounted for the time lag of several weeks to a month that it takes for material from the surface reach the deep-sea? Which surface productivity areas have they taken to compare production to flux? Have they used particle backtracking?

According to our results (Rixen et al. 1996) and in line with sinking speeds derived from the U.S. JGOFS sediment trap data (Berelson, 2001) the delay is less than 14 days. Due to the temporal resolution of the sediments trap data of about 21 day and the satellite data of 30 days we could not resolve a shift between the primary production rates and sediment trap data (see Fig. 4), which would justify to consider a temporal delay by comparing these two data sets with each other.

P5, line 30 NEAST and EP3 are left out of Table 3. Why?
Our NEAST record covers only one season and this season was considered, but NAST and WPT were left out because our record did not even cover one season.

ETP was left out because the trap was deployed at water depth of 590 m. Extrapolating the ETP data to the water-depth at which the other traps were deployed (> 1800 m) causes large uncertainties. In order to clarify this issue ETP, NAST and WPT were removed form the manuscript.

P6, line 10. Easier to follow later if export production is abbreviated as POCexport

Was done.

P7 Sinking Speeds: Table 4 shows the values used for calculation and these are given in the text, but justifications are not forthcoming. Is the temperature of 10_C realistic? What is the temperature dependency of the results? Similarly, for salinity. The authors show in Fig. 2 that their traps were in a region of widely varying T & S, and indeed this is what characterises the Indian Ocean. So where are the limits of applicability of their calculations? Indeed, they vary density and keep the other variables constant, but perhaps it is density that should be constrained and the other variables altered. This needs to be better justified.

We have checked the influence of temperature and salinity and they were small. However, seawater temperatures and salinity were selected from the World Ocean Atlas 2013 for each trap site and presented in Table 5.

Results and Discussion:
After struggling through sections 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3. I could not glean clear messages.

4.1 Organic Carbon Fluxes into the deep sea: The first paragraph describes previous literature results and indicates that seasonality depends on distance from the coast (intentionally or wrong sentence structure?). The second paragraph describes Figure 4. What is the main message of this section? What is discussed?

The discussion was change as suggested by the reviewer.

4.2 Java in comparison to the western Arabian sea: Why compare these? Why then leave out the (comparable, since closest to the margin) EPT station? What does one learn from this comparison? The text brings up several possible explanations for seasonality in the Java traps, but then negates them all. The seasonal lithogenic data are cited but not shown in the tables or figures.

As mentioned before ETP was deployed at a water-depth of only 590 m. WAST and JAM represent two extremes: Both traps were deployed in seasonal upwelling systems. Despite lower primary production the fluxes at JAM were as high as at WAST. This data support results obtained from our calculation showing that lithogenic matter ballast suffice to explain such difference.

4.3. Primary production and organic carbon fluxes: This section made very confused reading (see detailed comments below). Besides comparing three

models for calculating and extrapolating fluxes (equations 1,2 and 3), and finding that they differ widely, there is no clear message.

What do we learn from this? What POCexcess represents is not clear, making it difficult to comprehend what Figure 7 shows (where data are left out of the regressions with no justification.) The main message, that lithogenic matter enhances POCexcess flux (but see above) is stated but not critically discussed.

In several cases, very convoluted sentences and imprecise phrasing makes comprehension difficult. It would help if a clear message was given at the start of these sections, and the discussion brought in support of these. In several cases, the authors talk of seasonal fluxes, but these are not shown anywhere, making it difficult to follow based on the figures and tables. These should be shown.

The purpose of Figure 7a was to show the poor link between export production and organic carbon fluxes which for us was the first indication of the ballast effect. The Excess POC flux, which represents the deviation of the data points from the Michaelis Menten typ of trend line, supported this assumption, as it correlates with the lithogenic matter content. However, this part was removed from the ms.

Detailed comments:
P10, line 18. Fig 2 does not show pronounced phytoplankton blooms

This was changed.

P10, line 25-27 This sentence says that seasonality depends on distance from the coast. Is this intended or is the sentence wrongly formulated?

Yes, because nutrients are consumed close to the coast and nutrient-depleted low salinity water hinders vertical mixing and associated nutrient inputs from below into the euphotic zone by increasing the stratification further offshore. In the newly revised ms this was explained in more detail.

P10 line 28 At which sites – AS or BoB?
Was changed

P11, line 2 – what does ENSO have to do with this here?
Was deleted.

P 11, line 4 – Fig 2 e and f does not show this

? – Fig 2 e and f show primary production rates in the summer and winter, which in both cases are higher off Oman than off south Java. The respective data were also extracted and shown in Table 4 and 5.

P 11, 4.2 What is the message of this paragraph? None of the explanations apply, since they are negated in the discussion. Lithogenic flues at JAM are the highest compared to some stations in the western Arabian sea but not to EPT (the most similar in terms of being near-margin), where they are even higher. Does proximity to the coast play a role? The EPT trap is at a very shallow depth, so direct comparison of fluxes is difficult. Why is EPT left out of Tables 2, 5 and 6 and not discussed here?

As mentioned before ETP was deployed at a water-depth of 590 m and WAST and JAM represent two contrasting extremes.

P 11 line 22. Data not shown (lithogenic matter 60%) . Which are the "rainy season" and "upwelling season"? Difficult to follow this reasoning.
Line 24 lithogenic matter >55% - where is this shown? Which season?

As suggested by the reviewer seasons were standardized. Seasonal means were re-calculated and presented in Table. 4.

P 11, line 30 "the seasonally averaged organic carbon fluxes and export production rates were compared" Where are seasonally averaged fluxes shown?

see above

It took a while to figure out that export production was actually POCeuphotic. Use POCexport throughout or call it euphotic zone export for easy understanding.

was done.

P11, line 31 – 32. The sentence is unclear. "The ratio between the organic carbon flux and the export production defines the transfer efficiency (Teff) of the exported organic carbon (Francois et al., 2002). Multiplied by 100, it represents the share of the export production rates, which is respired in the water column." Do the authors mean "The ratio between the organic carbon flux at trap depth and the export production defines the transfer efficiency (Teff) of the exported organic carbon (Francois et al., 2002). Multiplied by 100, it represents the share of the export production rates, which is not respired in the water column." Perhaps I have misunderstood, but please clarify by precise wording.

was changed

P12, line 2 ".. and at the Bay of Bengal" At what depth?

was changed and trap depths are given in Table 1

Line 3 ".. of exported organic matter" at what depth? Do they mean at the base of the euphotic zone? And "reach the traps" – at trap depths varying from 1500 – 3000 m? Unclear what the message of this sentence is.

was changed

Line 3 “varying SST mainly causes this difference”. I presume the authors mean “Different SST values used” since SST did not actually vary.

was changed.

Line 7. Between 5 and 72% of “the organic matter “ (WHICH organic matter?) “reaches the deep sea”. What does this exercise teach us? Using three varying formulae give widely differing estimates – the value of 72% seems unrealistically high. Again, what is the message from this exercise; the reader awaits a critical discussion.

This was clarified. Nevertheless, export production is highly uncertain component in the marine carbon cycle. Solving this problem is beyond the scope of this work.

Line 9. “Eq 1 is > 6 times higher”.. Surely they mean LOWER?? Or which values are referred to?

It refers to the POC export production. At the same primary production the export production derived from Eq. 1 is higher as that from Eq 2. This was clarified.

Line 15. Why is a Michaelis-Menten model used? The data appear to show a threshold cut-off at low export production. Perhaps a two-step linear relationship, with a shift at around 50 gC/m2/yr, maybe more appropriate. Please justify.

It shows the best fit but as also suggested by Dr. Wilson other fits can be checked. However, since this approach is too confusing is was delete from the ms.

Line 17: did diatoms dominate the traps in these seasons in this study? Para starting line 20 and Fig 7a: If I have understood the text, the red line is merely the inverse of the black one, so what is its use? It is not clear – even after re-reading several times, how POCexcess is calculated and, above all, why? This appears to hold a circular argument. It is not clear why the use of Eq.1 is emphasised for Fig 7b – in fact, the text does not allow clear understanding of this entire paragraph.
Sentence starting line 26: surely the reference is to Fig 7c? Fig 7: several data points are left out of the regression with no explanation. Some mechanistic understanding should be given.

As mentioned before the topic ‘Excess POC flux’ was deleted.

The Ballast Effect of Lithogenic Matter and its Influences on the Carbon Fluxes in the Indian Ocean

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Abstract. Data obtained from long-term sediment trap experiments in the Indian Ocean were analysed in conjunction with satellite-derived observations to study the influence of primary production and the ballast effect on organic carbon flux into the deep sea. Our results suggest that primary production mainly controlled the spatial variability of carbonate and organic carbon fluxes at our study sites in the open Indian Ocean. At trap sites in the river-influenced northern and central Bay of Bengal and off South Java lithogenic matter was the main ballast material and its content strongly influenced organic carbon fluxes favoured by weakly pronounced variability of primary production at our trap locations in these regions. Densities of ballast minerals were compiled from the literature and used in addition to their fluxes measured by sediment traps and satellite-derived export production rates, to calculate sinking speeds and organic carbon fluxes. These calculations imply that lithogenic matter could increase the mean sinking speeds by 34% and the mean calculated organic carbon flux by 41% at sites in the open Indian Ocean due to the effect of sinking speeds on organic carbon flux. At trap locations in the river-influenced regions of the Indian Ocean an enhanced lithogenic matter content and a resulting stronger ballast effect increased the calculated organic carbon fluxes by up to 62%. This explains high measured organic carbon fluxes in the low-productive South Java Sea, which exceeded those determined in the highly productive western Arabian Sea. The strong effect of lithogenic matter on the organic carbon flux as seen at the study sites in the Indian Ocean implies that land use changes and the associated transport of lithogenic matter from land into the ocean effects the CO_2 uptake of organic carbon pump significantly.

1 Introduction

Photosynthesis and the export of organic matter from the euphotic zone into the deep sea drives the organic carbon pump and is an integral part of the global carbon cycle (Volk and Hoffert, 1985). The amount of nutrients used to fix CO_2 strongly influences the CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon pump. At present, phytoplankton utilises about half of the nutrients stored in

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Deleted: a preferential export of organic matter in slower-sinking particles reduces the transfer efficiency of exported organic matter in high-productive systems compared with low-productive regions. The resulting enhanced respiration of organic matter maintains the high nutrient availability in the surface ocean and thus the high productivity during the summer and winter bloom in the Arabian Sea. In turn, mineral ballast is essential for the transport of organic matter and nutrients into the deep sea. The additional lithogenic ballast effect can increase organic carbon fluxes by 60 %. Our model results indicate that lithogenic ballast enhances the CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon pump by increasing the amount of nutrients utilised by the organic carbon pump to bind CO_2. By enhancing the export of organic matter into the deep sea, the ballast effect increases the residence time of these nutrients in the ocean. They lose the attached CO_2 if they are introduced into the surface ocean at higher latitude, where the lack of light prevents photosynthesis in winter. Considering the impact of the lithogenic ballast effect on the organic carbon export into the deep sea and the enhanced mobilisation of lithogenic matter due to land-use changes, it is assumed that humans influence the CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon pump, which might hold relevance for the discussion about the anthropogenic CO_2 uptake of the ocean.

the ocean. These nutrients are called regenerated nutrients and the CO_2 associated with them is called regenerated CO_2. The other half of the nutrients stored in the ocean eludes its utilisation and remains biologically unused (Duteil et al., 2012; Ito and Follows, 2005; Knox and McElroy, 1984; Sarmiento and Toggweiler, 1984; Siegenthaler and Wenk, 1984). These so-called 'preformed nutrients' (Broecker et al., 1985) originate at higher latitudes when upwelling and convective mixing introduce regenerated nutrients and CO_2 into the surface layer and light limitation prevents their photosynthetic assimilation in winter. Whereas regenerated CO_2 returns into the atmosphere, convective mixing and subduction of denser polar water beneath the warmer and lighter subtropical water masses restores former regenerated nutrients as preformed nutrients into the deep ocean. The lower the preformed nutrients formation rate the higher the amount of regenerated nutrients and CO_2 stored by the organic carbon pump in the ocean (e.g., Ito and Follows, 2005). The ratio between total (regenerated and preformed) nutrient input into the ocean's surface layer and their export as organic matter indicates the CO_2 uptake efficiency of the organic carbon pump (DeVries et al., 2012). This is high in the tropics where the ratio between import and export as regenerated nutrients is close to one. At higher latitudes the transformation of regenerated into preformed nutrients lowers the nutrient import to export ratio and therewith the CO_2 uptake efficiency of the organic carbon pump.

The ballast effect is another process that affects the CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon pump because it increases the water depth at which exported organic matter is respired (e.g. Haake and Ittekkot, 1990; Ittekkot, 1993; Kwon et al., 2009). If organic matter is respired within the euphotic zone, the released CO_2 can immediately return into the atmosphere. If it is respired in the deep sea, regenerated CO_2 and nutrients are injected into the ocean's long-term overturning circulation, where they can be stored for up to 1,500 years (De La Rocha and Passow, 2014; Heinze et al., 1991). Accordingly, the ballast effect strengthens the CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon pump by extending the mean residence time of regenerated nutrients and CO_2 (CO_2 sequestration time) in the ocean (DeVries et al., 2012).

The ballast effect reduces respiration in the water column and increases organic carbon fluxes into the deep mainly due to two processes: minerals, which cause the ballast effect, can (i) adsorb and/or integrate organic molecules onto and into their structure (Armstrong et al., 2002) and (ii) increase the sinking speed of particles in which organic matter is exported from the euphotic zone (Haake and Ittekkot, 1990; Hamm, 2002; Ramaswamy et al., 1991). The former protects organic matter against remineralization and the latter reduces the duration of respiration in the water column. Carbonates, biogenic opal and lithogenic matter are the main ballast minerals. Marine plankton produces carbonates and biogenic opal, whereas lithogenic matter is formed during the weathering of rocks on land. Its input as dust and by rivers into the ocean is thus a steering mechanism linking the CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon pump directly to processes on land (Ittekkot and Haake, 1990).

Results obtained from sediment trap experiments in the northern Indian Ocean have indicated that the Asian monsoon and its impact on the nutrient supply into the euphotic zone controls organic carbon fluxes into the deep Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal (Haake et al., 1993; Ittekkot et al., 1991; Nair et al., 1989; Rixen et al., 1996; Rixen et al., 2009). Additionally, eolian dust inputs and discharges from rivers are assumed to influence the ballast effect in these two basins (Ittekkot, 1993; Ittekkot and Haake, 1990). Due to a stronger ballast effect an enhanced share of the organic matter exported from the euphotic zone reached the deep sea in the river-dominated Bay of Bengal (Rao et al., 1994). Export of organic carbon from the euphotic

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defines the export production, which is often assumed to correspond to the organic carbon flux at a water-depth of 100 m. In the following we will adopt this definition of the term 'export production' and use the term 'organic carbon flux' for the organic carbon fluxes measured by sediment traps in the deep sea.

In contrast to results obtained from the early sediment trap experiments a Multiple Linear Regression Analysis (MLR) using a global compilation of sediment trap data, including data from the Indian Ocean, showed that primary production hardly affects organic carbon fluxes and that carbonate is the main ballast mineral controlling the organic carbon export into the deep sea in the world's ocean (Klaas and Archer, 2002). This result was supported by Francois et al. (2002) and it was assumed that the contribution of lithogenic matter was too low to significantly contribute to the ballast effect, except in near-shore regions such as the Bay of Bengal. Based on an expanded global compilation of sediment trap data, a geographically weighted analysis identified carbonate and lithogenic matter as the main ballast minerals in the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengals (Wilson et al., 2012), whereas an MLR applied to data from the Indian Ocean emphasised the role of biogenic opal as the main ballast mineral (Ragueneau et al., 2006). Therewith, all mineral components (lithogenic matter, carbonate and biogenic opal) were suggested to act as the 'main ballast material' in the Indian Ocean and the role of primary production as the main driver of organic carbon fluxes was called into question. In order to study the influence of primary production and the impact of individual ballast minerals on organic carbon fluxes in the Indian Ocean in more detail we compiled our sediment trap results (Fig. 1, Tab. 1), compared them with satellite data, and applied the MLR to our newly assembled data set. Furthermore, densities of ballast minerals were compiled from the literature and used jointly with measured fluxes and satellite-derived export production rates to calculate sinking speeds and organic carbon fluxes. This mechanistic approach is used to validate conclusions obtained by comparing time-series observations and using statistical methods as well as to quantify impacts of individual ballast minerals on sinking speed and organic carbon fluxes.

2. Study Area

The Asian monsoon strongly influences the northern Indian Ocean with its two semi-enclosed basins: the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. Sea-level pressure differences between the Asian landmass and the Indian Ocean drive the monsoon (Ramage, 1987, 1971). Following the pressure gradient and deflected by the Coriolis force, wind blows from the NE over the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal in winter between December and February (Currie et al., 1973). In summer (June - September), the situation reverses. The heating of the Asian landmass leads to the formation of a strong atmospheric low which attracts and enforces the SE trade winds to cross the equator in the western Indian Ocean. They form a strong low-level jet (Findlater Jet) blowing from the SW over the Arabian Sea (Fig. 2a,b, Findlater, 1969; Findlater, 1977).

In the Arabian Sea, the positive wind stress curl west of the axis of the Findlater Jet causes upwelling, which is strongest along the coast of the Arabian Peninsula (Bauer et al., 1991; Luther and O'Brien, 1990; Ryther and Menzel, 1965; Sastry and D'Souza, 1972). Weaker upwelling systems also occur NE off Sri Lanka and along the SW coast of India (Sharma, 1978; Shetye et al., 1990; Wiggert et al., 2006), whose signals are carried by the Southwest Monsoon Current into the

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Considering the origin of potential ballast minerals, it is crucial to know which mineral acts when and where to better understand the response of the organic carbon pump to global change. Despite its potential to respond to global changes (e.g. DeVries and Deutsch, 2014; Duce et al., 2008; Laufkötter et al., 2017; Riebesell et al., 2007), there are strong uncertainties about the magnitude and direction of change (Passow and Carlson, 2012) and its role is largely neglected in the discussion about the anthropogenic CO_2 uptake of the ocean (Sabine and Tanhua, 2009). If carbonate and/or biogenic opal act as the main ballast minerals, changes of marine ecosystems can affect the ballast effect, whereas if lithogenic matter are the main ballast, human-induced land-use changes can influence it via their impact on weathering and erosion on land. ... [6]

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southern Bay of Bengal (Unger et al., 2003). Due to the northward movements of the SE trade wind systems and the associated reversal of the South Java Current an upwelling system emerges off South Java and Bali almost simultaneously with the development of the Findlater Jet in the Arabian Sea during the boreal summer (Susanto et al., 2001). Off Java and Bali this is actually the winter season but in order to avoid confusion we refer the term 'summer' and 'winter' to the boreal summer and winter, only.

The monsoon rains feed one of the world's largest river systems (Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna), which originates in the Himalayas and has its maximum discharge into the Bay of Bengal in summer (Ludwig et al., 1996; Milliman and Meade, 1983; Milliman et al., 1984; Subramanian et al., 1985). Unlike the Indian subcontinent, Indonesia has no major rivers because it comprises relatively small islands. Nevertheless, model studies suggest that the small Indonesian rivers contribute ~11% ($4.26 * 10^{12}$ m^3yr^{-1}) to the global freshwater discharge into the ocean (Syvitski et al., 2005). Due to the high freshwater water inputs, low salinity surface waters (salinity < 33) fringe the continental shelves and margins in the eastern Indian Ocean north of the equator and the high salinity waters (salinity > 35) reflect the negative freshwater balance in the Arabian Sea (Fig. 2c, d).

Inputs of suspended sediments from the Ganges-Brahmaputra-Meghna (1060 Mt yr^{-1}) and Indonesian rivers (1630 Mt yr^{-1}) represent 80% and 20% of the suspended sediment inputs into the Indian and the world's ocean (Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011; Syvitski et al., 2005). Sediment discharge from the Indus into the Arabian Sea only amounts to about 10 Mt yr^{-1} (Milliman and Farnsworth, 2011) and is largely trapped at the Indian continental shelf and margin due to the prevailing current regime (Ramaswamy et al., 1991). In the western part of the Arabian Sea, where the formation of High Salinity Arabian Sea Water (Rochford, 1966; Tchernia, 1980; Tegen and Fung, 1995) shows negligible freshwater inputs (Fig. 2 c,d), eolian dust inputs are the main sources of lithogenic matter (Clemens et al., 1991; Sirocko et al., 1993; Tegen and Fung, 1995).

3. Methods

3.1 Sediment Trap Data

Our sediment trap experiment started in 1986 and was expanded into the Bay of Bengal one year later in 1987. The fieldwork ended around 1998. It was reinitiated in 2007 and 2008, although this could not be followed up due to piracy, which became an issue in the region at that time. The sediment trap sites in the northern and central Bay of Bengal were shifted slightly southward in some years, whereby the stations NBBT and CBBT were spilt into northern (NBBT-N, CBBT-N) and southern sites (NBBT-S, CBBT-S, Fig. 1, Tab. 1). The sediment trap moorings equipped with Mark 6 and 7 time-series sediment traps were deployed for periods of six months to one year with sampling intervals of mostly around 21 days. Haake et al. (1993) and Rixen et al. (1996) describe the sample processing and the analysis of bulk components (organic carbon, carbonate, biogenic opal and lithogenic matter) in detail. Organic carbon fluxes (POC) multiplied by 1.8 results in organic matter fluxes (OM). The lithogenic matter fluxes represent the difference between total flux and fluxes of OM, carbonate and biogenic opal. Fluxes were used to calculate monthly (Fig. 3), seasonal (Tab. 2), annual (Tab. 3) and long-

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term annual means (Tab. 3, 4). The considered seasons were summer (June - September), winter (January - April) and transition periods (May and October to December). Annual means were calculated only when particle fluxes were measured for more than 150 days year^{-1}. Since at NEAST our record covers only one season, we calculated a seasonal mean (Tab. 2) but no annual mean.

3.2 Satellite Data

Monthly mean wind speeds and salinity data were derived from the Scatterometer Climatology of Ocean Winds (Risien and Chelton, 2008) and the Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) satellite mission, respectively (Fig. 2a-d). The SMOS data covering the period between 2010 and 2012 were downloaded from ftp://ftp.icdc.zmaw.de/smos_sss/. Monthly mean satellite-derived sea surface temperatures (SST, Smith et al., 2008) were obtained from ftp://ftp.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/cmb/sst/oimonth_v2/ASCII_UPDATE. Primary production rates (PP, Fig. 2 e,f) derived from the Vertically Generalized Production Model (VGPM, Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997) were downloaded from http://www.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity and averaged as the SST data at around 1 degree around the trap location.

Equations 1 - 3 introduced by Eppley and Peterson (1979), Law et al. (2000) and Henson et al. (2011) were used to convert primary into export production (POC_{Export}).

$$E: POC_{Export} = \begin{matrix} 0.0025 \cdot PP^2 \rightarrow PP < 200 \\ 0.5 \cdot PP \rightarrow PP > 200 \end{matrix} \quad (1)$$

$$L: POC_{Export} = (-0.02 \cdot SST + 0.63) \cdot PP \quad (2)$$

$$H: POC_{Export} = 0.23 \cdot exp^{(-0.08 \cdot SST)} \cdot PP \quad (3)$$

Eppley and Peterson (1979) suggested two different equations for PP < and > 200 g m^{-2} year^{-1}. The monthly mean primary and export production rates converging the period between 2002 and 2015 were used to calculate monthly (Fig. 3), seasonal (Tab. 2) and annual means (Tab. 5).

3.3 Multiple Linear Regression Analysis (MLR)

Similar to other studies (e.g. Klaas and Archer, 2002; Ragueneau et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2012), a Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was applied to calculate carrying coefficients (f). Here, we used the OLS regression analysis included in the Python module statsmodels:

$$F_{POC}\left[\frac{g}{m^2 \cdot year}\right] = (f_{Lith.} \cdot F_{Lith.}) + (f_{Opal} \cdot F_{Opal}) + (f_{Carb} \cdot F_{Carb.}) \quad (4)$$

(F) represents fluxes of respective bulk components lithogenic matter (Lith.), biogenic opal (Opal) and carbonate (Carb.). In

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order to estimate the relative importance of individual ballast minerals (RIB) for the POC flux (F_{POC}), their contribution to the predicted POC flux was calculated.

$$RIB_i[\%] = \frac{100}{F_{POC}} \cdot (f_i \cdot F_i) \quad (5)$$

(i) indicates the different ballast minerals.

3.4 Sinking Speed

In addition to statistical methods, the influence of the individual ballast minerals can also be derived from a more mechanistic approach by quantifying their contribution to the density of the solids (ρ_{solids}):

$$\rho_{solids} = \frac{(Lith\% \cdot D_{lith}) + (OM\% \cdot D_{OM}) + (Opal\% \cdot D_{Opal}) + (Carb.\% \cdot D_{Carb.})}{100} \quad (6)$$

Lith%, OM (=POC*1.8)%, Opal% and Carb% are the percentage of the respective ballast minerals in the sinking particles collected in the sediment traps and (D) represents their density (Tab. 6).

Densities of the bulk component show a wide range and fall below those of their crystalline analogues (Fig. 4). For example, the density of proteins varies between 1.22 to 1.47 g cm^{-3}, whereas the density of organic matter in phytoplankton comprising > 80% of amino acids varies between 1.03 and 1.1 g cm^{-3} (Lee et al., 2004; Logan and Hunt, 1987; Miklasz and Denny, 2010; Quillin and Matthews, 2000). With 0.7 – 0.84 g cm^{-3}, the density of transparent exopolymers (TEP) – which play an essential role for the formation of marine snow – is even below that of seawater (Azetsu-Scott et al., 2004). Other carbohydrates such as cellulose reveal a density of 1.5 g cm^{-3}. The density of calcite – the most common calcium carbonate mineral in the pelagic ocean – is 2.71 g cm^{-3} (Mottana et al., 1978). In turn, coccolithophores and foraminifera tests reveal densities of only 1.55 g cm^{-3} (page 71, Winter and Siesser, 1994) and up to 1.7 g cm^{-3} (Schiebel et al., 2007; Schiebel and Hemleben, 2000). In contrast to opal – which is a hydrous silicon oxide and reveals densities of 1.9 to 2.5 g cm^{-3} – the density of diatom frustules (biogenic opal) varies between 1.46 and 2.0 g cm^{-3} (Csögör et al., 1999; DeMaster, 2003).

The density of lithogenic matter depends on its mineral composition. Clay minerals change their density by adsorbing water, which is most pronounced within the group of smectite. Their density decreases from 2.72 to 1.4 g cm^{-3} during hydration (Osipov, 2012), whereas hydration hardly affects the density of illite, which decreases from 2.75 to 2.72 g cm^{-3}. At our trap sites, illite and quartz dominate lithogenic matter (Ramaswamy et al., 1991; Ramaswamy et al., 1997). Since the density of quartz is 2.65 g cm^{-3}, we used a density of 2.70 ±0.05g cm^{-3} for lithogenic matter. In order to calculate the densities of the solids and sinking speeds of particles, we used a density of 0.9 ±0.2, 1.73 ±0.27, and 1.63 ±0.08 for organic matter, biogenic opal and carbonate, respectively (Tab. 6).

The density of solids is the term describing the effect of mineral particles on the sinking speed of particles in Stoke's law.

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Stoke's law derived from the Navier-Stoke equation is a commonly-used parameterisation for calculating the sinking velocity (U) of particles (e.g., Engel et al., 2009; Lal and Lerman, 1975; McCave, 1975; Miklasz and Denny, 2010):

$$U = \frac{(2 \cdot g \cdot \Delta\rho \cdot radius^2)}{9\eta} \quad (7)$$

(g) is the gravitational acceleration and (radius) defines the radius of the sinking particle. (η) is the viscosity and (Δ ρ) represents the excess density of particles over water or – expressed in other words – the difference between the density of the particle ($\rho_{particle}$) and seawater ($\rho_{seawater}$).

$$\Delta\rho = \rho_{particle} - \rho_{seawater} \quad (8)$$

The density of a sinking particle results from its pore water content and the density of the solids:

$$\rho_{particle} = (porosity \cdot \rho_{water}) + (1 - porosity) \cdot \rho_{solids} \quad (9)$$

Sinking speed (U) can be used to estimate the organic carbon flux (POC) at trap depth (z) according to Equation 10 introduced by Banse (1990):

$$POC(z) = POC_{Export} \cdot e^{\left[\frac{-\lambda \cdot (z - depth\ of\ the\ euphotic\ zone)}{sinking\ speed}\right]} \quad (10)$$

(λ) is the POC-specific respiration rate and (POC_{Export}) is the export production. We applied Eqs. 1 - 3 to the satellite-derived primary production rates to calculated export production. (λ) was assumed to vary in a relatively narrow range (0.106 ± 0.028 day^{-1} (Iversen and Ploug, 2010; Ploug and Grossart, 2000), whereas more recent studies suggest that λ decreases with decreasing temperatures (Iversen and Ploug, 2013; Marsay et al., 2015). Direct field observations are scarce (Laufkötter et al., 2017) but *in-situ* incubation experiments carried out at a water depth of < 500 m indicate respiration rates of 0.4 ± 0.1 and 0.01± 0.02 day^{-1} in the subtropical North Atlantic Ocean and the Southern Ocean, respectively (McDonnell et al., 2015). We selected a λ of 0.106 day^{-1}, which is well within this range.

The viscosity of the fluid (η) and the density of sea water (ρ_{water}) were calculated as a function of sea water temperature and salinity by using the Python routines gsw (Gibbs SeaWater) and iapws (International Association for the Properties of Water and Steam) (IOC et al., 2010; Wagner and Pruß, 2002). Seawater temperature and salinity were selected from the World Ocean Atlas 2013 (Locarnini et al., 2013; Zweng et al., 2013) for each trap site and averaged between water-depth of 100 and 1500 m (Tab. 5). At our sediment trap sites, the porosity of particles and the radius are unknown. Based on results

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derived from other studies, we assume a porosity of 0.917 (Logan and Hunt, 1987).

The equivalent spherical diameters (ESD) of sinking particles cover a wide size spectrum ranging mostly between 0.01 and < 5 mm (Guidi et al., 2009; Iversen et al., 2010). Particles formed in the rolling tanks often exceed 1 mm, reached ESDs of > 1 cm and resemble in size marine snow collected by scuba divers in the surface water of the ocean revealing ESDs of up to 7.5 cm (Alldredge and Gotschalk, 1988; Engel et al., 2009). An ESD of 0.1 mm is a commonly-considered threshold dividing small and large particles (Durkin et al., 2015; Guidi et al., 2009). We selected an ESD of 0.15 mm to calculate sinking speeds.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Reliability of sediment trap results

Sediment traps are the only and thus intensively used tool to measure the seasonal and interannual variability of particle fluxes in the ocean (Turner, 2015), but hydrodynamic, biological and chemical processes bias the accuracy of sediment trap measurements (e.g. Antia, 2005; Buesseler et al., 2007). Since current velocities decrease with depth and zooplankton migration is restricted to water depth < 900 m particle fluxes measured at water depth > 1500 m are generally considered as reliable (Bianchi et al., 2013; Honjo et al., 2008). Nevertheless, there are indications that also deep moored traps can undertrap organic matter fluxes by 60% (Buesseler et al., 2007; Buesseler et al., 1992; Scholten et al., 2005; Usbeck et al., 2003; Yu et al., 2001).

In order to estimate possible error ranges we calculated and compared annual mean organic carbon fluxes (Tab. 3). These data show that at JAM off South Java the annual mean organic carbon flux was in 2003 almost twice as high as in the years 2001 and 2002. In contrast to JAM where our record covers only three years we were able to measure particle fluxes over a period of seven and more years at four sites in the northern Indian Ocean. Two of theses sites were in the Arabian Sea (WAST and EAST) and two were in the Bay of Bengal (NBBT-N and SBBT). Among these sites the annual mean organic carbon fluxes revealed the largest variability at WAST. Here we determined the lowest and highest annual mean organic carbon in 1987 and 1997 with 43.0 g C m^{-2} $year^{-1}$ and 69.2 g C m^{-2} $year^{-1}$ respectively (Tab. 3). This represents an increase of about 61%, which may have been caused by undertrapping in 1987, considering an error range of 60%. However, the mean interannual variability was only 16.6 % implying that on the long-term run the reproducibility of the organic carbon fluxes measured by our deep moored traps was much better than the possible error range of 60% and thus the error of the calculated monthly, seasonal, and annual means used in the following discussion is much lower.

4.2 Seasonality and Java in Comparison to the Western Arabian Sea

Previous results obtained from our sediment trap experiments showed a pronounced seasonality with enhanced fluxes during summer and winter, respectively in the Arabian Sea and at JAM off South Java whereas in the Bay of Bengal seasonality was less pronounced (Fig. 3 a,c). The monsoon was assumed to cause the seasonality through its impact on the physical

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nutrient supply mechanisms, such as upwelling, vertical mixing, and river discharges in the Bay of Bengal (e.g. Ittekkot et al., 1991; Rixen et al., 2009). Riverine nutrient discharges are assumed to increase organic carbon fluxes within river plumes near the coast but after the consumption of nutrients within the river plume nutrient-depleted freshwater forms a buoyant low salinity surface layer in the open Bay of Bengal (Kumar et al., 1996). This increases stratification in the surface ocean and reduces nutrient inputs during mixed-layer deepening in summer and winter, which in turn weakened the seasonality of organic carbon fluxes at our trap sites in the Bay of Bengal.

Monthly mean satellite-derived primary production rates, which we selected for the trap sites and sediment trap data show a similar seasonality (Fig. 3 b,d). This supports our previous results and the well-known concept of export production, which is driven by inputs of nutrients from the aphotic zone and external reservoirs (the atmosphere and the land) into the euphotic zone (Dugdale and Goering, 1967; Eppley and Peterson, 1979). However, a closer look at the data obtained at JAM and WAST shows that in summer organic carbon fluxes are higher at JAM than at WAST, whereas primary production is lower at JAM than at WAST. Furthermore, low primary production at JAM corresponds with enhanced organic carbon fluxes in winter, which indicates that primary production is not the decisive factor for organic carbon fluxes at JAM.

4.3 The Java Mooring (JAM)

At JAM sediment trap data overlap temporally with satellite observation of primary production so that these records can directly be linked to each other (Fig. 3). This comparison shows that enhanced primary production at JAM corresponds to high organic carbon fluxes during the upwelling season in summer 2002, but enhanced fluxes during the rainy season in winter 2002/2003 were not caused by high primary production rates (Fig. 5). This decoupling between satellite-derived primary production and organic carbon fluxes may be caused by a dense cloud cover shading the Indonesian seas from space observations and biasing satellite observations especially in winter (Hendiarti et al., 2004). Additionally, enhanced inputs of resuspended sediments from the shelf could explain the co-occurrence of high organic carbon fluxes and low primary production in winter. However, our data did not indicate a significant input of resuspended sediments. Mg/Ca as well as stable oxygen isotopic ratios of foraminifera shells collected by the trap were used to reconstruct sea water temperatures (Mohtadi et al., 2009). The reconstructed seawater temperatures correlated well with satellite-derived sea surface temperatures, suggesting that inputs of resuspended foraminifera shells biasing sea surface temperature reconstructions could be ignored. Since furthermore organic carbon-to-nitrogen ratios and stable carbon isotopic ratios of organic matter were in the range of marine plankton, impacts of resuspended sediments and terrestrial organic matter were assumed to be negligible at JAM (Rixen et al., 2006).

The ballast effect is another process to decouple primary production and organic carbon flux, especially when river discharges enhance lithogenic matter supply during the rainy season in winter. At JAM the mean lithogenic matter content in winter (68.09%) exceeds that in summer (60.48%, Tab. 2) and suggests that a stronger ballast effect increased the fraction of primary production, which was exported into the deep sea in winter. Considering that JAM has the highest annual mean

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lithogenic matter content (61.1%) of our trap sites in the Indian Ocean, a strong lithogenic matter ballast effect is also our explanation for the difference between JAM and WAST.

4.4 Primary Production and Organic Carbon Fluxes

In an attempt to further disentangle impacts of primary production and the ballast effect on the organic carbon flux, seasonal means (Tab. 2) were used to calculate transfer efficiency (T_{eff}) of organic carbon. This defines the ratio between organic carbon fluxes measured by sediment traps and export production and expresses the fraction of export production which reaches the deep sea (Francois et al., 2002). To calculate T_{eff} we converted primary production into export production by using Eqs. 1 to 3. The resulting calculated export production differed between the three equations used: The lowest and highest export production rates were obtained by using Eq. 3 (8 – 49 mg m^{-2} day^{-1}) and Eq. 1 (178 - 639 mg m^{-2} day^{-1}), respectively. Export production is difficult to quantify in the field and constitutes a highly uncertain element in the marine carbon cycle. The wide range of estimates of global mean export production (1.8 - 27.5 10^{15} g C yr^{-1}) reflects this (del Giorgio and Duarte, 2002; Honjo et al., 2008; Lutz et al., 2007). Since we cannot resolve this issue and have no data to validate the calculated export production we used results obtained from all three equation to compute export production rates and T_{eff} (Fig. 6).

Francois et al. (2002) calculated T_{eff} by using Eq. 2 and a global compilation of sediment trap data, which contained also data from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. Their results indicated that 9.6 ±4.9% and 16±2.4% of the exported organic carbon arrives at the sediment traps in the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. Using Eq. 2 like Francois et al. (2002), our annual mean data suggest that 16.5 ±5% and 46.5±5% of the exported organic matter reach the traps, respectively. Different SST values used to calculate export production mainly causes this deviation because Eq. 2 is extremely sensitive to temperature changes. SSTs, which we obtained form Smith et al. (2008) were approximately 0.6° higher than those used by Francois et al. (2002). However, even with these different SST values the resulting shifts in T_{eff} by using Eq. 2 are small in comparison to those caused by using all three equations used to calculate T_{eff}. This indicates that on average 6±3% (Eq.1), 35±19%, (Eq. 2), or 56±22% (Eq.3) of the export production reaches the sediment traps.

It is interesting that independent of which equation is used calculated export production correlates with T_{eff}, whereas T_{eff} increases with decreasing export production (Fig. 6). Francois et al. (2002) obtained a similar result and explained it with a high f-ratio (=export/primary production), which characterizes highly productive diatom blooms. A high f-ratio implies a low recycling efficiency of organic matter in the euphotic zone and thus a reduced transfer of organic matter to higher trophic levels. The low recycling efficiency favours the export of more labile organic matter in marine snow and the reduced transfer of organic matter to higher trophic levels lowers the formation of fast-sinking zooplankton faecal pellets. Consequences include an enhanced export of labile organic matter in slower-sinking marine snow, which in turn favours respiration and lowers T_{eff}.

If we divide our data into two groups, characterized by a lithogenic matter content of < 25% and > 25%, the group with a lithogenic matter content > 25% in general has a higher T_{eff} at similar export production rates (Fig. 6). This suggest that also

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and export production derived from Eq.2 is extremely sensitive to temperature changes. However, these differences are almost negligible if one compares these results with the variability caused by using Eqs. 1 and 3. Export production rates derived from these equations suggest that 5±3% (Eq.1) and 72±25% (Eq.3) of the organic matter reaches the deep sea, respectively. ... [27]

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the lithogenic content influnces T_{eff} and increase it, if lithogenic matter content exceeds 25%. This is the case in samples collected at our sites in the river-dominated northern and central Bay of Bengal and at JAM. In winter T_{eff} at JAM exceeds even 100% if Eq. 3 is used to calculate export production. This is unrealistic as it means that organic carbon fluxes measured by the trap exceed export production, but it points towards the strong lithogenic matter ballast effect at JAM in winter.

4.5 Carbonate versus Lithogenic Ballast

Since MLR is an often-used approach to study the relative importance of the different ballast minerals we applied it to our data set to further investigate the role of individual ballast minerals on organic carbon fluxes at our trap locations in the Indian Ocean. For this investigation we included data obtained form six sediment traps, which were deployed at a water depth of > 2220 m in the western Arabian Sea off Oman during the US JGOFS program in 1994/95 at sites MS2-5 (Fig. 1, Honjo et al., 1999). Applied to annual means, the MLR shows that the highest carrying coefficients are associated with biogenic opal followed by those of carbonate (Tab. 7). This matches results obtained by Ragueneau et al. (2006) and disagrees with those obtained from the geographically weighted analyses, which identified carbonate and lithogenic matter as the main ballast minerals in the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengals (Wilson et al., 2012).

In order to investigate regional differences within the Indian Ocean, we also applied the MLR to the data obtained by analysing the bulk composition of sinking particles collected in the individual sampling cups at each sediment trap site (Tab. 7). On average, this revealed that the highest carrying coefficient in association with lithogenic matter. Weighted by multiplying the carrying coefficients with the associated flux (RIB) indicates that on average lithogenic matter ballast contributes 43 ±19% to the predicted organic carbon fluxes (Tab. 8). This varies regionally and identifies carbonate as main ballast mineral at WAST. In contrast to our previous results, carbonate is also suggested as the main ballast mineral at JAM, which is surprising considering the low carbonate and the high content of lithogenic matter in samples from these sites (Tab. 4, 5).

To gain more clarity we correlated organic carbon fluxes with the content of the individual ballast materials. Lithogenic matter content correlates with organic carbon fluxes measured in the Indian Ocean when its content exceeds 25% (Fig. 7a). If lithogenic matter content is < 25% organic carbon fluxes correlate best with carbonate fluxes and shows no obvious link to the lithogenic matter content (Fig. 7b). This implies that lithogenic matter is the dominant ballast material at our trap sites in the river-influenced regions whereas carbonate is the main ballast mineral at the other locations in the open Indian Ocean. Alternatively, the correlation between carbonate and organic carbon fluxes could also be a consequence of a joint production. This is obvious in blooms dominated by coccolithophorids, as well as in those dominated by non-calcifying phytoplankton when e.g. calcifying grazers such as pelagic foraminifera prevail. In the western Arabian Sea this is indicated by peak fluxes of pelagic foraminifera, which coincide with upwelling-driven diatom blooms (Haake et al., 1993). Foraminifera test are incorporated in sinking particles but sink also on their own with sinking speeds of several hundred-metres day^{-1} (Schiebel, 2002; Schiebel and Hemleben, 2005; Schmidt et al., 2014). However, in contrast to carbonate lithogenic matter mostly consists of clay minerals (Ramaswamy et al., 1991), which are too small to sink on their own

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(Honjo, 1976; McCave, 1975; Rex and Goldberg, 1958). It owes its transport into the deep sea mainly to its incorporation into organic particles suggesting that the correlation between lithogenic matter content and organic carbon fluxes reflects the lithogenic matter ballast effect.

4.6 Sinking Speeds and organic carbon fluxes

Eqs. 6 – 10 were used to calculate sinking speeds and organic carbon fluxes by using flux rates and satellite-derived export production rates to further demonstrate that primary production and lithogenic matter control the variability of organic carbon fluxes at our trap locations in the open Indian Ocean and river-influenced regions, respectively. Furthermore, this mechanistic approach allows us to quantify the impact of the individual ballast minerals on sinking speeds and organic carbon fluxes.

To calculate the density of the solids (ρ_{solids}) and the sinking speed of particles, the densities of bulk components were compiled from the literature (Tab. 6). Due to the high density of lithogenic matter its content mainly controls sinking speeds as indicated by the correlation between lithogenic matter content and sinking speed (Fig. 8a). The mean calculated sinking speed is 224±33 m day^{-1} and agrees with sinking speeds of > 214 m day^{-1}, which were derived from the temporal delay of about 14 days between the onset of upwelling and the associated increase of organic fluxes at water depth of about 3000 m in the Arabian Sea (Rixen et al., 1996). Furthermore, it falls within the range of sinking speeds (230 ±72 m day^{-1}) obtained from the US JGOFS sediment trap experiment in the Arabian Sea (Berelson, 2001) showing that our calculated sinking speeds and the chosen parameter values to calculate it, are in an acceptable range (Tab. 6).

In a second step the calculated sinking speeds and satellite-derived export production were used to calculate organic carbon fluxes (Eq. 10). Independent of which equation we used to compute export production, the calculated organic carbon fluxes correlate with the measured ones (Fig. 8 b,c), but organic carbon fluxes obtained by using Eq.1 and 2 were higher and those obtained by using Eq. 3 were lower than the measured fluxes. The varying calculated organic carbon fluxes are a consequence of the different export production rates, which results by applying Eqs. 1 to 3 to the satellite-derived primary production as mentioned before. The best agreement between measured and calculated fluxes could be achieved by using Eq. 3 and changing the constant in Eq.3 from 0.23 to 0.40 (Fig. 8c).

To further entangle the role of primary production and the ballast effect on organic carbon fluxes we computed organic carbon fluxes by using constant sinking speed of 206.5 m day^{-1} and the modified Eq. 3. The mean deviation between organic carbon fluxes calculate with sinking speed of 206.5 and those derived from calculated sinking speeds are close to zero at sampling sites characterized by a lithogenic matter content < 25%. The r-value obtained form this regression analysis is 0.919 (n=12). The correlation between measured and calculated organic carbon fluxes for which we used a constant sinking speed suggests that export production rather than the ballast effect controls the spatial variability of organic carbon fluxes and explains the correlation between carbonate and organic carbon fluxes as shown in Figure 7b.

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At the sites in the open Indian Ocean carbonate reveals the highest contribution (> 45%) to the density of ballast minerals and could thus be considered as main ballast mineral (Fig. 9). Since primary production increases organic and carbonate fluxes and lowers T_{eff} (Fig. 6) it is assumed that the role of the carbonate ballast as indicated by the contribution of carbonate to the density of solids is an overestimate due to carbonate shells which sink on their own in highly productive systems such as the western Arabian Sea. At sites in river-influenced regions of the Indian Ocean lithogenic matter reveals a contribution to the density of ballast material, which exceeds those at other minerals (Fig. 9). Organic carbon fluxes computed with a constant sinking speed of 206.6 m day^{-1} are on average 20% and at JAM even 35% lower as the one derived from the calculated sinking speeds and lithogenic matter sinks incorporated into organic particles. Accordingly, it is assumed that lithogenic matter ballast strongly affected organic carbon fluxes at sediment trap locations in the river-influenced regions of the Indian Ocean. Considering that primary production obtained at our locations in this region varied between 0.31 (CBBT-S) and 0.53 g m^{-2} day^{-1} (JAM) and ranged between 0.31 (SBBT) and 1.15 g m^{-2} day^{-1} (MS2, Tab. 5) at sites in open Indian Ocean a lower variability of primary production seems to favour the determined impact of lithogenic matter on the organic carbon in the river-influenced regions of the Indian Ocean, additionally (Fig. 7a).

In order to quantify the impact of the lithogenic matter ballast effect on the organic carbon fluxes we conducted a numerical experiment. We assumed a lithogenic matter flux of zero and recalculated the contribution of the other ballast minerals to the total flux minus the lithogenic matter. This reduced the mean sinking speed from 224 ± 33 to 147 ±5 m day^{-1} (Fig. 8a) and the resulting mean calculated organic carbon fluxes by 41% and 51% at sites in open Indian Ocean and the river-influenced regions of the Indian Ocean. Consequently, lithogenic matter ballast seems to be an important factor increasing organic fluxes at all sites in the Indian Ocean while primary production controls the spatial variability of organic carbon fluxes measured at the trap sites in the open Indian Ocean, due to its high variability. This differs at the studied locations in the river-influenced regions of the Indian Ocean and at JAM, the high lithogenic matter content increased the calculated organic carbon flux even by 62%, which could explain the compared to WAST high measured organic carbon flux. Such an increase of organic carbon flux due to lithogenic matter inputs from land emphasizes the role of land use changes on the residence time of regenerated CO_2 and the associated CO_2 uptake efficiency of the organic carbon pump. Considering the Neolithic revolution and the estimated of an up to twenty-fold increase of erosion due to deforestation and the expansion of agriculture (Neil, 2014), humans must have increased the ballast effect and the CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon already over thousands of years.

5. Conclusion

The evaluation of our data in conjunction with satellite-derived observations shows that primary production mainly controls the spatial variability of organic carbon fluxes at the study sites in the open Indian Ocean. Since primary production increased carbonate and organic carbon fluxes and lowered T_{eff} it is assumed that in highly productive systems the role of carbonate as ballast mineral as indicated by its contribution to the density of solids, is an overestimate. An enhanced export

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Results obtained from the Atlantic Ocean indicate that a large fraction of organic matter is exported independent from ballast minerals (Le Moigne et al., 2014). 4.5 The Impact of the Ballast Effect on Pelagic Ecosystems and the CO_2 Uptake of the Ocean ... [41]

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of carbonate shells sinking on their own could cause this. In the river-influenced northern and central Bay of Bengal and off South Java lithogenic matter ballast was the main ballast material and its content strongly influenced the spatial variability of organic carbon fluxes favoured a weakly pronounced variability of primary production in these regions.

Calculate sinking speeds and organic carbon fluxes indicate that lithogenic matter could increase the mean sinking speeds by 34% and the mean calculated organic carbon flux by 41% and 51% at sites in the open Indian Ocean and river-influenced regions of the Indian Ocean, respectively. Accordingly, lithogenic matter seems to increase organic carbon fluxes at all studied sites in the Indian Ocean whereas primary production controls the spatial variability of organic carbon fluxes measured at the trap sites in the open Indian Ocean, due to high variability of primary production in this region. This differs at sites in the river-influenced areas of the Indian Ocean and an enhanced lithogenic matter content increased the calculated organic carbon fluxes even by up to 62%. This agrees to the high measured organic carbon fluxes in the compared to the western Arabian Sea low-productive South Java Sea.

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In accordance with other studies, our model results show that the ballast effect reduces the productivity by feeding nutrients into the ocean's long-term overturning circulation. This in turn extends the residence time of nutrients and the attached CO_2 in the ocean, which lowers the formation of preformed nutrients and increases the CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon pump. Since preformed nutrient concentrations are higher in polar rather tropical regions, it is assumed that the influence of the ballast effect on CO_2 uptake of the organic carbon in the ocean is stronger at higher compared with lower latitudes. However, due to land-use changes and the associated enhanced mobilisation of lithogenic matter, humans have influenced the organic carbon pump over thousands of years, which today could hold relevance for the discussion about the fate of anthropogenic CO_2. ... [45]

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Acknowledgments

First of all, we would like to thank all of the scientists, technicians, officers and their crews of the numerous research vessels used during our studies in the Indian Ocean. We would specifically like to express our gratitude to the Federal German Ministry for Education, Science, Research and Technology (BMBF, Bonn ref. no. 03F0463A), the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR, New Delhi), the Ministry of Earth Sciences (MOES, New Delhi), and the Agency for the Assessment and Application of Technology (BPPT), Jakarta, Indonesia for financial support. P. Wessels and W.H.F Smith are acknowledged for providing the generic mapping tools (GMT).

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Captions

Figure 1: Bathymetric chart of the northern Indian Ocean and the adjacent land mass. Data were obtained from http://Ingrid.ldgo. Columbia.edu/SOURCE/WORLDBATH. White circles show the sediment trap sites operated by the joint Indo/German and Indonesian German projects (see Tab. 1). The black circles represent the US JGOFS sediment trap site M2 to M5 (Honjo et al., 1999; Lee et al., 1998).

Figure 2. Monthly mean wind speeds (a, b), derived from the Scatterometer Climatology of Ocean Winds (Risien and Chelton, 2008) indicating the Findlater Jet during the summer (August) in the Arabian Sea. Monthly mean sea surface salinities (c, d) derived from the Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity (SMOS) satellite mission. Monthly mean primary production rates (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997) covering the periods between 2002 and 2014 (e, f). The black circles show the sediment trap sites (Fig. 1, Tab. 1).

Figure 3: Monthly mean organic carbon fluxes (POC) obtained from our sediment trap experiments in the Arabian Sea (a) and the Bay of Bengal (c) as well as monthly mean primary production rates (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997) selected for the sediment trap sites (b, d). The sediment trap data were normalized to a water depth of 2000 m by using the equation introduced by Rixen et al. (2002).

Figure 4: Densities of bulk components including quartz and illite as representatives of lithogenic matter (red lines, and circle). Black circles and lines indicate the densities of crystalline analogues and of cellulose as an example of a carbohydrate. The data were compiled from the literature and the references are given in the text. The grey area shows the density range of seawater.

Figure 5: Organics carbon fluxes measure at JAM and the primary production rates selected for the JAM site.

Figure 6: T_{eff} versus export production rates derived from equation 1 (a), 2 (b) and 3 (c). The red circle indicate samples associated with lithogenic matter content < 25%.

Figure 7: Organic carbon fluxes (POC) versus lithogenic matter content (a) and carbonate flux (b). The red and black circle indicate trap sites at which the annual mean lithogenic matter content is < and > 25%, respectively.

Figure 8: (a) Annual mean lithogenic matter content at the trap sites in the Indian Ocean versus sinking speeds derived from the density of the solids (Eqs. 6 - 9) including the regression equation and line. The red circle indicates sinking speeds derived from the US JGOFS sediment trap sites in the western Arabian Sea (Berelson, 2001) and the blue circle represents sinking speeds derived from the density of the solids by setting the lithogenic matter flux to zero. (b) Annual mean organic carbon fluxes determined at the sediment trap sites versus organic carbon fluxes calculated by using Eq.10 and sinking speed shown in figure 8a. The export

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production was derived from Eq.1 (red circles), 2 (blue circles), and 3 (black circles). The red colour shows the regression equation and line obtained from the correlation between the calculated and measured fluxes whereas the respective export production used to calculate the organic carbon flux was derived from Eq.1. The black line indicates the 1:1 line. (c) Calculated versus measured fluxes as in (b) but the modified Eq.3 was used to calculate the required export production. The errors bars indicate the interannual variability of the measured fluxes and the range caused the variability of the sinking speeds used to calculate the organic carbon flux.

Figure 9. Annual mean contribution of lithogenic matter, carbonate, and biogenic opal to the density of the ballast material. Blue and red squares indicate data characterised by a lithogenic matter content < and > 25% , respectively.

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Deleted: Figure 11. Results obtained from the box model: The atmospheric pCO_2 (a) the organic carbon flux into the deep sea (b), the export production (c) and the total dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and phosphate concentrations in the deep sea versus time. Number I shows the results derived from the standard run. Numbers II to III indicate results obtained from the experiments in which the fraction of the export production, which reaches the deep sea from was increased form to 10% to 50% and decreased from 50% to 1 %. During experiment IV, the fraction of export production, which is reaches the deep sea was again set to 10% but in contrast to the former experiments the total phosphate in the surface box was converted in the organic matter and exported. In order to obtain a smooth transition from the standard condition to experiment IV, the increase of the export production was limited to a maximum of 25 Pg C $year^{-1}$ during the transition phase. ... [54]

Table 1. Number of station, trap ID, station name, position, water-depth, trap depth, seawater temperature and salinity.

No.	Trap ID	Name	Lat.	Lon.	W-Depth	T-Depth
			[°N]	[°N]	[m]	[m]
1	WAST	Western Arabian Sea Trap Station	16.26	60.58	4032	3017
2	CAST	Central Arabian Sea Trap Station	14.51	64.72	3920	2944
3	EAST	Eastern Arabian Sea Trap Station	15.57	68.73	3791	2870
4	NEAST	Northeastern Arabian Sea Trap Station	16.93	67.84	3545	3039
5	SAST	Southern Arabian Sea Trap Station	11.60	66.08	4243	3032
6	EIOT	Equatorial Indian Ocean Trap Station	3.56	77.78	3400	2374
7	NBBT-N	Northern Bay of Bengal Trap Station – North	17.42	89.65	2267	1889
8	NBBT-S	Northern Bay of Bengal Trap Station – South	15.48	89.45	2709	2172
9	CBBT-N	Central Bay of Bengal Trap Station – North	13.14	84.41	3266	2261
10	CBBT-S	Central Bay of Bengal Trap Station – South	11.03	84.43	3462	2527
11	SBBT	Southern Bay of Bengal Trap Station	5.09	87.26	3995	2976
12	JAM	Java Mooring	-8.28	108.02	3250	2456

Table 2. Trap ID, season, seasonal averaged primary production, sea surface temperature, organic carbon flux and lithogenic matter content.

Trap ID	Season	PP [g m^{-2} day^{-1}]	SST [°C]	POC [mg m^{-2} day^{-1}]	Lith. Matter [%]
WAST	summer	1.28	25.60	11.69	14.46
WAST	winter	0.79	26.32	7.50	15.39
WAST	transition	0.49	27.90	6.48	13.04
CAST	summer	1.11	26.76	6.95	16.73
CAST	winter	0.70	26.93	6.41	14.55
CAST	transition	0.42	28.32	5.52	15.85
EAST	summer	0.57	27.56	6.82	21.39
EAST	winter	0.46	27.41	5.28	19.91
EAST	transition	0.30	28.63	5.05	21.97
SAST	summer	0.56	27.78	6.65	14.21
SAST	winter	0.34	27.98	6.46	15.75
SAST	transition	0.30	28.75	3.91	14.87
SBBT	summer	0.39	28.39	7.91	15.04
SBBT	winter	0.27	29.00	5.34	17.48
SBBT	transition	0.29	28.85	5.29	15.27
EIOT	summer	0.38	28.75	4.55	10.13
EIOT	winter	0.27	29.06	3.90	18.50
EIOT	transition	0.34	28.92	4.07	11.65
CBBT-N	summer	0.31	28.98	8.03	38.90
CBBT-N	winter	0.32	27.90	8.00	36.14
CBBT-N	transition	0.29	28.92	7.64	44.89
CBBT-S	summer	0.35	28.95	5.13	24.33
CBBT-S	winter	0.30	28.16	5.15	32.45
CBBT-S	transition	0.30	28.97	6.19	21.99
NBBT-N	summer	0.39	28.82	9.74	41.99
NBBT-N	winter	0.34	27.15	7.05	38.06
NBBT-N	transition	0.29	28.80	6.92	38.98
NBBT-S	summer	0.34	28.73	5.91	32.39
NBBT-S	winter	0.30	27.53	6.03	33.49
NBBT	transition	0.27	28.93	6.17	32.76
JAM	summer	0.86	27.09	14.35	60.48
JAM	winter	0.31	29.08	11.47	68.09
JAM	transition	0.49	28.48	11.75	60.36
NEAST	transition	0.33	28.13	8.80	29.82

Table 3. Annual mean total fluxes measured at the trap sites during the years from 1986 to 2003 in the g C m^{-2} $year^{-1}$ including the mean and the standard deviation as well as the number of years (no) in which particle fluxes were measured for more than 150 days $year^{-1}$.

Trap ID	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	1	2	3	Mean	Std.	No.
	[g C m^{-2} $year^{-1}$]																	[%]	
WAST	45.0	43.0	53.6		66.0	50.6	48.5		52.9	58.6		69.2					54.1	16.6	9
CAST	34.8	34.4	40.7					35.0	40.3		40.0						37.5	8.2	6
EAST	37.4	35.4	34.4	39.0	34.8	37.5		23.3	39.3			34.8					35.1	13.7	9
SAST								43.7									43.7		1
EIOT										35.0	21.3	26.9					27.7	24.7	3
NBBT-N			53.2	50.2					53.4	44.9	47.5	38.9	46.1				47.7	10.7	7
NBBT-S						33.4	34.0										33.7	1.3	2
CBBT-N			43.5	56.7	66.4	60.7		44.8									54.4	18.3	5
CBBT-S							34.8										34.8		1
SBBT			39.9			37.3	35.5	37.2	42.3	47.0	40.5	39.6					39.9	9.0	8
JAM														101.8	122.1	201.2	141.7	37.0	3

Table 4. Trap ID, annual mean bulk fluxes including standard deviation (std) and contents. The standard deviation indicates the interannual variability.

Trap ID	POC	std	Carb.	std	Opal	std	Lith.	std	POC	Carb.	Opal	Lith.
	[g m-2 year-1]								[%]			
WAST	3.1	0.4	29.0	3.5	13.1	3.9	7.9	1.5	5.6	52.3	23.5	14.2
CAST	2.3	0.2	22.4	1.3	4.8	0.4	5.9	0.8	6.1	60.1	12.9	15.9
EAST	2.1	0.3	17.9	2.1	5.4	1.1	7.3	1.1	6.1	52.2	15.8	21.1
SAST	2.3	0.0	27.1	0.0	6.0	0.0	6.5	0.0	5.2	62.0	13.6	15.0
EIOT	1.5	0.3	16.4	3.1	5.2	1.3	3.6	0.9	5.4	58.7	18.7	12.8
NBBT-N	2.9	0.3	13.3	1.9	10.4	0.7	18.8	3.9	6.1	27.9	21.8	39.5
NBBT-S	2.2	0.0	11.0	0.4	7.7	0.4	11.1	0.3	6.5	32.5	22.9	32.9
CBBT-N	2.9	0.3	15.5	1.0	11.7	2.3	21.9	5.9	5.3	28.5	21.6	40.3
CBBT-S	2.0	0.0	13.4	0.0	8.9	0.0	9.0	0.0	5.7	38.4	25.6	25.7
SBBT	2.3	0.3	20.0	1.8	9.8	1.5	6.1	1.4	5.6	50.0	24.6	15.3
JAM	4.8	0.6	15.1	2.5	31.3	15.6	86.6	23.9	3.4	10.7	22.1	61.1

Table 5. Trap ID, annual mean primary production (PP) and sea surface temperature (SST) as well as seawater temperature (Temp) and salinity. Temp and salinity were selected for trap sites from the World Ocean Atlas 2013 and averaged between water-depth of 100 and 1500 m. Density and viscosity were calculate by using Temp and salinity, considering a water-depth of 800 m. Python routines 'gsw' and iapws were used for these calculations. In addition to our trap site also data for the US JGFOS trap site MS2-5 were selected. Figure 1 shows the location of these sites.

Station ID	PP	SST	Temp.	Salinity	Density	Viscosity
	[g m^{-2} day^{-1}]	[°C]	[°C]		[g cm^{-3}]	[kg m^{-1} s^{-1}]
WAST	0.79	26.93	11.48	35.49	1.030511	0.001217
CAST	0.69	27.57	11.22	35.43	1.030517	0.001225
EAST	0.42	28.07	11.11	35.42	1.030529	0.001229
SAST	0.38	28.38	10.63	35.29	1.030525	0.001244
NEAST	0.49	27.81	11.32	35.47	1.030527	0.001222
EIOT	0.33	29.05	9.34	35.01	1.030555	0.001287
NBBT-N	0.33	28.25	9.42	34.96	1.030505	0.001285
NBBT-S	0.30	28.43	9.42	34.96	1.030505	0.001285
CBBT-N	0.31	28.57	9.38	34.96	1.030510	0.001286
CBBT-S	0.31	28.70	9.36	34.98	1.030526	0.001286
SBBT	0.31	28.91	9.33	34.99	1.030542	0.001288
JAM	0.53	28.33	8.25	34.69	1.030496	0.001326
MS2	1.15	26.48	11.53	35.52	1.030523	0.001215
MS3	0.97	26.60	11.56	35.52	1.030518	0.001214
MS4	0.74	27.11	11.35	35.45	1.030509	0.001221
MS5	0.32	28.43	10.32	35.22	1.030529	0.001254

Table 6. Values used to calculate sinking speeds (Eqs.6 - 9). Densities of the bulk components were obtained from the literature.

	Value	Unit
POC-specific respiration rate (λ)	0.120	day^{-1}
Porosity	0.917	
Radius	0.150	mm
Density of the ballast material		
OM	0.90 ±0.20	g cm^{-3}
Opal	0.73 ±0.27	g cm^{-3}
Carb.	1.63 ±0.08	g cm^{-3}
Lith.	2.70 ±0.05	g cm^{-3}

Table 7. Carrying coefficients derived from the MLR applied to data measured at the trap sites (Trap ID) including the mean. 'No.' indicates the number of data used for the analysis. A-Trap shows the carrying coefficients derived by applying the MLR to the annual mean sediment data obtained from our sites (No. = 11) and including the US JGOFS data (No. = 17). CA-Trap shows carrying coefficients obtained from all annual means (our and US JGOFS data) including a constant term to Ep. 4.

Trap ID	$CaCO_3$	Std.	P val.	Opal	Std.	P val.	Lith.	Std.	P val.	r^2	No.
WAST	0.044	0.007	0.000	0.046	0.007	0.000	0.132	0.018	0.000	0.958	142
CAST	0.018	0.007	0.008	0.198	0.032	0.000	0.120	0.026	0.000	0.955	88
EAST	0.033	0.007	0.000	0.124	0.020	0.000	0.108	0.014	0.000	0.970	115
SAST	0.011	0.004	0.034	0.049	0.028	0.111	0.256	0.029	0.000	0.998	13
EIOT	0.031	0.008	0.000	0.035	0.034	0.303	0.227	0.029	0.000	0.963	39
NBBT-N	0.090	0.011	0.000	0.070	0.015	0.000	0.046	0.005	0.000	0.973	88
NBBT-S	-0.022	0.031	0.480	0.139	0.048	0.008	0.126	0.023	0.000	0.964	26
CBBT-N	0.096	0.008	0.000	0.057	0.012	0.000	0.033	0.005	0.000	0.972	78
CBBT-S	0.017	0.019	0.372	0.078	0.025	0.011	0.115	0.028	0.002	0.982	13
SBBT	0.041	0.006	0.000	0.073	0.011	0.000	0.115	0.014	0.000	0.960	99
JAM	0.128	0.026	0.000	0.034	0.013	0.010	0.022	0.005	0.000	0.943	54
Mean	0.044	0.012		0.082	0.022		0.118	0.018			
A-Trap	0.067	0.018	0.006	0.113	0.062	0.105	0.006	0.021	0.761	0.983	11
A-Trap	0.073	0.013	0.000	0.116	0.046	0.024	0.004	0.015	0.789	0.989	17
CA-Trap	0.066	0.018	0.002	0.120	0.048	0.026	0.002	0.016	0.913	0.922	17

Table 8. Contribution of the individual ballast minerals to the predicted POC flux (RIB see Eq. 5)

Trap	$CaCO_3$	Opal	Lith.
WAST	47.0	17.8	35.1
CAST	21.1	46.2	32.7
EAST	31.0	30.9	38.1
SAST	13.4	12.8	73.8
EIOT	37.0	11.8	51.2
NBBT-N	42.8	24.5	32.7
NBBT-S	-11.9	51.6	60.4
CBBT-N	55.2	21.4	23.4
CBBT-S	12.0	34.7	53.2
SBBT	36.0	30.9	33.1
JAM	41.1	19.1	39.7
Mean	29.5	27.4	43.0

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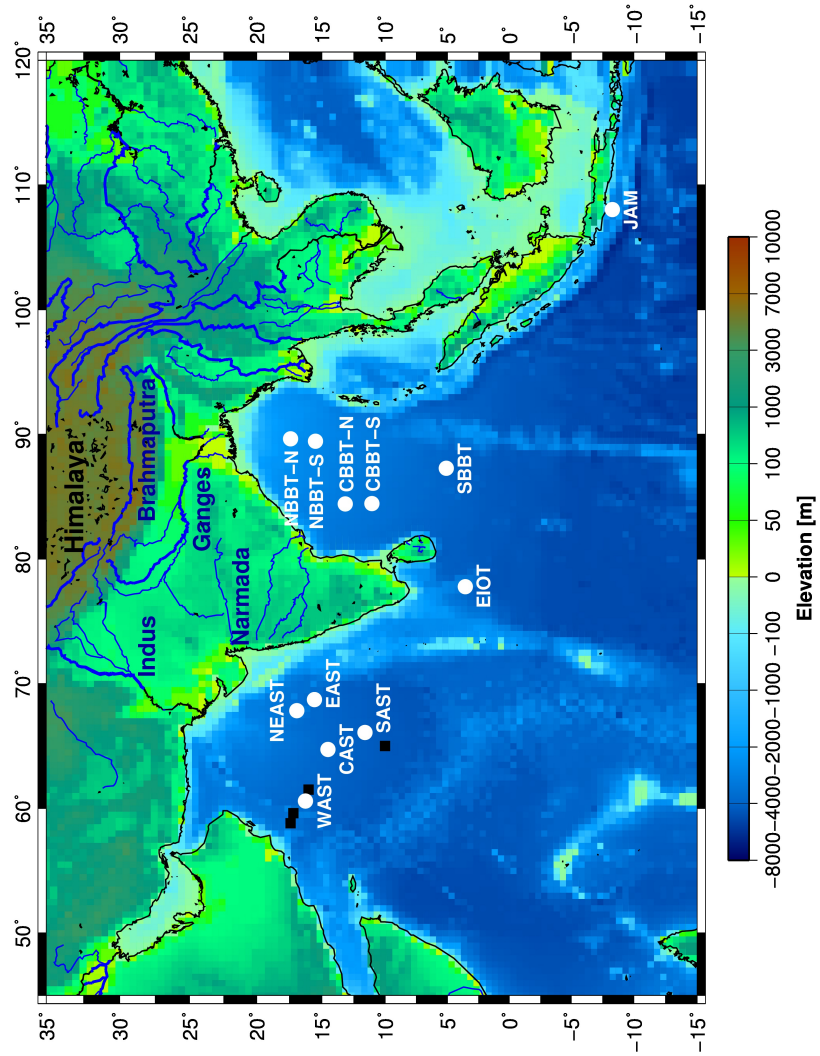
Figure 1


Himalaya
Brahmaputra
Ganges
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NBBT–N
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NEAST
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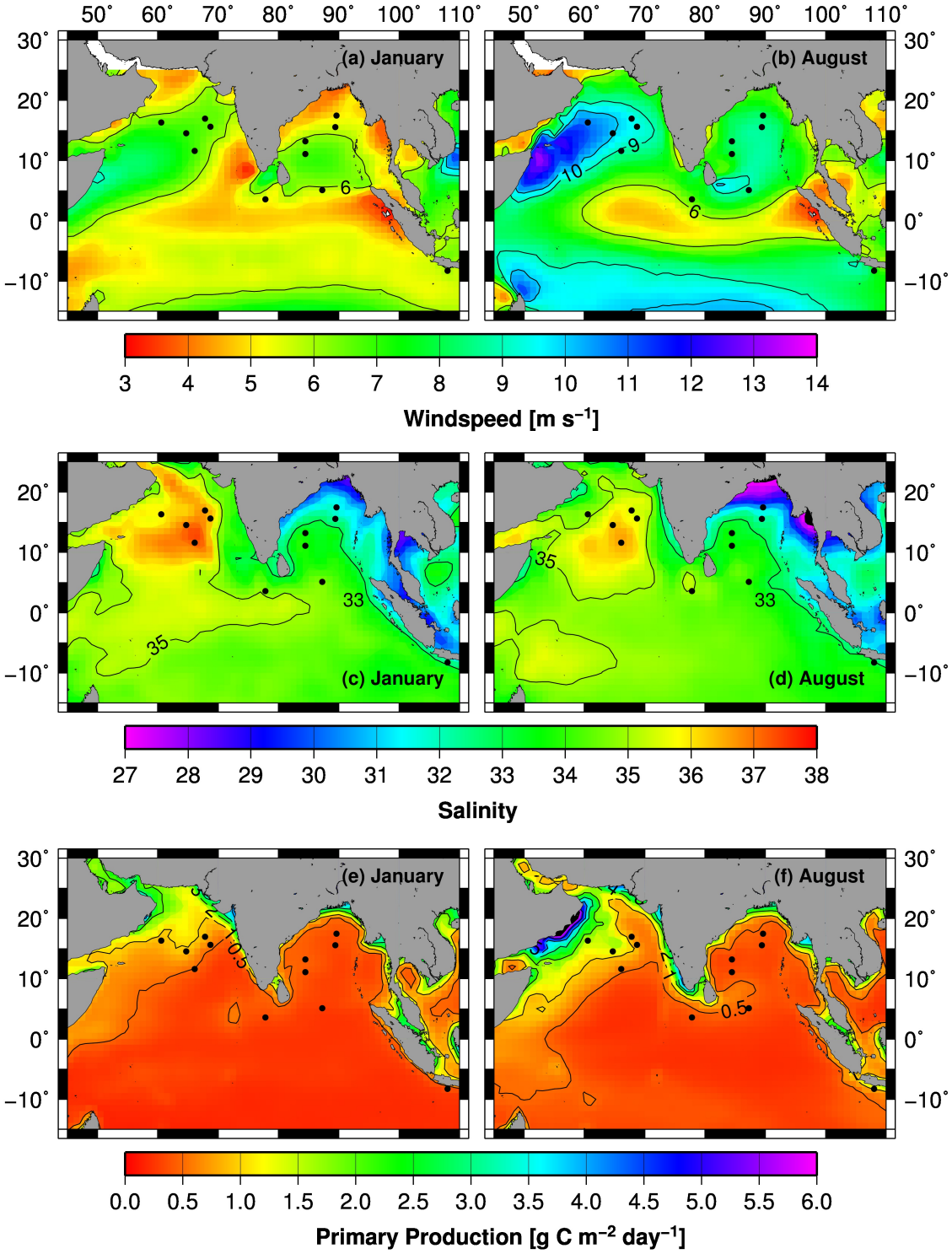
Elevation [m]
−8000 −4000 −2000 −1000 −100 0 50 100 1000 3000 7000 10000

Figure 2


50° 60° 70° 80° 90° 100° 110°
30° 20° 10° 0° −10°
(a) January
(b) August
6
9
10
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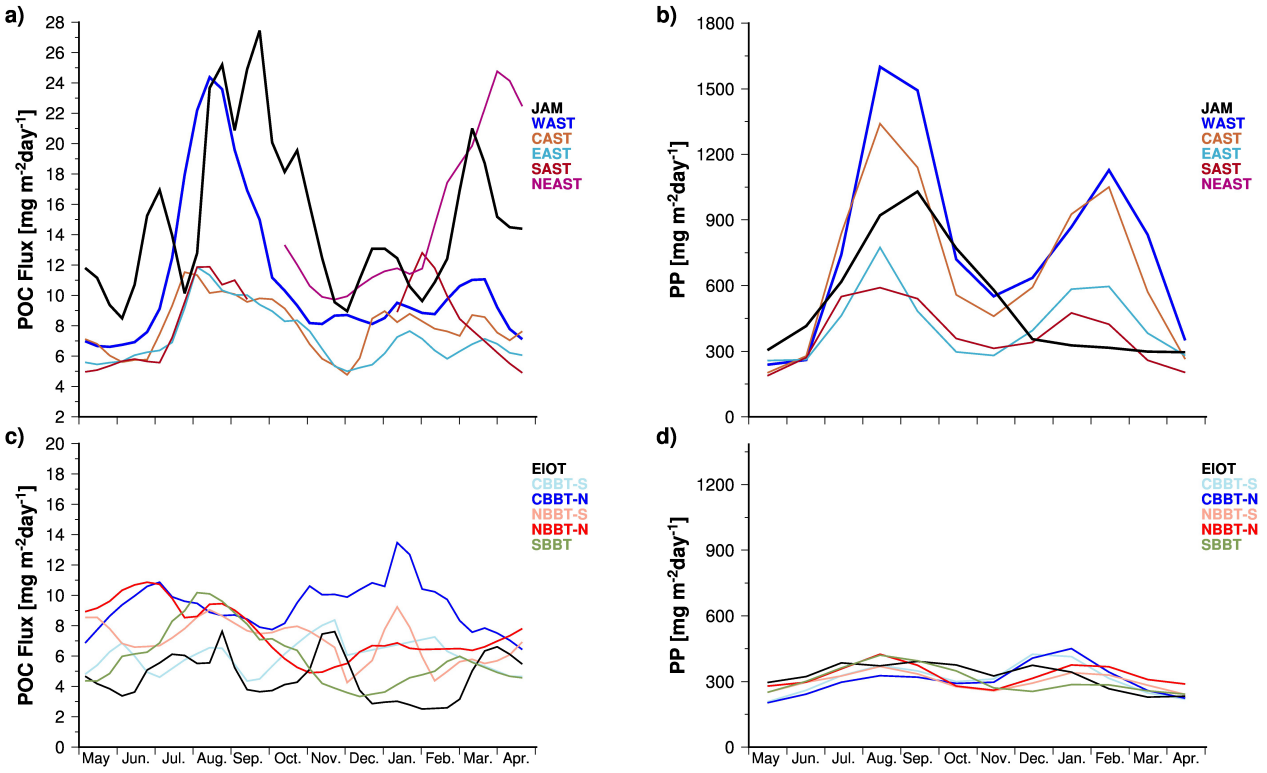
3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14
Windspeed [m s−1]
20° 10° 0° −10°
33
35
(c) January
(d) August
27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38
Salinity
(e) January
(f) August
0.5
1
0.5
0.0 0.5 1.0 1.5 2.0 2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 4.5 5.0 5.5 6.0
Primary Production [g C m−2 day−1]

Figure 3


a)
POC Flux [mg m-2day-1]
JAM
WAST
CAST
EAST
SAST
NEAST
b)
PP [mg m-2day-1]
c)
EIOT
CBBT-S
CBBT-N
NBBT-S
NBBT-N
SBBT
d)
May
Jun.
Jul.
Aug.
Sep.
Oct.
Nov.
Dec.
Jan.
Feb.
Mar.
Apr.

5

Figure 4

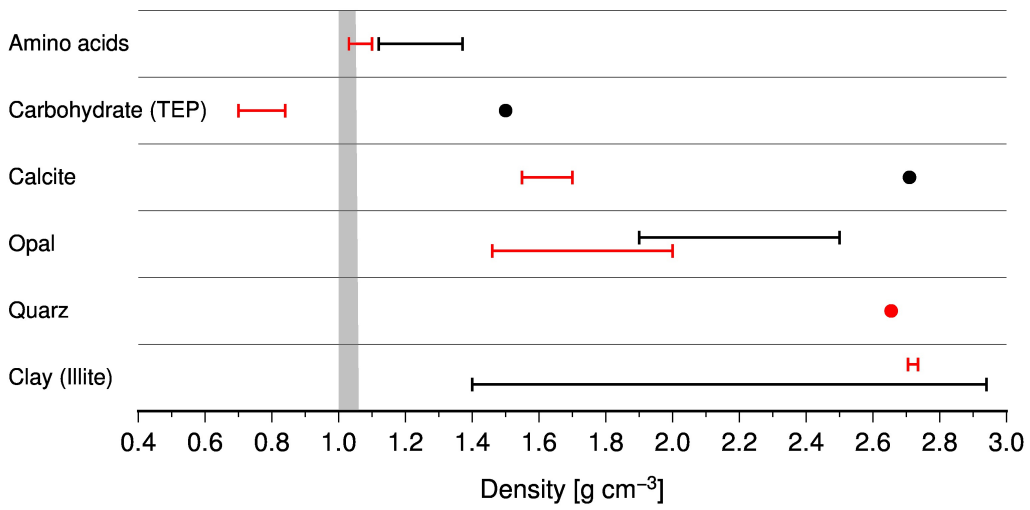
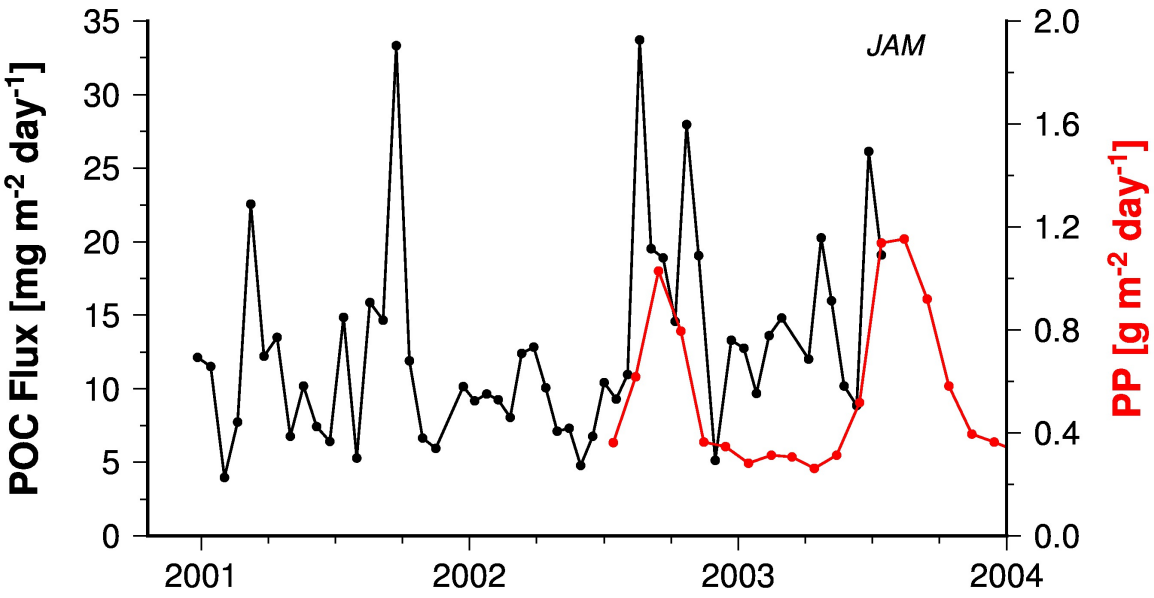

Amino acids
Carbohydrate (TEP)
Calcite
Opal
Quarz
Clay (Illite)
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0
1.2
1.4
1.6
1.8
2.0
2.2
2.4
2.6
2.8
3.0
Density [g cm−3]

Figure 5


JAM
POC Flux [mg m-2 day-1]
PP [g m-2 day-1]
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
2.0
1.6
1.2
0.8
0.4
0.0
2001
2002
2003
2004

5

Figure 6

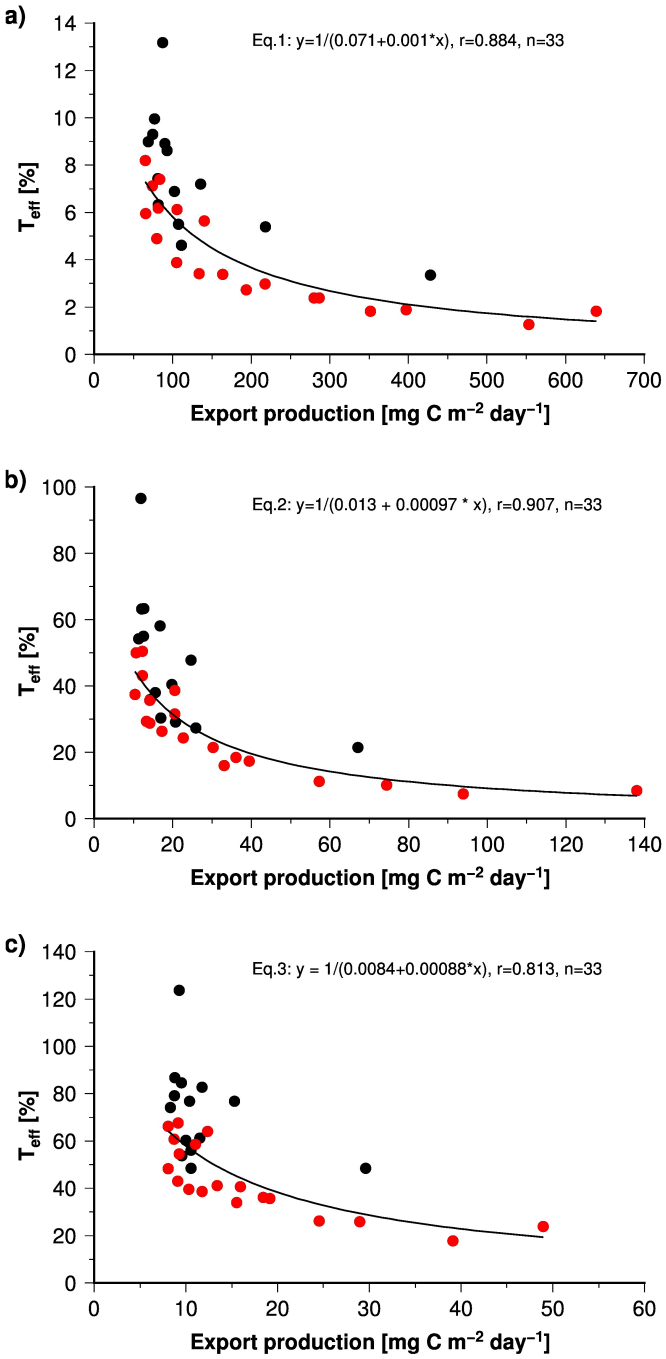
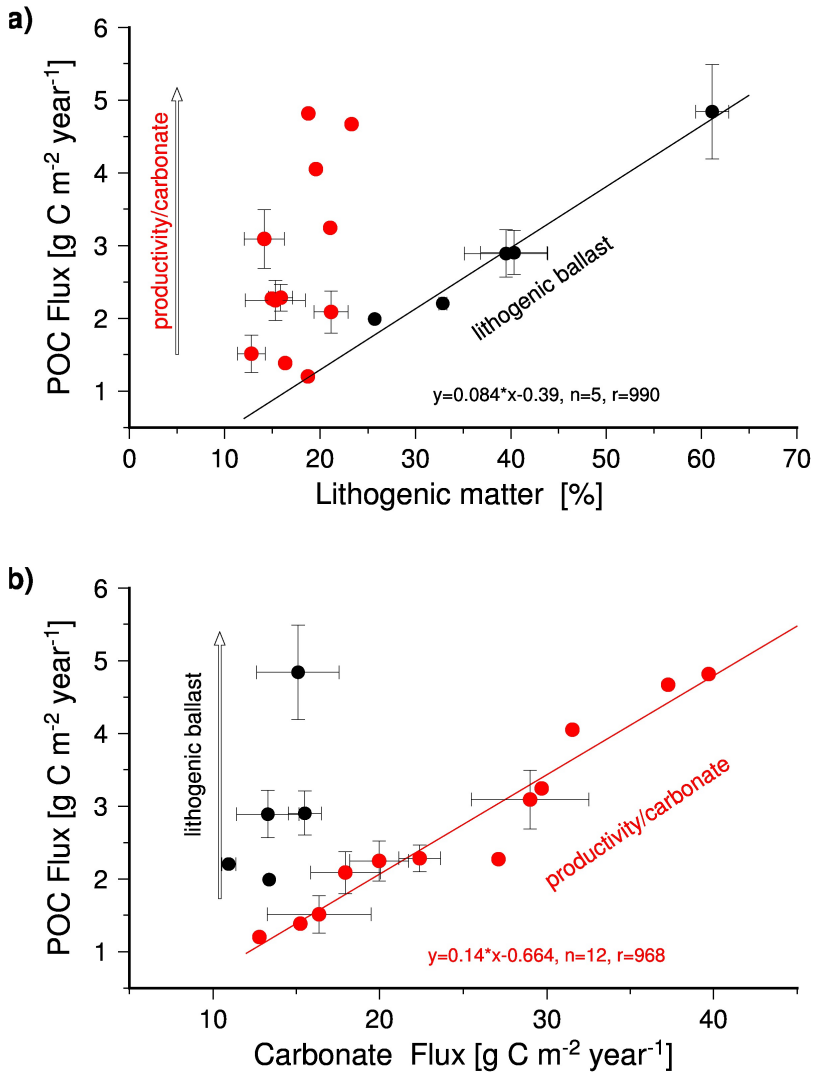

a)
Eq.1: y=1/(0.071+0.001*x), r=0.884, n=33
T_eff [%]
Export production [mg C m⁻² day⁻¹]
b)
Eq.2: y=1/(0.013 + 0.00097 * x), r=0.907, n=33
T_eff [%]
Export production [mg C m⁻² day⁻¹]
c)
Eq.3: y = 1/(0.0084+0.00088*x), r=0.813, n=33
T_eff [%]
Export production [mg C m⁻² day⁻¹]

Figure 7


a)
POC Flux [g C m-2 year-1]
productivity/carbonate
lithogenic ballast
y=0.084*x-0.39, n=5, r=990
Lithogenic matter [%]
b)
POC Flux [g C m-2 year-1]
lithogenic ballast
productivity/carbonate
y=0.14*x-0.664, n=12, r=968
Carbonate Flux [g C m-2 year-1]

5

Figure 8

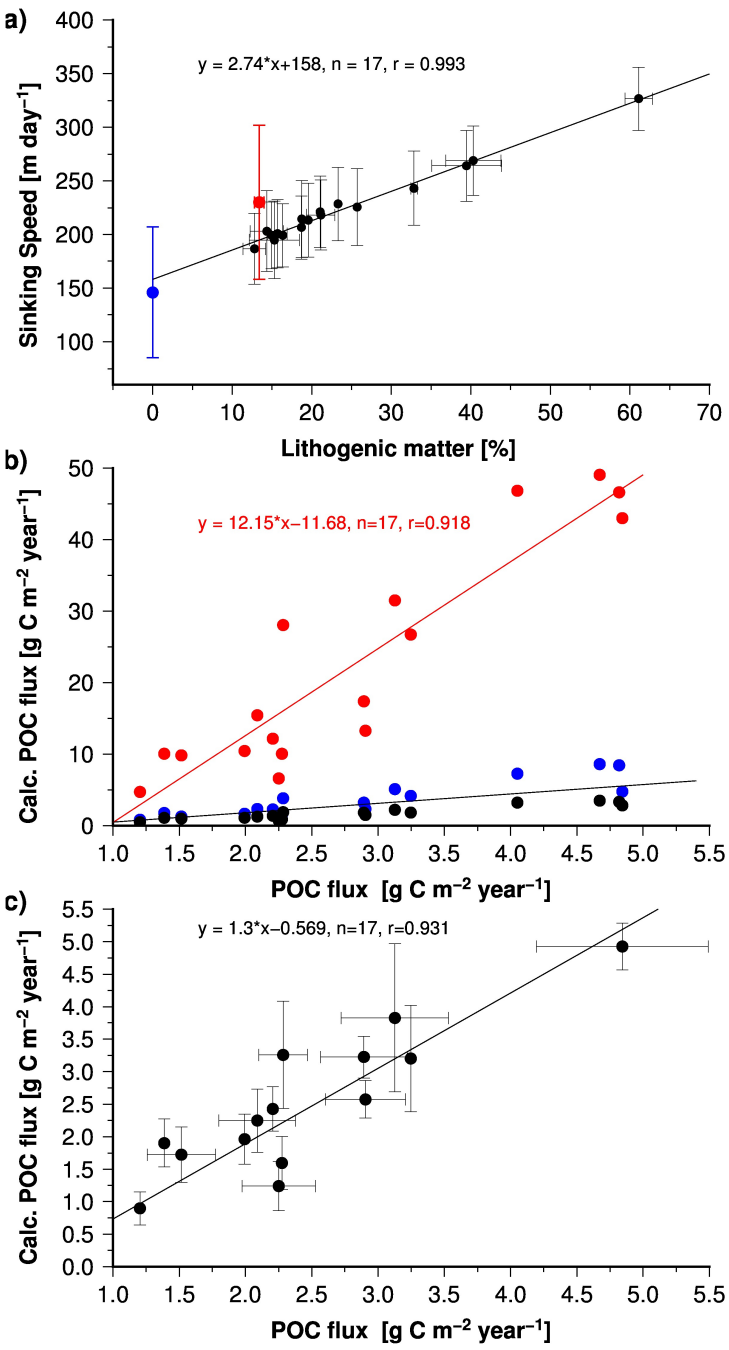
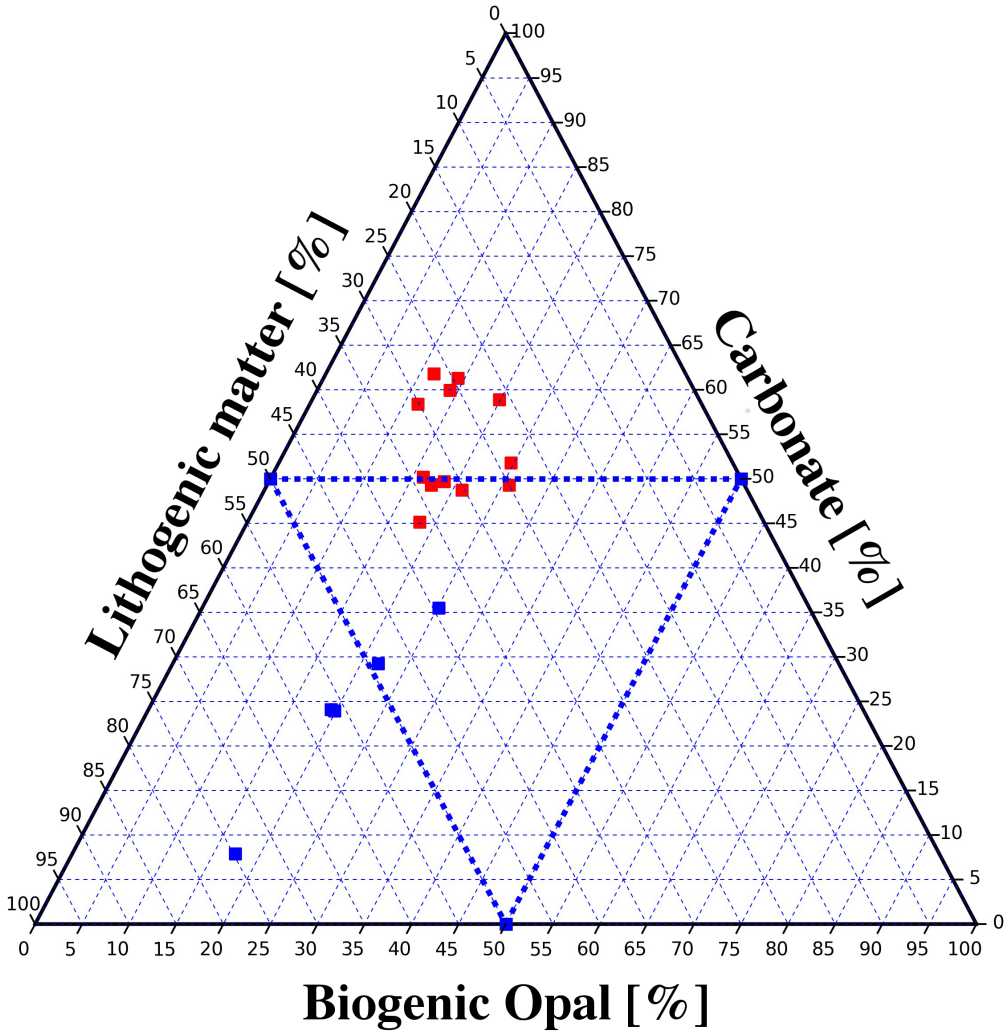

a)
y = 2.74*x+158, n = 17, r = 0.993
Sinking Speed [m day⁻¹]
Lithogenic matter [%]
b)
y = 12.15*x−11.68, n=17, r=0.918
Calc. POC flux [g C m⁻² year⁻¹]
POC flux [g C m⁻² year⁻¹]
c)
y = 1.3*x−0.569, n=17, r=0.931
Calc. POC flux [g C m⁻² year⁻¹]
POC flux [g C m⁻² year⁻¹]

Figure 9



5