



1 Variable phytoplankton size distributions reduce the sensitivity of 2 global export flux to climate change

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8 **Abstract.** Earth System Models predict a 10-20% decrease in ocean carbon export production by the end of the 21st
9 century due to global climate change. This decline is caused by increased stratification of the upper ocean, resulting
10 in reduced shallow subsurface nutrient concentrations and a slower supply of nutrients to the surface euphotic zone.
11 These predictions, however, do not account for associated changes in sinking particle size and remineralization depth.
12 Here we combine satellite-derived export and particle size maps with a simple 3-D global biogeochemical model to
13 investigate how shifts in sinking particle size may buffer predicted changes in surface nutrient supply and therefore
14 export production. We show that higher export rates are correlated with larger phytoplankton and sinking particles,
15 especially in tropical and subtropical regions. Incorporation of these empirical relationships into a global model shows
16 that as circulation slows, a decrease in export and associated shift toward smaller phytoplankton yields particles that
17 sink more slowly and are thus remineralized shallower; this in turn leads to greater recycling of nutrients in the upper
18 water column and faster nutrient recirculation into the euphotic zone, boosting productivity and export to counteract
19 the initial circulation-driven decreases. This negative feedback mechanism (termed the particle size-remineralization
20 feedback) slows export decline over the next century by ~14% globally and by ~20% in the tropical and subtropical
21 oceans, where export decreases are currently predicted to be greatest. Thus, incorporating dynamic particle size-
22 dependent remineralization depths into Earth System Models will result in more robust predictions of changes in
23 biological pump strength in a warming climate.

24 1 Introduction

25 1.1 Carbon export in the future ocean

26 A key mechanism that controls the partitioning of carbon dioxide (CO₂) between the atmosphere and ocean
27 is the biological pump, in which CO₂ is fixed into phytoplankton organic matter via photosynthesis, and then exported
28 from the surface to the deep ocean as sinking particles (e.g., Ducklow et al., 2001). Decomposition of this particulate
29 organic carbon (POC) in the ocean interior maintains a reservoir of respired CO₂ that is sequestered out of contact
30 with the atmosphere, thus exerting an important control on long-term atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and global



31 climate (e.g., Martínez-García et al., 2014; Passow & Carlson, 2012; Sarmiento & Siegenthaler, 1992). Carbon
32 exported out of the surface euphotic zone also fuels the metabolism of organisms in the mesopelagic zone, sustaining
33 economically and socially important fisheries, as well as ecologically important zooplankton and micronekton
34 communities (e.g., Boyd et al., 2019; Friedland et al., 2012). POC export is also an important driver of dissolved
35 oxygen concentrations in the water column. Where sinking POC fluxes are particularly high, enhanced bacterial
36 breakdown of particles can deplete available oxygen and create hypoxic or even suboxic conditions in which many
37 organisms cannot survive (e.g., Hofmann and Schellnhuber, 2009; Oschlies et al., 2008). Given the critical role of
38 POC export in driving ocean carbon sequestration, the global climate system, fisheries productivity, and dissolved
39 oxygen availability, there is a growing need to better understand how export will respond to future climate warming.

40 State-of-the-art Earth System Models (ESMs) predict decreases in global export production (defined as the
41 sinking POC flux at 100m) of ~10-20% by 2100 (Bopp et al., 2013; Cabré et al., 2015a) and ~30% by 2300 (Moore
42 et al., 2018). In these models, primary production and subsequent carbon export are largely limited by the physical
43 supply of nutrients to the surface ocean, which is predicted to slow with future warming. Mechanisms driving this
44 nutrient supply slowdown include: (i) surface warming-induced stratification of the water column, which will shoal
45 winter mixed layers, limit vertical exchange, and “trap” nutrients in the ocean interior (Bopp et al., 2013; Cabré et al.,
46 2015a; Capotondi et al., 2012; Moore et al., 2018), and (ii) a weakening of the trade winds, which will reduce
47 upwelling rates and vertical nutrient supply in tropical oceans (Bopp et al., 2001; Collins et al., 2010), as well as lateral
48 Ekman-driven nutrient supply into the subtropics (Letscher et al., 2016).

49 Changes in the POC flux itself, however, also have the potential to modulate nutrient supply to the surface
50 ocean and therefore impact export. Because particles release nutrients when they decompose, the depth scale of
51 particle remineralization determines the proximity of these nutrients to the surface and their resupply rate to the
52 euphotic zone (Kwon et al., 2009; Yamanaka & Tajika, 1996). Shallow remineralization in mesopelagic waters,
53 especially above the permanent pycnocline, drives rapid nutrient recirculation to the surface; nutrients remineralized
54 in deeper waters, on the other hand, can take hundreds of years to re-emerge at the surface (Martin et al., 1987;
55 Matsumoto, 2007). This raises the possibility of feedback loops in which changes in particle remineralization depth
56 might either dampen or enhance circulation-driven decreases in primary production and export.

57 Recent work has shown that particle size plays a paramount role in determining remineralization length scales
58 and carbon transfer efficiency to depth due to its influence on sinking speed (Cram et al., 2018; Kriest & Oschlies,
59 2008; Weber et al., 2016). Current ESMs, however, generally do not resolve a dynamic particle size spectrum and so
60 cannot fully capture biological feedbacks driven by particle size (Laufkötter et al., 2016; Le Quéré et al., 2005). For
61 example, it is common in global models to impose a power-law particle flux profile based on empirical fits to sediment
62 trap measurements (Bopp et al., 2001; Kwon et al., 2009; Maier-Reimer, 1993; Martin et al., 1987; Najjar et al., 1992;
63 Yamanaka & Tajika, 1996), or to explicitly simulate particles whose sinking speeds are fixed, vary over depth
64 (Aumont & Bopp, 2006; Schmittner et al., 2005), or differ between only one large and one small size class (Aumont
65 & Bopp, 2006; Gregg et al., 2003). More complex models that resolve aggregation-disaggregation transformations
66 and/or continuous particle sizes have been developed (Gehlen et al., 2006; Kriest & Oschlies, 2008), but have not



67 been used to study the effects of climate change on export production. Furthermore, parameters and processes in most
68 previous models are not constrained by observations of particle size distributions.

69 Here we conduct a series of model experiments constrained by empirical relationships to isolate the effect of
70 particle size-dependent remineralization depths on future export changes. We use satellite-derived export rates and
71 particle size data in combination with a 3-D global biogeochemical model to demonstrate that current ESMs, which
72 lack particle size-dependent remineralization depths, may overestimate 21st century decreases in carbon export.

73 **1.2 A hypothesized particle size-remineralization (PSR) feedback**

74 Particle abundances in the ocean tend to follow a power-law distribution with many more small particles than
75 large ones (Boss et al., 2001; Sheldon et al., 1972). Particle size distributions can thus be succinctly described by the
76 negative exponent in the power-law relationship between particle diameter and number density, i.e. the negative linear
77 slope between these two variables on log-log axes. We define the absolute value of this slope as β . A shallower slope
78 (small β) indicates a greater proportion of large particles relative to small ones, while a steeper slope (large β) indicates
79 a smaller proportion of large particles.

80 Large particles tend to exist in the ocean where larger microphytoplankton (>20 μm in diameter) are
81 dominant, while relatively small particles tend to exist where smaller picophytoplankton (<2 μm in diameter) are
82 dominant (Guidi et al., 2007; Guidi et al., 2008; Guidi et al., 2009). The presence of large phytoplankton leads to the
83 generation of larger particles perhaps because large phytoplankton are more likely to form aggregates and be
84 transformed into large fecal pellets by large zooplankton, whereas small phytoplankton are more likely to be degraded
85 by bacteria and consumed by smaller zooplankton (Bopp et al., 2005; Guidi et al., 2007; Guidi et al., 2009; Michaels
86 and Silver, 1988). The exact mechanisms governing the processes by which smaller and larger phytoplankton become
87 smaller and larger particles are not clearly known, however, and is an active area of research.

88 Phytoplankton community size structure is in turn determined by the availability of nutrients. Low-nutrient
89 conditions select for small phytoplankton with high surface area-to-volume ratios, which make them less susceptible
90 to nutrient diffusion limitation (Litchman et al., 2007). Regions with lower nutrient concentrations thus tend to have
91 a greater relative abundance of small picophytoplankton and particles, while regions with higher nutrient
92 concentrations tend to be dominated by larger microphytoplankton and particles. Indeed, global patterns of annual-
93 mean β (Kostadinov et al., 2009) and fractional picophytoplankton abundance (fpico) (Hirata et al., 2011) estimated
94 from remote sensing correspond closely with surface nutrient concentrations (Fig. 1a-c).

95 Past work has also firmly established a strong positive relationship between particle size and sinking speed
96 in the ocean (Alldredge and Gotschalk, 1988; Smayda, 1971) (although there are exceptions to this rule, particularly
97 in the Southern Ocean – see McDonnell and Buesseler (2010)). The characteristic depth scale of particle
98 remineralization is proportional to this sinking speed divided by a microbially-mediated remineralization rate (Kwon
99 et al., 2009; McDonnell et al., 2015). Here we define remineralization depth as the shallowest depth at which POC
100 flux out of the euphotic zone is reduced by a factor of e or 63% (i.e., the e -folding depth of the flux) (Fig. 1d). The
101 dominance of smaller phytoplankton and sinking particles in the water column results in a shallower remineralization



102 depth, as bacteria have more time to remineralize these slow-sinking particles in the upper layers of the water column
103 (Bach et al., 2016).

104 In sum, there are strong connections between nutrient availability, phytoplankton community structure,
105 particle size, and remineralization depth, as evidenced by their closely-related global patterns (Fig. 1). Taken together,
106 these connections point towards a negative feedback loop that may dampen changes in carbon export arising from
107 physically-induced changes in surface nutrient supply. In a warming and stratifying ocean, this hypothesized feedback
108 (hereafter known as the particle size-remineralization feedback, or PSR feedback) would proceed through the
109 following steps, which are illustrated schematically in Fig. 2:

110 1.) *Slower Circulation (SC)* – First, stratification of the water column and slowing trade winds with climate
111 warming will reduce shallow subsurface nutrient concentrations and vertical exchange/upwelling rates. This
112 slows nutrient supply into the euphotic zone, which in turn decreases phytoplankton productivity and
113 resultant export production (Fig. 2a, b, green arrows).

114 2.) *Ecological Effect (EE)* – A decrease in surface nutrient supply also selects for smaller phytoplankton, which
115 leads to a larger proportion of small particles in the export flux. The net result of this ecological effect (EE)
116 (Fig. 2a, red arrow) can be captured by the relationship between export and β (Fig. 2c, red line), as any
117 decrease in export driven by decreased nutrient supply would also cause a corresponding decrease in
118 phytoplankton/particle size. The degree to which particle sizes shrink in association with decreasing export
119 rates is represented by the negative slope of the red, theoretical export-versus- β line in Fig. 2c. Constrained
120 by this relationship, the changes in export and β under slowed circulation (SC) must fall along this red line
121 (“SC with EE” point). In the absence of the ecological effect (i.e., phytoplankton/particle sizes are not
122 affected by changes in the nutrient supply), there is no such requirement and β would remain unchanged
123 under a slowed circulation scenario (“SC without EE” point in Fig. 2c).

124 3.) *Sinking Speed Effect (SSE)* – Smaller particles resulting from the ecological response to a reduced nutrient
125 supply would sink more slowly and therefore remineralize shallower in the water column. More regenerated
126 nutrients would then accumulate within shallower waters and thus recirculate more quickly to the surface. In
127 isolation, a shift to smaller particles would therefore ultimately lead to greater surface nutrient supply and
128 larger export rates (Fig. 2a, blue arrow), represented by the positive slope of the blue export-versus- β line in
129 Fig. 2d. In the presence of this sinking speed effect (SSE), changes in export and β under slowed circulation
130 must fall along the blue sinking speed-related export-versus- β line (Fig. 2d). In the absence of this sinking
131 speed effect (i.e., particle size does not affect sinking rates/remineralization depths), there is no such
132 requirement, and the initial stratification-induced export decrease would remain unaltered (“SC without SSE,
133 with EE” point in Fig. 2d).

134 Only in the presence of both the ecological and sinking speed effects will the PSR feedback function; in this
135 case, after circulation is slowed, export and β must reach a new steady-state at the intersection of the red and blue lines
136 (“SC with SSE and EE” yellow star in Fig. 2d). Thus, the overall decrease in POC export would be smaller than
137 predicted from decreased circulation rates and surface nutrient supply alone. That is, the net effect of phytoplankton



138 selection and particle size-dependent remineralization depths provides a negative feedback on, or dampening of,
139 changes in export. Though the above description focuses on export decreases under decreased circulation rates, the
140 PSR feedback would result in an analogous dampening of export increases under increased circulation rates and
141 surface nutrient supply.

142 To quantify the strength of this hypothesized feedback, we employ a 3-D global ocean biogeochemical model
143 and remotely-sensed estimates of carbon export and particle size distributions. To isolate the effects of the feedback,
144 we take an idealized approach using empirical relationships and a simple model that allows responses to be easily
145 traced back to assumptions made at each step. In doing so, we produce a first-order estimate of the particle size-
146 remineralization (PSR) feedback strength throughout the ocean.

147 **2 Methods**

148 **2.1 Ocean biogeochemical and particle remineralization model**

149 **2.1.1 Model setup**

150 We examine the PSR feedback within the context of an idealized ocean biogeochemical model, which
151 comprises a simple nutrient cycle (DeVries et al., 2014) embedded within the Ocean Circulation Inverse Model
152 (OCIM) (DeVries, 2014). OCIM assimilates passive and transient tracer observations to constrain the time-mean,
153 large-scale circulation at 2-degree horizontal resolution on 24 vertical layers. Nutrient cycling comprises phosphate
154 (PO_4^{3-}) uptake and export in the surface ocean (<75m), particle remineralization in the subsurface (>75m), and
155 production and decomposition of dissolved organic phosphorus.

156 Remineralization is represented implicitly based on the attenuation of the particle flux, as predicted by the 1-
157 D mechanistic Particle Remineralization and Sinking Model (PRiSM). PRiSM computes particle flux profiles as a
158 function of particle size distribution (β) at the surface, microbial remineralization rates, and physical relationships
159 between particle size, mass, and sinking velocity. Using PRiSM, variations in annual mean β of the magnitude
160 observed by satellite can lead to large differences in particle fluxes at depth (Fig. S1; Fig. 1a,d; DeVries et al 2014).
161 Model configuration and parameter values used here are listed in Table S1; further model details and validation are
162 described in DeVries et al. (2014). Here we extend the original PRiSM-enabled biogeochemical model in two
163 important ways:

- 164 1.) We add the ability to enable or disable the PSR feedback by optionally allowing the particle size distribution
165 to respond to changes in nutrient supply (Section 2.1.2).
- 166 2.) The original diagnostic nutrient uptake term (i.e., nutrient-restoring production) is replaced by the prognostic
167 organic matter production scheme developed by Weber and Deutsch (2012) with minor parameter updates
168 (see Table S2). This scheme calculates phytoplankton growth rates as a function of observed annual-mean
169 temperatures (Locarnini et al., 2010) and solar radiation levels (Rossow & Schiffer, 1999), along with
170 modeled PO_4^{3-} . We thus explicitly model phytoplankton production in terms of phosphorus consumption and
171 regeneration. We then use an empirical, spatially variable relationship between particulate C-to-P ratios and



172 phosphate concentrations (Galbraith & Martiny, 2015) to convert phytoplankton production into units of
173 carbon. It is assumed that 10% of phytoplankton production is routed directly to dissolved organic matter in
174 the euphotic zone, with the remainder becoming particulate organic matter (Thornton, 2013).

175 2.1.2 Model representation of the PSR feedback

176 When the PSR feedback is disabled within our model, nutrient supply changes drive changes in export, but
177 β remains constant over time. With the PSR feedback enabled, nutrient supply changes drive changes in export *and* β
178 via an empirically-derived, spatially variable relationship between export and β that is detailed in Section 2.2. In this
179 way, β can respond dynamically to a change in nutrient supply, leading to changes in remineralization depth, and
180 initiating the feedback described in Section 1.2. Mathematically, β is updated at a given grid point as follows between
181 timesteps t and $t+1$:

$$182 \beta_{t+1} = \beta_t + \frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}} \frac{E_{t+1} - E_t}{E_t}, \quad (1)$$

183 where E is model-derived export and $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ is the empirically-derived, time-independent fractional change in
184 observed β (β_{obs}) per change in observed time-mean normalized export ($E_{n,obs}$) (i.e., absolute export divided by time-
185 mean export at a given grid point).

186 To disable the feedback, $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ is set equal to zero so that modeled β remains constant over time. To enable
187 the feedback, $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ is set equal to the linear temporal regression coefficient between β_{obs} and $E_{n,obs}$, which is computed
188 from remotely-sensed time series of the two variables over the global ocean (Section 2.2). Thus, when the feedback
189 is enabled, changes in modeled β over time are dictated by the magnitude of modeled export change as well as the
190 strength of the relationship between observed β and export, which can vary spatially.

191 2.2 Empirical analyses of phytoplankton size, β , and export from satellite data

192 Because the strength of our modeled PSR feedback depends strongly on the observed relationship between β
193 and export ($\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ in Eq. (1)), we sought a robust empirical constraint on this relationship. Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2
194 respectively describe the global satellite-derived time series maps of β and export used here. Section 2.2.3 then
195 describes how these monthly-mean β and export maps are used to compute a range of possible global $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$
196 relationships.

197 2.2.1 Global satellite-derived particle size distribution map

198 Global 1/12°-by-1/12° monthly maps of β observed by the SeaWiFS satellite sensor (in operation from
199 September 1997 – December 2010) were downloaded from
200 <ftp://ftp.oceancolor.ucsb.edu/pub/org/oceancolor/MEaSURES/PSD/>. These β maps were derived from remotely-
201 sensed particulate backscatter validated with in situ near-surface Coulter counter measurements (Kostadinov et al.,



202 2009). To enable more efficient computation, we reduced the resolution of the original monthly β maps to 1°-by-1°
203 degree via spatial averaging. At this resolution, time-mean β ranges from ~3.3 in coastal high-latitude regions (where
204 high nutrient conditions favor larger phytoplankton) to ~5.3 in the subtropics (where low macronutrient concentrations
205 favor small phytoplankton) (Fig. 1a).

206 2.2.2 Global satellite-derived export maps

207 Export is computed here as the product of net primary production (NPP) and the particle export ratio
208 (export/NPP, or e-ratio), both of which can be derived from satellite. To create a range of plausible global monthly
209 export maps, we multiplied all possible permutations of three monthly NPP and e-ratio maps, yielding nine distinct
210 monthly time series of global export (Fig. S2). All three sets of monthly satellite NPP maps were downloaded from
211 <http://sites.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/> and derived from SeaWiFS observations processed through
212 the following algorithms: (i) the chlorophyll-based Vertically Generalized Production Model (VGPM) (Behrenfeld &
213 Falkowski, 1997); (ii) the Eppley-VGPM model (VGPME), containing a modified relationship between temperature
214 and production compared to the original VGPM (Carr et al., 2006); and (iii) the Carbon-based Production Model
215 (CbPM), which uses particulate backscatter-derived carbon rather than chlorophyll to measure phytoplankton biomass
216 (Behrenfeld et al., 2005). The three sets of monthly-mean e-ratio maps were computed from empirical relationships
217 derived by L2000 (Laws et al., 2000), D2005 (Dunne et al., 2005), and L2011 (Laws et al., 2011). L2000 computes
218 e-ratios from SST alone; D2005 computes e-ratios from NPP, SST, and euphotic zone depths; and L2011 computes
219 e-ratios from SST and NPP. The in situ, statistically interpolated SST dataset used here was NOAA's Extended
220 Reconstructed Sea Surface Temperature (ERSST) v3b, downloaded from
221 <https://www1.ncdc.noaa.gov/pub/data/cmb/ersst/v3b/netcdf/> (Smith et al., 2008). Euphotic zone depths needed to
222 compute D2005 e-ratios were derived from SeaWiFS-sensed chlorophyll concentrations (downloaded from the same
223 website as NPP) according to Equation 10 in Lee et al. (2007). As with β , all variables were computed and stored on
224 a 1°-by-1° degree grid over the entirety of the SeaWiFS period (September 1997 – December 2010, 160 months long).

225 In the following analyses (Section 3), we employ all nine sets of global monthly export maps to propagate
226 uncertainty in our results. When reporting most-likely values, we weight the nine map sets according to how well each
227 map set's annual mean export matches in situ observations within each region defined here (Table S3; see Weber et
228 al. (2016) for derivation of weighting factors). Fig. 3 shows the weighted annual mean carbon export flux over the
229 nine map sets, as well as the regions used for weighting, which are delineated based on biogeochemical characteristics
230 such as sea surface temperature and surface phosphate concentrations (Weber et al., 2016). The Atlantic and Pacific
231 Oceans are divided into warm subtropics dominated by smaller picophytoplankton (STA, STP), cold subarctic regions
232 dominated by blooms of larger microphytoplankton in the north (NA, NP), and cool tropical upwelling zones
233 dominated by larger phytoplankton in the east (ETA, ETP). The Indian Ocean is kept intact (IND), while the Southern
234 Ocean is divided into the productive, diatom-dominated Subantarctic Zone (SAZ) and the high-nutrient, low-
235 chlorophyll Antarctic Zone (AAZ). The Indian Ocean region (IND) did not contain a sufficient number of in situ
236 observations of export to enable comparison to the satellite export maps, so all nine maps are weighted equally there.



237 2.2.3 Regionally variable empirical β versus export relationships ($\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$)

238 We quantify the empirical relationship between β and export individually for each grid cell by extracting the
239 monthly timeseries of β and normalized export (E_n) from the satellite products described above, and then applying
240 linear regression. This process produces a spatially variable, 1°-by-1° degree global map of the best-fit linear slopes
241 ($\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$) relating β and E_n . To capture the range of plausible $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ maps, we repeat this process for each of the nine
242 export products to generate nine distinct global $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ maps (Fig. S3). To smooth out small-scale noise and illuminate
243 larger-scale relationships, we then spatially average the slopes in each of the nine $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ maps over the ocean
244 biogeochemical regions defined in Fig. 3 (Fig. 4a). Lastly, we set the slopes at all grid points within a given region
245 equal to that region's weighted (Table S3; Section 2.2.2) mean value (Fig. 4b) to generate the final $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ map used
246 in our PSR feedback-on runs (Fig. 4c).

247 To quantify the sensitivity of $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ to the choice of export map used, we computed upper and lower-bound
248 $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ maps by adding and subtracting one standard deviation (error bars in Fig. 4b) to the weighted regional mean
249 $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ values. Conducting PSR feedback-on runs using upper and lower-bound $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ maps establishes the range of
250 PSR feedback strengths we can reasonably expect from our model forced with empirically-derived relationships.

251 2.3 Model runs to simulate future ocean warming and quantify the PSR feedback effect

252 To represent present-day conditions, we run a baseline simulation with modern-day circulation rates to
253 steady-state. To simulate increased water column stratification and reduced vertical exchange due to warming, we
254 uniformly and instantaneously reduce circulation and diffusion rates by 10% throughout the ocean. For comparison,
255 observations show that the Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC) has weakened by about 15% since
256 the mid-20th century due to anthropogenic warming (Caesar et al., 2018), while ESMS project that AMOC will weaken
257 by 11-34% over the 21st century, depending on the chosen radiative forcing scenario (11% assumes the “high
258 mitigation” RCP2.6 scenario, while 34% assumes the “business-as-usual” RCP8.5 scenario) (Collins et al., 2019). A
259 10% decrease in circulation rates is therefore a relatively conservative estimate of the effects of anthropogenic
260 warming. Although modulation of ocean circulation rates in response to climate change will be more complicated and
261 variable than the uniform 10% decrease applied here (e.g., Toggweiler and Russell, 2008), we seek only a simple,
262 idealized way to approximate the reduced surface nutrient supply that is expected in a warmer future ocean.

263 To quantify the impact of the global PSR feedback on export changes with future warming, we run the slower-
264 circulation rate simulation with and without the PSR feedback effect enabled. In feedback-off runs, β is set equal to
265 annual mean values (Fig. 1a) for the entire duration of the run. In feedback-on runs, β is initially set equal to annual
266 mean values, but is allowed to change according to Eq. (1), with $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ defined as in Fig. 4c for the entire duration of



267 the run. Additional feedback-on runs were conducted using the upper and lower-bound $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ maps (described in
268 Section 2.2.3).

269 All of the above described runs were also repeated with 10% faster circulation rates to determine whether the
270 PSR feedback strength is symmetrical with regard to the direction of circulation change. Within all runs, β is
271 constrained to realistically remain between 2 and 6.5 at all grid points, though these extremes are rarely reached. We
272 run all experimental simulations for 100 years (initializing with conditions from the end of the present-day spin-up)
273 to study near-future changes in export production and nutrient distributions, and to facilitate comparison with 100-
274 year changes projected by the state-of-the-art Earth System Models discussed above.

275 3 Results and Discussion

276 3.1 Spatial patterns in empirically-derived β versus export relationships ($\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$)

277 No matter which maps are used (Section 2.2), satellite-derived β and export are strongly negatively
278 correlated. Export thus tends to be high when β is small (particles are large) and low when β is large (particles are
279 small) (Fig. 4; Fig. S3), as hypothesized in Section 1.2 and highlighted by the negatively-sloped red “Ecological
280 Effect” line in Fig. 2c-d. Regions that are more nutrient-limited (i.e., the subtropics) exhibit especially strong negative
281 relationships between β and export (Fig. 4; Fig. S3), as both β and export are predominantly driven (in opposite
282 directions) by surface nutrient supply in these areas. The counterintuitive weakly positive relationship between β and
283 export in the SAZ is in line with findings from Lam and Bishop (2007), who showed that in the Southern Ocean, areas
284 with higher biomass and larger particles at the surface were actually associated with lower rates of export out of the
285 euphotic zone and at 200 m depth. In these diatom-dominated regions, zooplankton may be more active and have
286 higher particle grazing efficiencies, leading to faster attenuation of particulate carbon fluxes with depth. The unique
287 relationship between β and export in the SAZ and potentially the Southern Ocean at large is worth further exploration
288 outside of this study.

289 3.2 Predicted export changes in the presence of the global PSR feedback effect

290 In this section, we discuss differences in predicted export production changes under altered circulation rates
291 with and without the PSR feedback effect applied globally. Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2/3.2.3 respectively examine
292 resultant global and zonal/regional mean changes in export.

293 3.2.1 Predicted global mean export changes with and without the global PSR feedback

294 To examine the global strength of the PSR feedback within our model under climate change conditions, we
295 compare global mean export changes over time in the PSR feedback-on and off runs after a 10% decrease in circulation
296 rates (Fig. 5, comparing slower circulation dashed and solid lines). In both the feedback-on and off cases,
297 instantaneously decreasing circulation rates reduces surface nutrient supply and immediately leads to a sharp decrease



298 in global mean export of $\sim 0.2 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ from $3.54 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. After this initial plunge, global mean export
299 declines by an additional $0.09 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ over the next 100 years with the feedback off (for a total decrease of 0.29
300 $\text{molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ or 8.1%), versus an additional $0.05 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with the feedback on (for a total decrease of 0.25 molC
301 $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ or 7.0%) (Fig. 5, slower circulation lines and bars). ESMs without the PSR feedback effect project global
302 mean export decreases of around 7-18% between 2090-2099 and 1990-1999 under a “business-as-usual” radiative
303 forcing scenario (RCP8.5). In the absence of the PSR feedback, the 100-year global mean export decrease of 8.1%
304 predicted by our model is comparable to, but on the low-end of, these ESM projections, likely because of the
305 conservative 10% decrease in circulation rates applied here.

306 Turning the PSR feedback on in our model reduced the total 100-year predicted decrease in export by $\sim 14\%$
307 (visually, the ratio of the solid-colored bar length to the full bar length below zero in Fig. 5). At equilibrium (when
308 global mean export stabilizes ~ 500 years after decreasing circulation rates), this feedback effect increases to $\sim 16\%$.
309 With the feedback turned on, particle sizes shrink and remineralization depths shoal in response to an initial
310 circulation-driven decrease in surface nutrient supply, thereby moderating this initial decrease by keeping more
311 recycled nutrients at the surface. In particular, global mean β increases by 0.03 units (from 4.34 to 4.37) under 10%
312 decreased circulation rates after 100 years with the PSR feedback on (Fig. 6a,b), corresponding to a 17 m global mean
313 shoaling (from 595 to 578 m) of e-folding remineralization depths (Fig. 6b). The greatest regional mean β increase of
314 0.06 occurs in the Indian Ocean (IND), resulting in a 41 m shoaling of remineralization depths there (Fig. 6b). Results
315 from runs employing upper and lower-bound $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ maps (defined in Section 2.2.3, represented by the error bars in
316 Fig. 4b) lend further support to our findings and indicate that the modeled global PSR feedback effect size is relatively
317 insensitive to the choice of export maps used to compute $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ (Fig 5, black error bars).

318 The PSR feedback also dampens the response of global-mean carbon export to an instantaneous *increase* in
319 ocean circulation rates (Fig. 5). One hundred years after circulation rates are increased by 10%, global mean carbon
320 export increases from $3.54 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ by $0.28 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (8.0%) with the feedback off, whereas it increases by
321 $\sim 0.23 \text{ molC m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ (6.6%) with the feedback on (Fig. 5, faster circulation lines and bars). Thus increasing circulation
322 rates by 10% with the PSR feedback on reduces the 100-year increase in export production by $\sim 18\%$ (visually, the
323 ratio of the solid-colored bar length to the full bar length above zero in Fig. 5). At equilibrium, this feedback effect
324 increases to $\sim 20\%$. With the feedback turned on, particle sizes grow and remineralization depths deepen in response
325 to an initial circulation-driven increase in surface nutrient supply, thereby moderating this initial increase by
326 transferring more nutrients to deeper waters where they recirculate more slowly to the surface. In particular, global
327 mean β decreases by 0.03 units (from 4.34 to 4.31) under 10% increased circulation rates, corresponding to a 20 m
328 global mean deepening (from 595 to 615 m) of e-folding remineralization depths (not shown). The greatest regional
329 mean β decrease of 0.07 occurs in the Indian Ocean (IND), resulting in a 54 m shoaling of remineralization depths
330 there. Compared with the decreased circulation case, absolute changes in remineralization depths are slightly larger
331 under increased circulation rates because remineralization depth changes are more sensitive to variations in β when
332 particles are larger (that is, at smaller values of β). Because remineralization depth changes are greater under increased



333 circulation rates, so too is the global PSR feedback strength (14% with decreased circulation rates versus 18% with
334 increased circulation rates). Again, results from PSR feedback-on runs constrained by upper and lower-bound $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$
335 maps further support the notion that the PSR feedback size is relatively insensitive to the choice of export maps used
336 to compute $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ (Fig 5, error bars). Thus, the effect of the PSR feedback is to buffer changes in export production
337 in response to any physical perturbation in nutrient supply, regardless of the direction.

338 3.2.2 Predicted zonal and regional mean export changes *without* the global PSR feedback

339 In our baseline simulation under current-day circulation rates, POC export covaries tightly throughout the
340 low to mid-latitudes with nutrient concentrations in shallow subsurface waters beneath the euphotic zone, quantified
341 here as $[PO_4]$ at 200m depth (P_{200m}) (Fig. 7a,b; Fig. 8a). South of $\sim 40^\circ S$ and north of $\sim 40^\circ N$, other factors such as light
342 and/or temperature become limiting; as a result, export does not vary as tightly with P_{200m} in these higher-latitude
343 regions. The spatial structure of the relationship between export and P_{200m} confirms that nutrient supply from
344 subsurface layers is the primary driver of export rates throughout the nutrient-limited low- to mid-latitudes. Therefore,
345 in these regions, the following balance approximately holds:

$$346 \text{Export} = E \approx wP_{200m}, \quad (2)$$

347 where w is the local upwards nutrient supply velocity, which represents the net effect of all vertical exchange
348 processes, including diffusion, upwelling, entrainment, and mixing. This balance can in turn be used to derive a simple
349 diagnostic for understanding changes in export under altered circulation rates at any given location:

$$350 \Delta E = \Delta w * P_{200m,baseline} + w_{baseline} * \Delta P_{200m}, \quad (3)$$

351 where *baseline* denotes variables from the baseline simulation ran to steady-state with current-day circulation rates
352 and Δ denotes change from the baseline simulation under altered circulation rates. (Note that we ignore the
353 “perturbation product” term, $\Delta w * \Delta P_{200m}$, because it is negligible.) When ocean circulation is slowed, Eq. (3) allows
354 us to identify two different contributions to the resultant reduction in export through the low to mid-latitudes. First,
355 and most intuitively, when circulation rates are uniformly decreased, w is reduced across the entire ocean ($\Delta w < 0$)
356 and the supply of “baseline” nutrients is curtailed. Second, a decrease in circulation rates also reduces phosphate
357 concentrations throughout the shallow subsurface layer in the low to mid-latitudes ($\Delta P_{200m} < 0$) (solid lines and bars
358 in Fig 7c,d; Fig. 8b). This decrease in P_{200m} is largely driven by enhanced biological nutrient utilization in the surface
359 of the Southern Ocean in response to slower circulation, which is then propagated into the low to mid-latitude interior
360 through Antarctic Intermediate and Subantarctic Mode Waters, as observed in future climate simulations by more
361 complex ESMs (e.g., Moore et al., 2018).

362 Together, the decreases in shallow subsurface nutrient concentrations (P_{200m}) and vertical exchange rates (w)
363 result in substantial reductions in export throughout most of the ocean under our decreased circulation simulations as
364 dictated by Eq. (3), with the greatest reductions occurring in nutrient-limited areas. In the absence of the PSR feedback,
365 the 10% decrease we imposed on circulation rates leads to 100-year zonal mean export decreases of $>15\%$ at $35^\circ N$
366 and S and $\sim 10\%$ between $35^\circ N$ and S (solid line in Fig. 7e). Regionally, the oligotrophic subtropics (especially the



367 STP exhibit the largest relative decreases in export (~10-13%), followed closely by the tropics (ETA, ETP) with
368 export decreases around 8-10% (solid bars in Fig. 7f). As expected, the decrease in export mirrors the pattern of ΔP_{200m}
369 in low to mid-latitude regions due to a strong dependence of export on nutrient supply from the shallow subsurface
370 here.

371 3.2.3 Predicted zonal and regional mean export changes *with* the global PSR feedback

372 As with the global mean (Section 3.2.1), we quantify zonal and regional mean PSR feedback strength as the
373 difference in circulation-driven export change from baseline between the feedback-on and -off runs, normalized by
374 the change from baseline in the feedback-off run. In other words, the PSR feedback strength is the percentage by
375 which turning on the PSR feedback reduces (dampens) the response of carbon export to changes in ocean circulation
376 (blue line and bars in Fig. 7g,h). Visually, the zonal mean feedback strength (blue line in Fig. 7g) is equal to the
377 difference between the dashed and solid lines divided by the solid line in Fig. 7e, while the regional mean PSR
378 feedback strength (blue bars in Fig. 7h) is equal to the length of the solid-colored portion of the bars divided by the
379 entire length of the bars in Fig. 7f. The PSR feedback strength is greatest (most strongly damping) in the low to mid-
380 latitudes and in the tropics (ETA, ETP) and subtropics (STA, STP, IND), with the feedback able to reduce zonal and
381 regional mean export changes by up to 20% in these regions (blue lines and bars in Fig. 7g,h). To understand this
382 spatial pattern, we combine Eq. (3) with our definition of PSR feedback strength to yield the following diagnostic:

$$383 \text{ PSR feedback strength} = \frac{\Delta E_{on} - \Delta E_{off}}{\Delta E_{off}} \approx \frac{\frac{\Delta P_{200m,on} - \Delta P_{200m,off}}{P_{200m,baseline}}}{\frac{\Delta w}{w_{baseline}} + \frac{\Delta P_{200m,off}}{P_{200m,baseline}}}, \quad (4)$$

384 where *on/off* denotes whether the PSR feedback was turned on or off under the altered circulation rates. This
385 expression reveals that the PSR feedback effect is strongest wherever activating the feedback leads to the greatest
386 dampening of changes in P_{200m} , compared to the changes that occur in the feedback-off case. In the decreased
387 circulation simulations ($\frac{\Delta w}{w_{baseline}} = -10\%$ everywhere), the low to mid-latitude regions display the greatest differences
388 in P_{200m} changes between feedback-on and off runs (Fig. 7c,d; Fig. 8b-d); these regions undergo the greatest reductions
389 in circulation-driven export change due to the PSR feedback (Fig. 7e,f) and thus exhibit the largest PSR feedback
390 effects (blue lines and bars in Fig. 7g,h).

391 The degree to which the PSR feedback dampens P_{200m} changes is in turn driven by the strength of the
392 relationship between β and export. The low to mid-latitudes exhibit the most negative $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ values and therefore, the
393 tightest coupling between β and export (Fig. 4c). In these regions, where macronutrient limitation is the dominant
394 constraint on productivity, a given circulation-driven decrease in surface nutrient supply causes a relatively large drop
395 in both export and phytoplankton/particle size (leading to an increase in β) in the presence of the PSR feedback. This
396 then allows significantly more nutrients to be recycled at the surface, resulting in greatly dampened decreases in P_{200m}
397 and subsequent export production.

398 Our simple diagnostic (Eq. (4)) can explain PSR feedback strengths quite well over the global ocean, as seen
399 by comparing total feedback strengths (blue lines/bars in Fig. 7g,h) with the approximation based on w and P_{200m}



400 (right-hand side of Eq. (4), represented by orange lines/bars in Fig. 7g,h). However, because new production can be
401 fed by local upwelling as well as lateral advection, changes in P_{200m} and vertical exchange rates alone (orange lines/bars
402 in Fig. 7g,h) cannot perfectly predict all changes in export (blue lines/bars in Fig. 7g,h), especially in regions where
403 lateral advection plays a relatively large role in supplying nutrients to the surface (i.e., recall that Eq. (2) is only a
404 close approximation).

405 3.3 Predicted export changes in the presence of regional PSR feedback effects

406 In this section, we discuss each individual ocean region's contribution to the global PSR feedback effect. To
407 isolate the PSR feedback effect coming from each region, we conduct a set of model runs in which we decrease the
408 circulation rate globally, but only activate the PSR feedback within one region at a time. In these feedback-on runs,
409 we set $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ in Eq. (1) equal to zero at all grid points outside of the region we are isolating; within the isolated region,
410 we set $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ equal to the corresponding empirically-derived value (as shown in Fig. 4b). These simulations are then
411 compared to the same feedback-off run discussed in Section 3.2 (i.e., no changes in β anywhere) to determine the
412 impact of enabling the feedback within one region at a time. Sections 3.3.1. and 3.3.2 respectively describe the global
413 and regional mean export changes resulting from this set of experiments.

414 3.3.1 Predicted global mean export changes with and without regional PSR feedbacks

415 Analysis of the regional feedback-on runs show that tropical (ETA, ETP) and subtropical (STA, STP, IND)
416 regions contribute most significantly to the global PSR feedback (Fig. 9). Turning the feedback on in the ETP alone,
417 for instance, leads to a 3.9% reduction in global mean export change compared to the feedback-off case (Fig. 9a – row
418 7, last column); the ETP alone thus accounts for 38.6% of the global PSR feedback strength (Fig. 9b – row 7, last
419 column), while spanning only 10.3% of total ocean area. Turning the feedback on in the subtropical (STA, STP, IND)
420 and tropical (ETA, ETP) regions one at a time and then summing their individual contributions (11.7%, 11.6%, 22.3%,
421 13.3%, 38.6% respectively; Fig. 9b – last column) accounts for 97.5% of the global PSR feedback effect, while all
422 other regions (AAZ, SAZ, NA, NP) account for only a negligible fraction of the effect (or even act to decrease the
423 overall effect in the case of the SAZ) (Fig. 9b – last column). The dominant contributions of the tropical/subtropical
424 regions to the global PSR feedback can once again be understood via spatial patterns in $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ (Fig. 4c), with large
425 changes in β and remineralization depth associated with relatively small changes in export in the nutrient-limited
426 tropical/subtropical regions.

427 3.3.2 Predicted regional mean export changes with and without regional PSR feedbacks

428 The significant tropical/subtropical contribution to the PSR feedback can also be seen by examining export
429 changes within individual regions. Activating the PSR feedback in the STA, for example, dampens regional mean
430 export decreases within the STA, the ETA, and the NA by 7.7%, 3.1%, and 2.2%, respectively (Fig. 9a – row 3).
431 Turning on the feedback in the STP (Fig. 9a – row 4), ETA (Fig. 9a – row 6), or ETP (Fig. 9a – row 7) alone have



432 similarly large effects on surrounding regions. In contrast, activating the feedback within higher-latitude regions
433 (AAZ, SAZ, NA, NP) neither significantly moderates export decreases in any individual regions nor globally (Fig. 9a
434 – rows 1-2, 8-9). The AAZ uniquely undergoes near-zero decreases in export for all runs with the feedback on or off;
435 PSR feedback strength here is therefore negligible (Fig. 9a,b – row 1).

436 When the PSR feedback is turned on within a given region, the effect is typically felt most strongly within
437 that same region, as would reasonably be expected given that export production and resultant remineralization are
438 spatially co-occurring (Fig. 9a,b – diagonal going from upper left to lower right corner). However, depending on the
439 local magnitude of $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ compared to that of neighboring regions, as well as the connectivity of nutrient supplies
440 between them, there can be substantial PSR feedback effects originating from afar. For example, in the Pacific basin,
441 switching on the PSR feedback in the ETP has a stronger buffering effect on export in the STP region than switching
442 on the feedback in the STP itself (Fig. 9b – row 7, column 4). This is because the relationship between β and export
443 is much stronger in the ETP (with a regional mean $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ of -0.40; see Fig. 4c) than in the STP (with a regional mean
444 $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ of -0.18; see Fig. 4c), and because remineralized surface nutrients in the ETP are readily carried into the STP
445 by wind-driven Ekman transport. In this way, PSR feedback-driven buffering of surface nutrient supply changes
446 within the ETP indirectly buffers surface nutrient supply changes in the STP as well. This indirect effect also operates
447 in the reverse direction, in that activating the PSR feedback in the STP also has a relatively strong impact back on the
448 ETP (Fig. 9b – row 4, column 7). In this case, nutrients remineralized shallower in the STP thermocline are directed
449 along sloping isopycnals that eventually upwell into the ETP surface, thus buffering decreases in export there. The
450 STP also has a relatively large PSR feedback effect on the subpolar NP (Fig. 9b – row 4, column 9), due to the intense
451 flow of the Kuroshio Current, which carries surface nutrients from the STP northward.

452 Similar relationships hold in the Atlantic basin between the tropics, subtropics, and subpolar regions.
453 However, the PSR feedback effect of the ETA on the STA is smaller (Fig. 9b – row 6, column 3), while the effect of
454 the STA on the ETA is larger (Fig. 9b – row 3, column 6) compared to their Pacific counterparts, presumably due to
455 less pronounced Ekman divergence along the equatorial Atlantic. The STA's PSR feedback effect on the subpolar NA
456 (Fig. 9b – row 3, column 8) is also substantially more pronounced than the STP's effect on the NP, indicating a
457 stronger nutrient supply pathway between subtropical and subpolar gyres in the Atlantic Ocean via the Gulf Stream.

458 An interesting phenomenon that arises in the Southern Ocean is the negative (dampening) overall PSR
459 feedback effect on the SAZ (Fig. 9a – row 10, column 2), despite a positive (amplifying) local feedback effect (Fig.
460 9a,b – row 2, column 2) and relationship between β and export here (regional mean $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ of +0.13; see Fig. 4c).
461 Additive negative (dampening) PSR feedback effects from surrounding regions (STA, STP, IND, ETA, ETP) (Fig.
462 9a,b – rows 3-7, column 2) overcome the small positive (amplifying) local feedback effect here (Fig. 9a,b – row 2,
463 column 2), such that the total feedback effect still reduces the magnitude of the regional mean export decrease by
464 1.2% compared to the feedback-off case (Fig. 9a – last row, column 2). Because the SAZ spans the entire width of the
465 ocean and touches every other basin, additional remineralized surface nutrients collected in the many connected



466 regions are quickly and easily circulated into the SAZ when the global PSR feedback is active, thus buffering larger
467 would-be decreases in export here.

468 **4 Conclusion**

469 Surface nutrient supply drives export production and shapes phytoplankton communities and particle size
470 distributions throughout the low to mid-latitude oceans. Large phytoplankton and particles are prevalent in nutrient
471 replete conditions, while smaller phytoplankton and particles dominate in oligotrophic conditions (Litchman et al.,
472 2007; Guidi et al., 2007; 2008; 2009). A reduction in surface nutrient supply stemming from increased water column
473 stratification in a warming ocean (Bopp et al., 2013; Cabré et al., 2015a; Capotondi et al., 2012) thus leads to a decrease
474 in global export production (Fig 2, green arrows; Fig. 5, slower circulation solid lines/bars) and sinking particle size
475 (Fig 2a, red arrow; Fig. 2c-d, red line; Fig. 6b). Smaller particles in turn drive shallower nutrient remineralization and
476 thus faster resupply of those nutrients to the surface, dampening the initial circulation-driven change in export (Fig.
477 2a, blue arrow; Fig. 2d, blue line; Fig. 5, slower circulation dashed lines/hatched bars; Fig. 6b; Fig. 7c-f; Fig. 8b-c).
478 This study has shown that these mechanisms can give rise to a negative feedback loop that moderates the response of
479 carbon export to changes in ocean circulation, which we term the particle size-remineralization (PSR) feedback.

480 Many global models ignore the effects of nutrient supply on particle size and/or the effects of particle size
481 on remineralization depths (Laufkötter et al., 2016 and references therein). Within our model, including these effects
482 reduces the magnitude of predicted 100-year changes in global export production by ~14% when circulation rates are
483 decreased by a conservative 10% (Fig. 5). This implies that global models without the PSR feedback may be
484 overestimating 100-year climate-driven export decreases by ~1.16 times. Under a relatively extreme ESM-projected
485 decrease of 18% by 2100 (Bopp et al., 2013), absolute global export would be reduced by ~0.7-2.9 GtC/yr, assuming
486 a present rate in the range of 4-16 GtC/yr (Boyd & Trull, 2007; DeVries & Weber, 2017; Dunne et al., 2005, 2007;
487 Falkowski et al., 1998; Henson et al., 2011; Laws et al., 2000; Siegel et al., 2014; Yamanaka & Tajika, 1996); with
488 the PSR feedback in effect, this predicted decrease would be reduced by ~14% to ~0.6-2.3 GtC/yr.

489 The PSR feedback is strongest (moderating export changes by up to 20%; Fig. 7g,h; Fig. 9) and export
490 decreases are thus likely to be most overestimated in the low-latitude tropical and subtropical regions, where current
491 models also predict some of the largest future export decreases (Bopp et al., 2013; Cabré et al., 2015a). Within these
492 regions, primary and export production are highly nutrient-limited, such that a given stratification-induced decrease
493 in nutrient supply leads to relatively large decreases in export and sinking particle size (Fig. 4), with correspondingly
494 large effects on remineralization depth (Fig. 6) and surface nutrient recycling. Because these regions exhibit the
495 greatest projected decreases in export as well as the strongest PSR feedback effects, spatial variations in projected
496 export decrease may also be less pronounced than currently expected.

497 The PSR feedback operates on increases in surface nutrient supply as well. Under surface nutrient supply
498 increases, phytoplankton/particles grow larger and remineralization depths deepen, which sends more nutrients out of
499 the shallow subsurface and thereby moderates initial circulation-driven increases in export. This PSR feedback reduces
500 the magnitude of predicted 100-year changes in global export production by about 18% when circulation rates are



501 increased by 10% (Fig. 5, faster circulation dashed lines/hatched bars). In scenarios of global cooling (resulting in
502 water column destratification, enhanced mixing, and increased surface nutrient supply), centennial-scale projections
503 of export increase in models lacking the PSR feedback would therefore be >1.2 times too big, again with the largest
504 overestimates in the low to mid-latitude regions. The PSR feedback thus moderates export changes in response to any
505 physical perturbation to surface nutrient supply, whether driven by increasing or decreasing circulation rates. Of
506 particular note, the strength of the PSR feedback does not depend on the size of circulation rate changes (i.e., PSR
507 feedback strength remains relatively constant whether circulation rates are increased/decreased by 10% or 50% -
508 results not shown).

509 The exact strength of the PSR feedback hinges on the empirical relationship between carbon export and
510 particle size, which may differ depending on the datasets used to constrain it. To address this uncertainty, we correlated
511 β against a range of different global export datasets and found that our results were relatively insensitive to the choice
512 of export dataset. Unfortunately, well-grounded alternative global and temporally-resolved datasets for β were not
513 readily available, so uncertainty in the PSR feedback strength due to uncertainties in observed β could not be quantified
514 here. Analysis of in situ Underwater Visual Profiler (UVP) data suggests that β may actually be smaller (thus particles,
515 larger) and less variable (Cram et al., 2018) than the backscatter-derived values (Kostadinov et al., 2009) used in this
516 study. This would potentially imply less variability in particle size-driven remineralization depths, weakening the PSR
517 feedback strength calculated here. On the other hand, differences in remineralization depths are greater at smaller
518 values of β (Fig. S1; Fig. 2 in Devries et al., 2014), such that any given increase in β associated with a decrease in
519 export would lead to greater shoaling of remineralization depths and a larger PSR feedback effect than calculated here.
520 More in situ observations of β are clearly needed to better resolve these competing effects. One potential explanation
521 for these β discrepancies is that the algorithm used to derive β from remotely-sensed particulate backscatter sometimes
522 misses the largest particles in high-productivity areas such as the Southern Ocean (Kostadinov et al., 2009). In addition
523 to the theories proposed in Lam and Bishop (2007), this may partly explain why $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ is weakly positive in the
524 Subantarctic Zone (SAZ); particles may actually get larger with increasing export here, but because they are already
525 quite large, the satellite β sensor/algorithm may not be able to capture the particles becoming any larger. The result
526 would be an underestimation of the negative (dampening) PSR feedback effect in this region. Another caveat of our
527 study is that very simple phytoplankton biology and growth dependent on only one macronutrient was assumed.
528 Furthermore, explicit zooplankton and the effects of particle fragmentation via grazing (e.g. Cavan et al., 2017) or
529 particle aggregation via fecal pellet production (e.g. Steinberg et al., 2012; Turner, 2015 and references therein) were
530 not included. Despite the aforementioned shortcomings, the results presented here represent a reasonable first attempt
531 to quantify the strength of the PSR feedback effect on export changes within a global model.

532 Future work should test the PSR feedback effect in more complex models that better resolve
533 phytoplankton/zooplankton biology, particle dynamics, and/or circulation changes. These models could include
534 particle aggregation-disaggregation with prognostic sinking speeds (Gehlen et al., 2006), empirically-driven food-
535 webs (Siegel et al., 2014), explicit phytoplankton and grazers of different sizes (Buesseler & Boyd, 2009), and/or
536 spatiotemporally-resolved circulation changes that respond directly to atmospheric forcing. Additionally, future work



537 should analyze the downstream effects of the PSR feedback on climate-driven projections of fisheries productivity,
538 dissolved oxygen availability, and carbon sequestration in the deep ocean over centennial to millennial timescales. A
539 smaller-than-currently-projected decrease in surface nutrient supply and export rates would be beneficial for
540 maintaining fisheries, for example, but perhaps detrimental for deep ocean carbon sequestration. In particular, a
541 decrease in circulation rates should enable enhanced carbon sequestration, as nutrients and CO₂ collect in the deep
542 ocean (Fig. 8), but the PSR feedback may potentially moderate this increased sequestration effect. Other
543 remineralization depth-related feedbacks not studied here may also be important for modulation of future changes in
544 carbon export and its downstream effects; these should be investigated in future work as well. For instance,
545 temperature increases may speed up bacterial remineralization rates (Cavan et al., 2019; Cram et al., 2018; John et al.,
546 2014; Marsay et al., 2015; Matsumoto, 2007) and enhance recycling of nutrients near the surface, which would result
547 in an additional negative feedback on export acting in the same direction as the PSR feedback. Oxygen concentrations,
548 on the other hand, are predicted to decrease with future warming (Bopp et al., 2002; Cabré et al., 2015b; Keeling et
549 al., 2010; Long et al., 2016; Matear & Hirst, 2003; Schmidtko et al., 2017), resulting in depressed bacterial
550 remineralization and zooplankton grazing rates (Cavan et al., 2017; Devol & Hartnett, 2001; Hartnett & Devol, 2003;
551 Van Mooy et al., 2002), which would further exacerbate circulation-driven nutrient supply decreases in the surface
552 ocean and create a positive feedback on export production changes. A decrease in mineral ballasting of sinking
553 particles with ocean acidification may also feedback positively on export production decreases (Hofmann and
554 Schellnhuber, 2009). Ensuring that the PSR and other remineralization feedbacks are adequately represented in ESMs
555 should be a priority of the modeling community to enable robust predictions of carbon export fluxes in the future
556 ocean.

557 **Code availability**

558 The MATLAB code required to make the figures generated here can be found at
559 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3785725>.

560 **Data availability**

561 Data in the form of *.mat files required to the make the figures generated here can be found at
562 <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3785724>.

563 **Author contribution**

564 SL and CD designed the model experiments. SL developed the model code and performed the simulations. SL
565 prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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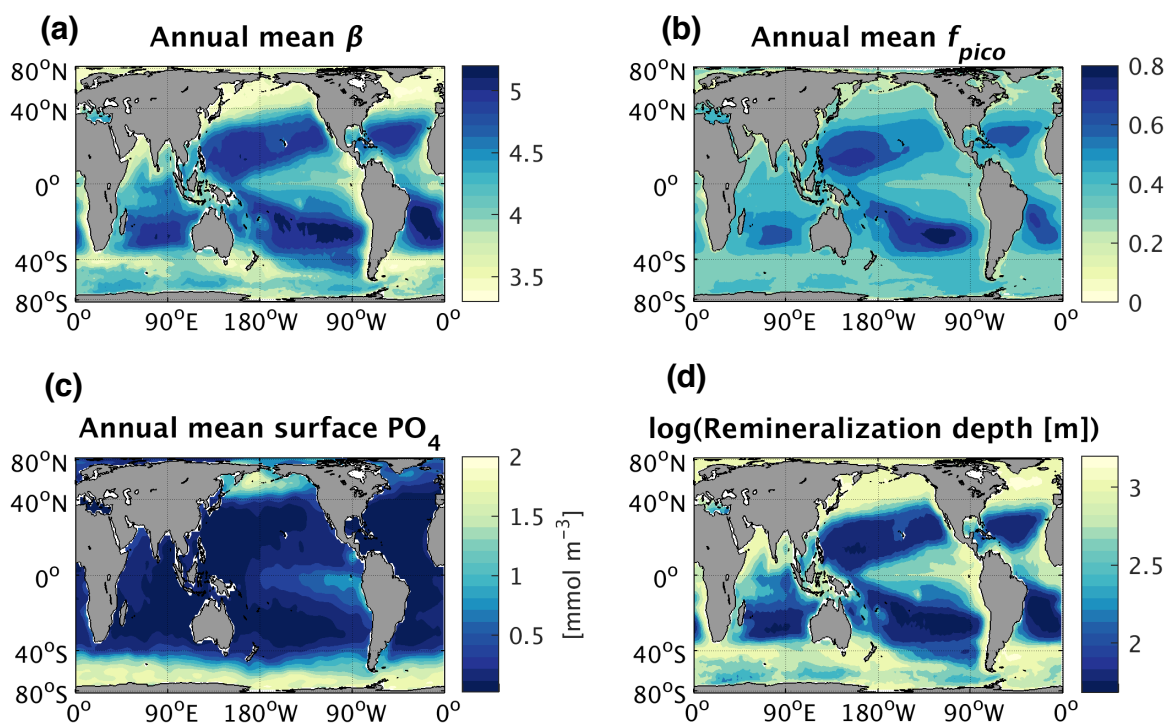
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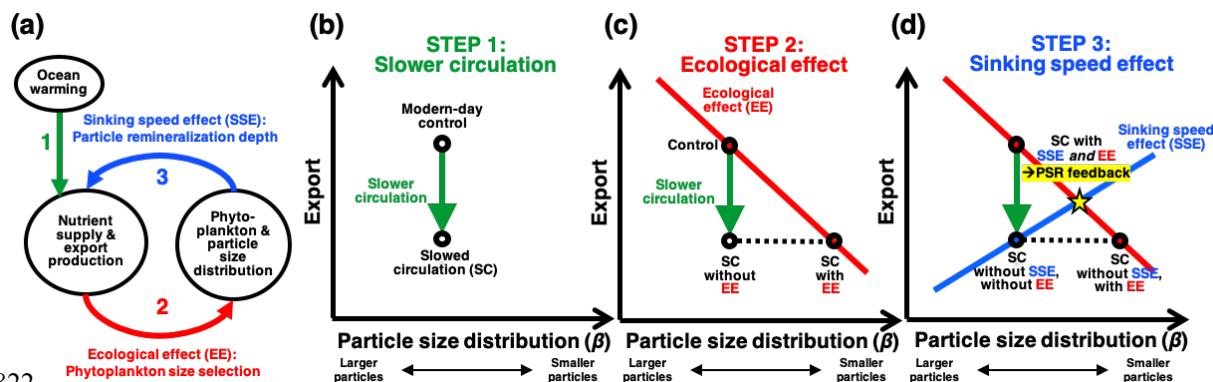
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816 **Figure 1: Global maps of annual mean (a) particle size distribution slope (β) measured by remotely-sensed particulate**
817 **backscatter and reproduced from Kostadinov et al. (2009), (b) fractional picophytoplankton abundance (f_{pico}) reproduced**
818 **from Hirata et al. (2011), (c) surface phosphate concentration from World Ocean Atlas, and (d) remineralization depth,**
819 **defined as the depth at which particulate flux out of the euphotic zone is decreased by a factor of e assuming β in (a) at the**
820 **surface, calculated using a particle remineralization and sinking model (PRiSM, described in Section 2.1.1).**

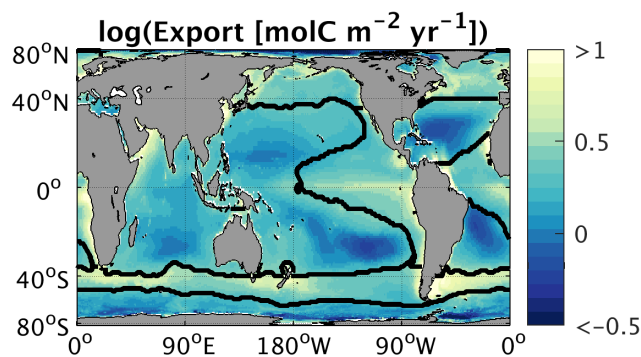
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823 Figure 2: (a) Schematic diagram of the particle size-reminerization (PSR) negative feedback on export production. A
 824 change in circulation rates induced by climate change alters surface nutrient supply and subsequent export production
 825 (green arrow). Changes in surface nutrient supply also drive changes in phytoplankton and resultant sinking particle sizes
 826 (red arrow). Changes in sinking particle sizes in turn alter remineralization depth and consequently, surface nutrient supply
 827 and export (blue arrow). (b) Schematic depicting decreased export production with decreases in circulation rates and
 828 surface nutrient supply. (c) Schematic depicting a theoretical relationship between export and β , here termed the
 829 phytoplankton size selection ecological effect (EE), in which smaller phytoplankton dominate in low-nutrient, low-export
 830 conditions. (d) Schematic depicting all previous components of the PSR feedback, in addition to the crucial final component:
 831 the particle remineralization depth sinking speed effect (SSE), in which smaller particles tend to get remineralized
 832 shallower, leading to a greater recycled surface nutrient supply and therefore greater export.

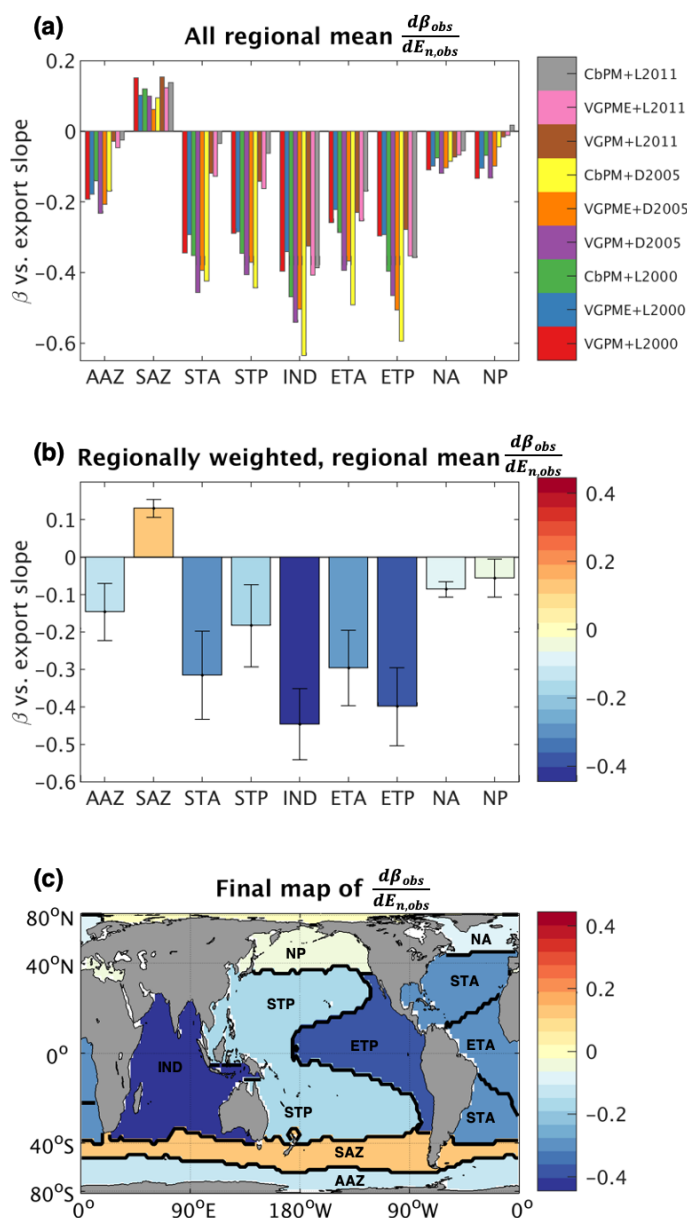
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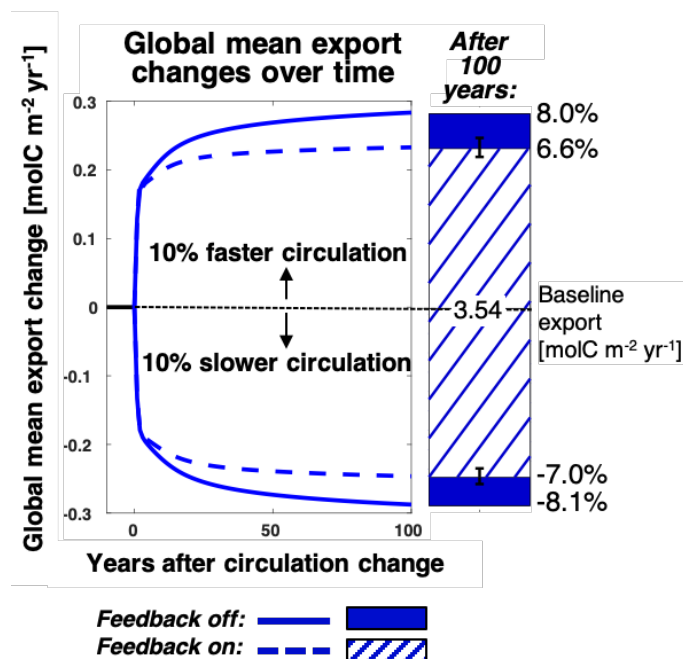
835 Figure 3: Global map of regionally-weighted annual mean export, averaged over nine different export maps (detailed in
 836 Section 2.2.2). Contours indicate biogeochemical regions used for weighting and spatial averaging.

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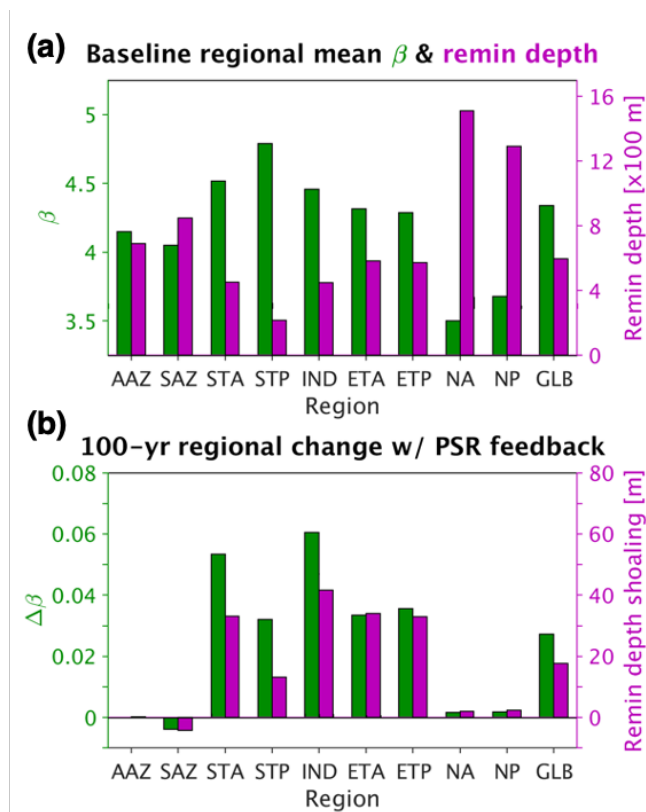
839 Figure 4: (a) Regional mean changes in particle size slope for a given change in time-mean normalized export, $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ (i.e.,
 840 spatial averages of each map in Fig. S3 over regions shown in Fig. 3), colored by corresponding export map. Colorbar labels
 841 indicate the NPP and e-ratio algorithms used to generate the given export map (see Section 2.2.2 for full descriptions of the
 842 algorithms). (b) Regionally-weighted mean $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$, averaged over the nine possibilities for each region shown in (a). Error
 843 bars represent one weighted standard deviation. (c) Global map of regionally variable $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ used in model runs with the
 844 PSR feedback on.



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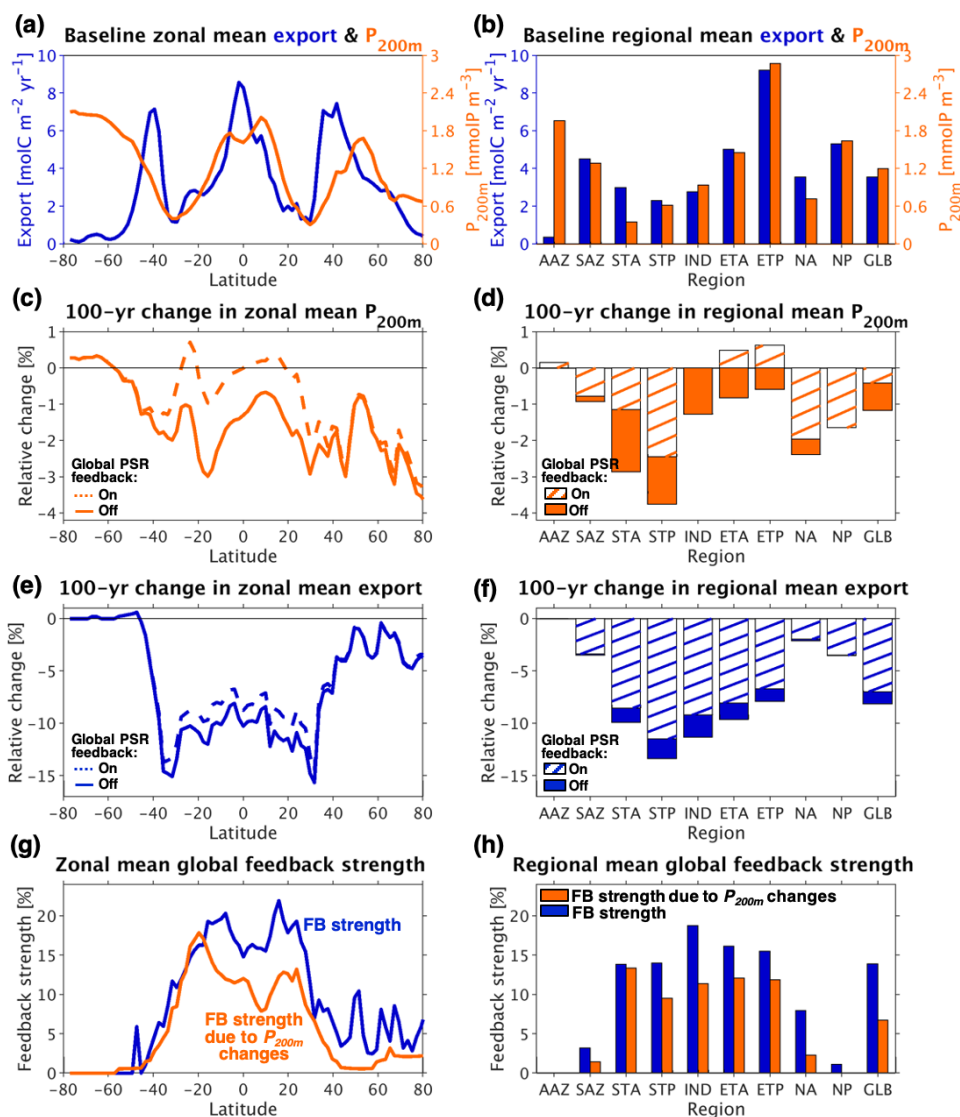
846 Figure 5: Changes in global mean export over time from baseline conditions (current-day circulation, ran to steady-state)
 847 after increasing or decreasing circulation rates by 10%. Dashed and solid lines represent runs with the PSR feedback turned
 848 off and on, respectively. The bars on the right show absolute changes in global mean export from the baseline case 100
 849 years after changing circulation rates. Corresponding relative changes (calculated as absolute changes from the baseline
 850 mean) are listed in black. Global mean export in the baseline case is listed on the zero line. Hatched and solid
 851 patterns represent runs with the PSR feedback turned off and on, respectively. The error bars represent export decreases
 852 generated when employing the upper and lower-bound $\frac{d\beta_{obs}}{dE_{n,obs}}$ maps described in Section 2.2.3.

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 855 **Figure 6: (a) Baseline (current-day circulation, ran to steady-state) regional mean β (shown in green) and e-folding**
 856 **remineralization depth (shown in purple). (b) Absolute change in regional mean β (shown in green) and absolute shoaling**
 857 **of regional mean remineralization depth (shown in purple) 100 years after decreasing circulation rates by 10% with the**
 858 **PSR feedback turned on.**

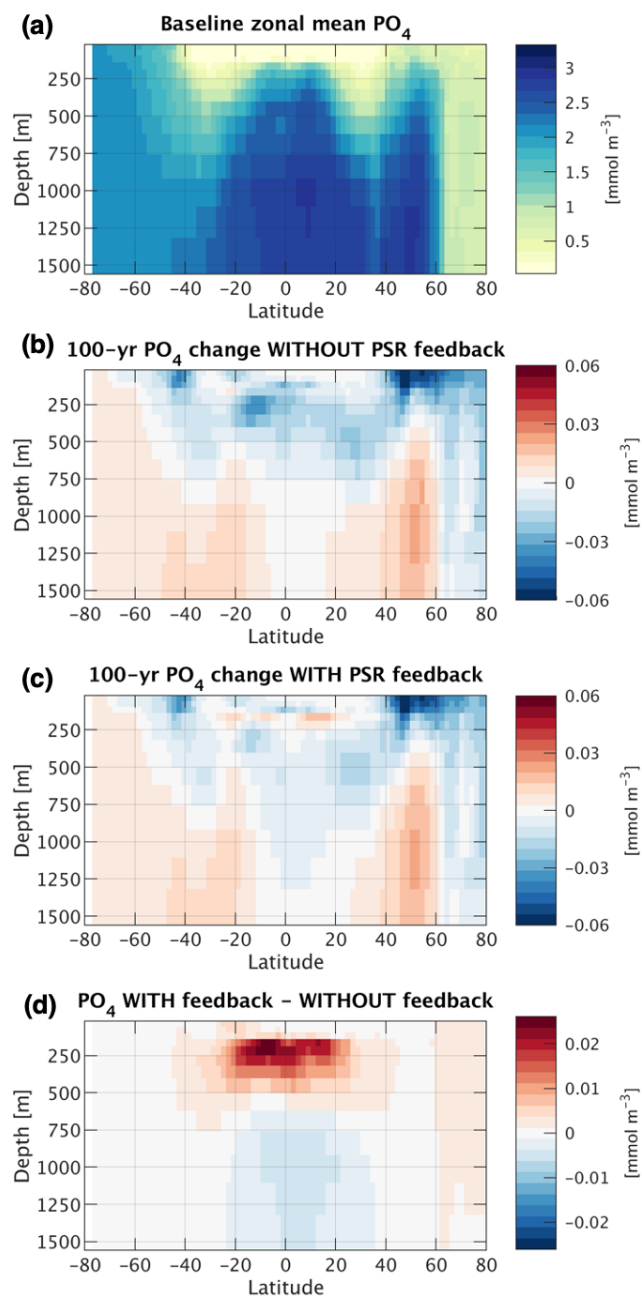
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Figure 7: (a) Baseline (current-day circulation, ran to steady-state) zonal mean export and shallow subsurface (200 m) phosphate concentration. (b) Same as (a), but with regional and global rather than zonal means. (c) Relative changes (calculated as absolute changes from the baseline over the baseline mean) in zonal mean phosphate concentration at 200 m depth 100 years after decreasing circulation rates by 10%. (d) Same as (c), but with regional and global means. (e) Relative changes in zonal mean export 100 years after decreasing circulation rates by 10%. (f) Same as (e), but with regional and global means. (g) Zonal mean PSR feedback strength, calculated as the difference in zonal mean export change from baseline between the feedback-off and on cases divided by the zonal mean export change in the feedback-off case alone (left-hand side of Eq. (4); shown in blue). Predicted zonal mean PSR feedback strength from changes in circulation and shallow subsurface phosphate concentration (right-hand side of Eq. (4); shown in orange). (h) Same as (g), but with regional and global means.

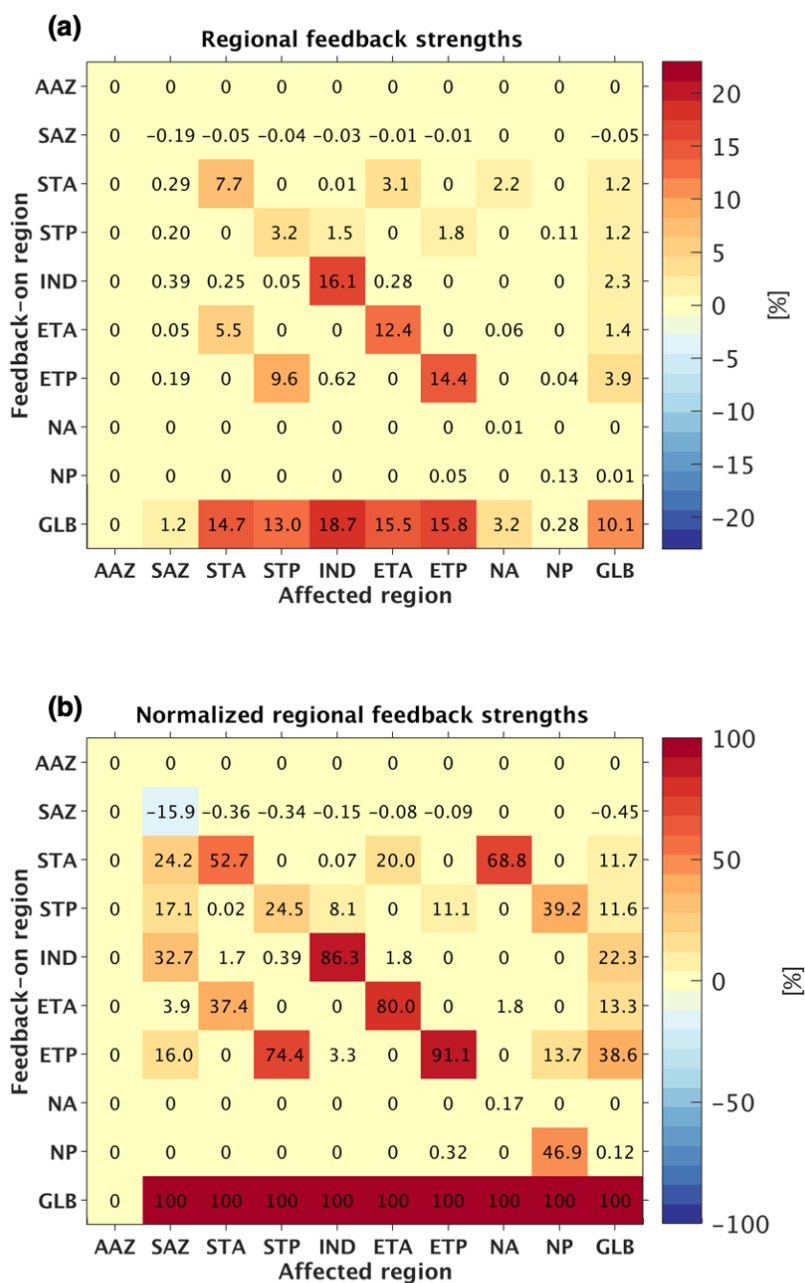
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Figure 8: (a) Baseline (current-day circulation, ran to steady-state) zonal mean phosphate concentration. (b) Absolute change in zonal mean phosphate concentration 100 years after decreasing circulation rates by 10% with the PSR feedback turned off. (c) Same as (b), but with the PSR feedback turned on. (d) Difference in zonal mean phosphate concentration between PSR feedback-on and -off runs (i.e., (b) minus (c)).



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Figure 9: (a) Regional mean PSR feedback strength due to the PSR feedback effect within each individual region. The y-axis denotes the single region (or the entire ocean in the case of “GLB” or “global”) within which the PSR feedback was turned on, while the x-axis denotes the region affected. (b) Percent contribution of each individual region to each region’s total PSR feedback strength, computed as the regionally-derived feedback strength within an affected region divided by the globally-derived feedback strength in the same affected region (i.e., each given grid cell in (a) is divided by the corresponding column’s bottom-most grid cell).