

# Modeling Photosynthesis and Exudation of DOM in Subtropical Oceans

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## Key Points:

- Decoupling of photosynthesis and biosynthesis improved simulations of primary production
- Predicted global primary production increased by 35%
- Model results suggest exudation could contribute  $\sim 20\%$  to total DOC source in euphotic layer

## Abstract

Parameterizations of algal photosynthesis commonly employed in global biogeochemical simulations generally fail to capture the observed vertical structure of primary production. Here we examined the consequences of decoupling photosynthesis (carbon fixation) and biosynthesis (biomass building) with accumulation or exudation of excess photosynthate under energy rich conditions in both regional and global models. The results show that the decoupling of these two processes improved the simulated vertical profile of primary production, increased modeled global primary production up to  $\sim 35\%$ , improved simulated meridional patterns of particulate C:N:P and increased modeled surface pool of semi-labile DOC.

## 1 Introduction

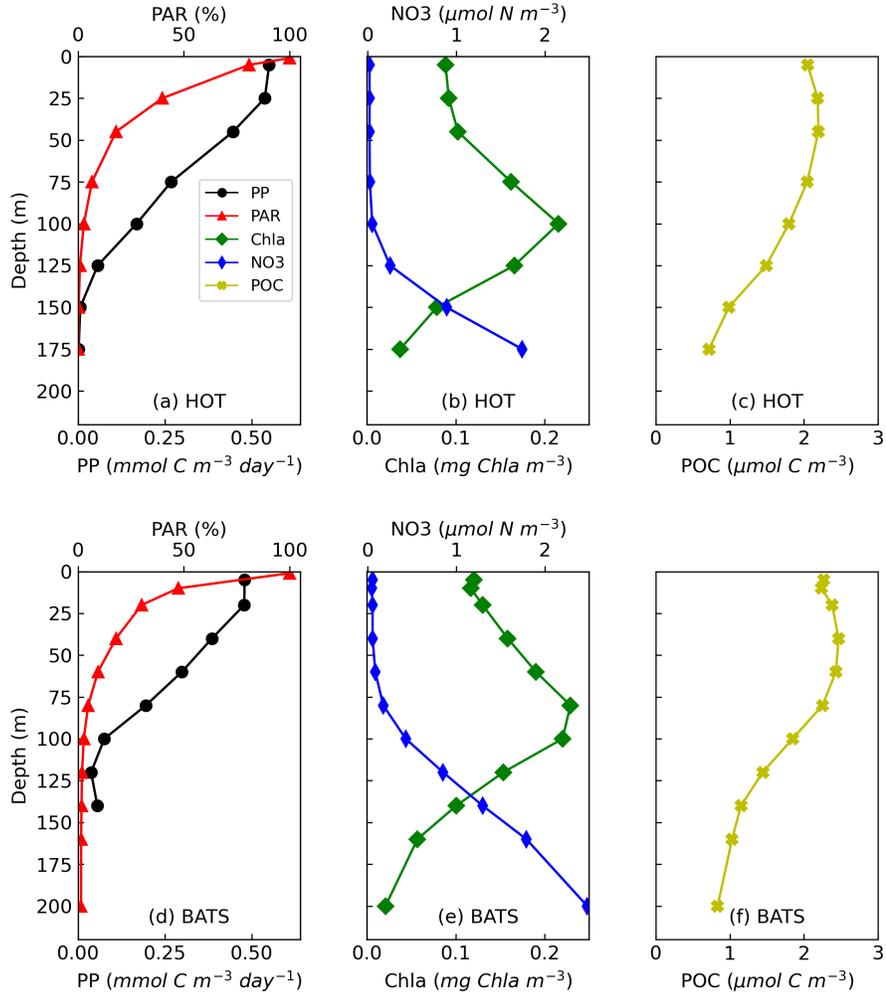
The structure and rates of photosynthesis and biosynthesis by primary producers in the ocean's subtropical gyres reflect the balance between photons delivered from above, macronutrients delivered largely from below, and essential trace metals such as iron which has both oceanic and atmospheric sources. The observed vertical profiles in Fig.1 from North Pacific and North Atlantic subtropical gyres (Karl & Church, 2014; White et al., 2015; Steinberg et al., 2001; Letelier et al., 1996) reveal the transition from nutrient to light limitation over a relatively short distance (less than 100m). Primary production is often highest at the surface, decreasing with depth (Fig.1) while Chlorophyll-a concentrations (Chla) are elevated in a region termed the Deep Chlorophyll Maximum (DCM), characterized by persistent light limitation and proximity to the nitracline (Letelier et al., 2004). In contrast, particulate organic carbon (POC; including living biomass) is more uniform over the upper 75 m leading to a vertical gradient in mass normalized primary production. These vertical contrasts suggest a decoupling of photosynthesis (the fixation of  $\text{CO}_2$  into carbohydrates) and biosynthesis (production of a suite of functional macromolecules including proteins) over the light gradient. Yet commonly employed biogeochemical models treat photosynthesis and biosynthesis as tightly coupled processes limited by light, temperature, and nutrients (e.g. Dutkiewicz et al. (2015); Dunne et al. (2013); Aumont et al. (2015)). These models typically represent the carbon-specific photosynthesis rate for phytoplankton type  $j$ ,  $P_{C,j}$  ( $\text{mmol C (mmol C)}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ ), as a function of irradiance, and a flexible Chla:C ratio following Geider et al. (1997):

$$P_{C,j} = P_{C,j}^{Sat} \left[ 1 - \exp \left( - \frac{\alpha I \theta_j}{P_{C,j}^{Sat}} \right) \right] \quad (1)$$

where,  $\alpha$  is the initial slope of the photosynthesis-irradiance curve normalized to Chla ( $\text{m}^2 (\text{mg Chla})^{-1} \text{mmol C} (\mu\text{mol photons})^{-1}$ ),  $I$  is the flux of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR,  $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $\theta_j$  is the Chla:C ratio of phytoplankton type  $j$  ( $\text{mg Chla (mmol C)}^{-1}$ ). The light-saturated photosynthetic rate for type  $j$ ,  $P_{C,j}^{Sat}$  ( $\text{mmol C (mmol C)}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ ), is typically modeled as dependent on both temperature and nutrient availability:

$$P_{C,j}^{Sat} = P_{C,j}^{max} \frac{Nut}{Nut + K_{Nut,j}} \cdot T_{func} \quad (2)$$

Following Geider et al. (1997), temperature dependence is introduced through a multiplicative function  $T_{func}$  (e.g. Arrhenius equation), and there is an explicit accounting of nutrient limitation through a multiplicative, hyperbolic function of  $Nut$ , the limiting nutrient concentration. The latter throttles back photosynthesis in low nutrient environments with the consequence of tightly coupling photosynthesis and biosynthesis. However, the two processes may not be so tightly coupled. For example, photosynthesis can be limited by the availability of light or photosynthetic apparatus (Mackey et al., 2008; Letelier et al., 2017), while biosynthesis is limited by the cellular reserves and external availability of nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), or iron (Fe) (Marañón et al., 2013; Halsey & Jones, 2015) as well as the necessary self-replicating apparatus.



**Figure 1.** Observed climatological average of photosynthesis rate, Chla, nitrate, particulate organic carbon (POC), and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) at HOT and BATS. The data were obtained from the observations from 1988 to 2018 at both stations.

65 Phytoplankton may balance the supply and demand of photosynthesis and biosynthesis  
 66 by the regulation of nutrient uptake (Flynn, 2003), “luxury storage” of resources in excess  
 67 of demand (Martin et al., 2014) or the exudation of excess photosynthate (Halsey & Jones,  
 68 2015). The excretion of DOM in nutrient replete, exponentially growing cultures phyto-  
 69 plankton is low,  $\sim 2\%$  of total gross carbon fixation (López-Sandoval et al., 2013). How-  
 70 ever, recent studies show that *Prochlorococcus*, an abundant pico-cyanobacterium found in  
 71 oligotrophic ocean regions and which only have a moderate ability for photoacclimation,  
 72 can excrete a large fraction of fixed C under nutrient-limited conditions (Thompson et al.,  
 73 2018; Cailliau et al., 1996; Szul et al., 2019; Kulk et al., 2011; Bertlissson et al., 2005; Roth-  
 74 Rosenberg et al., 2021). Thus exudation is more likely significant in the oligotrophic surface  
 75 ocean where there is persistent nutrient limitation and light-saturating conditions. The  
 76 exudates may be a source of carbon for heterotrophic bacteria (Berman & Holm-Hansen,  
 77 1974; Bjørrisen, 1988), which increase remineralization and total ecosystem biomass, hence  
 78 promoting the co-evolution of phototrophic and heterotrophic populations (Braakman et  
 79 al., 2017; Sarmiento et al., 2016).

80 Here we use numerical models to investigate the consequences of decoupling photosyn-  
81 thesis and biosynthesis on the simulation of primary production in the oligotrophic gyres,  
82 as well as the global rates of photosynthesis and potential exudation of DOC. First, we  
83 briefly describe the 1D and 3D models with particular emphasis on the treatment of pho-  
84 tosynthesis and its coupling to biosynthesis (Methods, 2). We demonstrate, using a high  
85 vertical-resolution, 1D model that the “standard” photosynthesis parameterization does not  
86 capture the observed vertical profile of primary production. In particular, it strongly under-  
87 predicts photosynthesis in the nutrient depleted surface layer. We find that removing direct  
88 macronutrient limitation on photosynthesis, but retaining the indirect cost of maintaining  
89 photosynthetic machinery, significantly improves the vertical structure and vertically inte-  
90 grated rates of primary production in 1D water column simulations. It also increases global  
91 primary production and DOC production by about 30% in a 3D global model (See Section  
92 3).

## 93 2 Methods

### 94 2.1 Environmental Modeling Framework

95 The biogeochemical-ecosystem model describes the cycling of carbon, nitrogen, phos-  
96 phorus, iron, silica and oxygen in both living and non-living forms as discussed in Follows  
97 et al. (2007) and Dutkiewicz et al. (2015). We employ one-dimensional (1D) and three-  
98 dimensional (3D) physical configurations with identical biogeochemistry and ecology. We  
99 first examine the qualitative impact of decoupling carbon and nutrient flows in vertically  
100 well-resolved 1D simulations and then quantitatively evaluate the impact in 3D global sim-  
101 ulations.

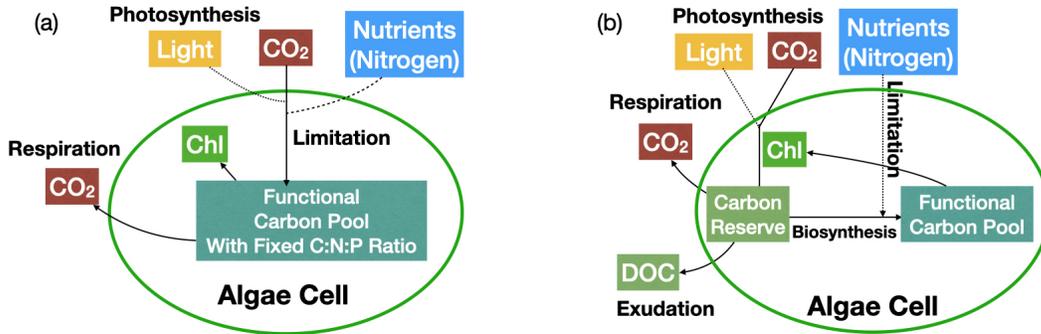
102 The 1D simulations were configured to resolve only the vertical dimension in space.  
103 The 6000 m deep column has a vertical resolution of 10 m from sea surface to 120 m depth  
104 and with gradually increasing thickness thereafter. Nutrient distributions and plankton  
105 biomass were initialized according to World Ocean Atlas (Garcia et al., 2018) and previous  
106 3D simulations relevant to HOT (Hawaii Ocean Time-series) in the North Pacific Subtrop-  
107 ical Gyre and BATS (Bermuda Atlantic Time-Series) in the North Atlantic (Dutkiewicz et  
108 al., 2015). In this configuration, a seasonal mixed layer was driven by restoring to clima-  
109 tological, seasonal sea surface temperatures which drives winter-time convection following  
110 Hickman et al. (2010). The 1D framework does not resolve the contributions of isopyc-  
111 nal nutrient transport nor the effect of mesoscale motions, tides, and internal waves which  
112 drive intermittent nutrient transfer into the euphotic zone (McGillicuddy, 2016). Hence,  
113 the vertical, diapycnal diffusivity for HOT and BATS were modified to parameterize these  
114 processes. The time step of 1D configuration is 1h and we integrate the 1D configuration for  
115 30 years with a repeating generic “year” of external forcings. The model results establish a  
116 repeating pattern after several years spin-up leading to a “quasi-steady state” by year 10.  
117 In the analysis presented below we consider the climatology of the last 15 years of 30 year  
118 simulations.

119 The 3D configuration of the MIT general circulation model (MITgcm) (Marshall et al.,  
120 1997) has a horizontal resolution of  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ . There are 23 vertical levels, 10m for the top two  
121 levels, and then graduated in thickness to 500m at depth. The physical fields are constrained  
122 by satellite and in-situ observations (Wunsch & Heimbach, 2007) (the ECCO-GODAE state  
123 estimate), which is used by many previous biogeochemical-ecosystem studies (Follows et al.,  
124 2007; Ward et al., 2012; Dutkiewicz et al., 2015; Ward & Follows, 2016). The 3D simulations  
125 were initialized by World Ocean Atlas (Garcia et al., 2018) for nitrate, phosphate, and silicic  
126 acid and previous model output for iron, ammonium, nitrite, dissolved and particulate  
127 matter, and plankton biomass. We integrate the system forward in time for 10 years from  
128 initial conditions provided by an earlier simulation. The simulated phytoplankton establish  
129 a repeating pattern after about 4 years after which the system represents a “quasi-steady

130 state” with a slow, longer term adjustment in nutrient fields not affecting the results that  
 131 we discuss here. We show results from the tenth year of the simulation.

132 We resolve two size classes of phytoplankton (picophytoplankton and all others) as  
 133 well as two types of grazers. The biogeochemical and biological tracers interact through  
 134 the formation, transformation, and remineralization of organic matter. Mortality, sloppy  
 135 feeding, and exudation transfer living organic material into sinking particulate and dissolved  
 136 organic detritus which are respired back to inorganic form with simple parameterizations of  
 137 the activity of heterotrophic decomposers. Iron cycling includes scavenging by particles and  
 138 explicit complexation with an organic ligand following Dutkiewicz et al. (2015). Aeolian  
 139 iron fluxes to the ocean surface are provided by Luo et al. (2008). The complete model  
 140 equations and descriptions are provided in the Supporting Information.

141 **2.2 Cellular Stoichiometry and Photosynthesis**



**Figure 2.** Schematic representations of cellular C flow. (a) represents the model in which C and N flow are tightly coupled. (b) represents the model in which C and N flow are decoupled.

142 In this study, we examine the biogeochemical implications of decoupling carbon and  
 143 nutrient flow by comparing two physiological parameterizations (see Fig.2). In the “standard  
 144 model” (depicted in Fig.2a) following Eq.2 (Geider et al., 1997), photosynthesis is directly  
 145 influenced by the external concentration of fixed nitrogen (proportional to  $[NO_3^-]/([NO_3^-] +$   
 146  $K_{NO_3})$ ). In the “decoupled model”, (depicted in Fig.2b) carbon and nitrogen flows are  
 147 buffered by independent reserves (following, for example, Talmy et al. (2014), Bruggeman  
 148 and Kooijman (2007)) and the light-saturated photosynthesis rate is not directly dependent  
 149 on the external fixed-nitrogen availability (compare to Eq.2):

150 
$$P_{C,j}^{Sat} = P_{C,j}^{max} \cdot T_{func} \quad (3)$$

151 Here photosynthesis is sensitive to nitrogen availability only indirectly through Chla which  
 152 is controlled by the rate of biosynthesis. Biosynthesis is controlled by the availability of  
 153 reserves of both photosynthate and other nutrient elements. In the decoupled model, the rate  
 154 of photosynthesis continues to be controlled by the light environment even when biosynthesis  
 155 is nitrogen limited. In that case, excess photosynthate is stored in the reserve or exuded.  
 156 The mathematical details of these parameterizations are described below.

157 **2.3 Details of physiological parameterizations.**

158 In Eq.1 and Eq.2,  $P_{C,j}^{max}$  is the maximum carbon-normalized photosynthesis rate of  
 159 phytoplankton  $j$  ( $mmol C (mmol C)^{-1} d^{-1}$ ),  $T_{func}$  represents the temperature limitation

**Table 1. Biological parameters of different phytoplankton functional types.**

| Parameter                      | Symbol           | Type I                | Type II               | Unit                               |
|--------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| Maximum photosynthesis rate    | $P_C^{max}$      | 0.76                  | 3.15                  | $mmol\ C\ (mmol\ C)^{-1}\ d^{-1}$  |
| Maximum uptake rate            | $V_{NO_3}^{max}$ | 0.49                  | 0.14                  | $mmol\ N\ (mmol\ C)^{-1}\ d^{-1}$  |
|                                | $V_{NO_2}^{max}$ | 0.49                  | 0.14                  | $mmol\ N\ (mmol\ C)^{-1}\ d^{-1}$  |
|                                | $V_{NH_4}^{max}$ | 0.24                  | 0.07                  | $mmol\ N\ (mmol\ C)^{-1}\ d^{-1}$  |
|                                | $V_{PO_4}^{max}$ | 0.014                 | 0.01                  | $mmol\ P\ (mmol\ C)^{-1}\ d^{-1}$  |
|                                | $V_{Fe}^{max}$   | $1.83 \times 10^{-5}$ | $9.92 \times 10^{-6}$ | $mmol\ Fe\ (mmol\ C)^{-1}\ d^{-1}$ |
| Half-saturation concentration  | $K_{NO_3}$       | $2.76 \times 10^{-3}$ | 0.41                  | $mmol\ N\ m^{-3}$                  |
|                                | $K_{NO_2}$       | $2.76 \times 10^{-3}$ | 0.41                  | $mmol\ N\ m^{-3}$                  |
|                                | $K_{NH_4}$       | $1.38 \times 10^{-3}$ | 0.21                  | $mmol\ N\ m^{-3}$                  |
|                                | $K_{PO_4}$       | $1.73 \times 10^{-4}$ | 0.026                 | $mmol\ P\ m^{-3}$                  |
|                                | $K_{FeT}$        | $1.73 \times 10^{-7}$ | $2.59 \times 10^{-5}$ | $mmol\ Fe\ m^{-3}$                 |
| Cellular stoichiometric ratios | $R_{C:N}$        | 7.5                   | 7.5                   | $mmol\ C\ (mmol\ N)^{-1}$          |
|                                | $R_{C:P}$        | 120.0                 | 120.0                 | $mmol\ C\ (mmol\ P)^{-1}$          |
|                                | $R_{C:Fe}$       | $1.2 \times 10^5$     | $1.2 \times 10^5$     | $mmol\ C\ (mmol\ Fe)^{-1}$         |

160 on photosynthesis:

$$161 \quad T_{func} = \tau \cdot exp \left[ A_E \left( \frac{1}{T + 273.15} - \frac{1}{T_0} \right) \right] \quad (4)$$

162 where  $\tau$  is Arrhenius coefficient,  $A_E$  is the slope of the linear region of the Arrhenius plot,  
163  $T_0$  is the reference temperature of phytoplankton  $j$  (K), and  $T$  is water column temperature  
164 ( $^{\circ}C$ ).

165 Photosynthate is delivered to a “reserve” (carbohydrate or lipid) from where it may  
166 be used for biosynthesis or exuded. The potential rates of uptake of nutrients other than  
167 carbon (nitrogen, phosphorus, iron) are evaluated with Michaelis-Menten kinetics and an  
168 Arrhenius temperature dependence, following Eq.5 and Eq.6.

$$169 \quad V_{R,j} = V_{R,j}^{max} \cdot \gamma_{R,j} \cdot T_{func} \quad (5)$$

$$170 \quad \gamma_{R,j} = \frac{R}{R + K_{R,j}} \quad (6)$$

171 where  $V_{R,j}^{max}$  is the maximum carbon-normalized uptake rate for resource  $R$  of phytoplank-  
172 ton  $j$  ( $mmol\ R\ (mmol\ C)^{-1}\ d^{-1}$ ),  $\gamma_{R,j}$  is the nutrient limitation based on Michaelis-  
173 Menten kinetics,  $K_{R,j}$  is the half-saturation concentration of resource  $R$  of phytoplankton  $j$   
174 ( $mmol\ R\ m^{-3}$ ). The total potential uptake of nitrogen is defined as the sum of the uptake  
175 of each species in Eq.7.

$$176 \quad V_{N,j} = V_{NH_4,j} + V_{NO_3,j} + V_{NO_2,j} \quad (7)$$

177 The carbon demand to build biomass,  $D_{i,j}$  ( $mmol\ C\ (mmol\ C)^{-1}\ d^{-1}$ ), for each nutri-  
178 ent element  $i$  and each phytoplankton type  $j$ , is evaluated based on an assumed, fixed  
179 stoichiometry of functional biomass (e.g. protein, nucleic acids, etc) in Eq.8.

$$180 \quad D_{i,j} = V_{i,j} \cdot R_j^{C:i} \quad (8)$$

181 where  $i$  denotes  $N, P, Fe$ ,  $R_j^{C:i}$  is the  $C : i$  ratio in phytoplankton  $j$  ( $mmol\ C\ (mmol\ i)^{-1}$ ).  
182 The carbon-specific production of functional biomass (biosynthesis) is then determined as

the minimum of the photosynthesis rate and the carbon demand of the most limiting nutrient in Eq.9 and Eq.10.

$$BS_{C,j} = \min[D_{min,j}, P_{C,j}] \quad (9)$$

$$D_{min,j} = \min[D_{N,j}, D_{P,j}, D_{Fe,j}] \quad (10)$$

Previously published models of exudation in laboratory cultures (Grossowicz, Roth-Rosenberg, et al., 2017; Grossowicz, Marques, & van Voorn, 2017; Vallino, 2000; Flynn et al., 2008) have parameterized exudation as a simple, imposed fraction of primary production or with more complex approaches linked to nutrient limitation, biomass, and nutrient stoichiometry (see the review of Livanou et al. (2019)). Here we assume that if the photosynthesis rate is greater than growth rate (which means biosynthesis is limited by nutrients rather than light energy), a fraction of the excess photosynthate accumulates in the carbon reserve and the remainder  $f_{e,j}$  is assumed exuded into the environment at the rate of  $E_{C,j}$  ( $mmol C (mmol C)^{-1} d^{-1}$ ) as described in Eq.11. In the results we assume  $f_{e,j}=0.7$  in Fig.4-6 . We examine this choice later in this manuscript.

$$E_{C,j} = \max[0.0, P_{C,j} - BS_{C,j}] \cdot f_{e,j} \quad (11)$$

We parameterize the two classes of phytoplankton as pico-phytoplankton (type I) with high nutrient affinity, but low growth rates, and the larger phytoplankton (type II) with lower nutrient affinity and higher growth (Follows et al., 2007). Values of the parameters (Table 1) are similar to the cyanobacteria and diatom values used in Dutkiewicz et al. (2020).

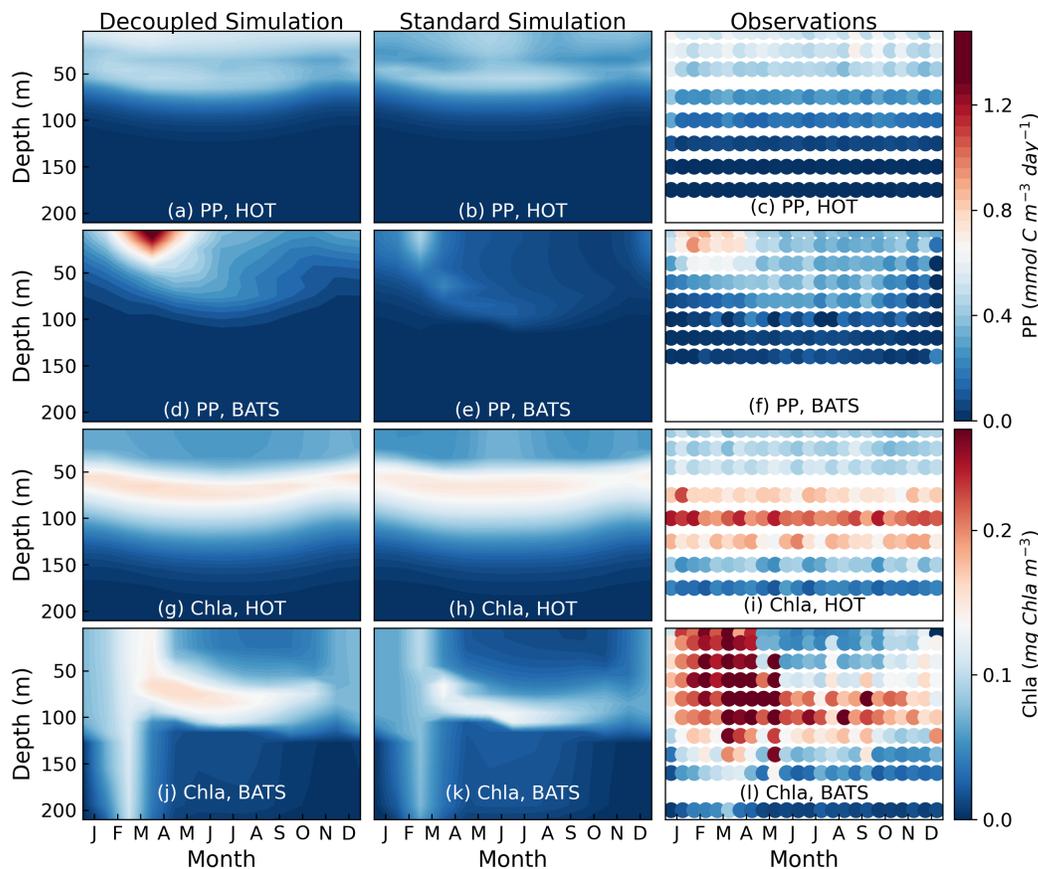
### 3 Results and Discussion.

First we examine the qualitative impact of decoupling carbon and nutrient flows on the vertical structure of modeled primary production in a 1D framework, referencing observed profiles at HOT and BATS. Then we examine the quantitative impact on integrated primary production in 3D global simulations. For this discussion, we will refer to the simulations in which N and C flow are tightly coupled as the “standard” simulations and those in which N and C flow are decoupled as the “decoupled” simulations.

#### 3.1 Vertical Profiles of Subtropical Productivity

We first examine qualitative differences between 1D simulations where photosynthesis is explicitly limited by nutrient concentrations following Eq.2 (“standard” model, Fig.2a) to simulations where photosynthesis depends on nutrients only indirectly through the rate of biosynthesis for photosynthetic pigments (“decoupled” model, Fig.2b, also see Eq.S20-21 in Supporting Information). The climatologies of the last 15 years of the simulations are compared with climatological data from HOT (1988-2018) and BATS (1989-2016). Some general features of the two sites were qualitatively captured in both simulations (Fig.3) including the late winter bloom at BATS and the DCM at both sites (during the summer at BATS and year-round at HOT). As observed, simulated seasonality at HOT was much weaker than at BATS due to the difference in seasonal physical forcing (Malmstrom et al., 2010; Karl & Church, 2014; Steinberg et al., 2001; Cavender-Bares et al., 2001).

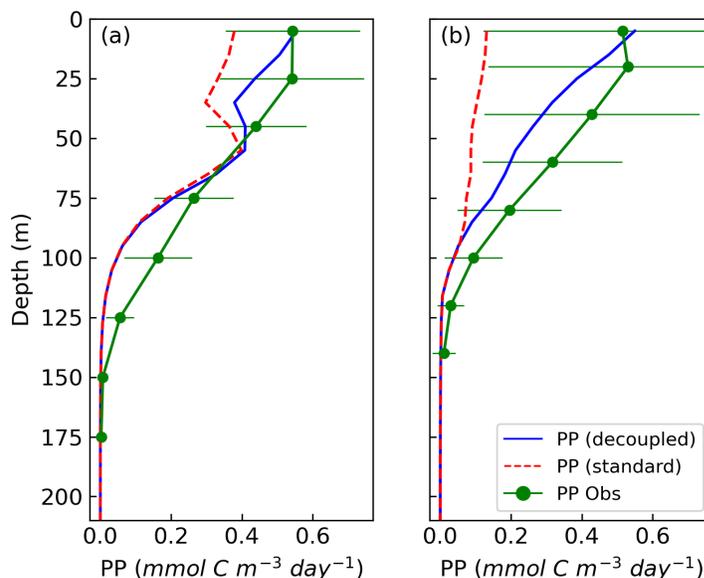
However, the standard and decoupled simulations also show some significant differences with one-another which we highlight in Fig.4. Due to the explicit throttling back of photosynthesis in the highly oligotrophic surface waters caused by nutrient limitation, the standard model fails to capture the increase of photosynthesis towards the surface both at HOT and, more strikingly, at BATS. The standard model consistently predicts extremely low photosynthesis rates near the surface relative to the observed climatologies. In contrast, the solid blue lines in Fig.4 indicate the simulations of the decoupled model. Here photosynthesis was not throttled back under low nitrogen conditions however nitrogen lim-



**Figure 3. One-dimensional model simulations: seasonal variation and biases of photosynthesis rate and Chla at HOT and BATS.** (a) photosynthesis rate of decoupled simulation at station ALOHA ( $mmol C m^{-3} d^{-1}$ ); (b) photosynthesis rate of standard simulation at station ALOHA ( $mmol C m^{-3} d^{-1}$ ); (c) observed photosynthesis rate at station ALOHA ( $mmol C m^{-3} d^{-1}$ ); (d) photosynthesis rate of decoupled simulation at station Bermuda ( $mmol C m^{-3} d^{-1}$ ); (e) photosynthesis rate of standard simulation at station Bermuda ( $mmol C m^{-3} d^{-1}$ ); (f) observed photosynthesis rate at station Bermuda ( $mmol C m^{-3} d^{-1}$ ); (g) Chla concentration of decoupled simulation at station ALOHA ( $mg Chla m^{-3}$ ); (h) Chla concentration of standard simulation at station ALOHA ( $mg Chla m^{-3}$ ); (i) observed Chla concentration at station ALOHA ( $mg Chla m^{-3}$ ); (j) Chla concentration of decoupled simulation at station Bermuda ( $mg Chla m^{-3}$ ); (k) Chla concentration of standard simulation at station Bermuda ( $mg Chla m^{-3}$ ); (l) observed Chla concentration at station Bermuda ( $mg Chla m^{-3}$ ).

229 imitation does control biosynthesis of pigments. The vertical profiles of primary production  
 230 increase towards the surface, both qualitatively and quantitatively more consistent with the  
 231 observations.

232 The vertically integrated rate of photosynthesis (0-200m) in the decoupled experiments  
 233 is increased by  $\sim 21.1\%$  at HOT and more than 170% at BATS compared to the stan-  
 234 dard simulation. In the upper 200m of the decoupled simulations, photosynthesis exceeded  
 235 biosynthesis rate by  $\sim 25\%$  at HOT and  $\sim 58\%$  at BATS. Excess photosynthate in the decou-  
 236 pled simulations accumulates as storage in the cells or is exuded, consistent with numerous  
 237 laboratory and field studies (Thornton, 2014; Szul et al., 2019; Bjørrisen, 1988). However,



**Figure 4.** Annual averaged vertical profiles of primary production at (a) HOT and (b) BATS. Model results are annual averages from the last 15 years of 30 year integrations. The green solid lines indicate observed primary production from 1988 to 2016 and the horizontal green bars represent deviation of the inter-annual variations. The red dashed lines indicate the standard simulation, where photosynthesis is directly regulated by local nutrient concentration. The blue solid lines represent simulations of photosynthesis rate in the decoupled simulation.

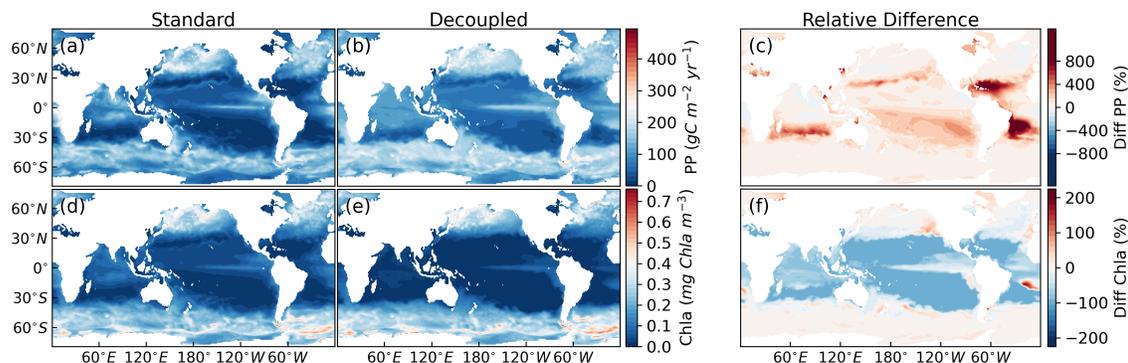
238 due to the complexity of DOC composition, we do not address the fate of excess photosyn-  
 239 thate in detail in the decoupled simulation, but instead examine the general consequences  
 240 of the balance between storage and exudation for the C:N:P ratio of phytoplankton biomass  
 241 and production of DOC in the following 3D study.

### 242 3.2 Global Biomass and Productivity

243 In the previous section we demonstrated that the decoupling of N and C flow in the  
 244 physiological model leads to a significant qualitative improvement in simulations of the  
 245 vertical profile of primary production. We now examine the implications for the predic-  
 246 tion of global-scale primary productivity and elemental composition of phytoplankton (and  
 247 particulate matter) by comparing global 3D standard and decoupled simulations.

248 Both standard and uncoupled simulations capture the high surface Chla, primary pro-  
 249 duction, and nutrient concentrations in the subpolar and equatorial regimes, as well as low  
 250 surface Chla, primary production, and nutrient concentrations in subtropical gyres (Fig.5,  
 251 also see Fig.S1). Typical for such coarse resolution simulations, the dynamics and biogeo-  
 252 chemistry of continental shelves and coastal regions are not resolved or well represented.

253 We asked what is the sensitivity of globally integrated primary production to the de-  
 254 coupling of nutrient and C at the cellular scale? Modeled global primary production of the  
 255 standard and decoupled simulations were  $34.0 \text{ Pg C} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$  and  $45.8 \text{ Pg C} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$  respectively  
 256 - an increase of 34%. Satellite-derived estimates range between  $44 - 57 \text{ Pg C} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$  with the  
 257 mean of  $50.7 \text{ Pg C} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$  (Carr et al., 2006; Field et al., 1998; Silsbe et al., 2016) suggesting  
 258 that the decoupled estimate is potentially more plausible. However, there are large uncer-



**Figure 5.** Comparison of standard and decoupled simulations of Chla and primary production (PP). (a) simulated primary production of standard model (0-55 m depth integrated,  $gC\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$ ), (b) simulated primary production of decoupled model (0-55 m depth integrated,  $gC\ m^{-2}\ yr^{-1}$ ), (c) difference of primary production between standard and decoupled simulations (%), (d) simulated Chla of standard model (mean 0-55 m,  $mg\ Chla\ m^{-3}$ ), (e) simulated Chla of decoupled model (mean 0-55 m,  $mg\ Chla\ m^{-3}$ ), (f) difference of Chla between standard and decoupled simulations (%).

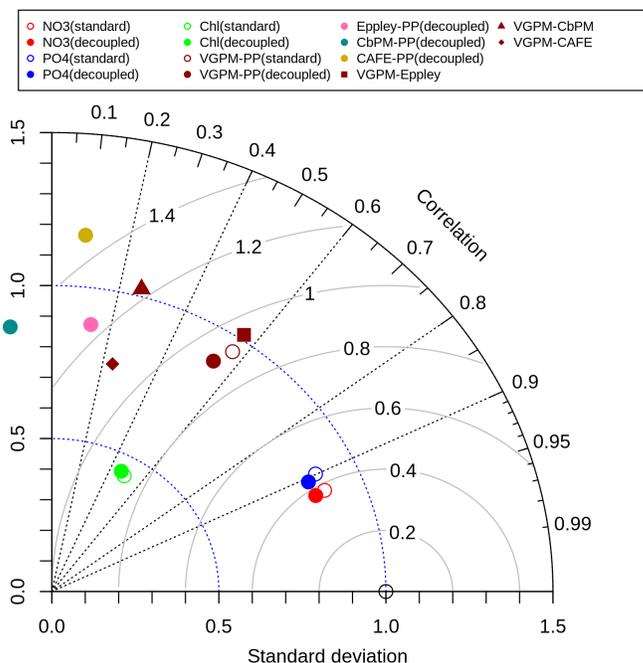
259 tainties underlying in both ocean color based and general circulation model based estimates  
 260 of global primary production ranging from  $\sim 35$  to  $\sim 70\ Pg\ C \cdot yr^{-1}$  (Carr et al., 2006).

261 The 1D simulations indicated a significant improvement in the simulation of the vertical  
 262 profile of primary production. We have used a Taylor diagram (Taylor, 2001) to compare the  
 263 spatial variations of primary production in the two 3D simulations (standard and decoupled)  
 264 against a suite of remote-sensing derived estimates of global-scale patterns and rates of  
 265 primary production (Behrenfeld & Falkowski, 1997; Westberry et al., 2008; Silsbe et al.,  
 266 2016) (Fig.6; also Fig.S2). We focused on open ocean regimes having bottom depths greater  
 267 than 500 m since the global model does not resolve coastal systems and remote sensing  
 268 algorithms are typically modified.

269 A comparison of the decoupled simulation with various remote sensing primary pro-  
 270 duction products revealed similar variability (standard deviation) but a range of poor to  
 271 weak spatial correlation. However, the correlations of spatial variations between the various  
 272 remote sensing products themselves was just as broad ranging and also as weak as simu-  
 273 lations. The satellite-derived products also have large error margins associated with them  
 274 that are not spatially homogeneous (Szeto et al., 2011). Thus we could not quantitatively  
 275 distinguish whether either standard or decoupled simulation has more skill by comparing  
 276 patterns of primary production.

277 The difference in primary production between decoupled and standard simulations how-  
 278 ever mainly lies in oligotrophic gyres where there is a low nutrient nutrient supply rate re-  
 279 lative to the incoming light energy, as illustrated in Fig.5. The difference is most notable in  
 280 the Atlantic subtropical gyres where macro-nutrients were most depleted in the simulations  
 281 ( $NO_3$  fields showed Fig.S1(a)). The standard simulation of primary production in sub-  
 282 tropical gyres is too low relative to all the satellite-based products (Fig.S2). The increased  
 283 primary production in these regions in the decoupled simulation (Fig.5, Fig.S2) suggests  
 284 that the decoupling of carbon and nitrogen flow does indeed improve modelled primary  
 285 production.

286 The difference in Chla between decoupled and standard simulations is also most pro-  
 287 nounced in the oligotrophic subtropical gyres. Chla decreases in the decoupled model relative  
 288 to the standard model because Chla synthesis is regulated by the ratio of photosynthesis  
 289 rate and light harvesting rate resulting in a negative relationship with  $P_{C,j}^{Sat}$  (see Eq.S20-21  
 290 in Supporting Information). On a point-by-point basis, the simulations of Chla are modestly  
 291 correlated with the climatology based on remote sensing (Fig.6, correlation coefficient 0.45)  
 292 and has a much weaker variation (standard deviation less than half that) of the observed  
 293 field. The two simulations are almost identical in this regard (Fig.6) so Chla comparisons  
 294 do not discriminate.



**Figure 6.** Taylor diagram showing correlations and normalized standard deviations of annual averaged Chla, primary production(PP), nitrate(NO3), and phosphate(PO4) between model simulations (55m depth integrated) and satellited-derived products (Chla and PP) or nutrients from World Ocean Atlas. The circles represent the comparisons between standard simulation and the products, the dots represent the comparisons between decoupled simulation and the products, the square, triangle and diamond represent the comparisons between different satellited-derived primary production. The best match would be a correlation of 1 (on the x axis) and normalized standard deviation of 1 showed as a circle on x axis.

### 3.3 Global-scale Signatures of Excess Carbon Exudation

295 The mechanisms and controls on phytoplankton exudation still remain an open ques-  
 296 tion. In these explorations we have assumed that excess photosynthate is produced when  
 297 photon capture is in excess of growth potential and either accumulates in a “reserve”, up  
 298 to a maximum capacity, or is exuded. The fraction of excess photosynthesis that is ex-  
 299uded  $f_{e,j}$ , cannot be determined a priori (Eq.11) but in theory can vary between 0 and 1.  
 300 Different species may also have different  $f_{e,j}$ . In the results we have shown to this point  
 301 we set  $f_{e,j}=0.7$ . Here we examine the sensitivity of, and explain, this choice by running  
 302 5 simulations with the decoupled model varying  $f_{e,j}$  from 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, and 0.9 (Ta-  
 303 ble 2). The global exudation rate increased in proportion to  $f_{e,j}$  while the standing stock  
 304

305 of surface DOC increased by 21% in response to a 9-fold increase of  $f_{e,j}$ . The differences  
 306 between standard and decoupled simulations here are not only caused by  $f_{e,j}$  but also the  
 307 decoupling of carbon and nutrient flows in primary production (by removing the explicit  
 308 nutrient limitation, difference of Eq.2 and Eq.3).

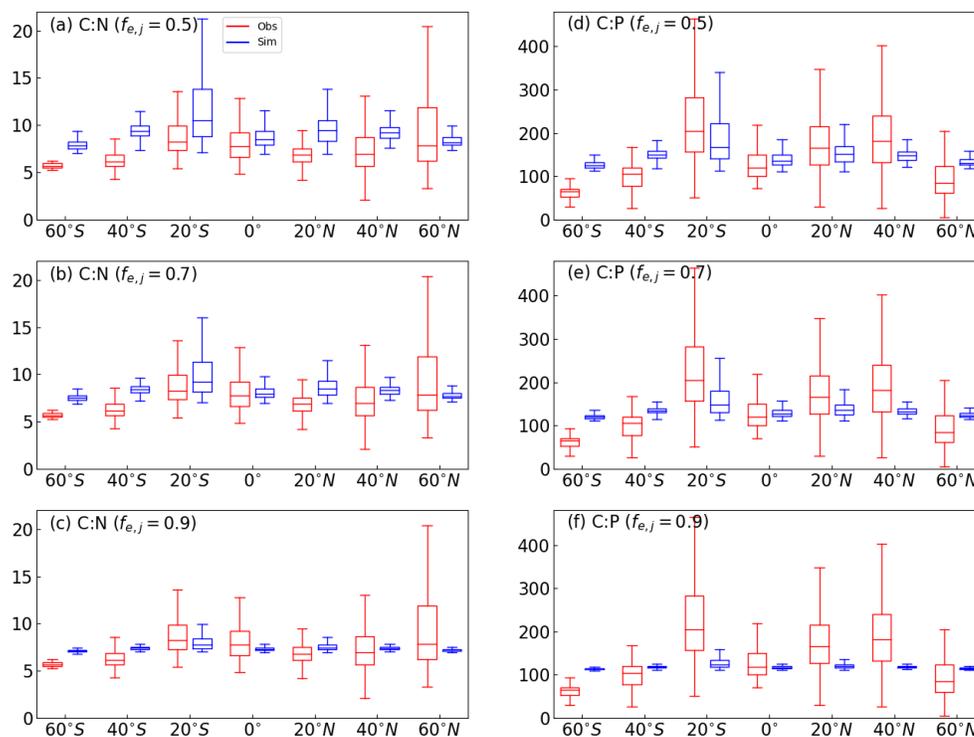
**Table 2. Surface exudation, DOC, PER, and phytoplankton stoichiometry (55m depth integrated) in different  $f_{e,j}$  scenarios.**

| $f_{e,j}$                                  | Standard | 0.1    | 0.3    | 0.5    | 0.7    | 0.9    |
|--|----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| <b>Exudation (Pg C/yr)</b>                 | 0.0      | 1.06   | 3.31   | 5.78   | 8.54   | 11.78  |
| <b>DOC (Pg C)</b>                          | 1.86     | 2.48   | 2.58   | 2.70   | 2.83   | 3.00   |
| <b>Percentage of Extracellular Release</b> | 0.0      | 2.97%  | 9.13%  | 15.65% | 22.66% | 30.40% |
| <b>C:N</b>                                 | 6.62     | 10.03  | 9.43   | 8.79   | 8.10   | 7.33   |
| <b>C:P</b>                                 | 106.0    | 160.49 | 150.88 | 140.67 | 129.63 | 117.27 |

309 By decoupling photosynthesis and biosynthesis and allowing extra C storage in cells,  
 310 the decoupled model (Fig.2b) also resolves a dynamic phytoplankton stoichiometry instead  
 311 of a fixed one, which leads to a more dynamic and realistic global pattern of particulate C:N  
 312 and C:P ratios (Fig.7 and S3). The global patterns of particulate (plankton and detrital  
 313 matter) C:N and C:P ratios could also serve as an indicator of the model performance when  
 314 comparing with observations. The regions where C:N:P ratios are most affected by  $f_{e,j}$   
 315 are oligotrophic gyres where photosynthetic rate is usually higher than biosynthesis rate  
 316 (Fig.S3) and the extra carbon will be either exuded into the environment or retained in the  
 317 cells. Compared with observations, our decoupled simulations capture the general patterns  
 318 of global particulate C:N:P ratio (Martiny et al., 2014; Martiny, Pham, et al., 2013; Martiny,  
 319 Vrugt, et al., 2013): high C:N and C:P ratios in oligotrophic gyres and low C:N and C:P  
 320 ratios in cold, nutrient rich high latitude regions.

321 However, the simulation with  $f_{e,j} = 0.5$  has higher within region variation than obser-  
 322 vations especially in subtropical gyres while the simulation of  $f_{e,j} = 0.9$  has a much lower  
 323 variation than observations across the whole global ocean. The results most consistent with  
 324 the observed C:N:P ratio has  $f_{e,j} = 0.7$  (implying that 70% of extra fixed C is exuded and  
 325 30% of the extra C is stored in C reserve). And as such, this is the main simulation we have  
 326 shown in this manuscript.

327 In the decoupled simulations of  $f_{e,j} = 0.7$ , the predicted surface exudation rate (0-55m  
 328 integral) is shown in Fig.8a and the predicted percentage of total C in the C reserve is  
 329 shown in Fig.8b. As would be expected, the percentage of total phytoplankton carbon in  
 330 the reserve pool shares a similar spatial pattern with surface exudation, reflecting regions  
 331 where strong nutrient limitation and high photon fluxes coincide and in accord with previous  
 332 experimental and modeling studies (Livanou et al., 2019; Flynn et al., 2008; Szul et al., 2019;  
 333 Braakman, 2019). We quantified the percentage of extracellular release (PER), defined as  
 334 the percentage of total net photosynthesis released as exudate (shown in Fig.8c). In the  
 335 model PER is less than 15% in high latitude regions and greater than 50% in subtropical  
 336 gyres. This pattern is broadly consistent with field studies that reported that PER less  
 337 than 10% in productive regions with high nutrient concentration and up to 46% in less  
 338 productive regions like oligotrophic subtropical gyres (Teira, Pazó, et al., 2001; Teira, Serret,  
 339 & Fernández, 2001; Lagaria et al., 2013). Similarly, in laboratory cultures, PER has been  
 340 observed to vary between 2% to 10% under nutrient-replete conditions and increase up to  
 341 60% in nutrient-deplete conditions (Myklestad, 2000). The global exudation accounted for  
 342 about 19% of the total global DOC source with the rest originating from death and sloppy  
 343 feeding. None of these rates are well constrained in the model, reflecting both the simplicity



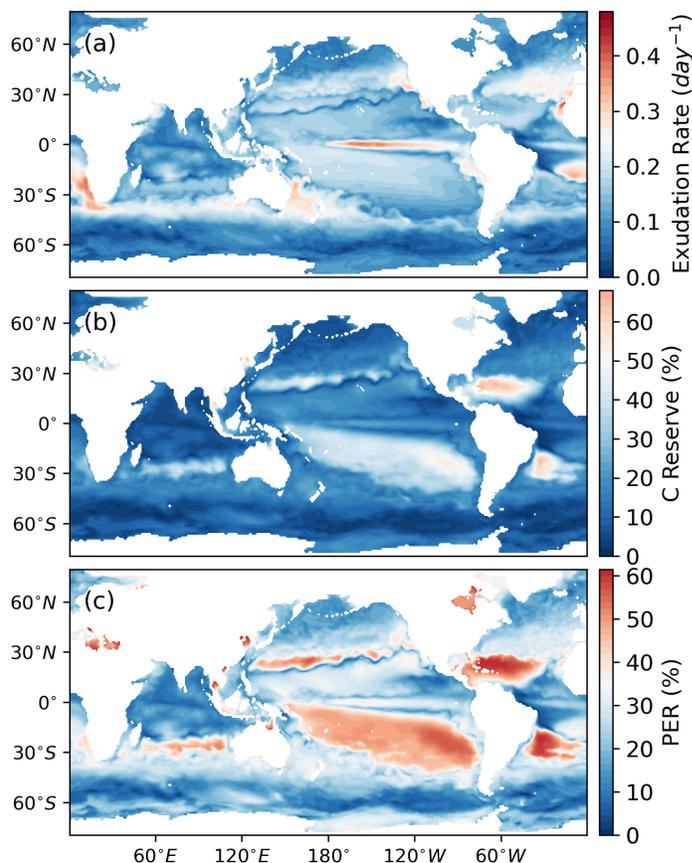
**Figure 7.** Particulate C:N and C:P ratios in Martiny et al. (2014) (red) and decoupled simulations (blue) with different  $f_{e,j}$ . The red bars of observations only contain a limited number of observation points while the blue bars of the simulations include all the grid points within each range. (a) to (c) are C:N ratios with  $f_{e,j} = 0.5, 0.7, 0.9$ , (d) to (f) are C:P ratios with  $f_{e,j} = 0.5, 0.7, 0.9$ .

344 of the parameterizations, but also the challenge of a clear and quantitative interpretation  
 345 of the mechanisms at laboratory work.

#### 346 4 Summary and Outlook

347 We have examined the consequences of the tight coupling of nutrient availability and  
 348 photosynthesis in a commonly employed parameterization (Geider et al., 1997) for regional  
 349 and global-scale carbon cycle simulations. The decoupling of these two processes signifi-  
 350 cantly improved simulations of the vertical profile of subtropical primary productivity when  
 351 compared to in situ observations. In global simulations, it increased integrated primary pro-  
 352 duction by about one-third with the most impact in oligotrophic subtropical gyres where  
 353 the original formulation with coupled processes consistently underestimated primary pro-  
 354 duction relative to many satellite-based estimates. However, we note the large uncertainty  
 355 in the large scale satellite based estimates (see e.g. Fig 6, Carr et al. (2006)).

356 In order to explore the sensitivity of regional and global-scale simulations we have as-  
 357 sumed either complete coupling or decoupling of photosynthesis/biosynthesis. It is likely  
 358 that neither extreme is fully realistic and Geider et al. (1997) were clear about the uncer-  
 359 tainty associated with the coupled assumption. There are numerous ways in which phy-  
 360toplankton can accommodate light intensities greater than required to satisfy biosynthesis  
 361 constraints, including the production of photo-protective pigments and photo-respiration  
 362 (Halsey & Jones, 2015) which have not been considered here. This study provides a clear



**Figure 8.** Global exudation rate, C reserve, and percentage of extracellular release patterns (55m depth integrated). (a) simulated exudation rate ( $\text{day}^{-1}$ ), (b) Percentage of total C in C reserve (%), (c) Percentage extracellular release (%).

363 indication of the sensitivity to two extreme possibilities and shows that they do have major  
 364 implications for the simulation of global-scale productivity and the production of DOC.  
 365 Most compellingly, the simulations demonstrate that the vertical profile of primary produc-  
 366 tion in oligotrophic environments is significantly improved in the decoupled case, bringing  
 367 the simulations into agreement with observed profiles of primary production and Chla at  
 368 HOT and BATS. As a consequence we suggest that the decoupled approach is the better  
 369 candidate for global carbon cycle simulations at present. In the global 3D simulation this  
 370 new parameterization increased globally-integrated, annual primary production by about  
 371 a third. Such changes could have significant impact on how models capture the cycling  
 372 of carbon in the upper ocean, and such processes may have an impact on their ability to  
 373 capture inter-annual and longer term changes in the carbon cycle.

374 As a point of discussion, we found that the improvement in the vertical profile of  
 375 simulations was more significant in the 1D simulation when vertical resolution is higher. In  
 376 other words, if the euphotic layer is represented coarsely (i.e. greater than 10m resolution),  
 377 the low surface productivity associated with the standard approach is not easily apparent  
 378 because the profile is not resolved. As climate and carbon cycle models increase in both  
 379 horizontal and vertical resolution with increasing computational resources, the issue will be  
 380 more apparent. That said, even at coarse vertical resolution in the 3D simulations, the lower  
 381 global primary production of the standard approach could represent a problem. Moreover,

382 if models using the standard approach have been tuned to have reasonable global primary  
383 productions, they may in fact overestimate biosynthetic rates (if simulated).

384 Allocation of excess photosynthate to the reserve increases simulated C:N and C:P  
385 ratios of particulate matter, particularly in the subtropics. Depending on the choice of  
386 parameter values for the amount of carbon exuded versus stored, these increases in the sub-  
387 tropics brought the model more into line with observations (Martiny et al., 2014), and thus  
388 may provide an empirical, large-scale calibration. Allocation of all excess photosynthate to  
389 exudation would imply an additional source of DOC of more than  $12 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ . Alloca-  
390 tion of all excess photosynthate to reserves would imply a global increase in C:N from 6.6:1  
391 (Redfield Ratio) to greater than 10:1. A systematic and quantitative data-model synthesis  
392 might be employed to better constrain this allocation at the community level, though the  
393 complexities and uncertainties of DOC dynamics still clouds the development of suitable  
394 parameterizations. Additionally, here we used a uniform parameter  $f_{e,j}$  for both types of  
395 phytoplankton to control the allocation of excess photosynthate which could be species spe-  
396 cific in future simulations. It is likely that different species would have different values, and  
397 that these may be altered under different environmental conditions.

398 In summary, we examined the consequence of decoupling photosynthesis and biosynthe-  
399 sis in the parameterization of photosynthesis employed in global biogeochemical models. We  
400 found that removing direct nutrient limitation to photosynthesis significantly improved the  
401 simulations of vertical profiles of primary production in the subtropical gyres and increased  
402 predicted global primary production by more than 30% relative to the case where photo-  
403 synthesis and biosynthesis were tightly coupled. We explored the consequences of retention  
404 versus exudation of the excess photosynthate in the global simulations which allowed this  
405 new model to have reasonable global patterns of C:N and C:P ratios in phytoplankton.

## Acknowledgments

We are grateful for the support by the Simons Collaboration on Ocean Processes and Ecology (SCOPE, 329108 to MJF and AW) and Simons Collaboration on Computational Biogeochemical Modeling of Marine Ecosystems (CBIOMES, 549931 to MJF). Additional support is provided by the NSF to the HOT program (OCE-1756517 to AW), the Human Frontiers Science Program (RGP0020/2016 to DS). We also thank the dedicated efforts of the HOT and BATS teams who facilitated in situ sample collection. The code and configurations of the models used in this paper can be found at <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.13564229>.

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Figure 1.

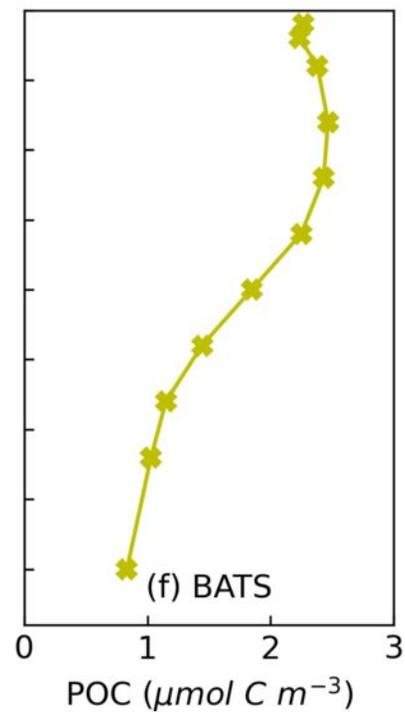
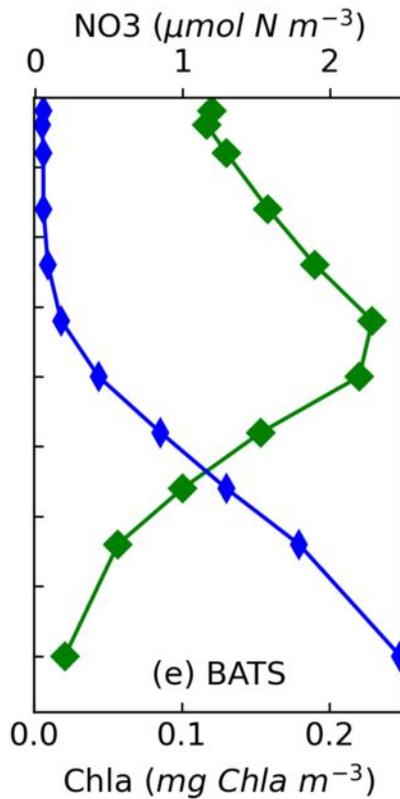
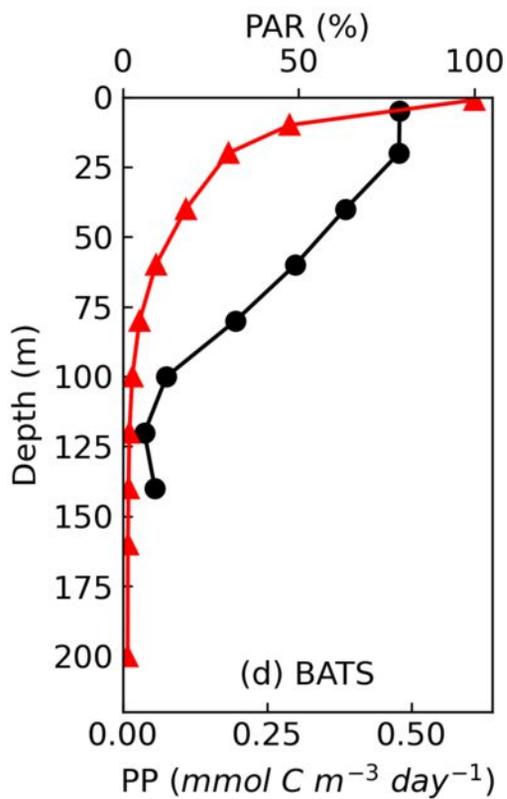
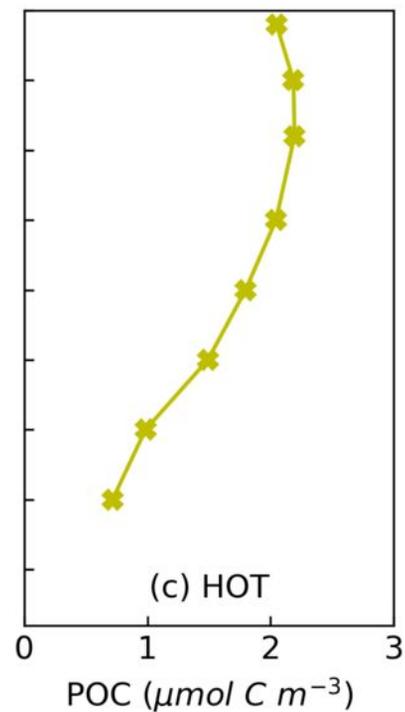
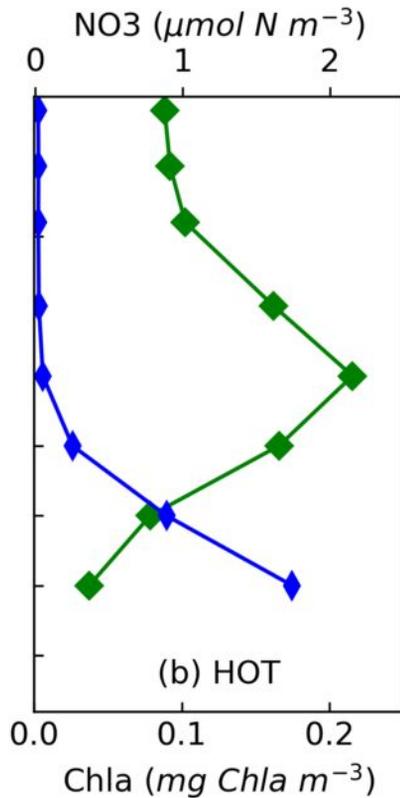
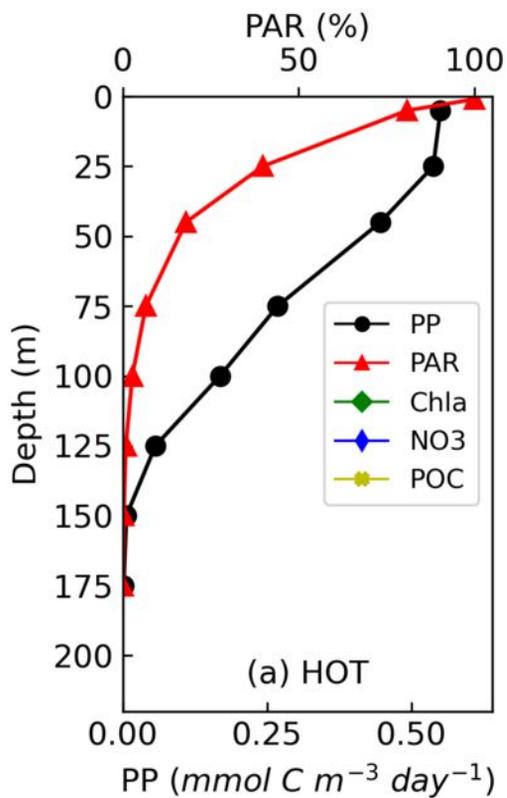


Figure 2.

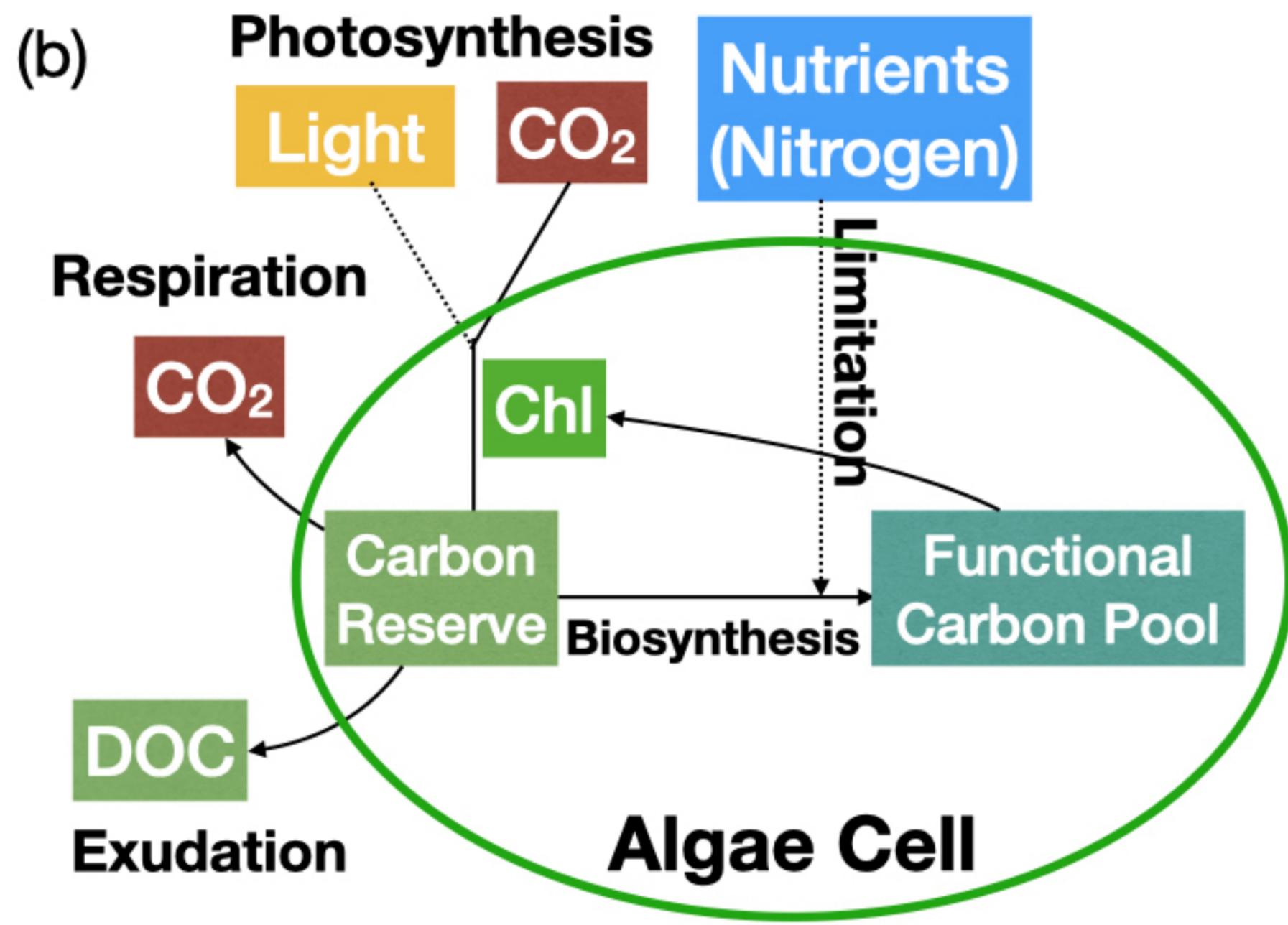
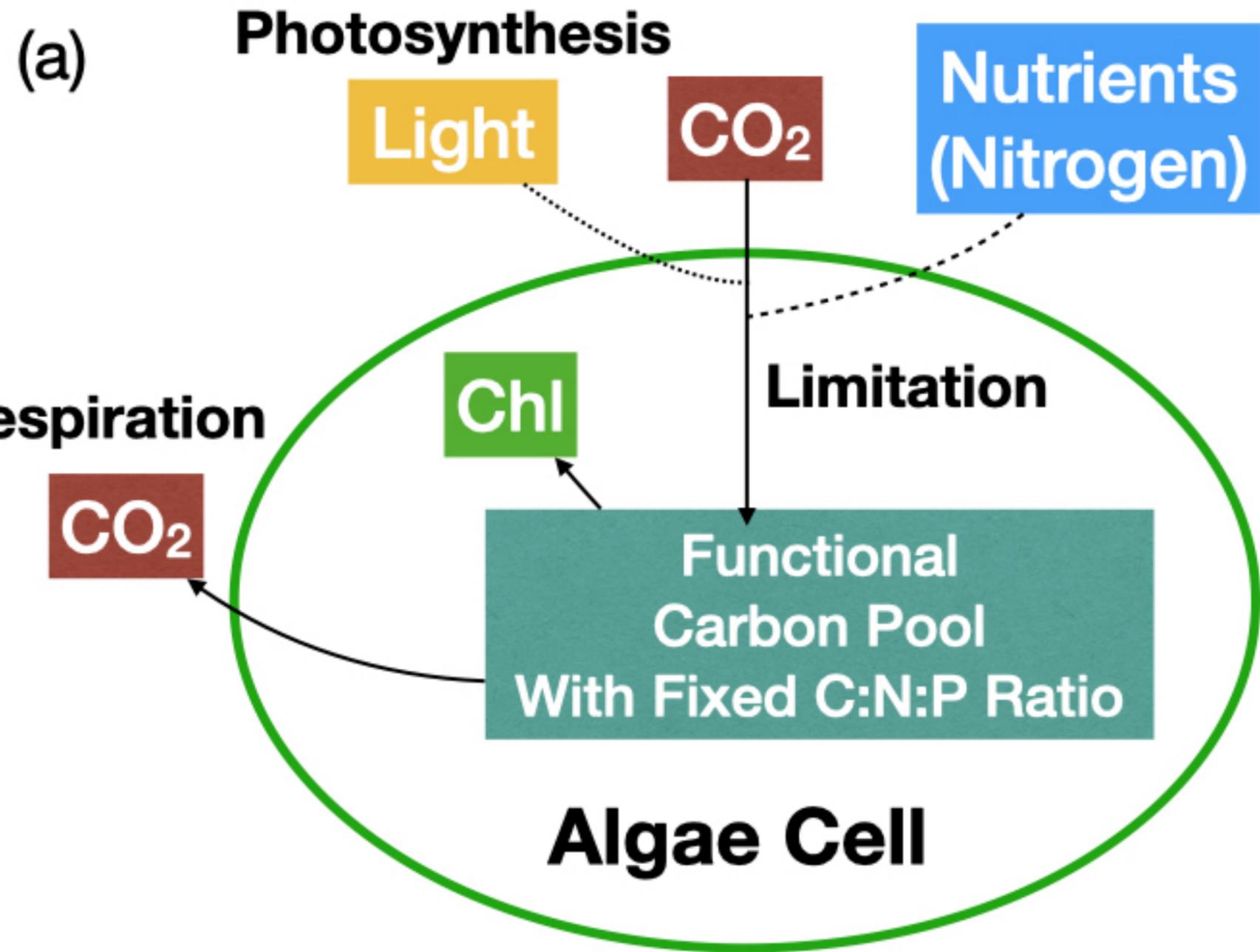
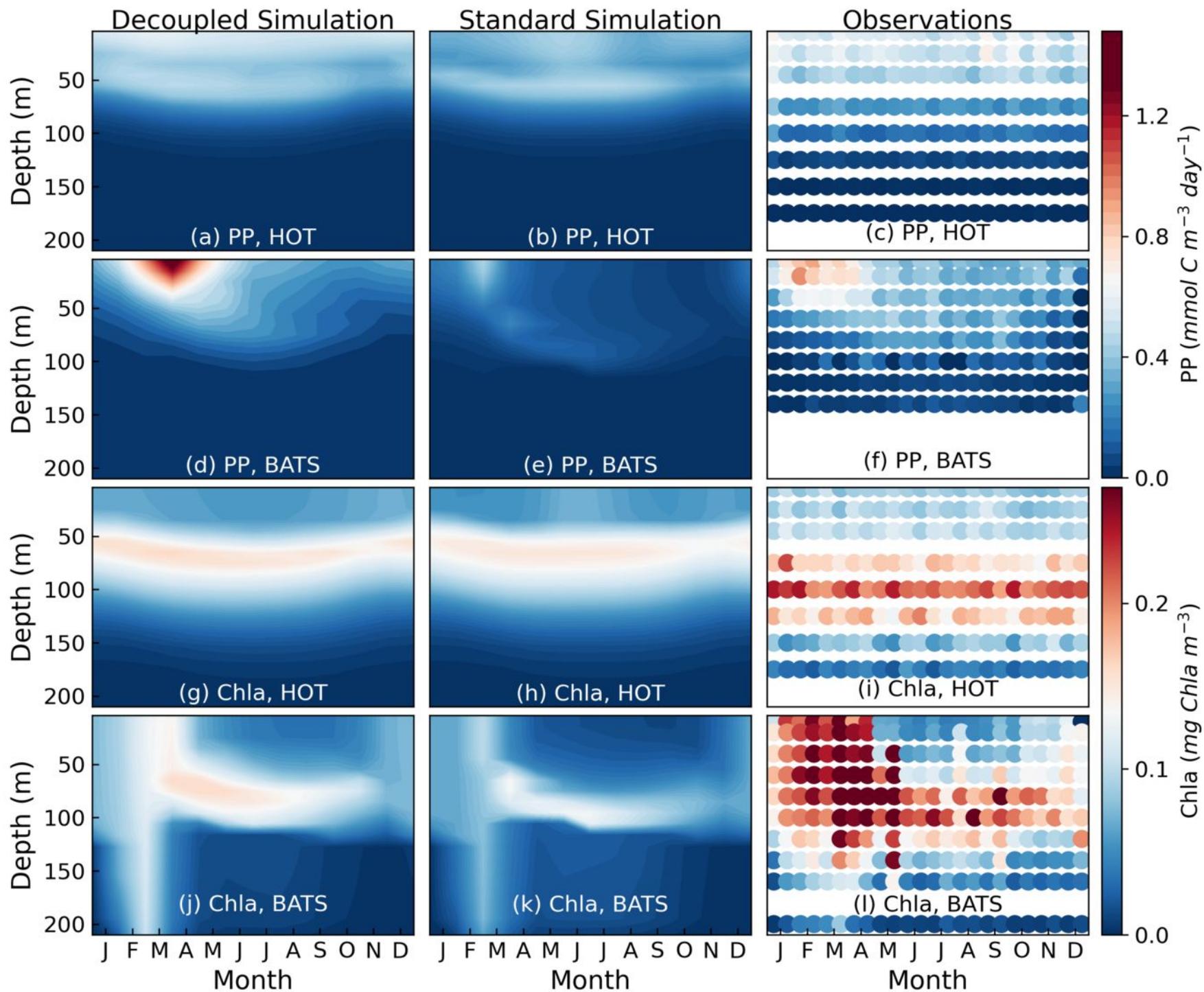


Figure 3.



**Figure 4.**

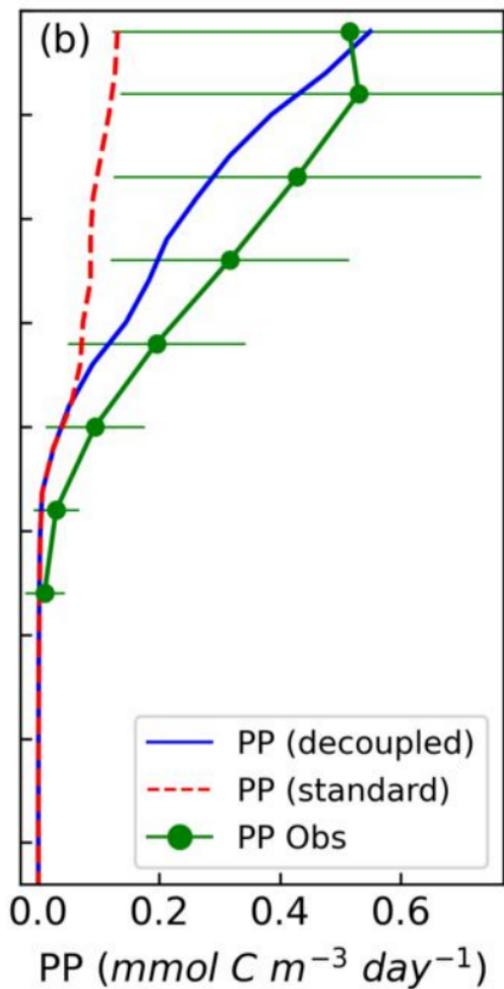
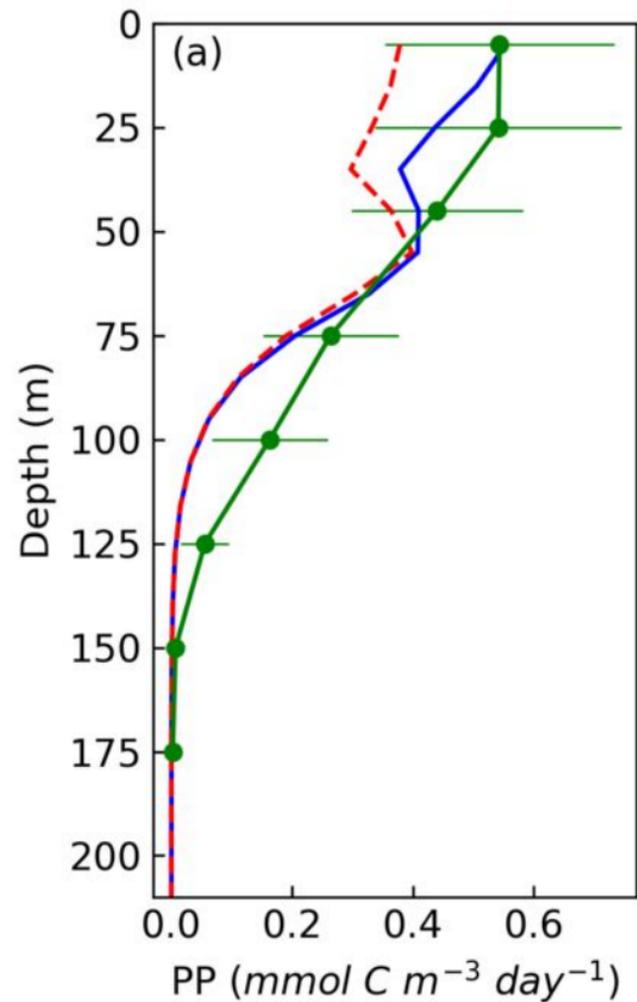
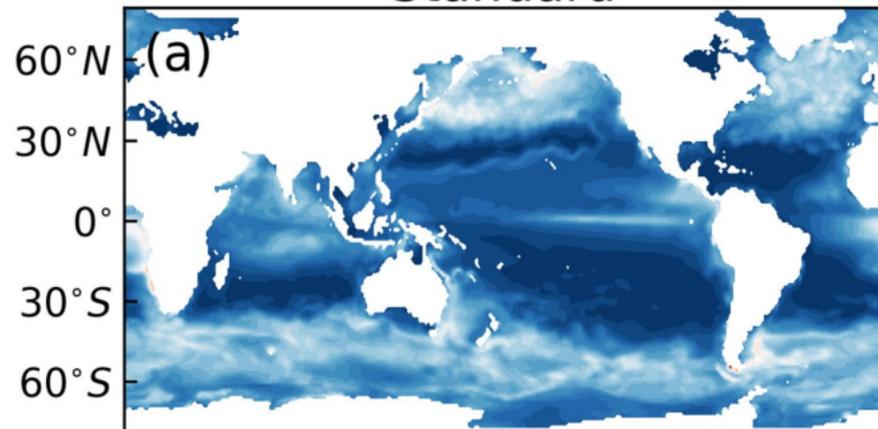
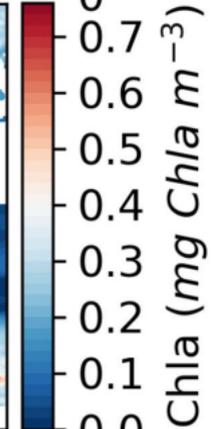
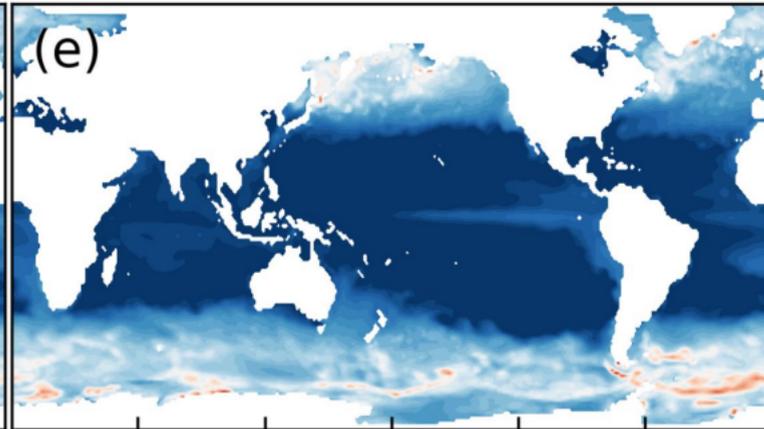
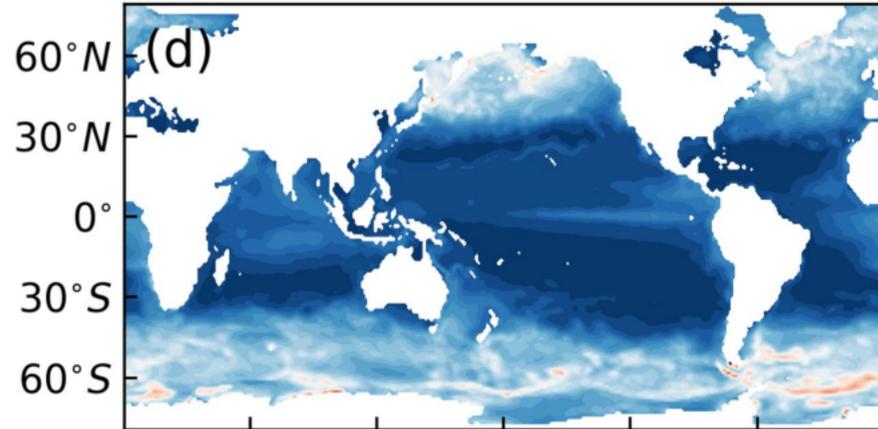
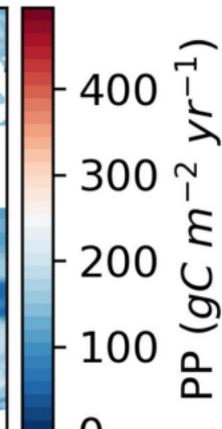
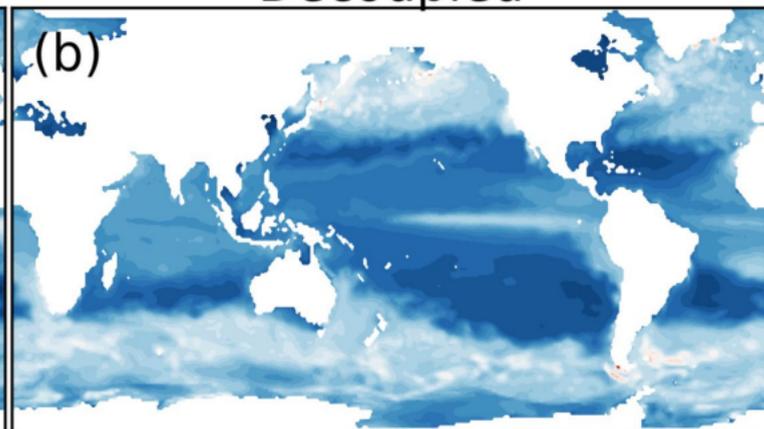


Figure 5.

Standard



Decoupled



Relative Difference

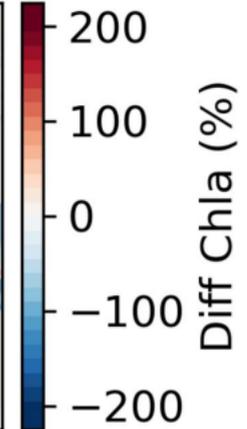
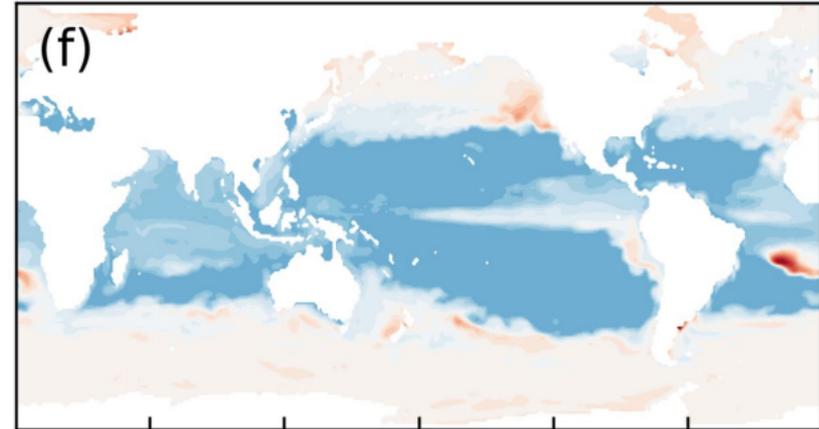
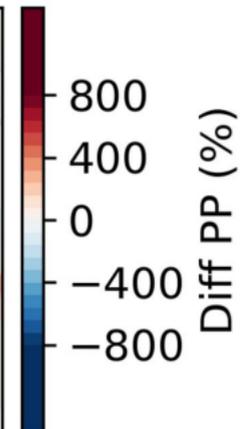
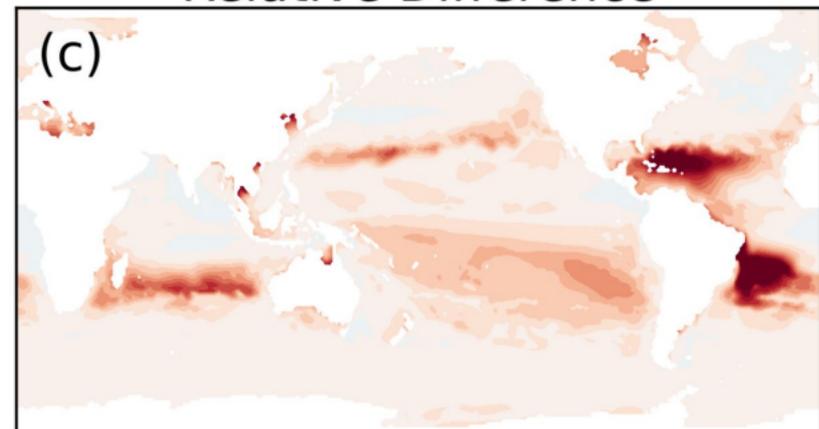


Figure 6.

- |                  |                      |                        |             |
|------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-------------|
| ○ NO3(standard)  | ○ Chl(standard)      | ○ Eppley-PP(decoupled) | ▲ VGPM-CbPM |
| ● NO3(decoupled) | ● Chl(decoupled)     | ● CbPM-PP(decoupled)   | ◆ VGPM-CAFE |
| ○ PO4(standard)  | ○ VGPM-PP(standard)  | ● CAFE-PP(decoupled)   |             |
| ● PO4(decoupled) | ● VGPM-PP(decoupled) | ■ VGPM-Eppley          |             |

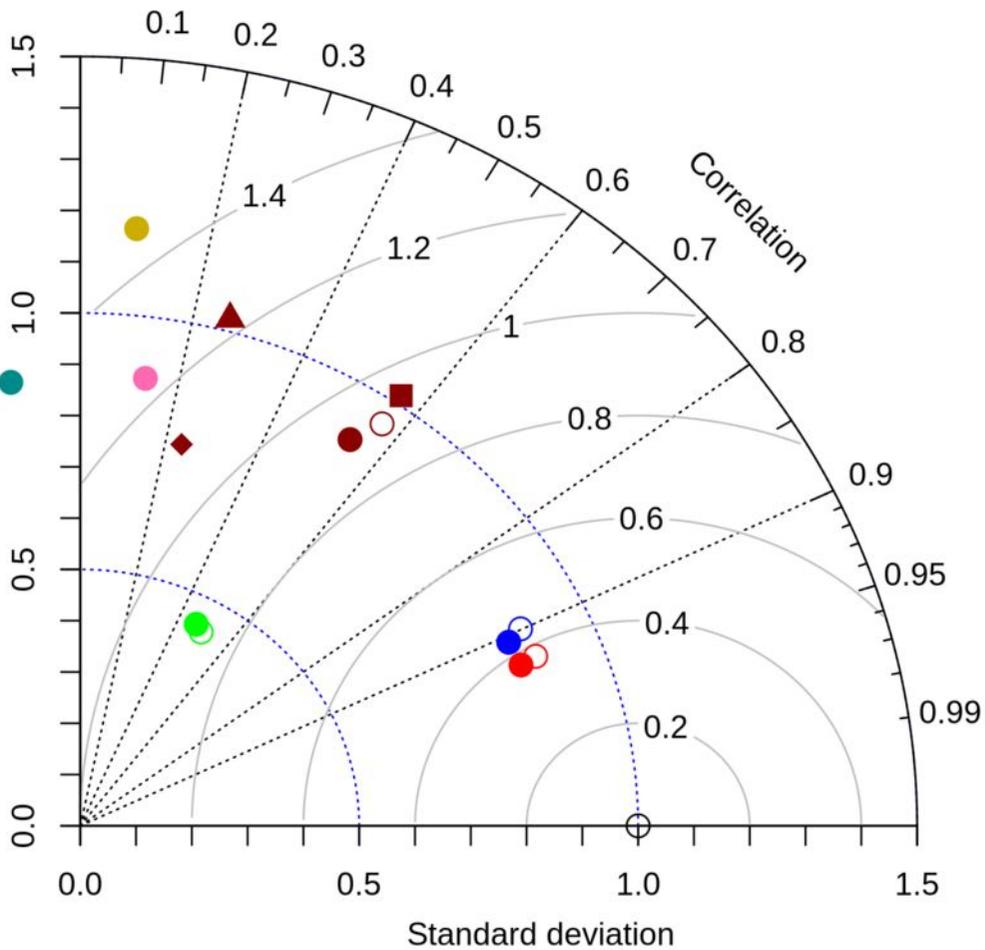


Figure 7.

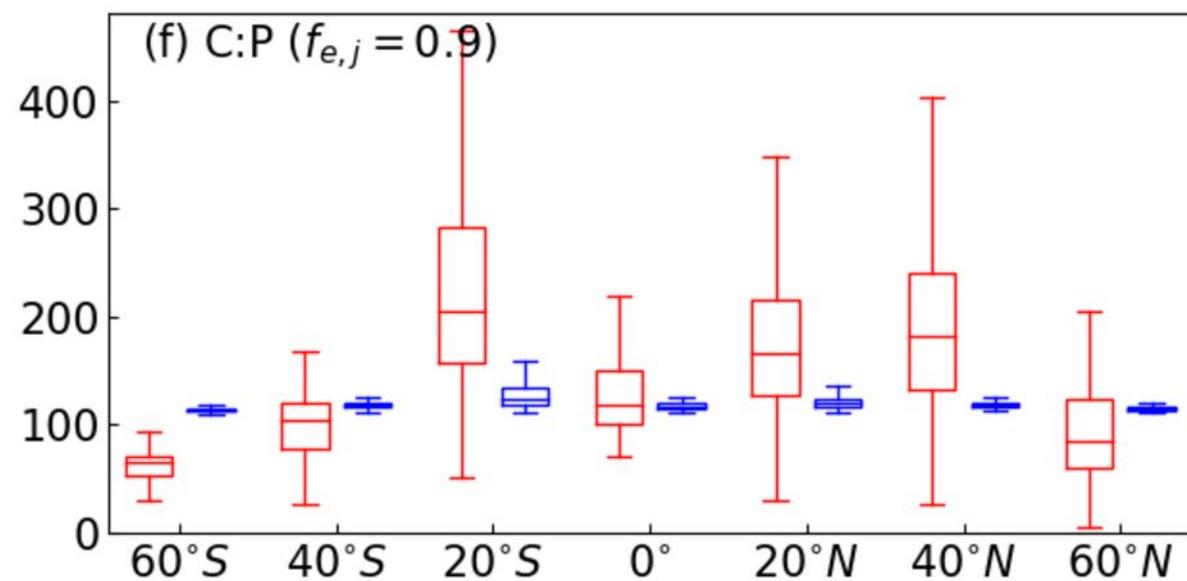
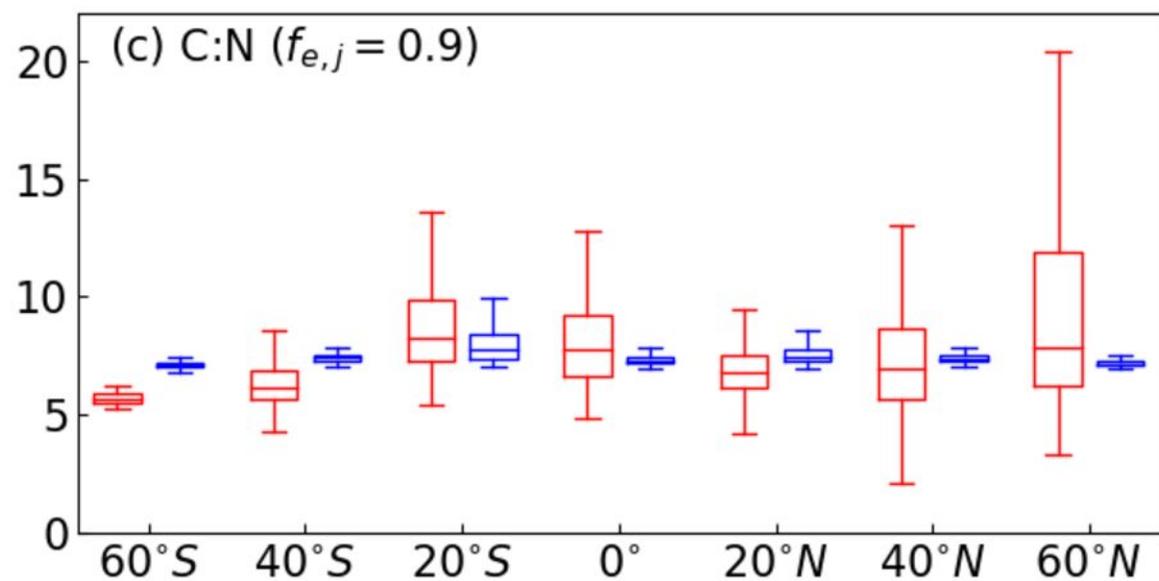
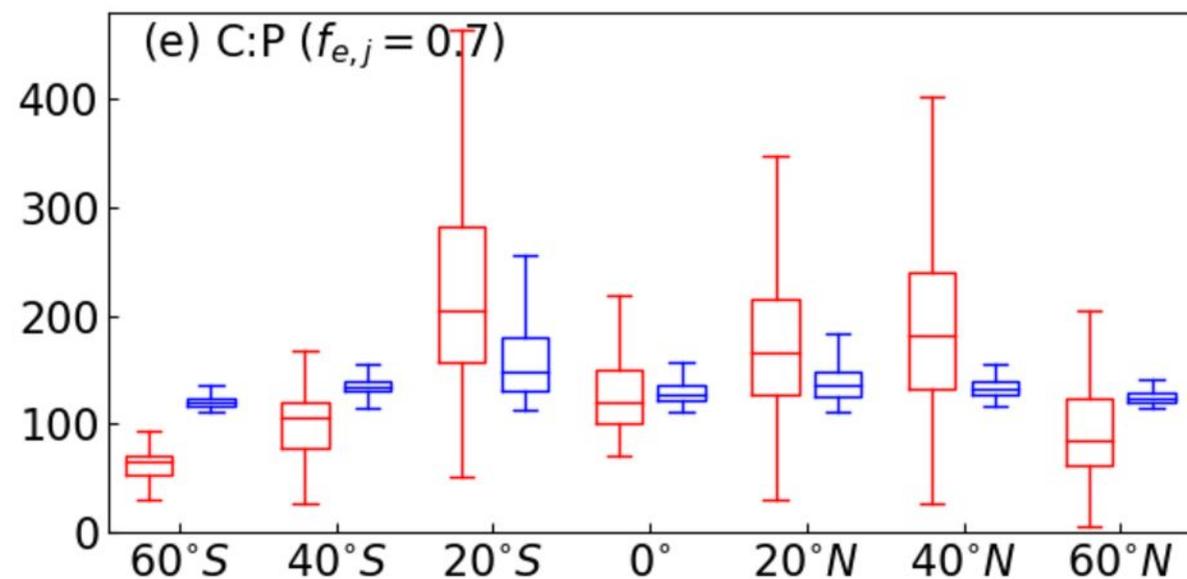
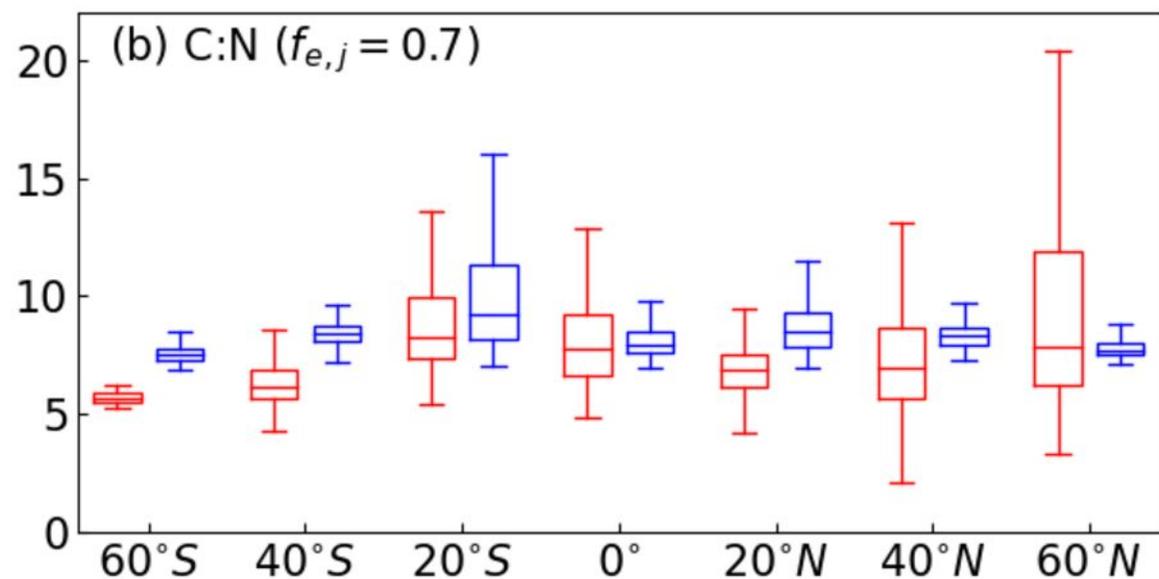
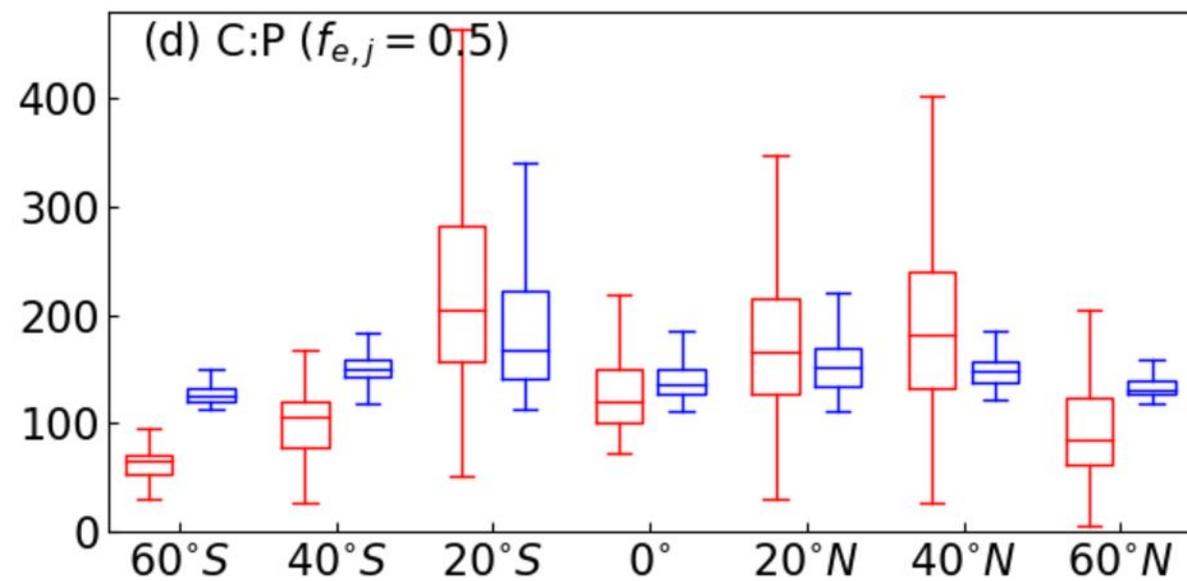
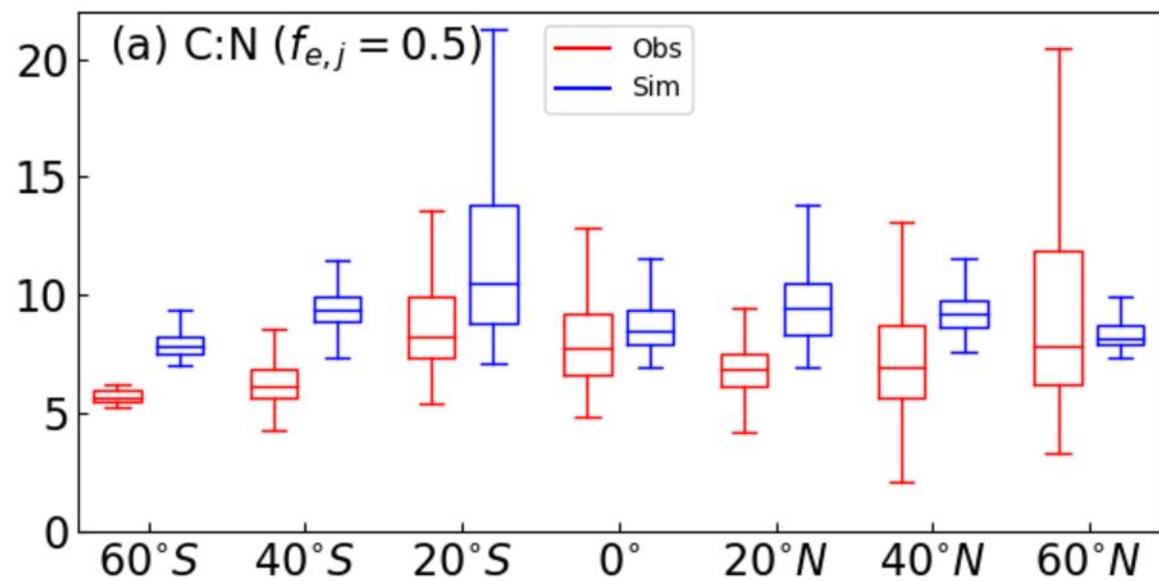


Figure 8.

