



1 Complexity in Biogeochemical Models: Consequences for the Biological Carbon Pump

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13

14 Abstract

15

16 Ocean biogeochemical models underpin projections of future marine ecosystem change, including
17 anticipated shifts in the biological carbon pump (BCP) and broader biogeochemical cycles.
18 However, their outputs remain highly sensitive to model complexity and parameterisation choices.
19 Here, we evaluate five configurations of the Pelagic Interaction Scheme for Carbon and Ecosystem
20 Studies (PISCES) to quantify intramodel variability in net primary productivity (NPP), carbon
21 export (C_{exp}), and export efficiency (e-ratio) over the 21st century under the high emissions RCP8.5
22 scenario. The tested PISCES configurations differed from the standard model through distinct
23 modifications to phytoplankton growth processes, but are forced by identical physical variables,
24 representing an ensemble opportunity. All configurations resolve NPP and C_{exp} within the range of
25 remote-sensing variability. The more complex Quota-based configurations produce 15-21 (10-18)
26 Pg C yr⁻¹ more NPP than the simpler Monod-quota models in the reference (future) period, but this
27 increase, driven by elevated small phytoplankton biomass, does not enhance C_{exp} , yielding lower
28 e-ratios (0.14-0.17) than in the Monod-quota configurations (~0.25). The introduction of a
29 picophytoplankton functional type (PFT) emerges as one of the most influential parameterisation
30 choices. It drives opposing future NPP responses between 30-60° N/S, an increase in the
31 Monod-quota configurations versus a decline in the Quota-based ones, as well as contrasting
32 latitudinal trends in C_{exp} within the same region. Other parameterisations, such as a low-iron
33 scheme, an added diazotroph PFT, and explicit manganese cycling, exert more modest, regionally
34 confined effects under high emissions scenarios, influencing NPP and C_{exp} primarily at biome scales
35 rather than driving large-scale divergence in model behaviour.

36

37 Plain language summary

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39 We use five different versions of a biogeochemical model to show that how phytoplankton growth
40 processes are represented strongly shapes projections of future ocean productivity and carbon
41 export. Added model complexity does not have a uniform global effect as some new processes
42 mainly influence specific ocean regions, while others, such as an additional small phytoplankton
43 type, lead to large intramodel differences in future trends and latitudinal patterns of productivity and
44 carbon export.

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46 Key words: biogeochemical modelling, parameterisations, biological carbon pump, export

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48 1. Introduction

49

50 The biological carbon pump (BCP) plays a critical role in regulating Earth's climate by facilitating
51 the vertical transport of carbon from the surface to the deep ocean, thereby helping to remove
52 atmospheric CO₂ on centennial to millennial timescales (Falkowski et al., 1998, 2000; Buesseler et



53 al., 2007; Visser, 2025). Since pre-industrial times (~280 ppm), global atmospheric CO₂
54 concentrations have risen by 51%, reaching 419 ppm as of the present (Friedlingstein et al., 2023).
55 This increase has contributed to a ~1.5 °C rise in average global surface temperatures, with the
56 previous decade (2014-2024) marking the warmest on record (Ripple et al., 2024; WMO, 2025).
57 The ocean has absorbed 20-30% of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions since the mid-1980s (Sabine et
58 al., 2004; Bindoff et al., 2019), equivalent to 2.1–2.4 Pg C yr⁻¹ (DeVries et al., 2023). Stand-alone
59 ocean model studies suggest that, at equilibrium, BCP-mediated processes result in baseline
60 atmospheric CO₂ concentrations being 150-200 ppm lower than they would be otherwise in their
61 absence (Maier-Reimer et al., 1996; Falkowski et al., 2000). A fully interactive Earth System Model
62 (ESM) refines this estimate, showing a 163 ppm increase in pre-industrial CO₂ when marine
63 ecosystems are removed (Tjiputra et al., 2025). The BCP therefore represents a substantial
64 ecosystem service, valued at \$0.8-1.1 trillion per year globally (Berzaghi et al., 2025).
65 Understanding how the biological processes that underpin the BCP, and its efficiency, will respond
66 to climate change remains an important and active area of research (Jin et al., 2020).

67
68 Through air-sea gas exchange, atmospheric CO₂ dissolves into the surface ocean, increasing the
69 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) pool. In the ocean, this DIC is absorbed and sequestered through
70 two mechanisms, the solubility pump and BCP. The solubility pump is driven by the combination of
71 thermodynamic and physical processes that slowly transport DIC from the surface ocean into the
72 interior via mode and deep water formation. It is the dominant mechanism for the uptake and
73 transport of anthropogenic CO₂ from the surface ocean to below the mixed layer (Bindoff et al.,
74 2019). The BCP further facilitates this vertical transport of carbon through the export of particulate
75 organic carbon (POC), synthesised via phytoplankton net primary productivity (NPP) in the sunlit
76 surface ocean. The subsequent sinking and export (C_{exp}) of POC out of the euphotic zone and into
77 the deep ocean (> 1000 m) contributes to the long-term removal of carbon on timescales of
78 hundreds to thousands of years (Falkowski et al., 1998, 2000; Buesseler et al., 2007; Visser, 2025).
79 Phytoplankton photosynthesis lowers the partial pressure of CO₂ in the surface ocean while export
80 production sustains the vertical gradients in DIC necessary to promote the absorption of CO₂ from
81 the atmosphere. Therefore, the BCP emerges as a critical, climate-relevant pathway in the ocean's
82 role as a long-term carbon sink (Falkowski et al., 2000; Sigman and Boyle, 2000).

83
84 In the upper ocean, most of the produced POC is rapidly remineralised, with only a small fraction
85 (~20%) being exported below 100 m (Falkowski et al., 2000; Laws et al., 2000; Ducklow et al.,
86 2001; Henson et al., 2012; Siegel et al., 2014; Nowicki et al., 2022). The efficiency of the BCP,
87 commonly denoted as the e-ratio (= C_{exp}/NPP), principally determines how much fixed carbon is
88 exported from the surface ocean to depth, indirectly influencing the long-term sequestration of
89 atmospheric CO₂. A consensus emerging from multi-model intercomparison studies is that global
90 warming will lead to higher sea surface temperatures (SSTs), increased stratification, ocean
91 acidification, and reduced oxygen solubility by the end of the 21st century (Steinacher et al., 2010;
92 Bopp et al., 2013; Bindoff et al., 2019; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020). In response to these changing
93 physical environmental conditions, marine ecosystems (Frémont et al., 2022) and phytoplankton
94 community composition (Bopp et al., 2005; Basu and Mackey, 2018; Tréguer et al., 2018; Benedetti
95 et al., 2021; Henson et al., 2021; Fisher et al., 2025) are expected to be impacted, which will have
96 consequences for ocean productivity and export production.

97
98 Capturing the complexity of the BCP remains a major challenge in ESMs (Doney et al. 2024).
99 Across successive generations of Carbon Model Intercomparison Project(s) (CMIP), there is
100 substantial intermodel variability in projected 21st century NPP and C_{exp} (Bopp et al., 2013;
101 Laufkötter et al., 2015, 2016; Kwiatkowski et al., 2020; Tagliabue et al., 2021; Wilson et al., 2022),
102 reflecting large differences in how models represent key biogeochemical processes and marine



ecosystem complexity (Séférián et al., 2020; Henson et al., 2022). Under the high-emissions scenario SSP5-8.5, CMIP6 models project export production to change by -41% to +1.8% relative to the historical period (Henson et al., 2022) and relative to present-day conditions, global NPP is projected to decline by 1.76%, with a model standard deviation of 8.06% (Tagliabue et al., 2021). Furthermore, future declines in NPP are likely underestimated within the CMIP6 ensemble, considering their contemporary trends relative to remote-sensing (Ryan-Keogh et al., 2025).

Within the CMIP ensemble, a wide range of biogeochemical models is represented (e.g. BEC – Moore et al., 2001, 2004; BFM – Vichi et al., 2007; PISCES – Aumont et al., 2015; REcoM2 – Hauck et al., 2013; TOPAZ – Dunne et al., 2012), each differing in its complexity and parameterisation of key biogeochemical processes. Although model intercomparison projects have provided valuable insights into the global BCP, it remains unclear how differences in these biogeochemical parameterisations, and complexity thereof, contribute to the divergence among CMIP models in their projections of the BCP over the 21st century. Most model intercomparison studies evaluate different architectures against common criteria to identify model shortcomings and ensemble-wide patterns (Fennel et al., 2022). However, pinpointing sources of divergence and the role of individual parameterisations is challenging within this context. An alternative is to compare different parameterisations within the same biogeochemical model under identical physical forcing, enabling variability arising solely from biogeochemical differences to be isolated.

This study employs the PISCES ocean biogeochemical model (Aumont et al., 2015) in a suite of distinct configurations under high emissions RCP8.5 scenario to isolate how differences in biogeochemical parameterisations and complexity drive variability in the BCP over the 21st century. The methodology details the various PISCES configurations and their nuances while the results are presented in two parts. In the first, we compare present-day PISCES outputs with remote-sensing data to evaluate whether variations in biogeochemical parameterisations and complexity lead to discernible differences in NPP and export production at global and biome scales. The second examines how these variables evolve between present/reference (1986–2005) and future (2091–2100) projections, highlighting how differences in top-down processes propagate through NPP and C_{exp} . Ultimately, the study identifies key biogeochemical parameterisations that strongly shape ecosystem dynamics, driving differences in NPP and export production, and contributing to intramodel variability in projections of the BCP.

2. Methodology

2.1 PISCES configurations

Tab. (1) presents a summary of the five PISCES configurations used in this study, which differ primarily in their parameterisation of phytoplankton growth processes. The standard PISCES (PST) model of Aumont et al. (2015) served as the foundation for all configurations. The PST model simulates the lower trophic levels of marine ecosystems and resolves the biogeochemical cycles of carbon and the main nutrients of P, N, Si and Fe. The model has four living compartments, two phytoplankton functional types (PFTs; diatoms and nanophytoplankton) and two zooplankton size classes (microzooplankton and mesozooplankton). Particulate detritus, produced through phytoplankton–zooplankton–nutrient interactions, is partitioned into small and large particles. Both size classes arise from multiple processes, including zooplankton grazing, phytoplankton and zooplankton mortality, and aggregation. However, their dominant sources differ as small particles are primarily linked to nanophytoplankton–microzooplankton interactions, whereas large particles are mainly associated with those of diatom–mesozooplankton. The PST model employs a hybrid of Monod-quota formulations in representing the cycling of major nutrients. Phytoplankton C:N:P



153 stoichiometry is fixed, with N and P limitations governed by a Monod parameterisation. As a result,
154 growth rates follow a rectangular hyperbolic function of the limiting external nutrient concentration
155 (Monod, 1949; Flynn, 2003). In contrast, Fe limitation is represented with a quota-based approach
156 (Aumont et al., 2015), where growth depends on the internal nutrient quota of a cell, which itself is
157 regulated by the external nutrient concentration (Droop, 1968).

158

159 Table 1: List of PISCES configurations

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Configuration name	Short name	Nutrients	Phytoplankton types	Phytoplankton growth	Additional parameterisations relative to PST	References
PISCES standard	PST	P, N, Fe, Si	Nano-, diatom	Monod & quota (Fe)	Standard	Aumont et al. (2015); Tagliabue et al. (2020)
PISCES low-Fe	PSF	P, N, Fe, Si	Nano-, diatom	Monod & quota (Fe)	$\theta^{Fe,I}; \theta_{max}^{Fe,I}$ The biological ($\theta^{Fe,I}$) and maximum ($\theta_{max}^{Fe,I}$) iron quotas (umol Fe/mol C) for the two phytoplankton groups are adjusted for low iron conditions.	Tagliabue et al. (2020)
PISCES-QUOTA	P5Z	P, N, Fe, Si	Nano-, pico-, diatom	Quota	$f^n = 1 - \frac{Q^n}{Q^n}$ f^n is the effect of a given nutrient on phytoplankton growth rate, Q^n is the internal ratio of nutrient n to carbon biomass, and Q^n is the subsistence or minimum quota of the respective nutrients.	Kwiatkowski et al. (2018); Wrightson et al. (2022)
PISCES diazotroph (tricho)	P6Z	P, N, Fe, Si	Nano-, pico-, diatom, diazotroph	Quota	The addition of a diazotroph PFT to represent <i>Trichodesmium</i> . Thermal performance curves modulate diazotroph maximum growth rate and the elemental use efficiency (EUE) of P and Fe.	Wrightson et al. (2022)
PISCES Manganese	P5M	P, N, Fe, Mn, Zn, Si	Nano-, pico-, diatom	Quota	The inclusion of the biogeochemical Mn cycle and phytoplankton Mn limitation. The limiting nutrients for diatoms include: N, P, Si, Fe, Zn and Mn.	Anugerahanti and Tagliabue (2023, 2024)

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162 The PST and low-Fe PISCES (PSF) configurations are those described in Tagliabue et al. (2020).

163 The PSF configuration modified PST by adjusting biological and maximum iron quotas for

164 phytoplankton growth to better reflect low-iron conditions and their implications under climate

165 change. Iron availability plays a key role in regulating phytoplankton growth and global NPP

166 (Tagliabue et al., 2017); however, ESMs often show large uncertainties in representing the ocean

167 iron cycle and its effect on productivity (Tagliabue et al., 2016). Unlike PST and PSF, the

168 PISCES-QUOTA (P5Z) model allows for variable C:N:P stoichiometry (Kwiatkowski et al., 2018),

169 with growth exclusively governed by quota-based formulations (Tab. 1). P5Z resolves 39 prognostic

170 variables, compared to 24 in PST, and importantly includes three phytoplankton groups:

171 picophytoplankton, nanophytoplankton, and diatoms.

172



Wrightson et al. (2022) further developed the model by introducing an explicit diazotroph PFT (*Crocospaera* and *Trichodesmium*), along with temperature-dependent nutrient uptake parameterised via elemental use efficiencies (EUEs), resulting in the P6Z configuration. These additions addressed a key limitation in P5Z, which represented nitrogen fixation as an implicit flux of ammonia, preventing mechanistic investigation of diazotroph dynamics. Given that marine nitrogen fixation plays a critical role in shaping the response of NPP to climate change (Wrightson and Tagliabue, 2020; Bopp et al., 2022), explicitly resolving diazotrophs in P6Z allowed responses to environmental drivers, especially rising ocean temperatures, to be investigated. Preliminary work conducted in this study showed little difference in global C_{exp} or NPP patterns across the various P6Z versions in Wrightson et al. (2022). Therefore, in this study, we used only the configuration that included temperature dependent EUEs for Fe and P for the generic N-fixing PFT (Tab. 1).

Anugerahanti and Tagliabue (2024) built upon the base P5Z model by incorporating manganese (Mn), following Hawco et al. (2022), which included its role in limiting phytoplankton productivity in the Southern Ocean, where observations show Mn as either a primary or co-limiting micronutrient alongside Fe (Wu et al., 2019; Browning et al., 2021; Hawco et al., 2022). The resulting P5M configuration explicitly simulates coupled Mn and zinc (Zn) cycles (Richon and Tagliabue, 2021), including biological uptake, scavenging, and regeneration for Mn and Zn.

The various PISCES configurations (Tab. 1) were identically forced with physical outputs from the IPSL-CM5A-LR climate model on the ORCA tripolar grid with 2° horizontal spatial resolution. Two model runs were conducted for each configuration. The first simulation was forced by outputs derived from historical (1851-2005) climate forcing and the second with the high emission Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5 (RCP8.5) scenario (2006-2100). For this study, we conducted our analysis of the BCP using averaged model outputs over two time windows, the ‘reference’ (1986-2005) and ‘future’ (2091-2100).

2.2 Remote-sensing products

The five PISCES configurations were assessed for the reference period against an ensemble of satellite-derived NPP and C_{exp} products, averaged over 1998-2005. This period was chosen to align with the model simulations while accommodating the earliest availability of satellite observations. Model outputs and remote-sensing products were compared globally as well as across RECCAP2 biomes (Supp. S1) by ocean basin (Fay and McKinley, 2014; Doney et al., 2024).

Several algorithms have been described to estimate primary production based on ocean-colour remote-sensing observations, each differing in complexity and formulation and exhibiting substantial variability across regions such as the subtropical gyres and the Southern Ocean (Ryan-Keogh et al., 2023; Westberry et al., 2023). Common algorithms include the: Vertically Generalised Production Model (VPGM), Carbon-based Production Model (CbPM), and Carbon Absorption Fluorescence Euphotic-resolving (CAFE) model. This study used six different NPP datasets (Supp. S2), all of which are derived from ESA Ocean Colour Climate Change Initiative (OC-CCI) remotely-sensed chlorophyll concentrations (Sathyendranath et al., 2019). Five were from the regular 25 km gridded NPP datasets at 8-day resolution of Ryan-Keogh et al. (2023), who considered the Eppley-VGPM (Epply 1972), Behrenfeld-VGPM (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997), Behrenfeld-CbPM (Behrenfeld et al., 2005), Westberry-CbPM (Westberry et al., 2008), and the Silsbe-CAFE model (Silsbe et al., 2016). The sixth NPP dataset was the 9 km monthly resolution product from the Biological Pump and Carbon Exchange Processes (BICEP) project (Kulk et al., 2020, 2021) which used a modified version of the base algorithm of Longhurst et al. (1995).



Similar to NPP, a number of algorithms exist to compute C_{exp} from remotely-sensed observations (Jönsson et al., 2023). Export production can be related to NPP through a simple scaling factor (Epply and Peterson, 1979) or include multiple relationships, such as mixed-layer depth (MLD), chlorophyll and SST (Jönsson et al., 2023). For simplicity, we restricted our analysis to export algorithms that estimate C_{exp} from empirical relationships between NPP and SST. We applied five commonly used formulations (Supp. S3, S4): Laws et al. (2000), Henson et al. (2011), two equations from Laws et al. (2011), and Li and Cassar (2016). These algorithms have been evaluated against *in situ* observations (e.g. Dunne et al., 2005; Mouw et al., 2016; Bisson et al., 2018), with reported skill scores of $R^2 = 0.64$ -0.70 (Li and Cassar, 2016; Jönsson et al., 2023). It is important to note that they estimate export at different depth horizons such as Henson et al. (2011) at 100 m and Li and Cassar (2016) at the climatological MLD, meaning biases in subtropical gyres and polar regions may differ slightly across algorithms. We used SST from the 0.05° Operational Sea Surface Temperature and Sea Ice Analysis (OSTIA) product, which is a Level 4 product that combines multi-sensor satellite and *in situ* data (Good et al., 2020). From the daily fields for 1998-2005, monthly SST averages were computed for OSTIA. Thereafter, C_{exp} was computed using the five algorithms applied to the monthly SST and six NPP fields (interpolated to the 2° model grid), resulting in 30 individual C_{exp} estimates. For each algorithm, outputs from the six datasets were then averaged to produce a single representative C_{exp} field, yielding five ensemble algorithm outputs (Supp. S3).

3. Results

3.1 Model and remote-sensing variability

Table 2: Reference and future projections of NPP, C_{exp} , and e-ratio for the five PISCES configurations. C_{exp} is defined as the mass of POC sinking through the 100 m depth horizon, consistent with CMIP conventions (Palevsky and Doney, 2018). The e-ratio (C_{exp}/NPP) reflects the efficiency of the BCP as governed by particle formation and sinking processes. NPP is integrated over the upper 100 m when calculating the e-ratio. NPP and C_{exp} are reported as globally integrated values ($Pg\ C\ yr^{-1}$), and the e-ratio as an area-weighted global mean. Relative changes (%) from the reference to future period are shown, alongside CMIP5 estimates from Fu et al. (2016) and remote-sensing (RMT) values from this study's ensemble and Doney et al. (2024).

	Reference			Future			Relative change		
	NPP	Cexp	e-ratio	NPP	Cexp	e-ratio	NPP	Cexp	e-ratio
PST	40.78	7.92	0.26	39.44	7.03	0.26	-3.29	-11.23	~ 0
PSF	42.3	7.85	0.24	40.93	6.97	0.24	-3.24	-11.21	~ 0
P5Z	61.15	6.91	0.14	54.92	5.88	0.14	-10.19	-14.91	~ 0
P6Z	63.29	7.12	0.14	58.69	6.13	0.13	-7.27	-13.90	-7.14
P5M	57.11	7.88	0.17	52.81	6.82	0.17	-7.53	-13.36	~ 0
Mean	52.93±10.64	7.54±0.48	0.19±0.057	49.36±8.65	6.57±0.53	0.19±0.059	-6.30±3.00	-12.94±1.65	-1.43±3.19
CMIP5 - Fu et al. (2016)	46.33±13.74	6.17±0.87	0.14±0.041	43.73±14.84	5.40±0.77	0.13±0.037	-6.55±4.19	-12.50±3.78	-6.33±3.64
RMT - study ensemble	55.99±9.95	10.43±3.74	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
RMT - Doney et al. (2024)	52.9±9.1	8.20±2.78	0.196±0.106	-	-	-	-	-	-

At both the global (Tab. 2) and biome scales (Fig. 1), differences in the complexity of phytoplankton processes and parameterisations (Tab. 1) among the five PISCES configurations



leads to substantial intramodel variability in both the reference and future states (Figs. 2-3), particularly for NPP. For the reference period (Tab. 2), the coefficient of variation (CV) for global NPP across the five configurations is ~20%, indicating substantial divergence among models.

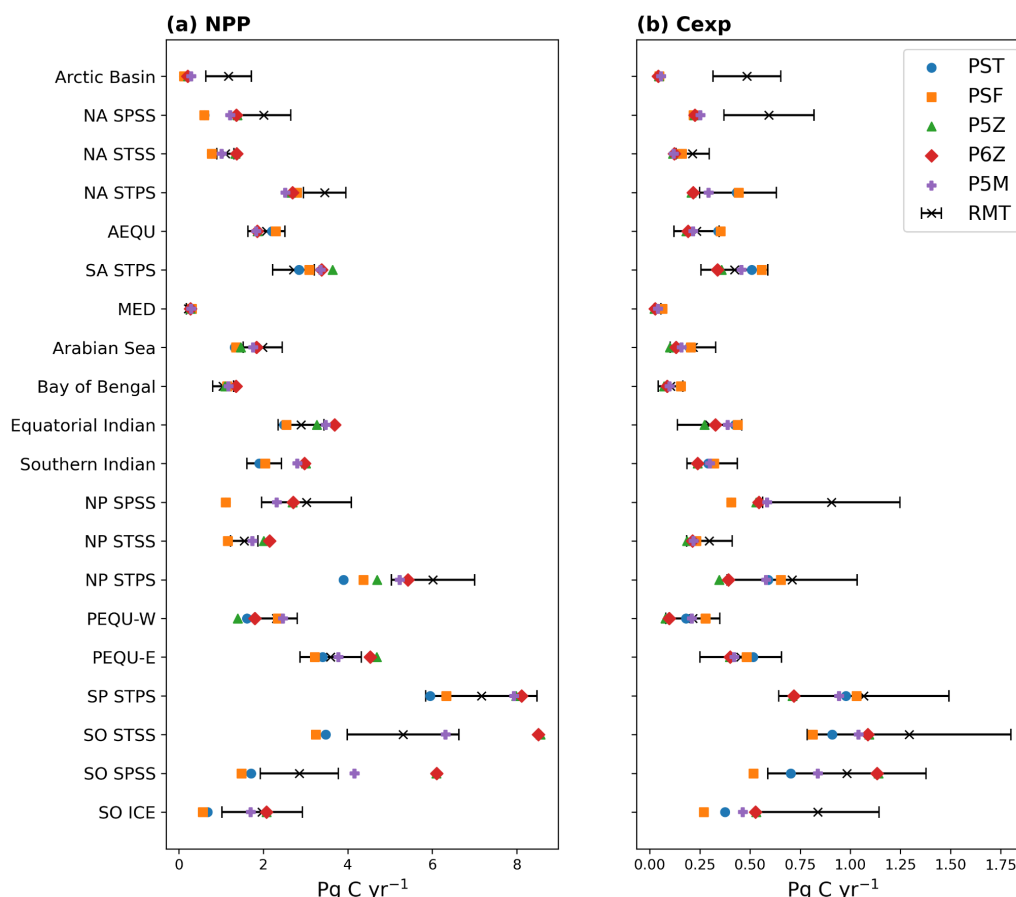


Figure 1: Model and remote-sensing (RMT) estimates of (a) NPP and (b) C_{exp} , integrated over each RECCAP2 biome. Black bars indicate ± 1 standard deviation across the remote-sensing ensemble.

The two Monod-quota configurations, PST and PSF, simulate 15-21 Pg C yr^{-1} less NPP than the purely Quota-based configurations (P5Z, P6Z and P5M). In contrast, the relative range of C_{exp} is much lower ($CV \approx 5\%$), showing export production is far more consistent across configurations and reflecting the fact that no direct adjustments were made to the equations or parameterisations explicitly controlling carbon export across the different configurations. Variability arises as an indirect outcome, emerging primarily from upstream differences in primary productivity patterns, which cascade down to influence export. Collectively, this results in the Monod-quota configurations resolving a more efficient BCP than the purely Quota-based ones. However, despite these intramodel differences, all the PISCES configurations largely fall within the range of remote-sensing estimates for both NPP and C_{exp} (Tab. 2). Compared to the CMIP5 ensemble, NPP for the PISCES configurations lies within the range of variability, whereas C_{exp} exceeds the upper bound.



At the biome scale (Fig. 1), no single configuration consistently reproduces all regions, with intramodel variability in NPP (Fig. 1a) and C_{exp} (Fig. 1b) varying considerably. A similar state of variability exists for remote-sensing derived estimates. The Southern Ocean shows the strongest intramodel variability ($CV \geq 30\%$; Supp. S5). P5Z and P6Z yield the highest NPP and C_{exp} , while the Monod-quota models give the lowest. P5M stands apart from both groups, with the inclusion of the manganese cycle dampening phytoplankton growth in this region, resulting in lower NPP than the other Quota-based configurations. This reduction in productivity propagates downstream, ultimately leading to lower C_{exp} . In the equatorial and subtropical gyres, the Quota-based configurations simulate higher NPP, yet the simpler Monod-quota models produce slightly higher C_{exp} , indicating that greater primary production does not directly translate into greater export in these regions (see also Fig. 2). The inclusion of a diazotroph PFT in P6Z introduces regional differences relative to P5Z within these biomes, most notably in the South Atlantic and North Pacific subtropical gyres; however, C_{exp} remains broadly similar between the two configurations (Fig. 1b). The absence of a uniform NPP response to the added diazotroph group reflects basin-specific nutrient limitation regimes, particularly differences in Fe and P availability that constrain diazotroph growth across ocean basins (Wrightson et al., 2022). For PSF, the low-iron biological parameterisation results in slightly higher NPP in the equatorial biomes and subtropical gyres, but marginally lower productivity in the Southern Ocean compared to PST. This occurs because PSF prescribes smaller Fe:C quotas for phytoplankton, enabling growth under lower iron supply. As a result, productivity in low latitude biomes responds more strongly to assumptions about biological iron uptake, where Fe and N limitation play a larger role, whereas productivity in the Southern Ocean is less affected due to its already pervasive iron limitation (Tagliabue et al., 2020).

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3.2 Future projections of the BCP

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From Tab. (2), all configurations project future global declines in both NPP and C_{exp} by 2100, with NPP decreasing by $6.30 \pm 3.00\%$ and C_{exp} by $12.94 \pm 1.65\%$; however, the e-ratio remains largely unchanged. The relatively stable e-ratio indicates that BCP efficiency is maintained within each configuration, but the overall decline in carbon export reduces the ocean's capacity to sequester CO_2 from the atmosphere. For NPP and C_{exp} , the largest absolute and relative declines are observed in the Quota-based configurations but all configurations fall within the variability of the CMIP5 ensemble (Tab. 2).

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Fig. (2) expounds on the biome scale assessment in Fig. (1), presenting zonally integrated NPP and C_{exp} , and area-weighted e-ratios for the reference period, along with their projected future changes. For the reference period (Fig. 2a-c), all configurations reproduce the expected pattern of elevated NPP and C_{exp} in the equatorial region and at high latitudes, including the Southern Ocean and the subpolar to polar regions of the Northern Hemisphere, with lower values in the subtropical gyres. Differences arise mainly in magnitude, with the Quota-based configurations simulating higher NPP than the simpler Monod-quota ones (Fig. 2a); however, this does not translate into uniformly higher C_{exp} (Fig. 2b), resulting in a less efficient BCP (Fig. 2c). Intramodel variability in C_{exp} is less than NPP, with PST and PSF producing slightly higher export production between $\sim 20^\circ$ N/S but notably lower C_{exp} than the Quota-based configurations in the Southern Ocean ($40-75^\circ$ S).

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For future projections (Fig. 2d-f), all configurations simulate declining NPP between 30° N/S (Fig. 2d). Beyond this band, the models diverge. Around 45° S, PST and PSF show an increase in NPP of $\sim 25\%$, whereas the Quota-based configurations show only a 4-5% rise. North of 30° N, the Monod-quota configurations exhibit increasing NPP (from $\sim 1\%$ to 20% by 60° N), while the Quota-based configurations instead show a sharp decline of 15-25% at 30° N, which gradually



weakens poleward. All configurations eventually project higher NPP in the northern polar region (Fig. 2d). In contrast, future changes in C_{exp} (Fig. 2e) follow a broadly consistent pattern across configurations, differing mainly in magnitude rather than trajectory. All configurations show declining export production over most latitudes, with a regional exception in the Southern Ocean, where C_{exp} increases. This increase occurs farther north ($\sim 45^\circ$ S) in PST and PSF, reflecting their distinct NPP response, while the Quota-based models show a similar feature centred farther south. North of 30° N, all configurations show declining C_{exp} , though the strength of the reduction varies. Collectively, the e-ratio remains relatively stable across latitudes, with no clear model-specific pattern between 30° N/S (Fig. 2f). All models show a 10-20% decline in the e-ratio near 45° S, an increase of ~ 5 -10% south of 60° S, and a consistent decrease north of 30° N (Fig. 2f).

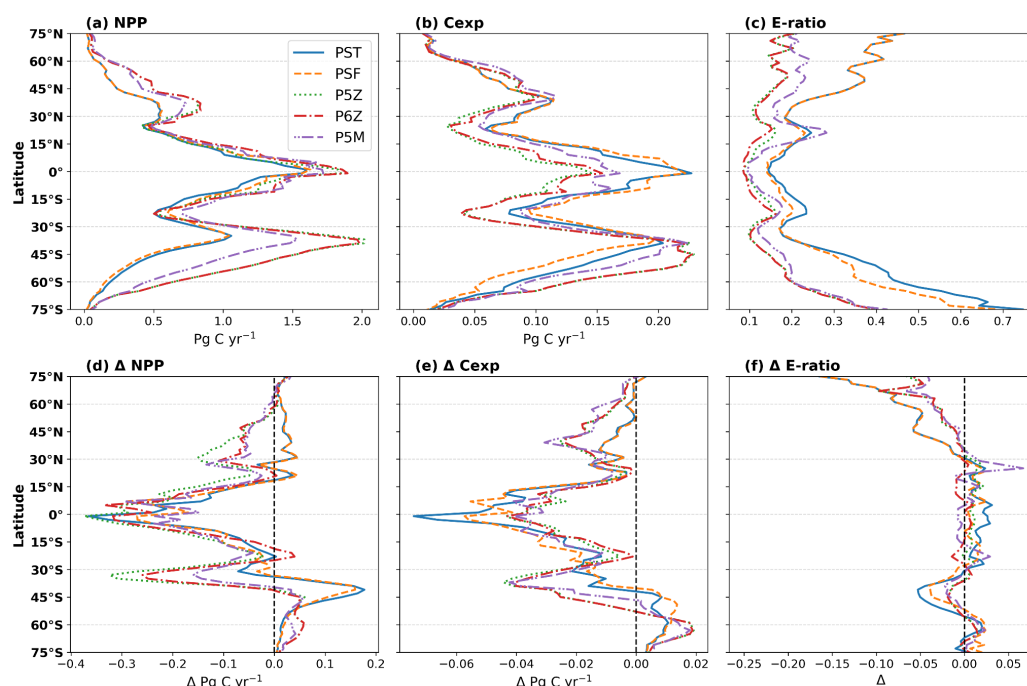


Figure 2: Top row shows zonally integrated (a) NPP and (b) C_{exp} , and the area-weighted mean (c) e-ratio for the reference period. The lower row (d-f) shows the respective changes in the future relative to the reference period.

Intramodel variability in NPP, C_{exp} , and e-ratio across the reference and future periods reflects both the direct effects of differing phytoplankton parameterisations (Tab. 1) and the cascading, top-down consequences of these choices. To interpret the latitudinal patterns in Fig. (2), it is necessary to examine how phytoplankton biomass responds within each configuration. Accordingly, Fig. (3) shows the reference and relative future changes in total phytoplankton biomass, grouped into small (SML) and large (LRG) phytoplankton to accommodate differences in PFT structure across configurations.

For the reference period (Fig. 3a-c), the spatial patterns and intramodel differences in small (Fig. 3a) and large (Fig. 3b) phytoplankton biomass closely parallel those of NPP (Fig. 2a) and C_{exp} (Fig. 2b). These patterns are expected and stem from the differing ecological functions and environmental sensitivities of small versus large phytoplankton in the model. Small phytoplankton



dominate most of the ocean ($LRG/SML < 1$; Fig. 3c) but contribute little to export because they remain in the surface layer, whereas large phytoplankton form larger, faster-sinking particles that disproportionately drive carbon export (Aumont et al., 2015). A striking feature is the substantially higher biomass of large phytoplankton (Fig. 3b) in P5M relative to the other configurations, particularly in the equatorial region and north of 30° N. Because P5M was specifically tuned to represent Mn and other co-limiting trace-metal effects in the Southern Ocean, its divergence elsewhere likely reflects model-specific tuning that produces unrealistic behaviour outside that region. This may also explain why P5M yields slightly higher global C_{exp} (Tab. 2) than the other Quota-based configurations.

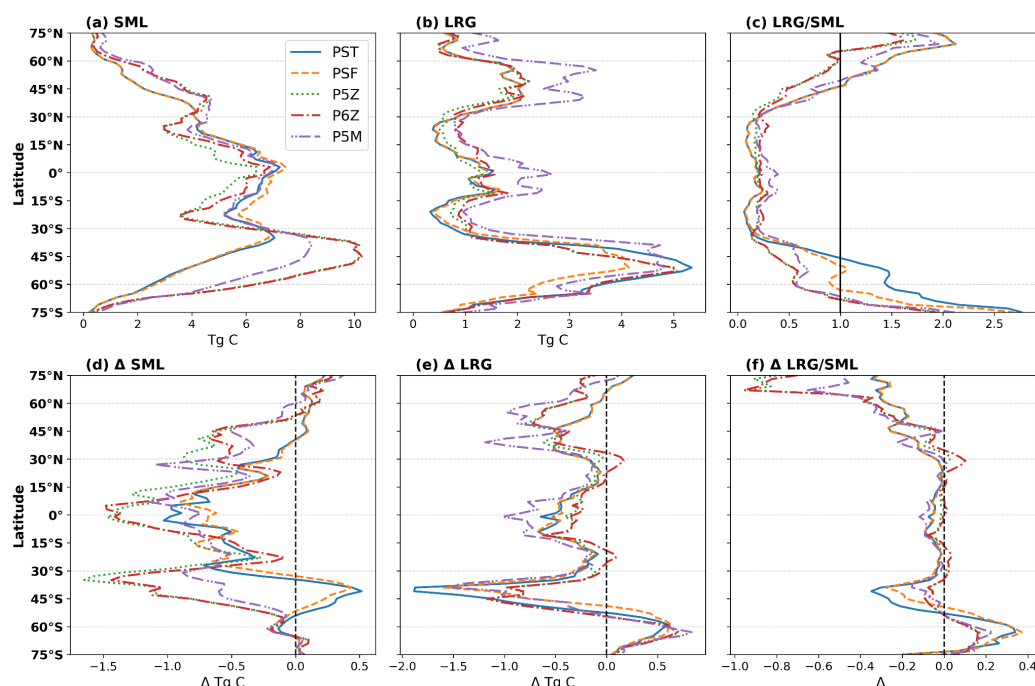


Figure 3: Top row shows zonally integrated (a) Small (SML) and (b) Large (LRG) phytoplankton biomass, and the area-weighted mean (c) LRG/SML ratio for the reference period. Across the different PISCES configurations, PST and PSF have two PFTs, whereas the Quota-based configurations incorporate three (P5Z and P5M) and four (P6Z). To enable a comparison of phytoplankton biomasses, PFTs were grouped into ‘small’ (nano-, pico- and N-fixers) and ‘large’ (diatoms) categories. The lower row (d-f) shows the respective changes in the future relative to the reference period.

Responding to future changes in marine environmental conditions, small and large phytoplankton show global declines of $7.88 \pm 2.97\%$ and $14.24 \pm 1.82\%$, respectively by 2100. Across configurations, the latitudinal patterns of future changes in small (Fig. 3d) and large (Fig. 3e) phytoplankton biomass broadly follow those of NPP and C_{exp} (Fig. 2d, e). Intramodel divergence is most pronounced for small phytoplankton (Fig. 3d). South of 30° S, PST and PSF show increasing small phytoplankton biomass toward higher latitudes, whereas the Quota-based configurations simulate the opposite trend. Around $\sim 40^\circ$ S this contrast is strongest, marking the clearest separation between the two model frameworks. North of 30° N, the configurations also diverge, with opposing latitudinal trends between 30 – 60° N. These differences likely stem from the contrasting phytoplankton complexity (i.e. the number of PFTs) and growth formulations across the



Monod-quota and Quota-based configurations, which strongly shape how small phytoplankton, and therefore NPP, respond to future environmental change.

Large phytoplankton show comparatively little intramodel variability (Fig. 3e), with all configurations exhibiting similar spatial patterns and future changes, differing mainly in magnitude. The largest deviations occur again in P5M outside the Southern Ocean, reflecting its anomalously high large phytoplankton biomass in the reference state (Fig. 3b). Overall, the LRG/SML ratio is projected to decline globally by $6.83 \pm 3.33\%$, with the largest absolute and relative changes occurring for PST and PSF, especially near $\sim 45^\circ$ and 60° S (Fig. 3f). A declining ratio indicates a shift towards proportionally more small phytoplankton at the global scale, although regional exceptions occur, most notably in parts of the Southern Ocean, where large phytoplankton become locally more dominant (Fig. 3f). Nevertheless, the concurrent global declines in both small and large phytoplankton biomass ultimately reduces future NPP and C_{exp} .

4. Discussion

4.1 Differences in phytoplankton parameterisations driving intramodel variability

Our results show that the more complex Quota-based configurations, which each include some combination of additional PFTs, a more detailed growth formulation, and expanded nutrient cycling, simulate a less efficient BCP than the simpler Monod-quota configurations for both the reference and future periods. For the reference period, the added complexity across the five PISCES configurations produces notable differences at both global (Tab. 2) and biome (Fig. 1) scales, most clearly in NPP. Intramodel variability in C_{exp} is smaller and appears mainly as an indirect consequence of differences in NPP rather than from explicit changes to export related parameterisations. Despite these differences, all configurations reproduce broadly similar large-scale patterns in NPP, C_{exp} , and the distribution of small and large phytoplankton for the reference period, with intramodel differences arising in the magnitude of these respective fields.

The more complex Quota-based configurations simulate higher global NPP than the Monod-quota configurations, but this increase does not translate uniformly into higher C_{exp} because the additional productivity is carried by small phytoplankton, which enhance upper-ocean biomass but contribute little to export. From Fig. (2b), export production is greater in PST and PSF between $\sim 20^\circ$ N/S, whereas outside these latitudes, particularly in the Southern Ocean, C_{exp} is highest in the Quota-based models. These contrasting, and in some regions contradictory, patterns in NPP and C_{exp} behaviour for the reference period between the configurations likely arise from top-down controls linked to the greater PFT complexity in the Quota-based configurations and its influence on zooplankton dynamics. These interactions also likely underpin the intramodel differences seen in the future projections of NPP and the BCP.

Between the standard model (Aumont et al., 2015) and PISCES-QUOTA, the two biggest updates are the representation of phytoplankton growth processes to use a quota-formulation and the addition of a dedicated picophytoplankton PFT (Kwiatkowski et al., 2018). Furthermore, the zooplankton feeding parameterisations are also adjusted. In the standard PST and PSF configurations, mesozooplankton feed on nanophytoplankton and diatoms, generating large sinking particles via faecal pellet production. In PISCES-QUOTA, however, picophytoplankton are grazed exclusively by microzooplankton rather than mesozooplankton. From this study, it is not possible to fully disentangle the respective contributions of the quota-based growth formulation and the inclusion of additional PFTs to variability in NPP and C_{exp} within the Quota-based configurations. The higher NPP simulated by these configurations (Tab. 2) is partly attributable to their explicit treatment of nitrogen assimilation costs as flexible stoichiometry reduces respiratory losses when



ammonium (NH_4^+) is available. This then yields higher effective growth rates than in the Monod-quota configurations, particularly in low latitudes and during summer at high latitudes. However, NPP differences between the Monod-quota and Quota-based configurations remain modest in low latitudes (Fig. 2a), whereas in polar regions, a clearer association emerges between elevated small phytoplankton biomass and enhanced NPP in the Quota-based configurations. Kwiatkowski et al. (2018) concluded that accounting for variable phytoplankton stoichiometry has a limited impact on the global carbon cycle such that the added PFT complexity is likely the primary parameterisation driving the divergence in behaviour between the Monod-quota and Quota-based configurations in our study.

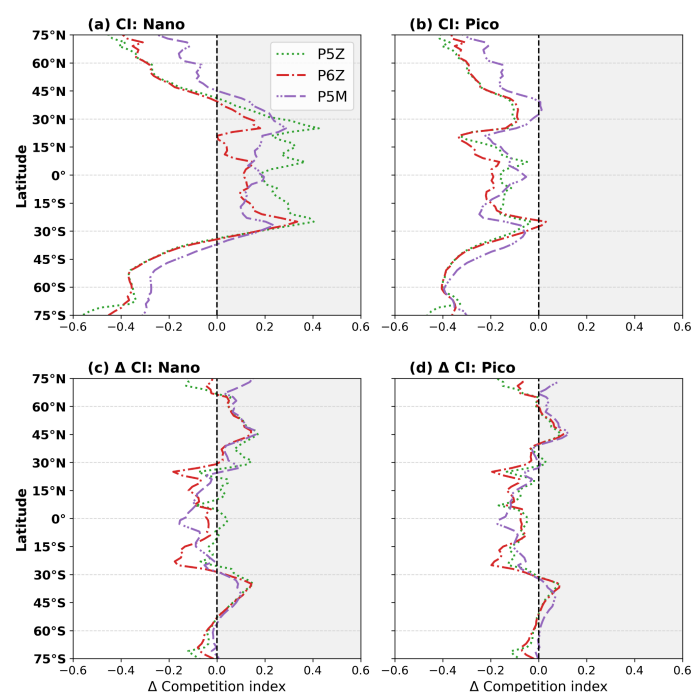


Figure 4: The competition index (CI) quantifies where the standard nanophytoplankton PFT (mean of PST and PSF) outperforms the nano- and picophytoplankton PFTs of the Quota-based configurations. CI is computed from the mean realised growth rates (μ) over the upper 100 m and defined as $\text{CI} = (\mu_1 - \mu_2) / (|\mu_1| + |\mu_2|)$, where μ_1 is the mean Monod-quota nano- PFT and μ_2 is either the nano- or picophytoplankton PFT from the Quota-based configurations. Positive values showcase regions where the nanophytoplankton PFT of the Monod-quota configurations outcompetes the nano- and/or picophytoplankton PFT of the Quota-based models. Panels show CI for the reference (a, b) period and future shifts (c, d).

The competition index (CI; Fig. 4a) shows that the single small nanophytoplankton PFT in the Monod-quota configurations outcompetes the nanophytoplankton PFT in the Quota-based configurations across the equatorial and lower-latitude regions, although it is consistently outcompeted by the picophytoplankton group across all regions (Fig. 4b). Splitting the small phytoplankton PFT of the standard model into two distinct PFTs in PISCES-QUOTA allows for greater ecosystem complexity and differentiation across environmental niches. For the open-ocean regions of the lower latitudes (0-30° N/S), picophytoplankton dominate, comprising 50-70% of total phytoplankton biomass for the reference period (Supp. 6). Consequently, relative to the Monod-quota configurations, nanophytoplankton biomass is smaller in the Quota-based configurations, but this reduction is offset by picophytoplankton biomass, leading to similar overall



471 NPP in the region. However, because mesozooplankton feed exclusively on nanophytoplankton and
472 diatoms, the reduced nanophytoplankton biomass in the Quota-based configurations limits their
473 food supply. This leads to lower mesozooplankton grazing rates (Supp. S7d) and a reduced
474 production of large sinking particles. This mechanistically explains why export production is higher
475 in the equatorial region in PST and PSF compared with the Quota-based configurations (Fig. 2b).

476 Outside of 30° N/S, the CI shows a shift in competitive behaviour, with the nanophytoplankton PFT
477 for the Quota-based configurations now outcompeting the single nanophytoplankton PFT of the
478 Monod-quota models (Fig. 4a). Because picophytoplankton already outcompete the Monod-quota
479 nano- PFT everywhere (Fig. 4b), this means that small phytoplankton as a whole can proliferate
480 more effectively in the Quota-based configurations beyond the tropics. This explains the higher
481 small phytoplankton biomass (Fig. 3a) and elevated NPP (Fig. 2a) in these regions. This pattern is
482 strongest in the Southern Ocean, where the Quota-based configurations show substantially higher
483 NPP and export production compared to PST and PSF. The elevated small phytoplankton biomass
484 fuels enhanced micro- and mesozooplankton grazing rates (Supp. S7c, d), enhancing export
485 production in the Southern Ocean (Fig. 2b) and this mechanism is consistent with the findings of
486 Laufkötter et al. (2013).

487 The mechanistic patterns identified in the reference period provide a critical foundation for
488 understanding why certain regions show stronger divergence than others in the future projections of
489 NPP and the BCP across the PISCES configurations. By 2100, our results show global NPP and
490 C_{exp} are projected to decline by $6.30 \pm 3.00\%$ and $12.94 \pm 1.65\%$, respectively, accompanied by a shift
491 towards dominance of small phytoplankton species. These findings align with previous modelling
492 studies (Bindoff et al., 2019), falling within the variability of the CMIP5 ensemble (Bopp et al.,
493 2013; Fu et al., 2016). The comparable magnitude of variability in NPP and C_{exp} (Tab. 2) indicates
494 that differences in parameterisations among the selected PISCES configurations likely encompass a
495 substantial portion of the intermodel spread in biogeochemical complexity observed across CMIP
496 models (Séférian et al., 2020), suggesting that much of the variability in CMIP may arise from
497 relatively subtle differences in the representation of phytoplankton growth processes and ecosystem
498 complexity.

499
500 Despite global future reductions in NPP and C_{exp} in response to shifting physical marine
501 environmental conditions, the e-ratio shows little to no significant change for the five PISCES
502 configurations, indicating that BCP efficiency is maintained relative to the reference period, but the
503 overall decline in carbon export reduces the ocean's capacity to sequester CO_2 from the atmosphere.
504 In Fig. (4c, d), the CI shows little change between the reference and future periods, indicating that
505 the relative competitive balance among PFTs remains largely unchanged. Consequently, the
506 Quota-based configurations continue to sustain higher absolute NPP in the future (Tab. 2) than the
507 Monod-quota configurations. However, they also maintain lower C_{exp} , reflecting persistent regional
508 differences in phytoplankton-zooplankton interactions (Supp. S7) that stem from the contrasting
509 levels of PFT complexity, particularly within the small phytoplankton community, across the
510 PISCES configurations.

511
512 Intramodel variability is greatest between 30–60° N/S for future projections of NPP and C_{exp} . Small
513 phytoplankton biomass increases from 30° S to a peak near ~40° S in the Monod-quota
514 configurations before weakening toward 60° S, whereas the Quota-based configurations show the
515 opposite latitudinal pattern, with both model families converging at ~60° S (Fig. 3d). NPP responds
516 accordingly, though the impact on C_{exp} is more muted. Under future changes in marine
517 environmental conditions, such as warmer SSTs and enhanced stratification, the simpler
518 Monod-quota models project an increase in small phytoplankton biomass, whereas the Quota-based
519 configurations project a decline in this region. This divergence arises from the added phytoplankton



complexity in the Quota-based configurations. By explicitly representing picophytoplankton, P5Z, P6Z, and P5M resolve a broader range of ecological niches. As marine environmental conditions shift, the response of picophytoplankton dominates the overall behaviour of the small phytoplankton community, leading to a decrease in biomass (Fig. 3d). In contrast, the single nanophytoplankton PFT in the Monod-quota models, being more generalised and arguably over-parameterised, responds differently and shows an increase for 30-60° S. A similar pattern emerges in the Northern Hemisphere, where both model families project an overall decline in small phytoplankton biomass but the latitude-dependent trends differ (Fig. 3d). Again, this reflects the distinct niche sensitivities of the picophytoplankton PFT in the Quota-based configurations versus the more simplified single nanophytoplankton PFT present in the Monod-quota configurations.

530

531 4.2 Complexity and the persistence of uncertainty

532

For both the reference and future periods, our results show that differences in biogeochemical parameterisations constitute a major axis of divergence across the five PISCES configurations. Importantly, not all parameterisations exert influence at the same scale. Some, such as the introduction of the picophytoplankton PFT in PISCES-QUOTA, generates substantial shifts in global NPP, which in turn leads to moderate but consistent differences in C_{exp} for both the reference and future periods relative to the Monod-quota configurations. Other parameterisations exert more limited effects, such as low-iron parameterisation in PSF, added diazotroph PFT in P6Z, and explicit manganese cycling for P5M, impacting phytoplankton growth rates or expanding phytoplankton complexity in ways that manifest significant differences in NPP and C_{exp} behaviour at the biome scale rather than globally. Together, our findings highlight that certain parameterisations fundamentally reshape model behaviour, whereas others provide more subtle or regionally confined refinements.

545

Added complexity in biogeochemical models is intended to improve the representation of marine ecosystem functioning. However, the current uncertainty ranges in remote-sensing estimates of global NPP and C_{exp} remain extremely large at 46.3% and 109.8%, respectively (Doney et al., 2024). As shown in Fig. (1), all five PISCES configurations fall well within the spectrum of remote-sensing estimates at the biome scale such that understanding whether the added complexity is improving representation of the marine system is difficult to discern. Although not the focus of the study, a skill assessment of the different configurations relative to the ensemble mean of the various remote-sensing NPP and C_{exp} datasets showed no clear or significant improvement in model skill with increasing model complexity for the reference period (Supp. S8). This raises an important point, one that is actively discussed within the modelling community, determining the optimal balance of model complexity, and the most effective combination of parameterisations, when utilising biogeochemical models for future projections of the carbon cycle and the BCP.

558

One may argue that more complex biogeochemical models permit more sources of error and degrees of freedom; however, Flynn (2010) makes the bold statement that models that ignore key biogeochemical processes are inherently dysfunctional. Especially for future projections beyond the extent of observations as the absence of process driven biogeochemical feedback will lead to compensating errors and large future uncertainties. Furthermore, one also needs to consider the computational expenses that accompany greater complexity as PISCES-QUOTA is far more costly to operate than the simpler standard model (Kwiatkowski et al., 2018). These *quid pro quos* preclude a single ‘best’ configuration, but they illuminate the key considerations when choosing among PISCES configurations of differing complexity. Finally, we tested these different configurations under the very strong climate forcing of the RCP8.5 scenario. Results may be different under weaker levels of global warming currently expected or strongly mitigated scenarios.



5. Conclusion

571

572 In this study, we used five distinct PISCES configurations of varying complexity that differ in their
573 number of PFTs, growth formulations, imposed nutrient limitations, and the representation of
574 nutrient cycling. We showed that these parameterisation differences alone can generate substantial
575 divergence and intramodel variability under the high emissions RSP8.5 scenario in projections of
576 the BCP, with NPP responding more sensitively than C_{exp} . Yet, despite these contrasts, all
577 configurations produce for the reference period NPP and C_{exp} magnitudes that fall within the broad
578 range of remote-sensing estimates, making it difficult to assess whether added complexity
579 unequivocally improves model realism. Moreover, the spread in future NPP and C_{exp} projections
580 across the PISCES configurations is comparable to that seen in the CMIP5 ensemble, suggesting
581 that relatively subtle differences in phytoplankton processes and their parameterisation may
582 underpin a substantial fraction of the intermodel variability in ESM projections.

583

584 The introduction of a picophytoplankton PFT in PISCES-QUOTA, and its presence in the other
585 Quota-based configurations, emerges as one of the most influential parameterisation choices,
586 producing higher global NPP yet slightly lower C_{exp} , and driving opposing future NPP responses
587 and latitudinal trends in C_{exp} between 30-60° N/S compared with the Monod-quota configurations.
588 Other parameterisations, such as the low-iron scheme in PSF, the added diazotroph PFT in P6Z, and
589 explicit manganese cycling in P5M, exert more modest, regionally confined effects, influencing
590 NPP and C_{exp} primarily at biome scales rather than driving large-scale divergence in model
591 behaviour. Finding that differing parameterisations produce contrasting model outputs is
592 unsurprising, but the nature of our study allowed us to identify which parameterisations generate
593 substantial intramodel variability and which exert only minimal influence. The discrete number of
594 configurations inevitably constrains our conclusions to parameterisations centred on phytoplankton
595 processes. Nevertheless, within the PISCES and broader ESM modelling community, this study
596 represents a novel contribution, highlighting how different configurations of a biogeochemical
597 model behave in projecting contemporary and future states of NPP and C_{exp} .

598

599

Code availability

601

602 The code to do the calculations and generate the main manuscript figures can be found at
603 https://github.com/RGRJON002/Complexity_in_Biogeochemical_Models_BCP_Rogerson.git

604

Data availability

606

607 The remote-sensing data products used in this study are publicly available. The BICEP NPP (<https://doi.org/10.3390/rs12050826>),
608 datasets of Ryan-Keogh *et al.* (2023) (<https://doi.org/10.5281/ZENODO.8314348>), and OSTIA SST
609 (<https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00168>) can be sourced from the links provided. Model outputs from the different PISCES
610 configurations are available either through direct correspondence with the respective lead authors or via the repository links provided
611 in their associated publications.

612

Author contributions

614

615 **Conceptualization:** JR, AT, MV, MG **Methodology:** JR, AT, AN, AO, MG **Formal analysis:** JR, AN **Writing-Original Draft:**
616 JR **Data curation:** JR, AT, LW, PA **Writing-Review & Editing:** JR, AT, MV, LW, PA, AO, MG **Funding acquisition:** MG

617

Competing interests

619

620 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest

621

Declaration of AI

623

624 No generative AI was used in the writing of this manuscript.

625

626



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636

637 6. References

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