

Natural iron fertilisation stimulates a carbonate counter pump in the Polar Frontal Zone

Iron (Fe) fertilisation of Southern Ocean high nutrient low chlorophyll (HNLC) waters increases biological productivity¹⁻³ and carbon export to subsurface^{2, 3} and deep waters³⁻⁵. The supply of Fe has been widely discussed as a mechanism to explain glacial atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) fluctuations⁶⁻⁸ and a potential strategy to mitigate climate warming. However, deep-ocean storage of atmospheric CO₂ depends on the rain ratio (organic to inorganic carbon) exported from the surface ocean⁹ and the response of major planktonic calcifiers to Fe enrichment is unknown. Here we show from particle analysis of sediment trap samples deployed in the polar frontal Zone that natural iron supply leads to excess (Fe-fertilized minus HNLC) particulate inorganic carbon (PIC) fluxes greater than the corresponding excess organic carbon fluxes. Resulting rain ratios are <1; a unique occurrence south of the Subantarctic Front. Our conservative estimates indicate that PIC fluxes reduce deep-ocean CO₂ storage by ~19% (6-43%), compared to ~2.9% (1-5%) in HNLC waters. Foraminifers are the dominant component of excess CaCO₃ fluxes (33-50%). Our data suggest that strengthening of the Subantarctic biological carbon pump, and its importance for CO₂ decline over the last glacial cycle, could be partially offset by an iron fertilized carbonate counter pump.

The biological carbon pump is the downward particulate flux of organic carbon (POC) from the surface to the deep-ocean¹⁰. Some of the POC is not remineralized in the winter mixed layer and sinks to depth driving a reduction in surface ocean partial pressure of carbon dioxide (pCO₂) that is compensated by oceanic uptake of atmospheric CO₂. The iron hypothesis⁶ suggests that increased iron supply to the nutrient-rich, but iron deficient Southern Ocean contributed towards the termination of glacial periods by enhancing phytoplankton growth and the biological carbon pump⁷. Recent studies of natural systems^{3,4} and artificial⁵ iron fertilisation experiments support this idea by demonstrating enhanced POC flux well below the mixed layer into the deep-ocean.

Counteracting the organic carbon pump in terms of its influence on air–sea CO₂ exchange is the carbonate counter pump¹¹. The precipitation of CaCO₃ shells by mainly coccolithophores, foraminifers (both calcite), and pteropods (aragonite), and the resulting particulate inorganic carbon (PIC) flux from the surface ocean, causes an increase in surface ocean pCO₂¹² on timescales shorter than approximately 100 years¹³. Due to these opposing effects, particle flux studies addressing deep-ocean CO₂ sequestration need to discriminate between organic (soft-tissue) and inorganic carbon, with a strong focus on a relationship formalized as the **rain ratio (POC:PIC)**⁹. Despite its obvious importance for atmospheric CO₂ the significance of CaCO₃ export has not been explicitly considered in studies of iron fertilisation in the Southern Ocean due to observations that organic carbon fluxes are primarily mediated by non-calcifying phytoplankton⁴⁻⁵. However, the calcifying heterotrophic foraminifers and pteropods are highly abundant in the Southern Ocean¹⁴ and can be a dominant component of PIC flux to the deep-ocean¹⁵.

We carried out measurements to characterise the dynamics of PIC export from a naturally iron-fertilised system in the Polar Frontal Zone (north of the Polar Front, south of the Sub-Antarctic Front) and quantify the carbonate counter pump. Sediment trap samples were analysed from three deployment locations. Two of the traps, [+Fe]M10-N and [+Fe]M5-NE, were deployed beneath an iron-enriched [+Fe] phytoplankton bloom area to the north and northeast of the Crozet Islands and the third, [HNLC]M6-S, in an iron-deplete high-nutrient low chlorophyll (HNLC) zone to the south³ (Supplementary Information 1).

Our measurements quantitatively partition PIC fluxes amongst coccolithophore, pteropod and foraminifer fractions, which to the best of our knowledge is the first attempt to do so in the Southern Ocean (Supplementary Information 2). We place particular emphasis on the species contributions of planktonic foraminifers because they are a dominant component of the CaCO₃ fraction (Fig. 1a). Novel morphometric particle analyses were carried out with a fully automated incident light microscope to generate a continuous dataset of test-size. Manual classification and enumeration of particles were combined with empirically determined CaCO₃ weights from the +Fe and HNLC regions to compute the contribution of individual species to total flux (Supplementary Methods).

We measured much larger annual fluxes of total, foraminifer, coccolithophore and pteropod-derived PIC to the deep ocean of 7-10, 9-10, 5-8, and 63-68 times higher, respectively at the +Fe sites when compared to HNLC waters (Fig. 1a, Table 1, Supplementary Information 3). Previous studies from the Crozet Islands indicate natural iron fertilisation enhances new production, seasonally integrated shallow

export, annually integrated deep-water POC flux, mega-faunal biomass, and core-top organic carbon accumulation, by a factor of 2-3^{3,16}. As a result of the disproportional response of PIC and POC fluxes to natural iron fertilization (Table 1) in the Polar Frontal Zone, deep-ocean rain ratios are reduced from 1.9 in HNLC waters to 0.6-0.8 at the +Fe sites (Fig 3b).

Annual carbon flux estimates from the iron-fertilized Crozet bloom were used to quantify the carbonate counter pump effect in reducing CO₂ drawdown⁹ to the ocean interior. To achieve this we account for (i) estimates of organic carbon flux at the base of the winter mixed layer (WML) (150-200m at the Crozet study site¹⁷), (ii) deep-ocean PIC flux as a conservative estimate of WML CaCO₃ production, and (iii) empirical determination of released CO₂: precipitated carbonate (Ψ)¹² ratios. The principal calcifying organisms comprising the measured PIC flux in our study area (Fig. 1b-d) are known to live, and by extension calcify, in the upper 50-200m of the water-column^{14,18,19}, i.e. above the ventilation depth, where they directly contribute to ocean-atmosphere CO₂ equilibrium. Vertical profiles of dissolved inorganic carbon and total alkalinity were used to calculate regional values of Ψ in the upper 200m of 0.77±0.02 (n=24) and 0.79±0.01 (n=16) at the iron-fertilized and HNLC sediment trap deployment locations (Supplementary Information 4).

The resulting formulations are expressed as the reduction of CO₂ drawdown at the base of the WML (Fig. 2a). Different estimates of WML POC export indicate that the carbonate counter pump effect ranges from 6-43% in the [+Fe] bloom region compared to 1-5% in the HNLC region. The ~15-40% reductions derived from POC fluxes measured in the deep-sediment trap are considered to be the most reliable

estimates since POC and PIC flux budgets are integrated over identical spatial and temporal scales. All of the estimates are conservative because they do not correct for CaCO₃ dissolution^{19,20} between the base of the WML and trap deployment depth (Supplementary Information 5). Consequently we may have underestimated the significance of an iron-fertilised carbonate counter pump in the Polar Frontal Zone.

Although there is some variability in the magnitude of our estimates, they consistently demonstrate that iron-fertilisation promotes the role of the carbonate-counter pump in mediating a reduction in deep-ocean CO₂ storage. This reflects the fact that excess ([Fe] minus [HNLC]) PIC fluxes resulting from iron fertilisation are considerably larger than the corresponding excess organic carbon fluxes. This is true of CaCO₃ production and flux for all calcifying plankton functional types (Fig. 1a, Table 1), although the relative distribution does not change significantly (Fig 2b). Heterotrophic calcifiers, notably foraminifers, account for 33-50% of annual budgets and are thus the most important contributor to deep-ocean CaCO₃ fluxes around the Crozet Plateau.

The seasonally integrated foraminifer test flux in [+Fe] waters is $0.8-1.3 \times 10^{-6}$ tests m⁻²; a 6-10 fold increase over HNLC fluxes (Supplementary Information 3). Iron supply modifies the occurrence and abundance of differently sized species (Fig. 1b-d). Although *N. pachyderma* (mean size \pm 1 s.d. = 166 ± 32 μ m) is the dominant foraminifer species at all sites, its relative abundance decreases from 68 to $36 \pm 5\%$ as a result of iron fertilization (Fig 2c). There are corresponding increases in the larger species *G. bulloides* (247 ± 62 μ m), *G. inflata* (337 ± 93 μ m), and *G. crassaformis* (353 ± 82 μ m) in addition to *T. quinqueloba* (172 ± 30 μ m). *Globorotalia inflata* and

G. crassaformis were less common and occurred primarily in association with initial export events in December and January (Fig. 1b-d). Their large size, representing mostly adult specimens, resulted in contributions reaching 50% of overall foraminifer-PIC fluxes at those specific times, although their overall contribution to annual fluxes was <10%. The fluxes of *G. bulloides* and *T. quinqueloba* were sustained throughout the entire export season and their contributions to annual foraminifer-CaCO₃ budgets were approximately double under iron supply i.e. 21 ± 1.2 vs. 9 and 10.7 ± 4.9 vs. 2.7% , respectively. Assemblage shifts towards species that have higher calcite mass per individual combine with simple increases in test abundance (Fig. 1) to enhance foraminifer-CaCO₃ fluxes and drive the observed patterns of species-specific contributions to the carbonate counter pump (Fig 2c).

The continuous dataset enabled us to compare assemblage size and calcification intensity (size-normalised weights; SNW)²¹ of foraminifer species (Supplementary Methods). No significant differences in assemblage size were observed in relation to flux from iron-fertilized productivity (Supplementary Information 6). At the most frequent size distributions, seasonal variability in SNWs was typically greater than regional differences (Supplementary Information 6). Approximately two-fold ranges in SNWs were observed for *G. bulloides* (~5-10 µg) and *N. pachyderma* (~2-4 µg) in both +Fe and HNLC waters at different times of year (Supplementary Information 6) and are possibly related to food supply, calcification depths and CO₂ concentrations. The variability in SNWs appears to be of minor importance for enhanced CaCO₃ fluxes when compared to the increases in foraminifer test abundance (6-10 fold) and shifts in species composition systematically linked to iron fertilisation.

The geographical location of the iron-fertilized Crozet bloom is of some significance concerning the role of iron in promoting carbonate-counter pump effects. The northernmost extent of the bloom is bound by the Subantarctic Front (Supplementary Information 1); a boundary that marks a geochemical transition towards carbonate-dominated production^{22,23} (Supplementary Information 7). Temperature and salinity data however indicate limited cross frontal exchange and influence of SAZ waters within the bloom area¹⁷. To validate our dataset we analysed the geochemical signatures of all published estimates of annual export in the Southern Ocean (Fig 3, Supplementary Information 8). The POC:PIC ratio from HNLC waters south of Crozet is comparable to other measurements in the same frontal region. However, the combined geochemical signature of Si:PIC ratios >1 (diatom-dominated production) and POC:PIC ratios <1 measured from the Crozet bloom is a uniquely consistent feature of Polar Frontal Zone iron fertilisation. Strengthening of the carbonate counter pump north of the Crozet Plateau thus occurs due to enhancement of CaCO₃ production and flux in response to iron fertilization, rather than a shift from silicate dominated production characteristic of the Subantarctic Zone^{22,23}.

Although characteristic of the PFZ in general, the Si:PIC ratios in the HNLC area are notably higher than those in the [+Fe] regime [Figure 3b]. The Si:PIC ratios at the iron fertilized site [2.6±0.6 (n=3)] are significantly lower (P<0.005; two-tailed t-test) than at the unfertilized HNLC site [11±2.2 (n=3)] (Supplementary Methods). The iron-limited PFZ is characterised by the production of large heavily silicified diatom species resistant to grazing and the resulting flux of their empty frustules⁴. Consequently biogenic SiO₂ fluxes are similar in both [+Fe] and HNLC environments⁴. The observable decrease in deep-ocean POC:PIC ratios resulting

from iron fertilization in the PFZ appears to be primarily attributable to an increase in PIC fluxes, relative to both POC and SiO₂

Heterotrophic CaCO₃ producers, notably foraminifer, are the dominant contributor towards the carbonate counter pump (Fig 2b). The planktonic foraminifer assemblages in our samples are typical species of sediments underlying the Sub Antarctic Front (SAF) to Antarctic Polar Front (APF) during the late Pleistocene and Holocene¹⁸. It is conceivable therefore that iron-fertilization north of the Polar Front affected deep-ocean rain ratios in the manner proposed here over glacial-interglacial cycles.

Changes in Southern Ocean organic carbon export upon iron fertilization have been evoked to explain ~40 ppm of the CO₂ decline occurring over the last glacial maximum^{24,25}. Sedimentary records provide evidence that increases in nutrient utilisation and export occurred in the Subantarctic Southern Ocean^{26,27} and have been linked to alteration of Aeolian iron supply^{28,29}. Our data suggests that under a scenario of glacial iron fertilization, strengthening of the carbonate counter pump in the Subantarctic may have accompanied increases in organic carbon export. Understanding the response of inorganic carbon flux to iron supply in this region is therefore necessary to fully elucidate the role of the biological carbon pump in glacial CO₂ drawdown. The dominant but variable response of foraminifer species to iron fertilised production provides a strong rationale for quantifying CaCO₃ fluxes at the species level. It is only with such detailed approaches that we can hope to advance our understanding of the complex interactions between ocean biota and climate.

Method Summary

Sediment traps. Traps were McLane 21-cup time-series arrays deployed on bottom-tethered moorings^{3,4}. The traps all functioned well in the water-column (supplementary information). Although unusual, the punctuated flux pattern at [HNLC]M6-S was identical to two additional annual flux profiles South of the Plateau (Supplementary Methods).

Foraminifer and pteropod CaCO₃: Samples were dry split according to the number of particles present (1/1 to 1/32, but generally 1/8 splits) with the exception of larger particles (>400µm), which were removed and weighed separately to avoid splitting uncertainty. Particle analyses were carried out with a fully automated incident light microscope system. Particles were manually classified and counted from the digital images and verified directly from the samples if necessary. Planktonic foraminifer test calcite mass is determined for each sampling interval of each sediment trap, and for each species, and test size fraction. Pteropods of the three species *Limacina inflata*, *Limacina retroversa*, and *Limacina helicina* were counted from the 63-100 µm and >100-µm size fractions or referred to as pteropod fragments if no classification was possible. Whole pteropod shells and fragments from the >100-µm size fraction were weighed with a microbalance to directly determine their CaCO₃ (aragonite) mass. To determine the aragonite weight of pteropods >400 µm the entire assemblage was weighed, i.e., all species and fragments together (Supplementary Methods).

Total and fine-fraction CaCO₃

Total particulate CaCO₃ was determined on freeze-dried sediments using a Carlo-Erba NA-1500 elemental analyser. Inorganic carbon was determined following the removal organic carbon by direct acidification and converted to CaCO₃. Coccolithophore-CaCO₃ fluxes were estimated from the determination of fine-

fraction carbonate weights in the <63 µm and 63-20 µm fractions²⁹. A 1/80 aliquot was wet-sieved over a 20µm mesh and the two size-fractions filtered on 0.4 polycarbonate membranes. The filters and particulate material were leached in 10 ml 1% HNO₃ solution and calcium content of the samples determined by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES). Further details can be found in Supplementary Methods.

Carbon drawdown reduction: Reduction of carbon dioxide drawdown was calculated from the expression: $(1 - \{[(FPOC_{WML}) - (FPIC_{WML} * \psi)] / (FPOC_{WML})\}) * 100$, where $FPOC_{WML}$ is POC flux at the winter mixed layer depth, $FPIC_{WML}$ are particulate inorganic carbon fluxes calculated from foraminifer (>63 µm), pteropod (>63 µm), coccolithophore (<20/20-63µm) or total, CaCO₃ measurements, and ψ is released CO₂:precipitated carbonate ratio¹². The CaCO₃ fluxes measured at the sediment trap deployment depths of 2000-3195m were taken as a minimum estimate of the CaCO₃ fluxes at the base of the winter mixed layer and converted into molar inorganic carbon (PIC) fluxes. We determined ψ values based on the mixed layer inventories of dissolved inorganic carbon and total alkalinity at the sediment trap deployment locations (Supplementary Information 4). Particulate organic carbon (POC) fluxes measured at the sediment trap deployment depth were normalised to the base of the winter mixed layer (200m) using the expression : $F_d = F_{WML} (WML/d)^{-b}$, where F_d is the flux at the sediment trap deployment depth, F_{WML} is the flux at the winter mixed layer depth WML), d is the sediment trap deployment depth, and the exponent b characterises the attenuation of flux with depth. Under the constant remineralisation scenario a b -value of 0.85 was used for all three sites and for the regionally variable scenario a b -value of 0.5 was used at M10[+Fe]-N and M5[+Fe]-NE and a b -value of 1.3 at M6[HNLCL]-S³⁰.

Tables and Figure Captions

Figure 1 | Annual and seasonal inorganic carbon (CaCO₃) fluxes (a) Annual inorganic carbon fluxes of total, fine fraction(<20µm) coccolith, 20-63µm, foraminifer calcite and pteropod aragonite at the M10[+Fe]-N (352 days), M5[+Fe]-NE (357 days), M6[-Fe]-S (363 days) sediment trap deployment locations (Supplementary Information S1) (b-d) Seasonality of inorganic carbon fluxes in foraminifera and pteropod categories. Time-series fluxes (mmol m⁻² int.⁻¹) in (b-d) are integrated over the sediment trap cup sampling interval and centred on the interval mid-point (Supplementary Information 3). Absence of bars corresponds to periods of negligible mass flux. The sample cups in which foraminifer species analyses were conducted account for 98-99% of total annual CaCO₃ fluxes (Supplementary Information 3).

Figure 2 | Impact of carbonate counter pump (CCP) and the contribution of CaCO₃ fractions and foraminifer species in reducing deep-ocean CO₂ storage. (a) The reduction in deep-ocean CO₂ storage calculated from different methodological estimates of POC export beyond the ventilation depth. Sediment trap (Sed. Trap) estimates are annual deep-ocean POC fluxes extrapolated to regional winter mixed layers^{3,17} using either constant^{3,28} or bloom/HNLC²⁹-variable POC attenuation co-efficient (Methods). Dissolved inorganic carbon estimates are based on seasonal drawdown³⁰ and mixed layer remineralisation rates of 90% or 75% (Supplementary Information 4). ²³⁴Th are based on seasonal estimates extrapolated to 150 and 200m³. The relative contributions of CaCO₃ fractions (b) and foraminifer species within foraminifer fraction (c) to the carbonate counter pump.

Figure 3 | Comparison of particulate geochemical signatures comprising Southern Ocean Flux. (a) Map showing sediment trap deployment locations in relation to Southern Ocean Fronts and sea-ice extent (Supplementary Information 8). SAF- Subantarctic Front, PF-Polar Front, SAZ-Subantarctic Zone, PFZ-Polar Frontal Zone, POOZ-Permanently Open Ocean Zone, SIZ-Seasonal Ice Zone (b) POC:PIC ratios of annual flux compared to Si:PIC ratios. Dashed lines mark unity. PFZ[+Fe] and PFZ[HNLC] correspond to the M10[+Fe]-N;M5[+Fe]-NE and (357 days), M6[HNLC]-S sediment trap fluxes around the Crozet Plateau (this study).

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Supplementary Information is linked to the online version of the paper at www.nature.com/nature.

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Author contributions I.S. formulated the idea and together with R.S. designed the analytical approach. I.S. wrote the manuscript with all co-authors commenting. I.S. and R.S. performed all preparation and classification measurements on the foraminifer and pteropod fractions. A.M. measured calcite and aragonite mass of individual tests and R.S. and I.S. synthesised data. P.Z. performed ICP-AES measurements on the fine-fraction. I.S. performed all bulk chemical analyses. G.A.W. and R.S.L. provided access to the sediment trap samples collected during the Benthic Crozet and CROZeX research programmes, respectively. All co-authors contributed to the manuscript.

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Table 1. Excess fluxes at [Fe] and [HNLC] sites

	C _{org} Total	C _{inorg} Total	C _{inorg} Foram	C _{inorg} Pteropod	C _{inorg} <20 µm
Excess Fluxes^{1,*}	24-27	39-57	13-19	1.8-2.0	6.9-7.0
Increase^{2,*}	~3	7-10	6-8	63-68	~9

¹Excess fluxes in mmol m⁻² yr⁻¹ calculated as [+Fe] – [HNLC] annual fluxes

²Factoral increase, calculated as [+Fe] / [HNLC]

*Calculated as difference between [+Fe] and [HNLC] annual fluxes

















