Responses of coccolithophores to ocean acidification: a meta-analysis

J. Meyer* and U. Riebesell

(GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Germany)

*Judith Meyer, e-mail: jumeyer@geomar.de

1 Abstract

2 Concerning their sensitivity to ocean acidification, coccolithophores, a group of calcifying single-celled phytoplankton, are one of the best-studied groups of marine organisms. 3 4 However, in spite of the large number of studies investigating coccolithophore physiological responses to ocean acidification, uncertainties still remain due to variable and partly 5 6 contradictory results. In the present study we have used all existing data in a meta-analysis to 7 estimate the effect size of future pCO₂ changes on the rates of calcification and 8 photosynthesis and the ratio of particulate inorganic to organic carbon (PIC/POC) in different 9 coccolithophore species. Our results indicate that ocean acidification has a negative effect on 10 calcification and the cellular PIC/POC ratio in the most abundant coccolithophore species Emiliania huxleyi and Gephyrocapsa oceanica. In contrast the more heavily calcified species 11 Coccolithus braarudii did not show a distinct response when exposed to elevated 12 13 pCO₂/reduced pH. Photosynthesis in *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* was positively affected by high CO₂, while no effect was observed for the other coccolithophore species. There was no 14 15 indication that the method of carbonate chemistry manipulation was responsible for the 16 inconsistent results regarding observed responses in calcification and the PIC/POC ratio. The perturbation method, however, appears to affect photosynthesis, as responses varied 17 18 significantly between total alkalinity (TA) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) 19 manipulations. These results emphasize that coccolithophore species respond differently to 20 ocean acidification, both in terms of calcification and photosynthesis. Where negative effects 21 occur, they become evident at CO₂ levels in the range projected for this century in case of 22 unabated CO₂ emissions. As the data sets used in this meta-analysis do not account for 23 adaptive responses, ecological fitness and ecosystem interactions, the questions remains how 24 these physiological responses play out in the natural environment.

26 **1. Introduction**

27 Coccolithophores, a globally distributed group of marine haptophytes, are major primary producers in the ocean and the most prolific calcifying organisms on our planet (Brownlee & 28 29 Taylor, 2004; Shutler et al., 2010). By performing photosynthesis and calcification, they contribute to both biological carbon pumps, the soft tissue pump and the carbonate-counter 30 31 pump. While the former supports carbon sequestration in the ocean through production and 32 sinking of organic matter to depth, the latter decreases the ocean's capacity to take up CO₂ due to the reduction of surface layer alkalinity. Moreover, by providing ballast material, 33 which accelerates sinking velocities of organic particles to depth, coccolithophore-derived 34 35 calcite contributes to enhancing carbon sequestration to depth (Klaas & Archer, 2002; Armstrong et al., 2002; Ziveri et al., 2007). Thus, changes in the contribution of 36 37 coccolithophores to ocean primary production could potentially impact global carbon cycling 38 (Riebesell et al., 2009).

39

40 In the face of global change phytoplankton are subjected to rapid alterations in their 41 environmental conditions. Due to the sensitivity of calcification to ocean acidification, 42 coccolithophores are considered to be among those, which may be adversely affected in a high CO₂ future ocean. While impacts of ocean acidification on coccolithophores have been 43 44 studied extensively (for review see e.g. Riebesell & Tortell, 2011), variable and partly conflicting responses were observed in different perturbation studies (for a summary see 45 46 Tables 1 and 2). Differences in experimental conditions, such as in light intensity, 47 temperature, salinity, nutrient concentration and pCO_2 levels have been attributed as possible 48 causes for those variations. But even studies with comparable experimental conditions 49 provided deviating responses of coccolithophores. Some of this divergence was shown to be 50 related to species- and strain-specific differences (Langer et al., 2006, 2009). But also the 51 method of carbonate chemistry manipulation, whether through changes in total alkalinity 52 (TA) or dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), was discussed as possible cause for some of the 53 observed discrepancies (Iglesias-Rodriguez et al., 2008; Shi et al., 2009).

54

55 Building on the extensive literature on coccolithophore responses to ocean acidification, the 56 present study aims to provide statistically and methodologically robust estimates for those 57 responses. In particular, we intend to answer the question whether increasing seawater acidity 58 alters calcification, photosynthesis and the PIC to POC ratio in acclimated cultures of 59 coccolithophores. We further assess whether the observed responses are affected by the 60 carbonate chemistry manipulation method and if they differ between coccolithophore species, 61 thus trying to address some of the inconsistencies in the existing studies. Recent metaanalyses conducted by Kroeker et al. (2010, 2013) and Hendriks et al. (2010) did not 62 63 specifically focus on coccolithophores but analyzed responses of many different taxa to ocean acidification. Although coccolithophores were included in those meta-analyses, only a few 64 65 experiments (Kroeker et al., 2010: 13 experiments, Hendriks et al., 2010: 2 experiments for 66 calcification responses, 12 experiments for photosynthetic responses, Kroeker et al., 2013: 19 67 experiments) were considered and no distinction was made between different coccolithophore 68 species. The meta-analysis by Findlay et al. (2011) focused on *Emiliania huxleyi*, but only 69 investigated the species' PIC/POC response to ocean acidification (15 experiments were 70 included in the analysis). In our approach a larger set of experiments and response variables 71 was analyzed, allowing for a more robust prediction of the impact of ocean acidification and 72 related changes in seawater chemistry on coccolithophore physiological performance.

- 74
- 75

76 2. Materials and Methods

77 **2.1 Literature search**

78 A literature search was conducted to assemble all published data sets on CO₂/pH sensitivities 79 of coccolithophore calcification and photosynthesis. As a first step the ISI database Web of Science (www.webofknowledge.com) was scanned for appropriate studies. Additional 80 81 literature was obtained from the EPOCA (European Project on OCean Acidification) database 82 (www.epoca-project.eu) and from the associated blog 83 (www.oceanacidification.wordpress.com). Subsequently, the reference lists of all studies identified by this approach were scanned for other relevant literature. 84

Experimental data were extracted directly from the published papers or, if not reported therein, from the PANGEA[®] archive (www.pangaea.de). If the information could not be retrieved from either source, the first author of the study was contacted directly.

88

89 **2.2 Data selection**

90 All studies in which the carbonate system was altered and the effect on coccolithophores 91 reported, comprising both laboratory and field experiments, were selected for this meta-92 analysis. Studies that varied other environmental factors in addition to seawater carbonate 93 chemistry, such as light intensity, day length, temperature or nutrient availability, were also 94 incorporated. Data of particulate inorganic (PIC) and organic carbon (POC) production rates, 95 *p*H values, carbonate system parameters and experimental conditions (light level, day length, temperature, nutrients) were obtained for the control (ambient or pre-industrial pCO_2 level) 96 97 and the experimental treatments (elevated pCO_2 level). If PIC and POC were provided as quota values on a per-cell basis, production rates were calculated by multiplying the growth 98 99 rates (μ) with the cell quota of organic or inorganic carbon.

- 100 The following *p*CO₂ levels were chosen to compare the responses of *Emiliania huxleyi* to pre-
- 101 industrial carbon dioxide concentrations of ~ 280 parts per million (ppm):
- 102 (1) ~ 380 ppm reflecting the present day pCO_2 level,
- 103 (2) \sim 780 ppm the *p*CO₂ level projected for the end of this century under the SRES A1B 104 scenario, IPCC Report 2000 (Nakicenovic et al., 2000), and
- 105 (3) ~ 1000 ppm the pCO_2 level projected for the end of the century under the 'worst case' 106 emission scenario A1FI, IPCC Report 2000 (Nakicenovic et al., 2000).
- Since there was not a sufficient number of studies investigating the responses of *Coccolithus braarudii* and *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* at pCO_2 levels around 780 ppm, only concentrations of ~ 380 ppm and ~ 1000 ppm were used to compare the responses of these species. All experiments where the pCO_2 levels deviated no more than \pm 50 ppm from the targeted 380 ppm and no more than \pm 100 ppm from the targeted 780 ppm and 1000 ppm were included in the analysis. Since the studies by Lefebvre et al. (2012) and Jones et al. (2013) did not meet these specifications, they were excluded from the meta-analysis.
- 114

115 Manipulation of the seawater carbonate chemistry can be achieved in various ways. First, the 116 carbonate system can be adjusted by bubbling with CO_2 . This approach increases $[CO_2]$, $[HCO_3]$ and DIC, decreases pH and $[CO_3^2]$ and does not change the alkalinity. Second, acid 117 can be added, which increases $[CO_2]$ and $[HCO_3]$, decreases the alkalinity and $[CO_3^2]$ and 118 119 does not change DIC. In both manipulations the saturation state (Ω) decreases as well. 120 Although there are other ways to adjust the carbonate system, the above-mentioned methods 121 are the ones most commonly used. It was noted which manipulation method was applied to 122 decrease the pH in each study. Subsequently, a separate meta-analysis was conducted in order 123 to analyze whether responses of coccolithophores varied between the methods. Here, only responses to a pCO_2 elevation from pre-industrial levels to 780 ppm and 1000 ppm were included in the analysis. On this basis 22 experiments were excluded.

When studies reported results from multiple carbonate system perturbation experiments, all individual experiments were included in the analysis. The same applied when there were different experiments with various species or strains.

129 If not only the carbonate system, but also other factors such as light intensity or day length 130 were changed in a study, the approach of Kroeker et al. (2010) was adopted and the ambient 131 level of the factor, defined by the authors of the primary study, was used to ensure the 132 comparability between the experiments. If the observed responses of a study did not differ 133 significantly for the ambient and non-ambient levels of a given environmental factor (always 134 regarding the same pCO_2 value), both experiments were included.

The data on PIC and POC production obtained by Iglesias-Rodriguez et al. (2008) were normalized to POC biomass, following the approach suggested by Riebesell et al. (2008). Data shown in Table 1 represent the original measurements reported by Iglesias-Rodriguez et al. (2008) prior to normalization. Müller et al. (2010) did not report PIC and POC production rates in their study, since the sampling time for those data varied and created a bias in the data. By averaging the PIC and POC production rates over time, the bias was minimized and the data were suitable to be included in this meta-analysis.

142

143 **2.3 Data analysis**

144 Determining differences between the control and treatment groups in response to changes in 145 carbonate chemistry was the first step in our analysis. For this purpose the logarithmically 146 transformed response ratio (L) was calculated for each experiment and response variable 147 (PIC, POC and PIC/POC) as:

149
$$L = \ln(RR) = \ln(\overline{X}_E) - \ln(\overline{X}_C)$$
(1)

where \overline{X} is the mean of a treatment (E) and a control (C) group. The response ratio is 151 152 logarithmically transformed and unit-less, thus allowing a comparison of data between 153 experiments, which report responses in different units. The effect size is an easy measure of 154 relative change between the control and the treatment group. When L < 0, the effect of 155 acidification in the treatment group is negative and when L > 0, the effect is positive. A 156 response ratio of zero indicates that there is no effect and that the responses in the control and 157 treatment group are the same. Since not all studies are equally precise, meaning that they are 158 based on different numbers of replicates and variable standard deviations, the simple 159 computation of the mean effect sizes is not to be recommended. Instead, a weighted mean is 160 computed where more precise studies are given more weight.

161 This meta-analysis of the response ratios follows the approach of Hedges et al. (1999) with a 162 few variations when weighting the effect sizes. A random effects model was used where the 163 assumption is made that the effect of ocean acidification varies between studies (Borenstein et 164 al., 2010). For example, the effect size might differ between strains or it might turn out 165 significant if the response was measured more reliably or if the incubation time was longer. 166 The random effects model accounts for this variation and includes the within-study variance (v_i) as well as the between study variance (σ_{λ}^2) when calculating the mean effect for 167 168 the response variables. Statistical significance for all effect sizes is displayed by the 95% 169 confidence interval. The effect size is considered to be significant ($\alpha = 0.05$), when the 170 confidence intervals do not overlap zero.

171 Traditionally, when studies report means, standard deviation, and sample size for both the 172 control and treatment groups, a weighted meta-analysis is possible and the variance (v_i) within 173 the experiment *i* can be calculated. Consequently, studies with a higher number of replicates

174 and lower variance are weighted more heavily, which results in a more robust meta-analysis 175 where the estimate of the effect size is more precise than in unweighted meta-analyses (Hedges & Olkin, 1985). Some of the data required for a weighted meta-analysis, however, 176 177 were not available for some studies. In those cases v_i was estimated as the average of the computed variances from those experiments where v_i was calculable. In this way it was 178 179 possible to include all studies in the meta-analysis. Using the variance v_i and the mean of the 180 response ratio L_i for each experiment *i*, Cochran's Q (Cochran, 1954) was computed. With the 181 help of Q an estimate of the between experiment variance (σ^2) was obtained (Hedges et al., 1999). The weighted mean of the log response ratio $\overline{L^*}$ is given by: 182

183
$$\overline{L^*} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i^* L_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i^*}$$
(2)

184 where *k* is the number of studies and $w_i = 1/(v_i + \sigma_{\lambda}^2)$.

Subsequently, the standard error of the weighted mean was estimated (see Eq. 7 in Hedges et
al., 1999) and the confidence intervals were calculated. For all calculations Microsoft Excel ®
2008 was used.

A normal distribution of the mean response ratio was assumed. As described in Hedges
et al. (1999), this assumption can be made, because the single response ratios are normally
distributed as well.

191

192 **2.3.1 Identifying heterogeneity**

193 A test for heterogeneity in effect sizes was performed based on the Q-statistic. 194 Q approximately follows the chi-squared distribution with k degrees of freedom. The Null 195 hypothesis of homogeneity among the effects of different experiments is rejected if Q exceeds 196 the 95 % quantile of the distribution. Heterogeneity results in a positive estimate for the 197 between experiments variance σ^2_{λ} , which leads to a larger total variation, that is the sum of 198 the within and between experiment variance. Consequently, larger standard errors as well as 199 wider confidence intervals for the effect size are computed from the weighted variances.

200

3. Results

202 23 studies were obtained from the literature, summarized in Tables 1 and 2. A total of 48
203 single experiments, which met the above-mentioned criteria, were extracted from these
204 studies to be included in this meta-analysis.

205 The carbonate chemistry perturbation experiments examining responses of *Emiliania huxleyi* 206 are depicted in Table 1. A total of 19 studies dealt with the responses of 14 different strains to 207 ocean acidification. In most experiments, strains of Emiliania huxleyi showed reduced 208 calcification rates with increased pCO_2 concentrations (Barcelos e Ramos et al., 2010; De 209 Bodt et al., 2010; Delille et al., 2005; Engel et al., 2005; Feng et al., 2008; Gao et al., 2009; 210 Hoppe et al., 2011; Langer et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2010; Riebesell et al., 2000; Rokitta & 211 Rost, 2012; Sciandra et al., 2003; Shi et al., 2009; Wuori, 2012; Zondervan et al., 2002). In 212 other experiments some strains showed an optimum curve in response to increasing pCO₂ 213 (Bach et al., 2011; Langer et al., 2009), no significant response (Langer et al., 2009; Richier et 214 al., 2011) or increased calcification rates (Fiorini et al., 2011; Iglesias-Rodriguez et al., 2008; 215 Shi et al., 2009).

Photosynthetic responses were more diverse. In six experiments no response was observed (De Bodt et al., 2010; Delille et al., 2005; Engel et al., 2005; Feng et al., 2008; Fiorini et al., 2011; Hoppe et al., 2011; Müller et al., 2010; Richier et al., 2011), while in another six experiments the POC production increased in response to elevated pCO₂ (Barcelos e Ramos et al., 2010; Hoppe et al., 2011; Iglesias-Rodriguez et al., 2008; Riebesell et al., 2000; Rokitta & Rost, 2012; Shi et al., 2009; Wuori, 2012; Zondervan et al., 2002). Five experiments showed decreasing photosynthesis rates (Bach et al., 2011; Langer et al., 2009; Sciandra et al., 2003; Shi et al., 2009), whereas in three experiments an optimum curve was obtained (Gao etal., 2009, Langer et al., 2009).

225 The observed PIC/POC ratios are more homogeneous across experiments with most of them 226 decreasing with increased pCO_2 (Bach et al., 2011; Barcelos e Ramos et al., 2010; De Bodt et al., 2010; Delille et al., 2005; Engel et al., 2005; Feng et al., 2008; Gao et al., 2009; Hoppe et 227 228 al., 2011; Langer et al., 2009; Müller et al., 2010; Riebesell et al., 2000; Rokitta & Rost et al., 229 2012; Shi et al., 2009; Wuori, 2012; Zondervan et al., 2002). Only in four experiments the 230 PIC/POC ratio did not change with increasing pCO₂ (Iglesias-Rodriguez et al., 2008; Langer 231 et al., 2009; Richier et al., 2011; Sciandra et al., 2003) and in one an increase was observed 232 (Fiorini et al., 2011)

233 Experiments with other coccolithophore species also revealed varying responses (Table 2). Of 234 the four experiments with Coccolithus braarudii, two observed a decrease in PIC production 235 with increased CO₂ levels (Krug et al., 2011; Müller et al., 2010), whereas one observed no 236 response (Langer et al., 2006) and the other a slight increase in the calcification rate (Rickaby 237 et al., 2010). The POC production rates varied just as much and increased in two experiments 238 (Rickaby et al., 2010; Müller et al., 2010), while they did not change significantly in another 239 experiment (Langer et al., 2006). In a fourth experiment a non-linear response was observed 240 (Krug et al., 2011).

In two experiments conducted with *Gephyrocapsa oceanica*, the calcification rates decreased (Riebesell et al., 2000) or did not change significantly (Rickaby et al., 2010) with increasing pCO_2 , whereas photosynthetic carbon fixation increased in one experiment (Riebesell et al., 2000) and showed an optimum curve in the other one (Rickaby et al., 2010). The PIC/POC ratio declined in both experiments.

In a fourth coccolithophore species, *Calcidiscus leptoporus*, the calcification response was non-linear in two studies (Langer et al., 2006, Langer & Bode, 2011) and did not change in another (Fiorini et al., 2011), while the photosynthesis rate remained constant over the tested
CO₂ range (Fiorini et al., 2011, Langer et al., 2006, Langer & Bode, 2011).

250

251 **3.1 Effect of ocean acidification on calcification responses**

252 The meta-analysis of calcification responses to elevated CO₂ concentrations revealed different 253 results between the examined species (Figure 1). Increasing CO₂ concentrations from pre-254 industrial to present day levels had no significant effect on calcification in *Emiliania huxleyi* 255 $(\ln RR = -0.004)$. In contrast, the effect of near future CO₂ concentrations under both the 256 'business as usual' and the 'worst case' scenario had significant negative effects on 257 calcification in this species. This negative effect was more pronounced at 1000 ppm compared 258 to 780 ppm (780 ppm: $\ln RR = -0.19$, confidence interval = -0.07 to -0.30; 1000 ppm: $\ln RR = -$ 259 0.38, confidence interval = -0.08 to -0.67).

In *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* an increase from preindustrial to present day CO_2 concentrations had a slightly negative but non-significant effect on calcification. Projected future ocean acidification had a negative mean effect on calcification greater than in *Emiliania huxleyi*, but it was not significant (lnRR = -0.79, confidence interval = 0.61 to -2.19). In contrast, no significant effect of ocean acidification was detected in *Coccolithus braarudii*, where the mean effect sizes were slightly positive at both pCO_2 concentrations. Significant heterogeneity was detected for all calcification responses.

267

268 **3.2 Effect of ocean acidification on photosynthetic responses**

A significant effect of ocean acidification on photosynthesis was observed in *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* for the present-day as well as the high CO_2 concentration, with the mean response at 1000 ppm being more than twice as high (lnRR = 0.57) as the mean response at 380 ppm (lnRR = 0.24; Figure 2). For *Coccolithus braarudii*, a significant positive effect was observed at 380 ppm and a similar but non-significant positive effect at 1000 ppm. No effect of ocean
acidification on photosynthesis was observed for *Emiliania huxleyi* at 380 ppm and 1000
ppm. Only at 780 ppm was the mean effect size slightly positive (lnRR = 0.044), but this
effect was non-significant. A significant Q-statistic was calculated for all effect sizes.

277

278 **3.3 Effect of ocean acidification on PIC/POC responses**

The observed PIC/POC responses to an increased CO_2 concentration are similar to those observed for the calcification responses (Figure 3). For *Emiliania huxleyi*, there was a larger negative effect on PIC/POC at 1000 ppm (lnRR = -0.39) than at 780 ppm (lnRR = -0.22), but both responses were significantly negative. No effect was observed at present day CO_2 concentrations.

At both CO₂ concentrations a small, non-significant negative effect of a similar magnitude (380 ppm: $\ln RR = 0.05$, 1000 ppm: $\ln RR = 0.07$) was observed for *Coccolithus braarudii*. The strongest effect of ocean acidification on the PIC/POC ratio was observed for *Gephyrocapsa oceanica*. The mean effect size was significantly negative at both *p*CO₂ levels, with the negative mean effect size at 1000 ppm ($\ln RR = 1.37$) being more than three times lower than at 380 ppm ($\ln RR = 0.36$). There was significant heterogeneity in all PIC/POC responses.

291

292 **3.4 Relationship between effect sizes and methodological factors**

For the three response variables (PIC, POC and PIC/POC) a further meta-analysis was conducted in order to test whether they varied between the two different carbonate chemistry manipulation methods (constant TA vs. constant DIC) used in the experiments.

This meta-analysis revealed that the mean effects of ocean acidification were not consistent between the two methods (Figure 4). Keeping TA constant and changing DIC resulted in a 298 more negative mean effect size for calcification and photosynthesis as compared to constant 299 DIC and variable TA. However, the observed difference between the mean effect sizes for 300 calcification was not significant (p = 0.07) and the overall effect of ocean acidification on 301 calcification was negative, regardless of the manipulation method. In contrast, the mean effect 302 sizes for photosynthesis differed substantially. While no significant effect was observed at 303 constant TA, the effect size at constant DIC was significantly positive. There was significant 304 difference between the mean effect sizes (p = 0.0001). The difference between the effect sizes 305 for PIC/POC was only small. Here, ocean acidification had a slightly more negative effect 306 when keeping DIC constant and changing TA. Both effect sizes were, however, significantly 307 negative.

308 Interestingly, all experiments using Coccolithus braarudii and Gephyrocapsa oceanica 309 manipulated the pCO_2 in the culture medium by adding acid, i.e. changing TA while keeping 310 DIC constant. Thus, all these experiments were included in the constant DIC treatments, 311 while only experiments with Emiliania huxleyi were included in the constant TA treatments. 312 In order to eliminate a possible bias due to the unequal distribution of coccolithophore species 313 across carbonate chemistry manipulation methods, a separate meta-analysis was conducted. 314 This analysis only included experiments of *Emiliania huxleyi* and determined the variation of 315 effect sizes between carbonate chemistry manipulations (Figure S1, supplement). The results 316 of this analysis were not significantly different from those obtained from the analysis 317 performed on the full data set. A bias due to the unequal distribution of species between 318 treatments can therefore be ruled out.

319

320 **4. Discussion**

321 The difference in variance between single studies is statistically described as heterogeneity.322 The term indicates that there is more variability in results than would be expected from the

323 sampling distribution. Differences in the experimental setup, deviations in the measuring
 324 method and biological differences between the examined organisms can generally explain the
 325 existence of heterogeneity.

Heterogeneity in effect size was detected in all analyses in the present study. In retrospect, this finding justifies the use of a random-effect model in this meta-analysis. In contrast to the fixed effect model that only includes variance within the studies, the random effects model accounts for the variance between and within single studies.

330 Our study revealed that heterogeneity in mean effect sizes is not due to different carbonate 331 chemistry perturbation methods. The differences between TA and DIC manipulations in the 332 carbonate chemistry were shown not to cause strong variations in biological responses in coccolithophores - with a possible exception in photosynthetic responses. Another proposed 333 334 explanation for the high difference in variance between studies could be the morphological 335 and genetic differences of single coccolithophore strains. A high physiological variability was 336 already shown to exist in the coccolithophore Emiliania huxleyi (Iglesias-Rodriguez et al., 337 2006; Cubillos et al., 2007), with different strains and ecotypes exhibiting diverse responses 338 to ocean acidification (Langer et al., 2009; Hoppe et al., 2011). Moreover, adaption processes 339 of clones that are kept in culture over years could further result in variable responses in CO₂ 340 perturbation experiments (Ridgwell et al., 2009). Thus, a large part of the variance between 341 the analyzed studies is most likely due to intra-species variability of coccolithophore species, 342 especially in Emiliania huxlevi. A further reason for heterogeneity in mean effect size could 343 be discrepancies in calculating the carbonate system from measured parameters. As 344 mentioned earlier in this study, all components of the carbonate system can be calculated if two variables, e.g. pH and DIC, are known. A recently published study suggests, that the 345 346 pCO_2 concentration measured in CO_2 perturbation experiments differs strongly between 347 calculations (up to 30%), when the input parameters for these calculations were different

348 (Hoppe et al., 2012). The authors state that some publications may not be comparable with 349 each other, as pCO_2 values might have been underestimated when they were calculated from 350 TA and DIC, influencing the interpretation of coccolithophore responses. This finding also 351 has implications for the present study, as some heterogeneity in mean effect size might be due 352 to inconsistencies in calculating pCO_2 .

353 The aim of this study was to synthesize the available data of coccolithophores biological 354 responses to ocean acidification in order to more robustly estimate the actual effect of a 355 lowered seawater pH on those calcifying organism. Despite known intra-specific variability, a 356 negative effect of ocean acidification on calcification as well as on the cellular PIC/POC ratio 357 was observed for the dominant and cosmopolitan species Emiliania huxleyi. Our results are in 358 accordance with findings from a meta-analysis conducted by Findlay et al. (2011), who also 359 identified a negative correlation between the cellular PIC/POC ratio in Emiliania huxleyi and 360 the pCO_2 concentration in the culture medium. Although some strains of *E. huxleyi* appear to 361 be less sensitive to ocean acidification (Langer et al., 2009), the species shows a negative 362 response towards reduced pCO_2 levels in our meta-analysis, suggesting that strain-specific 363 variations are small compared to the generally negative effect of ocean acidification on this 364 species.

365 Calcification and PIC/POC in the coccolithophore Gephyrocapsa oceanica was even more 366 negatively affected by future ocean acidification than in *Emiliania huxleyi*, indicating that G. 367 *oceanica* is even more sensitive to changes in pCO_2 and pH. Although the meta-analysis with 368 this species was based on only two studies and a significant effect on the calcification 369 response was not observed, the mean effect sizes were even more negative than those 370 observed for Emiliania huxleyi at 1000 ppm. We assume that the inclusion of more studies to 371 the meta-analysis would likely decrease the confidence interval of the mean effect size, 372 resulting in a significantly negative effect of ocean acidification on calcification in 373 Gephyrocapsa oceanica. The strong negative effect of ocean acidification on the PIC/POC 374 ratio in this species was not only due to the strong decrease in calcification, but also a 375 consequence of an increase in the photosynthesis rate with increasing pCO_2 . Apparently, this 376 species profits more from high pCO_2 levels during photosynthesis than the others. This might 377 - at least for Gephyrocapsa oceanica - confirm the hypothesis that some coccolithophores 378 might benefit from higher CO₂ concentrations, since their rate of carbon fixation is below 379 CO₂ saturation at pre-industrial CO₂ levels (Riebesell et al., 2000, 2004; Rost et al., 2003; 380 Nimer & Merrett, 1996). Higher CO₂ concentrations in the water would thus allow them to 381 more efficiently assimilate and fix carbon during photosynthesis and thus increase their 382 photosynthesis rate (Rost et al., 2008). It is further suggested that an increase in the 383 photosynthesis rate might buffer a possible negative effect of ocean acidification on 384 calcification (Ries et al., 2009). When photosynthesis becomes more efficient and additional 385 energy is provided due to enhanced photosynthetic activity, the building and maintenance of 386 coccoliths could be facilitated. This hypothesis, however, was not confirmed by the present 387 analysis, since the species that showed the most positive effect on photosynthesis, 388 Gephyrocapsa oceanica, was also the one where the effect of ocean acidification on 389 calcification was most negative.

For *Coccolithus braarudii* the results from the present study confirm the hypothesis that this species is insensitive to elevated pCO_2 levels within the tested range (Langer et al., 2006). To some extent, it might even benefit from higher CO₂ concentrations, as it exhibits a slightly positive photosynthesis response.

The results for the effect of ocean acidification on calcification gained by the present study are consistent with the observations by Kroeker et al. (2010, 2013) (Figure 5). These authors included responses of all coccolithophore species in one meta-analysis without distinguishing between species, and found a negative but non-significant effect of ocean acidification on 398 calcification. They state that the absence of a significantly negative result might be due to the399 species-specific responses of coccolithophores, which can be confirmed by our study.

400 With some coccolithophore species being generally more sensitive with regard to ocean 401 acidification than others, a replacement of sensitive strains by more tolerant strains of the 402 same species or a shift in species composition is probable. It cannot be assessed if a general 403 decline in the abundance of coccolithophores with a replacement by other photoautotrophic 404 organism is possible, as long as the role of calcification in coccolithophores is not completely 405 understood. What implications a reduced calcium carbonate production has on the 406 physiological performance and ecological fitness of coccolithophores therefore needs to be 407 further evaluated. Considering that the more prevalent coccolithophore species appear to be 408 vulnerable to ocean acidification, a local or global shift in the species composition or a 409 replacement by other photoautotrophic organisms may occur and could affect higher trophic 410 levels and ocean biogeochemical cycling.

411

412 Differences between TA and DIC manipulations were not the cause of variable calcification 413 and PIC/POC responses between experiments, confirming earlier results by Kroeker et 414 al. (2009), Findlay et al. (2011) and Hoppe et al. (2011) and following the reviews of Schulz 415 et al. (2009) and Ridgwell et al. (2009). In contrast, mean effect sizes on photosynthetic rates 416 were significantly different between the two manipulation methods. Whereas no effect of 417 ocean acidification on photosynthesis was observed for the constant TA manipulations, the 418 effect in the constant DIC manipulations was significantly positive. This finding is surprising, 419 as the modifications of the carbonate system induced by the different manipulation methods 420 are very similar, particularly in the range of carbonate chemistry changes projected to occur 421 until the end of this century (Schulz et al., 2009). Although bubbling with CO₂ more closely 422 resembles predicted changes in the oceans carbonate chemistry, because dissolved inorganic

423 carbon increases while total alkalinity remains unchanged, the modification of each carbonate system parameter (pH, $[CO_2]$, $[CO_3^{2-}]$ and ΩCa) is rather similar. An exception is the 424 concentration of HCO_3 , which increases slightly more in experiments where the pCO_2 425 426 concentration is altered by CO₂ bubbling (constant TA manipulation). As not only CO₂, but 427 also HCO₃⁻ is known to be a carbon source for photosynthesis in most phytoplankton species 428 (Riebesell, 2004), one could assume that the higher HCO_3^- concentration in the constant TA 429 manipulations was responsible for the observed difference in photosynthetic responses 430 between manipulation methods. However, a higher rather than a lower photosynthesis rate 431 would be expected in the constant TA manipulations compared to the constant DIC 432 manipulations, as more inorganic carbon in the form of HCO₃ would be available for 433 photosynthesis. Thus, it does not seem likely that the slight deviation in the HCO₃ 434 concentration is responsible for the difference in mean effect sizes between manipulation 435 methods. Nevertheless, discrepancies between the two methods of CO₂ manipulation observed in the present study are consistent with findings of Kroeker et al. (2010). In their 436 437 meta-analysis a comparison of photosynthetic responses between manipulation methods also 438 showed that keeping TA constant while increasing DIC caused a more negative effect. The 439 deviation between the mean effect sizes was also significant in their study.

Although variable photosynthetic responses have been observed in different carbonate chemistry perturbation experiments, it remains to be clarified what causes these differences. To date, studies and reviews have mainly focused on revealing the reason for diverse calcification responses in coccolithophores (Ridgwell et al., 2009; Schulz et al., 2009). This is probably because ocean acidification is regarded to have a greater impact on calcification in those species than on photosynthesis. While the present study shows that this assumption holds true, a clear understanding of all physiological processes and their relevance for 447 coccolithophore ecological fitness is necessary to realistically assess the influence of future448 ocean acidification on these organisms.

449 A limitation of the carbonate chemistry manipulation experiments included in this meta-450 analysis is the short duration of the experiments. As a result, they do not account for possible 451 adaptation processes of coccolithophores that might occur over a longer time-period, and only 452 test for non-adaptive responses. A recent study investigated evolutionary adaptation in 453 E. huxleyi in a long-term experiment (Lohbeck et al., 2012). In this study a population 454 adapted to higher pCO_2 levels showed significantly higher calcification rates than the control population. Although adaptation did not restore calcification rates under elevated pCO_2 to 455 456 those measured under ambient pCO_2 levels, this observation highlights the possibility of 457 adaptive evolution in coccolithophores. If species like Emiliania huxleyi and Gephyrocapsa 458 oceanica can adapt to decreased pH levels, consequences for the whole ecosystem might be 459 averted. It remains speculative, however, whether results from monocultural experiments can 460 be extrapolated to the natural environment. This also has to be acknowledged when 461 interpreting results of the present study. Generalizations from laboratory observations must be 462 drawn with great care and it has to be kept in mind that ocean acidification is not the only consequence of anthropogenic carbon emissions. Global warming and increased surface 463 464 ocean stratification as well as changes in nutrient availability will further affect the 465 physiological responses of marine organisms, including coccolithophores. Therefore, the effects of ocean acidification might differ when other potential stressors are included. Some 466 467 studies have already examined the interactive effects of multiple stress factors on 468 coccolithophore responses (e.g. Zondervan et al., 2002; Feng et al., 2008; De Bodt et al., 469 2010; Sett et al., 2014). However, more studies are required that analyze responses of 470 coccolithophores to multiple stressor within the marine ecosystem in order to better quantify 471 community and ecosystem responses to ocean acidification and global warming.

- Armstrong RA, Lee C, Hedges JI, Honjo S, Wakeham SG (2002) A new, mechanistic model
 for organic carbon fluxes in the ocean based on the quantitative association of POC with
 ballast minerals. Deep Sea Research Part II, 49, 219–236.
- 476
- Bach LT, Riebesell U, Schulz K (2011) Distinguishing between the effects of ocean
 acidification and ocean carbonation in the coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi*. Limnology and
 Oceanography, 56, 2040–2050.
- 480
- 481 Barcelos e Ramos J, Müller MN, Riebesell U (2010) Short-term response of the 482 coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* to an abrupt change in seawater carbon dioxide 483 concentrations. Biogeosciences, **7**, 177–186.
- 484
- Borenstein M, Hedges LV, Higgins J, Rothstein HR (2010) A basic introduction to fixedeffect and random-effects models for meta-analysis. Research Synthesis Methods, 1, 97–111.
- Brownlee C, Taylor A (2004) Calcification in coccolithophores: A cellular perspective. In:
 Coccolithophores From Molecular Processes to Global Impact (eds Thierstein HR, Young
 JR), pp- 99 125, Springer, Berlin, Germany.
- 491

492 Caldeira K, Wickett ME (2003) Anthropogenic carbon and ocean pH. Nature, 425, 365.

- 494 Cochran W (1954) The contribution of estimates from different experiments. Biometrics, 10,
 495 101–129.
- 496

497 Conway T, Tans P, NOAA/ESRL (www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/).

498

- Cubillos JC, Wright SW, Nash G, de Salas MF, Griffiths B, Tilbrook B, Poisson A,
 Hallegraeff GM (2007) Calcification morphotypes of the coccolithophorid *Emiliania huxleyi*in the Southern Ocean: changes in 2001 to 2006 compared to historical data. Marine Ecology
 Progress Series, 348, 47–54.
- 503

De Bodt C, Van Oostende N, Harlay J, Sabbe K, Chou L (2010) Individual and interacting effects of pCO_2 and temperature on *Emiliania huxleyi* calcification: study of the calcite production, the coccolith morphology and the coccosphere size. Biogeosciences, **7**, 1401– 1412.

508

509 Delille B, Harlay J, Zondervan I, Jacquet S, Chou L, Wollast R, Bellerby RGJ, Frankignoulle 510 M, Borges AV, Riebesell U, Gattuso JP (2005) Response of primary production and 511 calcification to changes of pCO_2 during experimental blooms of the coccolithophorid 512 *Emiliania huxleyi*. Global Biogeochemical Cycles, **19**, 1–14.

513

Engel A, Zondervan I, Aerts K et al. (2005) Testing the direct effect of CO₂ concentration on
a bloom of the coccolithophorid *Emiliania huxleyi* in mesocosm experiments. Limnology and
Oceanography, **50**, 493–507.

517

Feng Y, Warner ME, Zhang Y, Sun J, Fu FX, Rose JM, Hutchins DA (2008) Interactive
effects of increased *p*CO₂, temperature and irradiance on the marine coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* (Prymnesiophyceae). European Journal of Phycology, 43, 87–98.

- Findlay HS, Calosi P, Crawfurd, K (2011) Determinants of the PIC:POC response in the
 coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* under future ocean acidification scenarios. Limnology and
 Oceanography, 56, 1168–1178.
- 525
- 526 Fiorini S, Middelburg JJ, Gattuso JP (2011) Testing the effects of elevated pCO_2 on 527 coccolithophores (Prymnesiophyceae): comparison between haploid and diploid life stages. 528 Journal of Phycology, **47**, 1281–1291.
- 529
- Gao K, Ruan Z, Villafañe VE, Gattuso JP, Helbling EW (2009) Ocean acidification
 exacerbates the effect of UV radiation on the calcifying phytoplankter *Emiliania huxleyi*.
 Limnology and Oceanography, 54, 1855–1862.
- 533
- Hedges LV, Olkin I (1985) Statistical Methods for Meta-Analysis. Academic Press, London,
 New York
- 536
- Hedges LV, Gurevitch J, Curtis PS (1999) The meta-analysis of response ratios in
 experimental ecology. Ecology, 80, 1150–1156.
- 539
- Hendriks IE, Duarte CM, Álvarez M (2010) Vulnerability of marine biodiversity to ocean
 acidification: A meta-analysis. Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science, 86, 157–164.
- 542
- 543 Hoppe CJM, Langer G, Rost B (2011) *Emiliania huxleyi* shows identical responses to 544 elevated pCO_2 in TA and DIC manipulations. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and 545 Ecology, **406**, 54–62.
- 546

547	Hoppe CJM, Langer G, Rokitta SD, Wolf-Gladrow DA, Rost B (2012) Implications of
548	observed inconsistencies in carbonate chemistry measurements for ocean acidification studies.
549	Biogeosciences, 9, 2401–2405.
550	
551	Iglesias-Rodriguez MD, Schofield OM, Batley J, Medlin LK, Hayes PK (2006) Intraspecific
552	genetic diversity in the marine coccolithophore Emiliania huxleyi (Prymnesiophyceae): the
553	use of microsatellite analysis in marine phytoplankton population studies. Journal of
554	Phycology, 42 , 526–536.
555	
556	Iglesias-Rodriguez MD, Halloran PR, Rickaby RE et al. (2008) Phytoplankton Calcification
557	in a High-CO ₂ World. Science, 320 , 336–340.
558	
559	Jones BM, Iglesias-Rodriguez MD, Skipp PJ et al. (2013) Responses of the Emiliania huxleyi
560	Proteome to Ocean Acidification. PLoS ONE, 8, e61868, 1–13.
561	
562	Klaas C, Archer DE (2002) Association of sinking organic matter with various types of
563	mineral ballast in the deep sea: Implications for the rain ratio. Global Biogeochemical Cycles.
564	16 , 63-1–63-14.
565	
566	Kroeker KJ, Kordas RL, Crim RN, Singh GG (2010) Meta-analysis reveals negative yet
567	variable effects of ocean acidification on marine organisms. Ecology Letters, 13, 1419–1434.
568	
569	Kroeker KJ, Kordas RL, Crim R et al. (2013) Impacts of ocean acidification on marine
570	organisms: quantifying sensitivities and interaction with warming. Global Change Biology,
571	19 , 1884–1896.

572	Krug S, Schulz K, Riebesell U (2011) Effects of changes in carbonate chemistry speciation on
573	Coccolithus braarudii: a discussion of coccolithophorid sensitivities. Biogeosciences, 8, 771-
574	777.

Langer G, Geisen M, Baumann KH, Kläs J, Riebesell U, Thoms S, Young JR (2006) Speciesspecific responses of calcifying algae to changing seawater carbonate chemistry.
Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems, 7, 1–12.

579

580 Langer G, Nehrke G, Probert I, Ly J, Ziveri P (2009) Strain-specific responses of Emiliania

huxleyi to changing seawater carbonate chemistry. Biogeosciences, **6**, 2637–2646.

582

Langer G, Bode M (2011) CO₂ mediation of adverse effects of seawater acidification in *Calcidiscus leptoporus*. Geochemistry, Geophysics, Geosystems, 12, 1–8.

585

Lefebvre SC, Benner I, Stillman JH et al. (2012) Nitrogen source and pCO_2 synergistically affect carbon allocation, growth and morphology of the coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi*: potential implications of ocean acidification for the carbon cycle. Global Change Biology, **18**, 493–503.

590

Lohbeck KT, Riebesell U, Reusch TB (2012) Adaptive evolution of a key phytoplankton
species to ocean acidification. Nature Geosciences, 5, 346–351.

593

Müller MN, Schulz KG, Riebesell U (2010) Effects of long-term high CO₂ exposure on two
species of coccolithophores. Biogeosciences, 7, 1109–1116.

- Nakicenovic N, Alcamo J, Davis G et al. (2000) IPCC 2000: Special Report on Emissions
 Scenarios: A Special Report of Working Group III of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
 Change (eds Nakicenovic N, Swart R) Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK and New
 York, NY, USA.
- 601
- Nimer NA, Merrett MJ (1996) The development of a CO₂-concentrating mechanism in *Emiliania huxleyi*. New Phytologist, 133, 383–389.
- 604
- 605 Richier S, Fiorini S, Kerros ME, Von Dassow P, Gattuso JP (2011) Response of the 606 calcifying coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* to low $pH/high pCO_2$: from physiology to 607 molecular level. Marine Biology, **158**, 551–560.
- 608
- Rickaby RE, Henderiks J, Young JN (2010) Perturbing phytoplankton: response and isotopic
 fractionation with changing carbonate chemistry in two coccolithophore species. Climate of
 the Past, 6, 771–785.
- 612
- Ridgwell A, Schmidt DN, Turley C, Brownlee C, Maldonado MT, Tortell P, Young JR
 (2009) From laboratory manipulations to Earth system models: scaling calcification impacts
 of ocean acidification. Biogeosciences, 6, 2611–2623.
- 616
- Riebesell U, Zondervan I, Rost B, Tortell PD, Zeebe RE, Morel FM (2000) Reduced
 calcification of marine plankton in response to increased atmospheric CO₂. Nature, 407, 364–
 367.

- Riebesell U (2004) Effects of CO₂ Enrichment on Marine Phytoplankton. Journal of
 Oceanography, 60, 719–729.
- 623
- Riebesell U, Bellerby RG, Engel A et al. (2008) Comment on "Phytoplankton Calcification in
 a High-CO₂ World". Science, **322**, 1466b .
- 626
- Riebesell U, Körtzinger A, Oschlies A (2009) Sensitivities of marine carbon fluxes to ocean
 change. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA, 106, 20602–20609.
- 629
- Riebesell U, Tortell PD (2011) Effects of ocean acidification on pelagic organisms and
 ecosystems. In: Ocean Acidification. (eds Gattuso JP, Hansson L), pp. 99–121, Oxford
 University Press, Oxford, UK.
- 633
- Ries JB, Cohen AL, McCorkle DC (2009) Marine calcifiers exhibit mixed responses to CO₂induced ocean acidification. Geology, 37, 1131–1134.
- 636
- Rokitta SD, Rost B (2012) Effects of CO₂ and their modulation by light in the life-cycle
 stages of the coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi*. Limnology and Oceanography, **57**, 607–618.
- 639
- Rost B, Riebesell U, Burkhardt S, Sültemeyer D (2003) Carbon acquisition of bloom-forming
 marine phytoplankton. Limnology and Oceanography, 48, 55–67.
- 642
- Rost B, Riebesell U (2004) Coccolithophores and the biological pump: responses to
 environmental changes. In: Coccolithophores From Molecular Processes to Global Impact
 (eds Thierstein HR, Young, JR), pp. 99-125, Springer, Berlin, Germany.

Rost B, Zondervan I, Wolf-Gladrow D (2008) Sensitivity of phytoplankton to future changes
in ocean carbonate chemistry: current knowledge, contradictions and research directions.
Marine Ecology Progress Series, 373, 227–237.

649

- Sabine CL, Feely RA, Gruber N et al. (2004) The oceanic sink for anthropogenic CO₂.
 Science, **305**, 367–371.
- 652
- Sciandra A, Harlay J, Lefèvre D, Lemée R, Rimmelin P, Denis M, Gattuso JP (2003)
 Response of coccolithophorid *Emiliania huxleyi* to elevated partial pressure of CO₂ under
 nitrogen limitation. Marine Ecology Progress Series, 261, 111–122.

656

- 657 Sett S, Bach LT, Schulz KG, Koch-Klavsen S, Lebrato M, Riebesell U (2014) Temperature
- 658 modulates coccolithophorid sensitivity of growth, photosynthesis and calcification to
- 659 increasing seawater pCO₂. PLoS ONE , **9**, e88308.
- 660
- 661 Shi D, Xu Y, Morel FMM (2009) Effects of the pH/pCO_2 control method on medium 662 chemistry and phytoplankton growth. Biogeosciences, **6**, 1199–1207.

663

664 Shutler JD, Grant MG, Miller PI, Rushton E, Anderson K (2010) Coccolithophore bloom 665 detection in the northeast Atlantic using SeaWiFS: Algorithm description, application and 666 sensitivity analysis. Remote Sensing of Environment, **114**, 1008–1016.

667

Wolf-Gladrow D, Riebesell U, Burkhardt S, Bijma J (1999) Direct effects of CO₂
concentration on growth and isotopic composition of marine plankton. Tellus B, **51**, 461–476.

671 Wuori T (2012) Effects of elevated pCO₂ on the physiology of *Emiliania huxleyi*. M.Sc.

672 Thesis, Western Washington University, USA.

- 673
- Ziveri P, de Bernardi B, Baumann KH, Stoll HM, Mortyn PG (2007) Sinking of coccolith
 carbonate and potential contribution to organic carbon ballasting in the deep ocean. Deep Sea
 Research Part II, 54, 659–675.
- 677
- 678 Zondervan I, Rost B, Riebesell U (2002) Effect of CO₂ concentration on the PIC/POC ratio in
- 679 the coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* grown under light-limiting conditions and different
- daylengths. Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology, **272**, 55–70.

 Table 1. Summary of the available carbonate chemistry manipulation experiments and the responses of *Emiliania huxleyi* as reported by the authors of those studies.

Symbols indicate: — no response, \nearrow increased response, \frown non-linear response , \searrow decreased response

Reference	<i>E.huxlexi</i> strain	Experiment type	CO₂ mani- pulation	PIC production	POC production	PIC/POC	Specifics
Bach at al. (2011)	PML B92/11A	laboratory	constant DIC	\frown	/	/	large <i>p</i> CO₂ range
Barcelos e Ramos et al. (2010)	Raune Fjord, Norway 2005	laboratory	constant DIC	\	/		short-term incubation
De Bodt et al. (2010)	AC481	laboratory	constant TA	\			variable temperatures
Delille et al. (2005)	Raune Fjord, Norway 2001	mesocosm	constant TA	<			
Engel et al. (2005)	Raune Fjord, Norway 2001	mesocosm	constant TA	<			
Feng et al. (2008)	CCMP 371	laboratory	constant TA	<			variable light & temperature
Fiorini et al. (2011)	AC472	laboratory	constant TA	/		/	
Gao et al. (2009)	CS369	laboratory	constant TA	<	\frown		PAR & UVR
Hoppe et al. (2011)	RCC1256	laboratory	constant DIC and constant TA	<			
Hoppe et al. (2011)	NZEH	laboratory	constant DIC and constant TA	<	/		
Iglesias- Rodriguez et al. (2008)	NZEH	laboratory	constant TA	/	/		
Langer et al. (2009)	RCC1212	laboratory	constant TA	<	>		
Langer et al. (2009)	RCC1216	laboratory	constant TA	<	<		
Langer et al. (2009)	RCC1238	laboratory	constant TA		\frown		
Langer et al. (2009)	RCC1256	laboratory	constant TA	\frown	\frown		
Müller et al. (2010)	Raune Fjord, Norway 2005	laboratory	constant DIC	<			long-term incubation
Riebesell et al. (2000)	PML B92/11A	laboratory	constant DIC	<	/		variable day- lengths & light intensity
Richier et al. (2011)	RCC1216	laboratory	constant TA				
Rokitta and Rost et al. (2012)	RCC1216	laboratory	constant TA	<	/		low and high light conditions
Sciandra et al. (2003)	TW1	laboratory	constant TA	<	<		chemostat
Shi et al. (2009)	NZEH	laboratory	constant TA	<	<		
Shi et al. (2009)	NZEH	laboratory	constant DIC	/	/		
Zondervan et al. (2002)	PML B92/11A	laboratory	constant DIC	<	/		variable day- lengths & light
Wuori et al. (2012)	CCMP 2668	laboratory	constant TA	<	/		menony

Table 2. Summary of the available carbonate chemistry manipulation experiments and the responses of *Coccolithus braarudii*, *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* and *Calcidiscus leptoporus* found in those studies.

Reference	Species	Strain	Experiment type	CO ₂ mani- pulation	PIC production	POC production	PIC/POC
Krug et al. (2011)	Coccolithus braarudii	RCC 1200	laboratory	constant DIC	/	\frown	>
Langer et al. (2006)		AC400	laboratory	constant DIC			
Müller et al. (2010)		RCC 1200	laboratory	constant DIC	~	/	~
Rickaby et al. (2010)		4762	laboratory	constant DIC	/	/	
Riebesell et al. (2000)	Gephyro- capsa oceanica	PC7/1	laboratory	constant DIC	/	/	/
Rickaby et al. (2010)		PZ 3.1	laboratory	constant DIC		\frown	
Fiorini et al. (2011)	Calcidiscus Ieptoporus	AC370	laboratory	constant TA			
Langer et al. (2006)		AC365	laboratory	constant DIC	\frown		\frown
Langer and Bode (2011)		AC365	laboratory	constant DIC	\frown		\frown



Figure 1. The effect of elevated CO₂ concentrations on the calcification rates of the three coccolithophore species *Emiliania huxleyi*, *Coccolithus braarudii* and *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* [mean effect size and 95% confidence interval]. Responses are relative to 280 ppm. * indicates a significant response, which is given when the confidence interval does not overlap zero. The number of experiments used to calculate mean effect sizes are shown in parentheses. The zero line indicates no effect.



Figure 2. Mean effect of elevated CO₂ concentrations (relative to 280 ppm) on the photosynthesis rates of three coccolithophore species, *Emiliania huxleyi*, *Coccolithus braarudii* and *Gephyrocapsa oceanica*. Error bars denote the 95% confidence intervals. * indicates a significant response, which is given when the confidence interval does not overlap zero. The number of experiments included in the meta-analysis is shown in parentheses. The zero line indicates no effect.



Figure 3. The effect of elevated CO₂ concentrations on the inorganic to organic carbon ratio of three coccolithophore species: *Emiliania huxleyi*, *Coccolithus braarudii* and *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* [mean effect size and 95% confidence interval]. Responses are relative to 280 ppm. * indicates a significant response, which is given when the confidence interval does not overlap zero. The number of experiments included in the meta-analysis is shown in parentheses. The zero line indicates no effect.



Figure 4. Comparison of effect sizes between the methods of carbonate chemistry manipulation. White diamonds symbolize treatments where total alkalinity [TA] was kept constant while dissolved inorganic carbon [DIC] changed. Black diamonds symbolize treatments where DIC was kept constant and TA varied. The number of experiments included in the meta-analysis are shown in parentheses. The mean effect size is significant when the 95% confidence interval does not overlap zero [*].



Figure 5. Comparison of effect sizes from PIC and POC analyses derived from the study by Kroeker et al. (2010) [circles], Kroeker et al. (2013) [triangles] and the present study [diamonds]. Data from Kroeker et al. (2010 and 2013) were extracted directly out of the study with the help of the Web Plot Digitizer Software [www.arohatgi.info/WebPlotDigitizer/]. The meta-analysis from the present study contains experiments of all coccolithophore species, including those of *Calcidiscus leptoporus* [see Table 2]. Error bars denote the 95% confidence intervals. * indicates a significant response, which is given when the confidence interval does not overlap zero. The number of experiments included in the meta-analysis is shown in parentheses. The zero line indicates no effect.



Figure S1. Comparison of effect sizes between the methods of carbonate chemistry manipulation in experiments with *Emiliania huxleyi*. White diamonds symbolize treatments where total alkalinity [TA] was kept constant while dissolved inorganic carbon [DIC] changed. Black diamonds symbolize treatments where DIC was kept constant and TA varied. The number of experiments included in the meta-analysis is shown in parentheses. The mean effect size is significant when the 95% confidence interval does not overlap zero [*].