

Dear Editor

Please find attached a revised manuscript where we have addressed all the points made by the two reviewers. In the first part we have gone through all the points that you have made, and indicated changes to the revised version of the manuscript highlighted in red. In the second part we have added our original response to the review and added the concrete changes made in the revised manuscript.

In your decision statement we believe you have mixed the reviewers' #, as reviewer #1 had only 3 general comments, i.e. comments 4 and 5 that you refer to must be from reviewer #2 (which also fits with the general comments). Below we have kept the original numbering of the reviewers.

Reply to the Editor's comments

Editor: Reviewer 1, comment 2

Please provide better insight; state values used and methods used

Author response: The reviewer's comments refer to gross primary production, which was not measured. However, we have made attempts to estimate gross production, but this has been done in another paper (Spilling et al 2016) also submitted to the same special issue. We have deleted the text that the reviewer is referring to, and have added a reference to this other paper.

Editor: Reviewer 1, comment 3

Not clear which one good point you refer to in first sentence of your response. Reviewer made more than one good point.

Author response: The main point is that the UV light is different inside the mesocosm bags compared to the primary production incubations that were carried out in glass vials moored outside the bags. The difference in transmission of UV light may produce a bias, which does not only relate to the primary production measurements but also have other effects such as the release of dissolved organic carbon (DOC) by phytoplankton. These indirect effects were also pointed out by the reviewer and we have taken up these additional points. The reviewer also pointed out that our production and respiration measurements were within values measured before. This is, however, a relatively wide range and we cannot draw any conclusions about any underestimation of the primary production based on that.

We have argued that we think it is a good point, and we will discuss it, but due to the special features of the Baltic Sea with relatively high natural DOC concentrations, which effectively absorb in the UV region, we do not think that UV would have substantially biased the primary production measurements.

We have added a new paragraph about the potential UV effect in the discussion:

Another factor that could have influenced our primary production incubations is UV light, which is a known inhibitor of primary production (Vincent and Roy, 1993), and elevated CO₂ concentration may increase the sensitivity to UV light (Sobrino et al., 2009). Additionally, UV light reduces the release of DOC by phytoplankton, in particular at high CO₂ concentration (Sobrino et al., 2014), but also cause photochemical mineralization of dissolved organic matter (DOM) (Vahatalo and Jarvinen, 2007). Both DOC release and DOM break down may have implications for bacterial production and nutrient cycling. The mesocosm bags were made in a material absorbing UV light (thermoplastic polyurethane) whereas our primary production incubations were done in glass vials (transmitting some UV light) moored outside the mesocosm bags. The difference in UV transmittance could have produced a bias in the primary production measurements. However, the DOC concentration in the Baltic Sea is very high compared with

most other oceans and coastal seas (Hoikkala et al., 2015). Most of this is terrestrial derived, refractory DOC, which effectively absorbs in the UV region, and typically the depth at which 1% of UVB remains is <50 cm (Piazana and Häder, 1994). UVA penetrates a little deeper and may have affected slightly the incubation platform moored at 2 m depth, but we do not believe that UV light caused major inhibition of our primary production measurements or affected phytoplankton DOC production.

Editor: Reviewer 1, specific comments

More detail is needed as to what the appropriate changes that you refer to in the last sentence of your response

Author response: There were two additional points made:

Firstly, to add the difference in UV light inside and outside the mesocosm bags to page 20 line 5. We made the changes accordingly (new text in red):

“This suggests a different availability of inorganic nutrients and different plankton community as other environmental variables such as light and temperature were similar both inside and outside the mesocosm bags, **except that UV light was absent inside the mesocosm bags.**”

Secondly, to add a concluding paragraph. We have now added:

“In conclusion, this study suggests that elevated CO₂ reduced respiration which in turn increased net carbon fixation. However, the increased primary production did not translate into increased carbon export, and did consequently not work as a negative feedback mechanism for increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentration.”

Editor: Reviewer 2, general response

provide more detailed response to the comments... I am particularly referring to Reviewer 1, general response last sentence...

Author response: We think that the reviewer has misunderstood some aspects of the uncertainty that we tried to explain. There will always be some measurement uncertainty, which will vary according to e.g. method or instrumentation used. This is not something specific to this study. In the last sentence of the general comments he/she focuses on the uncertainty of TPC measurements, but there is nothing in particular that would indicate that these numbers have an uncertainty that need special consideration, and it does not affect the main conclusions of the paper. The data not normalized to TPC (which is one of the concerns) was presented in the supplementary material originally submitted. From these it is evident that the normalization to TPC does not change the main conclusion that respiration decreased at the high CO₂ treatment.

Editor: Reviewer 2, comment 4

address also the comment on presentation of the data

Author response. The reviewer suggested to change the stacked bar plots into stacked area plots and show the full time series of data. Although the community composition data is important, we do not think it is within the scope of the paper to present the whole time series data of community development, in particular since it is the main focus of two other papers in the special issue: Lischka et al. for the zooplankton and Bermudez et al. for the phytoplankton community. To make this clear we have included references to these papers in the figure legend.

Editor: Reviewer 2, comment 5

response is not complete; miss response to comment to include virus induced C losses

This is a bit outside the scope of the paper because there are other papers in the special issue that deals with this topic (Crawford et al, and the other Spilling et al), but we have added some more information about this in the discussion:

Temporal changes in bacterial abundances followed largely that of phytoplankton biomass, and there were significant increases in viral lysis rates in the high CO₂ treatment (Crawford et al., 2016). This was most likely a consequence of higher abundances of pico-eukaryotes and pointing towards a more productive but regenerative system (Crawford et al., 2016).

Our original response with additional information of the concrete changes made in the manuscript

Dr. Neale

Reviewer #1, comment #1. While the results do demonstrate decreased respiration for samples from the higher CO₂ enrichments, I do have some concern about how representative these rates are of processes in the mesocosms. A depth integrated water sample was taken and incubated at “ambient” temperature. But it can be seen from Paul et al (2015) that there was a strong temperature gradient over the mesocosm’s depth range, at times as much as 10_C, so it is not clear what was “ambient” temperature. Moreover, mixing waters of differing temperatures may bias the respiration measurement at a fixed temperature vs. the “real” average, i.e. combining warm, lower particle concentration surface water with cooler, high particle (or nutrient) concentration bottom water could stimulate respiration versus the average of the two.

Author response:

It is true that temperature stratification varied. We kept the incubation temperature at the surface temperature, and we will add this information to the Materials and Methods chapter. Dr. Neale makes a valid point that there might be a bias due to mixing water of different temperature rather than averaging measurements taken at different temperature. Logistical constraints prevented us from making respiration incubations at several temperatures. We will take up this potential bias in the Discussion chapter.

Changes made:

In the materials and methods chapter we added the information that we were using the surface temperature (changes made in red):

“After the initial O₂ determination, the bottles were put in a dark, temperature controlled room, set to the ambient water temperature **at the surface.**”

In the discussion we added a new paragraph (under section 4.2) about the potential bias:

“Having the respiration incubation at a fixed temperature might have caused a slight bias as there was varying thermal stratification throughout the experiment and the temperature was not even throughout the mesocosm bags. A better approach would have been to have respiration incubations in temperatures above and below the thermocline, but logistical constrains prevented us from doing this.”

Reviewer #1, comment #2. The authors also indicate that respired carbon was about 10x greater than net production (pg. 17 line 7). Some more explanation is needed for why such comparison is made since a determination of whether the system is net heterotrophic or autotrophic would require comparison of gross primary production with total community respiration, as stated on page 21 line 9. The statement on page 21 line 26 implies that the authors have some idea of gross primary production, could this be compared to respiration rate?

Author response:

We did try to estimate the gross primary production and after the submission of this paper we made a carbon budget for the whole experiment, which is presented in a synthesis paper (Spilling et al 2016). We

will remove these statements from the present paper and place a reference to the budget paper in order to have a more clear focus.

Changes made:

This section was removed from the first paragraph in section 4.2.

Reviewer #1, comment #3. The authors also speculate that the net primary productivity method may not have been sensitive enough to detect difference between treatments, so that enhanced production at increased CO₂ was not detected. Small incubation volumes are suggested to contribute to uncertainty but the authors give no indication of what was that measurement uncertainty. Nevertheless, they state that the measurements were comparable to previous ones in the same regions using similar methods (Kivi et al. 1993) which would argue against any substantial bias. One other factor to consider as to whether the NPP assay would detect an enhancement effect was that the incubations were conducted outside the bags. According to Riebesell et al. (2013), the mesocosm material (thermoplastic polyurethane) removes all UV whereas glass scintillation vials used for the NPP incubation transmit UV-A and most UV-B so rates in the vials could have been substantially more inhibited in the near surface samples than phytoplankton in the mesocosms that were protected from UV. Moreover, some studies have shown that phytoplankton grown under CO₂ enhanced conditions are more sensitive to UV. It is possible that NPP was higher in the mesocosms with CO₂ enrichment but the effect was dampened in incubations outside the bag due to a counterbalancing increase in sensitivity to UV (see, e.g., Sobrino et al. 2008, 2009). Also, as the lead author knows (since he was co-author on the paper), Sobrino et al. (2014) observed lower rates of DOC release during short term PPR incubations by phytoplankton acclimated to CO₂ enhanced conditions but this effect was much less when incubations included UV. This DOC would be quite labile and rapidly respired so might not affect the bulk DOC pool but a reduction in DOC release could decrease bacterial respiration.

Author response:

A very good point that we will take up in the Discussion chapter. The DOC concentration in the Baltic Sea is very high compared with most other oceans and coastal seas (like the Mediterranean that is referred to). Most of this is refractory DOC, which effectively absorbs in the UV region, and typically the depth at which 1% of UVB remains is <50 cm (e.g. Piazena and Häder 1994). UVA penetrates a little deeper and may have affected slightly the incubation platform moored at 2 m depth. We do not believe, however, that UV light have caused major inhibition of our primary production measurements (or affected labile DOC production), but we will point this out with the reasoning described above.

Changes made:

We have added a new paragraph about the potential UV effect in the discussion:

“Another factor that could have influenced our primary production incubations is UV light, which is a known inhibitor of primary production (Vincent and Roy, 1993), and elevated CO₂ concentration may increase the sensitivity to UV light (Sobrino et al., 2009). Additionally, UV light reduces the release of DOC by phytoplankton, in particular at high CO₂ concentration (Sobrino et al., 2014), but also cause photochemical mineralization of dissolved organic matter (DOM) (Vahatalo and Jarvinen, 2007). Both DOC release and DOM break down may have implications for bacterial production and nutrient cycling. The mesocosm bags were made in a material absorbing UV light (thermoplastic polyurethane) whereas our primary production incubations were done in glass vials (transmitting some UV light) moored outside the mesocosm bags. The difference in UV transmittance could have produced a bias in the primary production measurements. However, the DOC concentration in the Baltic Sea is very high compared with most other oceans and coastal seas (Hoikkala et al., 2015). Most of this is terrestrial derived, refractory DOC, which effectively absorbs in the UV region, and typically the depth at which 1% of UVB remains is <50 cm (Piazena and Häder, 1994). UVA penetrates a little deeper and may have affected slightly the

incubation platform moored at 2 m depth, but we do not believe that UV light caused major inhibition of our primary production measurements or affected phytoplankton DOC production. “

Reviewer #2

Reviewer #2, comment #1. I have several concerns that (in my opinion) warrant further attention from the authors. I found surprising the lack of real independent mesocosms replicates. Only the controls do replicate (M1 and M5). Under these circumstances an appropriate statistical analysis cannot be performed, compromising the significance of the results. In its place, regression coefficient significance tests have been done to analyse the significance of the results. Although valid, these tests compare the mesocosms between them, but the behaviour, obviously implying variability within each specific treatment cannot then be ruled out, because without replicates is not possible to discern if the response is due to the controlled factor (CO₂) or to any other uncontrolled factor, and or their interaction. At least, significance differences obtained from the R comparisons tests should be mentioned in the text adding the p values (in results section) and marked in the Figures as an asterisk or letter to indeed demonstrate that there are some differences. A table including the results of all linear regression analyses indicating the significant effects of the different CO₂ concentrations on the variables would be needed (see Tables and Figures in Paul et al. 2015, Crawford et al., 2015, Bermudez et al., 2015-this special issue-as examples of what I am referring to). In my opinion, in this manner the Ms would benefit of a better understanding of the results.

Author response:

The mesocosm bags are relatively large scale operations, 55 m³ in each enclosure, and this puts some constraints on how many units can be used. Lack of replication does not, however, prevent proper statistical analysis of results: for example gradient experiments of a single variable or factorial design experiments with multiple variables, both provide data that can be statistically tested for treatment effects (see e.g. the discussion by Oksanen 2001 and Hurlbert 2004). In our case, a gradient of different CO₂ additions was used. The statistical test was in the figure legend, and we will include it also in the results section as suggested by the reviewer.

Changes made: We added the details to the text in the results section

slope -0.0002; p = 0.02; R² = 0.77;

Reviewer #2, comment #2. The other important issue is that you mention measurement uncertainties at some points. I do not understand how or why can be a measurement uncertainty working with small volumes, can you specify? How this affect reliability? Regarding the incubation time with ¹⁴C, I think it is widely demonstrated that this method is quite sensitive. I agree that it may be more estimative of NPP, but, in incubations long as 24h, the same ¹⁴C molecule can be fixed and respired several times (the eternal discussion). Do you think you could be getting an underestimate of your measurement? Said this, I think the point raised by reviewer 1 regarding the effect of UV on C fixation during incubations would be much more relevant in terms of affecting PP (not commenting on UVR as I totally agree and support reviewer 1 comments). Also said by reviewer 1, if you think there are uncertainties, how your data compare to former published studies?

Author response:

There will always be measurements uncertainties (depending on the methodology, instrument etc) and this would be independent of the volume, and we are not quite sure that we got your point. Perhaps you refer to the primary production measurements. In that case the incubation volume was relatively small,

and we did not remove the grazers, which could have introduced a bias with respect to grazing pressure, i.e. the number of grazers could have been quite variable depending on how many by chance got into the relatively small incubation volume.

With respect to the UV point, please see our response above to reviewer #1.

Reviewer #2, comment #3. It is not clear to me whether you also mention measurement uncertainties on the TPC data, it seems so. In this regards, if there exist such an uncertainty in TPC, how this translates into figures 4 and 5 that are normalised by TPC? The -under or -sub estimations would then be included in your calculations on the cumulative PP and TR and vertical C flux?

Author response:

There are of course also measurements uncertainties in the TPC, and yes these would be included in the data presented in Figs 4 and 5. However, it does not affect the main conclusion of the paper.

Additional author comments

Please see also our comments made to the editor regarding this point

Reviewer #2, comment #4. Phytoplankton community composition. As data are presented it is not clearly seen that there is dominance of some groups over others. Only Euglenophytes seem to be absent in t0. Dinoflagellates, cyanobacteria, diatoms and chlorophytes look like having similar proportions in t0 and t17 (p values needed), while “other” increase at 1333 ppm. What organisms does “other” comprise? Stacked area plots would give a much better idea of the temporal evolution and trend followed by the community and so significances could be better appreciated. Thus I suggest to re-plot figures 1 and 2 including all days and treatments in stacked area charts. How your data compare to Bermudez et al. this issue-seems that taxonomy differs a little in between the two studies (for instance Euglenophyta).

Author response:

We wanted to present a general overview of the plankton community composition, and a more in-depth analysis and presentation of all the dates are provided in Bermudez et al 2016 and Lischka et al 2015. The presented phytoplankton data is the same as Bermudez et al 2016, but here we have additionally included counts of phytoplankton >20µm, affecting the biomass of e.g. Euglenophyta.

Additional author comments

Please see also our comments made to the editor regarding this point

Reviewer #2, comment #5. Considering that your study deals with the plankton food web, bacterial production, or at least abundances have not been analysed. Although probably low in volume and biomass contribution as compared to phyto and zooplankton groups, they are important too since they have been reported to react positively to increased CO₂ (a number of papers published on this topic by Grossart, Schulz and Riebesell). I see bacterial contribution is further discussed in pg. 20 based on former reports. How about bacterial production/abundances in this very mesocosms experiment? Neither you say anything about viruses affecting C losses, which is important for C cycling and definitively affect C export. These two (bacteria and viruses) in my opinion shall be at least being discussed (succinctly if you wish) within the framework of the whole mesocosm experiment.

Author response:

A very good point and we will incorporate this into the discussion. Bacterial production was measured (Hornick et al 2016), but this was not out yet at the time of review. Heterotrophic prokaryotes were enumerated and this data is presented in Crawford et al (2016).

Additional author comments and changes made

This is a bit outside the scope of the paper because there are other papers in the special issue that deals with this topic (Crawford et al, and the other Spilling et al), but we have added some more information about this in the discussion:

Temporal changes in bacterial abundances followed largely that of phytoplankton biomass, and there were significant increases in viral lysis rates in the high CO₂ treatment (Crawford et al., 2016). This was most likely a consequence of higher abundances of pico-eukaryotes and pointing towards a more productive but regenerative system (Crawford et al., 2016).

Reviewer #2, comment #6. Pg. 18. Ln 20. “The larger-scale mesocosms ... interacting effects between different components of the food web are included”. Pg. 19 Ln 21. Subheading “Interacting effects and community composition”. Also in pg. 20 Ln 10 interactive effects are mentioned. I find this an overstatement since you have not analysed interactive effects

Author response:

This section is under the discussion of advantages of mesocosm experiments on a general level. We will change this to “possible interacting effects...” to make it more clear.

Changes made:

Added ‘possible’ to this sentence.

Reviewer #2, comment #7. Pg. 18 Ln 22-pg. 19 Ln 6. Instead of discussing higher plants which do not deal with carbonic /carbonate equilibrium and the systems are different, I think it would make much more sense to focus on explaining the mechanisms why respiration might be reduced in aquatic organisms such as phytoplankton at high CO₂. Can the decreased TR be related to CCMs? Both photosynthesis and respiration generate energy that can be used for CCMs since they are mechanisms highly-energy -demanding. Under increased CO₂ it is well known that CCMs are downregulated. If there are no active CCMs, then respiration and photosynthesis might also be downregulated, and the energy consumed by them is “available” for other purposes. On the other hand, such energy could also be directed to growth (i.e. PP) that is what you are describing. This would mean that respiration could be downregulated but not PP. Such uncoupling is what is important to discuss in depth. Also, how is this related to pigment concentration? Since under high CO₂ there is less electronic demand, pigments should decrease. Indeed Chl_a sharply decreased from 2 ugL⁻¹ on P1 to 0.8 in PII and III (Paul et al., 2015). However you state in pg. 22 Ln 6 that CO₂ had a positive effect on Chl_a. Some clarification is needed.

Author response:

A very good point and a more thorough discussion around CCMs will be incorporated into the Discussion chapter. As for the Chl a, the major change was driven by change in total phytoplankton biomass, e.g. the overall decrease from PI to PII and PIII, and the higher Chl a in the high CO₂.

Additional comments and changes made

Here we would like to add that higher plants are more studied with respect to changes in CO₂ and this literature is relevant in terms of e.g. enzymatic activity. That said, the underlying processes are not well

understood and we are not able to pin point the exact mechanisms that could cause reduced respiration. We have incorporated the references that the reviewer suggested and also added a paragraph on possible effects of CCM:

Changes in carbonate chemistry speciation might also affect the availability of the sole substrate, i.e. CO₂, at the site of photosynthetic carbon fixation. At present, marine waters typically have a pH of 8 or above, and most of the carbon is in the form of bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻). Many phytoplankton groups have developed carbon concentrating mechanisms (CCMs), such as the active uptake of bicarbonate, as a way to increase substrate availability at the site of carbon fixation (Singh et al., 2014). Increased CO₂ availability may reduce metabolic activity related to CCMs, which would affect the respiration rate of primary producers.

Reviewer #2, Specific comments and technical suggestions

Author repose

We will make appropriate changes to all the specific comments and technical suggestions raised by the reviewer.

Changes made:

We have added a concluding paragraph as mentioned under reviewer #1, and changed the term 'parameter' to '**variable**' throughout the text.

Additional comment and changes

Thanks to a two helpful references provided by reviewer #2 and his/her comment about expanding on the discussion around the effect of pH on respiration we expanded a bit on the discussion paragraph about this topic:

“However, this is not straight forward and more studies of the effect of changed external pH on membrane transport are needed (Taylor et al., 2012). There might additionally be considerable difference between marine organisms depending on e.g. size, metabolic activity and growth rates, which directly affect pH in the diffusive boundary layer surrounding the organism (Flynn et al., 2012). “

Other changes made to the manuscript

We have also made slight modifications to Table 1, after seeing the review of the synthesis paper submitted to the special issue (Spilling et al 2016). We changed the exported carbon parameters as the original data included sampling at T-1 when the CO₂ concentration had not yet been altered. We deleted the ΔTPC parameter as this is presented in the synthesis paper, and not really relevant for this paper, and we changed the TPC pool to be an average for the two periods. We also added Standard Error for all calculations, with an addition to the legend how this was done, and to the Materials and Methods under section 2.9 (last paragraph):

“From the two different phases of the experiment (Phases I and II; $t_0 - t_{16}$ and $t_{17} - t_{31}$ respectively) we calculated the average for the different parameters and SE, with 9 and 7 sampling points during Phase I and II respectively.”

1 Modified text highlighted in yellow, please also see the cover
2 letter for a detailed description of the changes made to the
3 manuscript

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5 Ocean acidification decreases plankton respiration: evidence
6 from a mesocosm experiment

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26 Running title: Ocean acidification decreases respiration

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Abstract

Anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions are reducing the pH in the world's oceans. The plankton community is a key component driving biogeochemical fluxes, and the effect of increased CO₂ on plankton is critical for understanding the ramifications of ocean acidification on global carbon fluxes. We determined the plankton community composition and measured primary production, respiration rates and carbon export (defined here as carbon sinking out of a shallow, coastal area) during an ocean acidification experiment. Mesocosms (~55 m³) were set up in the Baltic Sea with a gradient of CO₂ levels initially ranging from ambient (~240 μatm), used as control, to high CO₂ (up to ~1330 μatm). The phytoplankton community was dominated by dinoflagellates, diatoms, cyanobacteria and chlorophytes, and the zooplankton community by protozoans, heterotrophic dinoflagellates and cladocerans. The plankton community composition was relatively homogenous between treatments. Community respiration rates were lower at high CO₂ levels. The carbon-normalized respiration was approximately 40% lower in the high CO₂ environment compared with the controls during the latter phase of the experiment. We did not, however, detect any effect of increased CO₂ on primary production. This could be due to measurement uncertainty, as the measured total particular carbon (TPC) and combined results presented in this special issue suggest that the reduced respiration rate translated into higher net carbon fixation. The percent carbon derived from microscopy counts (both phyto- and zooplankton), of the measured total particular carbon (TPC) decreased from ~26% at *t0* to ~8% at *t31*, probably driven by a shift towards smaller plankton (<4 μm) not enumerated by microscopy. Our results suggest that reduced respiration lead to increased net carbon fixation at high CO₂. However, the increased primary production did not translate into increased carbon export, and did consequently not work as a negative feedback mechanism for increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentration.

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58 **1 Introduction**

59 The ocean is a large sink of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and absorbs around 25 % of annual
60 anthropogenic CO₂ emissions (Le Quéré et al., 2009). CO₂ is a weak acid when dissolved in
61 water, and the increasing global atmospheric CO₂ concentration has reduced the average pH
62 in the ocean by approximately 0.1 since the start of the Industrial Revolution (Orr, 2011).
63 This pH reduction, with a concurrent increase in dissolved inorganic carbon, is called ocean
64 acidification. Following the same trajectory, the pH could decline further by as much as 0.7
65 by 2300 (Zeebe et al., 2008).

66 The topic of ocean acidification has received a lot of attention over the past decade. There is a
67 relatively good understanding of the rate of change and the effects on the ocean's carbon
68 chemistry (Zeebe and Ridgwell, 2011). There are also a range of studies documenting the
69 effects of decreasing pH on marine life, but the effect studied is often species or ecosystem
70 specific and based on short term perturbation experiments (Riebesell and Tortell, 2011).
71 There are still a lot of uncertainties as to what effect ocean acidification has on biological
72 processes.

73 The key driving force in marine biogeochemical element cycling is the planktonic community
74 that occupies the sunlit surface of the ocean. Primary producers use the energy from sunlight
75 to take up CO₂ and fix carbon into organic compounds. Respiration is the opposite process
76 where organic carbon is oxidized providing energy and releasing CO₂. This takes place at all
77 trophic levels, from bacteria through to zooplankton, fish and marine mammals. At steady
78 state, production and respiration are balanced. On a global scale, there is presently a surplus
79 of organic matter being produced in the upper ocean through photosynthesis. The extra
80 organic carbon is exported out of the surface layers to the deep ocean where it is sequestered
81 for the foreseeable future, a process referred to as the biological carbon pump. (Volk and
82 Hoffert, 1985; Siegenthaler and Sarmiento, 1993; Ducklow et al., 2001). In the case of
83 coastal seas, part of the carbon is buried at the sea floor (Dunne et al., 2007).

84 The greater the difference between primary production and respiration, the more carbon can
85 potentially be exported, and ocean acidification has the potential to affect this balance.
86 Generally, more CO₂ stimulates photosynthetic carbon fixation, as CO₂ becomes more
87 readily available for the key photosynthetic enzyme RubisCO (Falkowski and Raven, 2013),
88 however, increased primary production at high CO₂ concentration is not always recorded
89 (Sobrino et al., 2014) and the response is variable between different taxa (Mackey et al.,
90 2015). In cases where additional carbon is fixed, it may be excreted as dissolved organic

91 carbon (DOC), providing carbon for bacterial growth, and also increasing bacterial
92 respiration (Grossart et al., 2006; Piontek et al., 2010). Changes in pH might also directly
93 affect both primary production (Spilling, 2007) and respiration (Smith and Raven, 1979).
94 The Baltic Sea is an almost landlocked sea with low alkalinity (Beldowski et al., 2010), and
95 is thus particularly susceptible to variation in seawater pH. Because of the reduced water
96 exchange with the North Atlantic and the large catchment area (population ~80 million), it is
97 also subjected to a range of other environmental pressures, in particular increased nutrient
98 inputs from human activities, i.e. eutrophication. Eutrophication has led to increased primary
99 production and chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) biomass over the past decades in the Gulf of Finland
100 (Raateoja et al., 2005), benefitting chrysophytes, chlorophytes and cyanobacteria, (Suikkanen
101 et al., 2007). Dense blooms of diazotroph cyanobacteria are common in the summer, which
102 further aggravates the eutrophication problem as nitrogen fixation introduces substantial
103 amounts of new nitrogen into the system (Savchuk, 2005). The effect of ocean acidification
104 on this type of system is largely unexplored. In order to investigate the effect of increased
105 CO₂ (and lower pH) on primary production and total plankton respiration in the pelagic zone,
106 we measured carbon fixation, oxygen consumption and export/sedimentation rates during a
107 CO₂-manipulation study set up in the Gulf of Finland, Baltic Sea (further references within
108 this special issue).

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111 **2 Materials and methods**

112 **2.1 Experimental set-up**

113 Six pelagic mesocosms (approximately 55 m³) were moored at Storfjärden, SW coast of
114 Finland (59° 51.5' N; 23° 15.5' E) on 12 June 2012. The water depth at the mooring site is
115 approximately 30 meters and the mesocosms extended from the surface down to 19 m depth.
116 A more detailed description of the mesocosm bags and the experimental area can be found in
117 Paul et al. (2015).

118 On *t*-5 (17 June 2012, 5 days before the first CO₂ enrichment), the mesocosms were bubbled
119 with compressed air to break down any existing pycnocline and ensure homogeneous water
120 mass distribution. Different CO₂ concentrations in the bags were achieved by adding filtered
121 (50 µm), CO₂-saturated seawater. This was done stepwise in four separate additions to reduce
122 the shock of rapid change in pH on the plankton community. The first addition took place
123 after sampling on *t*0, thus *t*1 was the first day with a CO₂ treatment. The CO₂ enriched water
124 was evenly distributed over the upper 17 m using a specially designed distribution device i.e.

125 'spider' (Riebesell et al., 2013). Two controls and four treatment mesocosms were used.
126 Filtered water (with ambient CO₂ concentration) was added to the control mesocosms at the
127 time when CO₂ was manipulated in the treatment mesocosms. The CO₂ fugacity gradient on
128 *t4*, after the four additions, ranged from ambient (~240 μatm *f*CO₂) in the two control
129 mesocosms (M1 and M5), up to ~1650 μatm *f*CO₂, but we used the average *f*CO₂ throughout
130 the relevant part of this experiment (from *t1* – *t31*) to denote the different treatments: 346
131 (M1), 348 (M5), 494 (M7), 868 (M6), 1075 (M3) and 1333 (M8) μatm *f*CO₂. On *t15*,
132 additional CO₂-enriched seawater was added to the upper 7 m in the same manner as the
133 initial enrichment to counteract outgassing of CO₂. The mesocosm bags were regularly
134 cleaned to prevent wall growth. A more detailed description of the treatment and cleaning can
135 be found in Paul et al (2015).

136 Mesocosm sampling was carried out every day (or every second day for some variables) in
137 the morning. Two different depth-integrated water samples (0-10 m and 0-17 m) were taken
138 using integrating water samplers (IWS, HYDRO-BIOS, Kiel). The water was collected into
139 plastic carboys (10 L) and brought to the laboratory for sub-sampling and subsequent analysis
140 of plankton community composition, carbon concentration and for respiration and primary
141 production incubations. Sub-samples for primary production and respiration measurements
142 were treated and stored minimizing the contact with the air in order to prevent any gas
143 exchange.

144 Settling particles were quantitatively collected in the sediment traps at the bottom end of the
145 mesocosm units at 19 m water depth. Every 48 hours the accumulated material was vacuum
146 pumped through a silicon tube to the sea surface and transferred into 5 L glass bottles for
147 transportation to the laboratory. For a more detailed description of the sampling procedure
148 and sample processing of the sediment see Boxhammer et al. (2016).

149

150

151 **2.2 Phytoplankton community**

152 Phytoplankton cells were counted in 50 mL sub-samples, which were fixed with acidic
153 Lugol's iodine solution (1% final concentration) with an inverted microscope (ZEISS
154 Axiovert 100) after Utermöhl (1958). The cells >20 μm were counted either from half of the
155 chamber at 100-fold or on 3 to 4 stripes at 200-fold magnification. Filamentous cyanobacteria
156 were counted in 50 μm length units. Cells 12 - 20 μm were counted at half of the chamber at
157 200-fold magnification, and cells 4-12 μm were counted at 400-fold magnification on two

158 radial strips. The phytoplankton counts of the smaller size classes (<20µm) stopped on *t*29,
159 and these results have been used together with the *t*31 results for larger (>20 µm)
160 phytoplankton as the end date of the experiment. Further details can be found in Bermúdez et
161 al. (2016)

162 Phytoplankton, heterotrophic dinoflagellates and protozoa were identified with the help of
163 Tomas (1997); Hoppenrath et al. (2009) and Kraberg et al. (2010). Biovolumes of counted
164 plankton cells were calculated according to Olenina et al. (2006) and converted to cellular
165 organic carbon quotas by the equations of Menden-Deuer and Lessard (2000).

166

167 **2.3 Microzooplankton community**

168 Ciliates were enumerated from 50 ml sub-samples every second day with a Zeiss Axiovert
169 100 inverted microscope (Utermöhl 1958) at 200 x magnification. At high cell numbers (>
170 400 cells), half the bottom plate area was counted. If less than 400 cells were found in the
171 first half of the bottom plate area, the entire chamber was counted. Rare species were counted
172 on the whole bottom plate. Ciliates were identified to the lowest possible taxonomic level
173 (genus/species) according to Setälä et al. (1992); Telesh et al. (2009) and to description plates
174 found at the planktonic ciliate project (<http://ciliate.zooplankton.cn/>). For more details see
175 Lischka et al. (2015) in this issue.

176

177 **2.4 Mesozooplankton community**

178 The term zooplankton includes here all metazoan species, i.e. organisms belonging strictly
179 speaking to the micro- or mesozooplankton, respectively. Zooplankton samples were
180 collected by net hauls from 17 m depth with an Apstein net of 17 cm diameter and 100 µm
181 mesh size. After closing of the mesocosm bags, zooplankton samples were taken prior to the
182 CO₂ addition on *t*0 and at *t*17 and *t*31 (there were also other sampling days for zooplankton
183 but these are not included here). Samples were preserved in 70% ethanol. Zooplankton was
184 counted assuming 100% filtering efficiency of the net. The samples were divided with a
185 Folsom plankton splitter (1:2, 1:4, 1:8, 1:16, and 1:32) and aliquots were counted using a
186 WILD M3B stereomicroscope. Abundant species/taxa were enumerated from sub-samples (>
187 30 individuals in an aliquot) while less abundant and rare species/taxa were counted from the
188 whole sample. For more details on mesozooplankton collection, processing and species
189 determination, see Lischka et al. (2015). Carbon biomass (CB) in µmol C L⁻¹ was calculated
190 using the displacement volume (DV) and the equation of Wiebe (1988):

191 $(\text{Log DV} + 1.429)/0.82 = \text{log CB}$ (1)

192

193 **2.5 Total particulate carbon**

194 Samples for total particulate carbon (TPC) measurements were sub-sampled from 10 L
195 carboys and filtered onto GF/F filters (Whatman, nominal pore size of 0.7 μm , diameter = 25
196 mm) under reduced vacuum (< 200 mbar). Sampling for TPC occurred every 2nd day from $t-3$
197 until the end of the experiment. Filters were stored in glass petri dishes at -20°C directly after
198 filtration until preparation of samples for analyses. Petri dishes and filters were combusted at
199 450°C for 6 hours before use.

200 Samples were analyzed for total particulate carbon (organic + inorganic) as no acidifying step
201 was made to remove particulate inorganic carbon. Filters were dried at 60°C and packed into
202 tin capsules and stored in a desiccator until analysis on an elemental analyzer (EuroEA) as
203 described by (Sharp, 1974).

204 The particles collected from the sediment traps were allowed to settle down in the sampling
205 flasks at in-situ temperature before separation of supernatant and the dense particle
206 suspension at the bottom. TPC content of the supernatant was analysed from 10–50 mL sub-
207 samples as described above for water column measurements. The dense particle suspension
208 was concentrated by centrifugation, then freeze-dried and ground to a very fine powder of
209 homogeneous composition. From this material, small sub-samples of 1–2 mg were
210 transferred into tin capsules and TPC content was analysed analogue to the supernatant and
211 water column samples. Vertical carbon flux was calculated from the two measurements and is
212 given as the daily amount of TPC (mmol) collected in the sediment traps per square meter of
213 mesocosm surface area (3.142 m^2).

214

215 **2.6 Dissolved inorganic carbon**

216 Samples for dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) were gently pressure-filtered (Saarstedt
217 Filtropur 0.2 μm) before measurements to remove all particulates. DIC concentrations were
218 determined by infrared absorption (LICOR LI-7000 on an AIRICA system, Marianda). Four
219 (2 mL) replicates were measured, and the final DIC concentration was calculated from the
220 mean of the three most consistent samples.

221

222 **2.7 Plankton community respiration**

223 Samples for respiration rate measurements were subsampled from the depth integrated
224 sample from the entire water column (0–17 m). Oxygen was measured using a fiber optical
225 dipping probe (PreSens, Fibox 3), which was calibrated against anoxic (0% O_2 , obtained by

226 adding sodium dithionite) and air saturated water (obtained by bubbling sampled water with
227 air for 5 minutes followed by 15 minutes of stirring with a magnetic stirrer). The final O₂
228 concentration was calculated using the Fibox 3 software including temperature compensation.
229 We filled three replicate 120 mL O₂ bottles (without headspace) for each mesocosm. After
230 the initial O₂ determination, the bottles were put in a dark, temperature controlled room, set to
231 the ambient water temperature at the surface. The O₂ concentration was determined again
232 after an incubation period of 48 hours, and the oxygen consumption (i.e. respiration rate) was
233 calculated from the difference between the O₂ concentration before and after the incubation
234 period. Respiration rates were measured every day *t-3* to *t31*, with the exception of days: *t2*
235 and *t14* because of technical problems.

236

237 **2.8 Primary production**

238 Primary production was measured using radio labeled NaH¹⁴CO₃ (Steeman-Nielsen, 1952)
239 from the 0-10 m depth integrated sample. The rationale for using the upper (0-10 m) part of
240 the mesocosm was the low light penetration depth, and 0-10 m was representative of the
241 euphotic zone. The water was gently filled into 12 small (8 mL) scintillation vials per
242 mesocosm and 10 µl of ¹⁴C bicarbonate solution (DHI Lab; 20 µCi mL⁻¹), was added. The
243 vials were filled completely and after adding the cap there was only a very small (2-3 mm) air
244 bubble remaining corresponding to ~0.1% of total volume.

245 Duplicate samples for each mesocosm were incubated just below the surface and at 2, 4, 6, 8
246 and 10 m depths for 24 h on small incubation platforms moored next to the mesocosms (Fig.
247 S1). In addition, a dark incubation (vials covered with aluminium foil) was incubated at the
248 same location at 11 m depth.

249 After incubation, 3 mL of the sample was removed from each vial and acidified with 100 µl 1
250 mol L⁻¹ HCl, and left without a lid for 24 h to ensure removal of remaining inorganic ¹⁴C.
251 Four mL of scintillation cocktail (Instagel Plus, Perkin Elmer) was added, and the
252 radioactivity was determined using a scintillation counter (Wallac 1414, Perkin Elmer).
253 Primary production was calculated knowing the ¹⁴C incorporation (with dark values
254 subtracted) and the fraction of the ¹⁴C addition to the total inorganic carbon pool according to
255 Gargas (1975). The primary production incubations were set up at the same time as the
256 respiration incubations, but here we missed measurements for two periods: *t1- t3* and *t6- t8*,
257 due to loss of the incubation platform.

258

259 **2.9 Data treatment**

260 The average of the three respiration bottles was used to calculate the respiration rate. There
261 were two days without measurements: t_2 and t_{14} and for these days we estimated the
262 respiration rate by using the average of the day before and after this day. TPC was measured
263 only every second day, therefore for the days without TPC measurements we normalized
264 respiration to average TPC from the day before and the day after the respiration
265 measurement.

266 The cumulative respiration was calculated by adding the total oxygen consumption for each
267 day. When evaluating the data, there were two clear periods emerging from the experiment:
268 the initial period $t_0 - t_{16}$ (Phase I) and period from $t_{17} - t_{31}$ (Phase II) when the effect of the
269 CO_2 addition was more evident. This division was also seen in e.g. Chl a and temperature
270 (Paul et al. 2015). Using the respiration data from Phase II we calculated the average
271 respiration for each treatment by linear regression. From the linear regression, the standard
272 error (SE) from the residuals and the coefficient of determination (R^2) were calculated, in
273 addition to a statistical test comparing the linear regression with a flat line, using Sigma Plot
274 software.

275 The areal primary production was calculated based on a simple linear model of the
276 production measurements from the different depths (Fig S2). The cumulative primary
277 production was carried out similar to respiration, but as the two missing periods were >1 day,
278 we did not estimate missing values, and the final cumulative production is therefore a slight
279 underestimate (missing 6 days of production). We normalized the production data to the TPC
280 in the euphotic zone, defined by the areal production model (Fig S2).

281 From the two different phases of the experiment (Phases I and II; $t_0 - t_{16}$ and $t_{17} - t_{31}$
282 respectively) we calculated the average for the different parameters and SE, with 9 and 7
283 sampling points during Phase I and II respectively.

284

285 **3 Results**

286 **3.1 Phytoplankton community composition**

287 The phytoplankton community in the mesocosms was dominated by dinoflagellates,
288 cyanobacteria, diatoms, chrysophytes and chlorophytes at the start of the experiment (Fig 1).
289 The two latter groups consisted almost exclusively of small cells ($<20 \mu\text{m}$). There was an
290 initial increase in phytoplankton biomass from an average of $3 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ to a maximum of
291 $\sim 4.1 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ in the two controls (M1 and M5), but at the end of Phase I ($t_0 - t_{16}$) the
292 biomass had declined and at t_{17} it ranged between 3.2 to $3.5 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$. During Phase I,
293 large ($>20 \mu\text{m}$) diatoms decreased in abundance and euglenophytes increased from a

294 negligible group initially (0.5% of the biomass) to constituting 15-25% of the autotrophic
295 biomass at *t17*. It was, however, the small (<20 μm) phytoplankton cells (small diatoms,
296 chrysophytes and chlorophytes) that made up the majority (70-80%) of the counted autotroph
297 biomass during Phase I.

298 During Phase II (*t17–t31*), there was a decline in phytoplankton biomass to 0.5-1 $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$
299 and at *t31* dinoflagellates had become the dominating group in all treatments except at the
300 highest CO_2 level. Cyanobacteria and chlorophytes were also abundant and the dominating
301 groups in the highest CO_2 . There was no consistent difference between phytoplankton
302 communities in the different CO_2 treatments, but dinoflagellate abundance was lower in the
303 highest CO_2 treatment (M8), and consequently the total phytoplankton biomass was lower in
304 this treatment at *t31*. The relative increase of large dinoflagellates decreased the contribution
305 of the smaller autotroph size class (4-20 μm) to 40-60% of the counted phytoplankton
306 biomass at *t31*.

307

308 **3.2 Zooplankton community composition**

309 Protozoans, ciliates and heterotrophic dinoflagellates dominated the microzooplankton and
310 constituted a major part (2.8 $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$) of the whole zooplankton community at the start of
311 the experiment (Fig. 2). Protozoans, dominated by the choanoflagellate *Calliacantha natans*,
312 decreased from the initial high concentrations during Phase I, in particular in the M1 control
313 bag. The photosynthesizing, *Myrionecta rubra* (syn. *Mesodinium rubrum*) made up
314 approximately half of the ciliate biomass at *t0*, but both this species and the total biomass of
315 ciliates decreased during Phase I. The biomass of heterotrophic dinoflagellates was relatively
316 stable throughout Phase I, but started to decrease during Phase II.

317 The mesozooplankton community was initially dominated by copepods, cladocerans and
318 rotifers (Fig. 2). The average initial biomass was 0.05 $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ and increased to 0.13 $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$
319 C L^{-1} at *t17*. During Phase I, copepods became the dominating group with >50% of the
320 mesozooplankton biomass. In Phase II of the experiment, mesozooplankton biomass
321 increased and was on average 0.27 $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ at *t31*. This was caused by an increase in
322 cladocerans, mainly *Bosmina* sp., whereas copepod biomass was more constant over the
323 course of the experiment. The population peak of *Bosmina* sp. had slightly different timing in
324 the different mesocosms but was higher in the mesocosms with added CO_2 , except for the
325 highest CO_2 addition (M8).

326

327 **3.3 Total particulate carbon and export of carbon**

328 Average TPC was $22.5 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ at the beginning of the experiment and after an initial
329 increase to $32 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ it decreased to $19.2 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ at *t17* (Fig 3). In the beginning of
330 Phase II it was relatively stable and with no clear effect of CO_2 treatment, but at the end of
331 the study period (*t31*) there was more TPC in the higher CO_2 treatments, and the increase in
332 TPC during Phase II was highest in the CO_2 additions (Table 1). At *t31* the average TPC was
333 $19.9 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$, ranging from 18.9 ± 0.6 (SE) $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$ in the controls to $22.1 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$
334 in the highest CO_2 treatment.

335 The carbon accounted for by biologically active organisms counted in the microscope
336 (phytoplankton and zooplankton) was initially 26% of the TPC. At *t17* and *t31* this
337 percentage decreased to ~20% and ~8% respectively.

338 The export of carbon, defined here as carbon settling out of the mesocosms, decreased during
339 the experiment and there was no effect of CO_2 concentration. The average export of TPC was
340 in the range of $6.1 - 7.4 \text{ mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ during Phase I (Table 1). This decreased to $2.5 - 3.3$
341 $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ during Phase II.

342

343 **3.4 Primary production and respiration**

344 There was no clear effect of CO_2 addition on primary production (Fig. 4). There were
345 relatively large daily variations in depth-integrated primary production depending on the light
346 environment, and days with clear skies and more light increased carbon fixation. One of the
347 control bags (M1) had clearly lower primary production from the very start of the
348 experiment, and this was evident even before the initiation of the CO_2 addition (Fig 4). The
349 average production during the whole experiment was 3.67 ± 0.42 (SE) $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ in M1,
350 and for all other bags 10.5 ± 0.67 (SE) $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. Production on clear, sunny days was
351 (except for M1) approximately $25 \text{ mmol C m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. The general pattern in areal primary
352 production was similar to TPC-normalized production (Table 1). Cumulative production
353 values in mol C m^{-2} are presented in the supplementary material (Fig S3).

354 The respiration rate was higher in the ambient than the high CO_2 treatments (Fig 5). In one of
355 the two controls (M1), the respiration rate was clearly higher compared to all other treatments
356 from the beginning of the experiment. The respiration rate in the other control (M5) increased
357 approximately two weeks later than the CO_2 treatments. After *t17*, the mesocosm with
358 highest CO_2 concentration (average of $1333 \mu\text{atm } f\text{CO}_2$) started to have lower cumulative
359 respiration compared to those with intermediate CO_2 levels ($494\text{--}1075 \mu\text{atm } f\text{CO}_2$). After
360 another week (~*t27*), differences between the intermediate CO_2 treatments became apparent.
361 At the end of Phase II (*t20–t31*), there was a 40% difference in respiration rate between the

362 lowest and highest $f\text{CO}_2$ treatments (slope -0.0002; $p = 0.02$; $R^2 = 0.77$; Fig. 6). The
363 volumetric respiration during Phase II was 7.6 and 7.1 $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for the two controls,
364 and 4.7 - 5.7 $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ for the CO_2 treatment mesocosms. Outside the mesocosms, at
365 ambient CO_2 concentration (average of 343 $\mu\text{atm } f\text{CO}_2$ but with larger variability than inside
366 the mesocosms), the carbon normalized respiration rate was lower than inside the mesocosms
367 and the cumulative, carbon-normalized respiration was approximately half of that measured
368 in the control bags at the end of the experiment (Fig 5). The general pattern of lower
369 respiration rates at high CO_2 concentration was the same without normalization to TPC
370 (Table 1, Fig S4).

371

372 **4 Discussion**

373 **4.1 Plankton community**

374 The particulate and dissolved standing stocks during this experiment are presented in Paul et
375 al. (2015). In the initial Phase I of the experiment the Chl *a* concentration was relatively high
376 ($\sim 2 \mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$), but started to decrease during Phase II, and reached $\sim 1 \mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$ at *t31*
377 in all of the treatments. During this transition there was a shift in the plankton community
378 with decreasing phytoplankton and microzooplankton, and increasing abundance of
379 mesozooplankton, primarily cladocerans (Figs 1 and 2).

380 The phytoplankton community composition was dominated by common species in the area
381 (Hällfors, 2004). In the latter part (Phase II), the relative dominance by dinoflagellates was
382 mainly due to reduction in biomass of the other groups, with the exception of the highest CO_2
383 concentration where also the dinoflagellates decreased in abundance. Dinoflagellates are
384 generally favored in low turbulence (Margalef, 1978; Smayda and Reynolds, 2001), and were
385 probably benefitting from the relative stable conditions within the mesocosms. Blooms of
386 filamentous cyanobacteria do occur in the area, but did not develop within the mesocosms.
387 The relatively low temperature (mostly $<15^\circ\text{C}$; Paul et al., 2015) could be a reason for that
388 (Kanoshina et al., 2003).

389 Protozoans, ciliates and heterotrophic dinoflagellates dominated the microzooplankton, and
390 *Myrionecta rubra* initially made up a large proportion of the ciliates. *M. rubra* can be
391 regarded as mixotrophic and would also have contributed to the carbon fixation (Johnson et al.,
392 2006). Copepods and cladocerans initially dominated the mesozooplankton, and during Phase
393 II, cladocerans became the dominant mesozooplankton group. Cladocerans are typically
394 predominant in freshwater but in the brackish Baltic Sea they can be common, in particular
395 when stability in the water column is high (Viitasalo et al., 1995).

396 The combined phyto- and zooplankton carbon derived from microscope counts decreased
397 during the experiment. TPC did not decrease to the same extent, and the percentage
398 microscope-derived carbon of TPC decreased from 26% at t_0 to only ~8% of the measured
399 TPC at t_{31} . These numbers are not directly comparable, as detritus, i.e. non-living carbon
400 particles, are included in TPC. However, any large aggregates sink rapidly and are not
401 expected to have contributed much to the TPC. The reduction of microscopy-derived carbon
402 to TPC indicate rather increasing importance of smaller size classes ($<4 \mu\text{m}$), not enumerated
403 by the microscope counts. This conclusion is also supported by flow cytometer data from this
404 experiment (Crawford et al., 2016), increasing uptake of PO_4 by the $<3 \mu\text{m}$ fraction (Nausch
405 et al., 2016) and the increasing proportion of the smallest ($<2 \mu\text{m}$) size class of Chl *a* (Paul et
406 al., 2015).

407

408 **4.2. Primary production and respiration**

409 Primary production and respiration rates were comparable to values obtained under similar
410 conditions in the area (Kivi et al., 1993). There are relatively few records of respiration, but
411 the measured respiration rates in the control bags were similar to the average respiration rate
412 obtained for a range of coastal waters of $7.4 \pm 0.54 \text{ mmol O}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ($n=323$) (Robinson and
413 Williams, 2005). The incubation period we used for primary production measurements (24 h)
414 provides production rates close to net production (Marra, 2009).

415 The higher respiration and lower production in the M1 control bag was probably connected,
416 i.e. higher respiration lead to lower net carbon fixation, however, the reason for the M1 bag
417 being very different from the very start is not clear. Most of the other variables were similar
418 in the M1 bag compared to the rest (Paul et al., 2015), but there was some indication of
419 difference in community. In particular, protozoans were lower in the M1 bag compared with
420 the rest of the mesocosms throughout the experiment. However, judging from the
421 development in carbon pools (Paul et al., 2015) and fluxes in the system (Spilling et al.,
422 2016), the NPP measurements for the M1 bag must be an underestimate. Bacterial production
423 during Phase II was highest in the ambient CO_2 , in particular in M1 (Hornick et al., 2016),
424 and could partly be the reason for the elevated respiration rate in this mesocosm bag.

425 **Having the respiration incubation at a fixed temperature might have caused a slight bias as**
426 **there was varying thermal stratification throughout the experiment and the temperature was**
427 **not even throughout the mesocosm bags. A better approach would have been to have**
428 **respiration incubations in temperatures above and below the thermocline, but logistical**
429 **constraints prevented us from doing this.**

430 Another factor that could have influenced our incubations is UV light, which is a known
431 inhibitor of primary production (Vincent and Roy, 1993), and elevated CO₂ concentration
432 may increase the sensitivity to UV light (Sobrino et al., 2009). Additionally, UV light reduces
433 the release of DOC by phytoplankton, in particular at high CO₂ concentration (Sobrino et al.,
434 2014), but also cause photochemical mineralization of dissolved organic matter (DOM)
435 (Vahatalo and Jarvinen, 2007). Both DOC release and DOM break down may have
436 implications for bacterial production and nutrient cycling. The mesocosm bags were made in
437 a material absorbing UV light (thermoplastic polyurethane) whereas our primary production
438 incubations were done in glass vials (transmitting some UV light) moored outside the
439 mesocosm bags. The difference in UV transmittance could have produced a bias in the
440 primary production measurements. However, the DOM concentration in the Baltic Sea is
441 very high compared with most other oceans and coastal seas (Hoikkala et al., 2015). Most of
442 this is terrestrial derived, refractory DOM, which effectively absorbs in the UV region, and
443 typically the depth at which 1% of UVB remains is <50 cm (Piazena and Häder, 1994). UVA
444 penetrates a little deeper and may have affected slightly the incubation platform moored at 2
445 m depth, but we do not believe that UV light caused major inhibition of our primary
446 production measurements or affected phytoplankton DOC production.

447
448

449 **4.3. Effect of CO₂ on the balance between respiration and carbon fixation**

450 Increased CO₂ concentration has increased carbon fixation in some studies (Egge et al., 2009;
451 Engel et al., 2013). This was not observed in this study, but the higher Chl *a*, TPC and DOC
452 in the high CO₂ treatments at the end of the experiment (Paul et al., 2015) could have been
453 caused by the lower respiration rate in the highest CO₂ enriched mesocosms, rather than
454 increased primary production. Bacterial production was higher in the low CO₂ after *t*20
455 during this experiment (Hornick et al., 2016), which fits with the higher respiration rate at
456 ambient CO₂ concentration. The biomass of the smallest plankton size fraction (<4 μm, not
457 counted by microscope) increased in relative importance with CO₂ addition in the latter part
458 of the experiment, in particular two groups of pico-eukaryotes (Crawford et al., 2016), and
459 seems to have benefitted most by elevated CO₂ concentration, similar to findings in the
460 Arctic (Brussaard et al., 2013). Temporal changes in bacterial abundances followed largely
461 that of phytoplankton biomass, and there were significant increases in viral lysis rates in the
462 high CO₂ treatment (Crawford et al., 2016). This was most likely a consequence of higher

463 abundances of pico-eukaryotes and pointing towards a more productive but regenerative
464 system (Crawford et al., 2016).

465 This study is, to our knowledge, the first one describing reduced respiration rates with ocean
466 acidification on a plankton community scale. There are relatively few measurements of
467 community respiration in ocean acidification experiments, and existing studies have revealed
468 no specific responses in respiration (Egge et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 2013; Mercado et al.,
469 2014). Some of these studies have been relatively short (<2 weeks) compared to the current
470 study. Our results revealed a CO₂ effect only two weeks into the experiment, suggesting that
471 potential effects may have been present but remained below the detection limits in previous
472 studies.

473 The effect of increasing CO₂ concentration on respiration has mostly been documented for
474 single species. For example, the copepod *Centropages tenuiremis* (Li and Gao, 2012) and the
475 diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (Wu et al., 2010) exhibited increased respiration rates in
476 a high CO₂ environment ($\geq 1000 \mu\text{atm } f\text{CO}_2$), contrary to our findings. However, these types
477 of studies have revealed different responses even when comparing different populations of
478 the same species (Thor and Oliva, 2015), and any interpolation from single-species,
479 laboratory-studies should be carried out with great caution. The larger-scale mesocosm
480 approach taken here has the advantage that the whole plankton community and possible
481 interacting effects between different components of the food web are included.

482 In higher plants, it is known that elevated CO₂ decreases mitochondrial respiration in the
483 foliage (Puhe and Ulrich, 2012). In their review, Drake et al. (1999) outlined two CO₂ effects
484 on respiration: an immediate, reversible effect and a longer term, irreversible effect, both
485 decreasing respiration in a high CO₂ environment. In our study it was only a longer term
486 effect that was observed. It is not known what cause this reduced respiration in plant foliage,
487 but Amthor (1991) pointed out seven potential mechanisms for how changes in the CO₂
488 concentration could reduce plant respiration, for example by affecting respiratory enzymes. A
489 doubling of present day CO₂ concentration could decrease foliage respiration rate by 15 to
490 30% (Drake et al., 1999; Puhe and Ulrich, 2012), but other parts e.g. root system are
491 projected to increase respiration so the net effect of elevated CO₂ on plant respiration is
492 uncertain (Puhe and Ulrich, 2012). Phytoplankton lacks any specialized structures like root
493 system and may consequently function more like plant foliage.

494 The intracellular pH can be highly variable between different cellular compartments and
495 organelles, but in the cytosol the pH is normally close to neutral (pH ~7.0), and is to a large
496 extent independent of the external pH (Roos and Boron, 1981). In plants, animals and also

497 bacteria, there is a complex set of pH regulatory mechanisms that is fundamentally controlled
498 by physiological processes such as membrane transport of H^+ or OH^- and intracellular
499 metabolism (Smith and Raven, 1979; Kurkdjian and Guern, 1989). Internal pH regulation can
500 be a considerable part of baseline respiration (Pörtner et al., 2000). With ocean acidification,
501 the external pH becomes closer to the intracellular pH, and this might reduce the metabolic
502 cost (respiration) related to internal pH regulation. However, this is not straight forward and
503 more studies of the effect of changed external pH on membrane transport are needed (Taylor
504 et al., 2012). There might additionally be considerable difference between marine organisms
505 depending on e.g. size, metabolic activity and growth rates, which directly affect pH in the
506 diffusive boundary layer surrounding the organism (Flynn et al., 2012).

507 Changes in carbonate chemistry speciation might also affect the availability of the sole
508 substrate, i.e. CO_2 , at the site of photosynthetic carbon fixation. At present, marine waters
509 typically have a pH of 8 or above, and most of the carbon is in the form of bicarbonate
510 (HCO_3^-). Many phytoplankton groups have developed carbon concentrating mechanisms
511 (CCMs), such as the active uptake of bicarbonate, as a way to increase substrate availability
512 at the site of carbon fixation (Singh et al., 2014). Increased CO_2 availability may reduce
513 metabolic activity related to CCMs, which would affect the respiration rate of primary
514 producers.

515 Judging from the importance of the smallest size class in this study, bacterial and
516 picophytoplankton community (Crawford et al., 2016) and bacterial production (Hornick et
517 al., 2016), the decreased respiration at higher CO_2 concentration was probably mostly due to
518 reduced picoplankton respiration. The underlying mechanisms behind the reduced respiration
519 are unclear and this is an underexplored research avenue that deserves further study.

520

521

522 **4.4. Interacting effects and community composition**

523 Our measurements outside the mesocosm bags demonstrate that plankton physiology and
524 community composition can have a big impact on both primary production and respiration.
525 The plankton community was relatively uniform across all mesocosm bags. Unfortunately,
526 we do not have any community data from outside the mesocosm bags, but the amplitude of
527 Chl *a* dynamics was different, with an upwelling event leading to a doubling of the Chl *a*
528 concentration ($\sim 5 \mu g \text{ Chl } a \text{ L}^{-1}$) around *t17* (Paul et al., 2015). This suggests a different
529 availability of inorganic nutrients and different plankton community as other environmental
530 variables such as light and temperature were similar both inside and outside the mesocosm

531 bags, except that UV light was absent inside the mesocosm bags. The carbon-normalized
532 respiration rate outside the mesocosm bags (with ambient $f\text{CO}_2$) was approximately half of
533 the respiration rates in the controls with the same average $f\text{CO}_2$, and also absolute respiration
534 was clearly lower during Phase II, when nitrate was depleted inside the bags and plankton
535 biomass was decreasing. However, the $f\text{CO}_2$ was more variable outside the mesocosm bags
536 compared with the control bags (although their averages were similar), and the $f\text{CO}_2$
537 increased throughout Phase II outside the bags to approximately 700 μatm by *t31* (Paul et al.
538 2015). This could have influenced the carbon normalized respiration, which started to deviate
539 outside the bags during Phase II, but it could also have been interacting effects of different
540 environmental changes (different nutrient dynamics) leading to this lower respiration rate. An
541 often overlooked aspect is the importance of the plankton community composition, which can
542 be more important than changes in external factors (Verity and Smetacek, 1996; Eggers et al.,
543 2014).

544 Bacterial production (Grossart et al., 2006) and bacterial degradation of polysaccharides
545 (Piontek et al., 2010) have been demonstrated to increase under elevated CO_2 concentration,
546 contrary to the findings during this experiment (Hornick et al., 2016). All of these responses
547 are to a large extent dependent on the plankton community composition. For example, the
548 increased bacterial production observed in a mesocosm study in a Norwegian fjord was
549 probably a response to increased carbon availability produced by phytoplankton (Grossart et
550 al., 2006). DOC production by phytoplankton is determined by the physiological state and the
551 composition of the community (Thornton, 2014); in particular diatoms have been intensively
552 studied in this respect and are known to be important DOC producers (Hoagland et al., 1993).
553 Shifts in the phytoplankton community may alter the DOC production (Spilling et al., 2014),
554 and any shifts in the plankton community composition, caused by ocean acidification, may
555 have greater effects on ecosystem functioning than any direct effect of increasing $f\text{CO}_2$ /
556 decreasing pH (Eggers et al., 2014).

557 It is evident that there were other variables that influence the physiology of the plankton
558 community as a whole outside the mesocosms. Changes in community composition and
559 nutrient availability seem the most plausible reasons. A better understanding of how different
560 physical, chemical and biological factors interact with each other is needed in order to
561 improve our understanding of how marine ecosystems change under the influence of a range
562 of environmental pressures.

563

564 **4.5. Potential implications for carbon cycling**

565 A lot of attention during past decades has been directed to understanding the biological
566 carbon pump, as it is a key mechanism for sequestering atmospheric CO₂. The potential
567 export is ultimately determined by gross primary production minus total community
568 respiration. Even small changes in the production or loss term of this equation have the
569 potential to greatly affect biogeochemical cycling of carbon.

570 The exported carbon decreased during the experiment. Part of this decrease was probably due
571 to sinking of existing organic material at the start of the experiment and can be seen as the
572 reduction in TPC. However, this also coincided with the shift towards increased dominance
573 of picoplankton. Size is a key parameter determining sinking speed, and picoplankton is very
574 inefficient in transporting carbon out of the euphotic layer (Michaels and Silver, 1988). The
575 shift towards smaller size classes was likely also contributing to the reduction in exported
576 carbon.

577 The 40% reduction in respiration with increasing *f*CO₂ found in our study could have great
578 implications for net export of carbon in the future ocean. There is, however, uncertainty in the
579 results, in particular that the measured net carbon fixation under increased CO₂ was not
580 higher than in the controls. In the case of reduced respiration, an increase in net primary
581 production can be expected, as loss rates are reduced. That the measured carbon fixation was
582 not evidently different between treatments could be due to similar reduction in GPP, as
583 indicated by carbon flux estimates (Spilling et al., 2016). Alternatively, the measurement
584 uncertainty in our small scale incubations (8 mL), involving several pipetting steps, was
585 likely higher than the respiration measurements, which could have prevented us from picking
586 up any CO₂ effect on primary production. Another complicating factor is what the ¹⁴C
587 method is actually measuring (Sakshaug et al., 1997; Falkowski and Raven, 2013). The
588 consensus seems to be somewhere between gross and net production, but leaning towards net
589 production with long incubation times (Marra, 2009).

590 There was evidence of a positive CO₂ effect on the amount of Chl *a*, TPC and DOC pools
591 (Paul et al., 2015), suggesting that the reduced respiration does translate into higher net
592 carbon fixation. This effect was seen from the latter part of Phase II and the trend continued
593 after *t31* (these variables were sampled until *t43*). This increased net carbon fixation did not,
594 however, affect carbon export as there was no detectable difference in the sinking flux
595 measurements (Table 1 and Paul et al. 2015). The results suggest that the increased carbon
596 fixation ended up in the smallest size fraction of TPC not being exported and/or into the
597 dissolved organic carbon pool. Further support for this conclusion is presented in Paul et al.
598 (2015), Crawford et al. (2016) and Lischka et al. (2015).

599 In conclusion, this study suggests that elevated CO₂ reduced respiration which in turn
600 increased net carbon fixation. However, the increased primary production did not translate
601 into increased carbon export, and did consequently not work as a negative feedback
602 mechanism for increasing atmospheric CO₂ concentration.

603

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817

1

2 Table 1. Average net primary production (NPP), total respiration (TR) and exported total particulate carbon (Exp_{TPC}) in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE during Phase I
 3 and Phase II of the experiment. The pool of total particulate carbon (TPC) is the average during the two periods in mmol C m⁻² ± SE. **The standard error was**
 4 **calculated throughout the period: Phase I, n = 9 and Phase II, n = 7.** NPP and TR was corrected for the missing measuring days during Phase I. TR was
 5 measured as O₂ consumption and for comparison with carbon fixation we used a respiratory quotient (RQ) of 1.

6

7 **Phase I (t0-t16)**

8 CO₂ treatment (μatm fCO₂)	346	348	494	868	1075	1333
9 NPP	4.8±0.8	11.4±2.1	14.9±3.6	12.3±2.3	11.3±2.4	14.5±2.7
10 TR	107±9	82±7	81±6	80±8	75±8	74±8
11 Exp _{TPC}	6.6±0.10	5.6±0.04	5.4±0.07	6.0±0.07	5.6±0.06	6.0±0.05
12 TPC	410±25	385±25	402±31	415±33	408±27	424±38

13 **Phase II (t17-t31)**

14 CO₂ treatment (μatm fCO₂)	346	348	494	868	1075	1333
15 NPP	3.8±0.6	11.2±1.9	10.8±2.0	14.3±2.8	10.4±2.1	12.0±2.5
16 TR	140±7	127±5	103±3	103±4	101±5	86±4
17 Exp _{TPC}	3.3±0.08	2.6±0.06	2.5±0.08	2.6±0.06	2.8±0.07	2.9±0.06
18 TPC	301±11	313±11	305±16	316±7	317±5	326±10

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Figure legends

Fig 1. The main phytoplankton groups at the start of the experiment, t_0 , and t_{17} (upper panel) and t_{31} (lower panel). The initial (t_0) was the average of all mesocosm bags. A more detailed description of the temporal development in the phytoplankton community can be found in Bermúdez et al. (2016).

Fig 2. The main micro- and mesozooplankton groups at the start of the experiment, t_0 , and t_{17} (upper panel) and t_{31} (lower panel). The initial (t_0) was the average of all mesocosm bags. A more detailed description of the temporal development in the phytoplankton community can be found in Lischka et al. (2015).

Fig 3. The development of total particulate carbon (TPC) during the experiment.

Fig. 4. The cumulative primary production in the different $f\text{CO}_2$ treatments normalized to total particulate carbon (TPC) in the euphotic zone. The $f\text{CO}_2$ (μatm) were the average measured over the duration of the experiment. The two lowest $f\text{CO}_2$ treatments (346 and 348 μatm) were controls without any CO_2 addition. The two phases of the experiment is indicated by the horizontal bars on top.

Fig. 5. The cumulative respiration in the different $f\text{CO}_2$ treatments normalized to total particulate carbon (TPC). The $f\text{CO}_2$ (μatm) were the average measured over the duration of the experiment. The two lowest $f\text{CO}_2$ treatments (346 and 348 μatm) were controls without any CO_2 addition. The two phases of the experiment is indicated by the horizontal bars on top.

Fig 6. The respiration rate, normalized to total particulate carbon (TPC), in the different $f\text{CO}_2$ treatments during the latter half of the experiment ($t_{20} - t_{31}$). Respiration was estimated by linear regression from the data presented in Fig. 4 from the time when an effect of increased CO_2 concentration was first observed. The error bars represent standard error (SE) of the residuals from the linear regression. The solid line represents the linear regression (slope - 0.0002; $p = 0.02$; $R^2 = 0.77$) and dotted lines the 95% confidence intervals.

