

Effect of ocean acidification on the structure and fatty acid composition of a natural plankton community in the Baltic Sea

J.R. Bermúdez^{1,2}, M. Winder³, A. Stühr¹, A.K. Almén⁴, J. E. Öst^{4,5}, U. Riebesell¹

[1] {GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Germany}

[2] {Facultad de Ingeniería Marítima, Ciencias Biológicas, Oceánicas y Recursos Naturales. Escuela Superior Politécnica del Litoral, ESPOL, Guayaquil, Ecuador}

[3] {Department of Ecology, Environment and Plant Sciences, Stockholm University, Stockholm, Sweden}

[4] {Novia University of Applied Sciences, Coastal Zone Research Team, Ekenäs, Finland}

[5] {Tvärminne Zoological Station, University of Helsinki, J.A. Palménin tie 260, FI-10900 Hanko, Finland}

Correspondence to: J.R. Bermúdez (jrbermud@espol.edu.ec)

Keywords

Fatty acids, *Acartia bifilosa*, *Eurytemora affinis*, plankton community, CO₂, ocean acidification, Baltic Sea.

Abstract

Increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) is changing seawater chemistry towards reduced pH, which consequently affects various properties of marine organisms. Coastal and brackish water communities are expected to be less affected by ocean acidification (OA) as these communities are typically adapted to high fluctuations in CO₂ and pH. Here we investigate the response of a coastal brackish water plankton community to increasing CO₂ levels as projected for the coming decades and the end of this century in terms of community and biochemical fatty acid (FA) composition. A Baltic Sea plankton community was enclosed in a set of off-shore mesocosms and subjected to a CO₂ gradient ranging from natural concentrations (~347 $\mu\text{atm } p\text{CO}_2$) up to values projected for the year 2100 (~1333 $\mu\text{atm } p\text{CO}_2$). We show that the phytoplankton community composition was resilient to CO₂ and did not diverge between the treatments. Seston FA composition was influenced by community composition, which in turn was driven by silicate and phosphate limitation in the mesocosms, and showed no difference between the CO₂ treatments. These results suggest that CO₂ effects are dampened in coastal communities that already experience high natural fluctuations in $p\text{CO}_2$. Although this coastal

39 plankton community was tolerant to high $p\text{CO}_2$ levels, hypoxia and CO_2 uptake by the sea can
40 aggravate acidification and may lead to pH changes outside the currently experienced range for
41 coastal organisms.

42

43 **1 Introduction**

44

45 The steady increase of carbon dioxide (CO_2) due to anthropogenic emission since the beginning
46 of the industrial era has increased the atmospheric concentration (Boyd et al. 2014). The ocean
47 has a large carbon sink capacity, and increasing atmospheric CO_2 absorbed by the ocean is
48 changing the chemistry of the seawater, causing a decline in pH termed Ocean Acidification
49 (OA) (Boyd et al. 2014). OA has been shown to affect various biological processes of diverse
50 marine species (Doney et al. 2009; Kroeker et al. 2010). For instance OA can impact the
51 biochemical and elemental composition of organisms (Sato et al. 2003; Torstensson et al. 2013),
52 which can be transferred to higher trophic levels (Rossoll et al. 2012). OA can also drive
53 alterations in the community composition structure of primary producers (Hare et al. 2007;
54 Biswas et al. 2011; Schulz et al. 2013). Strong CO_2 -effects may be particularly significant in
55 marine species that experience low natural fluctuations in CO_2 (Riebesell 2004). In contrast,
56 coastal and brackish-water environments encounter wide and frequent fluctuations in $p\text{CO}_2$
57 (Hinga 2002; Rossoll et al. 2013), due to large fluxes of organic and inorganic carbon from river
58 runoff (Hinga 2002), seasonal processes (Melzner et al. 2013) and upwelling of CO_2 enriched
59 water (Feely et al. 2009), all of which lead to wider pH variation in coastal systems compared
60 to the open ocean (Hinga 2002). Consequently, it can be expected that coastal and brackish
61 communities are more tolerant to OA effects (Rossoll et al. 2013; Reusch & Boyd 2013) and
62 adverse CO_2 effect in terms of the biochemical composition of primary producers and variations
63 in community composition may be diminished.

64

65 Fatty acids (FA) are the main components of lipids in cell membranes. In particular
66 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) have important physiological roles in algae, which
67 synthesize them in high amounts. Heterotrophs at higher trophic levels cannot synthesize
68 certain FA *de novo*, especially PUFA, and have to acquire them from dietary sources (Izquierdo
69 et al. 2001). Diverse laboratory studies of monocultures showed that CO_2 alters the FA profile
70 of individual algal species (Sato et al. 2003; Fiorini et al. 2010; Torstensson et al. 2013;
71 Bermúdez et al. 2015). A CO_2 -driven change in algal food quality can be detrimental for
72 grazers, as has been shown in a laboratory study under elevated CO_2 levels (Rossoll et al. 2012).

73 A strong decline of PUFA in a diatom, grown at high CO₂ affected the FA composition of
74 copepods grazing on them and severely impaired their development and egg production rates.
75 Furthermore, increasing seawater CO₂ can modify phytoplankton community composition by
76 favoring certain taxa of primary producers (Graeme et al. 2005). In particular, small-sized cells
77 benefit from high CO₂ (Hare et al. 2007; Biswas et al. 2011; Brussaard et al. 2013). This is
78 ecologically relevant as taxonomic phytoplankton groups have contrasting FA profiles
79 (Galloway & Winder 2015) and a change in community structure can affect higher trophic
80 levels. For instance, a field study of two cladocerans having different phytoplankton
81 composition as food source showed decreased egg production, lipid reserves, body size and
82 abundance when fed with algae from an acidic lake (Locke & Sprules 2000).

83
84 The above observations suggest that changes in planktonic biochemical makeup and associated
85 shifts in community composition of primary producers as a result of OA can affect the transfer
86 of essential compounds to upper trophic levels. Laboratory studies have shown that algae
87 subjected to long-term high CO₂ levels can restore their physiological optima through adaptive
88 evolution (Lohbeck et al. 2012; Bermúdez et al. 2015) and that coastal communities are resilient
89 to OA-driven changes in community composition and biomass (Nielsen et al. 2010; Rossoll et
90 al. 2013). Therefore, it can be expected that organisms in these areas are adapted to high CO₂
91 fluctuations (Thomsen et al. 2010; Nielsen et al. 2010; Rossoll et al. 2013), hampering any CO₂-
92 driven effects previously observed in plankton communities (Locke & Sprules 2000; Biswas et
93 al. 2011).

94
95 The goal of the present study was to determine if an increase in CO₂ affects phytoplankton
96 community composition and their FA composition, and if any effects are transferred to grazers
97 of a natural plankton community in a coastal/brackish environment. A set of off-shore
98 mesocosms, that enclosed a natural plankton assemblage of the Baltic Sea, were used as
99 experimental units. The CO₂ levels ranged from current to projected next century values (Boyd
100 et al. 2014, scenario A2). Algal FA were measured in total seston and in the copepods *Acartia*
101 *bifilosa* and *Eurytemora affinis*, respectively, which were the dominant zooplankton during the
102 experiment (Almén et al. 2015).

103

104 **2 Material and Methods**

105

106 **2.1 Experimental set-up and CO₂ manipulation**

107 Our study was conducted during an off-shore CO₂ mesocosm perturbation experiment off the
108 Tvärminne Zoological Station at the entrance to the Gulf of Finland at 59° 51.5' N, 23° 15.5'
109 E during late spring 2012. We used six enclosures with a length of 17 m containing ~55 m³ of
110 natural sea water (Paul et al. 2015). The mesocosms were set up and manipulated as described
111 in detail by Paul et al. (2015) and Riebesell et al. (2013). Carbon dioxide enrichment was
112 achieved in two phases through the addition of CO₂-saturated seawater to four out of six
113 mesocosms. In phase 1, CO₂ was added in five steps between day 1 and day 5 to achieve values
114 from ambient (~240 µatm) and up to ~1650 micro-atmospheres (µatm) fugacity of carbon
115 dioxide (*f*CO₂). In phase 2 at day 15 CO₂ was again added in the upper 7 m to compensate for
116 pronounced outgassing in the CO₂ enriched mesocosms. As described by Paul et al. (2015),
117 dissolved inorganic carbon and total pH (on the total pH scale) were taken every sampling
118 day to determine the carbonate system and determine *f*CO₂ in the mesocosms. Samples for
119 nutrients were collected and analyzed as described by Paul et al. (2015). Samples for
120 phytoplankton counts were taken every second day and for fatty acid concentrations every
121 fourth day using a depth-integrated water sampler (Hydrobios, Kiel, Germany) covering the
122 upper 15 m of the water column. Integrated zooplankton net tows were taken every seventh day
123 as described by Almén et al. (2015).

124

125 **2.2 Phytoplankton abundance and biomass calculation**

126 Phytoplankton cell counts up to a cell size of 200 µm were carried out from 50 ml water
127 samples, fixed with alkaline Lugol's iodine (1% final concentration) using the Utermöhl's
128 (1958) method with an inverted microscope (ZEISS Axiovert 100). At 200 times magnification,
129 cells larger than 12 µm were counted on half of the chamber area, while smaller cells were
130 counted at 400 times magnification on two radial strips. The plankton was identified to genus
131 or species level according to Tomas (1997), Hoppenrath et al. (2009) and Kraberg et al. (2010).
132 Algal biovolume was calculated according to geometric shapes and converted to cellular
133 organic carbon using taxon-specific conversion equations for phytoplankton (Menden-Deuer &
134 Lessard 2000).

135

136

137

138 **2.3 Fatty acid composition**

139 For analysis of seston fatty acid (FA), 500 ml of seawater were filtered by a 100 µm size pore
140 net and samples were collected in a pre-combusted (450°C, 6 h) Whatman GF/F (~0.7 µm

141 nominal pore size) filters. For zooplankton gravid copepod females of *Acartia bifilosa* and
142 *Eurytemora affinis* were picked with sterile tweezers under two stereomicroscopes (Nikon
143 SMZ800, 25× magnification and Leica 25× magnification) and placed in pre-weighted tin cups.
144 All samples were immediately stored at -80°C until analysis. FA were measured by gas
145 chromatography as fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) following Klein Breteler et al. (1999).
146 Lipids were extracted over night from the filters using 3 ml of a solvent mixture
147 (dichloromethane:methanol:chloroform in 1:1:1 volume ratios). As internal standard, FAME
148 C19:0 (Restek, Bad Homburg, Germany; c= 20 ng of component per sample) was added, and a
149 C23:0 FA standard (c= 25.1 ng μl^{-1}) used as an esterification efficiency control (usually 80-85
150 %). Water-soluble fractions were removed by washing with 2.25 ml of KCl solution (c= 1 mol
151 L^{-1}), and the remainder dried by addition of NaSO_4 . The solvent was evaporated to dryness in
152 a rotary film evaporator (100-150 mbar), re-dissolved in chloroform and transferred into a glass
153 cocoon. The solvent was evaporated again (10-30 mbar), and esterification was performed
154 overnight using 200 μl 1% H_2SO_4 (in CH_3OH) and 100 μl toluene at 50°C. Phases were split
155 using 300 μl 5% sodium chloride solution, and FAMES were separated using n-Hexane,
156 transferred into a new cocoon, evaporated, and 100 μl (final volume) added. All solvents used
157 were gas chromatography (GC) grade. FAME were analyzed by a Thermo GC Ultra gas
158 chromatograph equipped with a non-polar column (RXII-SIL-MS 0.32 μm , 30 m, company
159 Restek) and Flame ionization detector. The column oven was initially set to 100°C, and heated
160 to 220 °C at 2 °C min^{-1} . The carrier gas was helium at a constant flow of 2 ml min^{-1} . The flame
161 ionization detector was set to 280 °C, with a gas flow of 350, 35 and 30 ml min^{-1} of synthetic
162 air, hydrogen and helium, respectively. A 1 μl aliquot of the sample was injected. The system
163 was calibrated with a 37-component FAME-mix (Supelco, Germany) and chromatograms were
164 analyzed using Chrom-Card Trace-Focus GC software and the fatty acids were clustered
165 according to their degree of saturation: saturated (SFA), monounsaturated (MUFA) and
166 polyunsaturated (PUFA).

167

168 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

169 The data was analyzed by a nested Mixed Effects ANOVA Model (LME) to determine the
170 differences in taxa biomass ($\mu\text{gC ml}^{-1}$) and relative fatty acid content (% in the seston and
171 zooplankton) between the CO_2 treatments ($\mu\text{atm } f\text{CO}_2$), with $f\text{CO}_2$, silicate, inorganic nitrogen
172 (nitrite + nitrate), phosphate, temperature and salinity as fixed effects, and sampling day and
173 mesocosm position as nested random variable (random distribution of CO_2 treatments among
174 the mesocosm). Average mesocosm $f\text{CO}_2$ was calculated for the total duration of the sampling

175 period plankton community composition (day 1 to 29) and for FA data analysis (day 1 to 25 for
176 seston FA and day -1 to 33 for zooplankton FA). Linear regression models were used to
177 determine the relation between PUFA and phytoplankton biomass. The similarity in the
178 structure of the plankton community between the treatments was analyzed by Non Metrical
179 Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) with Bray distance, auto-transformation and 3 dimensions
180 ($k=3$). This analysis distributes the samples in an ordination space according to the biomass of
181 the different taxa in the community along orthogonal principal components using non Euclidean
182 distances for ordination space, which makes it more robust to the presence of zero values
183 (Clarke 1993). All statistical analyses were done using the R software environment 3.0.1 (R
184 Development Core Team 2013).

185

186 **3 Results**

187

188 **3.1 Plankton community composition**

189 The initial algal community consisted of post-bloom species dominated by small-sized cells,
190 with dinophyta being the most abundant phytoplankton group in all mesocosm throughout the
191 experiment followed by heterokontophyta, euglenophyta, chlorophyta, cyanobacteria bigger
192 than $5\mu\text{m}$ (usually filamentous) and small abundances of cryptophyta (Fig. 1).
193 Microzooplankton was present during the entire experimental period, particularly the
194 choanoflagellate *Calliakantha natans* (Fig. 1). The plankton community was analyzed from day
195 1 to 29, which comprised two phases as described by Paul et al. (2015), with a Phase 1 (from
196 day 1 to 15) where phytoplankton biomass gradually increased until day 10 when a bloom
197 started and reached a peak around day 15 in all treatments; while in a Phase 2 (from day 17 to
198 29) the biomass began to decay from around day 19 up to day 29 (Fig. 1).

199

200 The more abundant taxa did not show differences in abundance between the CO_2 treatments on
201 both phases (Fig. 2a, b). However, the biomass of some of the less abundant groups was affected
202 by CO_2 within the different phases. In Phase 1, the nested mixed effects model analysis of the
203 algal biomass showed that chlorophyta decrease significantly towards high CO_2 levels (Fig. 2a)
204 (LME, $F= 7.27$, $p= 0.01$, $df= 20$). Nevertheless, there was a difference in the relative biomass
205 of the more abundant plankton groups between Phases 1 and 2, with a decrease in dinophyta
206 ($37.2 \pm 3.2\%$ to $28.3 \pm 2.9\%$) and heterokontophyta ($19.1 \pm 2.2\%$ to 14 ± 2.6) from phase 1
207 (Fig. 2c) to phase 2 (Fig. 2d), and an increase of euglenophyta ($7.5 \pm 1.4\%$ to 21 ± 2.7) and
208 chlorophyta ($14.0 \pm 1.5\%$ to 19.1 ± 2.4) in the same period. An NMDS analysis of the entire

209 phytoplankton community showed a rather homogeneous community composition between the
 210 different CO₂ treatments but variation among sampling days, especially at day 7, when the
 211 diatom *Melosira varians* was abundant during that particular sampling day (Fig. S1).

212

213 **3.2 Seston fatty acid composition**

214 The PUFA represented on average $\sim 26 \pm 4\%$, MUFA $\sim 22 \pm 3\%$ and SFA $\sim 52 \pm 4\%$ of the total
 215 FA content in the seston over the entire experimental period. The Mixed Effect Model (LME)
 216 analysis of relative PUFA content data showed no significant difference among the CO₂
 217 treatments (LME, $F_{45} = 0.0$, $p > 0.05$) (Fig. 3a PUFA). The MUFA and SFA did neither show any
 218 significant change in abundance in relation with CO₂ (LME, $F_{45} = 0.0$, $p = 0.8$, and $F_{45} = 0.06$, $p =$
 219 0.79 , respectively) (Fig. 3a MUFA, SFA). However, the FA composition of the seston showed
 220 that the relative PUFA content significantly decreased over time in all mesocosms (linear
 221 regression, $R^2 = 0.52$, $t = -7.64$, $p < 0.0001$, $n = 22$) (Fig. 3b High CO₂ treatments, Low CO₂
 222 treatments), while the MUFA and SFA increased, although the relation of both with time is
 223 weak (linear regression, $R^2 = 0.12$, $t = 2.88$, $p = 0.005$ and $R^2 = 0.15$, $t = 3.26$, $p = 0.001$, $n = 22$
 224 respectively) (Fig. S2). Regarding specific PUFA, 18:2n6c showed a significant correlation
 225 with CO₂ and Si, 16:3n4 with CO₂, P and Si; and 18:3n6 with CO₂ and N (Fig. S3).

226

227 Nevertheless, PUFA showed a positive relation with heterokontophyta (linear regression,
 228 $R^2 = 0.58$, $p < 0.001$) and dinophyta (linear regression, $R^2 = 0.41$, $p < 0.001$) biomass (Fig. 4a); and
 229 with silicate (LME, $F = 22.8$, $p < 0.001$, $df = 35$) and phosphate (LME, $F = 9.3$, $p < 0.01$, $df = 35$)
 230 abundance in the mesocosms (Fig. 4b). The PUFA 18:2n6c and 18:3n3 showed a positive effect
 231 of Silicate, while 20:5n3c and 22:6n3c showed a significant silicate and phosphate effect (Fig.
 232 S4).

233

234 **3.3 Copepod fatty acids**

235 The overall PUFA content of the copepod *A. bifilosa* represented $\sim 12\%$ (311 ± 175 ng FA mg
 236 dry wt.⁻¹) and in *E. affinis* $\sim 16\%$ (433 ± 597 ng FA mg dry wt.⁻¹) of the total FA.

237

238 The FA did not show a CO₂-related effect in *A. bifilosa* (LME, $F = 0.62$, $p = 0.4374$, $df = 26$)
 239 (Fig. 5a), or *E. affinis* ($F = 0.13$, $p = 0.71$, $df = 26$) (Fig. 5b). Nevertheless the relative PUFA
 240 content in *A. bifilosa* and *E. affinis* showed a significant decrease over time in all high and low
 241 CO₂ treatments (linear regression, *A. bifilosa*; $R^2 = 0.22$, $t = -3.288$, $p = 0.002$ *E. affinis*; $R^2 = 0.47$,
 242 $t = -5.51$, $p < 0.0001$) (Fig. 5c) and neither did any specific PUFA in *A. bifilosa* (Fig. S5) or *E.*

243 *affinis* (Fig. S6); while there is a decrease in MUFA and an increase in SFA in both copepod
244 species (Fig. S7). Furthermore, the relative FA content in *E. affinis* varied over time following
245 the changes in the seston FA, this relation was significant but weak for PUFA MUFA and SFA
246 (Fig. S8), while in *A. bifilosa* this change appeared only in the MUFA (Fig. S8).

247

248 **4. Discussion**

249

250 **4.1 Community composition**

251 The plankton community composition in the present experiment did change over time and
252 showed little differences in relation to the different CO₂ treatments. The observed absence of a
253 strong CO₂ effect on the community composition in the present study is in line with the
254 observations in the western Baltic Sea (Thomsen et al., 2010; Nielsen et al., 2010; Rossoll et
255 al., 2013). In these studies the authors suggested that the plankton community is adapted to OA
256 due to the recurrent large seasonal and daily variance of pH and CO₂ experienced by the
257 communities in this productive low-salinity region (Thomsen et al. 2010; Nielsen et al. 2010;
258 Rossoll et al. 2013; Almén et al. 2014). Our study region, a coastal zone in the western Gulf of
259 Finland in the northern Baltic Sea, is a brackish environment with low salinity (~5.7 ‰), a high
260 fresh water runoff (~111 km³ year⁻¹) (Savchuk 2005) and a strong inter- and intra-seasonal pH
261 variability, sometimes reaching extreme values of 9.2 and 7.4 with an average of 8.1 (Brutemark
262 et al. 2011). Therefore, it seems that the plankton community in our study area, which
263 experiences high natural pH fluctuations, is composed of species and genotypes that are less
264 pH/CO₂ sensitive (Nielsen et al. 2010; Lohbeck et al. 2012; Melzner et al. 2013; Rossoll et al.
265 2013) which allows them to cope with the CO₂ range applied in the current field experiment.

266

267 Chlorophytes were the only group that showed a significant response to the CO₂ treatment,
268 although their contribution to total biomass was low. Chlorophytes decreased at elevated *f*CO₂,
269 which is contrasting to laboratory studies showing that several species in this group benefit
270 from high CO₂ and can increase their growth rates (Tsuzuki et al. 1990; Yang & Gao 2003).

271

272 **4.2 Seston FAs**

273 The relative PUFA content of seston showed a significant decrease over time, which can be
274 attributed to nutrient depletion in the mesocosms, particularly silicate and phosphate
275 concentrations, which caused a decrease in dinophyta and heterokontophyta abundances. These
276 two groups of microalgae have been identified as rich in PUFA content (Galloway & Winder

277 2015) and their decrease in the mesocosms explains the concomitant decrease in PUFA. Silicate
278 is required by heterokontophyta for the formation of new frustules during cell division, and
279 when limited, cell division stops (Flynn & Martin-Jézéquel 2000). Phosphorus is required for
280 the production of PUFA-rich membrane phospholipids during cell division and growth
281 (Guschina & Harwood 2009). Nutrient limitation, which causes reduced cell division rates,
282 results in a lower production of phospholipid and increased production of storage lipid,
283 primarily triacylglycerols (Guschina & Harwood 2009). Triacylglycerols are rich in SFA and
284 MUFA; therefore the increase in triacylglycerols with nutrient limitation typically resulted in
285 decreased proportions of PUFA in most algae (Guschina & Harwood 2009). This is consistent
286 with our observations in the mesocosms, where the relative PUFA content of seston followed
287 the phosphate concentration. From this perspective one may expect that any CO₂ effect in algal
288 PUFA will occur when cells are actively growing since nutrient limitation (silicate and
289 phosphorus) will have more profound consequences in the physiology of the cell than an excess
290 of CO₂.

291
292 The absence of a PUFA response to CO₂ differs with a report of an Arctic plankton community
293 showing an increase of PUFA at high CO₂ levels during part of a mesocosm experiment
294 experiencing nutrient additions (Leu et al. 2013). This was attributed to a change in the plankton
295 community composition due to a rise in abundance of dinoflagellates at high CO₂ (Leu et al.
296 2013). Our results show a decrease in PUFA due to a decline in dinoflagellates. The different
297 PUFA trend between these experiments can be attributed to the specific plankton community
298 composition and their related FA profiles alongside with phosphate and silicate limitation in
299 our study, which causes a reduction of the biomass of some PUFA-rich taxa. Species
300 composition of a natural plankton assemblage determines its food quality properties as distinct
301 algal taxonomic groups have different FA composition profiles (Galloway & Winder 2015). A
302 CO₂-driven change in the Arctic plankton community composition (Leu et al. 2013) promoted
303 the presence of species rich in PUFA. In our study the absence of a CO₂ response in taxa
304 composition and the apparent influence of phosphate and silicate limitation in the algal FA
305 composition resulted in a rather homogeneous PUFA concentration between CO₂ treatments.

306

307 **4.3 Copepod fatty acids**

308 Our results showed that the PUFA concentration of the dominating copepod species, *A. bifilosa*
309 and *E. affinis* did not vary between the different CO₂ treatments. However, the PUFA decrease
310 in both copepods over the experimental period reflects the decline in the PUFA content of the

311 seston. This observation is consistent with other studies showing that copepods strongly rely on
312 their diet as source of FA and that their composition, especially PUFA, mirrors the algae they
313 graze on (Ishida et al. 1998; Caramujo et al. 2007; Rossoll et al. 2012).

314
315 Several studies have shown a limited direct CO₂ effect in the copepods FA of some species,
316 like the genus *Acartia*, which is rather insensitive to projected high CO₂ exposure up to 5000
317 µatm CO₂ (Kurihara et al. 2004; Kurihara & Ishimatsu 2008). Copepods experience widely
318 varying pH conditions on a daily basis during their vertical migration, shown in the same area
319 as the current study (Almén et al. 2014), which may explain their tolerance to pH variations.
320 Several studies have demonstrated that food quality of the available prey in terms of PUFA
321 content can affect egg production, hatching success and nauplii survival in copepods
322 (Jónasdóttir 1994; Caramujo et al. 2007; Jónasdóttir et al. 2009). Indirect adverse CO₂ effects
323 through the diet of primary consumers have been reported in laboratory and field experiments
324 (Rossoll et al. 2012; Locke & Sprules 2000). However, the absence of a CO₂-driven change in
325 the community composition of primary producers and the homogeneous algal FA composition
326 due to phosphate and silicate limitations masked any noticeable CO₂-related effects in the algal
327 FA profile that could have affected the copepods during our experiment.

328 **5 Conclusions**

329
330 Considering that the Baltic Sea is a coastal sea with a natural frequent and wide pH variability
331 (Omstedt et al. 2009), it can be expected that the effects of OA on plankton communities will
332 be rather small within the range of predicted values for this century (Havenhand 2012). A
333 reduced OA sensitivity in systems experiencing high CO₂ fluctuations is supported by our
334 results and other studies using communities from the Baltic (Thomsen et al. 2010; Nielsen et
335 al. 2010; Rossoll et al. 2013). However, in coastal upwelling areas undergoing an increase in
336 hypoxic events, it is likely that elevated CO₂ values as presently experienced by coastal
337 organisms and projected by the end of the century (Melzner et al. 2013) will be more recurrent
338 in the future (Feely et al. 2004), with the potential to affect various properties of plankton
339 communities.

340
341 Nonetheless, it is clear that the plankton community response to OA and concomitant effects
342 on its food quality for higher trophic levels will strongly depend on the sensitivity of primary
343 producers and on how OA affects the species composition of plankton assemblages (Leu et al.
344 2013; Rossoll et al. 2013). This result is important as any change in primary producers in terms

345 of FA, particularly essential biomolecules such as PUFA, may scale up in food webs since FAs
346 are incorporated into the lipids of larval fish (Fraser et al. 1989; Izquierdo et al. 2001).
347 Considering that fish is a critical natural resource (FAO, 2010), adverse OA effects on food
348 quality can reach up to human populations who rely on fisheries as an important food source
349 (Sargent et al. 1997; Arts et al. 2001).

350

351 **Acknowledgements**

352 We thank the KOSMOS team and all of the participants in the mesocosm campaign for their
353 support during the experiment. In particular, we would like to thank Andrea Ludwig for co-
354 ordinating the campaign logistics and assistance with CTD operations and the diving team. We
355 also gratefully acknowledge the captain and crew of RV *ALKOR* (AL394 and AL397) for their
356 work transporting, deploying and recovering the mesocosms and the Tvärminne station and
357 staff for their logistic support. This collaborative project was funded by BMBF projects
358 BIOACID II (FKZ 03F06550) and SOPRAN Phase II (FKZ 03F0611).

359

360

361 **References**

- 362 Almén, A. et al., 2014. Coping with climate change? Copepods experience drastic variations in their
363 physicochemical environment on a diurnal basis. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and*
364 *Ecology*, 460, pp.120–128.
- 365 Almén, A.-K. et al., 2015. Negligible effects of ocean acidification on *Eurytemora affinis* (Copepoda)
366 offspring production. *Biogeosciences Discussions*, 12(20), pp.17093–17123.
- 367 Arts, M.T., Ackman, R.G. & Holub, B.J., 2001. “Essential fatty acids” in aquatic ecosystems: a crucial
368 link between diet and human health and evolution. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic*
369 *Sciences*, 58(1), pp.122–137.
- 370 Bermúdez, R. et al., 2015. Long-term conditioning to elevated pCO₂ and warming influences the fatty
371 and amino acid composition of the diatom *Cylindrotheca fusiformis*. *Plos One*, 10(5), p.e0123945.
- 372 Biswas, H. et al., 2011. The response of a natural phytoplankton community from the Godavari River
373 estuary to increasing CO₂ concentration during the pre-monsoon period. *Journal of Experimental*
374 *Marine Biology and Ecology*, 407(2), pp.284–293.
- 375 Boyd, P.W. et al., 2014. IPCC WGII AR5 Chapter 6. (October 2013).
- 376 Breteler, W., Schogt, N. & Baas, M., 1999. Trophic upgrading of food quality by protozoans enhancing
377 copepod growth: role of essential lipids. *Marine Biology*, (135), pp.191–198.
- 378 Brussaard, C.P.D. et al., 2013. Arctic microbial community dynamics influenced by elevated CO₂ levels.
379 *Biogeosciences*, 10(2), pp.719–731.

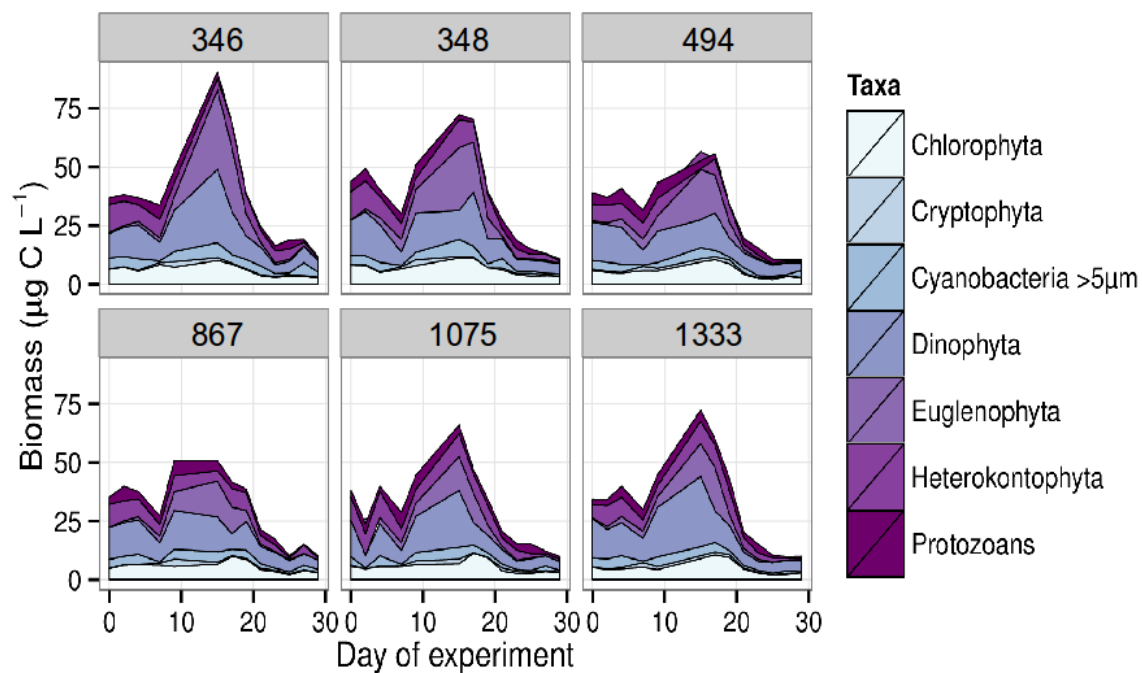
- 380 Brutemark, A., Engström-Öst, J. & Vehmaa, A., 2011. Long-term monitoring data reveal pH dynamics,
381 trends and variability in the western Gulf of Finland. *Oceanological and Hydrobiological Studies*,
382 40(3), pp.91–94.
- 383 Caramujo, M.-J., Boschker, H.T.S. & Admiraal, W., 2007. Fatty acid profiles of algae mark the
384 development and composition of harpacticoid copepods. *Freshwater Biology*, 53, pp.77–90.
- 385 Clarke, K., 1993. Non-parametric multivariate analyses of changes in community structure. *Australian*
386 *journal of ecology*, 18, pp.117–143.
- 387 Doney, S.C. et al., 2009. Ocean acidification: the other CO₂ problem. *Annual Review of Marine Science*,
388 1, pp.169–192.
- 389 Feely, R. a et al., 2004. Impact of anthropogenic CO₂ on the CaCO₃ system in the oceans. *Science (New*
390 *York, N.Y.)*, 305(5682), pp.362–6.
- 391 Feely, R.A. et al., 2009. the CaCO₃ System in the Oceans. 362(2004).
- 392 Fiorini, S. et al., 2010. Coccolithophores lipid and carbon isotope composition and their variability
393 related to changes in seawater carbonate chemistry. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and*
394 *Ecology*, 394(1-2), pp.74–85.
- 395 Flynn, K.J., 2000. Modelling Si-N-limited growth of diatoms. *Journal of Plankton Research*, 22(3),
396 pp.447–472.
- 397 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2014. In The State of World Fisheries and
398 Aquaculture 2014 1st edn. Ch. 1, 62–68 (FAO).
- 399 Fraser, A.J., Sargent, J.R. & Gamble, J.C., 1989. Lipid class and fatty acid composition of *Calanus*
400 *finmarchicus* (Gunnerus), *Pseudocalanus* sp. and *Temora Longicornis* Muller from a nutrient-
401 enriched seawater enclosure. *J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol.*, 130, pp.81–92.
- 402 Galloway, A.W.E. & Winder, M., 2015. Partitioning the relative importance of phylogeny and
403 environmental conditions on phytoplankton fatty acids. *Plos One*, 10(6), p.e0130053.
- 404 Graeme, H.C., Richardson, A.J. & Robinson, C., 2005. Climate change and marine plankton. *Trends in*
405 *ecology & evolution*, 20(6), pp.337–44.
- 406 Guschina, I.A. & Harwood, J.L., 2009. Algal lipids and effect of the environment on their biochemistry.
407 Pages 1-24 in M. T. Arts, M. T. Brett, and M. Kainz, editors. *Lipids in aquatic ecosystems*.
408 Springer, New York, USA.
- 409 Hare, C. et al., 2007. Consequences of increased temperature and CO₂ for phytoplankton community
410 structure in the Bering Sea. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 352, pp.9–16.
- 411 Havenhand, J.N., 2012. How will ocean acidification affect Baltic sea ecosystems? an assessment of
412 plausible impacts on key functional groups. *Ambio*, 41(6), pp.637–44.
- 413 Hinga, K., 2002. Effects of pH on coastal marine phytoplankton. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 238,
414 pp.281–300.
- 415 Ishida, Y. et al., 1998. Correlation analysis between fatty acid compositions of zooplankter individuals,
416 fed on different phytoplankton species by means of pyrolysis-gas chromatography combined with
417 on-line methylation. *Journal of chromatography. B, Biomedical sciences and applications*, 716(1-
418 2), pp.39–45.

- 419 Izquierdo, M., Fernández-Palacios, H. & Tacon, a. G., 2001. Effect of broodstock nutrition on
420 reproductive performance of fish. *Aquaculture*, 197(1-4), pp.25–42.
- 421 Jónasdóttir, S., Visser, A. & Jespersen, C., 2009. Assessing the role of food quality in the production
422 and hatching of *Temora longicornis* eggs. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 382, pp.139–150.
- 423 Jónasdóttir, S.H., 1994. Effects of food quality on the reproductive success of *Acartia tonsa* and *Acartia*
424 *hudsonica*: laboratory observations. *Marine Biology*, 121(1), pp.67–81.
- 425 Kroeker, K.J. et al., 2010. Meta-analysis reveals negative yet variable effects of ocean acidification on
426 marine organisms. *Ecology letters*, 13(11), pp.1419–34.
- 427 Kurihara, H. & Ishimatsu, A., 2008. Effects of high CO₂ seawater on the copepod *Acartia tsuensis*
428 through all life stages and subsequent generations, 56, pp.1086–1090.
- 429 Kurihara, H., Shimode, S. & Shirayama, Y., 2004. Sub-lethal effects of elevated concentration of CO₂
430 on planktonic copepods and sea urchins. *Journal of Oceanography*, 60, pp.743–750.
- 431 Leu, E. et al., 2013. Effect of ocean acidification on the fatty acid composition of a natural plankton
432 community. *Biogeosciences*, 10(2), pp.1143–1153.
- 433 Locke, A. & Sprules, W.G., 2000. Effects of acidic pH and phytoplankton on survival and condition of
434 *Bosmina longirostris* and *Daphnia pulex*. *Fisheries (Bethesda)*, pp.187–196.
- 435 Lohbeck, K.T., Riebesell, U. & Reusch, T.B.H., 2012. Adaptive evolution of a key phytoplankton
436 species to ocean acidification. *Nature Geoscience*, 5(5), pp.346–351.
- 437 Melzner, F. et al., 2013. Future ocean acidification will be amplified by hypoxia in coastal habitats.
438 *Marine Biology*, 160(8), pp.1875–1888.
- 439 Menden-Deuer, S. & Lessard, E.J., 2000. Carbon to volume relationships for dinoflagellates, diatoms,
440 and other protist plankton. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 45(3), pp.569–579.
- 441 Nielsen, L.T., Jakobsen, H.H. & Hansen, P.J., 2010. High resilience of two coastal plankton
442 communities to twenty-first century seawater acidification: Evidence from microcosm studies.
443 *Marine Biology Research*, 6(6), pp.542–555.
- 444 Omstedt, A., Gustafsson, E. & Wesslander, K., 2009. Modelling the uptake and release of carbon dioxide
445 in the Baltic Sea surface water. *Continental Shelf Research*, 29(7), pp.870–885.
- 446 Paul, a. J. et al., 2015. Effect of elevated CO₂ on organic matter pools and fluxes in a summer, post
447 spring-bloom Baltic Sea plankton community. *Biogeosciences Discussions*, 12(9), pp.6863–6927.
- 448 R Development Core Team, 2013. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*, Vienna.
449 Available at: <http://www.r-project.org/>.
- 450 Reusch, T.B.H. & Boyd, P.W., 2013. Experimental evolution meets marine phytoplankton. *Evolution;*
451 *international journal of organic evolution*, 67(7), pp.1849–59.
- 452 Riebesell, U., 2004. Effects of CO₂ enrichment on marine phytoplankton. *Journal of Oceanography*,
453 60(4), pp.719–729.
- 454 Riebesell, U. et al., 2013. Technical Note: A mobile sea-going mesocosm system – new opportunities
455 for ocean change research. *Biogeosciences*, 10(3), pp.1835–1847.
- 456 Rossoll, D. et al., 2012. Ocean acidification-induced food quality deterioration constrains trophic

- 457 transfer. *PloS one*, 7(4), p.e34737.
- 458 Rossoll, D., Sommer, U. & Winder, M., 2013. Community interactions dampen acidification effects in
459 a coastal plankton system. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 486, pp.37–46.
- 460 Sargent, J.R., McEvoy, L. a. & Bell, J.G., 1997. Requirements, presentation and sources of
461 polyunsaturated fatty acids in marine fish larval feeds. *Aquaculture*, 155(1-4), pp.117–127.
- 462 Sato, N., Tsuzuki, M. & Kawaguchi, A., 2003. Glycerolipid synthesis in *Chlorella kessleri* 11 h II. Effect
463 of the CO₂ concentration during growth. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*, 1633, pp.35 – 42.
- 464 Savchuk, O.P., 2005. Resolving the Baltic Sea into seven subbasins: N and P budgets for 1991–1999.
465 *Journal of Marine Systems*, 56(1-2), pp.1–15.
- 466 Schulz, K.G. et al., 2013. Temporal biomass dynamics of an Arctic plankton bloom in response to
467 increasing levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide. *Biogeosciences*, 10(1), pp.161–180.
- 468 Thomsen, J. et al., 2010. Calcifying invertebrates succeed in a naturally CO₂-rich coastal habitat but are
469 threatened by high levels of future acidification. *Biogeosciences*, 7(11), pp.3879–3891.
- 470 Torstensson, a. et al., 2013. Synergism between elevated pCO₂ and temperature on the Antarctic sea ice
471 diatom *Nitzschia lecointei*. *Biogeosciences*, 10(10), pp.6391–6401.
- 472 Tsuzuki, M. et al., 1990. Effects of CO₂ Concentration during growth on fatty acid composition in
473 microalgae. *Plant physiology*, 93(3), pp.851–6.
- 474 Yang, Y. & Gao, K., 2003. Effects of CO₂ concentrations on the freshwater microalgae,
475 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* and *Scenedesmus obliquus* (Chlorophyta).
476 *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 279, pp.1–11.
- 477
- 478
- 479
- 480
- 481
- 482
- 483
- 484
- 485
- 486
- 487
- 488
- 489

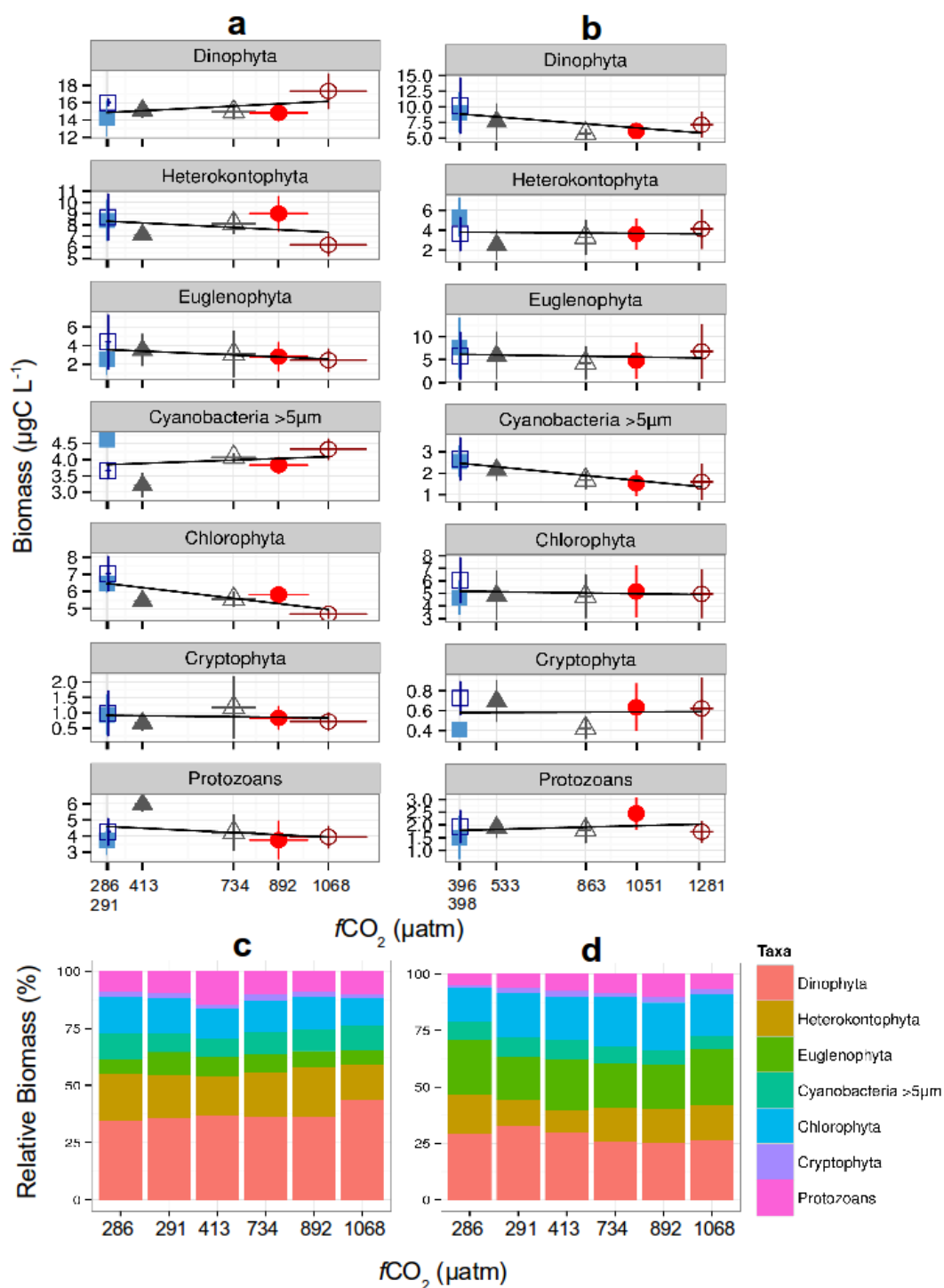
490 **Figures and Figure Legends**

491
492
493
494

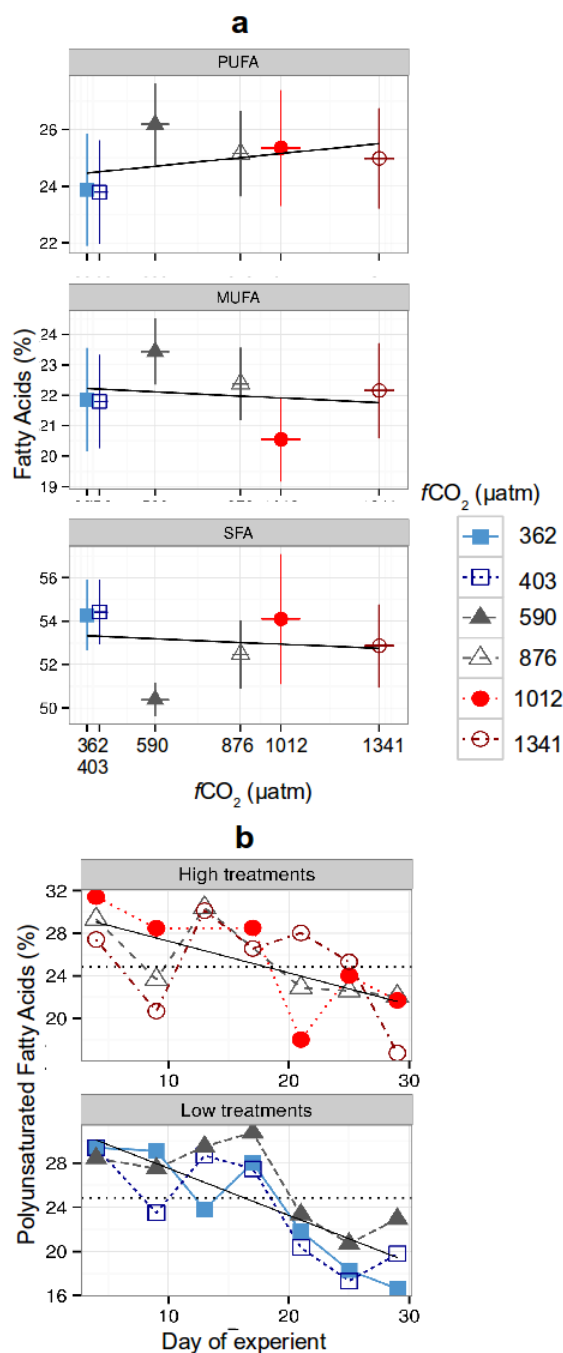


495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507

Figure 1. Calculated biomass after cell counts of the main plankton taxonomic groups in the different CO₂ treatments between day 1 and 29. Each treatment is labeled with the average *f*CO₂ level of the entire experimental period (top).

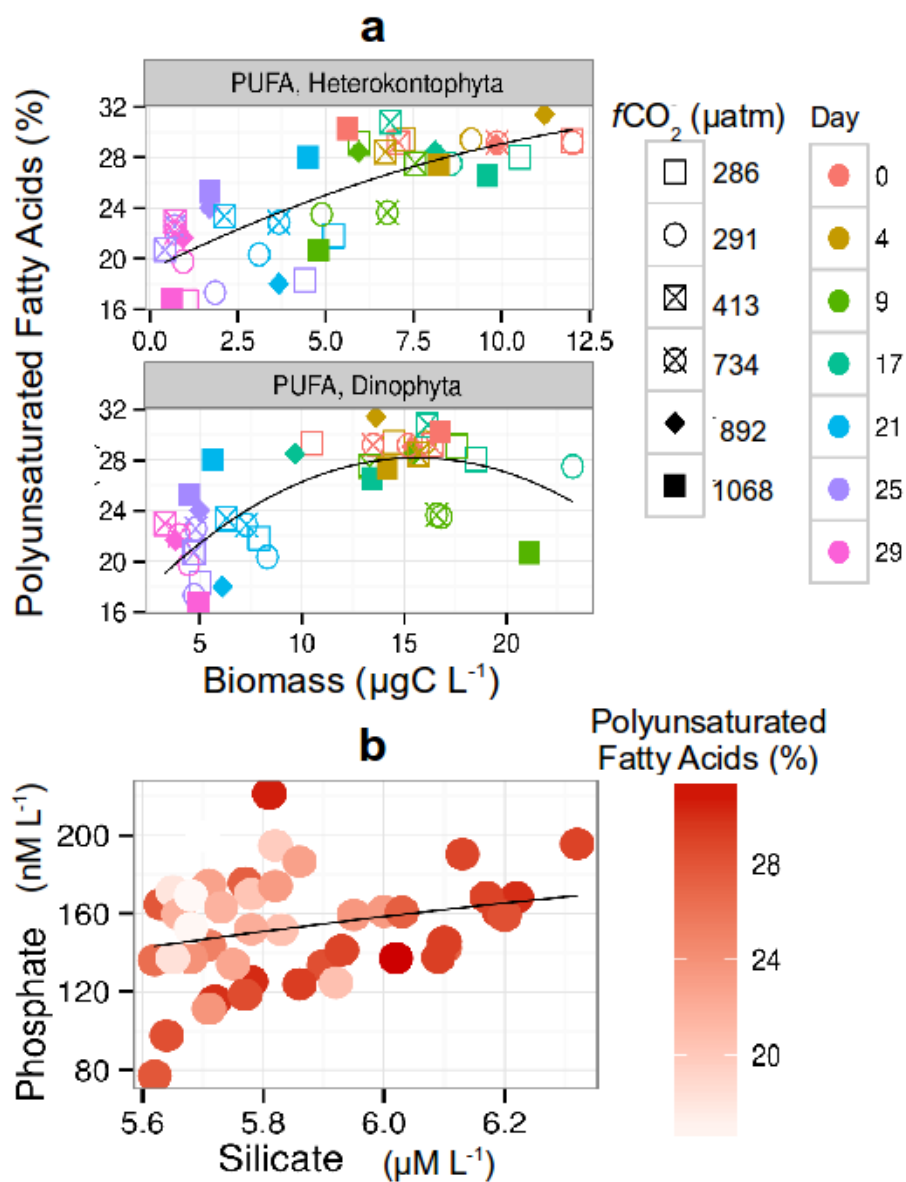


508
 509
 510
 511 **Figure 2.** The top panels show the mean of the calculated biomass of each plankton taxon in a)
 512 Phase 1, between the days 0 to 15; and b) Phase 2, between days 15 to 29, in the CO₂ gradient
 513 treatments. The bottom panels show the relative biomass of the different plankton groups
 514 between c) Phases 1 and d) Phase 2. The x-axes show the measured average $f\text{CO}_2$ in each phase,
 515 error bars show standard error in a and b (n=5 for a; n=5 for b).
 516



517
 518
 519
 520
 521
 522
 523
 524
 525
 526
 527
 528

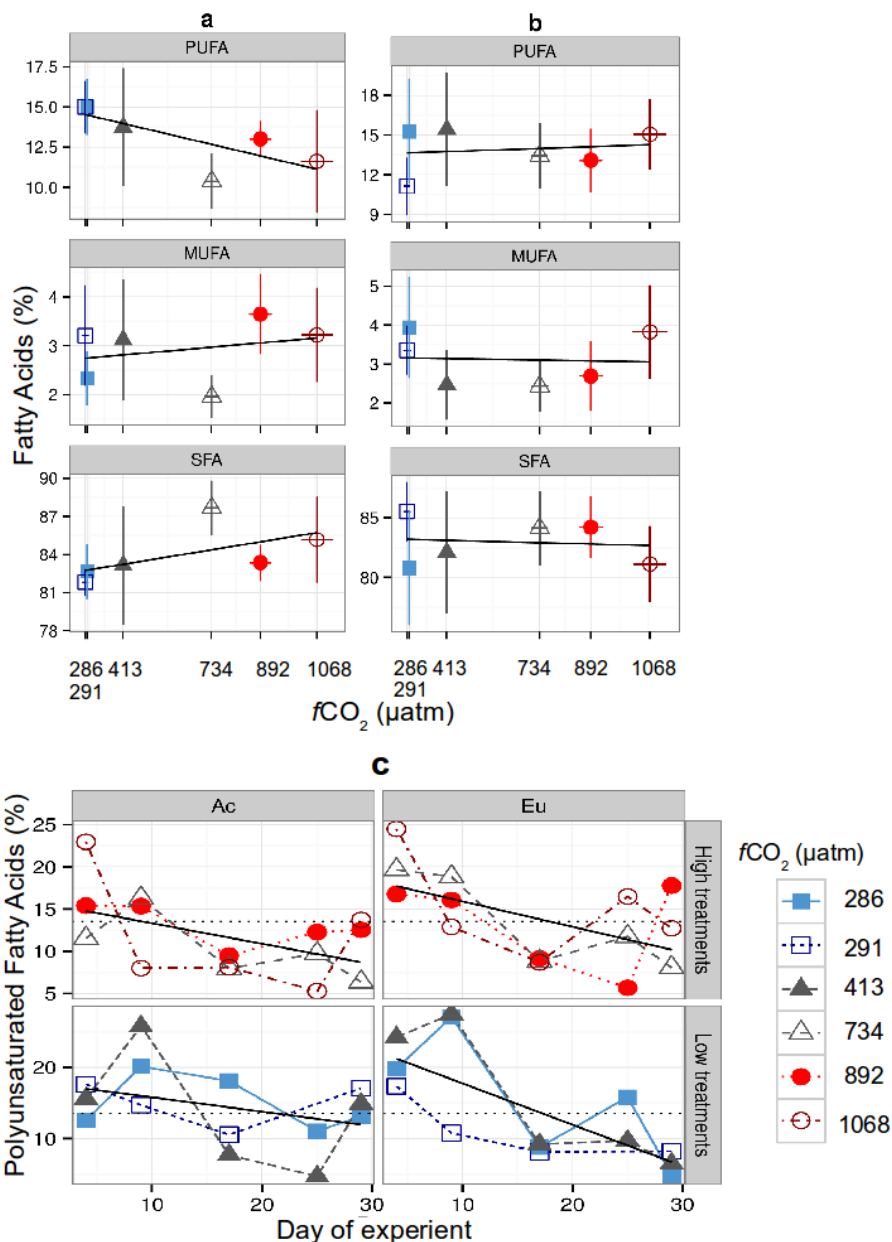
Figure 3. a) Relative polyunsaturated (PUFA), monounsaturated (MUFA), and saturated (SFA) fatty acids content in the seston as a function of $f\text{CO}_2$ between day 1 and 29. The x-axes show the mean $f\text{CO}_2$ measured during the sampling period, bars shows standard error. b) Relative PUFA composition of the seston showed over time in the 876, 1012 and 1314 μatm $f\text{CO}_2$ levels (high CO_2 treatments) and the 362, 403 and 590 μatm $f\text{CO}_2$ levels (low CO_2 treatments). Horizontal dashed line indicates the position of the overall mean PUFA value.



529
 530
 531 **Figure 4.** a) Relation between sestonic relative polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) with
 532 heterokontophyta (PUFA, heterokontophyta) and dinophyta (PUFA, dinophyta) biomass. b)
 533 Relation between relative sestonic PUFA content with silicate and phosphate abundance in the
 534 mesocosms.

535
 536
 537
 538
 539
 540
 541
 542
 543
 544
 545
 546

547

548
549
550

551 **Figure 5.** a) and b) show the relative polyunsaturated (PUFA), monounsaturated (MUFA), and
 552 saturated (SFA) fatty acids content in the copepods *Acartia bifilosa* and *Eurytemora affinis*,
 553 respectively, under the $f\text{CO}_2$ gradient treatments between day 1 to 29. The x-axes show the
 554 mean $f\text{CO}_2$ measured during the sampling period, bars shows standard error. c) Relative PUFA
 555 composition of *Acartia bifilosa* (Ac) and *Eurytemora affinis* (Eu) over time in the 876, 1012
 556 and 1314 μatm $f\text{CO}_2$ levels (high CO_2 treatments) and the 362, 403 and 590 μatm $f\text{CO}_2$ levels
 557 (low CO_2 treatments). Horizontal dashed line indicates the position of the overall mean PUFA
 558 value.