

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

3

4 Rafael Bermúdez<sup>1,2</sup>, Monika Winder<sup>3</sup>, Annegret Stühr<sup>1</sup>, Anna-Karin Almén<sup>4</sup>, Jonna  
5 Engström-Öst<sup>4,5</sup>, Ulf Riebesell<sup>1</sup>

6

7 [1] {GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Germany}

8

9 [2] {Facultad de Ingeniería Marítima, Ciencias Biológicas, Oceánicas y Recursos Naturales.  
10 Escuela Superior Politécnica del Litoral, ESPOL, Guayaquil, Ecuador}

11

12 [3] {Department of Ecology, Environment and Plant Sciences, Stockholm University,  
13 Stockholm, Sweden}

14

15 [4] {Novia University of Applied Sciences, Coastal Zone Research Team, Ekenäs, Finland}

16

17 [5] {Tvärminne Zoological Station, University of Helsinki, J.A. Palménin tie 260, FI-10900 Hanko,  
18 Finland}

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

20

21 **Keywords**

22 Fatty acids, *Acartia bifilosa*, *Eurytemora affinis*, plankton community, CO<sub>2</sub>, ocean  
23 acidification, Baltic Sea.

24

25 **Abstract**

26 Increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) is changing seawater chemistry towards reduced  
27 pH, which consequently affects various properties of marine organisms. Coastal and brackish  
28 water communities are expected to be less affected by ocean acidification (OA) as these  
29 communities are typically adapted to high fluctuations in CO<sub>2</sub> and pH. Here we investigate the  
30 response of a coastal brackish water plankton community to increasing CO<sub>2</sub> levels as projected  
31 for the coming decades and the end of this century in terms of community and biochemical fatty  
32 acid (FA) composition. A Baltic Sea plankton community was enclosed in a set of off-shore  
33 mesocosms and subjected to a CO<sub>2</sub> gradient ranging from natural concentrations (~347 µatm  
34 pCO<sub>2</sub>) up to values projected for the year 2100 (~1333 µatm pCO<sub>2</sub>). We show that the  
35 phytoplankton community composition was resilient to CO<sub>2</sub> and did not diverge between the  
36 treatments. Seston FA composition was influenced by community composition, which in turn  
37 was driven by silicate and phosphate limitation in the mesocosms, and showed no difference  
38 between the CO<sub>2</sub> treatments. These results suggest that CO<sub>2</sub> effects are dampened in coastal

39 communities that already experience high natural fluctuations in  $p\text{CO}_2$ . Although this coastal  
40 plankton community was tolerant to high  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels, hypoxia and  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake by the sea can  
41 aggravate acidification and may lead to pH changes outside the currently experienced range for  
42 coastal organisms.

43

## 44 **1 Introduction**

45

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

65

66 Fatty acids (FA) are the main components of lipids in cell membranes. In particular  
67 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) have important physiological roles in algae, which  
68 synthesize them in high amounts. Heterotrophs at higher trophic levels cannot synthesize  
69 certain FA *de novo*, especially PUFA, and have to acquire them from dietary sources (Izquierdo  
70 et al. 2001). Diverse laboratory studies of monocultures showed that  $\text{CO}_2$  alters the FA profile  
71 of individual algal species (Sato et al. 2003; Fiorini et al. 2010; Torstensson et al. 2013;  
72 Bermúdez et al. 2015). A  $\text{CO}_2$ -driven change in algal food quality can be detrimental for

73 grazers, as has been shown in a laboratory study under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> levels (Rossoll et al. 2012).  
74 A strong decline of PUFA in a diatom, grown at high CO<sub>2</sub> affected the FA composition of  
75 copepods grazing on them and severely impaired their development and egg production rates.  
76 Furthermore, increasing seawater CO<sub>2</sub> can modify phytoplankton community composition by  
77 favoring certain taxa of primary producers (Graeme et al. 2005). In particular, small-sized cells  
78 benefit from high CO<sub>2</sub> (Hare et al. 2007; Biswas et al. 2011; Brussaard et al. 2013). This is  
79 ecologically relevant as taxonomic phytoplankton groups have contrasting FA profiles  
80 (Galloway & Winder 2015) and a change in community structure can affect higher trophic  
81 levels. For instance, a field study of two cladocerans having different phytoplankton  
82 composition as food source showed decreased egg production, lipid reserves, body size and  
83 abundance when fed with algae from an acidic lake (Locke & Sprules 2000).

84

85 The above observations suggest that changes in planktonic biochemical makeup and associated  
86 shifts in community composition of primary producers as a result of OA can affect the transfer  
87 of essential compounds to upper trophic levels. Laboratory studies have shown that algae  
88 subjected to long-term high CO<sub>2</sub> levels can restore their physiological optima through adaptive  
89 evolution (Lohbeck et al. 2012; Bermúdez et al. 2015) and that coastal communities are resilient  
90 to OA-driven changes in community composition and biomass (Nielsen et al. 2010; Rossoll et  
91 al. 2013). Therefore, it can be expected that organisms in these areas are adapted to high CO<sub>2</sub>  
92 fluctuations (Thomsen et al. 2010; Nielsen et al. 2010; Rossoll et al. 2013), hampering any CO<sub>2</sub>-  
93 driven effects previously observed in plankton communities (Locke & Sprules 2000; Biswas et  
94 al. 2011).

95

96 The goal of the present study was to determine if an increase in CO<sub>2</sub> affects phytoplankton  
97 community composition and their FA composition, and if any effects are transferred to grazers  
98 of a natural plankton community in a coastal/brackish environment. A set of off-shore  
99 mesocosms, that enclosed a natural plankton assemblage of the Baltic Sea, were used as  
100 experimental units. The CO<sub>2</sub> levels ranged from current to projected next century values (Boyd  
101 et al. 2014, scenario A2). Algal FA were measured in total seston and in the copepods *Acartia*  
102 *bifilosa* and *Eurytemora affinis*, respectively, which were the dominant zooplankton during the  
103 experiment (Almén et al. 2015).

104

## 105 **2 Material and Methods**

106

## 107 **2.1 Experimental set-up and CO<sub>2</sub> manipulation**

108 Our study was conducted during an off-shore CO<sub>2</sub> mesocosm perturbation experiment off the  
109 Tvärminne Zoological Station at the entrance to the Gulf of Finland at 59° 51.5' N, 23° 15.5'  
110 E during late spring 2012. We used six enclosures with a length of 17 m containing ~55 m<sup>3</sup> of  
111 natural sea water (Paul et al. 2015). The mesocosms were set up and manipulated as described  
112 in detail by Paul et al. (2015) and Riebesell et al. (2013). Carbon dioxide enrichment was  
113 achieved in two phases through the addition of CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated seawater to four out of six  
114 mesocosms. In phase 1, CO<sub>2</sub> was added in five steps between day 1 and day 5 to achieve values  
115 from ambient (~240 µatm) and up to ~1650 micro-atmospheres (µatm) fugacity of carbon  
116 dioxide (*f*CO<sub>2</sub>). In phase 2 at day 15 CO<sub>2</sub> was again added in the upper 7 m to compensate for  
117 pronounced outgassing in the CO<sub>2</sub> enriched mesocosms. As described by Paul et al. (2015),  
118 dissolved inorganic carbon and total pH (on the total pH scale) were taken every sampling  
119 day to determine the carbonate system and determine *f*CO<sub>2</sub> in the mesocosms. Samples for  
120 nutrients were collected and analyzed as described by Paul et al. (2015). Samples for  
121 phytoplankton counts were taken every second day and for fatty acid concentrations every  
122 fourth day using a depth-integrated water sampler (Hydrobios, Kiel, Germany) covering the  
123 upper 15 m of the water column. Integrated zooplankton net tows were taken every seventh day  
124 as described by Almén et al. (2015).

125

## 126 **2.2 Phytoplankton abundance and biomass calculation**

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

136

137

138

## 139 **2.3 Fatty acid composition**

140 For analysis of seston fatty acid (FA), 500 ml of seawater were filtered by a 100  $\mu\text{m}$  size pore  
141 net and samples were collected in a pre-combusted (450°C, 6 h) Whatman GF/F (~0.7  $\mu\text{m}$   
142 nominal pore size) filters. For zooplankton gravid copepod females of *Acartia bifilosa* and  
143 *Eurytemora affinis* were picked with sterile tweezers under two stereomicroscopes (Nikon  
144 SMZ800, 25 $\times$  magnification and Leica 25 $\times$  magnification) and placed in pre-weighted tin cups.  
145 All samples were immediately stored at -80°C until analysis. FA were measured by gas  
146 chromatography as fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) following Klein Breteler et al. (1999).  
147 Lipids were extracted over night from the filters using 3 ml of a solvent mixture  
148 (dichloromethane:methanol:chloroform in 1:1:1 volume ratios). As internal standard, FAME  
149 C19:0 (Restek, Bad Homburg, Germany; c= 20 ng of component per sample) was added, and a  
150 C23:0 FA standard (c= 25.1 ng  $\mu\text{l}^{-1}$ ) used as an esterification efficiency control (usually 80-85  
151 %). Water-soluble fractions were removed by washing with 2.25 ml of KCl solution (c= 1 mol  
152  $\text{L}^{-1}$ ), and the remainder dried by addition of  $\text{NaSO}_4$ . The solvent was evaporated to dryness in  
153 a rotary film evaporator (100-150 mbar), re-dissolved in chloroform and transferred into a glass  
154 cocoon. The solvent was evaporated again (10-30 mbar), and esterification was performed  
155 overnight using 200  $\mu\text{l}$  1%  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  (in  $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}$ ) and 100  $\mu\text{l}$  toluene at 50°C. Phases were split  
156 using 300  $\mu\text{l}$  5% sodium chloride solution, and FAMES were separated using n-Hexane,  
157 transferred into a new cocoon, evaporated, and 100  $\mu\text{l}$  (final volume) added. All solvents used  
158 were gas chromatography (GC) grade. FAME were analyzed by a Thermo GC Ultra gas  
159 chromatograph equipped with a non-polar column (RXI1-SIL-MS 0.32  $\mu\text{m}$ , 30 m, company  
160 Restek) and Flame ionization detector. The column oven was initially set to 100°C, and heated  
161 to 220 °C at 2 °C  $\text{min}^{-1}$ . The carrier gas was helium at a constant flow of 2 ml  $\text{min}^{-1}$ . The flame  
162 ionization detector was set to 280 °C, with a gas flow of 350, 35 and 30 ml  $\text{min}^{-1}$  of synthetic  
163 air, hydrogen and helium, respectively. A 1  $\mu\text{l}$  aliquot of the sample was injected. The system  
164 was calibrated with a 37-component FAME-mix (Supelco, Germany) and chromatograms were  
165 analyzed using Chrom-Card Trace-Focus GC software and the fatty acids were clustered  
166 according to their degree of saturation: saturated (SFA), monounsaturated (MUFA) and  
167 polyunsaturated (PUFA).

168

## 169 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

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

174 mesocosm position as nested random variable (random distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> treatments among  
175 the mesocosm). Average mesocosm *f*CO<sub>2</sub> was calculated for the total duration of the sampling  
176 period plankton community composition (day 1 to 29) and for FA data analysis (day 1 to 25 for  
177 seston FA and day -1 to 33 for zooplankton FA). Linear regression models were used to  
178 determine the relation between PUFA and phytoplankton biomass. The similarity in the  
179 structure of the plankton community between the treatments was analyzed by Non Metrical  
180 Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) with Bray distance, auto-transformation and 3 dimensions  
181 (k=3). This analysis distributes the samples in an ordination space according to the biomass of  
182 the different taxa in the community along orthogonal principal components using non Euclidean  
183 distances for ordination space, which makes it more robust to the presence of zero values  
184 (Clarke 1993). All statistical analyses were done using the R software environment 3.0.1 (R  
185 Development Core Team 2013).

186

### 187 **3 Results**

188

#### 189 **3.1 Plankton community composition**

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

200

201 The more abundant taxa did not show differences in abundance between the CO<sub>2</sub> treatments on  
202 both phases (Fig. 2a, b). However, the biomass of some of the less abundant groups was affected  
203 by CO<sub>2</sub> within the different phases. In Phase 1, the nested mixed effects model analysis of the  
204 algal biomass showed that chlorophyta decrease significantly towards high CO<sub>2</sub> levels (Fig. 2a)  
205 (LME, F= 7.27, p= 0.01, df= 20). Nevertheless, there was a difference in the relative biomass  
206 of the more abundant plankton groups between Phases 1 and 2, with a decrease in dinophyta  
207 (37.2 ± 3.2 % to 28.3 ± 2.9 %) and heterokontophyta (19.1 ± 2.2 % to 14 ± 2.6) from phase 1

208 (Fig. 2c) to phase 2 (Fig. 2d), and an increase of euglenophyta ( $7.5 \pm 1.4$  % to  $21 \pm 2.7$ ) and  
 209 chlorophyta ( $14.0 \pm 1.5$  % to  $19.1 \pm 2.4$ ) in the same period. An NMDS analysis of the entire  
 210 phytoplankton community showed a rather homogeneous community composition between the  
 211 different CO<sub>2</sub> treatments but variation among sampling days, especially at day 7, when the  
 212 diatom *Melosira varians* was abundant during that particular sampling day (Fig. S1).

213

### 214 **3.2 Seston fatty acid composition**

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

227

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

234

### 235 **3.3 Copepod fatty acids**

236 The overall PUFA content of the copepod *A. bifilosa* represented  $\sim 12\%$  ( $311 \pm 175$  ng FA mg  
 237 dry wt.<sup>-1</sup>) and in *E. affinis*  $\sim 16\%$  ( $433 \pm 597$  ng FA mg dry wt.<sup>-1</sup>) of the total FA.

238

239 The FA did not show a CO<sub>2</sub>-related effect in *A. bifilosa* (LME,  $F = 0.62$ ,  $p = 0.4374$ ,  $df = 26$ )  
 240 (Fig. 5a), or *E. affinis* ( $F = 0.13$ ,  $p = 0.71$ ,  $df = 26$ ) (Fig. 5b). Nevertheless the relative PUFA  
 241 content in *A. bifilosa* and *E. affinis* showed a significant decrease over time in all high and low

242 CO<sub>2</sub> treatments (linear regression, *A. bifilosa*; R<sup>2</sup>= 0.22, t= -3.288, p= 0.002 *E. affinis*; R<sup>2</sup>= 0.47,  
243 t= -5.51, p< 0.0001 ) (Fig. 5c) and neither did any specific PUFA in *A. bifilosa* (Fig. S5) or *E.*  
244 *affinis* (Fig. S6); while there is a decrease in MUFA and an increase in SFA in both copepod  
245 species (Fig. S7). Furthermore, the relative FA content in *E. affinis* varied over time following  
246 the changes in the seston FA, this relation was significant but weak for PUFA MUFA and SFA  
247 (Fig. S8), while in *A. bifilosa* this change appeared only in the MUFA (Fig. S8).

248

## 249 **4. Discussion**

250

### 251 **4.1 Community composition**

252 The plankton community composition in the present experiment did change over time and  
253 showed little differences in relation to the different CO<sub>2</sub> treatments. The observed absence of a  
254 strong CO<sub>2</sub> effect on the community composition in the present study is in line with the  
255 observations in the western Baltic Sea (Thomsen et al., 2010; Nielsen et al., 2010; Rossoll et  
256 al., 2013). In these studies the authors suggested that the plankton community is adapted to OA  
257 due to the recurrent large seasonal and daily variance of pH and CO<sub>2</sub> experienced by the  
258 communities in this productive low-salinity region (Thomsen et al. 2010; Nielsen et al. 2010;  
259 Rossoll et al. 2013; Almén et al. 2014). Our study region, a coastal zone in the western Gulf of  
260 Finland in the northern Baltic Sea, is a brackish environment with low salinity (~5.7 ‰), a high  
261 fresh water runoff (~111 km<sup>3</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>) (Savchuk 2005) and a strong inter- and intra-seasonal pH  
262 variability, sometimes reaching extreme values of 9.2 and 7.4 with an average of 8.1 (Brutemark  
263 et al. 2011). Therefore, it seems that the plankton community in our study area, which  
264 experiences high natural pH fluctuations, is composed of species and genotypes that are less  
265 pH/CO<sub>2</sub> sensitive (Nielsen et al. 2010; Lohbeck et al. 2012; Melzner et al. 2013; Rossoll et al.  
266 2013) which allows them to cope with the CO<sub>2</sub> range applied in the current field experiment.

267

268 Chlorophytes were the only group that showed a significant response to the CO<sub>2</sub> treatment,  
269 although their contribution to total biomass was low. Chlorophytes decreased at elevated *f*CO<sub>2</sub>,  
270 which is contrasting to laboratory studies showing that several species in this group benefit  
271 from high CO<sub>2</sub> and can increase their growth rates (Tsuzuki et al. 1990; Yang & Gao 2003).

272

### 273 **4.2 Seston FAs**

274 The relative PUFA content of seston showed a significant decrease over time, which can be  
275 attributed to nutrient depletion in the mesocosms, particularly silicate and phosphate



276 concentrations, which caused a decrease in dinophyta and heterokontophyta abundances. These  
277 two groups of microalgae have been identified as rich in PUFA content (Galloway & Winder  
278 2015) and their decrease in the mesocosms explains the concomitant decrease in PUFA. Silicate  
279 is required by heterokontophyta for the formation of new frustules during cell division, and  
280 when limited, cell division stops (Flynn & Martin-Jézéquel 2000). Phosphorus is required for  
281 the production of PUFA-rich membrane phospholipids during cell division and growth  
282 (Guschina & Harwood 2009). Nutrient limitation, which causes reduced cell division rates,  
283 results in a lower production of phospholipid and increased production of storage lipid,  
284 primarily triacylglycerols (Guschina & Harwood 2009). Triacylglycerols are rich in SFA and  
285 MUFA; therefore the increase in triacylglycerols with nutrient limitation typically resulted in  
286 decreased proportions of PUFA in most algae (Guschina & Harwood 2009). This is consistent  
287 with our observations in the mesocosms, where the relative PUFA content of seston followed  
288 the phosphate concentration. From this perspective one may expect that any CO<sub>2</sub> effect in algal  
289 PUFA will occur when cells are actively growing since nutrient limitation (silicate and  
290 phosphorus) will have more profound consequences in the physiology of the cell than an excess  
291 of CO<sub>2</sub>.

292  
293 The absence of a PUFA response to CO<sub>2</sub> differs with a report of an Arctic plankton community  
294 showing an increase of PUFA at high CO<sub>2</sub> levels during part of a mesocosm experiment  
295 experiencing nutrient additions (Leu et al. 2013). This was attributed to a change in the plankton  
296 community composition due to a rise in abundance of dinoflagellates at high CO<sub>2</sub> (Leu et al.  
297 2013). Our results show a decrease in PUFA due to a decline in dinoflagellates. The different  
298 PUFA trend between these experiments can be attributed to the specific plankton community  
299 composition and their related FA profiles alongside with phosphate and silicate limitation in  
300 our study, which causes a reduction of the biomass of some PUFA-rich taxa. Species  
301 composition of a natural plankton assemblage determines its food quality properties as distinct  
302 algal taxonomic groups have different FA composition profiles (Galloway & Winder 2015). A  
303 CO<sub>2</sub>-driven change in the Arctic plankton community composition (Leu et al. 2013) promoted  
304 the presence of species rich in PUFA. In our study the absence of a CO<sub>2</sub> response in taxa  
305 composition and the apparent influence of phosphate and silicate limitation in the algal FA  
306 composition resulted in a rather homogeneous PUFA concentration between CO<sub>2</sub> treatments.

307

#### 308 **4.3 Copepod fatty acids**

309 Our results showed that the PUFA concentration of the dominating copepod species, *A. bifilosa*  
310 and *E. affinis* did not vary between the different CO<sub>2</sub> treatments. However, the PUFA decrease  
311 in both copepods over the experimental period reflects the decline in the PUFA content of the  
312 seston. This observation is consistent with other studies showing that copepods strongly rely on  
313 their diet as source of FA and that their composition, especially PUFA, mirrors the algae they  
314 graze on (Ishida et al. 1998; Caramujo et al. 2007; Rossoll et al. 2012).

315  
316 Several studies have shown a limited direct CO<sub>2</sub> effect in the copepods FA of some species,  
317 like the genus *Acartia*, which is rather insensitive to projected high CO<sub>2</sub> exposure up to 5000  
318 µatm CO<sub>2</sub> (Kurihara et al. 2004; Kurihara & Ishimatsu 2008). Copepods experience widely  
319 varying pH conditions on a daily basis during their vertical migration, shown in the same area  
320 as the current study (Almén et al. 2014), which may explain their tolerance to pH variations.  
321 Several studies have demonstrated that food quality of the available prey in terms of PUFA  
322 content can affect egg production, hatching success and nauplii survival in copepods  
323 (Jónasdóttir 1994; Caramujo et al. 2007; Jónasdóttir et al. 2009). Indirect adverse CO<sub>2</sub> effects  
324 through the diet of primary consumers have been reported in laboratory and field experiments  
325 (Rossoll et al. 2012; Locke & Sprules 2000). However, the absence of a CO<sub>2</sub>-driven change in  
326 the community composition of primary producers and the homogeneous algal FA composition  
327 due to phosphate and silicate limitations masked any noticeable CO<sub>2</sub>-related effects in the algae  
328 FA profile that could have affected the copepods during our experiment.

## 329 **5 Conclusions**

330  
331 Considering that the Baltic Sea is a coastal sea with a natural frequent and wide pH variability  
332 (Omstedt et al. 2009), it can be expected that the effects of OA on plankton communities will  
333 be rather small within the range of predicted values for this century (Havenhand 2012). A  
334 reduced OA sensitivity in systems experiencing high CO<sub>2</sub> fluctuations is supported by our  
335 results and other studies using communities from the Baltic (Thomsen et al. 2010; Nielsen et  
336 al. 2010; Rossoll et al. 2013). However, in coastal upwelling areas undergoing an increase in  
337 hypoxic events, it is likely that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> values as presently experienced by coastal  
338 organisms and projected by the end of the century (Melzner et al. 2013) will be more recurrent  
339 in the future (Feely et al. 2004), with the potential to affect various properties of plankton  
340 communities.

341

342 Nonetheless, it is clear that the plankton community response to OA and concomitant effects  
343 on its food quality for higher trophic levels will strongly depend on the sensitivity of primary  
344 producers and on how OA affects the species composition of plankton assemblages (Leu et al.  
345 2013; Rossoll et al. 2013). This result is important as any change in primary producers in terms  
346 of FA, particularly essential biomolecules such as PUFA, may scale up in food webs since FAs  
347 are incorporated into the lipids of larval fish (Fraser et al. 1989; Izquierdo et al. 2001).  
348 Considering that fish is a critical natural resource (FAO, 2010), adverse OA effects on food  
349 quality can reach up to human populations who rely on fisheries as an important food source  
350 (Sargent et al. 1997; Arts et al. 2001).

351

## 352 **Acknowledgements**

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

360

361

## 362 **References**

- 363 Almén, A. et al., 2014. Coping with climate change? Copepods experience drastic variations in their  
364 physicochemical environment on a diurnal basis. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and*  
365 *Ecology*, 460, pp.120–128.
- 366 Almén, A.-K. et al., 2015. Negligible effects of ocean acidification on *Eurytemora affinis* (Copepoda)  
367 offspring production. *Biogeosciences Discussions*, 12(20), pp.17093–17123.
- 368 Arts, M.T., Ackman, R.G. & Holub, B.J., 2001. “Essential fatty acids” in aquatic ecosystems: a crucial  
369 link between diet and human health and evolution. *Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic*  
370 *Sciences*, 58(1), pp.122–137.
- 371 Bermúdez, R. et al., 2015. Long-term conditioning to elevated pCO<sub>2</sub> and warming influences the fatty  
372 and amino acid composition of the diatom *Cylindrotheca fusiformis*. *Plos One*, 10(5), p.e0123945.
- 373 Biswas, H. et al., 2011. The response of a natural phytoplankton community from the Godavari River  
374 estuary to increasing CO<sub>2</sub> concentration during the pre-monsoon period. *Journal of Experimental*  
375 *Marine Biology and Ecology*, 407(2), pp.284–293.
- 376 Boyd, P.W. et al., 2014. IPCC WGII AR5 Chapter 6. (October 2013).

- 377 Breteler, W., Schogt, N. & Baas, M., 1999. Trophic upgrading of food quality by protozoans enhancing  
378 copepod growth: role of essential lipids. *Marine Biology*, (135), pp.191–198.
- 379 Brussaard, C.P.D. et al., 2013. Arctic microbial community dynamics influenced by elevated CO<sub>2</sub> levels.  
380 *Biogeosciences*, 10(2), pp.719–731.
- 381 Brutemark, A., Engström-Öst, J. & Vehmaa, A., 2011. Long-term monitoring data reveal pH dynamics,  
382 trends and variability in the western Gulf of Finland. *Oceanological and Hydrobiological Studies*,  
383 40(3), pp.91–94.
- 384 Caramujo, M.-J., Boschker, H.T.S. & Admiraal, W., 2007. Fatty acid profiles of algae mark the  
385 development and composition of harpacticoid copepods. *Freshwater Biology*, 53, pp.77–90.
- 386 Clarke, K., 1993. Non-parametric multivariate analyses of changes in community structure. *Australian*  
387 *journal of ecology*, 18, pp.117–143.
- 388 Doney, S.C. et al., 2009. Ocean acidification: the other CO<sub>2</sub> problem. *Annual Review of Marine Science*,  
389 1, pp.169–192.
- 390 Feely, R. a et al., 2004. Impact of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> on the CaCO<sub>3</sub> system in the oceans. *Science (New*  
391 *York, N.Y.)*, 305(5682), pp.362–6.
- 392 Feely, R.A. et al., 2009. the CaCO<sub>3</sub> System in the Oceans. 362(2004).
- 393 Fiorini, S. et al., 2010. Coccolithophores lipid and carbon isotope composition and their variability  
394 related to changes in seawater carbonate chemistry. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and*  
395 *Ecology*, 394(1-2), pp.74–85.
- 396 Flynn, K.J., 2000. Modelling Si-N-limited growth of diatoms. *Journal of Plankton Research*, 22(3),  
397 pp.447–472.
- 398 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. 2014. In *The State of World Fisheries and*  
399 *Aquaculture 2014 1st edn*. Ch. 1, 62–68 (FAO).
- 400 Fraser, A.J., Sargent, J.R. & Gamble, J.C., 1989. Lipid class and fatty acid composition of *Calanus*  
401 *finmarchicus* (Gunnerus), *Pseudocalanus* sp. and *Temora Longicornis* Muller from a nutrient-  
402 enriched seawater enclosure. *J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol.*, 130, pp.81–92.
- 403 Galloway, A.W.E. & Winder, M., 2015. Partitioning the relative importance of phylogeny and  
404 environmental conditions on phytoplankton fatty acids. *Plos One*, 10(6), p.e0130053.
- 405 Graeme, H.C., Richardson, A.J. & Robinson, C., 2005. Climate change and marine plankton. *Trends in*  
406 *ecology & evolution*, 20(6), pp.337–44.
- 407 Guschina, I.A. & Harwood, J.L., 2009. Algal lipids and effect of the environment on their biochemistry.  
408 Pages 1-24 in M. T. Arts, M. T. Brett, and M. Kainz, editors. *Lipids in aquatic ecosystems*.  
409 Springer, New York, USA.
- 410 Hare, C. et al., 2007. Consequences of increased temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> for phytoplankton community  
411 structure in the Bering Sea. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 352, pp.9–16.
- 412 Havenhand, J.N., 2012. How will ocean acidification affect Baltic sea ecosystems? an assessment of  
413 plausible impacts on key functional groups. *Ambio*, 41(6), pp.637–44.
- 414 Hinga, K., 2002. Effects of pH on coastal marine phytoplankton. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 238,  
415 pp.281–300.

- 416 Ishida, Y. et al., 1998. Correlation analysis between fatty acid compositions of zooplankton individuals,  
417 fed on different phytoplankton species by means of pyrolysis-gas chromatography combined with  
418 on-line methylation. *Journal of chromatography. B, Biomedical sciences and applications*, 716(1-  
419 2), pp.39–45.
- 420 Izquierdo, M., Fernández-Palacios, H. & Tacon, a. G., 2001. Effect of broodstock nutrition on  
421 reproductive performance of fish. *Aquaculture*, 197(1-4), pp.25–42.
- 422 Jónasdóttir, S., Visser, A. & Jespersen, C., 2009. Assessing the role of food quality in the production  
423 and hatching of *Temora longicornis* eggs. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 382, pp.139–150.
- 424 Jónasdóttir, S.H., 1994. Effects of food quality on the reproductive success of *Acartia tonsa* and *Acartia*  
425 *hudsonica*: laboratory observations. *Marine Biology*, 121(1), pp.67–81.
- 426 Kroeker, K.J. et al., 2010. Meta-analysis reveals negative yet variable effects of ocean acidification on  
427 marine organisms. *Ecology letters*, 13(11), pp.1419–34.
- 428 Kurihara, H. & Ishimatsu, A., 2008. Effects of high CO<sub>2</sub> seawater on the copepod *Acartia tsuensis*  
429 through all life stages and subsequent generations, 56, pp.1086–1090.
- 430 Kurihara, H., Shimode, S. & Shirayama, Y., 2004. Sub-lethal effects of elevated concentration of CO<sub>2</sub>  
431 on planktonic copepods and sea urchins. *Journal of Oceanography*, 60, pp.743–750.
- 432 Leu, E. et al., 2013. Effect of ocean acidification on the fatty acid composition of a natural plankton  
433 community. *Biogeosciences*, 10(2), pp.1143–1153.
- 434 Locke, A. & Sprules, W.G., 2000. Effects of acidic pH and phytoplankton on survival and condition of  
435 *Bosmina longirostris* and *Daphnia pulex*. *Fisheries (Bethesda)*, pp.187–196.
- 436 Lohbeck, K.T., Riebesell, U. & Reusch, T.B.H., 2012. Adaptive evolution of a key phytoplankton  
437 species to ocean acidification. *Nature Geoscience*, 5(5), pp.346–351.
- 438 Melzner, F. et al., 2013. Future ocean acidification will be amplified by hypoxia in coastal habitats.  
439 *Marine Biology*, 160(8), pp.1875–1888.
- 440 Menden-Deuer, S. & Lessard, E.J., 2000. Carbon to volume relationships for dinoflagellates, diatoms,  
441 and other protist plankton. *Limnology and Oceanography*, 45(3), pp.569–579.
- 442 Nielsen, L.T., Jakobsen, H.H. & Hansen, P.J., 2010. High resilience of two coastal plankton  
443 communities to twenty-first century seawater acidification: Evidence from microcosm studies.  
444 *Marine Biology Research*, 6(6), pp.542–555.
- 445 Omstedt, A., Gustafsson, E. & Wesslander, K., 2009. Modelling the uptake and release of carbon dioxide  
446 in the Baltic Sea surface water. *Continental Shelf Research*, 29(7), pp.870–885.
- 447 Paul, A. J. et al., 2015. Effect of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on organic matter pools and fluxes in a summer, post  
448 spring-bloom Baltic Sea plankton community. *Biogeosciences Discussions*, 12(9), pp.6863–6927.
- 449 R Development Core Team, 2013. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*, Vienna.  
450 Available at: <http://www.r-project.org/>.
- 451 Reusch, T.B.H. & Boyd, P.W., 2013. Experimental evolution meets marine phytoplankton. *Evolution;*  
452 *international journal of organic evolution*, 67(7), pp.1849–59.
- 453 Riebesell, U., 2004. Effects of CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment on marine phytoplankton. *Journal of Oceanography*,  
454 60(4), pp.719–729.

- 455 Riebesell, U. et al., 2013. Technical Note: A mobile sea-going mesocosm system – new opportunities  
456 for ocean change research. *Biogeosciences*, 10(3), pp.1835–1847.
- 457 Rossoll, D. et al., 2012. Ocean acidification-induced food quality deterioration constrains trophic  
458 transfer. *PloS one*, 7(4), p.e34737.
- 459 Rossoll, D., Sommer, U. & Winder, M., 2013. Community interactions dampen acidification effects in  
460 a coastal plankton system. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*, 486, pp.37–46.
- 461 Sargent, J.R., McEvoy, L. a. & Bell, J.G., 1997. Requirements, presentation and sources of  
462 polyunsaturated fatty acids in marine fish larval feeds. *Aquaculture*, 155(1-4), pp.117–127.
- 463 Sato, N., Tsuzuki, M. & Kawaguchi, A., 2003. Glycerolipid synthesis in *Chlorella kessleri* 11 h II. Effect  
464 of the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration during growth. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*, 1633, pp.35 – 42.
- 465 Savchuk, O.P., 2005. Resolving the Baltic Sea into seven subbasins: N and P budgets for 1991–1999.  
466 *Journal of Marine Systems*, 56(1-2), pp.1–15.
- 467 Schulz, K.G. et al., 2013. Temporal biomass dynamics of an Arctic plankton bloom in response to  
468 increasing levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide. *Biogeosciences*, 10(1), pp.161–180.
- 469 Thomsen, J. et al., 2010. Calcifying invertebrates succeed in a naturally CO<sub>2</sub>-rich coastal habitat but are  
470 threatened by high levels of future acidification. *Biogeosciences*, 7(11), pp.3879–3891.
- 471 Torstensson, a. et al., 2013. Synergism between elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature on the Antarctic sea ice  
472 diatom *Nitzschia lecontei*. *Biogeosciences*, 10(10), pp.6391–6401.
- 473 Tsuzuki, M. et al., 1990. Effects of CO<sub>2</sub> Concentration during growth on fatty acid composition in  
474 microalgae. *Plant physiology*, 93(3), pp.851–6.
- 475 Yang, Y. & Gao, K., 2003. Effects of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations on the freshwater microalgae,  
476 *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* and *Scenedesmus obliquus* (Chlorophyta).  
477 *Journal of Applied Phycology*, 279, pp.1–11.
- 478
- 479
- 480
- 481
- 482
- 483
- 484
- 485
- 486
- 487
- 488

489

490

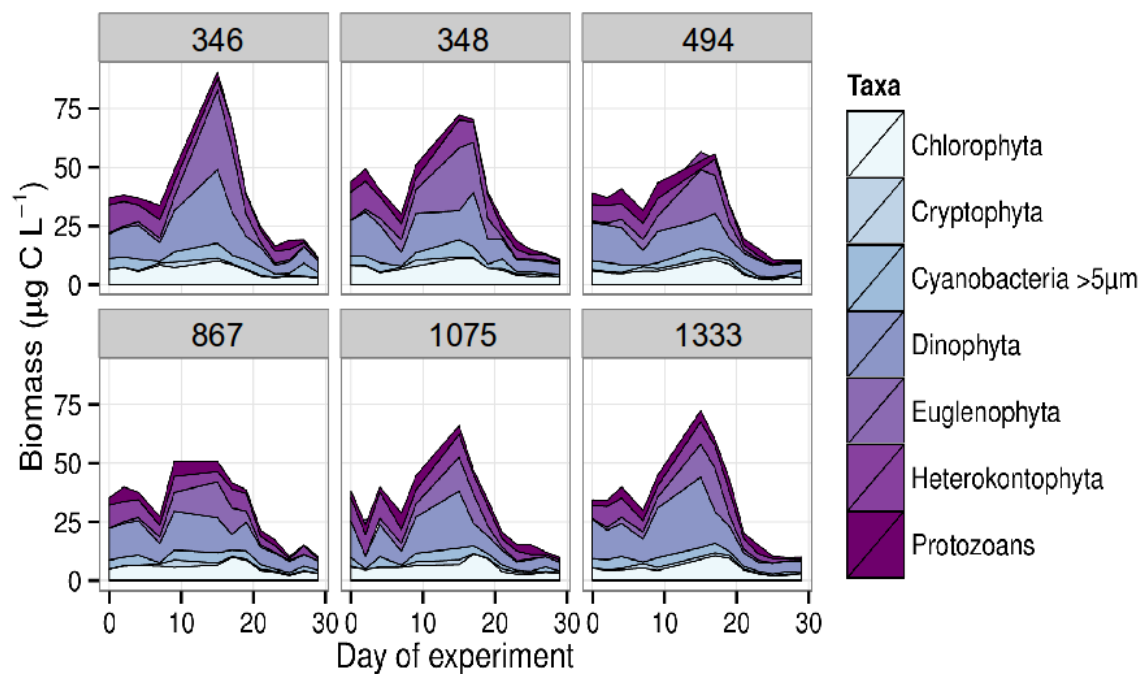
491 **Figures and Figure Legends**

492

493

494

495



496

497

498 **Figure 1.** Calculated biomass after cell counts of the main plankton taxonomic groups in the  
 499 different CO<sub>2</sub> treatments between day 1 and 29. Each treatment is labeled with the average *f*CO<sub>2</sub>  
 500 level of the entire experimental period (top).

501

502

503

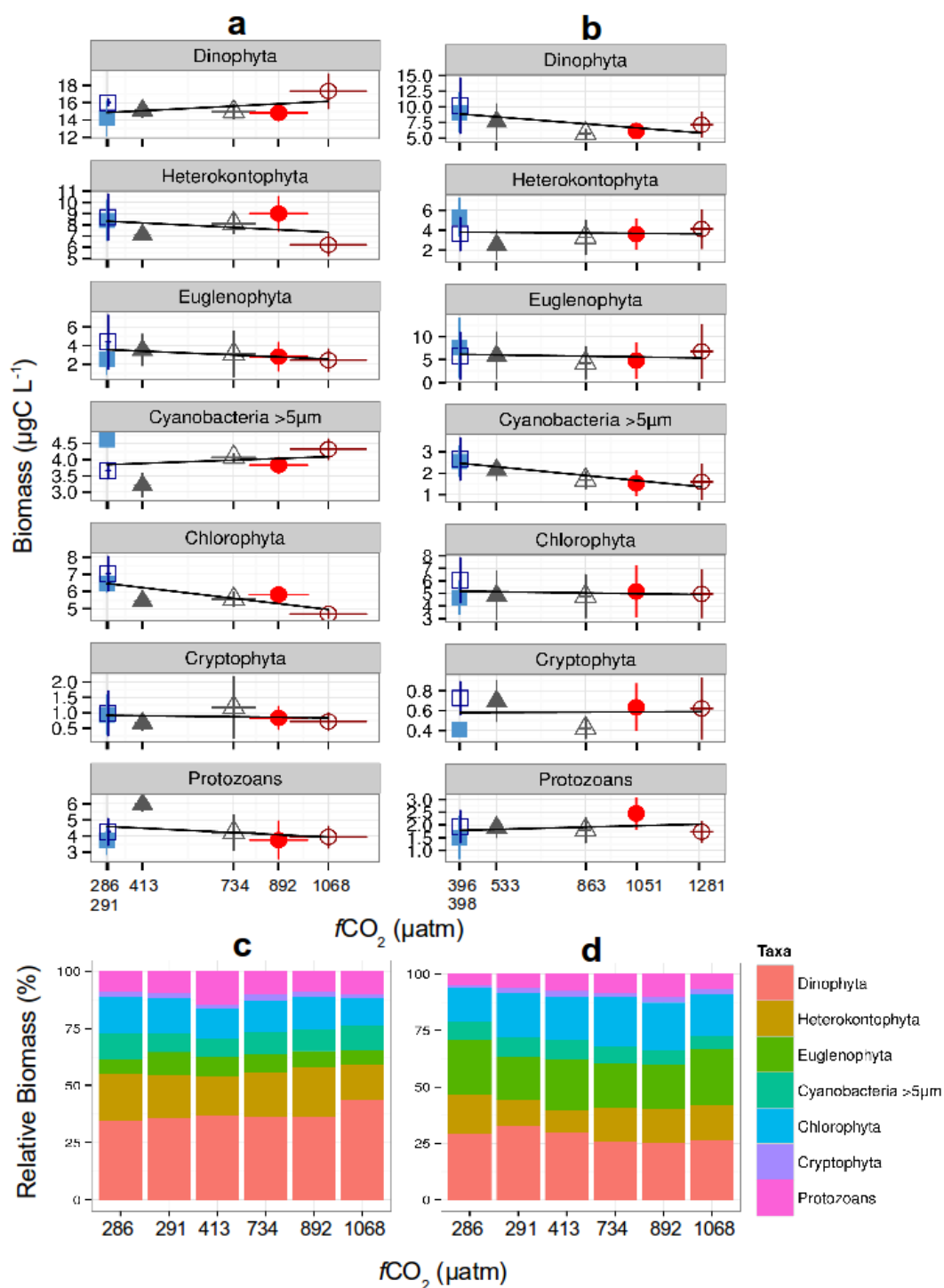
504

505

506

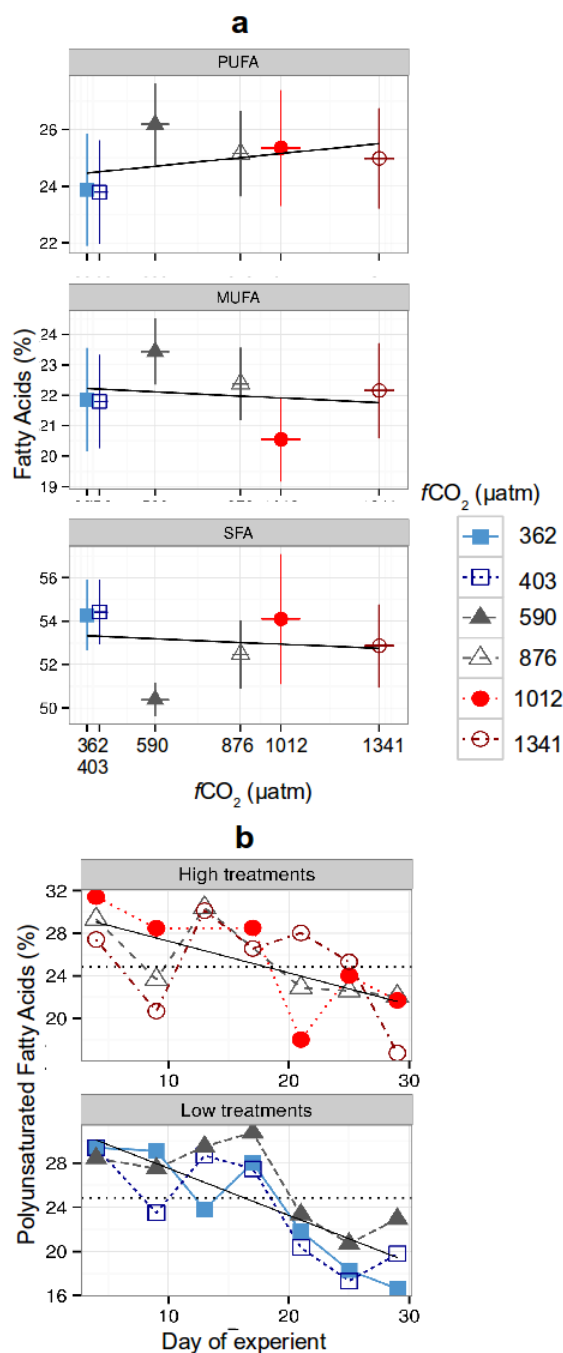
507

508



509  
 510  
 511  
 512 **Figure 2.** The top panels show the mean of the calculated biomass of each plankton taxon in a)  
 513 Phase 1, between the days 0 to 15; and b) Phase 2, between days 15 to 29, in the  $\text{CO}_2$  gradient  
 514 treatments. The bottom panels show the relative biomass of the different plankton groups  
 515 between c) Phases 1 and d) Phase 2. The x-axes show the measured average  $f\text{CO}_2$  in each phase,  
 516 error bars show standard error in a and b ( $n=5$  for a;  $n=5$  for b).  
 517



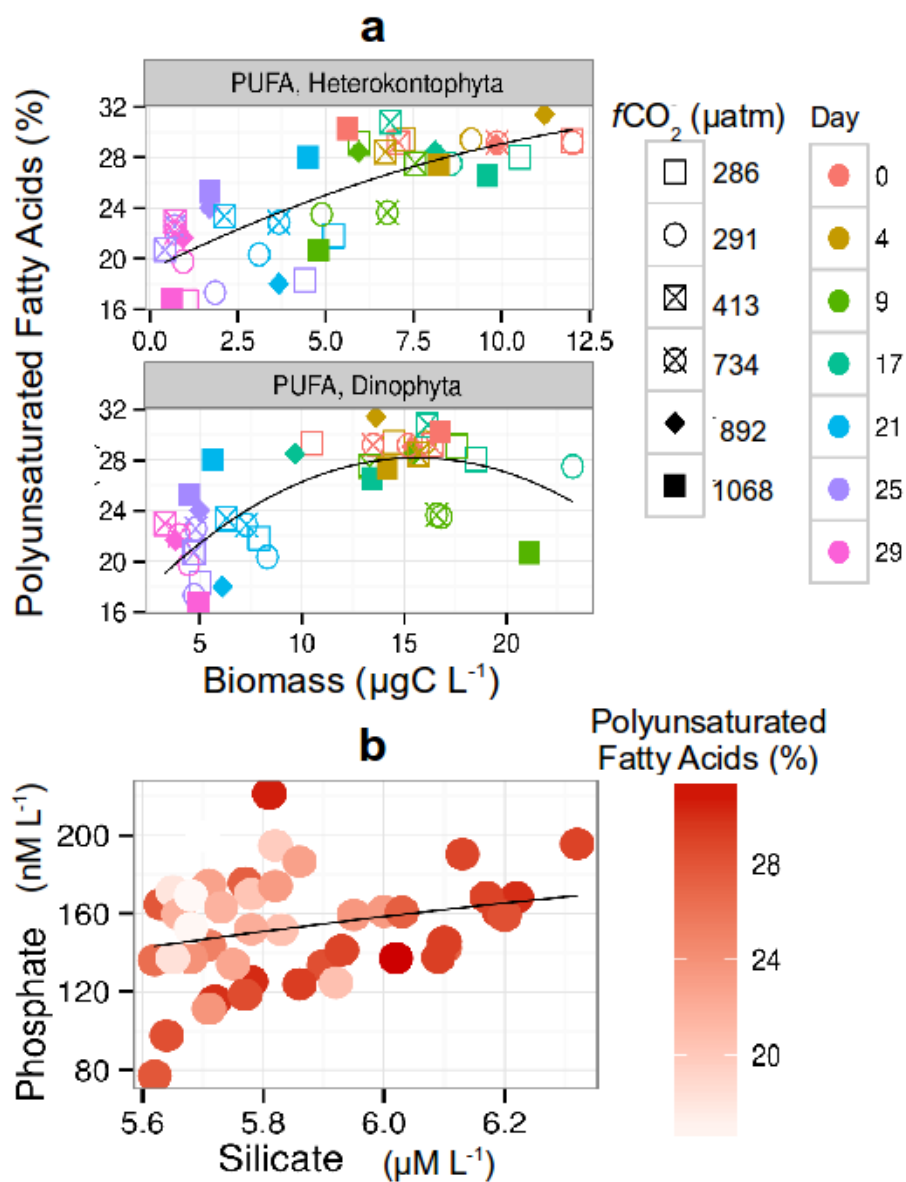


518  
 519  
 520  
 521 **Figure 3.** a) Relative polyunsaturated (PUFA), monounsaturated (MUFA), and saturated (SFA)  
 522 fatty acids content in the seston as a function of  $f\text{CO}_2$  between day 1 and 29. The x-axes show  
 523 the mean  $f\text{CO}_2$  measured during the sampling period, bars shows standard error. b) Relative  
 524 PUFA composition of the seston showed over time in the 876, 1012 and 1314  $\mu\text{atm}$   $f\text{CO}_2$  levels  
 525 (high  $\text{CO}_2$  treatments) and the 362, 403 and 590  $\mu\text{atm}$   $f\text{CO}_2$  levels (low  $\text{CO}_2$  treatments).  
 526 Horizontal dashed line indicates the position of the overall mean PUFA value.

527

528

529



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

536  
 537  
 538  
 539  
 540  
 541  
 542  
 543  
 544  
 545  
 546  
 547

