Effects of ocean acidification on pelagic carbon fluxes in a mesocosm experiment

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34 Abstract

About a quarter of anthropogenic CO_2 emissions are currently taken up by the oceans 35 decreasing seawater pH. We performed a mesocosm experiment in the Baltic Sea in order to 36 37 investigate the consequences of increasing CO₂ levels on pelagic carbon fluxes. A gradient of different CO₂ scenarios, ranging from ambient (~370 µatm) to high (~1200 µatm), were set 38 39 up in mesocosm bags (\sim 55 m³). We determined standing stocks and temporal changes of total 40 particulate carbon (TPC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) 41 and particulate organic carbon (POC) of specific plankton groups. We also measured carbon flux via CO₂ exchange with the atmosphere and sedimentation (export); and biological rate 42 43 measurements of primary production, bacterial production and total respiration. The experiment lasted for 44 days and was divided into three different phases (I: t0-t16; II: t17-44 t30; III: t31-t43). Pools of TPC, DOC and DIC were approximately 420, 7200 and 25200 45 mmol C m^{-2} at the start of the experiment, and the initial CO₂ additions increased the DIC 46 47 pool by \sim 7% in the highest CO₂ treatment. Overall, there was a decrease in TPC and increase 48 of DOC over the course of the experiment. The decrease in TPC was lower, and increase in 49 DOC higher, in treatments with added CO₂. During Phase I the estimated gross primary production (GPP) was ~100 mmol C fixed $m^{-2} d^{-1}$; from which 75-95% were respired, ~1% 50 ended up in the TPC (including export) and 5-25% added to the DOC pool. During Phase II, 51 52 the respiration loss increased to ~100% of GPP at the ambient CO_2 concentration, whereas respiration was lower (85-95% of GPP) in the highest CO₂ treatment. Bacterial production 53 54 was ~30% lower, on average, at the highest CO₂ concentration compared with the controls 55 during Phases II and III. This resulted in a higher accumulation DOC standing stock and 56 lower reduction in TPC in the elevated CO₂ treatments at the end of Phase II extending 57 throughout Phase III. The "extra" organic carbon at high CO₂ remained fixed in an increasing 58 biomass of small-sized plankton and in the DOC pool, and did not transfer into large, sinking 59 aggregates. Our results revealed a clear effect of increasing CO₂ on the carbon budget and mineralization, in particular under nutrient limited conditions. Lower carbon loss processes 60 (respiration and bacterial remineralization) at elevated CO₂ levels resulted in higher TPC and 61 DOC pools compared with the ambient CO₂ concentration. These results highlight the 62 importance to address not only net changes in carbon standing stocks, but also carbon fluxes 63 64 and budgets to better disentangle the effects of ocean acidification.

66 **1** Introduction

67 Combustion of fossil fuels and change in land use, have caused increasing atmospheric 68 concentrations of carbon dioxide (CO₂). Ca. 25% of the anthropogenic CO₂ is absorbed by 69 the oceans, thereby decreasing surface water pH, a process termed ocean acidification (Le 70 Quéré et al., 2009). Ocean acidification and its alterations of aquatic ecosystems have 71 received considerable attention during the past decade, but there are many open questions, in 72 particular related to consequences for planktonic mediated carbon fluxes.

73 Some studies on ocean acidification have reported increased carbon fixation (Egge et al., 74 2009; Engel et al., 2013), bacterial production (Grossart et al., 2006) and bacterial 75 degradation of polysaccharides (Piontek et al., 2010) at enhanced CO₂ levels, with potential 76 consequences for carbon fluxes within pelagic ecosystems and export to the deep ocean, i.e. 77 the biological carbon pump. Increasing carbon fixation in a high CO₂ environment can 78 translate into an enhanced sequestration of carbon (Riebesell et al., 2007), but this depends on 79 numerous environmental factors including phytoplankton community composition, aggregate 80 formation and nutrient availability. For example, if the community shifts towards smaller cell 81 sizes and/or enhanced cycling of organic matter carbon, export from the upper water layers 82 may decrease (Czerny et al., 2013a).

The effect of ocean acidification has mostly been studied in marine ecosystems under high phytoplankton biomass. Brackish water has lower buffering capacity than ocean water and the pH fluctuates more. The limited number of studies of ocean acidification in brackish water and indications that ocean acidification effects are greatest under nutrient limitation (De Kluijver et al., 2010), motivated this mesocosm study in the Baltic Sea during low nutrient, summer months.

The Baltic Sea is functionally much like a large estuary, with a salinity gradient ranging from approximately 20 in the South-West to <3 in the Northernmost Bothnian Bay. It is an almost landlocked body of water with a large population in its vicinity (~80 million). Human activities (e.g. agriculture, shipping and fishing) cause a number of environmental problems such as eutrophication and pollution. As a coastal sea projected to change rapidly due to interaction of direct and indirect anthropogenic pressures, the Baltic Sea can be seen as a model ecosystem to study global change scenarios (Niiranen et al., 2013).

Most primary data from this experiment are published in several papers of this Special Issue
(Riebesell et al., 2015). The aim of the present paper is to provide an overarching synthesis of

all information related to carbon standing stocks and fluxes. This enabled us to calculate carbon budgets in relation to different CO_2 levels.

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102 2 Materials and methods

- 103
- 104 2.1. Experimental set-up

105 Six Kiel Off-Shore Mesocosms for future Ocean Simulations (KOSMOS; with a volume of ca. 55 m³) were moored at Storfjärden, on the south west coast of Finland (59° 51.5' N; 23° 106 15.5' E) on 12 June 2012 (nine KOSMOS units were originally deployed but three were lost 107 due to leaks). A more detailed description of the set-up can be found in Paul et al. (2015). 108 109 The mesocosms extended from the surface down to 19 m depth and had a conical bottom end, which enabled quantitative collection of the settling material. Different CO_2 levels in the bags 110 111 were achieved by adding filtered (50 µm), CO₂-saturated seawater. The CO₂ enriched water 112 was evenly distributed over the upper 17 m of the water columns and added in 4 consecutive time steps (t0 - t3). Two controls and four treatments were used, and for the controls, filtered 113 114 seawater (without additional CO₂ enrichment) was added. The CO₂ fugacity gradient after all 115 additions ranged from ambient (average throughout the experiment: \sim 370 µatm fCO₂) in the 116 two control mesocosms (M1 and M5), up to ~1200 μ atm fCO₂ in the highest treatment (M8). We used the average fCO_2 throughout this experiment (from t1 - t43) to denote the different 117 118 treatments: 365 (M1), 368 (M5), 497 (M7), 821 (M6), 1007 (M3) and 1231 (M8) µatm fCO₂. 119 On t15, additional CO₂-saturated seawater was added to the upper 7 m in the same manner as 120 the initial enrichment, to counteract outgassing of CO₂.

We sampled the mesocosm every morning, but some variables were determined only every second day. Depth-integrated water samples (0 - 17 m) were taken by using integrating water samplers (IWS, HYDRO-BIOS, Kiel). The water was collected into plastic carboys (10 L) and taken to the laboratory for sub-sampling and subsequent determination of carbon stocks.

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126 **2.2. Primary variables**

127 For more detailed descriptions of the primary variables and the different methods used during this CO₂ mesocosm campaign, we refer to other papers in this joint volume: i.e. total 128 129 particulate carbon (TPC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and dissolved inorganic carbon 130 (DIC) are described by Paul et al. (2015); micro and nanophytoplankton enumeration by 131 Bermúdez et al. (2016); picophytoplankton, heterotrophic prokaryotes and viruses by 132 Crawfurd et al. (2016); zooplankton community by Lischka et al. (2015); primary production 133 and respiration by Spilling et al. (2016); bacterial production (BP) by Hornick et al. (2016); 134 and sedimentation by Boxhammer et al. (2016); and Paul et al. (2015).

135 Briefly, samples for TPC (500 mL) were GF/F filtered and determined using an elemental analyser (EuroAE). DOC was measured using the high temperature combustion method 136 (Shimadzu TOC -VCPN) following Badr et al. (2003). DIC was determined by infrared 137 absorption (LI-COR LI-7000 on an AIRICA system). The DIC concentrations were 138 converted from μ mol kg⁻¹ to μ mol L⁻¹ using the average seawater density of 1.0038 kg L⁻¹ 139 throughout the experiment. Settling particles were quantitatively collected every other day 140 141 from sediment traps at the bottom of the mesocosm units and the TPC determined from the 142 processed samples (Boxhammer et al., 2016) as described above.

143 Mesozooplankton was collected by net hauls (100 μ m mesh size), fixed (ethanol) and 144 counted in a stereomicroscope. Zooplankton carbon biomass (CB) was calculated using the 145 displacement volume (DV) and the equation of Wiebe (1988): (log DV + 1.429)/0.82 = log 146 CB. Micro and nanoplankton (zoo- and phytoplankton) CB was determined from microscopic 147 counts of fixed (acidic Lugol's iodine solution) samples, and the cellular bio-volumes were 148 determined according to Olenina et al. (2006) and converted to POC by the equations 149 provided by Menden-Deuer and Lessard (2000).

Picophytoplankton were counted using flow cytometry and converted to CB by size fractionation (Veldhuis and Kraay, 2004) and cellular carbon conversion factors (0.2 pg C μ m⁻³ (Waterbury et al., 1986). Prokaryotes and viruses were determined according to Marie et al. (1999) and Brussaard (2004), respectively. All heterotrophic prokaryotes, hereafter termed bacteria, and viruses were converted to CB assuming 12.5 fg C cell⁻¹ (Heinänen and Kuparinen, 1991) and 0.055 fg C virus⁻¹ (Steward et al., 2007), respectively.

The respiration rate was calculated from the difference between the O_2 concentration (measured with a Fibox 3, PreSens) before and after a 48 h incubation period in a dark, climate controlled room set to the average temperature observed in the mesocosms. Bacterial protein production (BPP) was determined by ¹⁴C-leucine (¹⁴C-Leu) incorporation (Simon and Azam, 1989) according to Grossart et al. (2006). The amount of incorporated ¹⁴C-Leu was converted into BPP by using an intracellular isotope dilution factor of 2. A conversion factor of 0.86 was used to convert the produced protein into carbon (Simon and Azam, 1989).

Net primary production (NPP) was measured using radio-labeled NaH¹⁴CO₃ (Steeman-Nielsen, 1952). Samples were incubated for 24 h in duplicate, 8 ml vials moored on small incubation platforms at 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 m depth next to the mesocosms. The areal primary production was calculated based on a simple linear model of the production measurements from the different depths (Spilling et al., 2016).

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170 **2.3. Gas exchange**

In order to calculate the CO₂ gas exchange with the atmosphere (CO_{2flux}), we used N₂O as tracer gas, and this was added to mesocosm M5 and M8 (control and high CO₂ treatment) according to Czerny et al. (2013b). The N₂O concentration was determined every second day using gas chromatography. Using the N₂O measurements, the fluxes across the water surface (F_{N2O}) was calculated according to:

176
$$F_{N2O} = I_{t1} - I_{t2} / (A * \Delta t)$$
 (1)

177 where I_{t1} and I_{t2} is the bulk N₂O concentration at time: t_1 and t_2 ; A is the surface area and Δt 178 is the time difference between t_1 and t_2 .

179 The flux velocity was then calculated by:

180
$$K_{N2O} = F_{N2O} / (C_{N2Ow} - (C_{N2O aw}))$$
 (2)

181 where C_{N2Ow} is the bulk N₂O concentration in the water at a given time point, and C_{N2Oaw} is 182 the equilibrium concentration for N₂O (Weiss and Price, 1980).

183 The flux velocity for CO_2 was calculated from the flux velocity of N_2O according to:

184
$$k_{CO2} = k_{N2O} / (Sc_{CO2}/Sc_{N2O})^{0.5}$$

185 where Sc_{CO2} and Sc_{N2O} are the Schmidt numbers for CO_2 and N_2O , respectively. The CO_2 flux

(3)

186 across the water surface was calculated according to:

187 $F_{CO2} = k_{CO2} (C_{CO2w} - C_{CO2aw})$

188 where C_{CO2w} is the water concentration of CO_2 and C_{CO2aw} is the equilibrium concentration of 189 CO_2 . CO_2 is preferentially taken up by phytoplankton at the surface, where also the 190 atmospheric exchange takes place. For this reason, we used the calculated CO_2 concentration 191 (based on the integrated CO_2 concentration and pH in the surface) from the upper 5 m as the 192 input for equation 5.

193 In contrast to N_2O , the CO_2 flux can be chemically enhanced by hydration reactions of CO_2 194 with hydroxide ions and water molecules in the boundary layer (Wanninkhof and Knox, 195 1996). Using the method outlined in Czerny et al. (2013b) we found an enhancement of up to 196 12% on warm days and this was included into our flux calculations.

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198 2.4. Data treatment

The primary data generated in this study comprise of carbon standing stock measurements of TPC, DOC, DIC, as well as carbon estimates of meso- and microzooplankton, micro-, nanoand picophytoplankton, bacteria and viruses. Flux measurements of atmospheric CO_2 exchange and sedimentation of TPC, as well as the biological rates of net primary production (NPP_{14C}), bacterial production (BP) and total respiration (TR) enabled us to make carbon budget.

205 Based on the primary variables (Chl a and temperature), the experiment where divided into three distinct phases: Phase I: t0-t16; Phase II: t17-t30 and Phase III: t31-t43, where e.g. 206 207 Chlorophyll a (Chl a) concentration was relatively high during Phase I, decreased during 208 Phase II and remained low during Phase III (Paul et al. 2015). Measurements of pools and 209 rates were average for the two first sampling points of each experimental phase (n = 2) and where normalized to m^2 knowing the total depth (17 m, excluding the sedimentation funnel) 210 of the mesocosms. For fluxes and biological rates we used the average for the whole periods 211 normalized to days (day⁻¹). The rates of change (Δ TPC, Δ DOC and Δ DIC) were the 212 difference between the start and end of each phase. All error estimates were calculated as 213 214 standard error (SE). The three different phases of the experiments were of different length 215 with n = 16, n = 14 and n = 13 for Phases I – III respectively. SE for estimated rates were 216 calculated from the square root of the sum of variance for all the variables (Eq 5-10 below) The primary papers mentioned above (section 2.2.) present detailed statistical analyses and we only refer to those here.

NPP was measured directly and we additionally estimated the net community production (NCP). This was done in two different ways from the organic (NCP_o), dissolved plus particulate and inorganic (NCP_i) fractions of carbon. NCP_o was calculated from changes in the organic fraction plus the exported TPC (EXP_{TPC}) according to:

223
$$NCP_0 = EXP_{TPC} + \Delta TPC + \Delta DOC$$
 (5)

Direct measurements using ¹⁴C isotope incubations should in principal provide a higher value than summing up the difference in overall carbon balance (our NCP_o), as the latter would incorporate total respiration and not only autotrophic respiration. NCP_i was calculated through changes in the dissolved inorganic carbon pool, corrected for CO_2 gas exchange with the atmosphere (CO2flux) according to:

$$229 \qquad \text{NCP}_{i} = \text{CO}_{2\text{flux}} - \Delta \text{DIC}$$
(6)

In order to close the budget we estimated gross primary production (GPP) and DOC production (DOC_{prod}). GPP is defined as the photosynthetically fixed carbon without any loss processes (i.e. NPP + autotrophic respiration). GPP can be estimated based on changes in organic (GPP_o) or inorganic (GPP_i) carbon pools, and we used these two different approaches providing a GPP range:

$$235 \quad \text{GPP}_{0} = \text{NCP}_{0} + \text{TR}$$
(7)

$$236 \quad \text{GPP}_{i} = \text{TR} + \text{CO}_{2\text{flux}} - \Delta \text{DIC}$$
(8)

During Phase III, TR was not measured and we estimated TR based on the ratios bwteeen NCP_o and BP to TR during Phase II. The minimum production of DOC (DOC_{minp}) in the system was calculated assuming bacterial carbon uptake was taken from the DOC pool according to:

241
$$DOC_{minp} = \Delta DOC + BP$$
 (9)

However, this could underestimate DOC_{prod} as a fraction of bacterial DOC uptake is respired. Without direct measurement of (heterotrophic prokaryote) bacterial respiration, (BR), we estimated BR from TR. The share of active bacteria contributing to bacterial production is typically in the range of 10-30% of the total bacterial community (Lignell et al., 2013). We used the fraction of bacterial biomass (BB) of total biomass (TB) as the maximum limit of

247 BR (BR \leq BB/TB), and hence calculated max DOC production (DOC _{maxp}) according to:

248
$$DOC_{maxp} = \Delta DOC + BP + (BB * TR / TB)$$
 (10)

249 We assumed that carbon synthesized by bacteria added to the TPC pool.

There are a number of uncertainties in these calculations, but this budgeting exercise provides an order-of-magnitude estimate of the flow of carbon within the system and enables comparison between the treatments. The average of the two controls (M1 and M5) and two highest CO_2 treatments (M3 and M8) were used to illustrate CO_2 effects.

254

255 **3. Results and discussion**

256 **3.1 Change in plankton community, from large to small forms over time**

257 The overall size structure of the plankton community decreased over the course of the experiment. Fig 1 illustrates the carbon content in different plankton groups in the control 258 259 mesocoms. During Phase I, the phytoplankton abundances increased at first in all treatments 260 before starting to decrease at the end of Phase I (Paul et al., 2015). At the start of Phase II (t17), the phytoplankton biomass was higher than at the start of the experiment (~130 mmol 261 C m⁻² in the controls) but decreased throughout Phase II and III. The fraction of 262 picophytoplankton increased in all treatments, but some groups of picophytoplankton 263 264 increased more in the high CO₂ treatments (Crawfurd et al., 2016).

Nitrogen was the limiting nutrient throughout the entire experiment (Paul et al., 2015), and primary producers are generally N-limited in the main sub-basins of the Baltic Sea (Tamminen and Andersen, 2007). The surface to volume ratio increases with decreasing cell size, and consequently small cells have higher nutrient affinity, and are better competitors for scarce nutrient sources than large cells (Reynolds, 2006). The prevailing N-limitation was likely the reason for the decreasing size structure of the phytoplankton community.

271 Micro and mesozooplankton standing stock was approximately half of the phytoplankton 272 biomass initially, but decreased rapidly in the control treatments during Phase I (Fig 1). In the 273 CO_2 enriched treatments the zooplankton biomass also decreased but not to the same extent 274 as in the control treatments (Spilling et al., 2016). Overall, smaller species benefitted from the extra CO_2 addition, but there was no significant negative effect of high CO_2 on the mesozooplankton community (Lischka et al., 2015).

Bacterial biomass was the main fraction of the plankton carbon throughout the experiment. The bacterial numbers largely followed the phytoplankton biomass with an initial increase then decrease during Phase I; increase during Phase II and slight decrease during Phase III (Crawfurd et al., 2016). The bacterial community was controlled by mineral nutrient limitation, bacterial grazing and viral lysis (Crawfurd et al., 2016), and bacterial growth is typically limited by N or a combination of N and C in the study area (Lignell et al., 2008; Lignell et al., 2013).

284 The bacterial carbon pool was higher than the measured TPC. Part of the bacteria must have 285 passed the GFF filters (0.7 µm), and assuming pico- to mesoplankton was part of the TPC, 286 >50% of the bacterial carbon was not contributing to the measured TPC. The conversion 287 factor from cells to carbon is positively correlated to cell size, and there is consequently 288 uncertainty related to the absolute carbon content of the bacterial pool (we used a constant 289 conversion factor). However, bacteria is known to be the dominating carbon share in the 290 Baltic Sea during the N-limited summer months (Lignell et al., 2013), and its relative 291 dominance is in line with this.

292 Although there are some uncertainty in the carbon estimate (Jover et al. 2014), virus make up 293 (due to their numerical dominance) a significant fraction of the pelagic carbon pool. Of the 294 different plankton fractions the virioplankton have been the least studied, but their role in the 295 pelagic ecosystem is ecologically important (Suttle, 2007; Brussaard et al., 2008; Mojica et 296 al., 2016). Viral lysis rates were equivalent to the grazing rates for phytoplankton and for 297 bacteria in the current study (Crawfurd et al., 2015). As mortality agents, viruses are key 298 drivers of the regenerative microbial food web (Suttle, 2007; Brussaard et al., 2008). Overall, 299 the structure of the plankton community reflected the nutrient status of the system. The 300 increasing N-limitation favoring development of smaller cells, and increasing dependence of 301 the primary producers on regenerated nutrients.

302

303 3.2. The DIC pool and atmospheric exchange of CO₂

The DIC pool was the largest carbon pool: 3-4 fold higher than the DOC pool and roughly 60-fold higher than the TPC pool (Tables 1-3). After the addition of CO₂, the DIC pool was \sim 7% higher in the highest CO₂ treatment compared to the control mesocosms (Table 1). The 307 gas exchange with the atmosphere was the most apparent flux affected by CO₂ addition (Tables 1-3). Seawater in the mesocosms with added CO_2 were supersaturated, hence CO_2 308 309 outgassed throughout the experiment. The control mesocosms were initially undersaturated, 310 hence ingassing occurred during Phases I and II (Fig 2). In the first part of Phase III, the 311 control mesocosms reached equilibrium with the atmospheric fCO_2 (Fig. 2). The gas 312 exchange had direct effects on the DIC concentration in the mesocosms (Fig. 3). From the 313 measured gas exchange and change in DIC it is possible to calculate the biologically 314 mediated carbon flux. In the mesocosms with ambient CO₂ concentration, the flux 315 measurements indicated net heterotrophy throughout the experiment. The opposite pattern, net autotrophy, was indicated in the two mesocosms with the highest CO_2 addition (Fig 3; see 316 317 also section 3.7.).

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319 **3.3. The DOC pool, DOC production and remineralization**

320 The DOC pool increased throughout the experiment in all mesocosm bags, but more in the 321 treatments with elevated CO₂ concentration. The initial DOC standing stock in all treatments was approximately 7200 mmol C m⁻². At the end of the experiment, the DOC pool was $\sim 2\%$ 322 higher in the two highest CO₂ treatments compared to the controls (Fig. 4), and there is 323 324 statistical support for this difference between CO_2 treatments (Phase III, p = 0.05) (Paul et al., 325 2015). Interestingly, the data does not point to a substantially higher release of DOC at high 326 CO₂ (Figs 4 and 5). The bacterial production was notably lower during Phases II and III in 327 the high CO₂ treatments (Hornick et al., 2016), and of similar magnitude as the rate of change in DOC pool (Table 2 and 3), indicating reduced bacterial uptake and remineralization of 328 329 DOC. The combined results suggest that the increase in the DOC pool at high CO_2 was related to reduced DOC loss (uptake by bacteria), rather than increased release of DOC by the 330 331 plankton community, at elevated CO₂ concentration.

The Baltic Sea is affected by large inflow of freshwater containing high concentrations of refractory DOC such as humic substances, and the concentration in Gulf of Finland is typically 400-500 μ mol C L⁻¹ (Hoikkala et al., 2015). The large pool of DOC and turn over times of ~200 days (Tables 1-3) is most likely a reflection of the relatively low fraction of labile DOC, but bacterial limitation of mineral nutrients can also increase turn over times (Thingstad et al., 1997). The DOC pool has been demonstrated to aggregate into transparent exopolymeric particles (TEP) under certain circumstances, which can increase sedimentation at high CO₂ levels (Riebesell et al., 2007). We did not have any direct measurements of TEP, but any CO₂ effect on its formation is highly dependent on the plankton community and its physiological status (MacGilchrist et al., 2014). No observed effect of CO₂ treatment on carbon export suggests that we did not have a community where the TEP production was any different between the treatments used.

345

346 **3.4. The TPC pool and export of carbon**

There was a positive effect of elevated CO_2 on TPC relative to the controls. At the start of the experiment, the measured TPC concentration in the enclosed water columns was 400-500 mmol C m⁻² (Table 1). The TPC pool decreased over time but less in the high CO_2 treatment and at the end of the experiment, the standing stock of TPC was ~6% higher (Phase III, p = 0.01; Paul et al. (2015) in the high CO_2 treatment (Fig. 4).

The export of TPC was not dependent on the CO₂ concentration but varied temporally. The 352 largest flux of TPC out of the mesocosms occurred during Phase I with ~6 mmol C $m^{-2} d^{-1}$. It 353 decreased to ~3 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ during Phase II and was ~2 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ during Phase III 354 (Table 1-3). The exported carbon as percent of average TPC standing stock similarly 355 356 decreased from ~1.3% during Phase I to 0.3-0.5% during Phase III. The initial increase in the autotrophic biomass was the likely reason for relatively more of the carbon settling in the 357 mesocosms in the beginning of the experiment whereas the decreasing carbon export was 358 359 most likely caused by the shift towards a plankton community depending on recycled nitrogen. This reduced the overall suspended TPC and also the average plankton size in the 360 361 community.

362

363 **3.5. Biological rates: respiration**

Total respiration (TR) was always lower in the CO₂ enriched treatments (Tables 1-3). The average TR was 83 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ during Phase I, and initially without any detectable treatment effect. The respiration rate started to be lower in the high CO₂ treatments, compared with the controls, in the beginning of Phase II. At the end of Phase II there was a significant difference (p = 0.02; Spilling et al., 2016) between the treatments (Table 2), and 40% lower respiration rate in the highest CO₂ treatment compared with the controls (Spilling
et al., 2016).

371 Cytosol pH is close to neutral in most organisms, and reduced energetic cost for internal pH 372 regulation (e.g. transport of H⁺) and at lower external pH levels could be one factor reducing 373 respiration (Smith and Raven, 1979). Hopkinson et al. (2010) found indirect evidence for decreased respiration and also proposed that increased CO₂ concentration (i.e. decreased pH) 374 375 reduced metabolic cost of remaining intracellular homeostasis. Mitochondrial respiration in plant foliage decreases in high CO₂ environments, possibly affected by respiratory enzymes 376 377 or other metabolic processes (Amthor, 1991; Puhe and Ulrich, 2012). Most inorganic carbon in water is in the form of bicarbonate (HCO_3) at relevant pH, and many aquatic autotrophs 378 379 have developed carbon concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) (e.g. Singh et al., 2014) that could 380 reduce the cost of growth (Raven, 1991). There are some studies that have pointed to savings 381 of metabolic energy due to down-regulation of carbon concentrating mechanisms (Hopkinson et al., 2010) or overall photosynthetic apparatus (Sobrino et al., 2014) in phytoplankton at 382 383 high CO₂ concentrations. Yet, other studies of the total plankton community have pointed at no effect or increased respiration at elevated CO₂ concentration (Li and Gao, 2012; Tanaka et 384 385 al., 2013), and the metabolic changes behind reduced respiration, remains an open question. 386 Membrane transport of H+ is sensitive to changes in external pH, but the physiological 387 impacts of increasing H+ needs further study to better address effects of ocean acidification 388 (Taylor et al., 2012). An important aspect is also to consider the microenvironment 389 surrounding plankton; exchange of nutrients and gases takes place through the boundary 390 layer, which might have very different pH properties than bulk water measurements (Flynn et 391 al., 2012).

392

393 **3.6. Biological rates: bacterial production**

Bacterial production (BP) became lower in the high CO_2 treatment in the latter part of the experiment. During Phase I, BP ranged from 27 to 46 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ (Table 1). The difference in BP between treatments became apparent in Phases II and III of the experiment. The average BP was 18% and 24% higher in the controls compared to the highest CO_2 treatments during Phases II and III, respectively (Tables 2 and 3). Statistical support (p \leq 0.01) for a treatment effect during parts of the experiment is presented in Hornick et al. (2016).

The lower bacterial production accounted for ~40% of the reduced respiration during Phase 400 401 II, and the reduced respiration described above could at least partly be explained by the lower 402 bacterial activity. This raises an interesting question: what was the mechanism behind the 403 reduced bacterial production/respiration in the high CO₂ treatment? There are examples of decreased bacterial production (Motegi et al 2013) and respiration (Teira et al., 2012) at 404 405 elevated CO₂ concentration. However, most previous studies have reported no change 406 (Allgaier et al., 2008) or a higher bacterial production at elevated CO₂ concentration 407 (Grossart et al., 2006; Piontek et al., 2010; Endres et al., 2014). The latter was also supported 408 by the recent study of Bunse et al. (2016), describing up-regulation of bacterial genes related 409 to respiration, membrane transport and protein metabolism at elevated CO₂ concentration; albeit, this effect was not evident when inorganic nutrients had been added (high Chl a 410 411 treatment).

In this study, the reason for the lower bacterial activity in the high CO_2 treatments could be due to either limitation and/or inhibition of bacterial growth or driven by difference in loss processes. Bacterial grazing and viral lysis was higher in the high CO_2 treatments during periods of the experiment (Crawfurd et al., 2016), and would at least partly be the reason for the reduced bacterial production at high CO_2 concentration.

417 N-limitation increased during the experiment (Paul et al., 2015), and mineral nutrient 418 limitation of bacteria can lead to accumulation of DOC, i.e. reduced bacterial uptake 419 (Thingstad et al., 1997), similar to our results. Bacterial N limitation is common in the area 420 during summer (Lignell et al., 2013), however, this N-limitation was not apparently different 421 in the controls (Paul et al., 2015), and CO₂ did not affect N-fixation (Paul et al., 2016). In a 422 scenario where the competition for N is fierce, the balance between bacteria and similar sized 423 picophytoplankton could be tilted in favor of phytoplankton if they gain an advantage by having easier access to carbon, i.e. CO₂ (Hornick et al., 2016). We have not found evidence 424 425 in the literature that bacterial production will be suppressed in the observed pH range inside 426 the mesocosms, varying from approximately pH 8.1 in the control to pH 7.6 in the highest 427 fCO_2 treatment (Paul et al., 2015), although enzyme activity seems to be affected even by 428 moderate pH changes. For example, some studies report on an increase in protein degrading 429 enzyme leucine aminopeptidase activities at reduced pH (Grossart et al., 2006; Piontek et al., 430 2010; Endres et al., 2014), whereas others indicate a reduced activity of this enzyme (Yamada and Suzumura, 2010). A range of other factors affects this enzyme, for example the 431 nitrogen source and salinity (Stepanauskas et al., 1999), and any potential interaction effects 432

with decreasing pH are not yet resolved. Any pH-induced changes in bacterial enzymaticactivity could potentially affect bacterial production.

435

436 **3.7. Biological rates: primary production**

437 There was an effect of CO₂ concentration on the net community production based on the organic carbon fraction (NCP_o). NCP_o was higher during Phase I than during the rest of the 438 439 experiments and during this initial phase without any apparent CO₂ effect. There was no consistent difference between CO₂ treatments for NPP_{14C} (p > 0.1), but NCP₀ increased with 440 increasing CO₂ enrichment during Phase II (Phase II; linear regression p = 0.003; $R^2 = 0.91$). 441 This was caused by the different development in the TPC and DOC pools. The pattern of 442 443 gross primary production (GPP) was similar to NCP_o during Phases I and II. During Phase III there were no respiration or NPP_{14C} measurements and the estimated GPP is more uncertain. 444 445 The NCP_o and GPP indicated a smaller difference between treatments during Phase III compared with Phase II. 446

447 The measures of NPP_{14C} and NCP_o were of a similar magnitude (Tables 1-3). During Phase I, 448 $NPP_{14C} < NCP_{0}$ (Table 1), this relationship reversed for most treatments during Phase II, with the exception of the highest CO_2 levels (Table 2). The difference between NPP_{14C} and NCP_o 449 suggests that observed reduction in respiration at elevated CO₂ could be mainly heterotrophic 450 451 respiration. However, in terms of the $NPP_{14C} < NCP_{0}$, the uncertainty seems to be higher than the potential signal of heterotrophic respiration. This would also indicate that the NPP_{14C} 452 during Phase I have been underestimated, in particular for the control mesocosm M1. During 453 Phase II, the NPP_{14C} was higher than NCP_o, except for the two highest CO₂ treatments, more 454 in line with our assumption of $NPP_{14C} > NCP_o$. The systematic offset in NPP_{14C} during Phase 455 456 I could be due to changed parameterization during incubation in small volumes (8 mL, 457 Spilling et al., 2016), for example increased loss due to grazing.

The results of the DIC pool and atmospheric exchange of CO_2 provides another way of estimating the net community production based on inorganic carbon (NCP_i). There was some discrepancy between the NCP_o and NCP_i as the latter suggested net heterotrophy in the ambient CO_2 whereas the high CO_2 treatments were net autotrophic during all three phases of the experiment (Fig. 3). For the NCPo there was no indication of net heterotrophy at ambient CO_2 concentration. In terms of the absolute numbers, the NCPi estimate is probably more uncertain than NCP_o. Calculating the CO_2 atmospheric exchange from the measurements of a tracer gas involves several calculation steps (Eq 1-4), each adding uncertainty to the calculation. However, both estimations (NCPi and NCPo) indicate that increased CO_2 concentrations lead to higher overall community production, supporting our overall conclusion.

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471 **3.8 Budget**

472 A carbon budget for the two control mesocosms and two highest CO₂ additions is presented in Fig. 5. During Phase I the estimated gross primary production (GPP) was ~100 mmol C 473 fixed $m^{-2} d^{-1}$; from which 75-95% were respired, ~1% ended up in the TPC (including export) 474 and 5-25% added to the DOC pool. The main difference between CO2 treatments became 475 476 apparent during Phase II when the NCP_o was higher in the elevated CO₂ treatments. The 477 respiration loss increased to ~100% of GPP at the ambient CO₂ concentration, whereas 478 respiration was lower (85-95% of GPP) in the highest CO₂ treatment. Bacterial production 479 was ~30% lower, on average, at the highest CO₂ concentration compared with the controls during Phase II. The share of NCP_o of GPP ranged from 2% to 20% and the minimum flux to 480 the DOC pool was 11% to 18% of TPC. 481

The overall budget was calculated by using the direct measurements of changes in standing stocks and fluxes of export, respiration and bacterial production rates. The most robust data are the direct measurements of carbon standing stocks and their development (e.g. Δ TPC). These are based on well-established analytical methods with relatively low standard error (SE) of the carbon pools. However, the dynamic nature of these pools made the relative SE for the rate of change much higher, reflecting that the rate of change varied considerably within the different phases.

489 The rate parameters, calculated based on conversion factors, have greater uncertainty, 490 although their SEs were relatively low, caused by uncertainty in the conversion steps. For example, the respiratory quotient (RQ) was set to one, which is a good estimate for 491 492 carbohydrate oxidation. For lipids and proteins the RQ is close to 0.7, but in a natural 493 environment RQ is often >1 (Berggren et al., 2012), and is affected by physiological state e.g. 494 nutrient limitation (Romero-Kutzner et al., 2015). Any temporal variability in the conversion 495 factors would directly change the overall budget calculations, e.g. RQ affecting total 496 respiration and gross primary production estimates. However, the budget provides an order497 of-magnitude estimate of the carbon flow within the system. Some of the parameters such as
498 GPP were estimated using different approaches, providing a more robust comparison of the
499 different treatments.

500 The primary effect of increasing CO₂ concentration was the higher standing stocks of TPC and DOC compared with ambient CO₂ concentration. The increasing DOC pool and 501 502 relatively higher TPC pool were driven by reduced respiration and bacterial production at elevated CO₂ concentration. Decreasing respiration rate reduced the recycling of organic 503 504 carbon back to the DIC pool. The lower respiration and bacterial production also indicates 505 reduced remineralization of DOC. These two effects caused the higher TPC and DOC pools in the elevated CO₂ treatments. The results highlight the importance of looking beyond net 506 507 changes in carbon standing stocks to understand how carbon fluxes are affected under 508 increasing ocean acidification.

509

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Table 1. The standing stock of total particular carbon (TPC_{pool}), dissolved organic carbon (DOC_{pool}) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC_{pool}) at the start of 2 Phase I in mmol C $m^{-2} \pm SE$ (n = 2). The DOC_{pool} was missing some initial measurements and is the average for all mesocosms assuming that the DOC 3 concentration was similar at the onset of the experiment. The net change in TPC (Δ TPC), DOC (Δ DOC) and DIC (Δ DIC) are average changes in the standing 4 stocks during Phase I in mmol C $m^{-2} d^{-1} \pm SE (n = 2)$. Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange (CO_{2flux}) and exported carbon (EXP_{TPC}) plus biological 5 rates: total respiration (TR), bacterial (BP) and net primary production (NPP_{14C}) and net community production estimated based on organic carbon 6 pools (NCP₀) net primary production, are all average for Phase I in mmol C $m^{-2} d^{-1} \pm SE$ (n = 16). SE for NCPo was calculated from the square 7 root of the sum of variance of the three variables used in Eq 6. The NCP_o was calculated from the net change in carbon pools plus carbon export, 8 whereas NPP_{14C} was measured carbon fixation using radiolabeled ¹⁴C over a 24 h incubation period *in situ*. TR was measured as O_2 consumption and for 9 comparison with carbon fixation we used a respiratory quotient (RQ) of 1. A total budget of carbon fluxes for ambient and high CO₂ treatments is presented in 10 11 Fig 5.

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| 13 | Phase I (<i>t0-t16</i>) |
|----|---------------------------|
|----|---------------------------|

| 14 | CO_2 treatment (μ atm fCO_2) | 365 | 368 | 497 | 821 | 1007 | 1231 |
|----|--|---------------|----------------|-------------------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| 15 | Mesocosm number | M1 | M5 | M7 | M6 | M3 | M8 |
| 16 | TPC _{pool} | 417 ± 38 | 425 ± 39 | 472 ± 48 | 458 ± 38 | 431 ± 48 | 446 ± 57 |
| 17 | DOC _{pool} | 7172 ± 87 | 7172 ± 87 | 7172 ± 87 | 7172 ± 87 | 7172 ± 87 | 7172 ± 87 |
| 18 | DIC _{pool} | 25158 ± 9 | 25182 ± 10 | 25628 ± 8 | 26295 ± 22 | 26637 ± 36 | 26953 ± 48 |
| 19 | ΔΤΡC | -4.6 ± 15 | -5.2 ± 13 | -8.3 ± 13 | -8.2 ± 17 | -7.0 ± 13 | -6.3 ± 20 |
| 20 | ΔDOC | 15.5 ± 58 | 18.3 ± 30 | 18.5 ± 33 | 25.0 ± 36 | 18. 5 ± 73 | 18.1 ± 63 |
| 21 | ΔDIC | 5.5 ± 5.2 | 6.9 ± 9.2 | -6.1 ± 11 | -24 ± 14 | -32 ± 20 | -49 ± 42 |
| 22 | $\rm CO_{2 flux}$ | 4.4 ± 0.2 | 4.8 ± 0.3 | $\textbf{-0.8} \pm 0.5$ | -11 ± 1.0 | -17 ± 1.4 | -23 ± 2.0 |
| 23 | 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 |
| 24 | TR | 107 ± 9 | 82 ± 7 | 81 ± 6 | 80 ± 8 | 75 ± 8 | 74 ± 8 |
| 25 | BP | 27 ± 8 | 41 ± 6 | 43 ± 8 | 41 ± 4 | 36 ± 5 | 46 ± 9 |
| 26 | NPP _{14c} | 4.8 ± 0.8 | 11.4 ± 2.1 | 14.9 ± 3.6 | 12.3 ± 2.3 | 11.3 ± 2.4 | 14.5 ± 2.7 |
| 27 | NCPo | 17.4 ± 33 | 18.7 ± 20 | 15.6 ± 30 | 22.8 ± 28 | 17.1 ± 25 | 17.8 ± 28 |
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Table 2. The standing stock of total particular carbon (TPC_{pool}), dissolved organic carbon (DOC_{pool}) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC_{pool}) at the start of Phase II in mmol C $m^{-2} \pm SE$ (n = 2). The net change in TPC (Δ TPC), DOC (Δ DOC) and DIC (Δ DIC) are average changes in the standing stocks during Phase II in mmol C $m^{-2} d^{-1} \pm SE$ (n = 2). Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange (CO_{2flux}) and exported carbon (EXP_{TPC}) plus biological rates: total respiration (TR), bacterial production (BP), measured (NPP_{14C}) and net community production estimated based on organic carbon pools (NCP_o), are all average for Phase II in mmol C $m^{-2} d^{-1} \pm SE$ (n = 14). See Table 1 legend for further details.

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| 8 | CO_2 treatment (μ atm fCO_2) | 365 | 368 | 497 | 821 | 1007 | 1231 |
|----|--|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| 9 | Mesocosm number | M1 | M5 | M7 | M6 | M3 | M8 |
| 10 | TPC _{pool} | 339 ± 14 | 337 ± 20 | 331 ± 22 | 318 ± 9 | 312 ± 12 | 339 ± 23 |
| 11 | DOC _{pool} | 7435 ± 38 | 7483 ± 37 | 7487 ± 43 | 7597 ± 37 | 7487 ± 61 | 7479 ± 37 |
| 12 | DIC _{pool} | 25247 ± 34 | 25269 ± 34 | 25639 ± 8 | 26177 ± 25 | 26413 ± 28 | 26757 ± 45 |
| 13 | ΔΤΡC | -2.4 ± 5 | -2.3 ± 8 | -1.6 ± 14 | 0.3 ± 6 | 2.8 ± 4 | 3.2 ± 8 |
| 14 | ΔDOC | -0.6 ± 39 | 2.4 ± 30 | 3.6 ± 40 | 8.4 ± 31 | 11.3 ± 58 | 9.1 ± 36 |
| 15 | ΔDIC | 22.4 ± 12 | 17.6 ± 8.1 | -0.4 ± 4.5 | -10.5 ± 16 | -14.2 ± 10 | -23.1 ± 13 |
| 16 | $\rm CO_{2flux}$ | 1.7 ± 0.3 | 1.2 ± 0.3 | -2.6 ± 0.3 | -10 ± 0.5 | -14 ± 0.6 | -19 ± 1.0 |
| 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 | TR | 140 ± 7 | 127 ± 5 | 103 ± 3 | 103 ± 4 | 101 ± 5 | 86 ± 4 |
| 19 | BP | 66 ± 17 | 57 ± 8 | 61 ± 7 | 57 ± 7 | 43 ± 6 | 47 ± 6 |
| 20 | NPP _{14c} | 3.8 ± 0.6 | 11.2 ± 1.9 | 10.8 ± 2.0 | 14.3 ± 2.8 | 10.4 ± 2.1 | 12.0 ± 2.5 |
| 21 | NCPo | 0.3 ± 20 | 2.7 ± 15 | 4.5 ± 22 | 11.4 ± 16 | 16.9 ± 19 | 15.2 ± 16 |
| 22 | | | | | | | |

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Table 3. The standing stock of total particular carbon (TPC_{pool}), dissolved organic carbon (DOC_{pool}) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC_{pool}) at the start of Phase III in mmol C m⁻² ± SE (n = 2). The net change in TPC (Δ TPC), DOC (Δ DOC) and DIC (Δ DIC) are average changes in the standing stocks during Phase III in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE (n = 2). Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange (CO_{2flux}) and exported carbon (EXP_{TPC}) plus biological rates: total respiration (TR), bacterial production (BP), measured (NPP_{14C}) and net community production estimated based on organic carbon pools (NCP_o), are all average for Phase III in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE (n = 13). See Table 1 legend for further details. During Phase III we did not have direct measurements of net primary production (NPP_{14C}) or total respiration (TR).

9 Phase III (*t31-t43*)

| 10 | CO_2 treatment (μ atm fCO_2) | 365 | 368 | 497 | 821 | 1007 | 1231 |
|----|--|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|--------------|
| 11 | Mesocosm number | M1 | M5 | M7 | M6 | M3 | M8 |
| 12 | TPC _{pool} | 306 ± 12 | 304 ± 20 | 309 ± 20 | 323 ± 2 | 351 ± 13 | 384 ± 16 |
| 13 | DOC _{pool} | 7426 ± 16 | 7469 ± 20 | 7485 ± 92 | 7553 ± 20 | 7593 ± 30 | 7562 ± 38 |
| 14 | DIC _{pool} | 25557 ± 9 | 25545 ± 10 | 25648 ± 13 | 26030 ± 19 | 26197 ± 31 | 26371 ± 32 |
| 15 | ΔΤΡС | -3.8 ± 10 | 0.3 ± 7 | 3.3 ± 14 | 3.3 ± 10 | -1.4 ± 8 | -4.8 ± 8 |
| 16 | ΔDOC | 9.8 ± 5 | 8.8 ± 7 | 8.9 ± 43 | 9.2 ± 10 | 5.7 ± 17 | 16.3 ± 20 |
| 17 | ΔDIC | 4.3 ± 3.9 | 5.5 ± 8.7 | 6.2 ± 11 | -12.3 ± 7.2 | -16.3 ± 14 | -20.1 ± 14 |
| 18 | CO _{2flux} | $\textbf{-0.3} \pm 0.7$ | $\textbf{-0.8} \pm 0.6$ | -3.0 ± 0.5 | $\textbf{-7.3}\pm0.5$ | $\textbf{-9.4} \pm 0.6$ | -13 ± 0.6 |
| 19 | EXP _{TPC} | 1.5 ± 0.07 | 1.4 ± 0.05 | 0.4 ± 0.07 | 1.9 ± 0.05 | 1.6 ± 0.04 | 1.7 ± 0.05 |
| 20 | BP | 31 ± 6.8 | 37 ± 1.4 | 38 ± 1.4 | 27 ± 2.1 | 17 ± 3.8 | 28 ± 2.3 |
| 21 | NCPo | 7.6 ± 16 | 10.5 ± 13 | 12.7 ± 20 | 14.3 ± 13 | 6.0 ± 10 | 13.2 ± 14 |

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2 Figure legends

Fig. 1. The different fractions of carbon in the control mesocosms (M1 and M5) at the start of Phase I (t0), II (t17) and III (t31) in mmol C $m^{-2} \pm SE$ (n = 2). The differences between the controls and elevated CO₂ concentration are discussed in the text. The size of the boxes indicates the relative size of the carbon standing stocks.

Fig 2. The calculated exchange of CO_2 between the mesocosms and the atmosphere. Positive values indicate net influx (ingassing) and negative values net outflux (outgassing) from the mesocosms. The flux was based on measurements of N₂O as a tracer gas and calculated using equations 2-5.

Fig 3. Change in dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) pool and the atmospheric CO_2 exchange (Fig. 2). All values are average mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE for the three different phases (n = 16, 14 and 13 for Phases I – III respectively) in the control mesocosms (M1 + M5) and high CO_2 mesocosms (M3 + M8). Black, solid arrows indicated measured fluxes. Grey, dashed arrows are estimated by closing the budget, and indicate the net community production based on inorganic carbon budget (NCP_i), which equals biological uptake or release of CO_2 .

Fig 4. Standing stocks of total particulate carbon (TPC) and dissolved carbon (DOC) at the last day of the experiment (*t43*), plus the sum of exported TPC throughout the experiment; all values are in mmol C m⁻² \pm SE (n = 2). The values are averages of the two controls (M1 and M5) and the two highest CO₂ treatments (M3 and M8). Red circles indicate statistically significant higher standing stocks in the high CO₂ treatments (further details in text). The size of the boxes indicates the relative size of the carbon standing stocks and export.

23 Fig 5. Average carbon standing stocks and flow in the control mesocosms (M1 + M5) and high CO₂ mesocosms (M3 + M8) during the three phases of the experiment. All carbon 24 25 stocks (squares): dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), total particulate carbon (TPC) and dissolved organic carbon (DOC), are average from the start of the period in mmol C $m^{-2} \pm SE$ 26 (n = 2). Fluxes (arrows) and net changes (Δ) are averages for the whole phase in mmol C m⁻² 27 $d^{-1} \pm SE$ (n = 2). Black, solid arrows indicated measured fluxes (Tables 1-3): total respiration 28 (TR), bacterial production (BP), exported TPC (EXP_{TPC}). Grey, dashed arrows are estimated 29 30 by closing the budget: gross primary production (GPP) using equations 7 and 8; DOC production (DOC_{prod}) using equations 9 and 10. Bacterial respiration was calculated using 31

equation 10 and is a share of TR (indicated by the parenthesis). Aggregation was assumed to equal BP. Red circles indicate statistically higher values compared with the other CO_2 treatment (p < 0.05, tests presented in the primary papers described in section 2.2.). The size of the boxes indicates the relative size of the carbon standing stocks.

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Fig 1









- **Fig 3**



- **Fig 4**

