

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

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5 Kristian Spilling^{1, 2}, Kai G. Schulz³, Allanah J. Paul⁴, Tim Boxhammer⁴, Eric P. Achterberg^{4,}
6 ⁵, Thomas Hornick⁶, Silke Lischka⁴, Annegret Stühr⁴, Rafael Bermúdez^{4, 7}, Jan Czerny⁴, Kate
7 Crawford⁸, Corina P. D. Brussaard^{8, 9}, Hans-Peter Grossart^{6, 10}, Ulf Riebesell⁴

8 [1] {Marine Research Centre, Finnish Environment Institute, P.O. Box 140, 00251 Helsinki,
9 Finland}

10 [2] {Tvärminne Zoological Station, University of Helsinki, J. A. Palménin tie 260, 10900
11 Hanko, Finland}

12 [3] {Centre for Coastal Biogeochemistry, Southern Cross University, Military Road, East
13 Lismore, NSW 2480, Australia}

14 [4] {GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research Kiel, Düsternbrooker Weg 20, 24105
15 Kiel, Germany}

16 [5] {National Oceanography Centre Southampton, European Way, University of
17 Southampton, Southampton, SO14 3ZH, UK}

18 [6] {Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries (IGB), Experimental
19 Limnology, 16775 Stechlin, Germany}

20 [7] {Facultad de Ingeniería Marítima, Ciencias Biológicas, Oceánicas y Recursos Naturales.
21 ESPOL, Escuela Superior Politécnica del Litoral, Guayaquil, Ecuador}

22 [8] {NIOZ Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, Department of Marine
23 Microbiology and Biogeochemistry, and Utrecht University, P.O. Box 59, 1790 AB Den
24 Burg, Texel, The Netherlands}

25 [9] {Department of Aquatic Microbiology, Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem
26 Dynamics (IBED), University of Amsterdam, The Netherlands}

27 [10] {Potsdam University, Institute for Biochemistry and Biology, 14469 Potsdam,
28 Germany}

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30 Correspondence to: K. Spilling (kristian.spilling@environment.fi)

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34 **Abstract**

35 About a quarter of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions are currently taken up by the oceans
36 decreasing seawater pH. We performed a mesocosm experiment in the Baltic Sea in order to
37 investigate the consequences of increasing CO₂ levels on pelagic carbon fluxes. A gradient of
38 different CO₂ scenarios, ranging from ambient (~370 μatm) to high (~1200 μatm), were set
39 up in mesocosm bags (~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
42 flux via CO₂ exchange with the atmosphere and sedimentation (export); and biological rate
43 measurements of primary production, bacterial production and total respiration. The
44 experiment lasted for 44 days and was divided into three different phases (I: *t0-t16*; II: *t17-*
45 *t30*; III: *t31-t43*). Pools of TPC, DOC and DIC were approximately 420, 7200 and 25200
46 mmol C m⁻² at the start of the experiment, and the initial CO₂ additions increased the DIC
47 pool by ~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
50 production (GPP) was ~100 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹; from which 75-95% were respired, ~1% ended
51 up in the TPC (including export) and 5-25% added to the DOC pool. During Phase II, the
52 respiration loss increased to ~100% of GPP at the ambient CO₂ concentration, whereas
53 respiration was lower (85-95% of GPP) in the highest CO₂ treatment. Bacterial production
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
60 mineralization, in particular under nutrient limited conditions. Lower carbon loss processes
61 (respiration and bacterial remineralization) at elevated CO₂ levels resulted in higher TPC and
62 DOC pools compared with the ambient CO₂ concentration. These results highlight the
63 importance to address not only net changes in carbon standing stocks, but also carbon fluxes
64 and budgets to better disentangle the effects of ocean acidification.

65

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).

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

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

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

98 all information related to carbon standing stocks and fluxes. This enabled us to calculate
99 carbon budgets in relation to different CO₂ levels.

100

101

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
106 ca. 55 m³) were moored at Storfjärden, on the south west coast of Finland (59° 51.5' N; 23°
107 15.5' E) on 12 June 2012 (nine KOSMOS units were originally deployed but three were lost
108 due to leaks). A more detailed description of the set-up can be found in Paul et al. (2015).
109 The mesocosms extended from the surface down to 19 m depth and had a conical bottom end,
110 which enabled quantitative collection of the settling material. Different CO₂ levels in the bags
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
113 time steps (*t0* – *t3*). Two controls and four treatments were used, and for the controls, filtered
114 seawater (without additional CO₂ enrichment) was added. The CO₂ fugacity gradient after all
115 additions ranged from ambient (average throughout the experiment: ~370 µatm *f*CO₂) in the
116 two control mesocosms (M1 and M5), up to ~1200 µatm *f*CO₂ in the highest treatment (M8).
117 We used the average *f*CO₂ throughout this experiment (from *t1* – *t43*) to denote the different
118 treatments: 365 (M1), 368 (M5), 497 (M7), 821 (M6), 1007 (M3) and 1231 (M8) µatm *f*CO₂.
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.

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

125

126 **2.2. Primary variables**

127 For more detailed descriptions of the primary variables and the different methods used during
128 this CO₂ mesocosm campaign, we refer to other papers in this joint volume: i.e. total
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 Crawford 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
136 analyzer (EuroAE). DOC was measured using the high temperature combustion method
137 (Shimadzu TOC –VCPN) following Badr et al. (2003). DIC was determined by infrared
138 absorption (LI-COR LI-7000 on an AIRICA system). The DIC concentrations were
139 converted from $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ to $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ using the average seawater density of 1.0038 kg L^{-1}
140 throughout the experiment. Settling particles were quantitatively collected every other day
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 μm 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).

150 Picophytoplankton were counted using flow cytometry and converted to CB by size
151 fractionation (Veldhuis and Kraay, 2004) and cellular carbon conversion factors (0.2 pg C
152 μm^{-3} (Waterbury et al., 1986). Prokaryotes and viruses were determined according to Marie et
153 al. (1999) and Brussaard (2004), respectively. All heterotrophic prokaryotes, hereafter termed
154 bacteria, and viruses were converted to CB assuming $12.5 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1}$ (Heinänen and
155 Kuparinen, 1991) and $0.055 \text{ fg C virus}^{-1}$ (Steward et al., 2007), respectively.

156 The respiration rate was calculated from the difference between the O₂ concentration
157 (measured with a Fibox 3, PreSens) before and after a 48 h incubation period in a dark,
158 climate controlled room set to the average temperature observed in the mesocosms.

159 Bacterial protein production (BPP) was determined by ^{14}C -leucine (^{14}C -Leu) incorporation
160 (Simon and Azam, 1989) according to Grossart et al. (2006). The amount of incorporated
161 ^{14}C -Leu was converted into BPP by using an intracellular isotope dilution factor of 2. A
162 conversion factor of 0.86 was used to convert the produced protein into carbon (Simon and
163 Azam, 1989).

164 Net primary production (NPP) was measured using radio-labeled $\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$ (Steeman-
165 Nielsen, 1952). Samples were incubated for 24 h in duplicate, 8 ml vials moored on small
166 incubation platforms at 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 m depth next to the mesocosms. The areal primary
167 production was calculated based on a simple linear model of the production measurements
168 from the different depths (Spilling et al., 2016).

169

170 **2.3. Gas exchange**

171 In order to calculate the CO_2 gas exchange with the atmosphere ($\text{CO}_{2\text{flux}}$), we used N_2O as
172 tracer gas, and this was added to mesocosm M5 and M8 (control and high CO_2 treatment)
173 according to Czerny et al. (2013b). The N_2O concentration was determined every second day
174 using gas chromatography. Using the N_2O measurements, the fluxes across the water surface
175 ($F_{\text{N}_2\text{O}}$) was calculated according to:

$$176 \quad F_{\text{N}_2\text{O}} = I_{t_1} - I_{t_2} / (A * \Delta t) \quad (1)$$

177 where I_{t_1} and I_{t_2} is the bulk N_2O 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:

$$180 \quad K_{\text{N}_2\text{O}} = F_{\text{N}_2\text{O}} / (C_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_w} - (C_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_{aw}})) \quad (2)$$

181 where $C_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_w}$ is the bulk N_2O concentration in the water at a given time point, and $C_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_{aw}}$ is
182 the equilibrium concentration for N_2O (Weiss and Price, 1980).

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

$$184 \quad k_{\text{CO}_2} = k_{\text{N}_2\text{O}} / (S_{\text{CO}_2}/S_{\text{N}_2\text{O}})^{0.5} \quad (3)$$

185 where S_{CO_2} and $S_{\text{N}_2\text{O}}$ are the Schmidt numbers for CO_2 and N_2O , respectively. The CO_2 flux
186 across the water surface was calculated according to:

187 $F_{\text{CO}_2} = k_{\text{CO}_2} (C_{\text{CO}_2\text{w}} - C_{\text{CO}_2\text{aw}})$ (4)

188 where $C_{\text{CO}_2\text{w}}$ is the water concentration of CO_2 and $C_{\text{CO}_2\text{aw}}$ 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.

197

198 **2.4. Data treatment**

199 The primary data generated in this study comprise of carbon standing stock measurements of
200 TPC, DOC, DIC, as well as carbon estimates of meso- and microzooplankton, micro-, nano-
201 and picophytoplankton, bacteria and viruses. Flux measurements of atmospheric CO_2
202 exchange and sedimentation of TPC, as well as the biological rates of net primary production
203 ($\text{NPP}_{14\text{C}}$), bacterial production (BP) and total respiration (TR) enabled us to make carbon
204 budget.

205 Based on the primary variables (Chl *a* and temperature), the experiment where divided into
206 three distinct phases: Phase I: *t0-t16*; Phase II: *t17-t30* and Phase III: *t31-t43*, where e.g.
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
210 where normalized to m^2 knowing the total depth (17 m, excluding the sedimentation funnel)
211 of the mesocosms. For Phase III we used the average of the last two measurements as the end
212 point ($n = 2$).

213 For fluxes and biological rates we used the average for the whole periods normalized to days
214 (day^{-1}). The same was done for rates of change (ΔTPC , ΔDOC and ΔDIC), which accounted
215 for the difference between the start and end of each phase for all carbon pools (TPC_{pool} ,
216 DOC_{pool} , DIC_{pool}). All error estimates were calculated as standard error (SE), and this was
217 calculated using all measurements within each phase (e.g. calculating the ΔTPC SE using the

218 difference between each TPC measurement). The three different phases of the experiments
219 were of different length and each variable had a slightly different sampling regime (every 1-3
220 days, and some measurements missing due to technical problems). The exact sample number
221 (n) for each SE is presented in the Table legends 1-3. The SE for estimated rates were
222 calculated from the square root of the sum of variance for all the variables (Eq 5-10 below)
223 The primary papers mentioned above (section 2.2.) present detailed statistical analyses and
224 we only refer to those here.

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

$$229 \quad NCP_o = EXP_{TPC} + \Delta TPC + \Delta DOC \quad (5)$$

230 Direct measurements using ¹⁴C isotope incubations should in principal provide a higher value
231 than summing up the difference in overall carbon balance (our NCP_o), as the latter would
232 incorporate total respiration and not only autotrophic respiration. NCP_i was calculated
233 through changes in the dissolved inorganic carbon pool, corrected for CO₂ gas exchange with
234 the atmosphere (CO₂flux) according to:

$$235 \quad NCP_i = CO_{2flux} - \Delta DIC \quad (6)$$

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

$$241 \quad GPP_o = NCP_o + TR \quad (7)$$

$$242 \quad GPP_i = TR + CO_{2flux} - \Delta DIC \quad (8)$$

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

247 $DOC_{\min p} = \Delta DOC + BP$ (9)

248 However, this could underestimate DOC_{prod} as a fraction of bacterial DOC uptake is respired.
249 Without direct measurement of (heterotrophic prokaryote) bacterial respiration, (BR), we
250 estimated BR from TR. The share of active bacteria contributing to bacterial production is
251 typically in the range of 10-30% of the total bacterial community (Lignell et al., 2013). We
252 used the fraction of bacterial biomass (BB) of total biomass (TB) as the maximum limit of
253 BR ($BR \leq BB/TB$), and hence calculated max DOC production (DOC_{maxp}) according to:

254 $DOC_{\text{maxp}} = \Delta DOC + BP + (BB * TR / TB)$ (10)

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

256 There are a number of uncertainties in these calculations, but this budgeting exercise provides
257 an order-of-magnitude estimate of the flow of carbon within the system and enables
258 comparison between the treatments. The average of the two controls (M1 and M5) and two
259 highest CO₂ treatments (M3 and M8) were used to illustrate CO₂ effects.

260

261 **3. Results and discussion**

262 **3.1 Change in plankton community, from large to small forms over time**

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

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

277 Micro and mesozooplankton standing stock was approximately half of the phytoplankton
278 biomass initially, but decreased rapidly in the control treatments during Phase I (Fig 1). In the
279 CO₂ enriched treatments the zooplankton biomass also decreased but not to the same extent
280 as in the control treatments (Spilling et al., 2016). Overall, smaller species benefitted from the
281 extra CO₂ addition, but there was no significant negative effect of high CO₂ on the
282 mesozooplankton community (Lischka et al., 2015).

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

290 The bacterial carbon pool was higher than the measured TPC. Part of the bacteria must have
291 passed the GFF filters (0.7 μm), and assuming pico- to mesoplankton was part of the TPC,
292 >50% of the bacterial carbon was not contributing to the measured TPC. The conversion
293 factor from cells to carbon is positively correlated to cell size, and there is consequently
294 uncertainty related to the absolute carbon content of the bacterial pool (we used a constant
295 conversion factor). However, bacteria is known to be the dominating carbon share in the
296 Baltic Sea during the N-limited summer months (Lignell et al., 2013), and its relative
297 dominance is in line with this.

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

308

309 **3.2. The DIC pool and atmospheric exchange of CO₂**

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

324

325 **3.3. The DOC pool, DOC production and remineralization**

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

338 The Baltic Sea is affected by large inflow of freshwater containing high concentrations of
339 refractory DOC such as humic substances, and the concentration in Gulf of Finland is
340 typically 400-500 μmol C L⁻¹ (Hoikkala et al., 2015). The large pool of DOC and turn over

341 times of ~200 days (Tables 1-3) is most likely a reflection of the relatively low fraction of
342 labile DOC, but bacterial limitation of mineral nutrients can also increase turn over times
343 (Thingstad et al., 1997).

344 The DOC pool has been demonstrated to aggregate into transparent exopolymeric particles
345 (TEP) under certain circumstances, which can increase sedimentation at high CO₂ levels
346 (Riebesell et al., 2007). We did not have any direct measurements of TEP, but any CO₂ effect
347 on its formation is highly dependent on the plankton community and its physiological status
348 (MacGilchrist et al., 2014). No observed effect of CO₂ treatment on carbon export suggests
349 that we did not have a community where the TEP production was any different between the
350 treatments used.

351

352 **3.4. The TPC pool and export of carbon**

353 There was a positive effect of elevated CO₂ on TPC relative to the controls. At the start of the
354 experiment, the measured TPC concentration in the enclosed water columns was 400-500
355 mmol C m⁻² (Table 1). The TPC pool decreased over time but less in the high CO₂ treatment
356 and at the end of the experiment, the standing stock of TPC was ~6% higher (Phase III, p =
357 0.01; Paul et al. (2015) in the high CO₂ treatment (Fig. 4).

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

368

369 **3.5. Biological rates: respiration**

370 Total respiration (TR) was always lower in the CO₂ enriched treatments (Tables 1-3). The
371 average TR was 83 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ during Phase I, and initially without any detectable

372 treatment effect. The respiration rate started to be lower in the high CO₂ treatments,
373 compared with the controls, in the beginning of Phase II. At the end of Phase II there was a
374 significant difference ($p = 0.02$; Spilling et al., 2016) between the treatments (Table 2), and
375 40% lower respiration rate in the highest CO₂ treatment compared with the controls (Spilling
376 et al., 2016).

377 Cytosol pH is close to neutral in most organisms, and reduced energetic cost for internal pH
378 regulation (e.g. transport of H⁺) and at lower external pH levels could be one factor reducing
379 respiration (Smith and Raven, 1979). Hopkinson et al. (2010) found indirect evidence for
380 decreased respiration and also proposed that increased CO₂ concentration (i.e. decreased pH)
381 reduced metabolic cost of remaining intracellular homeostasis. Mitochondrial respiration in
382 plant foliage decreases in high CO₂ environments, possibly affected by respiratory enzymes
383 or other metabolic processes (Amthor, 1991; Puhe and Ulrich, 2012). Most inorganic carbon
384 in water is in the form of bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) at relevant pH, and many aquatic autotrophs
385 have developed carbon concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) (e.g. Singh et al., 2014) that could
386 reduce the cost of growth (Raven, 1991). There are some studies that have pointed to savings
387 of metabolic energy due to down-regulation of carbon concentrating mechanisms (Hopkinson
388 et al., 2010) or overall photosynthetic apparatus (Sobrinho et al., 2014) in phytoplankton at
389 high CO₂ concentrations. Yet, other studies of the total plankton community have pointed at
390 no effect or increased respiration at elevated CO₂ concentration (Li and Gao, 2012; Tanaka et
391 al., 2013), and the metabolic changes behind reduced respiration, remains an open question.
392 Membrane transport of H⁺ is sensitive to changes in external pH, but the physiological
393 impacts of increasing H⁺ needs further study to better address effects of ocean acidification
394 (Taylor et al., 2012). An important aspect is also to consider the microenvironment
395 surrounding plankton; exchange of nutrients and gases takes place through the boundary
396 layer, which might have very different pH properties than bulk water measurements (Flynn et
397 al., 2012).

398

399 **3.6. Biological rates: bacterial production**

400 Bacterial production (BP) became lower in the high CO₂ treatment in the latter part of the
401 experiment. During Phase I, BP ranged from 27 to 46 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ (Table 1). The
402 difference in BP between treatments became apparent in Phases II and III of the experiment.
403 The average BP was 18% and 24% higher in the controls compared to the highest CO₂

404 treatments during Phases II and III, respectively (Tables 2 and 3). Statistical support ($p \leq 0.01$)
405 for a treatment effect during parts of the experiment is presented in Hornick et al. (2016).

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

418 In this study, the reason for the lower bacterial activity in the high CO₂ treatments could be
419 due to either limitation and/or inhibition of bacterial growth or driven by difference in loss
420 processes. Bacterial grazing and viral lysis was higher in the high CO₂ treatments during
421 periods of the experiment (Crawford et al., 2016), and would at least partly be the reason for
422 the reduced bacterial production at high CO₂ concentration.

423 N-limitation increased during the experiment (Paul et al., 2015), and mineral nutrient
424 limitation of bacteria can lead to accumulation of DOC, i.e. reduced bacterial uptake
425 (Thingstad et al., 1997), similar to our results. Bacterial N limitation is common in the area
426 during summer (Lignell et al., 2013), however, this N-limitation was not apparently different
427 in the controls (Paul et al., 2015), and CO₂ did not affect N-fixation (Paul et al., 2016). In a
428 scenario where the competition for N is fierce, the balance between bacteria and similar sized
429 picophytoplankton could be tilted in favor of phytoplankton if they gain an advantage by
430 having easier access to carbon, i.e. CO₂ (Hornick et al., 2016). We have not found evidence
431 in the literature that bacterial production will be suppressed in the observed pH range inside
432 the mesocosms, varying from approximately pH 8.1 in the control to pH 7.6 in the highest
433 *f*CO₂ treatment (Paul et al., 2015), although enzyme activity seems to be affected even by
434 moderate pH changes. For example, some studies report on an increase in protein degrading
435 enzyme leucine aminopeptidase activities at reduced pH (Grossart et al., 2006; Piontek et al.,
436 2010; Endres et al., 2014), whereas others indicate a reduced activity of this enzyme

437 (Yamada and Suzumura, 2010). A range of other factors affects this enzyme, for example the
438 nitrogen source and salinity (Stepanauskas et al., 1999), and any potential interaction effects
439 with decreasing pH are not yet resolved. Any pH-induced changes in bacterial enzymatic
440 activity could potentially affect bacterial production.

441

442 **3.7. Biological rates: primary production**

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

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

464 The results of the DIC pool and atmospheric exchange of CO₂ provides another way of
465 estimating the net community production based on inorganic carbon (NCP_i). There was some
466 discrepancy between the NCP_o and NCP_i as the latter suggested net heterotrophy in the
467 ambient CO₂ whereas the high CO₂ treatments were net autotrophic during all three phases of
468 the experiment (Fig. 3). For the NCP_o there was no indication of net heterotrophy at ambient

469 CO₂ concentration. In terms of the absolute numbers, the NCP_i estimate is probably more
470 uncertain than NCP_o. Calculating the CO₂ atmospheric exchange from the measurements of a
471 tracer gas involves several calculation steps (Eq 1-4), each adding uncertainty to the
472 calculation. However, both estimations (NCP_i and NCP_o) indicate that increased CO₂
473 concentrations lead to higher overall community production, supporting our overall
474 conclusion.

475

476

477 **3.8 Budget**

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

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

495 The rate variables, calculated based on conversion factors, have greater uncertainty, although
496 their SEs were relatively low, caused by uncertainty in the conversion steps. For example, the
497 respiratory quotient (RQ) was set to one, which is a good estimate for carbohydrate oxidation.
498 For lipids and proteins the RQ is close to 0.7, but in a natural environment RQ is often >1
499 (Berggren et al., 2012), and is affected by physiological state e.g. nutrient limitation
500 (Romero-Kutzner et al., 2015). Any temporal variability in the conversion factors would

501 directly change the overall budget calculations, e.g. RQ affecting total respiration and gross
502 primary production estimates. However, the budget provides an order-of-magnitude estimate
503 of the carbon flow within the system. Some of the variables such as GPP were estimated
504 using different approaches, providing a more robust comparison of the different treatments.

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

514

515

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2 Table 1. The standing stock of total particulate carbon (TPC_{pool}), dissolved organic carbon (DOC_{pool}) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC_{pool}) at the start of
3 Phase I in mmol C m⁻² ± SE (n = 2). The DOC_{pool} was missing some initial measurements and is the average for all mesocosms assuming that the DOC
4 concentration was similar at the onset of the experiment. The net change in TPC (ΔTPC), DOC (ΔDOC) and DIC (ΔDIC) are average changes in the standing
5 stocks during Phase I in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE (n = 8). Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange (CO_{2flux}) and exported carbon (EXP_{TPC}) plus biological
6 rates: total respiration (TR), bacterial (BP) and net primary production (NPP_{14C}) and net community production estimated based on organic carbon pools
7 (NCP_o) net primary production, are all average for the whole Phase I in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE (n = 13, 9, 16, 7 and 11 for CO_{2flux}, EXP_{TPC}, TR, BP and NPP_{14C}
8 respectively). SE for NCP_o was calculated from the square root of the sum of variance of the three variables used in Eq 6. The NCP_o was calculated from the
9 net change in carbon pools plus carbon export, whereas NPP_{14C} was measured carbon fixation using radiolabeled ¹⁴C over a 24 h incubation period *in situ*. TR
10 was measured as O₂ consumption and for comparison with carbon fixation we used a respiratory quotient (RQ) of 1. CO_{2flux} was only calculated for the period
11 after full addition of CO₂ (*t4-t16*). A total budget of carbon fluxes for ambient and high CO₂ treatments is presented in Fig 5.

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

14 CO₂ treatment (μatm fCO₂)	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 ΔTPC	-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 CO _{2flux}	4.4 ± 0.2	4.8 ± 0.3	-0.8 ± 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 NCP _o	17.4 ± 33	18.7 ± 20	15.6 ± 30	22.8 ± 28	17.1 ± 25	17.8 ± 28

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1 Table 2. The standing stock of total particulate carbon (TPC_{pool}), dissolved organic carbon (DOC_{pool}) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC_{pool}) at the start of
 2 Phase II in mmol C m⁻² ± SE (n = 2). The net change in TPC (ΔTPC), DOC (ΔDOC) and DIC (ΔDIC) are average changes in the standing stocks during
 3 Phase II in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE (n = 7). Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange (CO_{2flux}) and exported carbon (EXP_{TPC}) plus biological rates: total
 4 respiration (TR), bacterial production (BP), measured (NPP_{14C}) and net community production estimated based on organic carbon pools (NCP_o), are all
 5 average for Phase II in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE (n = 8, 7, 14, 5 and 14 for CO_{2flux}, EXP_{TPC}, TR, BP and NPP_{14C} respectively). See Table 1 legend for further
 6 details.

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 8 **Phase II (t17-t30)**

9 CO₂ treatment (μatmfCO₂)	365	368	497	821	1007	1231
10 Mesocosm number	M1	M5	M7	M6	M3	M8
11 TPC _{pool}	339 ± 14	337 ± 20	331 ± 22	318 ± 9	312 ± 12	339 ± 23
12 DOC _{pool}	7435 ± 38	7483 ± 37	7487 ± 43	7597 ± 37	7487 ± 61	7479 ± 37
13 DIC _{pool}	25247 ± 34	25269 ± 34	25639 ± 8	26177 ± 25	26413 ± 28	26757 ± 45
14 ΔTPC	-2.4 ± 5	-2.3 ± 8	-1.6 ± 14	0.3 ± 6	2.8 ± 4	3.2 ± 8
15 ΔDOC	-0.6 ± 39	2.4 ± 30	3.6 ± 40	8.4 ± 31	11.3 ± 58	9.1 ± 36
16 ΔDIC	22.4 ± 12	17.6 ± 8.1	-0.4 ± 4.5	-10.5 ± 16	-14.2 ± 10	-23.1 ± 13
17 CO _{2flux}	1.7 ± 0.3	1.2 ± 0.3	-2.6 ± 0.3	-10 ± 0.5	-14 ± 0.6	-19 ± 1.0
18 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
19 TR	140 ± 7	127 ± 5	103 ± 3	103 ± 4	101 ± 5	86 ± 4
20 BP	66 ± 17	57 ± 8	61 ± 7	57 ± 7	43 ± 6	47 ± 6
21 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
22 NCP _o	0.3 ± 20	2.7 ± 15	4.5 ± 22	11.4 ± 16	16.9 ± 19	15.2 ± 16

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2 Table 3. The standing stock of total particulate carbon (TPC_{pool}), dissolved organic carbon (DOC_{pool}) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC_{pool}) at the start of
 3 Phase III in mmol C m⁻² ± SE (n = 2). The net change in TPC (ΔTPC), DOC (ΔDOC) and DIC (ΔDIC) are average changes in the standing stocks during
 4 Phase III in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE (n = 6), using the average of the last two sampling days as the end point. Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange
 5 (CO_{2flux}) and exported carbon (EXP_{TPC}) plus biological rates: bacterial production (BP) and net community production estimated based on organic carbon
 6 pools (NCP_o), are all average for Phase III in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE (n = 7, 6, and 7 for CO_{2flux}, EXP_{TPC}, and BP respectively). See Table 1 legend for further
 7 details. During Phase III we did not have direct measurements of net primary production (NPP_{14C}) or total respiration (TR).

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9 **Phase III (t31-t43)**

10 CO₂ treatment (μatm fCO₂)	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 ΔTPC	-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}	-0.3 ± 0.7	-0.8 ± 0.6	-3.0 ± 0.5	-7.3 ± 0.5	-9.4 ± 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 NCP _o	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**

3 Fig. 1. The different fractions of carbon in the control mesocosms (M1 and M5) at the start of
4 Phase I (t_0), II (t_{17}) and III (t_{31}) in $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \pm \text{SE}$ ($n = 2$). The differences between the
5 controls and elevated CO_2 concentration are discussed in the text. The size of the boxes
6 indicates the relative size of the carbon standing stocks.

7 Fig 2. The calculated exchange of CO_2 between the mesocosms and the atmosphere. Positive
8 values indicate net influx (ingassing) and negative values net outflux (outgassing) from the
9 mesocosms. The flux was based on measurements of N_2O as a tracer gas and calculated using
10 equations 2-5.

11 Fig 3. Change in dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) pool and the atmospheric CO_2 exchange
12 (Fig. 2). All values are average $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1} \pm \text{SE}$ for the three different phases ($n = 13, 8$
13 and 7 for Phases I – III respectively) in the control mesocosms (M1 + M5) and high CO_2
14 mesocosms (M3 + M8). Black, solid arrows indicated measured fluxes. Grey, dashed arrows
15 are estimated by closing the budget, and indicate the net community production based on
16 inorganic carbon budget (NCP_i), which equals biological uptake or release of CO_2 .

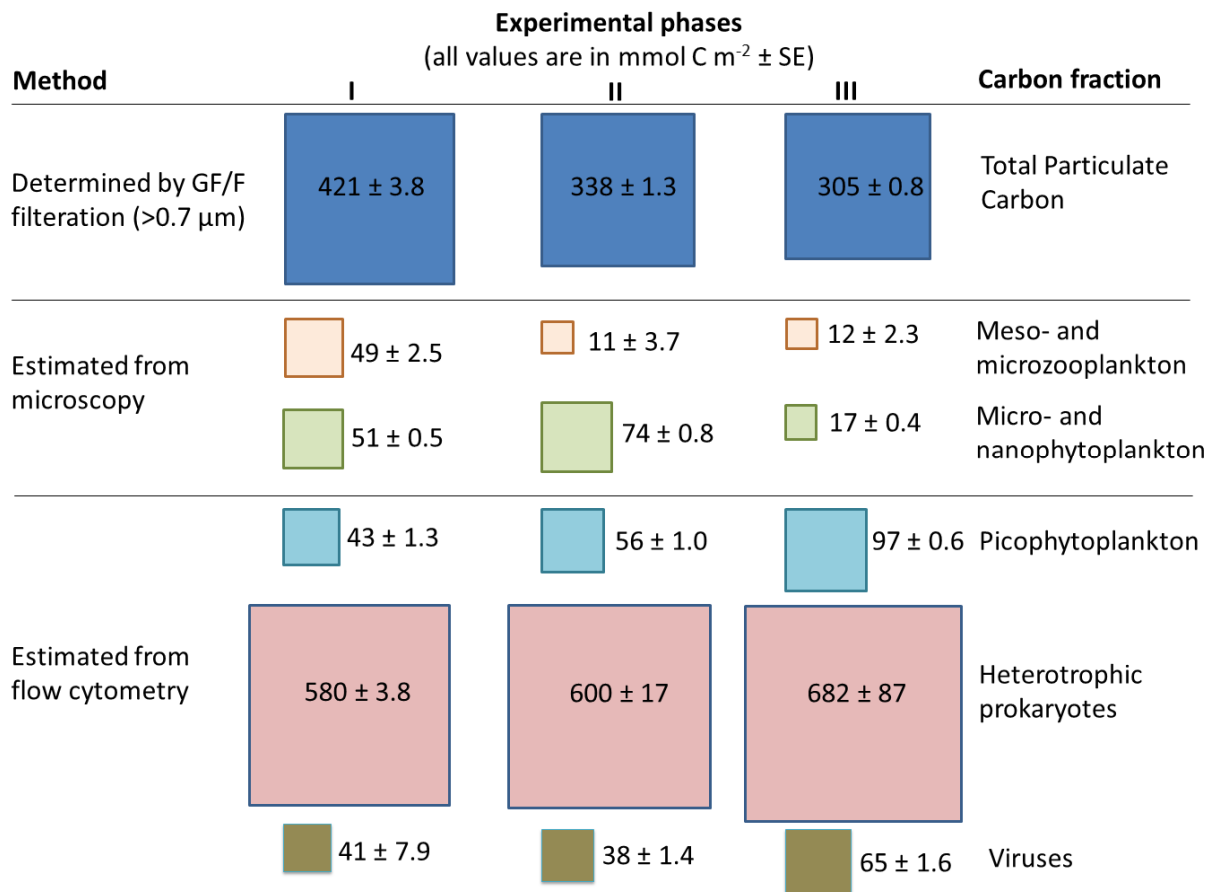
17 Fig 4. Standing stocks of total particulate carbon (TPC) and dissolved carbon (DOC) at the
18 last day of the experiment (t_{43}), plus the sum of exported TPC throughout the experiment; all
19 values are in $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \pm \text{SE}$ ($n = 2$). The values are averages of the two controls (M1 and
20 M5) and the two highest CO_2 treatments (M3 and M8). Red circles indicate statistically
21 significant higher standing stocks in the high CO_2 treatments (further details in text). The size
22 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
24 high CO_2 mesocosms (M3 + M8) during the three phases of the experiment. All carbon
25 stocks (squares): dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), total particulate carbon (TPC) and
26 dissolved organic carbon (DOC), are average from the start of the period in $\text{mmol C m}^{-2} \pm \text{SE}$
27 ($n = 2$). Fluxes (arrows) and net changes (Δ) are averages for the whole phase in mmol C m^{-2}
28 $\text{d}^{-1} \pm \text{SE}$ (n presented in Table legends 1-3) . Black, solid arrows indicated measured fluxes
29 (Tables 1-3): total respiration (TR), bacterial production (BP), exported TPC (EXP_{TPC}). Grey,
30 dashed arrows are estimated by closing the budget: gross primary production (GPP) using
31 equations 7 and 8; DOC production (DOC_{prod}) using equations 9 and 10. Bacterial respiration

1 was calculated using equation 10 and is a share of TR (indicated by the parenthesis).
2 Aggregation was assumed to equal BP. Red circles indicate statistically higher values
3 compared with the other CO₂ treatment ($p < 0.05$, tests presented in the primary papers
4 described in section 2.2.). The size of the boxes indicates the relative size of the carbon
5 standing stocks.

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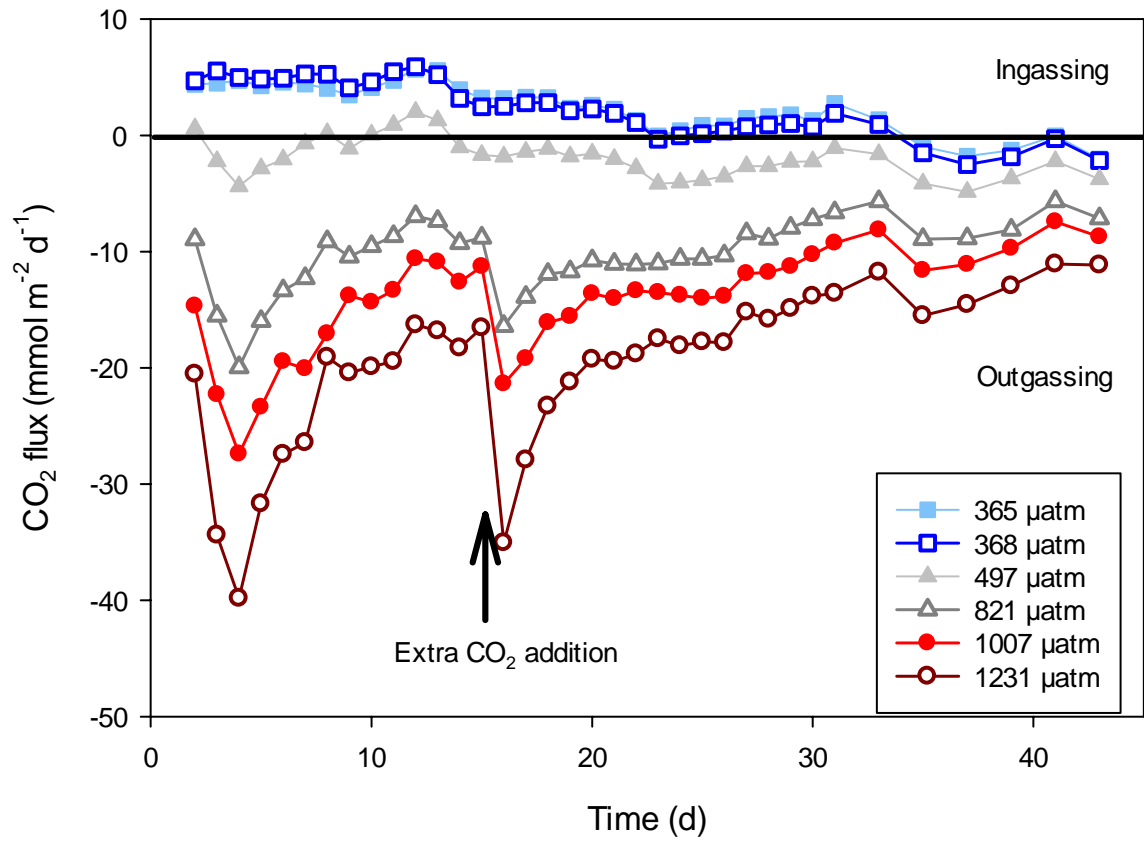


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2 **Fig 1**

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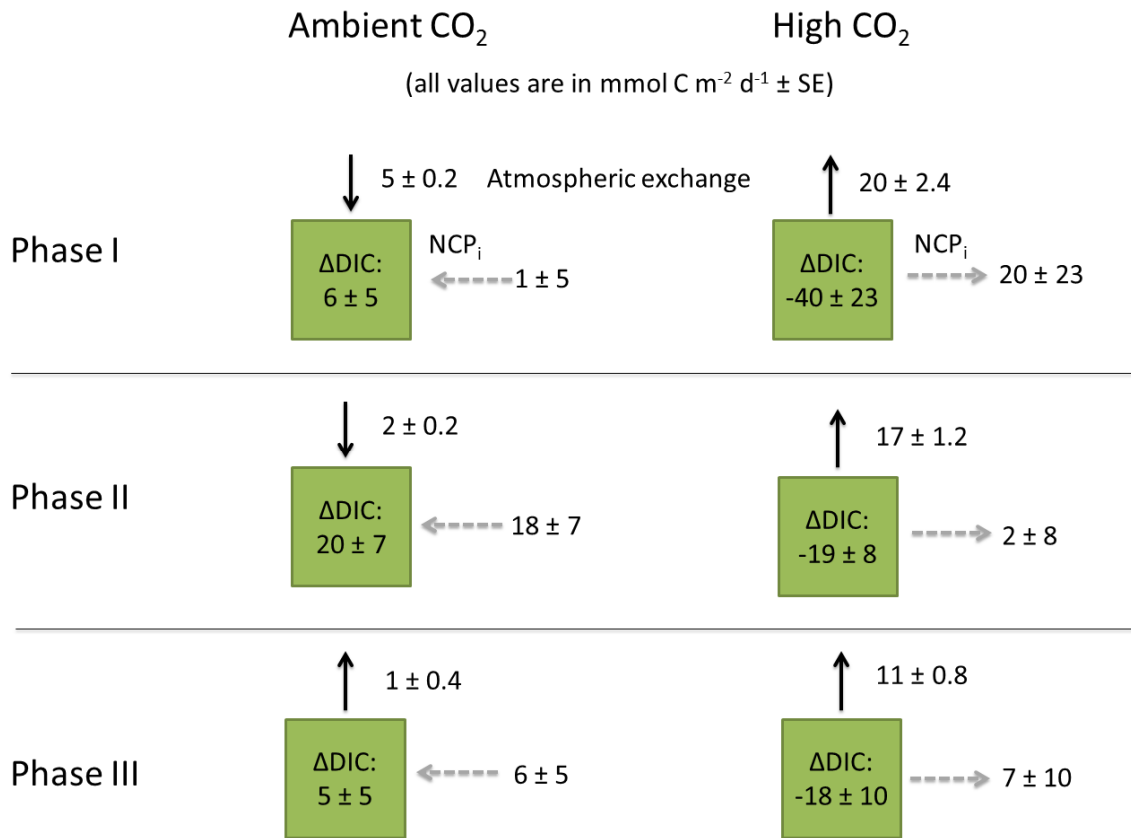
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2 **Fig 2**

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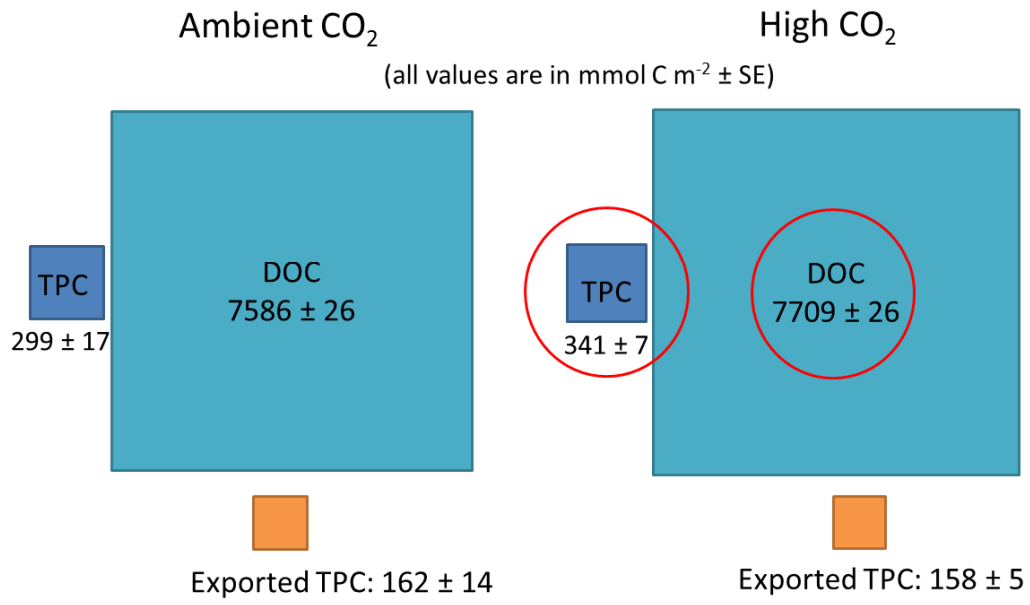
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Fig 3

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3 **Fig 4**

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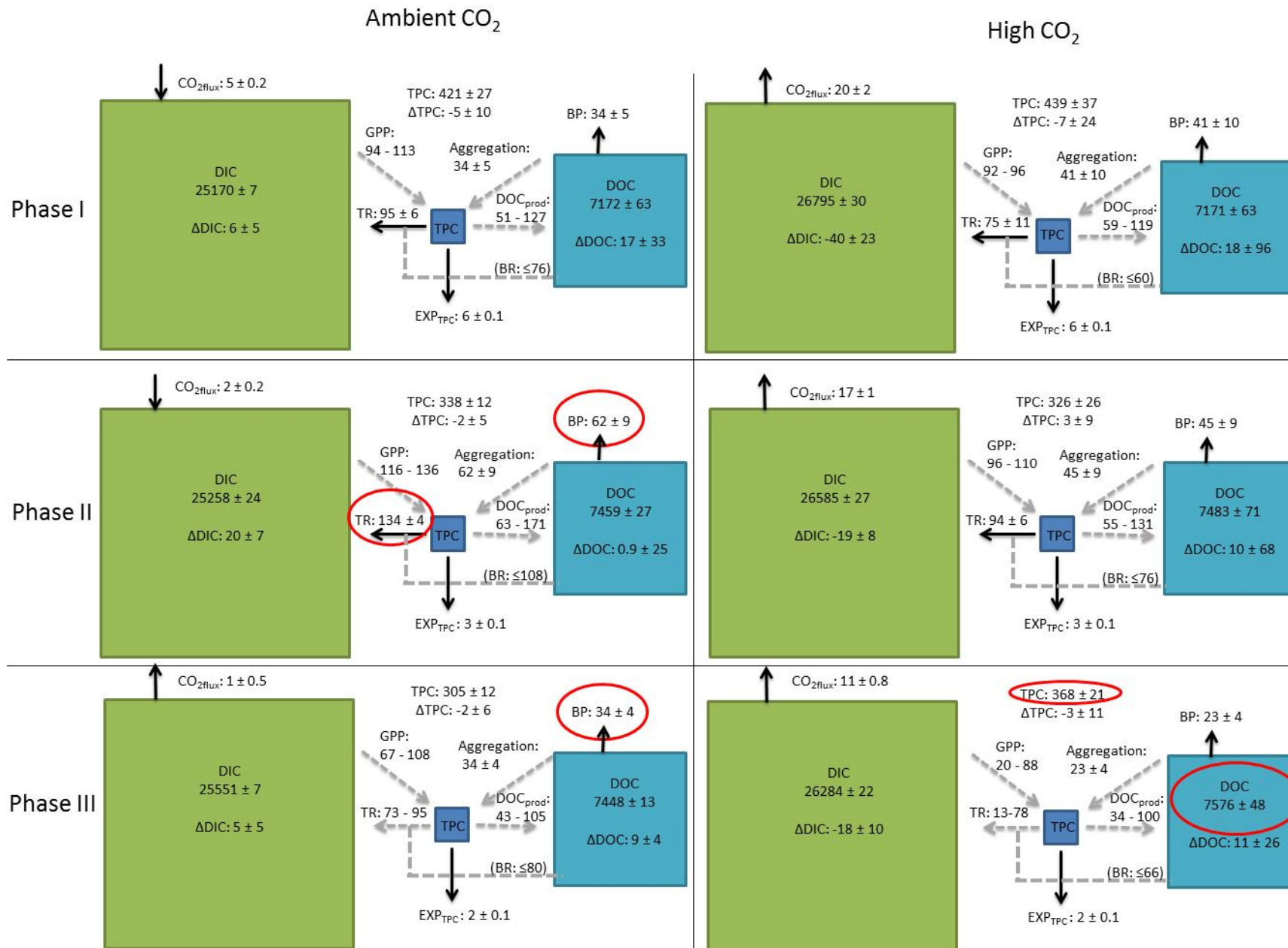


Fig 5