Published: 7 March 2016

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

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- 30 Running title: Modified pelagic carbon fluxes
- Key words: Carbon fluxes, carbon budget, gross primary production, respiration, bacterial 31
- production, sinking carbon flux, CO₂ exchange with atmosphere 32

Published: 7 March 2016

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Abstract

About a quarter of anthropogenic CO2 emissions are currently taken up by the oceans decreasing seawater pH. We performed a mesocosm experiment in the Baltic Sea in order to 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 up in mesocosm bags (~55 m³). We determined standing stocks and temporal changes of total particulate carbon (TPC), dissolved organic (DOC), dissolved inorganic (DIC) 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 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-t30; III: t31-t43). Pools of TPC, DOC and DIC were approximately 420, 7200 and 25200 mmol C m⁻² at the start of the experiment, and the initial CO₂ additions increased the DIC pool by ~7% in the highest CO₂ treatment. Overall, there was a decrease in TPC and increase of DOC over the course of the experiment. The decrease in TPC was lower, and increase in 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% ended up in the TPC (including export) and 5-25% added to the DOC pool. During Phase II, the respiration loss increased to ~100% of GPP at the ambient CO2 concentration, whereas respiration was lower (85-95% of GPP) in the highest CO₂ treatment. Bacterial production was ~30% lower, on average, at the highest CO2 concentration compared with the controls during Phases II and III. This resulted in a higher accumulation DOC standing stock and lower reduction in TPC in the elevated CO2 treatments at the end of Phase II extending throughout Phase III. The "extra" organic carbon at high CO2 remained fixed in an increasing biomass of small-sized plankton and in the DOC pool, and did not transferred into large, sinking aggregates. Our results revealed a clear effect of increasing CO2 on carbon production and mineralization, in particular under nutrient limited conditions. Lower carbon loss processes (respiration and bacterial remineralization) at elevated CO2 levels resulted in higher TPC and DOC pools compared with the ambient CO2 concentration. These results highlight the importance to address not only net changes in carbon standing stocks, but also carbon fluxes and budgets to better disentangle the effects of ocean acidification.

Published: 7 March 2016

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1 Introduction

66 Combustion of fossil fuels and change in land use, have caused increasing atmospheric

67 concentrations of carbon dioxide (CO₂). Ca. 25% of the anthropogenic CO₂ is absorbed by

68 the oceans, thereby decreasing surface water pH, a process termed ocean acidification (Le

69 Quéré et al., 2009). Ocean acidification and its alterations of aquatic ecosystems have

70 received considerable attention during the past decade, but there are many open questions, in

71 particular related to consequences for planktonic mediated carbon fluxes.

72 Some studies on ocean acidification have reported increased carbon fixation (Egge et al.,

73 2009; Engel et al., 2013), bacterial production (Grossart et al., 2006) and bacterial

degradation of polysaccharides (Piontek et al., 2010) at enhanced CO₂ levels, with potential

consequences for carbon fluxes within pelagic ecosystems and export to the deep ocean, i.e.

76 the biological carbon pump. Increasing carbon fixation in a high CO₂ environment can

77 translate into an enhanced sequestration of carbon (Riebesell et al., 2007), but this depends on

78 numerous environmental factors including phytoplankton community composition, aggregate

formation and nutrient availability. For example, if the community shifts towards smaller cell

sizes and/or enhanced cycling of organic matter carbon, export from the upper water layers

81 may decrease (Czerny et al., 2013a).

82 The effect of ocean acidification has mostly been studied in marine ecosystems under high

83 phytoplankton biomass. Brackish water has lower buffering capacity than ocean water and

84 the pH fluctuates more. The limited number of studies of ocean acidification in brackish

85 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

89 ranging from approximately 20 in the South-West to <3 in the Northernmost Bothnian Bay. It

90 is an almost landlocked body of water with a large population in its vicinity (~80 million).

91 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

93 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).

95 Most primary data from this experiment are published in several papers of this Special Issue

96 (Riebesell et al., 2015). The aim of the present paper is to provide an overarching synthesis of

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

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2 Materials and methods

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2.1. **Experimental set-up**

Six Kiel Off-Shore Mesocosms for future Ocean Simulations (KOSMOS; with a volume of 104 ca. 55 m³) were moored at Storfjärden, on the south west coast of Finland (59° 51.5' N; 23° 105 15.5' E) on 12 June 2012. The mesocosms extended from the surface down to 19 m depth 106 107 and had a conical bottom end, which enabled quantitative collection of the settling material. Different CO₂ levels in the bags were achieved by adding filtered (50 µm), CO₂-saturated 108 109 seawater. The CO₂ enriched water 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 110 111 were used, and for the controls, filtered seawater (without additional CO₂ enrichment) was 112 added. The CO2 fugacity gradient after all additions ranged from ambient (average 113 throughout the experiment: ~370 µatm fCO₂) in the two control mesocosms (M1 and M5), up to $\sim 1200 \,\mu atm \, fCO_2$ in the highest treatment (M8). We used the average fCO_2 throughout this 114 115 experiment (from t1 - t43) to denote the different treatments: 365 (M1), 368 (M5), 497 (M7), 821 (M6), 1007 (M3) and 1231 (M8) µatm fCO₂. On t15, additional CO₂-saturated seawater 116 was added to the upper 7 m in the same manner as the initial enrichment, to counteract 117 118 outgassing of CO₂.

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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 120

121 samplers (IWS, HYDRO-BIOS, Kiel). The water was collected into plastic carboys (10 L)

122 and taken to the laboratory for sub-sampling and subsequent determination of carbon stocks.

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2.2. Primary variables

125 For more detailed descriptions of the primary variables and the different methods used during

126 this CO₂ mesocosm campaign, we refer to other papers in this joint volume: i.e. total

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- 127 particulate carbon (TPC), dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and dissolved inorganic carbon
- 128 (DIC) are described by Paul et al. (2015b); micro and nanophytoplankton enumeration by
- 129 Bermúdez et al. (2016); picophytoplankton, heterotrophic prokaryotes and viruses by
- 130 Crawfurd et al. (2016); zooplankton community by Lischka et al. (2015); primary production
- 131 and respiration by Spilling et al. (2016); bacterial production (BP) by Hornick et al. (2016);
- and sedimentation by Boxhammer et al. (2015); and Paul et al. (2015b).
- 133 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
- 135 (Shimadzu TOC -VCPN) following Badr et al. (2003). DIC was determined by infrared
- absorption (LI-COR LI-7000 on an AIRICA system). The DIC concentrations were
- 137 converted from µmol kg⁻¹ to mmol m⁻² using the average seawater density of 1.0038 kg L⁻¹
- 138 throughout the experiment. Settling particles were quantitatively collected every other day
- 139 from sediment traps at the bottom of the mesocosm units and the TPC determined as
- 140 described above.
- 141 Mesozooplankton was collected by net hauls (100 µm mesh size), fixed (ethanol) and
- 142 counted in a stereomicroscopy in combination with a Folsom plankton splitter. Zooplankton
- 143 carbon biomass (CB) was calculated using the displacement volume (DV) and the equation of
- Wiebe (1988): (log DV + 1.429)/0.82 = log CB. Micro and nanoplankton (zoo- and
- 145 phytoplankton) CB was determined from microscopic counts of fixed (acidic Lugol's iodine
- solution) samples, and the cellular bio-volumes were determined according to Olenina et al.
- 147 (2006) and converted to POC by the equations provided by Menden-Deuer and Lessard
- 148 (2000).
- 149 Picophytoplankton were counted using flow cytometry and converted to CB by size
- 150 fractionation (Veldhuis and Kraay, 2004) and cellular carbon conversion factors (0.2 pg C
- 151 µm⁻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.
- 155 The respiration rate was calculated from the difference between the O2 concentration
- 156 (measured with a Fibox 3, PreSens) before and after a 48 h incubation period in a dark,
- 157 climate controlled room set to the average temperature observed in the mesocosms.

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Published: 7 March 2016

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- Bacterial protein production (BPP) was determined by ¹⁴C-leucine (¹⁴C-Leu) incorporation
- 159 (Simon and Azam, 1989) according to (Grossart et al., 2006). The amount of incorporated
- 160 ¹⁴C-Leu was converted into BPP by using an intracellular isotope dilution factor of 2. A
- 161 conversion factor of 0.86 was used to convert the produced protein into carbon (Simon and
- 162 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
- 166 production was calculated based on a simple linear model of the production measurements
- 167 from the different depths (Spilling et al., 2016).

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2.3. Gas exchange

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

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$$F_{N2O} = I_{t1} - I_{t2} / (A * \Delta t)$$
 (2)

- 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
- is the time difference between t_1 and t_2 .
- 178 The flux velocity was then calculated by:

179
$$K_{N2O} = F_{N2O} / (C_{N2Ow} - (C_{N2O aw})$$
 (3)

- where C_{N2Ow} is the bulk N_2O concentration in the water at a given time point, and C_{N2Oaw} is
- the equilibrium concentration for N₂O (Weiss and Price, 1980).
- The flux velocity for CO₂ was calculated from the flux velocity of N₂O according to:

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$$k_{CO2} = k_{N2O} / (Sc_{CO2}/Sc_{N2O})^{0.5}$$
 (4)

- where Sc_{CO2} and Sc_{N2O} are the Schmidt numbers for CO_2 and N_2O , respectively. The CO_2 flux
- across the water surface was calculated according:

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Published: 7 March 2016

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- 186 $F_{CO2} = k_{CO2} (C_{CO2w} C_{CO2aw})$ (5)
- where C_{CO2w} is the water concentration of CO₂ and C_{CO2aw} is the equilibrium concentration of
- 188 CO₂. CO₂ is preferentially taken up by phytoplankton at the surface, where also the
- atmospheric exchange takes place. For this reason, we used the calculated CO₂ concentration
- 190 (based on the integrated CO₂ concentration and pH in the surface) from the upper 5 m as the
- input for equation 5.
- 192 In contrast to N₂O, the CO₂ flux can be chemically enhanced by hydration reactions of CO₂
- 193 with hydroxide ions and water molecules in the boundary layer (Wanninkhof and Knox,
- 194 1996). Using the method outlined in (Czerny et al., 2013b) we found an enhancement of up to
- 195 12% on warm days and this was included into our flux calculations.

197 **2.4. Data treatment**

- 198 The primary data generated in this study comprise of carbon standing stock measurements of
- 199 TPC, DOC, DIC, as well as carbon estimates of meso- and microzooplankton, micro-, nano-
- 200 and picophytoplankton, bacteria and viruses. Flux measurements of atmospheric CO2
- 201 exchange and sedimentation of TPC, as well as the biological rates of net primary production
- 202 (NPP_{14C}), bacterial production (BP) and total respiration (TR) enabled us to make a closed
- 203 carbon budget.
- 204 NPP was measured directly and additionally estimated (NPP_e) from the total change in the
- organic carbon pool plus the exported TPC (EXP_{TPC}) according to:
- 206 $NPP_e = EXP_{TPC} + \Delta TPC + \Delta DOC$ (6)
- 207 Comparing direct measurements using ¹⁴C isotope incubations should in principal provide a
- 208 higher value than summing the difference in overall carbon balance (our NPP_e), as the latter
- 209 would incorporate total respiration and not only autotrophic respiration.
- 210 In order to close the budget we estimated gross primary production (GPP) and DOC
- 211 production (DOC_{prod}). GPP is defined as the photosynthetically fixed carbon without any loss
- 212 processes (i.e. NPP + autotrophic respiration). GPP can be estimated based on changes in
- 213 organic (GPP₀) or inorganic (GPP_i) carbon pools, and we used these two different approaches
- 214 providing a GPP range:

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 $215 GPP_o = NPP_e + TR (7)$

- 216 $GPP_i = TR + CO_{2flux} \Delta DIC$ (8)
- 217 During Phase III, TR was not measured and we estimated TR based on the NPP_e TR⁻¹ and BP
- 218 TR⁻¹ ratios during Phase II. The minimum production of DOC (DOC_{minp}) in the system was
- 219 calculated assuming bacterial carbon uptake was taken from the DOC pool according to:
- 220 $DOC_{minp} = \Delta DOC + BP$ (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
- 223 estimated BR from TR. The share of active bacteria contributing to bacterial production is
- 224 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
- BR, and hence calculated max DOC production (DOC $_{maxp}$) according to:
- 227 $DOC_{maxp} = \Delta DOC + BP + (BB * TR / TB)$ (10)
- 228 We assumed that carbon synthesized by bacteria added to the TPC pool, thus aggregation of
- 229 DOC equaled BP.
- 230 There are a number of uncertainties in these calculations, but this budgeting exercise provides
- 231 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
- 233 highest CO₂ treatments (M3 and M8) were used to illustrate CO₂ effects. The three different
- 234 phases of the experiments (I, II and III) were of different length (16, 14 and 13 day
- 235 respectively). We used the average carbon pools from the whole period, but normalized
- 236 fluxes and biological rates to day⁻¹. All error estimates were calculated as standard error (SE).
- 237 The primary papers present detailed statistical analyses and we only refer to those here.

239 3. Results and discussion

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241 3.1 Change in plankton community, from large to small forms over time

- 242 The overall size structure of the plankton community decreased over the course of the
- 243 experiment. Fig 1 illustrates the carbon content in different plankton groups in the control

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- 244 mesocoms. During Phase I, the phytoplankton concentration increased at first in all
- treatments before starting to decrease at the end of Phase I (Paul et al., 2015b). At the start of
- 246 Phase II (t17), the phytoplankton biomass was higher than at the start of the experiment
- 247 (~130 mmol C m⁻² in the controls) but decreased throughout Phase II and III. The fraction of
- 248 picophytoplankton increased in all treatments, but some groups of picophytoplankton
- increased more in the high CO₂ treatments (Crawfurd et al., 2016).
- 250 Nitrogen was the limiting nutrient during the experiment (Paul et al., 2015b), and primary
- 251 producers are generally N-limited in the main sub-basins of the Baltic Sea (Tamminen and
- 252 Andersen, 2007). The surface: volume ratio increases with decreasing cell size, and
- 253 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.
- 256 Micro and mesozooplankton standing stock was approximately half of the phytoplankton
- 257 biomass initially, but decreased rapidly in the control treatments during Phase I. In the CO₂
- 258 enriched treatments the zooplankton biomass also decreased but not to the same extent as in
- 259 the control treatments (Spilling et al., 2016). Overall, smaller species benefitted from the
- 260 extra CO₂ addition, but there was no significant negative effect of high CO₂ on the
- 261 mesozooplankton community (Lischka et al., 2015).
- 262 Bacterial biomass was the main fraction of the plankton carbon throughout the experiment.
- 263 The bacterial community was controlled by mineral nutrient limitation, bacterial grazing and
- viral lysis (Crawfurd et al., 2016). 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),
- 266 The bacterial carbon pool was higher than the measured TPC. Part of the bacteria must have
- 267 passed the GFF filters (0.7 μm), and assuming pico- to mesoplankton was part of the TPC,
- 268 >50% of the bacterial carbon was not contributing to the measured TPC. The conversion
- 269 factor from cells to carbon is positively correlated cell size, and there is consequently
- 270 uncertainty related to the absolute carbon content of the bacterial pool (we used a constant
- 271 conversion factor). However, bacteria is known to be the dominating carbon share in the
- 272 Baltic Sea during the N-limited summer months (Lignell et al., 2013), and its relative
- 273 dominance is in line with this.

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3.2. Biological rates: respiration

Published: 7 March 2016

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276 Total respiration (TR) was 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 277 effect. The respiration rate started to be lower in the high CO₂ treatments, compared with the 278 279 controls, in the beginning of Phase II. At the end of Phase II there was a significant difference 280 (p = 0.02; Spilling et al 2016) between the treatments, and 40% lower respiration rate in the 281 highest CO₂ treatment compared with the controls (Table 2). 282 Cytosol pH is close to neutral in most organisms, and reduced energetic cost for internal pH 283 regulation at lower external pH levels could be one factor reducing respiration (Smith and 284 Raven, 1979). Respiration rate in plant foliage decreases in high CO₂ environments, possibly 285 affected by respiratory enzymes or other metabolic processes (Amthor, 1991; Puhe and 286 Ulrich, 2012), and similar processes could take place in e.g. phytoplankton. Yet, previous studies of plankton has pointed at no effect or increased respiration at elevated CO2 287 288 concentration (Li and Gao, 2012; Tanaka et al., 2013), and the metabolic changes behind 289 reduced respiration, is an open question. However, there does seem to have been a connection

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3.3. Biological rates: bacterial production

between respiration and bacterial activity in the high CO₂ treatments.

293 Bacterial production (BP) became lower in the high CO₂ 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 294 295 difference in BP between treatments became apparent in Phases II and III of the experiment. 296 The average BP was 18% and 24% higher in the controls compared to the highest CO₂ 297 treatments during Phases II and III, respectively (Tables 2 and 3). Statistical support (p≥0.01) 298 for a treatment effect during parts of the experiment is presented in Hornick et al. (2016). 299 The lower bacterial production accounted for ~40% of the reduced respiration during Phase 300 II, and this raises an interesting question: what was the mechanism behind the reduced 301 bacterial activity in the high CO2 treatment? There are examples of decreased bacterial 302 production at high CO₂ concentration (Motegi et al 2013), but most previous studies have 303 reported no change (Allgaier et al., 2008) or a higher bacterial production at elevated CO₂ 304 concentration (Grossart et al., 2006; Piontek et al., 2010; Endres et al., 2014). The latter was 305 also supported by the recent study of Bunse et al. (2016), describing up-regulation of 306 bacterial genes related to respiration, membrane transport and protein metabolism at elevated

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307 CO₂ concentration; however, this effect was not evident when inorganic nutrients had been 308 added (high Chl a treatment). 309 In this study, the reason for the lower bacterial activity in the high CO₂ treatments could be 310 due to either limitation and/or inhibition of bacterial growth or driven by difference in loss 311 processes. Increased loss processes could also have affected BP. Bacterial grazing and viral 312 lysis was higher in the high CO₂ treatments during periods of the experiment (Crawfurd et al., 313 2016), and would at least partly be the reason for the reduced bacterial production at high 314 CO₂ concentration. 315 N-limitation increased during the experiment (Paul et al., 2015b), and mineral nutrient limitation of bacteria can lead to accumulation of DOC, i.e. reduced bacterial uptake 316 317 (Thingstad et al., 1997), similar to our results. Bacterial N limitation is common in the area 318 during summer (Lignell et al., 2013), however, this N-limitation was not apparently different in the controls (Paul et al., 2015b), and CO₂ did not affect N-fixation (Paul et al., 2015a). In a 319 320 scenario where the competition for N is fierce, the balance between the bacteria and similar 321 sized picophytoplankton could be tilted in favor of phytoplankton if they gain an advantage 322 by having easier access to carbon, i.e. CO₂ (Hornick et al., 2016). 323 We have not found evidence in the literature that bacterial production will be suppressed in 324 the observed pH range inside the mesocosms, varying from approximately pH 8.1 in the 325 control to pH 7.6 in the highest fCO₂ treatment (Paul et al 2015), but enzymes seem to be 326 affected by moderate pH changes. For example, some studies report on an increase in protein 327 degrading enzyme leucine aminopeptidase activities at reduced pH (Grossart et al., 2006; 328 Piontek et al., 2010; Endres et al., 2014), whereas others indicate a reduced activity of this 329 enzyme (Yamada and Suzumura, 2010). A range of other factors affects this enzyme, for

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3.4. Biological rates: primary production

The estimated net primary production (NPP_e) indicated higher primary productivity during
Phase I than during the rest of the experiments. There was no consistent difference between
CO₂ treatments for NPP_{14C}, but NPP_e increased with increasing CO₂ enrichment during Phase
II. This was caused by the different development in the TPC and DOC pools. The pattern of

example the nitrogen source and salinity (Stepanauskas et al., 1999), and any potential

interaction effects with decreasing pH are not yet resolved. Any pH-induced changes in

bacterial enzymatic activity could potentially affect bacterial production.

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339 gross primary production (GPP) was similar to NPPe during Phases I and II. During Phase III 340 there were no respiration or NPP_{14C} measurements and the estimated GPP is more uncertain. 341 The NPPe and GPP indicated a smaller difference between treatments during Phase III 342 compared with Phase II. The two measures of NPP were of a similar magnitude (Tables 1-3). During Phase I, NPP_{14C} 343 344 < NPP_e (Table 1), this relationship reversed for most treatments during Phase II, with the exception of the highest CO2 levels (Table 2). Interestingly, an effect of the different CO2 345 346 treatments was noticeable in the NPP_e but not in NPP_{14C}, suggesting that the effect of 347 elevated CO₂ concentration could refer to heterotrophic respiration. However, in terms of the NPP_{14C} < NPP_e, the uncertainty seems to be higher than the potential signal of heterotrophic 348 349 respiration. This would also indicate that the NPP_{14C} during Phase I has been underestimated, 350 in particular for the control mesocosm M1. During Phase II, the NPP_{14C} was higher than 351 NPP_e, except for the two highest CO₂ treatments, more in line with our assumption of NPP_{14C} > NPP_e. The systematic offset in NPP_{14C} during Phase I could be due to changed 352 353 parameterization during incubation in small volumes (8 mL, Spilling et al 2016), for example 354 increased loss due to grazing. Overall, however, the results suggest that the measured NPP_{14C} 355 and estimated NPPe agree reasonably well.

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3.5. The DIC pool and atmospheric exchange of CO₂

358 The DIC pool was the largest carbon pool: 3-4 fold higher than the DOC pool and roughly 359 60-fold higher than the TPC pool (Tables 1-3). After the addition of CO₂, the DIC pool was 360 ~7% higher in the highest CO₂ treatment compared to the control mesocosms (Table 1). The 361 gas exchange with the atmosphere was the most apparent flux affected by CO2 addition (Tables 1-3). Seawater in the mesocosms with added CO₂ were supersaturated, hence CO₂ 362 363 outgassed throughout the experiment. The control mesocosms were initially undersaturated, hence ingassing occurred during Phases I and II (Fig 2). In the first part of Phase III, the 364 365 control mesocosms reached equilibrium with the atmospheric fCO₂ (Fig. 2). 366 Using the direct flux measurements and the net change in the DIC pool, we calculated the net

Using the direct flux measurements and the net change in the DIC pool, we calculated the net uptake or release of carbon by biological activity. Comparing the controls to the mesocosm with the highest CO₂ addition (Fig. 3), the CO₂ addition had an effect on the biologically mediated carbon flux. In the mesocosm with an ambient CO₂ concentration, the flux

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370 measurements indicated net heterotrophy throughout the experiment. The opposite pattern,

and net autotrophy, was indicated in the mesocosm with the highest CO₂ addition (Fig 3).

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3.6. The DOC pool, DOC production and remineralization

374 The DOC pool increased throughout the experiment in all mesocosm bags, but more in the treatments with elevated CO₂ concentration. The initial DOC standing stock in all treatments 375 was approximately 7200 mmol C m⁻². At the end of the experiment, the DOC pool was ~2% 376 377 higher in the high CO₂ treatments compared to the controls (Fig. 4), and there is statistical 378 support for these treatments being different (Phase III, p = 0.05) (Paul et al., 2015b). 379 Interestingly, the data does not point to a substantially higher release of DOC at high CO2 380 (Fig 5). The bacterial production was notably lower during Phases II and III in the high CO₂ 381 treatments (Hornick et al., 2016), and of similar magnitude as the rate of change in DOC pool 382 (Table 2 and 3), indicating reduced bacterial uptake and remineralization of DOC. The 383 combined results suggest that the increase in the DOC pool at high CO2 was related to 384 reduced DOC loss (uptake by bacteria), rather than increased release of DOC by the plankton 385 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 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.

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3.7 The TPC pool and export of carbon

Published: 7 March 2016

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401 There was a positive effect of elevated CO₂ on TPC relative to the controls. At the start of the experiment, the measured TPC concentration in the enclosed water columns was 400-500 402 mmol C m⁻² (Table 1). The TPC pool decreased over time but less in the high CO₂ treatment 403 and at the end of the experiment, the standing stock of TPC was ~6% higher (Phase III, p = 404 405 0.01; Paul et al. (2015b) in the high CO₂ treatment (Fig. 4). The export of TPC was not dependent on the CO₂ concentration but varied temporally. The 406 largest flux of TPC out of the mesocosms occurred during Phase I with ~6 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹. It 407 decreased to ~3 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ during Phase II and was ~2 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ during Phase III 408 409 (Table 1-3). The exported carbon as percent of average TPC standing stock similarly 410 decreased from ~1.3% during Phase I to 0.3-0.5% during Phase III. The initial increase in the 411 autotrophic biomass associated with relatively more of the carbon settling in the mesocosms. The decreasing carbon export was most likely caused by the shift towards a plankton 412 413 community depending on recycled nitrogen, reducing the overall TPC and also the size 414 structure of the plankton community.

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3.8 Budget

417 A carbon budget for the two control mesocosms and two highest CO2 additions is presented 418 in Fig. 5. 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% ended up in the TPC (including export) 419 420 and 5-25% added to the DOC pool. The main difference between CO₂ treatments became 421 apparent during Phase II when the NPPe was higher in the elevated CO2 treatments. The respiration loss increased to ~100% of GPP at the ambient CO2 concentration, whereas 422 423 respiration was lower (85-95% of GPP) in the highest CO2 treatment. Bacterial production 424 was ~30% lower, on average, at the highest CO₂ concentration compared with the controls 425 during. The share of NPPe of GPP ranged from 2% to 20% and the minimum flux to the DOC pool was 11% to 18% of TPC. 426 427 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 differences. These are based on well-established 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

432 higher, reflecting that the rate of change varied considerably within the different phases.

Published: 7 March 2016

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The rate parameters, calculated based on conversion factors, have greater uncertainty, 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 carbohydrate oxidation. For lipids and proteins the RQ is close to 0.7, but in a natural environment RQ is often >1 (Berggren et al., 2012), and is affected by physiological state e.g. nutrient limitation (Romero-Kutzner et al., 2015). Any temporal variability in the conversion factors would directly change the overall budget calculations, e.g. RQ affecting total respiration and gross primary production estimates. However, the budget provides an orderof-magnitude estimate of the carbon flow within the system. Some of the parameters such as GPP was estimated using different approaches, providing a more robust comparison of the different treatments. 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 relatively higher TPC pool were driven by reduced respiration and bacterial production at elevated CO₂ concentration. Decreasing respiration rate reduced the recycling of organic carbon back to the DIC pool. The lower respiration and bacterial production also indicates 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

changes in carbon standing stocks to understand how carbon fluxes are affected under

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Acknowledgements

increasing ocean acidification.

We would like to thank all of the staff at Tvärminne Zoological station, for great help during this experiment, and Michael Sswat for carrying out the TPC filtrations. We also gratefully acknowledge the captain and crew of R/V ALKOR (AL394 and AL397) for their work transporting, deploying and recovering the mesocosms. The collaborative mesocosm campaign was funded by BMBF projects BIOACID II (FKZ 03F06550) and SOPRAN Phase II (FKZ 03F0611). Additional financial support for this study came from Academy of Finland (KS - Decisions no: 259164 and 263862) and Walter and Andrée de Nottbeck Foundation (KS). TH and HPG were financially supported by SAW project TemBi of the Leibniz Foundation. CPDB was financially supported by the Darwin project, the Royal Netherlands

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Published: 7 March 2016





- 465 Institute for Sea Research (NIOZ), and the EU project MESOAQUA (grant agreement
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respiration (TR), bacterial production (BP), measured (NPP_{14C}) and estimated (NPP_e) net primary production, are all average for Phase I in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± 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 Phase I in mmol C m⁻² ± SE. The DOC_{pool} was missing some initial measurements and is the average for all mesocosms assuming that the DOC concentration was similar at the onset of the experiment. The net change in TPC (ATPC), DOC (ADOC) and DIC (ADIC) are average changes in the standing stocks during Phase I in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE. Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange (CO_{2010x}) and exported carbon (EXP_{TPC}) plus biological rates: total SE. The NPP_e was calculated from the 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 was measured as O₂ consumption and for 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 Fig 5.

_	Phase I (<i>t0-t16</i>)							
12	CO ₂ treatment (µatm fCO ₂)	365	368	497	821	1007	1231	
13	Mesocosm number	M1	M5	$\mathbf{M7}$	M6	M3	M8	
14	$\mathrm{TPC}_{\mathrm{pool}}$	417 ± 38	425 ± 39	472 ± 48	458 ± 38	431 ± 48	446 ± 57	
2	DOCpool	7172 ± 87	7172 ± 87	7172 ± 87	7172 ± 87	7172 ± 87	7172 ± 87	
91	DICpool	25158 ± 9	25182 ± 10	25628 ± 8	26295 ± 22	26637 ± 36	26953 ± 48	
1	ΔTPC	-4.6 ± 15	-5.2 ± 13	-8.3 ± 13	-8.2 ± 17	-7.0 ± 13	-6.3 ± 20	
<u>∞</u>	ΔDOC	15.5 ± 58	18.3 ± 30	18.5 ± 33	25.0 ± 36	18. 5 ± 73	18.1 ± 63	
61	ΔDIC	5.5 ± 5.2	6.9 ± 9.2	-6.1 ± 11	-24 ± 14	-32 ± 20	-49 ± 42	
50	CO _{2flux}	4.4 ± 0.2	4.8 ± 0.3	-0.8 ± 0.5	-11 ± 1.0	-17 ± 1.4	-23 ± 2.0	
7	$\mathrm{EXP}_{\mathrm{TPC}}$	6.6 ± 0.10	5.6 ± 0.04	5.4 ± 0.07	6.0 ± 0.07	5.6 ± 0.06	6.0 ± 0.05	
22	TR	107 ± 9	82 ± 7	81 ± 6	80 ± 8	75 ± 8	74 ± 8	
23	BP	27 ± 8	41 ± 6	43 ± 8	41 ± 4	36 ± 5	46 ± 9	
24	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	
25	NPP_e	17.4 ± 33	18.7 ± 20	15.6 ± 30	22.8 ± 28	17.1 ± 25	17.8 ± 28	
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Phase II in mmol C m⁻² ± SE. The net change in TPC (ΔTPC), DOC (ΔDOC) and DIC (ΔDIC) are average changes in the standing stocks during Phase II in 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 mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ \pm SE. Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange (CO_{20ux}) and exported carbon (EXP_{TPC}) plus biological rates: total respiration (TR), bacterial production (BP), measured (NPP_{14C}) and estimated (NPP_e) net primary production, are all average for Phase II in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE. See Table 1 legend for further details.

7	Phase II (<i>t17-t30</i>)						
∞	CO_2 treatment (μ atm fCO_2)	365	368	497	821	1007	1231
6	Mesocosm number	M1	M5	M7	M6	M3	M8
10	$\mathrm{TPC}_{\mathrm{pool}}$	339 ± 14	337 ± 20	331 ± 22	318 ± 9	312 ± 12	339 ± 23
=	DOCpool	7435 ± 38	7483 ± 37	7487 ± 43	7597 ± 37	7487 ± 61	7479 ± 37
12	$\mathrm{DIC}_{\mathrm{pool}}$	25247 ± 34	25269 ± 34	25639 ± 8	26177 ± 25	26413 ± 28	26757 ± 45
13	ΔTPC	-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	CO _{2flux}	1.7 ± 0.3	1.2 ± 0.3	-2.6 ± 0.3	-10 ± 0.5	-14 ± 0.6	-19 ± 1.0
17	$\mathrm{EXP}_{\mathrm{TPC}}$	3.3 ± 0.08	2.6 ± 0.06	2.5 ± 0.08	2.6 ± 0.06	2.8 ± 0.07	2.9 ± 0.06
8	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
70	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	NPP	0.3 ± 20	2.7 ± 15	4.5 ± 22	11.4 ± 16	16.9 ± 19	15.2 ± 16





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. The net change in TPC (ΔTPC), DOC (ΔDOC) and DIC (ΔDIC) are average changes in the standing stocks during Phase III in mmol C m $^{-2}$ d $^{-1}$ \pm SE. Flux measurements of atmospheric gas exchange (CO $_{201ux}$) and exported carbon (EXP $_{TPC}$) plus biological rates: total respiration (TR), bacterial production (BP), measured (NPP_{14C}) and estimated (NPP_e) net primary production, are all average for Phase III in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE. 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). 1 2 8 4 5 9 7 0

∞	Phase III (<i>t31-t43</i>)						
6	CO ₂ treatment (µatm fCO ₂)	365	368	497	821	1007	1231
10	Mesocosm number	M1	M5	M7	M6	M3	M8
1	TPC_{pool}	306 ± 12	304 ± 20	309 ± 20	323 ± 2	351 ± 13	384 ± 16
12	DOCpool	7426 ± 16	7469 ± 20	7485 ± 92	7553 ± 20	7593 ± 30	7562 ± 38
13	DIC_{pool}	25557 ± 9	25545 ± 10	25648 ± 13	26030 ± 19	26197 ± 31	26371 ± 32
14	Δ TPC	-3.8 ± 10	0.3 ± 7	3.3 ± 14	3.3 ± 10	-1.4 ± 8	-4.8 ± 8
15	ADOC	9.8 ± 5	8.8 ± 7	8.9 ± 43	9.2 ± 10	5.7 ± 17	16.3 ± 20
91	ΔDIC	4.3 ± 3.9	5.5 ± 8.7	6.2 ± 11	-12.3 ± 7.2	-16.3 ± 14	-20.1 ± 14
17	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
18	$\mathrm{EXP}_{\mathrm{TPC}}$	1.5 ± 0.07	1.4 ± 0.05	0.4 ± 0.07	1.9 ± 0.05	1.6 ± 0.04	1.7 ± 0.05
19	BP	31 ± 6.8	37 ± 1.4	38 ± 1.4	27 ± 2.1	17 ± 3.8	28 ± 2.3
20	NPP_e	7.6 ± 16	10.5 ± 13	12.7 ± 20	14.3 ± 13	6.0 ± 10	13.2 ± 14

Published: 7 March 2016

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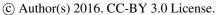




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Figure legends

- 3 Fig. 1. The different fractions of carbon in the control mesocosms (M1 and M5) at the start of
- 4 Phase I (t0), II (t17) and III (t31) in mmol C $m^{-2} \pm SE$. The differences between the controls
- 5 and elevated CO₂ concentration are discussed in the text. The size of the boxes indicates the
- 6 relative size of the carbon standing stocks.
- 7 Fig 2. The calculated exchange of CO₂ 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 N₂O as a tracer gas and calculated using
- 10 equations 2-5.
- 11 Fig 3. Change in dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) pool and the atmospheric CO₂ exchange
- 12 (Fig. 2). All values are average mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹ ± SE for the three different phases. Black,
- 13 solid arrows indicated measured fluxes. Grey, dashed arrows are estimated by closing the
- budget, and indicate biological uptake or release of CO₂.
- 15 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 $m^{-2} \pm SE$. The values are averages of the two controls (M1 and M5) and
- 18 the two highest CO₂ treatments (M3 and M8). Red circles indicate statistically significant
- 19 higher standing stocks in the high CO₂ treatments (further details in text). The size of the
- 20 boxes indicates the relative size of the carbon standing stocks and export.
- 21 Fig 5. Average carbon standing stocks and flow in the control mesocosms (M1 + M5) and
- 22 high CO₂ mesocosms (M3 + M8) during the three phases of the experiment. All carbon
- 23 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
- 25 SE. Fluxes (arrows) and net changes (Δ) are averages for the whole phase in mmol C m⁻² d⁻¹
- 26 ± SE. Black, solid arrows indicated measured fluxes (Tables 1-3): total respiration (TR),
- 27 bacterial production (BP), exported TPC (EXP_{TPC}). Grey, dashed arrows are estimated by
- 28 closing the budget: gross primary production (GPP) using equations 7 and 8; DOC
- 29 production (DOC_{prod}) using equations 9 and 10. Bacterial respiration was calculated using
- 30 equation 10 and is a share of TR (indicated by the parenthesis). Aggregation was assumed to







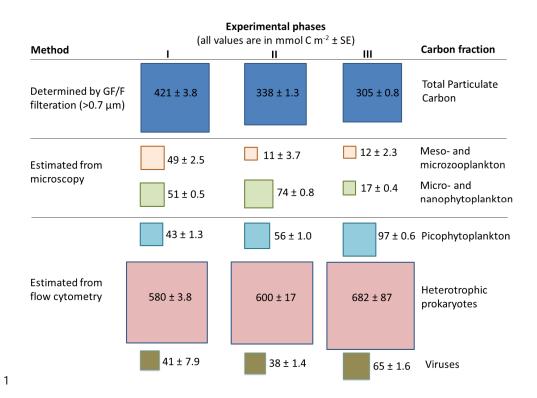
- 1 equal BP. Red circles indicate statistically higher values compared with the other CO2
- 2 treatment. The size of the boxes indicates the relative size of the carbon standing stocks.

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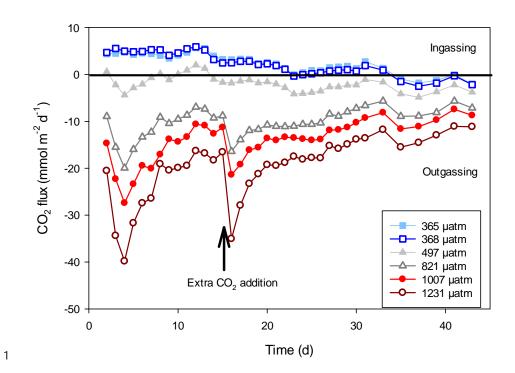
2 **Fig 1**

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2 **Fig 2**

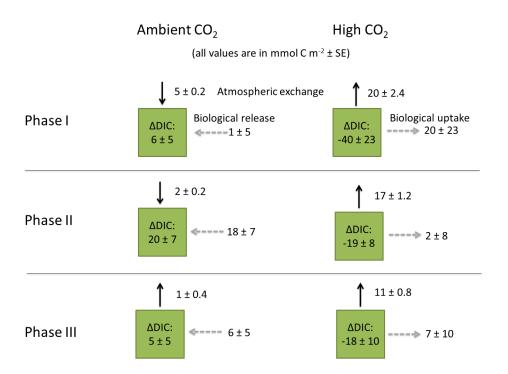
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3 **Fig 3**





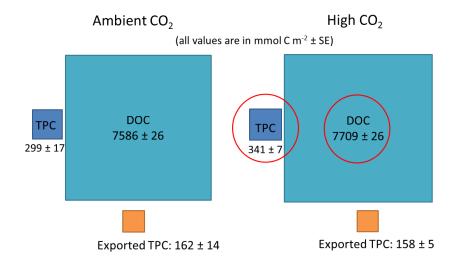


Fig 4





