

1 **Particulate trace metal dynamics in response to increased CO₂** 2 **and iron availability in a coastal mesocosm experiment**

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14
15 **Abstract.** Rising concentrations of atmospheric carbon dioxide are causing ocean acidification and will influence
16 marine processes and trace metal biogeochemistry. In June 2012, in Raunefjord (Bergen, Norway) we performed a
17 mesocosm experiment, comprised of a fully factorial design of ambient and elevated *p*CO₂ and/or an addition of the
18 siderophore desferrioxamine B (DFB). In addition, the macronutrient concentrations were manipulated to enhance a
19 bloom of the coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi*. We report here the changes in particulate trace metal (pMe)
20 concentrations during this experiment. Our results show that particulate Ti and Fe were dominated by lithogenic
21 material while particulate Cu, Co, Mn, Zn, Mo and Cd had a strong biogenic component. Furthermore, significant
22 correlations were found between particulate concentrations (mol L⁻¹) of Cu, Co, Zn, Cd, Mn, Mo, and P in seawater and
23 phytoplankton biomass (µgC L⁻¹), supporting a significant influence of the bloom in the distribution of these particulate
24 elements. The concentrations of these biogenic metals (mol L⁻¹) in the *E. huxleyi* bloom were ranked as: Zn > Cu ≈ Mn
25 > Mo > Co > Cd. Changes in CO₂ and/or DFB affected total particulate concentrations (mol L⁻¹) and biogenic metal
26 ratios (Me:P) for some metals. Variations in CO₂ had the most clear, and significant effect on particulate Fe
27 concentrations (mol L⁻¹), decreasing its concentration under high CO₂. Similarly, high CO₂ decreased the Co, Zn and
28 Mn: P ratios, while increased the Cu: P ratios. In contrast, the addition of DFB had no significant effect on any of the
29 biogenic metal ratios, whilst high concentrations of dissolved Fe will only be maintained by the presence of strong
30 organic ligands. Future predicted high CO₂ levels are expected to change the relative concentrations of particulate and
31 dissolved metals, due to the differential effects of high CO₂ on trace metal solubility, speciation, adsorption and
32 toxicity, as well as on the growth of different phytoplankton taxa, and their elemental trace metal composition. These
33 processes will also be mediated by the presence of strong organic ligands in areas where particulate Fe inputs are
34 important, since the effectiveness of some natural chelators such as siderophores, in dissolving Fe from oxyhydroxides
35 and/or by enhancing the photoinduced redox cycle of Fe, will be increased. This study demonstrates the utility and
36 robustness of combining trace metal analyses of particles in a controlled mesocosm experiment with manipulations of
37 CO₂ and Fe concentrations using natural assemblages of marine phytoplankton in order to understand future ocean
38 dynamics.

39
40 *Key words:* Global change, iron, CO₂, particulate trace metals, dissolved trace metals, mesocosms, *Emiliana huxleyi*,
41 phytoplankton

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Marine phytoplanktons contribute half of the world's total primary productivity, sustaining marine food webs and
45 driving the biogeochemical cycles of carbon and nutrients (Field et al., 1998). Annually, phytoplankton incorporate
46 approximately 45 to 50 billion metric tons of inorganic carbon (Field et al., 1998), removing a quarter of the CO₂
47 emitted to the atmosphere by anthropogenic activities (Canadell et al., 2007). Yet, the atmospheric CO₂ concentration
48 has increased by 40 % since pre-industrial times as a result of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, producing rapid changes
49 in the global climate system (Stocker et al., 2013). The dissolution of anthropogenic CO₂ in seawater, causes shifts in
50 the carbonate chemical speciation, and leads to ocean acidification (OA). Marine ecosystems are sensitive to changes in
51 pH because pH strongly affects chemical and physiological reactions (Hoffman et al., 2012). Increased CO₂ in seawater
52 may enhance or diminish phytoplankton productivity (Mackey et al., 2015), decrease the CaCO₃ production in most
53 planktonic calcifiers (Riebesell and Tortell 2011), and/or inhibit organic nitrogen and phosphorus acquisition (Hutchins
54 et al., 2009). Thus, the biogeochemical cycling of nutrients is predicted to be highly affected by OA (Hutchins et al.
55 2009), as well as the distribution and speciation of trace metals in the ocean (Millero et al., 2009).

56
57 Trace metals, including Fe, Zn, Mn, Cu, Co and Mo, are essential for biological functions (e.g. photosynthesis,
58 respiration and macronutrient assimilation), and Cd can supplement these functions. Trace metals availability can
59 influence phytoplankton growth and community structure (Morel and Price, 2003). In turn, plankton control the
60 distribution, chemical speciation, and cycling of trace metals in the sea (Sunda, 2012), by, for example, releasing
61 organic compounds that dominate the coordination chemistry of metals, internalizing trace elements into the cells, and
62 reducing and/or oxidizing metals at the cell surface. The chemistry of redox speciation of active trace metals is highly
63 dependent on pH. For instance, Fe occurs in two main redox states in the environment: oxidized ferric Fe (Fe (III)),
64 which is poorly soluble at circumneutral pH; and reduced ferrous Fe (Fe (II)), which is easily soluble and therefore
65 more bioavailable. Fe speciation and bio- availability are dynamically controlled by the prevalent changing redox
66 conditions. Also, as the ocean becomes more acidic, reduction of Cu (II) will increase, as the ionic form of Cu (II) is
67 reduced to Cu (I) (Millero et al., 2009). The effect of higher concentrations of Cu (I) in surface waters on biological
68 systems is not well known. Therefore, while the effects of OA on inorganic metal speciation will be more pronounced
69 for metals that form strong complexes with carbonates (e.g. copper) or hydroxides (e.g. iron and aluminium), those that
70 form stable complexes with chlorides (e.g. cadmium) will not be greatly affected. pH mediated changes in
71 concentrations and/or speciation could possibly enhance trace metals limitation and/or toxicity to marine plankton
72 (Millero et al., 2009).

73
74 Iron is crucial for phytoplankton growth because of its involvement in many essential physiological processes, such as
75 photosynthesis, respiration, and nitrate assimilation (Behrenfeld and Milligan, 2013). The decrease in seawater pH in
76 response to OA may increase Fe solubility (Millero et al., 2009), but it may also result in unchanged or lower Fe
77 bioavailability, depending of the nature of the strong organic Fe ligands (Shi et al., 2010). Consequently, changes in
78 iron bioavailability due to ocean acidification can affect positively or negatively ocean productivity and CO₂
79 drawdown. Copper is an essential micronutrient but may be toxic at high concentrations (Semeniuk et al., 2016). An
80 increase in free cupric ion concentrations in coastal areas due to ocean acidification (Millero et al., 2009) could result in
81 negative effects on phytoplankton. From the open-ocean to coastal areas, the concentration of metals differ, as well as
82 the trace metal requirements of phytoplankton (Sunda and Huntsman, 1995a), and their tolerance to metal toxicity.
83 Accordingly, changes in pH may promote an increase in Cu toxicity in coastal phytoplankton, or enhance Fe limitation
84 in the open ocean. Given that trace metals are essential for phytoplankton productivity, and that are actively

85 internalized during growth, it is important to study the impacts of ocean acidification in the trace metal content of
86 ecologically significant plankton species.

87
88 In a rapidly changing global environment, generated by anthropogenic CO₂ emissions, it is critical to gain adequate
89 understanding about ecosystem responses. Due to the complex interactions in aquatic ecosystems such predictions have
90 so far not been possible to do based upon observational data and modelling alone. However, direct empirical studies on
91 natural communities offer a robust tool to analyse interactive effects of multiple stressors. Specifically, mesocosm
92 experiments allow perturbation studies with a high degree of realism compared to other experimental systems
93 (Riebesell et al., 2010, Stewart et al., 2013, Riebesell and Gatusso, 2015).

94
95 In the present work a bloom of the coccolithophorid *Emiliana huxleyi* was induced in a mesocosm experiment to
96 examine the interactive effects of increased CO₂ and/or dissolved iron on its growth and physiology (Segovia et al.,
97 2017, Segovia et al., 2018, Lorenzo et al., 2018). *Emiliana huxleyi* is the most cosmopolitan and abundant
98 coccolithophore in the modern ocean (Paasche, 2002). Coccolithophores play a key role in the global carbon cycle
99 because they produce photosynthetically organic carbon, as well as particulate inorganic carbon through calcification.
100 These two processes foster the sinking of particulate organic carbon to the deep ocean carbon export (Hutchings, 2011)
101 and impact organic carbon burial in marine sediments (Archer, 1991, Archer and Maier-Reimer., 1994). However,
102 ocean acidification will disproportionately affect the abundance of coccolithophores, as well as their rates of
103 calcification and organic carbon fixation (Zondervan et al., 2007). The aim of the present study was to characterize the
104 changes in particulate trace metal concentrations during the bloom of *E. huxleyi* given realistic changes in CO₂ and Fe
105 bioavailability.

106 107 **2. Materials and methods**

108 **2.1 Experimental set-up**

109 The experimental work was carried out in June 2012 in the Raunefjord, off Bergen, Norway as described in detail by
110 Segovia et al., (2017). Twelve mesocosms (11 m³ each) were set-up in a fully factorial design with all combinations of
111 ambient and elevated pCO₂ and dFe in three independent replicate mesocosms. The mesocosms were covered by lids
112 (both transparent to PAR and UVR) and filled with fjord water from 8 m depth. We achieved two CO₂ levels
113 corresponding to present (390 ppm, LC) and those predicted for 2100 (900 ppm, HC) by adding different quantities of
114 pure CO₂ gas (Shculz et al., 2009). The specific CO₂ concentration and the CO₂ inlet flows in the mesocosms were
115 measured by non-dispersive infrared analysis by using a Li-Cor (LI-820) CO₂ gas analyser (Li-COR, Nebraska, USA).
116 CO₂ concentrations in the mesocosms were calculated from pH and total alkalinity measurements using the CO₂ SYS
117 software (Robbins et al., 2010). At the beginning of the experiment, nitrate (10 µM final concentration) and phosphate
118 (0.3 µM final concentration) were added to induce a bloom of the coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi*, as recommended
119 by Egge & Heimdal (1994). On day 6, the dissolved Fe concentration in the control (LC-DFB) was 4.62 nM (Figure
120 1b). On day 7, once the phytoplankton community was acclimated to the CO₂ conditions, iron availability was
121 manipulated by the addition of 70 nM of the siderophore desferrioxamine B (DFB) to half of the mesocosms,
122 promoting two different iron conditions (+DFB, high dissolved iron; and -DFB, ambient dissolved iron (Figure 1b). By
123 day 17, dissolved iron concentrations were significantly higher (by ~3-fold) in the high CO₂ and DFB treatments than
124 in the control (Segovia et al. 2017). These results support an increase in the solubility of Fe in seawater by either
125 lowering its pH (Millero 1998; Millero et al. 2009) and/or the addition of DFB (Chen et al. 2004). The multifactorial
126 experimental design consisted of triplicate mesocosms per treatment and the combinations of high and ambient pCO₂
127 and dFe levels, resulted in a total of 12 mesocosms: LC-DFB (control), LC+DFB, HC+DFB and HC-DFB. Water

128 samples from each mesocosm were taken from 2 m depth by gentle vacuum pumping of 25 L volume into acid-washed
129 carboys that were quickly transported to the onshore laboratory. The biological and chemical variables analysed were
130 phytoplankton abundance and species composition, dissolved Fe and Cu concentrations (dFe, dCu), nutrient
131 concentrations (nitrate, phosphate, silicic acid and ammonium) and particulate trace metal concentrations.
132

133 **2.2 Dissolved copper (dCu)**

134 Low density polyethylene (LDPE) bottles were cleaned with 1% alkaline soap solution for one week, then filled with 6
135 M trace metal grade HCl and submerged in a 2 M HCl bath for one month. For transport, they were filled with 1 M
136 trace metal grade HCl (Fisher Chemicals) for one more month and kept double bagged. In between each acid treatment,
137 the bottles were rinsed with Milli-Q water (Millipore; hereafter referred to as MQ). Before sampling, the bottles were
138 rinsed three times with filtered seawater. Seawater was collected from each mesocosm, filtered through 0.2 µM
139 AcroPak Supor membrane capsule filters into the trace metal clean LDPE bottles, and acidified with ultra-clean HCl
140 (Seastar) in a Class 100 laminar flow hood. Total dissolved Cu concentrations were measured following Zamzow et al.,
141 (1998) using a flow injection analysis chemiluminescence detection system (CL-FIA, Waterville Analytical). Total
142 dissolved Fe concentrations were measured as described in Segovia et al., (2017) for this very experiment.
143

144 **2.3 Particulate metals (pMe)**

145 **2.3.1 Sampling**

146 All equipment used during this study was rigorously acid-washed under trace metal clean conditions. Filters were
147 precleaned with 10% trace metal hydrochloric acid (Fisher, trace metal grade) at 60°C overnight and were rinsed with
148 Milli-Q (MQ) water. Seawater samples (1-3.5 L) were filtered gently onto 0.45 µm acid washed Supor®-450 filters
149 (within a trace metal clean Swinnex filter holder) on days 12, 17 and 21 of the experiment. Four technical replicates
150 were taken from each mesocosm. Two filters were analysed without manipulation and the other two were individually
151 washed with oxalate-EDTA reagent to remove extracellular Fe, as well as other metals (Tang and Morel, 2006).
152 Immediately following filtration, the treated filters were soaked with 20 mL EDTA-oxalate solution, added to the
153 headspace of the Swinnex holders, with an acid-washed polypropylene syringe. After 10 min, vacuum was applied to
154 remove the oxalate solution and 10 mL of 0.2 µM filtered chelexed synthetic oceanic water (SOW) solution was passed
155 through the filter to rinse off any remaining oxalate solution. Replicate filters that were not treated with oxalate solution
156 were transferred directly to centrifuge tubes for storage. The filters with particles were frozen in acid-washed 2 mL PP
157 tubes and then, dried and stored until analysis.
158

159 **2.3.2 Analytical methods**

160 Filters were digested in 7-mL acid-washed Teflon (Teflon, Rochester, NY, USA) vials. Teflon vials were also
161 precleaned using 10% trace metal hydrochloric acid (Fisher, trace metal grade) during two days and then, with nitric
162 acid (Fisher, trace metal grade) at 70 °C during three days. In between each acid treatment, the bottles were rinsed with
163 MQ. Samples were digested in 3 mL of HNO₃ and 0.5 mL of HF (Fisher, trace metal grade) with lids on for 1 h on a
164 hot plate at 200 °C. The lids were then removed to evaporate HF at 200°C. After this, 1.5 mL of HNO₃ were added and
165 the samples were heated with lids on overnight at 150 °C. Finally, 2.25 mL of HClO₄ (Fisher, Optima grade) were
166 added and the samples were heated for 4 h at 200 °C. After complete digestion, the samples were dried on hot plates at
167 200°C. The dried samples were dissolved in 1% nitric acid with 1 ppb in internal standard. The analysis was performed
168 using a high-resolution inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometer (ICP-MS, Element XR, Thermo Scientific) and
169 the described instrumental settings (Table S1). Filter blanks were collected and subjected to the same storage, digestion,
170 dilution, and analysis processes, and these blank values were subtracted from sample measurements. Particulate

171 samples for ICPMS analysis were processed in a trace metal-clean laboratory under a trace metal-clean laminar flow
172 fume hood.

173 174 **2.3.3 The effect of oxalate-EDTA wash on particulate trace metal concentrations**

175 To better estimate the biogenic fraction of the particulate metals, the filters were washed with an oxalate-EDTA
176 solution, which removes extracellular metals and oxyhydroxides (Tovar-Sanchez et al., 2003; Tang and Morel, 2006).
177 In our study, the oxalate wash significantly decreased the concentration of all particulate metals, with the exception of
178 Al and Ti (Tables S2 and S3), as observed by Rauschenberg and Twining (2015). The quantity of metal remaining after
179 the oxalate wash (i.e. biogenic fraction) varied among elements (Tables S2 and S3). In general, the concentrations of Fe
180 and Co in the particles were decreased the least by the oxalate wash by ~25%, while Mo and Pb concentrations were
181 decreased the most by ~70%. The concentrations of particulate Cu, Zn, Cd and Mn were reduced by 50% by the oxalate
182 wash. As shown previously (Sanudo-Wilhelmy et al. 2004), the oxalate reagent also removed extracellular P (by ~20%,
183 Table S2 & S3). Compared to Rauschenberg and Twining (2015), the estimates of the biogenic fraction, after the
184 oxalate wash, were in agreement for Co, Cu and P, and lower for Fe, Mn, Zn and Cd concentrations.

185
186 However, the efficacy of the oxalate wash to dissolve Fe, and other metals, from lithogenic particles is not well
187 constrained (Frew et al. 2006, Rauschenberg and Twining, 2015, King et al., 2012). Therefore, the results obtained after
188 the oxalate-EDTA wash should be interpreted with caution because we do not know whether the removed metal
189 fraction is a) only lithogenic; b) mainly lithogenic but some biogenic fraction is also removed, or c) whether metals
190 absorbed onto particles are equally labile to the wash on biogenic and lithogenic particles. Given that many of the
191 trends we observed were identical for the oxalate-EDTA washed and non-washed particles [i.e. higher Me
192 concentrations in the LC+DFB treatments (Table S2 & S3) and positive correlations between phytoplankton biomass
193 and Me concentrations (Lorenzo-Garrido 2016)], below we present and discuss only the non-oxalate wash results.

194 195 **2.4 Statistical analyses**

196 Data were checked for normality (by Shapiro-Wilks' test), homoscedasticity (by Levene's test) and sphericity (by
197 Mauchly's test). All data met the requirements to perform parametric tests. Statistical significance of treatment effects
198 was carried out using Split-Plot ANOVA followed by post-hoc Sidak and Bonferroni tests (considering $P < 0.05$ as
199 significant). All analyses were performed using the General Linear Model (GLM) procedure. The correlation between
200 variables was analysed by Pearson's product-moment multiple comparisons (considering $P < 0.05$ as significant).
201 Statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS v22 (IBM statistics) and Sigmaplot 12 (Systat Software, Chicago,
202 USA).

203
204

205 **3. Results**

206 **3.1 Biological and chemical characteristics during the bloom**

207 Plankton community dynamics and their response to the applied treatments in the mesocosms are described in detail by
208 Segovia *et al.* (2017). Briefly, at the beginning of the experiment (days 1-10) a bloom of large chain-forming diatoms
209 was observed, which declined by day 7 (Figure 2). This diatom bloom was associated with a sharp decrease in nitrate
210 and silicic acid concentrations (Figure S1-supplemental material). Picoeukaryotes, dominated the phytoplankton
211 community on day 8 (Figure 2). During the first 10 days of the experiment, there were no significant differences in the
212 chemical variables measured between the treatments (Figures 1 and S1). On day 7, half of the mesocosms were
213 amended by adding DFB (+DFB treatments). Between day 7 and 17, an increase in dFe was observed in all treatments,
214 except in the control (Figure 1). This increase in dFe was sustained for the entire experiment in the DFB treatments
215 (Figure 1). Dissolved Cu concentrations were not affected by the different treatments (Figure 1). After day 10, a
216 massive bloom of the coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi* developed under LC +DFB condition (Figure 2), out-
217 competing the rest of the plankton groups (Figure 2). This bloom was not observed either in the control treatment (LC-
218 DFB) or in the HC treatments, although *E. huxleyi* was still the most abundant species in all treatments; with the
219 exception of the HC-DFB treatment (Figure 2).

220

221 **3.2 Particulate metal concentrations during the mesocosm experiment**

222 The pMe concentrations (nM, mean of all treatments and dates) during the experiment were highest for Al, Fe and Zn,
223 and lowest for Cd, following this trend: Al \approx Fe \approx Zn > Ti > Cu \approx Mn > Mo \approx Pb > Co > Cd (Figure 3, Table S2).
224 Significant changes over time were observed for all particulate trace metal concentrations (Fe, Cu, Co, Zn, Cd, Mn, Mo
225 and Pb), except for Ti and Al (Figure 3, Table 1). The only metal that showed a significant time-dependent decrease in
226 its particulate concentration was Fe (Figure 3, Table 1). In general, the treatments with the highest particulate metals
227 concentrations also exhibited the highest particulate P, except for Al, Ti, Fe, and Pb (Figure 3, Table S2). On days 12
228 and 17, the highest particulate metals concentrations were observed in the LC+DFB treatment, while on day 21, they
229 were observed in both LC treatments (Figure 3, Table S2).

230

231 **3.3 The effects of increased CO₂ and the DFB addition on particulate metal concentrations**

232 Increased CO₂ and the DFB addition did not significantly affect the concentrations of particulate Al, Ti, Cu, and Pb
233 (Tables 1 and S2). Similarly, the addition of DFB did not directly influence particulate concentrations of Fe, but high
234 CO₂ had a significant negative impact on particulate Fe (Tables 1 and S2, Figure 3). Particulate Cd concentrations were
235 also inversely affected by CO₂, but only in the presence of DFB (CO₂; and CO₂ x DFB effect, Tables 1 and S2, Figure
236 3). All other elements (P, Co, Zn, Mn and Mo) exhibited significant effects by CO₂ and by DFB, but there was also a
237 significant interaction between these two factors (Table 1, S2). This indicates that, for example, particulate Mn, Zn, Mo,
238 Co, and P concentrations were significantly decreased by high CO₂, but only in the +DFB treatments (Figure 3, Table 1,
239 S2). Similarly, the addition of DFB significantly increased pZn and pMn, but only at ambient CO₂ levels (Figure 3,
240 Table 1, S2).

241

242 **3.4 Phosphorous-normalized metal ratios in particles collected from the mesocosms and the effects of increased
243 CO₂ and the DFB addition on these ratios**

244 The P-normalized metal ratios (Figure 4 and means in Table 2) were highest for Al and Fe (mean: 70 \pm 38 mmol Al:
245 mol P, and 39 \pm 34 mmol Fe: mol P), and lowest for Cd and Co (mean 0.02 \pm 0.01 mmol Cd: mol P, and 0.07 \pm 0.02
246 mmol Co: mol P). Iron:P and Ti:P were not significantly affected by increased CO₂ and/or the DFB addition, but
247 showed a significant decrease over time (Table 3). The P-normalized Cu, Co and Zn ratios changed significantly over

248 time (Table 3). Increased CO₂ significantly decreased Co, Zn and Mn:P ratios, while it increased Cu:P ratios (Figure 4,
249 Table 3). DFB did not affect the Me:P ratios of any of these bioactive elements (Table 3).

250

251 **4. Discussion**

252 **4.1 The effects of CO₂ and dFe in the plankton community**

253 In this experiment we investigated changes in particulate trace metal concentrations, in response to increased CO₂
254 and/or an addition of the siderophore DFB in a coastal mesocosm experiment. For a better understanding of the
255 processes affecting these stressors, we briefly summarise the mesocosm experiment results originating from Segovia et
256 al. (2017). High CO₂, as well as the DFB addition increased dFe concentration. The higher dFe concentrations were
257 sustained in the DFB treatments. A bloom of the coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi* was observed in the ambient CO₂
258 treatments, and was especially massive in the one with the addition of DFB (LC+DFB). On the contrary, the biomass of
259 *E. huxleyi* was negatively affected by increased CO₂. However, increased dFe partially mitigated the negative effect of
260 elevated CO₂, indicating that the coccolithophore was able to acclimate better to ocean acidification when Fe
261 availability was high. High dFe also had a positive effect on the cyanobacterium *Synechococcus sp*, while the rest of the
262 plankton food web did not respond to the treatments (Segovia et al. 2017).

263 **4.2 Particulate Fe and Ti are associated with lithogenic sources, while particulate Co, Cu, Zn, Cd, Mo and Mn** 264 **are associated with biogenic sources**

265 The particulate trace metal concentrations (nM, mean of all treatments and dates) during the experiment were highest
266 for Al, Fe and Zn, and lowest for Co and Cd, following this trend: Al ≈ Fe ≈ Zn > Ti > Cu ≈ Mn > Mo ≈ Pb > Co > Cd.
267 Lithogenic particles are enriched in Al and low in P (average crustal Al and P content is 2.9 mmol Al and 0.034 mmol
268 P g⁻¹ dry weight, Taylor 1964), while biogenic particles are enriched in P and low in Al (average plankton Al and P
269 content is 0.001 mmol Al and 0.26 mmol P g⁻¹ dry weight, Bruland et al. 1991). Therefore, the distinct high abundance
270 of Al and P in lithogenic and biogenic particles, respectively, can be used to evaluate the relative contribution of
271 lithogenic and biogenic material in our particulate samples. In order to do this, first, it is important to establish that the
272 vast majority of the measured particulate P is associated the biogenic fraction. In this study, the abiotic P was estimated
273 using particulate Al concentrations (nM) and the P:Al ratio in crustal material, and was calculated to be negligible (<
274 1% of the total measured particulate P). In addition, a significant correlation (p< 0.003) was found between particulate
275 P concentrations and phytoplankton biomass (Table 4). Therefore, we assume a constant trace metal composition in
276 biogenic particles (assuming they are rich in phytoplankton) and lithogenic particles (assuming they are rich in crustal
277 material). We then calculated the expected metal concentrations in the particulate samples assuming that all the P
278 measured in the particles is associated with a biogenic fraction, and that all Al in the particles is associated with the
279 lithogenic fraction. Thus, for a given trace metal, its expected particulate trace metal concentration in seawater (mol L⁻¹
280 ¹) can be calculated as the sum of the contribution from biogenic and lithogenic particles, so that:

281

$$282 \text{ [Me]} = a \text{ [P]} + b \text{ [Al]}$$

283

284 where [Me] is the total concentration of the metal (mol L⁻¹) expected in the particulate sample; [P] is the P
285 concentration measured in the particles (mol L⁻¹); [Al] is the Al concentration measured in the particles (nM L⁻¹); *a* is
286 the average, well-known metal content in biogenic particles, normalized to P (i.e. mol Me: mol P in marine plankton)
287 and *b* is the average, well known metal content in lithogenic particles, normalized to Al (mol Me: mol Al in the Earth
288 crust). For example, on day 21 in the HC-DFB treatment, the concentrations of particulate Al and P were 8.22 and
289 134.8 nM, respectively (Table S2). Assuming a constant 0.0051 mol Fe: mol P in biogenic particles and 0.331 mol Fe:

290 mol Al in lithogenic particles (Table 2), we calculated an expected particulate Fe concentration of 3.41 nM, where 80%
291 was associated with lithogenic material and 20% with biogenic material. Similar calculations were made for the
292 bioactive metals Mn, Co, Cu, Zn, Cd, and Mo (Table 5). Our calculations indicate that on average, particulate Fe was
293 dominated by the lithogenic component (accounting for an average of 78% of the total expected particulate Fe), while
294 for particulate Co, Cu, Zn, Cd, and Mo the biogenic fraction dominated (accounting for 94, 95, 99, 94 and 98%,
295 respectively, of the total expected concentration; Table 5). Particulate concentrations of Mn were also dominated by the
296 biogenic fraction (65% of the total), but the lithogenic fraction was also significant (35%). Moreover, the expected
297 particulate Mn and Fe concentrations closely matched the particulate Mn and Fe concentration we measured
298 (accounting for an average of ~ 71% of the measured Mn, and 115% of the measured Fe). For other metals (i.e. Cu, Mo
299 and Zn), the expected particulate concentrations (nM) were lower than measured (23% of the measured pCu, and 8% of
300 measured pZn; Table 5). This suggests that the particles were enriched in Cu, Mo, and Zn relative to what is expected
301 based on natural marine plankton metal quotas (Bruland et al. 1991) and crustal ratios (Taylor 1964).
302

303 To further establish the lithogenic or biogenic source of the pMe in the particles, the particulate metal concentrations
304 were normalized to the concentrations of particulate P and Al (Figure 4, and Table 2). These ratios were then compared
305 with well-known molar ratios of metal to Al in the crust (Taylor 1964) and of metal to P ratios in marine plankton
306 samples (Ho 2006) and cultures (Ho et al. 2003) (Table 2). The average Fe: Al (506 mmol Fe: mol Al) and Ti:Al ratios
307 (119 mmol Ti: mol Al, Table 2) were relatively similar to crustal molar ratios (331 mmol Fe: mol Al and 39 mmol Ti:
308 mol Al; Taylor 1964). Additional evidence for the significant lithogenic component in particulate Ti and Fe was
309 gathered from Figure 5, where we plotted the molar ratios of the metals relative to P in the collected particles against
310 the Al:P ratios measured in those same particles. The slope of these data [(Fe:P)/(Al:P) = mol Me: mol Al] is the ratio
311 of Me:Al in the particles and can be compared to well-known Me:Al crustal ratio. Visually, if the data nicely fit the
312 Me:Al line for crustal material, these metals are mainly associated with the lithogenic component, as evident for Fe and
313 Ti (Figure 5). These combined results suggest that in our experiment, particulate Fe and Ti concentrations were
314 enriched by lithogenic material. In support of this finding, we also found no significant correlation between particulate
315 Fe and Ti concentrations (nM) and either the total plankton (phytoplankton and microzooplankton) or *E. huxleyi*
316 biomass ($\mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$; Table 4).
317

318 In contrast, when the P-normalized metal ratios in the particles collected from the mesocosms were plotted against the
319 Al:P ratios in these particles, there were no correlations for the following metals Co, Cu, Zn, Cd, Mn and Mo (Figure
320 5), indicating that these particulate metals were not enriched in lithogenic material. Our measured metal: P ratios were
321 comparable to plankton ratios in natural samples and in cultures (Table 5). The concentrations (mol L^{-1}) of these metals
322 (i.e. Cu, Co, Zn, Cd, Mn, Mo), as well as P, also showed significant correlations with the biomass ($\mu\text{gC L}^{-1}$) of *E.*
323 *huxleyi* and that of total plankton cells ($p < 0.05$, Table 4), supporting a significant influence of the phytoplankton in the
324 distribution of these particulate elements.
325

326 4.3 Particulate metals with a strong biogenic component: their P-normalized ratios

327 The concentrations of particulate bioactive metals (mol L^{-1}), with a significant biogenic component (i.e. excluding Fe)
328 in the studied *Emiliania huxleyi* bloom were ranked as: Zn > Cu \approx Mn > Mo > Co > Cd (Figure 3, Table S3), similar to
329 those reported in indigenous phytoplankton populations: Fe \approx Zn > Cu \approx Mn \gg Co \approx Cd, (Twining and Baines, 2013).
330 The only treatment where *E. huxleyi* did not dominate the community was the HC-DFB; in this treatment the ranking of
331 these biogenic particulate trace metals was the same as that of LC+DFB (with the massive *Emiliania huxleyi* bloom),
332 but their concentrations were lower than those in LC+DFB. At the end of the experiment, the concentrations of these

333 biogenic metals were, in general, comparable in both HC treatments, and lower than those in the LC treatments (Figure
334 3, Table S3). Therefore, high CO₂ had a tendency to decrease particulate metal concentrations, especially on day 21.
335 Given the strong correlation between concentrations of these particulate bioactive metals and phytoplankton biomass,
336 the lower particulate concentrations in high CO₂ were mainly due to low phytoplankton biomass.

337
338 Particulate Zn concentrations were especially high in the LC+DFB treatment (Figure 3), where the highest *E. huxleyi*
339 biomass was observed. *Emiliania huxleyi* is well known for its high Zn cellular requirements (~ 1-10 for *E. huxleyi* vs.
340 1-4 mmol Zn: mol P for other phytoplankton; Sunda and Huntsman 1995, Sunda 2013). But, the Zn: P ratios in the
341 LC+DFB treatment (range 45-69 mmol Zn: mol P; Figure 4, Table S2), as well as in all the other treatment (range 16-
342 34 mmol Zn: mol P; Figure 4, Table S2) were significantly higher than these published ratios. This could be explained
343 by, the adsorption of these metals to the outside of the cells, and/or anthropogenic inputs of Zn into the fjord. The Zn:P
344 ratios in the samples washed with the oxalate-EDTA were still high (range 28-57 for LC+DFB and 16-33 mmol Zn:
345 mol P in all other treatments, Table S3), thus adsorption might have not been significant. We hypothesize that
346 anthropogenic aerosols which are rich in anthropogenic particulate metals, such as Zn and Cu (Perry et al. 1999; Narita
347 et al. 1999), and have high percentage of Zn and Cu dissolution (ref.), might be the source of these high Zn
348 concentrations and ratios in the particles.

349
350 Similarly, the Cu:P ratios in the collected particles were relatively elevated (1.4 ± 0.8 mmol Cu: mol P) compared to
351 those of other phytoplankton, including *E. huxleyi* (Table 2). The dissolved (7.7 ± 0.41 nM Cu, Figure 1) and particulate
352 Cu concentrations (0.35 ± 0.25 nM, Table S2) in our experiment were high, and similar to those previously measured in
353 this fjord (Muller et al., 2005). Rain events (or wet deposition of anthropogenic aerosols) in this fjord result in high
354 dissolved Cu and the active production of strong organic ligands by *Synechococcus*—to lower the free Cu
355 concentrations (Muller et al., 2005). Therefore, high Cu might be a general condition in this fjord, and indigenous
356 plankton might have developed physiological mechanisms to deal with high Cu, such as the production of organic
357 ligands to prevent uptake (Vraspir and Butler, 2009), or of heavy-metal-binding peptides (phytochelatins) to lower Cu
358 toxicity inside the cell (Ahner and Morel, 1995; Ahner et al., 1995; Knauer et al., 1998). Since we measured high
359 particulate Cu, and Cu:P in our experiment, *E. huxleyi* might have been relying mainly on phytochelatins to buffer high
360 intracellular Cu (Ahner et al., 2002).

361
362 The Cd:P ratios (average 0.024 ± 0.01 mmol Cd: mol P, Figure 4 and 6) were significantly lower than those in
363 phytoplankton and *E. huxleyi* (0.36 mmol Cd: mol P, Figure 4 and 6). This was surprising, because Cd quotas are
364 normally higher in coccolithophores than in diatoms and chlorophytes (Sunda and Huntsman, 2000; Ho et al., 2003).
365 High Cd quotas in coccolithophores have been suggested to result from accidental uptake through Ca transporters and
366 channels (Ho et al., 2009). The low Cd quotas here may be explained by the antagonistic interaction between Mn and
367 Cd or Zn and Cd under high Mn and Zn, respectively (Sunda and Huntsman, 1998, 2000; Cullen and Sherrell, 2005).
368 Since high Zn:P ratios were common in this study (34.02 ± 18.05 mmol Zn: mol P, Figure 4 and 6), we hypothesize that
369 high Zn levels antagonistically interacted with Cd, resulting in low Cd:P ratios in the particles.

370 371 **4.4 The effects of increased CO₂ and the DFB addition on particulate metal concentrations and P-normalized** 372 **ratios**

373 Iron enrichment is common in coastal waters, due to sediment resuspension, rivers input, aeolian deposition and mixing
374 or upwelling of deep water. Indeed, Fe was the essential metal with the highest particulate concentrations in our study
375 (Figure 3, Table 3). Furthermore, in this study particulate Fe was characterized by a strong lithogenic component, and

376 was not correlated with phytoplankton biomass. Iron was also unique, in that it was the only trace element whose
377 particulate concentration was significantly and uniquely affected by CO₂, regardless of the presence or absence of DFB
378 (no interaction between CO₂ and DFB, Table 1). Furthermore, particulate Fe concentrations (nM) decreased steadily
379 between days 12 and 21, with the exception of the control treatment (LC-DFB; Figure 3, Table 2S). This suggests that
380 the increase in CO₂ and/or the DFB addition reduce the concentration of pFe, despite the phytoplankton bloom. Such a
381 decrease in pFe (range 2.3-fold in LC-DFB, vs. 13.7-fold in HC+DFB; Table S2) might be mediated by the dissolution
382 of particulate Fe by low pH or by the presence of strong organic chelators as observed in this very experiment (Segovia
383 et al. 2017 and references therein). where dFe notably increased in treatments with high CO₂ and/or the addition of DFB
384 (Figure 1). Furthermore, the dissolution of particulate Fe in the treatments with high CO₂ and/or the addition of DFB
385 was evident in the Fe partitioning coefficients—the molar ratio between particulate and dissolved concentrations. On
386 day 21, the Fe partitioning coefficients varied by 22-fold between the highest for the control (LC-DFB: 1.039) and
387 lowest for the HC+DFB treatments (HC+DFB: 0.047; Figure S2). Thus, either the DFB addition or high CO₂ promoted
388 the dissolution of pFe. However, at the end of the experiment, high dFe concentrations were only observed in the
389 treatments with the DFB additions, suggesting that the presence of strong organic Fe chelators, such as DFB, mediated
390 the maintenance of high dissolved Fe concentrations, as previously observed (Segovia et al. 2017). Thus, in our future
391 oceans, high CO₂ (low pH) will increase dissolved Fe concentrations in regions rich in particulate Fe, and in strong
392 organic Fe chelators. The deleterious effects of OA on the development of ecologically important species sensitive to
393 increased CO₂ such as *E. Huxleyi*, will be more relevant in high-Fe environments than in Fe-limited ones.

394 In contrast to the findings for Fe, particulate Cu concentrations a) were not affected by either high CO₂ or the DFB
395 addition; b) were dominated by a biogenic component and c) were significantly correlated with phytoplankton biomass
396 (Table 4 and 5). Furthermore, unique to Cu was a significant increase in Cu:P ratios by day 21 in the high CO₂
397 treatments, especially when no DFB was added. Since the Cu partitioning coefficients only varied by 3.25 fold among
398 treatments on day 21 (LC-DFB: 0.065 vs. HC+DFB: 0.047; data not shown), we hypothesize that high CO₂ did not
399 affect the partitioning between particulate and dissolved Cu, but instead, it affected the speciation of dissolved Cu,
400 increasing its bioavailability. This resulted in the highest Cu:P ratios in the high CO₂ treatments, despite the low
401 phytoplankton biomass. This increase in bioavailability under lower pH is typical of metals that form strong inorganic
402 complexes with carbonates, such as Cu²⁺ (Millero et al., 2009). Thus in our future oceans, high CO₂ (low pH) will shift
403 the speciation of dissolved Cu towards higher abundance of free ionic species, increasing its bioavailability and likely
404 its toxicity.

405
406 Similarly to Cu, particulate Co, Zn and Mn were correlated with biomass and were dominated by the biogenic
407 component. But in contrast to Cu, these metals particulate concentrations were affect by increased CO₂ and/or the DFB
408 addition. However, the effects of high CO₂ and/or DFB were very complex because significant interactions between
409 these 2 factors were observed (Table 1); and further studies are required before we are able to discern and conclude a
410 significant trend.. Yet, the P-normalized ratios of Co, Zn and Mn were significantly affected by CO₂ (Table 3),
411 exhibiting moderately lower ratios under high CO₂, when phytoplankton biomass was lowest. These results imply that
412 the bioavailability of these metals was not enhanced under acidic conditions. This suggests that under high CO₂ (low
413 pH) the free ionic species of these metals will not significantly increase in the future, as shown for metals that occur
414 predominantly as free ionic species in seawater (Millero et al., 2009).

415
416 **5. Concluding remarks**

417 The results presented here show that in the fjord where we carried out the present experiment, particulate Fe was
418 dominated by lithogenic material, and was significantly decreased by future predicted CO₂ concentrations (HC, 900
419 μatm) and DFB addition. This condition may well be comparable to most coastal ecosystems in the future ocean.
420 Indeed, high CO₂ and/or DFB promoted the dissolution of particulate Fe, and the presence of this strong organic
421 complex helped maintaining high dissolved Fe. Under control conditions at present CO₂ concentration (LC, 380 μatm)
422 and no DFB amendment, the globally important coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi* was experiencing Fe limitation
423 (Segovia et al. 2017). The shift between particulate and dissolved Fe promoted a massive bloom of *E. huxleyi* in the
424 treatments with ambient CO₂ due to increased Fe bioavailability. Moreover, the negative effects of high CO₂ were
425 mitigated by enhanced dFe. During the mentioned bloom, the concentrations of particulate metals with a strong
426 biogenic component (Cu, Co, Zn, Cd, Mn, and Mo) were a) highly dynamic, b) positively correlated with plankton
427 biomass, and c) influenced by growth requirements. Furthermore, high CO₂ decreased the Me:P ratios of Co, Zn and
428 Mn, mainly due to low phytoplankton biomass, while increased the Cu:P ratios. In contrast DFB had no effects on these
429 ratios. According to our results, high CO₂ may decrease particulate Fe and increase dissolved Fe, but high
430 concentrations of dissolved Fe will only be maintained by the presence of strong organic ligands. The decrease in
431 particulate Fe may affect the sinking flux of other metals associated with terrestrial material/dust in open ocean settings.
432 Furthermore, ocean acidification will decrease *E. huxleyi* abundance, and as a result, the concentration of many
433 biogenic particulate metals. Moreover, the Me:P ratios of metals that are predominately present in an ionic free form in
434 seawater (e.g. Co, Zn and Mn) will likely decrease or stay constant. However, the high pZn observed will possibly be
435 the result of anthropogenic aerosols, and the responsible for the low pCd registered, most likely due to the antagonistic
436 interaction between Zn and Cd. In contrast, high CO₂ is predicated to shift the speciation of dissolved metals associated
437 with carbonates, such as Cu, increasing their bioavailability, and resulting in higher Me:P ratios. We suggest that high
438 Cu might be putative in this fjord, and autochthonous plankton might be adapted to cope with high Cu levels by
439 developing specific physiological mechanisms. Future predicted high CO₂ levels are expected to change the relative
440 concentrations of particulate and dissolved metals, due to the differential effects of high CO₂ on trace metal solubility,
441 speciation, adsorption and toxicity, as well as on the growth of different phytoplankton taxa, and their elemental trace
442 metal composition. In the future ocean, this will have great implications in the carbon cycle and the biological pump,
443 consequently affecting the physic, chemical and biological aspects, i.e. marine systems dynamics.

444

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452

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Table 1. Statistical analyses (Split-plot ANOVA) of the effects of high CO₂, the addition of DFB, and their interaction, as well as the effect of time, on the concentrations of particulate metals (mmol L⁻¹, data in Table S2, and Figure 3) in particles collected from the different mesocosms treatments.

| Factor | Al | Ti | P | Fe | Cu | Co | Zn | Cd | Mn | Mo | Pb |
|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| CO ₂ | ns | ns | ** | * | ns | ** | *** | *** | ** | *** | ns |
| DFB | ns | ns | * | ns | ns | * | ** | ns | * | * | ns |
| CO ₂ x DFB | ns | * | ** | ns | ns | * | ** | * | ** | ** | ns |
| Time | ns | ns | ns | *** | * | *** | *** | *** | *** | *** | ** |

530

*ns: not significant; * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001*

531 **Table 2.** The average metal ratios in the particles collected in this study (without oxalate wash) using the data reported in Table S2. The P-
 532 normalized ratios (mmol : mol P, Figure 4) are compared to previous estimates in marine plankton samples and phytoplankton cultures (A).
 533 The Al-normalized ratios (mmol : mol Al) are compared to crustal ratios (B).

534 A)

| (mmol : mol P) | Mn:P | Fe:P | Co:P | Cu:P | Zn:P | Cd:P | Mo:P | Al:P | Reference |
|----------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-------------|-----------|--------------|--------|----------------|
| Phytoplankton _{Lab} | 3.8 | 7.5 | 0.19 | 0.38 | 0.8 | 0.21 | 0.03 | | Ho et al. 2003 |
| Marine Plankton _{Field} | 0.68±0.54 | 5.1±1.6 | 0.15±0.06 | 0.41±0.16 | 2.1±0.88 | | | | Ho 2006 |
| <i>E. huxleyi</i> _{Lab} | 7.1±0.36 | 3.5±0.07 | 0.29±0.02 | 0.07±0.013 | 0.38±0.002 | 0.36±0.01 | 0.022±0.0003 | | Ho et al. 2003 |
| This study | 1.65±0.41 | 39.2±34.3 | 0.07±0.02 | 1.41±0.55 | 34.02±18.05 | 0.02±0.01 | 0.42±0.12 | 70±38 | |
| Crust ratio | 510 | 29,738 | 13 | 25 | 32 | 0.05 | 0.46 | 89,972 | Taylor 1964 |

535

536 B)

| (mmol : mol Al) | Mn:Al | Fe:Al | Co:Al | Cu:Al | Zn:Al | Cd:Al | Mo:Al | Pb:Al | Ti:Al |
|-------------------|-------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|----------|
| Crustal ratio | 5.7 | 331 | 0.14 | 0.27 | 0.35 | 0.001 | 0.005 | 0.02 | 39 |
| This study | 35±28 | 506±342 | 1.5±1.2 | 26.5±15 | 795±865 | 0.5±0.4 | 8.6±6.5 | 4.9±3.9 | 119±47.6 |

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539 **Table 3.** Statistical analyses (Split-plot ANOVA) of the effects of CO₂, DFB, and their interaction, as well as the effect of time, on the P-
540 normalized metal quotas (mmol: mol P, data in Figure 4, and Table S2) in particles collected from the different mesocosm treatments.

541

| Factor | Fe:P | Cu:P | Co:P | Zn:P | Cd:P | Mn:P | Mo:P | Pb:P | Ti:P |
|-----------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| CO ₂ | ns | * | *** | ** | ns | * | ns | ns | ns |
| DFB | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns |
| CO ₂ x DFB | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns | ns |
| Time | *** | *** | *** | *** | ns | ns | ns | ns | *** |

*ns: not significant; * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001*

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Table 4. The relationship (Pearson correlations, $p < 0.05$) between particulate metals concentrations (nmol L^{-1} , no oxalate wash, reported in Table S2) and the biomass ($\mu\text{gC L}^{-1}$) of *Emiliana huxleyi* and total cells (phytoplankton and microzooplankton) collected from the different mesocosm treatments.

| | | P | Fe | Cu | Co | Zn | Cd | Mn | Mo | Pb | Ti |
|-------------------|-------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-----------|-----------|
| <i>E. huxleyi</i> | Correlation coefficient | 0.622 | ns | 0.614 | 0.756 | 0.747 | 0.818 | 0.686 | 0.825 | ns | ns |
| | P-value | 0.003 | | 0.003 | $7.35 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $1.01 \cdot 10^{-4}$ | $6.02 \cdot 10^{-6}$ | $5.93 \cdot 10^{-4}$ | $4.20 \cdot 10^{-6}$ | | |
| Total cells | Correlation coefficient | 0.641 | ns | 0.51 | 0.644 | 0.889 | 0.802 | 0.598 | 0.53 | ns | ns |
| | P-value | 0.002 | | 0.02 | $1.62 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $7.03 \cdot 10^{-8}$ | $1.23 \cdot 10^{-5}$ | $4.18 \cdot 10^{-3}$ | $1.35 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | | |

548

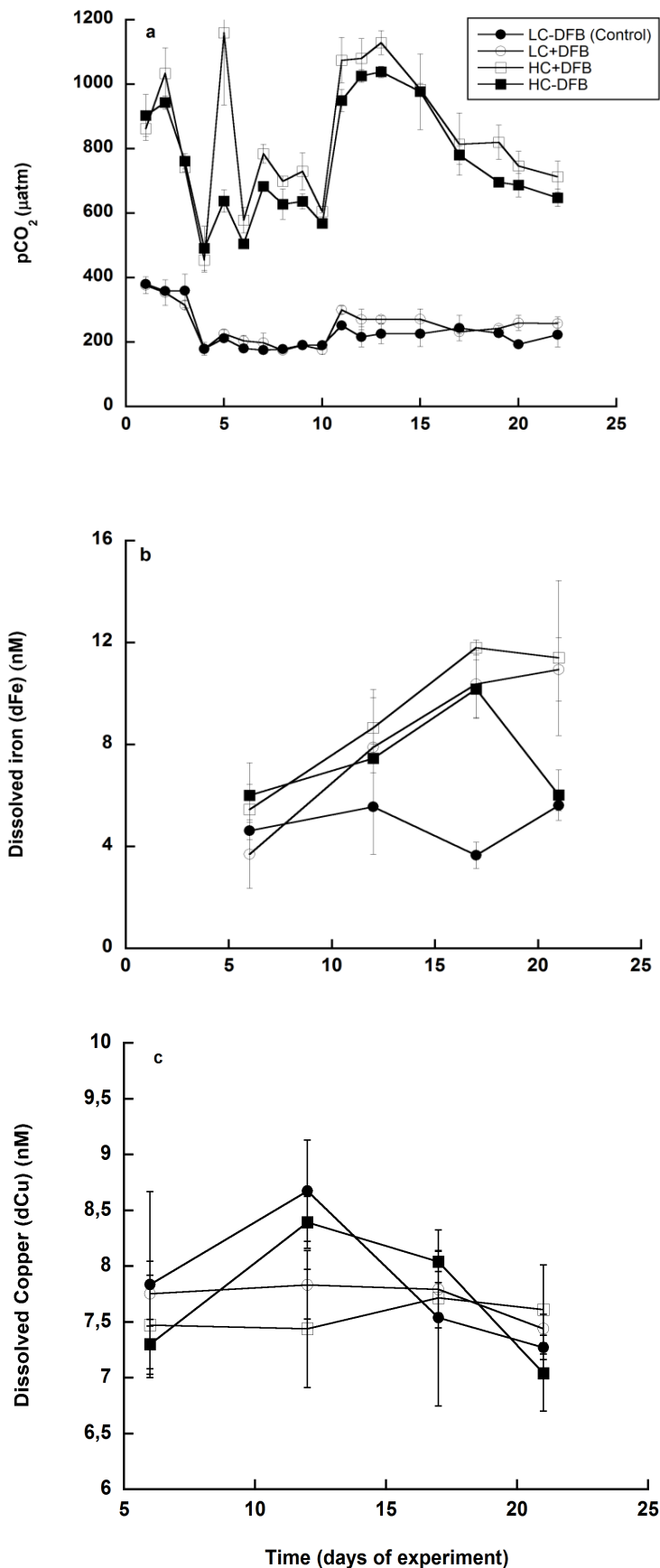


Fig. 1. Temporal development of (a) CO₂ partial pressure (pCO₂) and (b) pH within the mesocosms. Ambient pCO₂ and ambient dFe (LC-DFB, grey); ambient pCO₂ and increased dFe (LC+DFB, red filled circle); increased pCO₂ and increased dFe (HC+DFB, red open circle), increased pCO₂ and ambient dFe (HC-DFB, black open circle). Symbols indicate means of measurements in 3 independent mesocosms (n = 3) except for LC-DFB where n = 2. Error bars indicate SD. Figure reproduced with permission from Segovia et al. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 2017

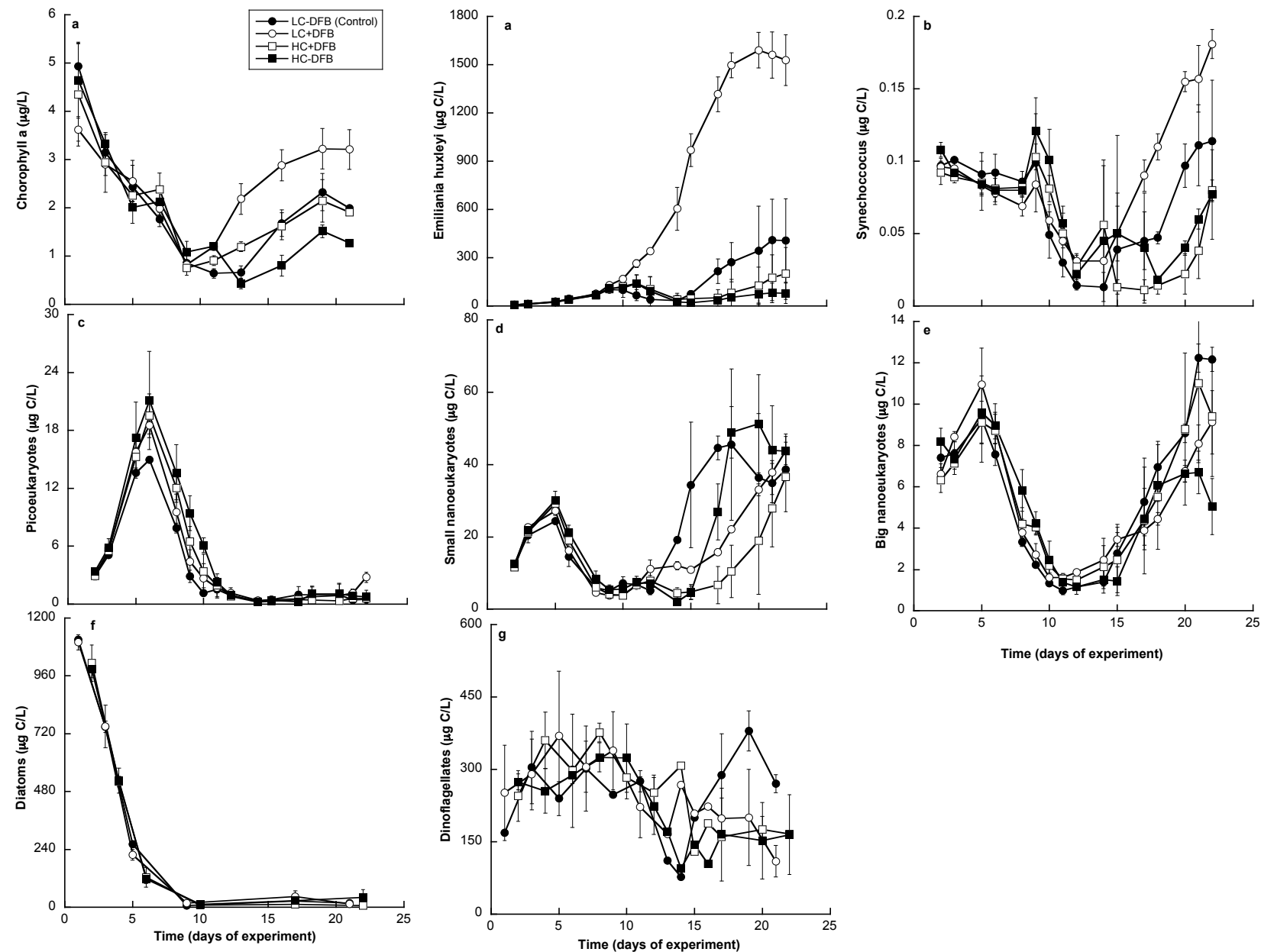


Fig. 2. Temporal development of chlorophyll a ($\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$) and phytoplankton biomass ($\mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$) in the mesocosms exposed to different CO₂ and dissolved iron (dFe) treatments. (a) Chlorophyll a, (b) *Emiliana huxleyi* (5–10 μm), (c) *Synechococcus* (0.6–2 μm), (d) picoeukaryotes (0.1–2 μm), (e) small nanoeukaryotes (prasinophytes, small haptophytes, 2–7 μm), (f) large nanoeukaryotes (small single-celled diatoms and flagellated forms, 6–20 μm), (g) diatoms (chain-forming *Skeletonema* sp. 20–> 500 μm), (h) dinoflagellates (20–200 μm). Figure reproduced with permission from Segovia et al. Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser. 2017.

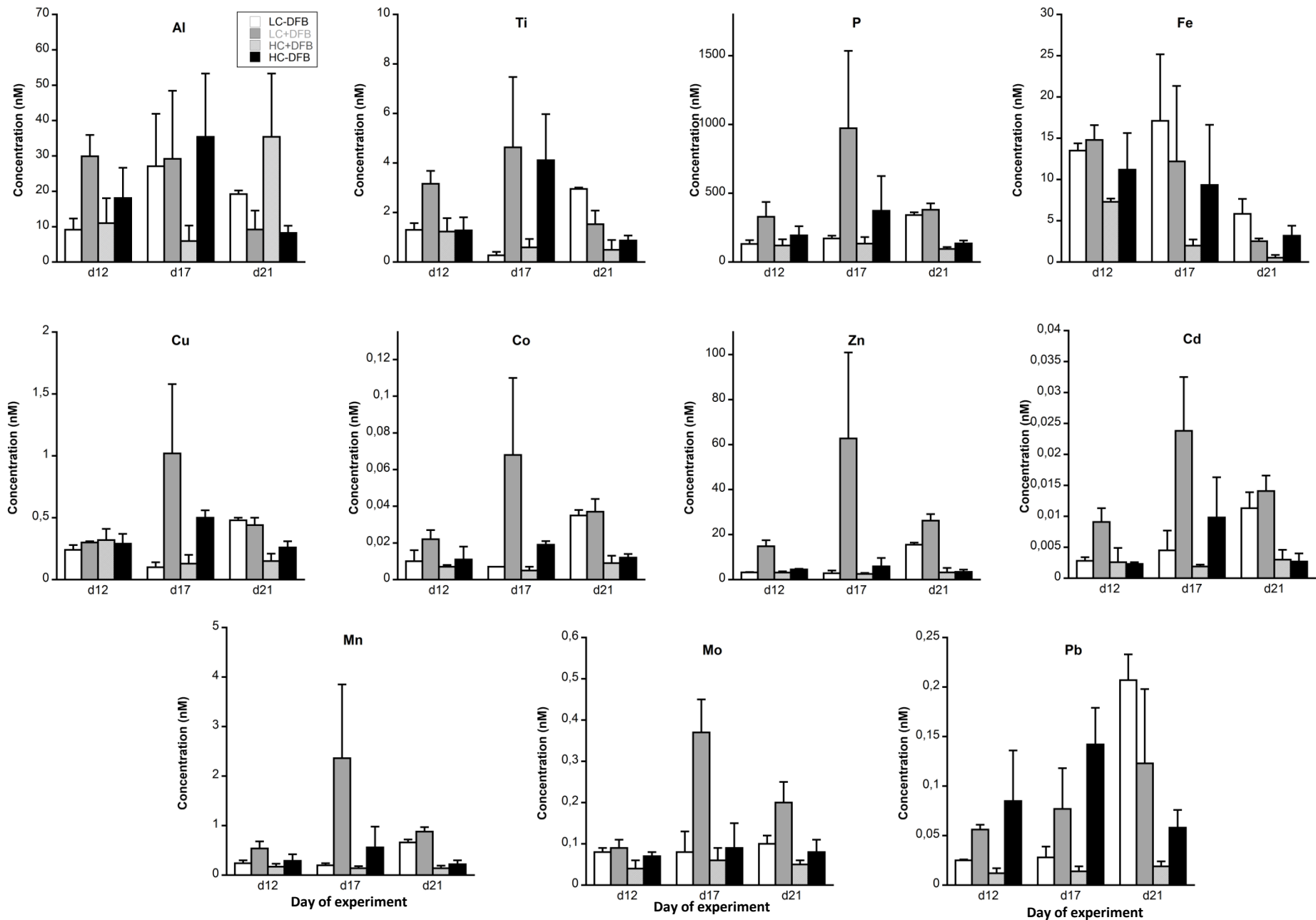


Fig. 3. The concentration of particulate metals in seawater (nM) in the different treatments; LC: ambient CO₂ (390 μatm); HC: increased CO₂ (900 μatm); -DFB (ambient dFe); +DFB (increased dFe) during the development of a bloom of *Emiliania huxleyi*. Bars are means of measurements in 3 independent mesocosms (n = 3) except for LC-DFB where n = 2. Error bars indicate SD.

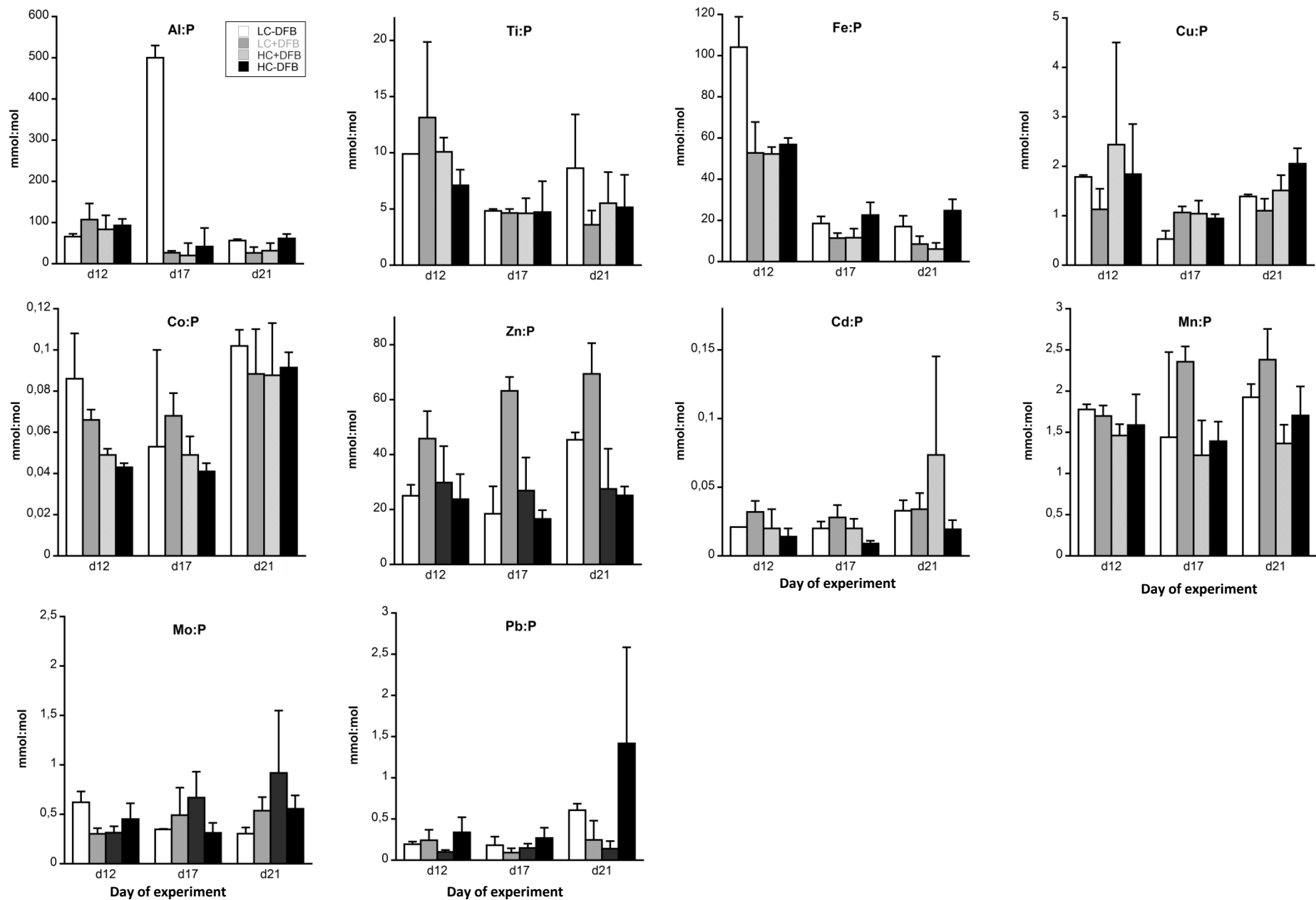


Fig. 4. P-normalized metal quotas (mmol:mol P) of particles from different treatments; LC: ambient CO₂ (390 μatm); HC: increased CO₂ (900 μatm); -DFB (ambient dFe); +DFB (increased dFe) during the development of a bloom of *Emiliania huxleyi*. Bars are means of measurements in 3 independent mesocosms (n = 3) except for LC-DFB where n = 2. Error bars indicate SD.

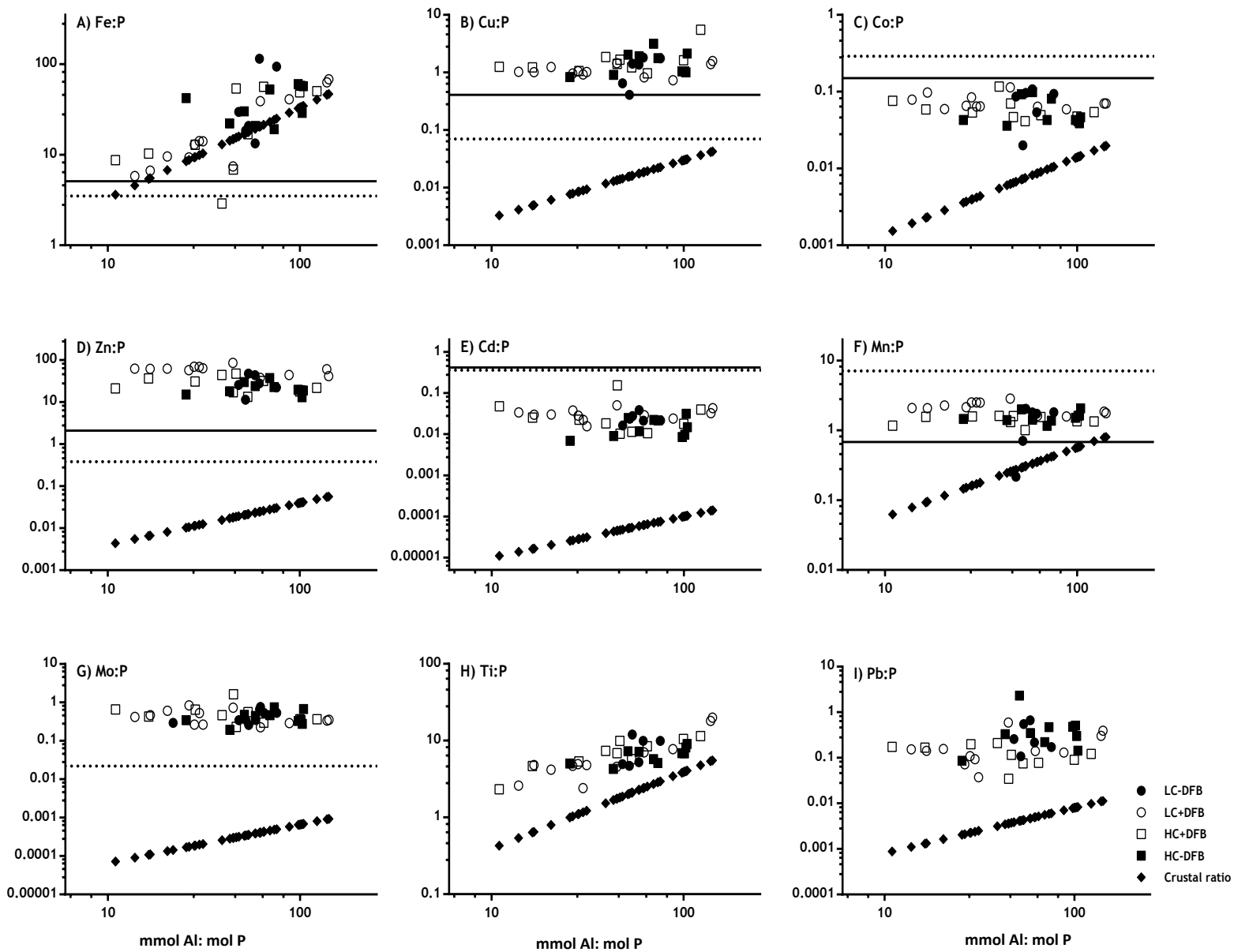


Fig. 5. Comparison of P-normalized metal ratios in particles (mmol:mol P) against mmol Al:mol P ratios in the same particles (without oxalate wash) collected from the different mesocosm treatments (LC: ambient CO₂; HC: increased CO₂ (900 μatm); -DFB: no DFB addition; +DFB: with a 70 nM DFB addition) during the development of a bloom on day 12, 17 and 21 (original data reported in Table S2). The x-axis parallel solid and dotted lines represent the average metal quotas obtained from marine plankton assemblages (Ho 2006) and from cultures of *Emiliania huxleyi* (Ho et al. 2003). The slope of the line with the ◆ symbols indicates the average metal : Al (mol:mol) in crustal material (Taylor, 1964). (A) Fe:P, (B) Cu:P, (C) Co:P, (D) Zn:P, (E) Cd:P, (F) Mn:P, (G) Mo:P, (H) Ti:P, (I) Pb:P.