

1 **CO₂ effects on diatoms: A Synthesis of more than a decade of ocean**
2 **acidification experiments with natural communities**

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12

13 **Short summary**

14 Diatoms are a group of phytoplankton species responsible for ~20% of primary
15 production on Earth. Ocean acidification (OA) could influence diatoms but the key
16 question is if they become more or less important within marine food webs. Here we
17 synthesize OA experiments with natural communities and found: Diatoms are more likely
18 to be positively than negatively affected by high CO₂ and larger species may profit in
19 particular. This has important implications for ecosystem services diatoms provide.

20

21 **Abstract**

22 Diatoms account for up to 50% of marine primary production and are considered to be
23 key players in the biological carbon pump. Ocean acidification (OA) is expected to affect
24 diatoms primarily by changing the availability of CO₂ as a substrate for photosynthesis

25 or through altered ecological interactions within the marine food web. Yet, there is little
26 consensus how entire diatom communities will respond to increasing CO₂. To address
27 this question, we synthesized the literature from over a decade of OA-experiments with
28 natural diatom communities to uncover: 1) if and how bulk diatom communities respond
29 to elevated CO₂ with respect to abundance or biomass; 2) if shifts within the diatom
30 communities could be expected and how they are expressed with respect to taxonomic
31 affiliation and size structure. We found that bulk diatom communities responded to high
32 CO₂ in ~60 % of the experiments and in this case more often positively (56 %) than
33 negatively (32 %; 12 % did not report the direction of change). Shifts among different
34 diatom species were observed in 65 % of the experiments. Our synthesis supports the
35 hypothesis that high CO₂ particularly favors larger species as 12 out of 13 experiments
36 which investigated cell size found a shift towards larger species. Unraveling winners and
37 losers with respect to taxonomic affiliation was difficult due to a limited database. The
38 OA-induced changes in diatom competitiveness and assemblage structure may alter key
39 ecosystem services due to the pivotal role diatoms play in trophic transfer and
40 biogeochemical cycles.

41 **1. Introduction**

42 The global net primary production (NPP) of all terrestrial and marine autotrophs amounts
43 to approximately 105 petagrams (Pg) of carbon per year (Field et al., 1998). Marine
44 diatoms, a taxonomically diverse group of cosmopolitan phytoplankton, were estimated
45 to contribute up to 25 % (26 Pg C year⁻¹) to this number, which is more than the annual
46 primary production in any biome on land (Field et al., 1998; Nelson et al., 1995; Tréguer
47 and De La Rocha, 2013). Thus, diatoms are likely the most important single taxonomic
48 group of primary producers on Earth and any change in their prevalence relative to other
49 phytoplankton taxa could profoundly alter marine food web structures and thereby affect

50 ecosystem services such as fisheries or the sequestration of CO₂ in the deep ocean
51 (Armbrust, 2009; Tréguer et al., 2018).

52 The most conspicuous feature of diatoms is the formation of a silica shell, which is
53 believed to primarily serve as protection against grazers (Hamm and Smetacek, 2007;
54 Pančić and Kiørboe, 2018). Since the formation of this shell requires dissolved silicate,
55 diatoms are often limited by silicon as a nutrient rather than by nitrogen or phosphate
56 (Brzezinski and Nelson, 1996). However, when dissolved silicate is available, diatoms
57 benefit from their high nutrient uptake and growth rates, allowing them to outcompete
58 other phytoplankton and form intense blooms in many ocean regions (Sarhou et al.,
59 2005).

60 Diatoms display an enormous species richness, with recent estimates accounting for so
61 far undiscovered diatoms (including freshwater) being in the range of 20,000 – 100,000
62 species (Guiry, 2012; Mann and Vanormelingen, 2013). Sournia et al. (1991) derive a
63 number between 1400 – 1800 of described marine diatoms based on microscopy while
64 *Tara* Oceans reported ~4700 operational taxonomic units from genetic samples
65 distributed over all major oceans except the North Atlantic and North Pacific (Malviya et
66 al., 2016). Known diatom taxa span a size range of several orders of magnitude (<5 µm
67 up to a few mm) with a wide range of morphologies and life strategies, e.g. single cells
68 and cell chains, pelagic and benthic habitats (Armbrust, 2009; Mann and Vanormelingen,
69 2013; Sournia et al., 1991). Accordingly, they should not be treated as one functional
70 group, but rather as a variety of subgroups occupying different niches.

71 It is well recognized that the global importance of diatoms as well as their diversity in
72 morphology and life style is tightly linked to the functioning of pelagic food webs and
73 elemental cycling in the oceans. For example, iron enrichment experiments in the

74 Southern Ocean found that a shift in diatom community composition from thick- to thin-
75 shelled species (“persistence strategy” vs. “boom-and-bust strategy”) can enhance carbon
76 and alter nutrient export via sinking particles (Assmy et al., 2013; Smetacek et al., 2012).
77 This may not only affect element fluxes locally but enhance nutrient retention within the
78 Southern Ocean and reduce productivity in the north which underlines how important
79 diatom community shifts can be on a global scale (Boyd, 2013; Primeau et al., 2013;
80 Sarmiento et al., 2004). Likewise, the cell size of diatoms can play an important role in
81 transferring energy to higher trophic levels, as the dominance of larger species is
82 generally considered to reduce the length of the food chain and lead to higher trophic
83 transfer efficiency (Sommer et al., 2002). Consequently, understanding impacts of global
84 change on diatom community composition is crucial for assessing the sensitivity of
85 biogeochemical cycles and ecosystem services in the world oceans.

86 It has become evident that the sensitivity of diatoms to increasing pCO₂ is highly variable,
87 likely being related to specific traits such as cell size or the carbon fixation pathway, as
88 well as interactions with other environmental factors such as nutrient stress, temperature
89 or light (Gao et al., 2012; Hoppe et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2014). However, it is still rather
90 unclear how these species-specific differences in CO₂ sensitivities manifest themselves
91 on the level of diatom communities. This knowledge gap motivated us to compile the
92 presently available experimental data in order to reveal common responses of diatom
93 communities to high CO₂ and thereby assess potential scenarios of shifts in diatom
94 community composition under ocean acidification.

95 **2. Literature investigation**

96 **2.1. Approach**

97 Our original intention was to conduct a classical meta-analysis, which would have yielded

98 the benefit of a quantitative measure of diatom responses to OA, expressed as an overall
99 effect size (i.e. combined magnitude) such as the response ratio. However, our literature
100 analysis revealed a large variability in experimental pCO₂ ranges as well as measured
101 response variables, which cannot be directly compared among each other (e.g.
102 microscopic cell counts, pigment concentrations, genetic tools). These limitations impede
103 data aggregation as required for a classical meta-analysis. Furthermore, experimental
104 setups differed widely in terms of other environmental factors such as temperature, light,
105 and nutrient concentrations, all of which are known to modulate potential responses to
106 pCO₂ (Boyd et al., 2018), thereby further complicating data aggregation for meta-
107 analysis. Therefore, we chose an alternative, semi-quantitative approach where diatom
108 responses to increasing CO₂ are grouped in categories (see section 2.2) and also allows
109 to account for differences in experimental setups, e.g. with respect to container volume
110 (see section 2.3). While this approach excludes the determination of effect size, it
111 provides an unbiased insight on the direction of change of potential CO₂ effects.

112 Before going into the details of data compilation we want to emphasize once more that
113 the motivation for this study was not to investigate the physiological response of diatoms
114 to OA. Such meta analyses or reviews have already been made (Dutkiewicz et al., 2015;
115 Gao and Campbell, 2014). Instead our goal was to summarize how diatoms respond to
116 OA in their natural habitat. More generally, experiments with ecological communities (as
117 compiled in our study) do not so much aim for a mechanistic understanding of a certain
118 process (as e.g. in physiological experiments) but rather assess the general sensitivity of
119 more natural communities to environmental drivers. Therefore, it is important to have a
120 realistic setup because the net response of any player in the food web is composed of a
121 direct physiological response to CO₂ and by CO₂-induced alterations of interactions with
122 other species. From that point of view it is desirable to include all important ecosystem

123 components, because when trophic cascades are represented incompletely then the
124 observed response in an experiment may not reflect the response that would occur in
125 nature which is what we are ultimately interested in (Carpenter, 1996). Clearly,
126 investigating OA effects on diatoms or any other group in complex communities has the
127 disadvantage that the actual cause for an observed response can hardly ever be determined
128 with high certainty (Bach et al., 2017, 2019). However, experiments compiled herein
129 investigated the development of initially similar plankton communities over time with the
130 only difference being carbonate chemistry conditions between control and the treatments.
131 Thus, we can at least be sure that the differences in diatom abundance or community
132 composition between control and treatment (which is the focus of our study) is caused by
133 simulated OA, even though the underlying mechanisms cannot be pinned down with
134 certainty.

135 **2.2. Data compilation**

136 We explored the response of diatom assemblages to high CO₂ (low pH) by searching the
137 literature for relevant results with Google Scholar (December 15, 2017) using the
138 following search query: “diatom” OR “Bacillariophyceae” AND "ocean acidification"
139 OR "high CO₂" or "carbon dioxide" OR "elevated CO₂" OR "elevated carbon dioxide"
140 OR "low pH" OR "decreased pH". The first 200 results were inspected and considered to
141 be relevant when they were published in peer-reviewed journals, contained a description
142 of the relevant methodological details, a statistical analysis or at least a transparent
143 description of variance and uncertainties, and tested CO₂ effects on natural plankton
144 assemblages (artificially composed communities were not considered). We then carefully
145 checked the cited literature in these relevant studies to uncover other studies that were
146 missed by the initial search. Furthermore, we checked the “Ocean Acidification news
147 stream provided by the Ocean Acidification International Coordination Centre” under the

148 tag “phytoplankton” (<https://news-oceanacidification-icc.org/tag/phytoplankton/>) for
149 relevant updates since December 2017 (last check on January 16, 2019).

150 There were two response variables of interest for the literature compilation:

151 1) The response of the “bulk diatom community” to high CO₂. For this we checked if the
152 abundance of diatoms, the biomass of diatoms, or the relative portion of diatoms within
153 the overall phytoplankton assemblage increased or decreased under high CO₂ relative to
154 the control. We distinguished between “positive”, “negative”, and “no effect” following
155 the statistical results provided in the individual references. When the CO₂ effect on the
156 bulk community was derived from abundance data we also checked if there are
157 indications for a concomitant shift in the biomass distribution among species. This is
158 relevant because, for example, an increase in bulk abundance could coincide with a
159 decrease in bulk biomass when the species driving the abundances is smaller. We found
160 no indications for conflicting cases but acknowledge that not every reference provided
161 sufficient data on morphological details to fully exclude this scenario. Furthermore, we
162 emphasize that CO₂ can also shift the temporal occurrence of a diatom response (Bach et
163 al., 2017). For example, a diatom bloom could occur earlier in a high CO₂ treatment than
164 in the control but with a similar bloom amplitude (Donahue et al., 2019). In this case we
165 assigned a “positive” response because an earlier bloom occurrence mirrors a higher net
166 growth rate under elevated CO₂.

167 2) The CO₂-dependent species shifts within the diatom community with respect to
168 taxonomic composition and/or size structure. Unfortunately, cell size of the species was
169 not reported for all experiments. Thus, we distinguished between “no shifts”, “shifts
170 between species with unspecified size”, as well as “shifts towards larger or smaller
171 species” when this information was provided. Furthermore, we noted the winners and

172 losers within the diatom communities when these were reported (on the genus level).

173 In case the data was taken from factorial multiple stressor experiments (e.g. CO₂ x
174 temperature), we considered only the control conditions with respect to the stressors other
175 than CO₂ (e.g. at control temperature). Furthermore, we extracted various metadata from
176 each study largely following the literature analysis of Schulz et al. (2017). All bulk diatom
177 responses, community shifts, and metadata is compiled/described in Table 1 and most of
178 it is self-explanatory (e.g. incubation temperature). The coordinates from where the
179 investigated plankton communities originate are given in Table 1 and illustrated in Figure
180 2. Their habitats were categorized according to water depth, salinity, or life style in the
181 case of benthic communities: “oceanic” = water depth > 200 m (unless the habitat lies
182 within a fjord or fjord-like strait), S > 30; “coastal” = water depth < 200 m, S > 30;
183 “estuarine” = water depth < 200 m, S < 30; “benthic” = benthic communities (diatoms
184 growing on plates) were investigated. We reconstructed the water depth in case it was not
185 provided in the paper using Google Earth Pro (version 7.3.2.5495). The coordinates
186 provided in some of the experiments conducted in land-based facilities were imprecise
187 and marked positions on land. In this case the habitats were set to coastal or estuarine
188 depending on salinity. If salinity was not given we checked the location on Google Earth
189 for potential fresh water sources and also checked the text for more cryptic indications
190 (e.g. “euryhaline” in a lagoon were strong indications for an estuarine habitat). The
191 methods with which responses of the bulk diatom communities to high OA were
192 determined varied greatly among studies and included light microscopy (LM), pigment
193 analyses (PA), flow cytometry (FC), genetic tools (PCR), and biogenic silica (BSi)
194 analyses (Table 1).

195 **2.3. Accounting for different experimental setups to balance the influence of**
196 **individual studies on the outcome of the literature analysis**

197 The most realistic OA experiment would be one where all aspects of the natural habitat
198 are represented correctly. Such setups are possible for benthic communities which can be
199 sampled *in situ* along a natural CO₂ gradient at volcanic CO₂ seeps (Fabricius et al., 2011;
200 Hall-Spencer et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2011). However, pelagic communities are
201 advected with currents so that it is very difficult to simulate OA in open waters. Thus,
202 OA experiments where pelagic communities are exposed to increasing levels of CO₂ were
203 so far always performed in closed containers even though it is well known that
204 confinement causes experimental artefacts (Calvo-Díaz et al., 2011; Ferguson et al., 1984;
205 Guangao, 1990; Menzel and Case, 1977). The degree by which confinement causes
206 experimental artefacts will differ from study to study depending on factors such as the
207 incubation volume, the length of incubation, or the selective removal of certain size
208 classes from the incubation (Carpenter, 1996; Duarte et al., 1997; Nogueira et al., 2014).
209 In our literature synthesis we had to deal with a large variety of experimental setups and
210 there are very likely differences how well a given setup represents the natural
211 environment. Therefore, we aimed to develop a metric that allows us to estimate “how
212 well the natural system (which we are ultimately interested in) is represented by the
213 experimental setup”. This metric – termed the “relative degree of realism (RDR)” – was
214 used to balance the influence of individual studies on the final outcomes of the literature
215 analysis. Most certainly, we do not mean to devalue any studies but think that the highly
216 different scales of experiments, ranging from 0.8 L lab incubations to 75 m³ *in situ*
217 mesocosms, should not be ignored when evaluating the literature. In the following we
218 will first derive the equation for the RDR and introduce the underlying assumptions.
219 Afterwards we describe aspects that were considered while conceptualizing the RDR.

220 The incubation volume in the studies considered herein ranged from bottle experiments
221 to *in situ* mesocosm studies with considerably larger incubation volumes. Smaller

222 differences in incubation volumes (e.g. 0.5 vs. 2 L) were shown to have no, or a minor,
223 influence on physiological rates (Fogg and Calvario-Martinez, 1989; Hammes et al.,
224 2010; Nogueira et al., 2014; Robinson and Williams, 2005). However, they can influence
225 food web composition (Calvo-Díaz et al., 2011; Spencer and Warren, 1996), e.g. by
226 unrepresentatively including certain organism groups such as highly motile
227 mesozooplankton. Larger differences of incubation volumes (e.g. 10 vs. 10000 L) are
228 considered to have a major influence on the enclosed communities, with the larger volume
229 generally being more representative of natural processes (Carpenter, 1996; Duarte et al.,
230 1997; Sarnelle, 1997). Therefore, our first assumption to conceptualize the RDR was that
231 larger incubation volumes represent nature generally better than smaller ones.

232 Plankton communities were pre-filtered in many experiments to exclude larger and often
233 patchily distributed organisms (e.g. copepods). This is a valid procedure to reduce noise
234 and to increase the likelihood to detect CO₂ effects but it also influences the development
235 of plankton communities since the selective removal of certain size classes can modify
236 trophic cascades within the food web (Ferguson et al., 1984; Nogueira et al., 2014). For
237 example, Nogueira et al. (2014) compared plankton successions of pre-filtered (100 µm)
238 and unfiltered communities and found that the removal of larger grazers and diatoms gave
239 room for green algae and picophytoplankton to grow. Such manipulations make the
240 experiment less representative for a natural food web which brought us to the second
241 assumption for the RDR: The smaller the mesh size during the pre-filtration treatment,
242 the less complete and thus the less realistic is the pelagic food web.

243 To parameterize the two abovementioned assumptions, we first converted the volume
244 information provided in each experiment into a volume-to-surface ratio (V/S). The
245 underlying thought is that V increases with the third power to the surface area of the
246 incubator and is indicative for the relation of open space to hard surfaces. Therefore, we

247 first converted V into a radius (r) assuming spherical shape:

$$248 \quad r = \sqrt[3]{\frac{3V}{4\pi}} \quad (1).$$

249 The surface (S) of the spherical volume was calculated as:

$$250 \quad S = 4\pi r^2 \quad (2)$$

251 The assumption of spherical shape was necessary because it allowed us to calculate V/S
252 from only knowing V which is usually the only parameter provided with respect to
253 container characteristics. We are aware that this is a simplification because the majority
254 of containers used in experiments will likely have had cylindrical shape. However, the
255 conversion from volume to surface assuming cylindrical shape would have required
256 knowledge of two dimensions (radius and height of the cylinder). Although shape can
257 influence processes within the container (Pan et al., 2015), it is a less important factor to
258 consider in our study because sensitivity calculations assuming reasonable cylinder
259 dimensions showed that the V/S differences due to container shape will be small
260 compared to the V/S differences due to the range of container volumes compared here.

261 The influence of pre-filtration treatments of the investigated plankton community is
262 implemented by multiplying the V/S with the cube root of the applied mesh size (d_{mesh} in
263 μm) so that the RDR is defined as:

$$264 \quad \text{RDR} = \frac{V}{S} \sqrt[3]{d_{\text{mesh}}} \quad (3).$$

265 Thus, as for V/S, the influence of d_{mesh} on RDR does not increase linearly but becomes
266 less influential with increasing d_{mesh} . The rationale for the non-linear increase is that
267 incubations will still have an increasing bias even if they do not have any pre-filtration

268 treatment due to generally increasing organism motility with size. For example, when
269 collecting a plankton community with a Niskin bottle, more motile organisms can escape
270 from the approaching sampler so that the food web composition is still affected even
271 without subsequent pre-filtration. For this reason, we also capped the maximum d_{mesh} to
272 10,000 μm when there was no pre-filtration treatment applied since none of the studies
273 included significantly larger organisms. The rationale for calculating the cube root of
274 d_{mesh} was that in this case the influence of V/S and d_{mesh} on RDR becomes roughly similar.
275 Figure 1 illustrates the change of RDR as a function of V and d_{mesh} . High RDRs are
276 calculated for large-scale *in situ* mesocosm studies ($\sim 50 - 190$) while bottle experiments
277 yield RDRs between $\sim 1 - 12$.

278 The key pre-requisite for an experimental parameter to be included in the RDR equation
279 (eq. 3) was that it is reported in all studies. Many parameters that we would have liked to
280 use for the RDR are either insufficiently reported (e.g. the light environment) or not
281 provided quantitatively at all (e.g. turbulence). We therefore had to work with very basic
282 properties related to the experimental setup rather than to the experimental conditions.

283 A particularly critical aspect of the RDR we had to deal with was the duration of the
284 experiments (Time). Time is reliably reported in all studies and therefore principally
285 suitable for the RDR. Our first thoughts were that a realistic community experiment
286 should be long enough to cover relevant ecological processes such as competitive
287 exclusion and therefore also parameterized Time in the first versions of the RDR
288 equation. However, we decided to not account for it in the final version because the
289 factors that define the optimal duration of an experiment are poorly constrained. For
290 example, a 1 day experiment in a 10 L container could indeed miss important CO_2 effects
291 caused by food web interactions. On the other hand, a 30 days experiment in the same
292 container could reveal such indirect effects but at the same time be associated with

293 profound bottle effects and make the study unrepresentative for simulated natural habitat.
294 Thus, too long and too short are both problematic and the optimum is hard to find. One
295 such attempt to find the optimum Time was made by Duarte et al. (1997) who analyzed
296 the plankton ecology literature between 1990 – 1995. By correlating the experimental
297 duration with the incubation volume of published experiments they provided an optimal
298 length for any given volume. However, as noted by Duarte et al. (1997), their correlation
299 is based on publication success and therefore rather reflects common practice in plankton
300 ecology experiments and not necessarily a mechanistic understanding of bottle effects.
301 Thus, as there is no solid ground for a parameterization of Time we ultimately decided to
302 not consider it for the RDR.

303 Finally, we want to point out (and explicitly acknowledge) that the RDR approach to
304 balance the influence of studies on the final outcome of the literature analysis is of course
305 not the one perfect solution and most likely incomplete (see above). However, balancing
306 a literature analysis with the RDR score may still be an improvement relative to the other
307 case where each experiment is treated exactly equally despite huge differences in the
308 experimental setup. Nevertheless, to account for both views (i.e. the RDR is useless vs.
309 the RDR is useful) we will present the outcome of our literature analysis in two different
310 ways throughout the paper: 1) by simply counting the number of outcomes (N) and adding
311 them to yield a cumulative $\sum N$ score (N-based approach; left columns in Figs. 3 and 4);
312 2) by adding the RDR score of the experiments with a certain outcome to yield a
313 cumulative $\sum RDR$ score (RDR-based approach; right columns in Figs. 3 and 4).

314 **3. Results**

315 We found 54 relevant publications on CO₂ experiments with natural diatom assemblages.
316 Some publications included more than one experiment so that 69 experiments are

317 considered hereafter (Table 1). Most were done with plankton communities from coastal
318 (46 %) and oceanic (28%) environments. Estuarine and benthic communities were
319 investigated in 16 % and 6% of the studies, respectively. 4 % of the studies did not provide
320 coordinates where the samples were taken although the region was reported (Table 1; Fig.
321 2).

322 Among the 69 experiments, 23 (33 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 595$) revealed a positive influence of CO₂
323 on the “bulk diatom community” (see section 2.2), while 13 (19 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 266$)
324 revealed a negative one. 5 experiments (7 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 21$) found a CO₂ effect but did not
325 specify whether it is a positive or negative one. 28 experiments (41 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 728$)
326 found no effect (Fig. 3A).

327 We also checked if the pCO₂ range tested in the experiments had an influence on whether
328 the bulk diatom community responded to changing carbonate chemistry. This was done
329 because we expected the likelihood to find an OA response to be higher when the pCO₂
330 difference between treatments and controls is larger. Thus, we calculated the investigated
331 pCO₂ range (highest pCO₂ – lowest pCO₂) for each experiment and categorized the range
332 into “small” ($\leq 300 \mu\text{atm}$), “medium (300 – 600 μatm), and “large” ($\geq 600 \mu\text{atm}$). Among
333 the 41 experiments that found a CO₂ effect on the bulk diatom community (positive,
334 negative, and unreported direction of change), 4 (10 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 106$) found it within the
335 low range, 12 (32 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 123$) in the medium range, and 25 experiments (68 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 653$)
336 in the high range. Among the 28 experiments that found no CO₂ on the
337 bulk diatom community, 3 (12 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 12$) tested within the low range, 8 (32 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 230$)
338 within the medium range, and 17 experiments (68 %, $\sum\text{RDR} = 487$) within
339 the high range. According to this analysis, the likelihood of detecting a CO₂ effect on the
340 bulk diatom community does not depend on the investigated pCO₂ range.

341 CO₂-dependent shifts in diatom species composition were investigated with light
342 microscopy except for Endo et al. (2015) who used molecular tools. Species shifts were
343 investigated in a subset of 40 of the 69 experiments (Fig. 3B). Within this subset of 40
344 studies, 12 (30 %, \sum RDR = 265) found a shift towards larger diatom species under high
345 CO₂, 1 (2.5 %, \sum RDR = 10) found a shift towards smaller diatom species, and 13 (32.5
346 %, \sum RDR = 67) found no CO₂ effect on diatom community composition. 14 studies (35
347 %, \sum RDR = 141) reported a CO₂-dependent shift but did not further specify any changes
348 in the size-class distribution (Fig. 3C).

349 We also tested if the bulk diatom response to OA in coastal, estuarine, and benthic
350 environments was different from the bulk response in oceanic environments. The
351 rationale for this comparison was that carbonate chemistry conditions in oceanic
352 environments may generally be more stable than in the often more productive coastal,
353 estuarine, and benthic environments (Duarte et al., 2013; Hofmann et al., 2011).
354 Therefore, diatoms from oceanic environments may be more sensitive to OA (Duarte et
355 al., 2013). We found 47 experiments with coastal + estuarine + benthic diatom
356 communities. Within this subset, 15 experiments (32 %, \sum RDR = 557) revealed a positive
357 influence of CO₂ on the “bulk diatom community” while 6 (13 %, \sum RDR = 244) revealed
358 a negative one. 4 experiments (9 %, \sum RDR = 19) found a CO₂ effect but did not specify
359 whether it is a positive or negative one. 22 experiments (47 %, \sum RDR = 715) found no
360 effect (Fig. 4A). In contrast, we found 19 experiments with oceanic communities. Within
361 this subset, 5 experiments (26 %, \sum RDR = 17) revealed a positive influence of CO₂ on
362 the “bulk diatom community” while 7 (37 %, \sum RDR = 21) revealed a negative one. 1
363 experiment (5 %, \sum RDR = 2) found a CO₂ effect but did not specify whether it is a
364 positive or negative one. 6 experiments (32 %, \sum RDR = 13) found no effect (Fig. 4B).
365 Overall, we found a bulk diatom response to OA (positive, negative, and unreported

366 direction of change) in 53 % of the experiments in coastal + estuarine + benthic
367 environments as opposed to 68 % in oceanic environments. Thus, an OA response of the
368 bulk diatom community was more frequently observed in oceanic environments which
369 was mostly due to the higher frequency of negative OA responses (Fig. 4).

370 **4. Discussion**

371 Numerous physiological studies have shown that diatom growth and metabolic rates can
372 be affected by seawater CO₂ concentrations, and that these responses vary widely among
373 different species (Gao and Campbell, 2014). Such inter-specific differences in pCO₂
374 sensitivity are an important feature as this could alter the composition of diatom
375 assemblages in a changing ocean. In this regard, it is interesting to note that
376 paleolimnologists have long been using diatom species composition as paleo-proxy to
377 reconstruct lake pH (Battarbee et al., 2010). Hence, there is ample evidence that high CO₂
378 conditions have the potential to change the diatom species composition.

379 Indeed, our analysis revealed that CO₂-induced changes in diatom community
380 composition occurred in 27 out of 40 (i.e. 68 %) of community-level experiments which
381 investigated species composition (Fig. 3C). This is certainly a conservative outcome
382 because many studies have only looked at dominant species. In fact, one of the few
383 experiments that investigated the diatom assemblage with higher taxonomical resolution
384 found CO₂ effects also on subdominant species (Sommer et al., 2015) which may have
385 been overlooked in many other experiments.

386 The comparison of OA effects in different environments revealed that bulk diatom
387 communities responded more frequently to OA in oceanic than in coastal + estuarine +
388 benthic environments. Especially negative effects of OA were more frequent in oceanic
389 environments (Fig. 4). This result is not particularly surprising since communities found

390 near coasts may be adapted to larger carbonate chemistry variability (Duarte et al., 2013)
391 and therefore be better suited to deal with OA. It should be kept in mind, however, that
392 this comparison is based on “only” 19 oceanic experiments in contrast to 47 coastal +
393 estuarine + benthic experiments. Furthermore, our habitat characterization depends on
394 certain criteria (mainly water depth and salinity; see section 2.2) and these may be
395 insufficient for our habitat comparison. For example, plankton communities from near
396 oceanic islands such as the Azores were labelled as “coastal” although they may have
397 been moving within oceanic currents and just happened to be close to shore when they
398 were collected. Accordingly, this type of habitat comparison would be more robust if the
399 community had been characterized based on the prevailing carbonate chemistry they are
400 usually exposed to. Unfortunately, information on the background carbonate chemistry is
401 hardly ever provided.

402 **4.1 CO₂ effects on diatom assemblages originating from (direct) physiological** 403 **responses to high CO₂**

404 Most studies that found effects of pCO₂ on diatom communities related these changes to
405 CO₂ fertilization of photosynthesis. Concentrations of CO₂ in the surface ocean are
406 relatively low compared to other forms of inorganic carbon, especially bicarbonate ion
407 (HCO₃⁻) (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). However, RubisCO, the primary
408 carboxylating enzyme used in photosynthesis, is restricted to CO₂ for carbon fixation and
409 has a relatively low affinity for CO₂ compared to O₂ (Falkowski and Raven, 2007).
410 Therefore, diatoms (like many other phytoplankton species) operate a carbon
411 concentrating mechanism (CCM) to enhance their CO₂ concentration at the site of
412 fixation relative to external concentrations (e.g. by converting HCO₃⁻ to CO₂) and thereby
413 establish higher rates of carbon fixation than what would be possible when only
414 depending on diffusive CO₂ uptake (Giordano et al., 2005). It is well known that the

415 proportion of CO₂ uptake vs. HCO₃⁻ uptake for photosynthesis varies largely among
416 diatoms (Burkhardt et al., 2001; Rost et al., 2003; Trimborn et al., 2008) and is
417 theoretically also a function of cell size (Flynn et al., 2012; Wolf-Gladrow and Riebesell,
418 1997). Accordingly, increasing seawater pCO₂ may increase the proportion of diffusive
419 carbon uptake and/or lower the energy and resource requirements for CCM operation
420 (Raven et al., 2011). From a physiological point of view, these mechanisms could allow
421 for increased rates of photosynthesis and cell division.

422 So how do these theoretical considerations align with (A) the variable and species-
423 specific physiological responses of diatoms to increasing CO₂ (Dutkiewicz et al., 2015),
424 and (B) the results from community-level experiments compiled in this study? Regarding
425 the variability of physiological responses, progress has recently been made by Wu et al.
426 (2014) who experimentally demonstrated a positive relationship between cell volume and
427 the magnitude of the CO₂ fertilization effect on diatom growth rates. Their findings agree
428 well with theoretical considerations, which predict that high CO₂ is particularly beneficial
429 for carbon acquisition by larger species as they are more restricted by diffusion gradients
430 due to lower surface-to-volume ratios than smaller cells (Flynn et al., 2012; Wolf-
431 Gladrow and Riebesell, 1997). The outcome of our literature analysis supports this
432 allometric concept (Fig. 3, Table 2). Twelve out of 13 experiments in which cell size was
433 taken into account found a shift towards larger species. This is reflected in the Σ RDR
434 score of 265 which is ~25 times higher than the opposite result (i.e. CO₂-induced shifts
435 towards smaller diatoms, Fig. 3C). An allometric scaling of CO₂ sensitivity is particularly
436 useful for modelling since cell size is a universal trait which is relatively easy to measure
437 and therefore frequently available (Ward et al., 2012). Accordingly, it may lead to
438 significant improvements of ecological and/or biogeochemical model projections under
439 CO₂ forcing when more than one size class for diatoms is considered.

440 However, although the Wu et al. (2014) allometric approach constitutes a solid starting
441 point to help understanding the variable responses of different diatom species, it probably
442 also still needs some further refinements. For example, central components of CCMs
443 seem to be adapted to diatom cell sizes, thereby potentially alleviating a strict cell size
444 dependency of CO₂ limitation (Shen and Hopkinson, 2015). Furthermore, size
445 dependency alone cannot account for taxon-specific differences in the mode of carbon
446 acquisition (diffusive uptake of CO₂ vs. CCM-supported uptake of HCO₃⁻) and how this
447 will affect the competitive ability of species under increasing CO₂. OA will lead to much
448 larger changes in dissolved CO₂ than in HCO₃⁻. Thus, species that rely to a larger extent
449 on a resource-intensive CCM may benefit more from increasing pCO₂ on a cellular level,
450 as they could increase the proportion of diffusive CO₂ uptake. However, it is also possible
451 that the same species would be disadvantaged on the community-level, because their
452 niche, i.e. being competitive at lower CO₂ due to an efficient CCM, is diminished under
453 high CO₂ conditions (a scenario that is neglected in the physiological literature). Which
454 of the scenarios occurs in nature would also depend on how flexible species are in terms
455 of switching carbon acquisition modes, as well as resource allocation. In this regard, it is
456 noteworthy that only few physiological studies on OA effects have taken into account the
457 role of changing nutrient concentrations or even a transition to nutrient limitation. The
458 available experimental evidence suggests that increasing pCO₂ may reduce cellular
459 nutrient requirements for CCM operations and therefore free resources for elevated
460 maximum diatom population densities, particularly when running into nutrient limitation
461 (Taucher et al., 2015). Unfortunately, however, the relevance of this mechanism has so
462 far only been investigated in monoclonal laboratory experiments but not on the
463 community-level.

464 These considerations illustrate that cell size is an important factor, but is not sufficient to

465 predict physiological or even community-level of diatoms to OA. Moreover, the
466 allometric concept as well as the additional mechanisms described above generally
467 presume positive effects of CO₂-fertilization, thus yielding no first order explanations for
468 observed negative responses of diatoms to changing carbonate chemistry. Obviously,
469 increasing CO₂ concentrations are accompanied by increasing proton (H⁺) concentrations
470 under ocean acidification. High H⁺ concentrations may reduce key metabolic rates above
471 certain thresholds and outweigh the positive influence of CO₂ fertilization as has been
472 observed in coccolithophores (Bach et al., 2011, 2015; Kottmeier et al., 2016).

473 Another pathway by which ocean acidification may alter diatom communities is the pH
474 effect on silicification and silica dissolution. Low seawater pH should theoretically
475 facilitate silicification as the precipitation of opal occurs in a cellular compartment with
476 low pH conditions (pH ~5) (Martin-Jézéquel et al., 2000; Vrieling et al., 1999). At the
477 same time, a lower pH should reduce chemical dissolution rates of the SiO₂ frustule
478 (Loucaides et al., 2012). While experimental evidence on this topic is still scarce and
479 partly controversial (Hervé et al., 2012; Mejía et al., 2013; Milligan et al., 2004), it is not
480 unlikely that OA-induced changes in the formation and dissolution of biogenic silica may
481 alter the strength of the frustule and therefore the palatability of diatoms to zooplankton
482 grazers (Friedrichs et al., 2013; Hamm et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2016; Wilken et al., 2011).
483 As for the other physiological effects e.g. on carbon fixation, it is likely that OA impacts
484 on silicification will vary among different diatoms species e.g. according to their species-
485 specific intrinsic buffering capacity, thereby leading to further taxonomic shifts within
486 diatom communities.

487 The response of diatoms to increasing pCO₂ in natural environments will be further
488 modified by multiple other environmental drivers changing simultaneously. Climate
489 change is expected to elevate ocean temperature, as well as also irradiance and nutrient

490 availability via changes in stratification. Physiological experiments have shown that
491 elevated pCO₂ may have beneficial effects under low and moderate irradiance, but this
492 effect may reverse under high light conditions due to enhanced photoinhibition (Gao
493 2012). Analogously, warming may have positive or negative effects on photosynthesis
494 and metabolism in general, depending on the thermal optima of the respective species
495 (Boyd et al., 2018). Altogether, these multiple additional drivers will also affect diatom
496 communities, leading to shifts in their taxonomic composition and size structure, which
497 will interact with the impacts of OA.

498 **4.2 Indirect CO₂ effects on diatom assemblages through food web interactions**

499 Diatom community responses can not only originate from a direct CO₂ effect on their
500 physiology but also be caused indirectly through CO₂ responses on other components of
501 the food web (Bach et al., 2017; Gaylord et al., 2015). For example, if a grazer of a diatom
502 species is negatively affected by OA then this may benefit the prey and indirectly promote
503 its abundance. Direct OA impacts on zooplankton communities are usually assumed to
504 play a minor role, although there is some experimental evidence that lower pH may have
505 physiological effects at least on some sensitive species or developmental stages (Cripps
506 et al., 2016; Thor and Dupont, 2015; Thor and Oliva, 2015). Nevertheless, much of the
507 currently available empirical evidence indicates that zooplankton communities are
508 affected by OA rather via bottom-up effects, e.g. via changes in primary production or
509 taxonomic composition of the phytoplankton community (Alvarez-Fernandez et al.,
510 2018; Meunier et al., 2017; Sswat et al., n.d.). However, bottom-up effects on
511 zooplankton biomass, size structure, or species composition may in turn trigger feedbacks
512 on diatom communities, thereby leading to a feedback loop that may reinforce until a new
513 steady state is reached. Such considerations illustrate that also second or third order
514 effects need to be considered when assessing OA effects on the level of ecological

515 communities. Accounting for such indirect effects requires a holistic approach
516 considering all key players in of the food web (something that is beyond the scope of this
517 study). Therefore, interpretations about what the observed responses could mean for
518 entire plankton food webs or even biogeochemical element cycles (section 4.3) should
519 always be regarded with some healthy skepticism as they often neglect the potential for
520 indirect effects.

521 **4.3 Implications of changes in diatom community structure for pelagic food webs** 522 **and biogeochemical cycles**

523 The taxonomic composition and size structure of phytoplankton communities influences
524 the transfer of energy from primary production to higher trophic levels. In theory, larger
525 diatoms should support a more direct transfer because less trophic intermediates are
526 needed and therefore less respiration occurs until prey items are in an appropriate size
527 range for top predators (Azam et al., 1983; Pomeroy, 1974; Sommer et al., 2002). Such a
528 size shift at the bottom of a food web might eventually lead to higher production in higher
529 trophic levels such as fish. Indeed, recent experimental evidence indicated that fish
530 (including commercially important species) could under certain constellations benefit
531 from high CO₂ due to higher food availability, although it was not tested if this response
532 is somehow linked to the diatom size structure (Goldenberg et al., 2018; Sswat et al.,
533 2018).

534 Fluxes of elements through the oceans are (like fluxes of energy through food webs)
535 influenced by the composition of diatom communities (Tréguer et al., 2018). This is
536 particularly well recognized in the context of organic carbon export to the deep ocean, for
537 which diatoms are considered to play a pivotal role (Smetacek, 1985). Given that high
538 CO₂ favours large and perhaps more silicified diatoms over smaller ones (section 4.1),

539 we might expect accelerated sinking and thus a positive feedback on the vertical carbon
540 flux. This classical hypothesis is supported by observational evidence from two
541 consecutive years of the North Atlantic spring bloom where, despite similar primary
542 production, particulate organic carbon sequestration into the deep ocean was much higher
543 in the year when the larger diatom species dominated (Boyd and Newton, 1995).
544 However, whether the positive relationship between size and carbon export holds under
545 all circumstances is by no means clear (Tréguer et al., 2018). It is possible that shifts
546 towards larger sized species coincide with shifts in other traits that feed back negatively
547 on carbon export. For example, when the size shift is associated with decreasing C:Si
548 stoichiometry it may ultimately reduce carbon export (Assmy et al., 2013).

549 The abovementioned examples of trophic transfer and export fluxes illustrate the
550 importance of the factor “diatom community structure” in the context of marine food
551 production and biogeochemical fluxes. They also illustrate that our understanding of the
552 feedbacks induced through changes in diatom communities is highly incomplete. Hence,
553 with our limited understanding we can currently not go further than classifying CO₂-
554 induced changes in diatom communities as “a potential risk” that may cause changes in
555 key ecosystem services.

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564

565 **Data availability**

566 All data used in this study is compiled in Table 1.

567 **Competing interests**

568 The authors declare no competing interests.

569 **Author contribution**

570 LTB did the literature analysis, conceptualized the RDR, and drafted the manuscript
571 except for parts of the introduction and discussion. JT drafted parts of the introduction
572 and discussion. Both authors interpreted the findings and revised the manuscript.

573

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1059

1060 **Tables and Figures**

1061

1062 **Table 1.** Response of diatom communities to high CO₂. 69 experiments from 54
 1063 publications were considered. Location refers to the place where diatom communities
 1064 were collected. The RDR is dimensionless (see section 2.3). T is the average incubation
 1065 temperature in °C. DoE are days of experiment with the number of samplings given as
 1066 the second number. Pre-filt. gives the mesh size in case the collected plankton community
 1067 was pre-filtered before incubation. Setup refers to the incubation style: undiluted volumes
 1068 (batch), repeatedly diluted volumes (s.-cont.), flow-through setups (fl.-thr.; only benthos),
 1069 chemostats (chem.; only pelagic), CO₂ vent sites (seep; only benthos). Incubations
 1070 (Incub.) can either be performed on deck (e.g. shipboards), *in situ* (e.g. *in situ* mesocosms)
 1071 or under laboratory conditions. V refers to the incubation volume. Nutrient amendments

1072 (Nutr.) were made in some but not all studies. The element indicates which nutrients were
1073 added. Asterisks indicate the presence of residual nutrients at the beginning of the study.
1074 Manipulations (Manip.) were done with: CO₂ saturated seawater (SWsat), acid additions
1075 (Acid), combined additions of acid and base (Comb.), CO₂ gas additions (CO₂), Aeration
1076 at target pCO₂ (Aer.), Passing CO₂ gas through a diffusive silicone tubing (Diff.). Meth.
1077 indicates the applied methodology to investigate diatom communities: light microscopy
1078 (LM), pigment analyses (PA), flow cytometry (FC), genetic tools (PCR), biogenic silica
1079 (BSi). The pCO₂ range of the experiment with the number of treatments given in brackets.
1080 The response of the bulk diatom community to CO₂: no effect (~), positive (p), negative
1081 (n), not reported (N/A). The pCO₂ response indicates approximately in between which
1082 treatments a CO₂ response was observed. Please note that this is based on visual
1083 inspection of the datasets and therefore involves subjectivity. Please also note that the
1084 range equals the treatment values in case only two treatments were set up. CO₂ induced
1085 shifts between diatom species can be: shift to larger species (large), shift to smaller
1086 species (small), unspecified shift (shift), no species shift detected (~), not reported (N/A).
1087 Winners or losers of the diatom community comprise: *Chaetoceros* (Chae), large
1088 *Chaetoceros* (Chae I), medium *Chaetoceros* (Chae II), small *Chaetoceros* (Chae III),
1089 *Neosyndra* (Neos), *Rhabdonema* (Rhab), *Eucampia* (Euca), *Cerataulina* (Cera),
1090 *Thalassiosira* (Thals), *Proboscia* (Prob), *Pseudo-nitzschia* (Ps-n), *Thalassionema*
1091 (Thalns), *Cylindrotheca* (Cyli), *Guinardia* (Guin), *Synedropsis* (Syned), *Dactyliosolen*
1092 (Dact), *Toxarium* (Toxa), *Leptocylindrus* (Lept), *Grammatophora* (Gram), *Bacillaria*
1093 (Baci), *Navicula* (Navi).

Reference	lat	long	RDR	S	T (°C)	Habitat	DoE/ # of sampl.	Pre-filt. (µm)	Setup	Incub.	V (L)	Nutr.	Manip.	Meth.	pCO ₂ range (µatm)	CO ₂ effect	pCO ₂ response (µatm)	Intra-taxon effect	Winners	Losers
(Bach et al., 2017)	58.264	11.479	76.2	29	7	est.	113/57	1000	batch	in situ	50000	*none	SWsat	PA, LM	(2) 380, 760	p	380 - 760	large	Cosc	

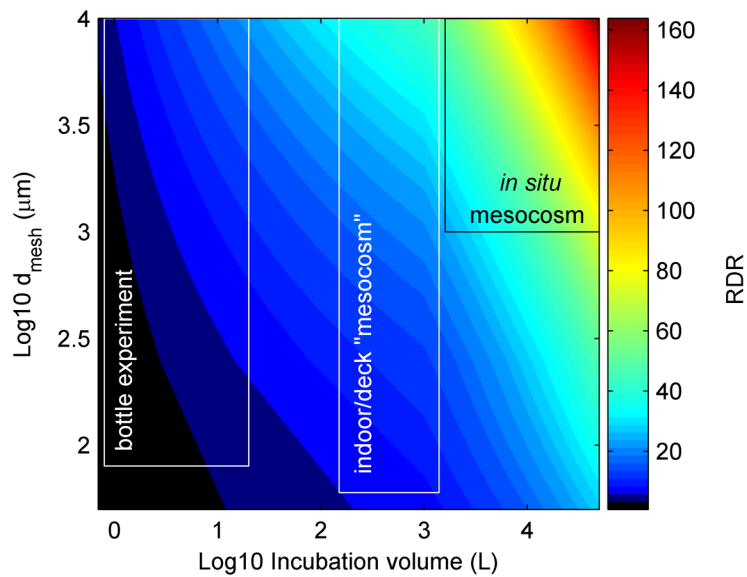
(Bach et al., 2019)	27.990	15.369	-	59.6	37	18.5	coastal	32/21	3000	batch	in situ	8000	N,P,Si	SWSat	LM, BSI	(7) 380 - 1120	p	380 - 1120	large	Chae, Guin, Lept	Nitz
(Biswas et al., 2011)	16.750	81.100	2.1	25	29.5	est.	5/2	200	batch	Deck		5.6	*none/N, P	Comb.	PA	(4) 230 - 1860	n	650 - 1400	N/A		
(Biswas et al., 2017)	17.000	83.000	1.5	?	?	coastal	2/1	200	batch	Deck		2	*N,P,Si,Fe,(Zn)	Comb.	LM	(2) 230, 2200	p	230 - 2200	shift	Skel	Thals
(Davidson et al., 2016)	-68.583	77.967	10.5	34	0.1	coastal	8/5	200	batch	Lab		650	*Fe	SWSat	LM	(6) 80 - 2420	n	1280 - 1850	small	Frag	Chae
(Domingues et al., 2017)	37.017	-8.500	7.4	?	23.5	est.	1/1	no	batch	Deck		4.5	N,P,Si,NH4	Comb.	LM, PA	(2) 420, 710	~		~		
(Donahue et al., 2019)	-45.800	171.130	2.6	34	11	oceanic	14/5	200	batch	Lab		10	*Fe	Diff.	LM, FC	(2) 350, 620	~		N/A		
(Donahue et al., 2019)	-45.830	171.540	2.6	34	11	oceanic	21/4	200	batch	Lab		10	*Fe	Diff.	LM, FC	(2) 350, 630	p	350 - 630	N/A		
(Eggers et al., 2014)	38.633	-27.067	1.9	36	15	coastal	9-10/3	200	batch	Deck		4	N,P,Si	Comb.	LM	(2) 380, 910	p	380 - 910	large	Chae III	Thals
(Eggers et al., 2014)	38.650	-27.250	1.9	36	15	coastal	9-10/4	200	batch	Deck		4	N,P,Si	Comb.	LM	(2) 380, 910	p	380 - 910	large	Thals, Chae II	Chae I
(Eggers et al., 2014)	38.617	-27.250	1.9	36	15	oceanic	9-10/5	200	batch	Deck		4	N,P,Si	Comb.	LM	(2) 380, 910	~		N/A		
(Endo et al., 2013)	46.000	160.000	2.8	33	14	oceanic	14/3	197	batch	Deck		12	*none	Aer.	PA	(4) 230 - 1120	~		N/A		
(Endo et al., 2015)	53.083	177.000	2.8	?	8.2	oceanic	5/3	197	batch	Deck		12	*none	Aer.	PA, PCR	(2) 360, 600	n	360 - 600	~		
(Endo et al., 2016)	41.500	144.000	2.8	?	5.4	oceanic	3/3	197	batch	Deck		12	*Fe	Aer.	PA, PCR	(4) 180 - 1000	n	350 - 1000	shift		
(Feng et al., 2009)	57.580	-15.320	1.7	35	12	oceanic	14/1-2	200	s.-cont.	Deck		2.7	N,P	Aer.	LM, PA	(2) 390, 690	p	390 - 690	large	Ps-n	Cyli
(Feng et al., 2010)	-74.230	179.230	1.7	34	0	oceanic	18/1-14	200	s.-cont.	Deck		2.7	none	Aer.	LM, PA	(2) 380, 750	~		large	Chae	Cyli
(Gazeau et al., 2017)	43.697	7.312	125.8	38	14	coastal	18/14	5000	batch	in situ		45000	none	SWSat	PA	(6) 350 - 1250	p	600 - 1000	N/A		
(Gazeau et al., 2017)	42.580	8.726	125.8	38	23	coastal	27/18	5000	batch	in situ		45000	none	SWSat	PA	(6) 420 - 1250	~		N/A		
(Grear et al., 2017)	41.575	71.405	9.3	?	9	est.	6/7	no	chem.	Deck		9.1	?none	Comb.	LM	(3) 220 - 720	~		~		
(Hama et al., 2016)	34.665	138.940	7.1	?	?	coastal	29/11	100	batch	Deck		400	N,P,Si	Aer.	PA	(3) 400 - 1200	~		N/A		
(Hare et al., 2007)	56.515	164.730	6.0	?	10.4	coastal	9-10/5	no	s.-cont.	Deck		2.5	Fe,N,P, Si	Aer.	LM, PA	(2) 370, 750	n	370 - 750	shift		Cyli
(Hare et al., 2007)	55.022	179.030	6.0	?	10.4	oceanic	9-10/3	no	s.-cont.	Deck		2.5	Fe	Aer.	LM, PA	(2) 370, 750	n	370 - 750	N/A		
(Hopkins et al., 2010)	60.300	5.200	99.1	?	10	coastal	21/9	no	batch	in situ		11000	N, P	Aer.	LM	(2) 300, 600	n	300 - 600	N/A		
(Hoppe et al., 2013)	-66.833	0.000	1.9	34	3	oceanic	27-30/1	200	s.-cont.	Lab		4	*none	Aer.	LM	(3) 200 - 810	N/A	400 - 810	shift	Syned	Ps-n
(Hoppe et al., 2017b)	71.406	68.601	1.9	33	9.5	oceanic	8/3	100	s.-cont.	Deck		8	N,P,Si	Aer.	PA, LM	(2) 320, 990	~		~		
(Hoppe et al., 2017a)	63.964	60.125	1.9	32	7.9	oceanic	13-14/3	100	s.-cont.	Deck		8	N,P,Si	Aer.	LM	(2) 300, 960	n	300 - 960	shift	Frag	Ps-n
(Husserr et al., 2017)	71.406	70.188	2.6	33	4.3	oceanic	9/3-9	200	batch	Deck		10	*none	Comb.	LM, PA	(6) 510 - 3300	n	1040 - 1620	~		
(James et al., 2014)	-45.639	170.671	?	?	11.6	benthic	42/2		fl.-thr.	Lab		0	none	Comb.	pic	(2) 400, 1250	~		N/A		

(Johnson et al., 2011)	38.417	14.950		38	23.5	benthic	21/1		seep	in situ	0	none	NA	PA, LM	(3) 420 - 1600	p	420 - 590	large	Toxa, Gram, Baci, Navi, Cocc	Cycl, Neos, Rhab, Nitz
(Kim et al., 2006)	34.600	128.500	4.3	?	14	coastal	14/?	60	batch	in situ	150	N,P	Aer.	LM	(3) 250 - 750	N/A	400 - 750	shift	Skel	Nitz
(Kim et al., 2010)	34.600	128.500	52.1	?	12	coastal	20/22	no	batch	in situ	1600	N,P,Si	SWSat/Aer.	LM	(2) 400, 900	~		shift	Skel	Euca
(Mallozzi et al., 2019)	29.241	90.935	2.4	12	21	est.	112/9	80	s.-cont.	Lab	20	*none	Aer.	PA, LM	(2) 400, 1000	~		shift	Cyli	
(Mallozzi et al., 2019)	29.272	89.963	2.4	17	21	est.	112/9	80	s.-cont.	Lab	20	*none	Aer.	PA, LM	(2) 400, 1000	~		shift	Cyli	
(Maugendre et al., 2015)	43.667	-7.300	1.9	?	15	oceanic	12/4	200	batch	Deck	4	none	SWSat	PA	(2) 360, 630	~		N/A		
(Nielsen et al., 2010)	56.057	12.648	1.6	19	10.7	est.	14/4	175	s.-cont.	Lab	2.5	*none	Acid	LM, PA	(3) 500 - 1500	~		~		
(Nielsen et al., 2012)	-42.887	147.339	1.8	31	16	coastal	14/4	250	s.-cont.	Lab	2.5	*none	Acid	LM, PA	(3) 300 - 1200	~		~		
(Park et al., 2014)	34.600	128.500	59.6	?	17	coastal	19/17	no	batch	in situ	2400	N,P,Si	SWSat/Aer.	LM, PA	(6) 160 - 830	p	160 - 830	N/A	Cera	
(Paul et al., 2015)	59.858	23.258	112.7	6	11	est.	46/22	3000	batch	in situ	54000	none	SWSat	PA	(6) 370 - 1230	p	820 - 1000	N/A		
(Reul et al., 2014)	36.540	-4.600	3.3	?	21	coastal	7/6	200	batch	Deck	20	control/N,P	Aer.	LM, PA	(2) 500, 1000	p	500 - 1000	large		
(Roleda et al., 2015)	-45.639	170.671		34	10.8	benthic	112/?		fl.-thr.	Lab	0.65	none	Comb.	PA	(2) 430, 1170	~		N/A		
(Rossoll et al., 2013)	54.329	10.149	29.8	18	18	est.	28/7	no	batch	Lab	300	N,P,Si	Aer.	LM	(5) 390 - 4000	~		N/A		
(Sala et al., 2015)	41.667	2.800	26.1	38	14	coastal	9/2	no	batch	Lab	200	none	CO2	LM	(2) 400, 800	~		N/A		
(Sala et al., 2015)	41.667	2.800	26.1	38	22	coastal	9/2	no	batch	Lab	200	none	CO2	LM	(2) 400, 800	~		N/A		
(Schulz et al., 2008)	60.267	5.217	133.7	31	10.5	coastal	25/18-23	no	batch	in situ	27000	N,P	Aer.	PA	(3) 350 - 1050	~		N/A		
(Schulz et al., 2013)	78.937	11.893	106.1	34	3	coastal	30/26-30	3000	batch	in situ	45000	N,P,Si	SWSat	LM, PA	(8) 185 - 1420	~		N/A		
(Schulz et al., 2017)	60.265	5.205	125.8	32	9	coastal	38/35	3000	batch	in situ	75000	*N, P	SWSat	LM, PA	(8) 310 - 3050	n	1165 - 1425	N/A		
(Segovia et al., 2017)	60.390	5.320	99.1	?	11	coastal	22/9	no	batch	in situ	11000	control	SWSat/Aer.	FC	(2) 300, 800	~		N/A		
(Sett et al., 2018)	54.329	10.149	13.5	20	5	est.	44/26	200	batch	Lab	1400	*none	SWSat	LM, FC	(2) 540, 1020	~		~		
(Shaik et al., 2017)	15.453	43.801	5.6	35	29	coastal	2/1	no	batch	Deck	2	N,P,Si,Fe	CO2	LM	(2) 330, 1000	p	330 - 1000	~		
(Shaik et al., 2017)	15.453	43.801	5.6	36	29	coastal	9/1	no	s.-cont.	Deck	2	N,P,Si,Fe	CO2	LM	(2) 400, 1000	p	400 - 1000	~		
(Shaik et al., 2017)	15.453	43.801	5.6	35	29	coastal	2/1	no	batch	Deck	2	N,P,Si,Fe	CO2	LM	(2) 240, 780	p	240 - 780	~		
(Sommer et al., 2015)	54.329	10.149	49.8	20	9,15	est.	24/11	no	batch	Lab	1400	*none	SWSat	LM	(2) 440, 1040	~		shift		Prob, Thal, Guin, Ps-n, Chae
(Tatters et al., 2013)	-45.752	170.810	0.8	35	14	coastal	14/2	80	s.-cont.	Lab	0.8	N,P,Si,Fe	Aer.	LM	(3) 230 - 570	N/A	400 - 570	shift	Cosc, Ps-n	Navi, Chae
(Tatters et al., 2018)	33.750	118.215	12.1	?	19	coastal	10/1	no	chem.	Deck	20	N/urea,P, Si	Aer.	LM	380, 800	N/A		shift		

(Taucher et al., 2018)	27.928	15.365	-	97.6	37	24-22	coastal	60/35	3000	batch	in situ	35000	N,P,Si	SWSat	LM, PA	(8) 350 - 1030	p	890 - 1030	large	Guin	Lept
(Thoisen et al., 2015)	69.217	53.367	1.4	33	3	coastal	8-17/6-9	250	s.-cont.	Lab	1.2	*none	SWSat	LM	(4) 440 - 3500	n	440 - 900	shift	Navi I	Navi II	
(Tortell et al., 2002)	-6.600	81.017	7.1	?	?	oceanic	11/4	no	s.-cont.	Deck	4	*none	Aer.	PA, LM	(2) 150, 750	p	150 - 440	~			
(Tortell et al., 2008)	NA	NA	7.1	?	0	N/A	10-18/?	no	s.-cont.	Lab	4	*Fe	Aer.	LM, PA	(3) 100 - 800	p	100 - 400	large	Chae	Ps-n	
(Tortell et al., 2008)	NA	NA	7.1	?	0	N/A	10-18/?	no	s.-cont.	Deck	4	*Fe	Aer.	LM, PA	(3) 100 - 800	p	100 - 400	large	Chae	Ps-n	
(Tortell et al., 2008)	NA	NA	7.1	?	0	N/A	10-18/?	no	s.-cont.	Deck	4	*Fe	Aer.	LM, PA	(3) 100 - 800	p	100 - 400	large	Chae	Ps-n	
(Trimborn et al., 2017)	-53.013	10.025	1.9	34	3	oceanic	30/4	200	s.-cont.	Lab	4	none	Aer.	LM	(4) 420, 910	n	420 - 910	shift		Ps-n	
(Witt et al., 2011)	-23.450	151.917		?	24-25	benthic	11/4		fl.-thr.	Deck	10	none	SWSat	LM	(4) 310 - 1140	p	560 - 1140	N/A			
(Wolf et al., 2018)	78.917	11.933	1.9	?	3	coastal	10 - 13/1	200	s.-cont.	Lab	4	none	Aer.	LM	(2) 400, 1000	N/A	400 - 1000	~			
(Yoshimura et al., 2010)	49.500	148.250	2.7	33	13.5	oceanic	14/5	243	batch	Deck	9		Aer.	PA	(4) 150 - 590	n	150 - 280	N/A			
(Yoshimura et al., 2013)	53.390	177.010	2.8	?	8.4	oceanic	14/3	197	batch	Deck	12	*none	Aer.	PA, LM	4 (300 - 1190)	p	960 - 1190	N/A			
(Yoshimura et al., 2013)	49.020	174.020	2.8	?	9.2	oceanic	14/3	197	batch	Deck	12	*none	Aer.	PA, LM	(4) 230 - 1110	p	880 - 1110	N/A			
(Young et al., 2015)	-44.779	64.073	7.1	?	-1	coastal	21/21	no	s.-cont.	Deck	4	*none	Aer.	PA	(3) 100 - 800	~		N/A			
(Young et al., 2015)	-44.780	64.073	7.1	?	-0.5	coastal	16/16	no	s.-cont.	Deck	4	*none	Aer.	PA, LM	(3) 100 - 800	~		N/A			
(Young et al., 2015)	-44.780	64.073	7.1	?	1.5	coastal	20/20	no	s.-cont.	Deck	4	*none	Aer.	PA	(3) 100 - 800	~		N/A			

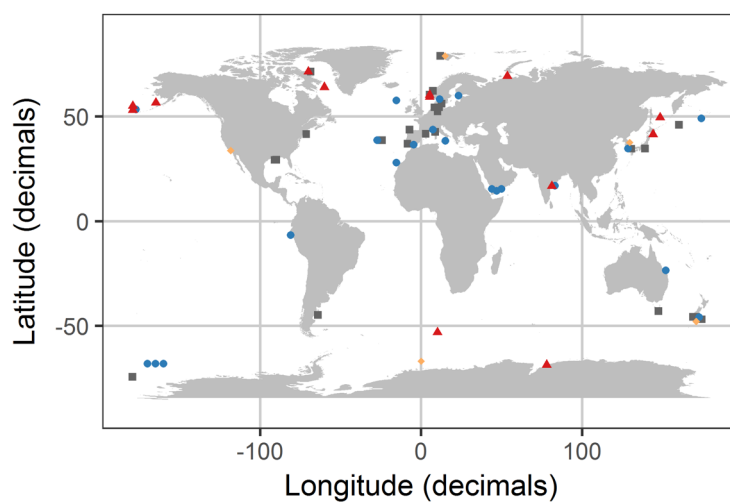
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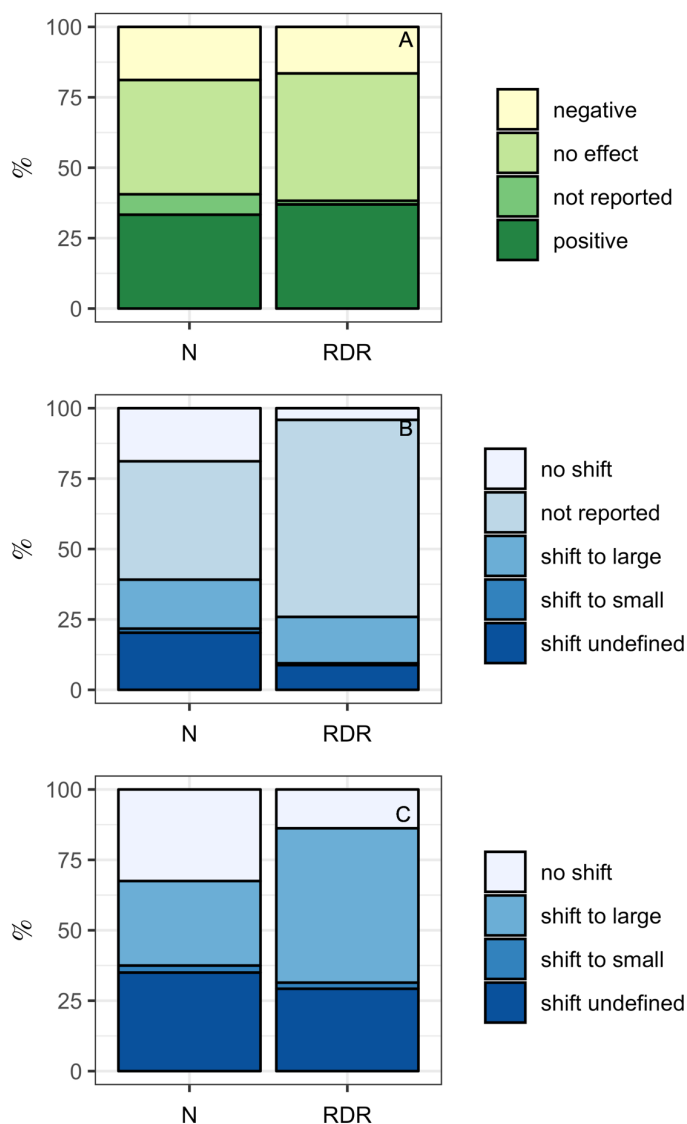
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1097 **Figure 1.** RDR as a function of incubation volume and size of the mesh that was used
1098 while filling the incubation volumes (d_{mesh}). The black and white boxes illustrate
1099 approximate ranges of the three main types of containers used in experiments. Please note
1100 that the general definition for mesocosms are volumes ≥ 1000 L (Guangao, 1990) but since
1101 most authors also use this term for open batch incubations with volumes between 150 –
1102 1000 L we also stick to this term for the intermediate class.



1103

1104 **Figure 2.** Distribution of experiments with associated OA response of the bulk diatom
1105 communities as listed in Table 1. Blue circles = positive effect; red triangles = negative
1106 response; grey squares = no response; orange diamonds = response not reported.
1107 Locations were slightly modified in case of geospatial overlap to ensure visibility. Please
1108 note that the three blue points in the Ross Sea at about -68, -165 are approximate locations
1109 because the reference did not provide coordinates.

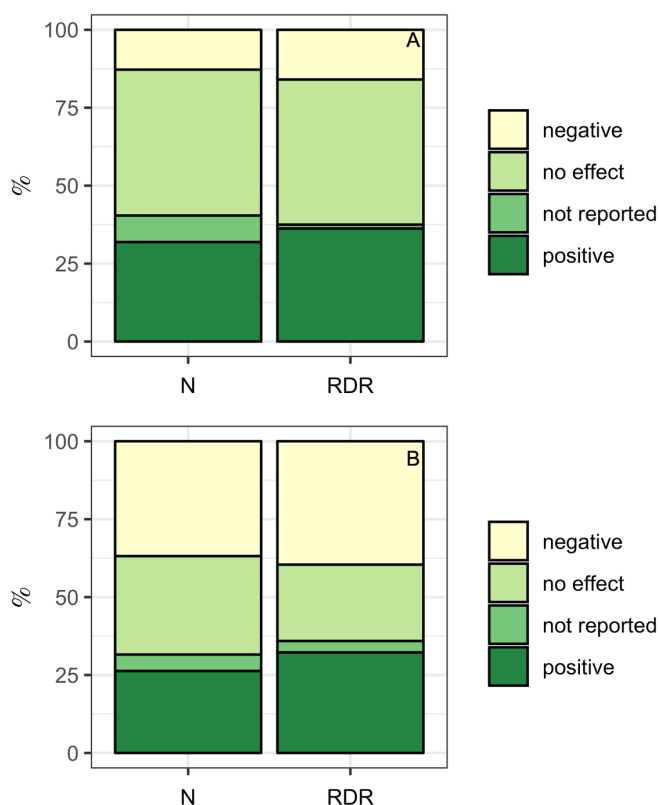


1110

1111 **Figure 3.** Summary of the literature analysis. (A) Response of the bulk diatom
 1112 community to ocean acidification. (B) Shifts among different diatom species due to ocean
 1113 acidification. ‘Shift to large’ and ‘shift to small’ indicate that the diatom community
 1114 shifted towards the dominance of larger or smaller species, respectively. (C) Same data
 1115 as in B but excluding studies where species shifts within the diatom community were not
 1116 reported. This reduced the dataset from 69 to 40 studies. The left column is based on the
 1117 number of studies. For example, the bulk diatom community was positively affected by
 1118 OA in 23 out of 69 studies which is 33 %. The right column is based on the RDR values.
 1119 For example, the $\sum RDR$ value of all studies where the diatom community was positively

1120 affected by OA was 595 which is 37 % of the total Σ RDR. Please keep in mind that the
 1121 RDR-based approach excludes benthic studies whereas the N-based approach includes
 1122 them.

1123



1124

1125 **Figure 4.** Comparison of the diatom bulk response to OA in different environments. (A)
 1126 coastal + estuarine + benthic environments with 47 experiments. (B) Oceanic
 1127 environments with 19 experiments. The left column is based on the number of studies.
 1128 For example, the bulk diatom community was positively affected by OA in 5 out of 19
 1129 studies in oceanic environments which is 26 %. The right column is based on the RDR
 1130 values. For example, the Σ RDR value of all studies where the oceanic diatom community
 1131 was positively affected by OA was 17 which is 32 % of the total Σ RDR. Please keep in
 1132 mind that the RDR-based approach excludes benthic studies whereas the N-based

1133 approach includes them.

1134