

1 **A red tide alga grown under ocean acidification up-regulates its**
2 **tolerance to lower pH by increasing its photophysiological functions**

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4 **Running Title:** *Phaeocystis globosa* and ocean acidification

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15 **Key words:** CO₂, acidification, light, PAR, *Phaeocystis globosa*

26 **Abstract:**

27 *Phaeocystis globosa*, a red tide alga, often forms blooms in or adjacent to coastal waters and
28 experiences changes of pH and seawater carbonate chemistry caused by either diel/periodic
29 fluctuation in biological activity, human activity or, in the longer term, ocean acidification due
30 to atmospheric CO₂ rise. We examined the photosynthetic physiology of this species while
31 growing it under different pH levels induced by CO₂ enrichment and investigated its
32 acclimation to carbonate chemistry changes under different light levels. Short-term exposure
33 to reduced pH_{nbs} (7.70) decreased the alga's photosynthesis and light use efficiency. However,
34 acclimation to the reduced pH level for 1-19 generations led to recovered photosynthetic
35 activity, being equivalent to that of cells grown under pH 8.07 (control), though such
36 acclimation required a different time span (number of generations) under different light
37 regimes. The low-pH grown cells increased their contents of chlorophyll and carotenoids with
38 prolonged acclimation to the acidification, with increased photosynthetic quantum yield and
39 decreased non-photochemical quenching. The specific growth rate of the low-pH grown cells
40 also increased to emulate that grown under the ambient pH level. This study clearly shows
41 that *Phaeocystis globosa* is able to acclimate to seawater acidification by increasing its energy
42 capture and decreasing its non-photochemical energy loss.

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51 **1 Introduction**

52 Ocean acidification (OA) is another global environmental problem caused by increasing
53 atmospheric CO₂, which is projected to increase up to 1000 ppmv by 2100, based on the IPCC
54 A1F1 scenario (business as usual scenario) (IPCC, 2007). Increasing pCO₂ in seawater causes
55 a decrease in pH (ocean acidification, OA) and brings about chemical changes in the seawater
56 carbonate chemistry, decreasing carbonate ion concentration and increasing bicarbonate ions.
57 On the other hand, in coastal waters, interactions of OA with eutrophication and
58 deoxygenation are suggested to induce faster pH declines compared to pelagic waters (Cai et
59 al., 2011), though day-night pH fluctuations are large due to high productivity and respiration
60 (Cornwall et al., 2013).

61 Effects of the CO₂ enrichment on phytoplankton have been widely studied (see the reviews,
62 and literature therein, by Beardall et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 2013; Brussaard et al., 2013; Gao
63 and Campbell, 2014). Algal responses to elevated CO₂ concentrations have indicated a
64 stimulation of growth or photosynthesis (Gao et al., 1991; Hein and Sand-Jensen, 1997; Zou
65 et al., 2011; Trimbon et al., 2013), reduced calcification (Riebesell et al., 2000; Gao and
66 Zheng, 2010) or growth rates (Gao et al., 2012b; Trimbon et al., 2013) or stimulation of
67 respiration (Wu et al., 2010; Yang and Gao, 2012). Other reports have indicated neutral
68 responses with insignificant influences on growth (Arnold et al., 2013), calcification (Langer
69 et al., 2006, 2009) or photosynthesis (Wu et al., 2008; Trimbon et al., 2013). While elevated
70 CO₂ in air, and hence in water, might stimulate algal photosynthesis, the CO₂-induced
71 pH-drop and change in carbonate chemistry of seawater could bring about different
72 physiological impacts on phytoplankton (Raven, 2011; Gao and Campbell, 2014). It is known
73 for instance that OA stimulates non-photochemical quenching when diatoms or surface
74 phytoplankton assemblages are grown under bright sunlight (Gao et al., 2012b). Nevertheless,
75 the balance between CO₂ enrichment and negative impacts of lower pH could act to minimize

76 the observable effects of OA, so that, overall, neutral responses would be recorded. Recently, it
77 has been shown that the effects of OA on diatoms could be stimulatory, neutral or inhibitory
78 for growth depending on the levels of solar radiation or depth in the water column (Gao et al.,
79 2012b).

80 *Phaeocystis globosa*, a heteromorphic marine phytoplankter, forms gelatinous colonies
81 during blooms (Schoemann et al., 2005; Peperzak and Poelman, 2008) but predominantly
82 lives as flagellated solitary cells (Rousseau et al., 2007; Peperzak and Gäbler-Schwarz, 2012).
83 This organism is known to operate highly efficient CO₂ concentrating mechanisms (Rost et al.,
84 2003; Chen and Gao, 2011), tolerate high solar UV irradiances (Chen and Gao, 2011),
85 acclimate flexibly to the changes in PAR light intensity (Schoemann et al., 2005) and show
86 strain-specific responses to elevated CO₂ (Wang et al., 2010; Hoogstraten et al., 2012). In the
87 present study, we exposed cells of *Phaeocystis globosa* to a range of light and pH levels, and
88 found that this species can readily acclimate to changes in seawater carbonate chemistry
89 caused by OA, with different rates of acclimation under different light levels.

90

91 **2 Materials and methods**

92 **2.1 Organism and culture conditions**

93 *Phaeocystis globosa* Scherffel (ST-97) was isolated from a bloom in the Southern China Sea
94 in 1997 (Chen et al., 2002) and has been maintained thereafter at Xiamen University as an
95 axenic unialgal culture growing in modified f/2 medium (Si not enriched). We chose the
96 flagellated form for this study since this accounts for most of the time during the life cycle of
97 *P. globosa* and is responsible for the occurrence of Harmful Algal Blooms (HAB) (Rousseau
98 et al., 2007; Peperzak and Gäbler-Schwarz, 2012). The flagellated cells (3-8 µm) were grown
99 for 3 days (about 9 generations) in modified turbidostat cultures (Chen and Gao, 2011) under
100 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) levels of 25, 200, or 800 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ at 20

101 °C before the cells were used in the following experiments.

102 **2.2 Seawater acidity and its adjustment**

103 We set two ocean acidity treatments of pH_{nbs} 8.07 and 7.70, which represent the mean pH in
104 seawater at the present time and that expected by 2100, respectively, and which are consistent
105 with the recommendations by Barry et al. (2010) for ocean acidification research.

106 Since photosynthetic carbon fixation often exceeds dissolution (hydration) of CO₂ from
107 aeration in algal cultures, making the pH rise even under elevated CO₂ levels (Gao et al.
108 1991), the best way to maintain constant pH level is to use continuous cultures while
109 maintaining low cell concentrations (LaRoche et al., 2010). We therefore operated turbidostat
110 cultures in a CO₂ chamber (Convion EF7, Controlled Environments Limited, Canada), in
111 which designated CO₂ concentrations were automatically achieved by mixing pure CO₂ and
112 ambient air (390 ppmv CO₂), and the cell concentration was maintained within a range of
113 $0.9\text{--}1.1 \times 10^5$ cells mL⁻¹ (Concentrations of Chl a were 0.23–0.64 pg cell⁻¹). The medium flow
114 rates (efflux from and influx to the culture) were adjusted in order to maintain stable levels of
115 cell concentration and carbonate chemistry. The turbidostat culture system consisted of a
116 culture vessel (a quartz tube of 1200 mL, 7.0 cm in diameter and 40 cm in length) and a
117 medical transfusion unit for transferring the medium and adjusting the flow rate (Chen and
118 Gao, 2011). The culture vessels were aerated with filtered (SLLG013SL, Millipore, USA,
119 0.2-µm-pore size) air of 1000 ppmv CO₂ or of ambient CO₂ level to adjust the pH in the
120 cultures to 7.70 or 8.07. The aeration rate was adjusted within a range of 700–900 mL·min⁻¹
121 in order to maintain the stability of the seawater carbonate chemistry (change of carbonate
122 system parameters < 3%, Table 1). The pH in the cultures was measured with a pH meter
123 (Sevенеasy, Mettler-Toledo, Switzerland), which was frequently calibrated with standard
124 N.B.S. buffer solution (Merck, Germany). The quartz culture tubes were maintained in a
125 water bath for temperature control at 20 ± 1 °C using a refrigerating circulator (CAP-3000,

126 Tokyo Rikakikai, Japan).

127 **2.3 Determinations of growth rate and photosynthetic pigments**

128 Since the cultures were operated continuously, the specific growth rate (μ) was calculated as:

129 $\mu = F/V$, where F represents the flow rate and V is the volume of the culture.

130 Photosynthetic pigments were determined by filtering 100 mL culture through a Whatman
131 GF/F filter, extracting in 5 mL absolute methanol overnight and centrifuging for 10 min (2000
132 g) at 4 °C, and measuring the absorbance of the supernatant with a spectrophotometer (DU₅₃₀
133 DNA/Protein Analyzer, Beckmen Coulter, USA) as previously reported (Gao et al., 2007).
134 Chl *a*, Chl *c* and carotenoids were calculated according to Jeffrey and Welschmeyer (1997)
135 and Ritchie (2006).

136 **2.4 Assessment of photochemical activity**

137 Chlorophyll fluorescence parameters indicative of photochemical activity were determined
138 with a pulse amplitude modulated fluorometer (WATER-ED-PAM, Walz, Germany). The
139 effective quantum yield ($\Phi_{\text{PSII}} = \Delta F / F_m'$) was determined on the basis of the instant maximal
140 fluorescence (F_m') and the steady-state fluorescence (F_t) of the light-adapted cells according to
141 Genty et al. (1989): $\Phi_{\text{PSII}} = \Delta F / F_m' = (F_m' - F_t) / F_m'$. Nonphotochemical quenching (NPQ) was
142 determined on the basis of the maximal fluorescence (F_m) of the dark-adapted cells at 06:00 h
143 (before the growth light was switched on) and the instant maximal fluorescence (F_m') of the
144 light-adapted cells during daytime as follows: $\text{NPQ} = (F_m - F_m') / F_m$ (Bilger and Björkman,
145 1990). In the course of measuring F_m , F_m' and F_t , the saturating pulse (0.8 s) and actinic light
146 were set at 4000 and 150 $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, respectively. Rapid light curves (RLCs) were
147 obtained by exposing samples to 10 s of blue light at eight incremental steps of PAR ranging
148 from 0 to 2000 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. Relative electron transport rate (rETR) was determined
149 according to the following formula: $\text{rETR} = \Phi_{\text{PSII}} \times I \times F \times 0.5$, where Φ_{PSII} is the photochemical
150 yield in the light, I is the actinic irradiance in $\mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, F is the species-specific

151 fraction of incident quanta absorbed by the cells, and 0.5 is a factor allowing for the fraction
 152 of the absorbed light utilized by PSII. Parameters, such as α (photosynthetic light harvesting
 153 efficiency; the initial slope of the curve), I_k (irradiance of maximum photosynthesis) and
 154 $rETR_{max}$ (maximum rETR), were obtained by fitting a curve to the RLC data in Sigmaplot
 155 2001 (version 7.0, SPSS) according to Platt et al. (1980) and Ralph (2005) using the equation
 156 $P = P_m [1 - e^{-(\alpha \times I / P_m)}]$, where P_m is the light-saturated photosynthetic electron transport rate, α
 157 the initial slope of the RLC before the onset of saturation, I the photosynthetically active
 158 radiation (400–700 nm). The three major constituents of non-photochemical quenching (qN)
 159 (Energy-dependent quenching, qE; state transition quenching, qT and photoinhibitory
 160 quenching, qI) were determined by dark relaxation measurements after the actinic light had
 161 been turned off (Lichtenthaler et al., 2005). For this purpose, a saturating pulse was applied at
 162 1, 5 and 18 min after turning off the actinic light (with the measuring light remaining
 163 switched on throughout the dark relaxation measurement of qN), and $F_m'1$, $F_m'5$, and $F_m'18$
 164 were obtained. The corresponding F_v ($F_v = F_m - F_0$) values of the samples were determined
 165 before measuring $F_m'1$, $F_m'5$, and $F_m'18$. qE, qT and qI were calculated respectively as
 166 follows:

$$167 \quad qE = (F_m'5 - F_m'1) / F_v \quad (1)$$

$$168 \quad qT = (F_m'18 - F_m'5) / F_v \quad (2)$$

$$169 \quad qI = (F_m - F_m'18) / F_v \quad (3)$$

170 In the above formulae, $F_m'1$, $F_m'5$, and $F_m'18$ represent the maximal Chl fluorescence at 1, 5
 171 and 18 min of the dark relaxation period after turning off the actinic light.

172 **2.5 Determination of photosynthesis and respiration**

173 Photosynthetic oxygen evolution and dark respiration were measured with a Clark-type O₂
 174 electrode (YSI 5300; Yellow Springs Instrument Co., Inc., USA). The cells grown under the
 175 low or high CO₂ levels for 1-9 generations were incubated and their

176 photosynthesis/respiration was measured in the seawater equilibrated with different levels of
177 CO₂ under PAR of 400 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ or in complete darkness, respectively.

178 **2.6 Measurements of dissolved inorganic carbon and total alkalinity**

179 Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) was determined using a total carbon analyzer
180 (TOC-5000, Shimadzu, Japan), which automatically measured DIC and TC in the culture
181 supernatant (after centrifugation). Other parameters for the seawater carbonate system were
182 estimated according to the measured values of DIC and pH using the software CO₂SYS
183 (Lewis and Wallace, 1998).

184 **2.7 Data analysis**

185 Paired t-test or One-way ANOVA (Rosner, 2011) was used to establish the significance of
186 differences among the treatments at $p < 0.05$.

187

188 **3 Results**

189 **3.1 DIC, pH, CO_{2aq} and TA**

190 When the pH was adjusted from 8.07 to 7.70 by adding CO₂-saturated seawater or aerating
191 with CO₂-enriched air, DIC, CO_{2aq}, and HCO₃⁻ increased by 11.9%, 164.5% and 12.3%,
192 respectively, and CO₃²⁻ decreased by 51.4% ($p < 0.05$), while TA showed no significant
193 difference between low- and high-CO₂ cultures ($p > 0.05$). All parameters showed no
194 significant changes under the different irradiance levels (LL, low light; ML, middle light; HL,
195 high light) ($p > 0.1$) (Table 1).

196 **3.2 Growth**

197 The effects of acidification on *P. globosa* growth rates were different under 25 (low light: LL),
198 200 (middle light: ML), and 800 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ (high light: HL).

199 In the pH8.07 (high pH, HpH) culture, with bubbling using ambient air, the specific growth
200 rates (μ) of the alga under LL, ML and HL were 0.732–0.751, 1.096–1.131 and 1.244–1.269

201 d^{-1} , respectively. Correspondingly, growth rates were 0.732–0.781, 1.054–1.148 and
202 1.013–1.225 d^{-1} in the pH7.70 (low pH, LpH) culture, with bubbling CO₂-enriched air. Under
203 the corresponding light regimes (LL, ML, HL), at day 1 (generation 1), rates were lower by
204 1.4% ($p > 0.05$), 5.3% ($p < 0.05$) and 19.1% ($p < 0.05$), respectively, in the LpH cultures,
205 whereas at day 7 (generation 19) they were higher by 9.1% ($p < 0.05$), 4.6% ($p < 0.05$) and
206 -2.4% ($p > 0.05$), respectively, compared to the HpH cultures (Fig. 1).

207 **3.3 Photosynthetic pigments**

208 Under different irradiances, acidification affected chlorophyll (Chl) and carotenoids (Carot) to
209 different extents. In the HpH culture, bubbled with ambient air, the Chl contents of the cells
210 grown under LL, ML and HL treatments were 0.715–0.759, 0.337–0.344 and 0.223–0.236 pg
211 cell⁻¹, respectively; and the Carot levels, 0.290–0.299, 0.318–0.323 and 0.359–0.372 pg cell⁻¹.
212 However, in the LpH culture aerated with the CO₂-enriched air, the Chl values were higher by
213 7.7% ($p < 0.05$), 9.7% ($p < 0.05$) and 12.9% ($p < 0.05$), in the LL, ML and HL treatments,
214 respectively, when the cells had acclimated to the acidification by day 7, compared to values
215 at day 1; The corresponding Carot values increased by 19.8% ($p < 0.05$), 12.1% ($p < 0.05$)
216 and 8.8% ($p < 0.05$) (Fig. 2).

217 **3.4 Photosynthetic characteristics**

218 During the continuous cultures under LL, ML and HL, the effective photochemical
219 efficiencies ($\Phi_{PSII} = \Delta F/F_m'$) of the algal cells in the HpH culture ranged from 0.685–0.689,
220 0.569–0.573 and 0.415–0.421, respectively, while the non-photochemical quenching (NPQ)
221 values were 0.367–0.379, 0.569–0.596 and 1.233–1.248 (Fig. 3). On day 1, Φ_{PSII} values were
222 lower by 6.8% ($p < 0.05$), 14.8% ($p < 0.05$) and 39.9% ($p < 0.01$), while NPQ values were
223 higher by 8.4% ($p < 0.05$), 11.5% ($p < 0.05$) and 17.8% ($p < 0.05$), respectively, under the 3
224 light levels in the LpH cultures, compared to those grown in the HpH cultures. At day 7,
225 acclimation to the acidification led to increased Φ_{PSII} values by 11.9% ($p < 0.05$) and 11.3%

226 ($p < 0.05$) under the LL and ML levels, but to a decreased value by -2.3% ($p > 0.05$) under the
227 HL, respectively, in the LpH cultures, compared to that of HpH, while NPQ was also
228 correspondingly higher by 6.8% ($p > 0.05$), 4.6% ($p > 0.05$) and 2.6% ($p > 0.05$) (Fig. 3).

229 The effects of the seawater acidification on the three major non-photochemical quenching
230 parameters of the alga were similar (Table 2). At day 1 (generation 1) under LL, ML and HL,
231 the acidification increased the energy-dependent quenching (qE) by 28.6% ($p < 0.05$) under
232 LL, 33.3% ($p < 0.05$) under ML and 40.0% ($p < 0.01$) under HL, respectively; the state
233 transition quenching (qT) increased by 36.4% ($p < 0.05$), 26.1% ($p < 0.05$) and 20.0% ($p <$
234 0.05), and the photoinhibitory quenching (qI) increased by 75.0% ($p < 0.05$), 93.8% ($p < 0.01$)
235 and 121.8% ($p < 0.05$), respectively. By day 7 (about generation 19), when the alga had
236 acclimated to the acidification, qE values were higher by 77.8% ($p < 0.01$), 31.3% ($p < 0.05$)
237 and 14.3% ($p < 0.05$) under LL, ML and HL, respectively, compared to those on day 1; qT
238 values were higher by 13.3% ($p < 0.05$), 18.8% ($p < 0.05$) and 27.8% ($p < 0.05$); and qI
239 values were lower by 14.3% ($p < 0.05$), 41.9% ($p < 0.01$) and 52.9% ($p < 0.01$) (Table 2).

240 The responses of the alga to identical CO₂ enrichment (LpH) conditions were different
241 among the different light levels (Fig. 4). At either LL or ML, algal photosynthetic rate initially
242 increased with increasing CO_{2aq} concentration. However, it decreased with further increases
243 in CO_{2aq} concentrations above 26.3 μM or 33.3 μM for the cells grown in the low or the high
244 CO₂, respectively, for 3 days (9 generations) (Fig. 4), with the LpH-grown cells tolerating
245 higher levels of CO₂ (lower levels of pH).

246 At generation 1 after the CO₂-induced acidification, the algal photosynthetic light
247 harvesting efficiency (α) and maximal photosynthesis rate (P_m) of *P. globosa* decreased from
248 0.007 mol electrons/mol photons and 0.360 μmol O₂ (μg chl *a*)⁻¹ h⁻¹ in the HpH culture to
249 0.003 mol electrons/mol photons and 0.318 μmol O₂ (μg chl *a*)⁻¹ h⁻¹ in the LpH culture,
250 respectively, representing decreases of 57.1% ($p < 0.01$) and 11.7% ($p < 0.05$), while the light

251 saturation point (I_k) increased from 51.4 to 106.0 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, an increase of 106.2%
252 ($p < 0.01$) (Table 3). After 7d (about 19 generations) growth in LpH cultures, the α and P_m
253 values were lowered by 14.3% ($p > 0.05$) and by 1.7% ($p > 0.5$), compared to those in the
254 HpH culture, while the I_k was higher by 14.8% ($p > 0.05$) (Table 3), reflecting an insignificant
255 impact of the acidification after the acclimation.

256

257 **4. Discussion**

258 The results of this study showed that effects of CO_2 -induced acidification on *Phaeocystis*
259 *globosa* are strongly related to the intensity of irradiance and stage of acclimation to the
260 acidification. Additionally, the present study provides the first evidence that *P. globosa* can
261 adjust to the changes in carbonate chemistry by upregulating its photosynthetic pigments and
262 photoprotective capability with downregulated photoinhibitory non-photochemical quenching,
263 leading to the acclimated cells showing a higher tipping point of $\text{CO}_{2\text{aq}}$ (lower pH) where net
264 photosynthesis leveled off.

265 Exposure of the *P. globosa* cells to 1000 ppmv- CO_2 -induced acidification reduced its
266 growth rate under the light levels above 200 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, but led to little effect under
267 low light (LL, 25 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 1). This result is consistent with that reported
268 from Hoogstraten *et al.* (2012), but contradictory to observations, on cells grown under high
269 light, of Wang *et al.* (2010). However, after the algae had acclimated to the acidification for 3
270 (9 generations) and 5 (14 generations) days under LL and ML respectively, the enhancement
271 of the growth rate under the high $\text{CO}_{2\text{aq}}$ (LpH) level became obvious (Fig. 1), which
272 contradicts the findings of Wang *et al.* (2010) and Hoogstraten *et al.* (2012), who showed that
273 the growth rate under low light was not influenced by elevated CO_2 . Although these findings
274 appear partly inconsistent, even contradictory, they might reflect the fact that the responses of
275 an alga to elevated CO_2 are complex and involve interactions with other environmental

276 factors, such as nutrient levels. In the present study, continuous cultures were operated with a
277 stable supply of nutrients.

278 The photochemical performance of the alga differs between cells grown under different
279 levels of light and pH, with the highest effective quantum yield under LL and LpH, and the
280 highest NPQ under the HL and LpH (Fig. 3). In theory, elevated $\text{CO}_{2\text{aq}}$ can result in energy
281 savings associated with down-regulation of the energy necessary to operate CO_2 concentrating
282 mechanisms (CCM), thereby improving algal performance under light-limited conditions,
283 whereas it might enhance photoinhibition at light levels above saturation (Gao et al., 2012b).
284 In high- CO_2 -grown cells of the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*, the electron transport rate
285 from photosystem II (PSII) was photoinhibited to a greater extent than in low- CO_2 -grown
286 cells under light stress (Wu et al., 2010). The combination of exposure to increased light and
287 CO_2 levels reduced photosynthetic carbon fixation of phytoplankton in the South China Sea
288 (Gao et al., 2012b). These observations are consistent with the CCM serving as a sink for
289 excessive energy (Wu et al., 2010), so its downregulation causes stimulation of high light
290 stress. In our findings, however, elevated $\text{CO}_{2\text{aq}}$ (LpH) imposed negative effects on *P. globosa*
291 grown at either low (growth limiting) or high (saturating) light levels (Fig. 3), which might be
292 associated with the intrinsic properties of the alga. A constitutive CCM, the activity of which
293 was not affected by increases in $\text{CO}_{2\text{aq}}$, has been found in *P. globosa* (Rost et al., 2003; Chen
294 and Gao, 2011). Therefore, the responses of *P. globosa*'s growth or photosynthesis to the
295 acidification cannot be linked to energy costs associated with downregulation of CCMs. The
296 contrasting responses of the diatom *Phaeodactylum tricornutum* (Wu et al., 2010; Gao et al.,
297 2012b) and *P. globosa* (present work) to ocean acidification reflect highly different strategies
298 that different taxa employ to cope with the changes in carbonate chemistry of seawater.

299 While *Phaeocystis globosa* cells became acclimated to the acidification, they synthesised
300 more pigments (Fig. 2) and performed better photochemistry (increased yield and decreased

301 photoinhibitory non-photochemical quenching) (Fig. 1, 3 and Table 2), suggesting that the
302 alga possesses the potential to cope with the chemical changes induced by elevated CO₂
303 (lowed pH). The rate of acclimation to LpH, however, appeared to depend on irradiance levels.
304 At day 1 (1 generation), the cells grown at the LpH (high-CO₂) either under middle or high
305 light levels all showed reduced growth rate and quantum yield (Fig. 1, 3), whereas by day 7
306 (19 generations) their growth and yield became enhanced under the middle and high light
307 levels (Fig. 1, 3), compared to those grown at HpH. Increased acidity in the ambient seawater
308 might, to some extent, affect intracellular acid-base balance, and hence cause a decrease in
309 effective photochemical efficiency and an increase in NPQ (Fig. 3). During the acclimation,
310 the state transition quenching (qT) of fluorescence increased significantly (Table 2),
311 suggesting that the ratio of PSI to PSII activity in the algal cells increases, driving more cyclic
312 electron transport to produce additional ATP, which may alleviate the stresses caused by high
313 light to the PSII reaction center as well as the acidification of the stroma. While the
314 energy-dependent quenching (qE), photoinhibition quenching (qI) (Table 2) and light
315 requirement for saturating photosynthetic rate (I_k, Table 3) all increased in the cells exposed to
316 LpH at day 1, these parameters declined, after 7 days acclimation to the LpH, to be
317 comparable to those in the HpH-grown cells. During the acclimation, qI decreased with
318 increases in cellular photosynthetic pigments (Fig. 2, Table 2), supporting the notion that
319 increase in tolerance of the acidification stress was associated with increased light capture and
320 use efficiency (Fig. 2, Tables 2,3). The time span for such acclimation was longer under high
321 light than in low light, reflecting that growth-stressful light levels delay the acclimation,
322 probably due to additional energy costs for the cells to cope with photoinhibition.

323 The apparent effects of CO₂-induced acidification on *P. globosa* depend on the balance
324 between the positive effects of increased CO_{2aq} availability per se and the negative impacts of
325 simultaneous acidification. The former increases with increases in CO_{2aq}, whereas the latter

326 stress (OA) is enhanced with increasing acidification (Fig. 4). Hypothetically, when the
327 positive effect (CO_2) is balanced by the negative impact (pH and chemical changes), algal
328 photosynthesis shows an inflexion point, a tipping point, beyond which net photosynthesis
329 decreased progressively (Fig. 4). Elevated pCO_2 could enhance algal photosynthesis by
330 improving CO_2 supply to the active site of the carboxylating enzyme Rubisco (Raven et al.,
331 2003, 2008) or by indirect energy supply from downregulated CCMs (Gao et al., 2012a). The
332 acidification, however, together with other chemical changes, could alter periplasmic redox
333 activity or the permeability of cellular membranes (Sobrino et al., 2005) and perturb ion
334 channels across the cell membrane, therefore acting as a stressor and increasing mitochondrial
335 respiration (Wu et al., 2010; Yang and Gao, 2012). The inflexion point from positive to
336 negative effects of elevated CO_2 was affected by increases in light intensity and the degree of
337 acclimation to acidification (Fig. 4). The tipping point was higher in cells grown under LL or
338 LpH, compared to those grown under HL or HpH (Fig. 4).

339 Algal responses to OA can be species-specific (even strain-specific) (Langer et al., 2006,
340 2009; Beardall et al., 2009; Trimborn et al., 2013) and depend on multiple climate change
341 factors (Gao *et al.*, 2012b). The ecological effects of CO_2 -induced acidification on *P. globosa*
342 will probably be dependent on its ecological niche or ecosystem. In coastal waters, diel pH
343 changes with day-night pH oscillations can expose the cells to fast pH and carbonate
344 chemistry changes, additional OA forcing in such ecosystem may lead to different responses
345 of the alga to climate change. *P. globosa* is prone to take advantage under high pH (or low
346 $\text{CO}_{2\text{aq}}$) conditions due to its highly efficient CCM, compared to algae with less active CCMs
347 (Berry et al., 2002). While the pH value decreases rapidly in waters due to either heavy
348 rainfall, or seasonal upwelling, or eutrophication and deoxygenation (Cai et al., 2011), *P.*
349 *globosa* may experience disadvantageous situations, with increases in CO_2 in the atmosphere
350 and increased irradiance due to enhanced stratification (Boyd and Doney 2002). This may

351 cause a shift in algal community structure at different latitudes and seasons with increasing
352 pCO₂ in the atmosphere. However, our data do suggest that *P. globosa* has the capability to
353 acclimate to the expected rise in atmospheric CO₂ to 1000 ppmv by the end of the century, so
354 the ways in which it will be influenced ecologically, as part of the broad algal community, in
355 the long term remain to be seen.

356 In conclusion, the red tide alga, *P. globosa*, can increase its tolerance to lowered pH after it
357 had acclimated to the CO₂-induced seawater acidification. Mechanistically, the alga increased
358 its photosynthetic and photoprotective pigments and raised its energy use efficiency and
359 excessive energy dissipation strategy. Along with its constitutive CCM and associated
360 energetics, *P. globosa* can increase its competitiveness in phytoplankton communities under
361 OA and simultaneously increased irradiance due to enhanced stratification.

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577 **Table 1** Parameters of the seawater carbonate system under ambient (39.3 Pa or 390 μatm) and enriched (101.3 Pa or 1000 μatm) CO_2 levels in
 578 the turbidostat cultures under different photon flux densities (LL: 25, ML: 200, HL: 800 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) of PAR. Dissolved inorganic
 579 carbon (DIC), pH, salinity (33 ‰), nutrient concentration (phosphate, 3.6; silicate, 11.3; nitrate, 882.4 μM), and temperature (20 °C) were used to
 580 derive all other parameters using the CO_2 system analyzing software CO2SYS. The stoichiometric equilibrium constants K_1 and K_2 for carbonic
 581 acid used were 6.04 and 9.16, respectively. The data represents the mean \pm SD (n=24) except TA_m (n = 9). Superscripts with different letters
 582 indicate significant differences between groups.

	39.3 Pa CO_2			101.3 Pa CO_2		
	LL	ML	HL	LL	ML	HL
pH	8.08 \pm 0.02 ^a	8.09 \pm 0.02 ^a	8.09 \pm 0.03 ^a	7.70 \pm 0.03 ^b	7.71 \pm 0.02 ^b	7.70 \pm 0.03 ^b
DIC (μM)	2011.3 \pm 97.2 ^c	2006.6 \pm 106.1 ^c	2007.8 \pm 103.5 ^c	2213.6 \pm 100.4 ^d	2187.2 \pm 104.8 ^d	2168.3 \pm 91.8 ^d
HCO_3^- (μM)	1797.1 \pm 83.4 ^e	1789.0 \pm 77.3 ^e	1790.1 \pm 90.4 ^e	2082.3 \pm 93.6 ^f	2056.1 \pm 101.3 ^f	2039.7 \pm 96.6 ^f
CO_2aq (μM)	12.1 \pm 0.5 ^g	11.8 \pm 0.5 ^g	11.8 \pm 0.6 ^g	33.7 \pm 0.8 ^h	32.5 \pm 0.7 ^h	33.0 \pm 0.9 ^h
CO_3^{2-} (μM)	202.0 \pm 7.5 ^p	205.8 \pm 6.6 ^p	205.9 \pm 6.8 ^p	97.6 \pm 3.9 ^q	98.6 \pm 3.7 ^q	95.6 \pm 3.2 ^q
TA (μM)	2287.6 \pm 97.1 ⁿ	2288.7 \pm 103.2 ⁿ	2290.0 \pm 95.3 ⁿ	2318.6 \pm 99.7 ⁿ	2295.3 \pm 96.4 ⁿ	2272.0 \pm 103.1 ⁿ
TA_m (μM)	2271.3 \pm 101.6 ⁿ	2268.2 \pm 107.1 ⁿ	2272.6 \pm 102.6 ⁿ	2288.6 \pm 113.8 ⁿ	2269.6 \pm 97.8 ⁿ	2243.6 \pm 109.3 ⁿ

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585 **Table 2** The energy-dependent (qE), state-transition (qT) and photoinhibition quenching (qI) of *P. globosa* at generation 1 and generation 19 ,
 586 grown in pH 7.70 culture under different irradiance levels (LL, 25; ML, 200; HL, 800 $\mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), respectively. Superscripts with
 587 different letters indicate significant differences between groups. The data represent the mean \pm SD (n=3, triplicate cultures).

	qE		qT		qI	
Generation 1	LpH/HC	HpH/LC	LpH/HC	HpH/LC	LpH/HC	HpH/LC
LL	0.09 \pm 0.01 ^a	0.07 \pm 0.01 ^c	0.15 \pm 0.01 ^g	0.11 \pm 0.02 ^h	0.14 \pm 0.02 ^q	0.08 \pm 0.01 ^p
ML	0.16 \pm 0.03 ^{bdef}	0.12 \pm 0.02 ^{bd}	0.16 \pm 0.02 ^{mgk}	0.13 \pm 0.02 ^{hg}	0.31 \pm 0.03 ^s	0.16 \pm 0.03 ^{vq}
HL	0.21 \pm 0.03 ^{bef}	0.15 \pm 0.02 ^{bdef}	0.18 \pm 0.02 ^k	0.15 \pm 0.02 ^g	0.51 \pm 0.05 ^t	0.23 \pm 0.03 ^f
Generation 19						
LL	0.16 \pm 0.01 ^{bde}	0.07 \pm 0.01 ^c	0.17 \pm 0.02 ^{gk}	0.11 \pm 0.02 ^h	0.12 \pm 0.01 ^{zq}	0.09 \pm 0.02 ^p
ML	0.21 \pm 0.02 ^{bef}	0.13 \pm 0.02 ^{bd}	0.19 \pm 0.03 ^{mk}	0.14 \pm 0.01 ^{hg}	0.18 \pm 0.02 ^{vq}	0.15 \pm 0.02 ^q
HL	0.24 \pm 0.02 ^{bf}	0.16 \pm 0.01 ^{bde}	0.23 \pm 0.04 ^m	0.15 \pm 0.02 ^g	0.24 \pm 0.03 ^r	0.22 \pm 0.03 ^f

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592 **Table 3** The photosynthetic light-harvesting efficiency (α), maximum photosynthetic rate (P_m)
 593 and light saturation point (I_k), derived from light-response curves for *P. globosa* cells
 594 incubated in either pH 8.07 or pH 7.70 (induced by high CO₂) cultures. The cells were grown
 595 in pH 8.07 culture for about 9 generations, and in pH 7.70 (induced by high CO₂) culture for 1
 596 generation (G_1) or 19 generations (G_{19}), , under an irradiance of 200 $\mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$
 597 before the light-response curve was measured. Superscripts with different letters indicate
 598 significant differences between groups. The data represent the mean \pm SD (n=3, triplicate
 599 cultures).

	α	P_m ($\mu\text{mol O}_2\cdot(\mu\text{g Chl})^{-1}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$)	I_k ($\mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)
pH 8.07	0.007 \pm 0.001 ^a	0.360 \pm 0.014 ^c	51.4 \pm 3.66 ^g
pH 7.70 (G_1)	0.003 \pm 0.001 ^b	0.318 \pm 0.019 ^d	106.0 \pm 4.39 ^h
pH 7.70 (G_{19})	0.006 \pm 0.001 ^a	0.354 \pm 0.015 ^c	59.0 \pm 5.41 ^g

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613 **Figure captions**

614 **Fig. 1** The specific growth rates (open symbols) of *P. globosa* grown at pH 8.07 and the ratios
615 (solid symbols) of the specific growth rate at pH 7.70 to that at pH 8.07 ($\mu_{7.70} : \mu_{8.07}$) under
616 different irradiance levels (LL, 25; ML, 200; HL, 800 $\mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), respectively. The
617 data represent the mean \pm SD (n=3, triplicate cultures).

618 **Fig. 2** Contents of chlorophyll (a) and carotenoids (b) of *P. globosa* cells grown at pH 8.07
619 (open symbols) and the ratios (solid symbols) of the pigments at pH 7.70 to that at pH 8.07
620 under different irradiance levels (LL, 25; ML, 200; HL, 800 $\mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$),
621 respectively. The data represent the means \pm SD (n=3, triplicate cultures).

622 **Fig. 3** Effective quantum yield (Yield) (a) and non-photochemical quenching (NPQ) (b) of *P.*
623 *globosa* grown at pH 8.07 (open symbols), and the ratios (solid symbols) of either the yield or
624 the NPQ at pH 7.70 to that at pH 8.07 under different irradiance levels (LL, 25; ML, 200; HL,
625 800 $\mu\text{mol photons}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), respectively. The data represent the means \pm SD (n=3, triplicate
626 cultures).

627 **Fig. 4** Net photosynthesis of *P. globosa* cells, acclimated to either pH8.07 or pH7.70 cultures
628 in the corresponding irradiances to the measurement for 3 days (9 generations), under
629 irradiances of (a) 25 and (b) 200 $\mu\text{mol photon s}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ at different pH levels induced by
630 different $\text{CO}_{2\text{aq}}$ concentrations. The data represent the means \pm SD in triplicate incubations. *
631 and ** indicate significant differences between the two pH levels at $p<0.05$ and $p<0.01$,
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638 **Fig. 1**

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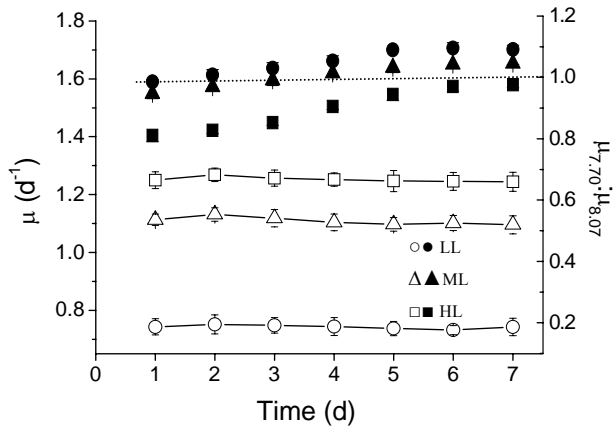
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667 **Fig. 2**

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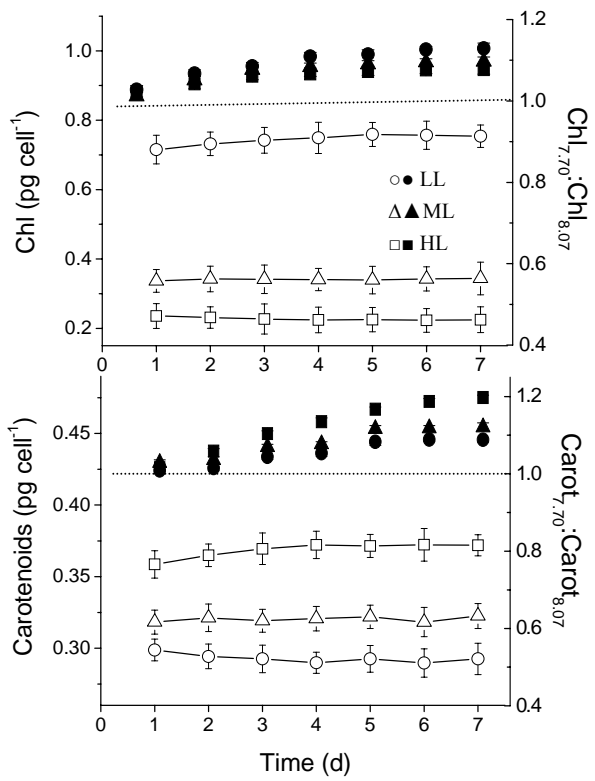
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696 **Fig. 3**

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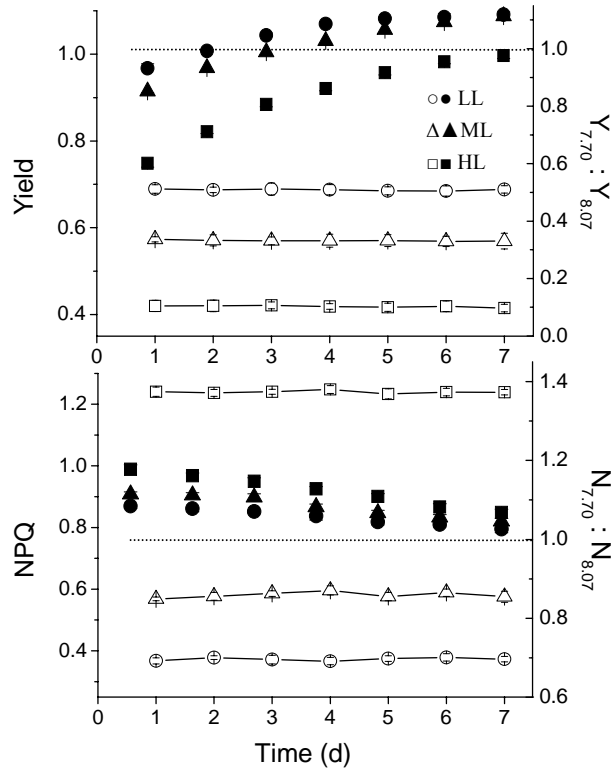
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725 **Fig. 4**

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