

Ecophysiological characteristics of red, green and brown strains of 1 the Baltic picocyanobacterium Synechococcus sp. – a laboratory 2 3 study 4 5 Sylwia Śliwińska-Wilczewska¹, Agata Cieszyńska², Jakub Maculewicz¹, and Adam Latała¹ 6 7 ¹University of Gdańsk, Institute of Oceanography, Laboratory of Marine Plant Ecophysiology, Gdynia, Poland 8 ²Institute of Oceanology Polish Academy of Sciences, Department of Marine Physics, Marine Biophysics Laboratory, Sopot, 9 Poland 10 Correspondence to: A. Cieszyńska (acieszynska@iopan.gda.pl, cieszynska.agata@gmail.com) 11 12 Abstract. The bloom of picocyanobacteria (PCY), accompanied by a drastic ecological crisis is a new phenomenon in 13 Europe, which requires careful investigation. Therefore, this work examined the response of Synechococcus sp. physiology 14 to different environmental conditions. Three strains of Synechococcus sp. (red BA-120, green BA-124 and brown BA-132) 15 were cultivated in a laboratory under previously determined environmental conditions. These conditions were as follows: 16 temperature (T) from 10 by 5 to 25°C, salinity from 3 by 5 to 18 and Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) from 10 by 17 90 to 280 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, which gave 64 combinations of synthetic, though real environmental conditions. Scenarios 18 reflecting all possible combinations were applied in the laboratory experiments. Results pointed to differences in growth 19 rates between strains. However, there was also a similar pattern for BA-124 and BA-132, which showed the highest 20 concentrations of picocyanobacteria cells at higher T and PAR. This was also found to be true for BA-120, but only to 21 a certain degree as the growth rates started to decrease above 190 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ PAR. Pigmentation, chlorophyll a 22 (Chl a), fluorescence and rate of photosynthesis presented both similarities and differences between the strains. In this 23 context, more consistent features were observed for brown and red strains when compared to the green. In this paper are 24 defined the ecophysiological responses of PCY.

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26 1 Introduction

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28 The presence of picoplankton and its contribution to marine biomass were ignored in environmental studies conducted 29 before 1970. This was related to the poor accuracy of research equipment, which did not enable the recording and 30 recognition of such small organisms. Before the discovery of picocyanobacteria (PCY) in the oceans by Johnson and 31 Sieburth (1979) and Waterbury et al. (1979) there only existed incidental reports of this fraction of cyanobacteria in aquatic 32 ecosystems. Since then, the number of reported PCY occurrences has rapidly increased, and currently they are known to be 33 present in many marine, brackish and freshwater ecosystems of the world (e.g., Callieri, 2010; Sorokin and Zakuskina, 2010; 34 Jodłowska and Śliwińska, 2014; Jasser and Callieri, 2017). Additionally, recent works showed that many aquatic ecosystems 35 have been experiencing super-dense, long-term blooms of picocyanobacteria (Sorokin et al., 2004; Sorokin and Zakuskina, 36 2010), whilst in the past PCY were often described as a non-blooming group (Stockner et al., 1988). Later work by Sorokin 37 and Zakuskina (2010) found that the picocyanobacteria blooms were accompanied by great changes in the benthic habitats.

Picocyanobacteria of the *Synechococcus* genus are extremely important organisms in the world's oceans. This is the
 smallest fraction of plankton ranked by the size of cells, which ranges from 0.2 to 2.0 µm (Sieburth et al., 1978).
 Chrococcoid genus of the *Synechococcus* are ubiquitous components of the natural plankton communities in aquatic





41 environments. Depending on pigment content, Synechococcus sp. is classified as red strains with phycoerythrin (PE), green 42 strains rich in phycocyanin (PC) and the brown strains containing phycourobilin (PUB) and PE (Mazur-Marzec et al., 2013). 43 Despite its association with open ocean systems, has become increasingly evident in recent years that Synechococcus sp. is 44 a significant contributor to cyanobacterial blooms. Surprisingly, this species may also comprise 80% and more of the total 45 cyanobacterial biomass during cyanobacterial blooms in the Baltic Sea (Stal et al., 2003; Mazur-Marzec et al., 2013). Most 46 field or laboratory investigations concerning Baltic Synechoccoccus sp. are focused on two of the three aforementioned 47 strains: green (BA-124) and red (BA-120) usually neglecting the brown strain (BA-132). These give limited knowledge of 48 PCY and their life cycle in the Baltic Sea, as brown form also contributes to total pico- and phytoplankton biomass in the 49 area of interest (Stal et al., 2003; Jodłowska and Śliwińska, 2014).

50 Recently, it has been confirmed that PCY are able to excrete harmful and allelopathic substances (e.g., Jakubowska and 51 Szelag-Wasilewska, 2015; Śliwińska-Wilczewska et al., 2016; 2017). Many different factors, including physical parameters, 52 availability and competition for resources, selective grazing and allelopathic interactions can affect the occurrence of 53 harmful blooms in aquatic ecosystems. The development of massive algal blooming is a consequence of the interaction 54 between many favourable factors. Synechococcus sp. greatly contributes to these massive blooms, but so far the 55 characteristics of the life cycle of Baltic PCY has not been sufficiently studied. This knowledge needs to be expanded and 56 improved, especially because of bloom toxicity and negative impacts on ecosystems. Moreover, the blooms of PCY, 57 accompanied by a drastic ecological crisis are a new phenomenon in Europe (Sorokin and Zakuskina, 2010), which also 58 requires careful investigation.

59 According to the above, phytoplankton is of great interest to scientists in understanding its life cycles and impact on the 60 ecosystem in different parts of the world's oceans and within diverse environmental conditions. In order to investigate the 61 above, scientists use various types of research methodology: in-situ measurements, laboratory experiments and numerical 62 estimations. All of these approaches are necessary and essential in marine phytoplankton examination. Some laboratory and 63 field studies of ecophysiological responses of picocyanobacteria to different growth conditions have already been completed 64 for typical oceanic mediums, semi-closed seas and lakes (e.g., Glover et al., 1986; Kuosa, 1988; Stal et al., 1999; Agawin et 65 al., 2000; Callieri and Stockner, 2002; Hajdu et al., 2007; Sánchez-Baracaldo et al., 2008; Cai and Kong, 2013; Motwani et 66 al., 2013; Jodłowska and Śliwińska, 2014, Stawiarski et al., 2016). However, there is still a need to provide more systematic 67 information about these organisms. What is more, the motivation is amplified by the fact that there are only a few research 68 papers on the brown strain of Baltic Synechococcus sp. (Stal et al., 2003; Haverkamp et al., 2008; 2009; Jodłowska and 69 Śliwińska, 2014). This implies that the present study is one of the first in-sight descriptions of BA-132 ecophysiology and its

70 comparison to other strains of the same genus.

71 The overall goal of this paper is to determine the most favorable and unfavorable environmental conditions for PCY to 72 grow on the basis of three different strains of Synechococcus sp. ecophysiological analysis. What is more, the study is 73 supposed to provide in-depth information on how different environmental conditions influence the life cycle of 74 picocyanobacteria quantitatively. The initial step of these works was to carry out laboratory experiments with Synechococcus 75 sp. cultures. In order to create different environmental conditions in the Baltic Sea range, combinations of physical quantities 76 were determined. These quantities were as follows: scalar irradiance in Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) spectrum 77 range (10, 100, 190, 280 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹), salinity (3, 8, 13, 18), and temperature (T) (10, 15, 20, 25°C). In total, 64 78 combinations (environmental scenarios) were generated. The second step was to plot and analyze all results after seven days 79 of incubations. For the results, the growth rate, pigmentation, Chl a fluorescence parameters, and rate of photosynthesis were 80 collected. The third step was to extract any significant relations between the results and specific physical factors by using 81 a statistical analysis, which included the variance method analysis (two-way ANOVA) and Tukey's HSD post-hoc test. 82 Derived laboratory results will help to develop the knowledge of the picocyanobacteria life cycle. Moreover, the PCY





experiments underlie the improved numerical approach to phytoplankton modeling development. On the basis of derivedresults, the algorithm for picocyanobacterium growth will be created.

86 2 Material and methods

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88 2.1 Material and culture conditions

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90 Three different phenotypes of picocyanobacteria strains from the genus Synechococcus were examined: BA-120 (red), BA-91 124 (green), and BA-132 (brown). The cultures preparation was carried out as follows. The Synechococcus sp. strains were 92 isolated from the coastal zone of the Gulf of Gdansk (southern Baltic Sea) and maintained as unialgal cultures in the Culture 93 Collection of Baltic Algae (CCBA) at the Institute of Oceanography, University of Gdańsk, Poland (Latała et al., 2006). The 94 experiments on the 'batch cultures' were carried out in 25 mL glass Erlenmeyer flasks containing sterilized f/2 medium 95 (Guillard, 1975). In order to develop the media, first the appropriate amount of Tropic Marine Synthetic Sea Salt was 96 dissolved in distilled water. Salinity of the media was measured by salinometer (inoLab Cond Level 1, Weilheim in 97 Oberbayern, Germany). Then, the biogenic compounds were added and the media were autoclaved. Into 25 mL Erlenmeyer 98 glass flasks, the cells of specific strains were inoculated. The picocyanobacteria cultures were acclimated to the various 99 synthetic environmental conditions for two days. The conditions were the combinations of different values of: scalar 100 irradiance in Photosynthetically Active Radiation (PAR) spectrum (10, 100, 190 and 280 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹), temperature 101 (10, 15, 20 and 25°C), and salinity (3, 8, 13 and 18). The combination of aforementioned quantities is called a scenario in the 102 present paper. The intensity of PAR was measured using a LI-COR spherical quantum-meter. Fluorescent lamps (Cool 103 White 40W, Sylvania, USA) were used as source of irradiance and combined with halogen lamps (100W, Sylvania, USA) to 104 obtain more intensive light. After acclimation time (2 d), the picocyanobacteria cells served as inoculum for the right test 105 cultures with the initial number of cells equal to 10^6 cells mL⁻¹. The flasks with picocyanobacteria were shaken (once a day) 106 during the experiment. Values of quantities representing the environmental conditions occurred at the same intervals. In 107 order to achieve the most reliable results, test cultures were grown in three replicas and were incubated for one week at each 108 combination of light, temperature and salinity. On the last day of incubation the number of cells, pigment content, Chl a 109 fluorescence, and rate of photosynthesis were measured in each replica. Results were reported as mean values ± standard 110 deviation (SD).

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112 2.2 Determination of the number of cells

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114 The number of cells (N) in cultures was counted with flow cytometer BD AccuriTM C6 Plus (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, 115 USA). Events were recorded in list form. Samples were run at a flow rate of approximately 14 µl min⁻¹. Flow was daily 116 calibrated with Spherotech 6- and 8- Peak Validation Beads (BD, San Jose, USA). This ensures that the cytometer is 117 working properly before running experimental samples. FITC, PE, and PE-Cy5 detectors were daily calibrated with 118 SPHERO™ Rainbow Calibration Particles (BD, San Jose, USA), and the APC channel was calibrated with SPHERO 6-119 peaks Allophycocyanin Calibration Particles (APC). Detectors FL1, FL2, and FL3 read fluorescence emissions excited by 120 the blue laser (480 nm), while detector FL4 reads emissions excited by the red laser (640 nm) (Marie et al., 2005). The flow 121 cytometry was used to establish the initial number of picocyanobacteria cells and to estimate the final cells concentration 122 after the incubation period. Based on the final cells concentrations, the growth rates were calculated. The growth rate and 123 cells concentration are different parameters but both lead the researcher to the same conclusions on the growth 124 characteristics. In this paper, the growth rates were analyzed abandoning the separate study on the cell concentrations 125 themselves.

2.3 Determination of the pigments content



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129 The concentration of photosynthetic pigments of analyzed picocyanobacteria was measured by the spectrophotometric 130 method. After seven days of incubation, 4 mL of culture was filtered in order to separate the picocyanobacteria cells from the 131 medium. Chl a and carotenoids (Car) were extracted from the picocyanobacteria cells with cold 90% acetone (5 mL). To 132 improve extraction, the cells were disintegrated for two minutes by ultrasonication. Then, the test-tube with the extract was 133 held in the dark for three hours at -60°C. After this time the pigment extract was centrifuged at 10000 rpm for five minutes in 134 order to remove filter particles. The absorption of pigments was estimated on the basis of Beckman spectrophotometer UV-135 VIS DU 530 measurements at specific wavelengths (750, 665 and 480 nm), using 1 cm quartz cuvette. Pigment 136 concentration was calculated according to Strickland and Parsons (1972). The following formulas have been used: Chl a (µg 137 mL^{-1} = 11.236(A₆₆₅-A₇₅₀)V_a/V_b, Car (µg mL⁻¹) = 4(A₄₈₀-A₇₅₀)V_a/V_b, where: V_a - extract volume (in this study 5 mL), V_b -138 sample volume (in this study 4 mL), and A_x - absorption estimated at wavelength x in a 1-cm cuvette.

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140 2.4 Chlorophyll fluorescence analyses

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142 Chl a fluorescence was measured with a Pulse Amplitude Modulation (PAM) fluorometer (FMS1, Hansatech, King's Lynn, 143 Norfolk, UK). The FMS1 uses a 594 nm amber modulating beam with 4-step frequency control as a measuring light and is 144 equipped with a dual-purpose halogen light source providing actinic light (0 – 3000 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ in 50 steps) and 145 a saturating pulse (0 - 20000 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ in 100 steps). FMS1 also has a 735 nm far-red LED source for preferential 146 PSI excitation allowing accurate determination of the Fo' parameter. Before measurements, each sample taken from the 147 culture was filtered through 13 mm glass fibre filters (Whatman GF/C, pore size = 1.2μ m). At the beginning of the 148 experiment, the filter sample was adapted in the dark for about 10 minutes. The maximum photochemical efficiency of 149 photosystem II (PSII) at dark-adapted state (F_{v}/F_{m}) and the photochemical efficiency of PSII under actinic light intensity 150 (ΦPSII) were estimated. The actinic light was different for different cultures, the same as the PAR level was for each 151 incubation. The above is similar to the method used by Campbell et al. (1998).

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153 2.5 Measurements of photosynthesis rate

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The measurements of oxygen evolution were carried out on the day seventh of the experiment using a Clark-type oxygen electrode (Chlorolab 2, Hansatech). Temperature was controlled with a cooling system LAUDA (E100, Germany). Illumination was provided by a high intensity probe-type light array with 11 red LED's centered on 650 nm. Irradiance was measured with a quantum sensor (Quantitherm, Hansatech, King's Lynn, Norfolk, UK). Dark respiration was estimated from 0₂ uptake by cells incubated in the dark. Experimental data was fitted to the photosynthetesis irradiance response (*P*-*E*) curves using equation (Jassby and Platt, 1976) and Statistica® 13.1 software and photosynthetic parameters, i.e., the photosynthetic capacity (P_m), the initial slope of *P*-*E* curve (α) and the dark respiration (R_d) (Sakshaug et al., 1997).

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163 2.6 Statistical analyses

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165 The effect of light and temperature separately and then their combinations on growth, pigments content, fluorescence and 166 photosynthesis performance of examined strains were analyzed using two-way variance analysis (ANOVA). A post hoc test 167 (Tukey's HSD) was used to show which results differed under varied conditions over the experimental period (Sheskin 168 2000). The confident levels in the statistical analysis were: 95% (*p < 0.05), 99% (**p < 0.01), 99.9%





169 (****p* < 0.001). The statistical analyses were performed using Statistica® 13.1 and Matlab 2012b software. According to the 170 literature, light and temperature are major factors controlling the growth and distribution of picocyanobacteria (e.g.: Jasser 171 and Arvola, 2003), and they may have considerable significance on the abundance of the marine *Synechococcus* community 172 (Glover, 1985; Glover et al., 1985; 1986, Joint and Pomroy, 1986; Jasser and Arvola, 2003; Jasser, 2006; Jodłowska and 173 Śliwińska, 2014), as a result it was decided that light and temperature would be the independent variables in ANOVA and 174 post-hoc test analysis. The dependent variable was always the parameter, which had been measured, e.g.: growth rate or 175 pigments concentration.

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177 3 Results

179 3.1 Growth rates

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181 For all three picoplankton strains, ANOVA analysis indicated that in each scenario the independent variable (temperature or 182 PAR) significantly influenced the dependent variable (growth rate). What is more, post-hoc tests indicated that multiple 183 factors (T and PAR together) had an impact on the PCY growth.

In general, due to post-hoc tests, 2008 multicomparisons (70%) out of all 2880 completed for three strains, indicated the highest statistical significance (Tukey HSD, *** p < 0.001), 160 multicomparisons (6%) pointed to the statistical significance of 0.001 < ** p < 0.01, and 114 (4%) stated for the significance of 0.01 < * p < 0.05. The rest of the multicomparisons (598, 20%) indicated no statistically significance differences (Tukey HSD, $p \ge 0.05$).

188 Both PAR and T affected the number of *Synechococcus* sp. BA-120 cells significantly (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 42.3$, *** $p < 10^{-10}$ 189 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 22.7$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 9.6$, *** p < 0.001 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 12.2$, *** p < 0.001, 190 for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively). For BA-120, the growth rate (µ) increased with T in each medium (salinities 3, 8, 13, 191 18) (Figs. 1a – 1d). The rates varied between 0.07 and 0.34 d⁻¹ within the whole scenarios domain. The minimum μ was 192 estimated in salinity 3, T 10°C and PAR 10 µmol photons m⁻²s⁻¹, whilst the maximum in salinity 18, T 25°C, PAR 190 µmol 193 photons m⁻² s⁻¹. The decrease in growth rate was observed from PAR 190 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ onwards (Figs. 1a - 1d). This 194 can likely be related to the photo-inhibition of photosystem II (PSII). The above was true for each salinity. It seemed that the 195 most important environmental factor for BA-120 growth was T, with PAR playing an additional role, for instance in the 196 context of photo-inhibition. Multicomparison tests pointed to the strong significance of PAR and T combined in influencing 197 the pigmentation. According to the statistics, 82% of multicomparisons were statistically significant (Tukey HSD, * p <0.05) with 91% of them having the highest significance level (Tukey HSD, *** p < 0.001). 198

199 Both PAR and T also significantly affected the number of Synechococcus sp. BA-124 cells (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 7.9$, 200 *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 13.6$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.4$, *** p < 0.001 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 2.8$, 201 ** p < 0.01, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively). For BA-124, growth rate increased with T and PAR in all salinities (Figs. 202 1e - 1h). The growth rates varied between 0.11 and 0.53 d⁻¹. The lowest μ was calculated in salinity 3, T 10°C 203 and PAR 10 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ and the highest growth rate was reached in salinity 18, T 25°C, PAR 280 µmol photons m⁻² 204 s⁻¹. Intensive cell division was also estimated under the highest T and PAR conditions in salinity 13 with a growth rate of 205 0.52 d⁻¹. The lowest µ of BA-124 was estimated for the lowest T and PAR condition in each salinity. Generally, cell 206 abundance (Fig. S1 in Supplement) and the growth rates were the highest when compared to BA-120 and BA-132 in relative scenarios. One of the observations was the difference in BA-124 growth between lower and higher PAR and T scenarios. 207 208 BA-124 seemed to be more sensitive to changes in PAR and T in their lower rather than higher ranges (Figs. 1e - 1h). The 209 highest cell concentrations of BA-124 were noted in moderate- and high-salinity mediums. However, optimum salinities for 210 green strain to grow were 8 and 13. Due to post-hoc analysis, salinity 13 differentiated the conditions for growth under 211 different PAR and T at a lower degree when compared to other salinities. Another feature of BA-124 growth was that the





212 growth rates in low T and high PAR scenarios were nearly equal to growth rates in high T and low PAR scenarios. This was 213 not observed for red and brown strains. The observation was supported by Tukey's tests, where only few statistically 214 significant differences in growth rates were observed between scenarios with elevated PAR (280 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹), low 215 T (10, 15°C) and those with high T (25°C) and low PAR (10 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹). These differences were observed 216 between 15°C and 280 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ and 25°C and 10 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ in salinities 3 and 8 (Tukey HSD, ** p <217 0.05 in both cases). Multicomparison tests showed high significance of a combination of PAR and T in affecting growth. 218 According to Tukey HSD tests, 72% of multicomparisons were statistically significant (* p < 0.05) with 82% of them with 219 the highest significance level (*** p < 0.001).

220 Similar to BA-120 and BA-124, it was found that PAR and T significantly affected the number of Synechococcus sp. 221 BA-132 cells (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 6.8$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.4$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.6$, *** p < 0.001222 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 12.5$, ** p < 0.01, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively). For BA-132, the positive impact of T and PAR 223 on cells concentration and growth rates was observed in each medium (Figs. 1i - 1i). Salinity played a more significant role 224 here than when compared to BA-124. Note that the higher the salinity, the higher the growth rates of brown strain. What is 225 more, according to the statistical analysis, salinity 18 differentiated the growth rates the most and it was the easiest medium 226 to determine a fixed response of growth rate to the variable environmental conditions in it. In salinity 18, the growth rate 227 could be described as a linear increasing function of ambient T and PAR. This was also observed in other salinities but not as 228 intensively pronounced as in the highest-saline medium (Figs. 1i - 1j). Moreover, in high salinity, the sensitivity of growth 229 rate to T changes was much lower than in low salinities (Fig. 11). PAR did not determine the growth as strongly as T, which 230 was quite consistent to the observation noted for BA-120. The growth rates vary between 0.05 and 0.38 d⁻¹ within all 231 gathered results. The minimum growth rate was observed in salinity 3, 10°C and 10 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, whilst the 232 maximum in salinity 18, 25°C, 280 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. The lowest values of BA-132 growth rates were calculated for the 233 lowest T and PAR condition in each salinity. Tukey HSD post hoc tests indicated high significance of the combination of 234 PAR and T in affecting the growth. According those tests, 84% of multicomparisons were statistically significant (* p <235 0.05) with 90% of them with the highest significance (*** p < 0.001).

Concerning all three strains, salinity generally had a positive impact on growth. What is more, the relations between
 salinity and growth rates for all strains were almost increasing linearly with the highest increase for BA-132, followed by
 BA-120. The smallest increase in growth along with salinity was noted for BA-124.

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240 **3.2 Pigment content**

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The results showed that for all strains, cell-specific pigment composition (pigment content per cell) was environmentally driven. The analysis of mL-specific pigmentation (pigment content per mL) was also done (Figs. S2 and S3 in Supplement), however, the mL-specific pigment content is another way to illustrate the biomass and that is why it is not described in this section in detail. It was difficult to determine qualitative and quantitative relations between pigment content and ecological state unequivocally in analyzed scenarios. Nonetheless, there were a few facts in pigmentation changes under environmentally different conditions, which were as follows.

It was estimated, that PAR and T significantly affected the Chl *a* cell-specific content of *Synechococcus* sp. BA-120 (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 33.7$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.3$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 15.6$, *** p < 0.001 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.7$, *** p < 0.001, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively). Both PAR and T also affected the Car content in the red strain cells significantly (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 25.8$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 7.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 7.3$, *** p < 0.001, and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 12.0$, *** p < 0.001, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively). For BA-120 in every scenario the pigmentation changes presented different characteristics when comparing two estimations – mL-specific (Figs. 254 S2A, S3A), and cell-specific (Figs. 2, 3). However, both cell-specific and mL-specific Chl *a* and Car concentrations





255 decreased with the increase of salinity, which was noticeable especially in cell-specific analysis (Figs. 2A, 3A). On average, 256 the cell content of pigments for BA-120 was the highest when compared to the other strains. Chl a concentration dominated 257 over Car concentration in each scenario. What is more, there were very high cell-specific concentrations of Chl a observed 258 for the whole T domain at low PAR. Maximum Chl a content was measured under T 25°C and PAR 10 µmol photons m⁻²s⁻¹. 259 This concerned each salinity. The highest Chl a concentration within all scenarios was reached in BA-120 cells in salinity 3 260 and was equal to 0.339 pg cell⁻¹. For other salinities these maximums were as follows: 0.233 pg cell⁻¹ (8), 0.164 pg cell⁻¹ 261 (13), 0.100 pg cell⁻¹ (18). The highest Car content was measured in salinity 3 under T of 20°C and PAR 10 µmol photons m⁻ 262 $^{2}s^{-1}$ and reached 0.160 pg cell⁻¹. The lowest concentrations of Chl a (0.038 pg cell⁻¹) and Car (0.031 pg cell⁻¹) were measured 263 in salinity 18, T 25°C, PAR 190 µmol photons m⁻²s⁻¹ and salinity 18, T 15°C, PAR 280 µmol photons m⁻²s⁻¹, respectively. 264 Multicomparison tests indicated the significance of PAR and T combined in shaping the pigmentation. Due to those tests, 265 52% and 55% of multicomparisons of comparisons in Chl a and Car content analysis, were statistically significant (Tukey 266 HSD, * p < 0.05) with 80% (for Chl a) and 74% (for Car) of them with the highest significance (Tukey HSD, *** p < 0.05) 267 0.001).

268 Both PAR and T affected the Chl a cell-specific content (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 3.3$, ** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.3$, *** p < 0.01, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.$ 269 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 69.8$, *** p < 0.001 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 17.5$, *** p < 0.001, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively) 270 and Car cell-specific content (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 4.6$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 65.5$, *** p < 0.271 83.1, *** p < 0.001 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 43.2$, *** p < 0.001, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively) of Synechococcus sp. 272 BA-124 significantly. Regarding BA-124, in each scenario the composition of pigments differed between the estimations 273 (mL- or cell-specific). However, generally, PAR and T had a negative impact on pigmentation (Figs. 2B, 3B). Maximum 274 values of cell-specific Chl a and Car concentrations were measured under 10°C and 10 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ in each salinity 275 medium. These values, starting from the lowest and ending at the highest salinity, were as follows: 0.095, 0.102. 0.1760, 276 0.1480 pg cell⁻¹ for Chl *a* and 0.051, 0.067, 0.087, 0.079 pg cell⁻¹ for Car. Nonetheless, there were also some exceptions. In 277 salinity 3, high Car contents were calculated under 280 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ and T: 15, 20°C and equaled to 0.042 pg cell⁻¹ 278 and 0.041 pg cell⁻¹, respectively. On average, salinity had a negative impact on pigmentation. The lowest cell-specific 279 concentrations of Chl a and Car in Ba-124 cells were estimated in the same scenario: salinity 18, T 10°C, PAR 280 µmol 280 photons m⁻² s⁻¹ and were equal to 0.013 pg cell⁻¹ and 0.009 pg cell⁻¹, for Chl a and Car, respectively. Multicomparison tests 281 pointed to the significance of PAR and T combined in influencing the pigmentation. According to the statistics, 47% and 282 54% of multicomparisons in Chl a and Car content analysis, were statistically significant (Tukey HSD, * p < 0.05) with 83% 283 (for Chl a) and 79% (for Car) of them with the highest significance level (Tukey HSD, *** p < 0.001).

284 It was also examined that PAR and T affected the Chl a cell-specific content (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 6.5$, p < 0.001, ANOVA, 285 $F_{9,32} = 11.1, p < 0.001, ANOVA, F_{9,32} = 21.5, p < 0.001$ and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 6.5, p < 0.001$, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, 286 respectively) and Car cell-specific content (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 8.6$, p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 9.6$, p < 0.001, $F_{9,32} = 9.6$, p < 0.001, $F_{9,32} = 0.6$, $F_{9,33} = 0.6$ 287 4.6, p < 0.001 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 26.8$, p < 0.001, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively) of Synechococcus sp. BA-132 288 significantly. As for the two other analyzed strains, the cell-specific and mL-specific pigmentation changes differed from 289 each other in every scenario. Nonetheless, salinity had a negative impact on Chl a and Car concentrations in both 290 estimations, which was noticeable especially in the cell-specific pigmentation. Note that salinity affected pigment 291 concentrations negatively. This was a consistent feature for all examined strains. BA-132 was richer in cell-specific pigments 292 than BA-124 (Figs. 2C, 3C). Along with PAR increase, the Chl a concentration decreased significantly. The maximum Chl a cell-specific content was measured in moderate or high T (20°C in salinity 13 and 25°C in salinity 3, 8, 18) under the lowest 293 PAR (10 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹). These maximums were 0.299 pg cell⁻¹ in salinity 3, 0.248 pg cell⁻¹ in salinity 8, 0.151 pg 294 295 cell⁻¹ in salinity 13, 0.073 pg cell⁻¹ in salinity 18. Consistently with Chl a, Car cell-specific content maximums were also 296 measured under the lowest PAR (10 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) but contrary to Chl a, at the lowest T (10°C). These maximums 297 were: 0.194 pg cell⁻¹ in salinity 3, 0.131 pg cell⁻¹ in salinity 8, 0.097 pg cell⁻¹ in salinity 13, 0.062 pg cell⁻¹ in salinity 18.





298 Minimums of Chl *a* and Car cell-specific contents within all scenarios were estimated in salinity 18, T 15°C and PAR 280 299 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ being equal to 0.020 pg cell⁻¹ and 0.19 pg cell⁻¹, for Chl *a* and Car, respectively. Regarding Chl *a* for 300 minimum content per cell the same concentration as above mentioned (0.020 pg cell⁻¹) was also estimated in salinity 13 for 301 the same conditions of T and PAR. Tukey HSD tests pointed to the significance of PAR and T combined in impacting the 302 pigmentation. According to those tests, 66% and 61% of multicomparisons in Chl *a* and Car content analysis, respectively, 303 were statistically significant (Tukey HSD, * *p* < 0.05), with 81% (for Chl *a*) and 75% (for Car) of them with the highest 304 significance (Tukey HSD, *** *p* < 0.001).

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306 3.3 Chl *a* fluorescence

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308 The parameters of Chl *a* fluorescence were depicted as two-factor-dependent graphs, where the values in between the 309 specific measurements were interpolated (Fig. 4, 5). For all strains, Chl *a* fluorescence parameters were measured and 310 examined. These parameters were: the maximum photochemical efficiency of photosystem II (PSII) at dark-adapted state 311 (F_v/F_m) and the photochemical efficiency of PSII under actinic light intensity (Φ PSII).

312 The results showed that PAR and T affected $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$ (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.2$, p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.7$, p < 0.001, 313 314 $F_{9,32} = 4.5, p < 0.001, ANOVA, F_{9,32} = 5.7, p < 0.001, ANOVA, F_{9,32} = 6.3, p < 0.001 and ANOVA, F_{9,32} = 2.3, p < 0.05, for the second s$ 315 salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively) of Synechococcus sp. BA-120 significantly. For this strain, especially in low T scenarios 316 and in all scenarios with the lowest salinity, higher $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$ was observed for 280 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ when compared to 190 317 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Generally, strong fluctuations were noticeable in $F_{\nu}/F_{\rm m}$ values, which disabled the fixed 318 environmentally driven pattern determination (Fig. 4A). However, there was a constant relation noted between T and PAR 319 and Φ PSII. PAR and T had a negative impact on Φ PSII. The impact was the strongest in low salinity (Fig. 5A). Nonetheless, 320 in each salinity, the lowest Φ PSII were observed under the highest T and elevated PAR (190 or 280 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹). 321 On the contrary, the highest Φ PSII values were calculated in the lowest T and PAR conditions in every salinity. The highest 322 F√Fm, for all BA-120 experiments equaled 0.8 and was estimated for scenario: salinity 18, T 10°C, PAR 280 µmol photons 323 $m^2 s^{-1}$. Generally, maximum values of $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$ in each medium were associated with the lowest temperature. Minimum $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$ 324 within all scenarios was estimated for salinity 3, T 25°C and PAR 190 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Concerning ΦPSII, the greatest 325 of all was $\Phi PSII = 0.77$ estimated in salinity 18. Minimum $\Phi PSII$ was measured in salinity 3, T 25°C and PAR 280 µmol 326 photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Multicomparison tests pointed to a strong environmental influence on Chl a fluorescence parameters. 327 Regarding $F_{\nu}/F_{\rm m}$, 65% of all comparisons were statistically significant (Tukey HSD, * p < 0.05) with 78% of them having 328 the highest significance (Tukey, HSD, *** p < 0.001). For Φ PSII the percentages were as follows: 80% of all comparisons 329 were statistically significant (Tukey HSD, * p < 0.05) and 87% of them had the highest significance (*** p < 0.001).

330 Both PAR and T significantly affected $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$ (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 46.2$, *** p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.1$, *** p < 0.001, 331 ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.0$, *** p < 0.001 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 20.6$, *** p < 0.001, for 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively) and Φ PSII (ANOVA, *F*_{9,32} = 25.0, *** *p* < 0.001, ANOVA, *F*_{9,32} = 11.6, *** *p* < 0.001, ANOVA, *F*_{9,32} = 15.4, *p* < 0.001 and ANOVA, 332 333 $F_{9,32} = 5.2, p < 0.001$, for 3, 8, 13, 18 psu, respectively) of Synechococcus sp. BA-124. For this strain, $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$ reached the 334 lowest values when compared to the relative incubations of other strains (Figs. 4A, 4B, 4C). The values of F_{ν}/F_{m} generally 335 decreased along with PAR and T increases but with some exceptions. Generally, **PAR** and T increases but with some exceptions. 336 characteristics were similar to Fv/Fm characteristics (Figs. 4B, 5B). The Fv/Fm minimums were measured under the lowest T 337 and highest PAR in each salinity. The lowest value within all scenarios was 0.12 and was observed in salinity 3. The $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$ 338 maximums were estimated for the highest T and the lowest PAR in each salinity. The highest $F_{\rm v}/F_{\rm m}$ equaled 0.56 for salinity 339 3. Minimums of Φ PSII, consistently with $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$ were noted under the lowest T and highest PAR. The lowest Φ PSII within 340 all BA-124 experiments was 0.11 (followed by the minimum in salinity 3 being equal to 0.12) and was measured in salinity





34113. Maximums of ΦPSII were observed in the highest T and lowest PAR in each medium, similar to F_v/F_m . The greatest342ΦPSII of all was 0.54 and was measured in salinity 3. Tukey HSD post hoc test showed that PAR and T combined343influenced Chl *a* fluorescence parameters significantly. Concerning F_v/F_m , 77% of all comparisons were statistically344significant (* p < 0.05) with 88% of them having the highest significance (*** p < 0.001). For ΦPSII the percentages were as345follows: 79% of all comparisons were statistically significant (* p < 0.05) and 89% of them had the highest significance (***346p < 0.001).

347 It was found that both PAR and T affected F_{v}/F_{m} (ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 4.3$, p < 0.001, ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 4.8$, p < 0.001, 348 ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 4.5$, p < 0.001 and ANOVA, $F_{9,32} = 5.7$, p < 0.001, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively) and Φ PSII 349 (ANOVA, *F*_{9,32} = 10.1, *p* < 0.001, ANOVA, *F*_{9,32} = 7.7, *p* < 0.001, ANOVA, *F*_{9,32} = 4.7, *p* < 0.001 and ANOVA, *F*_{9,32} = 7.0, 350 p < 0.001, for salinity 3, 8, 13, 18, respectively) of Synechococcus sp. BA-132, significantly. For this strain, $F_{\rm w}/F_{\rm m}$ decreased 351 along with the PAR increase but was positively affected by T in each salinity (Fig. 4C). Minimum values of F_{ν}/F_{m} were 352 measured in the highest PAR and the lowest T in each salinity. The lowest F_v/F_m within all experiments on BA-132 stated 353 for salinity 13 ($F_{v}/F_{m} = 0.15$). In salinity 3, under aforementioned conditions of T and PAR, the F_{v}/F_{m} value was also low 354 compared to the others and equaled 0.16. The maximums of F_v/F_m were measured in T 25°C and PAR 10 µmol photons 355 $m^2 s^{-1}$. This was true for all mediums. The highest F_v/F_m were noted in salinities 13 and 18 and equaled 0.74 and 0.73, 356 respectively. This was consistent with the tendency observed in growth rates of BA-132 in low T scenarios, where μ 357 increased strongly with salinity elevation. The lowest **PSII** were noted under the highest PAR and T conditions in every 358 salinity. The minimum **PSII**, within all gathered results, was obtained in salinity 3 and equaled 0.28. T and PAR affected 359 ΦPSII negatively (Fig. 5C). Maximums of ΦPSII were measured under completely opposite conditions to the ones stating 360 for minimums, i.e. the lowest PAR and T. The highest ΦPSII, 0.79, was noted in salinity 8. The ΦPSII reached generally 361 higher values than F_v/F_m in BA-132 experiments. Φ PSII reached lower values than respective Φ PSII for two other strains 362 (Figs. 5A, 5B, 5C). Multicomparison tests point to a strong environmental influence on Chl a fluorescence parameters. For 363 $F_{\sqrt{F_m}}$, 78% of all comparisons were statistically significant (Tukey HSD, * p < 0.05) with 89% of them with the highest 364 significance (Tukey, HSD, *** p < 0.001). For Φ PSII, 82% of all comparisons were statistically significant (Tukey HSD, 365 * p < 0.05), with 89% of them having the highest significance level (Tukey, HSD, *** p < 0.001).

366 Generally, for the red strain, $F_{\nu}/F_{\rm m}$ was affected negatively by T, while green and brown strains were affected positively. 367 T had a positive impact on Φ PSII for BA-124 and a negative impact for BA-120 and BA-132. On average, Φ PSII decreased 368 along with PAR in all cultures.

370 3.4 Photosynthesis

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372 Net photosynthetic light-response curves for three PCY strains were analyzed. For all cultures, the photosynthesis 373 parameters were: maximum of photosynthesis, photosynthesis efficiency at low irradiance, and dark respiration (P_{m} , α , R_{d} , 374 respectively) and these were estimated for Chl *a*-specific and cell-specific domains (Figs. S4-S6 in Supplement). It should be 375 noted that for dark respiration values were negative (less oxygen than carbon dioxide (CO₂), which meant the lower R_{d} the 376 less net oxygen concentration was. This, in turn, indicated higher respiration rate.

The analysis of photosynthesis characteristics enabled the authors to examine and define the photoacclimation process of all three strains. This was done on the basis of Photosynthesis-Irradiance (*P-E*) curves (exemplification shown in Fig. 6). According to a photoacclimation modeled description, the results of the present study indicated changes in Photosynthetic Units (PSU) sizes as the photoacclimation mechanism, which occurred the most frequently (Table 1). There were also *P-E* curves pointing to some changes in enzymatic reactions and the altering of accessory pigments activity. What is more, changes in PSU numbers were noted as well, but these observations were episodic. In this paper the term 'OTHER' stated





for changes in enzymatic reactions and the altering of accessory pigments activity and concerns photoacclimation mechanisms other than changes in PSU sizes (PSUsize) or changes in PSU number (PSUno.).

In general, photoacclimation did not occur in low-saline medium (salinity 3). According to our results, the process was observed in only four cases in low salinity: BA-120 25°C salinity 3, BA-124 25°C salinity 3, BA-132 10°C salinity 3, and BA-132 25°C salinity 3. For BA-120, photoacclimation occurred more frequently at higher T (20 and 25°C) than lower T (10 and 15°C). However, if it had been observed in low T conditions, it usually stated for OTHER, not for PSUsize. For BA-124 and BA-132 photoacclimation was noted in the whole T range. All photoacclimation mechanisms observed for different strains are listed in Table 1.

391

392 4 Discussion

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Picoplanktonic organisms show a lot of adaptations, which enable them to spread in aquatic environments. What is more, picocyanobacteria often dominate and occupy the niches, which are inaccessible for other photoautotrophs. Owing to the fact that PCY are small-sized cells and consequently possess an advantageous surface area to volume ratio, they can assimilate trace amount of nutrients and effectively absorb light. Therefore, in oligotrophic regions of seas and oceans PCY compete with other cyanobacteria and microalgae and it can determine primary production of the whole marine ecosystem (Six et al., 2007; Richardson and Jackson, 2007; Worden and Wilken, 2016). This is also true for eutrophic basins (Stal et al., 2003; 400 Haverkamp et al., 2008; 2009; Callieri, 2010; Mazur-Marzec et al., 2013).

401 The distribution and the growth intensity of PCY are determined by their optimal ecological requirements for light and 402 temperature. Due to the presented results, PAR and T had positive effects on cell abundance for two out of the three studied 403 strains of Synechococcus sp. The highest cell concentrations were noted at the highest T (25°C) and the highest PAR level 404 (280 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹) for BA-124 and BA-132. The BA-120 strain behaved differently when compared to the other two 405 in high PAR conditions. The decrease in growth rates appeared then, i.e. growth rates for cultures grown under the most 406 elevated PAR were lower than growth rates calculated for cells grown under 190 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. According to the 407 results derived from pigmentation, Chl a fluorescence and photosynthesis sections of the present study, the decrease in 408 growth rates under the elevated PAR could have likely been associated with Photosystem II photo-inhibition. This was a 409 result of a few observations, which are described as follows. Firstly, there was a higher cell-specific Car content observed for 410 280 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ when compared to 190 μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Secondly, higher $F_{\nu}/F_{\rm m}$ values were observed for 280 411 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ when compared to 190 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, especially for low T scenarios and for all scenarios in the 412 lowest salinity medium. Thirdly, for Chl a-specific photosynthesis, P_m increased along with PAR until 190 µmol photons m⁻² 413 s^{-1} , above which the values started to decrease slightly in all salinity mediums. According to the above, a PAR level of 190 414 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ could be defined as the PSII photo-inhibition point for the red strain. This implies BA-120 did not lead 415 as effective photosynthesis being grown in PAR of more than 190 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ as the cells grown in PAR levels 416 equal or are beneath the above value. The results showed that in all synthetically created environmental scenarios, BA-124 417 was the strain of the highest cell abundance. This is consistent with the Baltic Sea field studies (Mazur-Marzec et al., 2013).

418 Cyanobacteria are generally recognized to prefer low light intensity for growth (Fogg and Thake, 1987; Ibelings, 1996). 419 Some picoplanktonic organisms demonstrated the ability to survive and resume growth after periods of total darkness. Such 420 a pronounced capacity for survival in the dark would enable these organisms to outlive the seasonal rhythm of winter 421 darkness and sinking into the aphotic zone (Antia, 1976). The investigated strains of Synechococcus sp. were found to be 422 well acclimated to relatively low and high PAR levels. The latter was especially evident at the high treatment T. This 423 conclusion is consistent with the observations of picocyanobacteria maximum abundance at the euphotic zone in coastal and 424 offshore marine waters (Stal et al., 2003; Callieri, 2010). Moreover, Kana and Glibert (1987a,b) showed that Synechococcus 425 sp. could grow at irradiance as high as 2000 µmol photon m⁻² s⁻¹.





426 Surface and near-surface populations experience extremely variable light and temperature conditions (Millie et al., 427 1990), and these factors are the ones that affect the composition of photosynthetic pigments and photosynthesis performance 428 of picocyanobacteria (Jodłowska and Śliwińska, 2014). Picocyanobacteria with a high concentration of PC are chromatically 429 better adapted to harvest longer wavelengths of PAR than those with PE as a dominating pigment. Therefore, such 430 picocyanobacteria, such as the BA-124 strain, usually dominate in surface euphotic waters (Stal et al., 2003; Haverkamp et 431 al., 2008; 2009). On the other hand, the strains rich in PE (BA-120 and BA-132), usually occurred deeper (Fahnenstiel et al., 432 1991; Hauschild et al., 1991; Vörös et al., 1991). Nonetheless, generally PCY, thanks to their high concentration of 433 photosynthetic pigments, may occur in waters under low light intensity (Stal et al., 2003). Carotenoids have a dual role in the 434 cell: to maintain a high capacity for photosynthetic light absorption and to provide protection against photooxidation 435 (Siefermann-Harms, 1987). This feature additionally explains why picoplanktonic Synechococcus is able to grow 436 successfully both in the surface layer of the sea and also in deeper waters (Stal and Walsby, 2000; Stal et al., 2003). This 437 research showed that for BA-120 cell-specific pigments content, there were very high concentrations of Chl a observed in 438 the whole T domain under low PAR. This could have implied the photoacclimation type, which was the change in PSU 439 number. This mechanism was also observed in P-E curves for scenario with salinity 8 and temperature 20°C.

440 PAR and T were also the main factors influencing the changes in Chl *a* fluorescence and photosynthesis rates in three 441 strains of *Synechococcus* sp. and may be of a great importance in the context of PCY domination in many aquatic 442 ecosystems during the summer period. Due to Chl a fluorescence parameters results, it should be noted that PAR always had 443 a negative impact on Φ PSII, which implied that cells, previously acclimated to high light conditions, had lower PSII 444 photosystem efficiency under actinic light.

445 Due to our results, on the basis of *P*-*E* curves, three types of photoacclimation mechanisms of *Synechoccocus* sp. were 446 observed: change in PSU size, change in PSU number and altering accessory pigments activity and changes in enzymatic 447 reactions. This was a striking observation because in the literature results predominantly derive the two first aforementioned 448 types of recognition (Stal et al., 2003; Jodłowska and Śliwińska, 2014). The present study showed that changes in PSU size 449 occur most frequently (Table 1). The second, ranked by frequency of occurrence, was the altering of accessory pigment 450 activity. PSU number changes in Synechoccocus sp. rarely occurred, which is consistent with literature (Jodłowska and 451 Śliwińska, 2014). Moreover, in our study, photoacclimation mechanisms occurred less frequently in the scenarios with 452 salinity 3. Additionally, according to our results, Synechococcus strains presented different ecophysiological characteristics, 453 however, they all demonstrated their tolerance to elevated PAR (for BA-120 to a certain degree) and T levels and could have 454 effectively acclimated to varied water conditions. These strains were able to change the composition of photosynthetic 455 pigments in order to use light quanta better. The ability of Synechococcus to sustain their growth rate in low light conditions 456 and their low photoinhibition in exposure to high light intensities could give picocyanobacteria an advantage in optically 457 changeable waters (Jasser, 2006).

458 The presented analysis may derive accurate assumptions regarding the regional distribution of Synechococcus sp. in the 459 Baltic Sea. For instance, a salinity horizontal gradient can be one of the factors determining the abundance of a certain strain 460 in the basin. More saline waters are most preferred by BA-132. On that basis, one can assume the concentration of brown 461 strain will be higher near the Baltic Sea entrance (Danish Straits) than in Bothnian Bay. Additionally, it was observed that 462 despite high PAR conditions being more suitable for BA-124 and BA-132 to grow intensively, all analyzed strains were able 463 to survive and grow in low PAR conditions. This is consistent with other previously published Baltic studies (Stal et al., 464 2003; Jodłowska and Śliwińska, 2014) stating that this is caused by phycobilisomes, which are structural components of 465 picocyanobacteria PSII photosystem. The presence of PCY cells throughout the whole euphotic water column was also 466 reported in limnological studies (Becker et al., 2004, Callieri, 2007).

The discrepancies between the strains ecophysiology derived in this study amplified the need for in-depth investigation of three strains separately. What is more, according to the author's best knowledge, Baltic brown strain (BA-132) is the one





469 least recognized in marine science. Stal et al. (2003) and Haverkamp et al. (2008) pointed to its inhabitation in the Baltic Sea 470 but did not give its characteristics in detail. In more recent research new information has appeared, which has provided 471 a more detailed examination of BA-132 (Jodłowska and Śliwińska, 2014). Nonetheless, this strain still requires careful 472 studies. The present paper derived an analysis of the brown strain ecophysiology itself and its comparison to other strains of 473 the same species.

474 The study of Baltic picoplankton ecophysiology is also of a great importance in the context of climate change. 475 According to Belkin (2009), the Baltic Sea is among the Large Marine Ecosystems (LME), where the most rapid warming is 476 being observed (the increase in SST between 1982 and $2006 > 0.9^{\circ}$ C). Moreover, there are studies pointing to an increase of 477 average winter temperatures in northern Europe by several degrees by the year 2100 (Meier, 2002). These along with the 478 presented results, which suggest that all analyzed strains of Synechococcus sp. were positively affected by T can be a strong 479 argument for further numerical research on examining the effect of long-term positive temperature trend on the abundance of 480 PCY in the Baltic Sea (the need for picoplankton model representation). What is more, the feedback relation, which is the 481 surface most layer being warmed up by irradiance trapped in the cells of phytoplankton may derive interesting conclusions 482 on the functioning of the ecosystem and the living organisms being the internal source of heat in the marine medium.

483 The observed feature that T had a positive impact on all strains' growth is also consistent with field studies, which 484 indicate the seasonal cycle of PCY blooms. Hajdu et al. (2007) showed that during the decline phase of Baltic cyanobacterial 485 blooms in late summer, unicellular and colony-forming picocyanobacteria increased in abundance. Mazur-Marzec et al. 486 (2013) indicated that in summer cyanobacterial biomass was usually high and ranged from 20% at the beginning of July to 487 97% in late July and August. Moreover, Paczkowska et al. (2017) pointed to the abundance of 40-90% in the summertime in 488 the Baltic Sea and to PCY being a dominant size group in all Baltic basins. Stal et al. (1999) reported that 65% of the 489 phytoplankton-associated Chl a concentration in the Baltic Proper during late summer belonged to picoplankton, while the 490 second most dominant group was nitrogen-fixing cyanobacteria (Aphanizomenon sp. and Nodularia sp.). Contrary to that, 491 there were also some reports regarding high PCY abundance in the wintertime. For instance, during the winter-spring 492 period, picocyanobacteria was the second most dominant fraction in the Baltic Sea (Paczkowska et al., 2017). The present 493 study showed that PCY can survive and grow also in low T and PAR conditions, which is consistent to the above winter-494 spring field research.

The studies of autecology of the PCY community and an understanding of its response to main environmental factors could be an important step in recognizing the phenomenon of PCY blooms in marine environments. Additionally, the laboratory experiments became a foundation in developing a new approach to Baltic Sea phytoplankton modeling development of pico-bioalgorithm describing PCY growth, which will enable long-term numerical studies on the response of PCY to changes in environmental conditions.

500

501 5 Conclusions

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503 This study showed both differences and similarities in three strains of Baltic Synechococcus sp. ecophysiology. 504 Discrepancies in growth rates, pigmentation changes, Chl a fluorescence and photosynthesis characteristics implied that BA-505 120, BA-124 and BA-132 should be studied and examined separately. Nonetheless, there were also fixed features similar for 506 all analyzed strains, offering a reason to associate these features with Synechococcus sp. as a species, in general. For 507 instance, according to the derived results, PAR and T played a key role in the life cycle of all three strains. What is more, 508 laboratory results and statistics indicated that for all strains (not just PAR and T), other factors influenced photosynthesis and 509 Chl a fluorescence parameters. Additionally, the positive impact of salinity on the growth was observed in each culture. 510 Another similarity was the prevalence of the one mechanism of photoacclimation, which was the change in size of PSU. This





511 type was followed by the altering of accessory pigments and by a change in PSU number, ranked by frequency of 512 occurrence.

513 Contrary to that, the main differences were: various patterns of growth rates under different PAR and T conditions in 514 different cultures; various photoacclimation mechanisms observed; inclinations for salinity levels; and changes in 515 pigmentation and different preferences to PAR intensities (BA-124 and BA-132 hold higher PAR than BA-120, for which a 516 photoinhibition point above 190 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ was observed). According to the latest research, PCY are a great 517 contribution to total primary production in the Baltic Sea and may contribute to summer cyanobacteria bloom to a high 518 degree. This explains the authors' motivation to lead an in-depth investigation on Baltic PCY response to a changeable 519 environment. The present research is a first step on the way to gaining new knowledge on Synechococcus sp. ecophysiology 520 and is a foundation for further studies.

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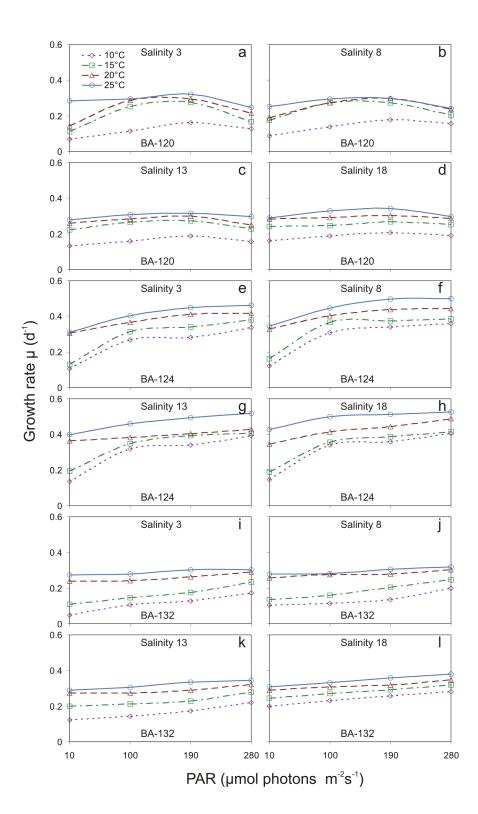




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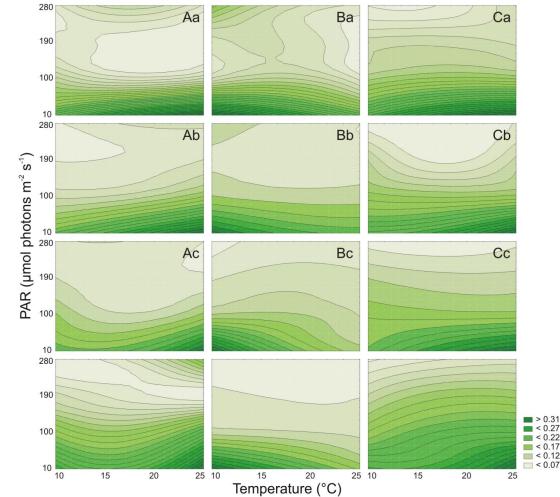








- 672 Fig. 1. Growth rates of strains BA-120 (a-d), BA-124 (e-h), BA-132 (i-l) under different environmental scenarios in 4 mediums: a) b) e) f)
- 673 i) j) low salinity 3 and 8; c) g) k) moderate salinity 13; d) h) l) high salinity 18.



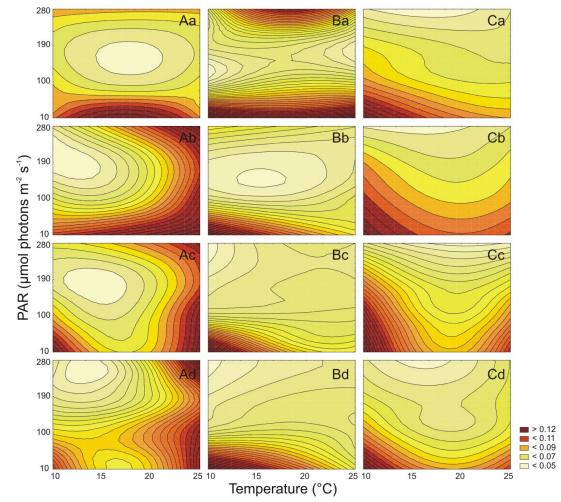


675 Fig. 2. Cell-specific Chl *a* (pg cell⁻¹) changes for BA-120 (A), BA-124 (B) and BA-132 (C) under different environmental scenarios in 4

 $676 \qquad \text{mediums: a) salinity} - 3; \text{ b) salinity} - 8; \text{ c) salinity} - 13; \text{ d) salinity} - 18.$







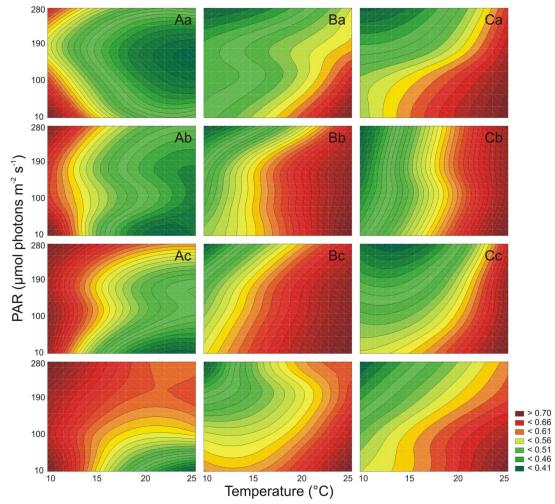
679 Fig. 3. Cell-specific Car (pg cell⁻¹) changes for BA-120 (A), BA-124 (B) and BA-132 (C) under different environmental scenarios in 4

 $680 \qquad \text{mediums: a) salinity} - 3; \text{ b) salinity} - 8; \text{ c) salinity} - 13; \text{ d) salinity} - 18.$

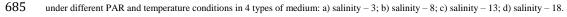
681





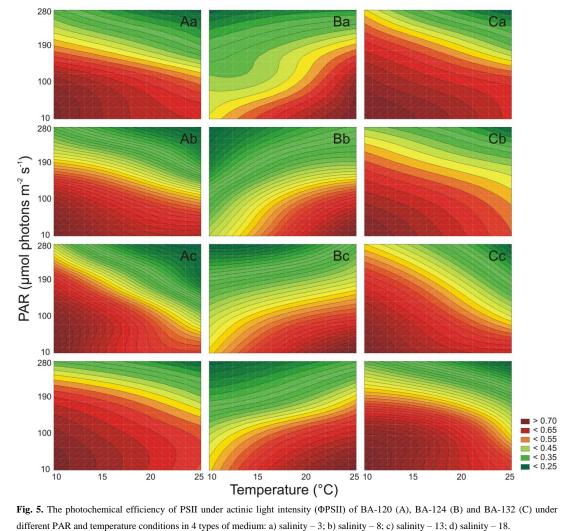


 $\label{eq:state_field} \textbf{Fig. 4.} The maximum photochemical efficiency of PSII in the dark-adapted state (F_v/F_m) of BA-120 (A), BA-124 (B) and BA-132 (C)$















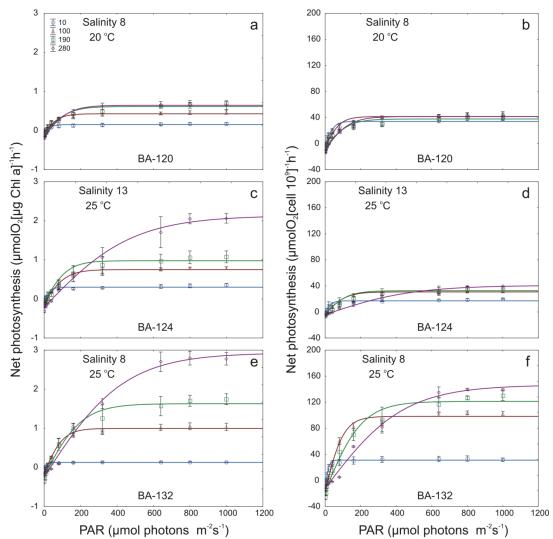


Fig. 6. Selected Chl *a* - specific and cell-specific (right side and left side panel, respectively) net photosynthetic–light response curves for BA-120 (a, b), BA-124 (c, d) and BA-132 (e, f) strains. Curves present examples of three types of photoacclimation observed for *Synechococcus* sp. and these are as follows: change in number of photosynthesis units (PSU) (a, b), change in size of PSU (c, d) and

697 change in accessory pigments activity (e, f).





- 710 Table 1. Photoacclimation types (mechanisms) for each strain at different ecological conditions. OTHER states for altering of accessory
- 711 pigments activity or changes in enzymatic reactions; PSUsize states for the change in PSU sizes; PSUno. states for the change in PSU
- number. The symbols of labels indicate the strain for which the mechanism is observed and are as follows: red for BA-120, green for BA-124
- $713 \qquad \text{and } {}^{\text{brown}} \text{ for BA-132.}$
- 714

CONDITIONS	Salinity 3	Salinity 8	Salinity 13	Salinity 18
10°C	PSUsize ^{brown}	OTHER red	PSUsize red	OTHER red
		PSUsize green	OTHER red	PSUsize green
		PSUsize brown	OTHER green	PSUsize brown
15°C	-	PSUsize green	OTHER red	
			PSUsize green	PSUsize brown
			OTHER brown	
20°C	-	PSUno. ^{red} OTHER ^{green} PSUsize	PSUsize (or	
			OTHER) red	PSUsize green
			OTHER green	
			PSUsize	
25°C	OTHER ^{red} PSUsize ^{brown}	PSUsize red	PSUsize red	PSUsize ^{green} PSUsize ^{brown}
		PSUsize green	PSUsize green	
		OTHER brown	PSUsize brown	
			-	