

1 EFFECTS OF ELEVATED CO₂ ON GROWTH, CALCIFICATION AND SPECTRAL
2 DEPENDENCE OF PHOTOINHIBITION IN THE COCCOLITHOPHORE
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28 Running Title: Elevated CO₂ Effects on a Coccolithophore

29 **Abstract**

30 We studied the effects of elevated CO₂ concentrations on cell growth, calcification and
31 spectral variation in the sensitivity of photosynthesis to inhibition by solar radiation in
32 the globally important coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi*. Growth rates and chlorophyll
33 *a* content per cell showed no significant differences between elevated (800 ppmv) and
34 ambient (400 ppmv) CO₂ conditions. However, the production of organic carbon and
35 the cell quotas for both, carbon and nitrogen, increased under elevated CO₂ conditions
36 whilst particulate inorganic carbon production rates decreased under the same
37 conditions. Biometric analyses of cells showed that coccoliths only presented significant
38 differences due to treatments in the central area width. Most importantly, the size of the
39 coccosphere decreased under elevated CO₂ conditions. The susceptibility of
40 photosynthesis to inhibition by ultraviolet radiation (UVR) was estimated using
41 biological weighting functions (BWFs) and a model that predicts photosynthesis under
42 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) and UVR exposures. BWF results
43 demonstrate that the sensitivity of photosynthesis to UVR was not significantly
44 different between *E. huxleyi* cells grown under elevated and present CO₂ concentrations.
45 We propose that the acclimation to elevated CO₂ conditions involves a physiological
46 mechanism of regulation and allocation of energy and metabolites in the cell, which is
47 also responsible for altering the sensitivity to UVR. In coccolithophores this mechanism
48 might be affected by the decrease in the calcification rates.

49 **Keywords:** Phytoplankton, Ocean Acidification, Calcification, Photoinhibition,
50 *Emiliania huxleyi*

51 **Abbreviations:** AIC, Akaike Information Criterion; BWF, Biological Weighting
52 Function; CAL, Central Area Length; CAW, Central Area Width; DIC, Dissolved
53 Inorganic Carbon; DSA, Distal Shield Area; DSL, Distal Shield Length; DSW, Distal
54 Shield Width; PIC, Particulate Inorganic Carbon; POC, Particulate Organic Carbon;

55 PON, Particulate Organic Nitrogen; RCP, Representative Concentration Pathway;
56 RMSE, Root Mean Square Error; TPC, Total Particulate Carbon; UVA, UV radiation
57 320-400 nm; UVB, UV radiation 280-320 nm; UVC, UV radiation <280 nm; UVR, UV
58 radiation 280-400 nm
59

60 **Introduction**

61 The atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) has increased by 40% since
62 pre-industrial times due to anthropogenic activities. The 5th IPCC report (IPCC 2014)
63 predicts an increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration above 1000 ppmv by the end of
64 this century for the worst-case scenario (Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP)
65 8.5). Unfortunately, the values predicted by the RCP 8.5 match the measured
66 concentrations in the atmosphere to date. The ocean is absorbing most of anthropogenic
67 emissions of CO₂, which not only affects the quantity and speciation of the dissolved
68 inorganic carbon (DIC) in the ocean, but also decreases the pH of the seawater (Doney
69 et al. 2009). These changes in pH affect biogeochemical processes in marine
70 ecosystems (Hoffmann et al. 2012) and have direct impacts on the physiological
71 responses of primary producers such as phytoplankton (Kroeker et al. 2013, Mackey et
72 al. 2015, Riebesell & Tortell 2011).

73 Phytoplankton play a key role in determining the effects of environmental change on the
74 ocean surface since they are responsible for around 50% of the net amount of carbon
75 assimilated annually by photoautotrophs (Field et al. 1998). Apart from acidification,
76 global warming enhances stratification, which reduces nutrient availability in the
77 surface mixed layer (Boyd & Doney 2002, Polovina et al. 2008). The surface mixed
78 layer depth, which determines average exposure of phytoplankton to both ultraviolet
79 (UV) and photosynthetically available radiation (PAR), reflects a balance between
80 stratification and various physical forces propelling vertical mixing, all of which are
81 affected by global change (Neale & Smyth 2018). Future shifts in this balance are
82 expected to be regionally dependent (Boyd & Doney 2002, Somavilla et al. 2017).
83 Phytoplankton will then be exposed to increasing CO₂ concentrations, low nutrient
84 concentrations and regionally variable changes in average surface layer irradiance.

85 Among phytoplankton functional groups, coccolithophores have been widely studied
86 due to their capability for producing calcium carbonate coccoliths (Paasche 2002). They
87 are responsible for contributing to the sequestering of atmospheric CO₂ into chalk,
88 changing both the atmosphere and geology of the Earth, over geological time-scales
89 (Brown et al. 2004, Young et al. 2005). *Emiliana huxleyi* is a global model organism,
90 keystone of the coccolithophores. It is widely distributed and forms extensive blooms in
91 nutrient-depleted waters after the formation of the summer thermocline (Holligan et al.
92 1993). This model species is the most numerically important coccolithophore and a
93 major primary producer in the world's oceans (Paasche 2001). *Emiliana huxleyi* is of
94 paramount significance in the global carbon cycle by contributing ca. 1–10% to total
95 organic carbon fixation and to approximately half of the pelagic deep ocean CaCO₃
96 sediments (Paasche 2001). Thus, it participates in the regulation of the exchange of CO₂
97 across the ocean–atmosphere interface through the rain ratio (the ratio of particulate
98 inorganic to organic carbon in exported biogenic matter (calcite: POC or PIC: POC)
99 (Rost & Riebesell 2004). A recent meta-analysis study demonstrates that the effect of
100 ocean acidification on coccolithophores is species specific (Meyer & Riebesell 2015).
101 In particular, elevated CO₂ has a negative effect on *E. huxleyi* calcification process, thus
102 affecting the cellular PIC/POC ratio (Kroeker et al. 2013, Meyer & Riebesell 2015).
103 The study of fundamental species such as *E. huxleyi* subjected to global change drivers,
104 will help us to unravel the physiological processes that will govern the C-cycle and the
105 biological pump in future scenarios of global change.

106

107 Global change also affects exposure of phytoplankton in surface waters to solar
108 ultraviolet B (UVB, 280–320 nm), ultraviolet A (UVA, 320–400 nm) and
109 photosynthetically available radiation (PAR, 400–700 nm) through changes in the
110 stratospheric ozone concentration, cloud cover and levels of dissolved organic matter

111 (Bais et al. 2018). Stratospheric ozone loss due to anthropogenic emission of
112 chlorofluorocarbons, now limited by the Montreal Protocol, was an important cause for
113 increased UVB in the latter decades of the 20th century (around 6% in the Northern
114 Hemisphere). This level of depletion is persisting into the 21st century due to the long
115 time required for ozone recovery (Bais et al. 2015, Shanklin 2010). The future course
116 of ozone depletion depends on the interactive effects with other global change drivers
117 that are also affecting stratospheric dynamics and temperature (Weatherhead &
118 Andersen 2006).

119

120 Both UVB and UVA (together – UVR) cause deleterious effects on the physiological
121 performance and growth of marine phytoplankton and other organisms (Häder 2011).
122 The estimation of the sensitivity to UVR exposure in relation to wavelength can be
123 quantified by biological weighting functions (BWFs) (reviewed by Neale (2000)). They
124 allow comparison between responses to different wavelengths of UVR as well as PAR
125 and can predict the effects of irradiance variations due to global change using the
126 appropriate exposure response model.

127 Changes in several variables may not result in simple additive responses relative to that
128 occurring by a given variable alone (Boyd & Hutchins 2012). Combined change can
129 produce either synergistic, antagonistic or neutral effects (Folt et al. 1999).

130 Accordingly, it has been observed that the effects of UVR on marine primary producers
131 are modulated by other environmental factors such as light availability, nutrient
132 limitation and levels of dissolved CO₂ (Beardall et al. 2009, Beardall et al. 2014).
133 Specifically, increased CO₂ concentrations affect the sensitivity of phytoplankton
134 photosynthesis to inhibition by solar, and in particular UV irradiance (Gao et al. 2009,
135 Gao et al. 2012, Sobrino et al. 2005, Sobrino et al. 2009, Sobrino et al. 2008). Previous

136 studies have not shown a unique pattern of the interactive effects of UVR and increased
137 CO₂, instead that such effects depend on the species. This suggests that the interactions
138 between elevated CO₂ and UVR may produce changes in the taxonomic composition of
139 phytoplankton assemblages (Beardall et al. 2009). The essential question is to
140 understand the response of phytoplankton physiology to the environmental conditions in
141 order to assess whether the effects of the variables are synergistic, antagonistic or
142 neutral.

143 The aim of this work was to analyze the effects of elevated CO₂ conditions on *E.*
144 *huxleyi* growth, photosynthesis and calcification under non-photoinhibitory and
145 photoinhibitory exposures in order to understand its physiological response to future
146 scenarios of ocean acidification. The strain selected for this study is a heavily calcified
147 Type A strain isolated from the Norwegian Sea. Specifically, we analysed the
148 physiological behaviour of this species through the assessment of exposure response
149 curves and spectral dependence weighting functions (BWFs) for UV and PAR
150 inhibition of photosynthesis.

151

152 **Material and methods**

153 *Culture growth conditions*

154 Cultures of the coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi* (Lohmann) Hay & Mohler,
155 Haptophyta, were provided by the Roscoff Culture Collection (RCC #1226) and grown
156 in semi-continuous culture at 16°C with constant aeration in two different treatments:
157 (1) ambient CO₂ (400 ppm CO₂) and (2) elevated CO₂ (800 ppm CO₂). Cultures were
158 maintained in exponential growth conditions for at least 14 days before experiments
159 were conducted. The gas mixture for the elevated CO₂ was provided by Air Products,

160 Inc (Allentown, PA, USA). Aeration with 800 ppm CO₂ changed the pH of the media
161 from 8.14 to 7.84. The partial pressure of CO₂ (p CO₂) in the two conditions was
162 verified by measuring the pH, temperature and salinity in the seawater and determining
163 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in a Shimadzu TOC-V analyser. These results were
164 used with the CO₂SYS program to calculate the equilibrium concentrations of dissolved
165 CO₂, bicarbonate and carbonate (Zeebe & Wolf-Gladrow 2001). Growth irradiance was
166 provided by cool white fluorescent lamps on a 14 h light:10 h dark photoperiod at an
167 irradiance of 170-180 μmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹. Growth PAR was measured with a 4-π
168 probe (QSL-2100, Biospherical Instruments) immersed in distilled water inside the
169 culture flasks. The growth medium consisted of filtered seawater from the Sargasso Sea
170 enriched with f/2 nutrients with Fe concentration reduced by half (Guillard & Ryther
171 1962). The experiments were carried out in the middle of exponential growth phase and
172 repeated at least three times with independently grown cultures for each treatment. Cell
173 numbers were counted every day with a Neubauer hemacytometer. The growth rate
174 (μ, d⁻¹) was calculated as $\ln(N_2/N_1)/t$, where N₁ and N₂ are the cell concentrations, and t
175 is the time between samples (d).

176 *Maximum photosynthetic efficiency of PSII*

177 A pulse amplitude-modulated fluorometer Diving PAM/B (Walz) with a blue light-
178 emitting-diode (LED; 470 nm) excitation was used to assess the maximum
179 photosynthetic efficiency of the cultures at different times during the experiment. A
180 custom fabricated acrylic “light-pipe” enabled fluorescence measurements directly on
181 the culture flask with sufficient signal/noise ratio. The data are expressed as the
182 photosystem II (PSII) quantum yield, $F_v:F_m = (F_m - F_0):F_m$, which has been correlated
183 with the maximum quantum yield of photosynthesis (Genty et al. 1989). F₀ is the
184 steady-state yield of *in vivo* chlorophyll a fluorescence in dark-adapted phytoplankton,

185 and F_m is the maximum yield of fluorescence obtained from an illuminated sample after
186 a saturating light pulse (400-ms pulse duration) has been applied. The light for the
187 saturating pulse, emitted by a halogen lamp, passed through a dichroic short-pass filter
188 with 580 nm cutoff (Balzers DT Cyan).

189 *Chlorophyll concentration and cellular absorbance*

190 Chlorophyll concentration was measured on aliquots concentrated on glass-fiber filters
191 (GF/F, Whatman Inc.) and extracted with 90% acetone overnight at -20°C. After
192 extraction, fluorescence was measured before and after acidification on a Turner 10-AU
193 fluorometer. The fluorometer was calibrated with chlorophyll *a* (Sigma Chemicals).
194 Pigment absorbance ($a^*(\lambda)$, $m^2 \text{ mg chl}^{-1}$) was measured using the quantitative filter
195 technique (QFT) as described in Cleveland and Weidemann (1993) with modifications
196 as described by Tzortziou (2004). Cells concentrated on the filters were scanned from
197 280 to 750 nm in a Cary 4 dual-beam spectrophotometer, using a blank filter wetted
198 with filtrate as a reference. The filter was extracted with 100% methanol, washed with
199 filtrate, and rescanned using a similar procedure as for the non-extracted filter.

200 *Photosynthesis measurements*

201 The photosynthetic response to solar radiation was performed using a polychromatic
202 incubator illuminated with a 2.5 kW xenon lamp (“photoinhibitron”), based on the
203 design of Cullen et al. (1992) with modified block construction similar to that described
204 by Smyth et al. (2012). Details of the photoinhibitron are given in Neale et al. (2014).
205 The incubator provides treatment irradiance with PAR, UVA and UVB in similar
206 proportions as solar irradiance, allowing the assessment of realistic responses. Long-
207 pass filters combinations were used to define a total of 12 spectral treatments per
208 incubation, which were combined with neutral density screens to produce ten
209 irradiances per filter combination for a total of 120 treatments of varying spectral
210 composition and irradiance. The filter combinations are listed in the supplemental

211 information Table S1. Spectral irradiance ($\text{mW m}^{-2} \text{nm}^{-1}$) for each position in the
 212 photoinhibitor was measured with a custom-built fiber-optic spectroradiometer as
 213 described by Neale and Fritz (2001).
 214 Photosynthesis was measured as total ^{14}C assimilation of added inorganic $\text{H}^{14}\text{CO}_3^-$ (~ 25
 215 kBq mL^{-1}) into organic compounds (acid-stable) in 1 mL aliquots during 1 h incubation.
 216 Temperature was controlled using a circulating water bath. Data were fit to BWF/P-E
 217 functions:

$$218 \quad P^B = P_s^B \left(1 - e^{-\frac{E_{PAR}}{E_s}} \right) \text{ERC}(E_{inh}^*) \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

$$219 \quad E_{inh}^* = \sum_{\lambda=265}^{400} \varepsilon(\lambda) E(\lambda) \Delta\lambda + \varepsilon_{PAR} E_{PAR}$$

220
 221 where P^B is the photosynthetic rate per unit chlorophyll ($\mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g chl}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$), P_s^B is the
 222 light-saturated rate of photosynthesis, ERC is, in a general sense, the exposure response
 223 curve for inhibition of photosynthesis which is formulated accordingly depending on
 224 the model chosen for fitting the observed responses. E_{inh}^* is a dimensionless index for
 225 biologically effective or weighted irradiance, $\varepsilon(\lambda)$ is the biological weight of inhibitory
 226 effect of UV ($\text{m}^2 \text{mW}^{-1}$) at wavelength λ (nm) and ε_{PAR} is the biological weight of
 227 inhibitory effect of PAR ($\text{m}^2 \text{mW}^{-1}$). $E(\lambda)$ is spectral irradiance ($\text{mW m}^{-2} \text{nm}^{-1}$) at λ
 228 (265-400 nm) and E_{PAR} is PAR irradiance (W m^{-2}). Since responses to UVC ($\lambda < 280$
 229 nm) are not relevant to present day conditions, we only report results for $\lambda > 280$ nm
 230 (cf. Neale et al., 2014). BWFs were estimated from the measured rates of
 231 photosynthesis using non-linear regression and principal component analysis (PCA).
 232 Details of the principal-component-based estimation procedure and error assessment are
 233 given in Cullen and Neale (Cullen & Neale 1997). Standard errors for the parameter
 234 means were calculated as the root mean square (rms, quadrature) of the estimation

235 standard errors (propagated from regression standard errors) and the standard error due
 236 to between-replicate variability. The BWF fits were performed using three different
 237 response models (ERCs) to determine the proper exposure – response model at high
 238 exposure. The E model (Eq. 2) was the model first developed to describe responses to
 239 UV as measured in the photoinhibitor (Cullen et al. 1992) and assumes that the
 240 specific rate of processes that restore photosynthesis (“repair”) is proportional to the
 241 cumulative inactivation of photosynthetic components (“damage”):

$$242 \quad \frac{P^B}{P_{pot}^B} = \frac{1}{1 + E_{inh}^*} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

243 where P_{pot}^B is the potential rate of photosynthesis in the absence of inhibition (i.e. the
 244 product of the first two terms of the Eq. 1 for P^B). The T model determines the presence
 245 of a threshold ($E_{inh}^* = 1$) above which, by definition, photosynthesis is inhibited (Eq. 3).
 246 It was developed to represent the ERC in which repair is considered to operate at a
 247 constant rate (Sobrino et al. 2005):

$$248 \quad \frac{P^B}{P_{pot}^B} = \begin{cases} 1 & E_{inh}^* \leq 1 \\ \frac{1}{E_{inh}^*} & E_{inh}^* > 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

249 And finally, the E_{max} model uses a combination of the E model at low exposures and T
 250 model at high exposures ((Neale et al. 2014), Eq. 4). The new E_{max}^* parameter defines
 251 the transition between the exposure range over which repair rate increases with damage
 252 and higher exposures for which repair rate is constant (i.e., operating at some maximum
 253 rate).

$$254 \quad \frac{P^B}{P_{pot}^B} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1 + E_{inh}^*} & E_{inh}^* \leq E_{max}^* \\ \frac{1}{cE_{inh}^*} & E_{inh}^* > E_{max}^* \end{cases}$$

$$255 \quad c = \frac{1 + E_{max}^*}{E_{max}^*} \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

256

257 A scaling coefficient, c , makes the function continuous at the E_{max}^* transition. A
258 schematic representation of the relation between repair and damage of each of the
259 models is shown the Supplemental Information (see Figure S1). The E_{max} model has an
260 additional parameter compared to the E and T model. Whether sufficient increase in
261 explained variance is gained to justify the incorporation of an additional parameter was
262 assessed by evaluation of the Akaike information criterion (AIC) for each of the fits
263 using the Matlab NonLinearModel function (Statistics toolbox).

264 *Elemental composition: Particulate organic carbon and nitrogen quotas*

265 For elemental composition analyses, cells were filtered onto pre-combusted GF/F filters
266 (Whatman). To determine cellular particulate organic carbon (POC) quotas, respective
267 filters were fumed with concentrated HCl overnight to remove calcite. Cellular
268 particulate inorganic carbon (PIC) quotas were assessed as the difference in carbon
269 content between HCl-treated (POC) and untreated filters (total particulate C, TPC).
270 Particulate organic nitrogen (PON) was also measured in all filters.

271 *Primary production and calcification rates*

272 The relative rates of POC and PIC production, primary production and calcification
273 respectively, were additionally determined by following the microdiffusion technique
274 (MDT), (Paasche & Brubak 1994, Poulton et al. 2010), which allows the comparison of
275 the responses from the same experimental sample. Samples (20 mL) of each
276 independent culture ($n=3$) were inoculated with $H^{14}CO_3^-$ (approximately 37 kBq mL^{-1}
277 final concentration) and incubated in triplicate at growth irradiance and temperature
278 conditions. Incubations were ended after 2 hours by filtration under low-vacuum
279 pressure through polycarbonate filters (25-mm diameter, 0.2- μm pore size), which were
280 then rinsed with 0.2- μm filtered seawater to remove the non-incorporated ^{14}C -labelled
281 DIC. Filters were then placed in the bottom of 20- mL scintillation vials that were

282 hermetically closed keeping inside a glass-fiber Whatman filters (GF/F) soaked with 0.2
283 mL β -phenylethylamine (Sigma) located in the screw cap. Phosphoric acid (1 mL, 1%)
284 was added into the bottom of the vial to convert ^{14}C -labeled calcite into $^{14}\text{CO}_2$, which
285 was then sequestered by the β -phenylethylamine–soaked GFF filter. When all the PIC
286 was converted into $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ and trapped in the soaked filter (i.e. after 24 h), the CO_2 trap
287 filters were removed and placed in fresh scintillation vials. Both, primary production
288 and calcification rates were determined after the addition of scintillation cocktail (Insta-
289 gel, Perkin Elmer), by using a scintillation counter LS-6599 (Beckman), and referred to
290 the total inorganic carbon content of the incubation media used. Activity was checked
291 by removal of 20 μL from each replicate after the spike addition, mixing with 0.2 mL of
292 β -phenylethylamine and liquid scintillation cocktail, and counting on the scintillation
293 counter. $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ capture efficiency was $\sim 93\%$ and it was assessed by adding a spike of a
294 known ^{14}C activity to seawater samples and determining the activity collected on the
295 Whatman GFF filter relative to the spike activity. The average relative standard
296 deviation (SD divided by mean $\times 100$) of triplicate measurements was 7.6% for POC
297 production and 7.9 % for PIC production.

298 *Biometric analysis*

299 For scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analyses, 1 mL of sample was concentrated
300 onto a polycarbonate filter (0.8 μm pore-size). Filters were mounted on aluminium SEM
301 stubs and sputter-coated with gold/palladium. (Quorum Q150T ES, Quorum
302 Technologies Ltd., East Grinstead, UK). Filters were examined using a Carl Zeiss Evo
303 $\text{\textcircled{R}}$ MA10 SEM at the Institute of Medical Sciences (University of Aberdeen)
304 Coccospheres and coccoliths morphometrics were measured from SEM digital images
305 using Fiji-ImageJ 1.47v (National Institutes of Health, USA) analysis program.
306 Measurements of *E. huxleyi* coccoliths focused on the distal shield, including the distal
307 shield length (DSL), distal shield width (DSW), central area length (CAL), central area

308 width (CAW) and the number of slits (Supplementary Material Figure S2). The surface
309 area of the distal shield (DSA) was estimated from DSL and DSW according to Bach et
310 al. (2012)):

$$311 \text{ DSA} = \pi \times \frac{\text{DSL} \times \text{DSW}}{4}$$

312 This equation assumes that the shield is an ellipse with semi-axes of DSL/2 and
313 DSW/2. The outer shield length (OSL) was calculated assuming an elliptical shape of
314 the coccolith as:

$$315 \text{ OSL} = \frac{\text{DSL} - \text{CAL} + \text{DSW} - \text{CAW}}{4}$$

316 In addition, coccosphere diameter was also measured. Mean values of measured
317 parameters were constant when counting more than 20 coccospheres / coccoliths per
318 sample, so this number can be considered as statistically significant (Triantaphyllou et
319 al. 2010).

320 *Statistical analyses*

321 Significant differences between treatments were analyzed using a t-test considering
322 $p < 0.05$ as significant. BWFs were estimated for each experiment, and the mean BWF
323 was calculated for each treatment ($n = 3-4$), with standard errors for the mean derived
324 from individual error estimates by propagation of errors.

325

326 **Results**

327

328 *Particulate organic carbon and nitrogen quotas increased under elevated CO₂*

329 The cellular characteristics of *E. huxleyi* cultures maintained in ambient and elevated
330 CO₂ concentrations are shown in Table 1. Although elevated CO₂ did not affect growth
331 rates or cellular chl content, POC and PON quotas were statistically different from
332 ambient cultures. When grown with elevated CO₂, *E. huxleyi* increased its bulk POC

333 content relative to chl *a* by 15% ($p < 0.001$) (Table 1). For the same samples, PIC content
334 did not show significant differences between treatments. The PIC:POC ratio was lower
335 under elevated CO₂ but the difference was not significant. The PON content was also
336 significantly higher in elevated CO₂ conditions, but the increase was less than the
337 increase in POC, so the POC:PON ratio was significantly higher (9%) in the elevated
338 CO₂ conditions ($p = 0.035$). The average of F_v/F_m was the same (0.60 ± 0.01) for both
339 conditions, showing that elevated CO₂ concentrations did not diminish the physiological
340 performance of *E. huxleyi*. Cellular spectral absorbance normalized to chl *a* (a^* , Figure
341 1), also had a similar shape between treatments and was low in the UV, suggesting the
342 absence of UV-absorbing compounds. Average a^* was lower for cultures in the
343 elevated treatment but the difference with the ambient treatment was not significant (t
344 test at 440 nm).

345

346 *Organic and inorganic carbon production rates showed opposed trends with elevated*
347 *CO₂*

348 The assessment of carbon production rates in *E. huxleyi* using the microdiffusion
349 technique showed that PIC production rates (mean \pm SD) significantly decreased (13%,
350 Figure 2A) from $2.12 \pm 0.18 \mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ in ambient CO₂ cultures to 1.85 ± 0.13
351 $\mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ in elevated CO₂ cultures ($p = 0.002$). On the contrary, POC fixation
352 rates in the same samples increased by 15% ($p < 0.001$), changing from 2.17 ± 0.16 to
353 $2.54 \pm 0.19 \mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ in the elevated CO₂ cultures (Figure 2B). The PIC:POC
354 production ratio showed a significant 25% decrease in elevated CO₂ cultures ($p < 0.001$,
355 Figure 2C) and changed from a 49%:51% contribution in the cultures grown under
356 ambient conditions to a 42%:58% in the cultures acclimated to elevated CO₂.
357 These rates are somewhat different from the expected average production rates given
358 the measured quotas (Table 1), which can be predicted as the product of growth rate and

359 quota averaged over the 14 hour light period. This assumes balanced growth which
360 should be approximated for exponential growing semi-continuous cultures (Balch et al.
361 1996). The predicted PIC rates ($\mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) are about half of the MDT rates,
362 0.91 ± 0.11 (ambient) and 0.93 ± 0.09 (elevated). On the other hand the predicted POC
363 rates are slightly greater than the MDT rates, 2.47 ± 0.25 and $2.82 \pm 0.15 \mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1}$
364 h^{-1} for ambient and elevated respectively. The possible causes for this discrepancy are
365 considered in the discussion section.

366

367 *Coccoliths were affected by elevated CO₂*

368 Selected morphometric parameters measured in the coccoliths and the coccospheres are
369 presented in Table 2. Representative micrographs are shown in SI figure S3. The
370 coccoliths only showed significant differences between treatments in the central area
371 width (CAW, SI Figure S2 illustrates where dimensions were taken on the coccolith).
372 For cells acclimated to elevated CO₂, the CAW of the coccoliths showed a small, but
373 significant, increase, in addition to a slight increase in the central area length (CAL,
374 Table 2). Despite these differences, the coccoliths of cells grown in the two treatments
375 appear very similar in SEM micrographs (Figure S3 C, D). The increase in CAL was
376 not significant, neither were differences in the distal shield length (DSL) or distal shield
377 width (DSW). The size of coccolith's central area is inversely related to the area of
378 calcification (i.e. the region between the slits and the central area; Triantaphyllou et al.
379 2010). Thus, an increase in the central area reflects a decrease in the region of
380 calcification. Further analysis of the whole coccosphere showed that the coccosphere
381 diameter was also significantly different between treatments ($p < 0.05$), with the size of
382 the coccosphere smaller under elevated CO₂ conditions.

383

384 *Elevated CO₂ did not increase UVR sensitivity*

385 The average rates of photosynthesis of *E. huxleyi* vs. irradiance measured using the
386 photoinhibitor were similar ($p > 0.05$) between ambient and elevated CO₂ for all
387 spectral treatments (Fig. 3). These results allowed the estimation of biological weighting
388 functions (BWFs) for the inhibition of photosynthesis in cells grown under ambient and
389 elevated CO₂ conditions. We tested the fit of three possible exposure response curve
390 (ERC) models (E , T and E_{max}) to the response of *E. huxleyi* to UV and PAR exposure.
391 Figure 4 shows a representative set of observed photosynthetic rates and predicted
392 values using the estimated rates for the best fit obtained for each of the three BWF/P-E
393 models, where photosynthesis normalized to chl *a* (P^B) is plotted versus weighted
394 irradiance (E^*_{inh} , dimensionless). All three models provided good estimates of the
395 overall response with $R^2 > 0.89$ ($n = 120$), but there were systematic biases specific to
396 each model. The E model tended to underestimate observed rates at moderate exposures
397 ($1 < E^*_{inh} < 2$), while overestimating rates at high exposures ($E^*_{inh} > 4$, Figure 4 a) and
398 showed the lowest value of R^2 . In comparison, T and E_{max} models showed better
399 agreement with observed rates for exposures above the inhibition (T) or E_{max} threshold
400 but tended to underestimate rates below the threshold (Figure 4 b,c). There were no
401 differences between R^2 and RMSE between the T model and E_{max} model fits. This
402 suggested that use of the E_{max} model, which requires an additional parameter (E_{max}), was
403 not justified. To test this, we calculated the AIC for each fit (Table 3). The AIC takes
404 into account both the prediction performance and number of model parameters and the
405 best model is the one providing the lowest AIC (Burnham & Anderson 2003). There
406 were no differences between T and E_{max} model AICs for fits to any of the data sets from
407 the BWF experiments. So statistically, there was no justification to use the E_{max} model
408 since the addition of an extra parameter did not improve the model fit. Consequently, all
409 results presented in this report are for fits made with the T model.
410 The BWFs demonstrated that sensitivity of photosynthesis to inhibition by UVR was

411 not significantly different between cells grown under elevated and ambient CO₂. For *E.*
412 *huxleyi* cultures grown in either condition, the average specific weights for inhibition of
413 photosynthesis ($\epsilon [\lambda]$, [mW m⁻²]⁻¹) were not significantly different over the full
414 wavelength range (i.e. differences were less than the standard error of the average
415 weight) (Figure 5). The overall shape of the BWF is a decrease in weights from 290 to
416 345 nm with an exponential slope of about 7% nm⁻¹ and a relatively constant weight at
417 longer wavelengths. The sensitivity to inhibition by PAR (ϵ_{PAR} , (W m⁻²)⁻¹) was low and
418 also not significantly different between growth conditions (Table 4). At the average
419 ϵ_{PAR} , PAR inhibition would only become significant ($E^*_{\text{inh}} > 1$) at exposures > 300 W m⁻²
420 (ca 1290 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). The fitted parameters for both treatments using the *T*
421 model for a 1 h incubation in the Photoinhibitor, i.e. the maximum rates of
422 photosynthesis in the absence of inhibition, P^{B}_{s} , the saturation irradiance parameter, E_{s}
423 and the biological weight of inhibitory effect of PAR, showed higher values under
424 elevated CO₂ conditions but the results were not significantly different than those
425 observed under ambient CO₂ levels (Table 4).

426

427 **Discussion**

428

429 The results from this study show that *E. huxleyi* RCC 1226 is a highly calcifying strain
430 with similar capability for assimilating organic and inorganic carbon as particulate
431 material in the cell. The acclimation to elevated CO₂ levels in this strain over two weeks
432 did not produce significant changes in the growth rates but increased organic carbon and
433 nitrogen quotas. The fact that growth rates of *E. huxleyi* did not change under the CO₂
434 concentrations used in this experiment (Table 2) is contrary to that observed in another
435 strain of this coccolithophore during mesocosm incubations, where elevated CO₂ clearly
436 inhibited the growth rate compared to ambient CO₂ (Table 2, (Segovia et al. 2017)).

437 The strain in this mesocosm experiment has similar characteristics to the overcalcified
438 Type A strain isolated from the Norwegian Sea used for this study (Segovia et al. 2017).
439 However, the effects of elevated CO₂ levels on coccolithophores are sometimes
440 contradictory and not always significant as shown in recent meta-analyses (Kroeker et
441 al. 2013, Meyer & Riebesell 2015). Additionally, POC production and cell quota
442 significantly increased by 15% in cells acclimated to elevated CO₂ concentrations in
443 concordance with previous studies (Riebesell & Tortell 2011, Lorenzo et al. 2018).
444 Given the increased production and quotas of organic carbon and nitrogen for similar
445 growth rates, bigger cells might be expected under elevated CO₂ conditions, at least
446 regarding the size of the organic part of the cell (Aloisi 2015). Unfortunately, estimation
447 of cell size cannot be easily performed in this strain without taking into consideration
448 the carbonate coccosphere size, which can vary as a function of the number of layers of
449 coccoliths. Independent analysis of the coccolith metrics and coccosphere diameter in
450 our study showed that elevated CO₂ conditions resulted in smaller cells than under
451 ambient CO₂ conditions due to decreases in calcification. With this information it
452 remained unknown if the size of the organic part of the cell also changed with the
453 increase in CO₂.

454 The results based on the biometrics were in agreement with the decrease in PIC rates
455 under elevated CO₂ observed in our study using the microdiffusion technique (MDT.
456 (Paasche & Brubak 1994, Poulton et al. 2010). They are also in agreement with
457 previous studies that indicate a significant effect of elevated CO₂ in coccolithophores
458 calcification over production rates (Riebesell & Tortell 2011, Lorenzo et al. 2018).
459 Calcification rates observed in this strain are within the higher limit observed in cultures
460 (Balch et al. 2007) and similar to other *Emiliania* strains, such as the clone E88 isolated
461 from the Gulf of Maine (Balch et al. 1996, Balch et al. 1992). Despite good recovery
462 percentage and low variability, the MDT estimated rates of PIC production were

463 different from, and considerably higher than, mean daily rates predicted multiplying the
464 growth rate and inorganic carbon: chl quota. Balch et al. (1996) made a similar
465 calculation for a large set of continuous culture experiments with *E. huxleyi* and
466 observed that the predicted daily rate of calcification typically underestimated MDT
467 measurements by ~ 40%, which they attributed to temporal uncoupling between
468 photosynthesis and calcification. In other words, the partitioning of total photosynthetic
469 activity between inorganic and organic products can vary through the light period.
470 Similar to Balch et al. (1996), we found that predicted daily rate of total C incorporation
471 (POC +PIC) was closer to (~80%) the total MDT rate. The remaining discrepancy is
472 probably due to these experiments being conducted at different times in two different
473 labs.

474 De Bodt et al. (2010) proposed that the decrease in cellular PIC production rates at
475 elevated pCO₂ could produce a lower calcite content per coccolith, a decrease in
476 coccoliths number per cell or, a decrease in the coccolith production rate, these effects
477 not being mutually exclusive. Decreased calcification at lowered pH may be due to a
478 lower saturating state of calcite in the coccolith vesicles and subsequently disturbed
479 nucleation and formation of the crystallization (Zondervan et al. 2002). Recently,
480 Beaufort et al. (2011) demonstrated that the mass of the coccoliths decreased because of
481 a lower calcite content due to acidification. In the work presented here, the
482 morphometric analyses of coccoliths and coccospheres of *E. huxleyi* in both CO₂
483 conditions revealed that the coccosphere-sized particles showed a reduction trend with
484 increasing pCO₂ as already shown (De Bodt et al. 2010). The central area and the
485 number of slits were bigger under elevated CO₂, indicating less calcification under more
486 acidic conditions. Thus, the cells showed that the coccoliths and the coccospheres were
487 affected by elevated CO₂ concentrations although these alterations did not contribute to

488 increase the susceptibility of *E. huxleyi* to UVR, as opposed to studies describing an
489 increase in inhibition of photosynthesis under the same scenario (Gao et al. 2009).
490 The susceptibility of photosynthesis to UVR was estimated using biological weighting
491 functions (BWFs) for the inhibition of photosynthesis, and a model that predicts
492 primary productivity behaviour under PAR and UVR exposures. Among the different
493 models tested, the *T* model provided the best prediction for inhibition of photosynthesis.
494 Along with previous studies using the same model (Sobrino et al. 2005, Sobrino et al.
495 2009, Sobrino et al. 2008), these results suggest that there is an exposure threshold
496 above which inhibition of photosynthesis is more severe because repair rate is limited.
497 While inhibition is absent below this exposure threshold in the *T* model, more recent
498 studies indicate that inhibition is still present but much less severe since repair rate
499 increases with exposure (Neale et al. 2014). This below-threshold response is quantified
500 in the E_{\max} model through introduction of an additional parameter (Neale et al. 2014).
501 Unfortunately, in the case of *E. huxleyi*, rates were too variable to resolve the below-
502 threshold response. Therefore, the E_{\max} and *T* models gave equivalent AIC values and
503 the additional parameter was not justified. However, the *T* model tends to underestimate
504 the maximum rate of uninhibited photosynthesis (P^B_s) since it ignores any inhibition
505 below the threshold. For this reason, the E_{\max} model is more appropriate for modelling
506 primary productivity in the ocean (Neale et al. 2014). It could be also the reason why
507 the *T* model P^B_s estimates were lower than the POC incorporation rates measured under
508 culture conditions (no UV at saturating PAR). Further experiments should be performed
509 with *E. huxleyi* to better define inhibition at lower exposures to enable fitting of the E_{\max}
510 model. Nevertheless, the results demonstrated that the *T* model provides a good basis
511 for comparing responses to UV of *E. huxleyi* growing at different CO₂ concentrations.
512 The results from this study demonstrate that photosynthesis in *E. huxleyi* under
513 saturating light and nutrient conditions showed the same sensitivity to UVR exposure

514 under present atmospheric CO₂ levels (400 ppm) and elevated CO₂ levels predicted for
515 the end of the century (800 ppm) (IPCC 2014). The sensitivity of each phytoplankton
516 species to UVR is determined by the capability for protection and repair to counteract
517 UVR damage and the influence of the environmental factors on this capability in
518 different ways, increasing damage, decreasing efficiency of repair and indirectly
519 promoting repair and protection mechanisms (Litchman et al. 2002, Neale 2001). In
520 addition to the individual processes that take part in the development of these
521 mechanisms, the basal cell metabolism controls the degree of activity in the cell. The
522 fact that *E. huxleyi* showed the same sensitivity of photosynthesis to UVR in cells
523 grown both under ambient and under elevated CO₂ concentrations in our study is not
524 surprising, since the responses to UVR at increased CO₂ are diverse between different
525 taxa (Gao et al. 2009, Gao et al. 2012, García-Gómez et al. 2014, Sobrino et al. 2005,
526 Sobrino et al. 2009, Sobrino et al. 2008, Wu et al. 2012) and even between different
527 strains. One of the main questions is why there is such a variety of responses. Raven
528 (1991) proposed theoretically that a downregulation of the photosynthetic machinery in
529 phytoplankton under elevated CO₂ conditions could increase the resource use efficiency
530 and several experimental studies have supported this contention (García-Gómez et al.
531 2016, Sobrino et al. 2014). In *Thalassiosira pseudonana* and natural phytoplankton
532 assemblages the higher chlorophyll-specific photosynthesis observed under elevated
533 CO₂ levels was related to decreases in cellular chlorophyll content (Sobrino et al. 2009,
534 Sobrino et al. 2008). In addition, decreases in CCM activity, general enzymatic activity
535 and Rubisco content have been also observed under elevated CO₂ conditions (Wu et al.
536 2010, Sobrino et al. 2014). This suggests that elevated CO₂ might increase passive
537 diffusion rates and decrease the amount of energy and metabolites necessary to drive the
538 active transport of carbon to Rubisco, finally decreasing the whole cell metabolism.
539 This “downregulated” metabolism under elevated CO₂ acclimated conditions also has a

540 lower activation state of the general defence mechanism (Sobrino et al. 2014) which
541 might affect the repair process of UVR-caused damage. A reduced amount or activity of
542 the enzymes involved in the repair of the photosynthesis apparatus would increase the
543 susceptibility to UVR. This results in more photoinhibition when UVR stress is
544 imposed than the stress that would occur in cells with normal metabolic activity (Gao et
545 al. 2009, Gao et al. 2012, Sobrino et al. 2009, Sobrino et al. 2014, Sobrino et al. 2008).
546 In any case, it is expected that downregulation would decrease the catalytic costs of
547 photosynthesis if growth is not energy limited by any metabolic demand (i.e. light,
548 nutrients, etc), as it was in studies showing increases in sensitivity to UVR under
549 enhanced CO₂ (Gao et al. 2009, Gao et al. 2012, Sobrino et al. 2009, Sobrino et al.
550 2014, Sobrino et al. 2008). Specific studies including calculations about the catalytic
551 machinery costs under elevated CO₂ conditions are scarce (Raven et al. 2014).
552 However, in this study *E. huxleyi* chl a content did not decrease at elevated CO₂, and
553 growth rate, as a good indicator of the increased resource use efficiency under elevated
554 CO₂ conditions neither showed significant increases. Hence, it appears that a full
555 downregulation was not attained in this species, possibly because the energy savings
556 due to less CCM activity were counterbalanced by the increased energy demand for
557 other processes. In this case, a higher metabolic activity to compensate for the lower
558 calcification rates due to increased CO₂ could be a major cause. Another possibility is
559 that CCM downregulation under elevated CO₂ was not sufficient to induce the full
560 downregulation of the cell metabolism. Supporting this last contention, Lorenzo et al
561 (2018) determined the relative fraction of HCO₃⁻ and CO₂ uptake in a similar *E. huxleyi*
562 strain during a natural bloom, by using the isotope disequilibrium assay (Martin &
563 Tortell 2006), and found that HCO₃⁻ was the main C_i source for photosynthesis and was
564 not affected by CO₂. As a consequence, if downregulation of cell metabolism did not
565 occur, increases in sensitivity to UVR would not be expected.

566 Coccolithophores have been described as resistant to photoinhibition (Paasche 2001)
567 and it is suggested that the coccoliths could play photoprotective role in mitigating
568 excess PAR and UVR in *E. huxleyi* (Xu et al. 2016). These findings suggest that
569 coccolithophores may have an advantage compared to other phytoplankton groups
570 regarding stressful irradiance management (Raven & Crawford 2012). However, several
571 studies have demonstrated the sensitivity of *E. huxleyi* to solar UV exposure (Buma et
572 al. 2000, Gao et al. 2009, Guan & Gao 2010). In our study, cellular absorbance of UVR
573 and PAR was similar between ambient and elevated CO₂ concentrations and the
574 comparison with other published results showed that *E. huxleyi* has similar UV spectral
575 sensitivity as other phytoplankton species at ambient CO₂ concentration (Figure 6a).
576 This is further borne out by comparing the predicted response of different species to
577 average, midday summer irradiance at a temperate latitude (Table 5). In particular, the
578 sensitivity of *E. huxleyi* strain used for this study seems to be similar to the Chlorophyte
579 *Nannochloris atomus* and the diatom *T. pseudonana* at ambient CO₂. For cells
580 acclimated to elevated CO₂ concentrations, *E. huxleyi* and *N. atomus* also showed
581 similar susceptibility to UV (Figure 6b, Table 5). However, *Nannochloropsis gaditana*
582 at ambient CO₂ and *T. pseudonana* at elevated CO₂ are more sensitive than *E. huxleyi*,
583 reflecting the physiological differences discussed previously.

584

585 During the past years there is a growing body of studies focusing on the effects of ocean
586 acidification on coccolithophores (Riebesell & Tortell 2011). Our results analyzing the
587 role of UVR in combination with the increase in CO₂ contribute to this increasing
588 knowledge. They indicate that the sensitivity to UVR will be the same at elevated as
589 ambient CO₂ conditions in this strain of *E. huxleyi*. Sensitivity to UV may not have
590 varied in this strain because energy savings due to less CCM activity was used to satisfy
591 the increased energy demands for other processes such as PIC production, or because

592 CCM activity was not significantly affected by CO₂. Our results also show that future
593 scenarios of global change, characterized by elevated CO₂ atmospheric concentrations,
594 might promote carbon fixation as organic matter by this calcifying *E. huxleyi* strain.
595 However, a similar proportion of inorganic carbon fixation will be inhibited by the
596 ocean acidification, counterbalancing the positive effect observed on primary
597 production. The net response results in a neutral effect of ocean acidification on this
598 strain of *E. huxleyi* regarding growth rate, carbon fixation and photosynthesis inhibition
599 by UVR under elevated CO₂ conditions.

600

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608

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819 Zondervan, I., Rost, B. & Riebesell, U. 2002. Effect of CO₂ concentration on the
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823

824 **Table 1.** Cellular characteristics of *Emiliana huxleyi* grown under ambient CO₂ (400
825 ppm) and elevated CO₂ (800 ppm). Mean ± standard deviation (n=3-4 independent
826 cultures). Statistically significant differences (p <0.05) are indicated with an asterisk
827 (*).

	Ambient CO₂	Elevated CO₂
Specific growth rate (d ⁻¹)	0.60 ± 0.06	0.58 ± 0.03
POC quota (μg μg Chl <i>a</i> ⁻¹)	57.7 ± 0.38*	68.0 ± 0.89*
PIC quota (μg μg Chl <i>a</i> ⁻¹)	21.27 ± 1.35	22.55 ± 1.83
PON quota (μg μg Chl <i>a</i> ⁻¹)	9.93 ± 0.24*	10.56 ± 0.30*
PIC:POC (mol mol ⁻¹)	0.37 ± 0.02	0.33 ± 0.03
POC:PON (mol mol ⁻¹)	7.48 ± 0.22*	8.17 ± 0.31*
Chl- <i>a</i> quota (pg cell ⁻¹)	0.23 ± 0.04	0.25 ± 0.05

828

829

830 **Table 2.** Morphometric analysis of detached coccoliths and coccospheres of *Emiliana*
831 *huxleyi* grown under ambient CO₂ (400 ppm) and elevated CO₂ (800 ppm). Mean ±
832 standard deviation (μm). Statistically significant differences (p < 0.05) are indicated with
833 an asterisk. Measured parameters on coccoliths DSL: distal shield length; DSW: distal
834 shield width; DSA: distal shield area; CAL: central area length; CAW: central area
835 width and OSL: outer shield length.

	Ambient CO₂	Elevated CO₂
<i>Coccoliths</i>		
DSL	3.17 ± 0.27	3.17 ± 0.28
DSW	2.54 ± 0.27	2.55 ± 0.33
DSA	6.39 ± 1.21	6.40 ± 1.28
CAL	1.42 ± 0.20	1.48 ± 0.19
CAW	0.83 ± 0.14*	0.94 ± 0.17*
OSL	0.87 ± 0.11	0.83 ± 0.09
Number of slits	30.72 ± 3.40*	34.16 ± 3.37*
n	30	30
<i>Coccospheres</i>		
Length	6.88 ± 0.52*	6.44 ± 0.61*
Width	6.47 ± 0.47	6.22 ± 0.59

n

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838 **Table 3.** Difference in the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) calculated for fits using
839 *E vs T* and *T vs E_{max}* exposure response models to experimental data on the response of
840 *Emiliania huxleyi* photosynthesis to UV + PAR exposure. Positive values indicate
841 improvement (lowering) of the AIC (Burnham & Anderson 2003). Listed is the
842 average±standard deviation (SD) difference for n=6 sets of experimental data.

843

ΔAIC		
	<i>(E vs. T)</i>	<i>(T vs. E_{max})</i>
Average	101.7	-0.01
SD	15.5	0.71

844

845

846 **Table 4.** Fitted parameters for the BWF-PI model of photosynthesis by *Emiliana*
847 *huxleyi* using the *T* exposure response model. Listed are the light saturated rates of
848 photosynthesis in the absence of inhibition (P_s^B , $\mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g Chl } a^{-1}$), characteristic
849 irradiances for light saturation (E_s , W m^{-2} , PAR) and coefficients for inhibition by PAR
850 (ϵ_{PAR} , $(\text{W m}^{-2})^{-1}$), mean \pm standard errors for $n \geq 3$ experiments under each condition
851 ambient (400 ppm) and elevated (800 ppm) CO_2 concentration.

	Ambient CO_2	Elevated CO_2
P_s^B	2.17 ± 0.22	2.20 ± 0.21
E_s	13.7 ± 0.84	14.5 ± 1.03
$\epsilon_{\text{PAR}} \times 10^{-3}$	3.26 ± 0.33	3.41 ± 0.27

852

853

854 **Table 5.** Weighted irradiance values (E_{inh}^*) and % inhibition of photosynthesis
 855 estimated using the T-model BWF/P-E for different phytoplankton species grown
 856 under ambient (400 ppm) or elevated CO₂ (800 ppm) (cf. Figure 8). Response is based
 857 on average, midday summer spectral irradiance at a temperate location (39°N) as
 858 recorded at the Smithsonian Environmental Research Center (Neale 2001).

Species	E_{inh}^*		% Inhibition	
	Ambient CO ₂	Elevated CO ₂	Ambient CO ₂	Elevated CO ₂
<i>Emiliana huxleyi</i>	3.74	3.81	0.73	0.74
<i>Nannochloris atomus</i> ¹	4.15	4.05	0.76	0.75
<i>Nannochloropsis gaditana</i> ¹	5.02	4.18	0.80	0.76
<i>Thalassiosira pseudonana</i> ²	3.17	5.20	0.68	0.81

859

860 ¹Using BWF/P-E results from Sobrino et al. (2005)

861 ²Using BWF/P-E results for cultures grown under PAR irradiance as reported by

862 Sobrino et al. (2008)

863

864 **Figure Legends**

865 **Figure 1.** Cellular absorbance of UVR and PAR measured as Chl *a* specific absorption
866 ($a^*[\lambda] \text{ m}^2 \text{ mg Chl}a^{-1}$) of *Emiliana huxleyi* under ambient (400 ppm) and elevated CO₂
867 (800 ppm) concentrations (n=3). The solid line corresponds to cultures grown under
868 ambient CO₂ concentration and the dashed line corresponds to elevated CO₂ cultures.

869 **Figure 2.** Production rates of *Emiliana huxleyi* under ambient (400 ppm, solid) and
870 elevated (800 ppm, open) CO₂ during growth as measured using the microdiffusion
871 technique. (a) particulate inorganic carbon (PIC), (b) particulate organic carbon (POC)
872 and, (c) PIC: POC productivity ratio. Bars represent the mean of triplicate cultures and
873 the error bars denote the standard deviation. Differences are statistically significant at
874 $p=0.002$ (a) or $p<0.001$ (b,c).

875 **Figure 3.** Average rates of photosynthesis vs. PAR irradiance (W m^{-2}) for *Emiliana*
876 *huxleyi* cultures (n=3) grown under ambient (400 ppm, solid symbols) or high (800
877 ppm, open symbols) CO₂ for the 12 different spectral treatments (specified in
878 Supplemental Table S1) in the photoinhibitor with 10 irradiance levels within each
879 treatment. Panel titles identify the lower (cut-off) wavelength of each irradiance
880 treatment specifying the wavelengths of 1% and 50% transmission (respectively).
881 Panels are ordered from shortest to longest cut-off wavelengths. Further details on
882 spectral treatments are listed by panel letter in Supplemental Table S1. Due to variation
883 within the Xe-lamp beam, spectral composition within treatment varies resulting in
884 some scatter in the P-E relationship (i.e. values around 75 W m^{-2} in plot F). This
885 spectral variation is accounted for in the model fit.

886 **Figure 4.** The panels illustrate the observed (points) vs. fitted (lines) results for three
887 BWF/P-E models, the E (a), T (b) and E_{max} (c) models (see materials and methods for
888 definition of models). Biomass-specific photosynthesis ($\mu\text{gC } \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$) plotted as a
889 function of UV+PAR exposure weighted by a spectral biological weighting function for

890 inhibition, E_{inh}^* (dimensionless). E_{inh}^* reflects the varying inhibition effectiveness of the
891 exposure conditions (i.e. one of the 10 irradiance levels of the 12 different spectral
892 treatments as described in Table S1) corresponding to each of the measured
893 photosynthetic rates (Figure 3). Root mean square error (RMSE) of the fitted model is
894 in $\mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$.

895 **Figure 5.** BWFs for the inhibition of photosynthesis by UVR (ϵ [λ], [mW m^{-2}] $^{-1}$) of
896 *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures under present atmospheric (400 ppm, solid line) and elevated
897 (800 ppm, dashed line) CO_2 . Curves are the average BWF (n=3-4) for each treatment.
898 The thin and thick line error bars show representative standard errors of the mean
899 (SEM) for the average BWF of ambient and elevated CO_2 cultures, respectively,
900 calculated from the standard error estimates of the individual BWFs.

901 **Figure 6.** Biological weighting functions for the inhibition of photosynthesis by UV (ϵ
902 [λ], [mW m^{-2}] $^{-1}$) estimated by statistical analysis of data from different phytoplankton
903 species. The solid line is the average biological weight for *Thalassiosira pseudonana*
904 (Sobrino et al 2008), the short dashed line is for *Nannochloris atomus* (Sobrino et al
905 2005), the dotted line is for *Nannochloropsis gaditana* (Sobrino et al 2005), and the
906 long dashed line is *Emiliana huxleyi*, at ambient (400 ppm) (a) and elevated (800 ppm)
907 (b) CO_2 conditions. The error bars show representative standard errors.

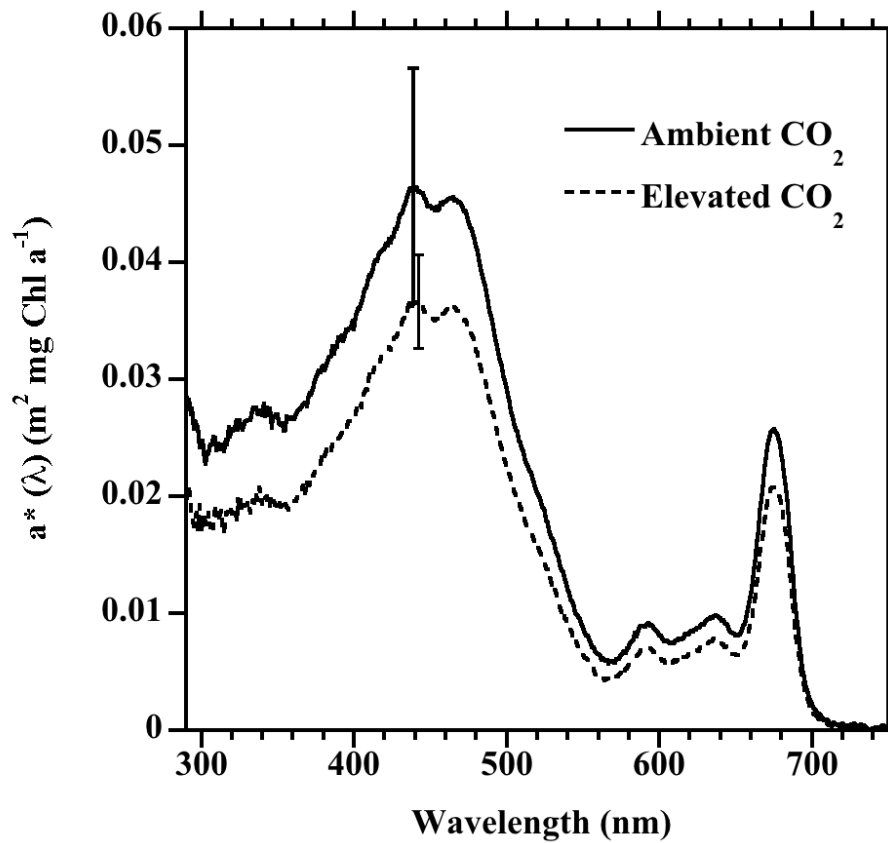
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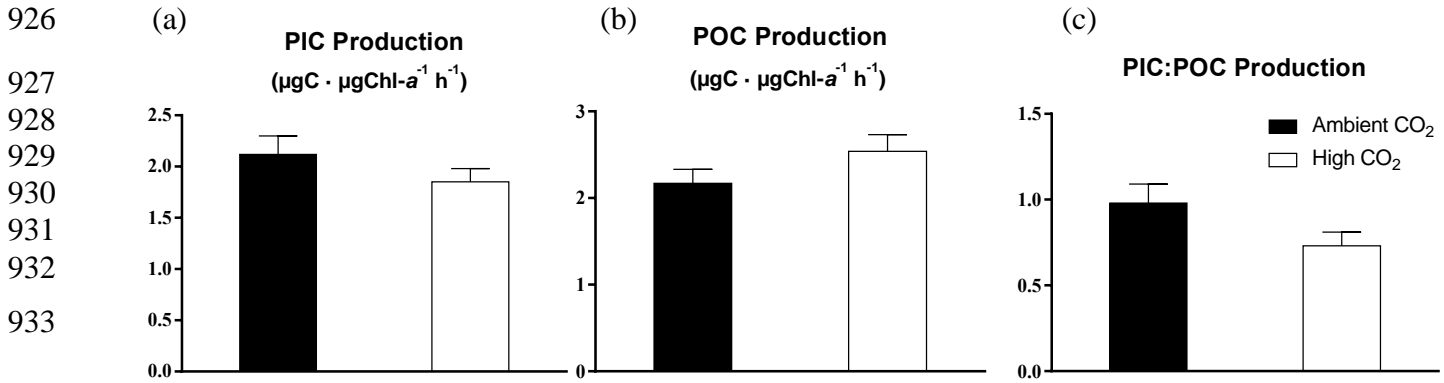
912 **Figure 1.** Cellular absorbance of UVR and PAR measured as Chl *a* specific absorption
913 ($a^*[\lambda] \text{ m}^2 \text{ mg Chl a}^{-1}$) of *Emiliana huxleyi* under ambient (400 ppm) and elevated CO_2
914 (800 ppm) concentrations (mean \pm std. dev., $n=3$). The solid line corresponds to cultures
915 grown under ambient CO_2 concentration and the dashed line corresponds to elevated
916 CO_2 cultures.



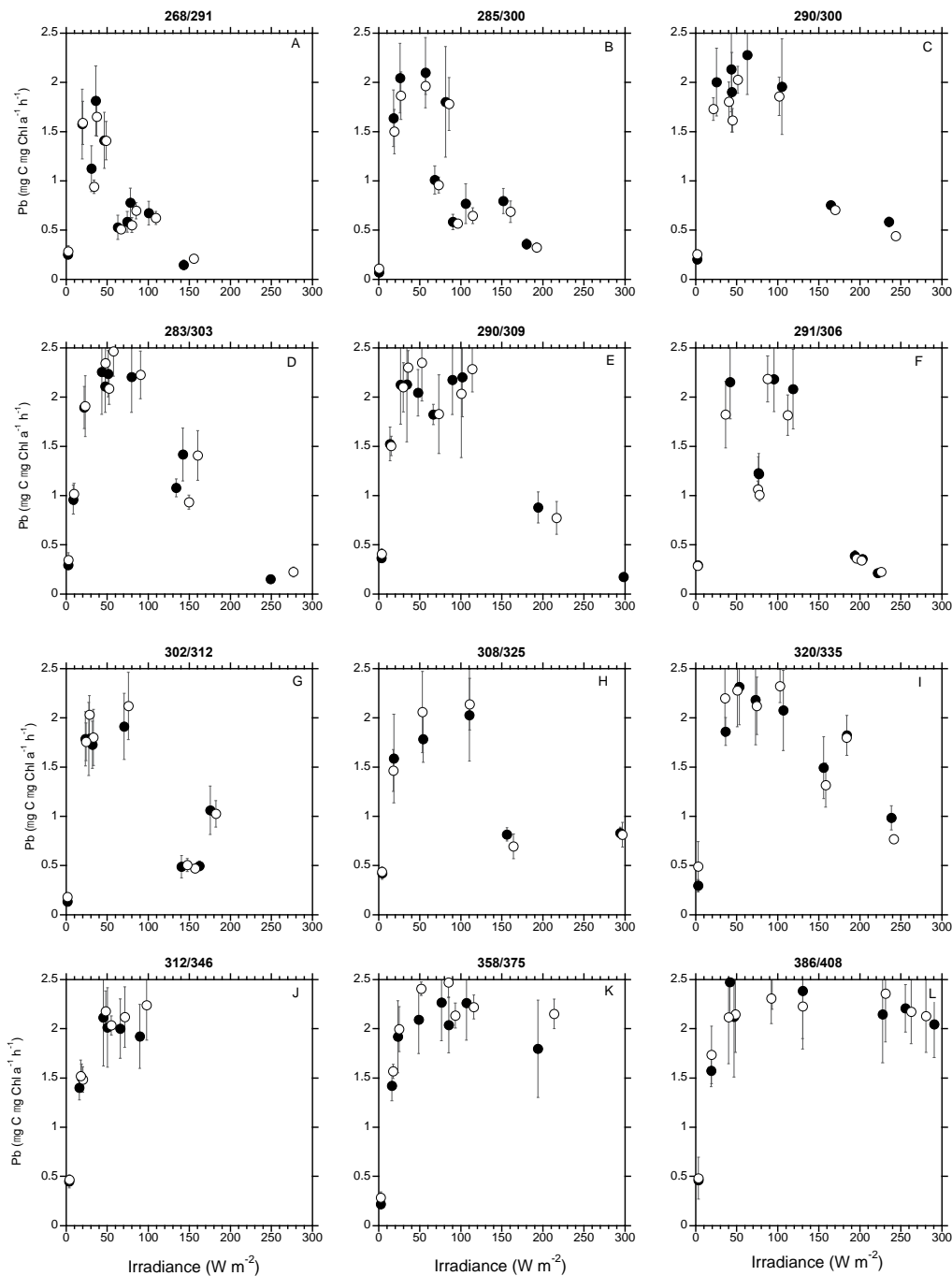
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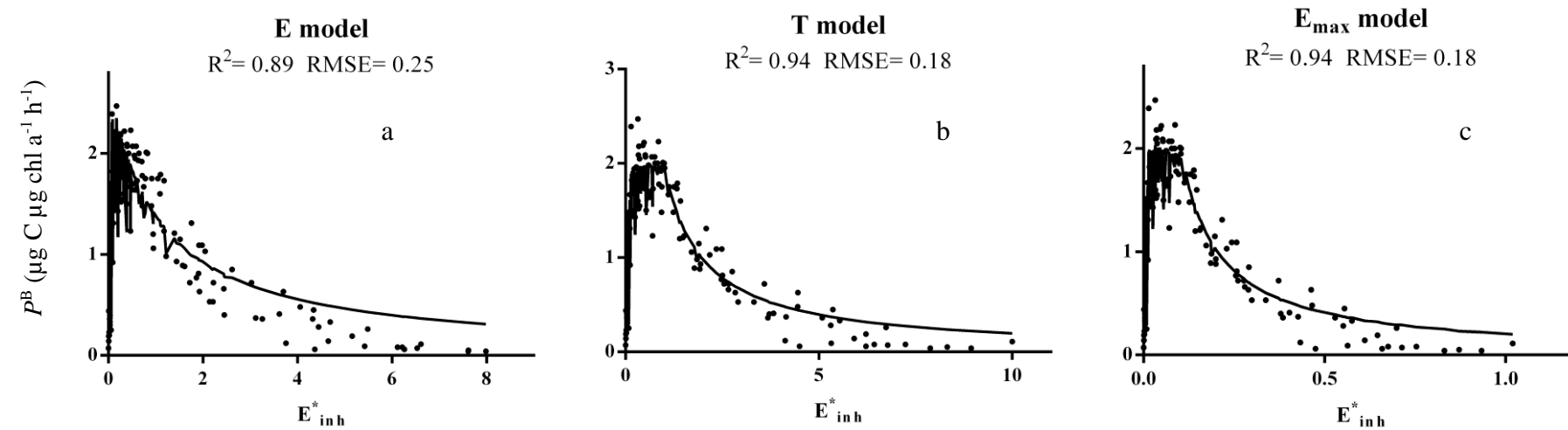
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922 and, (c) PIC: POC productivity ratio. Bars represent the mean of triplicate cultures and
923 the error bars denote the standard deviation. Differences are statistically significant at
924 $p=0.002$ (a) or $p<0.001$ (b,c).
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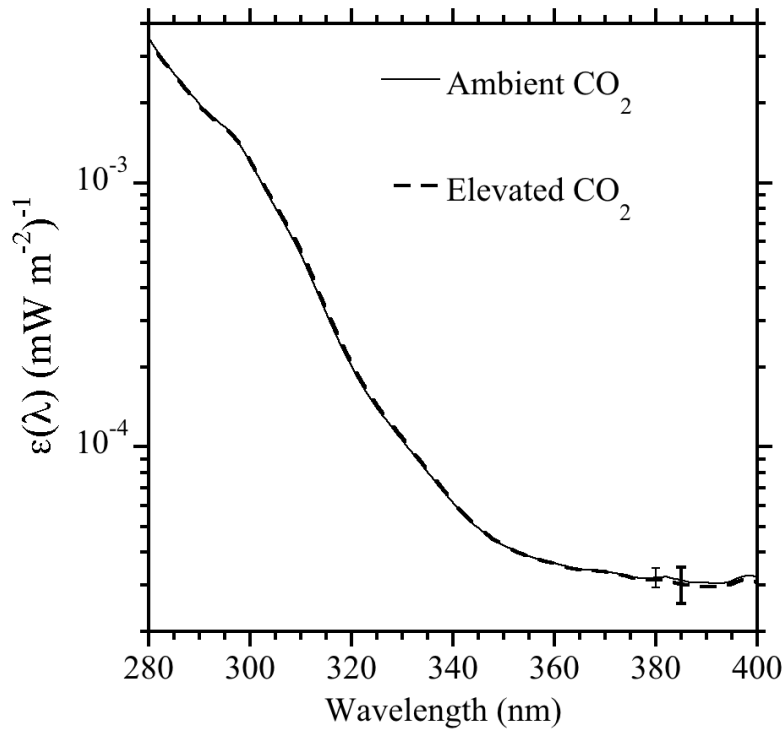
934 **Figure 3.** Average rates of photosynthesis vs. PAR irradiance (W m^{-2}) for *Emiliana*
 935 *huxleyi* cultures ($n=3$) grown under ambient (400 ppm, solid symbols) or high (800
 936 ppm, open symbols) CO_2 for the 12 different spectral treatments (specified in
 937 Supplemental Table S1) in the photoinhibitor with 10 irradiance levels within each
 938 treatment. Panel titles identify the lower (cut-off) wavelength of each irradiance
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 942 within the Xe-lamp beam, spectral composition within treatment varies resulting in
 943 some scatter in the P-E relationship (i.e. values around 75 W m^{-2} in plot F). This
 944 spectral variation is accounted for in the model fit.
 945



946 **Figure 4.** The panels illustrate the observed (points) vs. fitted (lines) results for three BWF/P-E models, the E (a), T (b) and E_{max} (c) models (see
947 materials and methods for definition of models). Biomass-specific photosynthesis ($\mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g chl } a^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$) plotted as a function of UV+PAR exposure
948 weighted by a spectral biological weighting function for inhibition, E_{inh}^* (dimensionless). E_{inh}^* reflects the varying inhibition effectiveness of the
949 exposure conditions (i.e. one of the 10 irradiance levels of the 12 different spectral treatments as described in Table S1) corresponding to each of
950 the measured photosynthetic rates (Figure 3). Root mean square error (RMSE) of the fitted model is in $\mu\text{g C } \mu\text{g Chl } a^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$.
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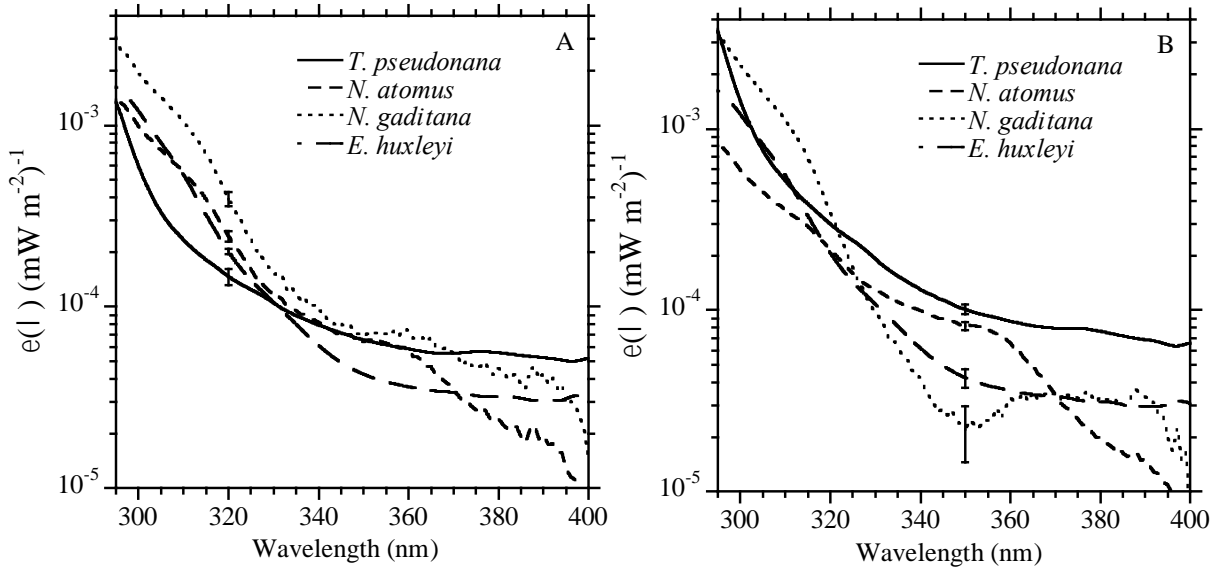


954 **Figure 5.** BWFs for the inhibition of photosynthesis by UVR ($\epsilon [\lambda]$, $[\text{mW m}^{-2}]^{-1}$) of
955 *Emiliana huxleyi* cultures under present atmospheric (400 ppm, solid line) and elevated
956 (800 ppm, dashed line) CO_2 . Curves are the average BWF ($n=3-4$) for each treatment.
957 The thin and thick line error bars show representative standard errors of the mean
958 (SEM) for the average BWF of ambient and elevated CO_2 cultures, respectively,
959 calculated from the standard error estimate of the individual BWFs.
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962 **Figure 6.** Biological weighting functions for the inhibition of photosynthesis by UV (ϵ
 963 $[\lambda]$, $[\text{mW m}^{-2}]^{-1}$) estimated by statistical analysis of data from different phytoplankton
 964 species. The solid line is the average biological weight for *Thalassiosira pseudonana*
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 967 long dashed line is *Emiliana huxleyi*, at ambient (400 ppm) and elevated (800 ppm)
 968 (b) CO₂ conditions. The error bars show representative standard errors.



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