#### **Responses of marine phytoplankton communities to environmental changes:**

### new insights from a niche classification scheme

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#### 1 Abstract

2 Predicting changes of phytoplankton communities in response to global warming 3 is one of the challenges of ecological forecasting. One of the constraints is the paucity 4 of general principles applicable to community ecology. Based on a synecological 5 analysis of a decadal-scale database, we created a niche habitat classification scheme 6 relating nine phytoplankton groups to fifteen statistically refined realized niches comprised of three niche dimensions: temperature, irradiance, and nitrate 7 8 concentrations. The niche scheme assigned the nine phytoplankton groups to three 9 types of niches: a cold type, a warm type, and a type associated with high irradiance 10 and high nitrate concentrations. The fact that phytoplankton groups in cold niches 11 were governed by irradiance and those in warm niches by nitrate is consistent with 12 general ecological theories, but the fact that diatoms were the only dominant group in 13 high-irradiance, high-nitrate niches challenges the idea based on autecological studies 14 that diatoms are generally better adapted to low-irradiance, high-nutrient conditions. 15 When combined with an irradiance model, the niche scheme revealed that 16 photoinhibition of *Prochlorococcus*, which is predicted from autecological studies, is 17 a function of temperature. We used the niche scheme to predict the responses of 18 phytoplankton communities to environmental changes due to seawater warming and 19 eutrophication. The results of the study suggest that a synecological analysis of large 20 databases from field studies facilitates identification of general principles of 21 community ecology that can be used to forecast responses of biological communities 22 to environmental changes.

23 Keywords: Phytoplankton community; climate change; synecology; niche
24 classification scheme; South China Sea.

25 1. Introduction

26 Whether general ecological principles will emerge from studies of community 27 ecology is a question that has been debated for at least several decades (Eppley 1972, Lawton 1999), but especially after the concept of a *periodic table of niches*, analogous 28 29 to the periodic table of elements, was proposed by Pianka (1974). The desire to 30 generate such general theories has been stimulated by concerns over the impact of 31 climate change on biological communities (Mcgill et al. 2006). Winemiller et al. (2015) state that "A universal periodic table of niches is unlikely, but instead 32 33 alternative niche schemes could be developed for making predictions for different 34 groups of organisms in different regions, or for addressing different kinds of 35 problems." They have proposed feasible methods for creating niche schemes from a 36 functional traits perspective as opposed to pairwise species interactions with no 37 environmental context (Winemiller et al. 2015). They suggest use of a niche scheme 38 that involves 1440 possible niches consisting of five niche dimensions, including 39 habitat (4 levels), life history (5 levels), trophic position (6 levels), defense (2 levels), 40 and metabolism (6 levels). However, it is doubtful that a niche scheme based on so many possibilities is going to be of much practical use. So many niches violate a 41 42 general principle of science, Occam's Razor, which argues that the number of entities

43 (e.g., niches) should not to be multiplied beyond necessity (Baker 2007).

In practical applications, the choice of niche dimensions is very much a function 44 45 of the anticipated application of the niche scheme. To develop a niche scheme that can 46 be used to predict the response of a biological community to climate change, it seems 47 reasonable to begin by using habitat as the niche dimension and ignore the other four 48 dimensions mentioned by Winemiller et al. (2015). The reason is that it is primarily 49 the habitat that we believe climate change will affect, and the distribution of habitats 50 in the future may, in many cases, amount to a rearrangement of habitats in the 51 contemporary environment (Irwin et al. 2012). If the habitats associated with a 52 large-scale field study are sufficiently comprehensive, it may be possible to define a 53 niche table and associated ecological communities that would make possible an 54 informed assessment of the impact of climate change on the composition of 55 communities if future habitats can be characterized with sufficient accuracy.

56 Predicting future changes from niche schemes is of fundamental importance in 57 the case of marine phytoplankton, which are essential components of most marine 58 biogeochemical cycles and food webs (Falkowski et al. 1998) and are likely to 59 undergo significant changes in terms of biomass, community structure, and diversity 60 in response to sea surface warming and ocean acidification (Barton et al. 2010, Boyce 61 et al. 2010, Follows et al. 2007, Gao et al. 2012). However, phytoplankton as a whole 62 are evolutionarily and ecologically diverse and include tens of thousands of species (Sournia et al. 1991). Assigning all species to a variety of niches based on 63

autecological information would be very challenging, and tests conducted with 64 several species or functional types may not adequately represent natural 65 phytoplankton communities (Mutshinda et al. 2017). Hence there is still much 66 67 uncertainty about the extent to which the impacts of climate change on natural phytoplankton communities can be generalized from autecological studies. An 68 69 informed assessment of the likely impact of climate change on phytoplankton 70 communities is more likely to result from a synecological study that identifies 71 practical niche schemes in which information about whole phytoplankton 72 communities can be the basis of niche assignments.

73 One approach to developing such niche schemes based on synecological 74 information is to use simplified indicators to characterize phytoplankton community 75 composition. Phytoplankton community composition estimated from CHEMTAX on 76 the basis of specific marker pigments is one such indicator (Mackey et al. 1996). 77 CHEMTAX is remarkable for its ability to characterize the whole phytoplankton 78 community from picoplankton to large colonies at one time (Mackey et al. 1996). 79 Although the information is limited to taxonomic characterizations at the class level, 80 its advantage is that it facilitates analysis of large datasets.

81 To create a niche scheme that is useful for predicting phytoplankton community 82 responses to climate change, we used a large-scale field dataset collected from the 83 South China Sea (SCS), the largest marginal sea in the Western Pacific. The dataset 84 contained the full size range of phytoplankton communities estimated from 85 CHEMTAX and covered a wide range of environmental conditions that characterize their habitats. Biogeographic distribution patterns of phytoplankton based on this 86 87 dataset have been published previously (Xiao et al. 2018b), but there has been no 88 prognosticative analysis of the impact of climate change on the SCS phytoplankton 89 communities. Here, we systematically interpolated the data and developed a niche 90 scheme relating phytoplankton communities to changes of three habitat-related niche 91 dimensions: temperature, irradiance, and nitrate concentrations. Our goal was to 92 predict the response of the composition of phytoplankton communities to future 93 environmental changes using the niche classification scheme.

#### 94 **2. Materials and methods**

#### 95 2.1. Data sources

96 We previously compiled a dataset based on 5338 samples that were analyzed for 97 phytoplankton community composition and associated environmental parameters. The 98 samples were collected during 20 cruises in the SCS conducted from February 2004 99 to July 2015 (Chen et al. 2014, Chen et al. 2011, Han et al. 2012, Huang et al. 2010, 100 Wang et al. 2016, Wang et al. 2018, Wang et al. 2015, Xiao et al. 2018b, Yang et al. 101 2015, Zeng et al. 2015). The relative contributions of nine phytoplankton groups to 102 the total chlorophyll a (TChl a, the sum of monovinyl chlorophyll a and divinyl 103 chlorophyll a) were calculated using the CHEMTAX program based on thirteen 104 diagnostic pigments that determined by high-performance liquid were

105 chromatography (HPLC) (for details, see Xiao et al., 2018b). The nine phytoplankton
106 groups included dinoflagellates (Dino), diatoms (Diat), haptophytes\_8 (Hapt\_8),
107 haptophytes\_6 (Hapt\_6), chlorophytes (Chlo), cryptophytes (Cryp), *Prochlorococcus*108 (Proc), *Synechococcus* (Syne), and prasinophytes (Pras).

109 For the present analysis, we excluded the coastal region where the bottom depth 110 was less than 50 m because the nutrient sources and hydrological conditions in the 111 coastal region are complex (Han et al. 2012) and the irradiance data are less reliable 112 (Lee et al. 2007). We focused on the dynamics of phytoplankton communities in the 113 upper mixed layer, where global warming effects are likely to be greatest (Six et al. 114 2007). Similar to other regions worldwide (Johnson et al. 2006, Karl and Church 2014, 115 Laws 2013), high cell abundance, biomass, and relative abundances (contributions to 116 TChl a) of most of the dominant groups were generally highest in the upper mixed 117 layer in our study area (Fig. S1).

118 Among the environmental factors that define niche dimensions, we focused on temperature (°C), irradiance at depth (mol quanta  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ), and nitrate concentrations 119 120 ( $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup>) because these factors have been demonstrated to be the most important 121 determinants of phytoplankton community structure in the SCS (Ho et al. 2015, Xiao 122 et al. 2018b). Xiao et al. (2018b) have described details of the acquisition and quality 123 control of these parameters. Because the present analysis focused on the upper mixed layer, the relative abundance of each group and the values of each environmental 124 factor were averaged over the mixed layer by trapezoidal integration with the 125

126 exception of the mean irradiance in the euphotic zone  $(\overline{E})$ , which was computed as 127 follows:

128 
$$\frac{1}{MLD} \int_0^{MLD} E_0 e^{-k_d z} \, dz = \frac{E_0}{k_d MLD} \left( 1 - e^{-k_d MLD} \right) \tag{1}$$

129 where

130 
$$k_d = \ln(0.01)/Z_e$$
 (2)

131 where z is the integration variable representing depth (m) in the mixed layer, MLD is 132 the mixed layer depth, and  $k_d$  is the light attenuation coefficient.  $Z_e$  is the depth of the 133 euphotic zone, calculated according to Lee et al. (2007);  $E_0$  is the monthly surface photosynthetically active radiation (400-700 nm) obtained from the standard 134 MODIS-Aqua km-pixel resolution 135 Level-3 products at 9 (http://oceandata.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/MODISA). 136

After being averaged over the mixed layer, the total number of samples was 689,
among which 140 samples had no nitrate data. The result is that we had 549 samples
in all analyses if nitrate was incorporated.

#### 140 2.2. Data interpolation for individual niche schemes

141 The mean temperature, mean irradiance, and mean nitrate in the mixed layer 142 were in the ranges of 20.6–31.2 °C, 1.9–47.4 mol quanta m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, and 0.001–8.6  $\mu$ mol 143 L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. To investigate the succession of phytoplankton communities along 144 each niche dimension in the mixed layer, we assigned each sample to different

145	intervals of each niche dimension. The number of intervals was 1 greater than the
146	number of boundaries because the first and last interval included all values less than
147	the lowest boundary and greater than the highest boundary, respectively. The interval
148	boundaries of temperature and irradiance were specified to vary every 2 °C in the
149	range 22–30 °C and every 5 mol quanta m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> in the range 5–40 mol quanta m <sup>-2</sup> d <sup>-1</sup> ,
150	respectively. The interval boundaries for nitrate, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, and 1 $\mu mol \ L^{-1},$ were
151	uneven because the distribution of nitrate concentrations was highly right skewed (Fig.
152	S2). The mean relative abundance of each group and the standard error (SEM,
153	standard deviation divided by the square root of the number of data) were calculated
154	within each specified interval. Although information about realized niches that were
155	obtained via machine learning methods (Generalized Additive Models and Maximum
156	Entropy Models) based on raw data in the upper 150 m has already been described in
157	Xiao et al. (2018b), the present analysis was different in that the data interpolation
158	was based on mean values in the upper mixed layer and thus no complex statistical
159	methods were needed.

160 2.3. Data reduction, ordination, and classification for a three-dimensional niche
161 scheme

162 In order to create a three-dimensional niche scheme that was useful for 163 characterizing the dynamics of the phytoplankton communities, the samples were 164 divided into a series of bins on the basis of different intervals of temperature,

165 irradiance, and nitrate. The interval boundaries of each niche dimension were the same as the individual niches. These bins represented  $\sum_{1}^{5} C_{5}^{i} \times \sum_{1}^{8} C_{8}^{j} \times \sum_{1}^{4} C_{4}^{k} =$ 166 118,575 possible three-dimensional niche divisions, where the  $C_n^m$  are the number 167 168 of combinations of n interval boundaries taken m at a time, and the summation is over 169 the number of interval boundaries for temperature (5), irradiance (8), and nitrate (4). 170 The calculations began with one interval boundary for each environmental parameter, and hence there was a minimum of  $2^3 = 8$  possible niches and a maximum of  $6 \times 9 \times 5 =$ 171 172 270 possible niches. We defined niches for which we had fewer than 3 samples as 173 empty niches and niches with at least 3 samples as realized niches. For each niche 174 division, we removed the empty niches and carried out a one-way analysis of variance on the remaining niches in which we compared the normalized between-niche sum of 175 176 squares (between-niche variance) to the normalized within-niche sum of squares (within-niche variance) for each of the nine phytoplankton groups. We concluded that 177 the relative abundance of a phytoplankton group varied significantly between niches 178 179 if the ratio of the between-niche variance to the within-niche variance  $(V_w)$ 180 significantly exceeded 1.0 based on an F test. We considered that the division into 181 niches was informative if the smallest F statistic  $(F_{\min})$  among the 9 phytoplankton 182 groups exceeded the critical value. The critical value of the F statistic was associated 183 with a type I error rate (p) of 0.005 to ensure that the overall type I error rate was <0.05, i.e.,  $1 - (0.995)^9 = 0.044$ . 184



For the initial case of 8 possible niches, the corresponding candidate boundaries

186 for temperature, irradiance, and nitrate generated  $C_5^1 \times C_8^1 \times C_4^1 = 160$  possible 187 combinations. We removed combinations for which the number of empty niches was 188 more than 1. For the 51 remaining combinations, we determined the optimum 189 combination of niche boundaries by varying the boundaries until  $F_{min}$  was a maximum. 190 The computer program that determined the optimum niche boundaries of 8 possible 191 niches is presented as 'R Program 1' in the Supplementary Information.

To determine whether further subdivision of the niches was informative, we
calculated the within-niche sum of squares with and without one more niche division.
We then calculated the statistic *F*' as follows:

195 
$$F' = \frac{(S_{wa} - S_{wb})/(D_{wa} - D_{wb})}{S_{wb}/(D_{wb})}$$
(3)

where  $S_w$  is the within-niche sum of squares, b and a represent the realized niches 196 with and without one more niche division, and  $D_{wb}$  and  $D_{wa}$  are the associated degrees 197 198 of freedom. The additional niche division was judged to have significantly reduced the  $V_w$  if the p value associated with F' was <0.005 for the group that had the largest F 199 200 statistic  $(F_{\text{max}})$  among the 9 phytoplankton groups. We chose the combination of niche 201 boundaries that produced the smallest p value. This process was repeated until no 202 significant reduction of the  $V_w$  could be achieved by further subdivision of the niches 203 (Table S1). Computer programs that obtained the statistical information of all subdivisions of the optimum niche division of 8 possible niches and determined the 204 205 final optimum niche division are presented as 'R Program 2' and 'R Program 3',

206 respectively, in the Supplementary Information.

207 The realized niches of the last niche division were selected to create the final three-dimensional niche scheme using a Canonical Correspondence Analysis (CCA) 208 209 and clustering analysis based on the mean relative abundance of each phytoplankton 210 group and mean values of the associated environmental factors within each niche. A 211 Monte Carlo permutation test was used to test the significance of the correlation between each environmental factor and community composition, and the results 212 213 showed that all the three environmental factors passed this test (p < 0.05 for all cases). 214 The scores of the groups along the first two canonical axes of the CCA were used for 215 clustering analysis. Ward's minimum variance clustering was conducted based on the 216 Euclidean distances among the standardized values of the first two canonical axes. 217 The number of clusters was determined by a scree plot that showed the changes of the 218 within-clusters sum of squares (Fig. S4). The CCA was done using the 'cca' function 219 of the R package 'vegan' (Borcard et al. 2011). The parameter 'scale' was set as 220 'TRUE' to standardize the environmental factors to zero mean and unit variance. The 221 function 'ordicluster' in the R package 'vegan' was used to overlay a cluster 222 dendrogram onto the ordination diagram. All analyses were done using R version 3.4.4 (R Development Core Team 2018). 223

**3. Results** 

225 *3.1. Individual niche schemes* 

226	The phytoplankton communities displayed some clear patterns in response to								
227	changes in each niche dimension (Fig. 1). With increasing temperature, the relative								
228	abundances of Prochlorococcus, Synechococcus, haptophytes_6, and dinoflagellates								
229	increased, whereas those of other groups decreased (Fig. 1a). The system changed								
230	from communities dominated by haptophytes_8 and diatoms at low temperatures to								
231	communities dominated by Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus at high temperatures								
232	(Fig. 1a). With increasing irradiance, the relative abundance of Synechococcus								
233	increased greatly, the relative abundances of haptophytes_6 and dinoflagellates								
234	increased slightly, and the relative abundances of haptophytes_8, prasinophytes,								
235	cryptophytes, and chlorophytes decreased (Figs. 1b). The relative abundance of								
236	Prochlorococcus was a unimodal function of irradiance with a peak at roughly 10-20								
237	mol quanta $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ , whereas that of diatoms was a bimodal function of irradiance,								
238	with peaks at roughly 0–5 and 30–40 mol quanta $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ (Fig. 1b). With increasing								
239	nitrate concentrations, the relative abundances of diatoms, haptophytes_8,								
240	cryptophytes, and chlorophytes increased, whereas those of other groups decreased								
241	(Fig. 1c). Most of the trends were nonlinear, and some were clearly not monotonic								
242	(Fig. 1). The implication is that these niche dimensions may not act alone but instead								
243	may interact.								

# *3.2. Three-dimensional niche scheme*

245 When two levels of each of the three niche dimensions were combined, the

boundaries of 26 °C, 20 mol quanta  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ , and 0.3 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> for temperature, 246 irradiance, and nitrate, respectively, resulted in a largest  $F_{\min}$  of 5.83 ( $p = 6.75 \times 10^{-6}$ ) 247 248 (Fig. 2a). These boundaries defined the optimum niche division of 8 possible niches. 249 If any of the niche intervals increased, the number of possible niches increased in 250 proportion to the number of intervals, but the proportion of empty niches also 251 increased (Fig. 2b). At the same time, the  $F_{min}$  decreased with increasing numbers of possible niches (Fig. 2c). The implication is that the significance of the niche division 252 253 declined with increasing numbers of intervals. As a result, increasing the number of 254 niches increased the percentage of non-significant niche divisions in which the 255 relative abundances of all nine of the phytoplankton groups did not vary significantly (Fig. 2c). For the significant niche divisions, the value of the smallest  $V_w$  initially 256 257 declined as the number of niches increased, but then became constant or increased 258 after the number of possible niches reached about 50 (Fig. 2d). Haptophytes 8 was 259 the group that resulted in the  $F_{\text{max}}$  for all niche divisions (Fig. S3), and this group was 260 abundant in our study area (Fig. 1). The largest number of possible niches that 261 significantly reduced the  $V_w$  of haptophytes 8 was 24 (Tables S1 and S2). The 262 corresponding optimum niche boundaries were 26 and 28 for temperature (°C), 5, 15, and 20 for irradiance (mol quanta  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ), and 0.3 for nitrate (µmol L<sup>-1</sup>). This 263 264 division of niche space produced 15 realized niches (Tables S1 and S2). Although these niches were divided according to statistics associated with haptophytes 8, the 265 percentages of the total variance of each of the other eight phytoplankton groups that 266

were accounted for by the 15 realized niches were quite high (76%–96%) (Table S3).

We used the mean values of the 15 realized niches (Table S2) to create a three-dimensional niche scheme. No significant correlations were found between all pairs of environmental factors based on their mean values (p > 0.05 for all cases).

271 The CCA revealed that the 15 niches explained 81% of the variance of the 272 phytoplankton communities, almost all of which was contributed by the first two 273 canonical axes (Fig. 3). The ordination diagram based on the first two canonical axes 274 created a clear niche classification scheme for the phytoplankton communities (Fig. 3). 275 The first canonical axis was contributed mainly by nitrate, and the second canonical 276 axis by temperature-related factors (temperature and irradiance). The scree plot 277 showed that there was an "elbow" at the three-cluster solution, the suggestion being 278 that clusters >3 did not have a substantial impact on the total within-cluster sum of 279 squares. The dendrogram of the nine phytoplankton groups also showed three major 280 branches. One branch was linked to the diatom group, which was assigned to the two 281 niches with high values of both irradiance and nitrate concentration. The other two 282 branches divided the other eight groups into a cold type and a warm type. The cold 283 type included haptopytes 8, prasinophytes, cryptophytes, and chlorophytes, which 284 were linked to the niches associated with low temperature and irradiance. The warm 285 type included Prochlorococcus, Synechococcus, dinoflagellates, and haptophytes 6, which were related to the niches associated with high temperature and irradiance. The 286 287 cold type groups were first classified along irradiance, whereas the warm type groups

288 were first classified along nitrate. Among the warm type groups, Synechococcus was close to the niches with the highest irradiance level (20–45 mol quanta  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ), 289 whereas Prochlorococcus was mostly linked to the niches with intermediate 290 irradiance (5–20 mol quanta  $m^{-2} d^{-1}$ ) at temperatures higher than 26 °C and the niche 291 292 with the highest irradiance level at lower temperatures. In addition, Prochlorococcus 293 was more negatively correlated with nitrate than Synechococcus (Fig. 3). Because the 294 number of samples in each niche varied from 5 to 277 (Table S2), we randomly 295 picked five samples from those niches that had more than five samples to calculate the 296 average. We then used those mean values to create a three-dimensional niche scheme. 297 The randomization was repeated 10 times, and the resulting niche schemes were 298 almost the same as in Fig. 3. One such example is presented in Fig. S5.

## 299 **4. Discussion**

#### 300 4.1. Practical considerations limit the number of niches

We found that increasing the number of possible niches decreased the  $F_{min}$  and increased the fraction of non-significant niche divisions (Fig. 2c). In addition, the decreasing trend of the  $V_w$  of all nine phytoplankton groups stopped after the number of possible niches reached about 50 (Fig. 2d). These results reflect the fact that the need to increase niches decreased with increasing numbers of possible niches, and there was a maximum number of niches above which further subdivision of the niches did not significantly reduce the estimate of the  $V_w$  for all nine of the phytoplankton 308 groups. Increasing the number of possible niches is the analog of adding more terms 309 to a polynomial function to describe a curvilinear function. Because there is 310 invariably some noise in data, at some point adding more terms to the polynomial 311 amounts to fitting noise as opposed to the underlying relationship (Laws 1997). Based 312 on similar logic, too fine a division of niches may amount to fitting noise. The reason 313 is that temperature, irradiance, and nitrate do not explain all of the variability of phytoplankton community composition, so further subdividing the niche dimension 314 315 amounts to fitting variability that is probably explained by factors other than these 316 three environmental variables. In the case of polynomial regression, there is a 317 straightforward way to decide when the function is fitting noise. The strategy is to 318 find the point when the F statistic is lower than the critical F value (Laws 1997). 319 Similarly, we used an F statistic (F') on the basis of decreases in  $V_w$  to decide how 320 many niches to create. Our procedure selected 15 realized niches that resulted from 24 321 possible niches that consisted of 3 temperature levels, 4 irradiance levels, and 2 nitrate 322 levels as the last significant niche division (Table S1). Such a small number of niches 323 suggests that there is a practical limit to the number of niches that can be used for 324 groups of organisms in specific regions.

325

## 4.2. Simplified niche scheme meets the goal of Occam's Razor

326 Using the 15 realized niches, we created a three-dimensional niche classification327 scheme that related phytoplankton communities to the niches via CCA and clustering

328 analysis (Fig. 3). The CCA results revealed that the 15 niches accounted for 81% of 329 the variability of the phytoplankton community composition. Such a high percentage 330 of the variance accounted for was possible because the number of niches was small 331 and the community information was represented by only nine groups at the class level 332 rather than a much larger number of species. The simplification (i.e., reducing the 333 number) of niches decreased the between-niche sum of squares  $(S_b)$  that the CCA explained, whereas the simplification of communities may have decreased the  $S_w$  that 334 335 the CCA ignored but would show up as  $S_b$  with more niches being created. A CCA 336 analysis using the 549 raw samples produced a figure (Fig. S6) with a shape similar to 337 Fig. 3, but the percentage of the variance explained was much lower, and it was not 338 easy to distinguish the niches of the phytoplankton groups. Our results suggest that 339 simplification of both niches and communities is key to developing a niche scheme 340 that is able to yield realistic estimates of how phytoplankton communities might 341 respond to the impact of climate change. This simplification is the goal of Occam's 342 Razor, which aims to make the analysis no more complicated than necessary, or 343 equivalently, keep the analysis as simple as possible (Baker 2007). The idea of 344 representing the phytoplankton communities in terms of a small number of groups 345 rather than a large number of species is a common practice in food web models (Laws 346 2008), ocean biogeochemical models (Hood et al. 2006), and trait-based approaches (Litchman et al. 2007). There is evidence that emergent simplicity in the microbial 347 348 community assemblage at higher levels of organization is a generic property of large,

diverse systems (Goldford et al. 2017). There are also precedents for holding the number of habitats to single digits. For instance, Bala et al. (2005) have broken down climate zones into 7 categories to address the effect of climate on the distribution of vegetation. Manipulation experiments also tend to follow the principle of Occam's Razor and keep the number and levels of variables small (Burson et al. 2018, Lewandowska et al. 2014). Our analysis is therefore a useful guide for experiments aimed at discerning how phytoplankton communities will respond to climate change.

## 356 4.3. Synecological findings support known ecological theories

357 Our niche scheme separated two critical ecological systems from each other, the 358 River-dominated Ocean Margin (RiOMar) and the Ocean-dominated Margin (OceMar) 359 (Dai et al. 2013). These systems are characterized by the left side and the right side of 360 the scheme, respectively (Fig. 3). Phytoplankton communities are regulated mainly by 361 nitrate and irradiance in the RiOMar system and by temperature-related factors in the 362 OceMar system (Fig. 3). The scheme has also revealed two types of groups in the 363 OceMar system, a cold type and a warm type (Fig. 3). We found that the groups of the 364 cold type were divided primarily by irradiance, whereas those of the warm type were 365 divided primarily by nitrate (Fig. 3). These results are consistent with the general view that temperature influences plankton mainly by changing metabolic rates 366 367 (related to the balance of photosynthesis and respiration) in cold waters and mainly by 368 affecting nutrient supply in warm waters (Lewandowska et al. 2014). Because

temperature and nutrient supply are often negatively correlated in the open ocean (Finkel et al. 2010), our results are also consistent with the theoretical resource competition model for phytoplankton communities, which assumes that the species interaction shifts from competition for light to competition for nutrients as nutrient supplies decrease and vice versa (Huisman and Weissing 1995). These consistencies indicate that our niche classification scheme is sufficiently general and may be broadly applicable.

## 376 *4.4. Synecological findings challenge some views based on autecological studies*

377 Our niche scheme clearly assigned diatoms to the niches with both high nitrate 378 concentrations and high light intensity (Fig. 3). Culture studies have suggested that 379 diatoms are generally better adapted to low irradiances under high-nutrient and 380 strong-mixing conditions (Falkowski 1980). Our analysis does not support this 381 paradigm. The reason for this disagreement might be that our approach was 382 synecological rather than autecological. Our field database included the relative 383 abundances of a full range of sizes of phytoplankton at the class level. Synecology 384 considers that the competitive ability of a group depends not only on the physiological 385 response of the group itself but also on that of other groups (Walter and Hengeveld 386 2000). Under very low-light conditions, other groups, especially haptophytes 8, could 387 outcompete diatoms (Fig. 1c) at low temperatures, such as a well-mixed water column 388 in the winter (Schoemann et al. 2005). However, light-sufficient and nutrient-rich 389 environments in the SCS reflect the impact of the eutrophic and highly stratified Pearl 390 River freshwater plumes in the northern SCS during warm seasons, and under such 391 variable and co-limiting conditions diatoms tend to outperform other groups (Ning et 392 al. 2004). Similar results have been found in the East China Sea (Liu et al. 2016, Xiao 393 et al. 2018a) and in competition experiments using natural phytoplankton 394 communities as inocula (Burson et al. 2018). We therefore suggest that the results of autecological studies of a limited number of species without consideration of 395 396 inter-species interactions can be misleading with respect to predictions of effects in the real ocean. 397

398 Although photoinhibition of *Prochlorococcus* has been reported previously 399 (Chen et al. 2014, Flombaum et al. 2013, Six et al. 2007, Xie et al. 2018, Zinser et al. 400 2007), our niche scheme revealed that Prochlorococcus was linked to a high 401 irradiance niche at low temperatures but to intermediate irradiance niches at high 402 temperatures (Fig. 3). The implication is that the irradiance niche of *Prochlorococcus* 403 depends on temperature. All phytoplankton are adversely affected if the irradiance to 404 which they are exposed becomes too great (Litchman and Klausmeier 2008). This 405 effect is generally characterized as photoinhibition and is related to the production of 406 reactive oxygen species (Nishiyama et al. 2006). Because this study was of a 407 synecological rather than autecological nature, a decline of the relative abundance of a group of phytoplankton at high irradiance could be related to photoinhibition, or it 408 409 could simply mean that other groups of phytoplankton were better able to exploit high 410 irradiances. To incorporate the effects of high irradiance in our synecological study, 411 we used a model that has been used to describe photoinhibition in autecological 412 research (Platt 1980, Xie et al. 2015), but with the caveat that the model is purely 413 descriptive and is not meant to imply cause-and-effect. The model was formulated as 414 follows:

$$P = a + P_m (1 - e^{-E\alpha/P_m}) e^{-bE\alpha/P_m}$$
<sup>(4)</sup>

In Equation (4), *P* is the relative abundance of a phytoplankton group, and *E* is the explanatory variable irradiance. The parameter *a* is the intercept, and  $\alpha$  is the initial slope of the *P* vs. *E* curve. *P<sub>m</sub>* is the light-saturated relative abundance of the group in the absence of "photoinhibition", and *b* is a dimensionless "photoinhibition" parameter. The combination of  $b\alpha/P_m$  reflects the strength of "photoinhibition".

421 We fitted the model at three temperature intervals, low (24-26 °C), medium (26-28 °C), and high (28-30 °C) (Fig. 4). The irradiance model provided further 422 423 evidence that "photoinhibition" of Prochlorococcus existed at all temperatures (Fig. 424 4). This 'photoinhibition' may be due to the fact that Synechococcus did better than 425 Prochlorococcus at high irradiance (Fig. S7). The "photoinhibition" at moderate and 426 high temperatures was the same, but it was twice as high at those temperatures as at 427 low temperatures, and the threshold at which light became inhibitory was lower at 428 moderate and high temperatures (Fig. 4). These results indicate that the "photoinhibition" effect on Prochlorococcus is a saturation function of temperature. 429 430 This saturation function very likely resulted from the fact that the relative abundances

of other groups such as *Synechococcus* and diatoms were lower at low temperatures
than at higher temperatures (Fig. S7). This discovery suggests that, from a
synecological standpoint, one cannot assume that the "photoinhibition" of *Prochlorococcus* is a fixed trait but should take temperature as an important covariate
when predicting climate change effects.

#### 436 4.5. Responses of phytoplankton communities to environmental changes

437 Our niche scheme provided an opportunity to make inferences about possible effects of environmental changes on phytoplankton communities. Global warming is 438 439 expected to lead to increases of sea surface temperature, greater thermal stratification 440 of the upper water column, and a reduction of nutrient inputs to the mixed layer from 441 sub-nutricline waters (shallower mixed layers and less upwelling) in the coming century (Doney et al. 2012). There is also evidence that warming could bring more 442 443 frequent and extreme rain events (Wentz et al. 2007), which would increase the impact of land runoff on coastal waters. Anthropogenic nutrient pollution would add 444 445 to the eutrophication of coastal waters caused by these freshwater plumes (Anderson 446 et al. 2002). Under such conditions, the cold type groups such as haptophytes 8, 447 prasinophytes, cryptophytes, and chlorophytes would presumably be at a disadvantage 448 because they were assigned to the low-temperature, low-irradiance niches (Fig. 3). 449 The diatom group was linked to the high-nitrate and high-irradiance niches (Fig. 3). The impact on diatoms would therefore be mixed: they would benefit from higher 450

451 irradiance in nutrient-replete waters, such as most coastal regions, seasonally mixed
452 shelf seas, and eutrophic freshwater plumes, but they would be adversely affected by
453 the higher temperatures (fewer nutrients) in nutrient-limited waters such as the
454 seasonally stratified shelf seas and oligotrophic open ocean.

455 The warm type groups, including *Prochlorococcus*, Synechococcus, 456 dinoflagellates, and haptophytes 6, would benefit from sea-surface warming. This would be especially true for Prochlorococcus and Syenchococcus. However, the 457 458 relative competitive ability of these two picophytoplankton would depend on the 459 nutrient status of their habitat. In mesotrophic environments such as stratified shelf 460 seas, mixed open oceans, and mesotrophic freshwater plumes, Synechococcus would 461 benefit more than *Prochlorococcus* because its irradiance and nitrate niches are higher than those of Prochlorococcus (Fig. 3) and the effect of "photoinhibition" on 462 463 *Prochlorococcus* would be twice as great if the temperature increased by more than 2 °C (Fig. 4). This is very likely to happen by the year 2100 because at that time a 464 465 temperature rise of 2 °C compared to the pre-industrial era has been predicted by 466 scenarios of the Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP) 4.5-8.5 in most of the 467 ocean, especially in high latitudes of the northern hemisphere (Gattuso et al. 2015, 468 Stocker et al. 2013). In stratified oligotrophic waters, Prochlorococcus would have an 469 advantage over other groups because the negative effect of temperature on other groups would be enhanced, but the "photoinhibition" effect on Prochlorococcus 470 471 would be the same (Fig. 4).

Changes of phytoplankton communities can have large impacts on aquatic 472 ecosystems and global biogeochemical cycles (Litchman et al. 2007). Whether the 473 474 observed results are unique for the SCS or are widespread among other marine 475 ecosystems remains to be determined. Our analyses were based on a synthesis of a 476 large-scale field database spanning more than 10 years rather than on a few cases. A 477 caveat of our niche classification scheme is that the sample sizes varied greatly 478 between niches. Although this did not change our results because we used only mean 479 values, there is still a need to collect more field observations to expand the sample 480 sizes. Another caveat is that our inferences on responses of phytoplankton 481 communities to climate changes were based solely on a CCA analysis, which is 482 qualitative and does not reveal causation. Controlled experiments are needed to test 483 whether our results are reproducible. Also, we did not consider the other four niche dimensions proposed by Winemiller et al. (2015), including life history, trophic 484 485 position, defense, and metabolism. These four dimensions may collectively be 486 associated with ocean acidification (Gao et al. 2012), nutrient ratios (Klausmeier et al. 487 2004), grazing by zooplankton (Edwards and Richardson 2004, Lewandowska et al. 488 2014), and losses to viruses or pathogens (Burson et al. 2018). However, because the 489 percent of the total variance accounted for by the 15 realized niches was 76–99% for 490 all nine phytoplankton groups (Table S3), addition of more dimensions would be 491 unlikely to greatly improve the explanatory capability of the niche classification 492 scheme. Furthermore, our purpose was to identify the important and available niche dimensions and try to keep things simple according to the principle of Occam's Razor.
If one other niche dimension is invoked, the number of niches will be immediately
doubled, and of course the number of niches becomes a geometric series as more
dimensions are added.

497 **5.** Conclusions

This study provided a novel approach for selecting optimum niche numbers and niche boundaries to produce a simplified phytoplankton niche classification scheme that characterizes the full size range of phytoplankton communities. The main conclusions can be summarized as follows:

- There is a practical limit to how many niches the niche table contains for the 503 purpose of predicting the responses of phytoplankton communities to climate 504 changes.
- The simplified niche scheme supported general ecological theories, such as
   physical and metabolic pathways of warming effects on plankton and
   theoretical resource competition models for phytoplankton communities.
- The niche scheme also challenged some concepts based on autecological
   studies on two phytoplankton groups, diatoms and *Prochlorococcus*, and
   thereby enabled more informed predictions of their fates under future climate
   change scenarios.
- 512
- 513

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Fig. 1 Relative abundances of phytoplankton groups as a function of individual niche
dimensions in the upper mixed layer. Error bars are the SEM. Digits above each bin
show sample sizes. The total number of samples was 689 for (a) and (b) and 549 for
(c).



718 Fig. 2 Statistical information for deciding where to draw the boundaries between 719 niches and how many niches to create. (a) The  $F_{\min}$  resulted from 8 possible niches 720 versus niche boundaries; the optimum boundaries were marked in a dark red line; the 721 niche divisions with more than one empty niche were removed. (b) The proportion of empty niches versus the numbers of all possible niches. (c) The  $F_{\min}$  and the 722 723 proportion of non-significant niche divisions (p > 0.005) versus the numbers of all 724 possible niches. (d) Loess curves between the smallest standardized  $V_w$  (within-niche 725 variance) and the numbers of all possible niches; the niche divisions in which the relative abundances of all of the nine phytoplankton groups did not vary significantly 726 727 (marked in red in (c)) were removed. Statistical information for drawing these figures were obtained by 'R Program 1' (a) and 'R Program 2' (b-d) in the Supplementary 728 729 Information.

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731

**Fig. 3** A three-dimensional niche classification scheme produced by CCA and clustering analysis based on mean values of 15 niches. Every circle is a niche and every triangle is a phytoplankton group. Sample sizes of the niches are presented in Table S2. The dendrogram was overlaid by grey segments. Colored triangles showed three clusters of phytoplankton groups determined by clustering analysis. *T*: temperature (°C); *E*: irradiance (mol quanta m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>); *N*: nitrate (µmol L<sup>-1</sup>).



Fig. 4 The relative abundance of *Prochlorococcus* as a function of irradiance at different temperature intervals. Digits next to triangles show sample sizes. The vertical axis is the mean and SEM of the relative abundance at each combined bin of temperature and irradiance.