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- 1 Importance of Intracellular Fe Pools on Growth of Marine Diatoms by Using
- 2 Unialgal Cultures and the Oyashio Region Phytoplankton Community during
- 3 Spring

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- 26 Key words
- Fe storage; intracellular Fe; luxury Fe uptake; centric diatoms; survival strategy
- 28 Running Head
- 29 Utilizing intracellular Fe by diatoms

Abstract: We report on the ability for luxury Fe uptake and the potential for growth utilizing intracellular Fe pools for 4 coastal centric diatom isolates and *in situ* phytoplankton assemblages, mainly composed of diatoms. Iron uptake of the diatom isolates and natural phytoplankton assemblages in the Oyashio region during spring blooms were prevented by adding hydroxamate siderophore desferrioxamine B (DFB). After the addition of DFB, intracellular Fe in the diatom isolates supported 2.4–4.2 cell divisions with 1.2–2.6 Chl a doublings. The intracellular Fe was primarily used for cell generation rather than Chl a production, leading to a reduction in the Chl a cell quota in the Fe-starved cells with time. The metabolic properties of the Fe-starved cells with their cell morphologies were different among species or genera. An on-deck incubation experiment also exhibited 1.9 cell divisions and 0.81 Chl a doublings of phytoplankton after the addition of DFB also indicating the preference of cell generation over Chl a production. A decrease in the level of cellular Chl a, a main light-harvesting pigment in Fe-starved diatoms may become a superior survival strategy to protect the cells from high irradiance that can cause photo-oxidative damages through photosynthesis. Such relatively low-Fe with high-light conditions could often occur in surface waters of the Oyashio region from spring to summer.

## 1 Introduction

Over the last few decades, many studies have shown iron (Fe) to be the most important micronutrient for marine phytoplankton growth, because of its role in key metabolic processes such as photosynthesis, respiration, and nitrate and nitrite assimilations (Geider and Roche, 1994; Raven et al., 1999). The Fe acquisition by phytoplankton is strongly influenced by seawater chemistry and speciation in seawater (Morel et al., 2008). In oxic seawater, Fe is present predominantly in the insoluble (extremely low solubility) and thermodynamically stable 3+ oxidation state (Kuma et al., 1996; Stumm and Morgan, 1996). The rate of Fe uptake by phytoplankton is related to the computed equilibrium concentration of Fe3+ in seawater; this uptake is dependent on the concentration of dissolved inorganic Fe(III) species (Fe(III)'), which is proportional to [Fe<sup>3+</sup>] (Anderson and Morel, 1982; Hudson and Morel, 1990; Sunda, 2001). However, there are apparent exceptions to this model. One of these involves the specific transport of Fe complex with organic ligands such as siderophores that could be indirectly and/or directly utilized by the cells (e.g. Hutchins et al., 1999a; Maldonado and Price, 2001; Sunda, 2001; Hassler et al., 2011). Shaked et al. (2005) proposed a new model for Fe uptake by diatoms in which the extracellular enzymatic reduction of all Fe species is a necessary step; this model has recently been supported by molecular assay (e.g. Kustka et al., 2007).

Eukaryotic mechanisms of Fe uptake from siderophore binding Fe are mostly involved in cell surface metalloreductases, whereas prokaryotes can acquire Fe from siderophore-Fe complexes directly through plasma membrane (Yun et al., 2000; Allen et al., 2008; Terzulli and Kosman, 2010). However, Fe uptake of the marine phytoplankton communities have often been almost diminished by adding excess concentrations of the siderophore desferrioxamine B (DFB) compared to Fe in seawater (e.g. Wells et al., 1994; Hutchins et al., 1999b; Wells, 1999). DFB is a small trihydroxamate molecule that complexes inorganic Fe(III) with an extremely high conditional stability constant ( $K'_{\text{FeL,Fe(III)}} = [\text{Fe(III)L}]/[\text{Fe(III)}][L'] = 10^{-16.5} \text{ M}^{-1}$ ; Hudson et al., 1992). Other studies reported lower  $K'_{\text{FeL,Fe(III)}}$  values between  $10^{12.1}$  and  $>10^{13.0}$  of DFB-Fe complex with cathodic stripping voltammetry (CSV). However, these experiments were probably conducted by using inappropriate methods or conditions such as using weak competing ligand of salicylaldoxime (Rue and Bruland, 1995) or under lower pH condition than in seawater (Witter et al., 2000). Croot and Johnson (2000) supported a high value of  $K'_{\text{FeL,Fe(III)}}$  of DFB-Fe complex ( $10^{16.5}$  M $^{-1}$ ) measured

by CSV using 2-(2-thiazolylazo)-p-cresol as a competing ligand at pH 8.0. The pennate diatom Phaeodactylum tricornutum grown under Fe-limited condition can acquire Fe from DFB-Fe complex by reducing the complex via cell surface metalloreductases and subsequent transport Fe into the cell (Soria-Dengg and Horstmann, 1995; Allen et al., 2008). However, the reduction and subsequent uptake of Fe from DFB-Fe complex by marine diatoms is generally orders of magnitude lower than that with Fe(III)', especially under Fe-sufficient conditions (Maldonado and Price, 2001; Morel et al., 2008). Recent culture experiments have demonstrated that DFB regulates Fe availability by preventing Fe uptake from the ambient extracellular medium (Iwade et al., 2006; Yoshida et al., 2006). Coastal centric diatoms (Chaetoceros socialis and Thalassiosira weissflogii) maintained their high growth rate for a few days after DFB addition by utilizing their intracellular Fe and the Fe supported up to 2–3 cell divisions without any additional Fe uptake (Iwade et al., 2006). Iwade et al., (2006) also demonstrated by culture and model experiments that the intracellular Fe in C. socialis is utilized until critical threshold of their cellular Fe concentration. It has been observed that oceanic and coastal eukaryotic phytoplankton can accumulate excess Fe (which we defined as 'stored Fe' in the present study) compared to the Fe requirement fulfilling their maximum growth rate when the concentration of bioavailable [Fe(III)] is high; i.e., luxury uptake (Sunda and Huntsman, 1995, 1997). In the Fe-replete coastal environment, Wells (1999) suggested that larger cells (>5 µm) can sustain carbon uptake at least for several hours after the DFB addition probably due to utilizing intracellular Fe reservoir, whereas the smaller cells (<5 µm) seem less storage Fe intracellularly. The pennate diatom *Pseudo-nitzschia* species has recently been found to possess ferritin as an Fe storage protein which accumulate Fe under Fe-replete condition (Marchetti et al., 2009). Pseudo-nitzschia species can increase in cell number several times higher than the centric oceanic-diatom Thalassiosira oceanica, which does not encode ferritin (Armbrust et al., 2004; Marchetti et al., 2009). It is also known that P. tricornutum can also greatly reduce their Fe requirement (e.g. Kustka et al., 2007) resulting by downregulate the processes that require Fe such as photosynthesis, mitochondorial electron transport and nitrate assimilation (Allen et al., 2008). On the other hand, Chlamydomonas reinhardtii (Chlorophyceae) synthesize ferritin under Fe-deficient conditions binding intracellular Fe released from PS I to protect photooxidative stress (Busch et al., 2008). Although a few studies suggested that the centric diatom species seems to store Fe intracellularly, there is little explanation about the mechanism of Fe storage and subsequent

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utilization in the centric diatom.

In the Oyashio region, western subarctic North Pacific Ocean dissolved Fe concentration change seasonally; the dissolved Fe concentration increased up to ~0.5–1 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> by deep mixing during winter and decreased below ~0.1–0.2 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> during summer due to intensive biological activities during spring bloom period (Nishioka et al., 2007). Recent studies demonstrated that the dissolved and total dissolvable Fe concentrations in the upper mixed layer varied an order of magnitude mainly due to vertical and horizontal water mass mixing in the Oyashio region during spring (Hattori-Saito et al., 2010; Nakayama et al., 2010; Sugie et al., 2010a). Therefore, it can be assumed that the phytoplankton, especially diatoms in the Oyashio spring bloom community need to survive under frequently fluctuated Fe environment during spring and under lowering Fe concentrations toward summer.

In the present study, we investigated the ability of luxury Fe uptake and growth by utilizing intracellular Fe for 4 coastal centric diatoms. The coastal diatoms we selected were ecologically and biologically important species of *Thalassiosira nordenskioeldii* and *Thalassiosira anguste-lineata* in subarctic to boreal regions (Sugie et al., 2010a, 2010b), and of *Skeletonema costatum* s.l. and *T. weissflogii* in temperate regions; the Fe storage and subsequent utilization in the former 3 species are examined for the first time. We also investigated their ability to grow by utilizing intracellular Fe in a natural phytoplankton community in the Oyashio region. We conducted a shipboard incubation with or without the addition of DFB into surface water relatively high in Fe and macronutrients during spring blooms.

## 2 Materials and Methods

## 2. 1 Laboratory culture experiments

The 4 coastal diatom species used were T. nordenskioeldii (isolated from the Oyashio region by author Sugie K.), T. anguste-lineata (the same authority as T. nordenskioeldii), Skeletonema costatum s.l. (unknown authority), and T. weissflogii (CCMP 1336). Diatoms were grown at either 10°C (T. nordenskioeldii and T. anguste-lineata) or 20°C (S. costatum s.l. and T. weissflogii) under 150  $\mu$ mol photon m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> fluorescent light (12 h light : 12 h dark) throughout this

study. Seawater for culture media was collected from a coastal region in the northern Japan Sea near Hokkaido, Japan, and filtered through an acid-cleaned 0.22 µm Millipore membrane filter. Filtered seawater was autoclaved for 20 min at 121°C (108 kPa). The concentrations of Fe, NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>,  $PO_4$ , and  $Si(OH)_4$  in the autoclaved filtered seawater were less than 2 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>, 6, 0.1, 0.4, and ~240 umol L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Prior to the culture experiments, four centric diatoms were grown in silicate enriched f/2 medium (silicic acid enriched f/2 nutrient plus f/2 metals to the autoclaved filtered seawater) (Guillard and Ryther, 1962), with at least two transfers and more than 18-doublings at the exponential growth phase. The silicic acid enriched f/2 medium contained 886  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> NO<sub>3</sub>, 38  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> PO<sub>4</sub> and ~350  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> as macronutrients, and 11.7  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> Fe(III), 0.44  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> Co(II), 0.91  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> Mn(II), 73 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> Zn(II), 28 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> Cu(II), and 29 nmol  $L^{-1}$  Mo(VI) with 15  $\mu$ mol  $L^{-1}$  EDTA as essential metals. All f/2 nutrient stock solutions were passed through Chelex 100 ion-exchange resin to remove trace metals (Morel et al., 1979). Diatoms at the late exponential growth phase in f/2 medium were inoculated into modified f/2 medium, which was prepared without adding any trace metals, EDTA, nor vitamins to the f/2 medium, before the culture experiment to obtain slightly Fe stressed cells. The diatoms were acclimated in the Fe- and manganese (Mn)-added modified f/2 media, to which ferric Fe stock solution (25 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> Fe(III): FeNH<sub>4</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·12H<sub>2</sub>O in 5 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> HCl, pH 2.3) and Mn stock solution (25 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> Mn(II): MnCl<sub>2</sub> in 5-mmol L<sup>-1</sup> HCl, pH 2.3) were added to make Fe and Mn concentrations of 100 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> and 25 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Previous studies have found that the addition of both Mn and Fe to the modified f/2 medium kept the cells in physiologically good state for a suitable length of time (Peers and Price, 2004; Ushizaka et al., 2008). Hence, we added Mn to the culture media in the present study.

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We used DFB to prevent the further Fe uptake from ambient extracellular Fe in the media as demonstrated before (Iwade et al., 2006; Yoshida et al., 2006). The bacterial hydroxamate siderophore DFB (Sigma Chem. Co. Ltd.), forming a 1:1 DFB-Fe(III) complex, was stored in the dark under frozen condition until further use. A premixed DFB-Fe(III) complex medium (Table 1) was prepared by mixing small amounts of acidic ferric Fe and DFB stock (1 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>) solutions at a DFB:Fe molar ratio of 10:1 in a pre-cleaned polycarbonate Erlenmeyer flask. Then, modified f/2 medium (50 mL) was added, and diatoms inoculated [premix DFB-Fe(III) treatment]. The final Fe, Mn, and DFB concentrations in the premixed DFB-Fe(III) medium were 100 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>, 25 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>,

and 1 umol L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, and the calculated [Fe(III)'] was 3.5 amol L<sup>-1</sup>. A control medium (DFB treatment) containing DFB and Mn at a final concentration of 1 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> and 25 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> without Fe in the modified f/2 medium was used to examine the bioavailability of the DFB-Fe complex (premixed DFB-Fe media). The Fe-replete condition was examined by simultaneously adding small amounts of acidic ferric Fe and Mn stock solutions (final Fe concentrations of 10 and 100 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>, and final Mn concentration of 25 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>) and each diatom species into the modified f/2 media [direct Fe(III)-10 and direct Fe(III)-100 treatments]. Growth by utilizing intracellular Fe was examined by adding DFB to a final concentration of either 0.1 or 1-µmol L<sup>-1</sup> [DFB:Fe(III) = 10:1] after 1 and/or 3 days of cultivation in direct Fe(III) input media to allow the diatoms uptake Fe under various [Fe(III)'] conditions until DFB addition [direct Fe-10-DFB-1 d or direct Fe-100-DFB-1 d and/or direct Fe-100-DFB-3 d treatments]. Culture experiments for T. anguste-lineata were not carried out in direct Fe(III)-10 and direct Fe-10-DFB-1 d treatments (Table 1). Cell concentrations at the beginning of culture experiments were approximately 1,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>. The light, temperature, and macronutrient conditions were the same as those of the stock culture described earlier. Culture experiments were conducted in triplicate but in duplicate for controls and premixed DFB-Fe(III) treatments.

Cell growth was monitored daily by triplicate cell counts done with an optical microscope. Cell sizes were measured using an optical microscope with a calibrated ocular micrometer for at least 20 cells of each chain at the beginning and the end of the culture experiments; the cell volume (CV) and surface area (SA) were calculated according to the geometric shape suggested by Hillebrand et al. (1999) and Sun and Liu (2003). The daily Chl a concentrations were measured with a fluorometer (Turner Designs 10-AU) according to the method of Welschmeyer (1994), after adding 100–200  $\mu$ L of cultivation directly into a quartz cuvette with 5 mL of N, N-dimethylformamide (DMF; Suzuki and Ishimaru, 1990), and extraction in the dark for 4-h at room temperature. All bottles, flasks, and tubes used in culture experiments were acid-washed (soaked for at least 24 h in either 1 or 4 mol L<sup>-1</sup> HCl solution; 1 mol L<sup>-1</sup> HCl was used for polycarbonate apparatus) and then repeatedly rinsed with Milli-Q water (>18.0 M $\Omega$  cm<sup>-1</sup>, Millipore). The preparation and sampling for the experiments were conducted in a Class 100 laminar flow cabinet to avoid inadvertent trace metal contamination.

## 2. 2 Shipboard incubation experiment

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Shipboard incubation of phytoplankton communities was conducted using surface water of the Oyashio region of the western subarctic Pacific Ocean. These experiments were part of the Ocean Ecodynamics Comparison in the Subarctic Pacific (OECOS) project aboard R/V Hakuho-Maru (KH-07-01 cruise). Near-surface seawater (10 m depth) was collected during the spring bloom on 6 April 2007, from Oyashio waters (low temperature of 1.70°C and low salinity of 33.04) at 42°00′N and 145°15′E using acid-cleaned, Teflon-coated, 10-L Niskin X sampling bottles (General Oceanics) attached to a CTD-CMS.

All incubation apparatuses used in the shipboard experiment were rigorously acid-washed and Milli-Q rinsed according to Takeda and Obata (1995). All the preparations for the shipboard incubation were performed in a clean room or on a clean bench (Class 100). After sieving with a 100 µm acid-cleaned Teflon-mesh to eliminate mesozooplankton, seawater samples were homogenized in a 20 L acid-washed polyethylene tank and dispensed immediately into 250 mL acid-washed polycarbonate incubation bottles. The ability of natural phytoplankton growth by utilizing intracellularly stored Fe was examined by adding DFB to the incubation bottles (DFB treatment). The final DFB concentration was set at 1 µmol L<sup>-1</sup>, a value that is likely to be approximately 2-4 orders of magnitude higher than that of Fe in natural oceanic seawater. An unamended control was prepared to allow phytoplankton uptake ambient extracellular Fe and to compare the growth of DFB treatment. Triplicate incubation bottles for each treatment and for the samplings on 1, 3, and 5 day incubations were placed at 5°C in an incubator under 150 umol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> fluorescent light (12 h light : 12 h dark). Temperature and light intensity were within the entire range observed from 1 to 6°C and 13 to 36% of the surface irradiance, respectively (Isada et al., 2010; Sugie et al., 2010a). Bottles were sacrificed at each sampling point. Chl a concentrations were measured at the beginning and after 1, 3, and 5 days of incubation. Seawater was filtered onto 0.45 µm omnipore membrane filter (Millipore) and pigments on the filter samples were extracted in DMF (Suzuki and Ishimaru, 1990). The analytical procedure was the same as that described earlier. Diatom cell counts and species composition analysis were performed only at the beginning and after 5 days of incubation using a phase-contrast inverted microscope (Hasle and Syvertsen, 1997). Samples of the replicates were mixed together with the same volume and then fixed with neutralized formalin at a final concentration of 1 % (Hasle, 1978). The Fe concentration

of filtered (<0.22 µm: labile dissolved Fe) and unfiltered (total dissolvable Fe) natural seawater was determined by an automated Fe analyzer (Kimoto Electric) with a combination of chelating resin concentration and luminol-hydrogen peroxide chemiluminescence detection in a closed flow-through system (Obata et al., 1993). The concentration of macronutrients in the seawater samples were measured with a QuAAtro continuous flow analyzer (Bran+Luebbe).

## 3 Results

3.1 Laboratory unialgal culture experiments

No nutrient depletion was detected during the incubation experiment even for *S. costatum* s.l. in direct Fe(III)-100 treatment being the growth ceased at the end when the concentrations were  $NO_3+NO_2\sim300~\mu\text{mol}~L^{-1}$ ,  $PO_4~4-9~\mu\text{mol}~L^{-1}$  and  $Si(OH)_4>150~\mu\text{mol}~L^{-1}$ . In 3 of the 4 species (the exception being *S. costatum* s.l.), there were significant decreases (approximately 10–15%) in both CV and SA (p < 0.01, 1-way ANOVA) during 7–9 day incubation periods under the Fe-starved conditions by adding DFB (Table 2). The CV and SA of *S. costatum* s.l. increased after 6 day of Fe-starved incubation with 1.5–1.7-fold higher than the values at the beginning of the experiment (p < 0.01, 1-way ANOVA). A slight increase in surface area to cell volume ratio (SA/CV) with Fe-starved incubation was observed for all 4 species (Table 2).

For all 4 species there was no difference in either cell density or Chl *a* concentration between control (DFB only) and premixed DFB-Fe media (Figs. 1–4). Direct Fe(III)-100 input medium induced the highest maximal cell and Chl *a* yields (Figs. 1–5). The relative order of maximal cell yields for *T. nordenskioeldii* (10°C) in different culture media was as follows: direct Fe(III)-100 = direct Fe(III)-10 (~95,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>) > direct Fe-100-DFB-1d (47,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>) > direct Fe-10-DFB-1d (35,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>) >> premixed DFB-Fe(III) = control (~7,600 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>). For *T. anguste-lineata* (10°C) the relative order of maximal cell yields was as follows: direct-Fe(III)-100 (27,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>) > direct Fe-100-DFB-1d (14,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>) >> premixed DFB-Fe(III) = control (~7,100 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>). However, maximal cell yields for *S. costatum* s.l. and *T. weissflogii* (20°C) were clearly higher in direct Fe(III)-100 medium (1,960,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup> for *S. costatum* s.l. and 442,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup> for *T. weissflogii*) than in direct Fe(III)-10 medium (454,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup> for *S. costatum* s.l. and 172,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup> for *T. weissflogii*) (Figs. 3a-1 and 4a-1). The relative order of maximal Chl *a* concentrations for all diatom species was as follows: direct

Fe(III)-100 > direct Fe(III)-10 > direct Fe-100-DFB-1d > direct Fe-10-DFB-1d >> premixed DFB-Fe(III) = control (DFB). For *T. nordenskioeldii*, *S. costatum* s.l. and *T. weissflogii*, the maximal Chl *a* concentration in the direct Fe(III)-10 medium was about half, one tenth and one thirds, respectively of those in the direct Fe(III)-100 medium (Figs. 1b-1, 3b-1 and 4b-1).

Even after the addition of DFB, cell density in the direct Fe-DFB-1d media increased for 4-5 days for S. costatum s.l. and T. weissflogii and 6 days for T. nordenskioeldii and T. anguste-lineata (Figs. 1a-2, 2a-2, 3a-2 and 4a-2). However, Chl a concentrations increased only for ~2 days for S. costatum s.l. and T. weissflogii and <5 days for T. nordenskioeldii and T. anguste-lineata after the addition of DFB (Figs. 1b-2, 2b-2, 3b-2 and 4b-2). The cell specific growth rates for 2-3 days after addition of DFB were the same as those in the direct Fe(III)-100 media, whereas the Chl a specific growth rates were decreased within 1–2 days after the addition of DFB. The relative increase in cell doublings [log<sub>2</sub> (maximal cell density after DFB addition divided by the cell density at DFB addition on 1 or 3 day of cultivation)] was lower in direct Fe-100-DFB-3 d media (3.2, 1.2, 3.4 and 3.1 doublings for T. nordenskioeldii, T. anguste-lineata, S. costatum s.l. and T. weissflogii, respectively) than in direct Fe-100-DFB-1 d media (4.2, 2.5, 4.1 and 3.3 fold for T. nordenskioeldii, T. anguste-lineata, S. costatum s.l., T. weissflogii, respectively) (Fig. 5). The intracellular Fe in direct Fe-100-DFB-1d medium supported up to 2.5-4.2 cell divisions and a maximum of 1.2-2.6 Chl a doublings [log<sub>2</sub> (maximal Chl a concentration after DFB addition divided by Chl a concentration at DFB addition)] (Fig. 6). The relative order of Chl a doublings was S. costatum s.l.  $\approx$  T. weissflogii (2.5–2.6) > T. nordenskioeldii (2.3) > T. anguste-lineata (1.2) (Fig. 6).

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# 3.2 Growth of in situ phytoplankton utilizing intracellular Fe

The near-surface Oyashio seawater collected for shipboard incubation had high concentrations of labile dissolved (D-Fe), total dissolvable Fe (T-Fe), macronutrients, Chl *a* and diatom abundance [D-Fe, 0.41 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>; T-Fe, 15.7 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>; NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>, 20.4 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>; PO<sub>4</sub>, 1.45 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>; Si(OH)<sub>4</sub>, 32.3 μmol L<sup>-1</sup>, Chl *a*, 12.2 μg L<sup>-1</sup> and ~3,200 cells mL<sup>-1</sup>]. The high Fe, macronutrients, and Chl *a* concentrations are probably attributed to the lateral surface intrusion of the Coastal Oyashio Water (COW), characterized by low temperature and low salinity (Hanawa and Mitsudera, 1987) into the Oyashio region (Sugie et al., 2010a, Nakayama et al., 2010). The high Chl

*a* biomass can be achieved due to the shallow mixed layer depth (~10 m) with high Fe and nutrient concentrations, and the phytoplankton in the water sample used in the present study is considered to be in an exponential to peak of the spring bloom. Mixed layer depth, chemical and phytoplankton properties at the sampling station were temporally changed due to mixing COW, Oyashio Water and modified Kuroshio Water during the KH-07-01 cruise (Kono and Sato, 2010; Sugie et al., 2010a). For example, the concentration of T-Fe macronutrients and Chl *a* varied one order of magnitude in the upper mixed layer, ranging 0.7–25 nmol L<sup>-1</sup> T-Fe, 1.9–19 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> NO<sub>2</sub>+NO<sub>3</sub>, 0.6–1.9 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> PO<sub>4</sub>, and 3.1–36 μmol L<sup>-1</sup> Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> (Nakayama et al., 2010; Sugie et al., 2010a).

The Chl a concentration of natural phytoplankton assemblages increased over 1–3 days of cultivation, and the net growth rate was faster in control than in DFB treated conditions. The highest Chl a concentration was observed at 3 day of incubation with approximately 32  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> in the control and 21  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> in DFB treatment (Fig. 7a-1). The Chl a concentration at 5 day of incubation in controls was 1.5-times higher than that seen in DFB treatment, while the diatom cell yields at 5 day of incubation in the control was almost the same as those in the DFB treated conditions (Fig. 7a-2). Throughout the *in situ* phytoplankton incubations, centric diatoms of *Thalassiosira* spp. and Chaetoceros spp. (subgenus Hyalochaete) were predominant, accounting for >97% of diatom abundance, with pennate diatoms being only a minor component <2.5% (Fig. 7a-2). Other phytoplankton groups were extremely low dominancy under microscopic observation, and the diatom species were commonly seen in the Oyashio region during spring bloom (Tsuda et al., 2005; Sugie et al., 2010a, 2010b). On day 5 of DFB treatment, diatom cell density had increased to ~12,000 cells mL<sup>-1</sup> representing 1.9 cell divisions, while the Chl a concentration was only 0.81 doublings. Macronutrient concentrations in controls decreased rapidly to nearly zero at 3 day for NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub> and Si(OH)<sub>4</sub>, and reached and remained ~0.25 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> during 3–5 day of cultivations for PO<sub>4</sub>. Macronutrient concentrations in DFB treatments also decreased rapidly to nearly zero at 3 day for  $NO_3+NO_2$  (Fig. 7b-1), remained 0.4  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> at 5 day for  $PO_4$  (Fig. 7b-2) and 1.4  $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup> at 5 day for Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 7b-3).

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## **4 Discussion**

4.1 Changes in cell morphology under Fe-starved conditions

Variation in cell morphology may be an important factor influencing the Fe uptake of

diatoms, because a reduction in cell size increases the SA/CV ratio and thereby maximizes transporter uptake rates relative to cellular Fe requirements (Sunda and Huntsman, 1995). Previous studies have found low Fe acclimated Fe-limited and DFB added Fe-starved coastal and oceanic centric diatoms to show a 20-50% decrease in CV, and a resultant increase in SA/CV ratio of 8–26% (Sunda and Huntsman, 1995; Sugie and Kuma, 2008). In addition, it has been reported that the Fe-limited cells of the marine pennate diatom *Pseudo-nitzschia* spp. acclimatize to low Fe concentrations with a reduction in CV of 14-44% and an increase in SA/CV ratio of 9-40% (Marchetti and Harrison, 2007). Similarly, 3 out of the 4 diatom species cultured in the present study showed reduction in CV and SA (of 15-20% and 8.5-14%, respectively) in Fe-starved conditions produced by the addition of DFB (direct Fe-100-DFB 1 d medium). These reductions were associated with an increase in SA/CV ratio of 7–8% (Table 2) but the change was smaller than that of *Pseudo-nitzschia* spp. reported by Marchetti and Harrison (2007). In contrast, Fe-starved S. costatum s.l. (the smallest diatom species we investigated) exhibited increases in CV of 66% and SA of 68%, and subsequently a slight increase in SA/CV ratio of ~3% (Table 2). It is thus evident that species and/or genera differ in the extent to which they can alter their cellular dimensions under Fe-depleted conditions even among coastal diatom species.

## 4.2 Luxury Fe uptake and growth utilizing intracellular Fe pools

Cell yields and Chl *a* concentrations were identical between controls (DFB only) and DFB-Fe treatment indicating the centric diatom species we used in laboratory experiment can not utilize Fe from the DFB-Fe complex (Figs. 1–4) as reported previously (Iwade et al., 2006; Yoshida et al., 2006; Chen and Wang, 2008). Even if the diatoms we used were able to uptake Fe from DFB-Fe complex via cell surface reductase (Shaked et al., 2005; Kustka et al., 2007; Morel et al., 2008), the amount should have been negligible at the high DFB:Fe molar ratio of 10 with extreme low [Fe(III)'] of ~3.5 amol L<sup>-1</sup> in this study. Under the presence of DFB, almost all external bioavailable Fe species such as Fe dissolving from particulate Fe and natural organic Fe complexes form the DFB-Fe complex (Iwade et al., 2006). Therefore, the growth of diatoms after the DFB addition can be accomplished by utilizing only intracellular Fe.

The cell growth of all 4 centric diatom species was maintained for 4–6 days after the addition of DFB and the increase in Chl *a* concentrations were maintained for 2–5 days. In addition,

the cell growth rates for  $\sim$ 2–3 days after the DFB addition in direct Fe-100-DFB-1 d media were the same as those in direct Fe(III) input media. However, Chl a growth rates decreased within 1–2 days after the addition of DFB. Therefore, the stored Fe via the luxury Fe uptake supported only for 1–2 days or 1–2 cell divisions. The surplus 2–3 times of cell divisions after the DFB addition considered to be maintained by sharing intracellular functional Fe pools with daughter cells. The Chl a cell quota in Fe-depleted DFB added media (e.g. direct Fe-10-DFB-1d, and direct Fe-100-DFB-1d media) tended to decrease logarithmically with time after the DFB addition (Fig. 8). The reduction in Chl a cell quota was 57–73% while the reduction in CV was about 10% (Table 2). These results suggest that intracellular Fe was primarily involved in cell generation rather than Chl a synthesis. In addition, the decrease in intracellular Chl a concentration can alleviate photooxidative stress (e.g. Ledford and Niyogi, 2005) that may offset the decrease in productivity with the increase in probability of survival under Fe-deficient conditions.

The 50–90% of intracellular functional Fe in phytoplankton is localized in chloroplast (Raven, 1988). It has been reported that Fe deficiency of the diatoms induces the decreases in Chl a cell quota and in photosynthetic protein levels, especially for the most Fe-rich protein of PS I complex (Geider et al., 1993; Davey and Geider, 2001). Chlamydomonas reinhardtii (Chlorophyceae) optimize photosynthetic apparatus by changing the stoichiometry of electron transfer proteins to minimize photooxidative damage under Fe-depleted conditions (Moseley et al., 2002). Busch et al. (2008) reported that the ferritin bind with Fe released from degrading photosynthetic apparatuses such as PS I under Fe-depleted condition by using C. reinhardtii and that the ferritin binding Fe is probably redistributed within a cell in response to extracellular Fe conditions. In contrast, pennate diatoms upregulate the ferritin gene under Fe-replete conditions to accumulate Fe intracellularly (Marchetti et al., 2009). However, any examined centric diatoms do not have ferritin gene (e.g. Thalassiosira pseudonana; Armbrust et al., 2004). The vacuole is known to store Fe in yeast and higher plants (e.g. Brait et al., 2007), however, the role of vacuole as an Fe storage mechanism in the centric diatoms is unclear (Raven, 1997; Kustka et al., 2007). In the present study, the Fe-binding agent and transporter of the centric diatoms under Fe-sufficient and deficient conditions could not be specified. Then we speculate Fe storage mechanisms in the centric diatoms that (1) the centric diatoms have a specific protein other than ferritin for Fe-storage under Fe-sufficient environment, or (2) Fe-containing proteins in the photosynthetic apparatus (e.g. PS I,

PS II, cytochrome  $b_6$ -f-FeS complex, and ferredoxin; Raven et al., 1999) act as part of an intracellular Fe-storage mechanism.

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In general, Ti(III)-citrate-EDTA solution (Hudson and Morel, 1989, 1990) has been used to rapidly remove extracellularly absorbed iron by reductive dissolution of Fe(III) for the iron uptake measurement. In our previous studies (Kuma and Matsunaga, 1995; Kuma et al., 2000; Iwade et al., 2006), however, aged amorphous Fe(III) hydroxide produced in direct Fe(III) input during aging above 1 day at 10°C and higher temperature was not completely dissolved by the reductive dissolution with Ti(III) treatment because of the much slower dissolution rate of aged amorphous Fe(III) hydroxide. The dissolution rates of the amorphous Fe(III) hydroxide phase decrease rapidly with aging time and temperature because of the conversion to more stable phase (Kuma and Matsunaga, 1995). Therefore, intracellular Fe concentrations were not measured for >1 week duration incubated under 10 and 20°C of the present culture experiments. In the previous studies (Kuma et al., 1999, 2000; Iwade et al., 2006), the direct input of concentrated acidic Fe(III) stock solution into culture media elevates the concentration of bioavailable Fe(IIIabove the equilibrium concentration (~0.1 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>) with solid Fe(III) hydroxide in seawater (Kuma et al., 1996), indicating the higher rates of Fe uptake and phytoplankton growth. In addition, the high Fe uptake rate by phytoplankton was accomplished by the high concentration of the freshly hydrolytic precipitated Fe(III) hydroxide with the higher dissolution rate compared to more stable crystal structure of Fe(III) hydroxide species (Kuma and Matsunaga, 1995). The Fe(III) solubility and dissolution rate of solid Fe(III) hydroxide in seawater can limit the uptake of Fe by phytoplankton if the dissolution rate is slow in relation to the further demands of phytoplankton. The maximal cell yields and growth rates in direct Fe(III) input media were higher in direct Fe(III)-100 media than direct Fe(III)-10 media (Figs. 1–5). It is likely that the dissolution of solid amorphous Fe(III) hydroxide with  $100 \text{ nmol } L^{-1}$  in culture media is sufficiently larger to accomplish the maximal cell yields and the high growth rate than that with 10 nmol L<sup>-1</sup>, suggesting smaller supply of bioavailable Fe(III) in the Fe(III)-10 media compared to the Fe(III)-100 media. In addition, the higher cell divisions and Chl a doublings after DFB addition in the direct Fe-100-DFB 1 d media than in the direct Fe-100-DFB 3 d media were probably due to the higher dissolution rate of the freshly precipitated solid Fe(III) hydroxide than the aged solid Fe(III) hydroxide (Fig. 6; Kuma and Matsunaga, 1995; Yoshida et al., 2006).

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4.3 Growth of in situ phytoplankton utilizing intracellular Fe

Our field incubation study demonstrated the 1.9 divisions and the 0.81 Chl a doublings of diatoms with nitrate exhaustion even after the addition of DFB. If in situ labile dissolved Fe bound with added DFB, [Fe(III)'] is calculated to be 0.013 amol L<sup>-1</sup>. Bioavailable fraction of total dissolvable Fe will also complex with DFB, and hence, [Fe(III)'] is 0.68 amol L<sup>-1</sup> at most. It suggests that the growth of phytoplankton community (predominantly coastal centric diatom species) is primarily supported by intracellular Fe pools. Because such a low concentration of [Fe(III)'] can not support the growth of coastal diatom species as stated earlier (Wells et al., 1994; Soria-Dengg and Hortmann, 1995; Hutchins et al., 1999b; Wells, 1999; Maldonado and Price, 2001; Wells and Trick, 2004). Under such conditions, a 20 µmol L<sup>-1</sup> NO<sub>3</sub> drawdown primary using intracellular Fe after the addition of DFB is a salient phenomenon observed in the present study (Fig. 7b-1). The increase in Chl a concentration in controls was greater than that in DFB treatment probably due to the further Fe uptake from ambient seawater. Although the increase in diatom cell density and species composition in both conditions were almost the same, the smaller increase in Chl a concentration in DFB treatment than control would come from the reduced Chl a cell quota of the diatoms under Fe-deficient condition. These in situ results are consistent with those in our laboratory study with one order of magnitude higher Fe concentration. In addition, the decrease in Chl a growth rate soon after the DFB addition may be due to the simultaneous degradation in functional intracellular Fe pools and its distribution to daughter cells. The further increase in cell density and Chl a concentration of the in situ phytoplankton community after the DFB addition was probably due to NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub> and Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> depletions.

It is notable that, in comparison to the centric diatoms, pennate diatom species did not undergo an increase in cell numbers to any prominent extent following the addition of DFB. This suggests that the pennate diatoms, which could have the specific Fe-storage protein ferritin (Marchetti et al., 2009), do not compete with centric diatoms in Fe-replete and hence macronutrient-exhausted natural environments such as intensive spring phytoplankton bloom of the Oyashio region (Sugie et al., 2010a). Species-specific difference in the strategy using intracellular Fe may be one of the important factors controlling the diatom species composition after depletion of extracellular bioavailable Fe in the spring bloom period. Our results suggest that the spring bloom

community of the Oyashio region dominated the centric diatoms could accumulate intracellular Fe relative to their critical threshold during winter to spring, when the high dissolved Fe concentration has been observed in the region (Nishioka et al., 2007; Nakayama et al., 2010). We also found that the intracellular Fe pools were used to increase cell numbers rather than Chl *a* production under Fe-depleted conditions of the Fe-starved diatom cells. A decrease in the concentration of intracellular Chl *a*, a main light-harvesting pigment could protect the Fe-starved cells from high irradiance which cause excess oxidative damages to the cells through photosynthesis (Ledford and Niyogi, 2005; Allen et al., 2008). The survival strategy may benefit to maximize the diatom dominance in the Oyashio region where Fe concentrations decrease with increasing irradiance toward summer (Nishioka et al., 2007).

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# Table and Figure legends Table 1. Experimental condition of seven treatments to examine

Table 1. Experimental condition of seven treatments to examine the ability for luxury Fe uptake and the potential for growth utilizing intracellular Fe pools for *Skeletonema costatum* s.l., *Thalassiosira anguste-lineata*, *Thalassiosira nordenskioeldii* and *Thalassiosira weissflogii*. Note that the direct Fe(III)-10 and direct Fe(III)-10-DFB-1d treatments were not conducted using *T. anguste-lineata*.

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**Table 2.** Cell size of coastal diatom species at the start (S) and end (E) of Fe-limited culture experiment in direct Fe-100-DFB-1d medium with 100-nmol  $L^{-1}$  Fe(III) to which DFB (desferrioxamine B) was added after incubation for 1 day [DFB:Fe(III) = 10:1]. Data represent the mean  $\pm$  1 SD (n $\geq$ 20). \*: Significant difference of p < 0.01 in ANOVA between the value of the start and the end.

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673 Fig. 1. Thalassiosira nordenskioeldii (10°C). Changes in cell density (a) and Chl a concentration (b) of cultures in direct Fe(III) input media with 10 and 100-nmol L<sup>-1</sup> Fe(III) [direct Fe(III)-10 and 674 direct Fe(III)-100 media, respectively], direct Fe(III) input media with addition of DFB 675 676 [DFB:Fe(III) = 10:1] after 1 day cultivation (direct Fe-10-DFB-1d and direct Fe-100-DFB-1d media, respectively), premixed DFB-Fe(III) complex [DFB:Fe(III) = 1- $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup>:100-nmol L<sup>-1</sup>] and control 677 (only DFB addition with a final concentration of 1- $\mu$ mol L<sup>-1</sup>) media. Data on cell and Chl a 678 679 concentrations represent mean  $\pm$  1 SD for triplicate cultivations other than duplicate  $\pm$  range of 680 control and premix DFB-Fe(III) treatments. Dashed lines in (a-1) and (b-1) represent maximum 681 values of vertical axes in (a-2) and (b-2), respectively.

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Fig. 2. Thalassiosira anguste-linieata (10°C). Changes in cell density (a) and Chl a concentration
(b). Experimental treatments and figure captions were the same as those in Fig. 1.

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- **Fig. 3**. *Skeletonema costatum* s.l. (20°C). Changes in cell density (a) and Chl *a* concentration (b).
- Experimental treatments and figure captions were the same as those in Fig. 1.

- **Fig. 4**. *Thalassiosira weissflogii* (20°C). Changes in cell density (a) and Chl *a* concentration (b).
- Experimental treatments and figure captions were the same as those in Fig. 1.

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- Fig. 5. Change in cell densities of *T. nordenskioeldii* at 10°C (a), *T. anguste-lineata* at 10°C (b), *S. costatum* s.l. at 20°C (c) and *T. weissflogii* at 20°C (d) in direct Fe(III)-100 media without and with
- addition of DFB after 1 and 3 day of cultivations [direct Fe(III)-100, direct Fe-100-DFB-1d and
- direct Fe-100-DFB-3d treatment]. Data on cell concentration represent mean  $\pm$  1 SD for triplicate
- 696 cultivations.

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- Fig. 6. Maximum cell divisions [log<sub>2</sub> (maximal cell density after DFB addition/cell density at DFB
- 699 addition)] and Chl a doublings [log<sub>2</sub> (maximal Chl a concentration after DFB addition/Chl a
- 700 concentration at DFB addition)] of T. nordenskioeldii (10°C), T. anguste-lineata (10°C), S. costatum
- s.l. (20°C) and T. weissflogii (20°C) in direct Fe(III)-100 input with addition of DFB [DFB:Fe(III) =
- 702 10:1] after 1 day of cultivation (direct Fe-100-DFB-1d medium, Fig. 1a-2, 1b-2, 2a-2, 2b-2, 3-a2,
- 703 3b-2, 4a-2 and 4b-2) in laboratory culture experiments. Error bars on cell divisions and Chl a
- doublings represent mean  $\pm 1$  SD for triplicate cultivations.

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- 706 **Fig. 7**. Changes in Chl a concentration (a-1), diatom density (a-2) and nutrient concentrations
- 707 [NO<sub>3</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub> (b-1), PO<sub>4</sub> (b-2), Si(OH)<sub>4</sub> (b-3)] at 0, 1, 3 and/or 5 day cultivations in the shipboard
- incubation experiments. Data on Chl a and nutrient concentrations represent mean  $\pm$  1 SD for
- 709 triplicate cultivations.

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- 711 Fig. 8. Changes in Chl a cell quota (Chl a concentration/cell density at each point) of T.
- 712 nordenskioeldii (a), T. anguste-lineata (b), S. costatum s.l. (c) and T. weissflogii (d) with incubation
- 713 time in direct Fe(III) input media with 10 and/or 100-nmol L<sup>-1</sup> Fe(III) [direct Fe(III)-10 and/or
- 714 direct Fe(III)-100 media, respectively] and direct Fe(III) input media with addition of DFB
- 715 [DFB:Fe(III) = 10:1] after 1 day cultivation (direct Fe-10-DFB-1d and/or direct Fe-100-DFB-1d
- media, respectively). Data represent mean  $\pm$  1 SD for triplicate cultivations.

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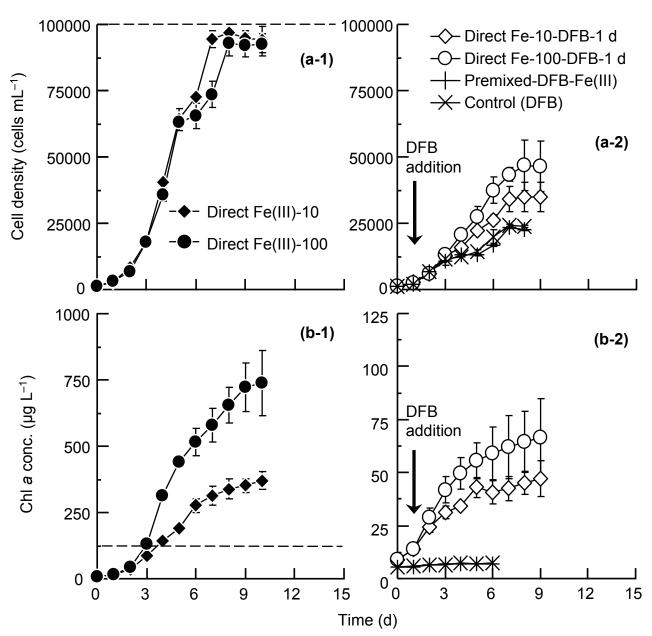
- 722 Importance of Intracellular Fe Pools on Growth of Marine Diatoms by Using Unialgal Cultures and
- the Oyashio Region Phytoplankton Community during Spring
- Koji Sugie, Kenshi Kuma, Satoshi Fujita, Satomi Ushizaka, Koji Suzuki and Tsutomu Ikeda
- 725 邦題:珪藻の単離培養株および春季親潮域の植物プランクトン群集の増殖における細胞内
- 726 鉄プール利用の重要性
- 727 杉江 恒二, 久万 健志, 藤田 聡, 牛坂 理美, 鈴木 光次, 池田 勉
- 728 沿岸性中心目珪藻 4 種の単離培養株および親潮域の天然植物プランクトン群集を用いて、
- 729 高鉄濃度環境下における過剰量の鉄摂取能および細胞内の鉄を利用した増殖能に関して調
- 730 査した。全ての単離株は細胞内の鉄のみを利用することにより 2.4-4.2 回の細胞分裂を行っ
- 731 ていた。一方、クロロフィルa (Chla) の増加は1.2-2.6 回分裂相当であり細胞の増分と比
- 732 較して少なかった。すなわち、鉄欠乏環境にある珪藻は細胞内の鉄を Chl a の生産ではな
- 733 く細胞数の増大のために利用していた。天然群集を用いた船上試験においても単離株の結
- 734 果と同様の傾向を示し、細胞数の増分が Chl a の増分を上回った。鉄が枯渇した環境にお
- 735 いて、珪藻細胞内の Chl a 量を優先的に減少させることは光酸化損傷を引き起こす高照度
- 736 環境下から細胞を守るための良い生存戦略となるかもしれない。そのような海水中の低鉄
- 737 濃度、高照度環境は春季から夏季の親潮域において頻繁に発生すると考えられる。

**Table 1.** Experimental condition of seven treatments to examine the ability for luxury Fe uptake and the potential for growth utilizing intracellular Fe pools for *Skeletonema costatum* s.l., *Thalassiosira anguste-lineata*, *Thalassiosira nordenskioeldii* and *Thalassiosira weissflogii*. Note that the direct Fe(III)-10 and direct Fe(III)-10-DFB-1d treatments were not conducted using *T. anguste-lineata*.

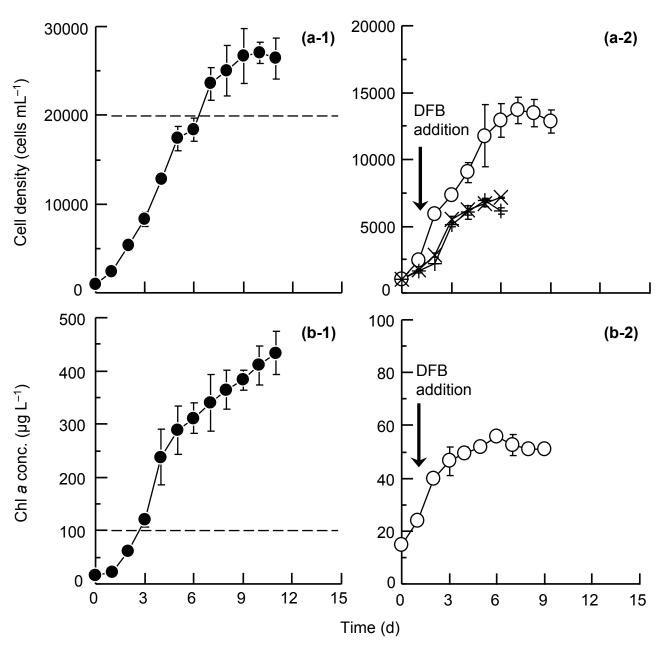
Treatment	Added Fe(III)	Added DFB	Time of DFB
	$(nmol \ L^{-1})$	$(nmol \; L^{-1})$	addition (day)
Control (DFB)	0	1000	0
Premixed DFB-Fe(III)	100	1000	0
Direct Fe(III)-10	10	0	No add.
Direct Fe(III)-100	100	0	No add.
Direct Fe(III)-10-DFB-1d	10	100	1
Direct Fe(III)-100-DFB-1d	100	1000	1
Direct Fe(III)-100-DFB-3d	100	1000	3

**Table 2.** Cell size of coastal diatom species at the start (S) and end (E) of Fe-limited culture experiment in direct Fe-100-DFB-1d medium with 100-nmol L<sup>-1</sup> Fe(III) to which DFB (desferrioxamine B) was added after incubation for 1 day [DFB:Fe(III) = 10:1]. Data represent the mean  $\pm$  1 SD (n $\ge$ 20). \*: significant difference of p < 0.01 in ANOVA between the value of the start and the end.

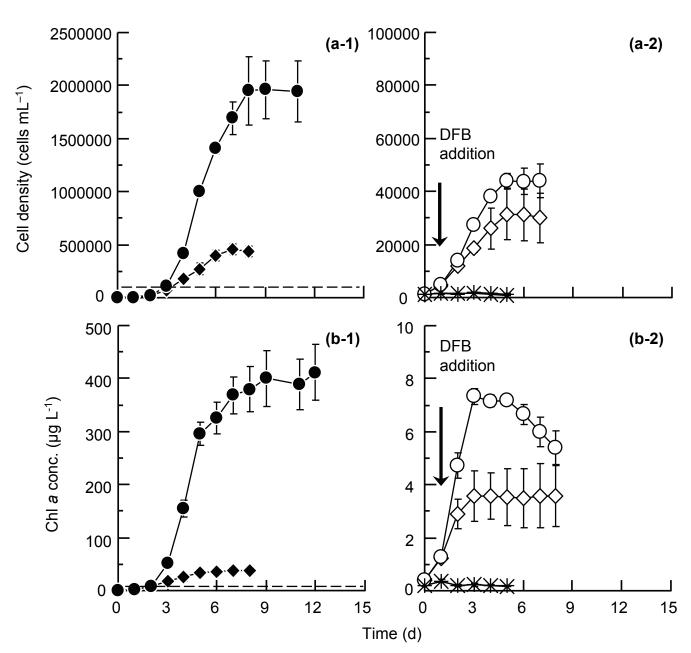
Species	Start (S) or end (E) of culture	Cell volume (CV: µm³)	Cell surface area (SA: µm²)	SA/CV (μm <sup>-1</sup> )
T. nordenskioeldii	(S)	$4,400 \pm 49$	$1,520 \pm 110$	$0.35 \pm 0.01$
	(E)	$3,730 \pm 620*$	$1,390 \pm 160*$	$0.38 \pm 0.02*$
T. anguste-lineata	(S)	$10,570 \pm 1,740$	$2,800 \pm 260$	$0.27 \pm 0.02$
	(E)	$8,620 \pm 1,600*$	$2,470 \pm 310*$	$0.29 \pm 0.02*$
S. costatum s.l.	(S)	$117 \pm 33$	$81 \pm 15$	$0.71 \pm 0.07$
	(E)	194 ± 101*	$136 \pm 57*$	$0.73 \pm 0.09$
T. weissflogii	(S)	$518 \pm 98$	$358 \pm 45$	$0.70 \pm 0.05$
	(E)	415 ± 124*	$308 \pm 60*$	$0.76 \pm 0.07$ *



T. anguste-linieata (10°C)







T. weissflogii (20°C)

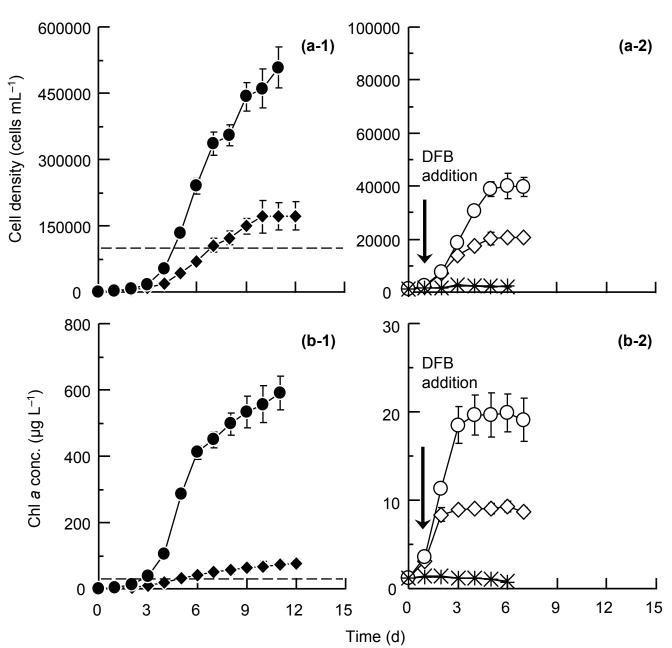


Fig. 5

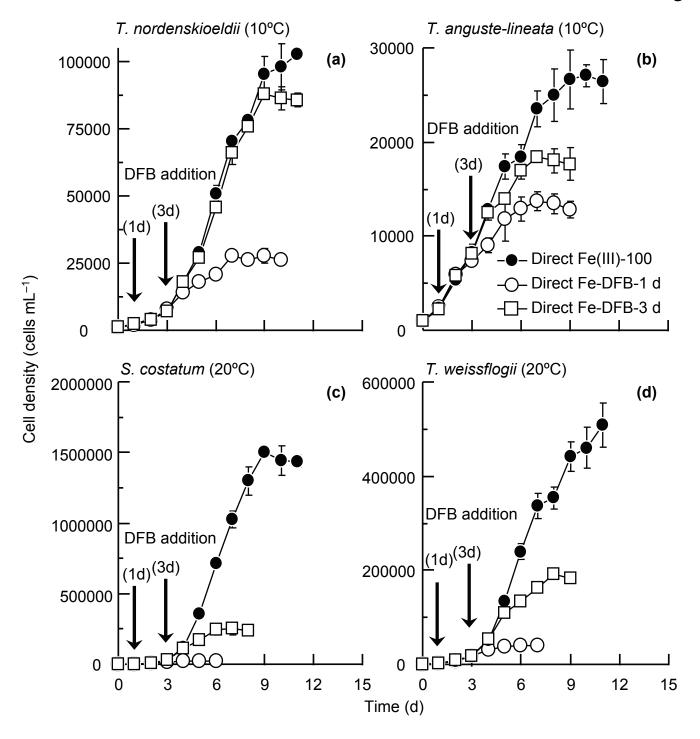


Fig. 6

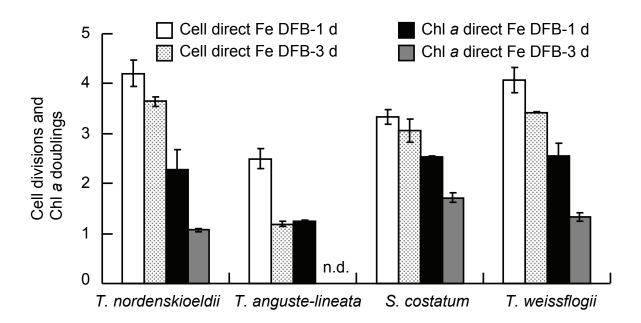


Fig. 7

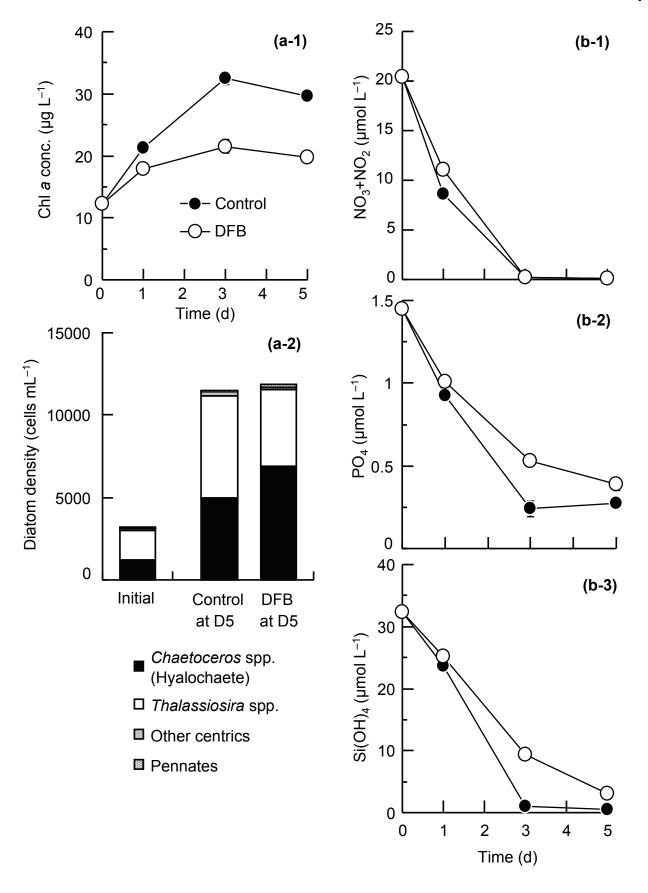


Fig. 8

