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Lachmann, Sabrina C.; Maberly, Stephen C.; Spijkerman, Elly. 2016.  
**Ecophysiology matters: linking inorganic carbon acquisition to ecological preference in four species of microalgae (Chlorophyceae).**  
*Journal of Phycology*, 52 (6). 1051-1063. [10.1111/jpy.12462](https://doi.org/10.1111/jpy.12462)

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Received Date : 15-Dec-2015

Revised Date : 05-Jul-2016

Accepted Date : 23-Jul-2016

Article type : Regular Article

**Ecophysiology matters: linking inorganic carbon acquisition to ecological preference in four species of microalgae (Chlorophyceae)<sup>1</sup>**

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Editorial Responsibility: J. Raven (Associate Editor)

Running title:

Linking C<sub>i</sub> acquisition to ecology

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi:

10.1111/jpy.12462-15-260

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## ABSTRACT

The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> supply is likely to play an important role in algal ecology. Since inorganic carbon (C<sub>i</sub>) acquisition strategies are very diverse among microalgae and C<sub>i</sub> availability varies greatly within and among habitats, we hypothesized that C<sub>i</sub> acquisition depends on the pH of their preferred natural environment (adaptation) and that the efficiency of C<sub>i</sub> uptake is affected by CO<sub>2</sub> availability (acclimation). To test this, four species of green algae originating from different habitats were studied. pH-drift and C<sub>i</sub> uptake kinetic experiments were used to characterize C<sub>i</sub> acquisition strategies and their ability to acclimate to *high* and *low* CO<sub>2</sub> conditions and *high* and *low* pH was evaluated. Results from pH drift experiments revealed that the acidophile and acidotolerant *Chlamydomonas* species were mainly restricted to CO<sub>2</sub>, whereas the two neutrophiles were efficient bicarbonate users. CO<sub>2</sub> compensation points in *low* CO<sub>2</sub>-acclimated cultures ranged between 0.6 and 1.4 μM CO<sub>2</sub> and acclimation to different culture pH and CO<sub>2</sub> conditions suggested that CO<sub>2</sub> concentrating mechanisms were present in most species. *High* CO<sub>2</sub> acclimated cultures adapted rapidly to low CO<sub>2</sub> condition during pH-drifts. C<sub>i</sub> uptake kinetics at different pH values showed that the affinity for C<sub>i</sub> was largely influenced by external pH, being highest under conditions where CO<sub>2</sub> dominated the C<sub>i</sub> pool. In conclusion, C<sub>i</sub> acquisition was highly variable among four species of green algae and linked to growth pH preference, suggesting that there is a connection between C<sub>i</sub> acquisition and ecological distribution.

*Key index words:* acidophile; carbon acquisition; CCM; *Chlamydomonas*; *Chlorella*; CO<sub>2</sub> supply; extremophile; inorganic carbon uptake kinetics; pH-drift; *Scenedesmus*

*Abbreviations:* CA, carbonic anhydrase; CCM, carbon dioxide concentrating mechanism; C<sub>i</sub>, dissolved inorganic carbon; CO<sub>2</sub>, carbon dioxide; C<sub>T</sub>, the concentration of C<sub>i</sub> at the end of a pH-drift experiment; HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, bicarbonate; EPPS, 4-(2-Hydroxyethyl)-piperazine-1-propane sulphonic acid; HEPES, N-2-Hydroxyethyl piperazine-N'-2-ethane sulphonic acid; MES, 2-

(N-Morpholino)-ethane sulphonic acid; TES, N-[Tris-(hydroxymethyl)-methyl]-2-aminoethane sulphonic acid

## INTRODUCTION

Phytoplankton are the most important primary producers in oceans and many fresh waters (Häder et al. 1998). Freshwater habitats are very diverse in terms of size, bathymetry, hydrology, transparency and chemistry (Lampert and Sommer 1997, Wetzel 2001) yet phytoplankton are ubiquitous and present even in extreme habitats like volcanic lakes with very low pH (Pedrozo et al. 2001) or soda lakes with very high pH (Melack et al. 1982). This ubiquity results from rapid acclimation to environmental conditions and more importantly to adaptive features of different species, aided by a wide phylogenetic diversity (Falkowski et al. 2004, Maberly et al. 2010). Phytoplankton species have habitat preferences that depend on a wide range of factors (Reynolds 2012) including nutrients (e.g., P, N, Si) that determine ecological distribution (Spijkerman and Coesel 1998, Interlandi and Kilham 2001). Inorganic carbon is a major requirement and one that is highly variable. The geology of the catchment controls water alkalinity and background concentrations of bicarbonate (Raven and Maberly 2004) while biological processes in the catchment and water body can control the concentration of dissolved carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>). The recent anthropogenic emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere during the industrial period (Etheridge et al. 1996) as another factor of variability have been suggested to promote phytoplankton productivity in freshwaters (Schippers et al. 2004, Jansson et al. 2012) or increase of phytoplankton biomass (Low-Decarie et al. 2015) although if lake concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> are determined by the catchment (Maberly et al. 2013) this response may be limited.

Over geological time, changing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, such as the large decrease in the early Eocene (Pearson and Palmer 2000) is believed to have resulted in the

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evolution of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrating mechanisms (CCMs; Raven et al. 2012). CCMs provide high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at the active side of RuBisCO to maximize carbon fixation and minimize photorespiration (Badger and Price 1992, Badger et al. 1998). They are very diverse among microalgae (Badger et al. 1998, Badger 2003, Giordano et al. 2005, Raven and Beardall 2014). Mechanisms include the active uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> and bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) (Maberly and Spence 1983, Sültemeyer et al. 1989, Kaplan and Reinhold 1999), the extracellular conversion of HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to CO<sub>2</sub> by dehydration due to a carbonic anhydrase located in the periplasmic space (Moroney et al. 2001, van Hille et al. 2014) resulting in the uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> and the recapturing of CO<sub>2</sub> by barriers in the chloroplast (Yamano et al. 2010). The acclimation of algal cells to different pH and CO<sub>2</sub> levels cause variations in efficiency of CCMs (Trimborn et al. 2008, Raven and Beardall 2014) or even the occurrence of them which is for example shown for the detection of, predominantly periplasmic, carbonic anhydrases (Nimer et al. 1997, Tortell and Morel 2002).

In addition to acclimation to CO<sub>2</sub> availability caused by algal phenotypic plasticity, adaptive differences among species based on genotype has been described. For example, an earlier study showed that within a group of desmids, the pH of their original aquatic habitat roughly affects their C<sub>i</sub> preference as determined in pH drift experiments (Spijkerman et al. 2005), while the chrysophytes as a group appear to lack a CCM (Maberly et al. 2009).

This study aimed to determine both adaptive and acclimatory responses of microalgae to pH and C<sub>i</sub> availability. Adaptation was studied by comparing responses of four species of green microalgae from habitats of different pH. Acclimation was studied by growing these species under *high* and *low* CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and *high* and *low* pH.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

*Algae and pH growth experiment.* Four species of green algae were studied:

*Chlamydomonas acidophila* Negoro (SAG 2045, from an acidic mining lake (pH 2.7), Lausitz, Germany), *Chlamydomonas pitschmannii* Ettl (SAG 14.73, from a boggy spring near Brezová, Slovakia), *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* Dangeard (SAG 11-32b, from soil from a potato field near Amherst, USA) and *Scenedesmus vacuolatus* Shihira et Krauss (SAG 211-8c, from tap water from Berlin, Germany, formerly designed as *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* (CCAP 211/8c), *Chlorella emersonii* (CCAP 211/8c) and *Chlorella fusca* (SAG 211-8c)).

Algal habitats differ in their pH but they are all located in temperate climate zones, which means that they experience similar temperatures and light intensities. To measure the growth response to different external pH, algae were grown in modified Woods Hole medium (initially 150  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , without silicate; Gerloff-Elias et al. 2005) in Erlenmeyer flasks (300 mL) containing 150 mL of medium and closed with a foam stopper. The medium with MES was filter-sterilized, whereas others were autoclaved. The medium was regarded as P-replete (100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and buffered following the desired pH range (2.0 – 3.5: 0.012 mM  $\text{Fe Cl}_3$ , 4.0 – 5.5: 2 mM MES, 6.0 – 7.0: 5 mM HEPES, 7.5 – 9.0: 5 mM TES). Cultures were inoculated with stationary-phase batch-cultured algae to obtain an optical density (OD) at 750 nm of 0.01 in a 5 cm pathlength cuvette. Cultures were placed in a temperature-controlled climate chamber at 20°C ( $\pm 1^\circ$ ) and received 130 – 150  $\mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  of photosynthetically active radiation from fluorescent tubes (Philips TLD 58W/840, New Generation, Holland) as measured in air with a spherical light sensor (SQSA 0107, WALZ Mess-& Regeltechnik, Effeltrich, Germany) and which was provided in a 16 h day, 8 h night cycle. The OD was measured daily over 5 days in a spectrophotometer (UV-2401 PC, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). In addition, the pH was measured daily (Knick Portamess®, SE 102N pH/Pt 1000 Sensor, Berlin, Germany) and adjusted when necessary by adding small volumes of NaOH or  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ . Exponential growth rates were calculated from a linear

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regression through the natural logarithm of OD over time. All experiments were carried out at least in triplicate.

*Growth of algae for pH drift experiments.* For pH drift experiments, cultures were grown in a climate chamber at 20°C under continuous light at 155 – 180  $\mu\text{mol photon} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  (measured with the spherical light sensor Li-Cor, SPQA 1329 in air) from fluorescent lamps (Silvania luxline plus F58W/840 (184), coolwhite deluxe, Germany). All cultures were grown in P-replete medium (100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and species-specific optimal pH conditions, which were determined by growth experiments at different pH conditions (Table 1). Growth was monitored by measuring the OD at a wavelength of 800 nm with a spectrophotometer (U-2800 Digital, Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan). Cultures were grown semi-continuously in 1 L flasks by daily exchange of 110 mL culture with fresh medium out of 600 mL total volume ( $\mu = 0.2 \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) for at least 11 d prior to use in experiments.

Cells were grown under three further conditions with different pH and concentration of  $\text{CO}_2$ . *High pH* conditions with very low  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations (0.4 – 2.7  $\mu\text{M}$ ); ii) *low  $\text{CO}_2$*  (12 – 26  $\mu\text{M}$ ) conditions with optimal pH and iii) *high  $\text{CO}_2$*  conditions (~1000  $\mu\text{M}$ ) with optimal pH. *Low  $\text{CO}_2$*  was produced by not aerating the culture. *High  $\text{CO}_2$*  was produced in diluted cultures of 400 mL algal suspension in 1 L flasks which were bubbled with 2.1%  $\text{CO}_2$  in air at a flow rate of about 60  $\text{mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$  using gas mass-flow controllers (Bronkhorst (UK) Ltd, Cambridge). These *high  $\text{CO}_2$*  (2.1%) cultures were grown for 2 to 3 days without dilution at initial optimal pH conditions. The species were also grown at *high pH* (Table 1) which was selected to represent a pH above their optimum but within their tolerance. In this case cultures were grown in batch culture for 5 d in 1 L Erlenmeyer flasks containing 800 mL of medium. These cultures were inoculated at a high an OD as possible to maximize the demand for inorganic carbon and simulate very low  $\text{CO}_2$  supply at the end of growth.

*pH drift experiments.* Experiments were conducted in an artificial test medium with an alkalinity of  $1 \text{ mEq} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ , comprising  $0.5 \text{ mM NaHCO}_3$  and  $0.5 \text{ mM KHCO}_3$  plus  $0.15 \text{ mM CaCl}_2$  and  $0.25 \text{ mM MgSO}_4$ . Algal cells were separated from the culture medium by centrifugation for 5 minutes at  $1000g$  (Centrifuge 5804 R, Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany). The pellets were washed two times with the test medium and finally resuspended in the test medium to produce a maximal OD of 1.0 at  $800 \text{ nm}$  ( $5 \text{ cm}$  pathlength cuvette). The resuspended cultures were briefly aerated with  $\text{CO}_2$  to reach a starting pH-value of about 7.0 before being sealed from the atmosphere in  $100 \text{ mL}$  glass bottles containing a magnetic follower and a combination pH-electrode (CSIM11-PH-15L/K2, Campbell Scientific, Logan, USA). They were placed in a thermo-controlled glass water bath at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  with a 6-place stirring motor below (stirrer controller A-S 601, Electrothermal, Rochford, UK) that provided slow and continuous stirring. The electrodes had been pre-calibrated with buffers at pH 7 and 10 in the identical bottles, temperature and stirring regime. The suspensions received  $310\text{-}340 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  continuous light from the side from Sylvania Standard F15W/129 warm white and F18W/35 lamps (Mississauga, Canada) measured inside the water bath with a  $4 \pi$  sensor (LI-COR-sensor, SPQA 1329, Lincoln, USA). The pH increase as a result of the uptake of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  caused by the photosynthesis of the cells was recorded from each electrode every 10 seconds with a pH logger (CR10X with a AM 416/Relay Multiplexer, Campbell Scientific) connected to a computer. The end of the drift experiment was determined when a change in pH of  $< 0.01$  units was observed within at least half an hour, which typically occurred between 12 and 20 h from the start of the experiment. The starting and final alkalinity was measured by Gran titration using  $0.05 \text{ M HCl}$  on a  $20 \text{ mL}$  sub-sample of the drifted culture.

*Drift parameter and compensation points.* The final pH was equivalent to the highest pH reached during the pH-drift experiment. The total  $C_i$  represents the dissolved inorganic carbon comprising free  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  and was calculated from the alkalinity, This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved.



temperature, pH, and ionic strength of the medium (Stumm and Morgan 1970). The total  $C_i$  remaining at the end of the pH-drift was designated  $C_T$ . The quotient of  $C_T$  over final alkalinity ( $C_T/\text{alkalinity}$ ) was calculated to express the ability of each species to deplete inorganic carbon reserves (Maberly and Spence 1983, Spijkerman et al. 2005). Total  $C_i$  uptake rate ( $C_i$ -uptake; in  $\text{mmol } C_i (\text{g chl } a \cdot \text{h})^{-1}$ ) was calculated from the change of total  $C_i$  concentration over time standardized by chlorophyll  $a$  (chl  $a$ ) concentration.

*Uptake kinetics.* Algal species were grown in Wood Hole medium adjusted to low and high pH and in continuous light ( $70 - 130 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $20^\circ\text{C}$ . The definition of low and high pH depended on the optimal range of pH for growth of species analyzed in previous experiments, but were below pH 6.3 for low pH and above for high pH conditions (Table 1). Similar to pH drift cultures, low pH cultures consisted of a dilute suspension of 400 mL medium in 1 L Erlenmeyer flasks, whereas high pH cultures were more densely inoculated and the flasks contained 800 mL. Cultures were checked for pH, OD and concentration of  $C_i$  before harvest after 5 or 6 days of growth in the middle of exponential growth phase. Harvested cells were centrifuged ( $1500g$ , 5 min) and resuspended in medium low in  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  at both, low and high pH, with buffers mentioned above (Table 1), but with a stronger buffering capacity consisting of 10 mM (except for media at pH 2.5, which were unchanged). Resuspended algae were brought to an OD 0.3 (low pH) and OD 0.4 (high pH) both at 800 nm and a 5 cm pathlength and injected into the cuvette of a light dispensing system (Illuminova, Uppsala, Sweden). After depleting  $C_i$  in the cuvette, different amount of a stock solution of  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  was added repeatedly and  $\text{O}_2$  evolution recorded at saturating light intensity ( $\sim 500 \mu\text{mol photons} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ) with a Clark type electrode (MI-730 oxygen electrode, Microelectrodes, New Hampshire, USA).  $\text{O}_2$  evolution rates after every  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  addition were related to chl  $a$  content and modelled to  $C_i$  concentration using the Michaelis-Menten equation. Linearization following Hofstee (Hofstee 1952) provided the maximal uptake rate ( $V_{\text{max}}$ ) and the half-saturation-constant ( $K_{0.5}(C_i)$ ), which represents the substrate

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concentration at which the uptake rate is half of the maximum ( $V_{\max}$ ). Additionally, we calculated the  $K_{0.5}(\text{CO}_2)$  by multiplication of  $K_{0.5}(C_i)$  with the proportion of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the  $C_i$  pool. The affinity for  $C_i$ , as the initial slope, was calculated from  $V_{\max}/K_{0.5}(C_i)$ . Experiments were performed in triplicates.

*Measurement of  $C_i$  and calculation of  $\text{CO}_2$ .* We measured the  $C_i$  concentration remaining in the media after cultivation by centrifugation (2500 g, 5 min) and careful filtration through 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  filters called Minisart High Flow (Satorius Stedim Biotech GmbH, Göttingen, Germany). These samples were injected in the elemental highTOC (Elementar Analysensysteme GmbH, Hanau, Germany) and concentrations of  $C_i$  were determined by comparing values with a standard curve.  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations were calculated by multiplying the proportion of  $\text{CO}_2$  given by pH with the concentration of  $C_i$ .

*Cell density, volume and chlorophyll  $a$  content.* Cells were fixed with Lugol's iodine (1%) and counted on an automatic cell counter (CASY®1 TT, Schärfe System, Reutlingen, Germany). The diameter of the cells were also measured with the CASY®1 TT and converted into volume by assuming that cells were spherical. Chl  $a$  was extracted by collecting the cells on glass microfiber filters (GF/F, diameter: 25 mm, Whatman, Buckinghamshire, UK), heating them with 90% ethanol at 60°C for 15 min and incubating them at room temperature overnight in the dark. The chl  $a$  was measured the next day on a fluorometer (T.D 700, Turner Designs, Gamma Analysen Technik GmbH) as described by Welschmeyer (1994). The calibration of the fluorometer originated from a dilution range of commercially obtained chl  $a$  (Sigma). The chl  $a$  content per cell volume was calculated from the chl  $a$  concentration, cell density and the volume of the cells.

*Statistical analyses.* Data were analysed statistically with Sigma plot (Version 13.0). After testing for normal distribution and homogeneity of variance three-way, two-way- or one-way-ANOVAs were used to detect differences between treatments and algal species. The

Holm-Sidak test was used as a post-hoc test to identify differences within groups of treatments or species. Data that were not normally distributed were analysed with Kruskal-Wallis One Way Analysis of Variance on Ranks followed by a Tukey test (post-hoc).

## RESULTS

*pH-dependent growth rates.* The exponential growth rates of the four algal species depended on the external pH and the physiology of the species (Fig. 1). The optimal pH conditions and the range of this optimum for growth differed among algal species (Table 2). The results for *C. acidophila* confirmed the acidophilic nature of this species (Gerloff-Elias et al. 2005) as growth ceased at pH 7 and was optimal between pH 2.5 and 5.3. Relative to the other species the pH tolerance was narrow in *C. acidophila* (Table 2). In contrast, *C. pitschmannii* and *C. reinhardtii* both had a wide range in pH optimum, with a mean optimum in slightly acidic pH (5.6 and 6.3, respectively). We detected a broad tolerance, but narrow pH optimum range for *S. vacuolatus* which grew best in neutral, up to slightly alkaline, pH conditions (6.7 – 9.5) but could tolerate pH between 3.5 and higher than 10. In this species we observed a sudden increase in growth rate above pH 6.0, which was not related to a change in the buffer used as the increase happened within the range of one buffer.

*Cell volume and chlorophyll a content.* The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration influenced the volume of algal cells (Table 3; 2-Way-ANOVA, F<sub>2,26</sub> = 20.39, P < 0.001), where in all species, except *C. reinhardtii*, cells were larger when grown at *high* CO<sub>2</sub> conditions than when grown at *low* CO<sub>2</sub> (Table 3). In all species, except *C. acidophila* (Holm-Sidak, P < 0.001), the cell volume was similar in cells grown at *high* pH and *low* CO<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, the chl *a* content per cell (pg · cell<sup>-1</sup>) or per cell volume (fg · μm<sup>-3</sup>) did not differ significantly among any treatments. Cell volumes were different for each species (2-Way-ANOVA, F<sub>3,26</sub> = 169, P < 0.001); with *C. pitschmannii* having the smallest and *C. reinhardtii* the largest. The cells of *S. vacuolatus*

were intermediate in volume between *C. pitschmannii* and *C. acidophila* (Table 3). The chl *a* content per cell was highest in *C. reinhardtii* (2-Way-ANOVA,  $F_{3,26} = 41.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.001$ ) independent of treatment. The chl *a* content per cell volume also differed among species (2-Way-ANOVA,  $F_{3,26} = 10.0$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). It was higher in *C. reinhardtii* and *C. pitschmannii* than in the other two species (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.01$ ).

*pH drift.* The pH at the end of a drift differed significantly among species when grown in low  $CO_2$  conditions (ANOVA,  $F_{3,12} = 397.9$ ,  $P > 0.001$ , Fig. 2). We found a high final pH for *C. reinhardtii* and *S. vacuolatus* and relatively low values for *C. pitschmannii* and *C. acidophila* (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.001$ ). The shape of the pH-drift curves over time (Fig. 2) indicated a differential reliance on the available inorganic carbon sources among species which was confirmed when analysed as rate of photosynthesis versus concentration of  $CO_2$  (Fig. 3). At low external pH a rapid increase and thus a rapid uptake of  $CO_2$  is shown in all species. The acidophile *C. acidophila* and the acidotolerant *C. pitschmannii* drifted only until a pH between 9 and 10, suggesting that they mainly relied on  $CO_2$  for their external source of  $C_i$ . The observation in all pH-drifts that the pH remained constant at the end of the drifts of *C. acidophila* although this final pH lies well above its tolerated pH for growth (see Fig. 1), suggests that the exposure to alkaline pH for several hours was not lethal. The other two algae continued to raise pH to much higher values, indicating that either they acclimated during the drift to acquire bicarbonate as the concentration of  $CO_2$  is extremely low at these high pH values or that they had this capacity already. The decrease of the  $C_i$ -uptake rate in that part of the curve shown by a slower increase of pH is linked to a physiological change from  $CO_2$  to  $HCO_3^-$  uptake (Fig. 2).

*$C_i$ -uptake rate during pH drift.* We analysed the  $C_i$ -uptake characteristics of the different species of algae grown at high and low  $CO_2$  conditions when plotted against  $CO_2$ -concentration (in  $\mu M$ ); which declined during the pH-drift (Fig. 3). When the curves consisted

of just one linear section, the algae used mainly  $\text{CO}_2$ , whereas the presence of a second section of uptake rates at extremely low  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations implied the additional use of bicarbonate (Allen and Spence 1981, Maberly and Spence 1983). The  $\text{C}_i$ -uptake rates at very low  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations of the neutrophilic algae have to be interpreted with caution as they are based on very small changes in pH at the end of the drift. Nevertheless, the results in Fig. 3 showed that in all algal species, uptake rates varied with carbon concentration - expressed here as  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration. The slope of the  $\text{C}_i$ -uptake rate of the algae grown in *high*  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions often converged to the slope of the *low*  $\text{CO}_2$  curve, which implied an acclimation to low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions during the drift. The reduction of the  $\text{C}_i$ -uptake rate between  $\text{CO}_2$ -dependent and bicarbonate-dependent sections indicated the operation or induction of a CCM. In contrast to algae growing at *low*  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions, algae growing in *high*  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions decreased their  $\text{C}_i$ -uptake rate faster with declining  $\text{CO}_2$ -concentrations which resulted in a lower  $\text{C}_i$ -uptake rate at  $1 \mu\text{M}$   $\text{CO}_2$  (Fig.4). As a consequence, a clearer separation between  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  use in the pH-drift experiments of the neutrophilic algae acclimated to *high*  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions was observed.

*$C_T$ /alkalinity quotient.* We hypothesized that the  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient would be higher in species originating from habitats with low pH where  $\text{CO}_2$  is the dominant form of inorganic carbon and lower in species originating from habitats with higher pH where bicarbonate is present and algae are often able to use it as a  $\text{C}_i$  source. The  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient (the remaining total  $\text{C}_i$  at the end of the drift,  $C_T$  related to the alkalinity) describes the effectiveness to deplete  $\text{C}_i$ . A low value indicates that a large proportion of the inorganic carbon pool is available for acquisition.

The  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient differed among species (2-Way ANOVA,  $F_{3,25} = 382.6$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and an interaction between treatment and species was found (2-Way ANOVA  $F_{2,25} = 10.93$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), meaning that there were species-specific responses to the treatments. As

expected from their pH preference for growth, the quotients of *C. acidophila* and *C. pitschmannii* were higher than those of the two other species within all treatments (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.001$ ) as their ability to use bicarbonate was limited (Fig. 3). In addition, the  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient was influenced by at least one treatment in species originated from acidic environments. In the following we analysed the influence of the treatments within a single species more closely.

There were significant differences in the  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient of *C. acidophila* among treatments (Fig. 5a, One-Way ANOVA,  $F_{2,7} = 27.3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Compared to the *low CO<sub>2</sub>* treatment, the quotient was significantly higher under *high CO<sub>2</sub>* and *high pH* conditions (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.001$  for both). Similar values were measured in the  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient of *C. acidophila* grown at *high pH* and *high CO<sub>2</sub>* conditions (Holm-Sidak,  $P = 0.624$ ). Thus, the algae were able to take up  $C_i$  more efficiently when grown in *low CO<sub>2</sub>* conditions.

Significant differences in the  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient were found between growth conditions of *C. pitschmannii* (Fig. 5b; One-Way-ANOVA,  $F_{2,8} = 19.3$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ). Like for *C. acidophila*, the  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient was lowest in cells grown at *low CO<sub>2</sub>* (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.05$ ) and highest in cells grown at *high CO<sub>2</sub>* conditions (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.05$ ). The  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient of cells grown under *high pH* conditions was intermediate and significantly different from cells in the two other treatments (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.05$ ). Similar to the results in *C. acidophila*, a *higher concentration of CO<sub>2</sub>* and *higher pH* conditions lowered the ability to deplete total inorganic carbon during a pH drift.

Against expectations, the  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient did not vary significantly with growth conditions for *C. reinhardtii* (ANOVA,  $F_{2,8} = 3.99$ ,  $P = 0.079$ ), suggesting that growth conditions did not influence the ability to deplete  $C_i$  at the end of pH-drift which is consistent with an acclimation to low  $CO_2$  conditions during the drift. Acclimation seemed to enable the algae to use bicarbonate effectively at the end of the drift (see also Fig. 3) for example by

activation of CCMs during drift, thereby masking the acclimation to *high CO<sub>2</sub>* conditions during growth.

Similar to the results described for *C. reinhardtii*, there were no significant differences in the  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient among treatments for *S. vacuolatus* (Kruskal-Wallis One Way ANOVA on ranks,  $P = 0.05$ ).

*Compensation point of CO<sub>2</sub>*. By plotting the total  $C_i$ -uptake against total  $C_i$  a two-phased graph can often be observed. The part with a positive slope at high concentration of  $C_i$  shows the uptake of  $CO_2$ , and the intercept of this linear regression with the x-axis (total  $C_i$ ) represents the compensation point of  $CO_2$  (Maberly and Spence 1983). At that point the net photosynthetic rate reaches zero, if  $CO_2$  is the only used  $C_i$  source. No differences were found between the  $CO_2$  compensation points of the algal species (Fig. 5b; 2-Way-ANOVA,  $F_{3,29} = 0.78$ ,  $P = 0.51$ ), although there was an influence of the growth conditions on the  $CO_2$  compensation point (2-Way-ANOVA,  $F_{2,29} = 11.0$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Two algal species (*C. pitschmannii* and *S. vacuolatus*) grown under *high CO<sub>2</sub>* conditions had significantly higher  $CO_2$  compensation points than when grown at *low CO<sub>2</sub>* (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.05$ ). The  $CO_2$  compensation points of *C. acidophila* and *C. pitschmannii* grown in *high pH* were significantly higher than the compensation points of these species grown in *low CO<sub>2</sub>* (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.05$  for both), suggesting that pH in itself (as proton concentration) had an influence on  $C_i$ -acquisition.

*C<sub>i</sub> uptake kinetics*. It was not possible to separate fully the influence of pH from the influence of  $CO_2$ , as algae growing in low pH conditions had a higher concentration of  $CO_2$  ( $19 \pm 7 \mu M$ ) than algae growing at high pH ( $1.2 \pm 1.1 \mu M$ ) although the  $C_i$  concentration did not differ significantly ( $21 \pm 13 \mu M$ ). The influence of pH/ $CO_2$  in both growth condition and measuring condition was studied in order to separate the influence of pH/ $CO_2$  on physiological properties during growth from the influence of the available  $CO_2$  during  $C_i$



uptake. Most parameters for uptake kinetics are only calculated for  $C_i$  as the uptake of  $CO_2$  and  $HCO_3^-$  cannot be readily separated in these experiments. However, in order to compare  $C_i$  uptake kinetics with values from literature, we calculated  $K_{0.5}(CO_2)$  from pH and the  $K_{0.5}(C_i)$ .

Uptake kinetics for  $C_i$  exemplified for *C. acidophila* varied with pH treatment as shown by different maximal rates of oxygen evolution ( $V_{max}$ ) and affinity constants ( $K_{0.5}(C_i)$ ) (Fig. 6).

In this species, the measurement pH largely influenced  $K_{0.5}(C_i)$  (2-Way-ANOVA,  $F_{1,11} = 145.1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and the pH of the culture during growth determined  $V_{max}$  (2-Way-ANOVA,  $F_{1,11} = 43.7$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). For *C. acidophila*, cells cultured at pH 7 and measured at pH 7 were unable to use low concentrations of  $C_i$  leading to the observation that there was a threshold in  $C_i$  for the uptake rate under these conditions. Also in *C. reinhardtii* growth conditions affected  $V_{max}$  (2-Way-ANOVA,  $F_{1,11} = 17.4$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) and we saw higher values in low pH conditions. *C. reinhardtii* had the highest  $V_{max}$  values in all treatments.

Neither  $V_{max}$  in the other two species nor  $K_{0.5}(C_i)$  in the other three species varied significantly among different pH conditions (Table S1) which means that within a species  $C_i$  is taken up at a similar rate independent of treatment. Therefore we restrict our results to  $K_{0.5}(CO_2)$  and the affinity for  $C_i$  uptake.

The half-saturation constant  $K_{0.5}$  for  $CO_2$  varied among species (3-way-ANOVA,  $F_{3,35} = 99.3$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and was also affected by pH during measurement (3-way-ANOVA,  $F_{1,35} = 146.5$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), but pH conditions during growth had no influence (3-way-ANOVA,  $F_{1,35} = 0.0217$ ,  $P = 0.884$ ; Fig. 7). *Chlamydomonas pitschmannii*, *C. reinhardtii* and *S. vacuolatus* had a higher  $K_{0.5}(CO_2)$  when the external pH was low (i.e. when the proportion of  $CO_2$  to  $C_i$  is higher). In contrast, *C. acidophila* had a lower  $K_{0.5}(CO_2)$  at low pH. Because the absolute value of  $K_{0.5}(CO_2)$  depends on that of  $V_{max}$ , we analysed the affinity for  $C_i$  uptake more closely.



The affinity ( $V_{\max}/K_{0.5}$ ) for  $C_i$  uptake differed among species (3-way-ANOVA,  $F_{3,35}=17.1$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), growth conditions (3-way-ANOVA,  $F_{1,35} = 22.9$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and pH during the measurement (3-way-ANOVA,  $F_{1,35} = 401.2$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Because these differences were not always the same within species, interactions between these factors were statistically significant, therefore requiring analysis of individual species (Fig. 8).

For *C. acidophila*, *C. reinhardtii* and *S. vacuolatus*, the highest affinity for total inorganic carbon ( $C_i$ ) was found for algae cells grown and measured at low pH (LL, Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.01$ ). Also, a high affinity although significantly lower than mentioned above, was present in algae grown at high pH but measured at low pH (HL, Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.01$ ). These species measured at high pH had a significantly lower affinity for  $C_i$  uptake than algae measured at low pH (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.05$ ), which was independent of growth pH (Holm-Sidak,  $P \geq 0.125$ ).

*Chlamydomonas pitschmannii* measured at high pH had a higher affinity for  $C_i$  (Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.05$ ) compared to measurements at low pH, but no influence of growth conditions to the affinity was observed (Holm-Sidak,  $P \geq 0.882$ ).

In summary, the greatest differences in  $C_i$  uptake were established in cultures differing in pH during the measurement. Therefore the  $C_i$  uptake was influenced more by changes in carbon speciation caused by pH than by possible physiological disadvantages during growth in higher pH conditions.

*$C_T$ /alkalinity vs. pH growth optimum.* There was a negative correlation between the mean of the pH optimum range for growth and the ability to take up  $C_i$  (Fig. 9). Consequently, for these algae there was a greater ability to take up  $C_i$  (lower  $C_T$ /alkalinity quotient), as the preferred growth pH increased.

## DISCUSSION

The diversity of phytoplankton phylogeny (Falkowski et al. 2004), environmental variability (Lampert and Sommer 1997, Wetzel 2001, Kim et al. 2006), and also ecophysiological variation found within one species (Moore and Chisholm 1999, West and Scanlan 1999, Spijkerman 2005), results in adaption and acclimation being important processes determining distribution and local adaptation. Among the different resource acquisition processes, the energy requiring uptake of  $C_i$  is one mechanism underlying habitat preference, and one which may be regulated depending on environmental changes or circumstances like pH -or  $CO_2$  concentrations. In this study we generally confirmed our hypothesis that for four species of green algae there is a relationship between the pH of the environment at which each species is typically found, the pH optimum for growth and their  $C_i$  uptake strategy.

*Adaption: Effect of pH preference on  $C_i$  acquisition.* The pH of the medium is the 'master variable' that determines the ratio of  $CO_2$  to  $HCO_3^-$ ; at a pH higher than about 6.4 the concentration of  $HCO_3^-$  exceeds that of  $CO_2$  (Stumm and Morgan 1970). Therefore we hypothesised that pH preference for growth would correlate with the species' ability to acquire  $CO_2$  and / or  $HCO_3^-$ . The acidophile *C. acidophila* grew optimally under acid conditions as reported before (Nishikawa and Tominaga 2001, Gerloff-Elias et al. 2005, Spijkerman 2005, Cuaresma et al. 2006). The acidotolerant species *C. pitschmannii* had a broad tolerance to pH. With the exception of high growth rates at alkaline pH, this pH tolerance fitted to the expected low pH tolerance as reported by Pollio and colleagues (Pollio et al. 2005). Neither of the neutrophiles, *S. vacuolatus* and *C. reinhardtii*, could grow at highly acidic pH conditions as has been reported before for *C. reinhardtii* (Erlbaum Cassin 1974, Spijkerman 2005).

As expected, the main  $C_i$  source used for photosynthesis, as determined from the pH drift experiments, was related to the ability to grow in low pH conditions: *C. acidophila* and

*C. pitschmannii* mainly relied on CO<sub>2</sub> (also suggested for *C. acidophila* because of low K<sub>0.5</sub>(C<sub>i</sub>); Cuaresma et al. 2006) whereas the two other algae could use both CO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> as previously described for *C. reinhardtii* (Sültemeyer et al. 1989, Amoroso et al. 1998). Beardall and Raven (1981) have shown an active uptake of bicarbonate via uniports in *S. vacuolatus* (then named *Chlorella emersonii*).

A positive correlation was detected between the pH optimum for growth and the ability to deplete C<sub>i</sub> during the pH drift experiment. That means that algae preferentially growing in neutral waters and using both CO<sub>2</sub> and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> were more efficient in C<sub>i</sub> depletion, than species growing under acidic conditions and restricted to CO<sub>2</sub>. This restriction seems to result in a lower exponential growth rate in *C. acidophila* compared to the other species (Fig. 1). In contrast, the acidotolerant alga *C. pitschmannii* reached growth rates as high as in the neutrophilic algae and a high exponential growth rate was even found at high pH (pH > 7 up to 9). Interestingly, *C. acidophila* could not grow at pH values above pH 7.5 (Fig. 1) although pH rose during the drift to pH 9 (Fig. 2). This might be caused by the rate of change in pH in these two types of experiment, but might also result from high pH restricting the acquisition of other resources such as phosphate, the speciation of which is also affected by pH.

Additional research is needed to unravel further the reason why the growth of *C. acidophila* is restricted to low pH.

The detection of high affinity C<sub>i</sub>-uptake as well as a low affinity constant for CO<sub>2</sub> under low CO<sub>2</sub> conditions in conjunction with the presence of a pyrenoid (visible under the microscope) in all four species of green algae suggests that they have a CCM (Meyer and Griffiths 2013, Moroney and Chen 1998), although Maberly et al. (2009) found pyrenoids in chrysophytes that appeared to lack a CCM.

Similar to the presence of a pyrenoid, all species had a high affinity C<sub>i</sub>-uptake. To compare the data from the kinetic measurements with values of other studies, we calculated K<sub>0.5</sub>(CO<sub>2</sub>). The values for *C. acidophila* are within the same range as Spijkerman (2005)

found in her study (2 and 7  $\mu\text{M CO}_2$  in pH 2.65 and pH 6 respectively). Also the affinity constants of *C. reinhardtii* are similar to values from literature (0.8 – 8.3  $\mu\text{M CO}_2$  depending on  $\text{CO}_2$  supply, Amoroso et al. 1998). Our values for *S. vacuolatus* differ slightly from values of Beardall and Raven (1981, a species then called *Chlorella emersonii*), although they lie well within their reported range (5.7  $\mu\text{M CO}_2$  at a pH about 6.5).

*Acclimation: Effects of  $\text{CO}_2$  supply on  $C_i$  acquisition.* There is a large literature documenting the down-regulation of CCMs when microalgae, including *C. reinhardtii*, are grown at high concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  (Giordano et al. 2005, Sültemeyer et al. 1988, Beardall and Giordano 2002, Raven and Beardall 2014). The  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point represents one measure of  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake efficiency. The range of the estimated compensation points reported here in *low CO<sub>2</sub>* conditions is close to the ones Maberly and Spence (1983) found for *C. reinhardtii* (0.5  $\mu\text{M CO}_2$ ) and also close the range of the ones Diaz and Maberly (2009) have shown for some acidophilic algae (2 – 12  $\mu\text{M CO}_2$ ). The  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point was generally lowest in cells grown at *low CO<sub>2</sub>* and statistically so in *C. pitschmannii* and *S. vacuolatus*. Growth at *high pH*, despite growth concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  being low, generally resulted in a high  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point and this was statistically significant in *C. acidophila* and *C. pitschmannii*.

Because pH-regulation is an energy requiring process (Messerli et al. 2005) this is consistent with *high pH* during growth in these species causing physiological stress to the algae. This stress might result in, for example, higher respiration rates and lower net photosynthetic rates as shown for *C. acidophila* at pH 7 (Gerloff-Elias et al. 2005), lowering the adaptability to low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions. The difference in cell volumes of *C. acidophila* between *high pH* and *low CO<sub>2</sub>* (low pH) treatments (Table 3) support such a physiological influence. In contrast, we found no change of cell volume between low (=low  $\text{CO}_2$  treatment) and *high pH* conditions in the neutrophiles. Although the acidotolerant species *C.*

*pitschmannii* could grow rapidly at high pH conditions (Fig. 1) the physiological stress might occur for example by a reduced final biomass.

During a pH-drift, there is a reduction in rate of photosynthesis as the concentration of  $\text{CO}_2$  declines towards the  $\text{CO}_2$  compensation point and then, in some species, an increase as carbon becomes depleted further and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  becomes the sole carbon source available (see Allen and Spence 1981, Maberly and Spence 1983). This bi-phasic pattern was evident in the two neutrophile species indicating that they were able to use  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ . At  $1 \mu\text{M CO}_2$ , around this transition point, the rate of  $\text{C}_i$  uptake was much greater in the neutrophile than the acidophile species when grown at *low CO*<sub>2</sub>, but lower and similar across species when grown at *high CO*<sub>2</sub> indicating an acclimation by neutrophile species to *low CO*<sub>2</sub> but a much less-pronounced acclimation in the acidophile/acidotolerant species (Fig. 4). Possibly, neutrophiles growing on *low CO*<sub>2</sub> already started their transition to  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  uptake at  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations higher than  $1 \mu\text{M}$ .

We expected the  $\text{C}_T/\text{alkalinity}$  quotient also to vary with the  $\text{CO}_2$  treatment, especially for the neutrophile species, but in fact this was not the case. Probably as a result of the duration of the drift, the ability of the well-studied alga, *C. reinhardtii* and *S. vacuolatus* to take up  $\text{C}_i$  was not significantly affected by variation of  $\text{CO}_2$  supply during growth. The observed rapid acclimation of the cells to low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions during a drift (Fig. 3) probably masked the acclimation to *high CO*<sub>2</sub> conditions in the culture as the ability to take up  $\text{C}_i$  was based on measurements at the end of the drift (i.e. after 12 to 20 h). This is consistent with the literature showing in *C. reinhardtii* an induction of a CCM on transfer from low to high  $\text{CO}_2$  of only a few hours (Wang et al. 2015).

Among the major constituents of a CCM is the induction of periplasmic carbonic anhydrase. In *C. reinhardtii* and *C. acidophila* this enzyme has been reported to be present under low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions (Wang et al. 2014, Spijkerman et al. 2014), whereas in *C.*

*pitschmannii* and *S. vacuolatus* its presence is still unclear. The presence of external carbonic anhydrase invalidates the approach of Miller and Colman (1980) that compares rates of CO<sub>2</sub>-uptake to physico-chemical rates of CO<sub>2</sub> production from the carbonate equilibria, preventing this approach from being used.

The fully-factorial experiment on C<sub>i</sub>-uptake kinetics allowed the separation of pH/CO<sub>2</sub> as a stress parameter (growth conditions) from the effect of pH on the CO<sub>2</sub> proportion (to C<sub>i</sub>) during photosynthesis measurements. The affinity for C<sub>i</sub> was mainly influenced by pH/CO<sub>2</sub> conditions during the measurement and less by conditions during growth. Differences in the affinity for C<sub>i</sub> therefore depended more on the dominant C<sub>i</sub> species in the media during the measurement than on any physiological disadvantages by growing in certain pH/CO<sub>2</sub> conditions suggesting that green algal species generally prefer CO<sub>2</sub> over bicarbonate. Thus, the C<sub>i</sub>-acquisition characteristic we determined were likely intrinsic, species-specific adaptations, mainly revealing that all species had a low affinity constant for CO<sub>2</sub> uptake and a high affinity for C<sub>i</sub>. However, for algae with a limited tolerance range for pH (*C. acidophila* and *S. vacuolatus*) the affinity for C<sub>i</sub> when growing in high pH/very low CO<sub>2</sub> conditions was lower indicating that these conditions resulted in a physiological disadvantage. In contrast, *C. pitschmannii* was unaffected in C<sub>i</sub> uptake kinetic by high medium pH during growth. Contrary to the results from pH-drift experiments, there was no evidence for upregulation of CCMs in C<sub>i</sub>-uptake kinetics resulting from growth at low CO<sub>2</sub> conditions. Probably the addition of high bicarbonate concentrations partly converted to CO<sub>2</sub> hid the acclimation to low CO<sub>2</sub> conditions in that method. Additionally, a fast inactivation of a high affinity CO<sub>2</sub> concentration mechanism was possibly realized. Already for 18 years fast posttranslational acclimation to low CO<sub>2</sub> was acknowledged in *Synechococcus* sp. by Sültemeyer et al. (1998), which might well occur also *vice versa*.

*Ecological relevance.* Tortell and Morel (2002) have shown a high variability in mechanisms of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  usage among marine phytoplankton populations which were dominated by different phylogenetic groups, but we demonstrate here that this range of  $\text{C}_i$  acquisition ability can also be found within one taxonomic group, the Chlorophyceae. This is concordant with pH drift results found for a variety of desmid strains (Spijkerman et al. 2005), for the CCM variability among different isolates of the coccolithophore *Emiliana huxleyi* (Stojkovic et al. 2013) and the large variability in RuBisCO kinetics in diatoms (Young et al. 2016).

The pH drifts from the two algae from acidic environments showed an influence of  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration during growth on the ability to take up  $\text{C}_i$  and for *C. pitschmannii* also on the uptake efficiency. In contrast to the results for neutrophile algae, this indicates that these algae were less able to acclimate to the low  $\text{CO}_2$  condition during the drift. This might result from environmental factors such as the general oversaturation with  $\text{CO}_2$  in acidic waters, where *C. acidophila* blooms (Doi et al. 2001, Doi et al. 2003, Spijkerman et al. 2007, Clegg et al. 2012), the lower variability of daily  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions in an acidic environment caused by strong pH buffering by iron (Herzsprung et al. 1998) and low photosynthetic demand because of phytoplankton densities (Nixdorf et al. 2003). Furthermore, the apparent absence of an ability to use  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  will restrict the variability in  $\text{C}_i$ -uptake capability. The rapid acclimation of the neutrophile algae indicates an ecological relevant plasticity which allows algae to handle fluctuations of  $\text{C}_i$  supply within hours. Cells of the green alga *C. reinhardtii* increase their intracellular CA activity up to ten-fold within 4 hours of being transferred to low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions (Sültemeyer et al. 1995). Fluctuations are also possible within a day as a result of  $\text{C}_i$  depletion during the day and in particular by entrainment of  $\text{CO}_2$ -rich water from depth (Maberly 1996, Reis and Barbosa 2014). Consequently, the ability to acclimate to changing  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions, for example by using  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  more effectively, is ecologically relevant.

The differences in carbon acquisition efficiency of the studied green algae may play an important role in determining community composition. Species competitive exclusion or co-existence depends on (varying) carbon and nutrient concentrations (Jansson et al. 2012, Low-Decarie et al. 2015), as well as on intrinsic ecophysiological characteristics. Species which are able to use  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  in addition to  $\text{CO}_2$  will be at an advantage at high pH by being less dependent on  $\text{CO}_2$  availability. Although our results show more rapid acclimation to low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions during pH drift in the neutrophile algae, the reverse situation seems less straightforward as long-term cultivation at high  $\text{CO}_2$  has resulted in a different physiological response in *C. reinhardtii* (Low-Decarie et al. 2013) than short term acclimation. During competition for  $\text{C}_i$ , a high plasticity as present in neutrophile algal species might be advantageous which could be the reason for a missing evolutionary response to high  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions instead of an acclimation.

*Conclusion.* Although acclimation occurred in all species, a rapid acclimation from *high* to low  $\text{CO}_2$  conditions during drift experiments was especially pronounced in the neutrophiles and these two species exhibited greater plasticity than the two acidophile/acidotolerant species. However, the magnitude of acclamatory responses was smaller than the adaptation differences among species which were strongly linked to the pH preference for growth and therefore probably to the availability of  $\text{C}_i$  in their natural environment.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

SCL and ES acknowledge support from the German Research Foundation (SP695/5-1) and SCM's work was supported by the UK Natural Environment Research Council. We thank Martin Rouen of Lakeland Instrumentation for help with setting up the pH-logging system, Bruno Kasper for practical assistance and Francesco Memmola for preliminary experiments.



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**Table 1:** Buffers used in modified Woods Hole medium to reach different pH conditions for every species.

| <i>Species</i>                      | <i>Buffer</i>     | <i>Concentration (mM)</i> | <i>pH</i> |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|-----------|
| <i>C. acidophila</i> (optimal pH)   | FeCl <sub>3</sub> | 0.012                     | 2.5       |
| <i>C. acidophila</i> (high pH)      | HEPES             | 5                         | 7         |
| <i>C. pitschmannii</i> (optimal pH) | MES               | 2                         | 5         |
| <i>C. pitschmannii</i> (high pH)    | EPPS              | 5                         | 8         |
| <i>C. reinhardtii</i> (optimal pH)  | HEPES             | 5                         | 7         |
| <i>C. reinhardtii</i> (high pH)     | EPPS              | 5                         | 8         |
| <i>S. vacuolatus</i> (optimal pH)   | HEPES             | 5                         | 7         |
| <i>S. vacuolatus</i> (high pH)      | EPPS              | 5                         | 8         |

**Table 2:** Effect of external pH on the exponential growth rate of *Chlamydomonas acidophila*, *C. pitschmannii*, *C. reinhardtii* and *Scenedesmus vacuolatus*. Maximum growth rate presented as mean and standard deviation (in parentheses) of three replicates. The tolerance range represents the pH where growth is positive. The optimum pH represents the interpolated pH where the growth rate is above 80% of the maximum rate; the mid pH is the center of the optimum range.

| Species                | Max growth rate (d <sup>-1</sup> ) | Tolerance range | Optimum    | Width of           |        |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------|------------|--------------------|--------|
|                        |                                    | (pH)            | range (pH) | optimal range (pH) | Mid pH |
| <i>C. acidophila</i>   | 1.10 (0.03)                        | < 7.5           | 2.5 – 5.3  | 2.8                | 3.9    |
| <i>C. pitschmannii</i> | 1.58 (0.10)                        | > 2.0 and < 9.0 | 2.8 – 8.4  | 5.7                | 5.6    |
| <i>C. reinhardtii</i>  | 1.54 (0.05)                        | > 3.5           | 3.9 – 8.7  | 4.8                | 6.3    |
| <i>S. vacuolatus</i>   | 1.25 (0.03)                        | > 3.0           | 6.7 – 9.5  | 2.8                | 8.1    |

**Table 3:** Effect of growth treatment (*high CO<sub>2</sub>*: 2-3 d batch culture, *high pH*: 4 d batch culture, *low CO<sub>2</sub>*: 9 – 20 days semi-continuous cultivation) and species on cell volume, chlorophyll *a* per cell and chlorophyll *a* per cell volume. Values are the mean and standard deviation of three replicates given in parentheses. Species or treatments (within species) that are significantly different are indicated by different letters.

| <i>Characteristic</i>  | Treatment            | <i>C. acidophila</i>     | <i>C. pitschmannii</i>   | <i>C. reinhardtii</i>    | <i>S. vacuolatus</i>     |
|--|----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Cell volume</i><br>( $\mu\text{m}^3$ )                              | High CO <sub>2</sub> | 79 (5) <sup>a</sup>      | 40 (6) <sup>a</sup>      | 86 (6) <sup>a</sup>      | 68 (16) <sup>a</sup>     |
|  | Low CO <sub>2</sub>  | 58 (2) <sup>b</sup>      | 19 (1) <sup>b</sup>      | 100 (6) <sup>a</sup>     | 32 (2) <sup>b</sup>      |
|  | High pH              | 71 (5) <sup>c</sup>      | 24 (2) <sup>b</sup>      | 94 (5) <sup>a</sup>      | 32 (1) <sup>b</sup>      |
|  | Species difference   | c                        | a                        | d                        | b                        |
| <i>Chl a per cell</i><br>( $\text{pg} \cdot \text{cell}^{-1}$ )        | High CO <sub>2</sub> | 1.22 (0.22) <sup>a</sup> | 1.26 (0.24) <sup>a</sup> | 2.71 (1.42) <sup>a</sup> | 1.17 (0.13) <sup>a</sup> |
|  | Low CO <sub>2</sub>  | 0.90 (0.08) <sup>a</sup> | 0.95 (0.59) <sup>a</sup> | 3.36 (1.04) <sup>a</sup> | 0.52 (0.04) <sup>a</sup> |
|  | High pH              | 1.08 (0.12) <sup>a</sup> | 0.70 (0.10) <sup>a</sup> | 3.57 (0.38) <sup>a</sup> | 0.53 (0.24) <sup>a</sup> |
|  | Species difference   | a                        | a                        | b                        | a                        |
| <i>Chl a per cell volume</i><br>( $\text{fg} \cdot \mu\text{m}^{-3}$ ) | High CO <sub>2</sub> | 15.2 (1.8) <sup>a</sup>  | 31.8 (0.4) <sup>a</sup>  | 30.8 (13.6) <sup>a</sup> | 17.7 (2.8) <sup>a</sup>  |
|  | Low CO <sub>2</sub>  | 15.7 (1.0) <sup>a</sup>  | 49.6 (32.2) <sup>a</sup> | 34.8 (13.0) <sup>a</sup> | 16.2 (1.4) <sup>a</sup>  |
|  | High pH              | 15.3 (2.4) <sup>a</sup>  | 29.5 (4.9) <sup>a</sup>  | 38.1 (5.9) <sup>a</sup>  | 15.3 (2.4) <sup>a</sup>  |
|  | Species difference   | a                        | b                        | b                        | a                        |

**Figure 1:** Effect of external pH on the exponential growth rate of *Chlamydomonas acidophila*, *C. pitschmannii*, *C. reinhardtii* and *Scenedesmus vacuolatus*. The mean and standard deviation of three replicates is presented.

**Figure 2:** Typical examples of pH-drift over time (one replicate) for *Chlamydomonas acidophila*, *C. pitschmannii*, *C. reinhardtii* and *Scenedesmus vacuolatus* grown at air-levels of CO<sub>2</sub> and optimal pH and tested at an initial alkalinity of 1 mequiv · L<sup>-1</sup>.

**Figure 2:** Rate of photosynthesis during pH drift as a function of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (log scale) for *Chlamydomonas acidophila*, *C. pitschmannii*, *C. reinhardtii* and *Scenedesmus vacuolatus* grown at air-levels of CO<sub>2</sub> (*low CO<sub>2</sub>*) or 2.1% CO<sub>2</sub> in air (*high CO<sub>2</sub>*). Smoothed curves by 10-data-point moving average of all three replicates are shown.

**Figure 4:** C<sub>i</sub> uptake rates (mmol C<sub>i</sub> · (g chl *a* · h)<sup>-1</sup>) at a CO<sub>2</sub> concentration about 1 μM for *low* and *high CO<sub>2</sub>* treatments. Values represent mean and standard deviation of rates immediately above and below the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 1 μM for three replicates.

**Figure 5:** Response of the C<sub>T</sub>/Alk quotient (A) and CO<sub>2</sub> compensation point (B) for *Chlamydomonas acidophila*, *C. pitschmannii*, *C. reinhardtii* and *Scenedesmus vacuolatus* grown at *low CO<sub>2</sub>* (grey), *high CO<sub>2</sub>* (black) and *high pH* (white). Mean plus or minus one standard deviation of three replicates are shown. Different letters show significant differences among treatments within a species (One way-ANOVA, Holm-Sidak, P < 0.05).

**Figure 6:** Modelled values of typical C<sub>i</sub> uptake kinetics as measured by oxygen evolution versus total inorganic carbon (C<sub>i</sub>) for the alga *Chlamydomonas acidophila*. The first value in the legend gives the external pH at which the alga was grown for 5 d and the second value gives the pH at which the measurement was performed.

**Figure 7:** Half-saturation constant K<sub>0.5</sub>(CO<sub>2</sub>) for four species grown and tested under different conditions. The different letters show significant differences among treatments within species

(2-Way-ANOVA, Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.05$ ). The first letter in the legends represents the pH in the growth media and the second letter represents the pH during the measurement; L = low/optimal, H = high (Table 1).

**Figure 8:** Affinity for total inorganic carbon ( $(\text{mmol O}_2 \cdot (\text{g Chl } a \cdot \text{h})^{-1}) \cdot (\mu\text{M C}_i)^{-1}$ ) for four species grown and tested under different conditions. The different letters show significant differences among treatments within species (One-way-ANOVA, Holm-Sidak,  $P < 0.001$ ). The first letter in the legends represents the pH in the growth media and the second letter represents the pH during the measurement; L = low/optimal, H = high (Table 1).

**Figure 9:** Relationship between the ability to deplete  $\text{C}_i$  represented by the parameter 'C<sub>T</sub>/alkalinity' and the mean of the optimal pH conditions for growth for four species of algae grown at three different treatments (*low CO<sub>2</sub>, high CO<sub>2</sub>, high pH*). The line represents the correlation (Spearman,  $P < 0.001$ ).











