This is the author's accepted manuscript . The final published version of this work (the version of record) is published by Springer in Climate Change available on 6 March 2017 at https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10584-017-1943-y This work is made available online in accordance with the publisher's policies. Please refer to any applicable terms of use of the publisher. Ecophysiological responses to elevated CO2 and temperature in Cystoseira tamariscifolia (Phaeophyceae) Paula S. M. Celis-Plá^{1,2*}, Brezo Martínez³, Nathalie Korbee², Jason M. Hall-Spencer^{4,5}, and Félix L. Figueroa². *Corresponding author: paulacelispla@upla.cl ¹Centre of Advanced Studies, University of Playa Ancha, Calle Traslaviña 450, Viña del Mar, Chile ²Department of Ecology, Faculty of Sciences, University of Malaga, 29071 Malaga, Spain ³Biodiversity and Conservation Unit, Rey Juan Carlos University, 28933 Mostoles, Spain ⁴Marine Biology and Ecology Research Centre, Plymouth University, Plymouth PL4 8AA, UK ⁵Shimoda Marine Research Centre, Tsukuba University, Japan

36

37

38

- 39 Keywords: Climate change, Cystoseira tamariscifolia, ocean acidification, temperature,
- 40 biomass, photosynthesis, phenolic compounds

41 ABSTRACT

42 Ocean acidification increases the amount of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) available 43 in seawater which can benefit photosynthesis in those algae that are currently carbon 44 limited. Carbon dioxide emissions are causing fundamental changes in surface ocean 45 carbon chemistry that are expected to boost growth rates in some algae but not others, 46 leading to shifts in the structure and function of seaweed communities. Recent studies 47 show ocean acidification driven shifts in seaweed community dominance depend on 48 interactions with other factors such as light and nutrients. The study of interactive 49 effects of ocean acidification and warming can help elucidate the likely effects of climate change on marine primary producers. In this study, we investigated the 50 51 ecophysiological responses in a brown macroalgae species Cystoseira tamariscifolia 52 (Hudson) Papenfuss with important structural role in the coastal Mediterranean 53 communities. Algae were collected in oligotrophic vs ultra-oligotrophic waters in the 54 Mediterranean Sea and they were incubated in tanks at ambient (ca. 400-500 ppm) and 55 high CO₂ (ca. 1200-1300 ppm), and at two testing temperatures at 20°C (ambient 56 temperature) and 24°C (ambient temperature + 4°C). Increased CO₂ levels benefited the 57 algae from both origins. Biomass increased in elevated CO₂ treatments and was similar 58 in algae from both origins. The maximal electron transport rate (ETR_{max}), used to 59 estimate photosynthetic capacity, increased in ambient temperature/high CO₂ 60 treatments. The highest polyphenol content and antioxidant activity were observed in 61 ambient temperature/high CO₂ conditions in algae from both origins being the phenol content higher in algae from ultra-oligotrophic waters (1.5 - 3.0 %) than that from 62 63 oligotrophic waters (1.0 - 2.2 %). Our study shows that ongoing ocean acidification can be expected to increase algal productivity (ETR_{max}), boost antioxidant activity (EC₅₀) 64 65 and increase production of photoprotective compounds (polyphenols). Cystoseira 66 tamariscifolia collected from oligotrophic and ultra-oligotrophic waters were able to 67 acclimate to increases in DIC with under ambient temperature.

INTRODUCTION

Ocean acidification due to increased atmospheric CO₂ levels is altering the concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in surface waters; CO₃²⁻ levels are falling, which can cause dissolution of calcified organisms, whilst CO₂ and HCO₃⁻ levels are rising which can stimulate photosynthesis (Connell et al. 2013; Cornwall et al. 2012, 2015; Newcomb et al. 2015). Rising atmospheric CO₂ levels have increased seawater temperatures by 0.13°C per decade over the last 50 years (IPCC 2014) and the regression of the seaweeds at their warmest biogeographic limits are being observed (Harley et al. 2006; Brodie et al. 2014; Wernberg et al. 2016). Research into the combined effects of acidification and warming is advancing our understanding of the mechanisms that drive algal responses to global climate change (Figueroa and Korbee 2010; Diaz-Pulido et al. 2012; Martínez et al. 2015). Work on brown macroalgae has shown that global climate change can affect a range of key processes, such as nutrient uptake and photosynthesis, with knock-on effects on growth, calcification and reproduction (Betancor et al. 2014; Figueroa et al. 2014; Stengel et al. 2014).

Long-term observations in tanks and work at CO₂ seep systems have shown that many calcifying of seaweeds species are more vulnerable to the effects of ocean acidification at warmer seawater temperatures (Martin and Gattuso 2009). Thus, the changes in the structure of the community can be altered by the ocean acidification due to the decrease of growth rates in marine calcifies seaweeds, e.g., coralline algae (Kuffner et al. 2008, Martin and Gattuso 2009), and increase in non-calcifying macroalgae, e.g., kelp forests (Connell and Russell 2010, Celis-Plá et al. 2015). Many brown macroalgae thrive at high CO₂ concentrations (Enochs et al. 2015; Linares et al. 2015), often up-regulating their photosynthesis and the nutrient uptake as well as their production of the polyphenols and antioxidants (Figueroa et al. 2014; Celis-Plá et al. 2016).

Canopy-forming brown algae have declined in abundance over the past 50 years due to anthropogenic perturbations such as siltation and increased temperature and

nutrients levels (Strain et al. 2014; Yesson et al. 2015; Wernberg et al. 2016) yet the canopy-forming brown algae *Cystoseira* spp. and *Sargassum vulgare* proliferate near coastal CO₂ seeps in the Mediterranean (Porzio et al. 2011; Baggini et al. 2014; Celis-Plá et al. 2015) and in mesocosm systems (Ju-Hyoung et al. 2016). *Cystoseira* spp. are used as indicators of high water quality in the Mediterranean as they help maintain the structure and function of coastal ecosystems (Celis-Plá et al. 2016). As Ocean acidification is not happening in isolation, but alongside a plethora of other anthropogenic changes, the study of the combination of the multiple stressors in the Mediterranean Sea, is critical to plan for to explain the disappearance of sensitive ecosystem of the canopy-forming seaweeds. These "habitat-forming" species are suffering a general decline (Fernández 2011, Pérez-Lloréns et al. 2014) and habitat destruction or degradation. Considered as threat to the diversity, structure, functioning and services they provide of marine coastal ecosystems in the Mediterranean Sea (Claudet and Fraschetti 2010, Coll et al. 2010).

Our study focuses on the Alboran Sea (western part of Mediterranean Sea), parts of which are so oligotrophic where macroalgal growth is limited (Ferreira et al. 2011; Mercado et al. 2012). We grew Cystoseira tamariscifolia in tanks system to examine the combined effects of CO₂ and temperature on thalli collected from ultra-oligotrophic vs less limited nutrient parts of the coast. Here, we analyze ecophysiological responses to ocean acidification at ambient temperature and close to their temperature tolerance limits using standard methods for the study of multiple physical stressors in algae (Stengel et al. 2014; Celis-Plá et al. 2015; Martínez et al. 2015). Our hypothesis is that these macroalgae would benefit from elevated levels of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) at ambient conditions of temperature when nutrient levels were sufficient. On the other hand, the temperature increase can produce negative effects since Cystoseira tamariscifolia of Alboran Sea is located in the southern limit of the distribution of this species (Gómez-Garreta et al. 2001). In spite of the importance of these algal communities, the studies on the vulnerability and acclimation to increased temperature are scarce (Serio et al. 2006, Strain et al. 2014). Thus, we expect that increase of pCO₂ levels will produce an increase of photosynthetic activity, photoprotectors and antioxidant activity in *C. tamariscifolia* only under ambient temperature.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Species and sampling

137 Cystoseira tamariscifolia (Hudson) Papenfuss, (Phaeophyceae, Fucales) (Gómez-138 Garreta et al. 2001) were collected haphazardly on 25 September 2013 in Cabo de Gata-139 Nijar Natural Park (36°51'N, 2°6'W) and off La Araña beach, Malaga (36°42'N, 4°19'W) both in the Alboran Sea. The waters off the Natural Park had lower concentrations of nitrate and phosphate and lower vertical attenuation coefficient of 142 light (Kd) than La Araña beach (Table S1; according to Ramírez et al. 2005; Mercado et 143 al. 2007, 2012), and the waters can be classified as ultra-oligotrophic and oligotrophic 144 waters, respectively according to the classification proposed by Organization for 145 Economic Cooperation and Development (1982).

146 147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

140

141

Experimental design

Cystoseira tamariscifolia (25-30 g fresh weight) were incubated from 27 September to 29 October 2013 (after 48 hours of acclimation), in open tanks system. The experiment was designed to examine interactive effects of current pCO₂ (ca. 400-500 ppm, pH target above 8.22 to 8.34) and predicted future concentration (ca.1200-1300 ppm, pH target 7.88) in combination with two temperature levels, ambient temperature (target above 19-20°C) and ambient temperature + 4°C (target above 24°C), predicted future temperature for the year 2100 (IPCC 2014). The four treatments were ambient temperature x ambient CO₂ (ATxACO₂), ambient temperature x high CO₂ (ATxHCO₂), high temperature x ambient CO₂ (HTxACO₂) and high temperature x high CO₂ (HTxHCO₂), in total 24 tanks were used with two replicates per tank, i.e., 6 replicates per treatments; four treatments with three replicate tanks for ultraoligotrophic waters and three replicate tanks for oligotrophic waters.

160 161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

Experimental conditions

The experimental system consists in 24 open tanks (0.094 m² surface area, 14 L volume), connected in parallel each three tanks to a separate tank of 102 L capacity and these were placed within a tank of 1000 L in water baths. The water flow between each tank and its header tank (102 L capacity) was 0.84 ± 0.05 L min⁻¹, representing a turnover rate of $26 \pm 1\% \text{ h}^{-1}$. A temperature control System, was monitored T2001HC, Aqua Medic was used in the tanks system (following methods given by Stengel et al. 2014). For carbon treatment was operated a computer-operated pH control system (AT) with pH sensors (Aqua Medic T2001HC, Aqua Medic), located inside each of the eight 102 L header tanks. The system automatically recorded one measurement every 15 min

and was programmed to initiate the supply of pure CO₂ via a solenoid valve as soon as the pH exceeded a threshold of 7.88 in the header tanks (corresponding to 1200 ppm of CO2, HC treatment). When the pH returned to this value, CO2 injection stopped. The seawater carbonate system was monitored two times at each week, taking water samples to measure the temperature, salinity, pH_{NBS} and total alkalinity (following methods given by Celis-Plá et al. 2015). Other parameters of the carbonate chemistry were calculated using CO₂SYS. Seawater was enriched with 2 µM nitrate (KNO₃) and 0.1 μM phosphate (KH₂PO₄) giving an N:P ratio of 20:1 for oligotrophic waters and with 0.5 µM nitrate (KNO₃) and 0.1 µM phosphate (KH₂PO₄) giving an N:P ratio of 5:1 for ultraoligotrophic waters according to Ramírez et al. (2005) and Mercado et al. (2007 and 2012) (Table S1). This was assessed by taking triplicate seawater samples from all treatments. Seawater was filtered in situ using portable GF/F filters (Whatman International. Ltd., Maidstone, UK), transported to the laboratory inside an isotherm bag (4°C, in darkness), and kept at -20°C. Nitrate (NO₃⁻) and phosphate (P) were determined using an automated wet chemistry analyzer (SanPlus++ System, SKALAR, Breda, Netherlands) applying standard colorimetric procedures (Koroleff 1983).

The outdoor tanks system were shaded using a neutral green mesh reducing photosynthetically active radiation (PAR; 400-700 nm) by 35%, and UVA (320-400 nm) and UVB (280-320 nm) by 39%, as reported by Stengel et al. (2014). Incident irradiance was monitored continuously in air using an UV-PAR Multifilter radiometer NILU-6 (Geminali AS, Oslo, Norway). The irradiances of UVA and UVB were calculated using methods provided by Høiskar et al. (2003).

Biomass

Fronds of the *C. tamariscifolia* were blotted dry and weighed immediately before being transferred to the experimental tanks and after the experimental period (28 days). Growth was calculated according to Martínez et al. (2015)

199
$$Biomass = (FW_{t=f} - FW_{t=0}) \cdot day^{-1}$$
 (1)

where FW $_{t=f}$ is fresh weight measured to final and FW $_{t=0}$ is fresh weight measured before the start of the experiment (Fig. 1).

Internal carbon and nitrogen content

Stoichiometric ratios (C:N) were determined to estimate the physiological status of the seaweeds (according to Figueroa and Korbee 2010). Seaweed samples (1-2 g FW) were dried for 48 hours in an oven at 60°C. Total internal C and N contents on a dry weight (DW) basis were determined using a CNHS-932 elemental analyzer (Leco Corporation, Michigan, USA).

Photosynthetic activity

Photosynthetic activity was estimated by *in vivo* chlorophyll a fluorescence associated to Photosystem II (PSII) by using a portable pulse amplitude modulated (PAM) fluorometer (Diving-PAM, Walz GmbH, Germany). Macroalgal thalli were collected from natural populations (initial time). In order to obtain rapid light curves (RLC) for each treatment, apical parts of *C. tamariscifolia* were introduce in 10 mL incubation chambers. F_0 and F_m were measured after 15 minutes in darkness to obtain the maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m) being $F_v=F_m-F_0$, F_0 the basal fluorescence of 15 min dark adapted thalli and F_m maximal fluorescence after a saturation light pulse of >4000 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (Schreiber et al. 1995). The electron transport rate (ETR) as estimator of photosynthetic capacity was determined after 20s exposure in eight increasing irradiances of white light (halogen lamp provided by the Diving-PAM). The ETR was calculated according to Schreiber et al. (1995) as follows:

ETR (
$$\mu mol\ electrons\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$$
) = $\Delta F/F'_m \times E \times A \times F_{II}$ (2)

where $\Delta F/F'm$ is the effective quantum yield, being $\Delta F = Fm'$ -Ft (Ft is the intrinsic fluorescence of alga incubated in light and Fm' is the maximal fluorescence reached after a saturation pulse of algae incubated in light), E is the incident PAR irradiance expressed in μ mol photons m⁻² s⁻¹, A is the thallus absorptance as the fraction of incident irradiance that is absorbed by the algae (Figueroa et al. 2003) and F_{II} is the fraction of chlorophyll related to PSII (400-700 nm) being 0.8 in brown macroalgae (Grzymski et al. 1997). ETR parameters as maximum electron transport rate (ETR_{max}) as estimator of photosynthetic efficiency were obtained from the tangential function reported by Eilers and Peeters (1988).

Phenolic compounds and antioxidant activity (EC_{50})

In brown algae, the UV screen compounds, with antioxidant capacity are the phenolic compounds (PC) were determined using 0.25 g fresh weight samples pulverized with a mortar and pestle with sea-sand and 2.5 mL of 80% methanol. After keeping the samples overnight at 4°C, the mixture was centrifuged at 2253 g for 30 min at 4°C, and then the supernatant was collected. PC were determined colorimetrically using Folin-Ciocalteu reagent and phloroglucinol (1,3,5-trihydroxybenzene, Sigma P-3502) as standard. Finally, the absorbance was determined at 760 nm using a spectrophotometer (UV Mini-1240, Shimadzu) (Celis-Plá et al. 2014). Total phenolic content was expressed as mg g ⁻¹ DW after determining the fresh to dry weight ratio in the tissue (4.3 for *C. tamariscifolia* from Cabo de Gata-Nijar Natural Park and 5.6 *C. tamariscifolia* from La Araña Beach, respectively). The results are expressed as average \pm SE from three replicates of each treatment.

Antioxidant activity (EC₅₀) was measured on polyphenol extracts according to Blois (1958); 150 μL of DPPH (2, 2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyil) prepared in 90% methanol were added to each extract. The reaction was complete after 30 min in darkness at ambient temperature (~20°), and the absorbance was read at 517 nm in a spectrophotometer (UVmini-1240, Shimadzu). The calibration curve made from DPPH was used to calculate the remaining concentration of DPPH in the reaction mixture after incubation. Values of DPPH concentration (mM) were plotted against plant extract concentration expressed as the EC₅₀ value (mg DW mL⁻¹) required to scavenge 50% of the DPPH in the reaction mixture. Ascorbic acid was used as a control (according to Celis-Plá et al. 2016).

Statistical analysis

The effects of the combined treatments on growth, photophysiological and biochemical responses of *C. tamariscifolia* were assessed using analysis of variance (ANOVA). For biomass, three fixed factors were considered: temperature with two levels; ambient temperature *vs.* high temperature (ambient + 4°C temperature), CO₂ with two levels in this instance; *ca.* 400-500 *vs. ca.* 1200-1300 ppm and origin with two levels; ultraoligotrophic waters (Cabo de Gata-Nijar Natural Park) *vs.* oligotrophic waters (La Araña beach). For photophysiological and biochemical responses in *C. tamariscifolia*, four fixed factors were considered: time, temperature, CO₂ and origin. To ensure the independence of each replica, each thallus was measured once and then was eliminated. This design allowed us to test interactive and additive effects of the

variables on the physiological responses. Student Newman Keuls tests (SNK) were performed after significant ANOVA interactions (Underwood 1997). The homogeneity of variance of all data was confirmed by using Cochran tests and by visual inspection of the residuals (Underwood 1997). Analyses were performed by using SPSS v.21 (IBM, USA).

RESULTS

Experimental conditions

The seawater temperatures during the experimental period were 19.80 ± 0.15 °C in $ATxACO_2$, 20.10 ± 0.15°C in $ATxHCO_2$, 23.91 ± 0.21°C in $HTxACO_2$ and 23.90 ± 0.20°C in high temperature and high pCO_2 treatment (mean \pm SE, n = 2232; 279 measurements for each tank) and mean pH were 8.34 ± 0.01 in ATxACO₂, 7.88 ± 0.01 in ATxHCO₂, 8.22 ± 0.01 in HTxACO₂ and 7.88 ± 0.01 in HTxHCO₂, respectively (mean \pm SE, n = 2232; 279 measurements for each tank) (Table 1). The average daily integrated irradiances for the experimental period were 4238 kJ m⁻² for PAR, 329kJ m⁻² for UVA and 22kJ m⁻² for UVB. The nutrients, i.e., nitrate and phosphate concentrations were 2.58 ± 0.52 and $0.16 \pm 0.01 \,\mu\text{M}$ in ATxACO₂, 1.06 ± 0.03 and $0.13 \pm 0.01 \mu M$ in ATxHCO₂, 2.02 ± 0.51 and $0.15 \pm 0.02 \mu M$ in HTxACO₂ and finally, 1.41 ± 0.57 and 0.15 ± 0.01 µM in HTxHCO₂, respectively (mean \pm SE, n = 48 measurements) (Table 1).

Biomass

The biomass was significantly different (p<0.01) among all factors; temperature, CO₂ levels and origin (Table S1). *C. tamariscifolia*, only when the thalli came from oligotrophic waters showed enhanced growth under elevated pCO₂ with high temperature treatment (maximal values 0.32 ± 0.03 g FW day⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=6) compared to ambient pCO₂ with high temperature (minimal values -0.50 \pm 0.06 g FW day⁻¹, mean \pm SE, n=6). In addition, under ambient pCO₂, algae from oligotrophic waters lost biomass irrespective of temperature (Fig. 1). Nevertheless, algae from ultraoligotrophic waters showed no changes in biomass accretion irrespective of the treatment conditions they were exposed to. Algae from ultraoligotrophic waters showed maximal values 0.20 ± 0.07 g FW day⁻¹ (mean \pm SE, n=6) under high temperature/ambient pCO₂ and minimal values 0.07 ± 0.01 g FW day⁻¹ (mean \pm SE, n=6) under high temperature/high pCO₂ treatments (Fig. 1).

Internal Carbon (C) and Nitrogen (N) content

Carbon internal content was significantly different (p<0.05) (Table S3) for interaction between CO₂ and origin. Carbon content in *C. tamariscifolia* only when the thalli came from ultraoligotrophic waters showed increase under elevated pCO₂ independent of the temperature levels, in first two weeks (Table 2). Nitrogen content was significantly different (p<0.01) among time, temperature and CO₂ (Table S3). Algae from ultraoligotrophic and oligotrophic waters showed changes to increase in nitrogen internal content, at the end the experimental period, irrespective of the treatment conditions they were exposed to.

Photosynthetic responses

The maximal electron transport (ETR_{max}) as indicator of photosynthetic capacity had interactive effects (p<0.01) among all factors (Table S3). The ETR_{max} data increased under high pCO₂ conditions with ambient and high temperature in C. tamariscifolia from oligotrophic waters respect to ultraoligotrophic waters, at the second week during the experimental period (Fig. 2). Algae from both origins showed a decreased in the ETR_{max} values at the end the experimental period, irrespective of the treatment conditions they were exposed to (Fig. 2).

Total Polyphenolic compounds and antioxidant activity

Polyphenolic compound (PC) was significantly (p<0.01) for all factors, and showed interactive effects (p<0.05) between CO₂ and origin (Table S4). Polyphenols were ca. 1.5 - 3.0 % in algae collected from ultraoligotrophic waters (Fig. 3a) and in C. tamariscifolia from oligotrophic waters, polyphenols were ca. 1.0 - 2.2 % (Fig. 3b), this suggest more phenolic production, such as, photoprotection in the macroalgae collected from ultraoligotrophic waters (Fig. 3a). In C. tamariscifolia the polyphenolic compounds increased in high CO₂ conditions for both origins (Fig. 3). The antioxidant activity (EC₅₀) was significantly different (p<0.01) for all factors and interaction among temperature, CO₂ and origin (Table S4). EC₅₀ increased (i.e. lower EC₅₀) at the initial time (two first weeks) under high CO₂

conditions independent of the temperature, for both origins (Fig. 4).

DISCUSSION

Increased levels of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) can benefit photosynthesis and growth in *Cystoseira tamariscifolia* in the experimental tanks system and temporal scales of days (28d), confirming expected benefits of ocean acidification already reported for brown macroalgae (Harley et al. 2012; Cornwall et al. 2012; Brodie et al. 2014; Koch et al. 2014; Bender et al. 2014; Cornwall et al. 2015). In this study, we show benefits of pCO_2 increase on growth rate in *C. tamariscifolia* being the physiological responses more accelerated in oligotrophic than in ultraoligotrophic harvested algae. Temperature increase has negative effect on growth rate in algae from oligotrophic waters with low pCO_2 conditions and the biomass increased under elevated pCO_2 conditions, in *C. tamariscifolia* of both origins. We found that the full extent of these benefits was only gained at optimal temperatures and if sufficient nutrients were available, building upon work by Celis-Plá et al. (2015) at CO_2 seeps.

Reports on non-calcareous macroalgae from other regions have shown that the ocean acidification may increase due to beneficial effects on photosynthesis, production and growth (Harley et al. 2012; Koch et al. 2014; Brodie et al. 2014). Ocean acidification can benefit the physiological state and growth in the field (Johnson et al. 2012; Baggini et al. 2014; Celis-Plá et al. 2015), in laboratory work has shown that increases in dissolved inorganic carbon can benefit species such as Gracilaria lemaneiformis in China (Zou and Gao 2009) and Feldmannia spp. in Australia (Russell et al. 2011), as well as phaeophytes such as Nereocystis luetkeana and Macrocystis pyrifera in New Zealand (Swanson and Fox 2007; Roleda et al. 2012). Also in mesocosm systems Sargassum thunbergii showed an increased in the photosynthesis activity and growth, when exposed to high pCO₂ conditions (Ju-Hyoung et al. 2016). In this study, fucoid biomass from oligotrophic waters, showed enhanced growth under elevated pCO2 and the macroalgae from ultraoligotrophic waters showed no changes in biomass irrespective of the treatment conditions they were exposed to. The highest carbon content was observed in C. tamariscifolia from ultraoligotrophic waters and incubated in elevated pCO_2 levels.

A positive correlation between carbon internal content and ETR_{max} was observed, this suggest that carbon supply increased photosynthetic production expressed as ETR_{max} . The highest ETR_{max} and nitrogen internal content were reached at increased pCO_2 and ambient temperature in algae from both origins being the highest levels reached in algae collected from ultraoligotrophic waters. The carbon content helps explain the dominance of this brown algae at a variety of coastal Mediterranean,

probably due to a combination of the direct stimulus of increased dissolved inorganic carbon for photosynthesis (Mercado et al. 1998, Raven and Hurd 2012). Johnson et al. (2012) also showed a significant effect on the photosynthetic responses of Padina pavonica with CO₂ enrichment. Here, in tanks system seawater with high pCO₂ polyphenol content increased, independent of temperature, showing that ocean acidification can benefit algal photoprotection, as shown by Celis-Plá et al. (2015) in Cystoseira compressa and Padina pavonica at sites with naturally elevated CO2 conditions. Swanson and Fox (2007) showed increased in phenols content in kelp under elevated pCO₂ treatments. The variation of physiological performance of brown macroalgae in long-term period (5 moths) due to acidification has been also observed in situ during a volcanic eruption event in the Canary Islands (Betancor et al. 2014). The brown macroalga Padina pavonica suffered decalcification during the eruptive phase and it was directly linked with the acidification of the coastal waters (Betancor et al. 2014). This confirms a loss of CaCO₃ for a calcareous seaweed under an ocean acidification scenario, as several studies have reported for seaweeds, and other organisms (Hall-Spencer et al. 2008; Martin et al. 2008; Rodolfo-Metalpa et al. 2009; Fabricius et al. 2011; Hofmann et al. 2012).

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

The polyphenol content was highest in C. tamariscifolia from the ultraoligotrophic site which is probably a photoprotective response to the high irradiance level found in highly transparent coastal waters. These intertidal macroalgae presented higher capacity to respond to increased environmental stress for high irradiance, compared to algae from subtidal or from other region with lower daily irradiance levels (Gómez et al. 2004, Hanelt and Figueroa 2012). Pérez-Rodríguez (2000) and Figueroa and Gómez (2001) reported vertical attenuation coefficient of light (Kd) in the ultraoligotrophic waters in Eastern of the Mediterranean Sea (Alboran Sea), respect to the West region. The Kd (PAR), Kd (UVA) and Kd (UVB) for the eastern region were 0.070 m⁻¹, 0.105 m⁻¹ and 0.220 m⁻¹, compared to 0.102 m⁻¹, 0.275 m⁻¹ and 0.378 m⁻¹, respectively in the west. These suggest that the higher concentration of polyphenolic compounds and antioxidant activity in algae from ultraoligotrophic waters (Cabo de Gata-Nijar Natural Park) with high transparency, can increase the photoprotection capacity related to the photoacclimation to high irradiance, thus, preventing the photodamage. The macroalgae can minimize damage from high irradiance not only by down-regulating process in photosystems, also by the production of UV photoprotectors and antioxidant compounds as phenols (Pérez-Rodríguez et al. 1998, Figueroa et al. 2014). In fact, the phenol content was higher in algae from ultraoligotrophic waters, i.e., with highest values of 3.0 % than that in oligotrophic water with highest values of 2.2 %. Polyphenolic accumulation in brown seaweeds is stimulated under high solar PAR and UVR (Connan et al. 2006) protecting the cells against photo-oxidative stress (Schoenwaelder et al. 2002). Abdala et al. (2006) showed in *Cystoseira tamariscifolia* that the hourly and monthly variations of phenolic compounds were related to daily integrated irradiance in the ultraoligotrophic waters of Cabo de Gata Natural Park.

Phenols usually accumulated under elevated pCO_2 treatments, as it has been reported in kelps (Swanson and Fox 2007) and in terrestrial plants (Mattson et al. 2005; Stiling and Cornelissen 2007). However, the effects of pCO_2 on phenol production is not straight forward, as seagrasses decreased the production of phenols when pCO_2 increased, indicating these responses are species-specific (Arnold et al. 2012). In addition, in the brown macroalgae $Padina\ pavonica$, the phenol levels decreased during an submarine eruptive event related to pH decrease, i.e., water acidification up 2.8 unit within 100 m of the water column (Fraile-Nuez et al. 2012), recovering the phenolic levels after the eruptive phase and normal pH values (Betancor et al. 2014). This pattern was related to an increase of excretion rates of polyphenols under reduced pH, condition as it has been reported for the brown alga $Lessonia\ nigrescens$ (Gómez and Huovinen 2010). However, in this study, the content of photoprotectors (phenolic compounds) from both origins was higher under increased pCO_2 conditions in ambient temperature.

Celis-Plá et al. (2015) showed also that phenolic compounds in *Cystoseira* compressa and *Padina pavonica* were accumulated in elevated pCO_2 treatments with nutrient enrichment conditions, as interactive effects, in a field study with a natural pH gradient (Vulcano Island, Italy). In oligotrophic ambient with natural input of the nutrient (La Araña beach) due to anthropogenic impact, i.e., sewage discharges can increases the photoprotection capacity of seaweeds due to the increase in protein content or polyphenols (Arnold and Targett 2002). We also found antioxidant activity was higher in high pCO_2 treatments in algae from both origins. A positive correlation between antioxidant activity and internal nitrogen content indicates again that nutrient level has a positive effect on photoprotection. We also found antioxidant activity to be higher (i.e. low EC_{50}) under higher pCO_2 treatments in algae from both origins, but in ultraoligotrophic waters the antioxidant activity was higher respect to the oligotrophic waters. It is shown again, that the algae submitted to more stress conditions in the

natural environment, i.e., ultraoligotrophic *vs* oligotrophic presented the highest acclimation capacity.

CONCLUSION

Elevated pCO_2 levels can clearly enhance brown algal productivity, with implications for fucoid forests of the planet, but this will be contingent on other physicochemical parameters. Here, we show that elevated pCO_2 was beneficial to C. tamariscifolia and that thalli collected from both ultra- and oligotrophic waters were able to acclimate to increased DIC and temperature. The benefits of ocean acidification for fucoids worldwide will be contingent on there being enough nutrients and light, and that thermal tolerances are not exceeded. Our study shows that ocean acidification combined with increased temperature had beneficial effects on growth rates, photosynthetic production, antioxidant activity and photoprotection, and shown the importance of light and nutrient history of the macroalgae in the responses to climate change factors. This would ensure the integrity of the communities of rocky shores as these canopy forming species play a profound role in providing habitat and resources to hundreds of accompanying species.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by the Junta de Andalucía (Project RNM-5750), by the research group RNM-295 and by the University of Málaga: Programa de Fortalecimiento de Las capacidades de I+D+I en Las universidades 2014-2015, Consejería de Economía, Innovación, Ciencia y Empleo, cofinanciado por el FEDER (Project FC-14CGL-09). Paula S. M. Celis-Plá gratefully acknowledges financial support from 'Becas-Chile' (CONICYT) of the Ministry of Education, Republic of Chile and technical support of David Lopez (University of Malaga).

Figure Captions

- 470 Figure 1 Growth (g d⁻¹) (mean \pm SE, n=3) of *Cystoseira tamariscifolia* from two sites at
- 471 four treatments ATxACO₂ (ambient T°C x ambient CO₂), ATxHCO₂ (ambient T°C x
- high CO₂), HT*ACO₂ (high T°C x Ambient CO₂) and HTxHCO₂ (high T°C x high CO₂)
- after 28 days. Lower-case letters denote significant differences after a SNK test.

Figure 2 Maximal electron transport rate (ETR_{max} expressed as µmol electrons m⁻² s⁻¹) (mean \pm SE, n=3) for a) Cystoseira tamariscifolia from ultraoligotrophic waters and b) from oligotrophic waters in four treatments ATxACO₂ (ambient T°C x ambient CO₂), ATxHCO₂ (ambient T°C x high CO₂), HTxACO₂ (high T°C x Ambient CO₂) and HTxHCO₂ (high T°C x high CO₂) in relation to time. Upper values in right box indicate initial time values before acclimation time. Lower-case letters denote significant differences after a SNK test. Figure 3 Total phenolic compounds (PC expressed as mg g⁻¹ DW) (mean \pm SE, n=3) for a) Cystoseira tamariscifolia from ultraoligotrophic waters and b) from oligotrophic waters for four treatments ATxACO2 (ambient T°C x ambient CO2), ATxHCO2 (ambient T°C x high CO₂), HTxACO₂ (high T°C x Ambient CO₂) and HTxHCO₂ (high T°C x high CO₂) in relation to time. Upper values in right box indicate initial time values before acclimation time. Figure 4 Antioxidant activity (EC₅₀ expressed as mg DW mL⁻¹) (mean \pm SE, n=3) for a) Cystoseira tamariscifolia from ultraoligotrophic waters and b) from oligotrophic waters for four treatments ATxACO₂ (ambient T°C x ambient CO₂), ATxHCO₂ (ambient T°C x high CO₂), HTxACO₂ (high T°C x Ambient CO₂) and HTxHCO₂ (high T°C x high CO₂) in relation to time. Upper values in right box indicate initial time values before acclimation time.