

1 Are temperature sensitivities of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* impacted by nutrient
2 availability in the subtropical northwest Pacific?

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14 **Keywords:** temperature; activation energy; nutrient enrichment, growth rate, dilution
15 experiment

16 **Running head:** Nutrient limitation reduces *Synechococcus* thermal sensitivity

17

18 **Abstract**

19 Temperature sensitivity of phytoplankton growth rate is crucial for predicting the
20 effect of global warming on oceanic primary productivity and the efficiency of the biological
21 carbon pump. To investigate how nutrient availability affects the temperature sensitivity of
22 phytoplankton growth, we estimated the activation energy (E_a) of two dominant
23 picocyanobacteria (*Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus*) in the subtropical northwest Pacific
24 using short-term temperature modulated dilution experiments. We also conducted a meta-
25 analysis on a compiled dataset of picocyanobacteria growth rate estimated by the dilution
26 technique. Our results revealed that the E_a of *Synechococcus* growth rate under in situ
27 nutrient conditions was lower than under nutrient-replete conditions. The growth response of
28 *Synechococcus* to warming could, therefore, be weaker under nutrient-limiting conditions
29 than in nutrient-replete waters. In contrast, E_a values of *Prochlorococcus* growth rate showed
30 no difference between the two nutrient supply scenarios. We also found that the reduced E_a of
31 *Synechococcus* growth was most likely related to the increasing trend of the half-saturation
32 constants for growth with increasing temperature. The temperature sensitivity of half-
33 saturation constants and the level of nutrient limitation can counteract the response of
34 *Synechococcus* growth rate to increasing temperature. Our results highlight the importance of
35 considering nutrient availability when evaluating the responses of phytoplankton growth and
36 primary production to climate warming, especially in the oligotrophic ocean.

37

38 **Introduction**

39 Temperature sensitivity of phytoplankton growth is crucial for determining how the primary
40 production and marine biogeochemical cycles respond to the projected global warming,
41 which would eventually affect the functioning and service of marine ecosystems (Sarmiento
42 et al. 2004). It has been quantified as Q_{10} (= 1.88) in the Eppley curve (Eppley 1972) or
43 activation energy (E_a) in the Boltzmann-Arrhenius equation (Brown et al. 2004), which
44 describes the direct effect of temperature on metabolic processes yet barely considers the
45 influence of resource availability.

46 Both Q_{10} and E_a of phytoplankton growth applied in models of ocean
47 biogeochemistry are derived from the laboratory-measured data, most of them coming from
48 batch cultures incubated under sufficient nutrient and light conditions (Eppley 1972; Chen
49 and Laws 2017). Under such ideal conditions, temperature is the primary factor that
50 determines phytoplankton growth. The temperature sensitivity hereby is the potential
51 maximum thermal response of phytoplankton growth mainly determined by cellular enzyme
52 processes. However, in nature, phytoplankton growth is also limited by the availability of
53 light and nutrients (Clarke 2003; O'Connor et al. 2009).

54 Nutrient is one of the most important resources but often a limiting factor for
55 phytoplankton growth in the open ocean (Moore et al. 2013). It is usually negatively
56 correlated with temperature in the ocean due to the stratification of water column triggered by
57 thermocline, which limits the nutrient supply from the sub-surface to the photic zone
58 (Sarmiento et al. 2004). Global warming is predicted to result in 1–3 °C increases in mean
59 sea surface temperature by the end of this century, which will further enhance the
60 stratification of water columns and exacerbate the decline in nutrient supply in the open
61 ocean (Collins et al. 2013; Behrenfeld et al. 2006). The oligotrophic regions such as
62 subtropical gyres were found to have been expanding during the past decades (Polovina et al.

63 2008). Phytoplankton will thereby experience a more nutrient-impoverished situation in the
64 warming ocean. Under nutrient-limited conditions, as in the oligotrophic ocean,
65 phytoplankton growth was found to be controlled by nutrient concentrations rather than
66 temperature (Marañón et al. 2014). The thermal response of phytoplankton growth rate could,
67 therefore, be constrained and suppressed by the nutrient limitation in nature (O'Connor et al.
68 2009; Marañón et al. 2018). Nevertheless, the mechanism underpinning the constraining
69 effect of nutrient availability remains elusive, which hinders a better evaluation and
70 prediction of how the primary production will respond to the projected ocean warming with
71 consequent nutrient impoverishment.

72 Marañón et al. (2018) have recently found that nutrient limitation suppressed the
73 temperature sensitivities of the metabolic rates of several phytoplankton species, and ascribed
74 it to the temperature-dependent nature of the half-saturation constant (K_n) for phytoplankton
75 growth, a parameter describing the effect of nutrient concentration on phytoplankton growth
76 rate in the Michaelis-Menten or Monod function (Monod 1942; Johnson and Goody 2011).
77 Whilst K_n is usually set to be temperature-independent in most Earth System Models (e.g.,
78 Yool et al. 2013). Marañón et al. (2018) used a set of chemostat experiments to simulate the
79 chronic nutrient limitation of oligotrophic ocean, while the real ocean could be more complex
80 as the microbial food web allows regenerated nutrients supply for the growth of
81 phytoplankton and involves other processes such as competition and predation (Banse 2013).
82 Thus, investigations on how nutrient availability affects the thermal response of natural
83 phytoplankton growth at the population and community levels and whether their K_n is
84 temperature-dependent are in critical need and will provide better insights into the effect of
85 global warming on marine primary production, especially in the expanding oligotrophic
86 ocean (Polovina et al. 2008).

87 In this paper, we aim at exploring the effect of nutrient availability on the thermal
88 response of natural cyanobacterial populations in the oligotrophic subtropical northwest
89 Pacific. The region is particularly important in the global/regional climate system as it is
90 located at the boundary of the Western Pacific Warm Pool and transports heat from low
91 latitudes to high latitudes via the Kuroshio Current (Hu et al. 2015). The sea surface
92 temperature of this region has been observed to be higher and undergoing a faster increase
93 than other subtropical regions partially due to the intensification of the Kuroshio Current
94 during the past decades (Wu et al. 2012). In such a warm region, phytoplankton could be
95 vulnerable to warming as they have adapted to the local conditions with optima close to the
96 environmental temperature (Thomas et al. 2012).

97 The phytoplankton communities in the oligotrophic subtropical northwest Pacific are
98 dominated by the marine cyanobacteria *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* (Endo and
99 Suzuki 2019) which are the most abundant phytoplankton and the major contributors to
100 primary productivity in the oligotrophic ocean (Buitenhuis et al. 2012). Their temperature
101 sensitivities have recently been explored in laboratory and field studies (Johnson et al. 2006;
102 Chen et al. 2014; Stawiarski et al. 2016), yet few studies evaluated their thermal response
103 under the influence of nutrient availability. We conducted short-term temperature
104 manipulated dilution experiments to estimate the temperature sensitivity of *Prochlorococcus*
105 and *Synechococcus* growth rates under two nutrient scenarios. We also conducted a meta-
106 analysis on a compiled dataset of picocyanobacterial growth rate estimated by the dilution
107 technique (Landry and Hassett 1982) to test the following hypotheses: 1) the temperature
108 sensitivity of both *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* would be constrained by the in situ
109 low nutrient concentration; 2) the reduced temperature sensitivity should be ascribed to the
110 temperature-dependent K_n .

111

112 **Materials and Methods**

113 *Dilution experiments in the subtropical northwest Pacific*

114 *Experimental set-up.* The growth rates of *Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus* at
115 three different temperatures were measured by temperature modulated dilution experiments
116 conducted aboard the R/V *Hakuho Maru* (JAMSTEC/ University of Tokyo) in December
117 2016 in the Kuroshio Current and its adjacent waters in the subtropical northwest Pacific
118 Ocean (Fig. 1). The dilution approach was designed to measure the phytoplankton growth
119 and microzooplankton grazing rates simultaneously via diluting the natural plankton
120 communities with in situ particle-free seawater to certain proportions and incubating them for
121 one day (Landry and Hassett 1982). The rates were calculated based on the linear relationship
122 of dilution factors and net growth rates by assuming that the growth rate of phytoplankton is
123 not affected by the dilution treatments and the grazing rate of microzooplankton is
124 proportional to the dilution factors (the proportion of original seawater). To measure the rates
125 at different temperatures, the prescribed mixtures of plankton communities were incubated at
126 designated temperatures: in situ surface temperature (T), T-4°C, and T+4°C. At each station,
127 we used an acid-washed plastic bucket to collect the surface seawater and then gently
128 transferred them into two 20-litre polycarbonate carboys.

129 The dilution experiments followed the “two-points” dilution technique described in
130 Landry et al. (2011), which has been proven as accurate as the traditional dilution approach
131 with a full dilution gradient and is also reliable when nonlinear grazing response occurs
132 (Chen 2015; Morison and Menden-Deuer 2017). Two dilution levels (25% and 100% of
133 unfiltered seawater) were set up with duplicate bottles for each level. In each dilution
134 experiment, 1.8 L particle-free seawater prepared by filtering the seawater through a 0.22 µm
135 pore-size filter capsule (Pall Corporation) was added into two 2.4 L polycarbonate bottles.
136 The bottles were subsequently filled with the natural unfiltered seawater to their full capacity

137 to achieve the 25% dilution level. This unfiltered seawater was pre-screened through a 200
138 μm mesh to remove mesozooplankton. Another two 2.4 L polycarbonate bottles were filled
139 with pre-screened unfiltered natural seawater to obtain the 100% dilution treatment. Nutrients
140 (NH_4^+ : 0.5 μM , PO_4^{3-} : 0.03 μM , Fe^{3+} : 1.0 nM; Mn^{2+} : 0.1 nM in final concentrations) were
141 added to the four bottles to ensure no nutrient limitation. As the phytoplankton communities
142 were dominated by picocyanobacteria, the nitrogen was added as NH_4^+ instead of NO_3^- which
143 cannot be utilized by most *Prochlorococcus* strains (Landry et al. 1995; 2011; Moore et al.
144 2002). To estimate the in situ phytoplankton growth rate, which could be limited by the
145 ambient nutrient concentrations, two extra bottles filled with pre-screened unfiltered seawater
146 without adding nutrient were prepared as controls. All bottles were tightly capped and put
147 into on-deck incubators with designated temperatures for one day. The in situ temperature
148 was maintained by running surface seawater. The other two temperatures were maintained by
149 two temperature controllers (EYELA CA-1100 and CTP-3000). Neutral density plastic film
150 was used to cover all bottles to imitate the in situ light conditions. The carboys, bottles, filters
151 and silicon tubing used in the experiments were sequentially washed with 10% HCl,
152 deionized water, Milli-Q water and in situ seawater before each experiment.

153 *Nutrients and phytoplankton analyses.* Samples for determining inorganic nutrients
154 were taken, frozen at $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ immediately, stored in $-20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ freezer, and analysed by a
155 QuAatro autoanalyzer (BL TEC K.K., Osaka, Japan) with certified reference material
156 (Aoyama et al., 2012). The detection limits for NO_2^- , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ are 0.01 μM , 0.05 μM ,
157 and 0.01 μM , respectively. For Chl *a* analysis, seawater (2.4 L) was filtered onto GF/F filters
158 (Whatman) under low vacuum, stored in $-80\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ freezer, and analysed by ultra-high
159 performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) according to the method of Suzuki et al.
160 (2015).

161 At the beginning and the end of each experiment, samples for flow cytometric (FCM)
162 analyses were taken to measure the initial and final cell abundances of *Synechococcus* and
163 *Prochlorococcus*. The samples (2 mL seawater) were fixed with 0.2% buffered
164 paraformaldehyde (v/v, final concentration), frozen in liquid nitrogen immediately, and stored
165 in -80 °C freezer until analysis. We used a Becton-Dickson FACSCalibur flow cytometer
166 equipped with an air-cooled argon laser (488 nm) to enumerated the cell abundances of
167 *Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus*. The *Prochlorococcus* could be detected by the side
168 scatter (SSC) and red auto-fluorescence emitted by Chl *a* at 680 nm, while the *Synechococcus*
169 could be distinguished from *Prochlorococcus* because of their particular orange auto-
170 fluorescence emitted by phycoerythrin at 575 nm (Olson et al. 1993). To normalize and
171 calibrate the fluorescence and light scattering signals, fluorescent beads (1 µm, Polysciences,
172 Inc.) were added to every sample as an internal standard. Aliquots (600 µL) were run for 2 or
173 3 minutes on the flow cytometer at a calibrated flow rate (~56 µL min⁻¹) and the raw data
174 were analysed using WinMDI software 2.9 (Joseph Trotter, Scripps Research Institute, La
175 Jolla, CA, USA).

176 *Growth rates estimates.* The growth rates of *Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus*
177 under nutrient-replete conditions (μ_n , d⁻¹) and microzooplankton grazing rates (m , d⁻¹) were
178 estimated according to Landry et al. (2011). Assuming exponential growth for phytoplankton
179 growth in each bottle, the net growth rate (k , d⁻¹) was calculated as $k = 1/t \ln (P_i/(d_i \times P_0))$,
180 where P_i is the final cell abundance of *Synechococcus* or *Prochlorococcus* in the i^{th} treatment
181 bottle after incubation, d_i is the dilution factor of i^{th} treatment (25% or 100% of unfiltered
182 seawater), P_0 is the initial cell abundance of *Synechococcus* or *Prochlorococcus*, and t is the
183 incubation time (1 day). For the undiluted seawater treatment with nutrient enrichment, the
184 net rate of changes in the cell abundance of *Synechococcus* or *Prochlorococcus* (k_n) is $k_n = \mu_n$
185 $- m$. Assuming the same growth rate in the diluted treatment and a linear decrease in grazing

186 mortality with dilution, the net growth rate in the diluted bottle (k_d) is $k_d = \mu_n - d_i \times m$, in
 187 which d_i is the fraction of unfiltered seawater (25%). The two equations are solved for the m
 188 and μ_n : $m = (k_d - k_n)/(1 - d_i)$ and $\mu_n = m + k_n$. The instantaneous growth rates for
 189 *Synechococcus* or *Prochlorococcus* under in situ nutrient condition (μ_0 , d⁻¹) were calculated
 190 based on the net growth rate in the bottles without nutrient addition (k_0) and the mortality rate
 191 induced by microzooplankton grazing: $\mu_0 = k_0 + m$.

192 *Activation energy estimates.* The temperature sensitivities of *Synechococcus* and
 193 *Prochlorococcus* growth rate were quantified as E_a based on the Boltzmann-Arrhenius
 194 equation (Brown et al. 2004):

$$195 \quad \mu = \mu_c e^{-E_a/k_b T} \quad (1)$$

196 where μ is the growth rate, E_a is the activation energy (eV) describing how fast the rates
 197 respond to the temperature increase, T is the absolute temperature (K), μ_c is a normalization
 198 constant, and k_b is the Boltzmann's constant (8.62×10^{-5} eV K⁻¹). As the Boltzmann-
 199 Arrhenius equation is usually used in the physiological temperature range, the rates above
 200 optimal temperature are usually removed before fitting the equation (Liu et al. 2019). In the
 201 current study, we removed the rates at $T+4^\circ\text{C}$ if they were lower than those at T as they could
 202 be the rates above the optimal temperature. The data showing no increasing trend were also
 203 not included in the calculation. The mean E_a of *Synechococcus* or *Prochlorococcus* growth
 204 rates for all stations was estimated using a linear mixed effects model which allows random
 205 variations of both intercept and slope (Bates et al. 2014). The model of *Synechococcus* or
 206 *Prochlorococcus* growth rates treating stations as random effects associated with E_a was
 207 described as follows:

$$208 \quad \ln\mu_{i,j} = (\ln\mu_c + \theta_{ri}) + \frac{E_a + \theta_{E_a i}}{k_b} \left(\frac{1}{T_c} - \frac{1}{T_{i,j}} \right) + \varepsilon_{i,j} \quad (2)$$

209 where $\mu_{i,j}$ is the growth rate of *Synechococcus* or *Prochlorococcus* at j^{th} temperature $T_{i,j}$ (K)
 210 at i^{th} station (μ_n or μ_0), μ_c is the normalized rate at reference temperature T_c (288 K), θ_{ri} and

211 $\theta_{E_{a_i}}$ are random deviations from intercept ($\ln\mu_c$) and slope (E_a), respectively. $\varepsilon_{i,j}$ is the j^{th}
 212 residual in the i^{th} group. We assumed that the activation energy (E_a) of μ_n should not be
 213 affected by nutrient availability, whilst the E_a of μ_0 in the Eq. 2 will yield the apparent
 214 activation energy (E ; eV). The difference between E_a and E was tested by adding a factor
 215 variable (with and without nutrient addition) to Eq. 2 with the input of both μ_n and μ_0 . The
 216 linear mixed effects model was implemented by “*lmer*” in R package “*lme4*” (Bates et al.
 217 2014). To gauge the goodness of the fit for the model, conditional R^2 and marginal R^2 were
 218 calculated using “*r.squaredGLMM*” in the R package “*MuMIn*” (Nakagawa and Schielzeth
 219 2013).

220 *The effect of temperature on K_n in temperature modulated experiments.* The
 221 relationship between phytoplankton growth rate and nutrient concentration is usually
 222 described as the Michaelis-Menten or Monod function:

$$223 \quad \mu = \mu_{max} \frac{N}{N + K_n} \quad (3)$$

224 in which μ is the growth rate, μ_{max} is the temperature-dependent maximum growth rate, N is
 225 the nutrient concentration, and K_n is the half-saturation constant which is the nutrient
 226 concentration when the growth rate is $\mu_{max}/2$. The K_n values of *Synechococcus* and
 227 *Prochlorococcus* growth rate under different temperatures were estimated using the
 228 corresponding pairs of μ_n and μ_0 . The μ_n estimated under nutrient-enriched conditions in the
 229 dilution experiments should be equal to μ_{max} in Eq. 3, while the instantaneous growth rates
 230 (μ_0) could be limited by the nutrient concentration in our study region. K_n could be calculated
 231 using the formula: $K_n = (\mu_n/\mu_0 \times N) - N$, where N is the concentrations of limiting nutrient. In
 232 the oligotrophic ocean, N is difficult to quantify due to the extremely low concentration. It is
 233 more complicated to determine N in our experiments because the regenerated nutrient from
 234 remineralization processes should be included. The regenerated nutrient could be the main
 235 nutrient source of *Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus*, especially in the nutrient-depleted

236 waters. As the nutrient concentration among the stations would not vary a lot due to their
237 close locations and their small values (Fig.1), K_n should be proportional to the ratio of μ_n/μ_0
238 in our study based on the formula above. Thus, instead of calculating K_n , we used the ratio of
239 μ_n/μ_0 to represent K_n and the intensity of nutrient limitation. In fact, μ_n/μ_0 (generally
240 expressed as μ_0/μ_n) is widely used as a nutrient limitation index of phytoplankton in dilution
241 experiments (Landry et al. 1995). The relationship between the μ_n/μ_0 and temperature can
242 reflect the effect of temperature on K_n .

243 ***Meta-analysis on a compiled field dataset***

244 We extended a published dataset of Chen et al. (2014) which consisted of
245 *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* growth rates in a variety of regions estimated by the
246 dilution technique (Supplementary dataset). Using the same approach as in our experiments,
247 the dataset included the instantaneous growth rate (μ_0) and nutrient-enriched growth rate (μ_n).
248 Most of the nitrate concentrations in the dataset were analysed using the method of Parsons
249 (2013). Only data from experiments in the surface waters were used and the corresponding
250 photosynthetically active radiation (PAR, mol photons m⁻² d⁻¹) data were extracted from the
251 Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services (<http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/>). In
252 total, 99 and 243 growth rate estimates of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* were included
253 in this dataset.

254 The apparent activation energy (E) of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* growth
255 rates were estimated using the corresponding instantaneous growth rates (μ_0) according to Eq.
256 1:

$$257 \quad \ln \mu_0 = \ln \mu_{c1} + \frac{E}{k_b} \left(\frac{1}{T_c} - \frac{1}{T} \right) \quad (4)$$

258 where μ_{c1} is the normalized rate at reference temperature T_c (288 K), T is the temperature (K)
259 corresponding with μ_0 . The Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression was used for the
260 calculation and performed with the function “*lm*” in R.

261 The E_a was estimated based on Eq. 5 that teases out the effects of light and nutrient.
 262 We used General Additive Models (GAMs), which uses nonparametric smooth functions (s ,
 263 thin plate regression splines) to describe the effects of light and nutrient:

$$264 \quad \ln \mu_0 = \ln \mu_{c2} + \frac{E_a}{k_b} \left(\frac{1}{T_c} - \frac{1}{T} \right) + s(PAR) + s(\ln(N)) \quad (5)$$

265 where μ_0 is instantaneous growth rates used in the Eq. 4, μ_{c2} is the normalization constant, N
 266 is the nitrate concentration, PAR is the photosynthetically active radiation, other symbols are
 267 the same with Eq. 2. N was log-transformed before GAMs analysis to follow the quasi-
 268 normal distribution. The GAMs analysis was implemented by R function “*gam*” in the
 269 package “*mgcv*” (Wood 2006).

270 In addition, we estimated the temperature sensitivity of K_n for phytoplankton growth
 271 and explored its effect on the thermal response of growth rate using a nonlinear model
 272 combining the effects of temperature, nutrient and PAR on growth rate:

$$273 \quad \mu_0 = \mu_{c3} e^{\frac{E_a}{k_b} \left(\frac{1}{T_c} - \frac{1}{T} \right)} \frac{N}{N + k_0 e^{\frac{E_k}{k_b} \left(\frac{1}{T_c} - \frac{1}{T} \right)}} \left(1 - e^{\frac{-\alpha_I PAR}{\mu_c}} \right) \quad (6)$$

274 in which k_0 is the normalized half-saturation constant at T_c , μ_{c3} is the normalization constant,
 275 E_k is the activation energy of half-saturation constant K_n , α_I is the light affinity, other
 276 symbols are the same in Eq. 2 and 3. The parameters were fitted using the R function “*nls*”.
 277 All statistical analyses were implemented using R 3.4.3 (R core Team, 2017).

278

279 **Results**

280 Affected by the Kuroshio Current, surface waters of the study region were
 281 characterized by high temperature (~25 °C) and extremely low nutrient with NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-}
 282 concentrations below the detection of quantification (Table 1). Chl a concentrations were low
 283 with a range of 0.17–0.32 $\mu\text{g L}^{-1}$. *Prochlorococcus* abundance averaged 84100 cells mL^{-1} ,

284 which was 10 times higher than average *Synechococcus* abundance (Table 1, Supplementary
285 Information Fig. S1).

286 The effect of nutrient enrichment on *Prochlorococcus* growth was marginal, as their
287 growth rates showed no difference between nutrient enrichment and controls without adding
288 nutrients at three different temperatures (paired *t*-test, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 2). The growth rate of
289 *Synechococcus* was not significantly affected by the nutrient addition at both the lowest and
290 the in situ temperature (paired *t*-test, $p > 0.05$; Fig. 2). In contrast, under warming condition,
291 the growth rate of *Synechococcus* increased significantly when nutrients were added (paired
292 *t*-test, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 2).

293 The growth rate of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* increased with increasing
294 temperature under both natural and nutrient replete conditions at most stations (Fig. 3). The
295 growth rate of *Synechococcus* increased in the treatment of 4 °C warming at all stations,
296 while that of *Prochlorococcus* increased under warming condition at only two stations (Sta.
297 RM1 and RM2, Fig. 3). At other stations, warming treatment did not increase the
298 *Prochlorococcus* growth rate. Under the ambient nutrient condition, the apparent activation
299 energy (E) of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* growth rates was 1.36 ± 0.59 eV and 1.19
300 ± 0.20 eV, respectively (Table 2, Figs. 3, 4). Under the nutrient-enriched condition, E_a of
301 *Prochlorococcus* growth (1.02 ± 0.33 eV) showed no difference with the corresponding E
302 value ($p > 0.05$; Table 2, Fig. 3, 4), suggesting that *Prochlorococcus* growth was never
303 nutrient-limited (Fig 2a, Table 1). In comparison, E_a of *Synechococcus* growth was
304 significantly higher than the corresponding E value ($E_a = 1.80 \pm 0.29$ eV, $p = 0.021 < 0.05$;
305 Table 2, Fig. 3, 4).

306 Nearly all the μ_n/μ_0 ratios of *Prochlorococcus* were around 1, which demonstrated
307 again that the growth rate of *Prochlorococcus* was not limited by ambient nutrient
308 concentrations in our study region and hindered our further exploration on the relationship

309 between K_n for *Prochlorococcus* and temperature. In contrast, the μ_n/μ_0 ratios of
310 *Synechococcus* were positively correlated with temperature (spearman $R = 0.52$, $p < 0.05$),
311 which suggested that K_n of *Synechococcus* growth increased with increasing temperature
312 (Fig. 5).

313 In the compiled dataset, the GAMs explained 25% and 30% of the variability of
314 *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* growth rates, respectively. After controlling the effects
315 of nutrient and light availability, E_a values of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* growth
316 rates were 1.95 ± 0.83 eV ($p = 0.069$) and 0.63 ± 0.07 eV ($p < 0.001$), respectively, which
317 were significantly higher than their corresponding E (0.17 ± 0.16 eV and 0.32 ± 0.05 eV,
318 respectively, Fig 6a, d). The growth rates of both *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus*
319 increased with nutrient concentrations but were invariant with light (Fig. 6). Using Eq. 5, the
320 nonlinear regression model explained 17% of the variability of *Synechococcus* growth rate,
321 while the model for *Prochlorococcus* could not converge due to the insufficiency of data. E_a
322 of *Synechococcus* growth rate estimated by this model was 0.49 ± 0.10 eV ($p < 0.001$,
323 Supplementary Information Table S1), which was consistent with the result of GAMs. The
324 estimation for the activation energy of K_n was also significant with a value of 0.08 ± 0.04 eV
325 ($p < 0.05$). As the growth rate of *Synechococcus* was not affected by light (Fig. 6b), the
326 estimation for parameter α_l was insignificant ($p = 0.311 > 0.05$).

327

328 Discussion

329 A comprehensive understanding of the interactive effects of temperature and resource
330 availability on phytoplankton growth can provide deeper insights into how marine primary
331 production and biogeochemical cycles respond to climate changes. Our study adds
332 knowledge to the effect of nutrient limitation on the thermal response of natural
333 cyanobacterial population growth in the oligotrophic ocean, with strong implications relevant

334 to the response of phytoplankton to the projected ocean warming with subsequent
335 intensification of nutrient impoverishment, especially in the subtropical regions.

336 ***Thermal responses of Prochlorococcus and Synechococcus growth rate***

337 Temperature plays a vital role in determining the global distribution and community
338 structure of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* (Partensky et al. 1999). *Prochlorococcus*
339 are present to the full extent of the photic zone in a 40 °N-40 °S latitude band and absent at
340 temperature below 15°C. Despite often co-occurring with *Prochlorococcus*, *Synechococcus*
341 have a wider geographical distribution ranging from polar to equatorial waters and are more
342 abundant in the nutrient-replete surface waters (Partensky et al. 1999; Flombaum et al. 2013).
343 Their diverse ecotypes/genotypes also show different spatial patterns, which is resulted from
344 their thermal preference and adaption (Johnson et al. 2006). The HLII ecotype of
345 *Prochlorococcus* and clade II and III of *Synechococcus* may be the dominant groups in the
346 surface (sub)tropical waters, such as our study region (Zwirgmaier et al. 2008). Although the
347 effect of temperature on *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* abundance has been explored
348 (Flombaum et al. 2013), to the best of our knowledge, there were no previous studies
349 estimating the thermal response of the *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* growth based on
350 in situ measurements in the subtropical oligotrophic waters. Although there are potential
351 problems associated with the short-term temperature manipulated experiments used in our
352 study, for instance, elevating temperatures could artificially impose a ‘thermal shock’ to the
353 plankton, we prudently designed the experimental temperature to ensure that they did not
354 deviate too much from the ambient temperature.

355 The sea surface temperature in this region is relatively high (~ 25 °C). However,
356 artificially elevating temperature still stimulates the growth of *Synechococcus* at all
357 experimental stations (Fig. 3a), which indicates that the optimal temperature for
358 *Synechococcus* growth is still higher than the ambient temperature. The growth of

359 *Prochlorococcus* also increased with artificially elevated temperature, but this trend was only
360 found at two stations (Fig. 3b). The results of other four stations suggested that the optima for
361 *Prochlorococcus* growth are close to the ambient temperature, which supported previous
362 study stating that (sub)tropical phytoplankton strains have optima close to environmental
363 temperature and are well-adapted to the local temperature regimes (Thomas et al. 2012). In
364 comparison, *Synechococcus* are more plastic in their thermal adaption and have higher
365 optima than *Prochlorococcus* in the study region. Our results are in line with previous studies
366 on laboratory cultures, demonstrating that the optimal temperatures of many *Prochlorococcus*
367 strains were lower than the *Synechococcus* isolated from similar latitudinal ranges
368 (Stawiarski et al. 2016). Therefore, without considering other factors, we speculate that the
369 projected rising temperature might have a stronger and more deleterious effect on
370 *Prochlorococcus* but be more favourable to *Synechococcus* in the subtropical waters.

371 However, the growth of *Synechococcus* could be more vulnerable to the gradually
372 impoverished nutrient concentration following the increase of sea surface temperature
373 particularly in the subtropical ocean gyre. We found that the ambient nutrient concentration
374 in the study area was sufficient for *Synechococcus* growth at in situ and low temperature, but
375 the nutrient started to become limited when temperature increased (Fig. 2). Our results
376 indicate that an increase in temperature will exacerbate nutrient limitation for *Synechococcus*
377 growth. This phenomenon could be common as it has also been observed in freshwater
378 diatoms and heterotrophic bacteria (Thomas et al. 2017). In comparison with *Synechococcus*,
379 the ambient nutrient concentration was sufficient for *Prochlorococcus* growth at all
380 temperatures as their growth rate showed no significant difference between the two nutrient
381 scenarios (Fig. 2). The temperature sensitivity of *Prochlorococcus* growth was, therefore, not
382 constrained by the nearly depleted nutrient conditions (Figs. 3, 4). We believe that warming
383 will also increase the nutrient demand for *Prochlorococcus* growth, but its demand is usually

384 extremely low and easily satisfied. *Prochlorococcus* have adapted themselves to the
385 extremely oligotrophic environments by reducing their cell and genome sizes to minimize the
386 resource demands (Partensky and Garczarek 2010). The small cell size leads to a large
387 surface-to-volume ratio, facilitating efficient nutrient acquisition (Raven 1998). The
388 ‘streamlined genome’, which is much smaller than that of *Synechococcus*, allows
389 *Prochlorococcus* to reduce their nutrient requirements and grow solely on the extremely low
390 amount of regenerated NH_4^+ from remineralization processes (Partensky and Garczarek
391 2010). In addition, warming will also increase the supply of regenerated nutrient by
392 accelerating microbial activities especially in the ecosystems featured high nutrient recycling
393 by the microbial loop, which could balance the increase of nutrient demands for
394 phytoplankton growth. Thus, *Prochlorococcus* is not prone to be limited by the current low
395 nutrient concentration even under warming conditions. In contrast, increasing nutrient
396 regeneration cannot satisfy the increasing demands for the growth of *Synechococcus* under
397 warming conditions. The diminishing nutrient supply in the future warmer ocean will,
398 therefore, further limit the growth of *Synechococcus* and curtail its thermal response.
399 Nevertheless, predicting the potential response of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* to the
400 ocean warming should further take into account their adaptive behaviours. For instance,
401 phytoplankton can adapt to the temperature changes by re-allocating their cellular C, P, and
402 N pools to the optimal, subsequently adjusting their nutrient demands (Toseland et al. 2013).
403 Such metabolic adaption cannot be revealed by the short-term experiments but needs further
404 investigation (García et al. 2018).

405 ***How temperature sensitivity of Synechococcus growth being constrained by nutrient***
406 ***limitation?***

407 The temperature sensitivity of *Synechococcus* growth rate was constrained by the
408 almost depleted nutrient conditions in the study area, revealed by the lower apparent

409 temperature sensitivity (E) under in situ nutrient conditions than E_a estimated under nutrient
410 replete conditions (Figs. 3, 4). The meta-analysis on the compiled dataset also showed
411 reduced activation energy of *Synechococcus* growth without adding the effect of nutrient to
412 the calculation (Fig. 6). As a result, the response of *Synechococcus* growth to warming could
413 differ among regions. In nutrient-limited regions, such as the subtropical gyres,
414 *Synechococcus* growth is expected to have a slower response to the increasing temperature
415 because limited nutrient constrains their growth. Nevertheless, in mesotrophic and eutrophic
416 waters, such as upwelling and coastal regions, increasing temperature may significantly
417 stimulate the growth of *Synechococcus*.

418 Although growing evidence reveals the constraining effect of limited nutrient on the
419 thermal response of phytoplankton growth (O'Connor et al. 2009; Marañón et al. 2018), the
420 underlying mechanisms remain ambiguous. One mechanism relates to the enzyme kinetics. It
421 has been intensively studied in terrestrial ecology that enzymatic kinetics accounts for how
422 the limited substances constrain the thermal response of soil organic matter decompositions
423 (German et al. 2012). This mechanism can also explain how nutrient limitation affects the
424 temperature sensitivity of phytoplankton metabolic rate (Marañón et al. 2018).

425 When nutrient is limited, the growth of phytoplankton not only depends on μ_{max} but
426 also on K_n , a parameter characterizing the affinity of enzymes for the nutrient substance. It
427 has been found that K_n for phytoplankton nutrient uptake and growth under nitrogen,
428 phosphate, or silicate limitation is also temperature sensitive, and so is μ_{max} (Bestion et al.
429 2018). An increase in K_n (i.e., decrease in the affinity of enzymes and kinetic efficiency) with
430 increasing temperature probably stems from the thermal adaption of the relevant proteins.
431 Increasing temperature will change the structure of proteins which regulate the K_n and
432 catalytic rate constant (K_{cat}) by changing their key amino acid residues, rendering the
433 'flexible' proteins more 'rigid' and less active in ligand binding and recognition (Somero

434 2004). The less ‘flexible’ proteins ultimately result in a lower affinity of the enzyme towards
435 substrate as well as a higher K_n . For the enzymatic reaction of soil organic matter
436 decomposition, the temperature sensitivity of K_n will counteract the thermal response of
437 maximum reaction rate, thereby leading to a reduced temperature sensitivity of
438 decomposition in soils (German et al. 2012). Hence, the reduced temperature sensitivity of
439 phytoplankton growth under nutrient limitation could also be attributed to the counteracting
440 effect of the thermal response of μ_{max} and K_n (Marañón et al. 2018). In the present study, the
441 robust K_n value and its temperature sensitivity cannot be calculated due to the extremely low
442 nutrient concentrations in the experiments. Nevertheless, the positive correlation between
443 μ_n/μ_0 ratio and temperature suggested that K_n for *Synechococcus* growth would be
444 temperature-dependent and increasing with temperature (Fig. 5). In addition, when fitting the
445 data of the compiled dataset to the explicit model (Eq. 5) involving the temperature effect on
446 K_n , a significant activation energy of K_n was obtained, consistent with the elevated activation
447 energy of *Synechococcus* growth rate under saturated nutrient conditions (Table S1).

448 However, differing from previous studies that reported a severe suppression of
449 temperature sensitivity of phytoplankton growth and metabolic rates by nutrient limitation
450 (Marañón et al. 2014; 2018), the temperature sensitivity of *Synechococcus* growth was only
451 reduced by 37% due to nutrient limitation in our experiments (Fig. 4). This difference may
452 stem from the opposing effects of the temperature sensitivity of μ_{max} and K_n and beg the
453 questions as to what determines the E and the extent of the reduction in temperature
454 sensitivity.

455 Based on the explicit model of phytoplankton growth rate, which is a combination of
456 the effects of temperature, nutrient and light, involving the temperature effects on both
457 growth rate and K_n (logarithmic transformation of Eq. 6):

458
$$\ln\mu_0 = \ln\mu_c + \frac{E_a}{k_b} \left(\frac{1}{T_c} - \frac{1}{T} \right) + \ln \frac{N}{N+k_0 e^{\frac{E_k}{k_b} \left(\frac{1}{T_c} - \frac{1}{T} \right)}} + \ln \left(1 - e^{-\frac{\alpha_I PAR}{\mu_c}} \right) \quad (7)$$

459 the apparent temperature sensitivity (E) can be estimated through the derivative of the
 460 function with respect to temperature ($d\ln\mu_0/dT$). As the experiments in our study
 461 (temperature modulated experiments and compiled dataset) were conducted in the surface
 462 layers where light is sufficient for the growth of *Synechococcus* (Fig. 6b), the effect of light
 463 on growth rate was temperature-independent. Thus, we treated the last term of Eq. 7 as
 464 constant when calculating $d\ln\mu_0/dT$. However, the light intensity could also affect the
 465 temperature sensitivity of phytoplankton growth rate when it becomes a limiting factor
 466 (Edwards et al. 2016). To simplify the equation, we let x represents the Boltzmann
 467 temperature $\frac{1}{k_b} \left(\frac{1}{T_c} - \frac{1}{T} \right)$. Then:

468
$$E = \frac{d\ln\mu_0}{dx} = E_a - \frac{k_0 e^{E_k x}}{N+k_0 e^{E_k x}} E_k \quad (8)$$

469 Assuming $N = n K_n$ ($n > 0$), the E equals to $E_a - 1/(n+1) E_k$. Based on this inference, E is
 470 determined by not only the activation energy of μ_{max} and K_n (E_a and E_k , respectively) but also
 471 the level of nutrient limitation (n). Under nutrient replete conditions, the E approximately
 472 equals to E_a because the $1/(n+1) E_k$ is negligible when n is large enough. While when
 473 nutrient concentration is extremely low ($N \ll K_n$), E will approach $E_a - E_k$ and reach the
 474 lowest value, which could be 0 when the E_k is very similar with E_a . Thus, the limited
 475 reduction of temperature sensitivity of *Synechococcus* growth in our study may be because
 476 the nutrient limitation was not so severe for *Synechococcus* growth in the study region (Fig.
 477 2). Besides, the E_k of K_n for *Synechococcus* growth could be much smaller than E_a of
 478 *Synechococcus* growth, leading to a weak opposing effect on their thermal response and a
 479 relatively small reduction in their temperature sensitivity (Figs. 4, 5).

480 ***Higher E_a estimated in the temperature modulated experiments***

481 The E_a estimates in our study are all higher than the reported E_a for the bulk
482 phytoplankton growth rate (0.3 - 0.4 eV), which is claimed to be lower than heterotrophic
483 processes (Allen et al. 2005; Chen and Laws 2017; Liu et al. 2019). Nevertheless, our results
484 are consistent with recent findings that the prokaryotes have higher temperature sensitivity
485 than eukaryotes (Chen et al. 2014; Chen and Laws 2017; Smith et al. 2019). This difference
486 will significantly affect carbon cycling in the warming and expanding oligotrophic ocean
487 (Smith et al. 2019).

488 The E_a estimated from experiments for *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* growth
489 (1.02 ± 0.33 eV and 1.80 ± 0.29 eV, respectively, Table 2) were higher than the values
490 estimated from the compiled dataset using GAMs and explicit nonlinear model (0.63 ± 0.07
491 eV and 0.49 ± 0.10 eV, respectively) which were close to the classic values predicted by
492 MTE (0.65 eV, Brown et al. 2004). This could be the difference between the temperature
493 sensitivities derived within and across populations. In the temperature modulated dilution
494 experiments, E_a revealing the emergent response of the same *Prochlorococcus* and
495 *Synechococcus* populations to the increasing temperature during the incubation is the within-
496 populations temperature sensitivity. By contrast, the E_a estimated from the meta-analysis on
497 the compiled dataset were the across-population temperature sensitivity as the dataset
498 consisted of the growth rates of various *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* populations
499 from a variety of environments. Previous studies on E_a estimates were usually derived across
500 species based on the dataset of a variety of phytoplankton species (Eppley 1972; Chen and
501 Laws 2017). Some species and populations can modulate their ability to adapt to the
502 environments and increase their growth rates during adaptation, which partially compensates
503 the emergent thermal response of phytoplankton within populations or species (Chen and
504 Laws 2017; Barton and Yvon-Durocher 2019). Thus, the across-population E_a estimated from
505 meta-analysis was lower than the emergent E_a estimated from the short-term experiments.

506 The high emergent E_a values were consistent with the estimates for many *Prochlorococcus*
507 and *Synechococcus* strains in laboratory experiments (Stawiarski et al. 2016; Chen and Laws
508 2017; Barton and Yvon- Durocher 2019). Moreover, the high E_a could also arise from stress
509 reactions of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* to the abrupt temperature changes in such
510 temperature manipulated experiments at short-term scales, which could be alleviated by
511 acclimation and long-term adaptation. Indeed, it is noteworthy that the temperature sensitivity
512 derived from short-term temperature modulated experiments cannot be applied at long-term
513 adaptation scales. Therefore, the E_a estimated based on short-term experiments, such as our
514 study, should be used with great cautions in predicting how marine plankton respond to the
515 projected warming which occurs gradually over a long period of time.

516

517 **Conclusion**

518 We have provided the first field evidence of nutrient-dependent temperature
519 sensitivity of cyanobacterial populations in the subtropical northwest Pacific, one of the
520 warmest regions of the global ocean. Our results suggest that *Prochlorococcus* are well
521 adapted to the current environmental temperature and extremely low nutrient conditions.
522 *Synechococcus* are more plastic in thermal adaptation and their response to the increasing
523 temperature will be constrained by limiting nutrient supply. Thus, the growth of
524 *Prochlorococcus* are less susceptible to nutrient depletion (or availability) but more
525 vulnerable to warming, while the effect of temperature on the growth of *Synechococcus* and
526 other large phytoplankton will be affected by nutrient availability. As such, a significantly
527 different thermal response could be seen in plankton communities between mesotrophic and
528 eutrophic waters (e.g., upwelling, coastal regions), and oligotrophic ocean (e.g., subtropical
529 gyres). We further verified that the response of phytoplankton growth to increasing
530 temperature under nutrient limitation should be determined by the temperature dependence of

531 enzyme kinetics related to growth (K_n) as well as the levels of nutrient limitation. Our study
532 points to the importance of considering nutrient availability in evaluating how phytoplankton
533 growth and primary production will respond to the projected ocean warming, particularly in
534 the oligotrophic ocean.

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718 **Figure legends**

719 Fig. 1 Locations of experimental stations in the subtropical northwest Pacific. The map was
720 drawn by Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2013. Ocean Data View <http://odv.awi.de>)

721 Fig. 2 Boxplot of the growth rates of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* at 6 stations under
722 different temperature treatments (Chilling, In situ T and Warming). μ_0 : in situ growth
723 rate without nutrient addition; μ_n : growth rate with nutrient enrichment. The dots are the
724 outliers of the boxplot. The p value and star means the significant levels between μ_0 and
725 μ_n (paired t -test: * : $p < 0.5$; ** : $p < 0.1$; *** : $p < 0.001$).

726 Fig. 3 The growth rates of *Synechococcus* (a) and *Prochlorococcus* (b) for each experiment.
727 The solid and dotted lines are the regression lines of linear mixed effects model on the
728 growth rates with and without nutrient enrichment, respectively. Dots: the growth rates
729 with nutrient enrichment. Triangle: the growth rates without nutrient enrichment. E_a :
730 activation energy of growth rate under nutrient-enriched condition. E : activation energy
731 of growth rate under ambient nutrient condition. Open dots or triangles: data not used
732 in the linear mixed effects models.

733 Fig. 4 Activation energy of the growth rate of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus*. The two
734 dashed lines represent the theoretical activation energy of autotrophic processes (0.32
735 eV, Allen et al. 2005) and heterotrophic processes (0.65 eV, Brown et al. 2004). The p
736 value and star means the significant levels between apparent activation energy (E) and
737 activation energy (E_a) (* : $p < 0.5$; ** : $p < 0.1$; *** : $p < 0.001$).

738 Fig. 5 The ratios of μ_n/μ_0 for *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* under different
739 experimental temperatures. The dashed line is the OLS regression on the temperature
740 and μ_n/μ_0 of *Synechococcus* (slope = 0.074 with p value of 0.015 (<0.05)).

741 Fig. 6 Effects of temperature, photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), and nitrate
742 concentration on the growth rates of *Synechococcus* and *Prochlorococcus* ($\ln \mu_0$ or

743 Relative $\ln \mu_0$ (difference of $\ln \mu_0$ from the mean)). Solid lines: the smoothing lines
744 estimated from GAMs with shaded areas representing 95% CI; blue dash lines: the
745 ordinary least squares (OLS) regression of growth rate and temperature; E_a : activation
746 energies estimated from GAMs including the effects of light and nutrient; E : apparent
747 activation energy estimated from OLS regression.