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Heme *b* quotas are low in Southern Ocean phytoplankton

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1. Abstract

Heme is the iron containing prosthetic group of hemoproteins, and is thus required for photosynthesis, respiration and nitrate reduction in marine phytoplankton. Here we report concentrations of heme *b* in Southern Ocean phytoplankton and contrast our findings with those in coastal species. The concentration of particulate heme *b* (pmol L⁻¹) observed at the end of the exponential growth phase was related to the concentration of dissolved iron in the culture media. Small Southern Ocean phytoplankton species (< 6 µm in diameter) had heme *b* quotas < 1 µmol mol⁻¹ carbon, the lowest yet reported for marine phytoplankton. Heme *b* was also depleted in these species with respect to chlorophyll *a*. We calculated the amount of carbon accumulated per mole of heme *b* per second in our cultures (heme growth efficiency, HGE) and found that small Southern Ocean species can maintain growth rates, even while heme *b* content is reduced. Small Southern Ocean phytoplankton can thus produce more particulate carbon than larger Southern Ocean or small coastal species at equivalent iron concentrations. Combining primary productivity and heme *b* concentrations reported for the open ocean, we found that HGE in natural populations was within the range of our laboratory culture results. HGE was also observed to be higher at open ocean stations characterized by low iron concentrations. Our results suggest that low heme *b* quotas do not necessarily result in reduced growth and that marine phytoplankton can optimize iron use by manipulating the intracellular hemoprotein pool.

2. Introduction

Iron is an essential nutrient for life but is present at very low concentrations, typically less than 200 pmol L⁻¹, in open ocean surface waters (De Baar & De Jong 2001). As a result of low ambient iron concentrations open ocean phytoplankton may have lower intracellular iron quotas than coastal species (Sunda et al. 1991, Sunda & Huntsman 1995, Strzepek et al. 2011), optimize their iron use via reduction of iron rich proteins (Strzepek & Harrison 2004), or exchange of iron containing proteins with non-iron containing alternatives (Erdner et al. 1999, Peers & Price 2006). Such changes appear to result in increased efficiency of growth in low iron environments (Raven 1988, 1990, Strzepek et al. 2011).

The major iron containing protein pools in phytoplankton are dominated by proteins involved in photosynthesis, nitrate reduction and respiration (Raven 1988, Strzepek & Harrison 2004). Hemoproteins are involved in electron transport and catalysis, and in the control, storage and transport of oxygen and other small molecules (Hogle et al. 2014). Hemes, the prosthetic groups of hemoproteins, contain one iron ion per molecule and many hemoproteins contain multiple hemes (Smith et al. 2010). Hemes are synthesized on the same biosynthetic pathway as chlorophyll and the molecules are related via their common tetrapyrrole ring structure (Tanaka & Tanaka 2007). Free heme is toxic (Espinass et al. 2012), so cellular heme concentrations are tightly regulated via complex feedback mechanisms that control tetrapyrrole synthesis (Tanaka & Tanaka 2007), and via heme oxygenase enzymes, which break down heme into biliverdins and iron (Shekhawat & Verma 2010). The heme iron reservoir could represent as much as 40 % of the total intracellular iron pool in marine phytoplankton (Raven 1988, Honey et al. 2013), in circumstances where iron storage is not significant.

Heme can also be a direct source of iron for marine bacteria, and there is evidence to suggest that marine bacteria utilize specific uptake pathways in order to directly access this source of iron (Hopkinson et al. 2008, Roe et al. 2013, Hogle et al. 2014). Hemoprotein concentrations are known to vary in response to iron availability, and intracellular iron concentrations have been shown to be a controlling factor for the biosynthesis of tetrapyrroles (Qi & O'Brian 2002). Diurnal cycling of hemoproteins in diazotrophic cyanobacteria (Saito et al. 2011), and increases in heme oxygenase in red algae (Richaud & Zabulon 1997) have been observed, suggesting that the heme-iron pool may represent a relatively mobile intracellular iron reservoir. Intracellular heme concentrations of marine phytoplankton growing in low iron environments might therefore be expected to be reduced, with potential impacts both on iron demand and heme requiring metabolic processes such as photosynthesis or nitrate reduction (Hogle et al. 2014).

Heme *b* (iron protoporphyrin IX) is perhaps the most versatile and ubiquitous heme, and is incorporated into hemoproteins such as the globins, cytochromes, catalase and oxidases. In phytoplankton, heme *b* makes up between 1 and 40% of the total cellular iron pool (Honey et al. 2013). However, no studies on heme abundance or regulation have so far been reported for species isolated from iron limited regions of the ocean, although Gledhill et al. (2013) have shown that concentrations of heme *b* in particulate material in the iron limited high latitude North Atlantic and in the Southern Ocean are depleted compared to more iron replete regions like the tropical North Atlantic. There is thus a need to examine the heme *b* quotas in phytoplankton species originating from low iron regions of the ocean in order to better understand how marine phytoplankton modify their heme *b* protein pool when growing at low iron concentrations.

The aim of our study was therefore to investigate heme *b* abundance in eukaryotic phytoplankton species isolated from the Southern Ocean, one of the lowest iron environments in

the ocean. We determined the concentrations of heme *b* accumulated in phytoplankton grown in Southern Ocean seawater at the end of the exponential growth phase. We compare heme *b* to iron concentrations in the cultures, to particulate organic carbon (POC) and to chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*). We utilized the concept of heme growth efficiency (HGE), which, in analogy to Raven (1988) and Strzepek et al. (2011), we defined as the moles of C fixed per mole of heme *b* per second. In this way we examined the overall impact of reduced heme content on carbon fixation in our phytoplankton cultures. We compared HGE calculated for our Southern Ocean phytoplankton with that calculated from heme *b* concentrations and primary productivity data for three sets of previously published field data from contrasting regions – the Celtic Sea (Hickman et al. 2012, Honey et al. 2013), the Scotia Sea (Korb et al. 2012, Gledhill et al. 2013) and the Iceland Basin (Poulton et al. 2010, Gledhill et al. 2013) to assess the relationship between low heme *b* and phytoplankton productivity in the ocean.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Phytoplankton growth conditions

Batch cultures of *Phaeocystis antarctica* (CCMP 1871, isolated from the Bellinghausen Sea), *Chaetoceros brevis* (CCMP 163, isolated from the Southern Ocean), *C. dicaeta* (NIOZ culture collection, isolated from the Southern Ocean) and *P. globosa* (NIOZ culture collection, isolated from the North Sea) were grown in triplicate in filtered Southern Ocean seawater (SOs, 0.2 µm, Sartobran, Sartorius) previously collected using trace metal clean sampling techniques from south of the Polar Front from a depth of 2-3 m using a “fish” towed from RV Polastern (Expedition 18/2, November 2000). Cultures were maintained in acid washed (1 mol L⁻¹ hydrochloric acid) and Milli-Q water rinsed, microwave sterilized polycarbonate bottles

105 (Kawachi & Noel 2005). Sample and culture manipulations were carried out in a class 100
106 laminar flow hood following trace metal clean protocols (Sunda et al. 2005). Southern Ocean
107 seawater was amended with the siderophore desferrioxamine (DFB, 5 nmol L⁻¹, Sigma) or FeCl₃
108 (5 nmol L⁻¹) to create three treatments SOs, SOs+DFB and SOs+Fe. *Phaeocystis globosa* and *C.*
109 *calcitrans* (CCMP 1315, isolated from Japanese coastal waters) were grown in enriched SOs,
110 which contained added ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA, 100 µmol L⁻¹), cobalt (50 nmol
111 L⁻¹), molybdenum (100 nmol L⁻¹), copper (20 nmol L⁻¹), manganese (115 nmol L⁻¹), zinc (80
112 nmol L⁻¹), selenium (10 nmol L⁻¹) and f/2 vitamins. Iron was added separately from a stock
113 solution of 45 µmol L⁻¹ FeEDTA to obtain final concentrations of 9, 15, 45 and 150 nmol L⁻¹. All
114 experiments were carried out using a 16:8 h light:dark cycle under cool white fluorescent lights
115 at 60 µmol quanta m⁻² s⁻¹. *Phaeocystis antarctica*, *C. brevis* and *C. dictyota* were grown at 4 °C,
116 *P. globosa* at 15 °C and *C. calcitrans* at 22 °C. Cultures were maintained in experimental media
117 for > 6 generations prior to experiments. For consistency, and to avoid issues arising from colony
118 formation in both *Phaeocystis* species, growth rates for all species were calculated from the slope
119 of the natural log (F₀, autofluorescence) obtained for dim-light adapted (15 min) cells using a
120 PAM fluorometer (Walz, Germany) plotted against time. Cell abundance was also monitored
121 daily for *C. brevis*, *C. calcitrans*, and *Phaeocystis* sp., by flow cytometry (Accuri C6, BD
122 Biosciences, results not presented). Cultures of *P. globosa*, *P. antarctica* and *C. dictyota* were
123 examined in 5 mL settling chambers by microscopy (Zeiss Axiovert 25 inverted microscope,
124 results not presented). The PAM fluorometer was used for daily determination of variable vs.
125 maximum fluorescence of photosystem II (F_v/F_m). The experiments were terminated and cells
126 harvested when both cell numbers and fluorescence measurements indicated the exponential
127 growth phase was ending.

3.2 Analysis of nutrients, dissolved iron and iron speciation in the culture media

Concentrations of the dissolved macro nutrients (nitrate + nitrite - termed nitrate for simplicity, phosphate and silicate) were determined on filtered (0.2 μm , 25 mm Acrodisc, Pall Corp) samples using a segmented flow autoanalyzer (Grasshoff et al. 1983; QuAAtro, SEAL Analytical). Samples for nitrate and phosphate were frozen (-20 °C) prior to analysis, while samples for silicate were kept at 4 °C. The detection limit was typically 0.1, 0.01 and 0.1 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ for nitrate, phosphate and silicate respectively. Total dissolved iron was determined by flow injection analysis with chemiluminescence detection on acidified, filtered (0.2 μm , Sartobran, Sartorius) samples according to the methods described in De Baar et al. (2008). Ligand concentrations and the associated conditional stability constants were determined on filtered samples (0.2 μm) by competitive equilibrium adsorptive cathodic stripping voltammetry (CE-AdCSV) using 2-(2-thiazolylazo)-*p*-cresol (TAC) as the competing ligand (Croot & Johansson 2000). Samples were frozen after collection and defrosted 24 h before analysis. Sample manipulation and data treatment were carried out as described elsewhere (Gerringa et al. 2014).

3.3 Analysis of phytoplankton

Samples for particulate organic carbon (POC), nitrogen (PON), chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) and heme *b* were collected on glass fiber filters (pore size 0.7 μm , Whatman). Filters for POC and PON were ashed prior to use (400 °C, 8 h). Filters were stored at -20 °C prior to drying (60 °C), and analysis with an elemental analyzer (Carlo Erba NA-1500) standardized using chitin. Chlorophyll *a* was determined by fluorescence against a standard chl *a* solution according to the method of Holm-Hansen et al. (1965).

Heme *b* concentrations were determined in phytoplankton after extraction into ammoniacal detergent (Gledhill 2007). In this study we used octyl β -glucopyranoside (OGP) as the detergent, to allow for determination of heme *b* by mass spectrometry (Gledhill 2014). Samples were stored frozen at -80°C prior to analysis. Heme *b* was quantified, after separation from other pigments by high performance liquid chromatography - visible spectrophotometry using a diode array detector (DAD) (Gledhill 2007), and by selectively monitoring the major reactant ion (SRM of $m/z = 557$) produced by collision induced dissociation of heme *b* ($m/z=616$) using an ion trap mass spectrometer (ESI-MS, LTQ-Velos, Thermo Scientific) operating in the positive ion mode (Gledhill 2014). Source conditions were optimized, and the instrument tuned using standard iron (III) protoporphyrin IX. Masses were calibrated using the automatic instrument calibration procedure and a standard mass calibration solution (Thermo Scientific). Good agreement was observed between the two detection methods ($[\text{heme}]_{\text{DAD}} = 1.06 \times [\text{heme}]_{\text{SRM}} + 3.6 \text{ pmol L}^{-1}$, $r^2=0.98$, $n=30$), with the intercept resulting in a potential difference of <0.3% to the heme concentration in *C. calcitrans* cultures. Concentrations derived from SRM are used in the study, except for *C. calcitrans*, when a problem with the mass spectrometer meant that concentrations were calculated using visible spectrophotometry.

Heme *b* growth efficiency was calculated for phytoplankton in culture. Heme growth efficiency is defined in analogy to iron use efficiency after Raven (1988), as the moles of carbon fixed per mole of heme *b* per second. In culture, POC represents a good approximation for phytoplankton carbon and HGE was calculated from the growth rate (s^{-1}) and the heme *b*: POC ratio according to the formula

$$HGE = \mu \times \left(\frac{\text{heme } b}{\text{POC}} \right)^{-1} \quad (1)$$

Apparent HGE in three areas of the ocean was also calculated by combining previously published heme *b* concentrations (Gledhill et al. 2013, Honey et al. 2013) with primary productivity data obtained on the same cruises (Table 3; Poulton et al. 2010, Hickman et al. 2012, Korb et al. 2012) according to the formula

$$apparent\ HGE = \frac{PP(mol\ C\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1})}{[heme\ b](mol\ m^{-2})} \quad (2)$$

For field data we add the term “apparent” as there are several uncertainties in both the determination of primary productivity and heme *b* due to approximations made in the calculations, methodological constraints and the complexity of community composition (Honey et al. 2013, Juranek & Quay 2013). Integrated heme *b* concentrations were recalculated to match the depths for the published integrated primary productivity data. Thus, for the Celtic Sea, heme *b* concentrations were integrated over the whole water column and compared to the median total water column primary productivity given in Table 2 from Hickman et al. (2012). In the Scotia Sea, our stations SSC4, SSP24 and SSP28 had mixed layer depths and integrated chl *a* characteristic of “MID”, “SW-SG” and “NW-SG” respectively and heme *b* was thus integrated to upper mixed layer depths given in Table 2 of Korb et al. (2012). In order to calculate HGE for the Iceland Basin, heme *b* was integrated to the mixed layer depth given in Table 1 of Poulton et al. (2010).

Statistical analysis of results was carried out in the software package Sigmaplot® v12.5 using analysis of variance, or non-parametric analysis of variance in cases of non-normal data distributions.

4. Results

4.1 Growth rates

Growth rates and F_v/F_m for the five species are presented in Figure 1. The Southern Ocean species had growth rates of up to 0.5 day^{-1} and F_v/F_m up to 0.5 in SOs or SOs+Fe, similar to values reported previously for Southern Ocean species growing near ambient iron concentrations (Timmermans et al. 2004, Hoffmann et al. 2008, Strzepek et al. 2011). In contrast, *Chaetoceros calcitrans* repeatedly failed to grow in SOs or SOs+Fe while *P. globosa* was able to grow in SOs+DFB, SOs and SOs+Fe, albeit with very low growth rates ($0.13\text{-}0.20 \text{ day}^{-1}$) and with significantly reduced F_v/F_m ($p < 0.01$). Consequently these two species were grown in enriched SOs, with added vitamins, EDTA and trace metals, when growth rates of $> 0.7 \text{ day}^{-1}$ and $F_v/F_m > 0.6$ were observed, values more typical for iron replete conditions. No attempt was made to grow the Southern Ocean species in enriched SOs.

4.2 Culture media nutrient and iron concentrations

Concentrations of nitrate, phosphate and silicate in the culture media at the beginning of the experiments were 27.4 ± 1.0 , 1.7 ± 0.1 and $64.9 \pm 0.7 \text{ } \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ respectively ($n=6$). None of the species grown in these experiments completely reduced the nitrate, phosphate or silicate inventories in SOs or SOs+DFB to levels below the detection limit (Table 1). Of the Southern Ocean species, *P. antarctica* consumed the most nitrate, with concentrations of nitrate depleted to levels below detection in SOs+Fe (Table 1). The amount of nitrate converted to PON in each bottle in experiments with no added iron, for experiments with *P. antarctica* was rather variable even though the total nitrogen (i.e. nitrate + PON) calculated for each bottle was close to the concentration of nitrate determined at the start of the experiment ($108 \pm 14 \%$ for SOs+DFB and

97 ± 7 % for SOs). For cultures of *P. globosa* and *C. calcitrans* grown in enriched SOs, dissolved nitrate was completely removed from the media, and particulate organic nitrogen concentrations were determined to be 95 ± 16 % (n=6) and 82 ± 0.04 % (n=7) of the starting nitrate concentrations, respectively.

Iron concentrations in SOs averaged 0.35 ± 0.17 nmol L⁻¹ (n = 5) for the experiments on *C. brevis* and *C. dictyota*, and 0.29 ± 0.01 nmol L⁻¹ (n = 3) for experiments on *Phaeocystis* sp. The natural ligand concentrations in SOs were very similar to the iron concentration (0.36 ± 0.03 nmol Eq Fe L⁻¹ (n=2)) and conditional stability constants ($\log K_{FeLi(Fe^{3+})}^{cond} = 22.4 \pm 0.01 \text{ mol}^{-1}$, at 20 °C) were typical for open ocean ligands (Gledhill & Buck 2012). Iron concentrations were not measured in enriched SOs treatments. Dissolved iron concentrations and speciation were also determined in SOs treatments at the end of experiments on *P. antarctica* (0.33 ± 0.21, n = 2), *C. dictyota* (0.2 ± 0.03, n = 3) and *P. globosa* (0.36 ± 0.31, n=3). Iron concentrations were thus not significantly reduced during the course of the experiments (t-test, $p < 0.05$). The observed increase in variability was likely indicative of small amounts of iron contamination occurring during the course of the experiment. Similarly, ligand concentrations and stability constants did not change so that the overall average for ligand concentrations at the time that cells were harvested was 0.24 ± 0.14 nmol Eq Fe L⁻¹ (n = 6) and the $\log K_{FeLi(Fe^{3+})}^{cond}$ was 22.8 ± 0.5, (n=6). A simple ion pairing model (van den Berg 1984) was used to estimate a concentration of approximately 4 pmol L⁻¹ inorganically complexed iron (Fe⁺) in SOs.

4.3 Heme b concentrations

We present here the heme *b* concentrations (i.e. pmoles heme *b* per liter culture media) at the end of the growth period, in order to relate them to the dissolved iron concentrations in a semi-

quantitative mass balance approach. The lowest particulate heme *b* concentrations were observed in cultures of *C. brevis* in SOs+DFB (Fig. 2). In these *C. brevis* cultures approximately 1.0 ± 0.5 % of the dissolved iron present at the beginning of the experiment was incorporated into heme *b*. Particulate heme *b* concentrations were higher in *C. dictyota* cultures when compared to the other Southern Ocean species. For *C. dictyota* cultured in SOs, heme *b* concentrations represented 14 ± 9 % of the total dissolved iron inventory at the start of the experiments. Heme *b* concentrations for *P. antarctica* and *P. globosa* were intermediate in value between *C. brevis* and *C. dictyota* and no significant differences were observed between SOs, SOs+DFB and SOs+Fe treatments ($p < 0.01$) for analysis of variance between treatments within species. Heme *b* concentrations observed in *C. calcitrans* and *P. globosa* cultured in enriched SOs were an order of magnitude higher than heme *b* concentrations observed in unenriched SOs (i.e. cultures grown without added trace metals, EDTA and vitamins), reaching a maximum of $2930 \pm 300 \text{ pmol L}^{-1}$ for *C. calcitrans* grown with 150 nmol L^{-1} iron (Fig. 2). At total iron concentrations of 15 nmol L^{-1} , *C. calcitrans* incorporated 8 ± 1 % of the total iron inventory into heme *b*.

4.4 Heme *b* quotas, heme *b*:chlorophyll *a* ratios and heme growth efficiency

In this study, heme *b* quotas ($\mu\text{mol heme } b \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ C}$) and heme *b*: chl *a* did not show significant variability between treatments within species (Fig. 3). However, significant differences in heme *b*:C were observed between species when all treatments were pooled ($p < 0.01$). Heme *b*:C for *C. brevis* and *P. antarctica* were thus significantly lower than heme *b*:C observed for *P. globosa* and *C. calcitrans*, and also lower than those reported previously for other species (Honey et al. 2013). Heme *b*: C reported for *P. antarctica* compare well (overall average $0.08 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) with Fe:C ratios of 2.0-2.7 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ previously reported for *P. antarctica* grown at similar iron concentrations (Strzepek et al. 2011) given that heme *b* has

been shown to make up between 1 and 40% of the total cellular iron pool in previous studies (Honey et al. 2013). Heme *b*:C and F_v/F_m were weakly correlated (Fig. 4; $r=0.55$, $p<0.01$, $n=46$), as particularly low F_v/F_m was observed for *P. globosa* grown in unenriched SOs treatments. Comparison of heme *b* with particulate organic nitrogen (Table 1) indicated that heme *b*:N ratios increased in treatments where nitrate was completely exhausted.

Heme *b* was also significantly reduced relative to chl *a* for both *P. antarctica* and *C. brevis* compared to *P. globosa* and *C. calcitrans* (Fig. 3B). Heme *b* was observed to be three orders of magnitude lower than chl *a* in these small Southern Ocean species, so that the relative abundances of heme *b* and chl *a* were similar to those observed in particulate material sampled in high latitude, iron deplete waters of the North Atlantic and Scotia Sea (Gledhill et al. 2013). Relative abundances of heme *b* and chl *a* in *C. dicaeta* were intermediate in value, while the relative abundances of heme *b* and chl *a* in *P. globosa* and *C. calcitrans* were similar to those reported previously for *Phaeodactylum tricornutum*, *Thalassiosira oceanica*, *T. weissflogii* and *Synechococcus* sp. (Honey et al. 2013). In this study, no significant trends in the relative abundance of heme *b* and chl *a* were observed with changing iron availability.

The impact of changes in heme *b* on growth was examined through calculation of the heme growth efficiency (HGE). Comparison within species indicated that a significantly lower HGE was observed for *C. brevis* and *P. globosa* when grown with low iron availability (Fig. 5). When treatments were pooled (omitting treatments with significantly lower HGE), the small Southern Ocean species *P. antarctica* and *C. brevis* were both observed to have significantly higher HGE than *C. calcitrans* and there was an overall trend of decreasing HGE in the order *P. antarctica* > *C. brevis* > *C. dicaeta* \approx *P. globosa* \approx *C. calcitrans*.

We calculated apparent HGE for the Celtic Sea, a coastal, iron replete region (Hickman et al. 2012, Honey et al. 2013), the Iceland Basin (Poulton et al. 2010, Gledhill et al. 2013), a high latitude, seasonally iron limited region (Nielsdottir et al. 2009), and the Scotia Sea (Korb et al. 2012, Nielsdottir et al. 2012), a productive region of the Southern Ocean. Data used in these calculations are presented in Table 2. Integrated heme *b* concentrations were recalculated to match depths for reported integrated primary productivity data (Table 2) and results are presented in Fig. 6. Apparent HGE for the Celtic Sea averaged 2 ± 1 mol C mol heme $b^{-1} s^{-1}$ ($n=4$), while HGE ranged from 1 to 4.2 mol C mol heme $b^{-1} s^{-1}$ ($n=3$) in the Scotia Sea and from 1.0 mol C mol heme $b^{-1} s^{-1}$ up to 27 mol C mol heme $b^{-1} s^{-1}$ ($n=10$) in the high latitude North Atlantic.

5. Discussion

We compared heme *b* concentrations in batch cultures of the Southern Ocean haptophyte *P. antarctica* and the diatoms *C. brevis* and *C. dicaeta* to that in the temperate coastal species *P. globosa* and *C. calcitrans*. We selected *P. globosa* and *C. calcitrans* because they are similar in size to *P. antarctica* and *C. brevis* (cell volumes approximately $100 \mu m^3$ for *Phaeocystis* sp., *C. brevis* and *C. calcitrans* as opposed to approximately $4000 \mu m^3$ for *C. dicaeta*), but they were isolated from coastal environments (North West Europe and Japan, respectively) and thus represented a contrast to the Southern Ocean species with respect to potential iron requirements. It was interesting to note that our coastal species grew very poorly or not at all in unenriched SOs. While the contrasting growth of our Southern Ocean and coastal species in SOs was in accordance with variations in iron requirements reported previously (Timmermans et al. 2005, Hoffmann et al. 2008, Lane et al. 2009, Strzepek et al. 2011), our experiments do not allow us to identify low iron concentrations as the sole cause for the low growth rates of the coastal species,

as multiple trace elements and vitamins were added to the enriched media. Nevertheless, particulate heme *b* concentrations in our experiments increased with iron concentration (Fig. 2) with up to one sixth of dissolved iron converted to heme *b* when iron concentrations were similar to those observed in the ocean. Interestingly, even for *C. calcitrans*, heme *b* concentrations were 8 ± 1 % of the total iron inventory in cultures containing 15 nM dissolved iron, suggesting that a large proportion of the total dissolved iron was utilized by this species at this iron concentration.

Closer examination of the different treatments suggests that there are interspecies differences with respect to the influence of the chemical speciation of iron on heme *b* concentrations. The strong iron chelator DFB reduced growth in *C. brevis* and prevented sustained growth for *C. dichæta*, but made little difference to the amount of heme *b* produced by *P. antarctica* and *P. globosa* in our experiments. These results agree with previous studies showing that iron in DFB is not universally unavailable to eukaryotic phytoplankton (Strzepek et al. 2011, Shaked & Lis 2012). Furthermore, in our experiments, addition of iron as FeCl₃ (SOs+Fe treatments) had only a slight impact on particulate heme *b* concentrations for all the species that grew in SOs+Fe (Fig. 2). This is likely a result of losses of the added iron to the bottle walls or as precipitates, as natural ligands were saturated or very close to saturation in SOs. The contrast between heme *b* concentrations observed with SOs+Fe when compared to experiments with enriched SOs highlights the importance of ligands as iron buffers, keeping iron in solution, and thus potentially available for uptake (Sunda et al. 2005, Gerringa et al. 2012, Thuróczy et al. 2012).

Macro nutrients were underexploited by all species grown in experiments in SOs or SOs+DFB. Enriching SOs with trace metals, a trace metal buffer (EDTA) and vitamins facilitated complete exploitation of macro nutrients in the culture media and coincided with order of magnitude increases in heme *b* concentration. We cannot say with certainty that this increase

in macronutrient utilization resulted from the relief of iron limitation alone as the enriched media involved addition of a suit of trace metals and vitamins in addition to iron. However, an increase in heme *b* could be directly linked to increased exploitation of nitrate in enriched SOs via an increased ability to undertake cytochrome *b*₅₅₇ dependent assimilatory nitrate reduction. Assimilatory nitrate reduction has previously been shown to be reduced in iron limited phytoplankton (Timmermans et al. 1994). Furthermore heme *b* in assimilatory eukaryotic nitrate reductase is likely to be labile for our extraction protocol (Gledhill et al. 2013, Honey et al. 2013) as the protein is structurally similar to sulfite oxidase (Hille 2013) in which heme *b* is relatively exposed. However, this potential link between heme *b* and nitrate reduction is undermined by results from experiments on *P. antarctica*, which removed all the available nitrate in SOs+Fe, without any observable increase in heme *b* concentrations.

Low iron quotas have previously been observed in Southern Ocean phytoplankton (Hassler & Schoemann 2009, Strzepek et al. 2011). However, the abundance of the intracellular content of more specific iron pools has not previously been widely investigated. Here, we show that small Southern Ocean species also have low heme *b* quotas (Fig. 3). Furthermore, while heme *b* was reduced relative to POC in *P. antarctica* and *C. brevis*, chl *a*:C ratios were not reduced so that the relative abundances of heme *b* and chl *a* were similar to those observed in low iron regions of the Scotia Sea and Iceland Basin (Gledhill et al. 2013). Low heme *b* relative to chl *a* had not been observed in the diatom species examined previously (Honey et al. 2013), but in this study *C. brevis*, a Southern Ocean diatom tolerant to low iron concentrations, also had low heme *b* relative to chlorophyll *a*. This study thus supports previous work that has linked decreases in the abundance of heme *b* relative to chl *a* in the ocean (Honey et al. 2013, Gledhill 2014) to low nutrient availability and the consequent changes in species composition.

Heme *b* is required to fix carbon in eukaryotes as it is a component of the photosystem protein complexes cytochrome b_6f and photosystem II. Previous work has shown a correlation between heme *b* quota and F_v/F_m , the quantum yield of photosystem II (Honey et al. 2013). The weaker correlation observed in this study was highly influenced by the results obtained when *P. globosa* was grown in unenriched SOs. It is possible that *P. globosa* in unenriched SOs was not truly acclimated to the conditions and that this was then reflected in the comparison between F_v/F_m and the heme *b* quota. Nevertheless, the observed trend between F_v/F_m and heme *b* quota does suggest that, in the majority of treatments, there could be a link between a lower quantum yield of PSII and heme *b* quota, and that lower heme *b* may thus impact on growth. In this study, we examined the relationship between growth and heme *b* quotas through calculation of HGE (equation 1). Decreasing HGE suggests that low heme *b* quotas have a direct impact on growth, while higher HGE indicates that the heme *b* quota can be optimized. Reduced HGE was observed at low iron concentrations for *C. brevis* and *P. globosa*, suggesting that decreased heme *b* did result in a growth cost. However, growth rates for *P. antarctica* and *C. brevis* in SOs and SOs+Fe were relatively high (Fig. 1) despite the low intracellular heme *b* concentrations, leading to high HGE (Fig. 5) and suggesting that optimization of heme *b* quota may be a mechanism by which a species can reduce its iron use whilst maintaining growth at low iron concentrations.

Results for HGE could be influenced by the nature of the extraction protocol used for heme *b* determination. Both protein structure and intracellular localization may impact on heme *b* extraction efficiency. The extraction protocol used in this study has been shown to be biased towards heme *b* molecules that are relatively accessible to attack by solvents (Gledhill et al. 2013, Honey et al. 2013). Examination of crystal structures suggests heme *b* in the photosystem cytochromes b_6 and b_{559} is at least moderately extractable with our protocol (Stroebel et al. 2003,

Muh et al. 2008). Furthermore, the heme *b* in cytochrome b_{559} has been shown to be labile in detergent solution at high pH (Weber et al. 2011). Although we cannot state with confidence which hemoprotein pool is impacted by reductions in heme *b*, our observed variations in HGE indicate that reduced heme *b* does not necessarily result in reduced growth and that individual phytoplankton species are likely to optimize iron use by manipulating the intracellular hemoprotein pool.

It was notable that in our study *P. antarctica* showed a remarkable ability to both fix carbon and utilize nitrate, despite low intracellular heme *b* concentrations. Our results suggest that species such as *P. antarctica* can produce approximately ten times more particulate carbon than, for example, *P. globosa*, given the same iron and nitrogen resource. Heme *b* makes up an important fraction of the total cellular iron pool. Our work is consistent with previous studies (Strzepek et al. 2011) that have also shown an increase in iron use efficiency in small Southern Ocean species such as *P. antarctica*, even though our experiments did not incorporate such a long adaptation time as Strzepek et al. (2011), and our species may not have been fully acclimated to the low iron treatments. Our work thus suggests that a low heme *b* quota and the ability to exploit a wide variety of iron sources likely contribute to the mechanisms by which *P. antarctica* can efficiently exploit iron inputs (Marsay et al. 2014) in areas such as the Ross Sea, where this species can form large blooms, resulting in the drawdown of CO_2 (Tagliabue & Arrigo 2005).

In field samples, heme *b* in non photosynthesizing plankton could potentially act to decrease apparent HGE, and differences in methodologies used to determine primary productivity could also bias our results (Halsey et al. 2010). However, despite these potential offsets, our calculated apparent HGE obtained from heme *b* concentrations and primary productivity determined for coastal (Celtic Sea) and open ocean (High Latitude North Atlantic –HLNA- and Scotia Sea)

regions were within the range calculated in our phytoplankton cultures. In the Scotia Sea, HGE was not as high as that observed for *P. antarctica* as the Scotia Sea tends to be dominated by diatoms or dinoflagellates (Korb et al. 2010, Korb et al. 2012). The highest HGE was thus observed in the HLNA at stations characterized by iron concentrations $<0.05 \text{ nmol L}^{-1}$, i.e. stations IB285 and IB260 (Gledhill et al. 2013). Thus the lower levels of heme *b* that have been observed in low iron open ocean environments (using this extraction technique) do not necessarily imply low growth or productivity. In fact, increased HGE is necessary in areas with low heme *b* relative to chl *a*, in order to comply with observed correlations between productivity and chlorophyll *a* (e.g. Poulton et al. 2010).

In this study we have shown that small, Southern Ocean phytoplankton had low heme *b* quotas. Species with low heme *b* quotas did not necessarily exhibit low growth rates, suggesting that heme *b* quotas were optimized, possibly in order to reduce overall iron requirements. We furthermore compared previously published field data with primary productivity and also found that low heme *b* relative to chlorophyll *a* was not necessarily associated with decreased productivity. Our results suggest considerable variability with respect to heme *b* quotas amongst marine phytoplankton in culture, and that this variability may also be observed in the field. Heme *b* quotas could change as a result of optimization of biological iron pools and also be influenced by methodological constraints imposed by the extraction protocol. Irrespective of the cause, the finding that a particular iron pool is reduced in phytoplankton growing at low iron concentrations, both in the laboratory and in the field, and that the reduction in this important iron pool does not impact proportionately on carbon accumulation, sheds further light on how marine phytoplankton can adapt to low iron, open ocean environments.

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Table 1. Concentrations of nitrate, phosphate, silicate, particulate organic carbon (POC), particulate organic nitrogen (PON), chlorophyll *a* (chl *a*) and particulate heme *b* observed in cultures of Southern Ocean (*Phaeocystis antarctica*, *Chaetoceros brevis* and *Chaetoceros dicaeta*) and temperate coastal (*P. globosa* and *C. calcitrans*) phytoplankton species at the end of the experiments. For *P. antarctica* data for nitrate, phosphate, POC and PON are presented individually (n=1), because of high variability between experimental triplicates. Chlorophyll *a* and heme *b* concentrations and all data for other species are given as the mean \pm SD for experimental triplicates. <d.l.: less than the detection limit; n.d.: not determined.

	Nitrate ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	Phosphate ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	Silicate ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	POC ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	PON ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	Chl <i>a</i> (nmol L^{-1})	Heme <i>b</i> (pmol L^{-1})
<i>Phaeocystis antarctica</i>							
	15.3	0.91	n.d.	69	10		
SOs	<d.l.	0.17	n.d.	190	25	12 \pm 5	8.2 \pm 0.5
	5.9	0.40	n.d.	119	22		
	10.9	0.46	n.d.	92	15		
SOs+DFB	1.4	0.05	n.d.	140	32	12 \pm 5	10 \pm 3
	15.0	0.92	n.d.	70	13		
	0.4	<d.l.	n.d.	284	22		
SOs+Fe	<d.l.	<d.l.	n.d.	114	19	16 \pm 5	11 \pm 6
	<d.l.	0.10	n.d.	127	18		
<i>Chaetoceros brevis</i>							
SOs	21.7 \pm 1.9	1.35 \pm 0.05	63.7 \pm 0.8	35 \pm 7	3.7 \pm 0.8	6.6 \pm 2.7	7.7 \pm 3.0
SOs+DFB	25.5 \pm 0.2	1.58 \pm 0.14	65.5 \pm 0.5	6.2 \pm 1.1	1.1 \pm 0.3	1.1 \pm 0.4	2.4 \pm 0.5
SOs+Fe	16.5 \pm 3.4	1.00 \pm 0.11	58.2 \pm 4.4	36 \pm 4	5.9 \pm 1.0	13 \pm 2	13 \pm 3
<i>Chaetoceros dicaeta</i>							
SOs	12.3 \pm 4.2	0.70 \pm 0.27	38.0 \pm 8.9	52 \pm 13	7.3 \pm 1.5	6.9 \pm 1.6	49 \pm 30
SOs+Fe	15.6 \pm 1.9	0.75 \pm 0.14	43.4 \pm 2.3	48 \pm 12	7.3 \pm 2.1	11 \pm 1	47 \pm 6
<i>Phaeocystis globosa</i>							

SOs	24.6±1.0	1.61±0.05	n.d.	16±4	2.6±0.3	1.8±0.6	24±4
SOs+DFB	24.8±0.5	1.64±0.02	n.d.	14±3	1.6±0.1	1.4±0.2	16±1
SOs+Fe	22.0±2.8	1.44±0.16	n.d.	16±4	2.5±0.6	1.8±0.5	35±8
enrichedSOs (9 nM)	<d.l.	<d.l.	n.d.	457±50	29±4	49±3	528±26
enrichedSOs (45 nM)	<d.l.	<d.l.	n.d.	482±11	22.3±1.9	56±4	800±200

Chaetoceros calcitrans

enrichedSOs (15 nM)	<d.l.	<d.l.	51.1±0.4	540 ¹ (n=1)	20 ¹ (n=1)	61±7	1170±80
enrichedSOs (45 nM)	<d.l.	<d.l.	50.5±0.1	560±34	19±1	63±3	1430±80
enrichedSOs (150 nM)	<d.l.	<d.l.	50.9±2.9	480±140	21±1	76±9	2000±200

¹Two samples lost during analysis

Table 2. Integrated primary productivity, heme *b* and heme growth efficiency (HGE) calculated from previously published field data.

Station	Integrated primary productivity (mmol C m ⁻² day ⁻¹)	Integrated heme <i>b</i> (nmol m ⁻²)	HGE (mol C (mol heme <i>b</i>) ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)
<i>Celtic Sea</i> ¹			
B21	201	174	1.1
B22	369	217	1.6
OB1	251	276	0.9
U2	273	103	2.6
<i>Scotia Sea</i> ²			
SSC4	17	270	0.6
SSP28	29	114	2.6
SSP3	233	579	4.2
<i>Iceland Basin</i> ³			
IB204	17	70	2.8
IB209	11	115	1.1
IB212	23	81	3.2
IB222	10	31	3.7
IB226	41	44	11
IB243	49	76	7.4
IB260	41	19	25
IB274	28	27	12
IB285	65	28	27
IB286	41	59	7.9

1. Median integrated primary productivity data for the whole water column were obtained from Hickman et al. (2012). Integrated heme *b* was calculated from Honey et al. (2013).

2. Primary productivity data was obtained from Korb et al. (2012). We used values for “MID”, “SW-SG” and “NW-SG” as these regions had integrated chl *a* values that closely corresponded with values we calculated for integrated chl *a* at stations SSC4, SSP28 and SSP3 respectively. We adjusted our values for integrated heme *b* using the upper mixed layer depth given in Korb et al. (2012).
3. Primary productivity data was obtained from Poulton et al. (2010). Integrated heme *b* from data in Gledhill et al. (2013) was recalculated for depths given in Poulton et al. (2010).

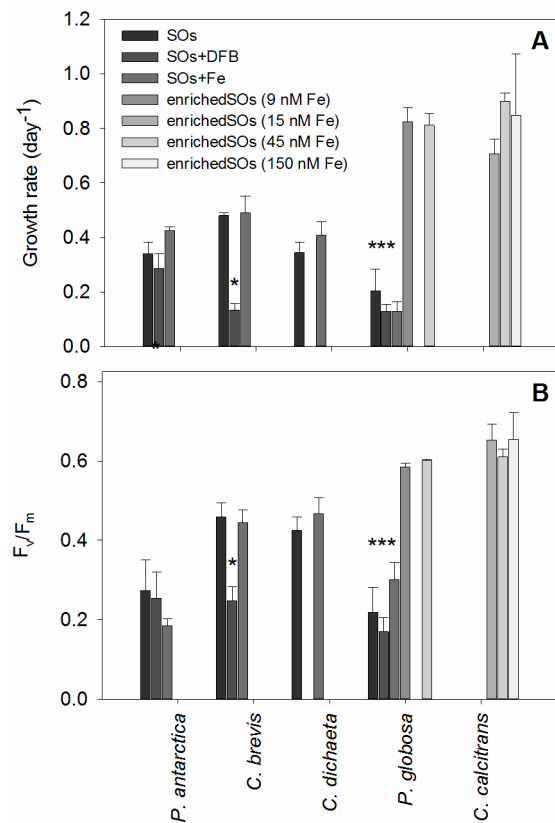


Figure 1. (A) Growth rates (day⁻¹) and (B) F_v/F_m for the Southern Ocean and coastal phytoplankton grown in Southern Ocean seawater (SOs) with added desferrioxamine (DFB), Fe, and trace metals plus ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) (enriched SOs). Southern Ocean species (*Phaeocystis antarctica*, *Chaetoceros calcitrans* and *C. dicheata*) were not grown in enrichedSOs. Growth in SOs+DFB could not be maintained for *Chaetoceros dicheata*. Values are means ± SD. Significant differences (One way ANOVA on Ranks, $p < 0.01$) between treatments within species are denoted by *.

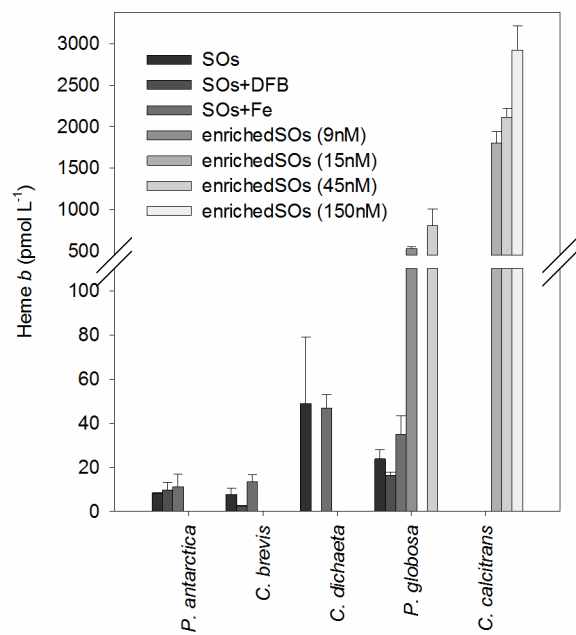


Fig. 2. Heme *b* concentrations (pmol L⁻¹) observed at the end of the exponential phase in Southern Ocean and coastal phytoplankton grown in Southern Ocean seawater treatments. Values are means \pm SD.

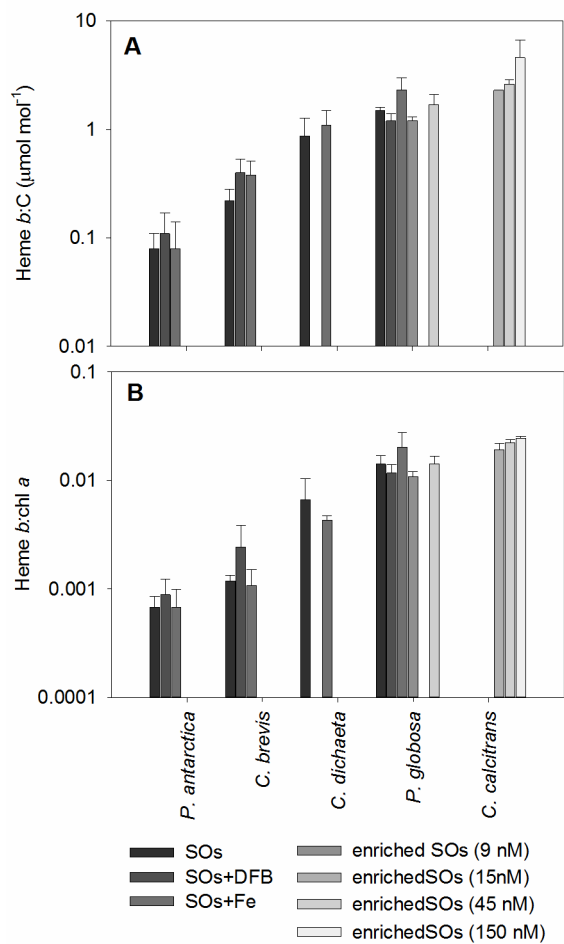


Figure 3. Intracellular heme *b* concentrations expressed relative to (A) carbon ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) in Southern Ocean and coastal phytoplankton species and (B) chlorophyll *a* (expressed as the molar ratio) in Southern Ocean and coastal phytoplankton species. Values are means \pm SD. Note log scale on y axis.

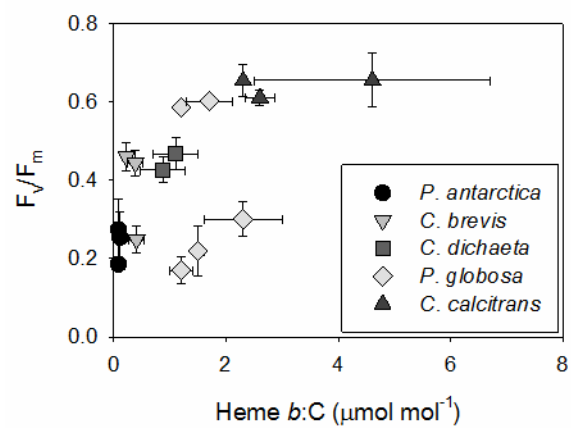


Figure 4. Relationship between heme *b*:C (μmol mol⁻¹) and F_v/F_m in Southern Ocean and coastal phytoplankton species in this study.

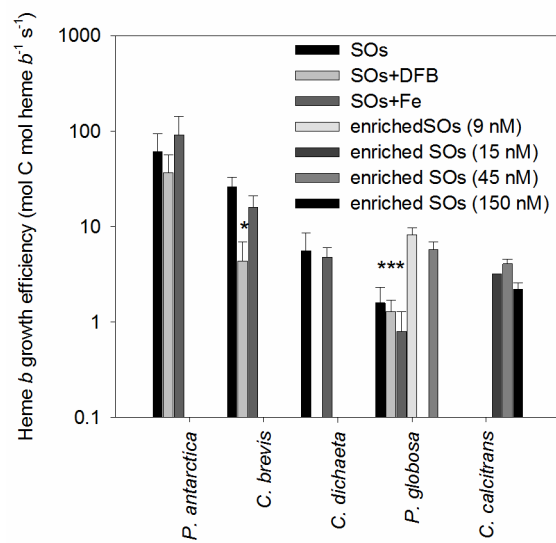


Figure 5. Heme growth efficiency (HGE, $\text{mol C mol heme b}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$), determined for Southern Ocean and coastal species in our experiments. Values are means \pm SD. Significant differences between treatments within species are denoted by * (One way ANOVA on Ranks, $p < 0.01$). Note log scale on y axis.

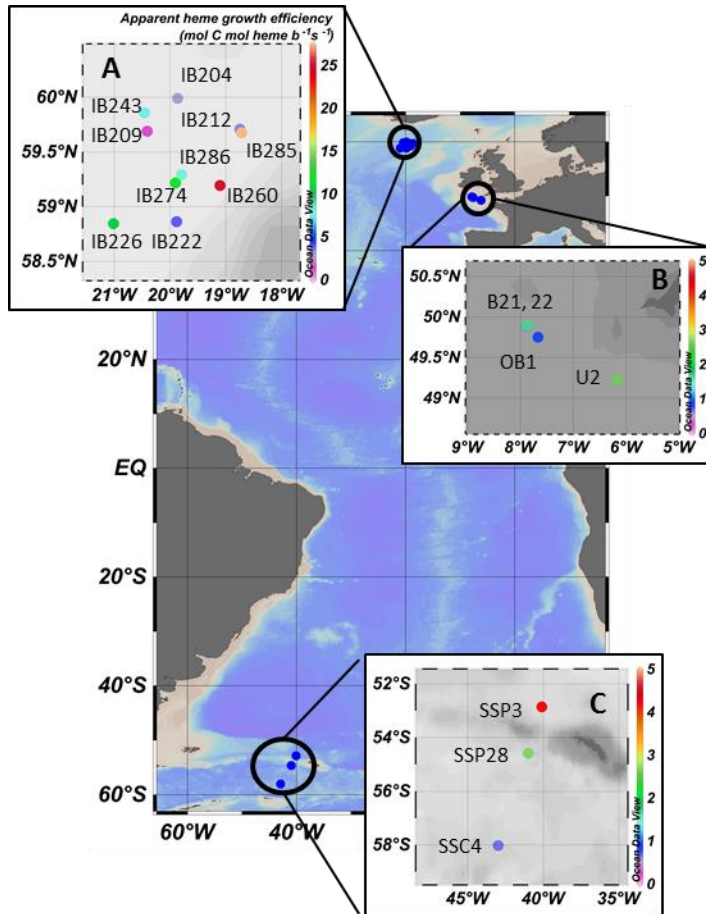


Figure 6. Heme growth efficiency (HGE, $\text{mol C mol heme b}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) in (A) the Iceland Basin, (B) the Celtic Sea and (C) the Scotia Sea. HGE was determined for integrated mixed layer depths (Scotia Sea, Iceland Basin) or whole water column depths (Celtic Sea) from previously published productivity data (Poulton et al. 2010, Hickman et al. 2012, Korb et al. 2012) and heme *b* concentrations (Gledhill et al. 2013, Honey et al. 2013). Note scale change for Iceland Basin. Color bar denotes HGE for all inset figures. Background colors represent bathymetry (light grey: 250-2000 m; dark grey: < 250 m)