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1 Combined effect of high light and high salinity on the regulation of photosynthesis in three  
2 diatom species belonging to the main growth forms of intertidal flat inhabiting  
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4

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**22 Abstract**

23 The strong biological production of estuarine intertidal flats is mainly supported by benthic  
24 diatoms in temperate areas. Their photosynthetic productivity is largely driven by changes in  
25 light intensity and temperature at the surface of sediment flats during emersion. The impact of  
26 an increase in salinity of the upper-layer sediment pore-water during emersion, which is often  
27 coupled with high light (HL), has been less studied. Furthermore, benthic diatoms show  
28 several growth forms which inhabit specific sediment types where the pore-water salinity can  
29 differentially vary due to the degree of cohesion of sediment grains. So far, no study explored  
30 if the main growth forms of benthic diatoms (i.e. epipelon, epipsammon and tychoplankton)  
31 show different photophysiological response to a combine high salinity-HL stress. Based on  
32 field monitoring, we compared the photophysiology (photosynthetic efficiency and  
33 photoprotection) of three representatives of the main growth forms during a short high salinity  
34 coupled with a moderate HL stress and stable optimal temperature, i.e. experimental conditions  
35 reproducing Spring environmental conditions in intertidal flats by the Atlantic French coast.  
36 Our results show that all growth forms reacted to HL exposure alone, as expected. While the  
37 epipelon representative was relatively insensitive to high salinity alone and combined with HL,  
38 the tychoplankton representative was highly sensitive to both, and the epipsammon  
39 representative was sensitive mainly to the stress combination. These specific responses fitted  
40 well with i) their natural habitat (i.e. more or less cohesive sediment) for which light climate  
41 and changes in salinity are different, ii) their growth form (i.e. motile, immotile or amphibious)  
42 which determines their probability to be confronted to a combined high salinity-HL stress.  
43 Hence, the negative effect of high salinity on photosynthetic efficiency of benthic diatoms

44 appears to be mostly restricted to epipsammon and tychoplankton, and in field conditions, its  
45 effect probably remains negligible compared to HL stress.

46

47 **Keywords:** diatom / intertidal flat / microphytobenthos / photoprotection / photosynthesis /  
48 salinity.

49

50 **List of abbreviations:** Chl *a*, chlorophyll *a*; DD, diadinoxanthin; DES, de-epoxidation state of  
51 diadinoxanthin to diatoxanthin; DT, diatoxanthin; E, light intensity; ETR, electron transport  
52 rate; HL, high light; LL, low light; MPB, microphytobenthos; NPQ, non-photochemical  
53 quenching of chlorophyll fluorescence; PSII, photosystem II; RLC, rapid light curve; XC,  
54 xanthophyll cycle

55

56

57 *1. Introduction*

58 Estuarine intertidal flats belong to the most productive ecosystems on Earth (MacIntyre et al.,  
59 1996; Underwood and Kromkamp, 1999) and they have a central role in structuring the food-  
60 web of coastal areas (Kromkamp and Forster, 2006). A large part of the strong productivity of  
61 intertidal flats is due to the microphytobenthos (MPB) (Admiraal, 1984; MacIntyre et al.,  
62 1996; Underwood and Kromkamp, 1999) which in temperate seas is mainly dominated by  
63 benthic diatoms (Méléder et al., 2007; Ribeiro et al., 2013). Benthic and planktonic diatoms  
64 are essential primary producers which contribute to about 40% of the marine primary  
65 production; they also play a major role in the silica and nitrogen biogeochemical cycles  
66 (Armbrust, 2009). The MPB diatoms constitute the bulk of the diatom diversity (Kooistra et  
67 al., 2007). They can be divided in three main growth forms which mainly differ in their life in  
68 the sediment (Kooistra et al., 2007; Ribeiro et al., 2013): i) the epipelon comprises motile  
69 species free-living in between sediment particles (Herlory et al., 2004), ii) the epipsammon  
70 which lives attached to sediment particles, and iii) the tychoplankton which presumably have  
71 an amphibious life style (i.e. both sediment and water column) (e.g. Sabbe et al., 2010).  
72 Epipelon and epipsammon growth forms show distinct distribution among intertidal habitats  
73 characterised by different types of sediment (Sabbe, 1993; Méléder et al., 2007; Ribeiro et al.,  
74 2013). Epipelon dominates cohesive muddy sediments (> 90% of MPB; Haubois et al., 2005),  
75 while epipsammon dominates less cohesive sandy sediments (> 95% of MPB; Méléder et al.,  
76 2007). Because of different habitats, epipelon and epipsammon have evolved different ways of  
77 coping with their intertidal environment. Epipelon displays vertical ‘migration’ following  
78 endogenous tidal/dial rhythms and environmental stimuli (Saburova and Polikarpov, 2003;  
79 Consalvey et al., 2004; Coelho et al., 2011): typically, during daylight emersion, epipellic

80 diatoms move to the sediment surface and form a dense biofilm, while before immersion they  
81 migrate downward. Epipsammon lives more or less firmly attached (stalked or adnate forms)  
82 to individual sand grain including some species able to exert micro-movements within the  
83 sphere of grains. Tychoplankton (which is sometimes considered as resuspended epipelton  
84 and/or epipsammon during immersion; MacIntyre et al., 1996) can live either as part of MPB  
85 or of phytoplankton, depending on the hydrodynamics (Koh et al., 2006); it can contribute to  
86 up to one third of phytoplankton (Guarini et al., 2004; Brito et al., 2012).

87 Environmental cues can rapidly vary to an extreme in intertidal flats (Admiraal, 1984; Paterson  
88 and Hagerthey, 2001) and impair the photosynthetic productivity of MPB diatoms (i.e.  
89 photoinhibition) (Blanchard et al., 2004; Serôdio et al., 2008). In order to prevent such  
90 situation, benthic diatoms have evolved diverse responses that can be distinguished in two  
91 main types: behaviour and physiology. Only epipelton can escape from a combination of  
92 sometimes harsh environmental conditions at the sediment surface by ‘migrating’ downward to  
93 the most optimal conditions (i.e. the so-called ‘behavioural photoprotection’; (Admiraal, 1984;  
94 Kromkamp et al., 1998; Consalvey et al., 2004; Serôdio et al., 2006), especially as regards to  
95 salinity (Sauer et al., 2002). In contrast, all growth forms use physiological processes for the  
96 fast regulation of photochemistry (i.e. ‘physiological photoprotection’; (Lavaud, 2007; Goss  
97 and Jakob, 2010; Depauw et al., 2012; Lepetit et al., 2012). In diatoms, two physiological  
98 processes are important in field situation (Brunet and Lavaud, 2010; Lavaud and Goss, 2014):  
99 i) the non-photochemical quenching of chlorophyll (Chl) fluorescence (NPQ) (Depauw et al.,  
100 2012; Lepetit et al., 2012; Lavaud and Goss, 2014), and ii) the partly related light-dependent  
101 conversion of diadinoxanthin (DD) to diatoxanthin (DT) by the DD de-epoxidase (i.e. the  
102 ‘xanthophyll cycle’, XC) (Brunet and Lavaud, 2010; Goss and Jakob, 2010). In benthic

103 diatoms, NPQ and XC have been scarcely studied *in situ*: it varies with the diurnal and tidal  
104 cycles, season, latitude (Serôdio et al., 2005; van Leeuwe et al., 2009; Chevalier et al., 2010;  
105 Serôdio et al., 2012), and with the position of diatom cells within the sediment and along the  
106 intertidal elevation gradient (Jesus et al., 2009; Cartaxana et al., 2011). The respective  
107 importance of behavioural and physiological responses in epipelon has received a major  
108 interest (Mouget et al., 2008; van Leeuwe et al., 2009; Perkins et al., 2010b; Cartaxana et al.,  
109 2011; Serôdio et al., 2012). These studies have shown that although motility is essential for an  
110 optimal response to the changes in environmental conditions, NPQ and XC remain important  
111 features, and even compensate for migration under conditions where motility is limited, to  
112 finely tune photosynthetic efficiency. Also, a recent analysis of NPQ and XC abilities among  
113 the growth forms of MPB diatoms has revealed a clear relationship between growth form and  
114 capacity for physiological photoprotection (Barnett et al., 2014), i.e. while epipsammon shows  
115 the highest NPQ and XC capacity, epipelon and tychoplankton shows the lowest ones,  
116 reflecting their respective motility and adaptation to a low light (LL) environment (i.e.  
117 tychoplankton is either buried in sediment or resuspended in a turbid water column; Roncarati  
118 et al., 2008).

119 Changes in light intensity and temperature are often considered as the two major forcings of  
120 the photosynthetic productivity of MPB diatoms (Guarini et al., 2006). Surprisingly, changes  
121 in salinity have been less studied in benthic diatoms, while in planktonic diatoms it is known to  
122 induce modification of community species diversity (Thessen et al., 2005; Dijkman and  
123 Kromkamp, 2006; Muylaert et al., 2009; Petrou et al., 2011), and of growth and photosynthesis  
124 (Thessen et al., 2005; Dijkman and Kromkamp, 2006; Petrou et al., 2011). Salinity often co-  
125 varies with other environmental gradients like light and temperature in the case of high

126 salinities (due to pore-water evaporation in the upper-layer of the sediment) and with nutrient  
127 concentrations in the case of low salinities (due to the discharge of estuarine rivers) (Admiraal  
128 and Peletier, 1980; Underwood and Provot, 2000; Thornton et al., 2002). Although early works  
129 stated that MPB diatoms are highly tolerant to a wide range of salinity changes (Williams,  
130 1964; Admiraal, 1977; Admiraal and Peletier, 1980), further studies have shown that salinity  
131 changes, often combined with high light (HL), impairs the growth from a salinity of 40 and  
132 above (Natana Murugaraj and Jeyachandran, 2007; Scholz and Liebezeit, 2012), it reduces the  
133 photosynthetic performance (Roncarati et al., 2008; Le Rouzic, 2012) via (photo-)oxidative  
134 stress (Rijstenbil, 2003, 2005; Roncarati et al., 2008), and it can modify the motility of epipelagic  
135 diatoms in the sediment (Sauer et al., 2002) via changes in the excretion of  
136 exopolysaccharides (Apoya-Horton et al., 2006). Furthermore, although the different growth  
137 forms of MPB diatoms pertain to habitats in which the salinity can differentially vary due to  
138 the degree of cohesion of sediment (Paterson and Hagerthey, 2001), to our knowledge, no  
139 study explored if they show different photophysiological response to a combined high salinity-  
140 HL stress and if it correlates to their habitat-associated growth form. The objectives of the  
141 present study were therefore to determine i) if a higher salinity can increase the negative effect  
142 of HL on the photosynthetic efficiency, ii) if three representatives belonging to each of the  
143 growth forms of MPB diatoms react differently to a combined high salinity-HL stress.

144

## 145 *2. Materials and methods*

### 146 *2.1. Sediment grain size, pore-water salinity, temperature and MPB biomass of sediment*

147 Parameters were measured at different seasons and for two sites of the Atlantic French coast:  
148 the bay of Brouage and the bay of Bourgneuf; see Haubois et al. (2005) and Méléder et al.



149 (2007) for a respective characterization of the two sampling sites (see Table 1 and Figure 1 for  
150 all details). Sediment grain size was determined with a laser granulometer (Mastersizer 2000,  
151 Malvern Instruments, UK) as previously described (Mélédér et al., 2007). The mud fraction  
152 (grain size < 63 µm) of each sample was determined using the software Gradistat (Blott and  
153 Pye, 2001). Sediment samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 3500 g and salinity was  
154 measured on the supernatant with a sensor TetraCon325 (WTW, Weilhem, Germany). The  
155 temperature at the sediment surface was measured every 30 s with a universal data logger  
156 (ULM-500, Walz Effeltrich Germany) equipped with a plane temperature sensor (accessory of  
157 the ULM-500). The sediment content of chlorophyll *a* (µg Chl *a*. g dry sediment<sup>-1</sup>) was used as  
158 a proxy for MPB biomass. Chl *a* was extracted and measured as previously described (Herlory  
159 et al., 2004): spectrofluorimetric measurement (Turner TD-700 fluorometer) was performed on  
160 supernatant of sediment samples after lyophilisation, extraction (90% acetone, 12 h, 4°C, in the  
161 dark, continuous shaking) and centrifugation 10 min at 4000 g.

162

## 163 2.2. Diatom culture conditions

164 Three species belonging to the three main growth forms of MPB diatoms were used: 1)  
165 Epipelon, *Navicula phyllepta* (Culture Collection Yerseke-The Netherlands CCY9804,  
166 isolated in the Westerschelde estuary, North sea, The Netherlands); 2) Epipsammon, *Biremis*  
167 *lucens* (Nantes Culture Collection-France NCC360, isolated in the bay of Bourgneuf,  
168 Atlantic,France; 3) Tychoplankton, *Plagiogrammopsis vanheurckii* (NCC186-2, isolated in the  
169 bay of Bourgneuf). Cultures were grown in batch sterile artificial seawater F/2 medium  
170 completed with Tropic Marin artificial sea salt (Dr. Biener GmbH, Germany) at a salinity of  
171 33, and enriched with NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (80 mg L<sup>-1</sup> final concentration). Temperature was 20°C and

172 light was  $60 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  (white fluorescent tubes L58W/840, OSRAM, Germany)  
173 with a 16 h:8 h light:dark photoperiod. When cultures reached exponential phase, cells were  
174 harvested by gentle centrifugation (5 min, 4000 g), resuspended to a concentration of  $6 \pm 1 \text{ mg}$   
175  $\text{Chl } a \text{ mL}^{-1}$ . For this purpose, Chl *a* concentration was determined according to the Jeffrey and  
176 Humphrey (1975) spectrophotometric method. Diatom suspensions were continuously stirred  
177 under the growth conditions for at least 1 h before the high light (HL) and salinity treatments.

178

### 179 *2.3. High light (HL) and salinity treatments*

180 Diatom cells were exposed for 1 h to a range of increasing salinities (33, 37, 41 and 45) under  
181 the growth light intensity and under HL intensity (10x the growth light intensity,  $600 \mu\text{mol}$   
182  $\text{photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) at  $20^\circ\text{C}$ . During each treatment, cells were stirred to prevent settling. Each  
183 condition was measured in triplicate. The temperature, light and salinity values/ranges were  
184 chosen according to the *in situ* measurements (see Table 1 and Figure 1) in order to reproduce  
185 the environment experienced by MPB diatoms in Spring (see the Results section, paragraph  
186 3.1). Increased salinity was obtained by implementing the sterile artificial seawater F/2  
187 medium with increasing amounts of Tropic Marin artificial sea salt (Dr. Biener GmbH,  
188 Germany). HL was provided by white fluorescent tubes (FQ 54W/865 LO, OSRAM,  
189 Germany).

190

### 191 *2.4. Pigment analyses*

192 At the end of each salinity and light treatments, 1 mL of diatom suspension was filtered on a  
193 membrane filter (Membrane Isopore Polycarbonate  $1.2\text{-}\mu\text{m}$  RTTP filter, 25 mm diameter,  
194 Merck Millipore, Ireland), quickly frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at  $-80^\circ\text{C}$  until further

195 analysis. Pigment extraction and determination of pigment content were performed as  
196 previously described (Barnett et al., 2014). Chl *a*.cell<sup>-1</sup> was calculated by counting the number  
197 of cells microscopically with a Malassez's counting chamber. The de-epoxidation state (DES  
198 in %) was calculated as  $DES = [(DT / DD + DT) \times 100]$ , where DD is the diadinoxanthin, the  
199 epoxidized form, and DT is the diatoxanthin, the de-epoxidized form.

200

### 201 *2.5. Chl fluorescence yield and rapid light curves (RLCs)*

202 For a complete overview of the definition, measurement and calculation of the fluorescence  
203 levels and of the photophysiological parameters, see Table 2. Chl fluorescence yield was  
204 monitored with a Diving-PAM fluorometer (Walz, Germany) on a 2.5 mL stirred and 20°C  
205 controlled diatom suspension (see Lavaud et al., 2004). Before measurement, the cells were  
206 dark-adapted for 15 min, and a saturating pulse ( $3600 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , duration 0.4 ms)  
207 was fired to measure  $F_0$ ,  $F_m$  and  $F_v/F_m$ . For RLCs (Perkins et al., 2010a), the diatom  
208 suspension was exposed to 8 successive increasing intensities ( $29\text{-}1038 \mu\text{mol photons.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ )  
209 of 60 s each. At the end of each RLC-light step exposure,  $F_m'$  was measured. RLCs allow  
210 constructing rETR vs. E curves; from the fitted rETR-E curves (Eilers and Peeters, 1988),  
211  $rETR_m$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $E_k$  can be extracted.

212

## 213 *3. Results*

### 214 *3.1. Pore-water salinity and MPB biomass in different sediments of the French Atlantic coast*

215 The changes in pore-water salinity in the upper layer (first 1 cm) was measured over different  
216 seasons at two sites of the French Atlantic coast characterised by two sediment types: 1) a site  
217 with 95% of cohesive muddy sediment which is known to be dominated by a community of

218 epipelagic diatoms, and especially *Navicula phyllepta*, throughout the year (Haubois et al.,  
219 2005); 2) a site with a mix of muddy and sandy (thus less cohesive) sediment which is known  
220 to be dominated by a community of epipsammic diatoms where *Biremis lucens* and  
221 *Plagiogrammopsis vanheurckii* are typical (Méléder et al., 2007). Overall, pore-water salinity  
222 varied between 29 and 48 during the 3 h emersion period (Table 2). As expected, variations  
223 over an emersion were higher in summer than in winter, and over seasons in cohesive than in  
224 less cohesive sediment with an overall minimum and maximum variation during an emersion  
225 of 2.3 and 8.3, respectively.

226 The changes in pore-water salinity were further deciphered at the two sites during the course of  
227 an emersion in Spring at two depths in the upper layer of sediments (Fig. 1). Large changes in  
228 pore-water salinity occurred within only 1.5 h: mean  $\Delta$  5.1 and  $\Delta$  3.5 for the muddy and the  
229 muddy-sandy sediment, respectively. Nevertheless, these changes were mainly (muddy  
230 sediment, Fig. 1A) and even exclusively (muddy-sandy sediment, Fig. 1B) observed in the first  
231 0.5 cm where most of the MPB biomass was present (Fig. 1C). In the deeper sediment layer (-  
232 0.5-1 cm), a high equivalent MPB biomass ( $40.5 \pm 3.5$  and  $48.5 \pm 5.3$   $\mu\text{g Chl } a \text{ g sediment}^{-1}$  in  
233 muddy and muddy-sandy sediment, respectively) was observed and the pore-water salinity was  
234 close to 33:  $34.0 \pm 0.7$  in mud and  $33.0 \pm 1.3$  in muddy sand.

235

236 *3.2. Photophysiological response of Navicula phyllepta (epipelon), Biremis lucens*  
237 *(epipsammon) and Plagiogrammopsis vanheurckii (tychoplankton) to a combined high*  
238 *salinity-HL stress*

239 The PSII activity of the three species was assessed by measuring  $F_v/F_m$  and  $\Phi_{PSII}$ , as well as  
240 the RLCs photophysiological parameters ( $\alpha$ ,  $rETR_m$  and  $E_k$ ) (see Table 2). While in LL-

241 acclimated cells  $F_v/F_m$  and  $\Phi PSII$  did not change significantly with salinity (Tables 3 and 5),  
242 HL treatment induced a significant mean decrease in  $F_v/F_m$  (*N. phyllepta*,  $-8.3 \pm 1.0 \% < B.  
243 *lucens*,  $-11.3 \pm 1.7 \% < P. vanheurckii,  $-37.3 \pm 1.7 \%$ ) and in  $\Phi PSII$  (*N. phyllepta*,  $-6.3 \pm 1.5 \%$   
244  $< B. lucens$ ,  $-10.0 \pm 3.3 \%$ ) independent of salinity (Tables 3 and 5). Only in *P. vanheurckii*  
245  $\Phi PSII$  changes were salinity-dependent, i.e.  $-11.5 \pm 3.5 \%$  from 33-37 and  $-28.5 \pm 1.5 \%$  for  
246 41-45 (Table 3). The RLCs photophysiological parameters ( $\alpha$ ,  $rETR_m$  and  $E_k$ , see Table 2)  
247 changed differently depending on the species and salinity/light treatments. *N. phyllepta* cells  
248 were not significantly affected either by changes in salinity nor by the HL treatment (Fig. 2  
249 and Table 5). In *B. lucens* LL acclimated cells,  $E_k$  and  $rETR_m$  were significantly affected by  
250 salinity (Fig. 2 and Table 5) and, as expected,  $\alpha$  and  $E_k$  were significantly lower and higher,  
251 respectively, after HL treatment (Table 5) although only for a limited range of salinities: up to  
252 41 for  $\alpha$  and up to 37 for  $E_k$ . In HL cells, further salinity raising induced an increase in  $\alpha$   
253 ( $+25.5 \pm 3.5 \%$ ) and a subsequent decrease in  $E_k$  ( $-39 \pm 3 \%$ ) (Fig. 2). It was in *P. vanheurckii*  
254  $\alpha$ ,  $rETR_m$  and  $E_k$  showed the most pronounced changes with salinity and HL treatment (Fig. 2  
255 and Table 5).  $\alpha$  decreased in both LL acclimated cells ( $-23 \pm 14 \%$ ) and after HL treatment ( $-39$   
256  $\pm 5 \%$ , especially from a salinity of 33 to 37).  $rETR_m$  followed an opposite trend, and  
257 significantly increased with salinity by a mean factor of up to  $1.60 \pm 0.13$ , and independent of  
258 the light treatment (Table 5). As a consequence,  $E_k$  significantly increased together with  
259 salinity for both light treatments ( $\times 1.96 \pm 0.3$  and  $\times 1.53 \pm 0.3$  for HL and LL cells,  
260 respectively).$$

261 The photoprotective response of the species was assessed by measuring NPQ and the XC  
262 components and operation (Tables 3 and 4).  $NPQ_m$  of LL acclimated cells (Table 3) was on

263 average  $0.224 \pm 0.135$  (*N. phyllepta*),  $0.332 \pm 0.018$  (*B. lucens*) and  $0.645 \pm 0.105$  (*P.*  
264 *vanheurckii*) and, as expected, it significantly increased during the HL treatment (Tables 3 and  
265 5) as follows: *P. vanheurckii* ( $x 1.6 \pm 0.3$  for all salinities)  $< N. phyllepta$  ( $x 1.8 \pm 0.3$  for all  
266 salinities except 45,  $x 2.5$ )  $< B. lucens$  ( $x 2.2 \pm 0.4$  for all salinities). Only in *P. vanheurckii* LL  
267 acclimated cells, NPQ<sub>m</sub> significantly decreased by -30% from a salinity of 33 to 45 (Tables 3  
268 and 5). DES was much higher in LL acclimated cells of *P. vanheurckii* ( $40 \pm 4$  %) than in *N.*  
269 *phyllepta* ( $12 \pm 3$  %) and *B. lucens* ( $7 \pm 1$  %) (Fig. 3). During the HL treatment, and  
270 independent of salinity, DES significantly increased to a different extent (*P. vanheurckii*,  $58 \pm$   
271  $2$  %  $> B. lucens$ ,  $39 \pm 3$  %  $> N. phyllepta$ ,  $31 \pm 2$  %) (Fig. 3 and Table 5). Interestingly, in *N.*  
272 *phyllepta*, while diatoxanthin (DT) significantly increased during HL (i.e. due to  
273 diadinoxanthin, DD, de-epoxidation), DD did not similarly decreased (Tables 4 and 5), as it  
274 would have been expected, arguing for a *de novo* synthesis of DD during HL. Out from DD  
275 and DT, there was no additional significant pigment changes in the three species whatever the  
276 treatment except a significant HL-salinity independent decrease in Chl *a*.cell<sup>-1</sup> ( $-20.3 \pm 4.5$  %)  
277 in *N. phyllepta*.

278 The higher sensitivity of *P. vanheurckii* to salinity alone was further illustrated by the fact that  
279 the combination with the HL treatment did not significantly change some of the  
280 photophysiological parameters ( $\alpha$ , rETR<sub>m</sub>, E<sub>k</sub>, NPQ<sub>m</sub>) in contrast to *N. phyllepta* and *B. lucens*  
281 (Table 5).

282

283 *4. Discussion*

284 *4.1. Pore-water salinity changes in Atlantic French coast intertidal flats and their potential*  
285 *effects on intertidal MPB diatoms*

286 In the field, the upper layer sediment pore-water salinity can highly ( $\Delta 5$ ) and rapidly (within  
287 1.5 h) increase, and reach values as high as 48 in Summer (values up to 55-60 were even  
288 reported elsewhere, Roncarati et al., 2008; Serôdio et al., 2008). Nevertheless, high salinity  
289 events are not restricted to hot sunny days and also occur at moderate temperature (16-20°C),  
290 as shown here in Spring, due to wind-driven desiccation (Williams, 1964; Sauer et al., 2002) in  
291 the first 0.5 cm of the sediment (where the bulk of the MPB biomass inhabits). Changes in the  
292 sediment pore-water salinity depend on the sediment cohesion with higher values and  
293 amplitude in cohesive sediment probably due to the trapping (and subsequent higher  
294 evaporation) of pore-water at the surface (Paterson and Hagerthey, 2001; Sauer et al., 2002).  
295 Therefore, although temperature may be optimal (20-25 °C, Blanchard et al., 1997; Scholz and  
296 Liebezeit, 2012), HL and high salinity conditions may occur in the sediment upper layer  
297 during Spring-early Summer emersion by the Atlantic French coast. These conditions may  
298 differentially impair the photosynthetic efficiency of the main growth forms of MPB as regards  
299 to the sediment cohesion of their respective habitat or their amphibious life. The HL-high  
300 salinity combination has been rarely studied before (Rijstenbil, 2003, 2005; Roncarati et al.,  
301 2008). Most previous works focused on low salinity stress combined to nutrient gradient due to  
302 estuarine rivers discharge (Admiraal and Peletier, 1980; Underwood and Provot, 2000;  
303 Thornton et al., 2002) and on the long-term effect of salinity changes (most often measured by  
304 specific growth, Williams, 1964; Jackson et al., 1992; Underwood and Provot, 2000; Natana  
305 Murugaraj and Jeyachandran, 2007; Scholz and Liebezeit, 2012), instead of effects (including

306 short-term exposure) on the photosynthetic efficiency (Admiraal, 1977; Admiraal and Peletier,  
307 1980; Roncarati et al., 2008).

308

309 *4.2. Differential photosynthetic and photoprotective response to a combined high-salinity-HL*  
310 *stress in diatoms representative of the main growth forms of intertidal MPB*

311 The photosynthesis of the three examined species responded differently to the combination of  
312 HL and salinity stress. In our conditions, *N. phyllepta*, the photosynthetic efficiency was not  
313 largely impaired neither by high salinity nor HL alone or both in combination (i.e. changes in  
314 PSII and RLCs photophysiological parameters were not > 10 % on average). Noticeably, HL  
315 induced a decrease in Chl *a.* cell<sup>-1</sup> that was not observed in the two other species. It shows the  
316 ability to lower the overexcitation of the whole photosynthetic machinery under HL stress  
317 (Brunet et al., 2011). In contrast, in *B. lucens*, the photosynthetic electron transport rate  
318 (rETR<sub>m</sub>) was slightly but significantly affected by high salinity alone. Additionally, the  
319 photoacclimatory-coupled decrease in  $\alpha$  and increase in  $E_k$ , that illustrates the decrease of the  
320 excitation pressure on PSII (Perkins et al., 2006; Cruz and Serôdio, 2008; Lefebvre et al.,  
321 2011), were abolished by higher salinities (from 37 on). Nevertheless, in our moderately  
322 stressful conditions, it did not largely impaired PSII activity (decrease in  $F_v/F_m$  and  $\Phi_{PSII}$  at  
323 maximum ~11%). The high salinity-dependent inhibition of photoacclimation was not  
324 observed in *P. vanheurckii* for which the decrease of the excitation pressure on PSII was  
325 obviously a key response in all conditions. While under HL alone,  $\alpha$  and  $E_k$  modulation was  
326 enough, under high salinity alone and combined with HL, the additional increase in rETR<sub>m</sub>,  
327 possibly through a stronger activation of the Calvin cycle enzymes (Nymark et al., 2009), was  
328 necessary to cope with the stress. These changes in the photosynthetic efficiency were



329 sufficient for *P. vanheurckii* to cope with salinity stress alone but not when it was  
330 combined with HL (strong  $\Phi$ PSII decrease for salinities > 41 on), supporting its HL sensitivity  
331 (strong  $F_v/F_m$  decrease) due to its adaptation to a LL environment (low  $\alpha$  and  $E_k$ ; see also  
332 Barnett et al., 2014).

333 In parallel to modification in PSII-related photophysiological parameters, all species exerted a  
334 photoprotective response but to a different extent. In contrast to prolonged high salinity  
335 exposure (Rijstenbil, 2005), HL DES increase was independent of salinity in all species.  
336 Hence, the de-epoxidase enzyme, responsible for the light-dependent conversion of DD to DT,  
337 does not seem to be influenced by a short (1 h) salinity stress. DT is well-known to i) scavenge  
338 reactive oxygen species (ROS) and to help preventing the peroxidation of lipids of the  
339 thylakoid membrane (Lepetit et al., 2010), ii) participate to NPQ (Goss and Jakob, 2010;  
340 Lavaud et al., 2012; Lavaud and Lepetit, 2013). In contrast to the two other species, in *N.*  
341 *phyllepta* DD de-epoxidation was accompanied by DD *de novo* synthesis, a way to enhance the  
342 capacity to further synthesize DT in case of prolonged stress (Lepetit et al., 2013). Probably  
343 due to the shortness of high salinity exposure, there was no significant increase in fucoxanthin  
344 and  $\beta$ -carotene, a well-known pigment response to oxidative stress additional to the XC  
345 (Dambeck and Sandmann, 2014; Tefler, 2014). As expected, NPQ<sub>m</sub> was higher in *B lucens*  
346 than in *N. phyllepta*, while it was higher than previously observed in *P. vanheurckii* probably  
347 due to i) different growth light conditions which generated a higher DES, and ii) the different  
348 way of measuring NPQ (RLCs vs. Non-Sequential Light Curves-NSLCs) (Barnett et al., 2014).  
349 HL NPQ increased was impacted by salinity depending on the species: while NPQ increase  
350 was similar (about 1.6x) for all salinities in *P. vanheurckii*, it was higher (about 2.2x) in *B*  
351 *lucens*, and it reached an even higher level (2.5x) for a salinity of 45 in *N. phyllepta*. These

352 observations clearly illustrate how i) NPQ helped to dissipate the excess of light excitation  
353 energy in PSII when the photosynthetic machinery was slowed-down by salinity, ii) *N.*  
354 *phyllepta* appeared to be insensitive to all high salinities lower than 45. Strikingly, in *P.*  
355 *vanheurckii*, NPQ decreased linearly ( $-0.018 \pm 0.001$  NPQ unit. salinity unit<sup>-1</sup>) illustrating the  
356 high salinity-dependent NPQ inhibition disregard of the high amount of DT synthesised in this  
357 species. Most probably here, NPQ decrease and discrepancy between DES and NPQ might be  
358 due to a stronger involvement of DT in the prevention of lipid peroxidation by ROS (Lepetit et  
359 al., 2010; Lepetit and Lavaud, 2013).

360

#### 361 *4.3 Relationship between the response of intertidal MPB diatoms to a combined high salinity-* 362 *HL stress and their habitat-related growth form*

363 The photophysiological response of *N. phyllepta*, *B. lucens* and *P. vanheurckii* to the combined  
364 high salinity-HL conditions fitted well with their respective growth form and original habitat.  
365 The relationship between photophysiology and the different growth forms of MPB diatoms to  
366 light alone was already documented before (Barnett et al., 2014).

367

##### 368 *4.3.1. Epipelon*

369 *N. phyllepta* photochemistry was not affected neither by the high salinity stress alone, nor by  
370 the combination of HL and high salinity, illustrating an adaptation to potentially extreme  
371 conditions of light and salinity at the surface of cohesive (muddy) sediment. This is in  
372 agreement with previous reports on the high tolerance to salinity changes of *Navicula* sp.  
373 representatives (Underwood and Provot, 2000; Scholz and Liebezeit, 2012), and to a larger  
374 extent of epipelon representatives (Williams, 1964; Admiraal, 1977; Admiraal and Peletier,

375 1980; Clavero et al., 2000). In response to light stress, epipelagic diatoms use both vertical  
376 motility in the sediment and physiology (Mouget et al., 2008; van Leeuwe et al., 2009; Perkins  
377 et al., 2010b; Cartaxana et al., 2011; Serôdio et al., 2012; Barnett et al., 2014). Although in our  
378 experiments motility was abolished, the photophysiological response of *N. phyllepta* confirms  
379 the likeliness of an equivalent balance between motility and physiology to respond to salinity  
380 stress. Surprisingly, *N. phyllepta* did not deploy a strong photophysiological response pointing  
381 out to other intra-cellular means that explain its relative insensitivity to high salinity (at least  
382 up to 45). For instance, they use proline to adjust their osmotic balance (Natana Murugaraj and  
383 Jeyachandran, 2007). Most importantly, cells surround themselves with exopolysaccharides  
384 (EPS) to minimize the negative impact of desiccation and high salinity (Sauer et al., 2002) on  
385 motility: i) it was shown on a natural assemblage that a shift in salinity from 35 to 45  
386 generated a -30 % migration of the cells at the surface of sediment (Sauer et al., 2002); ii) in  
387 controlled laboratory conditions, motility can be even abolished at a salinity of 50 (Apoya-  
388 Horton et al., 2006). This phenomenon is based on the decrease of the gliding speed of the  
389 cells (Apoya-Horton et al., 2006) and its rapidity (5 s; Apoya-Horton et al., 2006) might be  
390 related to intracellular calcium responses (Falciatore et al., 2000; Apoya-Horton et al., 2006).  
391 Excretion of EPS during high salinity events allows cell attachment, a prerequisite for cell  
392 gliding (Apoya-Horton et al., 2006) that, in field conditions, indeed supports the vertical cell  
393 migration to apparently escape extreme salinities. Therefore, the motility response of epipelagic  
394 diatoms was speculated to be part of an adaptive strategy to respond to the sometimes highly  
395 changing environment, including light and salinity, at the surface of cohesive sediment,  
396 (Admiraal, 1984).

397

### 398 4.3.2. Tychoplankton

399 Similar to epipelon, tychoplankton movement modalities, when it is buried in sediment at low  
400 tide (Roncarati et al., 2008), are strongly influenced by salinity changes (Apoya-Horton et al.,  
401 2006). Additionally, high salinity drives the detachment of cells from their substratum, which  
402 could be a strategy to avoid longer exposure for this amphibious group (Apoya-Horton et al.,  
403 2006). Nevertheless, as reported before (Roncarati et al., 2008) and here, the physiological  
404 response to salinity (combined or not with HL) of tychoplankton seems to be more complex  
405 than the one of epipelon. They appear highly sensitive to salinities  $> 35$  (Underwood and  
406 Provot, 2000) including drastic growth limitation at salinities  $> 40$  (Rijstenbil, 2003; Scholz  
407 and Liebezeit, 2012). In our conditions, salinities from 35 on generated a strong  
408 photophysiological response in *P. vanheurckii*: its photochemical machinery acclimated just  
409 like high salinities would render it more light sensitive (see paragraph 4.2.). This general  
410 response was likely related to the linear lowering of NPQ with high salinities together with the  
411 anti-oxidative stress response (i.e. strong DT synthesis). It supports the obvious salinity (and  
412 light) sensitivity of *P. vanheurckii*. This is confirmed by previous studies on another  
413 tychoplankton representative (*Cylindrotheca closterium*) (Rijstenbil, 2003, 2005; Roncarati et al.,  
414 2008). In response to the high salinity- and/or HL-dependent ROS generation, the  
415 intracellular pools and activity of important players of the oxidative stress response (i.e. the  
416 reduced glutathione-GSH, the superoxide dismutase-SOD enzyme) increased. Albeit such  
417 protective response, cells could not avoid significant lipid peroxidation (Roncarati et al.,  
418 2008). Peroxidation of lipids of the thylakoid membrane disturbs osmoregulation (Rijstenbil,  
419 2003, 2005) which might explain the synthesis of intracellular osmoregulators like free sugars  
420 (mannose, Paul, 1979), amino acids (taurine, Jackson et al., 1992; and proline, Natana

421 Murugaraj and Jeyachandran, 2007). Moreover, leakage of the thylakoid membrane can impair  
422 the build-up of the transthylakoid  $\Delta pH$  (i.e. loss of membrane potential, Rijstenbil, 2005),  
423 which would well explain the NPQ decrease with increasing salinities (Lavaud and Lepetit,  
424 2013; Lavaud and Goss, 2014). All together, these observations fit well with an adaptation of  
425 tychoplankton to salinities  $\sim 33$  as it is mostly the case in the water column (when cells are  
426 resuspended at high tide) or buried in sediment (when cells settle down at low tide) as  
427 observed here from -0.5 cm down (see paragraph 4.1.).

428

#### 429 4.3.3. *Epipsammon*

430 The response of epipsammon to salinity changes is much less documented. To our knowledge,  
431 only Scholz and Liebezeit (2012) investigated the negative impact of salinity on the growth of  
432 epipsammic species like *Achnantes* spp. and *Amphora* spp.. Because it lives attached to  
433 sediment particles and the light penetration is deeper in (less cohesive) sandy sediment, the  
434 epipsammon photophysiological response to HL is efficient (Barnett et al., 2014). Here, under  
435 LL, *B. lucens* was relatively insensitive to high salinity. Nevertheless, and although DES and  
436 NPQ were high, the ability to decrease the excitation pressure on PSII during HL exposure was  
437 partially abolished by salinities  $> 37-41$ . As a consequence,  $rETR_m$  decreased, thus potentially  
438 impairing the photosynthetic productivity. While *B. lucens* is well adapted to cope with HL  
439 and with high salinity, it appears less well adapted to the combination of the two. This fits well  
440 with the fact that in its natural habitat, even if the light climate can be extreme, changes in  
441 salinity remain moderate i) even in the first 0.5 cm of sediment, and ii) especially deeper  
442 where a significant part of the epipsammon biomass inhabits, as shown here (see paragraph  
443 4.1.).

444

445 *4.4. Conclusions*

446 The photophysiology of representatives of the three main groups of intertidal MPB diatoms  
447 (i.e. epipelon, epipsammon and tychoplankton) differentially responded to a high salinity stress  
448 alone or combined with moderate HL exposure. While the representative of epipelon was  
449 relatively insensitive to these conditions, the tychoplankton representative was highly sensitive  
450 to both, and the epipsammon representative was sensitive mainly to the stress combination.  
451 These specific responses fitted well with i) their natural habitat (i.e. more or less cohesive  
452 sediment) for which light climate and changes in salinity differ, ii) their growth form (i.e.  
453 motile, immotile or amphibious) which determines their probability to be confronted to a  
454 combined high salinity-HL stress, and their capacity to eventually escape from it (i.e.  
455 epipelon). Although light and temperature are regarded as major drivers of the photosynthetic  
456 productivity of MPB in Western Europe intertidal mudflats (Kromkamp et al., 2006), salinity  
457 increase during emersion obviously can non-negligibly modulate the MPB photosynthesis  
458 when it is combined with HL (and temperature) according to the weather conditions and  
459 sediment type. It nevertheless appears mostly restricted to epipsammon and tychoplankton, and  
460 in field conditions, although likely stronger than in the present study, its effect probably  
461 remains negligible compared to HL stress.

462

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469

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- 683
- 684

685 **Figure legends**

686

687 **Figure 1**

688 **Evolution of the pore-water sediment salinity (A, B) and chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) biomass**  
689 **(C) during emersion in the upper sediment layer (0-0.5 cm, black columns / 0.5-1 cm,**  
690 **white columns for A- and B-; Mud, black columns / Muddy sand, white columns for C-)**  
691 **in two sites of the French Atlantic coast with two different sediment types (A- Mud; B-**  
692 **Muddy sand) in Spring.** The representative day was 2012/04/20 for the muddy site and  
693 2012/05/06 for the muddy sandy site. They showed the following features: emersion maximum  
694 at 11:25 AM  $\pm$  5 min, no rain, sediment surface temperature =  $16.6 \pm 1.8$  °C and  $20.6 \pm 4.3$  °C  
695 for the muddy and the muddy sandy sites, respectively; based on these temperatures, a 20°C  
696 experimental temperature was further used. Values are averages  $\pm$  standard deviation (n = 3).

697

698 **Figure 2**

699 **Photophysiological parameters in *Navicula phyllepta*, *Biremis lucens* and**  
700 ***Plagiogrammopsis vanheurckii* exposed to different salinities (33 to 45).** Abbreviations: LL,  
701 growth low light ( $60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photons); HL, after 1h high light ( $600 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photons)  
702 treatment;  $\alpha$ -Alpha, maximum light efficiency use;  $r\text{ETR}_m$ , maximum relative electron  
703 transport rate;  $E_k$ , light saturation coefficient. Values are averages  $\pm$  standard deviation (n = 3).

704

705 **Figure 3**

706 **Rate of de-epoxidation (DES) of diadinoxanthin (DD) to diatoxanthin (DT) in *Navicula***  
707 ***phyllepta*, *Biremis lucens* and *Plagiogrammopsis vanheurckii* exposed to different salinities**

708 **(33 to 45).** Abbreviations: DES = [(DD + DT) / DT x 100]; LL, growth low light ( $60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}$   
709  $\text{s}^{-1}$  photons), white columns; HL, after 1h high light ( $600 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photons) treatment,  
710 black columns. Values are averages  $\pm$  standard deviation (n = 3).  
711

712 **Table 1\_Juneau et al.**

713 **Pore-water salinity measured during emersion in the upper sediment layer (first 1 cm) in**  
 714 **two sites of the French Atlantic coast with two different sediment types and at different**  
 715 **seasons.** Values are averages  $\pm$  standard deviation (n = 9 to 12).

716

Sediment type	Season period	Min	Max	Emersion $\Delta$ max	Emersion $\Delta$ mean
Mud (95.1 $\pm$ 0.1 % mud/ 4.9 $\pm$ 0.1% sand)	Winter 02/19-02/24	29.0 $\pm$ 1.2	34.1 $\pm$ 1.1	2.3	1.3 $\pm$ 0.6
	Spring 04/19-04/22	32.5 $\pm$ 1.1	38.8 $\pm$ 1.1	5.1	4.4 $\pm$ 1.0
	Summer 07/13-07/26	35.8 $\pm$ 0.2	48.2 $\pm$ 0.7	8.3	4.6 $\pm$ 2.7
Muddy sand (57.9 $\pm$ 7.9% sand/ 42.1 $\pm$ 7.9% mud)	Spring 04/05-07/05	30.8 $\pm$ 1.0	35.4 $\pm$ 2.8	3.2	1.9 $\pm$ 1.2
	Fall 09/30-10/02	32.8 $\pm$ 0.4	37.3 $\pm$ 2.7	3.8	3.7 $\pm$ 0.2

717

**Table 2\_Juneau et al.**

**Photophysiological parameters used in this study, their meaning and how they were measured.** Abbreviations: Chl, chlorophyll; DD, diadinoxanthin; DT, diatoxanthin; E, light intensity; PSII, photosystem II; RLCs, Rapid Light Curves. See the Materials and Methods section for further details.

Parameter	Unit	Definition	Photophysiological meaning	Measurement conditions
$F_0$	No units	Minimum PSII Chl fluorescence yield	Used to calculate $F_v/F_m$ (see below)	Measured with RLCs after 15 min of dark acclimation
$F_m$	No units	Maximum PSII Chl fluorescence yield	Used to calculate $F_v/F_m$ and NPQ (see below)	Measured with RLCs during a saturating pulse after 15 min of dark acclimation
$F_v/F_m$	No units	Maximum quantum yield;  $F_v/F_m = (F_m - F_0) / F_m$	Maximum potential quantum efficiency of PSII photochemistry	See the above measurement conditions for $F_0$ and $F_m$

$F_m'$	No units	$F_m$ for illuminated cells	Used to measure NPQ and rETR	Measured with RLCs during a saturating pulse after 60 s of illumination at specific E
$\Phi_{PSII}$	No units	Operational PSII quantum yield; $\Phi_{PSII} = (F_m' - F) / F_m'$	Maximum effective quantum efficiency of PSII photochemistry	See the above measurement conditions for $F_0$ and $F_m$ ; F is the steady-state of Chl fluorescence measured after 60 s illumination at specific E
NPQ	No units	Non-photochemical quenching of Chl fluorescence; $NPQ = F_m / F_m' - 1$	Estimates the photoprotective dissipation of excess energy	Measured with RLCs
rETR	$\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	Relative electron transport rate of PSII;	Effective quantum yield of photochemistry vs. E	Measured with RLCs

		$rETR = \Phi_{PSII} \times E$		
$\alpha$	$\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ / $\mu\text{mol photons. m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ 1	rETR-E curve initial slope	Maximum light efficiency use	Derived from fitted rETR-E curves (Eilers and Peeters, 1988)
$rETR_m$	$\mu\text{mol electrons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	rETR-E curve asymptote	Maximum relative photosynthetic electron transport rate	Derived from fitted rETR-E curves (Eilers and Peeters, 1988)
$E_k$	$\mu\text{mol photons. m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$	$E_k = rETR_m / \alpha$	Light saturation coefficient	Derived from fitted rETR-E curves (Eilers and Peeters, 1988)
$NPQ_m$	No units	Maximum NPQ	Maximum ability for dissipation of excess energy	Measured at maximum E of RLCs
DES	%	$DES = [DT / (DD+DT)]$	De-epoxidation state of DD to DT	Measured during growth at LL

		x 100]		and after 1 h HL treatment
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**Table 3\_Juneau et al.**

**Photochemical potential and non-photochemical fluorescence quenching in *Navicula phyllepta* (N.p.), *Biremis lucens* (B.l.) and *Plagiogrammopsis vanheurckii* (P.v.) exposed to different salinities.** Abbreviations: LL, growth low light ( $60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photons); HL, high light ( $600 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photons). Definitions and conditions of measurement of  $F_v/F_m$ ,  $\Phi\text{PSII}$  and  $\text{NPQ}_m$  are listed in Table 2. Values are averages  $\pm$  standard deviation ( $n = 3$ ).

Species	Salinity	LL			HL		
		$F_v/F_m$	$\Phi\text{PSII}$	$\text{NPQ}_m$	$F_v/F_m$	$\Phi\text{PSII}$	$\text{NPQ}_m$
N.p.	33	0.724 $\pm 0.011$	0.599 $\pm 0.030$	0.306 $\pm 0.060$	0.667 $\pm 0.028$	0.551 $\pm 0.031$	0.547 $\pm 0.053$
	37	0.727 $\pm 0.019$	0.597 $\pm 0.031$	0.315 $\pm 0.044$	0.659 $\pm 0.007$	0.568 $\pm 0.041$	0.485 $\pm 0.070$
	41	0.730 $\pm 0.010$	0.600 $\pm 0.068$	0.250 $\pm 0.022$	0.662 $\pm 0.006$	0.559 $\pm 0.038$	0.542 $\pm 0.017$
	45	0.724 $\pm 0.015$	0.600 $\pm 0.051$	0.259 $\pm 0.038$	0.674 $\pm 0.009$	0.571 $\pm 0.019$	0.653 $\pm 0.016$
B.l.	33	0.694 $\pm 0.010$	0.563 $\pm 0.009$	0.323 $\pm 0.097$	0.629 $\pm 0.009$	0.504 $\pm 0.003$	0.588 $\pm 0.142$
	37	0.694 $\pm 0.012$	0.554 $\pm 0.016$	0.315 $\pm 0.071$	0.602 $\pm 0.010$	0.498 $\pm 0.040$	0.864 $\pm 0.186$
	41	0.689	0.569	0.332	0.607	0.496	0.736

		$\pm 0.020$	$\pm 0.008$	$\pm 0.024$	$\pm 0.041$	$\pm 0.039$	$\pm 0.332$
	45	0.703	0.560	0.357	0.627	0.530	0.782
		$\pm 0.010$	$\pm 0.019$	$\pm 0.103$	$\pm 0.019$	$\pm 0.038$	$\pm 0.271$
P.v.	33	0.588	0.312	0.791	0.370	0.265	1.003
		$\pm 0.034$	$\pm 0.024$	$\pm 0.141$	$\pm 0.032$	$\pm 0.031$	$\pm 0.048$
	37	0.539	0.292	0.622	0.352	0.270	1.178
		$\pm 0.009$	$\pm 0.095$	$\pm 0.129$	$\pm 0.028$	$\pm 0.021$	$\pm 0.103$
	41	0.555	0.291	0.625	0.336	0.213	0.908
		$\pm 0.021$	$\pm 0.017$	$\pm 0.011$	$\pm 0.051$	$\pm 0.032$	$\pm 0.163$
	45	0.577	0.316	0.542	0.359	0.221	0.870
		$\pm 0.055$	$\pm 0.041$	$\pm 0.019$	$\pm 0.018$	$\pm 0.066$	$\pm 0.143$

**Table 4\_Juneau et al.**

**Pigments in *Navicula phyllepta* (N.p.), *Biremis lucens* (B.l.) and *Plagiogrammopsis vanheurckii* (P.v.) exposed to different salinities.** Abbreviations: LL, growth low light ( $60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photons); HL, high light ( $600 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  photons). Chl *a*, chlorophyll *a*; Chl *c*, chlorophyll *c*; Fx, fucoxanthin; DD, diadinoxanthin; DT, diatoxanthin;  $\beta$ -car,  $\beta$ -carotene. Chl *a* is in  $\text{pg. cell}^{-1}$ ; other pigments are in  $\text{mol. } 100 \text{ mol Chl } a^{-1}$ . Values are averages  $\pm$  standard deviation ( $n = 3$ ).

Species	Salinity	LL						HL					
		Chl <i>a</i>	Chl <i>c</i>	Fx	$\beta$ -car	DD	DT	Chl <i>a</i>	Chl <i>c</i>	Fx	$\beta$ -car	DD	DT
N.p.	33	0.830 $\pm 0.020$	33.2 $\pm 0.9$	151.0 $\pm 0.9$	8.6 $\pm 8.3$	33.7 $\pm 2.3$	3.5 $\pm 0.2$	0.716 $\pm 0.019$	37.1 $\pm 3.1$	134.2 $\pm 3.5$	13.0 $\pm 5.2$	30.8 $\pm 1.0$	9.1 $\pm 1.9$
	37	0.821 $\pm 0.065$	42.2 $\pm 8.9$	157.0 $\pm 11.4$	8.3 $\pm 8.5$	34.1 $\pm 1.1$	3.1 $\pm 0.1$	0.621 $\pm 0.043$	35.9 $\pm 2.8$	131.8 $\pm 1.7$	13.9 $\pm 3.7$	29.1 $\pm 2.9$	9.9 $\pm 1.8$
	41	0.812 $\pm 0.016$	42.7 $\pm 0.8$	152.1 $\pm 5.8$	14.0 $\pm 6.4$	33.8 $\pm 5.6$	3.0 $\pm 0.4$	0.652 $\pm 0.053$	34.8 $\pm 2.4$	127.8 $\pm 1.7$	12.2 $\pm 6.7$	29.6 $\pm 1.6$	9.4 $\pm 2.6$
	45	0.793 $\pm 0.040$	40.9 $\pm 1.9$	150.1 $\pm 6.1$	14.1 $\pm 5.8$	33.2 $\pm 5.0$	3.0 $\pm 0.2$	0.607 $\pm 0.048$	33.2 $\pm 0.6$	127.5 $\pm 1.4$	11.3 $\pm 5.3$	28.8 $\pm 0.2$	11.8 $\pm 2.6$

B.l.	33	1.830 ± 0.280	27.1 ± 2.7	76.8 ± 4.5	7.1 ± 6.2	19.5 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.8	1.642 ± 0.201	25.7 ± 1.2	72.5 ± 4.4	2.2 ± 1.9	14.5 ± 2.1	8.6 ± 0.2
	37	1.661 ± 0.105	24.3 ± 3.2	70.0 ± 6.6	2.8 ± 1.4	17.7 ± 0.9	1.2 ± 1.0	1.626 ± 0.186	24.4 ± 2.9	69.2 ± 8.9	3.5 ± 0.5	13.8 ± 2.1	9.7 ± 0.8
	41	1.883 ± 0.210	29.0 ± 4.6	87.3 ± 7.3	3.6 ± 0.5	23.4 ± 0.8	1.1 ± 0.9	1.554 ± 0.088	22.8 ± 0.9	63.9 ± 3.5	3.5 ± 0.1	12.8 ± 2.2	8.9 ± 1.1
	45	1.749 ± 0.220	26.6 ± 2.8	76.7 ± 7.9	4.1 ± 1.2	18.9 ± 0.3	1.1 ± 1.3	1.731 ± 0.157	25.5 ± 0.9	72.7 ± 2.7	3.7 ± 0.6	15.7 ± 1.7	8.8 ± 0.1
P.v.	33	2.010 ± 0.410	29.6 ± 4.4	97.8 ± 12.2	1.9 ± 0.0	13.5 ± 2.2	7.3 ± 2.3	2.070 ± 0.419	30.8 ± 3.2	97.9 ± 3.9	1.9 ± 0.3	9.9 ± 0.9	13.4 ± 1.4
	37	2.366 ± 0.441	30.9 ± 0.9	103.5 ± 6.4	2.1 ± 0.3	14.5 ± 0.0	7.8 ± 2.1	1.679 ± 0.503	27.1 ± 2.7	90.9 ± 9.5	2.2 ± 0.1	8.8 ± 1.6	11.4 ± 3.0
	41	2.034 ± 0.488	25.6 ± 2.4	86.2 ± 4.7	1.4 ± 0.1	11.8 ± 0.4	6.2 ± 1.7	1.586 ± 0.508	26.8 ± 1.7	89.7 ± 2.3	1.9 ± 0.3	8.5 ± 0.4	11.9 ± 0.1
	45	2.095	26.8	88.3	3.4	11.0	8.6	1.456	23.9	78.4	2.2	7.4	10.7

		$\pm 0.388$	$\pm 5.1$	$\pm 11.1$	$\pm 2.1$	$\pm 4.7$	$\pm 0.5$	$\pm 0.371$	$\pm 5.1$	$\pm 12.8$	$\pm 0.5$	$\pm 1.0$	$\pm 1.3$
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**Table 5\_Juneau et al.**

**Results of the 2 factor ANOVA procedure for the comparison of the parameters measured in *Navicula phyllepta* (N.p.), *Biremis lucens* (B.l.) and *Plagiogrammopsis vanheurckii* (P.v.) exposed to different salinities and lights. Code: white + n.s. (non significant):  $p > 0.05$ ; light grey + \*:  $p < 0.05$ ; medium grey + \*\*:  $p < 0.01$ ; dark grey + \*\*\*:  $p < 0.001$ ; arrow up, increase of values; arrow down, decrease of values. The two factor ANOVA analysis was performed on data shown in Tables 3 and 4, Fig. 2 and 3.**

<b>Salinity</b>				<b>Light</b>				<b>Light x Salinity</b>			
	N.p.	B.l.	P.v.		N.p.	B.l.	P.v.		N.p.	B.l.	P.v.
$F_v/F_m$	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	$F_v/F_m$	*** ↓	*** ↓	*** ↓	$F_v/F_m$	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
$\Phi$ PSII	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	$\Phi$ PSII	* ↓	*** ↓	* ↓	$\Phi$ PSII	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
$\alpha$	n.s.	n.s.	* ↓	$\alpha$	n.s.	*** ↓	** ↓	$\alpha$	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
rETR <sub>m</sub>	n.s.	* ↓	*** ↑	rETR <sub>m</sub>	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	rETR <sub>m</sub>	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
$E_k$	n.s.	* ↓	** ↑	$E_k$	n.s.	** ↑	* ↑	$E_k$	n.s.	* ↑	n.s.
NPQ <sub>m</sub>	n.s.	n.s.	* ↓	NPQ <sub>m</sub>	*** ↑	*** ↑	*** ↑	NPQ <sub>m</sub>	** ↑	n.s.	n.s.
DES	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	DES	*** ↑	*** ↑	*** ↑	DES	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
DD	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	DD	n.s.	*** ↓	*** ↓	DD	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
DT	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	DT	*** ↑	** ↑	*** ↑	DT	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Chl <i>a</i>	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	Chl <i>a</i>	*** ↓	n.s.	n.s.	Chl <i>a</i>	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Chl <i>c</i>	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	Chl <i>c</i>	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	Chl <i>c</i>	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Fx	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	Fx	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	Fx	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
$\beta$ -car	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	$\beta$ -car	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	$\beta$ -car	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Figure 1\_Juneau et al.

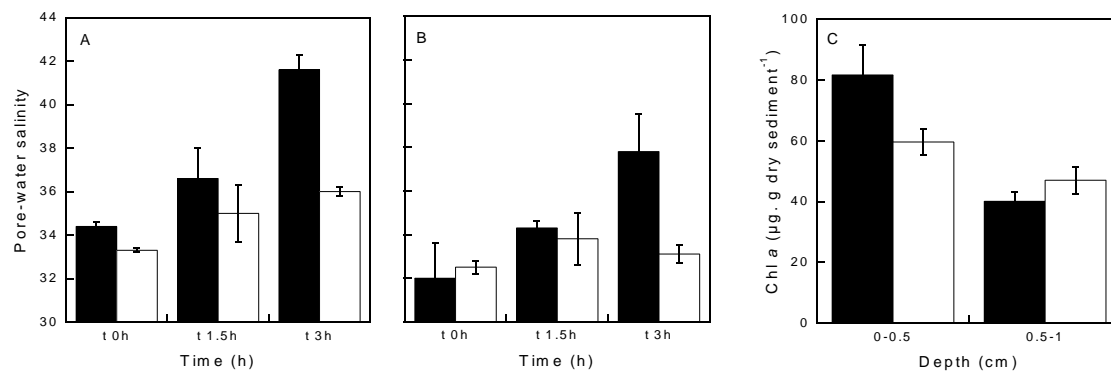


Figure 2\_Juneau et al.

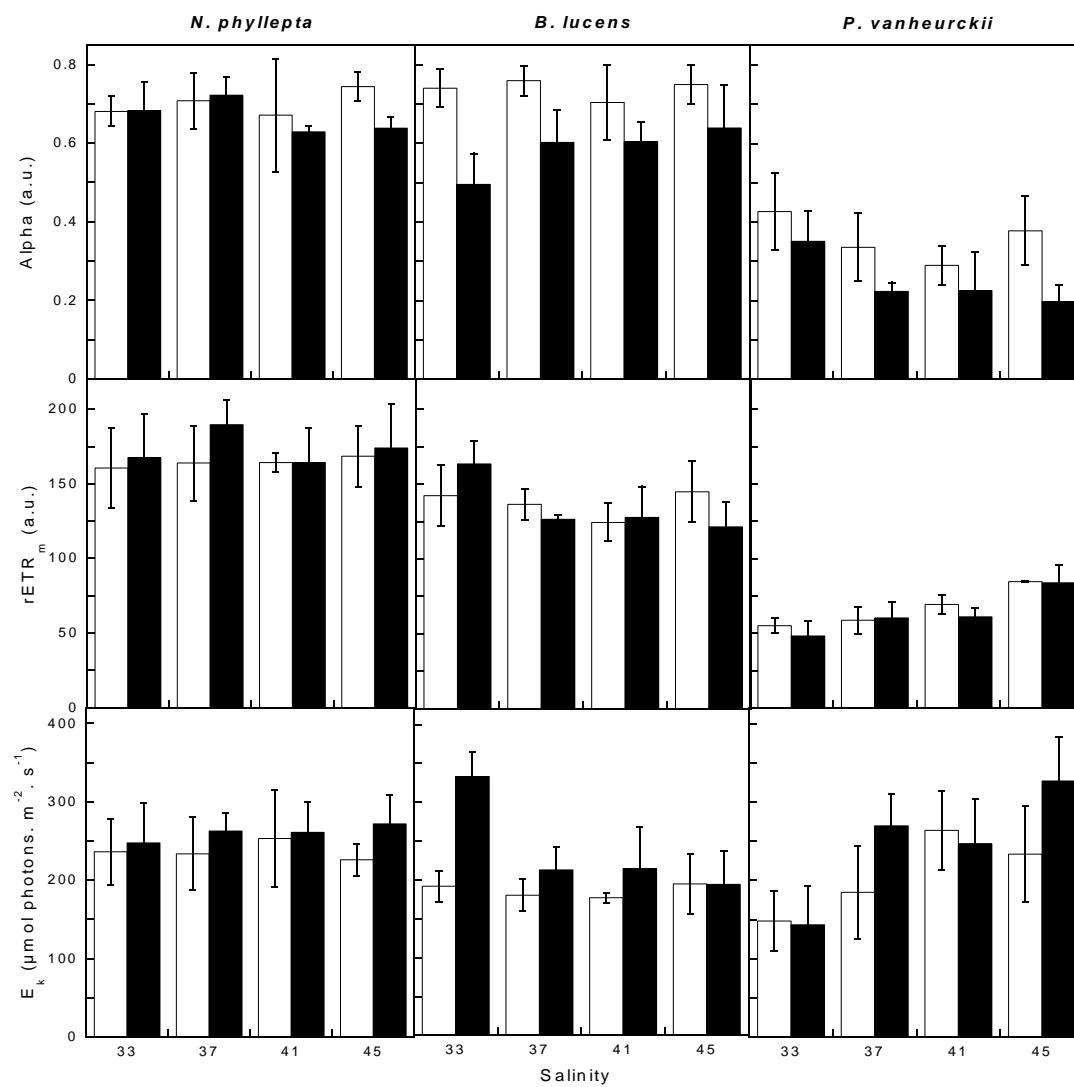




Figure 3\_Juneau et al.

