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EDITED BY

Christopher Edward Cornwall,
Victoria University of Wellington,
New Zealand

REVIEWED BY

Wei Liu,
Shanghai University, China
Fangfang Yang,
Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS), China
Ralf Rautenberger,
Norwegian Institute of Bioeconomy Research
(NIBIO), Norway

*CORRESPONDENCE

Di Zhang
✉ zhangdi@ytu.edu.cn

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Photosynthetic performance and antioxidant activity of *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis* are sensitive to phosphorus deficiency in elevated temperatures

Di Zhang^{1*}, Jia-Zhen Sun², Ming-Hui Fu¹ and Chang-Jun Li¹

¹School of Ocean, Yantai University, Yantai, China, ²National Biopesticide Engineering Research Centre, Hubei Biopesticide Engineering Research Centre, Hubei Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Wuhan, China

Due to anthropogenic input of nutrients and emissions of greenhouse gases, macroalgae inhabiting coastal areas often experience drastic fluctuations in nutrients and seawater warming. In this work, we investigated the photosynthetic performance and antioxidant response of the commercially important red macroalgae *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis* under four different nutrient conditions at 20°C and 23°C. Our results showed that the enrichment of NO₃⁻ and PO₄³⁻ (high concentrations of nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P), denoted as HNHP) significantly enhanced photosynthesis and growth by up to 42% and 66% for net photosynthesis rate and 83% and 134% for relative growth rate (RGR) under 20°C and 23°C, respectively, compared with natural seawater (low concentrations of N and P, denoted as LNLP). However, enriching only with PO₄³⁻ (low concentration of N and high concentration of P, denoted as LNHP) or NO₃⁻ (high concentration of N and low concentration of P, denoted as HNLP) brought no significant change in RGR. A two-way ANOVA analysis revealed an interaction between nutrient variations and temperature, with elevated temperature intensifying the inhibition observed under HNLP conditions. To further elucidate this interaction, we assessed the damage and recovery processes of the photosynthetic apparatus, along with the antioxidant activities. The increased damage (*k*) and reduced recovery (*r*) rates of photosystem II (PSII) in both LNLP and HNLP conditions indicated a heightened susceptibility to photoinhibition in *G. lemaneiformis*, leading to reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation and exacerbated oxidative stress, culminating in decreased photosynthesis and growth rates. At higher temperatures, these phosphorus deficiency-induced inhibitions were amplified, as evidenced by increases in *k* values and ROS contents, coupled with a decrease

in r values. In summary, our data suggest that the photosynthetic performance and growth of *G. lemaneiformis* are vulnerable to phosphorus deficiency, particularly in the context of future ocean warming. Consequently, phosphorus fertilization during cultivation warrants more attention.

KEYWORDS

antioxidant enzymes, *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis*, nutrient variations, ocean warming, photosynthesis

Introduction

The growth of macroalgae is highly sensitive to variable environmental changes, such as light fluctuations, temperature, and nutrients (Zhang et al., 2020a, b; Cohen et al., 2022; Jiang et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022). In coastal ecosystems, the levels of key nutrients, primarily nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P), undergo dramatic shifts due to human activities. As an essential component, N is involved in the formation of proteins, chlorophyll, enzymes, nucleic acids, etc., and its availability significantly influences the physiological performance of algae (Roleda and Hurd, 2019). A number of studies have shown that a high nitrogen concentration could significantly prompt photosynthesis and growth of macroalgae, including *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis* (Chen et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2020), *Ulva* sp (Gao et al., 2018; Traugott et al., 2020). Similarly, phosphorus, another vital macronutrient, also influences photosynthetic productivity and biomass in the ocean (Karl, 2000; Kipp and Stüeken, 2017), with its enrichment shown to enhance photosynthesis in species such as *G. lemaneiformis* (Xu et al., 2010), *Sargassum muticum* (Xu et al., 2017) and *Pyropia yezoensis* (Kim et al., 2019). Conversely, nutrient limitations often decrease primary production by affecting carbon flux redirection and cellular energy (Falkowski and Raven, 2007; Lin et al., 2016; Brembu et al., 2017). In coastal areas, a previous investigation showed that N concentrations ranged from 10 to 17 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and the P concentration ranged from 0.2 to 1 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (Li et al., 2022). Another report also demonstrated that the lowest P concentration in core areas of large-scale macroalgae cultivation was only 0.08 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ (Zhou et al., 2022). Such a dramatic fluctuation result in the N:P ratio, from 17:1 to 50:1, which exceeds the Redfield ratio of 16:1, suggests that P availability may be a limiting factor controlling algal photosynthesis and growth.

Temperature is considered to be another crucial factor that affects the photosynthesis and growth of macroalgae (Ji and Gao, 2021). Anthropogenic activities have increased atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO_2) from roughly 280 ppm in pre-industrial times to over 410 ppm today. Under the SSP5-8.5 emissions scenario, the greenhouse gas is expected to cause an increase in global mean temperature of 4.3°C by the end of this century (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2021), with ocean surface temperature potentially rising by

2.34–2.82°C (Pörtner et al., 2019). Previous studies have shown that ocean warming can have varied effects on algae—positive, negative, or neutral—likely due to species-specific optimal growth temperatures (Liu et al., 2020; Ji and Gao, 2021). For example, a $\sim 3^\circ\text{C}$ rise in eastern Tasmania led to a >90% decline in *Macrocystis pyrifera* forests (Johnson et al., 2011). In Japan, a $\sim 1^\circ\text{C}$ temperature increase favored warm-temperate species such as *Ecklonia cava*, *Ecklonia stolonifera*, and *Undaria peterseniana*, while reducing cold-temperate species such as *Laminaria japonica*, *Kjellmaniella crassifolia*, and *Costaria costata* (Serisawa et al., 2004; Kirihara et al., 2006). Another example in northern Spain, the decrease of *Fucus serratus* and *Himantalia elongata* was linked to a 1.5°C–2°C rise in coastal seawaters (Duarte et al., 2013). These findings imply that macroalgae are highly sensitive to changes in temperature associated with global climate change despite being adapted to natural variations in temperature.

Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis (Gracilariaceae, Rhodophyta), an economically important marine crop, is the second largest cultivated macroalga after *Saccharina japonica* in China (Zhou et al., 2024). By using floating longlines and vegetative propagation methods, *G. lemaneiformis* has been seasonally cultivated from northern to southern China (Pang et al., 2017; Xue et al., 2022). As reported, the cultivation area of *G. lemaneiformis* in China is 13,924 hm^2 and its annual output reached 610,824 t (dry weight) in 2022 (Compiled by Fisheries Bureau of Ministry of Agriculture, 2023). Such high production of *G. lemaneiformis* not only provides food or industry resources but also contributes to mitigating climate change through the assimilation of inorganic carbon. Photosynthesis, the most general and sensitive physiological response, is pivotal for understanding how macroalgae adapt to varying temperatures and nutrient conditions (Ye et al., 2013). Currently, a number of studies have investigated the effect of nutrients or warming on photosynthesis and growth of *G. lemaneiformis* (Yang et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2024), while interaction between these factors has received less attention. Moreover, those published papers tend to focus on the reduction in photosynthetic efficiency, leaving the mechanisms of photoinhibition and their impact on cellular activities less explored. In our present study, changes in both photosynthesis performance and antioxidant enzyme activity were measured, aiming to characterize the different physiological

responses of *G. lemaneiformis* subjected to nutrient variations and ocean warming under natural sunlight.

Materials and methods

Experimental treatments

Thalli of *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis* were collected from farmed rafts offshore of Ningde, Fujian province of China (119.31°E, 26.39°N), in December 2023, and transferred to the laboratory in a cooled Styrofoam box. Following rinsing, weighted thalli of ~0.5 g fresh weight (FW) were grown for 10 days in 1.5 L open-ended tubes filled with artificial seawater, which was continuously aerated and renewed every 2 days. According to previous studies (Jiang et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2022, 2024), as well as *in-situ* measurement of seawater temperature (19.6°C), the ambient temperature was set as 20°C. The warming treatment (23°C) was set following the prediction of SSP5-8.5 (Pörtner et al., 2019; Masson-Delmotte et al., 2021), where the ocean surface temperature would increase by ~3°C. Under each temperature, four nutrient levels were set as low concentrations of N and P (LNLP) (N: 8 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, P: 0.5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), low concentration of N and high concentration of P (LNHP) (N: 8 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, P: 10 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), high concentration of N and low concentration of P (HNLP) (N: 160 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, P: 0.5 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), and high concentrations of N and P (HNHP) (N: 160 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, P: 10 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$). The artificial seawater used in this study was prepared according to Berges et al. (2001) without the addition of major nutrients and elements. The tubes were partly immersed in two

water baths, where the ambient water temperature, 20°C and 23°C, were controlled by two heaters (SunSun, AR-450, SunSun Group Co., Ltd, China). Four nutrient levels were adjusted by adding NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} into artificial seawater. Three independent replicate cultures were used for each treatment (n=3). The experiment set-up graphic is shown in Figure 1.

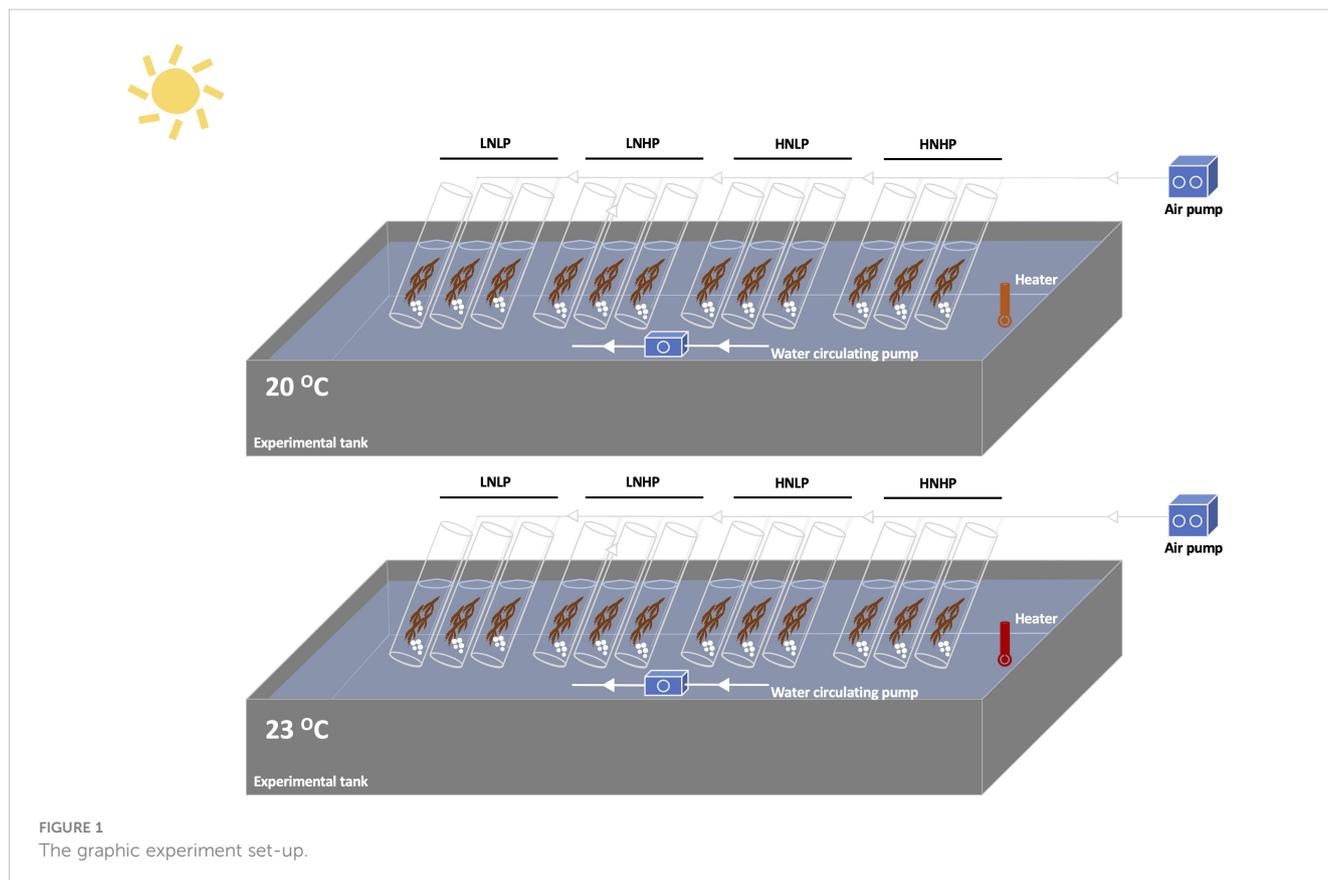
Determination of relative growth rate and contents of Chl a

Relative growth rate (RGR) was determined by measuring the changes in FW of the thalli after 10 days and was calculated by using the following equation $\text{RGR} (\% \text{ d}^{-1}) = 100 \times (\ln N_{10} - \ln N_0) / 10$, where N_{10} and N_0 represented fresh weights of the thalli at day 10 and 0, respectively.

Approximately 0.05 g (FW) thalli was ground and extracted in 5 mL absolute methanol at 4°C in darkness for 12 h. After centrifugation at 4°C, 5000g for 15 min, the absorbance of the supernatant was measured from 400 nm – 700 nm using a scanning spectrophotometer (752N, INESA Co. Ltd., Shanghai, China). The contents of chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*, mg/g FW) were calculated according to Porra (2002),

$$\text{Chl } a (\text{mg/gFW}) = \frac{[16.29 \times (A_{665} - A_{750}) - 8.54 \times (A_{652} - A_{750})] \times V_E}{m}$$

where A_x is the absorbance under the x-wavelength, V_E is the volume of the methanol extraction, and m is the weight of the algae.



Measurement and analysis of chlorophyll fluorescence

A portable fluorimeter (AquaPen AP110, Photon Systems Instruments, Brno, Czech Republic) was employed to measure the photosynthetic performance of photosystem II (PSII). During the measurements, a blue LED emitter with excitation light at 455 nm was used to eliminate the effect of phycobiliproteins on chlorophyll fluorescence. The minimal fluorescence (F_o) for 30 min dark-adapted thalli was induced by a low irradiance ($\sim 0.15 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), and the maximum fluorescence (F_m) was obtained during a saturating flash ($4000 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Following that, an actinic light with an intensity of $400 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ was employed to induce a steady state of photosynthesis. The stable fluorescence (F) and the corresponding maximum steady fluorescence (F_m') during the saturating flash were monitored. The maximum photochemical quantum yield of PSII (F_v/F_m), the non-photochemical quenching (NPQ), and the effective photochemical quantum yield of PSII (YII) were calculated as $F_v/F_m = (F_m - F_o)/F_m$; $\text{NPQ} = (F_m - F_m')/F_m'$; and $\text{YII} = (F_m' - F)/F_m'$, respectively.

According to Miao et al. (2018) and Heraud and Beardall (2000), the damage and recovery processes of the photosynthetic apparatus were obtained by periodically measuring the YII during photoinhibitory exposure ($\sim 1000 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). The damage (k , min^{-1}) and repair (r , min^{-1}) rates were estimated using the Kok model and calculated with the following equation:

$$\frac{Y_n}{Y_o} = \frac{r}{k+r} + \frac{k}{k+r} \times e^{-(k+r)/t}$$

where Y_n and Y_o are YII at time t_n and t_o , respectively.

Measurement of net photosynthesis and respiration rates

Net photosynthesis and dark respiration rates were measured with optical dissolved oxygen (DO) sensors (ProODO-BOD, YSI, USA). Approximately 0.2 g FW of *G. lemaneiformis* from each treatment was placed in a 100 mL BOD bottle containing cultivation artificial seawater, which was stirred continuously during the measurement. Temperature was maintained at either 20°C or 23°C, corresponding to the cultivation temperatures. The net photosynthesis and dark respiration rates ($\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ FW}$) were determined as the variations of DO content during light ($400 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and dark conditions, respectively.

Measurement of reactive oxygen species content and antioxidant enzyme activity

Fresh samples were ground with liquid nitrogen and the tissue homogenates were used to analyze the ROS (mainly referred to as hydrogen peroxide, H_2O_2) content and enzyme (mainly referred to as superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT)) activity of *G.*

lemaneiformis with a commercial assay kit (Jiancheng, Nanjing, China) following the manufacturer's protocols.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 19.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA). The homogeneity of variance was examined using Levene's test before all statistical analyses. One-way ANOVA and t-test were used to establish differences among treatments. A two-way ANOVA was used to identify the effects of warming, nutrients, and their interactions. As shown in Figure 1, warming treatments were achieved by heating the water in the tank, therefore, all ANOVA analyses regarding warming in this study should be temperature and tank effects. Differences were considered to be statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

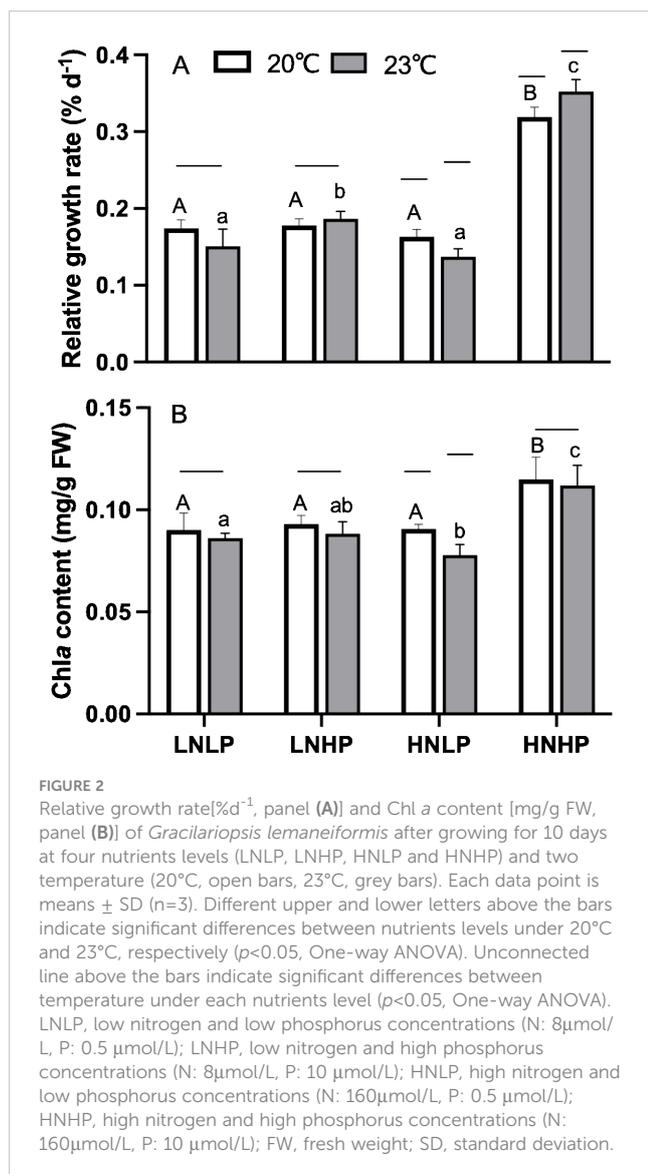
Results

Relative growth rate and Chl *a* content

As shown in Figure 2A, the RGR of *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis* displayed a significant difference among the treatments. Compared with LNLP treatment (natural seawater), the enrichment with NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} (HNHP) significantly increased RGR by up to 83% and 134% in 20°C and 23°C, respectively, reaching 3.2% and 3.5% per day. However, enrichment with only PO_4^{3-} concentration (LNHP), and enrichment with only NO_3^- concentration (HNLP) showed no significant effects on RGR. In terms of temperature variations, i.e., the temperature and tank effects, the higher temperature significantly increased the RGR in the HNHP condition but decreased in HNLP. A two-way ANOVA showed that both temperature, nutrient variations, and their interaction significantly affected RGR (Table 1). Considering the fact that both NO_3^- and PO_4^{3-} are essential for pigment formation, a significant increase of Chl *a* content was observed in HNHP treatment, but not for LNHP and HNLP treatments (Figure 2B). In contrast to higher values of RGR under 23°C, the elevated temperature did not enhance the contents of Chl *a* (Figure 2B).

Chlorophyll fluorescence, photosynthesis, and respiration

The maximum quantum yield of PSII (F_v/F_m) showed the highest values in the HNHP treatment, with an average value of ~ 0.54 at both 20°C and 23°C, and the lowest values in the HNLP treatment (Figure 3A). In terms of temperature, the values of F_v/F_m in 23°C in the LNHP and HNLP treatments were significantly higher than that in 20°C (t-test, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.05$), while in the LNLP and HNHP treatments, the values of F_v/F_m showed no significant difference between 20°C and 23°C (Figure 3A, t-test, $p = 0.243$, $p = 0.197$). In contrast, the NPQ was significantly upregulated in the LNHP and HNLP treatment, with an average value of 0.39 and



0.42 at 20°C and 23°C, respectively. The elevated temperature did not affect the NPQ, except for the HNLP treatment (Figure 3B).

Similar to RGR, the net photosynthesis rate of *G. lemaneiformis* showed the highest values in the HNHP treatment, with an average value of 40.38 μmol O₂ h⁻¹ g⁻¹ FW and 45.81 μmol O₂ h⁻¹ g⁻¹ FW at 20°C and 23°C, respectively (Figure 4A). The LNHP treatment brought no significant change to net photosynthesis rate (t-test, $p = 0.189$), and the HNLP treatment significantly decreased the net photosynthesis rate (t-test, $p < 0.05$). The elevated temperature significantly increased the net photosynthesis rate in the HNHP treatment (t-test, $p < 0.05$), but this decreased in the HNLP treatment (Figure 4A, t-test, $p < 0.05$). Changes in respiration rate are shown in Figure 4B; the highest values were observed in the HNHP treatment and the lowest values were observed in the HNLP treatment (Figure 4B). The elevated temperature showed no significant effect on respiration rate, except for the HNHP treatment (Figure 4B, t-test, $p = 0.176$, $p = 0.237$, $p = 0.467$ for LNLP, LNHP, and HNLP, respectively, and $p < 0.05$ for HNHP).

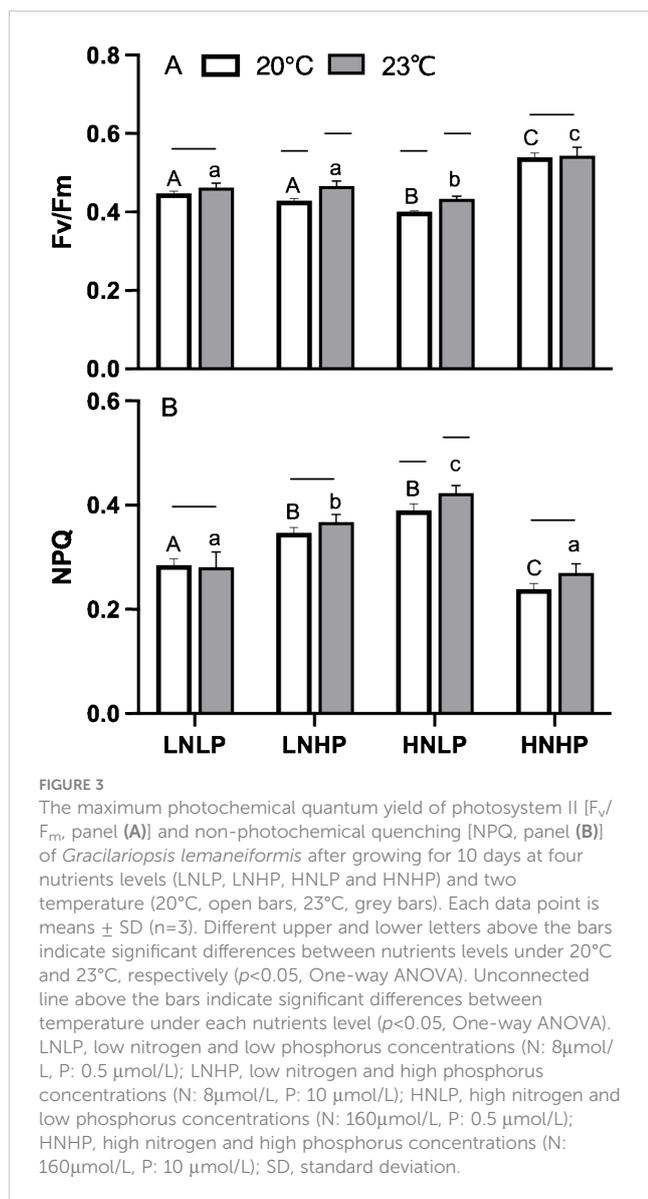
TABLE 1 Two-way ANOVA for the effects of temperature (20°C and 23°C) and nutrients variations (LNLP, LNHP, HNLP, HNHP) on the relative growth rate (RGR), the damage (k) and repair (r) rate.

Parameters	Source of variation	df	Mean square	F	p
RGR	Temperature	1	<0.001	5.645	0.03
	Nutrients variations	3	<0.001	273.413	<0.001
	Temperature × Nutrients variations	3	<0.001	7.612	0.002
	Error	16	<0.001		
k	Temperature	1	0.005	70.080	<0.001
	Nutrients variations	3	0.011	154.024	<0.001
	Temperature × Nutrients variations	3	0.001	9.236	0.001
	Error	16	<0.001		
r	Temperature	1	0.008	117.308	<0.001
	Nutrients variations	3	0.002	1.786	<0.001
	Temperature × Nutrients variations	3	<0.001	0.715	0.424
	Error	16	<0.001		

LNLP, low nitrogen and low phosphorus concentrations (N: 8 μmol/L, P: 0.5 μmol/L); LNHP, low nitrogen and high phosphorus concentrations (N: 8 μmol/L, P: 10 μmol/L); HNLP, high nitrogen and low phosphorus concentrations (N: 160 μmol/L, P: 0.5 μmol/L); HNHP, high nitrogen and high phosphorus concentrations (N: 160 μmol/L, P: 10 μmol/L).

Damage and repair rates of photosystem II

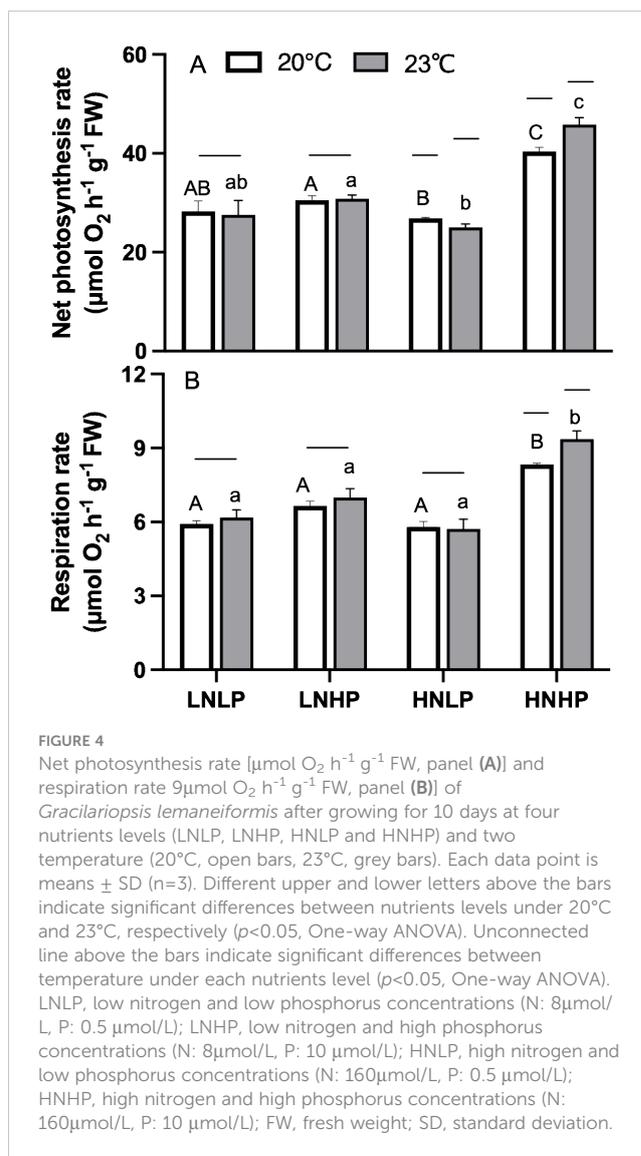
The rates of damage and repair of PSII during photoinhibitory exposure were estimated from the changes in the effective photochemical quantum yield of PSII (YII). The damage rate showed significantly higher values in low PO₄³⁻ concentrations, i.e., the LNLP and HNLP treatments, especially under the elevated temperature (Figure 5A). The elevated temperature showed no significant effects on the values of k in both the LNHP and HNHP treatments (Figure 5A, t-test, $p = 0.105$, $p = 0.217$ for LNHP and HNHP, respectively). By contrast, the repair rate showed significantly higher values in high PO₄³⁻ concentration, i.e., the LNHP and HNHP treatments (Figure 5A). The elevated temperature significantly decreased the repair rate by up to 8.5%, 3.4%, 16.1%, and 5.5% for LNLP, LNHP, HNLP, and HNHP, respectively. Accordingly, the ratio between r and k also showed significantly higher values in LNHP and HNHP treatments, and the elevated temperature significantly decreased the r/k (Figure 5C). A two-way ANOVA showed that temperature, nutrient variations, and their interaction, significantly affected the value of k (t-test, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.05$) and r (Table 1, t-test, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.05$), except for the interaction with r (t-test, $p = 0.424$).



Reactive oxygen species content and antioxidant enzyme activity

The ROS content was estimated by quantifying the production of H_2O_2 to assess the redox state of *G. lemaneiformis* under different treatments. As shown in Figure 6, the ROS content showed significantly higher values under the LNLP and HNLP treatments, while the enrichment of PO_4^{3-} significantly alleviated the production of ROS. The elevated temperature increased the production of ROS in low PO_4^{3-} concentrations (t-test, $p<0.05$ for both LNLP and HNLP treatments), but showed no significant effects on the LNHP and HNHP treatments (t-test, $p=0.382$, $p=0.417$ for LNHP and HNHP, respectively).

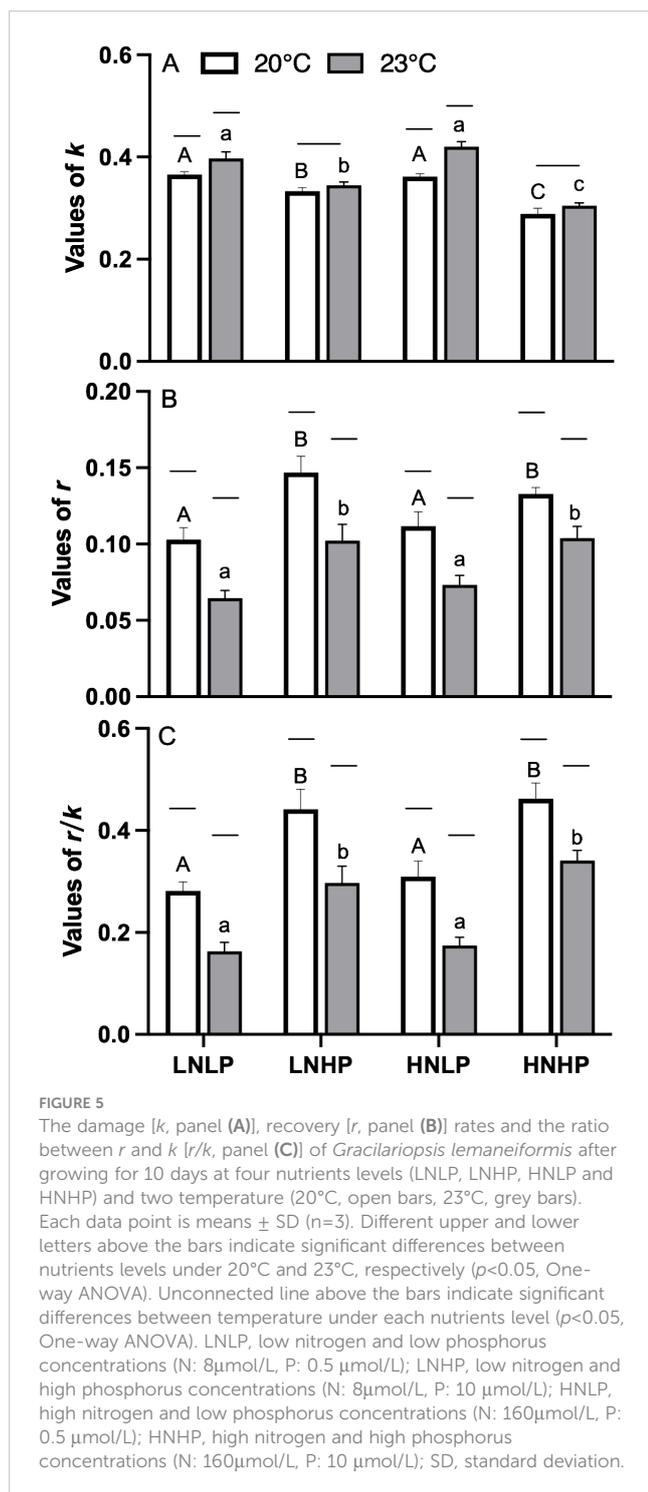
In turn, changes in antioxidant enzyme activity showed similar patterns. As shown in Figure 7, both SOD and CAT showed significantly higher activities under both LNLP and HNLP treatments, while decreased by the enrichment of PO_4^{3-} . The elevated temperature could further active the SOD and CAT activities in both LNLP and HNLP treatments, but not for LNHP and HNHP treatments.



Discussion

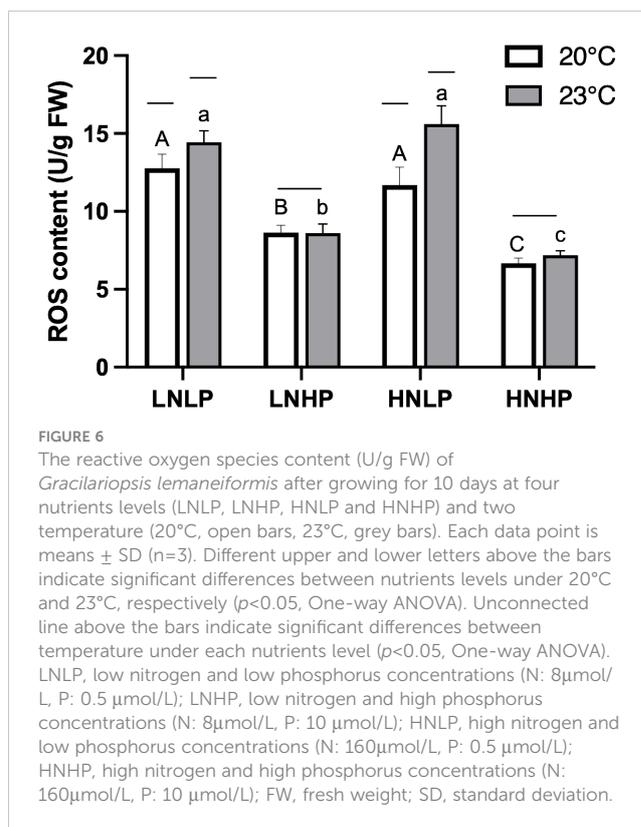
Effects of nutrients variations on *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis*

Nitrogen and phosphorus are both involved the synthesis of amino acids and phycobilins, the transformation of enzymes, and the formation of germ cells in macroalgae, which are all necessary for growth (Zhou et al., 2024). In coastal areas, the drastic fluctuations of nutrients induced by human activities often expose macroalgae to an imbalance between nitrogen and phosphorus, which affects their growth and survival (Chu et al., 2019). In the present study, the enrichment of both PO_4^{3-} and NO_3^- prompted the synthesis of Chl *a* and active photochemical efficiency, which led to an increase in the net photosynthesis rate of *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis* and further resulted in a parallel increase in RGR. However, enrichment of either PO_4^{3-} or NO_3^- alone did not enhance photosynthesis or growth. In the case of disturbed N:P,

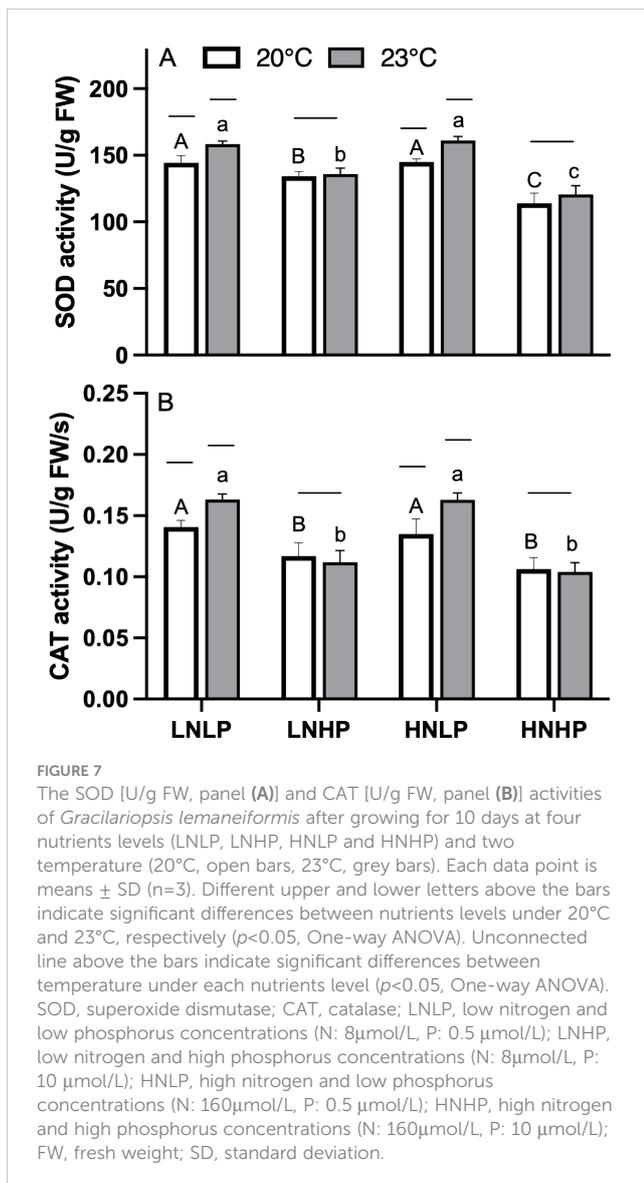


the lower phosphorus treatment (HNLP) exhibited a worse effect, showing lower values of RGR and net photosynthesis rate.

As essential nutrients, both nitrogen and phosphorus are not only involved in the formation of chloroplast DNA and RNA, but also highly necessary for the generation of ATP, the synthesis of phospholipids, and the phosphorylation of photosynthesis proteins (Scheerer et al., 2019). In our present study, the significant increase



of F_v/F_m under the HNHP condition indicated efficient conversion of absorbed light into chemical energy, as shown by higher net photosynthesis rates. Conversely, the significant decline of F_v/F_m under the HNLP condition suggested an inhibition of photosynthesis, which could further lead to reduced production of ATP and NADPH. As two essential molecules that fuel the Calvin cycle, the diminished ability to fix carbon would naturally result in a lower net photosynthesis rate and RGR. Similar results were also reported in several other macroalgae (e.g. *Sargassum muticum* in Xu et al., 2017; *Ulva linza* in Gao et al., 2018; and *Pyropia yezoensis* in Kim et al., 2019). In addition to the limitation of carbon fixation, photoinhibition-induced lower generation of ATP would also inhibit the high turnover rate of D1 protein [the core protein of photosystem II (PSII)], which is the prerequisite for PSII to flexibly respond to environmental fluctuations (Powles, 1984; Long et al., 1994). To clarify the occurrence of P deficiency-induced photoinhibition, non-photochemical quenching, the most common and quickest photoprotection mechanism (Adams and Demmig-Adams, 1994; Ruban, 2016), and the rates of damage and repair of PSII, were measured. In *G. lemaneiformis*, a decrease in F_v/F_m was always accompanied by an increase in NPQ (Figure 3), indicating an increase in energy dissipation, especially under the HNLP condition. Specifically, the required light energy for *G. lemaneiformis* cultured in the HNLP condition should be much less than that of other treatments, which easily suffer from photoinhibition. In terms of the rates of damage and repair of PSII during photoinhibitory exposure, the higher value of k and the



lower value of r suggested severe photoinhibition of PSII occurred in P deficiency treatments (Figure 5). These results confirmed that *G. lemaneiformis* was sensitive to P deficiency, which could induce significant photoinhibition by decreasing the P utilization in photophosphorylation (Scheerer et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2024) and retarding the repair of D1 protein.

Once the thermal energy dissipation could not satisfy the energy balance between absorption and utilization, the excess excitation energy would result in the accumulation of ROS (Logan et al., 1998, 2006), which is known to induce oxidative stress and damage biomolecules such as pigments, proteins, and lipids in plants and algae (Miller et al., 2010; Suzuki et al., 2012; Nahar et al., 2015; Barati et al., 2019). In the present study, the production of ROS was highly consistent with the damage and repair rates of the PSII, with high content in P deficiency conditions (Figure 6). The antioxidant

system that scavenges ROS has been previously reported as a second line of defense against photoinhibition-induced oxidative stress (Logan et al., 2006). Here, SOD and CAT, which are responsible for turning O_2^- into H_2O_2 , and turning H_2O_2 to H_2O , respectively, show similar trends to the production of ROS, with higher values in the P deficiency conditions. These results also confirmed that *G. lemaneiformis* was sensitive to P deficiency, which could induce severe oxidative stress by increasing photoinhibition risk.

Effects of warming on *Gracilariopsis lemaneiformis*

Generally, the elevated temperature could accelerate the growth of phytoplankton and macroalgae via upregulating the metabolic activity (Lund, 1949; Charan et al., 2017; Schaum et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2019). As mentioned above, the elevated temperature in this study was achieved by heating the water in the tank; therefore, the warming effect should be attributed to temperature and the tank. In *G. lemaneiformis*, both the net photosynthesis rate and growth under the HNHP treatment were increased by the elevated temperature. Similar results were also observed in *Chaetomorpha linum* and *Gracilaria blodgettii*, where their growth increased when the temperature rose from 20°C to 35°C within a phosphorus repletion condition (Zeng et al., 2020). In contrast, under P deficiency conditions, the higher temperature negatively affected both the net photosynthesis rate and growth in *G. lemaneiformis*. A plausible explanation for this is that the limited available P is prioritized for maintaining the basic functions of the cells and the high requirement of P (a high P uptake rate) induced by the high temperature could not be satisfied, resulting in a decrease in algal biomass (Talbot and De la Noüe, 1993; Mandal et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2024). Additionally, the significant enhancement of k and decline of r at 23°C also implied that the elevated temperature increased the photoinhibition of *G. lemaneiformis* under P deficiency conditions. Together with the increase in ROS production (Figure 6) and antioxidant enzyme activity (Figure 7), our data demonstrated that future warming would exacerbate P deficiency-induced photoinhibition and oxidative stress.

Conclusion

Found in coastal areas, macroalgae are often exposed to drastic environmental fluctuations due to anthropogenic activities, including nutrient variations and seawater warming. The present study indicates that *G. lemaneiformis* is particularly susceptible to P deficiency, leading to significant photoinhibition and increased oxidative stress, ultimately reducing growth. Furthermore, projected seawater warming is likely to exacerbate the negative impacts of P deficiency, amplifying photoinhibition and oxidative stress.

Data availability statement

The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available by the authors, without undue reservation.

Author contributions

DZ: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. J-ZS: Methodology, Writing – review & editing. M-HF: Investigation, Writing – review & editing. C-JL: Investigation, Writing – review & editing.

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Conflict of interest

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