

1 **Comparison of thermal traits between non-toxic and potentially toxic marine**
2 **phytoplankton: Implications to their responses to ocean warming**

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Our growth experiments revealed that temperature traits were not dependent on the toxicity of phytoplankton, except for optimal temperature and critical thermal maxima.
- Based on our independent analysis of the published datasets of growth responses to temperature, the maximum growth rates, cardinal temperatures, fundamental thermal niche, and skewness were comparable between non-toxic and potentially toxic phytoplankton.
- We found that most marine phytoplankton were thriving within the thermal safety zone in the present climate scenario; however, non-toxic species were more vulnerable to warming than potentially toxic species in a future climate scenario.

14 **ABSTRACT**

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15 Understanding the effect of temperature on growth in marine phytoplankton is
16 crucial in predicting the biogeography and phenology of algal blooms in the warming
17 ocean. Here, we investigated the temperature dependence of the growth of non-toxic
18 and potentially toxic marine phytoplankton. Using non-toxic strains (*Prorocentrum* sp.
19 NRR 188, *Prorocentrum micans* CCAP 1136/15, and *Alexandrium tamutum*
20 PARALEX 242) and potentially toxic strains (*Prorocentrum minimum* Poulet,
21 *Prorocentrum lima* CCAP 1136/11, and *Alexandrium minutum* PARALEX 246) of
22 dinoflagellates as test organisms, we measured their growth rates along a wide
23 temperature gradient and estimated their maximum growth rates, thermal traits (e.g.
24 thermal optima (T_{opt}), critical thermal minima (CT_{min}), critical thermal maximum
25 (CT_{max}), fundamental thermal niche (FTN), and skewness), thermal sensitivity, and
26 warming vulnerability. To allow a comparison of these traits with an adequate
27 number of observations, we independently analyzed datasets compiled from
28 published laboratory experiments. Our experiments revealed that the temperature
29 traits were independent of the toxicity of phytoplankton, except for T_{opt} and CT_{max} .
30 Also, the results of the analysis of the published datasets showed that maximum
31 growth rates and thermal traits were comparable between non-toxic and potentially
32 toxic phytoplankton. Our findings suggest that non-toxic and potentially toxic
33 phytoplankton have generally comparable temperature traits that they can use to
34 respond to climate change. However, depending on the climate scenario, non-toxic
35 phytoplankton may be more vulnerable to warming than potentially toxic
36 phytoplankton. Further studies are needed to improve our understanding of the
37 response of marine phytoplankton to temperature, which can advance our ability to
38 predict algal blooms in response to ongoing climate change.

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40 Keywords: microalgal ecophysiology, thermal physiology, thermal performance,
41 growth models, growth experiment, toxic microalgae

42 1. INTRODUCTION

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2 43 Phytoplankton are ecologically important as primary producers and biological
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4 44 carbon pump regulators (e.g. Behrenfeld et al., 2006; Falkowski, 2012; Falkowski
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7 45 and Oliver, 2007). However, some phytoplankton species may form harmful algal
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9 46 blooms (HABs) that are a global problem due to the production of toxins that pose a
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11 47 risk to public health, the environment, and our economy (Berdalet et al., 2015). Toxic
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13 48 blooms are already a global problem and their current distribution is alarming.
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16 49 Climate change may provide favorable conditions for toxic algae to occur
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18 50 (Hallegraeff, 2010). Toxic blooms and their impacts may likely be exacerbated in the
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21 51 future when their duration, intensity, and frequency may increase in response to
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23 52 changes in the climate (Moore et al., 2008; Tatters et al., 2013). The well-
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25 53 documented effects of toxins on humans and other organisms (Berdalet et al., 2015)
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27 54 and the potential effect of climate change on toxic blooms in the future (Fu et al.,
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29 55 2012) have stimulated studies on the ecophysiology of toxic phytoplankton (e.g.
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31 56 Kellmann et al., 2010; Perini et al., 2014; Ramsey et al., 1998; Stüken et al., 2011).
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34 57 Hence, it is crucial to be able to assess the sensitivity of non-toxic and toxic species
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36 58 to changes in the temperature, which is projected to increase under climate change
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38 59 (IPCC, 2013).

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41 60 Temperature is one of the most fundamental abiotic factors that influence the
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43 61 growth of phytoplankton (Boyd et al., 2013; de Boer et al., 2004). Increasing
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45 62 temperature enhances growth until it reaches the optimal temperature, while
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47 63 elevated temperature beyond the optimal decreases growth and can be lethal.
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49 64 These thermal responses characterize the typical asymmetry of the growth-
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51 65 temperature curve (also known as the thermal performance curve or the thermal
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53 66 reaction norm), with an asymptotic increase on the colder side, and an abrupt
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67 decline on the warmer side (Ras et al., 2013). Thermal performance curves are
68 often unimodal and negatively skewed in ectotherms (Eppley, 1972; Kingsolver,
69 2009; Knies and Kingsolver, 2010). The shape of the curves reflects the effect of
70 temperature on the enzymatic rate process and enzyme activation and stability at
71 high temperatures (Knies and Kingsolver, 2010). Growth rates increase gradually
72 with increasing temperature below the thermal optimum (T_{opt}), which is attributed to
73 the exponential increase of the reaction rates with increasing temperature following
74 the Arrhenius kinetics (Arrhenius, 1915). On the other hand, the growth rate
75 decreases with a further increase in temperature above T_{opt} , which is attributed to
76 the denaturation of essential proteins (Hochachka and Somero, 2002). The variability
77 in the trends in growth below or above T_{opt} can be explained by the probability of the
78 activation of rate-limiting enzymes that declines at high and low temperature (Knies
79 and Kingsolver, 2010; Ratkowsky et al., 2005).

80 Several non-linear models have been used to describe the growth response
81 to temperature (Eppley, 1972; Low-Décarie et al., 2017; Rosso et al., 1993). These
82 models are also used to predict the maximum growth rate (r_{max}) and the thermal
83 traits such as the (i) the cardinal temperatures that correspond to the boundaries of
84 thermal tolerance (i.e. thermal optima (T_{opt}), critical thermal minima (CT_{min}), and
85 critical thermal maximum (CT_{max}), and (ii) the fundamental thermal niche breadth
86 (FTN) that correspond to the thermal range on which a species can physiologically
87 tolerate. The temperature range is species-specific that reflects the physiological
88 plasticity of species in response to changes in temperature (de Boer et al., 2004).
89 These thermal traits can be used to infer (i) thermal safety margin (TSM) – which
90 measures the difference between a species' thermal tolerance and the temperatures
91 it experiences in the environment (Sunday et al., 2014) – and (ii) warming

92 vulnerability (V) – that estimates the number of the year prior the local temperatures
93 are expected to exceed CT_{max} in a given location (Bennett et al., 2019). Temperature
94 traits, thermal safety margin, and warming vulnerability provide important information
95 to understand how phytoplankton will respond to ocean warming.

96 Several studies have examined the effect of temperature on phytoplankton
97 growth rate (e.g., Thomas et al., 2012). However, the differences in the thermal
98 responses between non-toxic and toxic phytoplankton species have not been
99 extensively studied yet. To address this research gap, we conducted growth
100 experiments and analyzed data from multiple studies to determine whether non-toxic
101 and potentially toxic marine phytoplankton exhibit variations in temperature traits.

103 2. MATERIALS AND METHOD

104 2.1. Test organisms

105 Six cultures of dinoflagellate strains were obtained from different culture
106 collections (Table 1). They are ecologically relevant organisms belonging to the
107 phytoplankton genera that make up the majority of the toxic bloom-forming species,
108 i.e. *Prorocentrum* and *Alexandrium* (Abdenadher et al., 2012; Ben-Gharbia et al.,
109 2016; Grzebyk et al., 1997; Quilliam et al., 1996; Vlamis et al., 2015). Three of the
110 strains are listed as “toxic” from their respective culture collections but only one
111 strain was detected for the presence of toxins (e.g. okadaic acid (OA) and
112 dinophysistoxins (*DTX1* and *DTX2*)), henceforth all of these strains were referred as
113 potentially toxic. Another three strains congeneric to the potentially toxic strains were
114 non-toxic. To minimize the effect of the differences in the source’s culture conditions,
115 all strains were maintained in 35 mL batch cultures in artificial seawater (ASW)
116 (Berges et al., 2001) enriched with *K* minimum nutrients (Keller et al., 1987).

117 Cultures were regularly transferred to a fresh *K* medium to maintain exponential
118 growth. The cultures were not axenic. To minimize contamination, all *ASW* and *K*
119 media were autoclaved, and all transfers were performed in a class II biosafety
120 cabinet. The batch cultures were maintained at a constant temperature of 15°C and
121 under a 12:12 hour light-dark cycle at a mean light intensity (\pm standard error) of 221
122 $\pm 12 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, measured using a light meter (Li-Cor Li-250A). They were allowed
123 to grow at this condition for at least four transfers before experimental procedures.

2.2. Growth experiments

126 Plate- and tube-based experiments (Fig. 1; Supplementary Table S1) were
127 designed to examine the growth of non-toxic and toxic marine phytoplankton across
128 a wide range of temperatures.

2.2.1. Plate-based experiments

131 In the plate-based experiments, the temperature gradient was maintained
132 using thermoblocks that were housed in separate growth chambers (Convion
133 Adaptis CMP6010) with similar growth conditions, except for the air temperature
134 which needed to be different to achieve the desired thermal gradient. Each of the
135 thermoblocks was custom-made metal blocks that were temperature-regulated with
136 flow-through fluid. The temperature gradient of the thermoblock was regulated by the
137 flow of fluid to an external cooling or heating device connected via insulated flexible
138 PVC hoses. At one end of the block, a water bath chiller was used as a cooling
139 device to circulate antifreeze fluid. Whereas, a water bath was used as a heating
140 device to circulate distilled water at the other end of the block. Temperature set
141 points for external cooling and heating devices are adjusted to attain the desired

142 temperature gradient and stepwise variation in each thermoblock (Supplementary
1
2 Table S1).

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5 144 To determine the thermal growth response in each experimental organism,
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7 145 three replicates of 0.2 mL of each of the cultures were inoculated into 1.8 mL *K*
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9 146 medium in each well of the first three rows of the 24-well microplates. Wells in the
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11 147 last row were inoculated with *K* medium to serve as blank. Algal cells in the
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13 148 microplates were incubated in the above-mentioned plate-based thermoblocks for
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15 149 nine days. The microplates were covered with lids with pores that were sheathed
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17 150 with polyvinylidene chloride gas-permeable membranes to ensure gas exchange
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19 151 during the incubation period and were removed aseptically every growth
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22 152 measurement.

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26 153 Growth rates were quantified from the changes in cell density that were
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28 154 estimated from the optical density (*OD*) measured daily (between 14:00 to 16:00) for
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30 155 nine days using a FLUOstar Omega spectrophotometer (BMG Labtech, Germany)
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32 156 with the following endpoint protocol settings: excitation of 660 nm that corresponds
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34 157 to the long wavelength absorption peak of chlorophyll *a*, horizontal bidirectional
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36 158 reading (start top left), and shaking with a frequency of 400 rpm for 60 seconds
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39 159 before plate reading to homogenize the sample.

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43 160 *OD* values were blank corrected and were pre-processed to detect outliers
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45 161 before regression analyses. A total of 324 triplicated observations (36 assay
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47 162 temperatures x 9 days) for every experimental organism were obtained and were
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49 163 quality controlled. The data were trimmed to capture growth within the exponential
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51 164 phase. These pre-processed data were used subsequently in the regression
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54 165 analyses to estimate the growth rates.

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167 **2.2.2. Tube-based experiments**

168 Tube-based experiments were performed inside a growth chamber with
169 conditions described in Supplementary Table S1. The thermal gradient in these
170 experiments ranged from 5°C to 30°C at 5°C stepwise variations. Each assay
171 temperature was maintained inside a glass water-jacketed bath using circulating
172 distilled water. The temperature of the circulated distilled water was regulated by
173 external recirculating water baths connected via flexible PVC hoses.

174 Triplicates of 4 mL of each of the cultures were inoculated into 36 mL *K*
175 medium contained in 50 mL glass test tubes. The tubes were capped with
176 autoclaved foam stoppers to allow gas exchange during the incubation period. Algal
177 cells in the test tubes were incubated in the above-mentioned temperature-regulated
178 water-jacketed bath. Two tube-based experiments were performed. In the first
179 experiment, the cells were incubated for 16 days without stepwise acclimatization.
180 While in the second experiment, the strains were allowed to acclimatize to a new
181 thermal condition for 14 days before the incubation to another 14 days of incubation.

182 Growth of the cultures was determined using *in vivo* fluorescence as a proxy
183 for phytoplankton biomass, which was measured daily (between 14:00 to 16:00)
184 using a Turner Designs Trilogy Fluorometer. Before the fluorescence measurement,
185 each culture in a test tube was homogenized using a vortex mixer. The test tube was
186 subsequently placed in the fluorometer and a fluorescence reading was obtained.
187 The estimated fluorescence in all samples was corrected with the fluorescence in a
188 blank sample (i.e. 0.04). The corrected estimates of fluorescence were used to
189 compute the growth rates as described in the section below.

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191 **2.3. Determination of growth rates and thermal traits**

192 The natural log of OD or the fluorescence estimates were fitted against time
193 in a linear model to estimate the growth rate. Only the positive growth rates were
194 included in the subsequent analysis. The growth rates were fitted against
195 temperature in a unimodal response curve using the different non-linear functions
196 (i.e. equ04 – equ15 in the R package *temperatureresponse* (Low-Décarie *et al.*
197 2017) and Cardinal Temperature Model with Inflexion (*CTMI*; equ16) (Rosso *et al.*,
198 1993)) presented in Supplementary Table S2.

199 A modified Levenberg–Marquardt algorithm was used for the robust fitting of
200 non-linear equations to data (Low-Décarie *et al.* 2017). The starting values were
201 estimated from the dataset when the equation parameter values represent features
202 of the dataset, otherwise, the starting values for the parameters were derived the
203 fitted parameters from the source publication of the equation or were set to ensure a
204 downward parabola-like shape. Equations were ranked on each dataset using the
205 Bayesian information criterion (BIC). Similar results of the ranking of equations were
206 observed when other measures of model quality were used such as the Akaike
207 information criterion (AIC) and the AIC corrected for finite sample sizes (AICc).

208 These non-linear models were used to estimate the following thermal traits:
209 (1) the maximum growth rate (r_{max} , d^{-1} ; the highest growth rate within the temperature
210 range), (2) the cardinal temperatures such as the thermal optimum (T_{opt} , $^{\circ}C$);
211 temperature that corresponds to r_{max}), critical thermal minimum (CT_{min} , $^{\circ}C$; the lowest
212 temperature at which no positive growth), and critical thermal maximum (CT_{max} , $^{\circ}C$;
213 the highest temperature at which no positive growth), and (3) the fundamental
214 thermal niche breadth (FTN , $^{\circ}C$; the width of the temperature range). The skewness
215 of the curve was also calculated as the difference between activation and
216 deactivation rates, which were derived from the mean value of the derivative across

217 sub- (CT_{min} to T_{opt}) and supra- (T_{opt} to CT_{max}) optimal temperatures, respectively. The
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2 218 skewness was used as a measure of the asymmetry of the thermal growth curve. A
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4 219 positive skew indicates activation is steeper than deactivation, whereas a negative
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7 220 skew indicates that deactivation is steeper than activation.
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10 221 To obtain an adequate number of observations, this study also analyzed the
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12 222 datasets of published experimental results on marine phytoplankton growth rates
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14 223 across temperatures (Litchman and Klausmeier, 2014; Thomas et al., 2016, 2012).
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16 224 This dataset contains growth responses to temperature in 545 phytoplankton
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19 225 strains/isolates from the major phytoplankton groups, and 74 of the isolates
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21 226 represent 25 potentially toxic species. The strains in this dataset were isolated from
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24 227 76 deg N to 76 deg S, which gives us a broad geographic coverage (Fig. 2). The
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26 228 species in the dataset that were listed in the IOC-UNESCO Taxonomic Reference
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29 229 List of Harmful Micro Algae (Moestrup et al., 2009) were categorized as potentially
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31 230 toxic, otherwise they are categorized as non-toxic. Out of 545 phytoplankton
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34 231 strains/isolates in the dataset, 74 of which represent 25 potentially toxic species, and
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36 232 about 20% belong to the same taxonomic class as the experimental organisms in
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39 233 this study.
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41 234 To simplify the results, trait estimates were averaged across models
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44 235 weighted by BIC median rank. All the mean estimates derived from our experiments
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46 236 and published experimental data were pooled and curated to exclude unrealistic
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49 237 estimates of thermal traits with the following inclusion criteria (1) r_{max} within the 0.01
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51 238 to 3.00 d⁻¹ range, and (2) cardinal temperatures within the -7 to 40 °C range.
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56 240 **2.4. Determination of thermal safety and vulnerability**

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241 Longitude and latitude coordinates were approximated based on the
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 2 242 isolation location of the strains. These coordinates were used to determine the sea
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 4 243 surface temperature (*SST*) of the coldest and warmest months from 2000 to 2014,
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 7 244 which were downloaded from *Bio-ORACLE* (Assis et al., 2018). The *SST* was used
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 10 245 to represent the ambient temperature extremes that the strains experience in their
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 12 246 local habitats (H_{min} and H_{max} in °C, respectively). The difference between a strain's
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 14 247 critical thermal limits (CT_{min} and CT_{max}) and the temperature extremes it experiences
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 17 248 represent its sensitivity to cold and warm temperatures (S_{min} and S_{max} in °C,
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 19 249 respectively) (Bennett et al., 2019). The thermal sensitivity was used to infer the
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 22 250 species' thermal safety margin (*TSM*). A positive *TSM* ($CT_{min} < H_{min}$, hence $S_{min} < 0$;
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 24 251 $CT_{max} > H_{max}$, hence $S_{max} > 0$) suggests that a species has physiological thermal
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 26 252 safety, whereas a negative *TSM* ($CT_{min} > H_{min}$, hence $S_{min} > 0$; $CT_{max} < H_{max}$, hence
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 29 253 $S_{max} < 0$) indicates that a species has to avoid the extreme temperatures or else it is
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 32 254 at risk of thermal danger (Sunday et al., 2014). Warming vulnerability (*V*, year)
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 34 255 describes the number of years prior the local temperatures are expected to exceed
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 36 256 CT_{max} in a given location (Bennett et al., 2019). This was calculated by dividing the
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 39 257 species' sensitivity to warm temperature (S_{max}) by the warming rate (*WR*, °C per
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 41 258 year) it experiences in a given location. *WR* was derived from the slope of *SST* of the
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 44 259 warmest month between the contemporary and future climate scenarios (i.e. *SST*
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 46 260 predicted in 2050 and 2010 based on *RCP 2.6* and *RCP 8.5*, which were also
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 48
 49 261 downloaded from *Bio-ORACLE* (Assis et al., 2018)). Thermal sensitivity, exposure,
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 51 262 and vulnerability in the studied *Prorocentrum minimum* strains were not determined
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 53 263 because their isolation locations were unknown.

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265 2.5. Data processing and analyses

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266 All data processing and analyses were conducted in R version 4.2.1 (R Core
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2 267 Team, 2022) and implemented in RStudio version (RStudio Team, 2022).
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5 268 Descriptive statistics i.e. minimum, maximum, mean, and standard error (SE) were
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7 269 determined for each trait, and the mean \pm SE is reported throughout. Linear mixed
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10 270 models (LMM) were used to analyze the variation using the *lmer* function in lme4
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12 271 package in R (Bates et al., 2015). The variation in the response variables (i.e.
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14 272 maximum growth rates, thermal traits, thermal sensitivity, and warming vulnerability)
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17 273 between non-toxic and potentially toxic species was analyzed. For the models in our
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19 274 experiments, we take into account the random effects of strain identity and the
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22 275 source of the experimental data (i.e. *lmer(response ~ toxicity + (1|strain) +*
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24 276 *(1|experiment))*). For the models in the analysis of the published laboratory
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27 277 experiments, we only take into account the random effect of the source of the
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29 278 experimental data (i.e. *lmer(response ~ toxicity + (1|experiment))*). The later model
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32 279 structure was used to compare thermal sensitivity and warming vulnerability between
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34 280 non-toxic and potentially toxic phytoplankton. All the LMMs were compared to a null
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37 281 model using the likelihood ratio (*LR*) test to determine the significance of a single
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39 282 factor by comparing the fit for models with and without the factor (Table S3 – S5).
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44 284 **3. RESULTS**

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49 286 **3.1. Thermal performance curves**

51 287 Our experiments revealed the sensitivity of growth rates of non-toxic and
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53 288 potentially toxic phytoplankton strains to temperature (Fig. 3). Generally, the growth
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56 289 rate increased gradually with temperature until it reached its peak at the optimal
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290 temperature, and it decreased substantially with a further increase in temperature.

291 The shapes of the thermal performance curves were generally negatively skewed.

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293 **3.1.1. Non-toxic strains**

294 *Prorocentrum* sp. NRR 188 had a maximum growth rate of $0.18 \pm 0.01 \text{ d}^{-1}$ at
295 $19.53 \pm 0.59 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. This strain had a thermal niche breadth of $25.54 \pm 1.00 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and
296 could grow from 5.10°C to 30.65°C . The strain had a skewness of the curve of -0.20
297 ± 0.04 .

298 The maximum growth rate of *P. micans* CCAP 1136/15 was $0.16 \pm 0.01 \text{ d}^{-1}$ at
299 $16.45 \pm 0.77 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. This strain had a thermal niche breadth of $25.30 \pm 0.80 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and
300 could grow between $4.27 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $29.57 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The skewness of the curve in this strain
301 was estimated to be zero (0.002 ± 0.001).

302 *A. tamutum* RCC3034 had a maximum growth rate of $0.20 \pm 0.01 \text{ d}^{-1}$. It could
303 grow optimally at $19.62 \pm 0.46 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. It had a thermal niche breadth of $25.23 \pm 0.74 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$
304 and could grow between $4.41 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $29.63 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The strain had a skewness of the
305 curve of -0.36 ± 0.09 .

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307 **3.1.2 Potentially toxic strains**

308 The maximum growth rate of *P. minimum* RCC291 was $0.28 \pm 0.03 \text{ d}^{-1}$ at
309 $23.16 \pm 0.47 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. This strain had a thermal niche breadth of $26.23 \pm 0.45 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and
310 could grow between $4.52 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $30.75 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. The skewness of the curve in this strain
311 was -1.03 ± 0.33 .

312 *P. lima* CCAP 1136/11 had a maximum growth rate of $0.11 \pm 0.02 \text{ d}^{-1}$. The
313 optimal temperature for growth in this strain was $19.68 \pm 0.79 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. This strain could

314 grow from 4.73 °C to 30.44 °C. It had a thermal niche breadth of 25.71 ± 0.64 °C.

315 The strain had a skewness of the curve of -0.06 ± 0.02 .

316 *A. minutum* RCC2649 had a maximum growth rate of 0.24 ± 0.004 d⁻¹. It could

317 grow optimally at 21.94 ± 0.46 °C. It had a thermal niche breadth of 26.36 ± 0.52 °C

318 and could grow between 4.44 °C and 30.80 °C. The strain had a skewness of the

319 curve of -0.63 ± 0.17 .

320

321 **3.2. Variation of maximum growth rates and thermal traits**

322 Based on our experiments, we observed that non-toxic and potentially toxic

323 strains did not differ in maximum growth rate and thermal traits, except in T_{opt} ($\chi^2_{(1, N=54)} = 4.30$, $p = 0.038$) and CT_{max} ($\chi^2_{(1, N=54)} = 4.02$, $p = 0.045$). Similarly, our analysis

324 of the published laboratory experiments revealed no significant differences in these

325 of the published laboratory experiments revealed no significant differences in these

326 temperature traits between non-toxic and potentially toxic phytoplankton (Fig. 4).

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328 **3.2.1. Maximum growth rate**

329 The maximum growth rate in non-toxic phytoplankton (0.98 ± 0.03 d⁻¹) was

330 twice higher than the estimate in potentially toxic phytoplankton (0.53 ± 0.07 d⁻¹), but

331 the difference was not significant. This trait did not show dependence on toxicity

332 ($\chi^2_{(1, N=264)} = 3.28$, $p = 0.07$). Most potentially toxic strains in our experiments had r_{max}

333 close to the median, except for *P. lima* of which the estimate was within the first

334 quartile of the distribution (Fig. 4A). Estimates of r_{max} in all non-toxic strains in our

335 experiments were near the lower limit of the distribution.

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337 **3.2.2. Thermal optimum**

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338 Thermal optimum in non-toxic phytoplankton (19.42 ± 0.47 °C) was similar to
 339 the estimate in potentially toxic phytoplankton (21.92 ± 1.49 °C) and no dependence
 340 of T_{opt} on toxicity was observed ($\chi^2_{(1, N=264)} = 1.37$, $p = 0.24$). T_{opt} in non-toxic strains
 341 in our experiments was lower than the median, whilst all of the potentially toxic
 342 strains, except for *P. lima*, were higher than the median value (Fig. 4B).

3.2.3. Critical thermal limits

345 Non-toxic phytoplankton had lower critical thermal minimum and maximum
 346 (4.41 ± 0.35 °C and 26.28 ± 0.59 °C, respectively) than the estimated values in
 347 potentially toxic phytoplankton (5.32 ± 0.97 °C and 29.77 ± 1.56 °C, respectively), but
 348 no significant variation in the traits was found. Both critical thermal limits were not
 349 dependent on the toxicity of phytoplankton (CT_{min} : $\chi^2_{(1, N=264)} = 0.96$, $p = 0.33$; CT_{max} :
 350 $\chi^2_{(1, N=264)} = 1.32$, $p = 0.25$). The critical thermal limits in all strains in our experiments
 351 were within the 25% - 75% percentile (Fig. 4C and 4D).

3.2.4. Fundamental thermal niche

354 The fundamental thermal niche in non-toxic phytoplankton (21.87 ± 0.50 °C)
 355 was comparable to the estimated value in potentially toxic phytoplankton ($24.46 \pm$
 356 1.33 °C). FTN did not exhibit dependence on the toxicity of the phytoplankton ($\chi^2_{(1,$
 357 $N=264)} = 0.34$, $p = 0.56$). All strains in our experiments had FTN near the median,
 358 except for *P. micans* which had FTN above the 75% percentile (Fig. 4E).

3.2.5. Skewness

361 Skewness of the thermal performance curves in non-toxic and potentially
 362 toxic phytoplankton was negative (-0.22 ± 0.05 and -0.24 ± 0.11 , respectively) and

363 did not show dependence on toxicity ($\chi^2_{(1, N=197)} = 0.12, p = 0.73$). The skewness of
 364 the TPC in all strains in our experiments was within the second and third quartile
 365 (Fig. 4F).

367 3.3. Thermal safety and vulnerability

368 The majority of the phytoplankton had higher critical thermal maxima (CT_{max})
 369 than the maximum SST projected in 2050 and 2010 at different climate scenarios
 370 (RCP 2.6 and RCP 8.5) (Fig. 5). About 80% of the marine phytoplankton (78% of the
 371 non-toxic strains and 100% of the potentially toxic strains) had CT_{max} higher than the
 372 environmental temperature projected in 2050 at RCP 2.6, with the mean difference
 373 of 7.25 ± 0.31 °C (Fig. 5A). The remaining 20% of the marine phytoplankton (all were
 374 non-toxic) had mean CT_{max} that was 8.56 ± 0.98 °C lower than the projected local
 375 environmental temperature. Similar observations were found in the projections in
 376 2050 at RCP 8.5 (Fig. 5B) and 2100 at RCP 2.6 (Fig. 5C). However, a noticeable
 377 difference in the statistics was observed for the projections in 2100 at RCP 8.5 (Fig.
 378 5D). Approximately, 71% of the marine phytoplankton (69% of the non-toxic strains
 379 and 90% of the potentially toxic strains) had CT_{max} higher than the environmental
 380 temperature projected in 2100 at RCP 8.5, with the mean difference of 5.69 ± 0.31
 381 °C. The remaining 29% of the marine phytoplankton (31% of the non-toxic strains
 382 and 10% of the potentially toxic strains) had a mean CT_{max} that was 7.99 ± 0.87 °C
 383 lower than the projected local environmental temperature in 2100 at RCP 8.5.

384 The majority of the phytoplankton strains had lower CT_{min} and higher CT_{max}
 385 than the local minimum and maximum SST, respectively. As a result, they had
 386 sensitivity to cold (S_{min}) and sensitivity to warm (S_{max}) temperatures below and above
 387 zero, respectively, occupying the thermal safety zone. About 58.33% of the strains

388 had thermal safety, whereas the remaining 41.67% were at risk of cooling (23.41%),
 389 warming (15.08%), or both (3.17%).

390 S_{min} and S_{max} in non-toxic phytoplankton (-4.27 ± 0.40 °C and 5.21 ± 0.52 °C,
 391 respectively) were comparable to the estimate in potentially toxic phytoplankton ($-$
 392 5.54 ± 0.63 °C and 11.15 ± 0.78 °C, respectively) (Fig. 6A and 6B). These traits did
 393 not exhibit dependence on the toxicity of phytoplankton (S_{min} : $\chi^2(1, N=276) = 2.17$, $p =$
 394 0.14 ; S_{max} : $\chi^2(1, N=276) = 0.27$, $p = 0.60$).

395 Fig. 6C and 6D present the vulnerability to warming of non-toxic and
 396 potentially toxic phytoplankton in *RCP 2.6* and *RCP 8.5* climate scenarios.
 397 Vulnerability to warming at *RCP 2.6* climate scenario was dependent to toxicity ($V_{2.6}$:
 398 $\chi^2(1, N=227) = 7.59$, $p = 0.0059$). The mean estimate of $V_{2.6}$ in non-toxic phytoplankton
 399 (913 ± 45 years) was lower compared to the value in potentially toxic phytoplankton
 400 (1154 ± 106 years). However, no significant difference in $V_{8.5}$ was found between
 401 groups ($V_{2.6}$: $\chi^2(1, N=229) = 3.76$, $p = 0.052$). The local maximum temperature was
 402 projected to exceed the CT_{max} of non-toxic phytoplankton after 247 ± 13 years at
 403 *RCP 8.5* climate scenarios, which was similar to the projections in potentially toxic
 404 phytoplankton, i.e. 299 ± 20 years.

405 406 **4. DISCUSSION**

407 408 **4.1 Comparison of thermal traits**

409 Generally, our analysis of the datasets of growth responses to temperature
 410 revealed that the maximum growth rates, cardinal temperatures, fundamental
 411 thermal niche, and skewness did not show dependence on the toxicity of

1 412 phytoplankton. This suggests that non-toxic and potentially toxic phytoplankton have
2 413 comparable temperature traits that they can exploit in response to ocean warming.

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4 414 Variations in the thermal traits cannot be explained by the toxicity of
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7 415 phytoplankton. However, these traits can vary among strains and experiments,
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9 416 suggesting that these traits are dependent on physiological plasticity and
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11 417 evolutionary history (Kremer et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2016, 2012). Interspecific
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13 418 and intraspecific variations in growth rates and thermal traits of marine phytoplankton
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15 419 have been demonstrated in several studies (Boyd et al., 2013; Chen and Laws,
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17 420 2016; Kremp et al., 2012; Thomas et al., 2016). Species that are heat stress-
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19 421 sensitive have narrow thermal tolerance limits, while those that can survive through
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21 422 acclimation or adaptation have a wider range (Chen, 2015). Most of the species
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23 423 exhibited a negatively skewed pattern of their thermal growth curve suggesting that
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25 424 their growth is more sensitive to warming than cooling, which is an important trait
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27 425 given the projected change in temperature in the next decades. Few species exhibit
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29 426 a less skewed curve (i.e. nearly symmetrical), a trait characterized by a constant
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31 427 growth over an optimal temperature range that decreases at extreme temperatures
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33 428 at similar rates. The symmetrical thermal growth curve suggests that the growth of
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35 429 the species is equally sensitive to decreasing and increasing temperature from the
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37 430 T_{opt} . The differences in the traits among species and strains imply that the
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39 431 phytoplankton community composition may be altered in response to environmental
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41 432 change, such as ocean warming.
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52 53 434 **4.2. Vulnerability to ocean warming**

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55 435 The findings showed that nearly all the non-toxic and potentially toxic
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57 436 phytoplankton were thriving within the thermal safety zone in the present climate
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1 437 scenario. Depending on the climate scenario, non-toxic phytoplankton may be more
2 438 vulnerable to warming than potentially toxic phytoplankton.

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4 439 The vulnerability of phytoplankton to warming is attributed to the influence of
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7 440 temperature change on the physiological processes and growth, which consequently
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10 441 alter marine ecosystem structure and function (Regaudie-De-Gioux and Duarte,
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12 442 2012; Thomas et al., 2012; Toseland et al., 2013). Recent studies have
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14 443 demonstrated the effect of elevated temperature on metabolic and growth rates in
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17 444 phytoplankton (de Boer *et al.*, 2004; Regaudie-De-Gioux & Duarte, 2012; Boyd *et al.*,
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19 445 2013; Toseland *et al.*, 2013). Typically, photosynthesis rises with elevated
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22 446 temperature until it reaches its optimum, and decreases with further warming; while
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24 447 respiration, on the other hand, increases with increasing temperature. This elevation
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27 448 in metabolic rates is likely to expand the growth rate of photoautotrophs in warming
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29 449 conditions (Hochachka and Somero, 2002). Several species exposed to a high
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32 450 temperature display higher photosynthesis and lower respiration rates, but exhibit a
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34 451 reduction in their cell size (Staeher and Birkeland, 2006). Shrinking their size can
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36 452 neutralize the imbalance between these metabolic processes (Peter and Sommer,
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39 453 2013). Also, nutrient uptake by phytoplankton becomes strongly limiting at elevated
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41 454 temperatures (Sterner and Grover, 1998). Cell size reduction can improve nutrient
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44 455 uptake rates and lessen metabolic costs, which is a good strategy in response to
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46 456 increasing resource demand due to warming (Atkinson et al., 2006). Furthermore,
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49 457 cyst germination in dinoflagellate is controlled by temperature (Anderson et al.,
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51 458 2005), which may be altered by changing climate. It can be increased under warm
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54 459 conditions and can be inhibited at extreme temperatures (Anderson et al., 2005).

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56 460 The effect of temperature change on their physiological processes and
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58 461 growth may alter marine ecosystem structure and function. Most marine
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1 462 phytoplankton are generally living in the present climate scenario within the thermal
2 463 safety zone. However, the warming temperature may likely exceed the physiological
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4 464 limits of marine phytoplankton species. They must avoid extreme temperatures or
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7 465 else they are at risk of thermal danger. They may either adapt or migrate to new
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10 466 favorable habitats to survive, otherwise, their extinction is inevitable.

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14 468 **4.3. Caveats**

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17 469 We acknowledge the limitation of using only six dinoflagellate strains isolated
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19 470 from limited geographic regions in our experiments. Extrapolation of the thermal
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22 471 response of dinoflagellates as model organisms to the whole phytoplankton is
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24 472 inherently problematic. Because our experiments are limited to dinoflagellates strains
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26 473 (only one strain has been confirmed to be toxic, two are potentially toxic and three
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28 474 are considered non-toxic), it is recommended that future studies should consider
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31 475 conducting laboratory experiments using representatives from the major
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34 476 phytoplankton taxa (i.e. diatoms, haptophytes, and cyanobacteria) with confirmed
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36 477 toxicity. Although the majority of toxic species belong to dinoflagellates,
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39 478 characterization of the thermal response curves in representatives from the other
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41 479 taxa is crucial to advance our knowledge of the taxon-specific differences in the
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44 480 growth thermotolerance between non-toxic and toxic phytoplankton. Analysis of the
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46 481 datasets of published laboratory experiments allows the comparison of thermal
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49 482 growth response between phytoplankton groups with an adequate number of
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51 483 observations with broad geographic coverage.

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53 484 With our analysis of the datasets of published laboratory experiments, we
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56 485 acknowledge that the multifaceted interference from different protocols implemented
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58 486 across individual studies may also limit the usefulness of the compiled datasets.
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487 However, the experimental results generated in this present study provide the
488 groundwork to evaluate the value of the published datasets in comparing traits
489 between non-toxic and toxic marine phytoplankton. As observed, there is a
490 discrepancy in the findings between the analyses using our results and published
491 experimental results, which may be related to the data quality used in thermal trait
492 analysis. For instance, our experiments reveal that the maximum growth rates in
493 toxic strains are higher than the rates in non-toxic strains of dinoflagellates, which
494 are found to be comparable in the analysis of the pooled datasets. This suggests
495 that the maximum growth rates between non-toxic and toxic phytoplankton are not
496 robust across a range of experimental protocols, which may be attributed to the
497 sensitivity of the trait to light or nutrient conditions (Boyd et al., 2013).

498 Furthermore, we acknowledge the uncertainties inherent in fitting growth
499 rates with temperature and extracting the traits from the reaction norm. One
500 challenge of modeling the thermal growth response is that there is no single equation
501 that fits all data (Low-Décarie et al., 2017), suggesting that different equations may
502 describe different processes that are still unresolved. Another is the limitation of the
503 statistical uncertainty of the estimation of the thermal physiological limits and thermal
504 niche breadth, as these parameters are frequently extrapolated beyond the data.
505 This limitation constrains our understanding of the responses of non-toxic and toxic
506 phytoplankton to climate extremes. There are also limitations linked with low
507 temperature resolution, incomplete observation of full thermal range, over-
508 representation of non-toxic phytoplankton, and few observations on toxic species
509 that are mostly dinoflagellates.

511 **4.4. Implications and Future Directions**

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512 More studies that address the abovementioned limitations are needed to
513 further elucidate the responses of non-toxic and toxic phytoplankton to temperature
514 that is expected to increase with climate change. These studies are important
515 because climate change responses of the non-toxic and potentially toxic
516 phytoplankton have ecological implications. For instance, toxic species may employ
517 thermal acclimation and adaptive strategies to expand their thermal tolerance and
518 toxin production may provide toxic species a selective advantage under future
519 climate scenarios; hence, toxic species may dominate over the non-toxic species in
520 the changing climate. Warming may provide favorable conditions for harmful algae,
521 including toxic ones to occur (Brandenburg et al. 2019). Toxic blooms and their
522 impacts may likely be exacerbated in the future when their duration, intensity, and
523 frequency may increase in response to changes in the climate. The possible impacts
524 of climate change on toxic blooms have important implications on how to manage
525 and control harmful algal blooms (HAB) in the future. Furthermore, we need more
526 studies to improve our predictive understanding of the ecological responses of non-
527 toxic and toxic marine phytoplankton to future climate scenarios. For instance, the
528 thermal performance curves (*TPC*) obtained in our experiments can be used to
529 develop a mechanistic model to establish a causal relationship between species
530 distribution and temperature. This mechanistic model is useful in predicting climate-
531 induced ecological trends such as changes in range, habitat suitability, diversity, and
532 community composition.

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534 **DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST**

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536 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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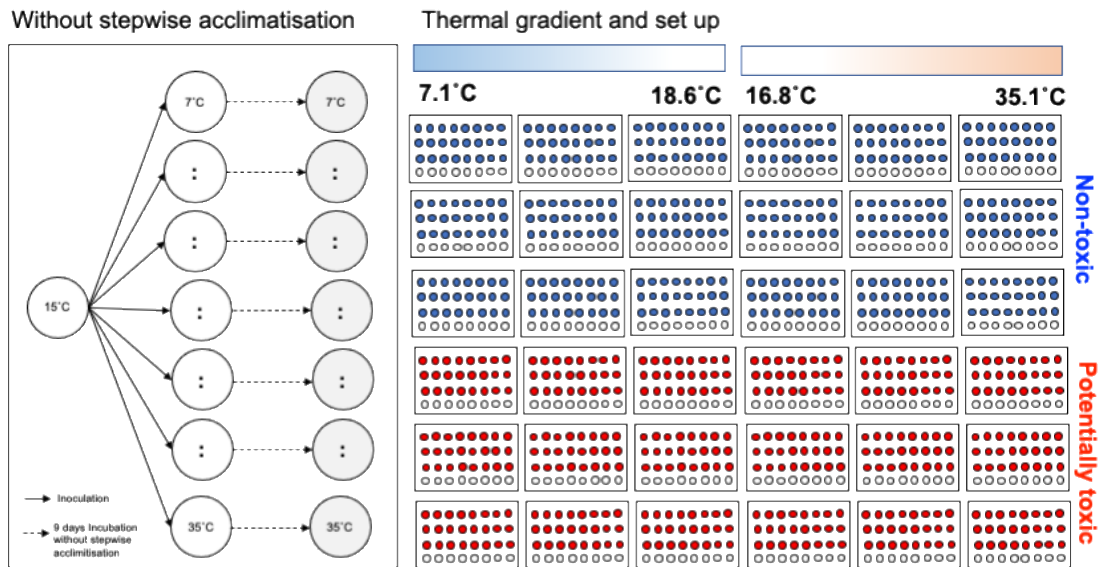
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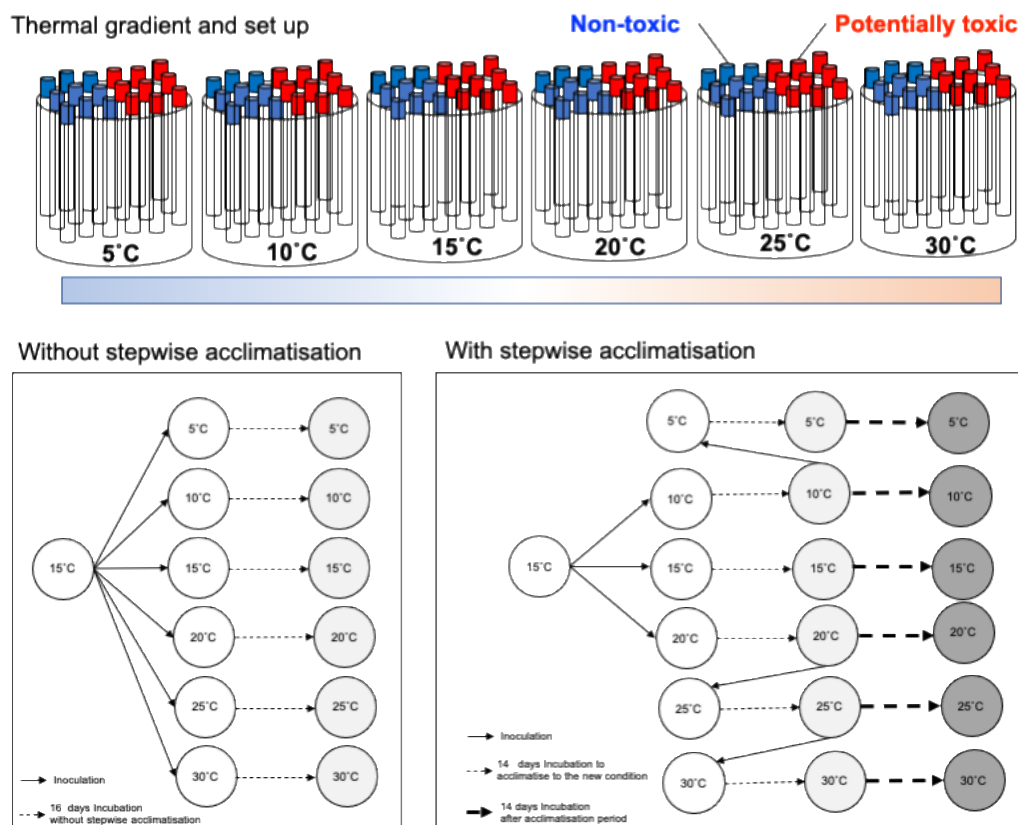
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A Plate-based experimental design



B Tube-based experimental design



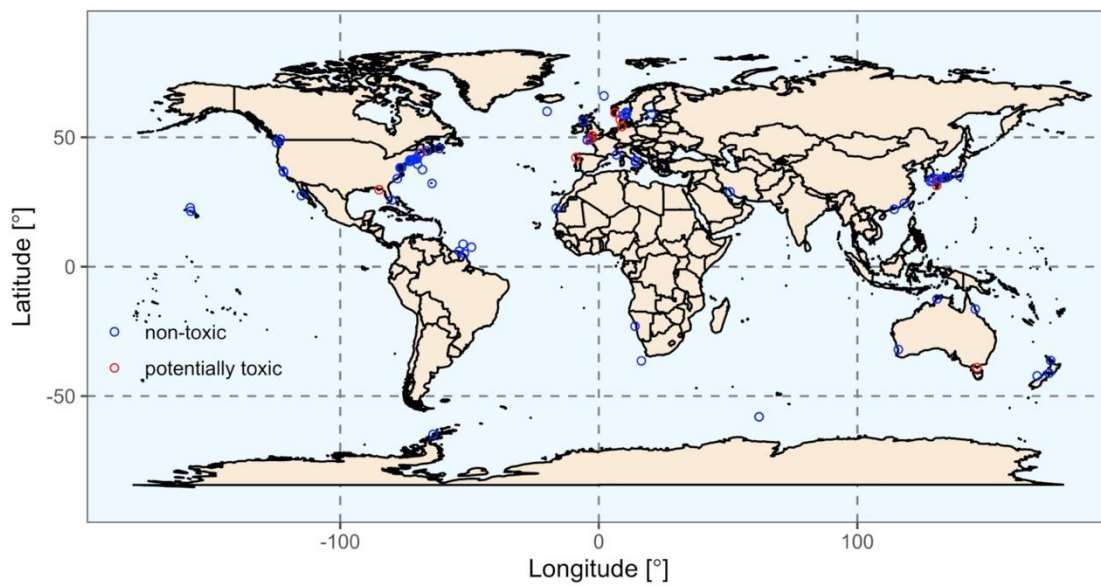
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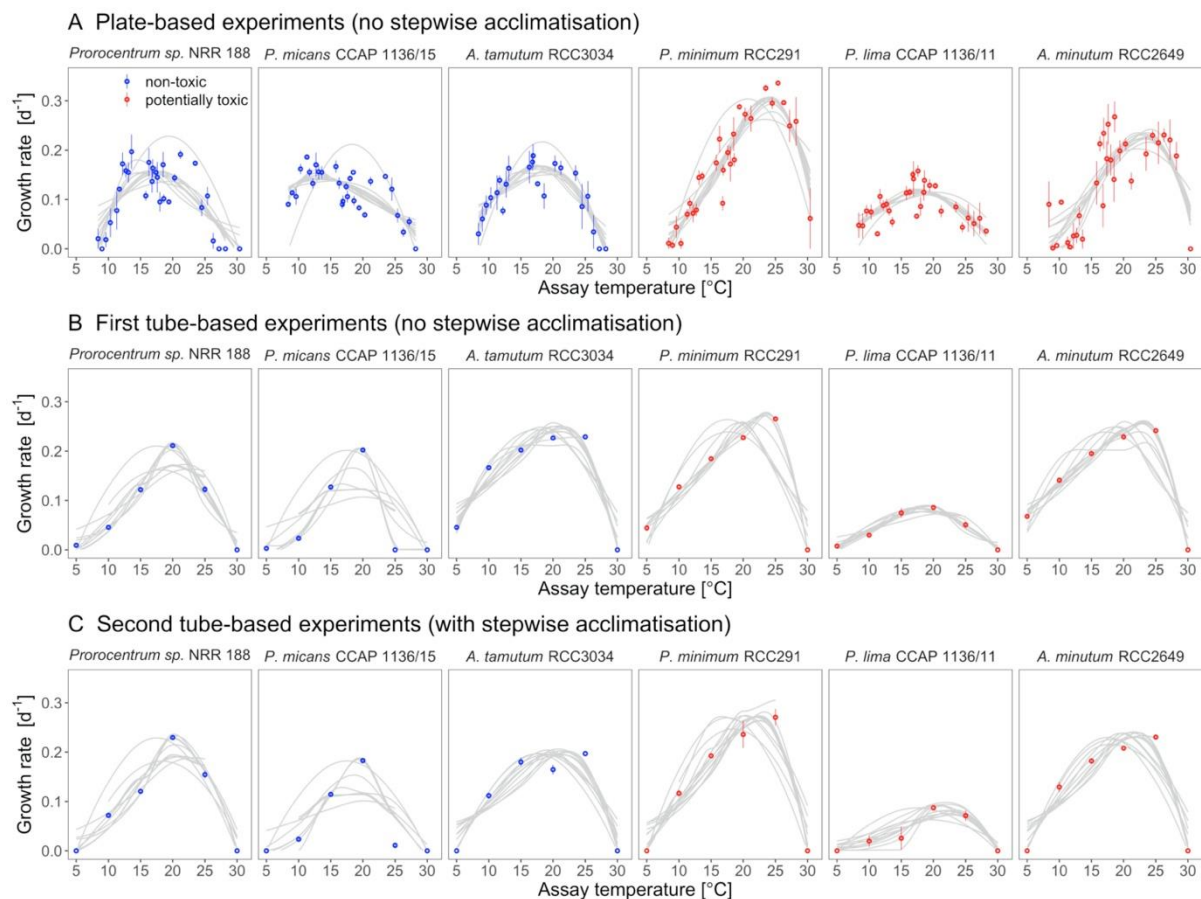
Fig. 1 Schematic representation of the plate- and tube-based experimental designs to examine the effect of temperature on growth in marine phytoplankton.

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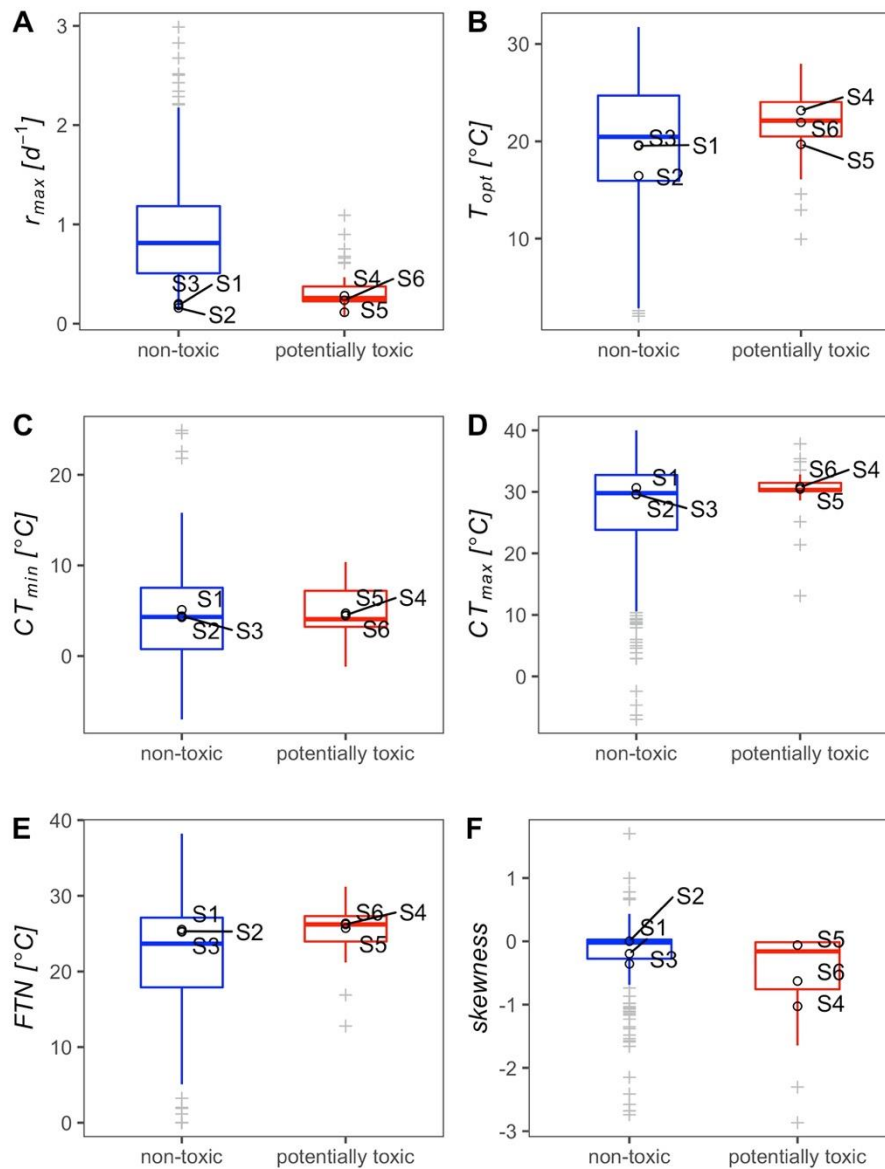
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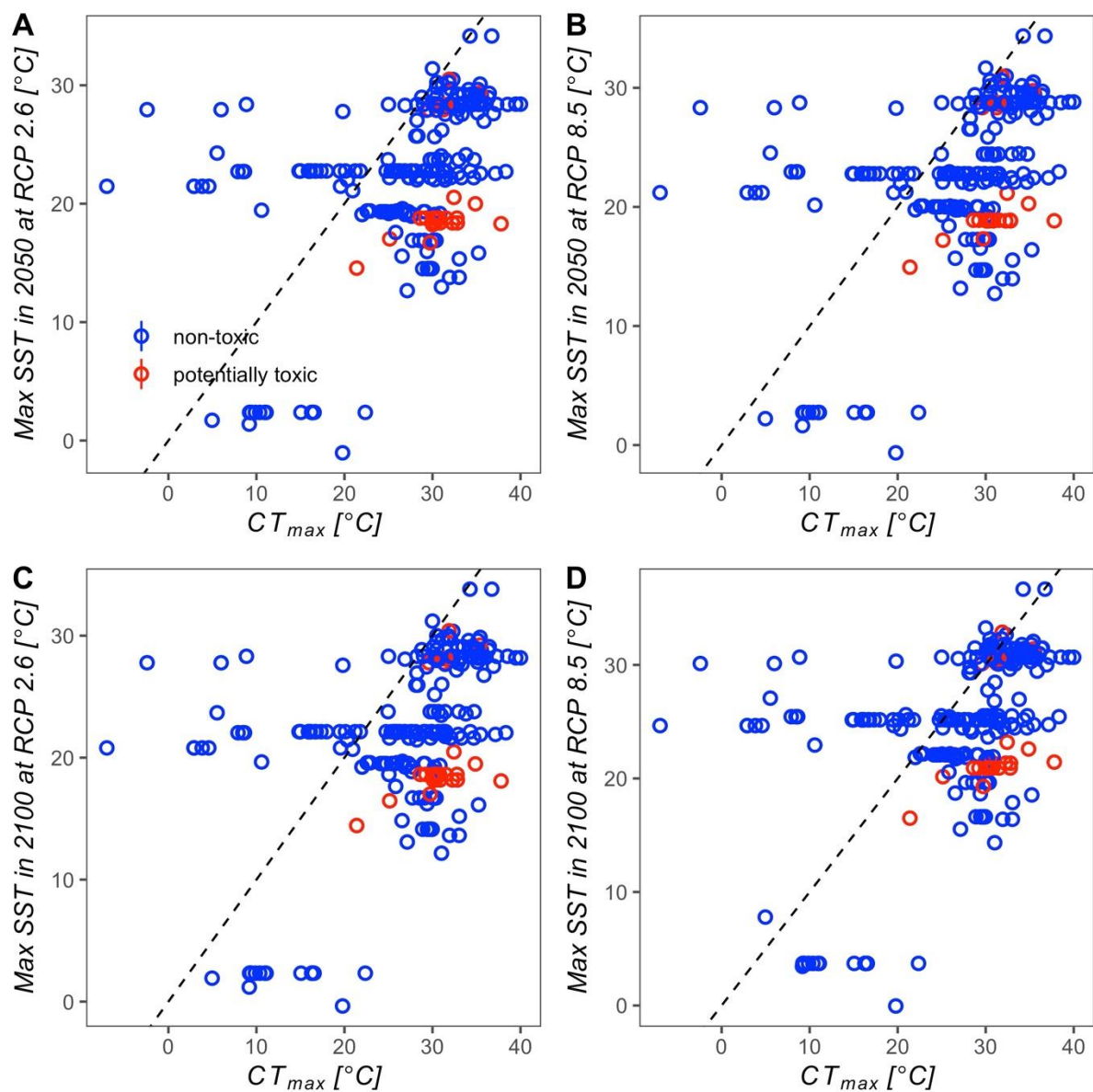
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7 **Fig. 2** Isolation locations of non-toxic and potentially toxic phytoplankton that were
8 investigated in our experiments and in published laboratory experiments.
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10
 11 **Fig. 3** Growth rates in non-toxic and potentially toxic strains of marine phytoplankton
 12 across temperature obtained from plate-based experiments (*PB*) and tube-based
 13 experiments without and with stepwise acclimatization (*TB1* and *TB2*, respectively).
 14 Each data point shows the mean growth rate with standard error as error bars. The
 15 grey solid lines denote the non-linear models fitting growth rate against temperature.
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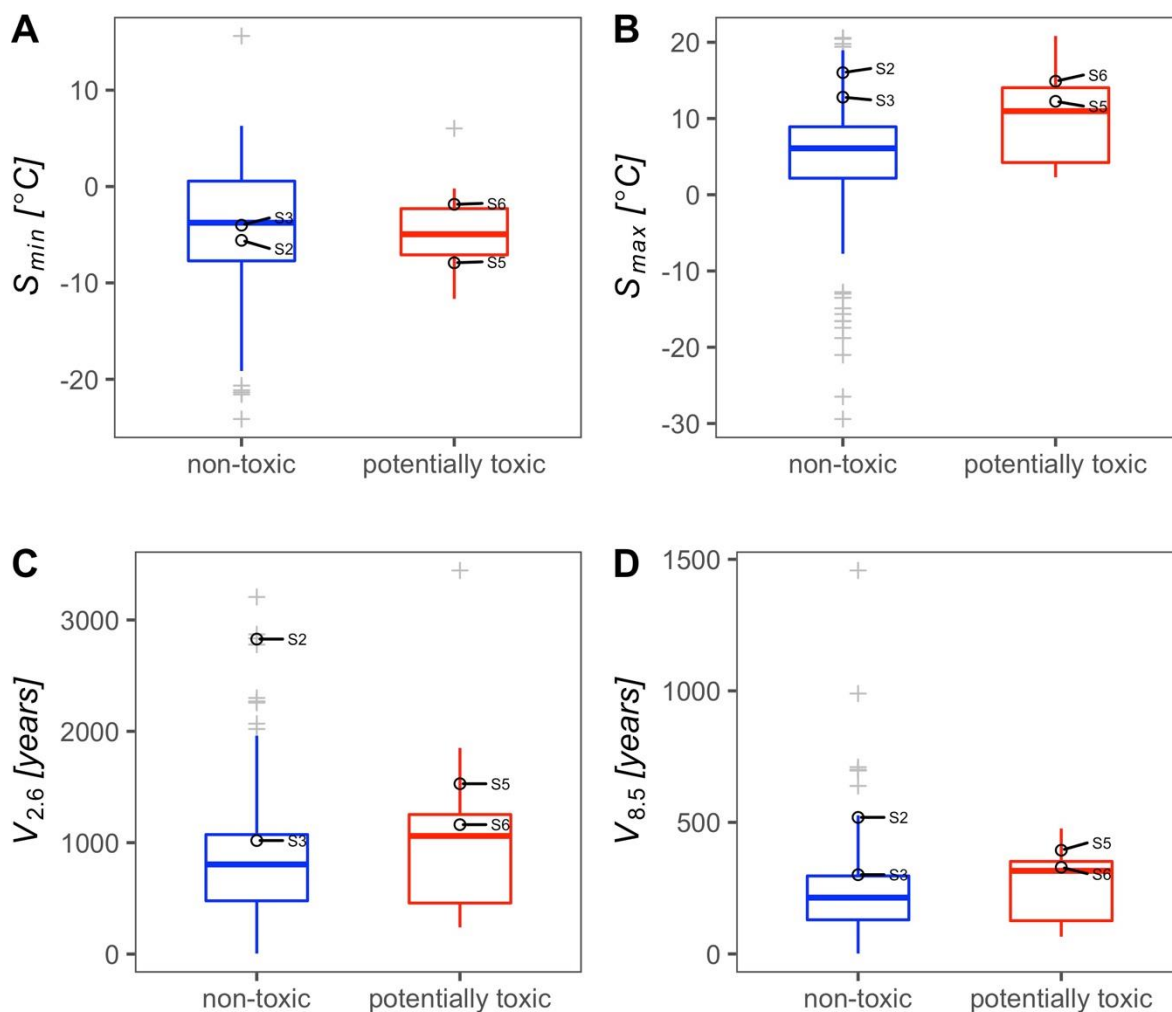


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 18 **Fig. 4** Variation in maximum growth rates and thermal traits between toxicity in
 19 marine phytoplankton. Box plots show the distribution of maximum growth rates
 20 (r_{max}), thermal optimum (T_{opt}), critical thermal minimum (CT_{min}), critical thermal
 21 maximum (CT_{max}), fundamental thermal niche (FTN), and skewness in non-toxic
 22 (blue) and potentially toxic (red) strains from our experiments and published
 23 laboratory experiments. Outliers are indicated as grey crosses. Traits in strains (S1,
 24 S2, and S3 refer to non-toxic strains of *Prorocentrum sp.*, *P. micans*, and *A.*
 25 *tamutum*, respectively; while S4, S5, and S6 refer to potentially toxic strains of *P.*
 26 *minimum*, *P. lima*, and *A. minutum*, respectively) used in our experiments are labeled
 27 and indicated as black circles.
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Fig. 5 Scatter plots showing the critical thermal maximum (CT_{max}) of non-toxic (blue) and potentially toxic (red) marine phytoplankton strains in relation to their habitat's maximum sea surface temperature (SST) projected in 2050 and 2100 at different climate scenarios (RCP 2.6 and RCP 8.5). The points above the threshold (broken line) indicate that the projected SST exceeds the CT_{max} .



36
 37 **Fig. 6** Variation in thermal sensitivity and vulnerability between toxicity in marine
 38 phytoplankton. Box plots show the distribution of thermal sensitivity to cold and warm
 39 temperatures (S_{min} and S_{max} , respectively; A and B, respectively) and vulnerability to
 40 warming at RCP 2.6 and RCP 8.5 climate scenarios ($V_{2.6}$ and $V_{8.5}$, respectively; C
 41 and B, respectively) in non-toxic (blue) and potentially toxic (red) strains from the
 42 combined present and published experimental data. Outliers are indicated as grey
 43 crosses. Traits in strains (S2 and S3 refer to non-toxic strains of *P. micans*, and *A.*
 44 *tamutum*, respectively; while S5 and S6 refer to potentially toxic strains of *P. lima*,
 45 and *A. minutum*, respectively) used in this present study are labeled and indicated as
 46 black circles. Data for *Prorocentrum* sp. (S1) and *P. minimum* (S4) were not
 47 available.

Table 1. Information on the identity, origin, culture condition, and toxicity of experimental organisms obtained from different culture collections.

Experimental Organism	Origin	Source's culture condition	Toxicity
<i>Prorocentrum sp.</i> (NRR 188)	Maintained at University of Essex culture collection; Information on isolate's origin is not available.	Medium: f/2 in natural sea water (NSW) Temperature: 15 °C Light intensity: 100 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	non-toxic
<i>Prorocentrum micans</i> (CCAP 1136/15)	Isolated at Linn of Lorne, Argyll, Scotland, UK; maintained at Culture Collection of Algae and Protozoa (CCAP) at the Scottish Association for Marine Science (SAMS)	Medium: L1 in NSW Temperature: 15 – 20 °C Light intensity: 30 – 40 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	non-toxic
<i>Alexandrium tamutum</i> (PARALEX 242)	Isolated at Kerloc'h, Dinan, English Channel, France; maintained at Roscoff Culture Collection (ID: RCC 3034)	Temperature: 19 °C Light intensity: 100 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	non-toxic
<i>Prorocentrum minimum</i> (Poulet)	Maintained at RCC (ID: RCC 291); Information on isolate's origin is not available.	Medium: K in NSW Temperature: 20 °C Light intensity: 100 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	potentially toxic
<i>Prorocentrum lima</i> (CCAP 1136/11)	Isolated from Vigo, Spain; maintained at CCAP at SAMS	Medium: L1 in NSW Temperature: 15 – 20 °C Light intensity: 30-40 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	potentially toxic
<i>Alexandrium minutum</i> (PARALEX 246)	Isolated from Brittany coast, English Channel, France; maintained at RCC (ID: RCC 2649)	Medium: f/2 in NSW Temperature: 18 °C Light intensity: 100 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$	potentially toxic

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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