

Lipids of different phytoplankton groups differ in sensitivity to degradation: implications for carbon export

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Running Title: Lipids of different phytoplankton

Abstract

The future of life on Earth depends on how the ocean might change, as it plays an important role in mitigating the effects of global warming. The main role is played by phytoplankton. Not only are phytoplankton the base of the oceans' food web, but they also play an important role in the biological carbon pump (BCP), the process of forming organic matter (OM) and transporting it to the deep sea, representing a sink of atmospheric CO₂. Lipids are considered important vectors for carbon sequestration. A change in the phytoplankton community composition as a result of ocean warming is expected to affect the BCP. Many predictions indicate a dominance of small at the expense of large phytoplankton. To gain insight into interplay between the phytoplankton community structure, lipid production and degradation and adverse environmental conditions, we analyzed phytoplankton composition, POC and its lipid fraction in the northern Adriatic over a period from winter to summer at seven stations with a gradient of trophic conditions. We found that at high salinity and low nutrient content, where nanophytoplankton prevailed over diatoms, the newly fixed carbon is substantially directed toward the synthesis of lipids. Lipids produced by nanophytoplankton, coccolithophores and phytoflagellates, are more resistant to degradation than those produced by diatoms. This suggests a more successful lipid carbon sink of nanophytoplankton and thus a negative feedback on global warming. The difference in lipid degradability is discussed as a difference in the size of the cell phycosphere. We hypothesize that the lipids of nanophytoplankton are less degradable due to the small phycosphere with a poorer bacterial

37 community and consequently a lower lipid degradation rate compared to diatoms. The chemical
38 composition of the lipids of the different phytoplankton groups could have a different
39 susceptibility to degradation, which could also contribute to the differences in lipid
40 degradability.

41

42 **KEYWORDS**

43 Coccolithophores, diatoms, nanoplankton, lipid degradability, lipid carbon sink

44 **1 INTRODUCTION**

45 The ocean is important for the global carbon budget (Friedlingstein et al., 2022). It regulates
46 atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and is estimated to absorb 25% of annual anthropogenic
47 carbon emissions (Heinze et al., 2015). The ocean carbon budget consists of inorganic and
48 organic pools distributed between the particulate and dissolved fraction. The organic pool
49 originates primarily from autochthonous sources and secondarily allochthonous sources
50 (Lønborg et al., 2020). Autochthonous organic matter (OM) is produced by phytoplankton
51 through photosynthesis from dissolved CO₂ in a process known as primary production (PP).
52 The produced OM is transferred downward through the ocean by the action of the biological
53 carbon pump (BCP), mediated by either biological or physical processes (Claustre et al., 2021).
54 The BCP sequesters carbon for weeks to hundreds or even millions of years (DeVries et al.,
55 2012). How efficiently the BCP sequesters carbon at ocean depth depends in large part on the
56 fraction of primary production exported below the euphotic zone (Buesseler and Boyd, 2009).
57 The major factors determining BCP efficiency are particulate OM flux, net PP, food web
58 controls, ballast, temperature, oxygen content, and degradation rates (Buesseler et al., 2020).
59 Most of the OM is already removed or partially degraded in the surface layers of the ocean by
60 the action of bacteria (Azam et al., 1983). However, it is important to emphasize that the lability
61 of OM is one of the key factors determining the residence time of OM in the ocean (Cabrera-
62 Brufau et al., 2021, Moran et al., 2021).

63 As a result of global change, the oceans' PP is declining (2.1% decline per decade)
64 (Gregg and Rousseaux, 2019). Phytoplankton play a key role in global PP, major
65 biogeochemical cycles, and form the basis of the food chain in aquatic environments. The
66 succession of dominant life-forms in phytoplankton is shaped by a complex interplay of many
67 factors, including nutrient and light availability, temperature, and turbulence (Barbosa et al.,
68 2010). Among the major phytoplankton groups, coccolithophores and diatoms with calcified

69 and silicified cell walls, respectively, have global ecological significance, including the role
70 they play in the global carbon cycle through the production and export of inorganic and organic
71 carbon to the ocean depths (O'Brien et al., 2013; Gregg and Rousseaux, 2019). Global change
72 is affecting phytoplankton biomass, primary productivity, and carbon export. It is evident that
73 diatom abundance has declined significantly in many regions of the world's oceans (Mishra et
74 al., 2022), while the abundance of coccolithophores in the North Atlantic has increased in the
75 past 50 years (Rivero-Calle et al., 2015). Observed changes in phytoplankton, including
76 abundance (Boyce et al., 2010) and community structure (Marinov et al., 2010), are expected
77 to have a cascading influence on primary and export production, food web dynamics, and
78 marine food web structure (Chust et al., 2014).

79 Phytoplankton are the most important source of biogenic lipids in the ocean (Gašparović
80 et al., 2014). The content and composition of biosynthesized lipids depend on environmental
81 factors (Guschina and Harwood, 2009). Lipids are rich in carbon and are one of the major
82 biochemicals in the ocean. Lipids with saturated acyl chain are shown to be selectively
83 preserved in the water column, making them an important vector for carbon sequestration and
84 potentially important factors in the efficiency of the BCP (Gašparović et al., 2016). Early
85 diagenetic changes affect the chemical stability of lipids and their longevity in the water column
86 (Brassell, 1993). Nonselective preservation of lipids could be enabled by physical protection
87 through their association with minerals, such as diatom's siliceous frustules and calcite
88 coccoliths of coccolithophores (Hedges et al., 2001). In the water column, lipids are subjected
89 to biotic (enzymatic peroxidation, biohydrogenation (Rontani and Koblížek, 2008)), and abiotic
90 (photooxidation, autoxidation) (Rontani, 2008) breakdown processes. While autoxidation and
91 biotransformation may take place throughout the water column, photooxidation may play a
92 significant role in the euphotic layer (Rontani et al., 2009). While abiotic degradation
93 predominated in the suspended particle pool, biotic (heterotrophic) degradation was significant
94 for sinking particles and increased with depth (Christodoulou et al. 2009).

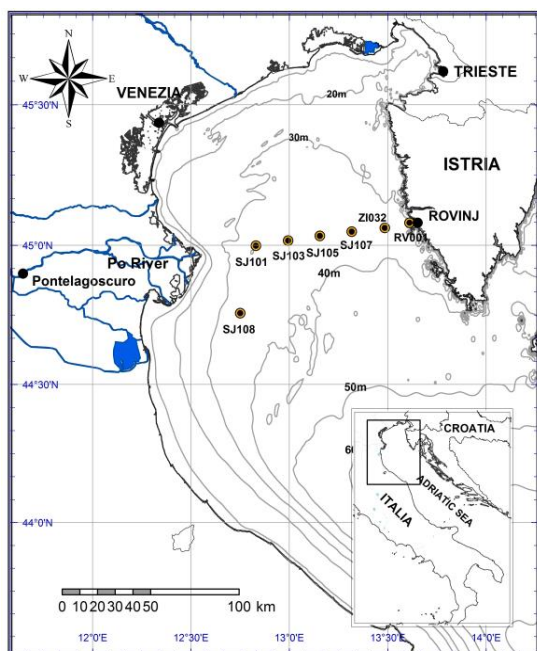
95 Influence of global warming on the ocean is not only seen through the increase in its
96 temperature, but also through a number of indirect changes including: oligotrophication of the
97 upper water column due to increased ocean stratification that reduces water column mixing,
98 reduced CO₂ solubility, ocean acidification, deoxygenation, and a reduction in thermohaline
99 circulation (IPCC, 2021). Under increasingly nutrient-depleted conditions, smaller
100 phytoplankton is favored at the expense of larger diatoms (Bopp et al., 2005). To gain insight
101 into the interplay between phytoplankton structure, biogenic lipid production and degradation,
102 and environmental conditions, we analyzed phytoplankton and lipid production in the northern

103 Adriatic along the transect of a well-defined trophic gradient from winter to summer. We
104 hypothesized that lipids of different phytoplankton groups differ in their susceptibility to
105 degradation. We also hypothesize that lipids that are more resistant to degradation may
106 contribute positively to the BCP.

107 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

108 2.1 Sampling and parameter analyses

109 Data were collected on seven cruises on a monthly basis from February to August in 2010.
110 Seven stations were sampled throughout the northern Adriatic, from the transect between
111 Rovinj and the Po River delta, covering hydrodynamically and trophically distinct regions
112 (Figure 1). Water samples were collected with 5 L Niskin bottles at the surface (0.5 m depth).



113
114 FIGURE 1 Map of sampling stations in the northern Adriatic Sea.

115
116 A CTD probe (Seabird SBE25, Sea-Bird Electronics Inc., Bellevue, Washington, USA)
117 was used to measure temperature and salinity. Total phosphorus, dissolved inorganic
118 orthophosphates (PO_4^{3-}), total inorganic nitrogen (TIN), including nitrates (NO_3^-), nitrites
119 (NO_2^-), and ammonium (NH_4^+), were determined by spectrophotometric methods (Parsons et
120 al., 1984) on board and immediately after sampling using Shimadzu UV-Mini 1240
121 spectrophotometer with 10 cm quartz cuvettes. Organic phosphorus concentration was
122 calculated as the difference between total and inorganic phosphorus concentrations.
123 Subsamples for the determination of chlorophyll *a* (Chl *a*) were filtered on Whatman GF/C

124 filters and stored frozen at -20°C until further processing. Chl *a* concentrations were determined
125 following 3 h extraction in 90% acetone (in the dark, with grinding), on a Turner TD-700
126 fluorimeter (Parsons et al., 1984).

127 **2.2 Phytoplankton**

128 We preserved 200 mL of seawater with 2% neutralized formaldehyde (final concentration) and
129 performed nano- and microphytoplankton determination and enumeration within one month of
130 sampling. The stored sample was homogenized by gentle shaking, and a subsample was added
131 to the Utermöhl sedimentation chamber (volume: 50 mL; Hydro-Bios Apparatebau, Altenholz,
132 Germany), where it settled for ~30 h. We performed the analysis on a Zeiss Axiovert 200 (Zeiss,
133 Jena, Germany) following the inverted microscope method (Utermöhl, 1958, Hasle 1978). Total
134 phytoplankton included all species counted in the microphytoplankton (20–200 μm) and
135 nanophytoplankton (2–20 μm) groups (Sieburth et al., 1978). Identified taxa were grouped to
136 diatoms, dinoflagellates, and nanophytoplankton coccolithophores and phytoflagellates (which
137 included chlorophytes, chrysophytes, cryptophytes and prasinophytes) according to Tomas
138 (1997).

139 **2.3 Particulate organic carbon (POC)**

140 For POC determination, 1 L of seawater was filtered on board through 0.7 μm Whatman GF/F
141 filters precombusted at $450^{\circ}\text{C}/5\text{h}$. After filtration, the filters were rinsed with Milli-Q water to
142 remove salts and stored in liquid nitrogen on board and at -80°C in the laboratory until analysis.
143 POC was analyzed using an SSM-5000A solid sample module connected to a Shimadzu TOC-
144 V_{CPH} carbon analyzer calibrated with glucose (Sugimura and Suzuki, 1988). POC
145 concentrations were corrected based on filter blank measurements. The average filter blank
146 value including the instrument blank value corresponded to $5 \mu\text{g C L}^{-1}$. The reproducibility
147 obtained for the glucose standard was 3%.

148 **2.4 Lipids**

149 For particulate lipid analysis, we collected 3 L of seawater prefiltered through a 200 μm
150 stainless steel screen to remove larger particles including microzooplankton. Lipids were
151 collected on through precombusted ($450^{\circ}\text{C}/5\text{h}$) 47 mm GF/F filters and stored in liquid nitrogen
152 until lipid extraction. It was performed using a modified one-phase solvent mixture of
153 dichloromethane-methanol-water procedure (Bligh and Dyer, 1959; Vrana et al., 2022). In
154 short, in order to assess recoveries in later stages of sample analysis we added 5 μg of standard

155 methyl stearate to the sliced filters together with 10 mL of a one-phase solvent mixture
156 (dichloromethane/methanol/deionized water (1:2:0.8 v/v/v)). This was then subjected to an
157 ultrasonic treatment for three minutes and stored overnight in the refrigerator, afterwards we
158 filtered the extracts through a sinter funnel into a separatory funnel, washed once with a the
159 one-phase solvent mixture, once with dichloromethane and 0.73% NaCl (1:1 v/v), and once
160 with dichloromethane. The extracts were concentrated by rotary evaporation under a nitrogen
161 atmosphere and kept at -20 °C until measurements were made. To prepare the lipid extracts for
162 analysis, the dichloromethane extracts were evaporated to dryness under nitrogen flow and then
163 dissolved in 20 µL dichloromethane prior to analysis.

164 Lipid classes were separated on Chromarods SIII and quantified with external
165 calibration using a mixture of standard lipids by a thin-layer chromatograph-flame ionization
166 detector (TLC-FID) Iatrosan Mark-VI (Iatron), using a hydrogen flow of 160 mL min⁻¹ and an
167 air flow of 2000 mL min⁻¹. This method identify eighteen lipid classes: hydrocarbons (HC),
168 steryl esters (SE), fatty acid methyl esters (ME), fatty ketone (KET), triacylglycerols (TG), free
169 fatty acids (FFA), fatty alcohols (ALC), 1,3-diacylglycerols (1,3DG), sterols (ST), 1,2-
170 diacylglycerols (1,2DG), pigments (PIG), monoacylglycerols (MG), three glycolipids (GL)
171 including monogalactosyl-, digalactosyl-, and sulfoquinovosyl- diacylglycerol (MGDG,
172 DGDG, and SQDG, respectively), and three phospholipids (PL) (phosphatidylglycerols (PG),
173 phosphatidylethanolamines (PE), and phosphatidylcholines (PC)). Total lipid concentration is
174 calculated by summing all detected classes. Full details can be found in Gašparović et al. (2015;
175 2017). In this article we focused on lipid degradation indices trough the lipolysis index (Goutx
176 et al., 2003), which characterize the degree of lipid degradation in seawater. Lipolysis index is
177 calculated as the ratio of the sum of lipid degradation indices (ALC+FFA+MG+DG) to the sum
178 of cell lipids TG, WE, and glyco- and phospho-lipids (Goutx et al., 2003).

179

180 **2.5 Data analysis**

181 Linear and polynomial fits (Origin 7 computer software, Origin Lab) were performed to
182 examine the correlation between salinity and major nutrient distributions, major phytoplankton
183 groups developed, and lipid production in the northern Adriatic Sea.

184 To investigate correlations between major phytoplankton groups developed under
185 different environmental conditions (salinity (S), temperature (T), major nutrients) and total
186 organic matter (POC) and lipid production Principal component analysis was carried out using

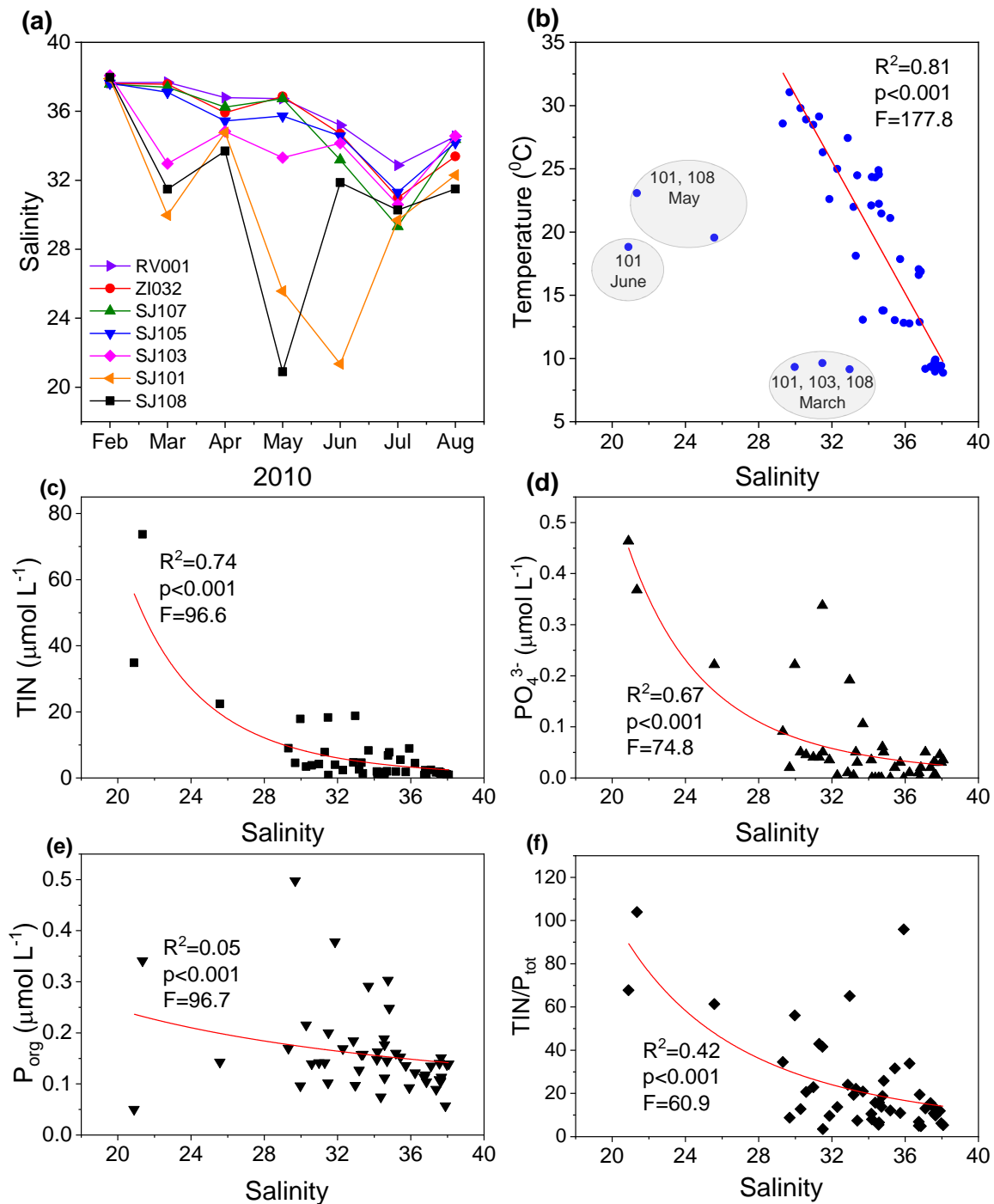
187 Statistica software. Schematic representation was drawn using symbols courtesy of the
188 Integration and Application Network, University of Maryland Center for Environmental
189 Science (ian.umces.edu/symbols/).

190

191 **3 RESULTS**

192 **3.1 Environmental conditions**

193 Sea surface salinity increased from stations in the Po River plume influence area on the western
194 side of the northern Adriatic (stations SJ108, SJ101, SJ103) to the eastern side (stations SJ105,
195 SJ107, ZI032 and RV001) ([Figure 2a](#)). The variability of sea surface temperature and salinity
196 showed similar patterns. From winter to summer, water freshening occurred in parallel with the
197 temperature increase ([Figure 2b](#)). Exceptions were observed during the March, May, and June
198 at stations SJ108, SJ101, and SJ103, when colder river water mixed with warmer seawater. The
199 decrease in salinity resulted in a substantial increase in inorganic nutrients, TIN ([Figure 2c](#)) and
200 PO_4^{3-} ([Figure 2d](#)), along with an increased ratio of TIN and total phosphorus (TIN/ P_{tot}) ([Figure](#)
201 [2f](#)). Total phosphorus rather than PO_4^{3-} was used for the calculation of TIN/ P_{tot} because organic
202 phosphorus ([Figure 2e](#)) is an important source of phosphorus for phytoplankton in the northern
203 Adriatic (Ivančić et al., 2012). The data used to create Figure 2 can be found in Table S1.



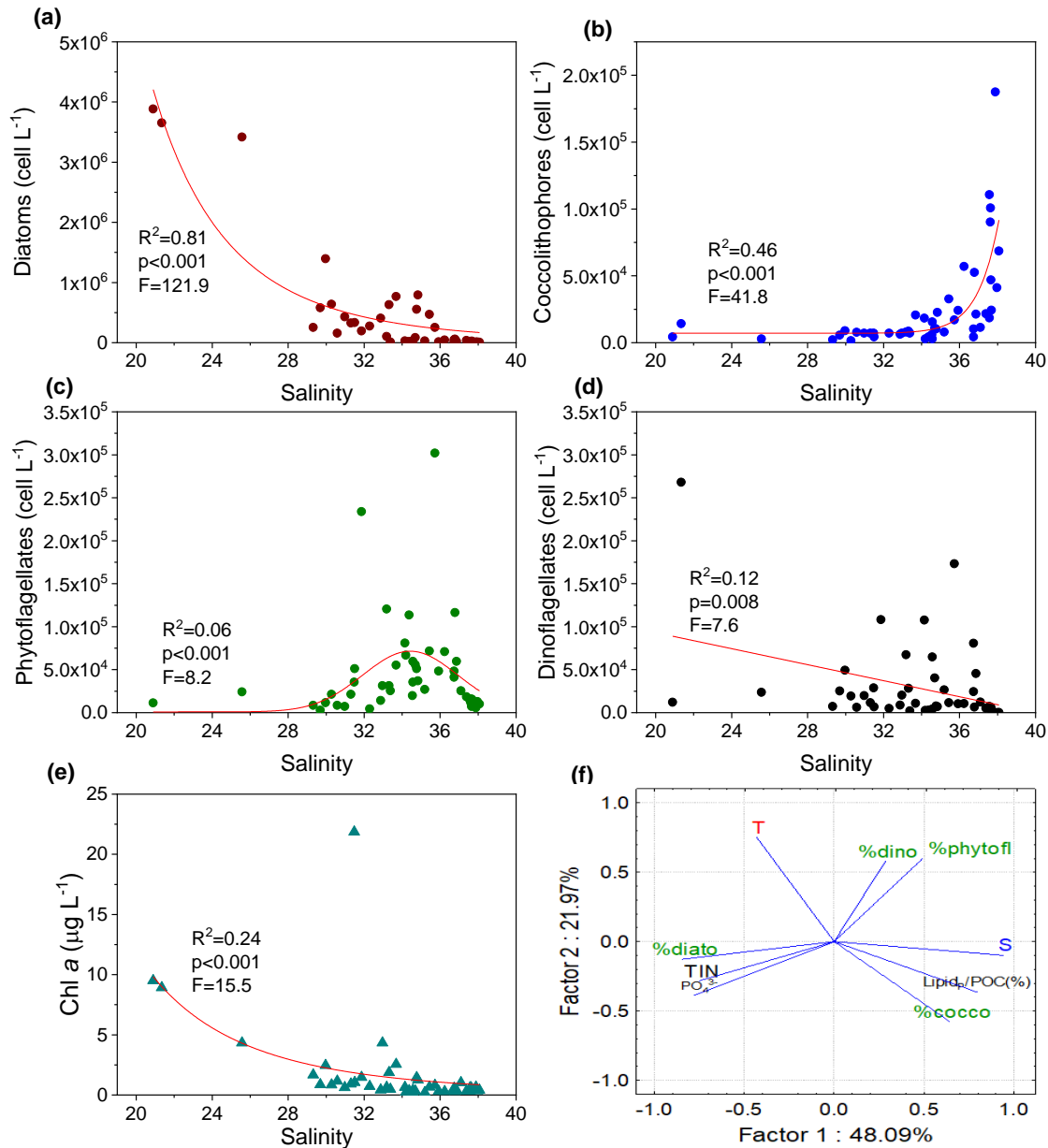
204
 205 **FIGURE 2** Relationship between salinity and other environmental parameters. Temporal
 206 salinity variations (A), relationships between salinity and temperature (B), TIN concentration
 207 (C), PO_4^{3-} (D), organic phosphorus (E) concentrations and $\text{TIN}/\text{P}_{\text{tot}}$ ratio (F) in the period from
 208 February to August 2010 at seven stations in the northern Adriatic. Note that linear fit in (b) is
 209 made without outliers separated by circles.

210 3.2 Phytoplankton succession

211 Phytoplankton community structure varied with salinity and time (Figures 3 and 4, Figure S1,
 212 Table S1), indirectly indicating a dependence of different phytoplankton groups on nutrient
 213 availability. Diatoms thrived at the lowest observed salinities (Figure 3a) and were associated

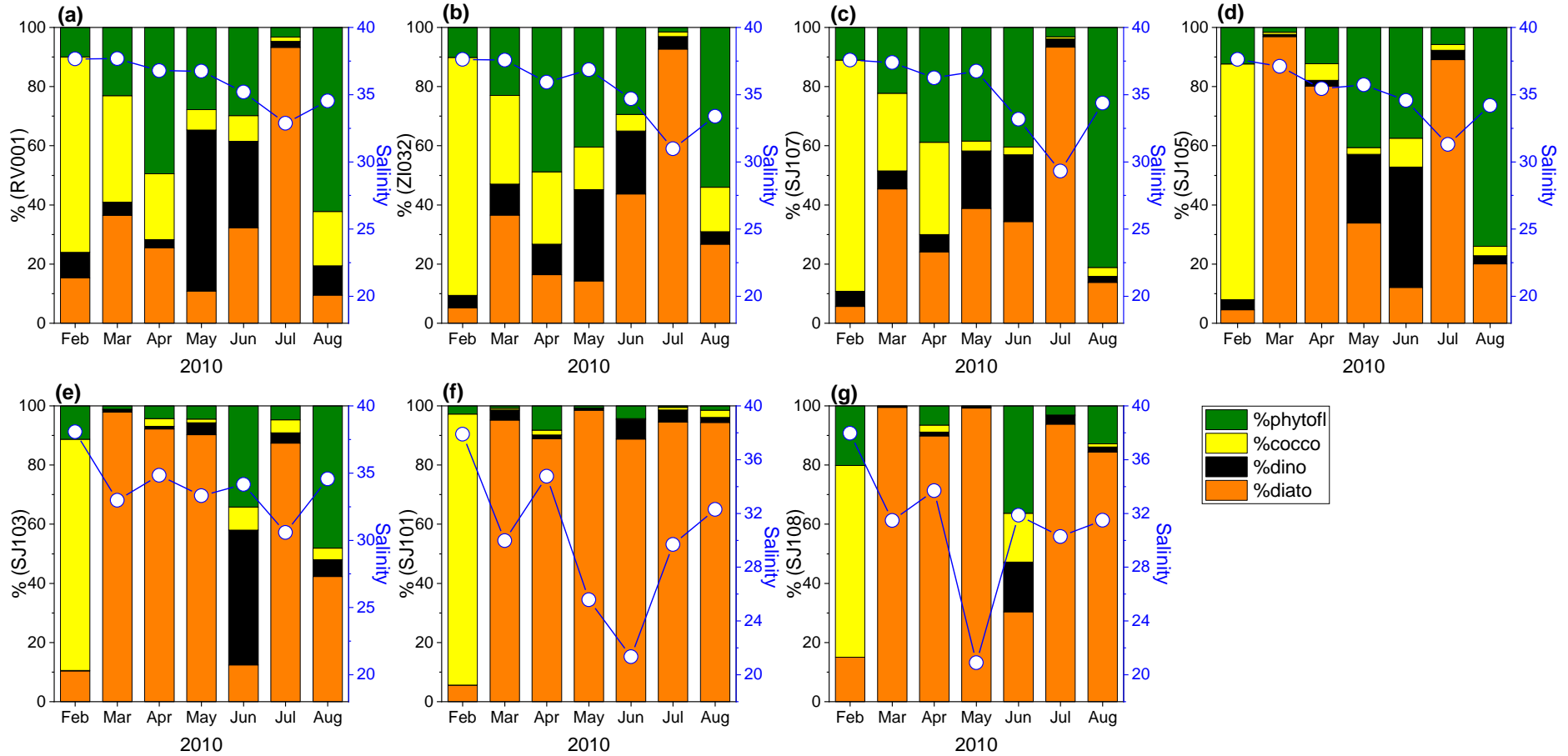
214 with an increase in temperature (Figure 4). Coccolithophores thrived under conditions of high
215 salinity (Figures 3b and 4) characterized by low temperatures (Figure 2b) and low nutrient
216 availability (Figures 2d-e). On the spatio-temporal scale, phytoflagellates in the nano fraction
217 found their niche for development at intermediate salinities (around 31-37), mainly at
218 oligotrophic stations and from February to August (Figures 3c and 4, Figure S1).
219 Dinoflagellates were abundant mainly in May and June (Figure 4, Figure S1) at intermediate
220 salinities 30-36.5 (Figure 3d). The temporal succession of dominant phytoplankton groups is
221 shown in Table 1.

222 In the PCA analysis (Figure 3f, Table S2), PC1 and PC2 explained 70.06% of the
223 variances and revealed positive relationship between high salinity and increase in
224 coccolithophore proportion to the total phytoplankton (%cocco) and the relative content of
225 particulate lipids in POC (Lipid_p/POC (%)). On the other hand, the contribution of diatoms to
226 the total phytoplankton (%diato) is clustered with the inorganic nutrients, TIN and PO₄³⁻. PC1
227 clearly distinguishes these two clusters.



228

229 FIGURE 3 Relationship between salinity and abundance of micro diatoms (A),
 230 coccolithophores (B), phytoflagellates (C), dinoflagellates (D), Chl *a* (E). Biplot of scores of
 231 the contribution of major phytoplankton groups (% diatoms, coccolithophores,
 232 phytoflagellates, and dinoflagellates), the relative content of particulate lipids in POC
 233 (Lipid_p/POC (%)) and environmental factors (T - temperature, S - salinity, TIN - total inorganic
 234 nitrogen and PO₄³⁻ - orthophosphates) from the results of principal component analysis (F).



235

236 FIGURE 4 Phytoplankton community structure (bars, % of total community obtained by microscopic identification and counting of the cells)
 237 for the period February to August in the surface waters (0.5 m depth) of the northern Adriatic Sea at stations RV001 (a), ZI032 (b), SJ107 (c),
 238 SJ105 (d), SJ103 (e), SJ101 (f) and SJ108 (g). Temporal salinity variations (right y-axis) are shown for each station with lines and symbols.

239 Table 1. Temporal succession of the dominant phytoplankton group(s) and environmental data (salinity and Chl *a*) for the seven cruises
 240 conducted in the northern Adriatic Sea from February to August 2010.
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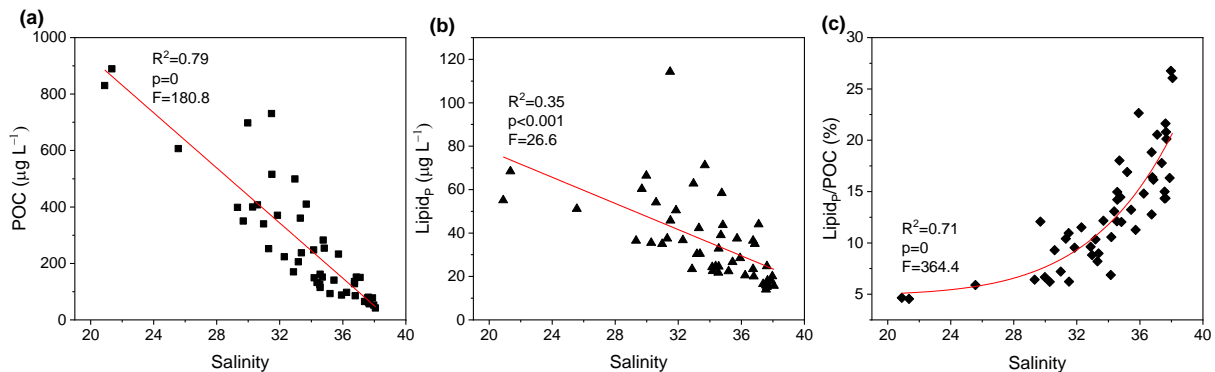
Date	Stations	Dominant phytoplankton group(s)	Chl <i>a</i> ±SD (µg/L)	Average salinity±SD
15.02.2010	All	Coccolithophores	0.51±0.12	37.77±0.20
17.03. 2010	RV001-SJ107	Mixed, mainly nanophytoplankton with significant proportion of coccolithophores (26.2–35.9%)	0.36±0.05	37.55±0.15
	SJ105-SJ108	Diatoms	2.61±9.72	33.35±3.07
15.04. 2010	RV001-SJ107	Mixed, mainly nanophytoplankton with significant proportion of coccolithophores (22.3–31.2%)	0.30±0.02	36.32±0.44
	SJ105-SJ108	Diatoms	1.48±0.79	34.68±0.73
17.05. 2010	RV001-SJ105	Mixed, mainly nanophytoplankton	0.54±0.20	36.52±0.53
	SJ103-SJ108	Diatoms	5.24±3.90	26.59±6.27
24.06. 2010	SJ108-RV001	Mixed, mainly nanophytoplankton	1.80±3.16	33.94±1.22
	SJ101	Diatoms	5.19±5.26	21.35±0.00
15.07. 2010	All	Diatoms	0.93±0.66	30.72±1.78
19.08. 2010	RV001-SJ103	Mixed, mainly nanophytoplankton	0.29±0.15	34.21±0.63
	SJ101 and SJ108	Diatoms	0.88±0.23	31.90±0.56

242

243 3.3 Lipid production and degradation

244 In parallel with Chl *a* (Figure 3e), high OM content characterized low salinity samples,
245 including POC (Figure 5a) and particulate lipid content (Figure 5b). Conversely, the relative
246 content of particulate lipids in POC (Lipid_P/POC (%)) increased significantly in high salinity
247 waters (Figure 5c), characterized by low POC (Figure 5a) and high percentage of
248 coccolithophores (Figure 3b). The data used to create Figure 5 can be found in Table S1.

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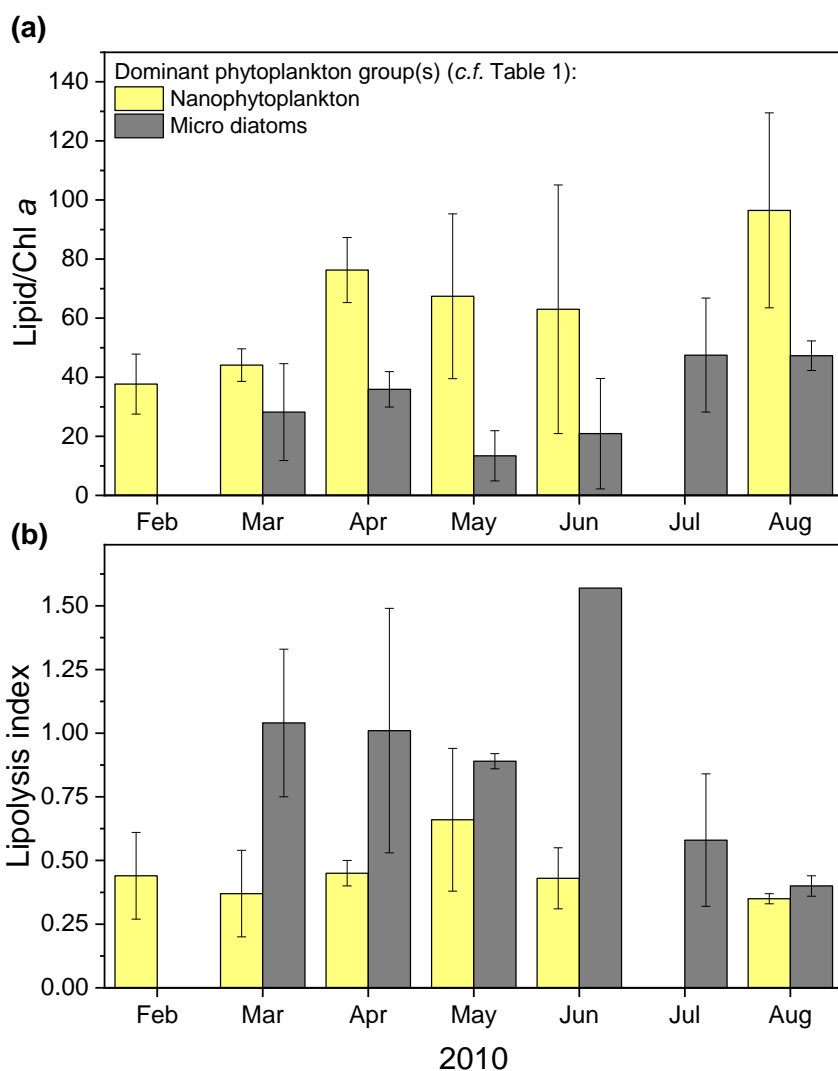
251 FIGURE 5 Relationships between salinity and POC (a), particulate lipid concentration (b),
252 the relative content of particulate lipids in POC (c).

253

254 For the stations and time periods where the total population consisted of
255 coccolithophores or a mixed population, composed mainly of nanophytoplankton, a much
256 higher lipid content per Chl *a* was observed, 157–417 pg lipid/Chl *a* than in the cases where the
257 total population was dominated by diatoms, 21–120 pg lipid/ Chl *a* (Figure 6a). The correlation
258 of Lipid_P/POC (%) with major phytoplankton groups indicated smaller Lipid_P/POC (%) when
259 diatoms were abundant and, conversely, higher lipid_P/POC (%) when coccolithophores were
260 abundant.

261 The total particulate lipid fraction analyzed also contained lipids from
262 microzooplankton, whose carbon yield in the northern Adriatic POC is orders of magnitude
263 lower than that of phytoplankton (Kamburska and Fonda-Umani, 2009) as well as from the
264 bacterial community, but their contribution to total lipids is considered to be neglected. The
265 contribution of bacterial carbon to POC is generally low, ranging from 1-17% in the northern
266 Adriatic (La Ferla et al., 2005) and 1-2% in the North Atlantic (Gašparović et al., 2014). At the
267 same time, the lipid carbon of marine bacteria is low and ranges from 1.7 to 7.3% of the POC
268 (Goutx et al., 1990). Lipids may have also partially originated from the non-living OM, which
269 could have contributed significantly to the POC and lipid pool of the phytoplankton growing
270 under stress conditions (Flanjak et al., 2022).

271 An index to characterize the degree of lipid degradation in natural seawater and OM
272 freshness is the lipolysis index (LI) (Goutx et al., 2003). Higher LI values indicate a higher
273 degree of lipid degradation. Higher LI values were determined for stations and time periods
274 characterized by the dominance of diatoms (LI=0.40–1.57) with respect to the dominance of
275 coccolithophores or mixed, mainly nanophytoplankton population (LI=0.35–0.66) (Figure 6b).



276

277 FIGURE 6 Lipid production (Lipid/Chl *a*) and degradation (Lipolysis index (LI)) in the
278 period from February to August 2010 in the northern Adriatic Sea.

279 4 DISCUSSION

280 4.1 Different sensitivity to decomposition of lipids of different phytoplankton groups

281 We found that under conditions of high salinity and low inorganic nutrient content
282 (oligotrophic area), nanophytoplankton prevailed over microphytoplankton, and the newly
283 fixed carbon appeared to be substantially directed toward the synthesis of lipids, as indicated

284 by the high relative content of particulate lipids in POC (> 15%, [Figure 5c](#)) and the high lipid
285 content per Chl *a* ([Figure 6a](#)). In contrast, excess nutrients at low salinity (mesotrophic area)
286 promoted diatom blooms ([Figure 3a](#)), which synthesized more lipids, but the relative content of
287 particulate lipids in POC (< 5%) and the lipid content per Chl *a* ([Table 1](#)) are low. These results
288 suggest that diatom cell growing in nutrient abundant conditions have a low requirement for
289 lipids as structural components of membranes, signal transduction, and energy storage.

290 Given that the total amount of lipids is higher during diatom blooms, the question is
291 whether this necessarily means that diatoms (rich in OM) are more significant vectors of lipid
292 carbon removal to the ocean depths in comparison to nanophytoplankton? We can also ask
293 whether lipids produced by nanophytoplankton, coccolithophores and phytoflagellates, and
294 diatoms have a different tendency to degrade. In addition to the many factors that influence the
295 efficiency of transfer of OM to the depth, lower degradation likely favors longer residence time
296 in the water column and most likely better efficiency of carbon sequestration.

297 The lower values of Lipolysis index under conditions in which coccolithophores
298 pervaded or contributed significantly to the total population ([Figure 6b](#)) indicate that lipids
299 produced by nanophytoplankton are more resistant to degradation than those produced by
300 diatoms. This suggests that a greater proportion of nanophytoplankton lipids can be transported
301 to depth than those produced by diatoms. One explanation for the difference in lipid stability
302 between these phytoplankton groups could be the size of the cell phycosphere harboring a
303 variety of bacterial species (Seymour et al., [2017](#)). The size of the phycosphere is closely related
304 to the phytoplankton cell size with the phycosphere radius of diatoms being one to five orders
305 of magnitude larger than that of nanophytoplankton (Seymour et al., [2017](#)), suggesting a much
306 richer bacterial community hosted by the phycosphere of diatoms and, accordingly, more
307 intense lipid degradation upon cell death.

308 The difference in lipid stability between phytoplankton groups could be also due to
309 difference in lipid chemical composition, which affects the different susceptibility to
310 degradation. Saturated lipids are more resistant to degradation and are therefore important
311 carbon carriers to marine depths (Gašparović et al., [2016](#)). Accordingly, abyssal depths of the
312 Atlantic are enriched in saturated fatty acids, saturated or monounsaturated triacylglycerols
313 (Gašparović et al., [2016](#)). Coastal phytoplankton populations growing under N and P limitation
314 biosynthesize saturated fatty acids, especially under P limitation (Grosse et al., [2019](#)). Shin et
315 al. ([2003](#)) found higher production of unsaturated fatty acids (fivefold) at the East China Sea
316 mesotrophic site, which is characterized by the dominance of diatoms. In contrast, saturated
317 fatty acids dominated at the oligotrophic sites, while the proportion of diatoms decreased.

318 Mayzaud et al. (2014) found that in the northern Atlantic, the proportion of polyunsaturated
319 fatty acids was much greater under mesotrophic conditions than under oligotrophic conditions.
320 Because diatoms from our study grew under higher/er nutrient availability, i.e. lower salinity
321 (Figure 3a) than nanophytoplankton we can assume that diatoms synthesized more unsaturated
322 lipids that are more susceptible to degradation (abiotic photodegradation or biotic).
323 Consequently, we found higher values of lipolysis index were estimated for samples in which
324 diatoms predominated. Furthermore, haptophytes, especially the coccolithophorid family
325 Gephyrocapsaceae, are rich in long-chain (C37–C39) unsaturated ethyl and methyl ketones
326 (Sawada and Shiraiwa, 2004). These long-chain alkenones are paleomarkers for reconstructing
327 past changes in sea surface temperatures and global climate (Brassell et al., 1986, Volkman et
328 al., 1995) because they are well preserved in bottom sediments and have also been used to
329 reconstruct the paleoproductivity of coccolithophores (Schulte et al., 1999). This further
330 suggests their stability to degradation and the importance of coccolithophore lipid carbon for
331 carbon sequestration in the ocean (Raja and Rosell-Melé, 2021).

332 We also considered whether higher temperature (with linked higher bacterial activity)
333 is the reason for enhanced diatom lipid degradation. For example, in March, when the
334 temperature throughout the transect was 9.35 ± 0.18 °C (Table S1), the lipolysis index was low
335 (average 0.45) at three oligotrophic stations (RV001, ZI032, and SJ107) with a significant
336 presence of coccolithophores, indicating lower lipid degradation. In contrast, at the mesotrophic
337 stations SJ105-SJ108, characterized by the dominance of diatoms, significantly higher lipid
338 degradation was observed (average LI = 1.04), suggesting more intense diatom lipid
339 degradation. Thus, the temperature effect in different degradation of lipids produced by
340 particular phytoplankton groups could be neglected (Figure 6b).

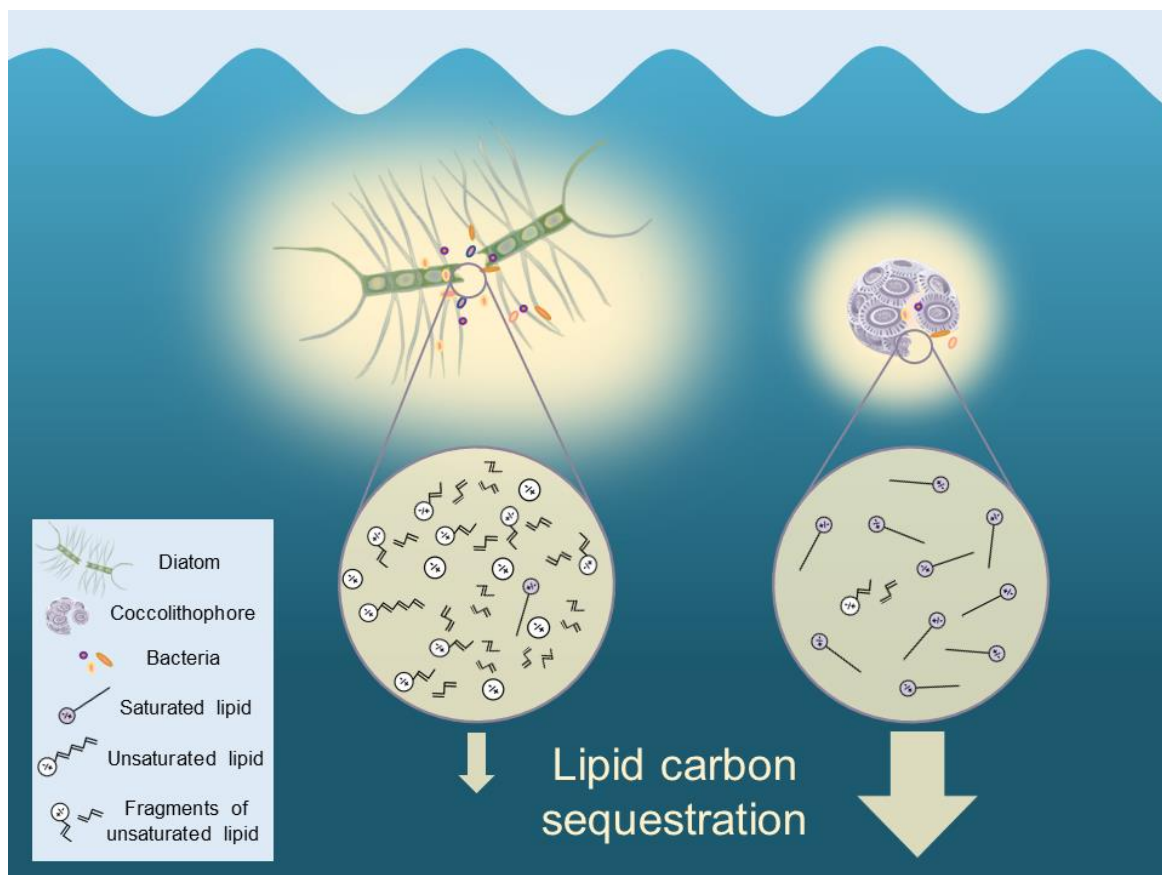
341 **4.2 Perspectives in a context of global climate change**

342 If the changes in phytoplankton community structure predicted by Bopp et al. (2005)
343 and Gregg and Rousseaux (2019) occur in the context of climate change, lipids from
344 coccolithophores and other nanophytoplankton could play a significant role in the process of
345 carbon sequestration to the deep sea (Figure 6). Natural populations dominated by small
346 flagellates and coccolithophores are often rich in lipids, as studies have shown both in model
347 experiments (Fernández et al. 1994a, up to 60% of C in lipids) and in open ocean waters
348 (Fernández et al., 1994b), consistent with our results. In contrast, diatoms growing under
349 favorable nutrient and temperature conditions do not accumulate lipids (e.g., Flanjak et al.,
350 2022), which is also consistent with our results. However, warming and lack of nutrients affect

351 the increased incorporation of carbon into lipids in diatom cells (e.g. Novak et al., 2019). The
352 coccolithophore *Emiliania huxleyi* accumulates much more lipids in N-poor conditions (69.0
353 pg/cell) compared to N-replete growth conditions (11.4 pg/cell) (Pantorno et al., 2013).

354 Warming generally affects reduced polyunsaturated fatty acid biosynthesis (Hixson and
355 Arts, 2016). In diatoms, an increase in temperature leads to fatty acid shortening and a decrease
356 in total unsaturated fatty acid content in both galactolipids (Dodson et al., 2014) and
357 phospholipids (Vrana et al., 2022). Whereas, warming leads to a decrease in the carbon-
358 normalised content of PUFAs in the coccolithophore *E. huxleyi* (Bi et al., 2020). Lower lipid
359 saturation would result in lower susceptibility to degradation, resulting in better export of lipid
360 carbon to the ocean interior. The lower lipid degradability has a positive effect on BCP, as its
361 efficacy is also determined by the rate of OM/lipid degradation (Buesseler et al., 2020).

362 Lipids are generally discussed to be buoyant and as such do not settle but remain in the
363 water column. However, due to their surface-active properties, they escape from the water and
364 attach to the sinking particles, thus contributing to carbon sequestration (Novak et al., 2018).



365
366 **FIGURE 7** Schematic representation of the interplay between diatom and coccolithophore
367 (representative of nanophytoplankton) phycospheres, lipid composition and degradability, and
368 relationship to carbon sequestration efficiency.

369

370 Other predictions also suggest a positive effect of coccolithophores on BCP compared
371 to diatoms. Even though the modelling study of the distribution of the diatom *Chaetoceros*
372 *diadema* and the coccolithophore *E. huxleyi* in the ocean predicts their future decline (Jensen et
373 al., 2017), they also note that the probability of *C. diadema* settling below 1000 m would
374 decrease significantly, while the abundance of *E. huxleyi* at these depths would not change
375 significantly from current conditions. In addition, a recent study using new and historical data
376 has shown that *E. huxleyi* was found not affected by high temperatures during ‘hot summers’
377 and its abundance increases as the warming trend continues, indicating its ability to thrive and
378 adapt to ocean warming (Frada et al., 2021). Nutrient limiting conditions may have a positive
379 effect on the sinking rate of coccolithophores. The coccolithophore *Gephyrocapsa oceanica* has
380 a higher sinking rate associated with higher calcification for growth under N-limited conditions
381 (Jiang et al., 2022). Moreover, *E. huxleyi* from the stationary growth phase that grew under N-
382 limitation was also found to sink faster compared to growth under N-rich conditions (Pantorno
383 et al., 2013). Lastly, Wang et al. (2022) reported that P-limitation might promote sinking of *E.*
384 *huxleyi*.

385 In summary, our results suggest that diatoms (rich in OM) are probably not more
386 significant vectors of lipid carbon removal to the deep ocean compared to nanophytoplankton.
387 If nanophytoplankton predominate over diatoms in the future oceans, the carbon sink via lipids
388 will be higher than expected based only on the lower carbon content in nanophytoplankton cells
389 compared to diatoms (Figure 7) for at least two reasons: 1) nanophytoplankton synthesize
390 relatively more lipids than larger diatoms, and 2) the lipids of nanophytoplankton are much less
391 susceptible to degradation than those of diatoms and therefore can remain in the water column
392 longer, be transferred deeper and potentially be stored in oceanic sediments. In such an
393 environment, the lipid carbon may be preserved for millions of years.

394

395 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

396 JG and BG conceived of and designed the study. JG, SF, DMP and TD conducted the
397 experiments and analyzed the data. BG prepared the original draft of the manuscript with
398 writing, reviewing, and editing from JG, SF, DMP and TD.

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404 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

405 Authors declare no conflict of interest

406 DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

407 The data used to create Figures can be found in Table S1.

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