

An original adaptation of photosynthesis in the marine green alga *Ostreococcus*

Pierre Cardol^{*†‡}, Benjamin Bailleul^{*†}, Fabrice Rappaport^{*†}, Evelyne Derelle^{†§}, Daniel Béal^{*†}, Cécile Breyton[¶], Shaun Bailey[¶], Francis André Wollman^{*†}, Arthur Grossman[¶], Hervé Moreau^{†§}, and Giovanni Finazzi^{*†**}

^{*}Unité Mixte de Recherche 7141 and [†]Unité Mixte de Recherche 7099, Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, Institut de Biologie Physico-Chimique, Université Paris 7, 75005 Paris, France; [‡]Université Pierre et Marie Curie, Université Paris 6, 75005 Paris, France; [§]Laboratoire de Photobiologie, Département des Sciences la Vie, Université de Liège, B-4000 Liège, Belgium; [¶]Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique, Unité Mixte de Recherche 7628, MBCE, Observatoire Océanologique, F-66651 Banyuls sur Mer, France; and [¶]The Carnegie Institution, Department of Plant Biology, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305

Communicated by Pierre A. Joliot, Institut de Biologie Physico-Chimique, Paris, France, March 20, 2008 (received for review December 15, 2007)

Adaptation of photosynthesis in marine environment has been examined in two strains of the green, picoeukaryote *Ostreococcus*: OTH95, a surface/high-light strain, and RCC809, a deep-sea/low-light strain. Differences between the two strains include changes in the light-harvesting capacity, which is lower in OTH95, and in the photoprotection capacity, which is enhanced in OTH95. Furthermore, RCC809 has a reduced maximum rate of O₂ evolution, which is limited by its decreased photosystem I (PSI) level, a possible adaptation to Fe limitation in the open oceans. This decrease is, however, accompanied by a substantial rerouting of the electron flow to establish an H₂O-to-H₂O cycle, involving PSII and a potential plastid plastoquinol terminal oxidase. This pathway bypasses electron transfer through the cytochrome *b₆f* complex and allows the pumping of "extra" protons into the thylakoid lumen. By promoting the generation of a large ΔpH, it facilitates ATP synthesis and nonphotochemical quenching when RCC809 cells are exposed to excess excitation energy. We propose that the diversion of electrons to oxygen downstream of PSII, but before PSI, reflects a common and compulsory strategy in marine phytoplankton to bypass the constraints imposed by light and/or nutrient limitation and allow successful colonization of the open-ocean marine environment.

marine environment | PTOX | water cycle | electron flow | photoprotection

Picoplankton is defined as a unicellular organism with a cell size of 0.2–3 μm (1). Studies relating to the ecology of this group have greatly expanded over the last decade and suggest that these tiny organisms play major roles in biogeochemical cycling in the oceans, especially in oligotrophic areas (1). Picoplankton communities contain both prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms that can be either heterotrophic or autotrophic. Although picoeukaryotes are a minor component of picoplankton communities with respect to cell number, they are major contributors to the primary productivity in coastal areas (1, 2). Within picoeukaryotes, the smallest known organism belongs to the genus *Ostreococcus* (Prasinophyceae, Mamiellales). This genus has a cosmopolitan distribution, and several strains have been isolated or detected in samples of diverse geographical origins (3). The genome of two of these strains has been sequenced recently (4, 5). *Ostreococcus tauri*, OTH95 was the first characterized strain, isolated in 1995 from a coastal Mediterranean lagoon in France (6, 7). It is a naked, non-flagellated cell with a single mitochondrion and chloroplast. The chloroplast has simple structural features relative to that of plants; it is reduced in size, with only three layers of stacked thylakoid membranes (7). Furthermore, whereas genes encoding LHCI and prasinophyte-specific, chlorophyll-binding proteins (LHCPs) are present in the *O. tauri* OTH95 genome, the LHCI genes are absent (8, 9).

Since the description of this first strain, several morphologically indistinguishable *Ostreococcus* isolates originating from surface or deep waters have been established in culture. By analogy with the prokaryotic cyanobacterium *Prochlorococcus* (10, 11), these strains have been defined as low- or high-light

strains (12). Although the low- and high-light *Ostreococcus* strains exhibit differences in their growth characteristics under various light regimes, it is not clear whether these differences reflect long-term adaptations (speciation) or transient acclimation processes. Furthermore, there is little information concerning the photosynthetic properties of *Ostreococcus*; these properties would strongly influence growth characteristics and the ecologic niche in which these organisms could thrive.

Here, we show that photosynthesis in *Ostreococcus* has been largely and constitutively shaped by the environment, as evidenced by the comparison between the surface/high-light strain *O. tauri* OTH95 and the deep/low-light oceanic strain *Ostreococcus* RCC809. In the former, photosynthesis is very similar to that observed in plants and freshwater algae. Conversely, RCC809 is prone to overreduction of the photosynthetic chain because of an increased light absorption and diminished electron flow capacity as a consequence of reduced cellular PSI content. This leads to increased photosensitivity, which is actively counterbalanced by a singular photoprotection mechanism that involves bypassing the PSI limitation by establishing a H₂O-to-H₂O cycle: A substantial fraction of PSII-generated electrons are rerouted to oxygen, thanks to the activity of a plastoquinol terminal oxidase-like enzyme operating upstream of the cytochrome *b₆f* complex.

Results

The Low-Light/Deep-Sea RCC809 Strain of *Ostreococcus* Exhibits a Reduced Ability to Acclimate to High-Light Intensities. The surface/high-light strain *O. tauri* OTH95 was the first strain described in the genus (6, 7), and its genome was recently sequenced (4). The *Ostreococcus* deep/low-light strain RCC809 was isolated at 105 m of depth from the tropical zone of the Atlantic ocean. Although the two strains show similar morphologic features, they belong to different clades according to their ribosomal RNA sequences. Moreover, they show different growth capacities under high irradiance (12). Both *Ostreococcus* strains can sustain growth for 4 d under light intensities of 10–100 μE m⁻² s⁻¹ (12) (Fig. 1). However, we observed a strong photosensitivity in the deep sea RCC809 strain (Fig. 1B). Although this strain is still viable after 4 d at 100 μE m⁻² s⁻¹, the cells could not be rejuvenated after 8–10 d at 100 μE m⁻² s⁻¹ (data not shown), suggesting that sustained exposure to this light intensity is above the acclimation threshold of RCC809 (see ref. 13 for further discussion). In

Author contributions: P.C., S.B., F.A.W., A.G., H.M., and G.F. designed research; P.C., B.B., F.R., E.D., D.B., C.B., H.M., and G.F. performed research; P.C., B.B., F.R., E.D., C.B., H.M., and G.F. analyzed data; and P.C., F.R., C.B., S.B., F.A.W., A.G., H.M., and G.F. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

**To whom correspondence may be addressed. E-mail: giovanni.finazzi@ibpc.fr.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/cgi/content/full/0802762105/DCSupplemental.

© 2008 by The National Academy of Sciences of the USA

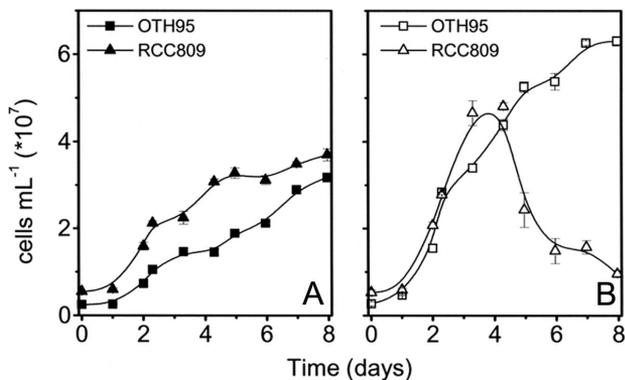


Fig. 1. Growth kinetics of OTH95 and RCC809 *Ostreococcus* strains at different light intensities. The two strains OTH95 (squares) and RCC809 (triangles) were grown at low light [$10 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, blue filter (A)] or moderate/high light [$100 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (B)]. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean of three independent measurements.

contrast, the OTH95 surface strain grew well at $100 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 1B).

We compared the functional properties of each strain after growth under conditions close to those prevailing in their natural environment: RCC809 cells were grown at $10 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ of blue light, whereas $100 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ of white light was used for OTH95. These light environments supported near-optimal growth rates for each strain. The strains were also switched to the opposite growth light to distinguish between acclimation and adaptation processes that have prevailed for their selection in their natural environment. Cultures were maintained for at least 3 d under the chosen light conditions before photosynthesis was measured.

PSII Absorption Capacity Is Enhanced in RCC809. Changes in the PSII absorption capacity are typically observed during acclimation of plants and algae to changing light conditions (14, 15). Although the absorption spectra of RCC809 and OTH95 were similar, we observed a larger contribution of chlorophyll-b (Chl-b) in the overall absorption in the low-light/deep-sea strain (Fig. 2A), suggesting that the relative amount of light-harvesting complexes (i.e., the ones containing Chl-b) was larger in the low light-adapted than in the high light-adapted strain. The difference in pigment content was confirmed by the HPLC analysis of the pigments extracted from whole cells. RCC809 was found to have a $\approx 50\%$ higher Chl-b/a ratio than OTH95 (Table 1). Further-

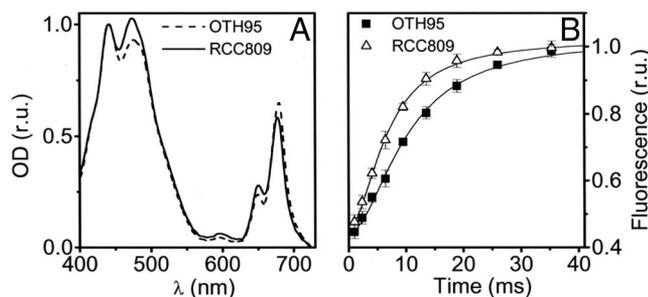


Fig. 2. Comparative absorption and fluorescence characteristics of OTH95 and RCC809 strains. (A) Absorption spectrum of intact OTH95 (dashed line) and RCC809 (solid line) cells. Curves were normalized to absorption at 440 nm. (B) Fluorescence transients of OTH95 (squares) and RCC809 (triangles) in the presence of $40 \mu\text{M}$ DCMU. Curves were normalized to the same value of variable fluorescence to allow a better comparison. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean of three independent measurements.

Table 1. Photosynthetic parameters of the *Ostreococcus* strains OTH95 and RCC809

Parameter	OTH95	RCC809
Chl-b/Chl-a	0.65 ± 0.05	1.01 ± 0.08
PSI	1.41 ± 0.15	0.42 ± 0.2
PSII	1	1.08 ± 0.22
PSI/PSII	1.41 ± 0.15	0.39 ± 0.08
NPQ _{100μE}	1.53 ± 0.47	0.09 ± 0.07
NPQ _{100μE}	1.65 ± 0.35	0.75 ± 0.16
$((Ax)/(Ax + Vx))_{10μE}$	0.01 ± 0.001	0.01 ± 0.003
$((Ax)/(Ax + Vx))_{100μE}$	0.04 ± 0.01	0.210 ± 0.026

Chl-b/a ratios were measured by HPLC pigment analysis of light-adapted cells. The high cellular Chl-b/a value is attributable to an elevated cellular content of LHCP, which has a very high Chl-b/a ratio (≈ 1.3) (8, 12). NPQ induced by ΔpH was calculated as the nigericin-sensitive fraction of steady-state fluorescence quenching ($F_m - F_m'/F_m'$), which was induced by exposure of cells grown at 10 or $100 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ of saturating illumination (46). PSI/PSII ratios were estimated from PSI and PSII charge separation capacity. Values were normalized to Chl concentrations, and the value for PSII centers in OTH95 ($100 \mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) was arbitrary set to 1. $Ax/(Ax + Vx)$ is the deepoxidation state of xanthophylls. Standard errors are relative to at least three replicate experiments.

more, the difference in the PSII antenna size was confirmed by measuring the rate of the fluorescence rise under limiting light excitation in the presence of the PSII inhibitor 3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU). In RCC809, the PSII antenna size was increased by a factor of ≈ 1.5 relative to OTH95 under all growth light conditions [Fig. 2B and [supporting information \(SI\) Fig. S1](#)]. This suggests that, at least under the conditions explored here, the different PSII antenna content in the two strains does not reflect a reversible acclimation process but, rather, a constitutive adaptation to their natural light environments.

Reduced Electron Flow from PSII to PSI in RCC809 Is Compensated for by an Increased Electron Flow to Oxygen. In addition to changes in the size of the light-harvesting apparatus, photosynthetic organisms modify the stoichiometry of their reaction centers in response to light and nutrient levels (14–18). We tested this possibility by quantifying the fraction of active PSI and PSII centers in the two *Ostreococcus* strains. This was done through monitoring the electrochromic shift signal (ECS), a technique previously used to evaluate the PSI/PSII ratio in freshwater green algae (19). The ECS is triggered by the light-induced electric field that develops across the thylakoid membrane upon charge separation within the reaction centers of the two photosystems. The field modifies the spectrum of pigment-containing complexes because of the Stark effect (20). When illuminated, both *Ostreococcus* strains display an identical ECS signal characterized by more symmetric and sharper peaks than those observed in plants (Fig. S2A and B). These features likely reflect the specific carotenoid composition of the antenna complex LHCP of Mamiellales (8) and the different protein environment of the chromophores (21).

As a prerequisite to the determination of PSI/PSII ratios, we established that the amplitude of the ECS signal was a linear function of the number of light-induced charge separations (Fig. S3). We then assessed the reaction center stoichiometry from the amplitude of the signal measured in cells that were dark-adapted for at least 4 hours before being exposed to a single turnover flash of saturating intensity. Under these conditions, the amplitude of the fast ECS ($100 \mu\text{s}$) is proportional to the photochemical activity of both PSI and PSII and does not depend on either the relative absorption cross-section of the PSs (because the flash intensity is saturating) or on the rate of the intersystem

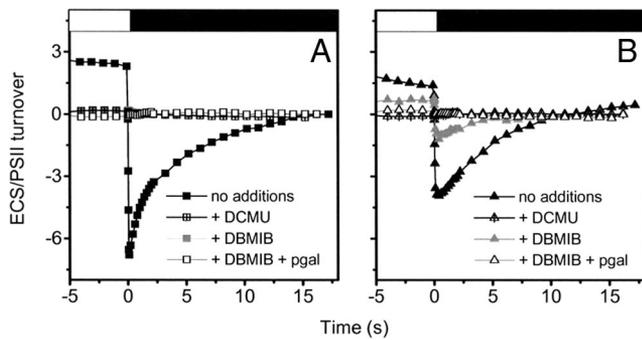
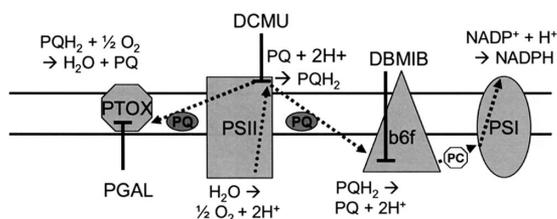


Fig. 4. Estimation of the electrochemical proton gradient generated upon steady-state illumination in OTH95 (A) and RCC809 (B) cells. Membrane potential is evaluated by absorption changes at 505–525 nm on untreated cells (black symbols), with 40 μM DCMU (crossed symbols), 5 μM DBMIB (gray symbols), and 5 μM DBMIB and 100 μM pgal (open symbols). Samples were illuminated for 2 min with saturating light (white box). The light was then switched off (black box), and the membrane potential decay was followed until full relaxation. The amplitude of the membrane potential was normalized to 1 PSII membrane charge separation, corresponding to the contribution of PSII to the signal generated by a saturating laser flash (see Figs. S2 and S3).

measuring the inversion of the ECS at the end of continuous illumination (28). Inversion of the membrane potential upon switching the light off is assumed to stem from fast H^+ flux through the CF_0F_1 ATP synthase complex. Owing to the low dielectric constant of the thylakoid membranes (29), the high H^+ buffering capacity of the lumen (30), and the slow rate of charge redistribution along the membranes (28), the relaxation of the electric component ($\Delta\Psi$) of the $\Delta\mu_{\text{H}^+}$ becomes faster than the complete dissipation of the ΔpH . This leads to a transient excess of positive charges in the stroma, which inverts the membrane potential. Thus, the amplitude of the inverted membrane potential can be taken as an indication of the size of the light-induced ΔpH (31). Although this parameter provides only a qualitative estimation of the ΔpH *in vivo*, the values obtained support the notion that RCC809 maintains a lower ΔpH than OTH95 under our experimental conditions (Fig. 4 and Fig. S5). In addition, although inhibition of PSII activity with DCMU completely abolished the generation of a ΔpH in both strains, a fraction of this proton gradient was maintained in RCC809 cells (but not in OTH95) when electron flow was blocked by addition of the cytochrome *b₆f* inhibitor dibromothymoquinone (DBMIB) (Scheme 1). Further addition of pgal completely suppressed residual electrochemical proton gradient generation, consistent with this extra ΔpH being linked to the activity of a PTOX-like oxidase that mediates an H_2O -to- H_2O cycle.

The fact that an unusual mode of ΔpH generation takes place in RCC809 through a PSII/PTOX-like, oxidase-coupled electron flow probably accounts for the different photoprotective re-



Scheme 1. Photosynthetic electron flow. The site of coupling between electron and proton transfer, as well as the sites of inhibition by DCMU and DBMIB, are shown. Activity of PTOX or a PTOX-like oxidase (inhibited by pgal) may allow diversion of electrons from the plastoquinone pool (PQH_2) to oxygen and may stimulate proton deposition into the lumen by a DCMU-sensitive, DBMIB-insensitive reaction. See text for further details.

sponses observed in the two strains. Whereas nonphotochemical dissipation of absorbed energy (NPQ) (32) could readily occur in OTH95 in high light, independent of the growth conditions (Table 1), NPQ could be observed in RCC809 only upon exposure of the cells to 100 $\mu\text{E}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ for several days. This NPQ was paralleled by the accumulation (Table 1) of antheraxanthin [i.e., the only product of violaxanthin deepoxidation in Prasinophytes (33)], as expected if the extra PTOX-dependent ΔpH generated at this light may sustain a greater activity of violaxanthin deepoxidase (32) in RCC809.

Discussion

Despite their identical morphology, the two *Ostreococcus* strains characterized in this work—OTH95 and RCC809 (12)—display distinct photosynthetic traits that have been shaped by their contrasting growth environments. The OTH95 strain was isolated in the Thau coastal lagoon in the western Mediterranean; i.e., a rather shallow environment rich in nutrients and often subjected to strong illumination (especially in the summertime). In contrast, RCC809 is an oceanic strain, isolated in the deep sea ($\approx 100\text{-m}$ depth), where it will not encounter light stress but is likely subjected to nutrient limitation (e.g., Fe). The most striking feature observed in our analysis is the H_2O -to- H_2O cycle generated by PSII in RCC809 but not in OTH95. We characterized this process, specific to RCC809, as a PTOX-mediated electron sink based on two independent observations: (i) the inhibition of the quantum yield of PSII-driven electron flow (ΦPSII) by pgal without any effect on the oxygen evolution capacity, and (ii) the generation of a ΔpH in the light under conditions in which electron flow is blocked at the level of the cytochrome *b₆f* complex (by DBMIB). Generation of this extra ΔpH is inhibited by blocking electron flow at the level of PSII by DCMU or by adding pgal at a concentration that inhibits ΦPSII .

Alternative electron flow to oxygen is prominent in RCC809; $\approx 50\%$ of the electrons generated from water oxidation can be routed to the reduction of molecular oxygen, at the cost of CO_2 fixation. No such sustained activity of a water-to-water cycle has been observed in vascular plants or freshwater green algae (26, 34). However, an important rerouting of photosynthetic electrons to molecular oxygen has been shown in marine prokaryotes under laboratory conditions (35) or *in situ*, where the organisms may be experiencing nutrient limitation (36). It is thus conceivable that this phenomenon represents a typical response of organisms adapted to life in the nutrient-poor oligotrophic oceans.

What, then, is the rationale for such an adaptation mechanism? Previous work has emphasized that algae and plants respond to environmental changes by modulating the size of their light harvesting complexes as well as the stoichiometry of their reaction centers (13–16, 37–41). However, whereas the changes in the antenna size of RCC809 are consistent with this organism being adapted to a low-light environment, the low PSI/PSII ratio in this strain is typical of high-light-acclimated plants (14). It is thus tempting to speculate that the situation observed in RCC809 reflects a constitutive adaptation to a sustained nutrient limitation (e.g., Fe) experienced by this strain. Owing to its relatively high Fe content, PSI is strongly decreased in freshwater (17) or marine (18) algae that are exposed to an Fe-depleted environment. Independent of the origin of the large decrease in the PSI content observed in RCC809, the unusually high activity of the PTOX-like oxidase may be essential for this strain to survive, even at moderate light intensities. The concomitant increase in the light harvesting capacity of PSII and the decrease in PSI cellular content would rapidly promote overreduction of the plastoquinone pool, eventually leading to sustained photodamage, should this strain be subjected to higher light. However, this potentially lethal situation is actively coun-

terbalanced in RCC809 by the oxidase-mediated H₂O-to-H₂O cycle. By acting as an efficient electron sink, this process allows reoxidation of the electron transport components and the opening of PSII traps. Consistent with this hypothesis, RCC809 is capable of maintaining a partially oxidized electron transport chain even at light intensities where electron flow to CO₂ is limited by PSI performances (Fig. 3).

Furthermore, by bypassing the bottleneck of electron transfer through PSI, this process has a major advantage compared with electron flow to other alternative sinks [i.e., the Mehler reaction or the transfer of reducing equivalents to the mitochondria via the malate shunt (42)], which require activity of both photosystems. The H₂O-to-H₂O cycle also provides other benefits to the cell: (i) by allowing the development of a ΔpH-mediated NPQ response, it enhances photoprotection. Previous work has demonstrated that the ΔpH activates the VDE enzyme (responsible for antheraxanthin and zeaxanthin synthesis), leading to an enhanced thermal dissipation capacity (reviewed in ref. 32). Thus, the extra ΔpH generated in RCC809 may be responsible for the accumulation of antheraxanthin that is observed after several days of exposure to 100 μE·m⁻²·s⁻¹. This antheraxanthin promotes the onset of reversible fluorescence quenching, which may prolong viability of RCC809 during extended periods in high light. Moreover, (ii) the extra ΔpH can fuel ATP synthesis for housekeeping purposes, even in the presence of reduced PSI performances. It is known from previous work in plants and algae that electron diversion at the PSI acceptor side (via the Mehler reaction, the malate shunt, or cyclic flow around PSI) may increase the amount of ATP synthesized per electron transferred in PSII. This likely allows establishing the correct ATP/NADPH ratio required for CO₂ assimilation by the Calvin-Benson cycle (see ref. 43 for a discussion). In analogy to the cyclic electron flow observed around PSI, activation of a H₂O-to-H₂O cycle around PSII—under nutrient starvation and/or any other condition leading a significant drop in the PSI levels—may increase the ATP synthesized per electron transferred in PSII and help sustaining cell survival. Furthermore, although this process was observed under controlled laboratory conditions, a comparison with previous observations in diatoms and cyanobacteria (18, 35) suggests that electron diversion downstream of PSII may be widespread among the prokaryotic and eukaryotic components of phytoplankton. Thus, we propose that re-routing electrons to a plastoquinol oxidase represents a common and compulsory strategy to allow successful adaptation of photosynthetic taxa to the oligotrophic ocean environment.

Materials and Methods

Growth Conditions. *Ostreococcus* OTH95 (*O. tauri*) (7) and RCC809 strains were obtained from the Observatoire Océanologique de Banyuls-sur-Mer, France, and grown in K medium (44). They were grown either in white light at an

intensity of 100 μE·m⁻²·s⁻¹ or in blue light at an intensity of 10 μE·m⁻²·s⁻¹ (filter 183 Moonlight Blue Filter; Lee Filters) in a 12-h light/12-h dark regime at 18–20°C with mild agitation. This temperature represents a compromise between the range experienced by OTH95 (20–25°C) and RCC809 (15–20°C) in their natural environments (see <http://bulletin.mercator-ocean.fr>). Flow cytometric analyses were performed with a FACScan flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson) equipped with an air-cooled argon laser providing 15 mW at 488 nm.

Fluorescence and Oxygen Measurements. Fluorescence emission was measured by using a home-built instrument, as described previously (45). ΦPSII, the quantum yield of PSII (22), was calculated as $(Fm' - Fs)/Fm'$, where Fm' is the maximum fluorescence emission level induced by a pulse of saturating light ($\approx 5,000 \mu E \cdot m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$), and Fs is the steady-state level of fluorescence emission. NPQ was calculated as $(Fm - Fm')/Fm'$ (46), where Fm is the maximum fluorescence emission level in the dark measured with the saturating pulse of light. The ΔpH-sensitive NPQ extent was evaluated as the fraction of fluorescence quenching that was selectively suppressed by addition of the H⁺/K⁺ exchanger nigericin (10 μM). Oxygen evolution was measured with a Clark electrode (Hansatech).

Spectroscopic Measurements. *In vivo* absorption was measured with a home-built spectrophotometer, based on a detecting diode array (AVS-USB 200; Ocean Optics). Kinetics measurements were performed by using a home-built xenon lamp-based spectrophotometer (19). Detection flashes were provided by a xenon flashlamp (3-μs duration at half-height) with light filtered through a monochromator (HL; Jobin Yvon). Actinic light was provided either by a dye laser or by a continuous green LED source. PSI and PSII charge separation capacity was calculated from changes in the amplitude of the fast phase of the ECS signal (at 505–525 nm) upon excitation with a saturating laser flash in the presence or absence of the PSII inhibitors DCMU (20 μM) and hydroxylamine (1 mM). The latter compound was added to destroy the manganese cluster responsible for oxygen evolution and to prevent recombination between the donor and acceptor side of PSII, which would preclude correct estimation of the PSI/PSII ratio.

Pigment Analysis. Pigments were extracted from whole cells in methanol, and debris was removed by centrifugation at 10,000 × g for 15 min. A total of 15 μl of pigment extract was subjected to reverse-phase HPLC analysis using commercial equipment (Waters). A Nova Pak C18, 60A column (150-mm length, 4-μm pore size) was used for separation. The Chl-a and Chl-b concentrations were estimated according to Lichtenthaler (47).

Note Added in Proof. While this manuscript was being processed for publication, a study (48) of the acclimation properties of the two *Ostreococcus* strains was published. Although the two studies are consistent for the light intensity we used, Six *et al.* observed contrasting acclimation behaviors when *Ostreococcus* was exposed for several months to much higher light intensity.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank Fabrice Franck (Liège) and Bernard Genty (Cadarache) for valuable suggestions. M. Radoux is also thanked for technical assistance. This research was supported by Belgian “Fonds National de la Recherche Scientifique” (FNRS) Grant F.4735.06 (to P.C.) and by the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique. H.M. and E.D. were supported by the “Marine Genomics Europe” European Network of Excellence (2004–2008) (GOCE-CT-2004-505403). S.B. was supported by National Science Foundation Grant OCE-0450874 (to A.R.G.) P.C. is a research associate of the Belgian FNRS.

- Li WKW (1994) Primary productivity of prochlorophytes, cyanobacteria, and eukaryotic ultraphytoplankton: Measurements from cytometric sorting. *Limnol Oceanogr* 39:169–175.
- Worden AZ, Nolan JK, Palenik B (2004) Assessing the dynamic and ecology of marine picoplankton: The importance of eukaryotic component. *Limnol Oceanogr* 49:168–179.
- Zhu F, Not F, Massana R, Marie D, Vaulot D (2005) Mapping of the picoeukaryotes in marine systems with quantitative PCR of the 18S rRNA gene. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol* 52:79–92.
- Derelle E, *et al.* (2006) Genome analysis of the smallest free-living eukaryote *Ostreococcus tauri* unveils many unique features. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103:11647–11652.
- Palenik B, *et al.* (2007) The tiny eukaryote *Ostreococcus* provides genomic insights into the paradox of plankton speciation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 104:7705–7710.
- Courties C, *et al.* (1994) Smallest eukaryotic organism. *Nature* 370:255.
- Chrétiennot-Dinet MJ, *et al.* (1995) A new marine picoeukaryote: *Ostreococcus tauri* gen et sp. Nov. (Chlorophyta, Prasinophyceae). *Phycologia* 4:285–292.
- Six C, Worden AZ, Rodriguez F, Moreau H, Partensky F (2005) New insights into the nature and phylogeny of prasinophyte antenna proteins: *Ostreococcus tauri*, a case study. *Mol Biol Evol* 22:2217–2230.
- Derelle E, *et al.* (2002) DNA libraries for sequencing the genome of *Ostreococcus tauri* (chlorophyta, prasinophyceae): The smallest free-living eukaryotic cell. *J Phycol* 38:1150–1156.
- Moore LR, Rocap G, Chisholm SW (1998) Physiology and molecular phylogeny of coexisting *Prochlorococcus* ecotypes. *Nature* 393:464–467.
- Rocap G, Distel DL, Waterbury JB, Chisholm SW (2002) Resolution of *Prochlorococcus* and *Synechococcus* ecotypes by using 16S–23S ribosomal DNA internal transcribed spacer sequences. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 68:1180–1191.
- Rodriguez F, *et al.* (2005) Ecotype diversity in the marine picoeukaryote *Ostreococcus* (Chlorophyta, Prasinophyceae). *Environ Microbiol* 7:853–859.
- Derelle E (2005) Towards an understanding of photosynthetic acclimation. *J Exp Bot* 56:425–447.
- Anderson JM, Chow WS, Park YI (1995) The grand design of photosynthesis: Acclimation of the photosynthetic apparatus to environmental clues. *Photosynth Res* 46:129–139.
- Falkowski PG, Owens TG (1980) Light-shade adaptation: Two strategies in marine phytoplankton. *Plant Physiol* 66:592–595.
- Bailey S, Walters RG, Jansson S, Horton P (2001) Acclimation of *Arabidopsis thaliana* to the environment: the existence of separate low light and high light responses. *Planta* 231:794–801.
- Moseley JL, *et al.* (2002) Adaptation to Fe-deficiency requires remodeling of the photosynthetic apparatus. *EMBO J* 21:6709–6720.
- Strzeppek RF, Harrison PJ (2004) Photosynthetic architecture differs in coastal and oceanic diatoms. *Nature* 431:689–692.

19. Joliot P, Delosme R (1974) Flash-induced 519 nm absorption change in green algae. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 357:267–284.
20. Witt HT (1979) Energy conversion in the functional membrane of photosynthesis. Analysis by light pulse and electric pulse methods. The central role of the electric field. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 505:355–427.
21. Goss R, Wilhelm C, Garab G (2000) Organization of the pigment molecules in the chlorophyll *a/b/c* containing alga *Mantoniella squamata* (Prasinophyceae) studied by means of absorption, circular and linear dichroism spectroscopy. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1457:190–199.
22. Genty B, Harbinson J, Briantais JM, Baker NR (1990) The relationship between non-photochemical quenching of chlorophyll fluorescence and the rate of photosystem 2 photochemistry in leaves. *Photosynth Res* 25:249–257.
23. Mehler AH (1951) Studies on reactions of illuminated chloroplasts. I. Mechanism of the reduction of oxygen and other Hill reagents. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 33:65–77.
24. Ort DR, Baker NR (2002) A photoprotective role for O(2) as an alternative electron sink in photosynthesis? *Curr Opin Plant Biol* 5:193–198.
25. Streb P, et al. (2005) Evidence for alternative electron sinks to photosynthetic carbon assimilation in the high mountain plant species *Ranunculus glacialis*. *Plant Cell Environ* 28:1123–1135.
26. Peltier G, Cournac L (2002) Chlororespiration. *Annu Rev Plant Biol* 53:523–550.
27. Josse EM, Alcaraz JP, Labouré AM, Kuntz M (2003) *In vitro* characterization of a plastid terminal oxidase (PTOX). *Eur J Biochem* 270:3787–3794.
28. Cruz JA, Sacksteder CA, Kanazawa A, Kramer DM (2001) Contribution of electric field ($\Delta\psi$) to steady-state transthylakoid proton motive force (pmf) *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Control of pmf parsing into $\Delta\psi$ and ΔpH by ionic strength. *Biochemistry* 40:1226–1237.
29. Vredenberg WJ (1976) Electrostatic interactions and gradients between chloroplast compartments and cytoplasm. *The Intact Chloroplast*, ed Barber L (Elsevier/North Holland Biomedical, Amsterdam), pp 53–87.
30. Junge W, McLaughlin S (1987) The role of fixed and mobile buffers in the kinetics of proton movement. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 890:1–5.
31. Kramer DM, Cruz JA, Kanazawa A (2003) Balancing the central roles of the thylakoid proton gradient. *Trends Plants Sci* 8:27–32.
32. Horton P, Ruban AV, Walters RG (1996) Regulation of light harvesting in green plants. *Annu Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol* 47:655–684.
33. Goss R, Böhme K, Wilhelm C (1998) The xanthophyll cycle of *Mantoniella squamata* converts violaxanthin into antheraxanthin but not zeaxanthin : Consequences for the mechanism of enhanced non-photochemical energy dissipation. *Planta* 205:613–621.
34. Cournac L, et al. (2000) Electron flow between photosystem II and oxygen in chloroplasts of photosystem I-deficient algae is mediated by a quinol oxidase involved in chlororespiration. *J Biol Chem* 275:17256–17262.
35. Bailey S, et al. (2008) Alternative photosynthetic electron flow to oxygen in marine *Synechococcus*. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1777:269–276.
36. Mackey KRM, Paytan A, Grossman AR, Bailey S (2008) A photosynthetic strategy for coping in a high-light, low-nutrient environment. *Limnol Oceanogr* 53:900–913.
37. Demmig-Adams B (1998) Survey of thermal energy dissipation and pigment composition in sun and shade leaves. *Plant Cell Physiol* 39:474–482.
38. Berry J, Björkman O (1980) Photosynthetic response and adaptation to temperature in higher-plants. *Annu Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol* 31:491–543.
39. LaRoche J, Mortain-Bertrand A, Falkowski P (1991) Light intensity induced changes in cab mRNA and light harvesting complex II apoprotein levels in the unicellular chlorophyte *Dunaliella tertiolectica*. *Plant Physiol* 97:147–153.
40. Durnford DG, Falkowski PG (1997) Chloroplast redox regulation of nuclear gene transcription during photoacclimation. *Photosynth Res* 53:229–241.
41. Im CS, Grossman AR (2001) Identification and regulation of high light-induced genes in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*. *Plant J* 30:301–313.
42. Scheibe R, Backhausen JE, Emmerlich V, Holtgreve S (2005) Strategies to maintain redox homeostasis during photosynthesis under changing conditions. *J Exp Bot* 56:1481–1489.
43. Allen J (2002) Photosynthesis of ATP-electrons, proton pumps, rotors, and poise. *Cell* 110:273–276.
44. Keller MD, Selvin RC, Claus W, Guillard RRL (1987) Media for the culture of oceanic ultraphytoplankton. *J Phycol* 23:633–638.
45. Rappaport F, Beal D, Joliot A, Joliot P (2007) On the advantages of using green light to study fluorescence yield changes in leaves. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1767:56–65.
46. Bilger W, Björkman O (1990) Role of the xanthophyll cycle in photoprotection elucidated by measurements of light-induced absorbance changes, fluorescence and photosynthesis in leaves of *Hedera canariensis*. *Photosynth Res* 25:173–186.
47. Lichtenthaler HK (1987) Chlorophylls and carotenoids: Pigments of photosynthetic biomembranes. *Methods Enzymol* 148:350–382.
48. Six C, et al. (2008) Contrasting photoacclimation costs in ecotypes of the marine eukaryotic picoplankter *Ostreococcus*. *Limnol Oceanogr* 53:255–265.