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Keywords

25 Macroalgae; food production; bioenergetics; synthesizing units; Rhode Island

26 **Abstract**

27 Aquaculture is an industry with the capacity for further growth that can contribute to 28 sustainable food systems to feed an increasing global population. Sugar kelp (*Saccharina* 29 *latissima*) is of particular interest for farmers as a fast-growing species that benefits ecosystems 30 as a primary producer. However, as a new industry in the U.S., farmers interested in growing *S.* 31 *latissima* lack data on growth dynamics. To address this gap, we calibrated a Dynamic Energy 32 Budget (DEB) model to data from the literature and field-based growth experiments in Rhode 33 Island (U.S.A.). Environmental variables forcing model dynamics include temperature, 34 irradiance, dissolved inorganic carbon concentration, and nitrate and nitrite concentration. The 35 modeled estimates for field *S. latissima* blade length were accurate despite underestimation of 36 early season growth. In some simulations, winter growth was limited by the rate at which the 37 light-dependent reaction of photosynthesis, the first step of carbon assimilation, was performed. 38 Nitrogen (N) reserves were also an important limiting factor especially later in the spring season 39 as irradiance increased, although the low resolution of N forcing concentrations might restrict the 40 model accuracy. Since this model is focused on *S. latissima* grown in an aquaculture setting with 41 winter and spring growth, no specific assumptions were made to include summer growth patterns 42 such as tissue loss or reproduction. The results indicate that this mechanistic model for *S.* 43 *latissima* captures growth dynamics and blade length at the time of harvest, thus it could be used 44 for spatial predictions of *S. latissima* aquaculture production across a range of environmental 45 conditions and locations. The model could be a particularly useful tool for further development 46 of sustainable ocean food production systems involving seaweed.

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Aquaculture is currently the fastest growing food production sector in the world and is 50 likely to become the main seafood supply in the future (FAO, 2018). In open systems of fed 51 species, aquaculture activities can cause concentrated fluxes of feces and feed wastage leading to 52 eutrophication (Wu, 1995) and alteration of food webs (Herbeck et al., 2013). Open aquaculture 53 systems composed of species that do not require supplemental feed or nutrients (i.e., primary 54 producers and filter feeders) avoid these harms and instead can provide important ecosystem 55 services such as removing dissolved organic and inorganic nutrients (Alleway et al., 2019). 56 Seaweeds are of particular interest as they mitigate hypoxia from terrestrial food production 57 systems and even protect shorelines through dampening of wave energy (Duarte et al., 2017). 58 Outside of these ecosystem services, growing seaweed has been proposed as a way to engage a 59 wider public audience with climate change via offsetting carbon emissions (Froehlich et al., 60 2019). Seaweed aquaculture has the potential to generate net positive environmental and social 61 impacts, but this industry has been traditionally concentrated in Asian countries (FAO, 2018). 62 The U.S. does not produce enough aquatic plants to even register in the global production 63 statistics (< 0.1%; FAO, 2018). In the Northeast U.S., sugar kelp (*Saccharina latissima*) is a 64 local species of recent interest for food, biofuel, bioremediation, and pharmaceutical products 65 (Forbord et al., 2012). In a single season of aquaculture growth, *S. latissima* blades can grow up 66 to 60-140 cm depending on the water depth, planting time, and nutrient availability (Handå et al., 67 2013). Oysters, however, are the most widely aquacultured species in coastal areas of the U.S 68 (NMFS, 2018). The Eastern oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*) mostly grows during the summer 69 months when water temperatures are above 15 \degree C and is in a state of relative dormancy in the 70 winter (Dame, 1972). It has been suggested that cultivation of *S. latissima* could complement

71 oyster farming because of the differences in growing season with kelp growing mainly when 72 water temperatures are below 15 °C. Therefore, kelp could provide an additional source of 73 income without interfering with oyster production. This new industry, however, would benefit 74 from production estimates in order to assess the biological and economic sustainability of *S.* 75 *latissima* farming.

76 Bioenergetic models can provide such production estimates by studying energy fluxes 77 and usage between the environment and the organism and within the organism. They constitute 78 useful tools in the early development of an aquaculture activity to: assess the carrying capacity of 79 a system before installing new farms (Grant et al., 2007; Filgueira et al., 2014), estimate 80 production and feeding ration (Cho and Bureau, 1998), or to optimize integrated multi-trophic 81 aquaculture (IMTA) systems (Ren et al., 2012). Forcing variables in bioenergetic modelling 82 frameworks are of prime importance as they define the system response. In the case of *S.* 83 *latissima*, blade growth is mainly influenced by irradiance, temperature, and nutrient 84 concentration (Boden, 1979). Other factors such as wave action (Buck and Buchholz, 2005) and 85 ambient light regime (Gerard, 1988) may also determine growth dynamics. In a simple predictive 86 model, Petrell et al. (1993) estimated growth of *S. latissima* using a linear relationship with 87 dissolved inorganic nitrogen concentration and a temperature correction. This model required an 88 assumption that nitrogen dynamics are always limiting growth, thus ignoring the potential 89 influence of irradiance. While integrating photosynthetic processes into a model can be 90 challenging, mechanistic approaches may be more suited to capture the physiological response to 91 environmental variability, especially in a changing environment (Denny and Helmuth, 2009). 92 Dynamic energy budget (DEB) theory provides a sound mechanistic basis for 93 understanding an organism's energetics, which is used to model the flow of mass and energy

94 through an organism from uptake to usage for maintenance, growth, reproduction, or excretion 95 (Kooijman, 2010). This theory of metabolic organization provides a framework to examine the 96 interactive effects of environmental nutrient concentrations and irradiance on an organism 97 through parallel systems of nitrogen (N) and carbon (C) dynamics. Modeling autotrophs is a less 98 common direction for the application of DEB theory. Thus, multiple reserves are necessary to 99 accurately model matter and energy dynamics because of the different nutrient uptake pathways 100 (Kooijman, 2010). Autotroph DEB models have been constructed for microalgae (Lorena et al., 101 2010, Livanou et al., 2019), phytoplankton-zooplankton interactions (Poggiale et al., 2010), 102 calcification of a coccolithophore (Muller and Nisbet, 2014), and recently the macroalga *Ulva* 103 *lactuca* (Lavaud et al., 2020). Broch and Slagstad (2012) were the first to develop a dynamic 104 bioenergetic model for *S. latissima*, borrowing concepts from DEB theory with the aim of 105 creating a tool for optimizing aquaculture production of Norwegian *S. latissima*. These authors 106 based their model structure on a Droop's cell quota model completed by numerous empirical and 107 allometric relationships to simulate growth of *S. latissima,* but this simplification did not increase 108 parsimony (i.e., reduce the number of model parameters). Using a DEB framework, however, 109 ensures theoretical coherence (i.e., mechanistic description of metabolic processes) and ease of 110 model transference to other regions through less re-calibration.

111 Our objective with this study is to develop a bioenergetic model for *S. latissima* growth 112 using the mechanistic properties of DEB theory. Specifically, we aim to calibrate the macroalga 113 DEB model presented by Lavaud et al. (2020) to field data on kelp from Rhode Island (U.S.A.). 114 The application of this model to another species from a different environment constitutes an 115 important step in the validation of this model structure. The resulting model allows for growth

116 predictions based on environmental inputs and has the potential to support the sustainable 117 aquaculture industry, particularly with regard to site selection. 118 119 **2. Methods** 120 121 2.1 Dynamic Energy Budget model assumptions 122 The *S. latissima* model is based on a DEB model developed for sea lettuce by Lavaud et 123 al. (2020). The core structure of the *S. latissima* model tracks the uptake of carbon (C) and 124 nitrogen (N), their assimilation into specific reserves and allocation to growth or maintenance or 125 their excretion (Figure 1). The variables that depict the state of the model are the mass of 126 structure M_V (in mol V, moles of structure), Nitrogen reserve density m_{E_N} (in mol N per mol V), 127 and Carbon reserve density m_{E_C} (in mol C per mol V). The code for this model is freely 128 available at https://github.com/CVenolia/SugarKelpDEB. 129 A core assumption of DEB theory, strong homeostasis, maintains that reserve and 130 structure have constant chemical compositions (Kooijman, 2010). This does not mean that there 131 are always constant amounts of reserve and structure; rather, the amount of carbon, nitrogen, 132 hydrogen, and oxygen relative to each other within specific reserves or structures remains 133 constant. 134 Two substrates and associated reserves were considered in this *S. latissima* model: C and 135 N (nitrate and nitrite, collectively); other potential nutrients such as phosphorous or potassium 136 were dismissed based on the fact that in regions where nitrogen is not abundant year-round, 137 nitrogen availability is what drives accelerated growth in winter and early spring (Gagné et al.,

138 1982). Adding further reserves to the model would increase complexity by increasing the number

139 of state variables and parameters with potentially little to no increase in accuracy. On the C side 140 of the model, since *S. latissima* and other algae use carbonic anhydrase to assimilate bicarbonate 141 and convert it into carbon dioxide (Axelsson et al., 2000), we assumed that assimilating carbon 142 dioxide directly was identical to assimilating carbon dioxide that was formed extracellularly 143 from bicarbonate through a carbon concentrating mechanism.

144 Another assumption of this DEB model is that *S. latissima* is a V1-morph. In DEB 145 theory, V1-morphs are organisms whose surface area is proportional to volume (Kooijman, 146 2010). *S. latissima* grows as a sheet in both length and width directions at the meristematic blade 147 region near the stipe (Sjøtun, 1993). Variation in blade thickness over an individual blade and 148 through time does not have a substantial impact on the surface area to volume ratio (Vettori and 149 Nikora, 2017) to preclude the V1-morph assumption. Drag from water speed has been found to 150 impact blade morphology (Buck and Buchholz, 2005) but this difference in appearance should 151 not affect the surface area to volume ratio either.

152 Other assumptions were grounded in the fact that this model was used to determine 153 aquaculture production, which is currently limited in time to November-May. Energy was not 154 used for reproduction or maturity in this model, a simplification that allows for a more 155 parsimonious model. There is evidence suggesting that kelp produces inhibitors that minimize 156 the formation of reproductive tissue during the rapid growth phase (Buchholz and Lüning, 1999, 157 Lüning et al., 2000). Moreover, only a small subset of blades show reproductive development by 158 the time the aquaculture harvest occurs in spring, towards the end of the first period of rapid 159 growth. Furthermore, the aquaculture season of *S. latissima* is set up to maximize growth while 160 minimizing loss or degradation of tissues due to various stresses. Apical frond loss in kelp is 161 correlated with temperature stress and wave action (Krumhansl et al., 2014), mechanical stress of

162 biofouling (Brown et al., 1997), and overall blade length (Sjøtun, 1993). A tissue loss function 163 would be necessary to accurately model *S. latissima* growth year-round, however, the exact 164 mechanism for this loss remains context-specific in the literature. Aquaculture farmers generally 165 harvest kelp before biofouling begins, which maximizes harvestable blade length and product 166 quality. Photoinhibition may occur in *S. latissima* when high light conditions are combined with 167 high temperature conditions (Heinrich et al., 2012), but since we limit the application of our 168 model to winter-spring seasons, photoinhibition was not accounted for. Photorespiration was not 169 included either to simplify model dynamics (Kooijman, 2010).

170

171 2.2 Model structure

172 All the equations for this model are based on and detailed in Lavaud et al. (2020; Table 173 1). *S. latissima* blade length (L_w) was calculated via total dry weight (W_d) using an allometric 174 relationship proposed by Gevaert et al. (2001; Table 1). The change in the three state variables 175 (reserve density of C and N and mass of structure) over time is described by differential 176 equations that where solved using the deSolve package (Soetaert et al., 2010) in R (R Core 177 Team, 2019).

178

179 2.3 Model calibration

180 The parameters of the *S. latissima* DEB model were manually calibrated to fit 181 simultaneously a combination of literature data and field data collected for this study (Table 2). 182 Root mean square error (RMSE) was used as a measure of spread in the residuals for assessing 183 the quality of model predictions compared to each observation data set. 184

185 2.3.1. Literature data

186 Information about the locations where literature studies were conducted was also 187 included because there are multiple ecotypes of *S. latissima* (Gerard, 1988), which may influence 188 their physiological response (Table 3). Due to a lack of local information on certain aspects of *S.* 189 *latissima* life history traits, this model was calibrated with data across multiple ecotypes of *S.* 190 *latissima*. The Arrhenius relationship parameters were estimated using a least squared non-linear 191 regression on compiled physiological rates from the literature. Prior to the estimation, each data 192 set was standardized by dividing by the averaged value found at the reference temperature (Table 193 3). The nitrate and nitrite uptake parameters, j_{E_MAm} maximum volume specific nitrogen 194 assimilation and K_N half-saturation concentration for NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ uptake, were calibrated 195 using nitrate uptake data from Espinoza and Chapman (1983). To match the dimensions used by 196 these authors (μ mol N⁻¹ g_{DW}⁻¹ h⁻¹) the volume-specific modeled N uptake was multiplied by 197 / W_d (structural mass divided by dry weight). Photosynthesis parameters, ρ_{PSU} photosynthetic 198 unit (PSU) density, α_I specific photon arrival cross section, \dot{b}_I binding probability of a photon to 199 a free light synthesizing unit, and \dot{k}_I dissociation rate of photosynthetic products, were calibrated 200 using oxygen production data from Johansson and Snoeijs (2002).

201 Appropriate literature data for calibrating several model parameters were not available. 202 For instance, air-based carbon dioxide uptake data for *S. latissima* (Ní Longphuirt et al., 2013) 203 were examined to estimate dissolved inorganic carbon uptake but ultimately were rejected due to 204 likely dissimilarity to submerged uptake. Carbon uptake parameters, maintenance rates, the yield 205 factor of C reserve and the rejection flux were estimated during model testing so as to result in 206 predicted length within the observed range in length data (Table 2). Other parameters such as the 207 reserve turnover rates are difficult to compare to measurable physiological data, so these

208 parameters were set based on previously assumed values by Lorena et al. (2010) and Lavaud et 209 al. (2020).

210

211 2.3.2. Field data

212 *S. latissima* was grown at four oyster farm sites from fall to spring in both 2017-2018 213 (Year 1) and 2018-2019 (Year 2). *S. latissima* seed was raised in aquaria from harvested local 214 reproductive *S. latissima* tissue collected at Ft. Wetherill, RI, following the methods of Redmond 215 et al. (2014), and seed lines were attached to ropes held in place by moorings at each of the 216 farms. The growing sites were split between Narragansett Bay and Pt. Judith Pond, RI (Figure 2). 217 Longlines of *S. latissima* were placed in duplicates at a depth of 1 m at all the growing sites. *S.* 218 *latissima* growth, measured as length and width (cm), was monitored every 20-85 days using a 219 subset of individuals harvested from the longline. The variability in monitoring timing was 220 largely driven by the availability of farmers to assist with logistics as well as weather conditions. 221 Temperature data were collected every fifteen minutes at each site using HOBO® 222 pendant loggers. Water samples were collected when *S. latissima* growth measurements were 223 taken to determine the concentrations of nitrate and nitrite. In year 1, nitrate and nitrite 224 concentrations were measured using a LACHAT Flow Injection Autoanalyzer (LACHAT, 2008, 225 method detection limit $0.3 \mu M$). In year 2, nitrate and nitrite concentrations were determined 226 using an Astoria Pacific Model 303A Segmented Continuous Flow Autoanalyzer (Astoria-227 Pacific Inc, Clackamas, OR; Eaton et al., 1998, method detection limit 1.43 μ M). Because 228 Narragansett Bay S data were below the method detection limit for the analysis done in year 2, 229 we replaced them with data from the nearby University of Rhode Island Graduate School of

230 Oceanography to better reflect reality; samples were run on an Astoria Analyzer (Reed and 231 Oviatt, 2020, method detection limit of 0.1 μ M).

232

233 2.4. Model forcing

234 The *S. latissima* model was forced with temperature, irradiance, dissolved inorganic 235 carbon (DIC) concentration, and nitrate and nitrite concentration data on an hourly time step. 236 Temperature recorded at fifteen-minute intervals at each site was averaged on an hourly basis. 237 Due to difficulties with biofouling on irradiance loggers, we used radiative forcing from the 238 North American Regional Reanalysis (Mesinger et al., 2006) to estimate photosynthetically 239 active radiation (PAR, mol γ m⁻² h⁻¹ or E m⁻² h⁻¹) using this equation: PAR = NSW * PAR_{frac} * 240 $C * e^{(-k * z)} * 3600$, with NSW the net shortwave radiation (W m⁻²) at the water surface 241 calculated from downward shortwave flux minus upward shortwave flux, PAR_{frac} the fraction of 242 the incident flux useable for photosynthesis (dimensionless), C a conversion factor (µmol γ s⁻¹ 243 W^{-1}), k extinction coefficient (m⁻¹), z line depth (m), and 3600 to convert from per second to per 244 hour. We used a value of 4.56 μmol γ s⁻¹ W⁻¹ for C (Mõttus et al., 2011), a PAR_{frac} of 0.43 245 (Mõttus et al., 2011), a k of 0.46 m⁻¹ from past work in Narragansett Bay (Ullman & Codiga, 246 2010), and a z of 1 m as kelp lines were held at a depth of a minimum of 1 m. We used linear 247 interpolation to create an hourly forcing from source data every three hours (Figure 3). All sites 248 had the same base irradiance forcing in one year using this method. DIC concentration data were 249 not collected in this study, so this forcing was estimated from other sources. The Pt. Judith Pond 250 sites were held at a constant DIC value of 1.836×10^{-3} mol DIC L⁻¹ based on U.S. Environmental 251 Protection Agency data from Ninigret Pond (J. Grear, unpublished data). The Narragansett Bay 252 sites were held at a constant DIC value of 1.956×10^{-3} mol DIC L⁻¹ based on data from Brenton

275 sugar kelp appear gradually with increasing temperature. The adjusted R-squared for this 276 relationship was 0.55 (p-value = $2.74 * 10^{-11}$).

277 Using the nitrate uptake data from Espinoza and Chapman's (1983) St. Margaret's Bay 278 site (Nova Scotia, Canada) provided estimates of maximum volume specific nitrate and nitrite 279 assimilation of 1.5 $*$ 10⁻⁴ mol N mol V⁻¹ h⁻¹ and a half-saturation concentration of 2.5 $*$ 10⁻⁶ mol 280 NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ L⁻¹ (Figure 5). The fit for the data collected at 18 °C was slightly better with a 281 RMSE of 0.374 μ mol N g_{DW} ⁻¹ h⁻¹ than the 9 °C data at 0.504 μ mol N g_{DW} ⁻¹ h⁻¹. 282 For the oxygen production data (Johansson and Snoeijs, 2002) used to calibrate the 283 photosynthesis parameters, the values that had the lowest error around the data were a PSU 284 density $\rho_{PSU} = 0.05$ mol PSU mol V⁻¹, specific photon arrival cross section α_I of 1 m² mol PSU⁻¹ 285 ¹, a binding probability of a photon to a free light synthesizing unit $\dot{b}_I = 0.5$ (dimensionless), and 286 a dissociation rate of photosynthesis products $k_I = 0.075$ mol γ mol PSU⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Figure 5). The 287 resulting RMSE for this data set was 0.54 mg O_2 g_{DW}⁻¹ h⁻¹. The maximum oxygen production 288 rate of the model was approximately 4.95 mg O_2 g_{DW}⁻¹ h⁻¹ (Figure 5). 289 290 3.2 Model calibration: Field data

291 In year 1, the maximum water temperature recorded at the sites was $16.7 \degree C$ in November 292 and the minimum temperature was -1.72 °C in January (Figure 6). For year 2, the maximum 293 temperature was 15.28 °C in May and the minimum temperature was -1 °C in January. 294 Temperature changes were consistent across all four sites for both years. 295 The nitrate and nitrite concentration forcing variable had a lower resolution than the 296 temperature forcing because of the linear interpolation between the N measurements (Figure 6). 297 The mean N concentration at the Pt. Judith Pond sites was $4.42 * 10^{-6}$ mol NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ L⁻¹ (\pm

298 2.76 $*$ 10⁻⁶) and 2.20 $*$ 10⁻⁶ mol NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ L⁻¹ (\pm 2.99 $*$ 10⁻⁶) at the Narragansett Bay sites 299 in year 1. For year 2, the mean N concentration at the Pt. Judith Pond sites was $1.01 * 10^{-6}$ mol 300 NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ L⁻¹ (\pm 2.11 $*$ 10⁻⁶) and 1.87 $*$ 10⁻⁶ mol NO₃⁻ and NO₂⁻ L⁻¹ (\pm 2.97 $*$ 10⁻⁶) at the 301 Narragansett Bay sites.

302

303 3.3 Predicted growth and model dynamics

304 *S. latissima* grew quickly with mean elongation across all sites studied of 0.87 ± 0.63 cm 305 d⁻¹ in year 1 and 1.18 ± 0.62 cm d⁻¹ in year 2 (Figure 7). End of season blade length varied, but 306 no clear trend based on sites was observed (Table 4). The *S. latissima* DEB model generally 307 underestimated growth observed in the early parts of the season (planting to end of March) but 308 accurately predicted the length at harvest within one standard deviation of the observed mean 309 length for the majority of sites (Figure 7). An exception to this trend was the first *S. latissima* 310 line planted at Pt. Judith Pond South in year 1 for which final length was overestimated. The 311 RMSEs for the model length prediction to the field length data ranged widely from 4.01 to 53.94 312 cm (Figure 7). Examining the reject fluxes from the growth SU indicate that the C reserve 313 (carbohydrates) limited model growth after planting for greatly variable time spans across the 314 sites, seasons, and lines (Figure 8). A growth limitation by C reserve may result from low C 315 assimilation due to a low specific relaxation rate. Temperature seemed to be the main factor 316 controlling C assimilation, as indicated by the greater similarity of the shape of the temperature 317 correction to that of C assimilation than the shape of the seasonal trend of irradiance (Figure 9). 318 N limitation seemed to have a strong role in controlling modeled *S. latissima* growth dynamics 319 overall due to the proportion of time C was rejected from the growth SU.

320 3.4 Sensitivity Analysis

326

327 **4. Discussion**

328 Aquaculture development represents a key role in expanding U.S. sustainable food 329 production and macroalgae can provide high returns when the proper growth conditions exist. 330 Understanding and predicting the growth dynamics of *S. latissima* can provide the aquaculture 331 industry with a powerful predictive tool for estimating production potential. This model is the 332 first attempt to apply Dynamic Energy Budget (DEB) theory to a macroalga of the order 333 Laminariales. The process-based model presented in this study allowed us to better understand 334 growth limitations as they relate to the behavior of the model.

335

336 4.1 Growth Limitation

337 In several model simulations, predictions of early *S. latissima* growth seemed to indicate 338 a limitation in carbon (C) assimilation due to a low modeled specific relaxation rate, j_l , by 339 photosynthetic SU2 processing the light-dependent reactions of photosynthesis. There is some 340 evidence that a lack of C reserve occurs in the field during winter due to lower irradiance; *S.* 341 *latissima* individuals older than a year were shown to have a decrease in blade C content mid-342 winter suggesting consumption of stored carbohydrates (Sjøtun, 1993). New sporophytes would

343 not have this carbohydrate pool to draw upon and would exclusively depend on photosynthesis to 344 acquire C. The decrease in C content observed by Sjøtun (1993) suggests that C dynamics may 345 be limiting *S. latissima* growth, but substrate limitation was not directly examined by this author. 346 In simulations where irradiance was the initial limiting factor for growth, the early season model 347 underestimation of field growth may reflect an outsized impact of the temperature correction of 348 \dot{k}_I on the specific relaxation rate, j_I , in comparison to irradiance. As with many DEB parameters, 349 \dot{k}_I is difficult to estimate directly based on empirical data and our assumption of dependence on 350 temperature as in other algae (Kooijman, 2010; Lavaud et al., 2020) may not be as relevant to *S.* 351 *latissima*. As ocean temperature seasonal trends trail behind irradiance changes (Brady-Campbell 352 et al., 1984), *S. latissima*'s early season growth could be driven by this early season increase in 353 irradiance rather than water temperature change. More data are necessary to confirm why the *S.* 354 *latissima* DEB model underestimates winter growth.

355 Other than an increase in irradiance, day length could also impact seasonal growth 356 patterns. Broch and Slagstad's (2012) *S. latissima* model used the rate of change of day length in 357 a photoperiodic effect function to mimic growth seasonality. These authors relied on the 358 hypothesis that *S. latissima* is a "seasonal anticipator" with endogenous circadian rhythms (Kain, 359 1989). Seasonal anticipators are posited to grow strategically in response to a trigger. Other kelps 360 such as *Laminaria hyperborea* and *Laminaria digitata* have been shown to have free-running 361 seasonal growth patterns, which suggests control by endogenous circadian rhythms (Schaffelke 362 and Lüning, 1994). Species-specific evidence for this circadian hypothesis is lacking including 363 the mechanism for what would trigger *S. latissima*'s photoperiodic response. If this is the case, 364 substrate uptake or reserve mobilization parameters may be adjusted in the model in response to 365 a trigger to temporarily favor early winter growth.

366 Another possible reason for underestimation of early season C dynamics may be a lack of 367 energy gain at night. *S. latissima*'s carbon dioxide exchange rate is not closely correlated with 368 irradiance because carbon dioxide uptake by the alga continues into the dark (Mortensen, 2017). 369 On average, 11% of *S. latissima*'s carbon fixation happens in the dark (Kremer and Markham, 370 1979). The linkage between the light-dependent and light-independent reactions is modeled in 371 our study as an immediate transference. In other words, when there is no irradiance input, the 372 assimilation of carbohydrates to the C reserve is zero. However, adding this layer of 373 physiological accuracy could reduce model efficiency without increasing predictive capacity. 374 In some instances, N was the limiting factor to growth, as shown by more rejected C by 375 the growth SU, for example, in Pt. Judith Pond sites in Dec and Jan of year 1, resulting in lower 376 predicted length as compared to field observations. The low resolution of N forcing could limit 377 our interpretation of the results, but our N data show general agreement with long-term 378 monitoring at the University of Rhode Island Graduate School of Oceanography (Reed and 379 Oviatt, 2020). The seasonal dynamics of N in Narragansett Bay matches that of many sites 380 around New England with higher concentrations of N in the October-March and reduced summer 381 N concentrations (Townsend 1991, Reed and Oviatt, 2020). Nitrogen has been well-documented 382 as a major force limiting primary production across the ocean (Duce et al., 2008). N limitation of 383 *S. latissima* growth may be a reasonable expectation later in the year as inorganic N availability 384 is thought to facilitate late winter and early spring *S. latissima* growth (Ahn et al., 1998). 385 To increase the ability to accurately understand growth limitation with this DEB model, 386 localized N uptake data in response to changing N concentrations would be useful. Ecotypic 387 differences in N nutrition have been observed both in Nova Scotia (Canada, Espinoza and

388 Chapman, 1983) and when comparing Long Island Sound (New York) kelps with kelps from

389 Maine (Gerard, 1997). In this study, Espinoza and Chapman's (1983) N uptake data from St. 390 Margaret's Bay was chosen for calibration over their Bay of Fundy data because the April-391 November seasonal depletion of nitrate was more similar to Narragansett Bay conditions than the 392 year-round nitrate replete conditions of the Bay of Fundy. Kelp individuals from St. Margaret's 393 Bay also had greater nitrate accumulation ability (Espinoza and Chapman, 1983). The seasonal 394 dissolved inorganic nitrogen patterns were comparable for the Long Island Sound and Maine 395 kelps that Gerard (1997) analyzed, but the Long Island Sound plants (geographically closer to 396 our kelp from Narragansett Bay) accumulated larger N reserves, which allowed for a ramping up 397 of photosynthetic component production. Such ability to store nitrogen over winter months has 398 been documented (Nielsen et al., 2014) and may explain the observed pattern of C reserve 399 limitation in our model. Year-long simulations would most likely provide different conclusions 400 when N availability in the environment decreases (Reed and Oviatt, 2020). 401 The chemical composition of available N for assimilation may have an effect on N 402 limitation. Nitrate was the primary N source used in this model primarily due to lack of complete 403 ammonium data to include in the forcing. Including ammonium, however, may allow for more 404 accurate predictions of growth dynamics as ammonium has been hypothesized to be a more

405 efficient N source for macroalgae especially in low light conditions because it may be

406 assimilated passively through diffusion (Harrison and Hurd, 2001). One argument for leaving out

407 ammonium is to simplify dynamics, as a different substrate composition would require another

408 reserve pool, although pools of different N forms may be combined and uptake rates for different

409 N sources averaged. Another reason is that *S. latissima* has been shown to have a higher

410 maximum uptake of nitrate compared to ammonium: ammonium saturation was observed at

411 concentrations of 10 μM whereas nitrate saturation was not observed until 30 μM (Ahn et al.,

412 1998). The greater variation in nitrate uptake could cause nitrate to have a more important role in 413 shaping *S. latissima* growth dynamics. The caveat to using these rates to understand dynamics 414 broadly is that kelp individuals used in this study came from ammonium rich and nitrate poor 415 habitat (Ahn et al., 1998), which may have some effect on the reported uptake rates.

416

417 4.2 Sensitivity Analysis

418 The high sensitivity of the state variables to the temperature related parameters is a 419 logical outcome of the central role of temperature in DEB theory. Since the temperature 420 correction is applied to such a large number of rates in the organism, the high sensitivity to these 421 values is reasonable. It is also an argument for caution in regional calibration of the Arrhenius 422 relationship. The sensitivity of the *S. latissima* model to the fraction of rejection flux 423 incorporated back in i-reserve (κ_{E_i}) contrasts with the lack of sensitivity of Lorena et al. (2010)'s 424 microalgae model to the same parameter. Different metabolic pathways, storage capacities, and 425 efficiencies might be responsible for these differences between a phytoplankton species and a 426 macroalgae. More experimental work focusing on the dynamics of internal and external N 427 concentration in controlled settings should help confirm the calibration of this parameter. The 428 sensitivity of the model to the yield factor of C reserve on photons and on CO₂ (y_{IC} and y_{CO_2C} 429 respectively), reflects the generality of photosynthesis reactions; a change in these parameters 430 would involve important modifications of the physiological processes involved in 431 photosynthesis. Since these processes are well known and established, it reinforces our 432 confidence in the model. The high sensitivity of the model to the yield factor of C reserve to 433 structure $(y_{E_C V})$ in comparison to the small but nonzero impact of the yield factor of N reserve to 434 structure (y_{E_N}) might be reflective of the greater amount of C reserve required by the chemical

435 composition of the structure. This greater proportion of C may also be the reason the majority of 436 the impactful parameters are related to C dynamics. The state variables had a small sensitivity to 437 reserve turnover parameters, which calibration may be challenging due to the difficulty to relate 438 these abstract parameters to observed data. It is, therefore, encouraging that the sensitivity to 439 these values was low. This analysis should increase our overall confidence in the values of the 440 calibrated parameters and the reliability of the model as the most sensitive parameters are those 441 in which we can have highest assurance.

442

443 4.3 Model Application

444 Limitations to broader geographic use of this parameter set center around the plasticity of 445 *S. latissima* and the existence of ecotypes in this species. The differentiation of ecotypes occurs 446 when individuals have an acclimation range related to their habitat of origin (Gerard, 1988). For 447 instance, *S. latissima* individuals from New York have been shown to have a different 448 physiological response to temperature in a lab setting than individuals from Maine (Gerard, 449 1988). In the context of this study, Narragansett Bay (RI, U.S.A.) is located towards the southern 450 boundary of *S. latissima* distribution range (Taylor, 1972); kelps from this location likely have 451 different physiological rates than in northern neighboring states. The existence of multiple 452 ecotypes of this species suggests that some parameters, such as the temperature parameters or 453 maximum assimilation rates of substrates, require regional adjustment, particularly in the Arctic. 454 Additionally, the model assumption regarding the proportionality of surface area to volume 455 impedes prediction of blade shape plasticity, which is a characteristic of *S. latissima* related to 456 drag (Buck and Buchholz, 2005). Since the blade thickness and amount of blade ruffling could 457 impact the relationship between surface area and volume, some adjustments to the model may be 458 warranted in regions where blade plasticity results in thicker thalli as the surface area to volume 459 relationship would be impacted. Determining a mechanism for how blade type changes in 460 response to hydrodynamic conditions would provide a clearer picture of overall growth 461 dynamics.

462 Further research on the mechanisms for frond loss, blade plasticity, and regional 463 parameter information have the potential to improve this DEB model. A better understanding of 464 the physiological cause for apical frond loss would allow this process to be included in 465 mechanistic models in a more meaningful way than modeling erosion as a response to one 466 correlated variable such as length or age. Aging mechanisms within DEB theory (Kooijman, 467 2010), based on the production of harmful compounds may also be of interest to model frond 468 loss. Finally, underwater carbon dioxide uptake data and more regionally appropriate oxygen 469 production data in response to variable irradiance would be useful to better calibrate parameters 470 linked to *S. latissima* photosynthesis.

471 Our model establishes a baseline for *S. latissima* DEB parameters and further testing of 472 the model equations from Lavaud et al. (2020). This tool facilitates analyzing local growth 473 limitations as they relate to modeled responses to changing environmental conditions. Our *S.* 474 *latissima* DEB model is a first step towards estimating kelp aquaculture production in the U.S.A. 475 In future work, this *S. latissima* DEB model could be coupled with a DEB model for *C. virginica* 476 (Lavaud et al., 2017) and the Regional Ocean Modeling System (ROMS) with a Carbon Silicate 477 Nitrogen Ecosystem (CoSiNE) model (Chai et al, 2009) to predict growth potential at sites in the 478 Northeastern U.S.A. Supporting macroalgae aquaculture is an important avenue to work towards 479 the vital goals of feeding a growing human population and while combatting climate change. 480

481

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- 500

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- 679 **Tables**
- **680 Table 1.** Model equations with environmental conditions: $T =$ temperature (K), I = irradiance
- 681 (mol γ m⁻² h⁻¹), DIC = dissolved inorganic carbon (mol DIC L⁻¹), and N = nitrate and nitrite
- 682 concentration ($NO₃⁻$ and $NO₂⁻ L⁻¹$).

$$
j_{VG} = \left[\sum_{i} \left(\frac{j_{E_i G}}{y_{E_i V}}\right)^{-1} - \left(\sum_{i} \frac{j_{E_i G}}{y_{E_i V}}\right)^{-1}\right]^{-1} = \dot{r} + j_V^M
$$

$$
j_{E_i R} = j_{E_i G} - y_{E_i V} j_{VG}
$$

$$
\frac{d}{dt}m_{E_l} = j_{E_lA} - j_{E_lC} + \kappa_{E_l}j_{E_lR} - \dot{r} m_{E_l}
$$
\n
$$
\frac{d}{dt}M_V = \dot{r}M_V
$$

$$
L_w = \left(\frac{W_d}{3.87 \; 10^{-3}}\right)^{\frac{1}{1.469}}
$$

Gross specific growth rate

Specific flux of rejected C or N from growth SU Dynamics of the N or C reserve Dynamics of structural mass $W_d = (w_V + m_{E_C} w_{EC} + m_{E_N} w_{EN}) M_V$ Whole *S. latissima* blade dry weight The Physical length Physical length

683

684 **Table 2.** *S. latissima* DEB model parameters and units resulting from fitting the model to the

685 compiled literature and field data.

687 **Table 3.** Data from literature and this study used to calibrate the *S. latissima* DEB model.

688 *Used only to build the Arrhenius relationship.

689

690 **Table 4**. Length of *S. latissima* blades in cm (± SD) at the end of the growing season in each site.

691 **Figures**

701 **Figure 2.** Map of growing sites (triangles) for *S. latissima* on Rhode Island oyster farms.

703 **Figure 3.** Irradiance forcing used in all sites for year 1 (a) and year 2 (b) of the field study 704 converted from the radiative forcing from the North American Regional Reanalysis.

706 **Figure 4.** Arrhenius relationship for *S. latissima* estimated using multiple growth and 707 photosynthesis datasets from: Bolton and Lüning (1982; squares; orange for kelp from France, 708 yellow for Norway, purple for Germany, green for the UK), Fortes and Lüning (1980; blue 709 diamonds), Davison and Davison (1987; red asterisk), and Davison (1987 circles; blue for 710 sporophytes rearing temp 0 °C, orange for 5 °C, yellow for 10 °C, purple for 15 °C, and green 711 for 20 °C). The adjusted R-squared statistic for the fit of the curve to the data points is 0.551 (p-712 value = $2.74 \, 10^{-11}$).

714 **Figure 5.** Predicted (lines) and observed (points) a) N uptake from Espinoza and Chapman

715 (1983) at 9 °C (black circles) and 18 °C (grey diamonds) and b) Oxygen production from

716 Johansson and Snoeijs (2002).

Figure 6. Measured temperature ($^{\circ}C$; a,b) and nitrate and nitrite concentrations (µmol L^{-1} ; c,d) 719 from year 1 (left panels) and year 2 (right panels). Narragansett Bay lines are in dark blue (North 720 site 1), purple (South site 1), and light blue (South site 2). Pt. Judith Pond lines are in orange 721 (North site 1), yellow (North site 2), brown (South site 1) and black (South site 2). Observed N 722 concentrations are indicated by black dots.

724 **Figure 7.** *Saccharina latissima* blade length (cm) during year 1 (top row) and year 2 (bottom 725 row). Dots and diamonds with error bars depict the mean observed length from the field data and 726 their standard deviation, respectively. Lines are the predicted length from the *S. latissima* DEB 727 model. Lines and dots in black are the first *S. latissima* line planted at a site, and lines and 728 diamonds in grey depict the second *S. latissima* line planted later in the year.

730 **Figure 8**. Rejected fluxes of C (a,b) and N (c,d) from the growth SU back to reserves at Pt. 731 Judith Pond in year 1 (left panels) and year 2 (right panels). Black is for the North *S. latissima* 732 line and the grey is for the South line on all plots.

734 **Figure 9.** Temperature correction factor (a), irradiance (b), specific relaxation rate from 735 photosynthetic SU2 (c) and carbon assimilation rate resulting from photosynthetic SU3 (d) at Pt. 736 Judith Pond during year 2. Black is for the North *S. latissima* line and the grey is for the South 737 line.

