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Lack of evidence for elevated CO₂-induced bottom-up effects on marine copepods: a dinoflagellate – calanoid prey – predator pair

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Rising levels of atmospheric CO₂ are responsible for a change in the carbonate chemistry of seawater with associated pH drops (acidification) projected to reach 0.4 units from 1950 to 2100. We investigated possible indirect effects of seawater acidification on the feeding, fecundity, and hatching success of the calanoid copepod *Acartia grani*, mediated by potential CO₂-induced changes in the nutritional characteristics of their prey. We used as prey the autotrophic dinoflagellate *Heterocapsa* sp., cultured at three distinct pH levels (control: 8.17, medium: 7.96, and low: 7.75) by bubbling pure CO₂ via a computer automated system. *Acartia grani* adults collected from a laboratory culture were acclimatized for 3 d at food suspensions of *Heterocapsa* from each pH treatment (ca. 500 cells ml⁻¹; 300 µg C l⁻¹). Feeding and egg production rates of the preconditioned females did not differ significantly among the three *Heterocapsa* diets. Egg hatching success, monitored once per day for the 72 h, did not reveal significant difference among treatments. These results are in agreement with the lack of difference in the cellular stoichiometry (C : N, C : P, and N : P ratios) and fatty acid concentration and composition encountered between the three tested *Heterocapsa* treatments. Our findings disagree with those of other studies using distinct types of prey, suggesting that this kind of indirect influence of acidification on copepods may be largely associated with inter-specific differences among prey items with regard to their sensitivity to elevated CO₂ levels.

Keywords: *Acartia grani*, bottom-up, copepods, dinoflagellates, food quality, *Heterocapsa*, ocean acidification, pH.

Introduction

Climate-driven changes in the marine environment have been largely associated with the anthropogenic rise of the atmospheric CO₂ concentration, projected to increase by a factor of 1.1–2.4 by the end of the century (IPCC, 2013; levels in 2011: 391 ppm). Elevated CO₂ in the atmosphere is driving, in addition to global warming, a concurrent change in the seawater carbonate chemistry and an associated pH drop that could reach up to 0.4 pH units from years 1950 to 2100 (IPCC, 2013), widely known as ocean acidification (OA).

A significant amount of data have been obtained in the last decade related to the OA impact on several groups of marine organisms [as reviewed by Fabry *et al.* (2008); Doney *et al.* (2009); Dupont *et al.* (2010); Hofmann *et al.* (2010); Koch *et al.* (2013)]. Among plankton, research interest has mainly focused on calcifying primary producers, given the anticipated impact of high CO₂/low pH on the processes of photosynthesis and calcification (e.g. Riebesell *et al.*, 2000; Van de Waal *et al.*, 2013). Copepods, comprising the major group of secondary producers in the planktonic foodweb, have been typically considered relatively tolerant of a

lowering in seawater pH due to the lack of calcite/aragonite formations in their exoskeleton. This has been verified in several occasions, in studies where the copepod physiological performance was tested at CO₂ levels projected at the end of the century (Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Mayor *et al.*, 2012; Weydmann *et al.*, 2012; McConville *et al.*, 2013; Zervoudaki *et al.*, 2014) or even in long-time exposures at CO₂ levels rising far beyond the near-future projections (Kurihara and Ishimatsu, 2008; Hildebrandt *et al.*, 2014). Sublethal effects may be of relevance under extreme acidification regimes related with deep ocean CO₂ sequestration (e.g. Kurihara *et al.*, 2004; Mayor *et al.*, 2007; Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Cripps *et al.*, 2014a). Some recent studies, however, report a high sensitivity of copepods even at near-future OA levels (Lewis *et al.*, 2013; Thor and Dupont, 2015), and others suggest that the most experimental works might have underestimated the actual direct effect of OA on copepods due to the inadequacy of the experimental approaches used (Cripps *et al.*, 2014a, b).

In addition to reconsidering potential biases in the estimation of the direct OA effects on copepods, future research should also take into deeper account the fact that CO₂-induced changes in seawater chemistry may influence copepod performance not only in a direct way (i.e. by changing the acid–base regulation of their physiological and metabolic functions), but also indirectly through foodweb “bottom-up” effects. Climate-related changes in the quantitative and qualitative properties of lower trophic level organisms may be transferred to upper trophic levels through the food chain, but this indirect OA effect has been only poorly investigated for copepods. Food quality is a determinant factor for copepod performance (e.g. Jónasdóttir, 1994; Koski *et al.*, 1998; Jones *et al.*, 2002; Klein Breteler *et al.*, 2005; Isari *et al.*, 2013) and interestingly, a couple of recent works have emphasized a negative indirect OA effect on copepods (e.g. a decrease in egg production or/and growth and development) through a deterioration of the nutritional quality of their prey when grown under high CO₂ (Rossoll *et al.*, 2012; Schoo *et al.*, 2013).

There are several evidences for CO₂-induced changes in algal quality (Burkhardt and Riebesell, 1997; Burkhardt *et al.*, 1999; Urabe *et al.*, 2003; Rossoll *et al.*, 2012; Schoo *et al.*, 2013), but the response patterns show a profound species/strain-dependence. The underlying physiological mechanisms and metabolic pathways for this variability are not yet well understood, but the exposure of algae to high CO₂ levels is often accompanied by a downregulation of the genes associated with cellular CO₂-concentrating mechanisms (CCMs; e.g. Ratti *et al.*, 2007; Crawford *et al.*, 2011; Van de Waal *et al.*, 2013, 2014); the CCMs are responsible for the increase of free CO₂ concentration near the RuBisCO (ribulose1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase) enzyme, involved in the carbon fixation (Giordano *et al.*, 2005; Hopkinson *et al.*, 2011). Such shifts in gene expression and protein production are assumed to save energy and elemental resources and can be further expressed through changes in algal physiology and elemental and biochemical properties (Giordano *et al.*, 2005). Ultimately, the final outcome will depend on the efficiency of RuBisCO and CCMs in each species (Reinfelder, 2011).

In this study, in contrast to the flagellate and diatom preys used by Schoo *et al.* (2013) and Rossoll *et al.* (2012), respectively, we assess the bottom-up effects of OA on copepods offering as a prey a dinoflagellate species. Dinoflagellates constitute a major prey for copepods in most of the oceans (Saiz and Calbet, 2011); in addition, this group is expected to particularly benefit under increased CO₂ levels, due to their less efficient RuBisCO (form II) and their high dependence on CCMs (Reinfelder, 2011). Our hypothesis is that a

higher CO₂ supply under OA conditions could facilitate the growth and improve the nutritional quality of dinoflagellates, and therefore enhance copepod productivity. To test our hypothesis, we cultured the armored dinoflagellate *Heterocapsa* sp. at three pCO₂/pH levels representative of the projected values at the end of the century (IPCC, 2013), then examined the response of the copepod *Acartia grani* in terms of feeding on dinoflagellate and reproduction.

Methods

Target copepod species

Eggs from a culture of the calanoid copepod *A. grani* maintained at the Institut de Ciències del Mar (CSIC) were collected, hatched, and reared to adulthood at 18 ± 1 °C and a salinity of 37.4. Throughout their development, the copepods were fed *ad libitum* a suspension of the Cryptophyte alga *Rhodomonas salina* grown exponentially in f/2 medium. Only adult female copepods that had matured within the previous week were used in the experiments.

Dinoflagellate culture conditions

The marine autotrophic dinoflagellate *Heterocapsa* sp. was grown in batch culture amended with nutrients (f/2 medium; Guillard, 1975), and 250-ml aliquots of exponentially growing cells (ca. 60 000 cells ml⁻¹) were inoculated into 13-l Nalgene polycarbonate bottles containing 5 l of autoclaved 0.2-µm filtered seawater (salinity 37.4). These algal cultures were exposed to three distinct pH_{NBS} (National Bureau of Standards pH scale) levels (control: 8.17, medium: 7.96, and low: 7.75 pH units), adjusted by injections of pure CO₂ through a solenoid valve controlled automatically by an Aqua-medTM computer automated system with a plastic shafted pH electrode. During the night-time, CO₂-free air was bubbled in the cultures (using a home-made filter filled with soda lime, Sigma Aldrich) to compensate for the decrease of pH due to algal respiration. The small number and size of the bubbles produced by the gas/air injections precluded any harmful mechanical effect on the algae. Algal cultures were maintained for a period of 16 days under these conditions in a cold room (18 ± 1 °C) with 18 : 6 h light : dark cycle (150 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹), and cell number and volume were daily monitored *in vivo* with an Multisizer III Coulter Counter. Growth rate (µ, d⁻¹) was calculated as the slope of the least-squares linear regression of ln(*N_i*) vs. time, where *N_i* was the cell concentration at time *i*. The division rate (*k*, doublings d⁻¹) was calculated as *k* = µ/ln 2. For the first 6 d, the algal cultures were grown exponentially until reaching a concentration of 10 000 cells ml⁻¹, sufficient to provide enough algae for the experiments with copepods. Thereafter, and based on the estimated algal growth rate, the cultures were kept in a semi-continuous phase at a stable culture biomass of ca. 10 000 cells ml⁻¹ by daily removing a certain volume of culture and its replacement with f/2 medium.

Seawater chemistry

Throughout the experiment, we took the seawater pH readings of our computer automated system in our experimental treatments every 30 min. The accuracy of the pH measurements performed by the electrodes connected to the automated system (which we never removed from the closed culture bottles to avoid contamination) was daily verified, immediately after culture sampling, with an Metrohm 826 pH meter fitted with a glass electrode (6.0257.600, Aquatrode plus, Metrohm), equipped with temperature sensor, and

previously calibrated with buffer solutions of pH_{NBS} 7 and 9. Salinity was measured daily using an YSI-30 M/10FT probe, and total alkalinity (TA) was analysed on day 13 by potentiometric titration (Perez and Fraga, 1987; Perez et al., 2000). Calculations of the other parameters of the carbonate system were performed from TA and pH using the CO_2SYS program (Pierrot et al., 2006), with dissociation constants for carbonate determined by Mehrbach et al. (1973) and refit by Dickson and Millero (1987), whereas the dissociation constants of sulphuric acid were taken from Dickson (1990) and total boron from Lee et al. (2010).

Algal elemental (C : N : P) and fatty acid compositions

We assessed the elemental (C, N, and P) and fatty acid (FA) compositions of the algae grown under the different CO_2/pH conditions on the 15th day of growth of the algal culture. Triplicate (30 ml for C–N analysis, 20 ml for P analysis) and tetraplicate (40 ml for FAs) aliquots of known cell concentration were filtered onto pre-combusted 25-mm Whatman GF/C filters (450°C , 6 h). Samples for C and N analysis were dried for 24 h at 60°C and kept in a desiccator until analysis (FLASH 2000 Thermo Scientific CHNS analyser). Filters for particulate phosphorus and FAs were frozen at -80°C immediately after filtration. For phosphorus determination, filters were subjected to orthophosphate acid persulphate oxidation and posterior analysis as inorganic phosphorus (Grasshoff et al., 1999). For the FA analysis, lipid extraction and conversion of acyl groups into fatty acid methyl ester derivatives (FAMES) were performed after Peters et al. (2013) using modified protocols of Folch et al. (1957) and Kattner and Fricke (1986). Total lipids were extracted using ultrasonic disruption of the cells in dichloromethane : methanol (2 : 1, v/v) and a washing procedure with aqueous KCl solution (0.88%). For quantification of FAMES, tricosanoic acid was added as an internal standard before extraction. Acyl groups were converted into FAMES using methanolic sulphuric acid (3%) at 80°C for 4 h. After adding Milli-Q water, FAMES were extracted by washing the polar phase three times with hexane. FAMES and fatty alcohols were separated by gas chromatography (column DB-FFAP, programmable temperature vaporizer injector, and solvent vent mode), detected by flame ionization, and identified by comparing retention times with those derived from standards of known composition. Only compounds with $>0.2\%$ of total FAs and alcohols were included in the dataset. Statistical data analyses of FAs were performed with the 12 most important FAs (defined as those with values $>1\%$ of tFA), either as absolute or relative content (in the latter case, after arcsine square root transformation).

Copepod experiments

The impact of the three different diets (algae grown at the respective CO_2/pH treatments) on the feeding and reproductive output of the copepod *A. grani* was assessed after a 3-d preconditioning period at the specific diets. Food suspensions at $500 \text{ cells ml}^{-1}$ (ca. $300 \mu\text{g C l}^{-1}$) at each CO_2/pH level were prepared by diluting the respective algal stock cultures with filtered seawater (FSW) pre-equilibrated at the respective pH, either by bubbling CO_2 (medium and low pH treatments) or CO_2 -free air (control treatment). Pyrex screw-cap bottles (2300 ml) were filled with the suspensions and groups of 20 females and 12 males (to ensure fertilization) were added for preconditioning. During this period, the copepods were daily transferred to fresh suspensions (discarding dead animals if present). After the conditioning period, four replicated groups ($4 \times \text{Cop}$) of five females were placed in 625 ml Pyrex screw-cap bottles filled with the respective food suspensions; five additional

bottles with food suspensions but without the addition of copepods served as initial ($1 \times \text{Init}$) and control ($4 \times \text{Contr}$) bottles. Initial bottles were sacrificed immediately at the beginning of the incubation, and subsamples withdrawn and preserved with 2% Lugol's acetic solution; the remaining bottles were incubated for 24 h at 18°C under the light conditions where the algae had been growing to determine the copepod feeding and egg production rates on each respective diet. After the incubation time, the pH of the bottle contents was first checked (no substantial change was observed), then they were carefully poured onto a 200- and $20\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ meshes to collect the females and the eggs, respectively. The number and condition of the copepods were checked (mortality was negligible), and subsamples of the food suspensions were preserved as described above. A proportion (40%) of the eggs laid in each bottle was transferred into Petri dishes filled with FSW equilibrated at the parental incubation pH, sealed with plastic covers (no bubbles left), and left undisturbed to determine hatching success; the rest of the eggs for each bottle were preserved in Lugol's acetic solution for posterior counting. The number of unhatched eggs was monitored daily for 3 d, and the hatching rate was calculated. To follow the pH throughout the hatching incubation, pH measurements were taken every 24 h in separate Petri dishes filled with pCO_2 equilibrated FSW (but no eggs), sealed similarly to the ones used for the hatching test.

Algal concentration in the feeding experiment samples was determined microscopically, and clearance and ingestion rates were computed according to Frost (1972). Assuming that C and N content of eggs were 0.046 and $0.0091 \mu\text{g egg}^{-1}$, respectively (Kjørboe et al., 1985), and calculating the egg phosphorus content applying the Redfield N:P ratio (16:1 similar to 16.5:1 of *A. grani* females from our culture), we estimated the respective elemental copepod gross-growth efficiencies (GGEs; %) for each treatment by dividing the egg production and ingestion rates expressed at the respective elemental units (carbon: GGE_C ; nitrogen: GGE_N ; phosphorus: GGE_P).

Results

Seawater carbonate chemistry

Overall, the level of pH in the algal cultures was maintained rather stable throughout the entire period (Figure 1), except for the medium pH treatment that exhibited larger deviations (control: 8.17 ± 0.02 ; medium pH: 7.93 ± 0.07 ; low pH: 7.75 ± 0.02 ; $n = 16$ d; NBS scale). Alkalinity, which was measured only on the 13th day of the experiment, was found similar between treatments (Table 1). The corresponding pCO_2 calculated from pH and

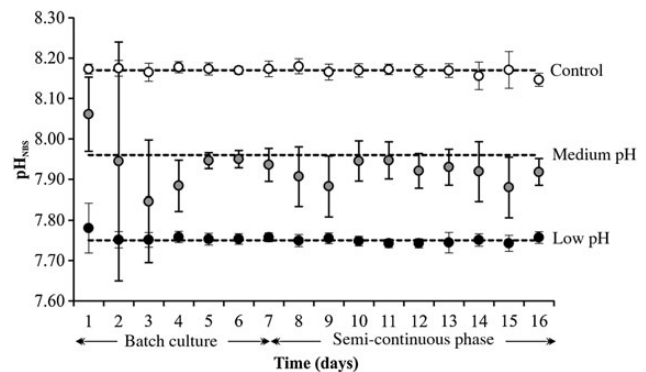
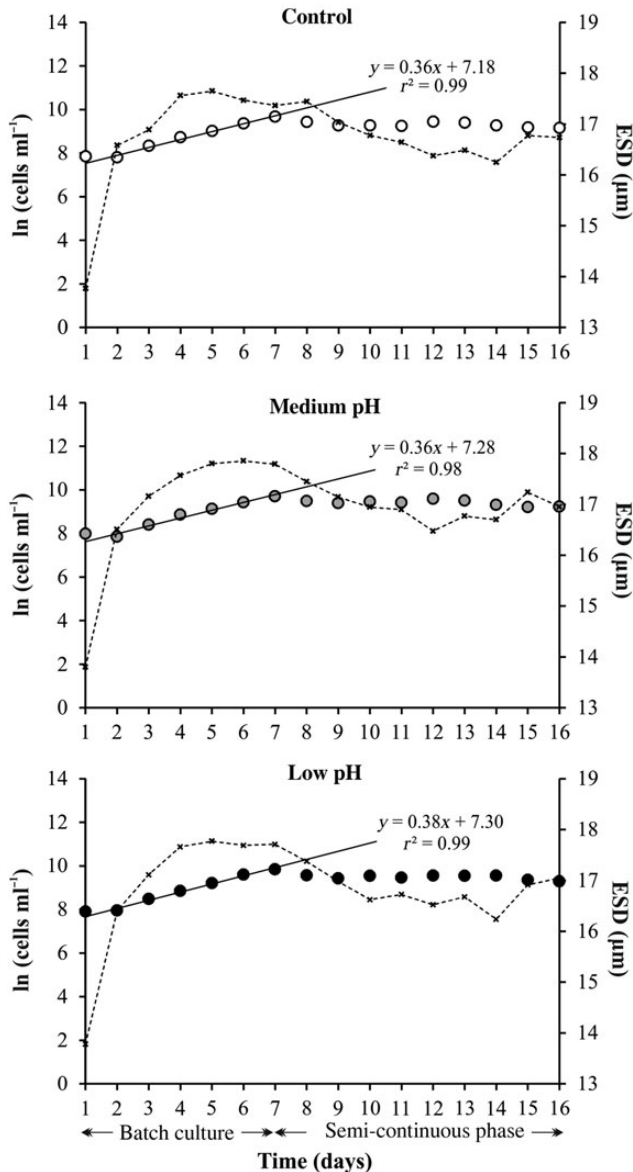


Figure 1. Daily average pH in the three *Heterocapsa* sp. cultures during the experimental period. The error bars indicate the SD in each 24 h period ($n = 48$ pH readings).

Table 1. Parameters of the seawater carbonate system in each pH treatment of the *Heterocapsa* sp. cultures on the 13th day of the experiment, the only day in which alkalinity was measured (averaged values with SD in parenthesis).

pH treatment	pH _{NBS}	pH _T	TA	pCO ₂	χCO ₂	DIC	HCO ₃ ⁻	CO ₃ ²⁻	Ω _A
Control	8.17 (0.02)	8.05 (0.02)	2454 (0.73)	414 (0.60)	423 (0.13)	2174 (0.67)	1962 (0.60)	199 (0.06)	3.025 (0.001)
Medium	7.93 (0.04)	7.81 (0.04)	2487 (0.80)	798 (0.26)	814 (0.27)	2328 (0.77)	2175 (0.72)	127 (0.04)	1.930 (0.001)
Low	7.74 (0.03)	7.62 (0.03)	2492 (0.19)	1296 (0.10)	1323 (0.11)	2410 (0.19)	2281 (0.18)	86 (0.01)	1.307 (0.000)

Total alkalinity (TA, μmol kg⁻¹-SW; *n* = 3), pH_{NBS} (*n* = 48), salinity (37.4), and temperature (18.5°C) were used to calculate the rest of the parameters using the CO₂SYS program (Pierrot et al., 2006); pCO₂, partial pressure of CO₂ (μatm, *n* = 3); χCO₂, mole fraction of CO₂ in dry air (ppm, *n* = 3); DIC, dissolved inorganic carbon (μmol kg⁻¹-SW; *n* = 3); HCO₃⁻, bicarbonate ion concentration (μmol kg⁻¹-SW; *n* = 3); CO₃²⁻, carbonate ion concentration (μmol kg⁻¹-SW; *n* = 3), Ω_A, saturation state of seawater with respect to aragonite (*n* = 3). pH_T, pH in the total scale (*n* = 48) is also reported for better comparison with other studies, and it was calculated using the SWCO₂ package (Hunter, 2007).

**Figure 2.** Cell concentration (circles) and ESD (crosses and dotted lines) of *Heterocapsa* sp. cultures grown at the three selected pCO₂/pH conditions. The slope of regression line corresponds to the growth rate for each treatment.

alkalinity reached 798 and 1296 μatm in the medium and low pH treatments, respectively, fitting well possible values projected for the end of the century (IPCC, 2013).

Algal growth, and elemental and FA composition

The growth rates (d⁻¹) of *Heterocapsa* sp. were similar among the pH treatments (control: 0.36, medium pH: 0.36, and low pH: 0.38; Figure 2), with no signs of cell damaging due to the CO₂/air bubbling. Given a ca. 2-d generation time, the total experimental period of 16 d corresponded to eight cell generations, which should be sufficient to condition the organisms to the experimental conditions. Throughout the algal growth period, the cell size varied similarly among the pH treatments (Figure 2). During the copepod incubation, which corresponded to the last 4 d of algal culture, the average equivalent spherical diameter (ESD, μm) of the cells was similar (control: 16.6 ± 0.24, medium pH: 16.9 ± 0.24, and low pH: 16.7 ± 0.36).

The elemental characteristics of the cells grown at the different pH treatments are summarized in Table 2. Cells cultured in the medium pH conditions had slightly higher biovolume (9%) and elemental content (carbon: 8%, nitrogen: 10%, and phosphorus: 3%) compared with the control treatment, whereas the molar elemental ratios (C : N, C : P, and N : P) did not differ significantly. Cells grown at the low pH conditions presented similar elemental composition characteristics to those of the control treatment. The comparison between the cells grown in medium and low pH conditions revealed that the former had slightly higher biovolume, nitrogen content, and lower C : N than the latter (Table 2). Regarding the FA composition of *Heterocapsa* sp., the saturated 16 : 0 and polyunsaturated FAs (PUFAs) were the main contributors, accounting for 18 and 63% of total FAs, respectively. Among PUFAs, the 18:4(n-3) (12% of total FA, 7–8 pg cell⁻¹), 18:5(n-3) (18–19% of total FA, 11–12 pg cell⁻¹), as well as 22:6(n-3) (20% of total FA, 12–13 pg cell⁻¹) isomers comprised together ca. 61–62% of the total FA (Table 3). The overall variation in FA composition between treatments was very small. Low but significant differences occurred in the relative amount as well as content of monounsaturated FAs (MUFAs) in the low pH treatment, caused by lower 16:1(n-7) and 18:1(n-9) isomer levels. The total FA content as well as the 18:3(n-3) and 22:6(n-3) isomer contents were significantly higher in the medium pH treatment, but the differences were, however, of low magnitude (~10% of the respective value).

Copepod feeding, reproduction, and egg hatching success

The average food concentration was ca. 500 cells ml⁻¹ in all treatments (*F* = 0.95, *p* > 0.05; control: 512 ± 22, medium pH: 531 ± 18, and low pH: 532 ± 29). Neither feeding rates nor egg production rates of the copepod *A. grani* presented any significant differences among the three pH treatments (clearance rates 28–30 ml cop⁻¹ d⁻¹; *F* = 0.29, *p* = 0.76; ingestion rates 15 895–15 812 cells cop⁻¹ d⁻¹; *F* = 0.31, *p* > 0.05; egg production rates 49–54 eggs cop⁻¹ d⁻¹; *F* = 1.81, *p* > 0.05; Figure 3). Although ingestion rates in terms of elemental

Table 2. Cell biovolume, elemental composition (C: carbon, N: nitrogen, and P: phosphorus), and molar elemental ratios of the distinct *Heterocapsa* sp. cultures grown at the three selected pH levels (control: 8.17, medium: 7.96, and low: 7.75).

	Control	Medium	Low	F	t-test		
					Control vs. medium	Control vs. low	Medium vs. low
Biovolume (μm^3)	2468.3 ^a (65.6)	2678.5 ^b (2.4)	2528.7 ^a (39.9)	19.2 ^{***}			
pg C cell ⁻¹	581.7 ^a (24.7)	626.6 ^b (13.8)	592.7 ^{a,b} (8.4)	5.6 [*]			
pg N cell ⁻¹	82.1 ^a (2.5)	90.1 ^b (0.8)	80.2 ^a (1.3)	29.0 ^{**}			
pg P cell ⁻¹	17.8 ^a (1.0)	18.4 ^b (0.9)	16.2 ^{a,b} (0.7)	5.3 ^{n.s.}			
C : N (molar)	8.3 (0.2)	8.1 (0.1)	8.6 (0.1)		0.99 ^{n.s.}	-2.24 ^{n.s.}	-5.73 ^{**}
C : P (molar)	84.3 (5.0)	87.8 (4.6)	94.4 (4.0)		-0.89 ^{n.s.}	-2.73 ^{n.s.}	-1.88 ^{n.s.}
N : P (molar)	10.2 (0.6)	10.8 (0.6)	11.0 (0.5)		-1.36 ^{n.s.}	-1.76 ^{n.s.}	-0.31 ^{n.s.}

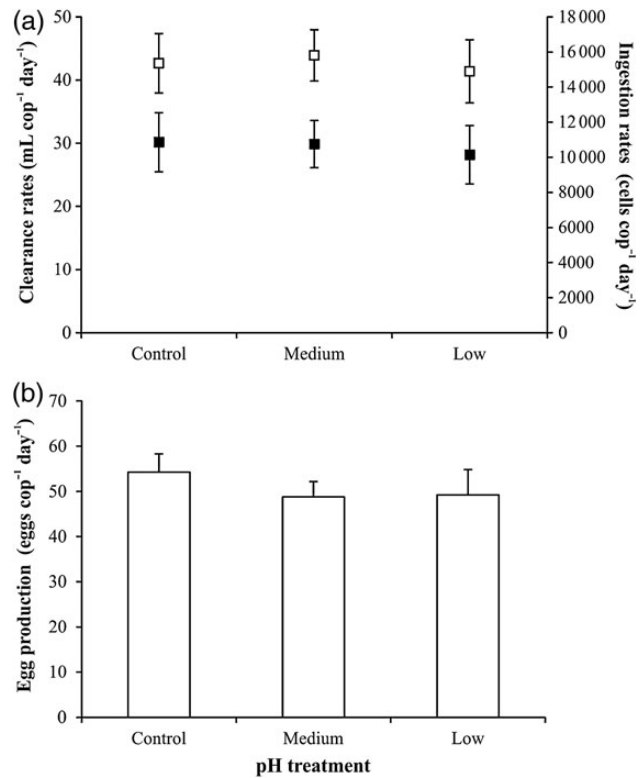
Differences among treatments were assessed with one-way ANOVA and Tukey *post hoc* tests (F: ANOVA statistics, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, n.s.: not significant) as well as Student's *t*-test. Numbers in parentheses correspond to the SD and superscripts indicate the homogenous groups according to the Tukey *post hoc* test.

Table 3. FA content (pg cell⁻¹) and relative FA composition (% of total FA) for *Heterocapsa* sp. cultures grown at the three selected pH levels (control: 8.17, medium: 7.96, and low: 7.75).

pg cell ⁻¹	Control	Medium pH	Low pH	F
14:0	2.5 (0.4)	3.1 (0.4)	3.1 (0.9)	1.3 ^{n.s.}
16:0	10.6 (0.8)	11.9 (0.5)	10.8 (0.9)	3.7 ^{n.s.}
18:0	1.3 (0.1)	1.4 (0.2)	1.2 (0.1)	2.6 ^{n.s.}
16:1(n-7)	0.9 ^{a,b} (0.1)	1.1 ^b (0.3)	0.6 ^a (0.1)	8.4 ^{**}
16:1(n-9)	0.8 (0.1)	0.8 (0.0)	0.7 (0.1)	1.4 ^{n.s.}
18:1(n-7)	1.3 ^a (0.0)	1.4 ^a (0.1)	1.0 ^b (0.0)	146.6 ^{***}
18:1(n-9)	1.9 ^a (0.1)	2.0 ^a (0.1)	1.6 ^b (0.1)	35.8 ^{***}
18:2(n-6)	4.0 ^{a,b} (0.2)	4.3 ^b (0.3)	3.8 ^a (0.1)	8.2 ^{**}
18:3(n-3)	2.2 ^a (0.1)	2.5 ^b (0.1)	2.1 ^a (0.1)	20.3 ^{***}
18:4(n-3)	7.2 ^a (0.3)	8.0 ^b (0.5)	7.2 ^a (0.4)	6.1 [*]
18:5(n-3)	11.1 (0.5)	12.3 (0.7)	11.1 (0.6)	4.9 ^{n.s.}
22:6(n-3)	11.6 ^a (0.3)	13.2 ^b (0.5)	11.9 ^a (0.6)	77.7 ^{**}
tFA	58.2 ^a (2.9)	64.9 ^b (2.6)	57.6 ^a (3.3)	7.6 [*]
MUFAs	4.9 ^a (0.3)	5.3 ^a (0.2)	3.9 ^b (0.2)	44.3 ^{***}
PUFAs	36.8 ^a (1.3)	41.0 ^b (2.1)	36.7 ^a (1.8)	7.9 [*]
% of total FA				
14:0	4.3 (0.5)	4.7 (0.5)	5.3 (1.2)	1.8 ^{n.s.}
16:0	18.2 (0.6)	18.4 (0.2)	18.8 (0.6)	1.6 ^{n.s.}
18:0	2.2 (0.1)	2.2 (0.2)	2.1 (0.2)	0.1 ^{n.s.}
16:1(n-7)	1.5 ^{a,b} (0.1)	1.7 ^a (0.5)	1.1 ^b (0.1)	7.2 [*]
16:1(n-9)	1.3 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	1.2 (0.1)	1.4 ^{n.s.}
18:1(n-7)	2.3 ^a (0.1)	2.1 ^b (0.0)	1.7 ^c (0.1)	79.1 ^{***}
18:1(n-9)	3.3 ^a (0.1)	3.1 ^a (0.1)	2.8 ^b (0.2)	13.3 ^{**}
18:2(n-6)	7.0 ^a (0.1)	6.6 ^b (0.2)	6.5 ^b (0.2)	7.9 [*]
18:3(n-3)	3.7 ^{a,b} (0.1)	3.8 ^a (0.1)	3.6 ^b (0.1)	6.6 [*]
18:4(n-3)	12.4 (0.3)	12.3 (0.3)	12.4 (0.2)	0.2 ^{n.s.}
18:5(n-3)	19.1 (0.6)	18.9 (0.5)	19.3 (0.5)	0.7 ^{n.s.}
22:6(n-3)	19.9 (0.6)	20.3 (0.2)	20.6 (0.9)	1.2 ^{n.s.}
MUFAs	9.1 ^a (0.4)	8.7 ^a (0.7)	7.2 ^b (0.3)	17.2 ^{***}
PUFAs	63.3 (1.1)	63.1 (1.2)	63.6 (1.7)	0.2 ^{n.s.}

FA >1% of total FA (tFA) as well as values for tFA, total MUFAs, and total PUFAs are presented. Differences among treatments were assessed with one-way ANOVA and Tukey *post hoc* tests (F: ANOVA statistics, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, n.s.: not significant). Numbers in parentheses correspond to the SD and superscripts indicate the homogenous groups according to the Tukey *post hoc* test.

units (C, N, and P) were slightly higher for the medium pH treatment (6–13%), those differences were not statistically significant neither in terms of carbon ($F = 1.48$, $p > 0.05$) and nitrogen ($F = 2.83$, $p > 0.05$) nor in terms of phosphorus ($F = 1.29$, $p > 0.05$; Figure 4). GGEs for each element were generally lower in the

**Figure 3.** (a) Copepod feeding rates (clearance: black squares, ingestion: white squares) and egg production rates (b) in the different CO₂/pH treatments. Error bars indicate the SD.

medium treatment (Figure 4). Those differences were more profound for GGE_N ($F = 5.72$, $p < 0.05$; 17–21% reduction compared with control and low pH treatments), whereas they were of marginal statistical significance for GGE_C and GGE_P ($F = 4.56$, $p = 0.043$ and $F = 4.44$, $p = 0.045$, respectively). Egg hatching increased with time in all treatments approaching ca. 95% of hatching success after 72 h. No significant differences among pH treatments were found in the cumulative hatching success percentage at the end of the incubation time ($F = 1.30$, $p > 0.05$).

Discussion

Until recently, the study of the impact of OA on planktonic copepods has mainly focused on assessing potential direct effects,

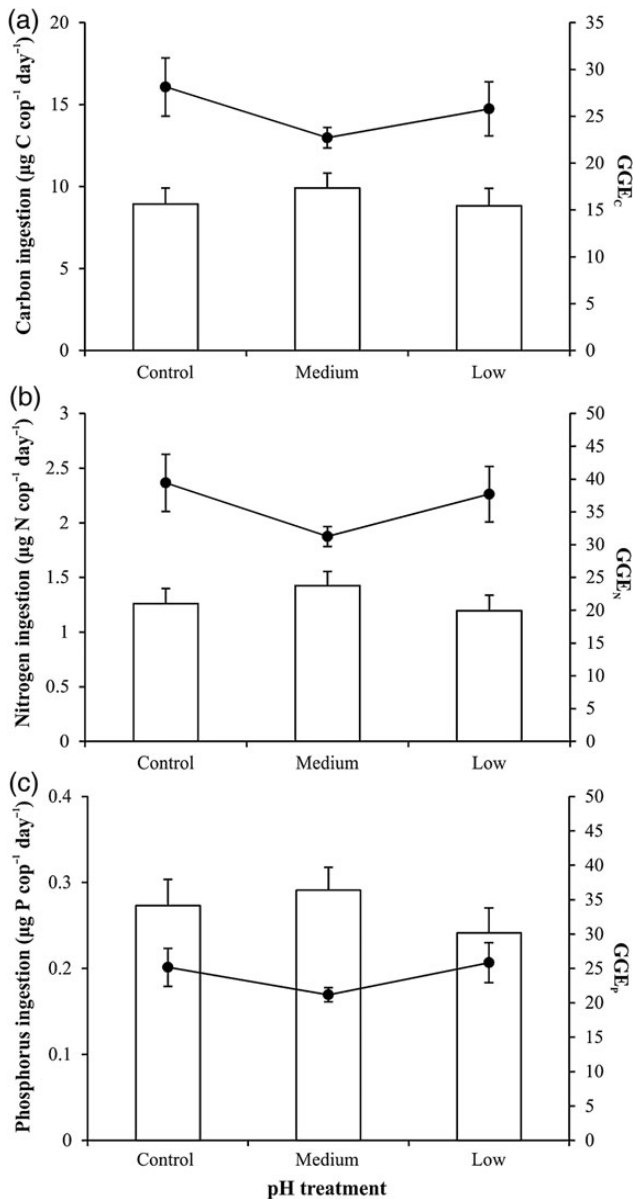


Figure 4. Ingestion rates (white bars) in the different CO₂/pH treatments in terms of (a) carbon, (b) nitrogen, and (c) phosphorus. Corresponding GGE for its element are given in black circles. Error bars indicate the SD.

often revealing the high tolerance of this group of organisms even under pCO₂ levels falling beyond near-future projections (e.g. Kurihara and Ishimatsu, 2008; Hildebrandt *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly, Rossoll *et al.* (2012) and Schoo *et al.* (2013) pointed out the possibility of “bottom-up” indirect effects on copepods at realistic acidification scenarios projected by the end of the century. On the one hand, Rossoll *et al.* (2012) observed a significant reduction in egg production and somatic growth of *Acartia tonsa* associated with a decrease in both the total FA concentration and the relative amount of PUFAs of the diatom *Thalassiosira pseudonana* grown under acidified conditions. On the other hand, and also for *A. tonsa*, Schoo *et al.* (2013) reported delayed development and a stage-dependent impact on respiration and excretion rates of

the copepod associated with a decrease in the nutritional quality (expressed as higher C : N and C : P ratios) of its prey, the flagellate *R. salina*, grown under increased pCO₂ levels.

Although the algae used for the copepod experiments in our study were cultured at pCO₂ levels comparable or even higher to those of the two above-mentioned studies, we did not find any clear evidence of a change in the cell nutritional characteristics among experimental treatments (at least in terms of elemental and FA composition; other biochemical compounds, e.g. proteins and vitamins, have not been measured). In instances in which we detected statistically significant differences, the extent of such dissimilarity was very small, and most likely it would not affect substantially the nutritional quality of the copepod diet. In fact, drastic changes in the elemental ratios or FA content of prey seem to be required to detect considerable impacts in the reproductive output (Rossoll *et al.*, 2012; Isari *et al.*, 2013) and development (Rossoll *et al.*, 2012; Schoo *et al.*, 2013) of copepods.

Indeed, the slight and mostly insignificant variation in the elemental and biochemical properties of the prey offered in our experiments did not seem to have any statistically significant impact in the copepod feeding and egg production rates and hatching success. Nevertheless, the estimated GGEs for the distinct elements were generally lower (12–21%) in the medium pH treatment. However, those differences were most likely associated with the divergences in *Heterocapsa* sp. size among pH treatments and not with nutritionally mediated effects *per se*. During the copepod experiments, the biovolume of the cells grown at medium pH increased 10% compared with the others; given the similarity in copepod daily food consumptions on a cell basis (cells cop⁻¹ d⁻¹) among treatments, this biovolume variation resulted in a higher elemental intake for the medium pH treatment (μg element cop⁻¹ d⁻¹), which was not accompanied by an increase in the egg production output. The reason for such biovolume difference remains uncertain, but could be associated with the relatively higher pH variation observed in the medium pH culture. It has been documented that distinct environmental stressors may have an impact in the cell wall structure of algae and further impair their digestibility by predators (Van Donk and Hessen, 1995; Van Donk *et al.*, 1997). Cell material and related structures in algae have been also argued to constrain digestion and assimilation efficiency of copepods, decreasing their reproductive success (Dutz *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, it could be hypothesized that a larger variability in the pH growth conditions may induce changes in the morphological cell wall properties and affect digestibility and assimilation by copepods. And in fact, larger variability in pH is expected, in the future, not only in seawater from its decrease in buffering capacity but also at the exterior surface of marine organisms (Flynn *et al.*, 2012).

Since the exact elemental content of the eggs was not measured, a slightly higher C, N, and P content of the eggs produced in the medium pH treatment due to the higher copepod dietary elemental intake could be also possible. Although this may compensate for the calculated lower GGE in that treatment, the similarity observed in the egg hatching success among treatments can be most likely interpreted as indicating the lack of any quality difference (e.g. elemental difference) in the eggs laid.

Based on previous knowledge of the lack of direct OA effect on congeneric species even during multigenerational experiments (Kurihara and Ishimatsu, 2008), *a priori* our study assumed that no direct effect on the vital rates of *A. grani* would be imposed under our experimental pCO₂/pH levels. Some recent studies by Cripps *et al.* (2014a, b), however, have reported a reduction in the

reproductive output of *A. tonsa* at acidification levels and duration of exposure comparable to ours. Given the similarity in nutritional quality among the prey offered to *A. grani* in our experiments, the results we obtained (lack of any effects) can nevertheless be interpreted as further experimental evidence about the lack of direct impact of OA on our target copepod species, thus supporting our initial assumption. However, the observed absence of OA bottom-up effects on copepod performance under the dinoflagellate diet offered here did not lend support to our initial hypothesis.

Changes in seawater pCO₂ concentration may greatly impact several algal physiological processes and biochemical synthetic pathways; however, the final impact seems to be highly dependent on the algal group and may also vary even on a species basis (Riebesell, 2004). Dinoflagellate physiology is considered particularly sensitive, due to the low CO₂ affinity of their form II-RuBisCO and, therefore, the high dependence on the enzymatic machinery involved in maximizing CO₂ acquisition [the CCMs and also the carbonic anhydrases (CAs), which catalyse the interconversion of HCO₃⁻ and CO₂]. It could thus be argued that an increased CO₂ supply would lead to a beneficial downregulation in the expression of CCMs/CAs-related genes and might be positively reflected in the cellular physiology and biochemical composition of the dinoflagellate group (Giordano et al., 2005), therefore ending up in positive bottom-up impact under OA conditions. Our findings, however, did not confirm this expectation since growth and cellular characteristics of *Heterocapsa* sp. under the pCO₂/pH scenarios tested were similar, although other dinoflagellate studies have indeed showed that elevated pCO₂ availability may result in a decreased activity of the CCM and CA activities (Ratti et al., 2007; Van de Waal et al., 2013; Van de Waal et al., 2014) and an increase in the growth rates (Ratti et al., 2007). Unfortunately, our planned experiment did not include the determination of CCM and CA activities of *Heterocapsa* sp., something that may have shed some light onto the physiological mechanisms behind the pattern found. It is noticeable, however, that a recent study by Van de Waal et al. (2014), carried out under elevated pCO₂ scenarios comparable to ours, indeed reported a downscaling of CCMs in the dinoflagellate *Alexandrium tamarense*, but such physiological change actually did not translate into changes in the algal growth and elemental composition, in line with the lack of effects found in our study. It seems likely that shifts in the gene expression and suppression of the enzymatic systems may be often associated with only subtle elemental and energy gain, insufficient to be reflected to growth, elemental, and biochemical composition.

An additional point to be considered regarding the effects of OA on algal physiology is that the sensitivity to changes in CO₂ supply may be also dependent in the ability for active uptake of bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) for a particular algal species. In this sense, Rost et al. (2006) reported a lesser dependence on CO₂ uptake for algae which were able to directly uptake bicarbonate. In that particular case, elemental ratios of algal cells might be less sensitive to changes in CO₂ supply, whereas a higher sensitivity would be expected for groups that predominantly use CO₂ (Burkhardt et al., 1999; Fu et al., 2008). Species-specific variability in CCM capabilities have been recorded in the genus *Heterocapsa*, with *H. oceanica* depicting a high dependence on free CO₂ and limited capacity for direct bicarbonate uptake (Dason et al., 2004), whereas *H. triquetra* relies not only on diffusive CO₂ supply, but may also acquire HCO₃⁻ (Rost et al., 2006). Therefore, it is uncertain if the lack of relevant effects of OA on *Heterocapsa* sp. in our experiments are the result of either the capability of this species to directly uptake bicarbonate (i.e. less

dependence on CO₂ uptake) or that the pH levels in our experiments, within realistic predictions, were not sufficiently low to provide energy and elemental benefits that could influence other physiological processes.

The underlying algal physiological mechanisms and metabolic pathways that lead to the deterioration of the prey nutritional quality in the previous copepod studies (Rossoll et al., 2012; Schoo et al., 2013) seem unclear. The diatom cultured by Rossoll et al. (2012), *T. pseudonana*, showed a distinct FA profile when grown under elevated pCO₂ but, unfortunately, no further information was provided about the culture conditions (growth rates and cell size) and the elemental ratios under the different treatments. Remarkably, Crawford et al. (2011) found that the same diatom species, when subjected to a 3-month continuous culture at increased CO₂, showed a suppression of the genes involved with the CO₂ acquisition and had cellular C:N ratios closer to the Redfield ratio (i.e. better nutritional quality), which would be contradictory with the hypothesis of negative bottom-up effects. On the other hand, Schoo et al. (2013) reported that the cryptophyte *R. salina* maintained under elevated pCO₂ either in continuous chemostat or batch cultures had lower nutritional quality (higher molar ratios) that negatively affected copepod development. These authors, however, based on previous findings by Malzahn et al. (2007), made the assumption that algal cells with higher molar elemental ratios (high pCO₂ grown—*Rhodomonas*) would be a prey of better quality from a biochemical perspective (i.e. increased FA concentration and relative contribution of unsaturated FAs). Thus, one may wonder what would be the actual impact of a high pCO₂-*Rhodomonas* diet on other biological processes of copepods, i.e. reproductive success, and whether the stoichiometric characteristics or the FA properties of the prey would be the main nutritional drivers. It also remains unclear how the combined bottom-up effect on distinct copepod vital rates (e.g. development and reproduction) would ultimately influence copepod populations in nature.

The present study clearly points towards a lack of bottom-up effects mediated by OA in our particular predator-prey pair under realistic future scenarios, questioning the generalization of the results reported in previous copepod studies on this topic (Rossoll et al., 2012; Schoo et al., 2013). The physiological response of algae under OA conditions (combined with other climate change and human-related pressures, e.g. changes in inorganic nutrient supply) will not be uniform among taxa (Flynn et al., 2015). Changes in phytoplankton competitive interactions and species succession are also anticipated (Flynn et al., 2015), and it is thus evident that any potential indirect bottom-up effect on copepods in nature will be highly dependent on their prey-specific characteristics. To extrapolate laboratory results to nature and evaluate the OA foodweb implications, future research should integrate algal physiological approaches, describing the modes of carbon acquisition mechanisms of key algal species to better delimit their physiology, biochemistry, and their interactions.

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