| 1        | Title: METABOLIC RESPONSES TO TEMPERATURE STRESS UNDER                                       |
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| 2        | ELEVATED pCO2 IN THE SLIPPER LIMPET CREPIDULA FORNICATA                                      |
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| 27       | Short running head: C. fornicata respiration under high pCO <sub>2</sub>                     |
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#### ABSTRACT

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In the current context of environmental change, ocean acidification is predicted to affect the 35 36 cellular processes, physiology and behavior of all marine organisms, impacting survival, 37 growth and reproduction. In relation to thermal tolerance limits, the effects of elevated  $pCO_2$ 38 could be expected to be more pronounced at the upper limits of the thermal tolerance window. 39 Our study focused on Crepidula fornicata, an invasive gastropod which colonized shallow waters around European coasts during the 20<sup>th</sup> century. We investigated the effects of 10 40 41 weeks' exposure to current (380 µatm) and elevated (550, 750, 1000 µatm) pCO<sub>2</sub> on this engineer species using an acute temperature increase (1°C 12h<sup>-1</sup>) as the test. Respiration rates 42 43 were measured on both males (small individuals) and females (large individuals). Mortality increased suddenly from 34°C, particularly in females. Respiration rate in C. fornicata 44 45 increased linearly with temperature between 18°C and 34°C, but no differences were detected 46 between the different  $pCO_2$  conditions either in the regressions between respiration rate and 47 temperature, or in  $Q_{10}$  values. In the same way, condition indices were similar in all the pCO<sub>2</sub> 48 treatments at the end of the experiment but decreased from the beginning of the experiment. 49 This species was highly resistant to acute exposure to high temperature regardless of  $pCO_2$ 50 levels, even though food was limited during the experiment. C. fornicata appears to have 51 either developed resistance mechanisms or a strong phenotypic plasticity to deal with 52 fluctuations of physico-chemical parameters in their habitat. This suggests that this invasive 53 species may be more resistant to future environmental changes compared to its native competitors. 54

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56 **Keywords**:  $CO_2$  stress, invasive species, ocean acidification,  $Q_{10}$ , respiration, temperate 57 waters

#### **INTRODUCTION**

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As part of global change, ocean acidification is caused by increasing anthropogenic 60 61 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions which have increased since the beginning of the industrial revolution 62 (Solomon et al., 2007). Future pCO<sub>2</sub> increases are predicted to reduce the pH of surface 63 waters by 0.3 - 0.4 units by the end of the century (Caldeira & Wickett, 2003). Such decreases 64 will produce changes in carbon and carbonate seawater chemistry through decreased 65 carbonate ion concentrations (CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>) and a lower calcium carbonate saturation state ( $\Omega$ ). These changes are predicted to have major consequences for marine life (Fabry et al., 2008; 66 67 Kroeker et al., 2013b) and, especially, could have broad impacts on physiological functions of 68 heterotrophic marine organisms (Pörtner, 2008; Hofmann & Todgham, 2010).

69 The decrease in pH is likely to have a wide range of effects on marine invertebrates 70 via shifts in acid-base homeostasis, changes in metabolism and energy balance (Pörtner et al., 71 2005), leading to effects on somatic growth (Berge et al., 2006; Thomsen & Melzner, 2010), 72 respiration (Melatunan et al., 2011; Schalkhausser et al., 2013), excretion (Liu & He, 2012), 73 calcification (Gazeau et al., 2007; Wood et al., 2008; Watson et al., 2012) or feeding rates 74 (Bamber, 1990; Navarro et al., 2013). Many marine invertebrates exposed to elevated pCO<sub>2</sub> 75 have exhibited metabolic depression (Willson & Burnett, 2000; Michaelidis et al., 2005; 76 Navarro et al., 2013) as a decrease in respiration rate while others have remained unaffected 77 (Gutowska et al., 2008; Lannig et al., 2010; Clark et al., 2013) or even increased their 78 metabolic rate (Wood et al., 2008; Beniash et al., 2010). These responses are highly species-79 specific and may vary with organism size (Beniash et al., 2010). The resilience of the species 80 studied, and the capacity to regulate metabolism under stressful conditions are also important 81 (Pörtner, 2008). These physiological impacts are likely to have broad effects on the survival, 82 growth and reproduction of marine species (Shirayama & Thornton, 2005; Byrne, 2011), which would lead to changes in community structure from altered diversity and abundances
(Hale *et al.*, 2011; Kroeker *et al.*, 2013a).

85 These physiological impacts are likely to be modulated by temperature because 86 temperature is a primary driver of physiological function in ectotherms (Hofmann & 87 Todgham, 2010). Increasing temperature affects the rate of all biochemical reactions, and 88 hence cellular processes and physiological functions (Clarke, 1983; Pörtner, 2012), increasing 89 metabolic costs within a limited thermal tolerance window (Peck et al., 2002; Marshall et al., 90 2003). The interactive effects of increased temperature and elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are 91 predicted to impair physiological processes (Clarke, 2003; Pörtner, 2008) by narrowing the thermal tolerance window of the organisms (Metzger et al., 2007; Lannig et al., 2010) and 92 93 elevating vulnerability to extreme temperature (Schalkhausser et al., 2013).

94 In a context of global change, non-indigenous species are expected to be favored in 95 their introduced area (Dukes & Mooney, 1999; Occhipinti-Ambrogi, 2007) mainly because 96 robustness to abiotic variation is often a trait that determines the success of invasive species 97 (Hellmann et al., 2008; Lenz et al., 2011). Climatic changes in the physical environment will 98 be likely to affect the distribution, spread, abundance, impacts and interactions of species, 99 possibly to the advantage of introduced organisms (Occhipinti-Ambrogi, 2007). Thus our 100 study focused on the response of an invasive Calyptraeidae gastropod living on western 101 European coasts, but which originates from North East America. The slipper limpet, 102 Crepidula fornicata (Linné 1758) was introduced in Europe at the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, 103 mainly with oysters (Crassostrea gigas) which were imported for farming (Blanchard, 1995), 104 and has subsequently colonized European coasts from southern Sweden to southern France 105 (Blanchard, 1997). C. fornicata has significant impacts on biodiversity and ecosystem 106 functioning where it has established (De Montaudouin et al., 1999; Decottignies et al., 2007; Martin et al., 2007). It lives in shallow sites, especially in bays and estuaries where very high 107

108 densities of over one thousand individuals m<sup>-2</sup> have been reported (Blanchard, 1995). *C*. 109 *fornicata* is known to be strongly resistant to environmental variations, particularly 110 temperature and salinity (Blanchard, 1995; Blanchard, 1997; Diederich & Pechenick, 2013). 111 In light of the different ecological and physiological characteristics of *C. fornicata*, it is 112 important to investigate the impact of future  $pCO_2$  levels, and determine its resistance 113 capacities to high levels of stress to assess the likely future impact of this engineer species in 114 the ecosystems to which it was introduced.

115 The present study was designed to investigate the metabolic responses of C. fornicata 116 to high  $pCO_2$  conditions during temperature stress. Short-term experimental approaches using 117 faster temperature elevations than natural changes provide valuable insight into physiological 118 responses of marine invertebrates in term of their ability to resist high levels of stress or their 119 lethal temperature (Sokolova & Pörtner, 2003; Peck et al., 2004; Pörtner et al., 2006; Richard 120 et al., 2012). Following the hypothesis that CO<sub>2</sub> stress will increase sensitivity to temperature 121 change, we evaluated changes in oxygen-consumption of *C. fornicata* individuals previously 122 reared under elevated  $pCO_2$  for 10 weeks during a rapid temperature increase (1°C 12h<sup>-1</sup>). 123 Respiration rates were measured as a proxy for metabolism on males (small individuals) and 124 females (large individuals), as in this species there is sexual dimorphism in size

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## **MATERIAL & METHODS**

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128 Biological material

129 *Crepidula fornicata* stacks were collected by SCUBA divers on 4 February 2010, in 130 Morlaix Bay (northwest Brittany, France), at the "Barre des Flots" site (3°53.015′W; 131 48°40.015′N) at a depth of 10 meters and at an *in situ* temperature of 11.6°C (SOMLIT: 132 *Service d'Observation de la Mer et du LITtoral* data). They were transferred directly to aquaria at the Station Biologique de Roscoff where they were held in natural unfiltered
seawater at a temperature around 10°C, until they were used in experiments starting on 10
March 2010.

136 Males and females at the top and the bottom of stacks respectively, were selected, 137 separated and individually labelled. Small males  $(23.31 \pm 0.16 \text{ mm length})$ , which were still 138 slightly mobile, were placed individually on 3 cm Petri dishes one month before the beginning 139 of the trials. Dead individual shells at the base of stacks were kept as the substratum under the 140 largest living immobile females (47.53  $\pm$  0.25 mm length). In C. fornicata, size cannot be 141 discriminated from sex because this is a protandrous hermaphroditic organism, changing sex 142 with age and size (Coe 1938). All individuals were gently brushed to remove epibionts and 143 biofilm from their shells before proceeding to the metabolic measurements.

Condition indices (CI) were calculated on a pool of 20 specimens in March, before the beginning of the experiment, and on all remaining living and recently dead individuals (male n = 74; female n = 99) at the end of the temperature increase on 29 May 2010. Shell dry weight (DW<sub>Shell</sub>), shell length and tissue dry weight (DW<sub>Tissue</sub>) were determined separately on each individual after drying at 60°C for 48h. Specimens were then ignited in a muffle furnace at 520°C for 6 h, with tissue ash-free dry weight (AFDW<sub>Tissue</sub>) being obtained by difference. CI were calculated as:

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- $CI = (AFDW_{Tissue} / DW_{Shell}) \times 100.$

152 Mortality was checked daily during the experiment. Individuals with no reaction when 153 the foot was stimulated were classed as dead and removed from the tanks.

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## 155 Experimental conditions and set-up

156 After distributing randomly in each of twelve 10-L aquarium tanks comprising the 157 experimental flow-through system (as described in Noisette *et al.*, 2013), 120 males and 120

158 females (i.e. 10 individuals of each sex per aquarium) were held under different  $pCO_2$ 159 conditions between 13 March and 29 May 2010. At the beginning of the experiment, pH was 160 gradually decreased (by bubbling CO<sub>2</sub>) over four days at 0.1 pH units day<sup>-1</sup> from 8.1 until the required pH was reached. Specimens were subsequently held for ten weeks in four different 161 162  $pCO_2$  conditions: a current  $pCO_2$  of 380 µatm ( $pH_T = 8.07$ ), and three elevated  $pCO_2$  levels of 163 550 µatm ( $pH_T = 7.94$ ), 750 µatm ( $pH_T = 7.82$ ) and 1000 µatm ( $pH_T = 7.77$ ). The elevated 164  $pCO_2$  values corresponded to different scenarios predicted by the Intergovernmental Panel on 165 Climate Change (IPCC) for the end of the century (Solomon et al., 2007) and were selected 166 according to the recommendations of Barry et al., (2010). pCO<sub>2</sub> was adjusted by bubbling 167  $CO_2$ -free air (current  $pCO_2$ ) or pure  $CO_2$  (elevated  $pCO_2$ ) in four 100 L header tanks (1 per 168  $pCO_2$  condition) supplied with natural unfiltered seawater pumped from the sea, directly at the 169 foot of the Station Biologique de Roscoff. Seawater was continually delivered by gravity from each header tank to three aquaria per  $pCO_2$  condition at a constant rate of 9 L h<sup>-1</sup> (renewal 170 171 rate: 90% total aquarium volume  $h^{-1}$ ).*p*CO<sub>2</sub> was monitored and controlled by a feedback 172 system (IKS Aquastar, Karlsbad, Germany) that regulated the addition of gas in the header 173 tanks. pH values of the pH-stat system were adjusted from daily measurements of pH on the 174 total scale (pH<sub>T</sub>) in the aquaria using a pH meter (HQ40D, Hach Lange, Ltd portable LDO<sup>TM</sup>, 175 Loveland, Colorado, USA) calibrated using Tris/HCl and 2-aminopyridine/HCl buffers 176 (Dickson et al., 2007). The twelve aquaria were placed in four thermostatic baths where 177 temperature was controlled to  $\pm 0.2$  °C using 100 - 150 W submersible heaters.

Before the rapid temperature increase experiment, *C. fornicata* individuals were maintained in the different  $pCO_2$  treatments for 10 weeks while temperature was raised successively to mimic the natural rate of temperature change from winter to summer. Temperature was maintained at 10°C from the beginning of the trial to 29 March. It was raised to 13°C from 5 to 19 April and to 16°C from 26 April to 18 May 2010. To reach these 183 set levels the temperature was increased by 0.5°C day<sup>-1</sup> until the new set temperature was
184 achieved. During the experiment, animals were naturally fed by the phytoplankton provided
185 by unfiltered seawater.

The rapid temperature increase experiment was conducted between the 18 and 29 May 2010. In all four  $pCO_2$  treatments, temperature was increased from 16 to 36°C at 1°C 12h<sup>-1</sup>. *C. fornicata* oxygen consumption was measured (see below) both in small and large individuals in the different  $pCO_2$  treatments during this rapid temperature increase.

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## 191 Seawater parameters

192 Seawater parameters were monitored throughout the experiment.  $pH_T$  and temperature 193 were recorded daily in each of the 12 aquaria using a pH meter (HQ40D, Hach Lange, Ltd 194 portable LDO<sup>TM</sup>, Loveland, Colorado, USA). Total alkalinity was determined every 3 weeks 195 by 0.01N HCl potentiometric titration on an automatic titrator (Titroline alpha, Schott SI 196 Analytics, Mainz, Germany). Seawater carbonate chemistry, *i.e.* exact CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure 197  $(pCO_2)$  and saturation state of aragonite were calculated in each  $pCO_2$  condition using 198 CO<sub>2</sub>SYS software (Lewis & Wallace, 1998) using constants from Mehrbach et al., (1973) 199 refitted by Dickson & Millero, (1987). Mean values (± standard error, SE) of the parameters 200 in each  $pCO_2$  treatment are presented in Table 1.

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# 202 Oxygen consumption measurements

During the rapid temperature increase trial (18 - 29 May 2010), oxygen consumption of 6 randomly selected labeled individuals of each sex (2 per aquaria) was measured in each of the  $pCO_2$  treatments every two days, at 18, 22, 26, 30 and 34°C. Respiration rates were determined using closed incubations in 75 mL (males) or 180 mL (females) acrylic chambers (Engineering & Design Plastics Ltd, Cambridge, UK) filled with water from the same aquarium (see methods in Morley *et al.*, 2007). Chambers were placed in their respective aquaria during incubations to keep the temperature constant. Incubations varied between 1 h and 3 h depending on temperature and were halted before oxygen saturation fell below 80% saturation. Control incubations without animals (n = 1 control incubation / aquarium / measurement) were carried out to allow correction for microbial activity in seawater.

213 Respiration rates were calculated from the differences in measurements of oxygen 214 concentration during trials and controls using a non-invasive fiber-optical system (FIBOX 3, 215 PreSens, Regensburg, Germany) made up of an optical fibre and reactive oxygen spots 216 attached to the inner wall of the chambers. These spots were calibrated with 0% and 100% 217 oxygen buffers made from the manufacturer instructions. 0% O<sub>2</sub> buffer was prepared by 218 dissolving 10 g of Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> in 1 L of seawater and 100% O<sub>2</sub> buffer was prepared by bubbling 219 air in 1L of seawater for 20 min to achieve oxygen saturation. Previous experiments had 220 demonstrated that oxygen consumption remained linear during all the incubation periods. 221 Chamber contents were mixed gently by inverting chambers several times before each oxygen measurement. Respiration (R) rates (in µmol O<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> AFDW h<sup>-1</sup>) were corrected for oxygen 222 223 consumption in controls and calculated as:

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$$\mathbf{R} = -\left(\Delta \mathbf{O}_2 \times \mathbf{V}\right) / \left(\Delta \mathbf{t} \times \mathbf{AFDW}_{\text{Tissue}}\right)$$

where  $\Delta O_2$  (µmol  $O_2$  L<sup>-1</sup>) is the difference between initial and final  $O_2$  concentrations during the incubation, V (L) is the chamber volume minus the individual *C. fornicata* volume,  $\Delta t$  (h) is the incubation time and AFDW<sub>Tissue</sub> (g) is the tissue ash free dry weight of the slipper limpet incubated.

- 229 Q<sub>10</sub> coefficients were calculated by using the standard equation:
- 230

 $O_{10} = (R_H/R_L)^{10/(T_H - T_L)}$ 

231 where  $T_L$  and  $T_H$  were the lowest and highest temperature reached and  $R_L$  and  $R_H$  the 232 respiration rates in these temperature respectively.

## 234 Statistical analyses

235 All statistical analyses were performed using R version 2.15.0 (R Core Team 2013) 236 and STATISTICA software. A logistic regression (general linear model, GLM) was applied 237 to test the differences in mortalities between the different  $pCO_2$  treatments and between sex 238 with temperature as the linear variable. The effects of  $pCO_2$ , sex and the interaction of these 239 two factors on condition index (CI) at the end of the experiment and on Q<sub>10</sub> values were 240 investigated by 2-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Linear regressions between respiration 241 rates and increasing temperatures were fitted in the four different  $pCO_2$  treatments for males 242 and females separately. Differences between  $pCO_2$  treatments were explored using an 243 ANCOVA with  $pCO_2$  and sex as fixed factors and temperature as co-variable.. Normality was 244 assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and Levene's test was used to ensure that 245 variances were homogenous. All the results are presented as mean  $\pm$  standard error (SE).

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### RESULTS

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Mortality occurred between 34 and 36°C for females and 22 and 36°C for males 249 250 (Figure 1). There were no significant differences in mortality between the different  $pCO_2$ 251 treatments (GLM, df = 3, F = 0.680, p = 0.565) or between sex (GLM, df = 1, F = 0.580, p = 0.5252 0.449). Moreover, the interaction between factors  $pCO_2$  and sex of the individuals was not 253 significant (GLM, df = 3; F = 0.21; p = 0.888). At  $pCO_2$  levels of 380, 550, 750 and 1000 254 µatm, the total mortality at the end of the temperature increase was 29, 19, 19, and 24 for 255 females and 28, 6, 8, and 6 for males . At the end of the acute temperature increase, nearly 256 twice the number of females had died (91) compared with the males (48) ( $\chi^2$  test, p < 0.05), all 257  $pCO_2$  levels included.

258 . The mean condition indices before the start and at the end of the experiment are 259 presented on Figure 2. There were no effects of  $pCO_2$ , sex or the interaction of these two 260 factors on the condition index at the end of the trial (Table 2). However, the condition index 261 from the beginning of the experiment (3.00 ± 0.27) was different from the mean condition 262 index including all  $pCO_2$  conditions (2.11 ± 0.07) at the end of the trial (t-test, df = 181, t = 263 3.159, p = 0.002), which means that CI in both males and females decreased significantly 264 from the start to the end of the experiment (Figure 2).

Female respiration rates varied between 0.51  $\mu$ mol O<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> AFDW h<sup>-1</sup> at 18°C and pCO<sub>2</sub> of 750  $\mu$ atm and 91.62  $\mu$ mol O<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> AFDW h<sup>-1</sup> at 32°C and pCO<sub>2</sub> of 380  $\mu$ atm. Males had higher rates, which ranged between 5.13  $\mu$ mol O<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> AFDW h<sup>-1</sup> at 18°C and pCO<sub>2</sub> of 380  $\mu$ atm and 175.51  $\mu$ mol O<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> AFDW h<sup>-1</sup> at 32°C and pCO<sub>2</sub> of 380 (Figure 3).

269 Relationships between respiration rate and temperature were linear at each  $pCO_2$  level 270 (Figure 3). Respiration rose significantly with increasing temperature in all  $pCO_2$  treatments, for both males and females (Table 3, all p-values < 0.02). There were no significant 271 272 differences between the slopes of the different regressions among the  $pCO_2$  treatments or 273 between sexes (analysis of slopes, df = 3, F = 1.1, p = 0.346). The intercepts of the different 274 regressions also did not significantly vary among  $pCO_2$  (ANCOVA, df = 3, F = 0.350, p = 0.789), but there were difference between males and females (ANCOVA, df = 1, F = 62.63, p 275 276 < 0.001).

277  $Q_{10}$  values ranged from 1.24 to 2.40 for females and from 1.36 to 2.77 for males 278 among the different *p*CO<sub>2</sub> treatments (Figure 4). There was no significant *p*CO<sub>2</sub> effect on  $Q_{10}$ 279 values for either males or females (Table 2). Across all *p*CO<sub>2</sub> treatments, females had 280 significantly lower  $Q_{10}$  values than males with means of 1.61 ± 0.11 and 2.00 ± 0.12 for 281 females and males, respectively (Table 2). The interaction between *p*CO<sub>2</sub> and sex, however, 282 was not significant (Table 2).

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#### DISCUSSION

286 Independently of the impact of  $pCO_2$  we planned to test, one of the major issues of this 287 study was food limitation which was unintentionally imposed on the C. fornicata individuals 288 in the experiments. This food limitation was detected because of the decrease in condition 289 indices (CI) of both males and females from the beginning to the end of the experiment. Such 290 decreases in CI are usually related to food quantity or quality supplied to organisms (Norkko 291 & Thrush, 2006). Animals were maintained in unfiltered seawater which carried natural phytoplankton at a concentration between 0.2 and 1  $\mu$ g Chl a L<sup>-1</sup> (SOMLIT data). The water 292 293 renewal in the aquarium was maintained constant at a rate of 0.9 L h-1 (i.e. 90% of the total 294 volume of each aquarium changed per hour). Water supply in our experimental system was 295 likely too low to provide sufficient food for the experimental animals, which thus relied on 296 internal energy reserves and so decreased their CI. A similar outcome was reported for 297 mussels by Mackenzie et al. (2014).

298 The use of stored reserves was similar in the different  $pCO_2$  conditions as CI at the end 299 of the experiment did not differ between the different  $pCO_2$  treatments, and this was the case 300 for both sexes. Previous studies have shown interspecific variability in the responses of 301 condition indices under high  $pCO_2$  levels, ranging from a lack of effect (Cummings *et al.*, 302 2011; Clark et al., 2013; Sanders et al., 2013) to large changes in condition under high pCO<sub>2</sub> 303 levels (Hiebenthal et al., 2013; Range et al., 2014). Energy availability is a major component 304 in mitigating the effects of ocean acidification (Pansch et al., 2014). Studies have shown that 305 an abundant food supply might counteract or even overcome the negative effects of high 306 pCO<sub>2</sub> on adult and juvenile bivalves (Melzner *et al.*, 2011; Thomsen *et al.*, 2013). Thus, it is important to consider that in this study C. fornicata were under limited food conditions when 307

interpreting their metabolic responses to elevated  $pCO_2$  conditions during the temperature rise. The data here are representative of conditions where there is temperature stress and food supplies are limited, conditions that can occur in the field.

311 The limitation of food supply was not markedly more important in any of our reduced 312 pH conditions as there were no differences in mortality rates between the different  $pCO_2$ 313 treatments in C. fornicata males and females., This is a different outcome to that reported for 314 some other mollusk species held in elevated  $pCO_2$  levels (Shirayama & Thornton, 2005; 315 Beniash et al., 2010). However, similarly to our study, Pansch et al., (2014) showed that food 316 availability had no impact on mortalities of the barnacle Amphibalanus improvises held in 317 different  $pCO_2$  conditions. In the present study, important mortalities started to occur from 318 32°C and they became larger at and above 34°C for both males and females. These values are 319 consistent with the upper lethal temperature recorded for C. fornicata by Diederich & 320 Pechenick, (2013) in a laboratory study investigating a population from Rhode Island, USA, 321 in which only 40% of the adults survived after a 3 h exposure to 34°C, and all died after a 3 h 322 exposure to 36°C. Mortality was higher in females (larger individuals) than in males (small 323 individuals) even if, males started to die at lower temperatures than females. Similarly, Peck 324 et al., (2009) demonstrated for 14 species that smaller species survived to higher temperatures than large ones when temperature was raised at 1°C day<sup>-1</sup>, and Peck *et al.* (2013) showed that 325 326 juveniles had higher upper temperature limits than adults in 4 species of marine invertebrates at warming rates of 1°C day<sup>-1</sup> and 1°C 3days<sup>-1</sup>. The mechanisms setting temperature limits at 327 328 acute rates of warming may not be energy availability (Peck et al., 2014) and females, which 329 had more energetic reserves than males, may thus have not had an advantage.

330 Despite the decreases in CI, mean respiration rates of *C. fornicata* at  $18^{\circ}$ C and  $pCO_2$ 331 of 380 µatm were 31 and 26 µmol  $O_2$  g<sup>-1</sup> AFDW h<sup>-1</sup> for males and females, respectively, 332 which are close to the middle of the range of *in situ* values reported for wild individuals from

the Bay of Brest (Brittany, France) (6 to 63 µmol O<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> AFDW h<sup>-1</sup>: Martin et al., 2006). This 333 334 indicates that animals in the experiments here had similar oxygen consumption to wild 335 specimens and were not metabolically depressed under insufficient food supply. In both C. fornicata males and females, respiration rates increased with temperature, as previously 336 337 demonstrated for this species by Newell & Kofoed, (1977) and most ectotherm metabolic 338 rates are correlated positively with temperature (Cossins & Bowler, 1987). Respiration rates 339 were higher in C. fornicata males than in females regardless of the temperature. Generally, 340 mass-specific respiration rates of small individuals are higher than those of larger ones 341 because metabolic rate (normalized to the biomass) decreases with increasing organisms size 342 (von Bertalanffy, 1951; Parsons et al., 1984).

343 The relationship between oxygen consumption and temperature here for *C. fornicata* 344 was similar in all the different  $pCO_2$  treatments. The slopes and intercepts of the regressions 345 were not significantly different across the four  $pCO_2$  conditions which means temperature 346 effect on respiration rate was not affected by the different  $pCO_2$  levels in males or females. In 347 constrast to our results, Lannig et al., (2010) found that an acute temperature rise 348 (1.25°C/12h) caused a more rapid increase in metabolic rate in *Crassostrea gigas* under 349 elevated  $pCO_2$  conditions, and there was a synergistic effect of temperature and  $pCO_2$ . The 350 lack of difference in respiration between animals held in different  $pCO_2$  conditions may be 351 related to a stronger ability to up-regulate their metabolism under a temperature stress 352 irrespective of pCO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, under warming conditions, C. fornicata can generate sufficient 353 energy to cope with any effects of decreased pH (Wood *et al.*, 2010).  $Q_{10}$  values were also 354 similar across  $pCO_2$  treatments in both males and females and they were within the expected 355 range of values recorded for marine invertebrates (Branch et al., 1988; Marshall et al., 2003). 356 Even if C. fornicata individuals were food limited, their oxygen consumption remained 357 unaffected by elevated  $pCO_2$ . A similar lack of  $pCO_2$  effect was reported for growth and shell strength of the barnacle *A. improvisus* (Pansch *et al.*, 2014). In our study, the low food supply
did not appear to affect the resistance or resilience of *C. fornicata* to CO<sub>2</sub> stress.

360 Several studies investigating the response of mollusk respiration to elevated  $pCO_2$ 361 have demonstrated metabolic depression under high  $pCO_2$  in both bivalves and gastropods 362 (Michaelidis et al., 2005; Bibby et al., 2007; Fernandez-Reiriz et al., 2011; Melatunan et al., 363 2011; Liu & He, 2012; Navarro et al., 2013). Conversely, others observed no pCO<sub>2</sub> effect on 364 mollusk respiration and general metabolism (Gazeau et al., 2007; Marchant et al., 2010; 365 Fernandez-Reiriz et al., 2012; Clark et al., 2013) as reported in our study. In some rare cases, 366  $O_2$  consumption was reported to increase under high  $pCO_2$  conditions (Wood *et al.*, 2010; Cummings et al., 2011). The effects of high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations on metabolism appear 367 368 species-specific and depend on resistance capacities of the organisms (Melzner et al., 2009). 369 It has been widely reported that exposure to environmental high  $pCO_2$  levels leads to changes 370 in homeostasis and extracellular acid-base balance counterbalanced by metabolic depression 371 in many cases (Pörtner et al., 2005; Pörtner, 2008), although it should be noted, as above, that 372 metabolic depression is often not seen in high  $pCO_2$  conditions. Differences in acid-base 373 regulatory capacities by increasing  $HCO_3^-$  internal concentrations (Michaelidis *et al.*, 2005; 374 Gutowska et al., 2010) or H<sup>+</sup> excretion (Pörtner et al., 2005) are taxon specific and are more 375 or less effective in mitigating the effects of hypercapnia. It has also been suggested that 376 organisms could maintain low metabolic rates without controlling internal pH by not using 377 pH-sensitive oxygen-binding pigments (Thomsen et al., 2010; Hiebenthal et al., 2013). Such 378 mechanisms may be crucial factors in explaining the observed variation in sensitivities and 379 resistances of marine invertebrates to elevated pCO<sub>2</sub> conditions (Gutowska et al., 2010).

380 It is important to note here that many of the studies to date on the effects of elevated 381  $pCO_2$  on organisms are short-term and acute (e.g. Tomanek *et al.*, 2011), not reflecting the 382 long-term trade off in energy balance and physiological changes associated with acclimation 383 of new environmental conditions (Clark et al., 2013). For example, metabolic depression acts 384 as a time-limited compensation strategy to survive unfavorable condition such as high CO<sub>2</sub> 385 concentrations (Guppy & Withers, 1999; Willson & Burnett, 2000). Because C. fornicata 386 were held for 10 weeks in the different  $pCO_2$  treatments in this investigation, it is likely there 387 was enough time for them to acclimate to the new pH, and no difference in oxygen 388 consumption was detected between the different  $pCO_2$  conditions. However, the energetic cost 389 likely produced by the negative effects of elevated  $pCO_2$  may either be relatively small, or 390 difficult to maintain over longer time periods. This could be seen in impacts on other 391 physiological processes than respiration (Catarino et al., 2012). For example, Bibby et al., (2008) demonstrated that exposure to hypercapnic conditions may compromise the ability to 392 393 express an immune response in mussels. They showed that Mytilus edulis phagocytosis 394 declined as function of decreased pH. In the same way, Matozzo et al., (2012) showed that 395 elevated  $pCO_2$  and temperature may strongly affect haemocyte functionality in the bivalves 396 Chamelea gallina and Mytilus galloprovincialis. Other cellular processes have also been 397 shown to be negatively impacted by high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, including protein synthesis in 398 the sipunculid Sipunculus nudus (Langenbuch et al., 2006) or enzyme activities in C. gallina 399 and M. galloprovincialis (Matozzo et al., 2013). However, studies of the impact of reduced 400 pH on immune systems have generally been of short duration and it would be interesting to 401 investigate other physiological parameters than respiration (e.g. calcification, protein 402 production, immunity regulation, fertility) in C. fornicata acclimated over several months in 403 the different  $pCO_2$  conditions predicted for the end of the century. As a coastal species 404 adapted to relatively large fluctuations of abiotic parameters, C. fornicata in this study were 405 strongly resistant to both elevated  $pCO_2$  and increased temperature. Indeed, resistance to high 406  $pCO_2$  levels can also come from pre-acclimation or pre-adaptation to fluctuations in the 407 environment where species live (Burnett, 1997). Species living in environments with large 408 abiotic variation have a high phenotypic plasticity which can allow them to survive in 409 stressful conditions (Hofmann & Todgham, 2010). Coastal organisms are more exposed to 410 physico-chemical variations than their open-ocean counterparts that live in more stable 411 thermal and pH environments (Berge et al., 2006; Peck et al., 2006). Species living in shallow 412 waters tolerate not only seasonal and extreme temperature events but also periodic large 413 fluctuations in seawater pH, driven by biological process that sequester and release large 414 amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> (Beniash et al., 2010). This exposure to a wide environmental variation has 415 likely led to the evolution of resistance mechanisms to abiotic factors including variations in 416 pCO<sub>2</sub> and/or pH (Lannig et al., 2010).

417 C. fornicata is an invasive species which has successfully colonized European coastal 418 shallow waters. This species is likely to have high phenotypic plasticity and resilience to 419 physico-chemical variations that determined its success. Indeed, successful invasive species 420 generally share characteristics that allow them to establish, colonize and expand their range. 421 Among these characteristics, tolerance to environmental stress is one of the most common 422 (Lenz et al., 2011). In a global change context, the movement of physico-chemical conditions 423 away from the optimum increases the energy required by marine species to fuel the extra 424 processes entrained to resist the stresses involved and to maintain homesostasis. This may 425 result in changes in overall physiological condition (Cummings et al., 2011) that could impact 426 ecological processes and community interactions. The high resilience to altered pCO<sub>2</sub>/low pH 427 levels observed here for C. fornicata may confer a competitive advantage to this invasive 428 species over taxonomically or functionally related species (Lenz et al., 2011). For example, 429 the performance of the scallop Pecten maximus, which is one of the C. fornicata competitors 430 (Thouzeau et al., 2000; Fresard & Boncoeur, 2006), has been shown to be negatively affected 431 by high pCO<sub>2</sub> levels (Schalkhausser et al., 2013). These different sensitivities to environmental factors will likely dictate "winners" and "losers" among marine species that 432

| 433 | could lead to a restructuring of benthic communities. With other studies, our data suggest this |
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| 434 | restructuring could favor invasive species as evidence is building that shows they are more     |
| 435 | resistant to change than their native competitors (Dukes & Mooney, 1999; Occhipinti-            |
| 436 | Ambrogi, 2007).   |
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# **FIGURES CAPTIONS**

Figure1: Cumulated mortalities of males (top) and females (bottom) of *Crepidula fornicata*during temperature increase. Shading represents the different pCO2 levels at *which C*. *fornicata* individuals were held during the experiment.

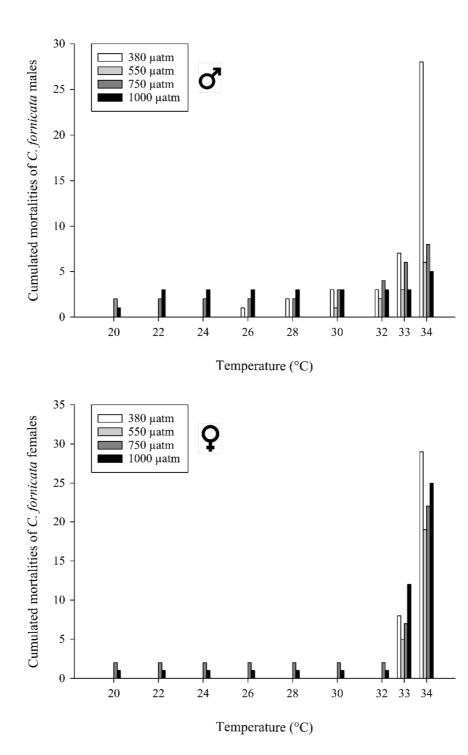
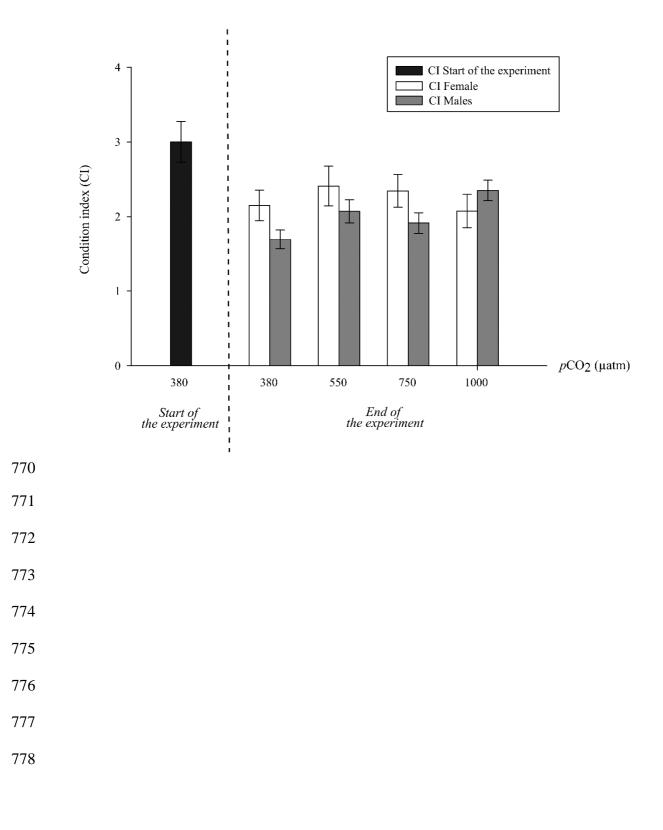
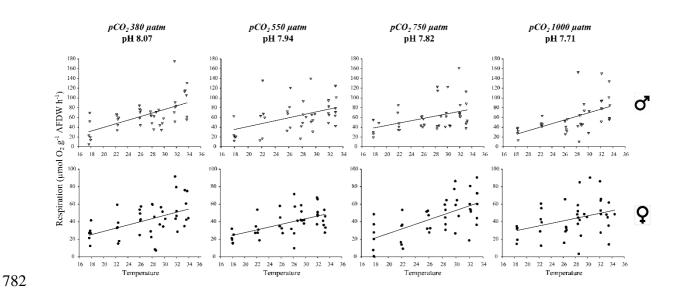


Figure 2: Mean (+SE) conditions indices at the beginning (black bar) and at the end of the experiment for *Crepidula fornicata* females (white bars) and males (grey bars) under the different pCO<sub>2</sub>. Sample sizes = 10-27.

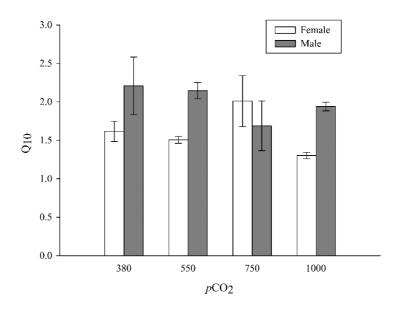


**Figure 3**: Respiration rates as a function of increasing temperature in each  $pCO_2$  treatment, for *Crepidula fornicata* males (top, triangles) and females (bottom, circles). For statistical analyses of regressions see Table 3.



783 **Figure 4:** Mean (± SE) Q<sub>10</sub> values for *C. fornicata* females (white bars) and males (grey bars)

784 in the different  $pCO_2$  treatments. N = 3



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#### TABLES



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**Table 1:** Mean ( $\pm$  standard error, SE) carbonate chemistry parameters for each *p*CO<sub>2</sub> treatment. pH (on the total scale, pH<sub>T</sub>) was measured daily and total alkalinity (A<sub>T</sub>) was measured every 3 weeks. Other parameters were calculated with CO2sys software. *p*CO<sub>2</sub> : CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure;  $\Omega_{Ar}$  : saturation state of seawater with respect to aragonite.

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| $pCO_2$ treatment | $pCO_2$ treatment $pH_T$ |                 | $\Omega_{ m Ar}$ | $A_T (\mu Eq kg^{-1} SW)$ |  |
|-------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|------------------|---------------------------|--|
|                   | n = 69                   | n = 69          | n = 69           | n = 76                    |  |
| 380 µatm          | 8.13 ± 0.01              | $324 \pm 8$     | $2.72\pm0.06$    | 2333 ± 1                  |  |
| 550 µatm          | $7.89\pm0.01$            | 619 ± <i>16</i> | $1.69\pm0.04$    | $2334\pm2$                |  |
| 750 µatm          | $7.75\pm0.01$            | $873 \pm 20$    | $1.28\pm0.03$    | $2335 \pm 2$              |  |
| 1000 µatm         | 7.66 ± 0.01              | 1138 ± 65       | $1.05 \pm 0.02$  | $2334\pm2$                |  |

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**Table 2:** Summary of two-way ANOVAs testing the effects of  $pCO_2$ , sex and their interaction on the final condition indices (CI) and the Q<sub>10</sub> values determined for *C. fornicata* males and females under the different  $pCO_2$  conditions (380, 550, 750 and 1000 µatm). Bold numbers indicate significant level greater than 95%.

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|               |    | СІ      |         | Q10     |         |  |
|---------------|----|---------|---------|---------|---------|--|
|               | df | F-value | p-value | F-value | p-value |  |
| $pCO_2$       | 3  | 1.245   | 0.295   | 0.657   | 0.590   |  |
| sex           | 1  | 2.472   | 0.118   | 6.124   | 0.025   |  |
| $pCO_2 x sex$ | 3  | 1.371   | 0.254   | 2.293   | 0.117   |  |

**Table 3**: Relationships between *C. fornicata* male and female respiration rates and

803 temperature under each pCO<sub>2</sub> treatment

|            | pCO <sub>2</sub> | Regression equation  | n  | R    | R²   | F     | р       |
|------------|------------------|----------------------|----|------|------|-------|---------|
|            |                  |                      |    |      |      |       |         |
|            | 380              | y = 3.691 x - 34.455 | 42 | 0.60 | 0.37 | 22.97 | < 0.001 |
| 1          | 550              | y = 2.993 x - 18.461 | 42 | 0.46 | 0.21 | 10.56 | 0.002   |
| males      | 750              | y = 2.406 x - 4.543  | 41 | 0.40 | 0.16 | 7.55  | 0.009   |
|            | 1000             | y= 3.701 x - 41.556  | 41 | 0.56 | 0.31 | 17.37 | < 0.001 |
|            |                  |                      |    |      |      |       |         |
|            | 380              | y = 1.826 x - 7.635  | 42 | 0.49 | 0.24 | 12.72 | < 0.001 |
| <b>a</b> 1 | 550              | y = 1.585 x - 4.218  | 42 | 0.55 | 0.30 | 16.89 | < 0.001 |
| females    | 750              | y = 2.637 x - 26.240 | 42 | 0.63 | 0.40 | 26.66 | < 0.001 |
|            | 1000             | y = 1.442 x + 3.435  | 42 | 0.37 | 0.14 | 6.26  | 0.017   |
|            |                  |                      |    |      |      |       |         |
| 804        |                  |                      |    |      |      |       |         |