

Temperature and pCO2 effect on the bioaccumulation of radionuclides and trace elements in the eggs of the common cuttlefish, Sepia officinalis

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38 Abstract. The increasing release of CO_2 by human activities leads to ocean acidification and 39 global warming. Both those consequences (*i.e.*, increase in seawater pCO_2 and temperature) may drastically affect physiology of marine organisms. The effects of low pH and elevated 40 temperature on the bioaccumulation of radionuclides (²⁴¹Am, ¹³⁴Cs) and trace elements (⁶⁰Co, 41 ⁵⁴Mn or ⁷⁵Se) were studied during the embryonic development of the common cuttlefish *Sepia* 42 officinalis. The lowered accumulation of essential ⁶⁰Co and ⁵⁴Mn with decreasing pH was 43 44 larger at 16°C than at 19°C. Se was not detected in the embryo whereas it penetrated through 45 the eggshell, suggesting that an alternative pathway ensures the supply of this essential metal for the embryo. ²⁴¹Am was totally retained by the eggshell irrespective of pH and temperature. 46 Finally, the amount of Cs found in the peri-vitelline fluid increased with decreasing pH likely 47 48 because of an enhanced swelling of the cuttlefish egg under elevated CO₂.

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50 Keywords: cephalopod, ocean acidification, ocean warming, eggshell, embryonic
51 development, metal.

53 INTRODUCTION

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55 Climate change due to the increasing atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations in the 56 atmosphere is now considered to be a major threat to biodiversity as well as to the structure 57 and function of ecosystems (Mc Carthy, 2001). Although all the causes are still subjected to 58 debate (Sharp, 2003), it is widely accepted that human activities such as fossil fuel 59 combustion, cement production and change in land use (Hansen et al., 2007) drove the rising 60 global atmospheric concentration of CO₂ from a pre-industrial value of approximately 280 61 parts per million (ppm) to 384 ppm in 2007 (~387 ppm in 2009) (Anonymous, 2010). 62 Moreover, models project that the CO_2 concentration will double by midcentury (> 500 ppm) 63 and could reach between 730 and 1020 ppm in 2100 (IPCC, 2007). The accumulation of 64 greenhouse gases will have profound consequences among which the global warming. 65 Temperature is expected to increase on average by 3°C at the Earth's surface over the course 66 of this century (IPCC, 2007). Furthermore, the precipitation and evaporation rates that drive 67 the hydrologic cycle as well as the winds regimes will also be affected (Roessig et al., 2004). 68 Regarding the Ocean, similar trends are expected for sea surface temperature due to the 69 warming of the surface mixed layer (Levitus et al., 2005) and the sea level will rise mainly 70 because of the melting ice. Moreover, as the oceans are major carbon sink absorbing about 71 25% of anthropogenic CO₂, the sea surface CO₂ partial pressure (pCO₂) is also expected to 72 increase (Sabine et al., 2004). This causes major shifts in seawater carbonate chemistry and is 73 likely to reduce pH by 0.2-0.4 units, a phenomenon called "ocean acidification", over the 74 course of this century (Caldeira and Wickett, 2005).

In the northern Europe, the main scenario for climate change is milder, wetter and stormier winters (IPCC, 2007). Summers could be warmer and dryer, although the climatic effect is expected to be less pronounced than in winters (Jonsson and Jonsson, 2009). Simultaneously, the increasing precipitations will directly and indirectly impact the marine coastal area, causing a decrease of the salinity and amplifying the anthropogenic factors, such as hypoxic events linked to increased agricultural runoff or contamination of the nearshore zones by organic and inorganic contaminants released in the environment (Harley et al., 2006). Thus, the marine biota will have to deal with interactions between increasing seawater temperature, pCO_2 , and well-known anthropogenic stressors such as the contamination by heavy metals.

84 In ecotoxicology and risk assessment studies, it is widely accepted that the early life stages 85 are the most sensitive to metallic contamination (e.g. Calabrese et al., 1973; Warnau et al., 86 1996; Oral et al., 2010). Recently, a growing body of works also showed that embryos and 87 larvae were affected by hypercapnia (e.g. Kurihara et al., 2008; Dupont et al., 2008; Walther 88 et al., 2010) as their developing systemic acid-base regulation is not yet fully efficient 89 (Pörtner and Farrell, 2008). As the highly productive coastal zones serve as nursery grounds 90 for many marine species of ecological and commercial importance (Dunn et al., 1999; 91 Selleslagh and Amara, 2008), studying interaction between multiple stressors is critical to 92 project the future of coastal ecosystems (Harley et al., 2006; Dupont et al., 2010).

93 In Europe, the common cuttlefish Sepia officinalis is seasonally exploited in the English 94 Channel (Royer et al., 2006) when adults come in the shallow waters to mate and spawn their 95 eggs before massive die-offs (Boucaud-Camou and Boismery, 1991). The eggs laid in 96 shallow waters are subject to chronic exposure to various contaminants among which, heavy 97 metals that bioaccumulate in the cuttlefish during its ontogenic development (Miramand et 98 al., 2006; Villanueva and Bustamante, 2006). Experimental studies demonstrated that the 99 cuttlefish embryo is partially protected because of the selective permeability of the eggshell to 100 trace elements, depending on the developmental stage (Bustamante et al., 2002, 2004, 2006a; 101 Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2008a, 2009a, 2010). Moreover, these shielding properties of the egg 102 capsule against Ag, Cd and Zn penetration and the metal accumulation efficiencies of the 103 embryo seemed to be affected when eggs develop under warmer and hypercapnic conditions104 (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2009b).

105 This study addresses the combined effects of elevated temperature and pCO_2 on the 106 bioaccumulation of selected radionuclides and trace elements in the cuttlefish embryo. 107 Indeed, the development of nuclear facilities and fallout from nuclear weapon testing resulted 108 in the release of several medium- and long-lived radionuclides into aquatic environments such as ²⁴¹Am, ⁶⁰Co, ¹³⁴Cs, ⁵⁴Mn or ⁷⁵Se (e.g. Warnau et al., 1999, Ke et al., 1999). Although these 109 110 radionuclides are generally considered as micropollutants in the oceans, they are known to 111 accumulate in marine organisms (e.g. Miramand and Guary, 1981; Bustamante et al. 2006b, 112 Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2010; Metian et al., 2009, 2011). In addition, radionuclides are of 113 specific interest given the ecotoxicological concern regarding their stable isotopes. Indeed, 114 Co, Mn and Se are trace elements that have essential functions in physiology but also toxic 115 effect if they are excessively accumulated in organisms (e.g. Rainbow, 2002). In this study, 116 we therefore use radiotracers to investigate the bioaccumulation behaviour of these 117 corresponding stable elements that are present in marine waters (Warnau and Bustamante, 118 2007).

120 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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122 Adult cuttlefish were collected by net-fishing off Monaco in April 2008 and maintained in 123 open-circuit tanks in the IAEA-MEL premises. After mating, the fertilized eggs that were laid 124 by each female were immediately separated to optimise their oxygenation. The eggs (n = 300)125 were placed and kept in six 5-L plastic bottles (50 eggs per bottle; one bottle per treatment; 126 0.45µm and UV-sterilized seawater; constantly aerated closed-circuit; salinity 38 p.s.u.; 127 light/dark cycle: 12h/12h) during the full development time in controlled conditions of 128 temperature and pH in a crossed (2 temperatures x 3 pH levels) experimental design. The pH 129 and temperature values were chosen consistent with those of realistic modelled scenarios of 130 climate change that would occur at the end of the century (Orr et al., 2005; Solomon et al., 131 2007). Temperature was controlled in each bath to within $\pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C using temperature 132 controllers connected to 300 W submersible heaters. The pH was controlled in each bottle to 133 within \pm 0.05 pH unit with a continuous pH-stat system (IKS, Karlsbad) that bubbled pure 134 CO₂ into the bottles that were continuously aerated with CO₂-free air. The pH was maintained 135 at a mean (\pm SD) of 7.61 \pm 0.11, 7.84 \pm 0.04, and 8.09 \pm 0.04, at ambient temperature (16.0 \pm 136 0.1°C), and of 7.61 \pm 0.08, 7.84 \pm 0.04, and 8.09 \pm 0.09, at elevated temperature (18.9 \pm 0.3° C), corresponding to pCO₂ of 1399, 781, and 404 ppm at ambient temperature and 1440, 137 138 799, and 399 ppm at elevated temperature, respectively (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2009b). The eggs were exposed to dissolved radiotracer: 0.27 kBq l^{-1 241}Am, 0.95 kBq l^{-1 60}Co, 1.18 kBq l⁻ 139 ¹ ¹³⁴Cs (Amersham, UK) and 0.91 kBg l⁻¹ ⁵⁴Mn and 1.04 kBg l⁻¹ ⁷⁵Se (Isotope Product 140 141 Laboratory, USA). Briefly, seawater of each aquarium was spiked with typically 5 µl of 142 radioactive stock solution (²⁴¹Am dissolved in 1N HCl, ⁶⁰Co in 0.1N HCl, ¹³⁴Cs in H₂O, ⁵⁴Mn in 0.1N HCl and ⁷⁵Se in 0.1N HCl). Seawater and spikes were renewed daily during the first 143 144 week and then every second day to maintain good water quality and radiotracer

145 concentrations as constant as possible. The detailed experimental procedure has been146 previously described in Lacoue-Labarthe et al. (2009b).

At hatching time (i.e., 62 d and 42 d at 16 and 19°C, respectively, when first hatching events occurred), in each treatment, 10 eggs were fresh weighed and dissected and the radiotracer activities were counted in the eggshell, the embryo and the perivitelline fluid (PVF). In parallel, 10 newly hatched cuttlefish in each bottle were weighted and counted.

151 Radioactivities were measured using a high-resolution γ -spectrometry system consisting of 152 four coaxial Germanium (N- or P-type) detectors (EGNC 33-195-R, Canberra[®] and Eurysis[®]) 153 connected to a multi-channel analyzer and a computer equipped with a spectra analysis 154 software (Interwinner[®] 6). Radioactivities were determined by comparison with standards of 155 known activity and of appropriate geometry. Measurements were corrected for counting 156 efficiency and physical radioactive decay. Counting times were adapted to obtain relative 157 propagated errors less than 5% (Metian et al., 2008).

Accumulation of radiotracers was expressed as concentration factors (CF), which is the ratio between radiotracer activity in the egg or egg compartment (Bq g^{-1}) and the time-integrated activity in seawater (Bq g^{-1}) (Metian et al., 2008). The distribution of metals was expressed a % of the total activity load. Results are expressed as mean ± SD.



At hatching time, only ⁶⁰Co, ¹³⁴Cs and ⁵⁴Mn were accumulated with sufficient activities to be 165 detected in the newly hatched juveniles, showing that ²⁴¹Am and ⁷⁵Se were not efficiently 166 accumulated during the embryonic development. The lower the pH of seawater where eggs 167 were incubating, the less ⁶⁰Co and ⁵⁴Mn were accumulated in the tissues of hatchlings (Fig. 1; 168 Table 1). Moreover, this effect tended to be reduced when the temperature increases, i.e. ⁶⁰Co 169 170 and ⁵⁴Mn CF values were 1.5 and 1.1 fold lower at pH 7.60 than at normal pH, when eggs 171 developed at 16 and 19°C, respectively. Finally, neither the temperature nor the pH has an effect on the ¹³⁴Cs CF values in the hatchlings. 172

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174 At the end of the embryonic development, radiotracer distribution was determined among the 175 different eggs compartments (Table 2). Regardless the temperature and pCO_2 , over 80% of 176 both radionuclides and trace elements were found associated with the eggshell, with the exception of ¹³⁴Cs that was found in variable proportions in the eggshell, the embryo and the 177 178 PVF. More precisely, the fraction of Cs in PVF was higher at lower pH levels than at normal 179 pH (KW test; p < 0.05), whereas the one in the eggshell was lower at pH_T 7.60 than at pH_T 180 8.10 (KW test; p < 0.05). No effect of the temperature was noted on the Cs fraction in PVF 181 (KW test; p > 0.05). Concerning Se, this element was slightly detected in the PVF but not in 182 the embryo.

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184 **DISCUSSION**

Studying the impact of the ocean acidification on the metal accumulation on water-breathing animals must raise attention on two aspects. On the one hand, the speciation of some metals

and their bioavailability could be affected as ²⁴¹Am that form strong complexes with 188 189 hydroxide and carbonate ions (Choppin, 2006), both of which being expected to decrease in 190 seawater (Feely, 2004). Other metals mainly found as free forms (Co²⁺, Cs⁺, Mn²⁺), or oxydized state (SeO₄²⁻) will be more available by only few percent with decreasing pH 191 192 (Byrne, 2002). Moreover, the increase in the concentration of H⁺ could reduce by competition 193 for the binding site the metal adsorption on the eggshell surface or epithelia (Millero et al., 194 2009). On the other hand, the acid-base balance and ionoregulation impairments (Pörtner, 195 2008) caused by hypercapnia could modify the active transport or passive diffusion of metals 196 through the epithelial membrane (Rainbow, 1997) and therefore the accumulation efficiencies 197 in the animal tissues.

198 As noticed in previous studies for different elements (Bustamante et al., 2002, 2004, 2006a; 199 Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2008a, 2009a, 2010) the behaviour of trace elements towards cuttlefish egg strongly varies according to the considered elements. Among the three element 200 201 found in the embryo, Co and Mn accumulation decreased with pH as previously observed 202 with Cd (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2009b). It is likely that both these "Class Borderline" 203 elements (Nieboer and Richardson, 1980) might be subjected to increased competition with 204 protons for the adsorption on binding sites on embryonic tissues. Nevertheless, regarding the 205 direct effect of temperature with similar CF at 19°C than at 16°C despite of a shorter exposure 206 duration, we assume that the presumably increased metabolic level of the embryo could 207 contribute to these essential element uptake efficiencies (Rainbow and White, 1990; 208 Barceloux, 1999). The seawater hypercapnia would in this case enhance the metabolic 209 depression of the late-stage embryo (Rosa and Seibel, 2008; Melzner et al., sbm) and limit 210 active metal accumulation. Contrasting to Co and Mn, Se passed slightly through the eggshell 211 but was not significantly accumulated by the embryo, suggesting that the need of this 212 essential metal (Bell et al., 1986) was entirely supplied by the maternal transfer through Se

incorporation in the yolk reserve (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2008b). More globally, these results
raise the question of the impact of a potential depletion in essential elements during the
sensitive early-life stages of this marine invertebrate.

Regarding the radionuclide behaviours, the absence of ²⁴¹Am neither in the embryo nor in the 216 217 PVF confirms that the eggshell, retaining more than 98% of the Am amount, totally prevents against ²⁴¹Am penetration (Bustamante et al., 2006a; Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2010) and that 218 219 pH and temperature variations did not affect these shielding properties although the 220 proportion of bioavailable Am increase with decreasing pH (Choppin, 2006). Oppositely, the eggshell displayed an evident permeability toward ¹³⁴Cs (Bustamante et al., 2006a) as CF 221 222 values were > 10 in the embryo. Interestingly, decreasing pH and increasing temperature did 223 not affect Cs uptake in the embryo but enhanced the proportion associated with the PVF 224 compartment (Table 2). This probably results from the enhanced egg swelling illustrated by 225 higher egg weight under hypercapnic conditions and warm water (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2009b). Therefore the fraction of ¹³⁴Cs, already described as a tracer of water movement 226 227 during the cuttlefish egg development (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2010), increased with the peri-228 vitelline volume.

In conclusion, this study demonstrates that both temperature and pH have distinct effects on the bioaccumulation in cuttlefish embryos. Both the chemical properties of the elements and the physiological responses of the organism to ocean warming and acidification could account for the observed effects. The impacts of pollutants in the context of the global change, such as the potential depletion of essential elements in embryo, should to be further assessed in marine organisms that use coastal areas to complete their life cycle.

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401 Table 1. Sepia officinalis. Two-way ANOVA parameters testing the effects of three pH (7.60, 7.85

402 and 8.10) and two temperatures (16 and 19°C) on the weight of the eggs (from Lacoue-Labarthe et al

403 [33]), and on the concentration factor (CF) of 60 Co, 134 Cs and 54 Mn in the hatchlings at the end of the

- 404 embryonic development (see Figures 1).
- 405

Parameter	pH		Temperature			pH X Temperature			
	df	MS	F	df	MS	F	df	MS	F
Egg weight	2	0.587	8.8 ***	1	1.486	22.2 ***	2	0.018	0.3 ^{ns}
⁶⁰ Co CF	2	20424	17.3 ***	1	454	0.7 ^{ns}	2	7465	6.3 **
¹³⁴ Cs CF	2	168	0.9 ^{ns}	1	345	1.8 ^{ns}	2	138	0.7 ^{ns}
⁵⁴ Mn CF	2	2152	17.3 ***	1	1316	10.6 **	2	2230	18.0 ***

406 df = degree of freedom; MS = mean squares. Probability levels for significant effects: p < 0.001 (***), p < 0.01 (**), p < 0.01 (

 $407 \qquad 0.05 \ (*), \ p < 0.1 \ (`); \ ns = non \ significant.$

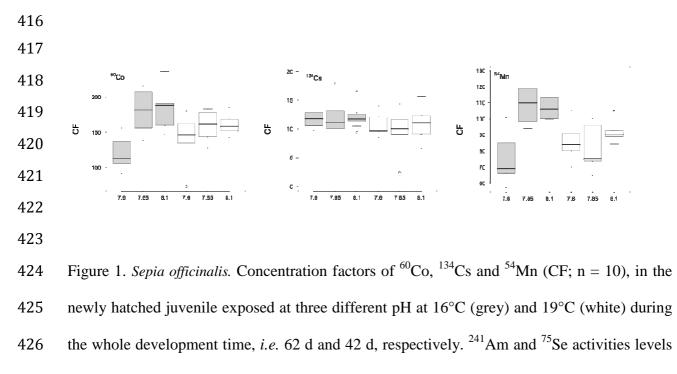
Table 2. *Sepia officinalis*. Distribution ²⁴¹Am, ⁶⁰Co, ¹³⁴Cs, ⁵⁴Mn and ⁷⁵Se expressed as % among the
different egg compartments, at the end of development (after 62 d and 42 d of incubation at 16°C and
19°C, respectively) following three different pH levels at two different temperatures.

Experiment	16°C			19°C			
	7.6	7.85	8.1	7.6	7.85	8.1	
(a) ²⁴¹ Am							
Egshell	98.8 ± 0.2	98.8 ± 0.7	98.2 ± 1.2	96.9 ± 2.2	98.8 ± 0.8	98.3 ± 1.0	
Embryo	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	
PVF	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	
(b) 60 Co							
Eggshell	88.4 ± 0.9	87.2 ± 2.1	90.5 ± 2.6	83.1 ± 1.8	89.7 ± 1.0	91.4 ± 0.4	
Embryo	10.2 ± 0.8	11.5 ± 2.1	8.5 ± 2.6	15.0 ± 1.3	9.0 ± 0.9	8.4 ± 0.5	
PVF	1.4 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.2	1.9 ± 0.5	1.3 ± 0.4	0.2 ± 0.1	
(c) 134 Cs							
Eggshell	27.8 ± 11.7	33.0 ± 8.0	52.7 ± 17.6	19.2 ± 3.1	24.9 ± 14.1	48.6 ± 19.5	
Embryo	30.6 ± 14.9	34.0 ± 7.1	30.3 ± 14.6	39.4 ± 5.0	36.0 ± 14.3	42.5 ± 18.1	
PVF	41.6 ± 8.9	33.0 ± 1.7	17.0 ± 4.9	41.3 ± 5.7	39.1 ± 6.1	8.9 ± 2.1	
(d) ⁵⁴ Mn							
Eggshell	88.9 ± 1.3	88.8 ± 0.3	88.0 ± 2.6	84.8 ± 2.1	90.2 ± 1.7	83.4 ± 1.9	
Embryo	8.7 ± 0.8	8.9 ± 0.5	10.0 ± 3.0	12.8 ± 2.0	8.1 ± 1.3	15.5 ± 1.7	
PVF	2.4 ± 1.0	2.3 ± 0.4	2.0 ± 0.7	2.4 ± 0.5	1.7 ± 0.4	1.1 ± 0.4	
(e) 75 Se							
Eggshell	97.2 ± 0.4	97.5 ± 0.4	98.3 ± 0.3	95.0 ± 1.3	96.1 ± 0.4	98.0 ± 0.6	
Embryo	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	< 1	
PVF	2.0 ± 0.2	2.0 ± 0.5	1.1 ± 0.3	3.6 ± 0.8	2.7 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.4	

413 PVF: perivitelline fluid. Letters denote statistically significant differences (Kruskall-Wallis test; p <

414 0.05) between pHs for each temperature.

415



427 were under detection limits. Results of the statistical analysis were reported on the Table 1.