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Ocean acidification reshapes the otolith-body allometry of growth in juvenile seabream

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26 ABSTRACT

27 The effects of elevated CO₂ partial pressure ($p\text{CO}_2$) on otolith calcification and on the coupling
28 between the somatic and otolith growth were investigated in juvenile gilthead seabream *Sparus*
29 *aurata*. Six-month old individuals were raised during seven weeks under four $p\text{CO}_2$ conditions
30 set according to projected future ocean acidification scenarios. Body and otolith biometric
31 parameters were measured throughout the experiment along with the otolith biomineralization
32 monitored using a radiotracer technique based on ⁴⁵Ca incorporation. Seabream exhibited
33 somatic growth resilience to all treatments. In contrast, increased growth rate and shape
34 complexity of otoliths were observed with a pH_T drop from 8.1 to 7.5. Hypercalcification was
35 observed under lowered pH, with a rate of calcium incorporation increasing by up to 18%
36 between pH_T 8.1 and pH_T 7.7. This work highlighted an uncoupling of otolith and body growth
37 of juvenile seabream within 40 d at pH_T 7.9 projected to be reached by the end of the century. As
38 the otolith is an essential tool used in reconstructing fish life history, this work suggests that
39 information resulting from otolith studies should be interpreted with caution with respect to the
40 potential impacts that ocean acidification projected modifications could have on otolith
41 biomineralization.

42

43 **Keywords:** climate change; ocean acidification; otolith calcification; somatic-otolith growth allometry;
44 temperate coastal fish

45

46 1. INTRODUCTION

47 On 9th May 2013, the concentration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) in the atmosphere reached the
48 symbolic threshold of 400 ppm in Mauna Loa, Hawaii (IPCC, 2013), a level never reached at
49 this reference site. The increase of atmospheric CO₂ from a preindustrial value of 280 μatm is
50 the result of fossil fuel combustion, cement production and land use change (Ciais et al., 2013).

51 IPCC projections suggest further increase in the coming decades with concentrations reaching
52 490 ppm in 2050 and more than 1370 ppm by 2100 (IPCC, 2013). The ocean is a major carbon
53 sink, absorbing about 25% of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions thus limiting the greenhouse gas
54 effects on climate (Le Quéré et al., 2013). The increase in *p*CO₂ in the ocean has already led to a
55 pH decline of 0.1 unit since the industrial revolution and to major shifts in the ocean carbonate
56 chemistry, *i.e.* increased concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon and bicarbonate ions,
57 decreased carbonate concentration, altogether leading to ‘ocean acidification’ (Caldeira and
58 Wickett, 2005). The pH of the surface ocean is expected to decline by 0.06 to 0.32 units by the
59 end of century (Ciais et al., 2013), resulting in an unprecedented change of seawater chemistry
60 equilibrium since the last 800,000 years (Zeebe and Ridgwell, 2012).

61 For a decade, a growing body of experimental studies has examined the response of marine
62 organisms to decreased pH across multiple taxa. Impacts on early life stages have been of
63 particular concern in fish (Baumann et al., 2012) because it has been hypothesized that animal
64 embryos and larvae may not be as resilient to physiological stress as juveniles and adults
65 (Pörtner, 2008), and because recruitment cohorts lay the foundation for population success and
66 connectivity (Planes et al., 2009). Nevertheless juveniles of coastal fish may be more exposed to
67 high CO₂ levels than earlier life stages and deserves particular attention. Indeed, unlike in the
68 open ocean, seawater *p*CO₂ is known to vary considerably in coastal waters depending on land-
69 driven eutrophication, which adds to the uptake of atmospheric CO₂, locally amplifying ocean
70 acidification (Cai et al., 2011; Guinotte and Fabry, 2008). Juvenile fish settling in coastal areas
71 during their high metabolic and fast growing phase could be severely challenged by hypercapnic
72 conditions.

73 Based on the sparse current knowledge, adult physiological performance allows fish to cope with
74 extracellular acidosis caused by increasing *p*CO₂ (*e.g.* Melzner et al., 2009b). But in early-life
75 stages of multiple taxa including fish, increasing *p*CO₂ was shown to affect calcification of shells

76 and skeletons due to a drop in the carbonate availability (*e.g.* Gattuso et al., 1998; Riebesell et
77 al., 2000). Munday et al. (2011a) observed no effects on spiny damselfish otolith calcification at
78 850 μatm , while Munday et al. (2011b) and Checkley et al. (2009) highlighted an otolith
79 hypercalcification in white sea bass larvae exposed at 993 and 2558 $\mu\text{atm } p\text{CO}_2$ and in clownfish
80 larvae at 1721 $\mu\text{atm } p\text{CO}_2$, respectively. In cases of calcification modulation, otolith morphology
81 can be affected, which may have negative repercussions on the behaviour and acoustic function
82 in fish, decreasing their survival probabilities (Bignami et al., 2013a; Popper et al., 2005). It has
83 also been recently reported that otolith increment growth can be uncoupled from somatic growth
84 in fish larva raised under high $p\text{CO}_2$ conditions, then having potential implications for the study
85 of fish populations (Bignami et al. 2013b). Understanding the way ocean acidification can affect
86 the process of otolith formation is decidedly important in many perspectives among which is
87 seems crucial to delineate how the environment can affect its growth and influence its coupling
88 with the structural skeleton growth. If otoliths indeed ensure the fish's biological hearing and
89 balance functions, they are also an essential tool used in fisheries biology to reconstruct
90 individual life history in terms of age and somatic growth relationship (age-length keys) and
91 attended habitats (Campana and Neilson, 1985; Campana, 2005).

92 This paper aims at evaluating the impacts of ocean acidification on the calcification rate of fish
93 otoliths and on the understudied coupling between otolith and somatic growth in juveniles. These
94 questions were investigated experimentally using a nuclear tracking approach, following the ^{45}Ca
95 incorporation in otolith for 7 weeks of exposure to 4 realistic $p\text{CO}_2$ levels projected for the near-
96 future. The gilthead seabream *Sparus aurata* was chosen due to its ecology and high economic
97 value. Temperate and widely distributed over the North-Eastern Atlantic Ocean and the
98 Mediterranean Sea, this coastal species is subjected to recreational and professional fishing and
99 is increasingly aquacultured (FAO, 2014). In the Mediterranean Sea, it is the first marine fish
100 species cultured with more than 140,000 tonnes produced in 2010 in 17 countries for a worth *ca.*

101 US\$ 785 million (GFCM, 2013).

102

103 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

104 2.1 Organisms, radiotracer and experimental procedures

105 Six-month old juveniles of seabream *Sparus aurata* have been purchased at the “Cannes
106 Aquaculture” fish farm of Monaco and were placed for three weeks in an open-circuit 500 l tank
107 in the IAEA-EL premises for acclimation.

108 Then, 200 fish juveniles of *ca.* 50 mm were randomly assigned in four 20 l circular tanks (one
109 tank per treatment) filled with filtered (0.45 μm) and UV-sterilized Mediterranean seawater (38
110 p.s.u.) pumped from 30 m depth in the Bay of Monaco. In each experimental tank (closed
111 system), seawater was constantly aerated. The light/dark cycle was 12h/12h. Fish were fed daily
112 *ad libitum* with pellets. After feeding, not ingested food has been removed and 80% of the
113 volume was renewed daily with sterilized and filtered seawater. Temperature was maintained at
114 21°C and controlled in each bath to within $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ using temperature controllers connected to
115 300 W submersible heaters. Seawater pH (pH_T on the total scale, Dickson et al., 2007) was
116 adjusted to the desired level from ambient pH_T of 8.1 (corresponding to 475 μatm of $p\text{CO}_2$) to
117 low pH_T of 7.9, 7.7, and 7.5 (700, 1200 and 2000 μatm , respectively), as derived from various
118 models on trajectories of carbon emissions to the near-future (IPCC, 2013). The pH was
119 controlled in each bottle to within ± 0.05 pH unit using a pH-stat system (IKS, Karlsbad). The
120 experimental containers were continuously bubbled with CO_2 -free air and discrete amounts of
121 pure CO_2 were added by the pH-stat system. pH and alkalinity were measured and set according
122 to Martin et al. (2011) using the R package seacarb (Proye and Gattuso, 2003).

123 Seawater in each bottle was spiked with ^{45}Ca (10 kBq l^{-1}). Radiotracers were purchased from
124 Radioisotope Centre Polatum, Poland, ^{45}Ca [as $^{45}\text{CaCl}_2$; $T_{1/2} = 163$ d]. Stock solutions were
125 prepared in H_2O to obtain radioactivities that allowed the use of spikes of only a few microliters

126 (typically 5-10 μl). The radiotracer spikes were renewed at each water change and were checked
127 (i.e. counted in 1 ml of seawater) before and after each water renewal in order to maintain
128 radiotracer concentrations.

129 Fish were maintained for 40 d at the four pH treatments and continuously exposed to dissolved
130 ^{45}Ca in seawater. Five fishes were collected every 3 or 7 d in each tank, anesthetized with clove
131 oil prior to decerebration and then measured in length and weight to the nearest 0.1 mm and 1
132 mg, respectively. Left and right otoliths (sagittae) were extracted and photographed using a
133 Leica DFC420 camera mounted on a stereomicroscope (Leica LZ12). Otolith surface area (OSA,
134 mm^2), maximum Feret diameter (OF, mm) and roundness (OR) were calculated using ImageJ
135 software and weight measurement was made to the nearest 0.1 mg. ^{45}Ca content was then
136 determined. Paired radiolabelled sagittal otoliths from the same individual were pooled and
137 dissolved adding 300 μL of hydrochloric acid (HCl, 37%) at 80°C. After evaporation, the
138 residues were dissolved in 1 mL of distilled water. Biological and seawater samples were
139 counted after adding 10 mL of scintillation liquid, Ultima GoldTM XR (Perkin Elmer).
140 Emissions were measured with a liquid scintillation analyzer (Tri-Carb, Packarb 1600 TR or
141 Perkin Elmer 2900 TR) calibrated with an appropriate standard for each counting that was used.
142 Counting times were adapted to obtain relative propagated errors less than 5% (from 10 min to
143 24 h). Corrections for the physical half-life time and background noise were done in order to
144 determine the ^{45}Ca activities at the sampling time (Bq). The uptake of Ca in the otolith was then
145 expressed as the amount of Ca incorporated (Q_{Ca} , in $\mu\text{mol Ca g}^{-1}$ of otolith dry wt) and following
146 the equation (Martin et al., 2011):

$$147 \quad Q_{\text{Ca}} = [(A_{\text{cut}} / A_{\text{sw}}) \times C_{\text{sw}}] \times 10^3$$

148 where A_{cut} is the total ^{45}Ca activity in each otolith (in Bq), A_{sw} is the time-integrated activity (in
149 Bq g^{-1}) in seawater during the time of exposure and C_{sw} is the total Ca concentration in
150 Mediterranean seawater (0.0114 mmol g^{-1}).

151

152 *2.2 Data Analyses*

153 Due to compromises with experiment cost, radioprotection rules and waste management
154 possibilities with respect to the use of radioisotope ^{45}Ca , only one 20-l tank has been dedicated to
155 each pH conditions. Therefore, fish sampled along the experiment course at regular sampling
156 time ($n = 5$ (and 10) per sampling time (at 40 d) per condition) have been considered as
157 pseudoreplicates (Hurlbert, 1984). Accordingly, the effect of pH on measured physiological or
158 morphological responses of fish has been tested through multiple linear regression considering
159 the pH as a continuous covariate (Havenhand et al., 2011). Linear regressions were used to test
160 the effects of pH (continuous covariate), on relationships between otolith biometrics (*i.e.* otolith
161 surface area (OSA), weight (OW), maximum diameter (Feret's diameter, OF), roundness (OR))
162 and fish total length (FTL) or Time, including a FTL (or Time) x pH interactions. When FTL (or
163 Time) x pH interaction was not significant, a simpler model without interaction (*i.e.* Time (or
164 FTL) + pH) has been computed (Crawley, 2005).

165 To evaluate the effect of the pH treatment on the asymmetry of paired-otoliths (regarding left-
166 right differences in OSA, OF and OR), log-transformed data were injected in a Brown-Forsythe
167 robust Levene test of homogeneity of variances based on deviation from the median.

168 The amount of Ca incorporated in otoliths were standardized to the otolith weight and expressed
169 according to the Time of experiment. Ca incorporation data (mmol g^{-1} otolith dry weight) have
170 been fitted by multiple linear regression with Time x pH as continuous covariates.

171 Results are expressed as mean \pm s.d. Significance was considered at $p < 0.005$. All statistical
172 treatments have been done using R (R Core Team, 2013).

173

174 **3. RESULTS**175 *3.1 Culture conditions*

176 During the experiment, the fish biomass in each tank did not exceed 5 g.l^{-1} , *i.e.* far below the EU
177 recommendations for fish welfare (CEE n°2092/91) which limit the biomass to 25 g.l^{-1} for fish
178 aquaculture in marine environment. Along the 40 d of ^{45}Ca exposure, pH_T was maintained at a
179 mean (\pm s.d.) of 7.50 ± 0.06 , 7.69 ± 0.03 , 7.89 ± 0.05 and 8.04 ± 0.05 (Table 1), corresponding to
180 pCO_2 of *ca.* 2000, 1200, 700, and 475 μatm , respectively. Mean temperature was $21.0^\circ\text{C} \pm 0.7$.
181 Mean A_T of renewed seawater was $2.595 \pm 0.003 \text{ mmol.kg}^{-1}$. It changed by a maximum of 0.2
182 mmol kg^{-1} between two seawater renewals. C_T increased from 2410 to 2690 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ whereas
183 the CO_3^{2-} concentration decreased from 240 to 80 $\mu\text{mol kg}^{-1}$ with decreasing pH. In all
184 conditions, the saturation state with respect to aragonite was higher than 1.

185

186 3.2 Somatic versus otolith growth

187 Fish somatic growth in total length and weight was significant over the 40 days period of the
188 experiment (p -value < 0.001 , Table 2), slightly inflecting from day 30 (Figure 1, A,B). As a
189 mean, fish grew by 0.36 mm.d^{-1} and 0.043 g.d^{-1} , a growth rate close to the 0.0534 g.d^{-1} value
190 measured in juveniles seabream ($1.24 \pm 0.02 \text{ g}$) reared in closed system tank at a density of 1.5
191 g.l^{-1} (Kalogeropoulos et al., 1992). Similarly Kim et al. (2012) reported a mean weight growth
192 rate of 0.0364 g.d^{-1} for young juveniles of red seabream reared from 1.46 g for 42 days, arguing
193 for adequate rearing conditions in our experiment allowing a normal growth and development of
194 the juveniles (Figure 2). The pH treatments had no impact on those body growth parameters and
195 intercepts did not differ between treatments meaning the initial group of juveniles was
196 homogeneous (p -value > 0.05). In contrast, the allometric relationship between otolith surface
197 area and fish total length (Figure 3.A), though still linear, was altered by the decreasing pH (p -
198 value < 0.001 , Table 2) with a lower slope value observed at $\text{pH}_T = 8.1$ compared to $\text{pH}_T = 7.9$
199 and 7.7, and even more compared to $\text{pH}_T = 7.5$ (Figure 3.A). The otolith's Feret diameter and
200 fish total length relationship tended also to be modified in the two lowest pH conditions though

201 not significantly (Figure 3.B, Table 2). The otolith roundness was not related to fish total length
202 except at pH_T 7.5 where the linear relationship was low but significant (Figure 3.C, p-value <
203 0.0046) indicating a faster evolution of the otolith toward a less round shape along with body
204 growth at the lowest pH than at more elevated ones. Finally, the otolith weight was linearly
205 correlated to the otolith surface area during all the experiment and whatever the pH treatment
206 (Table 2), indicating that the density of the otolith was not affected by $p\text{CO}_2$.

207

208 *3.3 Asymmetry*

209 Levels of both surface area and roundness asymmetry between left and right sagittal otoliths
210 (Figure 4) of juvenile seabream were not affected by pH treatments over the 40 days (Brown-
211 Forsythe robust Levene Test based on deviation from the median; $p > 0.05$). Disequilibrium of
212 the symmetry in the otolith surface area toward a greater OSA of the right otolith was observed
213 during the first half of the experiment whatever the pH (Figure 4.A.), but disappeared in animals
214 sampled during the last 10 days of experiment. No asymmetry of the otolith roundness was
215 observed (Figure 4.B.).

216

217 *3.4 Calcification*

218 The calcification of otolith was followed through ^{45}Ca accumulation throughout the 40 days of
219 experiment (Figure 5). The incorporation of Ca in otolith of juvenile seabreams followed a linear
220 equation whatever the pH (Table 3), which is consistent with the linear growth of fish over the
221 experiment. Based on the slope calculated for each pH, we could estimate that for the fish reared
222 at pH_T 8.1 rates of Ca incorporation were 13, 17 and 18% lower than rates performed at pH_T 7.9,
223 7.7 and 7.5, respectively.

224

225 4. DISCUSSION

226 Assessing whether elevated $p\text{CO}_2$ and lowered pH impact marine fauna and flora and to what
227 extent it can affect individual, population and ecosystem function is a major concern (Fabry et
228 al., 2008; Hilmi et al., 2013; Melzner et al., 2009a). Recent studies have reported that
229 hypercapnia can challenge fish physiology (e.g. Melzner et al., 2009b; Michaelidis et al., 2007),
230 affect the behaviour (Simpson et al., 2011) and growth (Baumann et al., 2012) and impact
231 calcified structures biomineralized from the early-life stages (Checkley et al 2009, Ries et al.
232 2009). Our study shows that responses can be contrasted at the sub-individual integration level.

233

234 ***4.1 Effect of elevated $p\text{CO}_2$ on the coupling of fish somatic and otolith growth***

235 Juvenile seabream *Sparus aurata* reared under 4 $p\text{CO}_2$ treatments during 40 d exhibited no
236 variation in somatic growth. As documented, physiological performance of fish could be
237 expected to allow them to cope with elevated $p\text{CO}_2$ (Melzner et al., 2009b) without significantly
238 affecting the animal's growth (Hurst et al., 2012; Ishimatsu et al., 2008). Michaelidis et al.
239 (2007) demonstrated that long-term hypercapnia may cause a shift from aerobic to anaerobic
240 metabolism in seabream *Sparus aurata*, but only at dramatically elevated $p\text{CO}_2$ (~5000 μatm).
241 This suggests that this species is able to cope with realistic increasing $p\text{CO}_2$, according to IPCC
242 scenarios, without extra-energy demand and might thus maintain its juvenile somatic growth rate
243 as observed in this study.

244 In contrast, a modulation of the otolith biomineralization was observed, with an increase of the
245 calcification rate observed from 700 μatm after 40 days of exposure. This means that juvenile
246 seabream might be subjected to the hypercalcification of their otoliths by the end of the century
247 with respect to IPCC projected CO_2 levels. Only Bignami et al. (2013b) reported such a short-
248 term effect of increased $p\text{CO}_2$ under the threshold of 800 μatm , and this was at the larval stage of
249 cobia *Rachycentron canadum*. Here, the higher growth rate of the otolith surface area under

250 rising $p\text{CO}_2$ was directly linked with the increase of the net calcification rate calculated on the
251 basis of ^{45}Ca incorporation. The linearity of calcium incorporation with time was not disrupted
252 by $p\text{CO}_2$ treatments, but it did provide evidence of a critical difference in the mineralisation
253 slopes. The hypermineralization of calcareous structures in organisms maintained in decreasing
254 pH and in less favourable chemical condition for CaCO_3 precipitation (lower carbonate
255 saturation state, Ω_{arg}) has been already observed in species of various taxonomic groups
256 characterized by efficient capacities to maintain blood/hemolymph homeostasis, such as
257 crustaceans (Ries et al., 2009), cephalopods (Dorey et al., 2012; Gutowska et al., 2010) and
258 fishes (Bignami et al., 2013b; Checkley et al., 2009). Indeed, the active uptake of bicarbonate
259 ions in internal medium to compensate blood acidosis is expected to contribute at increasing Ω_{arg}
260 in the endolymph fluid surrounding the aragonitic otolith (Borelli et al., 2003). The precipitation
261 of HCO_3^- with Ca^{2+} in endolymph leads in turn to active proton extrusion to avoid impeding the
262 calcification process (Allemand et al., 2007). Nonetheless, the cellular mechanisms underlying
263 the hypercalcification of otoliths in this context of ocean acidification remains poorly understood
264 (Munday et al., 2011b) and require further insights.

265 The observed uncoupling of fish body and otolith growth may have implications in fisheries
266 studies. Indeed, back-calculation of fish size from the otolith size is a common and quite highly
267 effective tool used in fisheries biology (Campana and Neilson, 1985; Mosegaard et al., 1988;
268 Payan et al., 1997). It can be used to determine fish-prey size spectra from otoliths collected in
269 the stomach contents of predators (Blanco et al., 2001; Markaida and Sosa-Nishizaki, 2003; Ross
270 et al., 2005). It is also commonly used to infer fish-size at age, based on otolith growth-
271 increments reading (Secor and Dean, 1989). However to be reliable, body and otolith growth
272 have to be uniquely and confidently linked throughout the developmental stage or time period of
273 interest. A body of studies has shown how complex this relationship can be (reviewed in Wilson
274 et al., 2009), being potentially impacted by environmental parameters fluctuations such as

275 temperature (Mosegaard et al., 1988; Takasuka et al., 2008). To date, “growth-effect” and “age-
276 effect” were the two major explanations of the uncoupling between somatic and otolith growth
277 (Wilson et al., 2009). This work presents the perspective that the distortion of the fish-otolith
278 allometric relationship can also originate from the modulation of the otolith growth induced by
279 variations of environmental parameters to which body growth is (more) resilient. Ocean
280 acidification, as a compound of the global change, appears here to alter this relationship.

281

282 ***4.2 Effect of increased $p\text{CO}_2$ on otolith shape***

283 Ocean acidification has also been reported to affect other otolith metrics that were monitored
284 during this experiment. As otolith weight increased in the same way as the otolith surface area,
285 no effect of $p\text{CO}_2$ increase up to 2000 μatm was observed on seabream otolith density. These
286 results are consistent with Bignami et al. (2013b) who did not observe any density modification
287 of the otolith in cobia larvae until 800 μatm . Nevertheless, they reported an increase of 6%
288 density when they experimentally increased conditions to 2100 μatm , suggesting an alteration of
289 the otolith’s mass-size relationship under extreme hypercapnia conditions. Seabream otolith
290 shape seems to be also sensitive to pH conditions. Sagitta of juveniles reared at 475 μatm where
291 indeed significantly shapeless compared to those mineralized at 2000 μatm . As no asymmetry
292 between left and right otoliths was recorded, no sign of “anomalous” calcification appeared,
293 being in agreement with Maneja et al. (2013) who did not observe a deviation from symmetry in
294 otoliths of Atlantic cod larvae raised at 1800 μatm and even at 4200 μatm . Then, the here-
295 observed lower otolith roundness with high $p\text{CO}_2$ seems to provide evidence that in response to
296 hypercapnia, the otolith not only grows, but also develops more rapidly, acquiring at a higher
297 rate its species-specific ornaments (Campana and Casselman, 1993; Popper et al., 2005).

298 All these otolith descriptors are important in the otolithic apparatus functioning, as the main
299 organ of the ear in the senses of balance, directed motion detection and hearing (Lychakov and
300 Rebane, 2000; Popper et al., 2005). The otolith features indeed determine the compromise made
301 between these three senses. In bottom-dwelling species such as *Sparus aurata*, otoliths tend to be
302 bigger relative to the body size than in pelagic species (Popper et al., 2005), improving balance
303 and hearing senses while impairing motion detection. Hearing in seabream has been shown to be
304 a developed sense that is critical for the welfare of juveniles (Filiciotto et al., 2013). Thus, as
305 reported in another Perciform and bottom-dwelling species (Bignami et al., 2013a), ocean
306 acidification, in increasing the size of the otolith relative to the size of the body, may improve
307 the hearing acuity of *S. aurata*. As highlighted by Bignami et al. (2013a) improving auditory
308 capacity could also be advantageous or deleterious depending on the sound spectra newly
309 accessible to the fish. As Filiciotto et al. (2013) reported, wild offshore sound at low pressure
310 levels are more beneficial to *S. aurata* with individuals being less stressed and faster growing
311 than individuals exposed to constant and high sound pressure levels in aquaculture tanks. In
312 increasing hearing acuity, ocean acidification could thus induce a threshold shift of sound
313 pressure tolerance (Smith et al., 2004) or displace the optimum window of frequency, making
314 the baseline sound of the environment more disturbing and stressful (Simpson et al. 2011, Caiger
315 et al., 2012; Filiciotto et al., 2013). As many other ecologically and economically important
316 species fished in the wild and cultured in offshore farms, the consequences of ocean acidification
317 on growth and survival performances related to balance and auditory capacities need to be
318 considered and evaluated.

319

320 ***4.3 Potential repercussions of elevated pCO₂ on the otolith as a recorder of the seawater*** 321 ***chemistry***

322 Considerations have also to be raised in regard to the use by fisheries scientists of the chemical

323 composition of the otolith as a biological tracking tool (Campana, 2005; Miller et al., 2006).
324 Here, calcium incorporation into the otolith was modulated by seawater pH. This questions the
325 stability of the elemental:Ca ratio under environmental hypercapnia. During the
326 biomineralization of the otolith, chemical elements such as metals and metalloids are supposed
327 to substitute for calcium (Campana, 1999) or, at least for some transition metals, complex with
328 the organic matrix of the otolith via its constitutive metal-binding proteins (Miller et al., 2006).
329 The changes of pH and seawater chemistry caused by increased CO₂ can modify the speciation
330 of metals and therefore their bioavailability to organisms (Millero et al., 2009). The
331 physiological response of fish to hypercapnia might in turn stimulate processes to compensate
332 for acidosis based on the key role of ion transporters such as the Na⁺/H⁺ exchangers (Hu et al.,
333 2013) that are hypothesized to be a major accumulation pathway for some cationic elements
334 (Webb and Wood, 2000). In this context, ocean acidification may interfere with trace element
335 uptake and body concentrations (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2009) and therefore could affect
336 microchemical signature recorded in fish otolith. Two previous studies observed that ocean
337 acidification has no effect on alkaline metals Ba-, Mg-, Sr-Ca ratio in the otolith of larval and
338 juvenile fish (Hurst et al., 2012; Munday et al., 2011a). In contrast, in statoliths of squid larvae,
339 the activity of the transition metal ⁶⁵Zn has been shown to increase with lowering pH (Lacoue-
340 Labarthe et al., 2011). Future research thus seems still needed to investigate the possibility that
341 ocean acidification could impact the incorporation of other trace elements used to track
342 movements of marine organisms (Arkhipkin et al., 2004; Campana et al., 2000), depending on
343 their chemical properties, molecular-binding affinities and incorporation pathway into the
344 otolith.

345

346 **5. Conclusions**

347 In conclusion, this study demonstrates that, even under projected near-future *p*CO₂ levels,

348 juvenile seabream exhibited an increase of their otolith calcification and development rates while
349 their body growth rate was not affected. Highlighting an uncoupling of otolith and body growth
350 rates which appeared within 40 d at a $p\text{CO}_2$ of 700 μatm projected to be reached by the end of
351 the century, this study shows that juvenile seabream could be more resilient to the ongoing ocean
352 acidification in terms of somatic growth than in terms of structural calcification. As the otolith is
353 an essential tool used in reconstructing fish life history in terms of age, somatic growth and
354 attended habitats, this work suggests that information resulting from otolith studies should be
355 interpreted with caution with respect to the potential impacts that ocean acidification projected
356 modifications could have on otolith biomineralization.

357

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363 (grant agreement 211384).

364

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550 **TABLES**

551

552 **Table 1.** *Sparus aurata*. Carbonate chemistry and pH (mean \pm sd) in the four pH levels applied
 553 to reared juvenile of seabream for 40 d (1 tank per treatment). Partial pressure of CO₂ ($p\text{CO}_2$; μatm),
 554 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC; $\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$), CO₃²⁻ concentration ($\mu\text{mol.kg}^{-1}$) and saturation state of seawater with
 555 respect to aragonite (Ω_{arg}) are calculated from pH_T, temperature (21.0°C), salinity (38) and the total alkalinity
 556 varying with time between two water renewals according the following equation: TA ($\mu\text{mol. kg}^{-1}$) = 2599 + 196 x
 557 Time (day). Data are means \pm s.d. of measurements taken every 15 min from Day 0 to Day 40; N = 24,724.

558

Treatment	pH _T	$p\text{CO}_2$	DIC	CO ₃ ²⁻	Ω_{arg}
pH 8.1	8.04 \pm 0.05	477 \pm 78	2412 \pm 341	238 \pm 22	3.65 \pm 0.34
pH 7.9	7.89 \pm 0.05	726 \pm 101	2506 \pm 247	178 \pm 15	2.73 \pm 0.23
pH 7.7	7.69 \pm 0.03	1198 \pm 105	2603 \pm 153	121 \pm 8	1.85 \pm 0.13
pH 7.5	7.50 \pm 0.06	1978 \pm 202	2685 \pm 244	80 \pm 13	1.22 \pm 0.19

559

560 **Table 2.** *Sparus aurata*. Parameters of the multiple linear regressions between fish total length
 561 (FTL, mm) and Time (days), fish total weight (FTW, g) and Time (days) otolith surface area
 562 (OSA, mm²) and FTL, otolith weight (OW) and OSA, otolith Feret maximum diameter (OF,
 563 mm) and FTL, and pH considered as a continuous co-variable, measured over the 40 days period
 564 of experiment in 4 tanks maintained at pH 7.5, 7.7, 7.9 and 8.1. Significance of *p*-values ^{NS} >
 565 0.05; * < 0.05; ** < 0.01; *** <0.001.

Model	Parameter	Variable p-value	Model F-value	Model p-value
FTL vs. Time	Time	< 0.001***	117.1	< 0.001***
	pH	0.654 ^{NS}		
FTW vs. Time	Time	< 0.001***	85.8	< 0.001***
	pH	0.372		
OSA vs. FTL	FTL	0.002**	246.9	< 0.001***
	pH	0.046*		
	FTL x pH	0.021*		
OW vs. OSA	OSA	< 0.001***	737.3	< 0.001***
	pH	0.772 ^{NS}		
OF vs. FTL	FTL	0.002**	280.2	< 0.001***
	pH	0.636 ^{NS}		

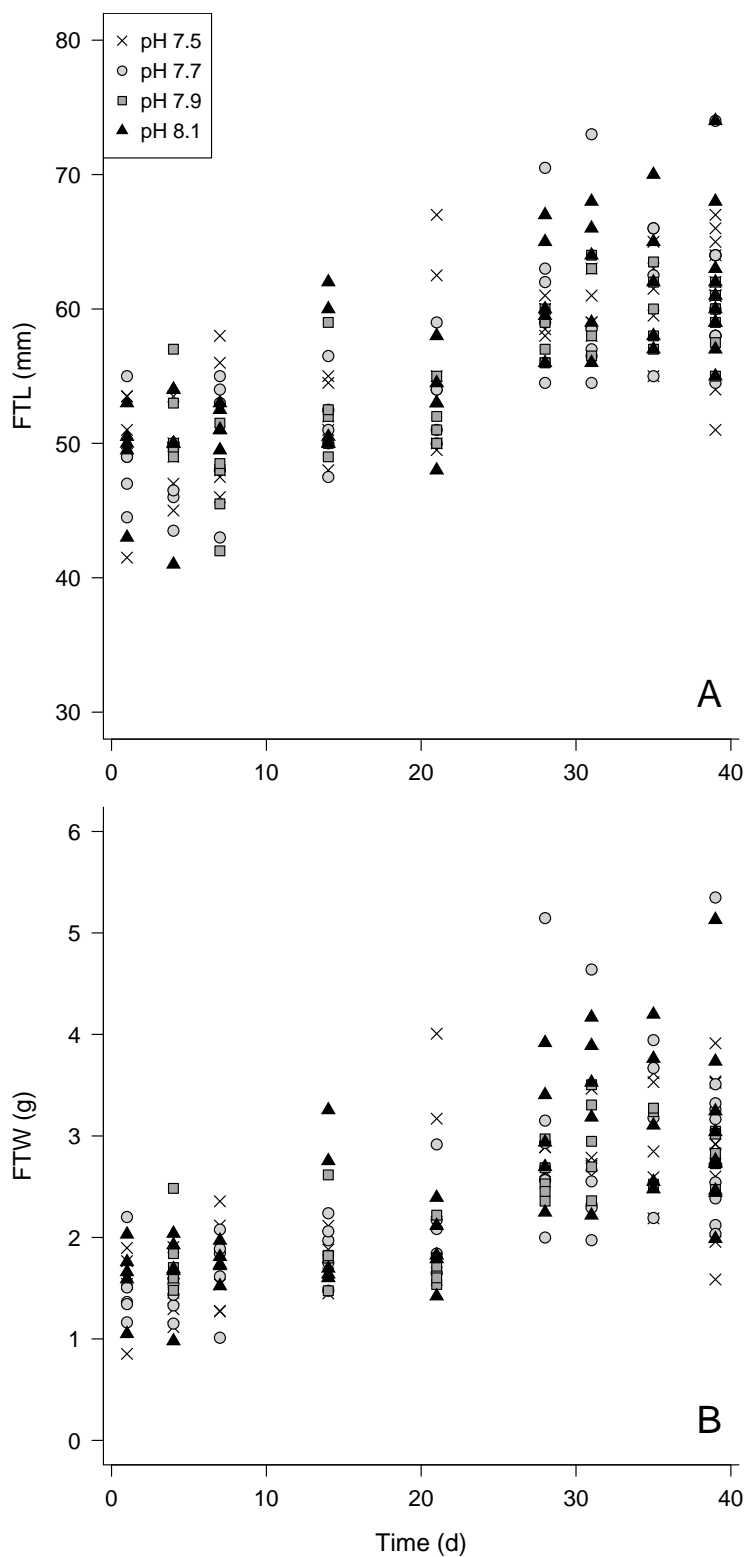
566 Model degree of freedom: 3 and 186

567 **Table 3.** *Sparus aurata*. Daily rate of calcium incorporation ($\text{mmol.g}_{\text{otolith dry weight}}^{-1}.\text{d}^{-1}$; mean \pm
 568 sd) in otolith and parameters of the multiple linear regressions with pH as continuous factor.

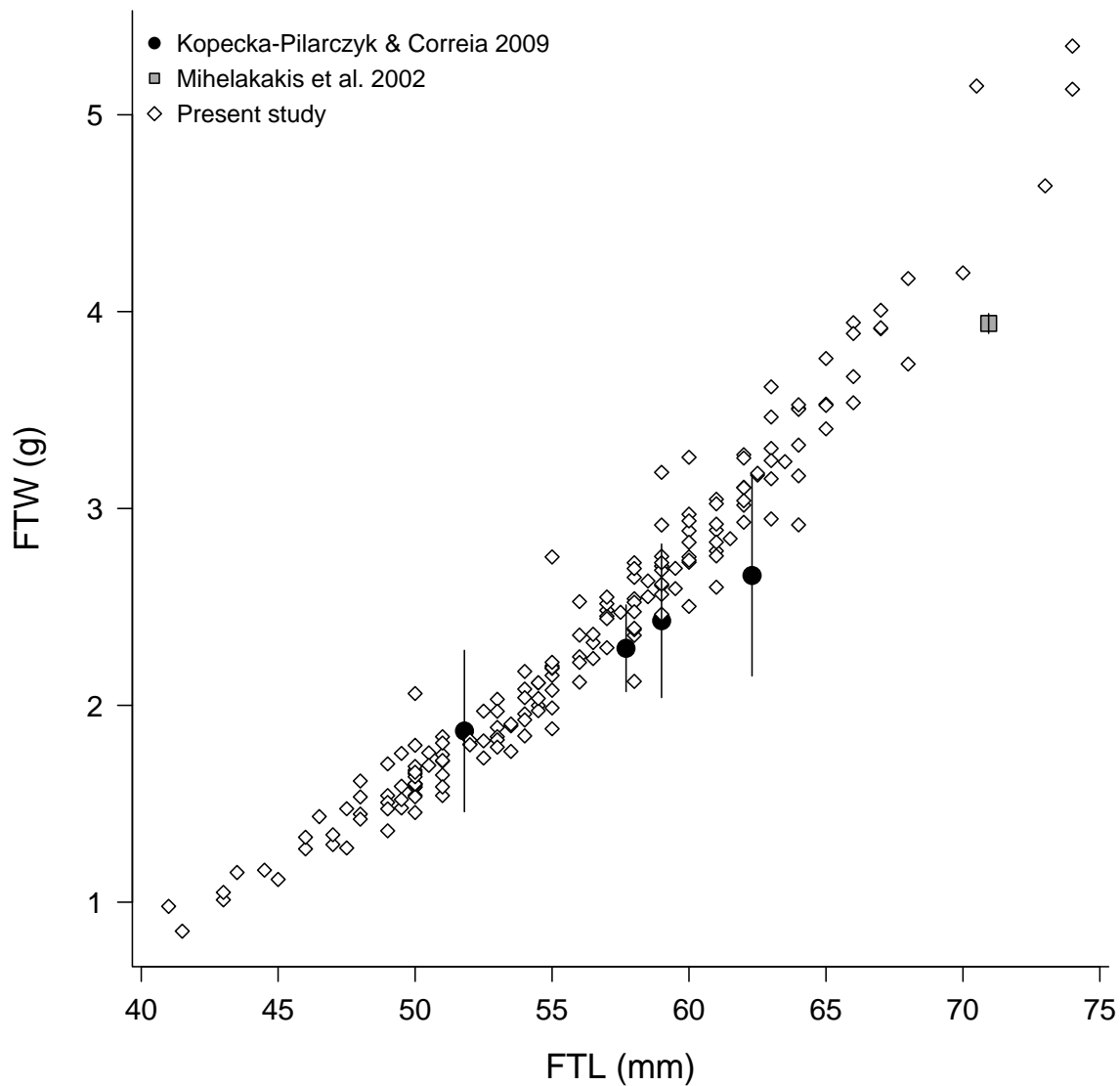
pH _T	N	Ca incorp. rate	R ²	Multiple linear regression		
				Parameters	Par. p-value	Model
pH 8.1	49	0.052 \pm 0.001	0.962	Time	< 0.001	F test: 1753
pH 7.9	48	0.060 \pm 0.002	0.969	pH	0.369	P < 0.001
pH 7.7	49	0.062 \pm 0.002	0.974	Time x pH	< 0.001	
pH 7.5	50	0.062 \pm 0.001	0.965			

569 R²: determination coefficient; Model degree of freedom : 3 and 187 df.

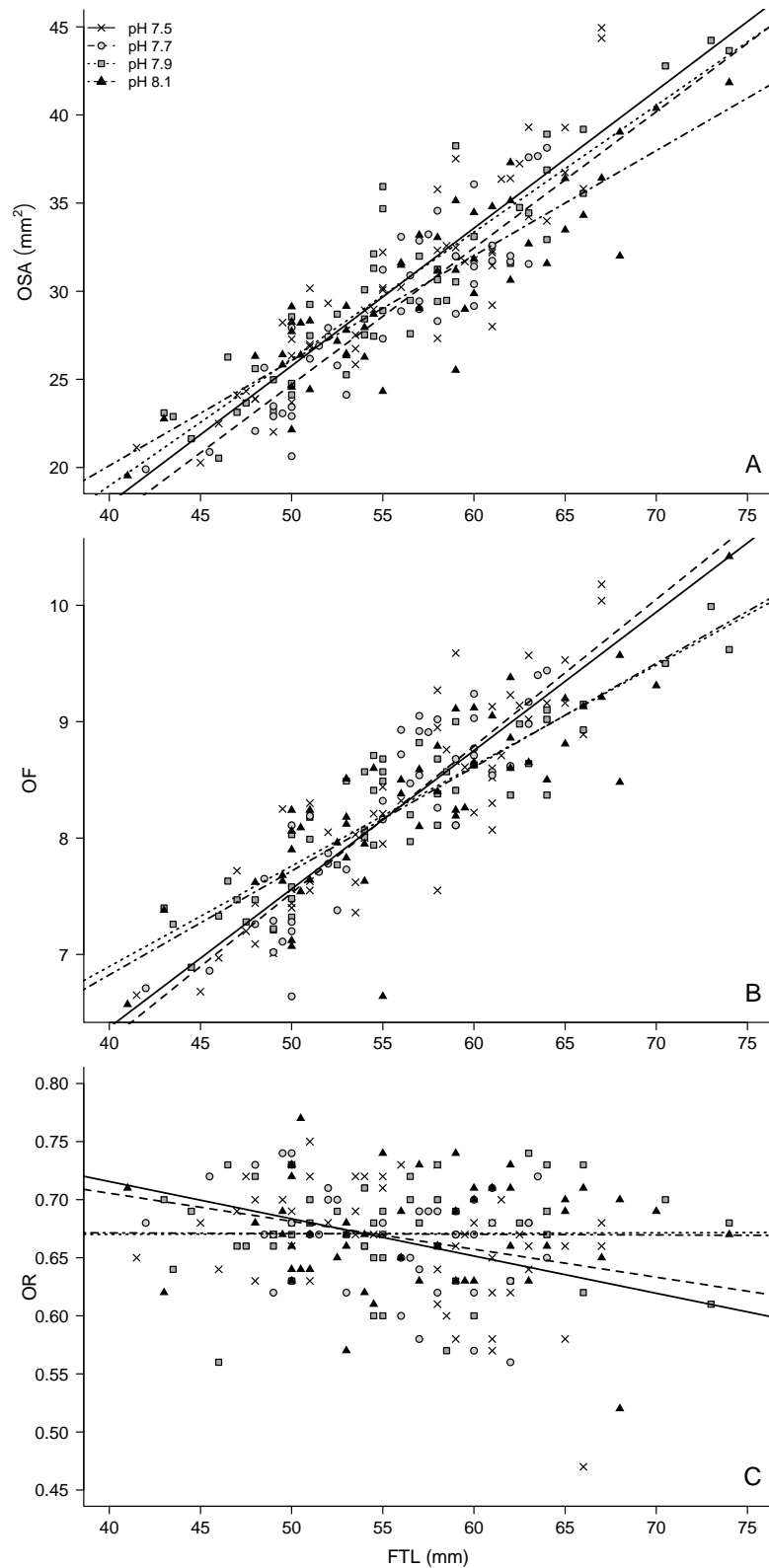
570 FIGURES



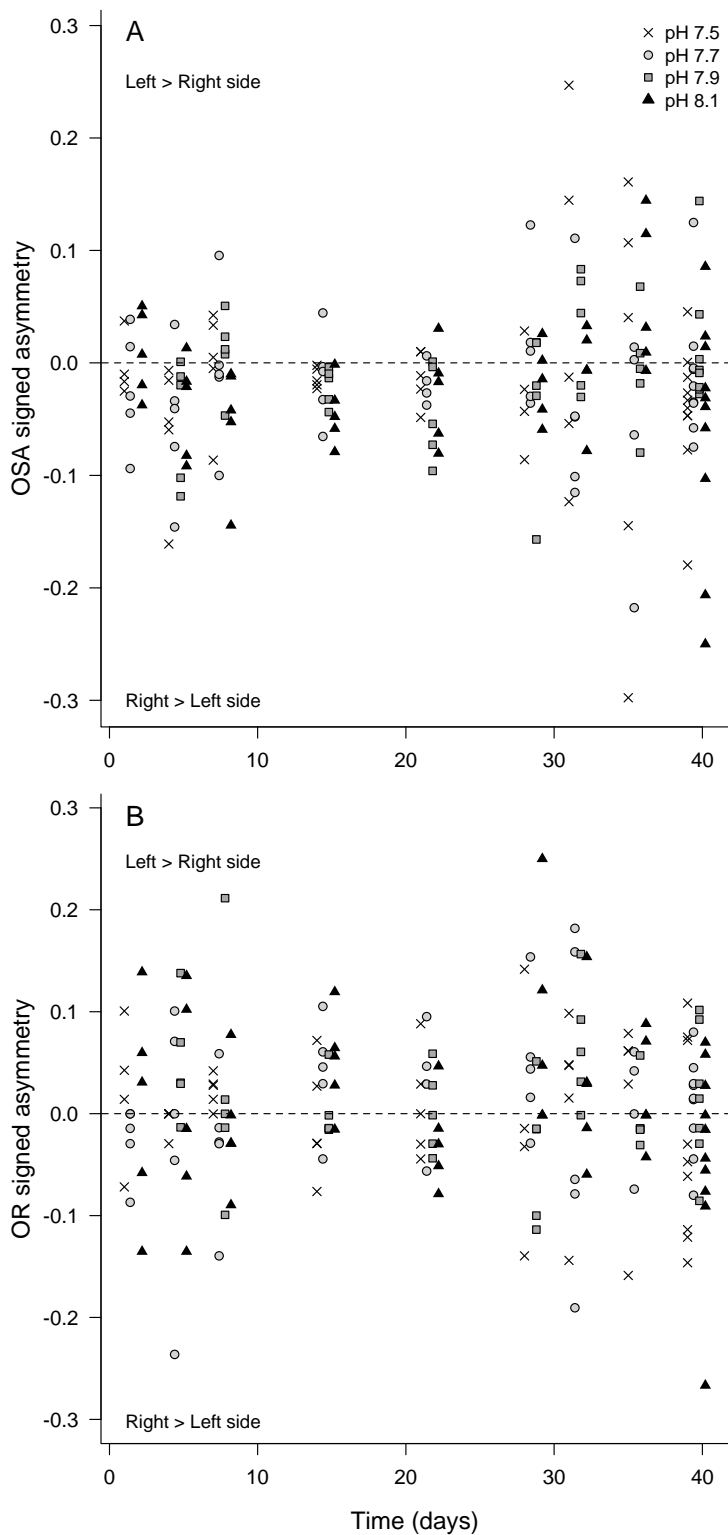
571
 572 **Figure 1.** *Sparus aurata*. (A) Fish total length (mm) versus time (days of experiment) in the
 573 different pH conditions. (B) Fish total weight (g) versus time (days of experiment) in the
 574 different pH conditions.



575
576 **Figure 2.** *Sparus aurata*. Fish total weight (g) versus fish total length (mm) recorded
577 individually in this study (all 4 pH conditions merged) and means (\pm sd for weight) reported by
578 Mihelakakis et al. (2002) and Kopecka-Pilarczyk and Correia (2009).



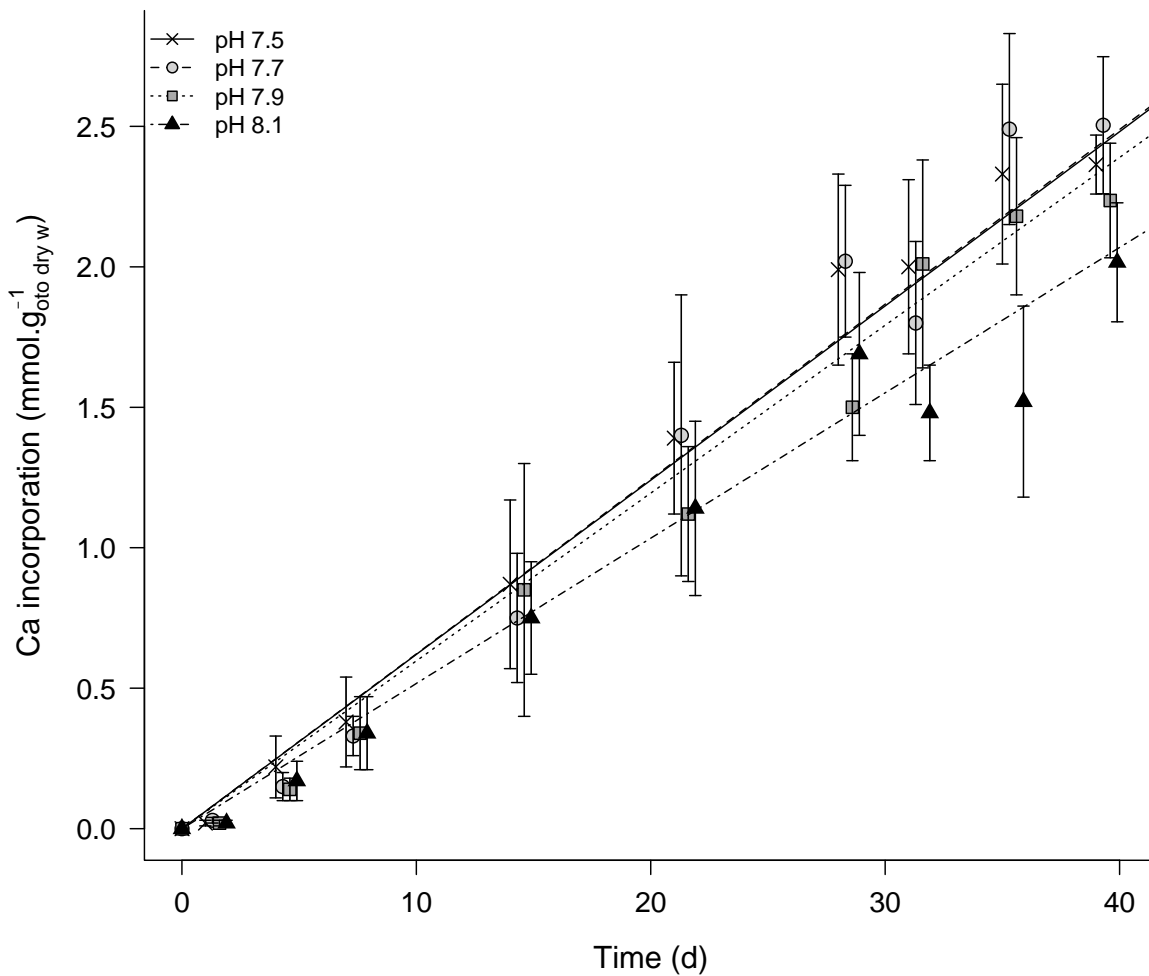
579
 580 **Figure 3.** *Sparus aurata*. (A) Allometric relationship between the otolith surface area (OSA, mm²) and the fish total length (FTL, mm), (B) Otolith Feret maximum diameter (OF) and (C)
 581 otolith roundness (OR) measured in juvenile seabreams raised during 40 d at four different pH_T treatments 7.5, 7.7, 7.9, and 8.1 (1 tank per treatment, see Table 2 for statistical significance). An
 582 otolith roundness value of 1 means a circular shape. For OR, only data recorded at pH 7.5 were
 583 significantly linearly distributed (full black line, $p = 0.0046$).
 584
 585



586

587 **Figure 4.** *Sparus aurata*. Asymmetry ($[\text{left} - \text{right}] / \text{mean}_{\text{left}, \text{right}}$) in (A) otolith surface area (OSA)
 588 and (B) otolith roundness (OR) between left and right sagitta of juveniles reared at 4 pH
 589 treatments 7.5, 7.7, 7.9, and 8.1 (1 tank per treatment) during 40 d. Dashed-line represents
 590 symmetry; offset in the x -axis was used to display the data per pH treatment.

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Figure 5. *Sparus aurata*. Incorporation of calcium ($\text{mmol.g}_{\text{otolith dry weight}}^{-1} \pm \text{sd}$) in sagittal otolith of juvenile seabreams reared at 4 pH treatments 7.5, 7.7, 7.9, and 8.1 (1 tank per treatment) during 40 d. Offset in the x -axis was used to display the data per pH treatment. See Table 3 for data and statistical comparisons. Rates of Ca incorporation calculated on pseudoreplicates at pH_T 8.1 are 18, 27 and 25% lower than rates at pH_T 7.9, 7.7 and 7.5, respectively.