Ocean acidification modulates the incorporation of radio-labeled heavy metals in the larvae

of the Mediterranean sea urchin Paracentrotus lividus

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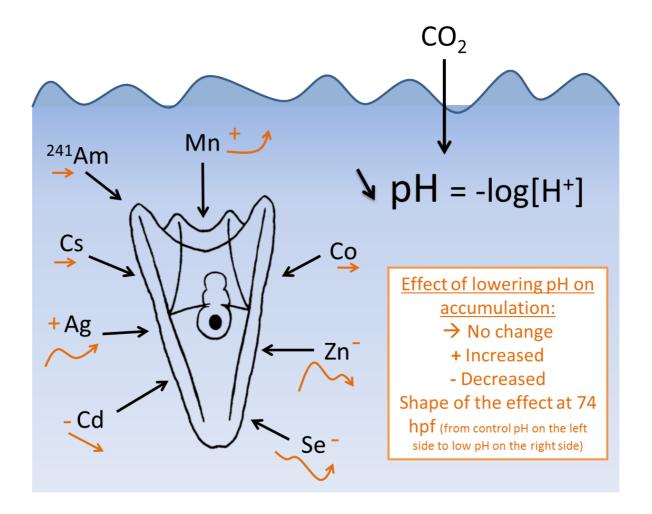
ABSTRACT

The marine organisms which inhabit the coastline are exposed to a number of anthropogenic pressures that may interact. For instance, the accumulation of toxic metals present in coastal waters is expected to be modified by ocean acidification through e.g. changes in physiological performance and/or elements availability. Changes in bioaccumulation due to lowering pH are likely to be differently affected depending on the nature (essential vs. non-essential) and speciation of each element. The Mediterranean is of high concern for possible cumulative effects due to strong human influences on the coastline.

The aim of this study was to determine the effect of ocean acidification (from pH 8.1 down to -1.0 pH units) on the incorporation kinetics of six trace metals (Mn, Co, Zn, Se, Ag, Cd, Cs) and one radionuclide (²⁴¹Am) in the larvae of an economically- and ecologically-relevant sea urchin of the Mediterranean coastline: *Paracentrotus lividus*. The radiolabelled metals and radionuclides added in trace concentrations allowed precise tracing of their incorporation in larvae during the first 74 hours of their development.

Independently of the expected indirect effect of pH on larval size/developmental rates, *Paracentrotus lividus* larvae exposed to decreasing pHs incorporated significantly more Mn and Ag and slightly less Cd. The incorporation of Co, Cs and ²⁴¹Am was unchanged, and Zn and Se exhibited complex incorporation behaviors. Studies such as this are necessary prerequisites to the implementation of metal toxicity mitigation policies for the future ocean.

+ GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



+ HIGHLIGHTS

- The radionuclide method allowed accurate tracing of the metal incorporation within this microscopic planktonic species.
- Metal incorporation in this sea urchin larvae is strongly correlated with the indirect delaying effect of seawater acidification on larval size.
- Independently of the size effect, acidification additionally directly affects the incorporation behavior of four metals (Mn, Ag, Se, Zn).
- The nature of the modulation is specific to each metallic element (see graphical abstract).
- The relationship between speciation, bioaccumulation and toxicity in the context of changing seawater pH requires more research.
- + **KEYWORDS:** Developmental biology, Bioaccumulation kinetics, Metals, Radionuclide, Pollution, CO₂, Ocean acidification

1. Introduction

The marine organisms which inhabit the coastline are exposed to a number of anthropogenic pressures. On a local scale, metallic trace elements – originating from activity occurring along river basins (e.g. mine discharge, agriculture, wastewater treatment) – are harmful contaminants of the coastal marine environments and of concern to humans for ocean exploitation (Förstner and Wittmann, 1981). The French Mediterranean coastline, which is strongly influenced by the discharges of the Rhône river that drains industrialized and urban basins, is particularly exposed to metal pollution (UNEP/MAP, 2013). Metals can be highly toxic at low levels, especially to early development stages of marine invertebrates, and they have long been shown to alter (for example) sea urchin gametogenesis, larval growth, morphological development (e.g. Cu: Bougis, 1965; Cd: Pagano et al., 1982 and Filosto et al., 2008; Mn: Pinsino et al., 2010) and biomineralization (reviewed by Matranga et al., 2011).

In parallel, the ocean is facing global changes, a consequence of the increase in anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) in the atmosphere (280 to 400 ppm between 1850 and 2013, Etheridge et al., 1996 and Scripps CO₂ Program). On top of a warming (average + 0.1°C per decade between 1970 and 2010, IPCC, 2013), the surface ocean waters also experience an acidification (average -0.1 pH units - i.e. 30% increase in acidity - between pre-industrial levels and 2000: Caldeira and Wickett, 2008, -0.0044 units per year in the northwestern Mediterranean: Flecha et al., 2015). This ocean acidification is projected to decrease the current average pH of the global oceans (≈ 8.1) by a further 0.3 to 0.4 pH units by the end of the 21st century (IPCC, 2013). Ocean acidification has been demonstrated to be a major threat for marine organisms, impacting their physiology (e.g. sea urchin larvae disrupted in their acid-base regulation: Stumpp et al., 2011 and feeding: Stumpp et al., 2013, increased metabolism: Dorey et al., 2013 and

modulated gene expression, in functions such as immunity: Runcie et al., 2017) as well as their fitness (e.g. negative effect on sea urchin larval growth: Dorey et al., 2013; Martin et al., 2011; Stumpp et al., 2011 and sea urchin gonadal growth: Siikavuopio et al., 2007; Stumpp et al., 2012b: exposure time≤56 days, but see Dupont et al., 2013: no difference after 16 months). Ocean acidification has also been demonstrated to modify larval behavior (e.g. settlement behavior of Bugula neritina: Pecquet et al., 2017) and cognitive performances (e.g. sensory capacities and spatial navigation in larvae of fish: Munday et al., 2009) and more largely interactions within communities (e.g. Asnaghi et al., 2013). Early life stages, often considered as bottlenecks for population dynamics, have however been shown to be more resistant than previously thought (Kroeker et al., 2013). For instance, sea urchin larvae are resistant to a seawater acidification down to 7.1, albeit with larval growth being generally reduced when pH is lowered (Paracentrotus lividus: Martin et al., 2011, Strongylocentrotus droebachiensis: Dorey et al., 2013). Overall, studies show that responses are however species- and stage-specific (Kroeker et al., 2013), with for instance the larvae of another echinoderm, Ophiotrix fragilis, experiencing 100% mortality at pH_{NBS} 7.9 (vs. 70% in control pH: Dupont et al., 2008). The resulting interactions of multiple stressors in the future ocean could lead to non-independent effects (e.g. Harley et al., 2006). The Mediterranean Sea is of high concern for possible cumulative effects (global change, over-fishing, pollution; UNEP/MAP, 2013). Although an important body of works demonstrated that increasing temperature arises metal toxicity (see review by Sokolova and Lannig, 2008) together with an elevation of the organism's metabolism and a modification of its physiology (e.g. feeding, osmoregulation), few studies focused on the effects of ocean acidification on the bioaccumulation and toxicity of metallic contaminants (see review Table 1). Yet, the changes of pH and seawater chemistry caused by increased CO₂ can

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modify the speciation of metals, because element's speciation is largely dependent on physicochemical parameters (salinity, pH, redox potential: Millero et al., 2009; Stockdale et al., 2016), and therefore their bioavailability for organisms. CO₂-driven acidification has been shown to modulate trace metal accumulation in both cephalopods early-life stages (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2011a, 2009) and the mantle cells of clams (Ivanina et al., 2013). A change in bioaccumulation efficiencies could lead to a change of metal toxicity. Additionally, pH can impact the organism's abilities to deal with metal bioaccumulation and toxicity, as both are likely to interfere with metabolism and more specifically ionoregulation activities (Pörtner et al., 2004; Stumpp et al., 2012a). While sea urchin larvae have been shown to be relatively tolerant to lowered seawater pH - even for values well below the average projections for 2100 -, the effects are strong at the sub-lethal level. Decreasing pH resulted in larval growth delay (but conserved calcification in the form of calcium accumulation and relative arm length: Martin et al., 2011), increased metabolism (e.g. respiration rates increased by 9% per 0.1 pH unit decrease in Dorey et al., 2013) and changes in the expression of traits relating to cell division, metabolism and immune activity (pH 7.7: Runcie et al., 2017). These resulting sub-lethal changes could possibly be linked to the increase in energy demand (Stumpp et al., 2011) in order to maintain intracellular medium, via the use of energy-demanding membrane pumps (Stumpp et al., 2012a). Within these processes, ionic pumps such as -ATPase pumps play a key role by creating electrochemical gradients used by secondary active transporters (Stumpp and Hu, 2017). Yet, in marine organisms, these ion channels represent a major pathway for the entrance of metallic positively-charged ions (e.g. fish: Webb and Wood, 2000). Ocean acidification is therefore likely to increase metal pollutant bioaccumulation in organisms possessing acid-base regulation systems such as the sea urchin larvae. More information on the interactions between

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pH and metal toxicity is thus required to improve predictive mathematical models and coastal management (Harley et al., 2006).

The aim of this study was to determine the effect of ocean acidification on the incorporation kinetics of six trace metals and one radionuclide (Mn, Co, Zn, Se, Ag, Cd, Cs, ²⁴¹Am) in an economically- and ecologically-relevant sea urchin of the Mediterranean coastline: P. lividus. These elements were chosen for their essential (e.g. Mn, Co, Se and Zn function as catalyst or activators of enzymatic reactions) and non-essential characters (e.g. Ag, Cd and ²⁴¹Am), their toxicity ("very toxic and relatively accessible" for Co, Se, Zn, Ag and Cd according to Förstner and Wittmann, 1981) and their occurrence in the coastal areas (e.g. ²⁴¹Am is a toxic and radioactive isotope associated with nuclear waste). The radiolabelled metals and radionuclide added in trace concentrations allowed precise tracing of their incorporation in larvae exposed to six different pH conditions (from pH_T 8.1 down to -1.0 pH units) during the first 74 hours of development. We expected to observe decreased accumulation of radionuclides when pH was lowered due to the impaired larval developmental rates and we wished to detangle the more direct effects of pH on bioaccumulation due to e.g. changes in metal speciation, the larval physiology/metabolism and/or impairment of detoxification processes. We also expected differences in how metals would react to pH changes to be based on the nature of the metals (essential vs. non-essential) and their major form in the seawater (e.g. chloride-dominated vs. free form) and hence their expected speciation changes.

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2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Biological material, spawning and experimental conditions

In March and April 2009, specimens of adult sea urchin (P. lividus) were collected by divers from subtidal rocky shores (≈10m deep) in the Bay of Villefranche-sur-mer (NW Mediterranean coastline, France). This period corresponds to a few months prior to natural spawning in this area (mid-May to July, Boudouresque and Verlague, 2001). The adults were maintained in a flow of unfiltered natural seawater (depth=10m, salinity=38) in the Laboratoire d'Océanographie de Villefranche and fed with Posidonia oceanica until fertilization (end of April). Three females and one male were opened around the peristome to retrieve gametes from the ripe gonads. Eggs were rinsed three times with filtered seawater (FSW; 0.22 µm, salinity=38) and pooled together. Sperm was collected dry using a Pasteur pipette and stored at 4°C in a small tube before use. Within an hour after collection the gametes were transferred to the Radioecology Laboratory (Environment Laboratories of the International Atomic Energy Agency, Monaco) premises for fertilization. A concentrated egg suspension (≈ 4 000 000 eggs) was transferred to six 1-l beakers filled with FSW (20°C) and diluted sperm (1:50 ratio in FSW) was added to the egg suspension. Eggs were gently agitated for 15 min to optimize fertilization and then distributed to six replicates 4.5-1 glass beakers per pH level (N=36 beakers) filled with radiolabeled FSW (seven radionucleids, detailed below). Embryos (start density of ca. 130 per ml) were grown in aerated FSW at their respective pH levels (pH_T: 7.1, 7.3, 7.5, 7.7, 7.9, 8.1; Table 2).

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Natural variability in pH has been described to be broad in certain coastal areas (e.g. Thomsen et al., 2010) and the shift of the pH range as a whole in the future (e.g. Hauri et al., 2012) is highlighted as an important reason to investigate of wide ranges of pH (ΔpH down to -1.0 unit; e.g. Dorey et al., 2013). Yearly surface pH variations are much tamer near our site, with extreme pH values recorded ranging from 7.95 to 8.20 (DYFAMED station in the Ligurian Sea,

50 km from the coast, monthly data from 1995-2011: Geri et al., 2014, and SOMLIT Villefranche-sur-Mer Station, 500 m from the shore, April-December 2016, n=37: http://somlit-db.epoc.u-bordeaux1.fr/bdd.php) as well as in general in the northwestern Mediterranean Sea (e.g. $pH_T = 7.893 \pm 0.007$ near the Strait of Gibraltar in Aug 2012-June 2015, n=15937, Flecha et al., 2015). This small pH seasonal variation window has been consistently shifting at a rate of -0.0044 units per year (Flecha et al., 2015). Nevertheless, a wide pH range approach also allows for a more precise understanding of the shape and intensity of the biological response to ocean acidification, with a focus in this study on the metal bioaccumulation efficiency in sea urchin early life stages.

2.2 Experimental set-up and carbonate chemistry

Temperature (≈ 20 °C) was controlled to within ± 0.5 °C in the 300-1 bath surrounding the culture beakers (300W submersible heater coupled to a temperature controller: IKS, Karlsbad, Germany). Seawater pH was maintained to the desired levels within each culture beaker within ± 0.05 pH units using a continuous pH-stat system (IKS) that controlled the addition of CO₂ into the beakers (see Martin *et al.*, 2011 for detailed description). The pH values of the pH-stat system were adjusted from the measurements of pH on the total scale (pH_T) in each beaker using a pH-meter (Metrohm 826 pH mobile, Metrohm, Herisau, Switzerland) calibrated using TRIS (Tris/HCl) and AMP (2-aminopyridine/HCl) buffer solutions with a salinity of 38. In order to avoid contamination of the lab equipment used for alkalinity determination with radioactive agents, total alkalinity (TA) was assessed potentiometrically in seawater from radiotracer-free culture beakers maintained in the same pH/temperature conditions and done in parallel in spring 2009 (see below in 2.4; detailed description in Martin et al. 2011). The carbonate system parameters (pCO₂, Ω a and Ω c) were calculated from these measurements using the R package

seacarb (Lavigne and Gattuso, 2011) with the dissociation constants from Mehrbach et al. (1973) as refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987).

2.3 Radiolabelling and radioactivity analyses

Radiotracers were purchased from Amersham, UK (¹⁰⁹Cd), Polatom, Poland (^{110m}Ag, ¹³⁴Cs, ⁷⁵Se), Cyclotron, Russia (⁶⁵Zn), and Isotope Product Laboratory, USA (²⁴¹Am, ⁶⁰Co, ⁵⁴Mn). For determination of larval metal uptake, eggs were incubated in seawater labeled with dissolved ⁵⁴Mn (1 kBq I⁻¹ as ⁵⁴MnCl₂), ⁶⁰Co (1 kBq I⁻¹ as ⁶⁰CoCl₂), ⁶⁵Zn (1 kBq I⁻¹ as ⁶⁵ZnCl₂), ⁷⁵Se (1 kBq I⁻¹ as Na₂⁷⁵SeO3), ¹⁰⁹Cd (1 kBq I⁻¹ as ¹⁰⁹CdCl₂), ^{110m}Ag (1 kBq I⁻¹ as ^{110m}AgNO₃), ¹³⁴Cs (1 kBq I⁻¹ as ¹³⁴CsCl), and ²⁴¹Am (0.35 kBq I⁻¹ as ²⁴¹AmNO₃) by spiking typically 5 to 10 µl of stock solutions without affecting the tank seawater pH. These concentrations correspond to the addition of 21, 3, 133, 5, 6, and 0.7 ng I⁻¹ of Ag, Am, Cs, Co, Se and Zn stable element respectively. While the specific activities of ¹⁰⁹Cd and ⁵⁴Mn sources were not available from the providers, the use of these radionuclides usually results in the addition of ng I⁻¹of metal or less (see Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2011b), which correspond to environmentally-realistic trace metal concentrations (Bruland and Lohan, 2003; Yoon et al., 1999). This allows us to add simultaneously the eight radiotracers in each experimental microcosm, while being able to consider that the metals do not interact in this mixture at these concentrations.

At 28, 52 and 74 hpf (hours post-fertilization; i.e. until four-arm pluteus stage), culture samples of 300 to 1000 ml (\approx 10300 to 65500 individuals depending on the culture density) were collected in triplicates in each pH treatment for radioactivity counting. Larvae were collected on 20- μ m polycarbonate membranes, re-suspended and rinsed three times in radiotracer-free FSW. The filters with embryos or larvae were then radio-counted (γ -spectrometry system consisting of

Germanium detectors; see e.g. Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2012). Sub-samples of 150 ml of the remaining filtered seawater were sampled and radio-counted in order to measure the radiotracer concentrations in the seawater at sampling time. In the culture beakers, the sampled seawater volume was replaced with pH-equilibrated FSW and spiked with adjusted concentrations of radiotracers to maintain activities as constant as possible. Measured concentrations of radiotracers in the seawater varied by 5.9 ± 11.5 % of the desired value all along the experiment (N=30 for each metal).

During the experiment, larval density was followed every day for the first 74 hpf (count at the binocular microscope of six replicates of 1 or 2 ml - depending on larval density - of seawater for every pH treatment at 22, 47 and 74 hpf). Larval density decreased from 100-130 ind.ml⁻¹ at 22 hpf to 10-25 ind.ml⁻¹ at 74 hpf. Total larval mortality (%) was calculated from the difference between initial (22 hpf) and final (74 hpf) larval density corrected for consecutive seawater dilutions (**Table 3**).

2.4 Data treatment and statistical analyses

The accumulation of metals and radionuclide in sea urchin larvae was expressed as change of concentration factor (CF; Bq larvae⁻¹), here defined as the radiotracer activities measured in the larval sample divided by the number of larvae per sample (estimated from larval density) and normalized by the time-integrated activity in the seawater over time. In order to limit total radiation exposure for experimental workers and waste management cost, only one 4.5-1 tank was dedicated to each pH condition. Hence, triplicates of sampled larvae are considered as technical replicates according to Hurlbert (1984) and the bioaccumulation of radiotracers in

larvae has been tested considering the measured pH_T as a continuous covariate instead (Havenhand et al., 2010).

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Larval body lengths (L, µm) at each sampling times (**Table 3**) were back-calculated from the growth rates measured in the same pH conditions during a parallel experiment (without radionuclides; spring 2009: Martin et al., 2011). This experiment was running at the same time as the present experiment and was identical (set-up: N=36 4.5-1 glass beakers, identical pool of embryos, pH, temperature and seawater origin) to the exception of the sampling times (±1h) and the initial density that was ca. 4 times lower at the start (32-35 embryos per ml vs. 130 per ml here). Although we are aware of the possible confounding effect this could have on growth rates, this difference was quickly reduced due to the large sampling required in the radio-labeled experiment (10 individuals per ml at 73h vs. 10-25 individuals per ml at 74h in the experiment presented here). To confirm the relationships between metal accumulation and larval size, we tested the fit of linear (CF = $a \times L + b$) and logarithmic models (CF = $a \times log(L) + b$). The model comparison confirmed linear model to consistently have higher AIC (Akaike Information Criterion). Because of the well-documented developmental delay which sea urchin larvae encounter in acidified conditions (Dorey et al., 2013; Martin et al., 2011; Stumpp et al., 2011), larval body length was used instead of time during the analyses in order to avoid any growthdependent effect. Since CF and larval size (L) were significantly linearly correlated, we therefore performed statistical analyses on the CF normalized by larval size (CF/L: Bq larvae-1 µm-1).

In order to assess the effect of pH on the bioaccumulation of metals, we tested the effect of two continuous variables (mean pH_T and Time) on the CF normalized by larval size (CF/L; Bq larvae⁻¹ µm⁻¹) for each metal using generalized linear model analyses. We then fitted generalized additive models (gam, R package *mgcv*) to the CF/L at the final time-point (74 hpf) to unravel the

different shapes of the relationships between each metal accumulation and pH. The basis dimensions for smooths were chosen visually and using the available function *gam.check* in the mgcv package. All the statistical analyses were performed using the R software (R Core Team, 2009), with a significance level of α =0.05. Results are expressed as mean \pm SD.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Culture conditions

The mean pH_T values, as well as the calculated carbonate chemistry parameters, are shown in **Table 2**. Mean temperature was 20.13 ± 0.34 °C (N=282). The pH_T values in every treatment were significantly different from each other (1-way ANOVA with Welch correction: p<0.0001; F=30946 and df=5, followed by pairwise t-test with Holm adjustment: p<0.0001). Because it was not possible to measure TA in radiolabelled samples, TA was measured in a similar experiment where the mean TA averaged between 2550 and 2565 µmol.kg⁻¹ depending on the culture conditions (changes of 5 to 35µmol.kg⁻¹ from 0 to 73 hpf in each treatment, see Martin *et al.*, 2011). The mean TA (≈2558 mol.kg⁻¹) was therefore used for the carbonate chemistry calculations presented here. pCO_2 values ranged from 335 ± 20 µatm in the 8.1 pH condition to 4537 ± 438 µatm in the lowest-pH condition. Seawater was under-saturated in the lowest-pH treatment (pH_T=7.12) for both calcite and aragonite and only in the pH_T=7.32 treatment with respect to aragonite.

Larval densities were followed every day in each beaker (n=6 replicates per day) and decreased with time due to seawater dilution (**Table 3**: 130 to 10 larvae.ml⁻¹). Larval mortality (%) was calculated from the difference between the expected larval density at 74 hpf taking into

account dilutions (i.e. $28.8 \text{ larvae.ml}^{-1}$) and the measured density in each pH treatment at 74 hpf. Larval mortality was generally low (12-22%), except for pH_T=7.12 where it reached 64% mortality in three days (**Table 3**).

3.2 Metal incorporation in larvae

Concentration factors (CF) increased with time for all the metals except Cs (**Fig. 1A**), as metals accumulated in the body of larvae in the first 74 hpf. Accordingly, the presence of Cs in the larval bodies was always relatively small (CF= $6.8\ 10^{-6} \pm 6.5\ 10^{-6}$ Bq larvae⁻¹). Between 28 and 74 hpf, the CF increased on average by ~10-fold for Mn, Se and Am (respectively by 9.1, 13.1 and 12.2 times) and by ~5-fold for the other four metals (4.8 times for Co, 5.3 times for Zn, 6.4 times for Cd and 4.8 times for Ag).

Seventy-four hours after fertilization, the larvae in the lowest pH treatment were ~40% smaller than the larvae grown at pH_T 8.1 (**Table 2**, also see Martin et al. (2011) for complete description of the results). Because the CF was strongly correlated with larval size (L) for all metals but Cs (**Fig. 1B**: CF=a x L + b), we analyzed the effect of time and average pH_T on the CF standardized by larval body length (CF/L, Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹) using generalized linear models (**Table 4**). Taking into account the three time points, the pH_T significantly affected the CF/L of the following three metals: Se, Cd and Ag. This analysis also confirmed that time had a significant effect on the standardized accumulation of all metals except for Cs (**Table 4**).

In order to understand how average pH_T shaped the incorporation of metals in the larvae, we fitted generalized additive models to the CF/L data on 74 hpf (**Fig. 2**; the statistical results are detailed in **Table 5**). At this time-point, neither Co, Cs nor Am accumulations were significantly affected by pH_T . However, pH_T had a significant effect on the accumulation Se, Cd and Ag (the

same metals found significantly-affected in the generalized linear models analysis: **Table 4** and **5**), and two other additional metals: Mn and Zn (**Table 5**). The accumulation (CF/L) significantly decreased when pH_T was lowered for three metals: Zn, Se and Cd, while it was significantly increased in Mn and Ag (**Table 5**). These trends were also observed at 24 and 58 hpf (data not shown).

The accumulation of Cd in larval tissues decreased linearly with lowering pH_T (deviance explained by the model: D=25%; **Fig. 2** and **Table 5**): the larval content by size-unit was halved in the 7.1 pH treatment compared to pH 8.1 (CF/L=0.66.10⁻⁶ \pm 0.58.10⁻⁶ vs. 1.2.10⁻⁶ \pm 0.06.10⁻⁶ Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹ respectively). The larval content of Zn linearly decreased from pH 7.9 to 7.1 (D=73%: CF/L= $5.0.10^{-6} \pm 0.2.10^{-6}$ to $3.8.10^{-6} \pm 0.6.10^{-6}$ Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹ respectively, i.e. -24%; **Fig. 2** and **Table 5**) but the larval content at the 7.1 pH treatment was comparable to that of the pH 8.1 (CF/L= $3.7.10^{-6} \pm 0.2.10^{-6}$ Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹). Similarly, the larval content of Se at the 7.1 pH treatment was comparable to that of pH 8.1 (CF/L= $7.5.10^{-7} \pm 2.8.10^{-7}$ and $8.8.10^{-7} \pm 1.6.10^{-7}$ Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹ respectively) while the larval content linearly decreased by more than twice compared to pH 8.1 for the 7.3 pH treatment (CF/L= $2.6.10^{-7} \pm 0.8.10^{-7}$ Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹; D=66%; **Fig. 2** and **Table 5**). The differences observed could not be attributable to a change in larval size as the analyses were made on size-standardized CF.

The accumulation of Ag in larval tissues significantly (p=0.037; **Fig. 2** and **Table 5**) and gradually increased with lowering pH_T (D=67%): the larval content (CF/L) was more than 3.5 times higher in the 7.1 pH treatment than at pH 8.1 (CF/L=6.5.10⁻⁶ \pm 1.9.10⁻⁶ vs. 1.8.10⁻⁶ \pm 0.3.10⁻⁶ Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹ respectively). The accumulation of Mn in larval tissues significantly (p=0.033; **Fig. 2** and **Table 5**) increased with lowering pH_T (D=67%) although the main difference was visible for the 7.1 pH treatment where the larval content was ~2 times higher than

271 in the rest of the treatments (CF/L= $4.3.10^{-6} \pm 1.7.10^{-6}$ for 7.1 while other ranged from $1.5.10^{-6} \pm 0.4.10^{-6}$ to $1.9.10^{-6} \pm 0.3.10^{-6}$ Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹).

4. Discussion

4.1 Ocean acidification modulates the incorporation of radio-labeled heavy metals in sea urchin larvae

In this study, we observed that a decrease in seawater pH can alter the incorporation of essential and non-essential elements. A known effect of pH is the slowing down of developmental rates in sea urchin larvae, and here we standardized incorporation by size in order to better focus on the direct effects of pH on metal incorporation. *Paracentrotus lividus* larvae exposed to decreasing pHs from 8.1 to 7.1 for 74 hpf incorporated significantly more Mn (2.5 fold increase in concentration at 7.1 compared to the other pHs), significantly more Ag (3.7 fold increase in concentration for a pH unit decrease) and slightly less Cd (1.9 fold decrease for a pH unit decrease to non-significant if one zero data point is taken out). Zn and Se exhibited complex incorporation behavior with pH: an initial increase for Zn (1.35 fold from pH 8.1 to 7.9) followed by a gradual decrease back to the initial (pH 8.1) values at pH 7.1, while Se concentration gradually decreased by 3.4 fold until pH 7.3 to sharply rise back nearly to the initial (pH 8.1) concentrations at pH 7.1. The incorporation of Co, Cs and ²⁴¹Am was unchanged, partly owing to low concentration detected in the larvae for e.g. Cs.

Remarkably, there was no obvious trend linked to the nature of the elements (essential vs. non-essential): lowering pH significantly increased the concentration of Ag and Mn in sea urchin larvae but slightly decreased Cd when Zn and Se concentration had opposite behaviors. There

was no evident impact on the other elements tested (Co, ²⁴¹Am, Cs). The bioaccumulation behaviors observed did also not appear obviously linked to the type of the element form (whether chloride-dominated for Cd and Ag, oxidized state for Se or mostly found as free form for Cs, Co, Zn, Mn) and the consequent speciation changes. For instance, Ag and Cd have similar speciation changes with lowering pH, resulting in a very little increase in the toxic form due to pH (Cd²⁺ represents 20.1% of the Cd forms at pH 8.1 and 20.2% at pH 7.4 in the model by Millero et al., 2009), but end up having different bioaccumulation reactions to pH. It is thus unlikely that the observed disturbances in elemental bioaccumulation with pH are only due to speciation changes or to increased metabolism (increased incorporation) and these disturbances must be specific to each metal and their entrance pathways and mechanisms.

4.2 The nature of the modulation is specific to each metallic element

Silver is toxic at low levels for sea urchin larvae (EC₅₀ of 40-85 μg l⁻¹ for *P. lividus*, Warnau et al., 1996). Here, ^{110m}Ag was taken up at higher concentrations when pH was lowered in the tissues of the sea urchin larvae. This observation is consistent with previous observations of increased Ag accumulation with lowering pH in whole eggs and newly hatched juveniles of cephalopods (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2011a, 2009). Although reasons specific to the embryonic development of the studied cephalopods had been discussed (peri-vitellin fluid properties affecting the specificity of Ag speciation and availability and higher metal translocation from the eggshell to the embryo), this study shows that increased Ag incorporation with lower pH was also visible in animals with a different life history. Silver is thought to enter marine invertebrates via Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase pumps (e.g. shrimp, sea hare, urchin: Bianchini et al., 2005). These pumps are likely to be more active in the sea urchin larvae exposed to acidified seawater as a way to maintain internal stasis (Stumpp and Hu, 2017). Therefore, this strengthen the hypothesis that the

increase in Ag incorporation at low pH is driven by increased activities in ionic regulatory mechanisms (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2011a): an increased metabolism could consequently increase the transport of Ag into the cells.

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Cadmium has no known biological role, it is highly toxic to sea urchin larvae and has been effectively used as an inducer of skeleton malformation (Matranga et al., 2011). It also induces the expression of stress proteins (Roccheri et al., 2004), methallothionein genes (Russo et al., 2003) and even apoptosis (Filosto et al., 2008). Even 15 hours after Cd removal from the culture, negative effects can persist (Roccheri et al., 2004). In our study, ¹⁰⁹Cd uptake did not seem to be strongly affected by pH (except from one point at 7.1), which is in accordance with the absence of strong speciation changes for this element. Cadmium is thought to enter the cell membrane in the form of Cd²⁺ passively via calcium channels (Rainbow and Black, 2005), and to mimic Ca²⁺ behavior. Accordingly to the behavior of Cd observed in our study (no effect of pH), Martin et al. (2011) found no effect of pH on the accumulation of ⁴⁵Ca in the larvae. However, Cd uptake has been shown to be either decreased with lowering pH (isolated clam cells: Ivanina et al., 2013; cephalopods: Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2011, 2009; phyoplankton: Xu et al., 2012), increased (bivalves: Shi et al., 2016) or to remain unaffected by pH (bivalves: Götze et al., 2014). The hypothesis that the lowered Cd accumulation in acidified water is only due to reduced metabolism in both clam cells and squid embryos does not corroborate our observations. However, one plausible mechanism for limited Cd incorporation at lower pH, even with the increased metabolic rates for sea urchin larvae, could be that there is a strong competition for binding sites with increased H⁺ ion concentration in low pH as suggested by Pascal et al. (2010). Ivanina et al. (2013) also discuss possibly strong interactions between Cd accumulation in the cells and other essential metals (Zn), which may increase toxicity by replacement on the binding sites in case Cd pollution is present in the extra-cellular medium.

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Zinc is an essential element to normal cellular function, as it acts as an enzyme co-factor for e.g. DNA and RNA-polymerase or carbonic anhydrase. However, zinc contamination of the environment from anthropogenic sources (e.g. discharges of mining products and wastes, use of fertilizers and wood preservatives: ATSDR, 2013), has been associated with several toxic effects. In sea urchin larvae, this metal has been shown to induce strong morphological abnormalities with delayed/blocked development at the blastula stage, exogastrula, spaceship Apollo-like gastrula, radicalized pluteus (Kobayashi and Okamura, 2004; Radenac et al., 2001). Ocean acidification is expected to increase the relative concentration of dissolved Zn²⁺ from 80% at pH_T of 8.1 to 95% at pH_T 7.4. Zn bioaccumulation was lowered by ~1.5 fold in coral tissues when pH decreased (pH_T 7.5 and 7.8 vs. 8.1) and in coral skeleton (pH_T 7.5 vs. 7.8 and 8.1; Houlbrèque et al., 2011). On the contrary, here we observed an initial increase (x1.3) for Zn in the first 0.2 pH unit decrease followed by a gradual decrease back to the initial (pH 8.1) values at pH 7.1. A similar bioaccumulation behavior (maximum CF found at pH_T 7.85 vs. pH_T 8.1 and 7.60) was found for cuttlefish newly hatched juveniles (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2009) and squid paralarvae (Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2011a). As previously proposed, this bell-like behavior may be linked to the complex interactions between the requirement to maintain acid-base balance and the function of Zn as a co-factor of carbonic anhydrase, an enzyme involved in the skeletogenesis but also in the regulation of acid-base balance (see further details in Karakostis et al., 2016) and, in particular, for its putative role in proton excretion in the stomach of sea urchin larvae (Stumpp and Hu, 2017). Seawater acidification might therefore enhance carbonic anhydrase synthesis and consequently, Zn requirement in the tissues in the first acidification step. The decrease in Zn

accumulation at even lower pHs (\leq 7.7) might be due to an increased competition with protons for the cells binding sites, which might limit Zn cation incorporation.

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Selenium displayed the same kind of trends with a decreased accumulation with lowered pH, except at the extreme value of pH 7.1, suggesting again a competition between protons and Se free form ion. To date, little information on the mechanisms involved in dissolved Se uptake in marine animals is available to link physiological responses of sea urchin larvae to Se bioaccumulation processes. It is noteworthy that the accumulation values observed for Se compared to the other trace elements are relatively low which is congruent with the fact that Se is known to be mainly accumulated from the trophic route (Sandholm et al., 1973). Selenium plays an essential role as a co-factor for the reduction of anti-oxidant enzymes, especially in marine organisms. It is mostly found in the water under its oxidized state (SeO₄²⁻ or SeO₃⁻), which presumes that it is little affected by CO₂-driven seawater acidification (Millero et al., 2009). It enters the water from surface runoff, drainage, coal mining, treatment plants and historically oil refineries with concentrations in polluted effluents that can reach 0.25 mg l⁻¹ (average seawater concentration: 0.09 µg 1-1; ATSDR, 2003). Selenium toxicity to sea urchin has been seldom studied, to our knowledge; only one study found a significant effect of Se on larval abnormality (EC₅₀ of 26 µg l⁻¹ in plutei of *Diadema antillarum*; Bielmyer et al., 2005) and only a single study investigated the effect of pH on its bioaccumulation (undetected in cuttlefish newly hatched juveniles; Lacoue-Labarthe et al., 2012).

Finally, manganese is an essential element which is involved in enzyme activation and several regulatory functions such as e.g. bone mineralization, energetic metabolism or immunological and nervous system activities (see review by Pinsino et al., 2012). It is however an emerging pollutant in the marine environment which is present in several human-made waste

(e.g. metallic and chemical products, sewage) and it is a known neurotoxin in humans. In water, it is principally found as Mn^{2+} with a slight increase in the toxic form presence with decreasing pH (97.3% at pH 8.1 to 99.05% at pH 7.4: Millero et al., 2009). Extensive work on *P. lividus* larvae (Pinsino et al., 2014, 2011, 2010) demonstrated that, although high levels of Mn did not create lethal effects, Mn accumulated in the cells with time and led to strong sub-lethal effects. For instance, the authors observed that Mn exposure disturbed calcium uptake and increased morphological abnormalities (at a concentration of 61.6 mg l⁻¹, Mn prevented skeletal growth and modified gene expression linked to skeletogenesis), and also increased heat-shock protein expression. In this study, we observed that lowering pH increased Mn bioaccumulation in tissues, but this was mostly due to an increase at pH_T 7.1. Until this extreme pH value, the absence of any change in Mn bioaccumulation remain consistent with the quasi-stable concentration of the free form ion, suggesting that responses of sea urchin larvae to decreasing pH do not affect its Mn metabolism. At pH_T 7.1, it is difficult to interpret the sudden increase since larvae are usually highly abnormal in their morphology (pers. data: $46 \pm 40\%$ abnormality vs. $1.5 \pm 3.2\%$ for *S. droebachiensis* at pH_T 7.1: Dorey et al., 2013).

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, we have shown that CO₂-induced pH changes can modify the bioaccumulation rates of metals in sea urchin larvae. The variance in accumulation was mostly explained by the indirect effect of pH on larval growth but effects independent of the size were also significant for five metals. The relationship between the changes in speciation, bioaccumulation and toxicity are not straightforward and urgently requires more research. In particular, studies combining toxicity with environmentally-relevant levels of metals and bioaccumulation data are vital to implement the necessary policies for water and fisheries

management. Combined pH/metal toxicity studies have been carried out mainly on Cd and Cu (Campbell et al., 2014; Ivanina et al., 2015, 2014, Ivanina and Sokolova, 2015, 2013; Lewis et al., 2013) and tend to show an increase of metal toxicity with lowering pH. In our study, we show that the responses in terms of bioaccumulation are specific to each metal and this highlights the current need to understand the mechanisms which operate in seawater with lowered pH (e.g. passive or active regulation of metal uptake, metal uptake as by-products of metabolic rates or acid-base balance regulation), which will in turn be essential to be able to implement more accurate water management policies.

Finally, this study did not consider the processes of detoxification (e.g. Pinsino et al., 2011) and the reversibility of trace metal effects (e.g. Morroni et al., 2018), which could play an important role in determining the sensitivity of sea urchin larvae to a future ocean where seawater acidification and metal pollution co-exist, and represents a challenging gap of knowledge.

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carbonate chemistry parameter was measured (e.g. TA, DIC). $sperm, F=fertilization, E=embryos, L=larvae, J=juveniles, A=adults, gen=generations. pCO_2$ is indicated when it was measured, or an additional using lab-based experiments. Article search was performed in Web of Science using the keywords 'ocean acidification' and 'metal' in Basallote et al., 2014) nor nano-metals (e.g. Hu et al., 2017). For a review by metals, see also Ivanina & Sokolova (2015). Stage: S= July 2017. This review does not include publications on CSS-leakage experiments, field or sediment toxicity studies (but see e.g. TABLE 1. Literature review of the effects of CO₂-induced acidification on metal bioaccumulation and toxicity in marine invertebrates

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		and uptake	experiment	Toxicity													(radiotracers)	Bioaccumulation		Type of study			
			Bivalves		Echinoderms				Bivalves		Cnidarians							Cephalopods		Group			
Oyster, Clam	Scallop	Mussel	Mussel		Urchin				Oyster		Coral		Squid			1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		Cuttlefish		Species			
Adults	Adults	Adults	Adults		Larvae	Embryos,			Adults		Adults		Juveniles	Embryos,		Embryos		Embryos		Stage			
Cu or Cd (50 µg l ⁻¹)	Cd (40 μg l ⁻¹)	Cu (0.1 μM)	Cd (20 µg 1 ⁻¹)		(trace)	Ag, Cd, Cs, ²⁴¹ Am	Mn, Co, Zn, Se,		Cd, ²⁴¹ Am (trace)	Mn, Co, Zn, Ag,	Zn (trace)		Mn, Zn (trace)	Ag, Cd, Co, Hg,		Se (trace)	Am, Cs, Co, Mn,	Ag, Cd, Zn (trace)		concentration)	(nominal	elements	Chemical
pH _{NBS} =8.11 (531), 7.93 (860), 7.76 (1330)	8.05, 7.60	pH _{NBS} =8.11 (485), 7.68 (1420)	(2980)	pH _{NBS} =8.17 (430), 7.42	(4540)	(1700), 7.3 (2840), 7.1	(625), 7.7 (1020), 7.5	$pH_T=8.1 (335), 7.9$	(900), 7.5 (2040)	$pH_T=8.1 (380), 7.8$	7.78 (900), 7.46 (2040)	$pH_T=8.09$ (ambient),	(850), 7.60 (1500)	$pH_1=8.1 (380), 7.85$		(800), 7.61 (1400)	pH _T =8.04 (400), 7.84	(800), 7.61 (1400)	pH _T =8.09 (400), 7.84	treatments	Measured pH (pCO ₂)		
Intermediate pH \uparrow Cu accumulation, interactive effects on gene expression	No/little effect of pH on Cd uptake or Cd toxicity	pH enhanced extracellular acidosis and ↑ Cu toxicity	genotoxicity	No effect of pH on Cd accumulation, \downarrow pH \uparrow Cd	modulations of Mn, Zn and Se	↓ pH↑ Ag accumulation, non-linear			bioaccumulation	No effect of pH on metals'	and skeleton (7.5)	↓ Zn accumulation in tissue (7.8)	accumulation in Embryos	accumulation, modulates Hg	\downarrow pH \uparrow Ag andZn, \downarrow Cd and Mn	↓ pH ↓ Co and Mn accumulation		modulates Zn accumulation	\downarrow pH \uparrow Ag and \downarrow Cd accumulation,	Conclusions			
Götze et al., 2014	Benedetti et al., 2016	Lewis et al., 2016	Nardi et al., 2017		Present study				Belivermis et al., 2016		Houlbrèque et al., 2011		2011	Lacoue-Labarthe et al.,		2012	Lacoue-Labarthe et al.,	2009	Lacoue-Labarthe et al.,	Reference			

Bivalves			In vitro study	Echinoderms				Cnidarians					Polychaetes				Crustaceans						
Clam				Urchin				Anemone			Arenicola		Arenicola				Copepod			Mussel, Clams			
cells	mantle	tissues:	Adult	Adults		Adult		Adults			F, E, L		S, F, E, L		3 gen.	A, E, L, J,	2 gen.	A, E, L, J,		Adults	Adults	Adults	
μM)	μM) or Cu (1 or 5	Cd (25 or 100		Cu (0.1 μM)		As $(4 \text{ mg } 1^{-1})$		100 μg l ⁻¹)	Zn, Ni (10, 50,		Cu (0.002 μM)		or 20 μM)	Cu (0.2 μM, 2 μM	Hg $(1 \mu g l^{-1})$		Cu (20 µg l ⁻¹)			Cd (50 µg l ⁻¹)	Cd of Cd (50 μg l ⁻¹)	Cd (50 µg 1-1)	
≈29 700)	\approx 15 000), 7.2 (3.01 kPa,	\approx 490), 7.4 (1.52 kPa,	$pH_{NBS}=8.3 (0.05 \text{ kPa},$	7.71 (1390)	$pH_{NBS}=8.13 (500),$	7.80 (760), 7.27 (3170)		7.75 (1135)	Ni: 7.78 (1080) -Zn:	7.91 (n.a. ambient).	(1490) and 7.41 (2410)	pH _{NBS} =8.17 (320), 7.60	(1450), 7.47 (3090)	pH _{NBS} =8.28 (390), 7.77	8.02, 7.67		7.82 (400), 7.67 (590)	8.06 (210), 7.95 (285),	•	8.07, 7.79, 7.42	(970), 7.52 (2090)	(1100), 7.60 (2590)	pH _{NBS} =8.18 (580), 7.93
↓ pH ↓ Cd and ↑ Cu accumulation				↓ pH ↑ Cu toxicity		affects ability to detoxify	No effect of pH on As uptake, pH	↓ pH ↑ Zn and Ni accumulation			↓ pH ↑ Cu lethal toxicity		↓ pH ↑ Cu toxicity		Hg inhibitory effects	↓ pH ↓ Hg uptake, ↓ pH decreased	toxicity	↓ pH ↑Cu accumulation and	-	↓ pH ↑ Cd accumulation	↓ pH↑ Cu and Cd accumulation	immunology	accumulation, ↓ pH ↑ Cd effects on
Ivanina et al., 2013				Lewis et al., 2016		Moreira et al., 2016		Duckworth et al., 2017			Lewis et al., 2013		Campbell et al., 2014		Li et al., 2017		Fitzer et al., 2013			Shi et al., 2016	Ivanina et al., 2015	Ivanina et al., 2014	

TABLE 2. Experimental conditions: Measured pH_T and calculated carbonate chemistry in each of the pH treatments. Measurements in italic (pCO_2 and saturation states: Omega calcite and aragonite) are calculated from pH_T (measurements taken every 15 min from 0 to 74 hpf, N=282 for each pH treatment), temperature (20.13 ± 0.34 °C, n=282, measured every 15 min in one tank), salinity (38) and a mean total alkalinity (TA) of 2558 μmol.kg⁻¹ using the R package seacarb. Data are expressed as mean ± sd. Larval body length (L; μm) was calculated for each sampling time (hpf) and pH treatment used in the experiment (lengths calculated from Martin et al., 2011).

рН		$p\mathrm{CO}_2$	Omega	Omega	В	ody length	(L)
treatment	pH_T	(µatm)	calcite	aragonite	28 hpf	52 hpf	74 hpf
7.1	7.12 ± 0.06	4537 ± 438	0.75 ± 0.20	0.49 ± 0.13	128.13	255.67	328.37
7.3	7.32 ± 0.04	2840 ± 261	1.14 ± 0.09	0.74 ± 0.06	186.39	346.26	437.37
7.5	7.53 ± 0.03	1697 ± 109	1.79 ± 0.10	1.17 ± 0.07	208.46	382.72	482.05
7.7	7.73 ± 0.03	1017 ± 75	2.75 ± 0.15	1.79 ± 0.10	234.76	407.19	505.46
7.9	7.92 ± 0.04	625 ± 60	3.98 ± 0.24	2.60 ± 0.16	240.61	429.83	537.67
8.1	8.14 ± 0.02	335 ± 20	5.99 ± 0.19	3.91 ± 0.12	249.27	435.25	541.25

TABLE 3. Larval densities and mortality:

Larval density (larvae.ml⁻¹; mean \pm SD) in each of the six pH treatments and three time-points (N=6 replicates of 1 to 2 ml of seawater per pH treatment and time point) and total mortality (% larvae) after 74 hpf.

	Dens	ity (larvae.m	ıl ⁻¹)	Mortality
pH treatment	22 hpf	47 hpf	74 hpf	at 74 hpf (% larvae)
7.1	119.7 ± 18.0	42.8 ± 5.5	10.3 ± 1.3	64.1
7.3	122.0 ± 5.9	49.8 ± 2.9	23.8 ± 4.3	17.4
7.5	131.0 ± 5.0	50.3 ± 6.8	23.6 ± 1.7	21.5
7.7	119.8 ± 10.0	54.5 ± 6.5	25.2 ± 5.4	12.5
7.9	103.8 ± 6.9	53.5 ± 4.9	23.9 ± 4.0	16.8
8.1	126.0 ± 13.7	75.7 ± 7.9	24.7 ± 4.1	14.2

FIGURE 1: Concentration factor (CF \pm SD; 10⁻⁴ Bq larvae⁻¹) of metals in the different pH treatments: diamond (7.1), triangle (7.3), circles: hollow (7.5), light-grey (7.7), grey (7.9), black (8.1); as a function of **A.** time (three time points: 28, 52 and 74 hpf) and **B.** body length (μ m). The results of the linear regression between CF and body length for each metal are presented in grey (R² and p for the *p*-value).

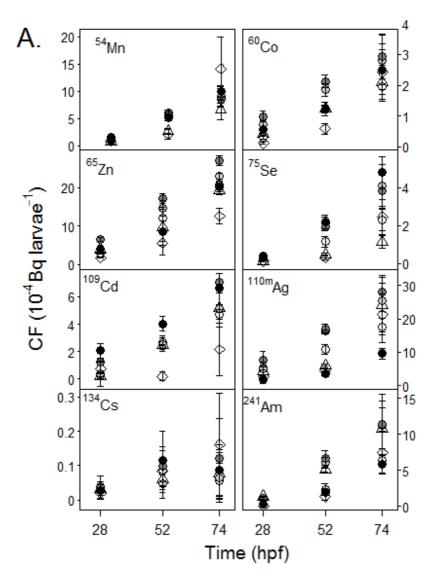


Figure 1B.

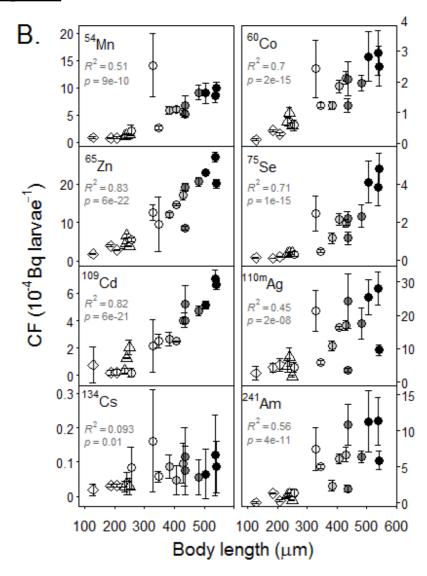
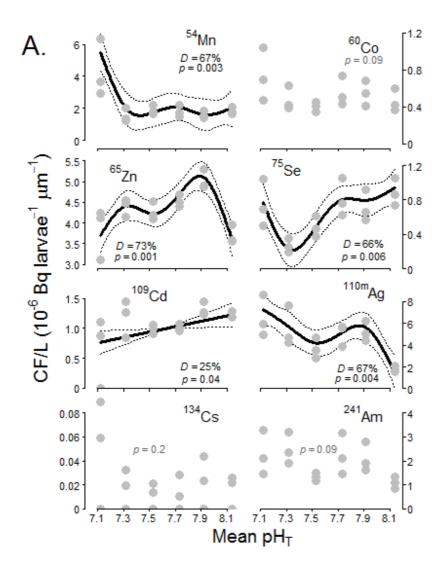


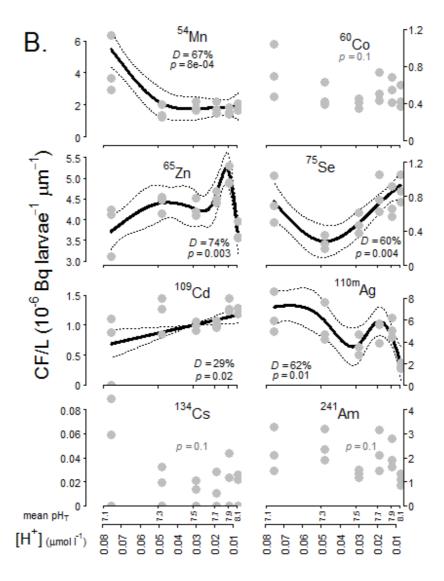
TABLE 4. Generalized linear models results testing the effect of two continuous variables (mean pH_T and Time) on the CF/L (Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹), for each metal. The best model was always without interaction term (pHT: Time) and so it is the one presented here. The variables that had a significant effect in CF/L are shown in bold for each metal.

							Df
							(null,
Metal	Variable	Estimate	Std Error	t-value	p-value	AIC	residual)
⁵⁴ Mn	(Intercept)	$2.65.10^{-6}$	$2.15.10^{-6}$	1.23	0.224	-1370.6	3,51
	pH_T	- 4.18.10 ⁻⁷	$2.80.10^{-7}$	-1.50	0.141		
	Time	$3.57.10^{-8}$	$5.16.10^{-9}$	6.91	< 0.0001		
⁶⁰ Co	(Intercept)	-3.81.10-7	$4.04.10^{-7}$	-0.94	0.350	-1551.3	3,51
	pH_T	$5.51.10^{-8}$	5.25.10-8	1.05	0.298		
	Time	6.48.10-9	$9.68.10^{-10}$	6.69	< 0.0001		
⁶⁵ Zn	(Intercept)	- 2.3.10 ⁻⁶	$2.2.10^{-6}$	-1.04	0.303	-1368.9	3,51
	pH_T	$3.3.10^{-7}$	$2.8.10^{-7}$	1.17	0.249		
	Time	5.4.10-8	$5.2.10^{-9}$	10.23	< 0.0001		
⁷⁵ Se	(Intercept)	- 2.4.10 ⁻⁶	4.8.10-7	-4.97	<0.0001	-1531.9	3,51
	pH_T	$2.8.10^{-7}$	$6.3.10^{-8}$	4.52	< 0.0001		
	Time	1.2.10-8	$1.2.10^{-9}$	10.12	< 0.0001		
¹⁰⁹ Cd	(Intercept)	- 3.8.10 ⁻⁶	1.0.10-6	-3.77	< 0.0005	-1452.8	3,51
	pH_T	$4.9.10^{-7}$	$1.3.10^{-7}$	3.75	< 0.0005		
	Time	$1.5.10^{-8}$	$2.4.10^{-9}$	6.10	< 0.0001		
^{110m} Ag	(Intercept)	9.5.10-6	4.4.10-6	2.13	0.038	-1292.3	3,51
	pH_T	-1.2.10 ⁻⁶	$5.8.10^{-7}$	-2.07	0.043		
	Time	5.4.10-8	1.1.10-8	5.04	< 0.0001		
¹³⁴ Cs	(Intercept)	8.2.10-8	5.0.10-8	1.65	0.105	-1777.5	3,51
	pH_T	- 9.3.10 ⁻⁹	$6.5.10^{-9}$	-1.44	0.157		
	Time	$1.6.10^{-10}$	$1.2.10^{-10}$	1.32	0.194		
²⁴¹ Am	(Intercept)	1.30.10-6	1.,65.10-6	0.79	0.434	-1399.1	3,51
	pH_T	-2.58.10 ⁻⁷	$2.15.10^{-7}$	-1.20	0.235		
	Time	3.43.10-8	3.96.10-9	8.66	< 0.0001		

721 Std Error = standard error; AIC = Akaike information criterion; Df = degree of freedom.

FIGURE 2: Larvae metal content (CF/L) at 74 hpf changes with A. pH and B. calculated H⁺ concentration - Generalized additive models (lines, gam, R package mgcv) fitted to the concentration factor divided by larval size (CF/L:10⁻⁶ Bq larvae mm⁻¹ µm⁻¹) as a function of the mean pH_T for each metal investigated, at the final time-point (74 hpf). When the lines of the generalized additive model are not present, the models were not significant. The proportion of deviance explained by the model is given as D (%) and the significance for the smooth by p. The detailed results for pH are presented in **Table 5**.





733 Table 5. General additive models results testing for the effect of a continuous variable (mean pH_T) on the CF/L (Bq larvae⁻¹ μ m⁻¹) at

734 74 hpf, for each metal. Only the fittest model for K is presented. The significant models are shown in bold for each metal.

		Intercept				Mean signific	pH _T (apance of t	Mean pH _T (approximate significance of the smooth term)	term)					
Metal	$^{\kappa}$	Estimate	SE	tvalue	p-value	edf	Rdf F	F	p-value	\mathbb{R}^2	D	GCV	Sc Est N	Z
54Mn	5	$2.16.10^{-6}$	$1.81.10^{-7}$	11.91	< 0.0001	3.59	3.90	7.018	0.0033	0.586	67%	$7.9.10^{-13}$	$5.9.10^{-13}$	18
$^{60}\mathrm{Co}$	4	$5.30.10^{-7}$	$3.58.10^{-8}$	14.82	< 0.0001	2.88	2.99	2.767	0.091	0.245			$2.3.10^{-14}$	18
65 Zn	S	$4.29.10^{-6}$	$7.35.10^{-8}$	58.33	< 0.0001	3.84	3.99	8.167	< 0.0001	0.651			$9.7.10^{-14}$	18
⁷⁵ Se	S	-	$4.20.10^{-8}$	15.50	< 0.0001	3.72	3.95	6.438	0.0055	0.560			$3.2.10^{-14}$	18
$^{109}\mathrm{Cd}$	သ	•	$6.77.10^{-8}$	15.69	< 0.0001	1.00	1.00	5.278	0.035	0.201			$8.3.10^{-14}$	18
$^{110\mathrm{m}}\mathrm{Ag}$	S			15.75	< 0.0001	3.72	3.95	6.164	0.0037	0.574	67%		$1.5.10^{-12}$	18
$^{134}\mathrm{Cs}$	4	$2.15.10^{-8}$	$5.17.10^{-9}$	4.164	0.0008	1.88	2.26	1.868	0.22	0.147	24%	$5.7.10^{-16}$	$4.8.10^{-16}$	18
²⁴¹ Am	4	$1.92.10^{-6}$	$1.67.10^{-7}$	11.50	< 0.0001	1.00	1.00	3.284	0.089	0.118	17%	$5.6.10^{-13}$	$5.0.10^{-13}$	18
K=spec	ified	knot valu	es to be us	ed for t	oasis consi	tructio	n; SE	= stand	ard error,	edf=dc	egree of	freedom;	Rdf = refe	$K = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ be \ used for \ basis \ construction; \ SE = standard \ error; \ edf = degree \ of \ freedom; \ Rdf = reference \ df$; $R^2 = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ be \ used for \ basis \ construction; \ SE = standard \ error; \ edf = degree \ of \ freedom; \ Rdf = reference \ df$; $R^2 = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ be \ used for \ basis \ construction; \ SE = standard \ error; \ edf = degree \ of \ freedom; \ Rdf = reference \ df$; $R^2 = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ be \ used for \ basis \ construction; \ SE = standard \ error; \ edf = degree \ of \ freedom; \ Rdf = reference \ df$; $R^2 = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ be \ used \ for \ basis \ construction; \ SE = standard \ error; \ edf = degree \ of \ freedom; \ Rdf = reference \ df$; $R^2 = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ be \ used \ for \ basis \ for \ construction; \ SE = standard \ error; \ edf = degree \ of \ freedom; \ Rdf = reference \ df$; $R^2 = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ basis \ for \ construction; \ SE = standard \ error; \ edf = degree \ of \ freedom; \ Rdf = reference \ df$; $R^2 = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ basis \ for \ construction; \ SE = standard \ error; \ edf = degree \ of \ freedom; \ Rdf = reference \ df$; $R^2 = specified \ knot \ values \ to \ for \ freedom \$
adjusted r-squared Est=scale estimate	r-sq e esı	uared; D= timate	= % devian	ice expl	uined; GC	V=me	thod o	f genera	alized cros	ss valida	tion for	smoothing	parametei	adjusted r-squared; D = % deviance explained; GCV = method of generalized cross validation for smoothing parameter estimation; Est =scale estimate

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