

Functional consequences of prey acclimation to ocean acidification for the prey and its predator

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Ocean acidification is the suite of chemical changes to the carbonate system of seawater as a consequence of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions. Despite a growing body of evidences demonstrating the negative effects of ocean acidification on marine species, the consequences at the ecosystem level are still unclear. One factor limiting our ability to upscale from species to ecosystem is the poor mechanistic understanding of the functional consequences of the observed effects on organisms. This is particularly true in the context of species interactions. The aim of this work was to investigate the functional consequence of the exposure of a prey (the mussel *Brachidontes pharaonis*) to ocean acidification for both the prey and its predator (the crab *Eriphia verrucosa*). Mussels exposed to pH 7.5 for >4 weeks showed significant decreases in condition index and in mechanical properties (65% decrease in maximum breaking load) as compared with mussels acclimated to pH 8.0. This translated into negative consequences for the mussel in presence of the predator crab. The crab feeding efficiency increased through a significant 27% decrease in prey handling time when offered mussels acclimated to the lowest pH. The predator was also negatively impacted by the acclimation of the prey, probably as a consequence of a decreased food quality. When fed with prey acclimated under decreased pH for 3 months, crab assimilation efficiency significantly decreased by 30% and its growth rate was 5 times slower as compared with crab fed with mussels acclimated under high pH. Our results highlight the important to consider physiological endpoints in the context of species interactions.

1 **Functional consequences of prey acclimation to ocean**

2 **acidification for the prey and its predator**

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22 **Abstract**

23 Ocean acidification is the suite of chemical changes to the carbonate system of seawater as a
24 consequence of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions. Despite a growing body of
25 evidences demonstrating the negative effects of ocean acidification on marine species, the
26 consequences at the ecosystem level are still unclear. One factor limiting our ability to upscale
27 from species to ecosystem is the poor mechanistic understanding of the functional consequences
28 of the observed effects on organisms. This is particularly true in the context of species
29 interactions. The aim of this work was to investigate the functional consequence of the exposure
30 of a prey (the mussel *Brachidontes pharaonis*) to ocean acidification for both the prey and its
31 predator (the crab *Eriphia verrucosa*). Mussels exposed to pH 7.5 for >4 weeks showed
32 significant decreases in condition index and in mechanical properties (65% decrease in
33 maximum breaking load) as compared with mussels acclimated to pH 8.0. This translated into
34 negative consequences for the mussel in presence of the predator crab. The crab feeding
35 efficiency increased through a significant 27% decrease in prey handling time when offered
36 mussels acclimated to the lowest pH. The predator was also negatively impacted by the
37 acclimation of the prey, probably as a consequence of a decreased food quality. When fed with
38 prey acclimated under decreased pH for 3 months, crab assimilation efficiency significantly
39 decreased by 30% and its growth rate was 5 times slower as compared with crab fed with
40 mussels acclimated under high pH. Our results highlight the important to consider physiological
41 endpoints in the context of species interactions.

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46 Introduction

47 Rising atmospheric CO₂ is altering seawater carbonate chemistry in a process termed ocean
48 acidification. Research performed over the last decade and summarized in the recent IPCC report
49 (IPCC, 2014) allows to conclude with high confidence that ocean acidification will affects
50 marine organism and ecosystems for centuries to come with direct consequences for human
51 society (Gattuso et al., 2015). The picture is rather clear at a global level but many challenges
52 remain to allow projection of impacts at the local level (Riebesell & Gattuso 2013). These
53 challenges include the need to consider ecology (Gaylor et al., 2015), evolution (Sunday et al.,
54 2013) and environmental complexity (Breitburg et al., 2015; Gunderson, Armstrong & Stillman,
55 2016) into a field currently dominated by short term response of single-species to simplistic
56 scenarios. This translates into practical and experimental design challenges (Cornwall & Hurd,
57 2015; Hurd et al., 2015) often limiting our ability to fully address these questions. An alternative
58 approach is to dissect mechanisms behind biological response across level of organization to
59 identify unifying principles and therefore increase our ability to project future impacts (Dupont
60 & Pörtner, 2013).

61 Most published studies to date are focusing on single species responses with little consideration
62 for interspecific interactions. For example, the direct effect of ocean acidification on mussels has
63 been extensively studied with more than 40 studies published to date. A wide range of endpoints
64 and techniques were used and showed effects on growth, calcification, immune response,
65 physiology, behavior, etc. (e.g. Gazeau et al., 2013). When negative effects were documented,

66 they were often interpreted as negative consequences for the species fitness. For example, two
67 studies documented reduced production of byssus and mechanical performance of byssus
68 secreted under reduced pH conditions (O'Donnell, George & Carrington, 2014; Li et al., 2015).
69 Byssus plays a key role against predation and these effects could potentially translate into
70 increased probability of being dislodged from the substrate and consumed by the predator.
71 However, this hypothesis was not formally tested in presence of predators. In another example,
72 Fitzner et al. (2014) showed alteration in the ultrastructure of mussel shells from juvenile raised in
73 decreased pH conditions. It was concluded that these changes “may prove instrumental in their
74 ability to survive ocean acidification”. However, to fully understand the consequences of such
75 changes on individual's fitness, indirect effects should be considered. For example, a decrease in
76 calcification or mechanical properties of a protective shell may not translate into negative effects
77 in absence of predators. The mussel *Bathymodiolus brevior* is able to tolerate a wide range of
78 natural pH environment ranging between 5.36 and 7.29 around submarine volcanoes. It was
79 shown that shell thickness and daily growth increments decreased with decreasing pH making
80 them potentially more sensitive to predator. However, they are able to survive in dense
81 population at the lowest pH as their crab predators are absent from these setting (Tunnicliffe et
82 al., 2009). Studies on these indirect impacts of ocean acidification are scarce and focus on
83 trophic interactions (e.g. Thomsen et al., 2013) or pathogens (e.g. Asplund et al., 2014). In
84 bivalves, the predator-prey interaction was only considered by Appelhans et al. (2012) and
85 Keppel, Scrosati & Courtenay (2015). For example, mussels and sea star predators were cultured
86 together and a 50% reduction in predation was observed at decreased pH as a consequence of a
87 negative effect on sea stars (Keppel, Scrosati & Courtenay, 2015).

88 Energy acquisition plays a key role in a species response to ocean acidification. Some direct
89 effects of ocean acidification on digestion physiology have already been documented (e.g.
90 Stumpp et al., 2013). However, some indirect effects through changes in food quantity and/or
91 quality are equally important. For example, Jin et al. (2015) showed that decreased pH can lead
92 to accumulation of phenolic compounds in phytoplankton that can be transferred to higher
93 trophic levels. Other studies demonstrate that exposure of phytoplankton to decreased pH
94 decreased nutritional values with negative consequences for their grazers (Rossol et al., 2012;
95 Schoo et al., 2013).

96 The aim of our study was to better understand the impact of ocean acidification on the prey-
97 predator relationship. We focused on the relationship between the predator crab *Eriphia*
98 *verrucosa* and its mussel prey *Brachidontes pharaonis*. *E. verrucosa* typically inhabits the rocky
99 intertidal zone and spend most diurnal time within the natural cavities of the Vermetid reef that
100 are normally exposed to the air also at high tide. During the night, crabs leave their lairs to feed
101 and they usually rely on mussels as a first item of their diet (Elner, 1978; Elner & Hughes, 1978;
102 Leonard, Bertness & Yund, 1999). We focused on the indirect consequences of the impact of
103 ocean acidification on the prey (mussel) for both the prey (increased sensitivity to predator) and
104 the predator (decreased food quality). To avoid confounding factors, the direct impact of ocean
105 acidification on the crustacean predator was not considered. This was also supported by the fact
106 that bivalves are expected to be more sensitive to ocean acidification than crustaceans (IPCC,
107 2014; Wittmann & Pörtner 2013). Two main questions were tested: (i) Does the direct impact to
108 ocean acidification on shells' mechanical properties makes mussels more sensitive to predation?
109 (ii) Does the direct impact of ocean acidification on mussels' condition translated into decreased
110 performance in their predators?

111

112 **Materials and Methods**

113 Animal collection

114 To ensure that crabs encountered mussels before the experiment, both species were collected
115 from the same site. Crabs (*Eriphia verrucosa*, without eggs) and mussels (*Brachidontes*
116 *pharaonis*, size ranging between 18 and 29 mm) were sampled at low tide along a 3km transect
117 on the Vermetid reefs of Capo Gallo - Isola delle Femmine Marine Protected Area (LAT:
118 38°11'53.28"N; LONG: 13°14'34.84"E) in June 2012 (400 mussels, experiment #1) and March-
119 June 2013 (45 crabs and 400 mussels, experiment #2 & #3). Animals were transferred to the
120 Laboratory of Experimental Ecology and Behaviour of the University of Palermo. Mussels were
121 divided into six 12L tanks and crabs into 12L tanks filled with 1L of water and stones covered
122 with white paper to avoid visual interference and filled with sea water at room temperature (18-
123 20°C) and field salinity (38‰). Over the 10 days of laboratory acclimation, crabs were fed *ad*
124 *libitum* twice a day with the mussel *B. pharaonis*. Mussels were fed *ad libitum* with *Isochrysis*
125 *galbana*. Water was replaced every second days to avoid the accumulation of waste products.

126 Experimental design

127 Mussels were acclimated to two different nominal pH treatments: (i) pH 8.0, corresponding to
128 present average pH at the sampling site; and (ii) pH 7.5, deviating from present range of natural
129 variability and relevant for 2100 ocean acidification scenarios. pH was manually controlled
130 through monitoring of pH (Cyberscan pH meter 510, Eutech Instruments, calibrated on the NBS
131 scale) in 40L header tanks 8 times a day and injection of pure CO₂ directly into the aquarium
132 when required. Water from each header tank was distributed into three 12L aquariums.

133 Experiment #1 (2012-2013)

134 The impact of pH on growth rate was tested on mussels (collected in 2012) exposed to the two
135 nominal pHs for 50 weeks. Every week, total length (TL in mm), shell (SDW in g) and flesh dry
136 weight (FDW in g; 80°C for 24h) were measured in 5 mussels per pH treatment. The Body
137 Condition Index (BCI) was estimated as $C.I. = \left(\frac{FDW}{SDW}\right) * 100$ (Davenport and Chen 1987).

138

139 Experiment #2 (2013)

140 The functional impact of exposure to pH was tested on mussels exposed to the two nominal pHs
141 for >4 weeks as well as the consequences for their crab predators. Forty mussel shells from each
142 pH treatment were evaluated for their mechanical properties at the Laboratory at the Department
143 of Mechanical Engineering (University of Palermo). Experimental crushing tests were realized
144 with an Instron 3367 controlled through the Bluehill 2.0 software to estimate shell's maximum
145 breaking load (in N).

146 Crab feeding efficiency was then measured in a side experiment as time (s) spent in searching
147 and manipulation behaviours. Fifteen crabs were randomly selected and starved for a period of 3
148 days. Each crab was filmed during six feeding trials with mussels acclimated to pH 8.0 (n=3) and
149 pH 7.5 (n=3) for >4 weeks using a digital camera (XTC-200 Action Camera). Natural
150 photoperiod at that time of the year was used during the trials (14h light). Feeding trials started
151 with the addition of the mussel in front of the crab till complete prey consumption. Videos were
152 analysed following Bateson (2003). Two behavioural endpoints were measured: (i) searching
153 time (ST in s; Charnov, 1976; Pyke, Pulliam & Charnov, 1977), which was the time to find the
154 prey; and (ii) handling time (HT in s; Pyke, Pulliam & Charnov, 1977; Hughes & Seed, 1981)
155 which includes the breaking time, namely the time between picking up the prey and taking the

156 first bite (Rheinallt & Huges, 1985), and the actual feeding action, called ingestion time. Time
157 was measured to the nearest 1s using a digital chronometer.

158

159 Experiment #3 (2013)

160 To evaluate the consequences of pH exposure of the prey (mussel) on the predator growth,
161 individual crab (5 per pH treatment) were fed for 3 months with mussels exposed to the two
162 nominal pH for >4 weeks. Twice a week, faeces were collected, washed 3 times with 0.5 M
163 ammonium formate (purest grade) and distilled water. They were then dried at 95°C for 24h,
164 weighted (dry weight, DW) and incinerated in a muffle furnace at 450°C for 4 h, and weighted
165 again (ash free dry weight, AFDW; Ezgeta-Balic et al., 2011, Sarà et al., 2013). The same
166 procedure was performed using 10 mussels from each pH treatment. Assimilation efficiency
167 (AE) was estimated according to Conover (1966): $AE = (F - E)/[(1 - E)F]$ where F is the ratio
168 between ash-free dry weight (AFDW) and dry weight ratio (DW) for the food (mussel), and E is
169 the same ratio for the faeces. Crab total wet weight (WW in gr) was also measured twice a week
170 and growth rate (gr day^{-1}) was calculated for each individual as the coefficient of the significant
171 relationship between WW and time.

172

173 Carbonate chemistry

174 The carbonate system speciation ($p\text{CO}_2$, Ω_{ca} and Ω_{ar}) was calculated from pH_{NBS} , temperature,
175 salinity (38‰) and alkalinity ($A_{\text{T}} = 2.5 \text{ mM}$; Rivaro *et al.*, 2010) using CO2SYS (Lewis and
176 Wallace, 1998) with dissociation constants from the study by Mehrbach et al. (1973) refitted by
177 Dickson & Millero (1987).

178

179 Statistical analyses

180 All statistical analyses were performed using the SAS/STAT software. The normality of data
181 distributions was checked with a Shapiro-Wilk test and the homoscedasticity was tested using
182 the Bartlett test. Linear regressions were used to test for relationships between studied
183 parameters. Differences between pH treatments were tested using ANCOVA, 1- and 2- way
184 ANOVAs. A 5% significance level was applied.

185

186

187 **Results**

188 Target pHs were reached in all experiments and were significantly different between the two
189 treatments (Table 1; ANOVA; experiment #1: $F_{1,473}=27.95$, $p<0.0001$; experiments #2-3: $F_{1,135}=$
190 25.04 , $p<0.0001$). This translated into significant differences for all calculated parameters of the
191 carbonate system (Table 1; ANOVA; $p\text{CO}_2$: $F_{1,473}=$, $p<0.0001$; experiments #2-3: $F_{1,135}=$,
192 $p<0.0001$; Ω_{ca} : $F_{1,473}=$, $p<0.0001$; experiments #2-3: $F_{1,135}=$, $p<0.0001$; Ω_{ar} : $F_{1,473}=$, $p<0.0001$;
193 experiments #2-3: $F_{1,135}=$, $p<0.0001$).

194 Experiment #1

195 Mussel growth was negligible over the 50 weeks exposure period (Figure 1A; GLM: $F_{1,593}=6.33$,
196 $p=0.012$) and there was no significant difference in total length between the two pH treatments
197 (ANOVA: $F_{1,593}=1.39$, $p=0.24$). On the other hand, there was a significant difference between
198 pH treatments for the condition index (Figure 1B; ANCOVA: model, $F_{1,593}=9.56$, $p<0.0001$, pH,
199 $F_1=11.52$, $p=0.0007$). At pH 8.0, condition index was significantly increasing by $0.07\% \text{ week}^{-1}$

200 (GLM: $F_{1,290}=57.29$, $p<0.0001$) while it was significantly decreasing by 0.03 % week⁻¹ at pH 7.5
201 (GLM: $F_{1,289}=11.12$, $p=0.01$).

202 Experiment #2

203 Maximum Breaking Load (BL) of the shell of mussel was significantly impacted by acclimation
204 pH (Figure 2; ANOVA: $F_{1,79}=30.51$, $p<0.0001$). BL was decreased by 65% when mussels were
205 acclimated at pH 7.5 as compared to pH 8.1.

206 Searching time (s) of the predator crab was highly variable between individuals (ANOVA 2:
207 model, $F_{1,89}=2.74$, $p=0.0005$; ind(treat), $F_{28}=2.76$, $p=0.0005$) and was not significantly impacted
208 by the acclimation pH of the mussel prey (Figure 3A; $F_1=2.20$, $p=0.14$). On the other hand,
209 despite high and significant differences between tested individuals (ANOVA 2: model,
210 $F_{1,89}=2.72$, $p=0.0005$; ind(treat), $F_{28}=2.39$, $p=0.00024$), the handling time was reduced by 27%
211 when mussels were acclimated to pH 7.5 as compared to pH 8.0 ($F_1=11.97$, $p=0.001$).

212 Experiment #3

213 Acclimation pH of mussels had a significant impact of the crab assimilation efficiency
214 (ANOVA: $F_{1,89}=19.15$, $p<0.0001$). When fed with mussels acclimated at pH 7.5, the crab
215 assimilation efficiency decreased by 30% as compared to crab fed with mussels from the pH 8.0
216 treatment. Crab growth rate (gr day⁻¹; Figure 4B) was 5 times higher when fed with mussels
217 acclimated at pH 8.0 as compared to pH 7.5 (ANOVA: $F_{1,9}=5.82$, $p=0.044$).

218 **Discussion**

219 Our experiments were designed to assess the direct impact of ocean acidification on the mussel
220 *B. pharaonis* as well as the indirect consequences for both the mussel prey and its predator while
221 interacting (functional consequences).

222 Direct impact on the prey

223 In the first experiment, the condition index of mussel acclimated to pH 8.0 was increasing with
224 time. A decrease in condition index with time was observed in mussels exposed to pH 7.5. At the
225 end of the 50 weeks exposure, the condition index of mussels kept at pH 8.0 was two times
226 higher as compared to mussels maintained at pH 7.5. This significant difference in condition
227 index was not associated with differences in growth.

228 The condition index is traditionally used by shellfishery researchers to quantify meat quality and
229 yield in cultured bivalve mollusks (e.g. Widdows & Johnson, 1988). The condition index can be
230 affected by multiple abiotic and biotic factors, among which reproductive status is one of the
231 most important. As a consequence, it is used as a nonspecific bio-indicator to assess exposure to
232 stressors, pollutants or assess spatial-temporal variability (e.g. Rebelo, Amaral & Pfeiffer, 2005).
233 The observed decrease in condition index when exposed to decreased pH is consistent with
234 Beesley et al. (2008) showing a reduction in health index in mussel exposed to ocean
235 acidification. However, a 13 weeks exposure to ocean acidification did not translate into any
236 impact on condition index in *Mytilus edulis* and *Arctica islandica* (Hiebenthal et al., 2013),
237 highlighting the species and experimental condition specificity of response to decreased pH.

238 The observed decrease in condition index can be interpreted as a decrease in meat quality due to
239 change in energy allocation. A wide range of physiological responses has been documented in
240 mussels exposed to decreased pH; from a strong decrease suggesting metabolic depression (e.g.

241 Michaelidis et al., 2005) to unchanged or even increased oxygen consumption (e.g. Thomsen &
242 Melzner, 2010). These differences can be explained by several factors including local adaptation
243 to different pH envelopes as well as different tested scenarios. However, these physiological
244 responses can all be attributed to compensated or uncompensated intracellular and extracellular
245 acidosis and/or increased calcification costs. These lead to changes in energy allocation with
246 potential consequences for mussel conditions (Melzner et al., 2009). Changes in energy
247 allocation as well as perturbation of calcification/dissolution processes can also translate into
248 modification of mussel shell properties. Several studies showed that exposure to decreased pH
249 led to alteration of the shell crystalline structure and structural integrity (Asplund et al., 2014;
250 Fitzter et al., 2014a,b). These structural changes are often hypothesized to translate into reduced
251 protection from predators (e.g. Fitzter et al., 2014a,b). Indeed, some other studies demonstrated
252 that ocean acidification can also modify mussel shells mechanical properties (but see Hiebental
253 et al. 2013). When exposed to decreased pH, mussel outer shell (calcite) is more brittle while the
254 inner shell (aragonite) is softer and less stiff as compared with shells from high pH (Fitzter et al.,
255 2015). These results are consistent with our observation that the shells from decreased pH
256 treatment were more fragile with a 65% reduction in the maximum breaking load. A similar
257 decrease in maximum breaking resistance of mussel shells by ~20% was observed in mussels
258 (*Mytilus edulis*) acclimated to pH 7.4 for 10 weeks as compared to pH 8.1 (Appelhans et al.,
259 2012).

260 Indirect impact on the prey

261 To test the potential functional consequences of these alterations in mechanical properties, we
262 quantified the crab predator searching and handling time required to find and consume mussels
263 exposed to different pHs for >4 weeks. As predicted, there was no significant difference in

264 searching time but handling time was significantly decreased when mussels were acclimated to
265 pH 7.5 as compared to pH 8.0. This somewhat contrasts with the conclusions of Appelhans et al.
266 (2012) and Keppel, Scrosati & Courtenay (2015). Testing the impact of a small pH decrease (pH
267 7.9 vs 8.1) for 10 weeks on both the prey and the predator, Keppel, Scrosati & Courtenay (2015)
268 showed a negative effect on growth of the seastar *Asterias rubens* but a positive effect in the
269 mussel *Mytilus edulis*. This also led to a 50% decrease in the predation of sea stars on mussels,
270 measured as per-capita consumption rate. Appelhans et al. (2012) obtained similar results while
271 studying the impact of stronger acidification (pH 7.4 vs pH 8.1) on the relationship between two
272 predators (the sea star *A. rubens* and the crab *Carcinus maenas*) and their mussel prey. Feeding
273 was reduced by 56% in sea stars and by 41% in mussels. These effects were attributed mostly to
274 the direct negative effect of pH on the predator and authors concluded that mussels may be
275 subjected to a reduced or unaffected predation pressure under future conditions. All these results
276 were obtained on predator-prey interactions with both partners acclimated to decreased pH and it
277 is then difficult to distinguish between direct and indirect effects of ocean acidification on the
278 predator-prey relationship. Our results suggests that the negative effect of decreased pH on the
279 prey can translate into positive effect for the predator (decreased handling time due to decreased
280 maximum breaking force required to break the shell). Using a similar design (untreated predator
281 vs. treated prey), Appelhans et al. (2012) showed that the sea star predator ate more efficiently
282 when preys were exposed to decreased pH. However, the functional consequences on the
283 predator were not evaluated.

284 Indirect impact on the predator

285 Direct impact of ocean acidification on a prey can have a range of indirect consequences for the
286 predator, an aspect that has received little attention in the ocean acidification literature. For

287 example, ocean acidification has the potential to modulate the chemical ecology side of the
288 predator–prey interactions. In mollusks, all but one study (Landes & Zimmer, 2012) showed
289 some effects of decreased pH on predator–prey chemical interaction including decreased induced
290 defense (Bibby et al., 2007), decreased avoidance or escape response (Manriquez et al., 2014;
291 Watson et al., 2014), increased activity (Bibby et al. 2007; Manriquez et al. 2013) and
292 modulation of byssus production rate (Li et al. 2015).

293 Exposure to ocean acidification can also impact prey’s palatability (Dupont et al. 2014) or
294 quality as food source with consequences for higher trophic levels. For example, exposure of
295 phytoplankton to decreased pH can translate into decreased nutritional values with negative
296 consequences for their grazers (Rossol et al., 2012; Schoo et al., 2013). The functional
297 consequences for higher trophic levels were not investigated so far. Our experiment was
298 designed to specifically test the impact of altered prey quality while exposed to decreased pH on
299 its predator (animal-animal trophic relationship). We showed that crabs fed with mussels
300 acclimated to ocean acidification had a 5 times slower growth rate and 30% decreased
301 assimilation efficiency growth rate as compared with crabs fed with mussels raised at higher pH.
302 As recently demonstrated by Sarà *et al.* (2013), a deficiency in the assimilation efficiency due to
303 alterations in the quality of the diet is a major bottleneck in the energy balance of the organisms.
304 They showed that only 7% of AE reduction is sufficient to significantly lower the magnitude of
305 life history traits such as fecundity.

306 **Conclusions**

307 Our results highlight the importance to consider both direct and indirect effects of ocean
308 acidification across trophic levels. We identified several key aspects of the prey-predator

309 relationship that are sensitive to ocean acidification including prey's protection against predator
310 and prey's nutritional quality. Acclimation of the prey to decreased pH can have indirect positive
311 (decreased prey handling time) and negative effects (decreased growth rate) on the predator. To
312 have a holistic understanding of the impact of ocean acidification on marine ecosystems and
313 develop the needed predictive power for management, future experiments should be designed to
314 focus on the different aspects of the species relationships and the underlying mechanisms.

315

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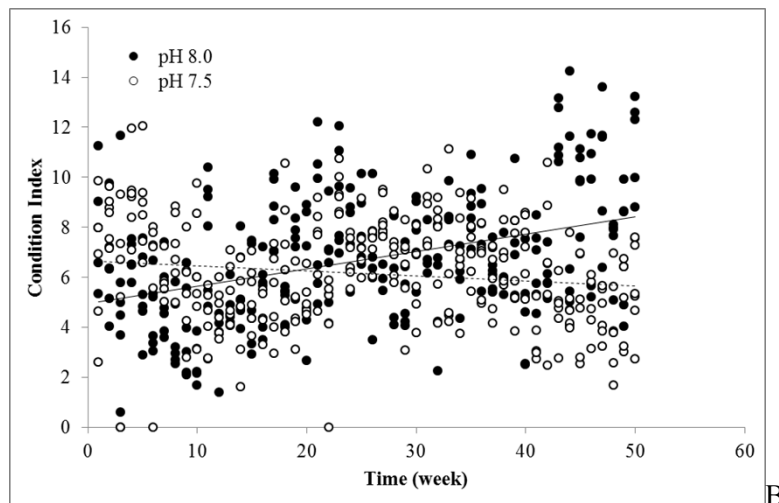
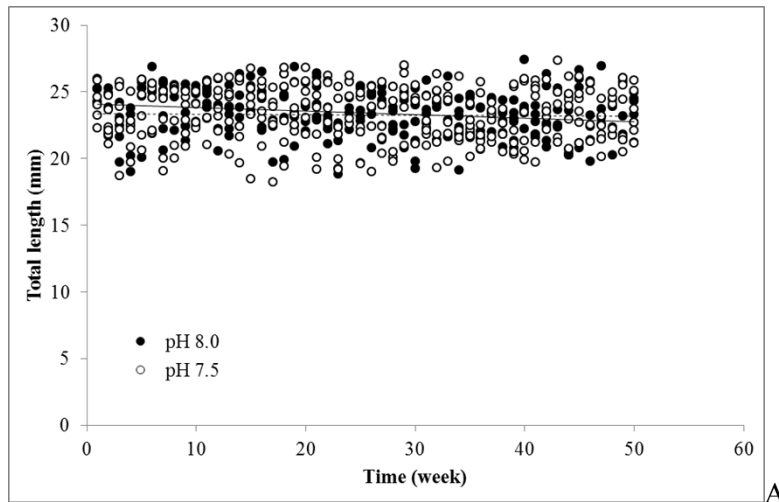
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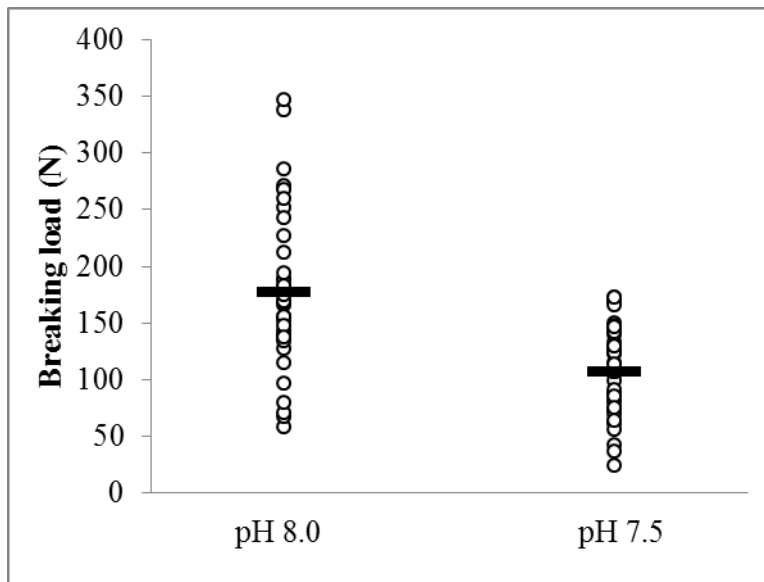
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456 Figure 1. Relationship between Total Length (A, in mm) and Condition Index (B) and time in mussels
457 exposed to two pHs (pH 8.0 and 7.5) over a 50 weeks period.



461 Figure 2 – Maximum breaking load (in N) of shells from mussels exposed to two pHs (pH 8.0 and 7.5)
462 over a 50 weeks period.

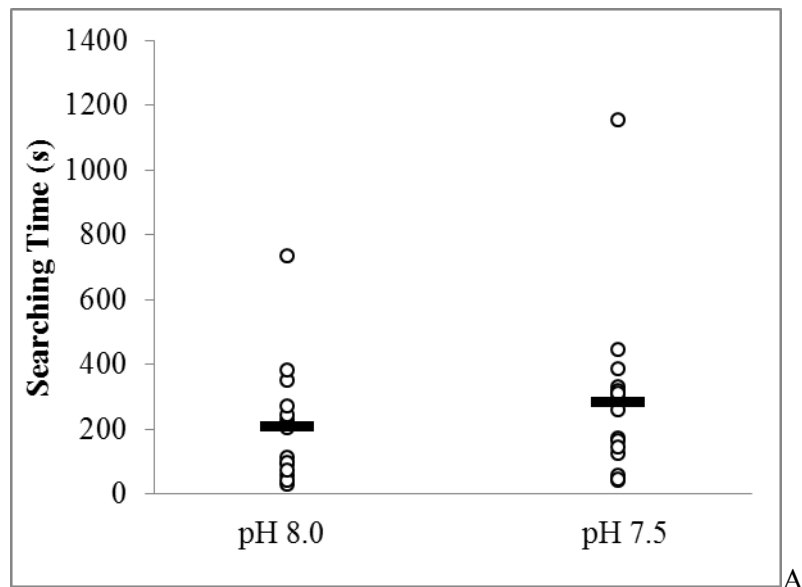
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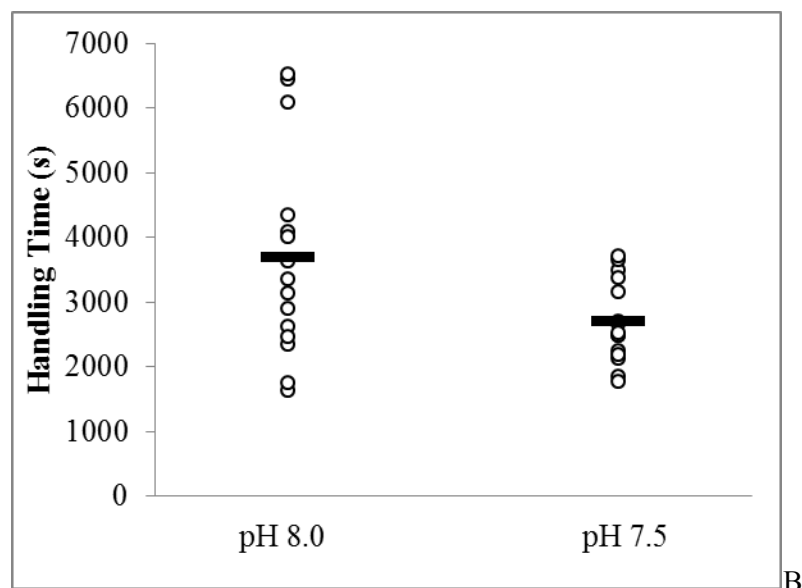
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465 Figure 3 – Searching (A, in s) and Handling Time (B, in s) of crabs searching and eating mussels
466 acclimated to two different pHs (pH 8.0 and 7.5) for 4 weeks.

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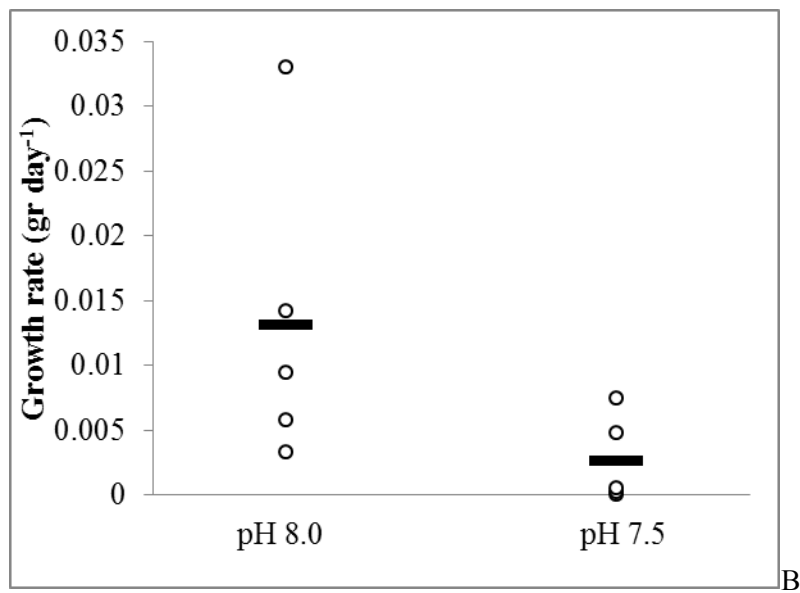
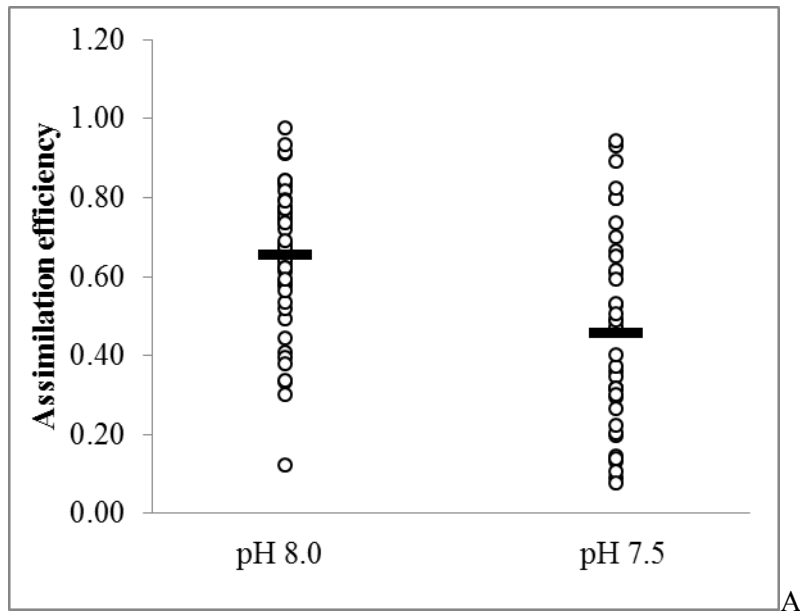
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471 Figure 4 – Assimilation efficiency (A) and growth rate (B, in gr day^{-1}) in crab fed with mussels
472 acclimated at two different pHs (pH 8.0 and 7.5).



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476 Table 1. Seawater carbonate chemistry parameters presented as mean \pm SEM. Seawater pH on the NBS
 477 scale (pH_{NBS}) and temperature (T; °C) were used to calculate CO₂ partial pressure ($p\text{CO}_2$; μatm) as well as
 478 aragonite and calcite saturation states (respectively Ω_a and Ω_c), for a salinity of 38 and a total alkalinity
 479 of 2500 mmol kg⁻¹.

| | <u>Measured</u> | | <u>Calculated</u> | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | pH _{NBS} | Temperature (°C) | $p\text{CO}_2$ (μatm) | Ω_{ca} | Ω_{ar} |
| <u>Experiment #1</u> | | | | | |
| pH 8.0 | 8.01 \pm 0.01 | 20.48 \pm 0.26 | 663 \pm 9 | 3.80 \pm 0.05 | 2.48 \pm 0.03 |
| pH 7.5 | 7.56 \pm 0.01 | 22.46 \pm 0.27 | 2131 \pm 26 | 1.60 \pm 0.02 | 1.05 \pm 0.02 |
| <u>Experiments #2-3</u> | | | | | |
| pH 8.0 | 7.99 \pm 0.01 | 19.29 \pm 0.25 | 676 \pm 10 | 3.54 \pm 0.03 | 2.30 \pm 0.03 |
| pH 7.5 | 7.46 \pm 0.01 | 21.05 \pm 0.24 | 2640 \pm 30 | 1.22 \pm 0.02 | 0.80 \pm 0.01 |

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