

# Metabolic responses to elevated $p\text{CO}_2$ in the gills of the Pacific Oyster (*Magallana gigas*) using a GC-TOF-MS-based metabolomics approach

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Rising atmospheric carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ), primarily from human fossil fuel combustion and cement production, are resulting in increasing absorption of  $\text{CO}_2$  by the oceans, which has led to a decline in ocean pH in a process known as ocean acidification (OA). There is a growing body of evidence demonstrating the potential effect of OA on life-history traits of marine organisms. Consequently, gas chromatography time-of-flight mass spectrometry (GC-TOF-MS) based metabolic profiling approach was applied to examine the metabolic responses of *Magallana gigas* to elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels, under otherwise natural field conditions.  $\text{CO}_2$ . Oysters were exposed natural environmental  $p\text{CO}_2$  ( $\sim 625.40 \mu\text{atm}$ ) and elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  ( $\sim 1432.94 \mu\text{atm}$ ) levels for 30 days. Results indicated that 36 differential metabolites with variable importance in the projection (VIP) value greater than 1 and Student's t-test lower than 0.05 were identified. Differential metabolites were mapped in the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database to search for the related metabolic pathways. Pathway enrichment analysis indicates that alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism and glycine, serine and threonine metabolism were the most statistically enriched pathways. Further analysis suggested that elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  disturb the TCA cycle via succinate accumulation and *Magallana gigas* most likely adjust their energy metabolic via alanine and GABA accumulation accordingly to cope with elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$ . These findings provide an understanding of the molecular mechanisms involved in modulating metabolism under elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels associated with predicted OA.

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**Abstract:** Rising atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), primarily from human fossil fuel combustion and cement production, are resulting in increasing absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> by the oceans, which has led to a decline in ocean pH in a process known as ocean acidification (OA). There is a growing body of evidence demonstrating the potential effect of OA on life-history traits of marine organisms. Consequently, gas chromatography time-of-flight mass spectrometry (GC-TOF-MS) based metabolic profiling approach was applied to examine the metabolic responses of *Magallana gigas* to elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub> levels, under otherwise natural field conditions. Oysters were exposed natural environmental *p*CO<sub>2</sub> (~625.40 μatm) and elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub> (~1432.94 μatm) levels for 30 days. Results indicated that 36 differential metabolites with variable importance in the projection (VIP) value greater than 1 and Student's t-test lower than 0.05 were identified. Differential metabolites were mapped in the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database to search for the related metabolic pathways. Pathway enrichment analysis indicates that alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism and glycine, serine and threonine metabolism were the most statistically enriched pathways. Further analysis suggested that elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub> disturb the TCA cycle via succinate accumulation and *Magallana gigas* most likely adjust their energy metabolic via alanine and GABA accumulation accordingly to cope with elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub>. These findings provide an understanding of the molecular mechanisms involved in modulating metabolism under elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub> levels associated with predicted OA.

**Keywords:** Ocean acidification, *Magallana gigas*, GC-TOF-MS, metabolomics, KEGG

## 1 Introduction

2 Global mean atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels have increased by more than 40% since the inception of  
3 the Industrial Revolution and are predicted to rise with an average annual increase of about  
4 0.5% (Siegenthaler et al., 2005). Since the industrial revolution approximately one third of  
5 anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions have been absorbed by the oceans, decreasing ocean surface pH by  
6 nearly 0.1 unit. This is predicted to decrease a further 0.4 units by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century and  
7 possibly by 0.7 pH units by 2250, in a process termed ocean acidification (OA) (Caldeira  
8 & Wickett, 2003; Orr et al., 2005). It has been suggested that progressive OA will negatively  
9 impact marine organisms, in particular calcifying organisms, by slowing calcification rates or  
10 even causing dissolution of carbonate shells when saturation states of calcite ( $\Omega_{\text{calc}}$ ) or aragonite  
11 ( $\Omega_{\text{arag}}$ ) drop below unity (Langdon et al., 2000; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2007; Doney et al., 2009).  
12 Additionally, increased CO<sub>2</sub> produces hypercapnic conditions, which have been shown to  
13 negatively affect the physiology, growth and reproductive success of marine calcifying organisms  
14 (Michaelidis et al., 2005; Berge et al., 2006; Spicer, Raffo & Widdicombe, 2007; Kurihara, 2009;  
15 Arnold et al., 2009; Cummings et al., 2011; Navarro et al., 2013).

16 Among calcifying species, shellfish are globally important both ecologically and as ecosystem  
17 engineers, constructing complex reef habitats and governing energy/nutrient flows in coastal  
18 ecosystems (Dumbauld, Ruesink & Rumrill, 2009; Cranford et al., 2012). With an average annual  
19 increase of 6.2% over the last 25 years, global shellfish aquaculture production reached 16.1  
20 million tons in 2014, corresponding to a commercial value of US\$ 19 billion (FAO, 2016).  
21 Oysters are one of the most important cultivated shellfish species in the world. Pacific oyster,  
22 *Magallana gigas* (formally *Crassostrea gigas*), contributed an estimated 625.93 thousand tons to  
23 global aquaculture production in 2014 (FAO, 2016). Previous studies have reported the negative  
24 impact of CO<sub>2</sub>-driven acidification on the developmental stage and growth of *M. gigas*. For

25 example, studies on *M. gigas* showed a strong decrease of developmental success into viable  
26 D-shaped larvae and growth rates with increased  $p\text{CO}_2$  (Kurihara, Kato & Ishimatsu, 2007).  
27 Barros *et al.* (2013) recorded that low values of pH decrease survival and growth rates of *M.*  
28 *gigas* veliger larvae, whilst increasing the frequency of prodissoconch abnormalities and  
29 protruding mantle. Gazeau *et al.* (2007) showed that the calcification rates of the Pacific oyster  
30 (*M. gigas*) decline linearly with increasing  $p\text{CO}_2$  and oyster calcification may decrease by 10%  
31 by the end of the century. Recently, several studies have demonstrated that  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels  
32 corresponding to predicted OA scenarios are likely to interfere with the metabolism of oysters  
33 affecting energy turnover and partitioning to production (Lannig *et al.*, 2010; Parker *et al.*, 2012).  
34 Reduced production as a result of global elevation in  $p\text{CO}_2$  in this species would, not only have  
35 also major consequences for coastal biodiversity, ecosystem functioning and services, but could  
36 cause significant economic loss. Recent results show that the global economic costs of mollusk  
37 loss from OA are around 6 billion USD annually under the assumption of a constant demand and  
38 could in fact be well over 100 billion USD if the demand for mollusks increases (Narita, Rehdanz  
39 & Tol, 2012). However, the underlying mechanisms explaining oyster metabolic responses to  
40 ocean acidification remain largely unexplored.

41 With the development of system biology, metabolomics has recently developed and proved to  
42 be a useful tool to provide a system-wide view of understanding the complexity of metabolic  
43 networks (Nicholson, Lindon & Holmes, 1999; Gavaghan, Wilson & Nicholson, 2002; Nicholson  
44 *et al.*, 2002; Lin, Viant & Tjeerdema, 2006; Patti, Yanes & Siuzdak, 2012; Johnson, Ivanisevic &  
45 Siuzdak, 2016). In recent years, an increasing number of studies have applied this approach to  
46 reveal the metabolic responses of organisms to environmental and anthropogenic stressors (Viant,  
47 Rosenblum & Tjeerdema, 2003; Viant 2007; Bundy, Davey & Viant, 2009; Kido Soule *et al.*,  
48 2015). In addition, there has been an increased application of environmental metabolomics in

49 studies concerning marine invertebrates (Jones et al., 2008; Tuffnail et al., 2009; Wu & Wang,  
50 2011; Zhang et al., 2011; Kwon et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2013; Watanabe et al., 2015). However,  
51 the application of metabolomics methods to the *M. gigas* is, however, still in its infancy. Up to  
52 now, only limited studies investigated the impact of OA stress on energy metabolism and osmotic  
53 regulation of *M. gigas* using NMR-based spectroscopy (Lannig et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2015a;  
54 Wei et al., 2015b). There are various analytical platforms including liquid (LC) or gas (GC)  
55 chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (MS), nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy  
56 (NMR), fourier transform infrared (FT-IR), direct infusion MS and capillary electrophoresis-MS  
57 have been developed over the past decades. Among the various approaches, GC-MS has emerged  
58 as a preferred approach based on its high sensitivity, peak resolution, reproducibility and large  
59 commercial electron ionization spectral libraries. In the present study, a GC-TOF-MS-based  
60 metabolomics approach combined with a multivariate analysis was performed to explore the  
61 physiological response in gills of *M. gigas* after the medium-term exposure to OA (30 d) stress.  
62 The findings provide new and more in-depth information for better understanding the molecular  
63 mechanisms involved in modulating *M. gigas* metabolism under elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$ .

## 64 **Materials & Methods**

### 65 **Animal collection and acclimatization**

66 In May 2016, experimental oysters ( $75.74 \pm 9.08$  mm shell length,  $36.51 \pm 9.38$  g wet weight)  
67 were collected from a large-scale commercial oyster aquaculture area ( $37^\circ 3'55.20''\text{N}$ ,  
68  $122^\circ 32'48.08''\text{E}$ ) in Sanggou bay, Yellow Sea, China, and transported under natural temperature  
69 conditions within 1 h of sampling to mesocosms constructed at a small semi-enclosed dock (7900  
70  $\text{m}^2$  mean depth of 1.5 m.) where *M. gigas* are naturally found to a mesocosm constructed in a  
71 small semi-enclosed port ( $37^\circ 2'14.71''\text{N}$ ,  $122^\circ 33'2.09''\text{E}$ ). Two groups of 60 healthy animals  
72 were selected and individually numbered. All the animals were transferred to the mesocosm

73 system, where they were acclimated at ambient temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen and pH at  
74 19.0 °C, 32.0, 7.0-8.0 mg O<sub>2</sub>·L<sup>-1</sup> and 8.0 for 2 days prior to the start of the experiment.

### 75 **Experimental setup and procedure**

76 Incubations were carried out over 30 days using *in situ* mesocosms. Six mesocosms were  
77 deployed 3 controls ( $p\text{CO}_2 \sim 625.40 \mu\text{atm}$ ) and 3 elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  treatment ( $\sim 1432.94 \mu\text{atm}$ ). Each  
78 mesocosm consists of a plastic double-layer culture basket (40×30×30 cm, length×width×height)  
79 and outer net frame (1.5m×1.5m×0.3m, length×width×height) covered in net (mesh size=1 mm)  
80 which was suspended from 4 buoys with the culture basket at a depth of 50cm. Ten oysters were  
81 each placed in each culture basket. Ambient  $p\text{CO}_2$  treatment was maintained by bubbling  
82 untreated air independently through the water in each culture basket. Elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  treatment  
83 was maintained by enriching the air (from a portable air pump) with CO<sub>2</sub> (from a CO<sub>2</sub> gas  
84 cylinder) in a 500ml mixing vessel (after Findlay et al., 2008; Rastrick et al., 2014). Throughout  
85 the experiment, no mortality of oysters was observed in both control and OA-stressed groups.  
86 Following the incubation, the gill tissues of three or four oysters from each culture basket were  
87 randomly sampled for metabolomics analysis. After collection, the samples were immediately  
88 frozen in liquid nitrogen immediately and stored at -80°C for later metabolite extraction.

### 89 **Monitoring of the physicochemical variables of seawater**

90 During the experiments, seawater temperature, salinity, dissolved oxygen concentration (DO)  
91 and pH in each mesocosm were measured twice a day. Seawater temperature, salinity and  
92 dissolved oxygen concentration (DO) were measured using YSI Professional Plus handheld  
93 multi-parameter water quality meter (Yellow Springs Instrument Company, USA). The pH level  
94 was measured using a commercial combination electrode (Ross type, Orion) calibrated on the  
95 U.S. National Bureau of Standards (NBS) scale. The precision of pH measurements was  $\pm 0.001$   
96 pH units. Total alkalinity ( $A_T$ ) was analysed weekly via a Metrohm 848 Titrino plus automatic

97 titrator (Metrohm, USA) on 100 mL GF/F filtered samples. The accuracy of measurements was  $\pm$   
98 5 mmol·L<sup>-1</sup>. Total dissolved inorganic carbon ( $C_T$ ), aqueous partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> ( $pCO_2$ ), the  
99 CaCO<sub>3</sub> saturation state for calcite ( $\Omega_{calc}$ ) and aragonite ( $\Omega_{arag}$ ) were calculated with the CO2SYS  
100 Package based on the pH and total alkalinity ( $A_T$ ) measurements (Table 1).

### 101 **GC-TOF-MS analysis**

102 Preparation of samples for GC-TOF-MS analysis was performed after Cervera *et al* (2012). In  
103 brief, 50 mg of each frozen samples were extracted by 0.4mL extraction reagent with 20  $\mu$ L of  
104 L-2-Chlorophenylalanine as an internal standard in a 2 mL centrifuge tube. And then, samples  
105 were vortexed for 30s and homogenized in a ball mill for 4 min at 45Hz, before being sonicated  
106 in ice-water bath for 5 min. Subsequently, the tubes were centrifuged at 13000 rpm at 4 °C for 15  
107 min. The 0.35mL supernatant was then transferred to 2 mL GC/MS glass vials for vacuum-drying.  
108 The dried samples were dissolved and derivatized using a two-step procedure involving  
109 oximation and silylation before injection for GC-MS analysis.

110 GC-TOF-MS analysis was carried out with an Agilent 7890 gas chromatograph system  
111 coupled with a Pegasus HT time-of-flight mass spectrometer (after Ji *et al.*, 2016). Samples (1  $\mu$ L)  
112 were injected with splitless mode. The carrier gas was helium with a constant flow rate of 1mL  
113 min<sup>-1</sup>. The initial temperature was heated at 50°C for 1min, then raised to 300°C at a rate of 10°C  
114 min<sup>-1</sup> and maintained at 300°C for 12min. The injection, transfer line, and ion source  
115 temperatures were 280, 270, and 220°C, respectively. The mass spectrometry data were obtained  
116 at full-scan mode ( $m/z$  50-500) at a rate of 20 spectra per second under -70eV electron impact  
117 mode. All the samples and replicates were continuously injected as one batch in random order to  
118 discriminate technical from biological variations.

### 119 **Data processing and statistical analysis**

120 Peaks were detected with Chroma TOF4.3X software (LECO Corporation, St. Joseph, MI,



121 USA). Metabolite annotation was carried out by LECO-Fiehn Rtx5 database using with a  
122 retention time index tolerance of 5000. All raw data were analyzed by principal component  
123 analysis (PCA) and orthogonal projection to latent structures-discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA)  
124 using SIMCA-P 14.1 software package (MKS Data Analytics Solutions, Umea, Sweden) after  
125 performing a unit variance procedure. A variable importance in projection (VIP) that exceeded 1  
126 with a *P*-value less than 0.05 indicated the significant metabolites. In addition, Kyoto  
127 Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) (<http://www.genome.jp/kegg/>) and NIST  
128 (<http://www.nist.gov/index.html>) were utilized to link these metabolites to metabolic pathways.

## 129 **Results**

### 130 **Metabolic profiling in response to OA stress**

131 The total ion current (TIC) chromatograms demonstrated a strong signal, large peak capacity,  
132 and reproducible retention time, indicating the reliability of metabolomic analysis. Obvious  
133 chromatographic differences were observed between different sample groups and a total of 859  
134 peaks were assigned to compounds. By setting the threshold of spectral similarity  $\geq 600$ , 158  
135 metabolites were left through interquartile range denoising method.

136 The score plot of the PCA showed that samples were all lying inside the 95% confidence  
137 region (Hotelling T2 ellipse) (Fig. 1a). The results indicated an obvious separation between  
138 OA-stressed and control groups were detected. In order to obtain a higher level of group  
139 separation and get a better understanding of variables responsible for classification, OPLS-DA  
140 was used to investigate the separation further. A clear discriminability was observed between  
141 OA-stressed and control groups (Fig. 1b). Score plots based on OPLS-DA displayed significant  
142 distinct clustering trend, suggesting extensively different metabolic profiles of each intervention  
143 group ( $R^2Y_{cum} = 0.99$ ,  $Q^2_{cum} = 0.761$ ). With  $Q^2$  intercepting the Y axis at -0.107 in the 200  
144 random permutations test, the supervised model was considered well-guarded against overfitting.

## 145 **Identification of the OA-responsive metabolites**

146 To identify which variables were accountable for such significant separation, variable  
147 importance in the projection (VIP) values greater than 1 were considered the most relevant  
148 metabolites for explaining the responses. On the basis of the  $VIP > 1$ , a total of 36 OA-responsive  
149 metabolites with significant changes (student's T-test  $P < 0.05$ ) were identified (Table 2. Among  
150 them, 4 compounds were unknown. Compared to the non-treated control group, 10 metabolites  
151 were found to be higher in OA group, while 26 were lower. Of these 32 well-identified  
152 metabolites, 7 metabolites including oleic acid, 6-phosphogluconic acid, L-malic acid,  
153 xanthurenic acid, phosphate, beta-Alanine and ornithine had VIP values above 2.0, which  
154 indicated high relevance to the difference between sample groups. Alanine, showing the greatest  
155 fold change ( $\log_2$  fold change=23.43), was the gill metabolite found to be most increased in OA  
156 group compared to control and 1,3-diaminopropane was the metabolite most depleted ( $\log_2$  fold  
157 change = -3.03).

## 158 **Pathway mapping and metabolite-to-metabolite network construction**

159 The 32 well-identified altered metabolites affected by OA stress were mapped to the biological  
160 pathways involved in KEGG database which were assigned to 60 pathways. Holistic pathway  
161 enrichment analysis applied by MetaboAnalyst3.0 showed that these metabolites were primarily  
162 involved in alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism and glycine, serine and threonine  
163 metabolism (Fig. 2).

## 164 **Discussion**

165 In this study, we report a comprehensive analysis of metabolic changes in gills of Pacific  
166 Oyster *M. gigas* responding to elevated levels of  $pCO_2$  predicted under OA using a  
167 GC-TOF-MS-based metabolomics approach. Numerous studies have been derived for describing  
168 the physiological response of bivalves to elevated  $pCO_2$ . Few of these, however, have been

169 verified in the field. The experimental method used herein is based on *in situ* mesocosm  
170 experiments rather than laboratory-based measurements. The successful mesocosm approach  
171 close to “the real world” designed in the present study provides a powerful tool to link between  
172 small-scale single species laboratory experiments and observational correlative approaches  
173 applied in field surveys. The results indicated that elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  affects metabolite alterations.  
174 Pathway enrichment analysis revealed that two amino acid pathways (alanine, aspartate and  
175 glutamate metabolism, glycine, serine and threonine metabolism) and one carbohydrate  
176 (glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism) were the most statistically enriched pathways. Among  
177 these three pathways, alanine, succinate and 4-aminobutanoate (GABA) were the significantly  
178 accumulation metabolites. Amino acids play central roles both as building blocks of proteins and  
179 as intermediates in metabolism. The 20 amino acids that are found within proteins convey a vast  
180 array of chemical versatility. However, amino acid metabolism cannot be regarded independently  
181 of carbon metabolism. Therefore, we linked the changes in amino acid levels in the present study  
182 to the carbohydrates metabolism and the TCA cycle (Fig. 3). Previous studies indicated that  
183 alanine and succinate accumulation is the indicator of anaerobic metabolism in bivalves and  
184 alanine accumulation typically precedes that of succinate (Grieshaber et al., 1994; Michaelidis et  
185 al., 2005; Kurochkin et al., 2009).

186 Alanine is a non-essential amino acid and plays an important role in preserving balanced levels  
187 of nitrogen and glucose in the body. Previous studies showed that the alanine fermentation would  
188 be one of the most suitable pathway to prevent pyruvate accumulation, with the additional  
189 advantage that alanine can accumulate to high concentrations without the detrimental side effects  
190 and inhibitory effects on the activities of pyruvate kinase (De Sousa & Sodek, 2003; Miyashita et  
191 al., 2007; Reggiani et al., 1998). There are two possible pathways acting as an explanation of  
192 alanine accumulation. One way is the alanine shunt where pyruvate generated from glycolysis is

193 transaminated into alanine and 2-Oxoglutarate with glutamate as amino donor. Alanine  
194 accumulation has previously been reported and tend to be explained by the induction of the gene  
195 expression of alanine aminotransferase (AlaAT) and an increase in the enzyme activity (Muench  
196 & Good, 1994). The other way is the GABA-shunt where the synthesis of GABA from glutamate  
197 followed by the production of alanine and succinic semialdehyde (Fait et al., 2008). In the present  
198 study, the observed accumulation of GABA in gill of oyster under elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  indicates the  
199 activity of a GABA shunt. However, further studies are still needed to corroborate the direct  
200 evidence. Considering the conservation of lactate and ethanol levels, alanine accumulation in  
201  $\text{CO}_2$ -exposed oyster in the present study appears is likely related to alanine fermentation  
202 primarily functions to regulate the level of pyruvate which being considered as the core  
203 intermediate in the complex metabolic network.

204 GABA is a four-carbon non-proteinogenic amino acid and act as the major inhibitory  
205 neurotransmitter in the central and peripheral nervous systems of vertebrates and in the peripheral  
206 nervous system of some invertebrates (Jessen et al., 1979). The GABA accumulation has  
207 previously been explained by the activation of glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) when the  
208 cytosolic pH decreases (Crawford et al., 1994). The GAD-catalyzed reaction from glutamate to  
209 GABA consumes  $\text{H}^+$  and has been proposed to buffer cellular acidification during metabolic  
210 oxygen limitation. It seems that the accumulation of GABA is a positive physiological response  
211 when exposed to the acidify condition. However, studies have indicated that the OA-induced  
212 neural signal transmission disruption through GABA-GABA receptors is directly related to the  
213 behavior of the bivalves (Nilsson et al., 2012, Clements & Hunt, 2015; Peng et al., 2017).  
214 Numerous studies with various species of bivalves have reported the sensitivity of the clearance  
215 rate to elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  (Fernández-Reiriz et al., 2011; Navarro et al., 2013). The GABA  
216 accumulation in the gills in this study might offer a potential explanation that ocean acidification

217 induced  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  concentration changes disrupt neural signal transmissions and  
218 subsequently affect the feeding activities. To date, the potential relationship between the  
219 abnormal feeding activities and the role of GABA is not yet fully understood and requires further  
220 investigation.

221 Succinate is an important intermediate of the TCA cycle and plays a crucial role in generating  
222 adenosine triphosphate (ATP), also modulating energy supply for metabolism (Mills & O'Neill,  
223 2014). Elevated succinate in the gill tissue of oysters as shown here has also been previously  
224 observed in tissue of bivalves exposed to elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  (Lannig et al., 2010; Ellis et al., 2014).  
225 Lannig *et al.* (2010) reported that the most notable alteration was an increase in succinate  
226 concentration during prolonged exposure to elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  levels in the gills and hepatopancreas  
227 of *M. gigas*. Wei *et al.* (2015a) showed that the concentrations of succinate, ATP, and amino acids  
228 including arginine and lysine were significantly increased in elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  treated oysters *M.*  
229 *gigas* and suggested that increase of succinate concentration might be a bioindicator OA stress in  
230 the tissue of oysters. Succinate accumulation has previously been explained by the inhibition of  
231 succinate dehydrogenase (SDH), the enzyme responsible for the oxidization of succinate to  
232 fumarate under oxygen limitation (Rocha et al., 2010; King, Selak & Gottlieb, 2006). The other  
233 possibility of succinate accumulation can be potentially explained by activation of the GABA  
234 shunt. However, the connection between GABA and TCA cycle maybe unlikely occurred under  
235 the condition of oxygen limitation which will limit the  $\text{NAD}^+$  supply for the reaction from GABA  
236 to succinate (Rocha et al., 2010). Moreover, decreased cytosolic pH will inhibit the activity of  
237 succinic semialdehyde dehydrogenase (SSADH) which catalysis GABA to succinate (Felle,  
238 2005). Therefore, the GABA shunt is probably not responsible for the accumulation of succinate.

239 In the present study, the levels of most intermediates of the TCA cycle that we were able to  
240 determine did not change significantly under  $\text{CO}_2$ -exposure, with the clear exception of succinate

241 accumulation and malate decrease in combination with the alanine and GABA accumulation.  
242 This suggests that adjustments in energy metabolism previously described in *M. gigas* and other  
243 bivalves (Lannig et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2015a) possibly related to changes in energy demand  
244 and aerobic scope in response to simulated OA maybe related to alanine and GABA shunts, with  
245 disruption to the TCA cycle via succinate accumulation. Since TCA is the most crucial central  
246 pathway linking with almost all the individual metabolic pathway, the metabolic disorder of TCA  
247 cycle will likely not only inference energetic supply and demand but induce metabolic  
248 abnormalities which present an amazing complexity considering our current knowledge on the  
249 TCA cycle function and biogenesis.

## 250 **Conclusions**

251 Overall, this study has revealed the distinct metabolic profiles in gills of Pacific Oyster *M.*  
252 *gigas* associated with elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  based on *in situ* mesocosm. The results indicated that  
253 elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  disturb the TCA cycle via succinate accumulation and *M. gigas* most likely adjust  
254 their energy metabolic via alanine and GABA accumulation. Further investigations are needed to  
255 determine activities of key enzymes involved in TCA cycle and GABA shunt and/or metabolite  
256 fluxes to fully unravel the mechanisms of the observed metabolite shifts and their physiological  
257 consequences and triggers.

258

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269

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**Figure 1** (on next page)

Score plots of PCA (a) and OPLS-DA (b) for OA-stressed (red) and control (black) groups

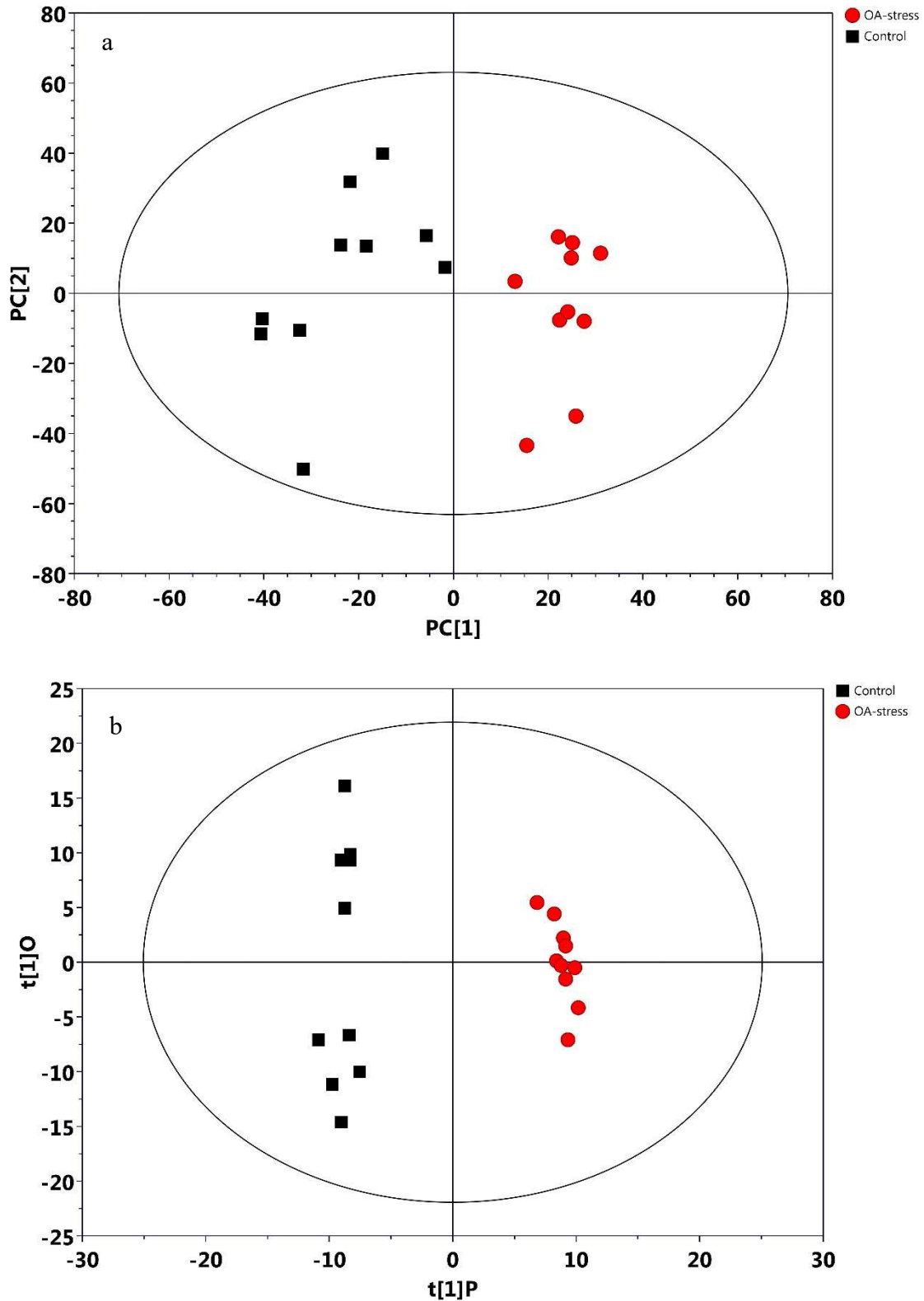


Fig.1 Score plots of PCA (a) and OPLS-DA (b) for OA-stressed (red) and control (black) groups



**Figure 2** (on next page)

Pathway enrichment analysis of the altered metabolites upon OA stresses exposure

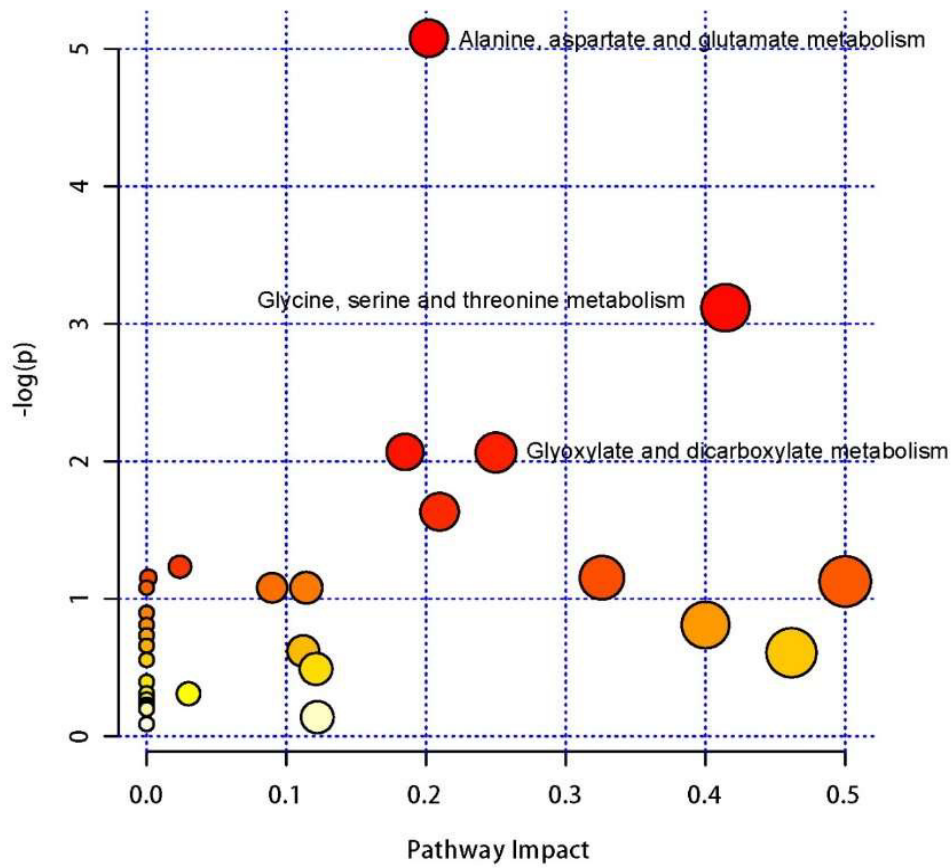


Fig 2. Pathway enrichment analysis of the altered metabolites upon OA stresses exposure.

**Figure 3**(on next page)

Response of metabolism pathways to OA stress in gills of oyster

The metabolites colored with red and blue indicate the up- and down-regulated ( $P < 0.05$ ) metabolites respectively

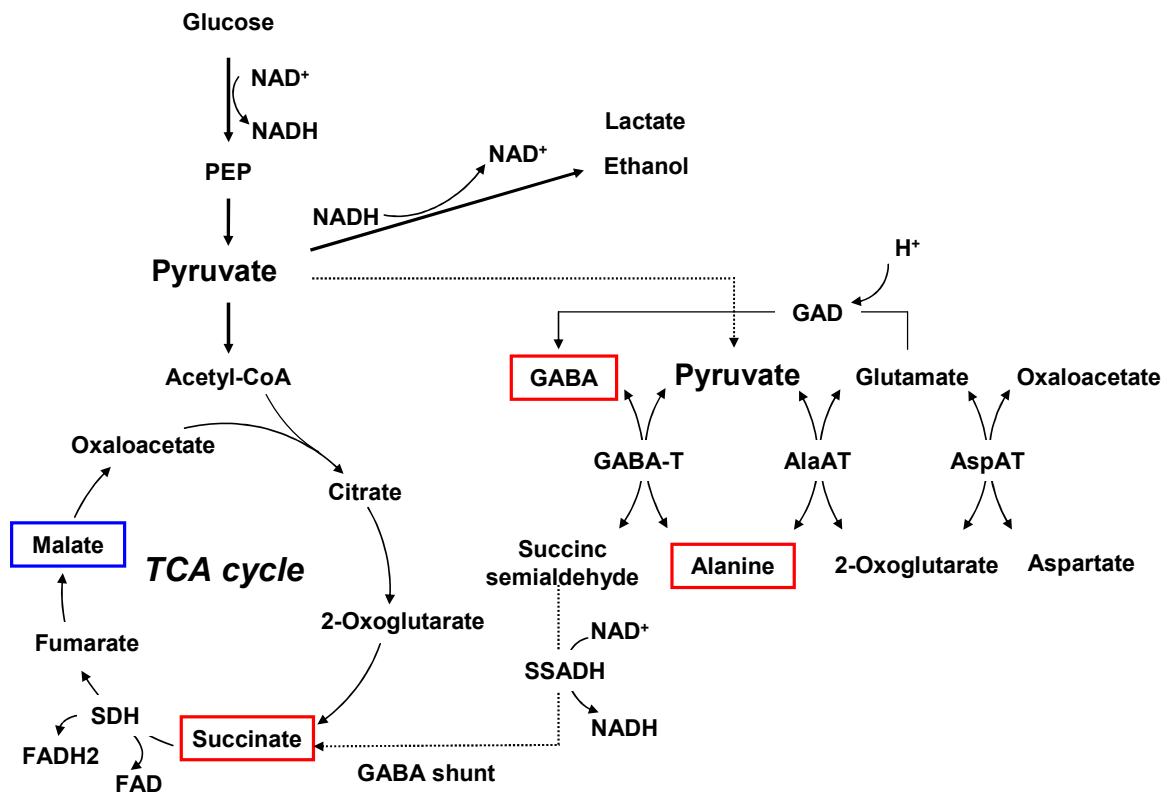


Fig 3. Response of metabolism pathways to OA stress in gills of oyster. The metabolites colored with red and blue indicate the up- and down-regulated ( $P < 0.05$ ) metabolites respectively.

**Table 1** (on next page)

Summary of the OA-responsive metabolites with significant changes derived from GC-TOF-MS analysis

**Table 1.** Seawater chemistry variables over the 30 days experimental period

	Control pH <sub>NBS</sub> 8.0	Low pH <sub>NBS</sub> 7.7
<i>Measured</i>		
Temperature(°C)	19.08 ± 2.06 <sup>A</sup>	19.09 ± 1.95 <sup>A</sup>
Salinity	32.07 ± 0.48 <sup>A</sup>	32.09 ± 0.43 <sup>A</sup>
pH <sub>NBS</sub>	7.97 ± 0.15 <sup>A</sup>	7.68 ± 0.17 <sup>B</sup>
A <sub>T</sub> (μmol kg <sup>-1</sup> )	2211.53 ± 92.72 <sup>A</sup>	2206.00 ± 77.74 <sup>A</sup>
<i>Calculated</i>		
C <sub>T</sub> (μmol kg <sup>-1</sup> )*	2081.88 ± 34.39	2169.69 ± 50.28
pCO <sub>2</sub> (μatm)	625.40 ± 21 <sup>A</sup>	1432.94 ± 27 <sup>B</sup>
Ω <sub>calc</sub>	2.61 ± 0.32	1.43 ± 0.30
Ω <sub>arag</sub>	1.68 ± 0.20	0.92 ± 0.19
HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> (μmol kg <sup>-1</sup> )	1950.93 ± 38.64	2060.67 ± 48.29
CO <sub>3</sub> <sup>2-</sup> (μmol kg <sup>-1</sup> )	106.79 ± 12.90	58.77 ± 12.30

Temperature, salinity and pH<sub>NBS</sub> scale were measured three times a day. Total alkalinity (A<sub>T</sub>) was measured weekly. All other parameters [pCO<sub>2</sub>; calcite and aragonite saturation state (Ω<sub>calc</sub> and Ω<sub>arag</sub>, respectively); HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>; and CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>] were calculated from pH<sub>NBS</sub> and A<sub>T</sub> with CO2SYS (Pierrot, Lewis & Wallace, 2006) using the dissociation constants of Mehrbach *et al.* (1973) as refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987). Values are means ± SD. Different letters indicate significant variation between treatments (ANOVA,  $P < 0.05$ ).

**Table 2** (on next page)

Summary of the OA-responsive metabolites with significant changes derived from GC-TOF-MS analysis

**Table 2.** Summary of the OA-responsive metabolites with significant changes derived from GC-TOF-MS analysis

Peak	Similarity	R.T.	VIP	p-value	q-value	log2 fold change
Oleic acid	894	22.8515,0	2.66	0.00	0.01	22.20
6-phosphogluconic acid	716	24.4599,0	2.52	0.00	0.00	-1.33
L-Malic acid	929	15.1303,0	2.41	0.00	0.01	-2.17
Xanthurenic acid	903	23.2262,0	2.33	0.00	0.00	-2.17
Phosphate	866	12.3447,0	2.12	0.01	0.04	3.02
Beta-Alanine	935	14.433,0	2.05	0.00	0.00	-1.21
Unknown	794	10.1494,0	2.05	0.01	0.03	-1.69
Ornithine	891	18.964,0	2.00	0.00	0.00	-1.29
1,2,4-Benzenetriol	713	16.5623,0	1.91	0.00	0.00	-1.07
Unknown	694	18.1099,0	1.85	0.00	0.00	-2.41
Alpha-D-glucosamine 1-phosphate	677	19.073,0	1.82	0.00	0.02	-1.05
Alanine	918	9.87567,0	1.75	0.03	0.06	23.43
O-Phosphorylethanolamine	937	18.5929,0	1.72	0.00	0.00	-0.96
Unknown	657	19.7691,0	1.69	0.00	0.00	-2.12
L-Allothreonine	950	13.8234,0	1.69	0.00	0.02	-0.71
Conduritol b epoxide	733	20.2858,0	1.63	0.00	0.02	-1.18
Methyl-beta-D-galactopyranoside	824	19.2909,0	1.59	0.00	0.02	-0.87
Alpha-Aminoadipic acid	660	17.8244,0	1.59	0.00	0.01	-2.24
Cytidine-monophosphate	664	20.9698,0	1.56	0.02	0.05	-0.91
Lysine	899	20.0334,0	1.53	0.02	0.04	-1.05
Serine	926	13.4789,0	1.51	0.00	0.02	-0.78
Galactose	878	19.7292,0	1.50	0.00	0.02	2.32
Myristic Acid	904	19.3209,0	1.50	0.02	0.05	-0.60
O-Phosphoserine	773	19.1044,0	1.45	0.00	0.00	-2.49
Ribose-5-phosphate	892	21.7439,0	1.42	0.00	0.01	-1.25
Pyrogallol	792	15.8774,0	1.40	0.01	0.03	-0.91
Unknown	702	23.8081,0	1.40	0.04	0.07	-2.73
4-aminobutyric acid	766	15.7454,0	1.36	0.03	0.06	1.86
Maltose	919	26.9238,0	1.31	0.02	0.05	1.78
Lactose	732	26.7022,0	1.29	0.03	0.07	1.99
Ciliatine	862	18.175,0	1.24	0.01	0.04	-0.74
1,3-diaminopropane	729	17.138,0	1.22	0.01	0.03	-3.03
21-hydroxypregnenolone	651	29.4326,0	1.20	0.04	0.08	0.40
Succinic acid	868	12.8776,0	1.07	0.00	0.01	1.94
1,5-Anhydroglucitol	676	19.4587,0	1.05	0.05	0.09	3.32
Cycloleucine	706	13.6351,0	1.05	0.02	0.05	-0.91