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3 **Response of two marine bacterial isolates to high CO₂ concentration**

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12 Running title: Bacterial metabolism under high pCO₂

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1 ABSTRACT: Experimental results relative to the effects of ocean acidification on
2 planktonic marine microbes are still rather inconsistent and occasionally contradictory.
3 Moreover, laboratory or field experiments addressing the effects of changes in CO₂
4 concentrations on heterotrophic microbes are very scarce, despite their major role in the
5 marine carbon cycle. We tested the direct effect of an elevated CO₂ concentration (1000
6 ppmv) on the biomass and metabolic rates (leucine incorporation, CO₂ fixation and
7 respiration) of two isolates belonging to two relevant marine bacterial families:
8 Rhodobacteraceae (strain MED165) and Flavobacteriaceae (strain MED217). Our
9 results demonstrate that, contrary to some expectations, high *p*CO₂ did not negatively
10 affect bacterial growth but increased growth efficiency in the case of MED217. The
11 elevated *p*CO₂ caused, in both cases, higher rates of CO₂ fixation in the dissolved
12 fraction and, in the case of MED217, lower respiration rates. Both responses would tend
13 to increase the pH of seawater acting as a negative feedback between elevated
14 atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and ocean acidification.

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16 Key words: bacterial metabolism - Flavobacteriaceae - ocean acidification -
17 Rhodobacteraceae

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1 INTRODUCTION

2 In the past 200 years the oceans have absorbed about 50% of the anthropogenic
3 CO₂ (Sabine et al. 2004), which has resulted in a decrease of surface seawater pH by 0.1
4 units (Royal Society 2005). Caldeira & Wickett (2003) estimate that surface ocean
5 seawater pH will reduce by 0.7 units over the next 200 years.

6 Ocean acidification could have severe consequences for marine biota, including
7 both calcifying and non-calcifying organisms (Raven et al. 2005, Fabry et al. 2008), yet,
8 there is not solid evidence about how the different organisms will react to the coupled
9 pCO₂-pH change (Hendriks et al. 2010). In the case of marine microbes, the
10 experimental results are inconsistent and occasionally contradictory (Joint et al. 2010,
11 Liu et al. 2010).

12 Compared to phytoplankton, much less laboratory or field experiments have
13 assessed the effects of changes in CO₂ concentrations on heterotrophic microbes (Joint
14 et al. 2010), despite playing a major role in the marine carbon cycle, mineralizing
15 organic carbon in the oceans to CO₂ (del Giorgio & Williams 2005). A few mesocosms
16 experiments have tested the effect of high CO₂ concentrations on the abundance and/or
17 production of natural bacterioplankton populations (Rochelle-Newall et al. 2004,
18 Grossart et al. 2006, Allgaier et al. 2008). These studies have found either no or indirect
19 (linked to phytoplankton dynamics) effect of elevated pCO₂ on bacterial production.
20 Only a few studies have demonstrated a direct effect of CO₂ on natural prokaryotic
21 plankton from the deep ocean (Coffin et al. 2004, Yamada et al. 2010) or on marine
22 bacterial isolates (Takeuchi et al. 1997, Labare et al. 2010). The latter studies found a
23 decrease in the production and growth rates at pH < 7, values nevertheless far from the
24 usual pH observed in ocean waters under present or future scenarios of elevated pCO₂.

1 Most microorganisms, particularly heterotrophic bacteria, are able to assimilate
2 CO₂ as part of their metabolism through anaplerotic reactions (Roslev et al. 2004).
3 Although light-independent or dark CO₂ assimilation has been usually assumed to be
4 insignificant in oxygenated marine waters, a recent work by Alonso-Sáez et al. (2010)
5 suggests that the global relevance of this process could have been underestimated.
6 Those results show for the first time that high ambient CO₂ concentrations could
7 stimulate CO₂ fixation rates by increasing the CO₂ flux into the cells.

8 A comprehensive understanding of the effect of elevated CO₂ concentration on
9 carbon cycling in the ocean requires the analysis of both production and respiration
10 rates to provide a total carbon budget. However, to the best of our knowledge none of
11 the published studies have simultaneously addressed the effect of CO₂ on bacterial
12 production and respiration, which are essential variables for bacterial growth efficiency
13 calculations. On the other hand, Allgaier et al. (2008) did find changes in bacterial
14 taxonomic composition in response to high CO₂ concentrations, which suggest that the
15 effects of elevated *p*CO₂ are likely to vary among species. Therefore, the aim of our
16 work was to test the direct effect of elevated CO₂ concentrations (1000 ppmv) on the
17 biomass and metabolic rates (leucine incorporation, CO₂ fixation and respiration) of two
18 bacterial isolates.

19 In order to test the direct effect of *p*CO₂ on bacterioplankton it is essential to
20 isolate them from the rest of the microbial food web components. Moreover, the best
21 approach is working with isolates or strains which are abundant and/or relevant in the
22 ocean and that are likely to respond in a different way to a similar stress. We selected
23 different bacterial isolates representative of two important families in marine surface
24 waters: Rhodobacteraceae (MED165) and Flavobacteriaceae (MED217).

1 The Rhodobacteraceae includes the *Roseobacter* lineage, which is adapted to
2 use monomers, such as sugars or amino acids, and typically constitute about 20% of the
3 bacterial community in eutrophic coastal waters (Buchan et al. 2005, Alonso-Gutierrez
4 et al. 2009). On the other hand, members of the family Flavobacteriaceae, are successful
5 in the degradation of polymeric substances and are particularly abundant during
6 decaying phytoplankton blooms (Pinhassi et al. 2004, Alderkamp et al. 2006, Teira et
7 al. 2008), eventually accounting for up to more than 50% of total bacterial abundance.

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9

MATERIAL AND METHODS

10 **Bacterial cultures and experimental setup.** The two strains (MED165 and
11 MED217) were isolated in May 2001 from the surface waters (5 m) of Blanes Bay
12 (Mediterranean Sea) and were kindly provided by Dr JM Gasol (ICM-CSIC). MED165
13 belongs to Rhodobacteraceae and is 99.8% similar to *Roseobacter* sp. AY576690;
14 whereas MED217 belongs to Flavobacteriaceae and is 99.6% similar to *Cytophaga* sp.
15 AY745817. Both MED165 and MED217 were isolated from 1:20 seawater dilution
16 cultures enriched with inorganic phosphorous. Thereafter, we will refer to these isolates
17 as *Roseobacter* (MED165) and *Cytophaga* (MED217).

18 The strains were initially grown in Zobell liquid medium (4 g of peptone [Bacto
19 TM Peptone; DIFCO 211677] and 0.8 g of yeast extract [Bacto Yeast Extract DIFCO
20 212750] dissolved in 600 mL of 0.2- μ m filtered seawater and 200 mL of sterile MQ
21 water) for one week. Thereafter, they were grown in 0.2- μ m filtered seawater amended
22 with 0.5 mL of Zobell medium per litre of seawater in 2 L-glass culture flasks.

1 In order to determine the periodicity of dilution for establishing a semi-
2 continuous culture, we first studied the growth characteristics of each strain in the
3 diluted media used (Fig. 1). Both strains approached the stationary phase after 28 h,
4 therefore, 80% dilutions were done every 24 h. The derived growth rate, calculated
5 using a logistic model, was slightly higher for *Roseobacter* than for *Cytophaga*, with
6 doubling times of 4.1 and 5.3 h, respectively.

7 Semi-continuous cultures (n=4) for each strain were simultaneously maintained
8 by daily 80% dilutions with fresh medium. Culture flasks were kept in an incubation
9 chamber at 18 °C under 16h light: 8h dark cycles. Light was provided by cool white
10 fluorescent tubes and irradiance, measured in air in a position close to the centre of the
11 culture flasks, was 250 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. The cultures were allowed to acclimate to
12 the experimental conditions by continuously bubbling with the target CO₂ levels during
13 5 days under the light and temperature conditions previously described. To ensure
14 sterile conditions mixed gases were supplied after filtering through a 0.2 μm membrane
15 filter. The $p\text{CO}_2$ of fresh medium used for daily dilutions was also adjusted to the
16 experimental conditions. Cultures were aerated with air pumped from an open area
17 outside the building, for the samples incubated under regular atmospheric CO₂ levels
18 (Ambient CO₂: 380 ppmv) (n=2), and with a mix of air and CO₂ from a 2000-3000
19 ppmv CO₂ gas tank (Air Liquide S.A.), for the samples incubated under elevated CO₂
20 levels (Elevated CO₂: 1000 ppmv final concentration) (n=2). The mixture air:CO₂
21 reaching the cultures was made by a double tube flow meter and the flow in each flask
22 was regulated by individual flow meters (Aalborg). After the acclimation period, a single
23 sampling took place at 9:00 a.m. (approx. 12 hours after dilution). It was carried out by
24 gravity using the flow generated after sucking the air of a silicon tube with a syringe

1 connected to the tube and to a glass tube inserted in each flask. Samples were taken for
2 the estimation of inorganic and organic carbon system variables and fluorescence of
3 coloured organic matter, as well as for bacterial abundance and activity (leucine
4 incorporation, CO₂ fixation and respiration rates).

5 **Dissolved inorganic carbon and $p\text{CO}_2$.** Water samples (n=3) for the analysis of
6 dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in each flask were collected in 5 mL glass serum vials
7 and analysed with a LiCOR Non-Dispersive Infrared Gas Analyzer LiCOR 7000 within
8 a few hours after collection. The system was standardised with Na₂CO₃ solutions. pH
9 and temperature were measured with a Crison pH 25 pH meter and salinity with a
10 Pioneer thermosalinometer Pioneer 30. The pH meter was calibrated in the total
11 hydrogen ion concentration pH scale with a 2-amino-2-hydroxymethyl-1,3-propanediol
12 (tris) buffer prepared in synthetic seawater (DOE, 1994). The partial pressure of CO₂ in
13 the water samples ($p\text{CO}_2$) was calculated from salinity, temperature, pH and DIC
14 measurements using the inorganic carbon equilibrium constants from Merzbach et al.
15 (1973) as refit by Dickson & Millero (1987), the boric acid constant from Dickson
16 (1990), the ionic product of water from Millero (1995), and the dissociation constant of
17 bisulfate ion from Dickson (1990).

18 **Fluorescence of particulate and dissolved organic matter (DOM).** Samples
19 for dissolved organic carbon (DOC) and fluorescence of coloured dissolved organic
20 matter (FDOM) quantification were collected in 250 mL acid-cleaned Winkler flasks
21 and filtered through acid-rinsed 0.2 µm filters (Pall Supor membrane Disc) in an acid-
22 cleaned all-glass filtration system under low N₂ flow pressure within one hour of
23 collection. Aliquots for the analysis of DOC were drawn into pre-combusted (450 °C,
24 12 h) 10 mL glass ampoules, acidified with 25% H₃PO₄ to pH < 2, heat sealed and

1 preserved at 4 °C until determination with a Shimadzu TOC-VCS analyzer under the
2 principle of high temperature catalytic oxidation. The catalyser was 0.5% Pt on Al₂O₃
3 balls. The DOC concentration of each sample was obtained by subtracting the average ±
4 SD peak area of 3-5 injections (150 µL) from the average ± SD peak area of the freshly
5 produced milli-Q water used as a blank and dividing by the slope of the standard curve
6 with potassium hydrogen phthalate (Álvarez-Salgado & Miller, 1998).

7 Aliquots for the quantification of FDOM were collected directly in a quartz cell
8 of 1 cm path-length and measured in a Perkin Elmer LS 55 luminiscence spectrometer.
9 The fluorescence of particulate organic matter (FPOM) was obtained by subtracting the
10 FDOM from the fluorescence of the unfiltered sample. The Perkin Elmer LS 55 was
11 equipped with a xenon discharge lamp, equivalent to 20 kW for 8 µs duration. Discrete
12 excitation/emission (Ex/Em) pair measurements were performed at P.G. Coble's (1996)
13 peak-M, characteristic of marine humic-like substances (Ex/Em : 320 nm /410 nm) and
14 peak-T, characteristic of protein-like substances (Ex/Em: 280 nm/350 nm). Four
15 replicate measurements were performed for each Ex/Em pair. The system was calibrated
16 with a mixed standard of quinine sulphate (QS) and tryptophan (Trp) in sulphuric acid
17 0.05 M (Nieto-Cid et al. 2005). The equivalent concentration of every peak was
18 determined by subtracting the average peak height from the corresponding milli-Q
19 water blank height and dividing by the slope of the standard curve. Fluorescence units
20 were expressed in ppb equivalents of QS (ppb QS) for peak-M and ppb equivalents of
21 Trp (ppb Trp) for peak-T. The precision was ±0.1 ppb QS and ±0.6 ppb Trp,
22 respectively.

23 **Cell abundance and biovolume.** One or 2 mL samples were fixed with 0.2-µm
24 filtered formaldehyde (1-2% final concentration) and subsequently stored at 4 °C in the

1 dark for 12-18 h. Thereafter, each sample was filtered through a 0.2 µm polycarbonate
2 filter (Millipore, GTTP, 25 mm filter diameter) supported by a cellulose nitrate filter
3 (Millipore, HAWP, 0.45 µm), washed twice with milli-Q water, dried and stored in a
4 microfuge vial at -20 °C. For total bacterial counts cells were stained with a DAPI (4',
5 6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole)-mix (5.5 parts of Citifluor [Citifluor, Ltd.], 1 part of
6 Vectashield [Vector Laboratories, Inc.] and 0.5 parts of PBS with DAPI (1 µg mL⁻¹ final
7 concentration). The slides were examined with an epifluorescence microscope equipped
8 with a 100-W Hg-lamp and appropriate filter sets for DAPI. More than 200 DAPI-
9 stained cells were counted per sample. Bacterial biovolumes were estimated from DAPI
10 images as $(\pi/4)W^2(L - W/3)$, where L is length, and W is width. Despite bacterial
11 biovolume is commonly examined by using DAPI staining for DNA, it is important to
12 note that DAPI images may underestimate cell sizes (Suzuki et al 1993).

13 **Catalysed Reported Deposition-Fluorescence In Situ Hybridisation (CARD-**
14 **FISH).** In order to control potential cross-contamination of the cultures we used
15 Catalysed Reported Deposition-Fluorescence In Situ Hybridisation (CARD-FISH) with
16 oligonucleotide probes specific for the *Bacteroidetes* group (CF319a) (Manz et al.
17 1996) and the *Roseobacter* lineage (Ros537). Filters for CARD-FISH were embedded
18 in low-gelling-point agarose and incubated with lysozyme (Teira et al. 2008). Filters
19 were cut in sections and hybridized for 2 h at 35 °C with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-
20 labelled oligonucleotide probes. Tyramide-Alexa488 was used for signal amplification
21 (20 min) as previously described (Perthaler et al. 2002). We used 55% formamide for
22 both probes. Cells were finally counter-stained with a DAPI-mix. The slides were
23 examined with an epifluorescence microscope equipped with a 100-W Hg-lamp and
24 appropriate filter sets for DAPI and Alexa488. More than 200 DAPI-stained cells were

1 counted per sample. For each microscope field, 2 different categories were enumerated:
2 (i) total DAPI-stained cells and (ii) cells stained with the specific probe. The counting
3 error, expressed as the percentage of standard error between replicates
4 ($SE/MEAN*100$), was $< 2\%$ for DAPI counts and $< 10\%$ for FISH counts.

5 The CARD-FISH using probes of the lineage *Roseobacter* (Ros537) and for the
6 class Bacteroidetes (CF319a), indicated that problems of cross-contamination were
7 negligible in the case of *Roseobacter* cultures (ca. 100% of the DAPI-stained cells
8 hybridized with the Ros537 probe both in the High and in the Low CO₂ treatments),
9 whereas a minor cross-contamination with *Roseobacter* cells was detected in the
10 *Cytophaga* cultures (ca. 90% of the DAPI-stained cells hybridized with the CF319a
11 probe, and ca. 10% with the Ros537; both in the High and in the Low treatments) (data
12 not shown).

13 **Leucine incorporation.** The [³H] leucine incorporation method, modified as
14 described by Smith & Azam (1992), was used to determine bacterial production.
15 Samples (four replicates and two killed controls) were incubated for 40 min in the same
16 incubation chamber as the cultures. The theoretical leucine to carbon conversion factor
17 (CF) was used to calculate bacterial biomass production (BP) rates from Leu uptake
18 rates ($3.1 \text{ kg C mol Leu}^{-1}$).

19 **CO₂ fixation.** Eight 5 ml acid-cleaned glass vials were filled with culture,
20 inoculated with 180 kBq (5 μCi) of $\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$ and then incubated for 1 h in a
21 temperature-controlled photosynthetron incubator (CHPT Inc.). Each two replicates
22 were exposed to a range of 4 irradiance levels (0, 100, 250 and $1000 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}$
23 s^{-1}) in order to assess the effect of light on bacterial CO₂ fixation. After the incubation
24 period, the samples were filtered at very low vacuum pressure ($<50 \text{ mm Hg}$) through

1 0.2 μm polycarbonate filters using a system that allows the recovery of the filtrate. The
2 filters and the filtrates were decontaminated by exposing them to fumes of concentrated
3 HCl for 12 h and by adding 100 μl of 50% HCl and shaking for 12 h, respectively. Two
4 extra replicates were inoculated and immediately decontaminated (without incubation)
5 in order to obtain a time zero value. A multipurpose liquid scintillation cocktail was
6 used for both filters and filtrates (Insta-Gel plus, Perkin Elmer). Quenching corrections
7 were made using an external standard. As a significant effect of irradiance was not
8 found neither for *Roseobacter* nor for *Cytophaga* (ANOVA test, $p > 0.5$, $n=16$), we
9 averaged the disintegrations per minute (DPMs) of the eight bottles and subtracted the
10 mean DPMs of the time zero value for CO_2 fixation calculations. The amount of ^{14}C
11 fixed as particulate organic carbon (P- CO_2 fix) and the amount of ^{14}C subsequently
12 released from the cells to the dissolved fraction (D- CO_2 fix) was obtained as the mean
13 value in the filter and mean value in the filtrate, respectively.

14 **Respiration.** Oxygen consumption rates were determined by dark-bottle
15 incubations. Six dark, 50 mL, gravimetrically calibrated, borosilicate bottles were
16 carefully filled from each culture, using silicone tubing, overflowing >100 mL. An
17 initial set of 3 dark bottles was fixed immediately for initial oxygen concentration, the
18 remainder being kept in the dark for 1-2 h in the same incubation chamber as the
19 cultures. Dissolved oxygen concentration was measured through automated precision
20 Winkler titration performed with a Metrohm 721 DMS Titrino, using a potentiometric
21 end point detector as described in Serret et al. (1999). Bacterial respiration (BR) was
22 converted into C units by using a respiration quotient (RQ) of 0.8 (Williams & del
23 Giorgio, 2005).

1 **Statistical analysis.** Data were log or arcsin transformed to attain normality and
2 homocedasticity (tested by Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Levene tests, respectively). The
3 unpaired T-test was then used for comparisons of two datasets (Elevated versus
4 Ambient treatments). When homocedasticity failed we used a T-test assuming unequal
5 variances. An ANOVA test was used for comparison of more than two datasets. All
6 statistical analyses were computed using SPSS statistics 19.0 software. In order to
7 correct for the small sample size (n=4), we applied the correction proposed by Good
8 (1982), substituting p by $p \sqrt{0.5}$.

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RESULTS

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CO₂ system variables

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At the beginning of the acclimation period the $p\text{CO}_2$ of the air bubbling the cultures was adjusted to 1000 ppmv in the Elevated CO₂ treatment and to 380 ppmv in the Ambient CO₂ treatment. Due to bacterial activity at the sampling time, i.e. 12 hours after 80% dilution with acclimated fresh medium, the $p\text{CO}_2$ of seawater in the Elevated CO₂ treatment was 1162 ± 84 ppmv in the *Roseobacter* and 1137 ± 51 ppmv in the *Cytophaga* cultures. By contrast, in the Ambient CO₂ treatment, the seawater $p\text{CO}_2$ was significantly (T-test, $p = 0.047$, $n = 4$) higher in the *Cytophaga* cultures (412 ± 27 ppmv) than in the *Roseobacter* cultures (242 ± 11 ppmv). The mean pH in the Elevated CO₂ treatment was 7.60 in both cultures, whereas the pH in the Ambient CO₂ treatment was significantly higher (T-test, $p = 0.026$, $n = 4$) in *Roseobacter* (8.17 ± 0.03) than in *Cytophaga* cultures (7.99 ± 0.02).

23

DOC and induced fluorescence of particulate and dissolved organic matter

1 DOC concentration at the sampling time was higher in the *Roseobacter* (372 ± 5
2 $\mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$) than in the *Cytophaga* ($286 \pm 10 \mu\text{mol C L}^{-1}$) cultures, and no significant
3 differences were found between the Elevated and the Ambient CO₂ treatments. The
4 protein-like fluorescence of particulate organic matter (FPOM-T) at the sampling time
5 was higher in the *Roseobacter* than in the *Cytophaga* cultures (Fig. 2A). There were no
6 significant differences between the mean FPOM-T in the Elevated and Ambient CO₂
7 treatments. The protein-like fluorescence of dissolved organic matter (FDOM-T)
8 followed a very similar pattern than the FPOM-T (Fig. 2B). By contrast, the humic-like
9 fluorescence of dissolved organic matter (FDOM-M) in the *Cytophaga* culture was
10 significantly higher (T-test, $p = 0.03$, $n=4$) in the Ambient than in the Elevated CO₂
11 treatment (Fig. 2C).

12 **Bacterial abundance and activity rates**

13 After the acclimation period, the abundance of *Roseobacter* at the sampling time
14 was ca. 50×10^6 cells mL⁻¹, whereas that of *Cytophaga* was ca. 80×10^6 cells mL⁻¹ (Fig.
15 3A). There were no significant differences between the Elevated and the Ambient CO₂
16 treatments. The mean biovolume of *Roseobacter* cells ($0.71 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{m}^3$) was higher
17 than that of *Cytophaga* cells ($0.35 \pm 0.05 \mu\text{m}^3$), and no significant differences were
18 found between the Elevated and Ambient CO₂ treatments.

19 Despite lower cell abundance, rates of leucine incorporation (bacterial
20 production, BP) were almost twice in the *Roseobacter* than in the *Cytophaga* culture
21 (Fig. 3B). There were no significant differences between CO₂ treatments. Similarly,
22 anaplerotic CO₂ fixation rates (both dissolved and particulate) were also higher in
23 *Roseobacter* than in *Cytophaga* (Figs. 3C & D). There were no significant differences in
24 the rates of CO₂ fixation measured in the particulate fraction (P-CO₂ fix, Fig. 3C)

1 between treatments, whereas those measured in the dissolved fraction (D-CO₂ fix) were
2 significantly higher in the Elevated than in the Ambient CO₂ treatment (Fig.3D) in both
3 isolates. Overall, P-CO₂ fixation represented 8-9% of the BP in both isolates.

4 On the other hand, bacterial respiration (BR) was higher in the *Cytophaga* than
5 in the *Roseobacter* cultures, particularly in the Ambient CO₂ treatment (Fig. 3E). BR
6 was significantly higher in the Ambient than in the Elevated CO₂ treatment in the case
7 of *Cytophaga* (T-test, p = 0.02, n = 4). The derived bacterial growth efficiency (BGE,
8 estimated as BP/(BP+BR), was higher for *Roseobacter* than for *Cytophaga* (Fig. 3F).
9 *Cytophaga* showed a significantly (T-test, p = 0.005, n = 4) higher BGE in the Elevated
10 CO₂ (0.57 ± 0.01) than in the Ambient CO₂ (0.49 ± 0.02) treatment, while *Roseobacter*
11 growth efficiency did not respond to the elevated CO₂.

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DISCUSSION

14 Both detrimental and stimulatory effects of seawater acidification associated to
15 elevated pCO₂ on marine plankton have been widely demonstrated at the organism
16 level; including both phytoplankton and zooplankton species (see review by Riebesell et
17 al. 2008). However, to the best of our knowledge, the effect of high pCO₂ has been
18 scantily tested on single marine heterotrophic bacteria species (Takeuchi et al. 1997,
19 Labare et al. 2010). Moreover, none of these studies tested the effect of elevated CO₂ on
20 respiration or CO₂ fixation rates. Both processes are relevant in terms of dissolved
21 inorganic carbon system chemistry and carbon cycling, as CO₂ fixation reduces, and
22 respiration increases, the concentration of CO₂ in seawater. The objective of our study
23 was to evaluate the direct effect of elevated pCO₂ levels on catabolic and anabolic

1 processes rates of two relevant marine strains. Our results revealed that *Roseobacter* and
2 *Cytophaga* strains, presumably carrying out contrasting functions in the ecosystem
3 (Teira et al. 2008, 2009), responded differently to high $p\text{CO}_2$.

4 ***Roseobacter* and *Cytophaga* metabolism under present-day $p\text{CO}_2$ levels (380 ppmv)**

5 The bacterial yield in terms of cell abundance is lower for *Roseobacter* than for
6 *Cytophaga* (50 vs. 80×10^6 cells mL^{-1} at the sampling time) (Fig. 3A). The lower
7 bacterial yield of *Roseobacter* contrasts with its higher BP and P- CO_2 fixation rates. A
8 possible explanation could be a larger cell size of *Roseobacter* compared to *Cytophaga*.
9 Based on microscope estimates, we found that the mean biovolume of *Roseobacter* cells
10 was twice that of *Cytophaga* cells. The higher FPOM-T in *Roseobacter* rather than in
11 *Cytophaga* cultures also suggests higher bacterial biomass in the *Roseobacter* cultures.

12 Cell-specific BP rates in the Ambient CO_2 treatment (5.4 and $13.1 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$
13 for *Cytophaga* and *Roseobacter*, respectively) are within the range of cell-specific BP
14 rates measured in coastal waters where members of Rhodobacteraceae and
15 Flavobacteriaceae are particularly abundant (Reinthalder & Herndl 2005, Lamy et al.
16 2009, Lekunberri et al 2010).

17 Heterotrophs can assimilate CO_2 in various carboxylation reactions as part of
18 central and peripheral pathways (Dijkhuizen & Harder 1985). We found that CO_2
19 fixation was independent of light in both strains, which points out to a purely
20 heterotrophic assimilation process. The daily cellular rates of P- CO_2 fixation in the
21 Ambient CO_2 treatment by *Roseobacter* ($1.2 \text{ fg C cell}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) and *Cytophaga* (0.43 fg C
22 $\text{cell}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$) were about one order of magnitude higher than those reported by Alonso-Sáez
23 et al. (2010) in arctic waters. The P- CO_2 fixation represented 7-8 % of the total carbon

1 anabolism, which agrees very well with most previous estimates which suggest that 1-
2 8% of the organic carbon in some heterotrophic bacteria can be attributed to CO₂
3 assimilation in carboxylation reactions (Romanenko 1964, Dronia & Trotsenko 1985,
4 Roslev et al. 2004).

5 The higher D-CO₂ fixation and the lower respiration rates measured in
6 *Roseobacter* compared to *Cytophaga*, may explain the differences in pH and pCO₂
7 observed in the Ambient CO₂ treatment (8.17 in *Roseobacter* versus 7.99 in
8 *Cytophaga*), as CO₂ fixation would tend to increase seawater pH and respiration would
9 tend to decrease pH.

10

11 ***Roseobacter* and *Cytophaga* metabolism under high pCO₂ future levels (1000**
12 **ppmv)**

13 In the case of *Roseobacter*, the only significant response to elevated pCO₂ was
14 an increment in the rate of D-CO₂ fixation, a pattern also observed in *Cytophaga*.
15 Although the effect of elevated pCO₂ on the heterotrophic CO₂ fixation had never been
16 tested, an increase in photosynthetically produced-DOC release, as a consequence of
17 high pCO₂, has been previously observed in phytoplankton (e.g. Engel et al. 2004, 2005,
18 Riebesell et al. 2007). Although the mechanism of CO₂ fixation differs between
19 phytoplankton and bacterioplankton, our results indicate that the fraction of recently
20 fixed carbon released as dissolved organic matter by heterotrophic bacteria could also
21 increase under high seawater pCO₂. By contrast, both P-CO₂ fixation and leucine
22 incorporation (BP) were not significantly affected by elevated CO₂ which is also
23 congruent with no differences in cell abundance and biovolume. Several studies with

1 natural microbial plankton populations, testing similar high CO₂ levels, either failed to
2 find a significant effect on bulk leucine incorporation rates (Allgaier et al. 2008) or did
3 find an increase related to a higher dissolved organic carbon excretion by phytoplankton
4 (Grossart et al. 2006).

5 Interestingly, a significant decrease in bacterial respiration occurred in the
6 Elevated CO₂ treatment in *Cytophaga* (Fig. 3E), which produced an increase in its
7 growth efficiency under high pCO₂ conditions (Fig. 3F). As far as we know, the effect
8 of high CO₂ on the growth efficiency of single marine bacterial species or natural
9 bacterial communities has never been tested before (Liu et al. 2010). The higher
10 respiration rates measured in the Ambient than in the Elevated CO₂ treatment strongly
11 concurs with the significantly higher concentration of humic substances observed in the
12 Elevated CO₂ treatment (Fig. 2C). Several studies have demonstrated the correlation
13 between microbial respiration rates and rates of humic matter formation (Nieto-Cid et
14 al. 2006, Lønborg et al. 2010). A decrease in respiration rates of soil bacteria with
15 increasing CO₂ concentration (0-1000 ppmv) was reported by Koizumi et al. (1991),
16 although they did not provide an explanation for this metabolic response.

17 A decrease in phytoplankton respiration under high pCO₂ conditions has been
18 recently suggested by Hopkinson et al. (2010). These authors speculated that this
19 respiration decline could be most likely related to a reduced energy cost on intracellular
20 pH homeostasis. Most non-extremophilic bacteria grow over a broad range of external
21 pH values, from 5.5. to 9.0, and maintain a cytoplasmatic pH within the narrow range of
22 7.4 to 7.8 (Booth 1985, Padan et al. 2005). Surface ocean bacteria grow in alkaline
23 environments (pH~ 8.2) and there is a large number of adaptive strategies for alkaline
24 pH homeostasis (Padan et al. 2005), including increased metabolic acid production,

1 increased ATP synthase that couples proton entry to ATP generation, changes in
2 membrane properties, and increased expression and activity of monovalent
3 cation/proton antiporters. Thus, energy savings when pH approaches the desired
4 intracellular pH likely vary among different bacterial species, depending on the strategy
5 for pH regulation. Unfortunately, we do not have information about the mechanisms
6 implied in pH regulation in the studied strains. The lower external pH in the Elevated
7 CO₂ treatment (pH= 7.60) could imply a reduced energy expense and thus, a higher
8 growth efficiency and a lower total carbon demand, for *Cytophaga* but not for
9 *Roseobacter* strain.

10 Our results contrast with recent observations of increases in bacterial
11 polysaccharide degradation under pH lowered by 0.2-0.3 units, which has the potential
12 to enhance respiratory CO₂ production under high *p*CO₂ future scenarios (Piontek et al.
13 2010). In the case of *Cytophaga* cultures, the implication of a reduced respiration under
14 high CO₂ concentration is a negative feedback to rising CO₂. We have shown that
15 laboratory experiments with cultured organisms may provide valuable information on
16 physiological responses to the perturbation of CO₂ concentrations. We have
17 demonstrated here that some metabolic rates of two important representatives of marine
18 bacteria do change in response to a higher CO₂ concentration, and, contrary to some
19 expectations, lowering pH did not negatively affect bacterial growth or even increased
20 growth efficiency in the case of *Cytophaga*. In both cases, the bacterial activity under
21 high *p*CO₂ (higher D-CO₂ fixation or higher D-CO₂ fixation plus lower respiration
22 rates) would increase the buffering capacity of seawater.

23 The complex interactions among microbial plankton organisms and different
24 environmental factors implies that experiments under *in situ* conditions and with natural

1 plankton communities are also essential to understand how the pelagic ecosystems will
2 react to an increase in surface ocean CO₂ concentration. Our results suggest the need for
3 including simultaneous measurements of several key metabolic processes in CO₂
4 perturbation experiments with natural microbial populations, to better understand the
5 net effect of human induced rising seawater CO₂. Moreover, we have shown that the
6 response may vary among different bacteria taxa and, thus, it is crucial to
7 simultaneously analyze changes in bacterial function and taxonomic composition, as
8 well as to conduct experiments over a wide range of different bacterial community
9 structures.

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1 **Acknowledgements**

2 We thank Estación de Ciencias Mariñas de Toralla (ECIMAT) for the technical support
3 during the experiments, and María Pérez Lorenzo for technical assistance. This research
4 was supported by the Xunta de Galicia (grant 07MMA013103PR) and the MICINN
5 contract DIFUNCAR (CTM2008-03790). E.T was funded by a Ramón y Cajal contract
6 from the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation. C.S was funded by an Isidro
7 Parga Pondal contract from the Xunta de Galicia.

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1 **Figure legends.**

2 Figure 1. Growth of (A) *Roseobacter* (MED165) and (B) *Cytophaga* (MED217)
3 cultures in Zobell medium under light-dark cycles. Error bars represent \pm SE of
4 microscope cell counts (n=20).

5 Figure 2. (A) Protein-like fluorescence of the particulate organic matter (FPOM-T), (B)
6 protein-like fluorescence of the dissolved organic matter (FDOM-T) and (C) humic-like
7 fluorescence of the dissolved organic matter (FDOM-M) in the *Roseobacter* and
8 *Cytophaga* cultures in the Elevated (black bars; n=2) and Ambient (white bars; n=2)
9 CO₂ treatments. Significant differences between the Elevated and Ambient CO₂
10 treatments are marked with an asterisk (*, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01).

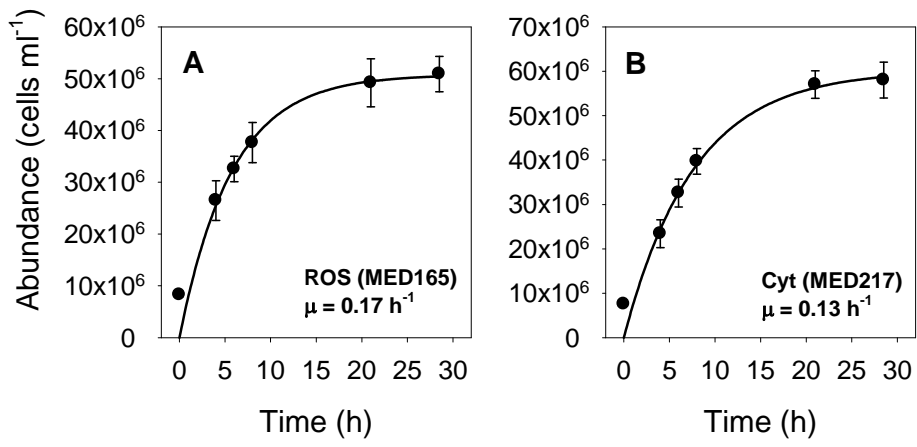
11 Figure 3. (A) Bacterial abundance, (B) leucine incorporation rates (BP), (C) CO₂
12 fixation measured in the particulate fraction (P-CO₂ fix) rates, (D) CO₂ fixation
13 measured in the dissolved fraction (D-CO₂ fix) rates, (E) bacterial respiration (BR) and
14 (F) bacterial growth efficiency (BGE) in *Roseobacter* and *Cytophaga* cultures in the
15 Elevated (black bars; n=2) and Ambient (white bars; n=2) CO₂ treatments. Significant
16 differences between the Elevated and Ambient CO₂ treatments are marked with an
17 asterisk (*, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01).

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4 Figure 1

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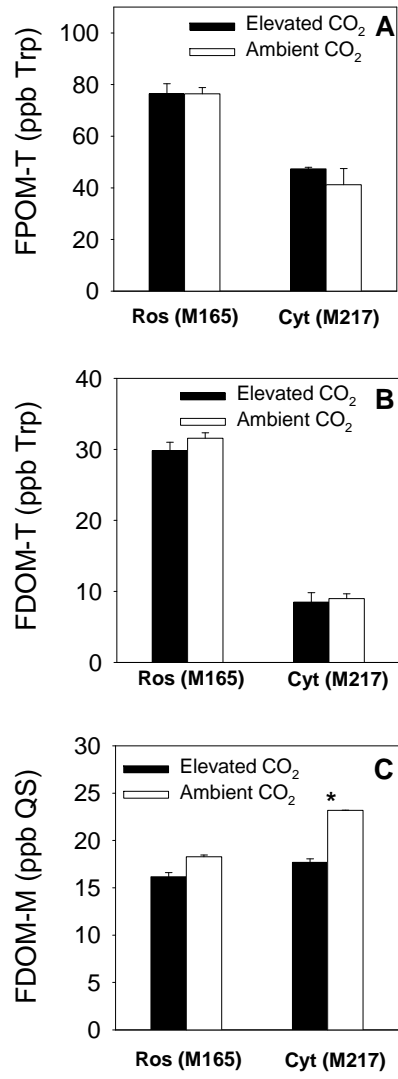
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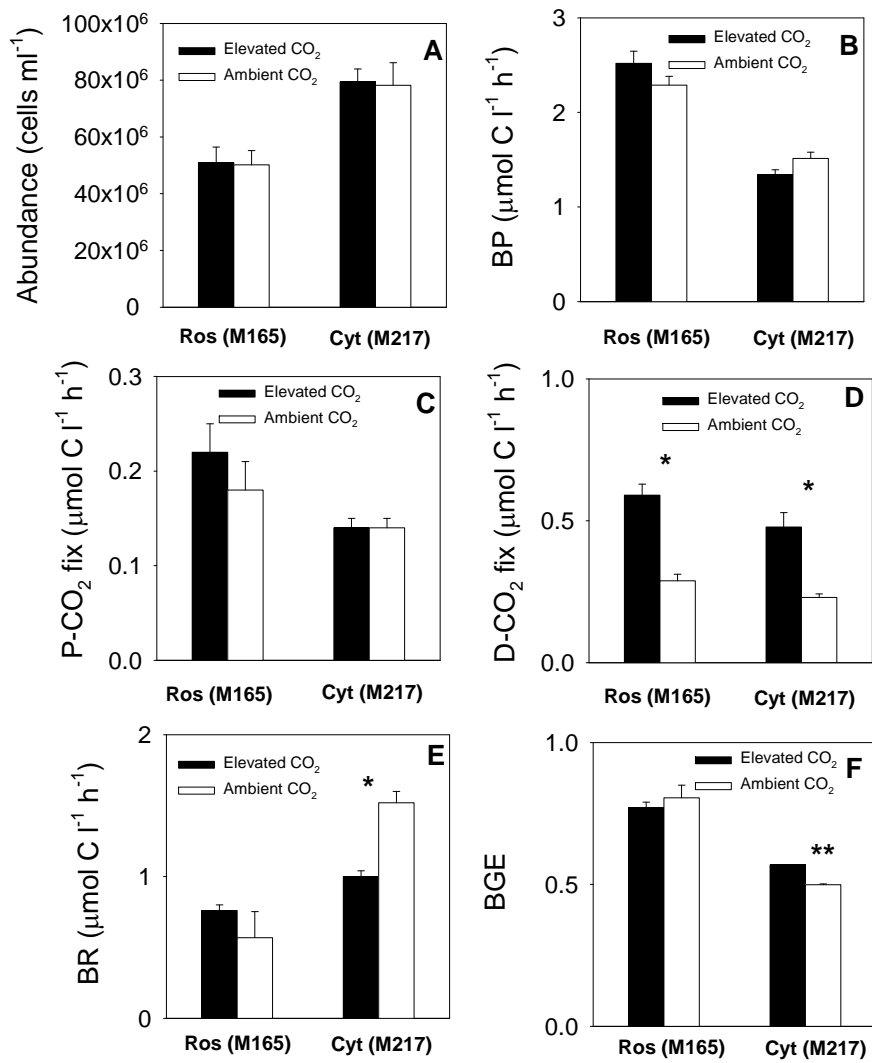
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16 Figure 2

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3 Figure 3

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