

## Abiotic conditions in cephalopod (*Sepia officinalis*) eggs: embryonic development at low pH and high $p\text{CO}_2$

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**Abstract** Low  $p\text{O}_2$  values have been measured in the perivitelline fluids (PVF) of marine animal eggs on several occasions, especially towards the end of development, when embryonic oxygen consumption is at its peak and the egg case acts as a massive barrier to diffusion. Several authors have therefore suggested that oxygen availability is the key factor leading to hatching. However, there have been no measurements of PVF  $p\text{CO}_2$  so far. This is surprising, as elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  could also constitute a major abiotic stressor for the developing embryo. As a first attempt to fill this gap in knowledge, we measured  $p\text{O}_2$ ,  $p\text{CO}_2$  and pH in the PVF of late cephalopod (*Sepia officinalis*) eggs. We found linear relationships between embryo wet mass and  $p\text{O}_2$ ,  $p\text{CO}_2$  and pH.  $p\text{O}_2$  declined from >12 kPa to less than 5 kPa, while  $p\text{CO}_2$  increased from 0.13 to 0.41 kPa. In the absence of active accumulation of bicarbonate in the PVF, pH decreased from 7.7 to 7.2. Our study supports the idea that oxygen becomes limiting in cephalopod eggs towards the end of development; however,  $p\text{CO}_2$  and pH shift to levels that have caused significant physiological disturbances in other

marine ectothermic animals. Future research needs to address the physiological adaptations that enable the embryo to cope with the adverse abiotic conditions in their egg environment.

### Introduction

Designed to protect embryonic stages from predation, egg capsules also can provide severe physiological challenges to their inhabitants, as the egg wall represents a barrier to diffusion of gases. Previous work has demonstrated that oxygen diffusion coefficients ( $K_{\text{O}_2}$ ) of marine animal egg capsules are typically 10–20% that of pure water (e.g., Brante 2006). In molluscs (as in all other developing embryos), oxygen consumption rates rise dramatically during development (e.g., Cronin and Seymour 2000; Brante 2006). Thus, in order to enable rising oxygen fluxes by means of diffusion, many molluscan eggs swell during development, leading to enhanced surface areas and reduced egg wall thicknesses (e.g., Kress 1972; Cronin and Seymour 2000), and consequently increased oxygen conductances (Seymour 1994). In addition, embryos inhabiting fluid filled capsules often produce convective currents that prevent the formation of  $p\text{O}_2$  gradients within the egg fluid (amphibians: Burggren 1985, fish: Rombough 1988, molluscs: Cronin and Seymour 2000). While thinning of egg capsule walls has been shown to enable consistently high  $p\text{O}_2$  values in eggs of the marine gastropod *Fusitriton oregonensis* (ca. 12 kPa; Brante 2006), the combination of egg swelling and convection does not prevent  $p\text{O}_2$  from consistently falling during embryonic development of the cephalopod *Sepia apama*, from initial values of 14 kPa down to 5–6 kPa close to hatching (Cronin and Seymour

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2000). It has been hypothesized that this might eventually trigger hatching once critical  $pO_2$  values ( $pO_{2crit}$ ) are reached within the egg ( $pO_{2crit} = 5\text{--}8$  kPa for *S. apama* and *S. officinalis* late embryonic stages (DeWachter et al. 1988; Cronin and Seymour 2000). While low  $pO_2$  values in eggs also have been proposed to stimulate hatching in vertebrates (reptiles and birds: Vleck and Hoyt 1991, amphibians: Seymour and Bradford 1995), little attention has been devoted to the flip side of the coin: egg  $pCO_2$  and pH, especially in marine animals. In order to excrete metabolically produced  $CO_2$  at a rate that almost equals that of oxygen consumed (of course, depending on the respective respiratory quotient), a  $pCO_2$  gradient has to be maintained in the opposite direction, with high values inside the egg. To our best knowledge, there are currently no published egg fluid  $pCO_2$  values available in the literature for any marine animal. This is quite surprising, as high  $pCO_2$  values most likely go along with low pH values and potentially constitute another stressor that may significantly affect embryonic physiology. Using late embryos of the cephalopod *Sepia officinalis* as a model system, we aimed at characterizing in more detail the abiotic conditions within the perivitelline fluid (PVF), with an emphasis on the  $pCO_2$ /pH gradient between the egg and the environment.

## Materials and methods

Laboratory laid *Sepia officinalis* eggs were obtained from the Biological Station in Luc-sur-Mer, Université de Caen (Normandy, France) and transported to Germany at the age of 7–8 days. They were then incubated in a recirculating aquarium system (200 l volume) at the AWI Bremerhaven at  $17^\circ\text{C}$  ( $\pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ ) for approximately four weeks. A nitrification filter (Eheim Professional 2, Eheim, Deizisau, Germany), a protein skimmer (AquaCare 2000, AquaCare, Germany) and a 36 Watt UV sterilizer (Rebie, Bielefeld, Germany), in combination with frequent water changes, aided in maintaining a high water quality within the system (pH > 8.1,  $pCO_2 < 0.042$  kPa,  $pO_2 > 20$  kPa,  $[NH_4^+] < 0.1$  mg/l,  $[NO_2^{2-}] < 0.1$  mg/l,  $[NO_3^-] < 5$  mg/l, S > 32 ppt). pH,  $pO_2$  and salinity were checked daily using a WTW multimeter (WTW, Weilheim, Germany), nitrogenous waste products were assessed bi-weekly using photometric test kits (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). Carbonate system parameters were calculated from  $pH_{NBS}$  and weekly determinations of total dissolved inorganic carbon ( $C_T$ ) (see below).

Eggs were placed individually on the bottom of the incubation tank until close to hatching (stages 29–30). All ( $n = 13$ ) eggs of the present study were sampled on the same day. Eggs were gently lifted out of the tank and

immediately sampled for PVF. All PVF samples were taken within 15 s, thus minimizing the chance of artificially increased  $pCO_2$  values caused by disturbed embryos. To measure pH and  $pO_2$ , a 1 ml plastic syringe was equipped with miniature fiber optic sensors (optodes, tip diameter 140  $\mu\text{m}$ , Presens GmbH, Regensburg, Germany) and filled with 200–300  $\mu\text{l}$  PVF, (previously described in Melzner 2005). Stable pH values were obtained after 10 min,  $pO_2$  values after 10 s. During the measurement period, the syringe and sensors were placed in a thermostatted water bath at  $17^\circ\text{C}$ . The oxygen optodes were calibrated according to the manufacturer's instructions with water vapor saturated air and a  $Na_2SO_3$  solution. The pH optodes were calibrated using five seawater standards (North Sea seawater, 31 psu, 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  filtered) adjusted to pH values between 7 and 8 with 1 M HCl. A pH electrode (WTW sentix81 and pH340i pH meter, WTW, Weilheim, Germany), calibrated with Radiometer precision buffers, was used to prepare the seawater buffers. Calibration of the pH optodes with seawater buffers was found necessary as these sensors are sensitive to the ionic strength of the measurement medium.

Another 350  $\mu\text{l}$  of PVF was sampled with a gas-tight glass syringe for the determination of total dissolved inorganic carbon ( $C_T$ ).  $C_T$  was measured in triplicate (100  $\mu\text{l}$  each) using a gas chromatographic method (Lenfant and Aucutt 1966, modified after Pörtner et al. 1990) on an Agilent 6890 N gas chromatograph. Carbonate system speciation (i.e.,  $pCO_2$ ,  $[HCO_3^-]$ ) was calculated from  $C_T$  and  $pH_{NBS}$  using CO2SYS software (Lewis and Wallace 1998), with dissociation constants from Mehrbach et al. (1973) as refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987).

Following PVF sampling, eggs were dissected and embryo and yolk wet mass was determined using a Sartorius precision balance (Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany). Embryonic stages were determined according to Lemaire (1970).

PVF  $pO_2$ ,  $pCO_2$ ,  $[HCO_3^-]$  and pH were graphed against embryo wet mass. Subsequent regression analyses were performed using GraphPad InStat 3.0 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, USA). A Runs test was used to test for deviations from linearity, an ANOVA was used to assess whether slopes differed from zero.

## Results and discussion

The eggs of *S. officinalis* are particularly suited for the investigations of abiotic parameters in the PVF due to their large size. At hatching, the eggs contain >1 ml of PVF and have a diameter between 1.5 and 2 cm (see supplementary movie, S1). Schematic drawings of a freshly laid egg, as well as of late stage embryos, are nicely illustrated in

Wolf et al. (1985) (Figs. 1 and 2). All of the cuttlefish eggs we investigated contained living embryos, ranging in wet mass between 134 and 310 mg (mean 238 mg, SD 44 mg). Organogenesis was completed in all embryos (stages 29–30, Lemaire 1970), and embryos had mostly absorbed their external yolk (mean wet mass of external yolk 18 mg, SD 20 mg). The larger embryos (>250 mg) were probably <1 week away from hatching, especially the two largest embryos, who had consumed all external yolk reserves (Lemaire 1970). Measured PVF  $pO_2$ , pH and  $pCO_2$  values were tightly linked to embryo wet mass, increasing ( $pCO_2$ ) or decreasing ( $pO_2$ , pH) in a linear fashion (Fig. 1a, b, c). The results of all regression analyses are depicted in Table 1.

### PVF Oxygen partial pressures

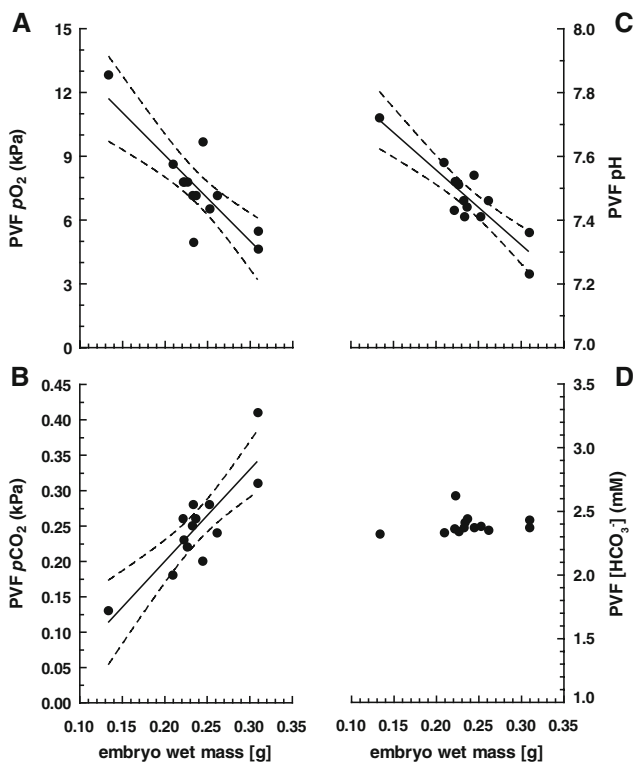
*Sepia officinalis* PVF oxygen partial pressures varied between 12.8 kPa (ca. 61% air saturation) and 4.6 kPa (ca. 22% air saturation). Wolf et al. (1985) found *S. officinalis* PVF  $pO_2$  values to rise with embryonic development, increasing from 12 kPa (stage 24) to 15.5 kPa (stage 29). They concluded that improved diffusion properties of the

swelling and thinning egg case would aid in the maintenance of high PVF  $pO_2$ . Unfortunately, Wolf et al. did not provide embryo masses, making it difficult to draw meaningful conclusions between our studies. However, the smallest of our embryos was also classified as stage 29 and its PVF  $pO_2$  value was high (>12 kPa, see Fig. 1a). It is thus not unlikely that Wolf et al. missed the final growth phase in their study, as this is when PVF  $pO_2$  rapidly declines. Support comes from the study by Cronin and Seymour (2000), who also demonstrated an inverse correlation between embryo mass and  $pO_2$  in Australian giant cuttlefish eggs (*Sepia apama*, 12°C). In *S. apama*,  $pO_2$  declined to values of about 6 kPa during the last 50 days of development. As Cronin and Seymour determined a  $pO_{2crit}$  of 8 kPa for hatching animals, they suggested that late embryos probably experience diffusion limitation close to hatching.  $pO_{2crit}$  for 200–300 mg *S. officinalis* incubated at 18–19°C has been shown to be in the 4.5–5 kPa range (DeWachter et al. 1988), thus in the range of our lowest PVF values (4.6 kPa). These findings support the idea of oxygen diffusion limitation being one critical factor in *S. officinalis* late embryonic development.

### PVF $pCO_2$ and pH

As expected, PVF  $pCO_2$  values rose with increasing embryo mass, from 0.13 kPa in the smallest up to 0.41 kPa in the largest embryos (Fig 1b). Thus, cuttlefish embryos are surrounded by tenfold higher  $pCO_2$  values than those of ambient sea water (ca. 0.04 kPa) at the end of their embryonic development. High  $pCO_2$  values in the PVF also imply that blood  $pCO_2$  values must be even higher in order to maintain  $CO_2$  excretion rates across the gill/skin epithelia by means of diffusion. Typically,  $pCO_2$  values in extracellular fluids of high-power animals such as fish or cephalopods are 0.2–0.4 kPa above those of the ambient seawater (e.g., Heisler 1986; Johansen et al. 1982; Pörtner et al. 1991). Therefore, cuttlefish embryos are probably exposed to blood  $pCO_2$  values of 0.6–0.8 kPa at the end of their development. It would be quite rewarding to study blood pH regulation in embryos under such conditions, as cephalopods are known for the high pH sensitivity of their extracellular respiratory pigment hemocyanin (Melzner et al. 2007). The occurrence of special embryonic hemocyanins (Declair et al. 1971) may be one adaptation to the high  $pCO_2$  values encountered during late embryogenesis.

The  $CO_2$  gradient between the PVF and seawater was much shallower than that of oxygen, almost by a factor of 70 ( $\Delta pO_2/\Delta pCO_2 = 66.6$ , SD 11.3). This ratio is higher than expected from Henry's and Graham's laws, which suggest an approximately 26-fold higher partial pressure gradient of  $O_2$  versus  $CO_2$  across the egg envelope (for seawater at 17°C, Dejours 1975). These results can only be



**Fig. 1**  $pO_2$  (a),  $pCO_2$  (b), pH (c) and  $[HCO_3^-]$  in perivitelline fluid (PVF) of *Sepia officinalis* eggs (stages 29–30), displayed against embryo wet mass (excluding the external yolk sac).  $pCO_2$  and  $[HCO_3^-]$  were calculated from PVF  $C_T$  and pH. See Table 1 for regression analyses and equations

**Table 1** Linear regression analyses.  $N = 13$  eggs were analyzed,  $p\text{CO}_2$  and  $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$  are derived parameters (calculated from pH and  $C_T$ , see text),  $p\text{CO}_2$  and  $p\text{O}_2$  in kPa

Regression	ANOVA	Runs test	$R^2$	Equation
$p\text{O}_2$ vs. $p\text{CO}_2$	$F_{(1,11)} = 36.5, P < 0.001$	0.88, NS	0.77	$y = -27.9x + 14.5$
$p\text{O}_2$ vs. mass	$F_{(1,11)} = 25.1, P < 0.001$	0.15, NS	0.70	$y = -40.3x + 17$
$p\text{CO}_2$ vs. mass	$F_{(1,11)} = 31.9, P < 0.001$	0.98, NS	0.74	$y = 1.31x - 0.06$
pH vs. mass	$F_{(1,11)} = 42.6, P < 0.001$	0.88, NS	0.80	$y = -2.32x + 8.02$
$[\text{HCO}_3^-]$ vs. mass	$F_{(1,11)} = 0.3, P > 0.59$	0.47, NS	0.03	NS

See also Fig. 1

explained if either a significant portion of the excretory  $\text{CO}_2$  is retained within the embryo to aid in the formation of the internal  $\text{CaCO}_3$  shell, or if Krogh's diffusion coefficient for  $\text{CO}_2$  ( $K_{\text{CO}_2}$ ) is much higher than  $K_{\text{O}_2}$  for *S. officinalis* egg capsules. It has been demonstrated for sea urchin larvae and corals that significant portions of inorganic carbon for calcification are derived from metabolic  $\text{CO}_2$  (>50%, Sikes et al. 1981; Furla et al. 2000). However, a more extensive follow-up study that will focus on the determination of oxygen consumption and  $\text{CO}_2$  excretion, as well as egg capsule surface area and thickness, will enable us to give estimates for both,  $K_{\text{O}_2}$  and  $K_{\text{CO}_2}$ .

As  $p\text{CO}_2$  increased, pH strongly decreased, from 7.72 to 7.23 (Fig. 1c). Again, there are no pH measurements for marine animal eggs at present that our data could be compared with. In freshwater fish (salmonids), 0.3–1.0 unit lower pH values have been recorded in egg PVF at ambient pH between 7 and 8 (Kugel and Peterson 1989). No accumulation of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  was visible in *S. officinalis* PVF in order to actively buffer pH (Fig. 1d), a mechanism that is used by many marine organisms to compensate for extra- and intracellular acidification (e.g., Heisler 1986; Cameron 1986).  $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$  fluctuated around 2.39 mM (SD 0.08 mM) in all eggs.

It is noteworthy that cuttlefish embryos are able to form an internal  $\text{CaCO}_3$  (aragonite) shell under the low pH and high  $p\text{CO}_2$  prevailing in their egg environment. We recently demonstrated, that calcification rate in juvenile cuttlefish is not impaired at external  $p\text{CO}_2$  values of 0.4 and 0.6 kPa (Gutowska et al. 2008). This sets *S. officinalis* apart from other marine invertebrates studied so far, as the majority show a decrease in calcification under comparable conditions (see Fabry et al. 2008 for a review). It is tempting to propose that this capacity is causally linked to an embryo that is already adapted to cope with relatively high  $p\text{CO}_2$ /low pH values.

## Perspectives

As mentioned, no data on egg fluid  $p\text{CO}_2$  and pH is available for other marine organisms; however, judging

from the  $p\text{O}_2$  versus  $p\text{CO}_2$  ratios obtained in our study, in comparison to  $p\text{O}_2$  values in- and around eggs or egg masses of other marine animal taxa, it seems likely that many embryos will also be surrounded by fluids of high  $p\text{CO}_2$  and low pH: For example, Diez and Davenport (1987) showed that  $p\text{O}_2$  values in shark eggs decrease from ca. 18 kPa in early embryos to ca. 10 kPa in late embryos, Fernandez et al. (2000, 2002) measured water  $p\text{O}_2$  values <5 kPa in decapod crustacean egg masses, Cohen and Strathmann (1996) found  $p\text{O}_2$  values of less than 6 kPa in egg masses of opisthobranch gastropods and those of a polychaete worm.

Delayed development of embryos in central positions of egg masses has usually been causally linked to reduced metabolic rates due to low ambient  $p\text{O}_2$  (e.g., Chaffee and Strathmann 1984). However, high  $p\text{CO}_2$ /low pH may be important factors as well, as they could also elicit reductions in respiration rates: Metabolic depression, in combination with reduced growth and calcification performance, has recently been observed in mussels (*Mytilus galloprovincialis*) exposed to sea water of similar  $p\text{CO}_2$  (ca. 0.5 kPa, Michaelidis et al. 2005).

Quite clearly, PVF  $p\text{CO}_2$  and pH represent important abiotic factors that might influence the physiological performance of marine animal embryos to a large degree. To date, these factors have been thoroughly neglected. We hope that this study sparks some interest in studying  $\text{CO}_2$  excretion and pH homeostasis in eggs of marine animals.

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