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3

4 Temperate and tropical brown macroalgae thrive, despite  
5 decalcification, along natural CO<sub>2</sub> gradients.

6

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24 ecosystems.

25 **Abstract**

26

27 Predicting the impacts of ocean acidification on coastal ecosystems requires an understanding  
28 of the effects on macroalgae and their grazers, as these underpin the ecology of rocky shores.  
29 A range of studies show that calcified coralline algae (Rhodophyta) may be especially  
30 vulnerable to ocean acidification, but there is a lack of information concerning calcified  
31 brown algae (Phaeophyta). Here we compare ecological shifts in sub-tidal rocky shore  
32 systems along CO<sub>2</sub> gradients created by volcanic seeps in the Mediterranean and off Papua  
33 New Guinea. In both the temperate and tropical systems the abundance of grazing sea urchins  
34 fell dramatically along CO<sub>2</sub> gradients. Temperate and tropical species of the calcifying  
35 macroalgal genus *Padina* (Dictyoaceae, Phaeophyta) showed reductions in CaCO<sub>3</sub> content  
36 with CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment. In contrast to other studies of calcified macroalgae, however, we  
37 observed an increase in the abundance of *Padina* spp in acidified conditions. Reduced sea  
38 urchin grazing pressure and significant increases in photosynthetic rates may explain the  
39 unexpected success of decalcified *Padina* spp. at elevated levels of CO<sub>2</sub>. Replicated  
40 observations are required across regions to increase confidence in predictions of the  
41 ecological impacts of ocean acidification on a global scale.

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46 **Introduction**

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48 Rising anthropogenic emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> are rapidly altering ocean chemistry since increasing  
49 pCO<sub>2</sub> in seawater has already lowered the mean ocean surface pH by 0.1 units from pre-

50 industrial values, with a predicted further decrease of 0.3-0.4 units by 2100 (IPCC, 2007).  
51 The resulting decrease in calcium carbonate saturation levels compromises the ability of  
52 many marine organisms to form shells and skeletons (Orr *et al.*, 2005; Doney *et al.*, 2009).  
53 This, in combination with the diverse responses of photosynthetic organisms to increased  
54  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels (Russell *et al.*, 2009; Hepburn *et al.*, 2011; Johnson *et al.*, 2011; Porzio *et al.*,  
55 2011), is expected to alter the structure of biological communities along coastlines worldwide  
56 (Barry *et al.*, 2011). However, the potential effects of altered community structure on  
57 ecosystem functioning are unclear since the effects of elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  levels on organism  
58 interactions have only recently begun to be addressed (Diaz-Pulido *et al.*, 2011; Doropoulos  
59 *et al.*, 2012).

60

61 Seagrasses and many macroalgal species are notably tolerant of increases in  $\text{CO}_2$  (Connell &  
62 Russell, 2010; Fabricius *et al.*, 2011; Porzio *et al.*, 2011; Roleda *et al.*, 2011). However,  
63 studies from polar, temperate and tropical latitudes have revealed that settlement,  
64 calcification, growth and abundance of calcified macroalgae can be negatively affected by  
65 increasing  $\text{CO}_2$  levels since this lowers carbonate saturation states which can corrode the  
66 algal skeletons (Kuffner *et al.*, 2008; Martin *et al.*, 2008; Martin & Gattuso, 2009; Robbins *et al.*,  
67 2009; Russell *et al.*, 2009; Büdenbender *et al.*, 2011; Price *et al.*, 2011; Sinutok *et al.*,  
68 2011; Doropoulos *et al.*, 2012). Increasing concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  can, on the other hand,  
69 enhance productivity and growth in both non-calcified (Gao *et al.*, 1993a; Kübler *et al.*, 1999;  
70 Connell & Russell, 2010) and calcified macroalgae (Reiskind *et al.*, 1988; Gao *et al.*, 1993b;  
71 Semesi *et al.*, 2009).

72

73 Understanding the effects of ocean acidification on calcified algae is a high priority as they  
74 play a crucial role in the ecology of coastal ecosystems (Nelson, 2009). Most studies to date

75 have been single species laboratory experiments that last a year at most (Martin & Gattuso,  
76 2009). Such experiments provide important information on species' responses to increased  
77  $p\text{CO}_2$  but fail to account for the effects of long-term exposure. They are also unrepresentative  
78 of natural ecosystems since, for example, they remove the effects of species interactions  
79 (Barry *et al.*, 2011). Consequently, there is a great need for studies targeting interactions  
80 between multiple species in order to assess the effects on strength of competition, predation  
81 and/or herbivory (Wernberg *et al.*, in press). Here we assess the abundance of herbivores  
82 (sea urchins) and the response of brown macroalgae (*Padina* spp.) to increasing levels of  $\text{CO}_2$   
83 in natural settings, as interactions between these groups of organisms can drive ecological  
84 changes in benthic habitats on temperate (Sala, 1998; Hernández *et al.*, 2008) and tropical  
85 shores (McClanahan, 1994; Mumby *et al.*, 2006).

86

87 *Padina* is one of only two genera of Phaeophyta that calcify and is an important producer of  
88 calcium carbonate and organic matter in both temperate and tropical shallow waters  
89 (Bathurst, 1971; Milliman, 1974). Calcium carbonate is deposited as aragonite needles on the  
90 surface of fan-shaped thalli, forming concentric bands of white precipitate (Okazaki *et al.*,  
91 1986). Carbonate production rates of *Padina* sp. in one sub-tropical system have been  
92 calculated to be around  $240 \text{ gm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , considerably higher than for other erect calcified algal  
93 genera such as *Halimeda* ( $50 \text{ gm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) and *Penicillus* ( $30 \text{ gm}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) (Wefer, 1980). Several  
94 roles have been suggested for calcification in macroalgae. It is thought to offer structural  
95 defence, providing mechanical resistance to herbivores and minimising grazing damage to  
96 tissues (Littler & Littler, 1980; Padilla, 1993), increase the ability of bicarbonate and nutrient  
97 assimilation through the generation of protons (McConnaughey & Whelan, 1997), improve  
98 photosynthetic performance (McConnaughey, 1998) and provide protection from excess  
99 irradiance (Bürger & Schagerl, 2010). Therefore changes in macroalgal calcification as a

100 result of ocean acidification have the potential to alter physiological and ecological fitness, by  
101 altering photosynthetic efficiency, thallus rigidity, growth rates and mortality (Nelson, 2009).

102

103 Ocean acidification also has the potential to reduce top-down biological control of benthic  
104 biodiversity (Widdicombe and Spicer, 2008). Sea urchins are dominant grazers in many  
105 marine habitats and play an important role in controlling the structure and composition of  
106 macroalgal communities. They often act as keystone species (Sala *et al.*, 1998) and, as a  
107 consequence, reduction in their abundance or removal from an ecosystem can result in rapid  
108 colonisation of benthic habitats by macroalgae (Villouta *et al.*, 2001; Behrens & Lafferty,  
109 2004). Sea urchins are particularly susceptible to reductions in pH (Miles *et al.*, 2007) and a  
110 mean pH of 7.8 appears to be the critical level below which Mediterranean sea urchins do not  
111 survive (Hall-Spencer *et al.*, 2008). Adverse impacts of ocean acidification on echinoderms  
112 would be likely to have significant consequences at the ecosystem level (Barry *et al.*, 2010;  
113 Dupont *et al.*, 2010). It has the potential to release algae from the control of grazing by sea  
114 urchins, resulting in cascade effects throughout benthic food webs, with potentially profound  
115 implications for the structure and function of marine communities.

116

117 Natural CO<sub>2</sub> gradients are beginning to reveal the ecological shifts that can be expected to  
118 occur with globally increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> in both temperate (Hall-Spencer *et al.*, 2008)  
119 and tropical ecosystems (Fabricius *et al.*, 2011). Work has begun to understand the  
120 underlying mechanisms that cause ecological shifts along these CO<sub>2</sub> gradients, such as the  
121 influence of recruitment success (Cigliano *et al.*, 2010) and the combined physiological  
122 effects of temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> (Rodolfo-Metalpa *et al.*, 2011). The aim of this study was to  
123 survey populations of *Padina* spp. (Dictyotaceae) and sea urchins (Echinoidea) along pH  
124 gradients in both temperate and tropical ecosystems and to measure *in situ* effects of elevated

125 CO<sub>2</sub> on calcification and photosynthesis in this common phaeophyte. We present data on the  
126 long- term effects of natural exposure to low pH and high CO<sub>2</sub> on *Padina pavonica*  
127 (Linnaeus) Thivy at shallow CO<sub>2</sub> seeps on the island of Vulcano, NE Sicily and on *Padina*  
128 *australis* Hauck at comparable seeps in the D'Entrecasteaux Island group, Papua New  
129 Guinea. To our knowledge, this is the first study to compare ecological responses to CO<sub>2</sub>  
130 gradients in temperate and tropical systems. We observed strikingly similar ecological shifts  
131 along both tropical and temperate rocky shores as CO<sub>2</sub> levels increased to those previously  
132 recorded at CO<sub>2</sub> vents off Ischia, Italy (Hall-Spencer *et al.*, 2008), with the loss of sea urchins  
133 and coralline algae together with an increased abundance of phaeophytes.

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## 145 **Material and Methods**

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147 *Temperate and tropical rocky shore surveys*

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149 *Padina pavonica* was sampled along a stretch of rocky coast off the island of Vulcano  
150 (38°25' N, 14°57' E, part of the Aeolian Island chain, NE Sicily) in September 2010 and May  
151 2011 (see maps in Johnson *et al.*, 2011). This is a microtidal region where volcanic CO<sub>2</sub> vent  
152 activity acidifies the seawater producing a pH gradient ranging from ~ 8.2 to ~6.8, running  
153 parallel to the coast. Within the vent area, three shallow (< 0.5 m depth) sampling stations  
154 were selected as they lay along a CO<sub>2</sub> gradient, characterised by intermediate to low mean pH  
155 (V-S1 pH 8.06, CI = 0.59%; V-S2 pH 7.54, CI = 1.59%; V-S3 pH 7.46, CI = 2.03%, *n* = 24-  
156 27). Three reference stations located outside the vent area were selected on the basis of their  
157 normal, relatively stable pH (V-R1 pH 8.17, CI = 0.42%; V-R2 pH 8.18, CI = 0.32%; V-R3  
158 pH 8.19, CI = 0.28%, *n* = 22-24). Four additional sampling stations were selected along the  
159 gradient, one located between S2 and S3 (at mean pH 7.97, CI = 1.45%, *n* = 16) and three at  
160 20 m intervals between S1 and the end of the gradient (at mean pH 8.08, CI = 0.82%; pH  
161 8.16, CI = 0.33%; pH 8.20, CI = 0.23%, *n* = 6-22) to allow *P. pavonica* and sea urchin  
162 abundance surveys to occur along the full length of the CO<sub>2</sub> gradient. Temperature, total  
163 alkalinity, salinity and light levels were relatively constant in the shallow sub-tidal region  
164 along this gradient (Johnson *et al.*, 2011).

165

166 *Padina australis* was sampled along the shallow (0.1-0.3 m, below lowest astronomic tide)  
167 shore of two sites in Milne Bay Province, Papua New Guinea (9°45' S, 150°50' E): Upa-  
168 Upasina and Esa'Ala along the north-western and north-eastern coast off Normanby Island  
169 (see maps in Fabricius *et al.*, 2011) in April 2011. Tidal range in the region is <1 m. Volcanic  
170 CO<sub>2</sub> seeps acidify the seawater, with seeping being most intense near the shore at <0.5 m  
171 depth. In these shallow shore zones, reductions in pH were greater than recorded for coral  
172 reef habitats by Fabricius *et al.*, (2011). Two sampling stations of intermediate to low mean  
173 pH were selected at both Upa-Upasina (U-S1 pH 7.78, CI = 0.26%; U-S2 pH 7.49, CI =



174 0.62%,  $n = 7$ ) and Esa'Ala (E-S1 pH 7.86, CI = 1.30%; E-S2 pH 6.68, CI = 4.53%,  $n = 7-9$ ).  
175 Reference stations with normal, relatively stable pH (U-R1 pH 8.31, CI = 0.12%; U-R2 pH  
176 8.22, CI = 0.10%; E-R1 pH 8.19, CI = 0.77%,  $n = 6-9$ ) were chosen several hundred meters  
177 away from the seeps at comparable geophysical settings.

178

179 At all sites (Vulcano in the Mediterranean, and Upa-Upasina and Esa'Ala in Papua New  
180 Guinea), 20 quadrats (50 cm x 50 cm) were placed haphazardly within 15 x 3 m survey zones  
181 (<0.5 m depth) at each station along the CO<sub>2</sub> gradients. Within each quadrat the percentage  
182 cover of *Padina* spp. was estimated and the total number of sea urchins (*Paracentrotus*  
183 *lividus* & *Arbacia lixula* in the Mediterranean, *Diadema* spp. & *Echinometra* sp. in Papua  
184 New Guinea) recorded.

185

186

### 187 *Carbonate chemistry measurements*

188

189 A calibrated pH meter was used to measure pH (NBS scale) at each sampling station at  
190 Vulcano (YSI 556 MPS, three-point calibration) and Papua New Guinea (Hach or Oakton,  
191 two-point calibration, with readings cross-checked against a Tris buffer seawater standard).  
192 Temperature and salinity were also measured alongside each pH reading. We recorded rapid  
193 pH fluctuations along this coastal gradient (over 1 unit in under ~ 4 hours at S3 at Vulcano),  
194 so the uncertainty inherent in using the NBS scale for seawater measurements (approximately  
195 0.05 pH, Dickson *et al.*, 2010) was considered acceptable for this study. Mean pH (back-  
196 transformed hydrogen ion concentrations) were calculated for each station at Vulcano (pH  
197 sampled on several occasions; September-October 2009, April 2010, July 2010, September-  
198 October 2010, May 2011, September-October 2011,  $n = 22-27$ ) and Papua New Guinea (25<sup>th</sup>

199 and 29th April 2011,  $n = 6-9$ ). 95% confidence intervals were calculated and presented as a  
200 percentage of the mean pH.

201

202 Total alkalinity (TA) was measured alongside pH to calculate the other parameters  
203 constraining the carbonate chemistry of the seawater (Hoope *et al.*, 2010). At Vulcano, TA  
204 was measured at each station, on three separate visits (Sept 2010, May 2011 and Sept 2011),  
205 from a water sample after 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  filtration and storage in the dark at 4°C, using an AS-Alk 2  
206 Total Alkalinity Titrator (Apollo SciTech Inc, Georgia, USA). Total alkalinity data for Papua  
207 New Guinea were taken from Fabricius *et al.*, (2011). The remaining parameters of the  
208 carbonate system were calculated using the CO2 SYS software (Lewis & Wallace, 1998).

209

210 *Padina* spp. calcium carbonate analysis

211

212 Large (>2 cm) *Padina* spp. fronds were collected from each sampling station at Vulcano in  
213 the Mediterranean ( $n = 30$  per station) and from a reference and high CO<sub>2</sub> station at both  
214 Upa-Upasina (U-R1 & U-S1,  $n = 15$  per station) and Esa'Ala (E-R1 & E-S2  $n = 5$  per station)  
215 in Papua New Guinea. Samples were stored in 70% ethanol until analysis. Calcium carbonate  
216 (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) content of each frond was determined through a weight loss after acidification  
217 protocol (Martone, 2010). Fronds were dried, weighed, decalcified in hydrochloric acid (1N)  
218 and then re-dried and reweighed. The CaCO<sub>3</sub> content, expressed as a percentage of dry  
219 weight, was calculated from the difference between dried mass and decalcified dry mass.

220

221 Images of *P. pavonica* aragonite crystals were examined for size and abundance with  
222 scanning electron microscopy (JEOL JSM 5600 LV). Three fronds from each station were  
223 fixed in glutaraldehyde for 1-2 hours, and then stored in 1x PBS buffer (phosphate buffered

224 saline) until examination. As the size and number of crystals has been reported to vary with  
225 age of frond segment (Hills-Colinvaux, 1980), we only compared the apical segments of *P.*  
226 *pavonica* fronds between stations. Prior to viewing under the SEM, samples were air dried,  
227 mounted on aluminium stubs with carbon adhesive tape and coated in gold. For each of the  
228 18 samples, 5 images were taken at random locations (using image coordinates and random  
229 number generator) over calcified regions of the apical surface only (see images in Fig. 5) and  
230 the average length and width of 10 randomly selected crystals per image was measured  
231 digitally using Image J software (v 1.43, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA).  
232 In addition, for each image, the number of crystals within a randomly selected 5µm x 5µm  
233 area were counted and averaged for each frond.

234

#### 235 *Photosynthesis in P. pavonica*

236

237 Photosynthetic condition and performance of *P. pavonica* at Vulcano was investigated  
238 through measurements of photosynthetic pigment (Chl *a* and  $c_1+c_2$ ) concentrations and Chl *a*  
239 fluorescence. Fronds were collected from each sampling site at Vulcano in September 2010  
240 and September 2011 ( $n = 40$  per station), rinsed in distilled water and frozen for  
241 transportation back to the laboratory. Fronds were collected between 8am-10am to avoid the  
242 confounding effect of light intensity, in particularly mid-day photoinhibition, on chlorophyll  
243 content (Hädar *et al.*, 1996). To prevent chlorophyll degradation during storage, samples  
244 were kept at -20 °C in the dark during the sampling period on Vulcano and at -80 °C when  
245 longer periods occurred before analysis. Chlorophyll was extracted from all samples within <  
246 2 weeks of sampling.

247

248 Prior to extraction, fronds (~ 0.70 g samples) were homogenized in 90% acetone by pestle  
249 and mortar. Chlorophyll was extracted in 90% acetone at 4°C for 24 hours in the dark. The  
250 absorbance of each sample at 630, 664 and 750 nm (background absorbance) was measured  
251 (3 replicate readings were taken from each sample to obtain an average) using a Cecil  
252 CE2011 spectrophotometer. The concentration of chlorophyll *a* and *c* ( $c_1 + c_2$ ) in the sample  
253 was calculated using the equations of Ritchie (2006). The volume of the solvent (in weight /  
254 g) and the weight of the frond were then used to provide a final calculated reading of  
255 chlorophyll ( $\mu\text{g mg}^{-2}$  fresh weight). Values for both September sampling periods were pooled  
256 to calculate a mean for each station.

257

258 In May 2011 the effective quantum yield (*Y*) and relative electron transport rates (*rETR*) of  
259 freshly collected, light-adapted fronds ( $n = 6$  per station), were measured in small dishes  
260 using a Diving PAM fluorometer (Walz-Germany).

261

$$262 \quad Y = F'_m - F_t / F'_m \text{ (Genty, 1989)}$$

263

$$264 \quad rETR = Y \times PAR \times 0.5 \text{ (Beer } et al., 1998)$$

265

266 Rapid light curves (RLC) were applied to assess the light saturation behaviour of fronds  
267 across each of the six sampling stations in Vulcano. RLC data can be useful for assessing  
268 photosynthetic capacity and potential over a wide range of ambient light intensities (Ralph &  
269 Gademann, 2005). The Diving-Pam was set to deliver red pulse-modulated light at 655 nm  
270 followed by steps of actinic light every 20 s (other settings: gain = 4, actinic light factor =  
271 0.5, light curve intensity  $y = 5$ , saturation width = 0.8, saturation intensity = 3, signal  
272 damping = 2).

273

274 *Statistical analyses*

275

276 To test for significant effects of mean pH on variations in *Padina* spp. we used generalised  
277 linear models (GLM), with pH as the explanatory variable and Site (Vulcano, Upa Upasina  
278 and Esa'Ala) as a covariate. Data were averaged across stations and transformed where  
279 necessary to approximate normality and equal variance. For count data with many zeroes  
280 (e.g., sea urchin abundances) or over-dispersed data, a quasi-poisson link function was used,  
281 whereas for proportional, ETR and yield data, a quasi-binomial link function, and for the  
282 remaining data the Gaussian link function were used. All statistical analyses were performed  
283 using R (R Development Core Team, 2012).

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295 **Results**

296

297 *Seawater chemistry*

298

299 Table 1 shows the range in carbonate chemistry parameters for each sampling station. The  
300 median  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels (calculated from median pH and mean TA) were lowest in the reference  
301 stations (276-388  $\mu\text{atm}$ ) and increased with proximity to the  $\text{CO}_2$  seeps, with the highest  
302 values recorded at V-S3 (1428  $\mu\text{atm}$ ), U-S2 (2665  $\mu\text{atm}$ ) and E-S2 (23,095  $\mu\text{atm}$ ). The mean  
303 pH of the reference stations ranged from 8.17 to 8.31, while the mean pH at the seep stations  
304 ranged from 8.06 to 6.68, with increasing variance towards lower values (Fig. 1). The highest  
305 median values for  $p\text{CO}_2$  and DIC were found at V-S3 (1428  $\mu\text{atm}$  and 3.79  $\text{mmol kg}^{-1}$   
306 respectively), U-S2 (2665  $\mu\text{atm}$  and 2.03  $\text{mmol kg}^{-1}$ ) and E-S2 (23,095  $\mu\text{atm}$  and 2.85  $\text{mmol}$   
307  $\text{kg}^{-1}$ ). Calcium carbonate was under-saturated at E-S2 and periods of under saturation  
308 occurred during the lowest range of pH at V-S3 ( $\Omega$  0.15 calcite and  $\Omega$  0.09 aragonite) and U-  
309 S2 ( $\Omega$  0.98 aragonite).

310

### 311 *Padina* spp. and sea urchin abundances

312

313 There were dramatic ecological shifts along all three volcanic seeps as  $\text{CO}_2$  levels increased.  
314 We observed a loss of sea urchins and coralline algae together with an increased abundance  
315 of phaeophytes that was strikingly similar to that recorded at  $\text{CO}_2$  vents in Ischia, Italy (Fig  
316 2a & b). These shifts were detected at median  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels of 510  $\mu\text{atm}$  (median pH 8.08),  
317 1218  $\mu\text{atm}$  (median pH 7.78) and 914  $\mu\text{atm}$  (median pH 7.89) along the gradients at Vulcano,  
318 Upa Upasina and Esa'Ala, respectively (Fig. 3). Benthic cover of *Padina* spp. increased with  
319 rising  $\text{CO}_2$  and was two-three fold greater in the highest  $\text{CO}_2$  stations (V-S3, U-S2 & E-S2)  
320 relative to the reference stations (Fig. 3). We detected a significant effect of pH on *Padina*  
321 spp. benthic cover and sea urchin abundance at all three gradients (GLM: Table 2). In  
322 contrast to *Padina* spp., sea urchin abundance was greatest at the reference stations and

323 decreased with declining pH at all three gradients (Fig. 3 a-c, Table 2). Sea urchins were  
324 absent at stations with the highest levels of  $p\text{CO}_2$  (V-S1-S3, U-S2, E-S2).

325

### 326 *Physiological responses of Padina spp. to elevated CO<sub>2</sub>*

327

328 We found that pH had a statistically significant effect on the  $\text{CaCO}_3$  content in *Padina* spp.  
329 fronds at Vulcano only (as smaller sample sizes were taken at Upa-Upasina and Esa'Ala;  
330 Fig.4, Table 2). At Vulcano,  $\text{CaCO}_3$  content in *P. pavonica* was highest at the reference  
331 stations (57-63%) and decreased significantly in the  $\text{CO}_2$  enriched stations; S1 ( $35\% \pm 1.4$ ),  
332 S2 ( $15\% \pm 1.3$ ) and S3 ( $14\% \pm 0.9$ ). Analysis of *P. australis* from Upa-Upasina in Papua  
333 New Guinea also revealed a large reduction in  $\text{CaCO}_3$  content from  $55\% \pm 1.7$  at the  
334 reference station (U-R1) to  $35\% \pm 3.6$  at the intermediate station (U-S1). At Esa'Ala,  $\text{CaCO}_3$   
335 content was considerably greater in fronds from the reference station (E-R1:  $66\% \pm 7.1$ )  
336 compared with those the highest  $\text{CO}_2$  exposure station (E-S2:  $40\% \pm 1.8$ ).

337

338 Table 3 shows the abundance and morphometric data of the aragonite crystals on the surface  
339 of *P. pavonica* fronds. Over the thin calcified bands in the apical regions we detected a  
340 significant increase in crystal abundances with declining pH (GLM: slope of square root  
341 transformed data =  $-0.23 \pm 0.077$ ,  $t = -2.99$ ,  $P = 0.037$ ) and a reduction in the width of  
342 crystals (slope =  $0.23 \pm 0.067$ ,  $t = 3.42$ ,  $P = 0.026$ ), but no effect on crystal length ( $P = 0.85$ ).

343

344 The pH had a significant effect on the content of both chlorophyll *a* and chlorophyll *c* in *P.*  
345 *pavonica* (Fig. 5, GLM: slope =  $-0.24 \pm 0.065$ ,  $t = -3.78$ ,  $P = 0.019$ ; slope =  $-0.028 \pm 0.0055$ ,  $t$   
346 =  $-5.21$ ,  $P = 0.006$ , for chlorophyll *a* and *c*, respectively). Both the chlorophyll *a* and *c*  
347 content increased with declining pH (Chl *c*: V-S1=  $0.05 \text{ mg g}^{-1}\text{fw} \pm 0.002$ , V-S2 =  $0.06 \text{ mg g}^{-1}$

348  $^1 \text{fw} \pm 0.002$ , V-S3= 0.07 mg g<sup>-1</sup> fw  $\pm 0.003$  compared with those in the reference stations: V-  
349 R1= 0.04 mg g<sup>-1</sup> fw  $\pm 0.002$ , V-R2= 0.04 mg g<sup>-1</sup> fw  $\pm 0.004$ , V-R3= 0.04 mg g<sup>-1</sup> fw  $\pm 0.003$ ).

350

351 The differences observed in the photosynthetic responses of *P. pavonica* to increased CO<sub>2</sub> are  
352 presented in a rapid light curve in Fig. 6. The *r*ETR max values significantly increased with  
353 declining pH (GLM: slope on forth-root transformed data =  $-0.54 \pm 0.091$ ,  $t = -5.97$ ,  $P =$   
354  $0.004$ ). We also detected a significant effect of pH on the *r*ETRs recorded at supersaturating  
355 irradiance; 3344  $\mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  (slope on forth-root transformed data =  $-0.49 \pm 0.098$ ,  $t$   
356 =  $-4.95$ ,  $P = 0.008$ ) where the greatest values were recorded at S2 and S3 (137.43  $\mu\text{mol}$   
357  $\text{electrons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \pm 10.12$ ,  $134.45 \pm 7.97$  respectively), however no significant effect of pH  
358 on the *r*ETRs under a subsaturating irradiance (360  $\mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) could be detected  
359 (slope on forth-root transformed data =  $-0.12 \pm 0.049$ ,  $t = -2.55$ ,  $P = 0.063$ ). We also failed to  
360 detect a significant effect of pH on the photochemical efficiencies (*Fv/Fm*) of *P. pavonica* ( $P$   
361 = 0.35).

362

363

## 364 **Discussion**

365

366 To our knowledge, this is the first *in situ* demonstration of the effects of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on  
367 grazer-algal population dynamics. It is also the first to provide a comparison of ecological  
368 changes along CO<sub>2</sub> gradients between temperate and tropical rocky shores. Along both  
369 temperate and tropical rocky shores there was a reduction in sea urchin abundances alongside  
370 a proliferation of *Padina* spp., as CO<sub>2</sub> levels increased. We propose that the elevated CO<sub>2</sub>  
371 levels may influence algal-grazer dynamics as species assemblages change, causing profound  
372 structural and functional changes in rocky shore habitats. The changes in benthic community



373 composition were detected at threshold  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels of  $\sim 500 \mu\text{atm}$  in Sicily and therefore,  
374 according to climate change predictions (IPCC, 2007), indicate that we may begin to witness  
375 these ecological shifts occurring in temperate rocky shores from around the midpoint of this  
376 century. Threshold values of  $p\text{CO}_2$  for the rocky shore shifts in Papua New Guinea were  
377 considerably higher ( $> 900 \mu\text{atm}$ ) than those in Sicily, this may be due to the relatively  
378 limited range of  $\text{CO}_2$  enriched sampling stations in Papua New Guinea. Investigating the  
379 benthos at more intermediate levels of  $\text{CO}_2$  may have revealed lower threshold values for  
380 ecological shifts, similar to those in Sicily.

381

382 Our present knowledge of the effects of ocean acidification on calcified macroalgae is mostly  
383 derived from studies investigating the impacts of high  $\text{CO}_2$  on calcifiers with high  
384 magnesium calcite skeletons, such as the family Corallinaceae (Anthony *et al.*, 2008; Kuffner  
385 *et al.*, 2008; Martin *et al.*, 2008; Martin & Gattuso, 2009; Semesi *et al.*, 2009; Gao & Zheng,  
386 2010; Büdenbender *et al.*, 2011) and as a consequence, aragonitic algae have been relatively  
387 overlooked. Furthermore, the responses of calcified Pheophyta are virtually unknown  
388 (Porzio *et al.*, 2011). To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the *in situ*  
389 impacts of elevated  $\text{CO}_2$  on calcification and photosynthesis in *Padina* spp.

390

391 *Unexpected responses of Padina spp. to elevated CO<sub>2</sub>*

392

393 Our present knowledge concerning the impacts of ocean acidification has raised concern for  
394 the future success of calcified macroalgae under conditions of high  $\text{CO}_2$ . Previous  
395 investigations at  $\text{CO}_2$  vent seeps have observed dramatic reductions in the abundance of  
396 calcified macroalgae (Hall-Spencer *et al.*, 2008; Martin *et al.*, 2008; Fabricius *et al.*, 2011).  
397 The results from this investigation, however, indicate that some calcified algae may thrive as

398 the oceans acidify despite expected reductions in calcification. We discovered that tropical  
399 and temperate *Padina* spp. can proliferate with CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment, as similarly recorded for  
400 some genera of fleshy macroalgae (Hall-Spencer *et al.*, 2008; Fabricius *et al.*, 2011; Porzio *et*  
401 *al.*, 2011).

402

403 In both *P. pavonica* and *P. australis*, the content of CaCO<sub>3</sub> in thalli decreased with reductions  
404 in pH. This is consistent with other calcification studies on aragonitic macroalgae (Price *et*  
405 *al.*, 2011; Sinutok *et al.*, 2011) and high magnesium calcitic macro algae (Martin & Gattuso,  
406 2009; Semesi *et al.*, 2009). Reductions in CaCO<sub>3</sub> content implies that *Padina* spp. herbivore  
407 defence may be compromised under low pH, potentially leading to an increase in grazing  
408 mortality and reduction in benthic cover. This was not, however, reflected *in situ*. Sea urchins  
409 are major grazers on *Padina* spp. and their presence can cause significant reductions in the  
410 abundance of these algae in the Mediterranean (Hereu *et al.*, 2006) and in the tropics  
411 (Sammarco, 1982). Our recorded absence of sea urchins in the CO<sub>2</sub> enriched areas may  
412 therefore explain the proliferation of *Padina* spp., as it becomes released from the top-down  
413 control of these keystone grazers. Similar effects of sea urchin removal have been observed  
414 in other *Padina* sp. populations (Sammarco *et al.*, 1974) and across other Phaeophyte  
415 assemblages (Leinaas & Christie, 1996; Ling *et al.*, 2010).

416

417 *Photosynthetic response of Padina pavonica to elevated CO<sub>2</sub>*

418

419 Increased productivity with elevated CO<sub>2</sub> may contribute to the success of *Padina* at low pH.  
420 Laboratory studies of other calcified macroalgae have revealed declines in photosynthetic  
421 pigments in high CO<sub>2</sub>/ low pH treatments (Gao and Zheng, 2010; Sinutok *et al.*, 2011) which  
422 are indicative of chlorophyll degradation, a reduction in photosynthetic unit size and/or a

423 reduction in PSII reaction centres (Sinutok *et al.*, 2011). Our findings, however, show the  
424 opposite. We found that Chl *a* and Chl *c* content in *P. pavonica* was greater in the CO<sub>2</sub>  
425 enriched stations indicating an increase in photosynthetic capacity under conditions with high  
426 CO<sub>2</sub>. It has been speculated that pH stress may negatively impact photosynthetic performance  
427 through the disruption of the CO<sub>2</sub> accumulating pathway at the site of Rubisco, or  
428 interference with electron transport (Anthony *et al.*, 2008). This has been supported though  
429 laboratory experiments with *Halimeda* spp. which have demonstrated declines in  
430 photosynthetic efficiency (Sinutok *et al.*, 2011) and response (Price *et al.*, 2011) under  
431 elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, we did not observe significant effect of pH on photosynthetic  
432 efficiency (Fv/Fm), along gradients of CO<sub>2</sub>. Indeed, we found a significant effect on the *in*  
433 *situ* photosynthetic responses of *P. pavonica* with CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment (increases in  $rETR_{max}$  and  
434 mean  $rETR_{max}$  at supersaturating irradiance). *Padina pavonica* is not carbon-saturated in  
435 seawater and can utilise more inorganic carbon if it is provided as CO<sub>2</sub> (Einav *et al.*, 1995).  
436 The positive photosynthetic response of *P. pavonica* to CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment therefore indicates a  
437 direct enhancement of carbon fixation across the gradient. Increased photosynthetic activity  
438 at high CO<sub>2</sub> has also been observed in other calcified macroalgae (Reiskind *et al.*, 1988, Gao  
439 *et al.*, 1993b, Semesi *et al.*, 2009) and non-calcified macroalgae (Gao *et al.*, 1993a; Kübler *et*  
440 *al.*, 1999; Connell & Russell, 2010; Russell *et al.*, 2011b).

441

442 It has been established that photosynthesis can stimulate calcification in algae (Borowitzka,  
443 1982; Gattuso *et al.*, 1999). The co-existence of chloroplasts and aragonite deposition in the  
444 same thallus region of *Padina* indicates an intimate relationship between calcification and  
445 photosynthesis (Okazaki *et al.*, 1986). Increased CaCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> dissolution in lower pH may  
446 therefore be offset by increased photosynthesis in those regions with chloroplasts. This may  
447 help to explain why we found that even in the lowest pH conditions, *P. pavonica* and *P.*

448 *australis* were still able to calcify, seemingly from the enhancement of photosynthesis under  
449 high levels of CO<sub>2</sub>. Alternatively, the high pH variability in the vent zone, caused by transient  
450 exposure to ambient pH conditions (i.e periods of high winds increasing the mixing of vent  
451 waters with surrounding high pH seawater), has the potential to buffer the effects of  
452 acidification by relieving physiological stress (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2011).

453

#### 454 *Implications of elevated CO<sub>2</sub> on Padina spp. calcification*

455

456 There is a lack of laboratory evidence of the effects of low pH on *Padina* spp. calcification to  
457 confirm whether decreased calcification is a direct response to reduced pH as opposed to, for  
458 example, the reduced grazing pressure in this *in situ* experiment. An investigation of  
459 Caribbean *Padina* sp. (Lewis *et al.*, 1987) however, revealed that in heavily grazed areas the  
460 algae existed in the form of an uncalcified turf whereas in areas of low grazing activity it  
461 grew as calcified, foliose blades. The fact that these algae still calcify when grazing intensity  
462 is low suggests that the reduced calcification recorded in this study may indeed be a direct  
463 response to lowered pH and not the changes in grazing pressure. It has been suggested that  
464 calcium carbonate crystal morphology and abundance may be associated with seawater  
465 chemistry: thinner, more abundant crystals have been shown to indicate reduced pH  
466 conditions as crystallisation events are thought to be initiated and terminated more frequently  
467 (Robbins *et al.*, 2009; Sinutok *et al.*, 2011). Over the thin calcified band in the apical region  
468 of *P. pavonica* fronds in the CO<sub>2</sub> enriched stations, we recorded more abundant aragonite  
469 crystals than in the reference stations and we also observed a decreasing trend of crystal  
470 width with increasing levels of CO<sub>2</sub>. These results therefore support the theory of pH  
471 dependent changes in calcium carbonate crystal morphology and deposition in calcified

472 macroalgae. The implications of changes in *Padina* spp. bio-calcification on thallus rigidity,  
473 dissolution rates and overall sediment budgets however, need further investigation.

474

## 475 **Conclusions**

476

477 Volcanic CO<sub>2</sub> vent systems are revealing the changes in ecological interactions and  
478 community shifts we can expect in subtidal rocky shore ecosystems under elevated CO<sub>2</sub>. This  
479 study reveals dramatic shifts in benthic community structure that were strikingly similar to  
480 those documented at another CO<sub>2</sub> vent site in Italy (Hall-Spencer *et al.*, 2008). Our study  
481 shows that certain calcified phaeophytes could, in fact, be amongst the ecological winners  
482 under ocean acidification scenarios, alongside fleshy macroalgae (Kübler *et al.*, 1999; Porzio  
483 *et al.*, 2011; Raven *et al.*, 2011). This may be explained by a combination of; reduced sea  
484 urchin predation (and presumably other calcareous predators such as gastropods), increased  
485 photosynthetic capacity and performance and optimised energy reallocation following a  
486 reduction in carbon limitation. This work adds to evidence for proliferation of phaeophytes in  
487 a high CO<sub>2</sub> world (Hall-Spencer *et al.*, 2008; Connell & Russell 2010; Diaz-Pulido *et al.*,  
488 2011; Russell *et al.*, 2011b) and has potentially profound consequences for the structure,  
489 function and resilience of a variety of benthic ecosystems globally (Russell *et al.*, 2009;  
490 McManus & Polsenberg, 2004; Harries *et al.*, 2007).

491

492 Large differences in the impacts of CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment between *Padina* spp. and other calcified  
493 species have been made apparent by this study. This highlights the importance of studying a  
494 wide range of genera to better inform global predictions of the impacts of ocean acidification  
495 on marine ecosystems (Russell *et al.*, 2011a). This study has demonstrated that the response  
496 of *Padina* spp. to CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment is complex and potentially multi-factorial. An *in situ*,

497 ecosystem based approach, incorporating multi-species interactions and predator-prey  
498 dynamics, provides more accurate insights into the responses of marine organisms,  
499 highlighting the importance of natural CO<sub>2</sub> gradients as a valuable tool in the study of ocean  
500 acidification. The similarities we found in the responses of *Padina* spp. and sea urchin  
501 abundance at several vent systems increases the robustness of our predictions over a large  
502 geographical range. Similar comparisons should be adopted for other marine biota in future  
503 ocean acidification studies.

504

505

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821 **Table 1.** Seawater carbonate chemistry measurements for each study station off the island of  
822 Vulcano (V) and in Papua New Guinea; Upa-Upasina (U) and Esa'Ala (E), R= reference  
823 station, S = elevated CO<sub>2</sub> station. In Vulcano, temperature (range 18.6-27.7 °C), pH and  
824 salinity (= 38) were measured in Sept-Oct 2009, April 2010, July 2010, Sept-Oct 2010, May  
825 2011, Sept-Oct 2011. In Papua New Guinea temperature (range 28.2-31.4 °C), pH and  
826 salinity (= 34) were measured in April 2011. The pH and total alkalinity (Vulcano: mean TA,  
827  $n = 3$ ; PNG: median TA values taken from Fabricius *et al.*, 2011) were used to calculate the  
828 remaining parameters using CO<sub>2</sub> SYS programme (using the constants of Roy *et al.* 1993 and  
829 Dickson 1990 for KSO<sub>4</sub>).

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Site & Station		pH range (NBS scale)	$p\text{CO}_2$ ( $\mu\text{atm}$ )	TA ( $\text{mmol kg}^{-1}$ )	DIC ( $\text{mmol kg}^{-1}$ )	$\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ ( $\text{mmol kg}^{-1}$ )	$\text{HCO}_3^-$ ( $\text{mmol kg}^{-1}$ )	$\Omega_{\text{calcite}}$	$\Omega_{\text{aragonite}}$
<b>V R1</b>	max	8.35	241	2.682	2.402	0.18	2.206	4.27	2.69
	median	8.17	388	( $\pm 0.12$ )	2.492	0.13	2.341	2.99	1.89
	min	8.06	513		2.538	0.10	2.405	2.39	1.51
<b>V R2</b>	max	8.29	274	2.591	2.349	0.16	2.177	3.67	2.31
	median	8.18	365	( $\pm 0.03$ )	2.399	0.12	2.251	2.95	1.86
	min	8.08	471		2.442	0.10	2.311	2.40	1.51
<b>V R3</b>	max	8.29	272	2.579	2.337	0.15	2.165	3.65	2.30
	median	8.18	364	( $\pm 0.04$ )	2.394	0.12	2.247	2.94	1.85
	min	8.10	446		2.421	0.11	2.288	2.49	1.57
<b>V S1</b>	max	8.22	355	2.790	2.569	0.15	2.401	3.44	2.17
	median	8.08	510	( $\pm 0.08$ )	2.641	0.11	2.499	2.60	1.64
	min	7.76	1119		2.752	0.06	2.627	1.31	0.82
<b>V S2</b>	max	8.10	474	2.742	2.578	0.11	2.436	2.65	1.67
	median	7.71	1244	( $\pm 0.07$ )	2.727	0.05	2.601	1.15	0.73
	min	7.07	5628		3.054	0.01	2.697	0.27	0.17
<b>V S3</b>	max	8.24	337	2.796	2.565	0.15	2.392	3.59	2.27
	median	7.66	1428	( $\pm 0.12$ )	3.794	0.04	2.662	1.05	0.66
	min	6.80	10,730		3.428	0.01	2.762	0.15	0.09
<b>U R1</b>	max	8.32	268	2.296	1.869	0.31	1.556	7.47	4.97
	median	8.31	276		1.875	0.30	1.566	7.38	4.90
	min	8.29	292		1.887	0.29	1.585	7.18	4.78

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<b>U R2</b>	max	8.23	351	2.296	1.930	0.27	1.655	6.49	4.31
	median	8.22	361		1.935	0.26	1.664	6.40	4.25
	min	8.21	372		1.943	0.26	1.676	6.27	4.17
<b>U S1</b>	max	8.87	1130	2319	2.174	0.13	2.019	3.06	2.04
	median	7.78	1218		2.189	0.12	2.041	2.84	1.89
	min	7.76	1283		2.197	0.11	2.052	2.72	1.81
<b>U S2</b>	max	7.58	2029	2319	2.263	0.08	2.132	1.92	1.28
	median	7.47	2665		2.031	0.06	2.170	1.53	1.02
	min	7.46	2724		2.306	0.06	2.175	1.47	0.98
<b>E R1</b>	max	8.27	309	2288	1.872	0.30	1.564	7.36	4.93
	median	8.2	380		1.915	0.27	1.635	6.66	4.47
	min	8.03	620		2.026	0.20	1.813	4.85	3.25
<b>E S1</b>	max	8.00	677	2298	2.050	0.19	1.843	4.65	3.12
	median	7.89	914		2.104	0.16	1.926	3.82	2.56
	min	7.74	1338		2.184	0.11	2.043	2.60	1.73
<b>E S2</b>	max	7.29	4063	2298	2.348	0.04	2.201	0.99	0.66
	median	6.56	23,095		2.853	0.09	2.278	0.21	0.14
	min	6.43	21,204		3.057	0.06	2.283	0.16	0.10

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844 **Table 2.** Changes in (a) *Padina* spp. cover, (b) urchin abundances and (c) CaCO<sub>3</sub> content of845 *Padina* spp. fronds, along the three pH gradients at Esa'Ala, Upa-Upasina and Vulcano.846 Generalised linear model outputs. Data in bold indicate significant effect of pH ( $P < 0.05$ ).

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<b>a)</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>P</b>
Region.Esa	14.03	4.31	3.26	0.008
Region.Upa	22.83	8.74	2.61	0.024
Region.Vul	17.05	7.32	2.33	0.040
RegionEsa : pH	-1.38	0.57	-2.43	<b>0.033</b>
RegionUpa : pH	-4.28	0.96	-4.48	<b>0.001</b>
RegionVul : pH	-3.48	0.74	-4.70	<b>0.001</b>
<b>b)</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>P</b>
Region.Esa	-27.82	8.56	-3.25	0.006
Region.Upa	-0.31	0.51	-0.61	0.553
Region.Vul	-0.66	0.46	-1.43	0.176
pH	3.40	1.06	3.22	<b>0.007</b>
<b>c)</b>	<b>Estimate</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>P</b>
Region. Esa	-5.07	2.19	-2.32	0.082
RegionUpa	-7.38	7.03	-1.05	0.353
RegionVul	-21.20	4.83	-4.39	0.012
RegionEsa : pH	0.70	0.29	2.38	0.076
RegionUpa : pH	1.52	0.83	1.84	0.140
RegionVul : pH	3.25	0.54	6.06	<b>0.004</b>

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**Table 3.** Mean ( $\pm$  SE) abundance, length and width of aragonite crystals deposited by *Padina pavonica* along the Vulcano CO<sub>2</sub> gradient. Data derived from SEM analysis of fronds ( $n = 3$  fronds per station), over calcified apical regions only (see frond images in Fig. 5), therefore do not reflect total means for whole fronds.

Station	Mean no. crystals (per 5 $\mu\text{m}^2$ )	Mean crystal length ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	Mean crystal width ( $\mu\text{m}$ )
V-R1	94 $\pm$ 6.65	1.30 $\pm$ 0.05	0.20 $\pm$ 0.01
V-R2	96 $\pm$ 7.47	1.44 $\pm$ 0.07	0.20 $\pm$ 0.01
V-R3	96 $\pm$ 8.20	1.43 $\pm$ 0.06	0.21 $\pm$ 0.01
V-S1	106 $\pm$ 4.76	1.80 $\pm$ 0.06	0.18 $\pm$ 0.01
V-S2	115 $\pm$ 8.74	1.54 $\pm$ 0.10	0.19 $\pm$ 0.01
V-S3	153 $\pm$ 6.31	1.52 $\pm$ 0.07	0.17 $\pm$ 0.01

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868 **Figure Legends**

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870 **Fig. 1** Range in pH<sub>NBS</sub> (<0.5 m water depth) across CO<sub>2</sub> gradients in a) Vulcano (Sicily; *n* =  
871 22-27 per station) b) Upa-Upasina (Papua New Guinea; *n* = 6 per station) c) Esa'Ala (Papua  
872 New Guinea; *n* = 7 & S2, *n* = 9). 'R' denotes reference stations, 'S' denotes elevated CO<sub>2</sub>  
873 stations.

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875 **Fig. 2** Images showing an urchin and coralline algae dominated rocky shore under ambient  
876 CO<sub>2</sub> (a) in Ischia, Italy (photograph by David Liittschwager, National Geographic) and the  
877 proliferation of Phaeophyta at elevated CO<sub>2</sub> at vent sites in Ischia (photograph by Luca  
878 Tiberti, Associazione Nemo) (b). *Padina australis* showing normal calcification at tropical  
879 (Papua New Guinea) reference station, Esa'Ala R1 (c; scale bar = 1 cm) and visibly low  
880 calcification at Esa'Ala S1 (d). Arrows indicate CO<sub>2</sub> vent bubbles.

881

882 **Fig. 3**

883 Mean percentage cover (histogram + SE) of *Padina* spp. and abundance of sea urchins (mean  
884 ± SE) along CO<sub>2</sub> gradients at a) Vulcano b) Upa-Upasina c) Esa'Ala (*n* = 20 quadrats per  
885 station). Mean pH (*n* = 6-27 per station) of each station indicated.

886

887 **Fig. 4**

888 a) Mean (+ SE) CaCO<sub>3</sub> content of *Padina* spp. along CO<sub>2</sub> gradients at a) Vulcano (*n* = 30 per  
889 station), b) Upa-Upasina (*n* = 15 per station) and c) Esa'Ala (*n* = 5 per station).

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891 **Fig. 5** Mean (+ SE) chl *a* content in *P. pavonica* fronds along the Vulcano CO<sub>2</sub> gradient (*n* =  
892 40 per station). Images illustrate changes in CaCO<sub>3</sub> deposition on *P. pavonica* frond surfaces  
893 at V-R2 and V-S2 along the Vulcano CO<sub>2</sub> gradient. All thalli at V-R1- V-R3 were heavily  
894 calcified, all thalli at S1-S3 were more lightly calcified, calcification appears to be limited to  
895 thin bands along apical regions (scale bar = 1 cm). Arrows indicate locations of SEM  
896 analyses.

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898 **Fig. 6** Rapid light curves of *P. pavonica* along the Vulcano CO<sub>2</sub> gradient, showing the mean  
899 ( $\pm$  SE) relative electron transport rates (*rETR*) per station (*n* = 5 for V-R3 + V-S3, *n* = 6 for  
900 all other stations) at increasing irradiance.

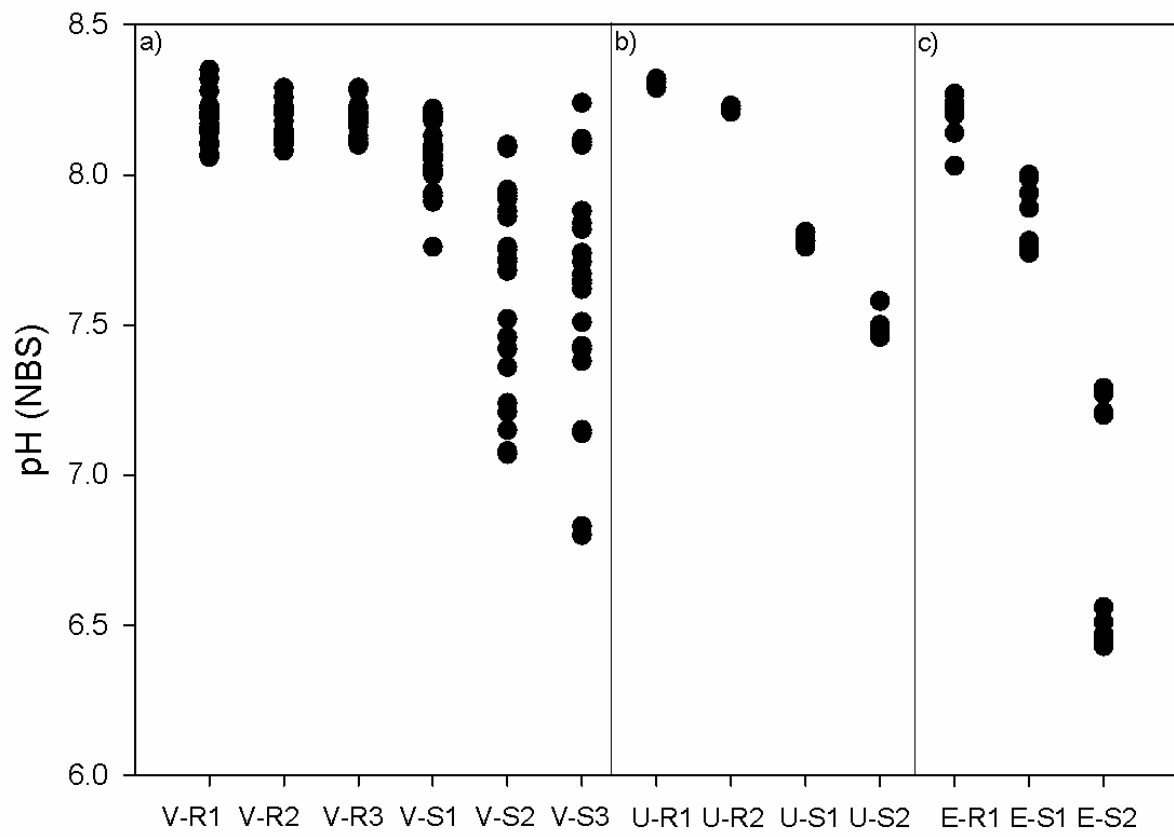
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903 **Figure 1**

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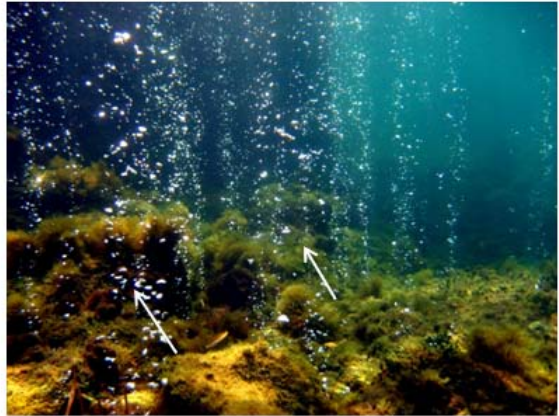
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907 **Figure 2.**

a)



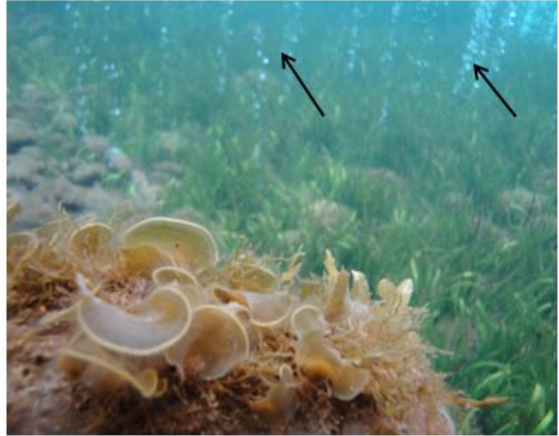
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c)



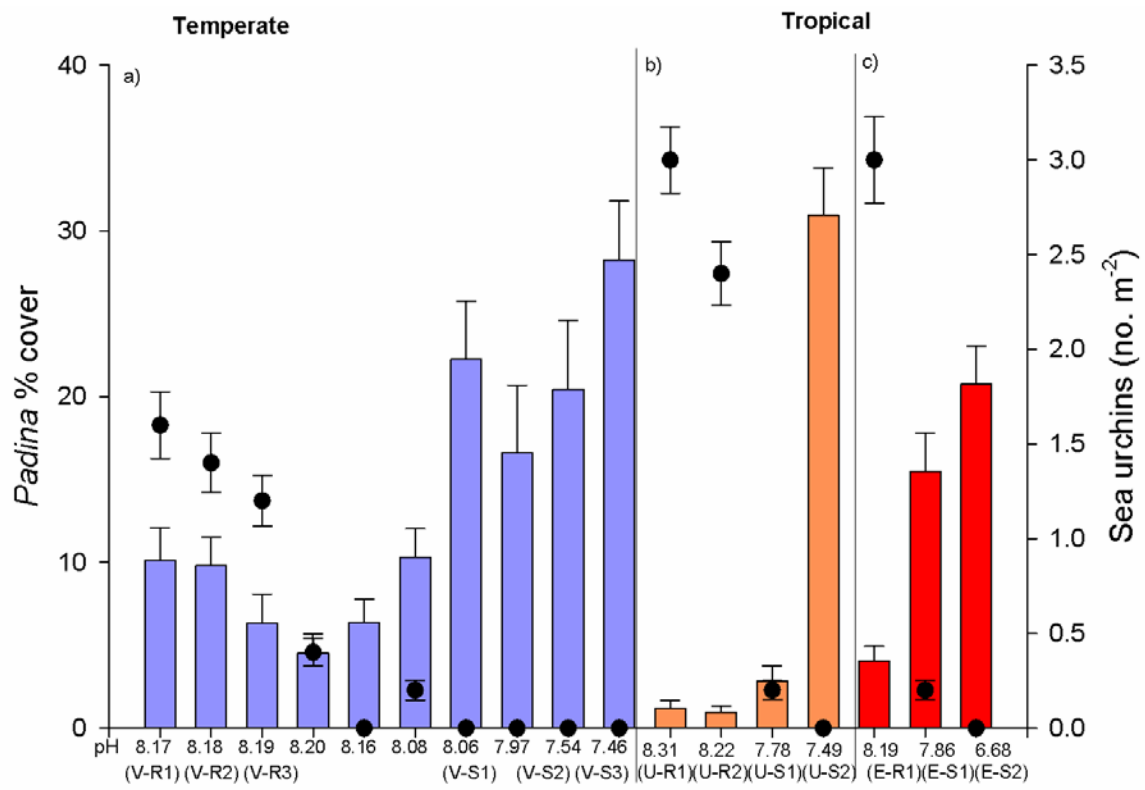
d)



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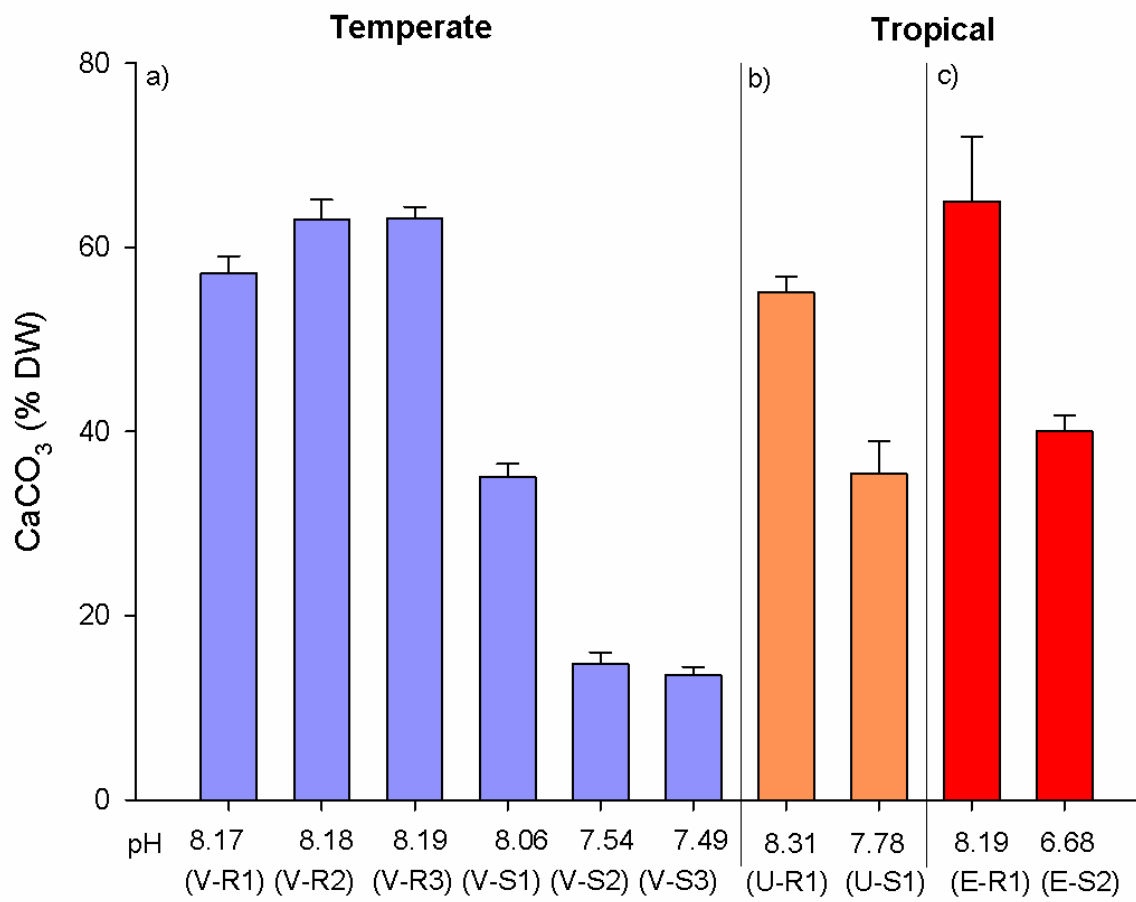
910 **Figure 3.**



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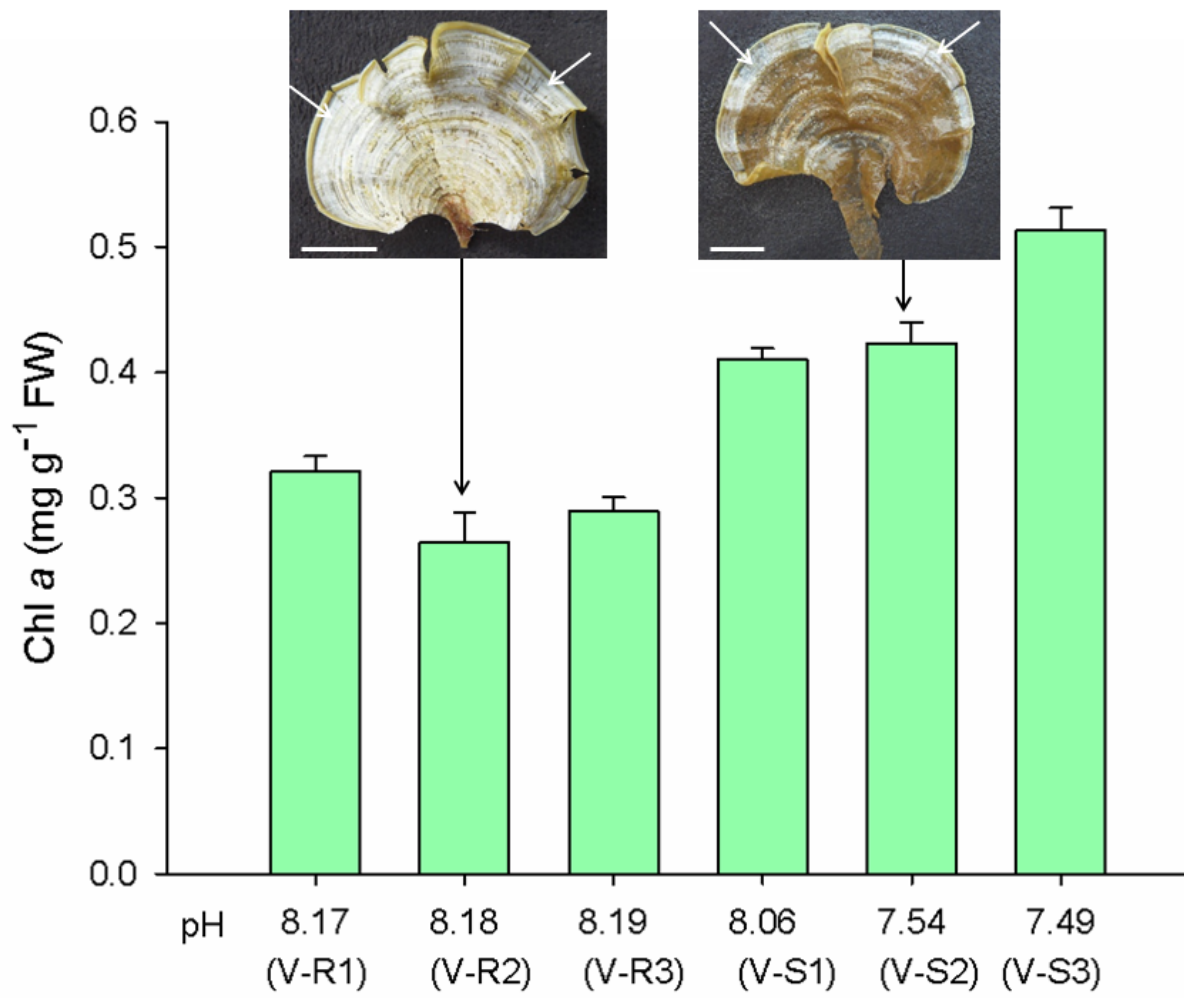
913 **Figure 4.**



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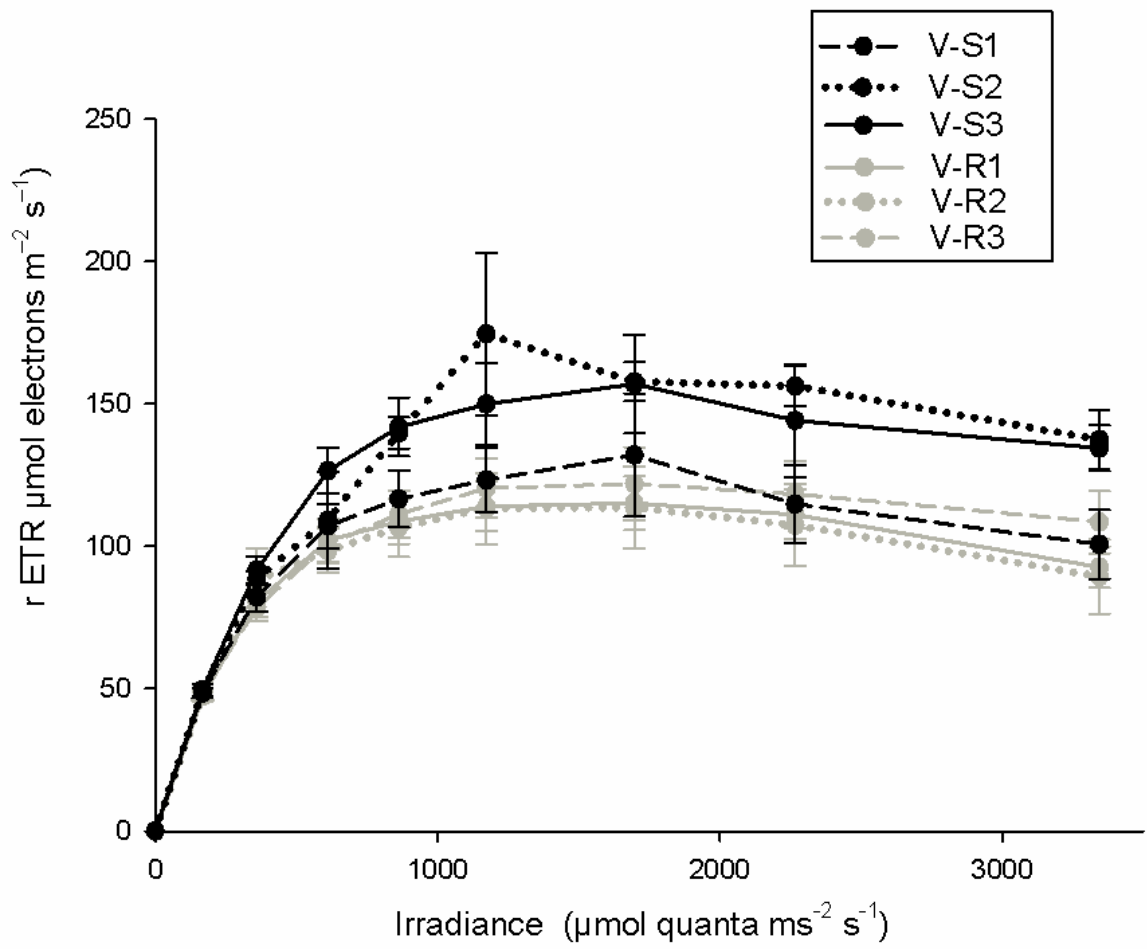
916 **Figure 5.**



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919 **Figure 6.**



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