

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Marine Pollution Bulletin



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/marpolbul

Surviving in a changing ocean. Tolerance to acidification might affect the susceptibility of polychaetes to chemical contamination



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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Ocean acidification Syllis prolifera Oxidative stress Acetone Copper CO₂ vents

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to assess the combined effects of ocean acidification (OA) and pollution to the polychaete *Syllis prolifera* inhabiting the CO_2 vent system of the Castello Aragonese (Ischia Island, Italy). We investigated the basal activities of antioxidant enzymes in organisms from the acidified site and from an ambient-pH control site in two different periods of the year. Results showed a limited influence of acidified conditions on the functionality of the antioxidant system. We then investigated the responsiveness of individuals living inside the CO_2 vent compared to those from the control to face exposure to acetone and copper. Results highlighted a higher susceptibility of organisms from the vent to acetone and a different response of antioxidant enzymes in individuals from the two sites. Conversely, a higher tolerance to copper was observed in polychaetes from the acidified-site with respect to controls, but any significant oxidative stress was induced at sublethal concentrations.

1. Introduction

Human activities have a detrimental impact on ecosystems' health, especially in marine environments. Several environmental and anthropogenic stressors, such as seawater warming, acidification, pollution and overexploitation are drastically reducing the biodiversity and functionality of marine ecosystems (Pecl et al., 2017). In this global change scenario, it is extremely important to understand how stressors are interacting with each other in order to provide more realistic projections of the intensity of impacts on species populations as well as communities facing global environmental changes (Rodríguez-Romero et al., 2021).

Among the various stressors, those related to climate change, such as temperature rise and ocean acidification (OA), are receiving an increasing attention in the last two decades due to their widespread effects on a global scale (Kroeker et al., 2013). OA consists in a profound alteration of the carbonate chemistry and decreasing of the pH, due to

increasing pCO_2 exchanges at the atmosphere-water interface (Caldeira and Wickett, 2005). Based on recent models (Caldeira and Wickett, 2005) and a business-as-usual scenario, OA is going to increase with lowering of the actual pH of 0.3–0.4 units at the end of this century, with still unpredictable effects for the majority of the marine organisms.

Several studies carried out under laboratory conditions described detrimental effects due to OA across many taxa, such as reduced calcification, metabolic stress and energetic constraints, altered growth and reproduction, highlighting that predicted OA conditions will have negative consequences for marine organisms (Bressan et al., 2014; Nagelkern and Cornell, 2015; Asnicar et al., 2021). Besides, other pioneering studies carried out in CO₂ vent systems, which are naturally acidified by the CO₂ surplus emitted from the seafloor, focused on species able to survive and thrive in a lower pH-high pCO₂ ocean (Foo et al., 2018). The CO₂ vents, mainly of volcanic origin, are sites with reduced pH, representing valuable windows to mimic future ocean conditions, which help to predict changes in biodiversity and adjustment in the

Received 23 February 2022; Received in revised form 26 April 2022; Accepted 12 June 2022 Available online 21 June 2022 0025-326X/@ 2022 Published by Elsevier Ltd.

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ב-זותו תתוו כאנט מווטוומ.כוומוטוכשאנוגו (א. כווומוטוב), כמוווומ.נופוואנטורפשעווווווגוו (כ. Della 10rre).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2022.113857

ecophysiology of marine species associated with OA (Kroeker et al., 2011).

The studies carried out in such natural laboratories show that divergent and compensatory biological responses to OA can occur (Foo et al., 2018; González-Delgado and Hernández, 2018), driving some species to counteract the effects of OA through a range of adaptive processes, including acclimatization (phenotypic plastic adjustment) and genetic adaptation (Foo and Byrne, 2016). Some of these strategies are energy-consuming and could occur at the expense of other energy-expensive physiological functions such as reproduction and growth. Nevertheless, some adaptation mechanisms might entail stress tolerance, allowing a natural population to survive and reproduce even in more stressful conditions.

Among the various shallow CO₂ vent systems nowadays studied around the world (González-Delgado and Hernández, 2018; Rastrick et al., 2018), the Castello Aragonese vents in Ischia Island (Tyrrhenian Sea, Italy) represent the first system where research on the responses of benthic biota to OA have been addressed (Hall-Spencer et al., 2008).

At temperate CO_2 vents, benthic polychaetes represent some of the most abundant metazoans colonizing the benthic biota (Ricevuto et al., 2014; Gambi et al., 2016; Vizzini et al., 2017; Auriemma et al., 2019), and show different adaptations to OA at the individual species level (Lucey et al., 2015, 2016; Ricevuto et al., 2015a, 2016). Therefore, polychaetes represent ideal biological models to shed light on the molecular and physiological key mechanisms which allow counteracting OA otherwise detrimental effects.

The ongoing climatic changes are not the only treat that marine organisms must face. Especially in coastal areas, the most subjected to anthropogenic pressures, the OA-related stress is expected to combine with pollution, posing an even major threat to marine ecosystems (Schiedek et al., 2007; Nikinmaa, 2013; Delorenzo, 2015).

Classic laboratory studies have already been conducted in mesocosms conditions to test if OA can exacerbate the negative effects of different pollutants in several marine species including bivalves (Freitas et al., 2016b; Munari et al., 2016, 2018, 2019, 2020a, 2020b), echinoderms (Dorey et al., 2018; Munari et al., 2022) and polychaetes (Lewis et al., 2013; De Marchi et al., 2019) at different stages of their life history. Regarding to polychaetes, the combined effects of OA and different types of contaminants were investigated, showing synergistic and additive effects (Campbell et al., 2014; De Marchi et al., 2019), but also no interactive effects (Freitas et al., 2017) and antagonistic behaviour have been described (Nielson et al., 2019). Moreover, all the above studies, on the possible combined effects between OA and environmental contaminants, were conducted through in vivo exposure experiments under controlled laboratory conditions with organisms that never experienced OA before during their life time. If in a hand this approach allows to understand the phenotypic plasticity of a natural population to certain stressors, it does not allow to highlight the influence of the mechanisms such as acclimation and adaptation which develop in individuals naturally subjected to the action of multiple stressors.

Among polychaetes, Syllis prolifera (Krohn, 1852) is a mesoherbivore species, which lives on rocky bottoms, usually associated with algal-dominated habitats in shallow waters (Giangrande, 1988; Ricevuto et al., 2015a), including disturbed biotopes (Musco et al., 2009). This species is abundant in the hard bottom habitats in the Castello CO₂ vents, including the most acidified zone, where it represents one of the few abundant species (Cigliano et al., 2010; Kroeker et al., 2011; Ricevuto et al., 2012, 2014; Foo et al., 2018), and where also it can reproduce by stolonization with the production of sexual satellites (Gambi et al., 2017). There is still little evidence of the effects of elevated pCO2 on S. prolifera, however, Calosi et al. (2013) showed that the species, although collected in the vents area, showed a significant increase in mean oxygen consumption when exposed to low pCO_2 conditions for 5 days transplants at the vents. Besides, a study carried out on S. prolifera and Platynereis spp. inhabiting the vent system of Castello Aragonese showed that native organisms displayed enhanced

basal antioxidant efficiency compared to specimens living under normal pH conditions (Ricevuto et al., 2015a). Since the antioxidant defence system is one of the key cellular pathways to counteract the adverse effects of toxic substances (Regoli and Giuliani, 2014), the increased antioxidant capability observed in those organisms could be winning also in developing tolerance to chemical contamination.

In this scenario, this study aimed to assess if organisms able to cope with natural acidified conditions have also an enhanced resistance against different environmental stress such as chemical contamination or whether physiological modifications, induced to cope with the acidified conditions, will reduce the capability of the organism to respond to chemical contamination, and whether the occurrence of this further challenge will impact more heavily their health and survival. To answer the question, we first assessed the basal antioxidant capability of individuals of Syllis prolifera inhabiting the CO₂ vent system of the Castello Aragonese. Then we investigated the responsiveness of individuals living inside the vents compared to those collected in control zones, living under normal pH conditions, to face exposure to two environmental pollutants with different mechanism of action. Acetone is a widely used industrial solvent commonly found in the atmosphere, in natural water bodies and in groundwater as well (Armutcu et al., 2005). This molecule is commonly used as a carrier of contaminants in many ecotoxicity tests, due to its high solubility and low toxicity. Copper (Cu) is a metal, widespread in the marine ecosystems as a result of mining activities, municipal and industrial effluent discharges and application in antifouling paints (Corcoll et al., 2019). The most characterized mechanisms of toxicity of Cu is through the overproduction of ROS and imbalance of acid-base homeostasis (Geracitano et al., 2004; Viarengo et al., 1996). The combined effects of Cu and OA have been investigated under laboratory conditions on different marine invertebrates, showing contrasting outcomes depending on the species' physiology, since often the toxicity of Cu was increased under OA conditions (Campbell et al., 2014; Siddiqui and Bielmyer-Fraser, 2015; Lewis et al., 2016; Bielmyer-Fraser et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2018; Scanes et al., 2018) but also antagonistic effects have been described (Marangoni et al., 2019; Nielson et al., 2019).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sites and sampling

Individuals of the target species Syllis prolifera were collected in November 2019 and June 2021 from the Castello Aragonese CO2 vents system (stations centred in 40°43'57.9" N, 13°57'51.8" E on the south side of the Castello named S3 and S2 from previous investigations) (e.g., Ricevuto et al., 2015a, 2015b; Calosi et al., 2013; Foo et al., 2018), and from the control site at San Pietro promontory 40°44'47.6" N, 13°56'40.42" E, which is located approximately 4 km from the vents (Fig. 1), a site which has been already used as reference in similar studies (Ricevuto et al., 2015b; Calosi et al., 2013). For the physico-chemical characterization of the acidified areas of the Castello we refer to multiples previous studies where pH, pCO2 and other parameters have been intensively measured (e.g., Hall-Spencer et al., 2008; Kroeker et al., 2011) or summarized (e.g., Ricevuto et al., 2014; Foo et al., 2018). Since the acidification level and its variability are related to the intensity of the venting (bubbling) from the floor and this has not changed in the past 10 years (Gambi M.C., personal observation), we consider the characterization given by past studies still reliable of the local OA conditions. Salinity of the zone is constant at 38 PSU (Foo et al., 2018). We do not have measures of the natural levels of copper and acetone in the area, however, being both the control and the vents sites included in the Marine Protected Area of Ischia, there aren't evident source of pollution in the area.

As *Syllis prolifera* lives in association with several macroalgae species (mainly *Halopteris scoparia* and *Cladophora* spp.), the macroalgae were collected by hand by scuba divers that used fabric bags subsequently



Fig. 1. Map of the Ischia island. Location of the two sampling sites: Vent site at the Castello Aragonese (40°43′57.9″ N - 13°57′51.8″ E), control site at San Pietro Point (40°44′47.6″ N; 13°56′40.42″ E).

vents

covered by plastic covers at 1–2 m depth in both sites. Individuals of *S. prolifera* were sorted from the algae and identified, worms were pooled (3 pools of 20 individuals each from each site) and stored at -80 °C before biomarkers analysis.

2.2. In vivo exposure

The experiments were carried out using individuals from both the San Pietro site and the vent system of Castello Aragonese with specimens collected as previously described. The experiment with acetone was carried out in September 2020, while the one with copper in June 2021. Individuals used for in vivo exposures were collected from the field prior to each experiment and sorted for identification using seawater collected from the control site underneath the laboratories of the Ischia Marine Centre, conditioned at the same pCO_2 conditions of the site of origin. After sorting and identification, polychaetes (body length range 3-6 mm) were maintained in a thermostatic room at 25 °C with 12:12 h day: night photoperiod, in glass containers (200 mL) supplied with filtered seawater (0.22 μ m) from the control site conditioned at the same pCO₂ conditions of the site of origin. The CO₂ was supplied and monitored through an automatic system (Touch Controller acq140 by Aquatronica S.r.l.). From previous trials and studies (Teixido et al., 2020) we know that there are no persistent differences in Total Alkalinity among different sites being open systems. During the acclimation period, polychaetes were fed ad libitum with grinded fresh spinach.

2.2.1. Acetone experiments

After three days of acclimation, individuals were subdivided into glass bottles (250 mL) supplied with artificial seawater (distilled water

added with Amtra Sea Complex) at 37 \pm 1 ‰ salinity and 8.08 \pm 0.01 (mean \pm S.D.) pH for control treatment and 7.73 \pm 0.03 (mean \pm S.D.) pH for acidified treatment.

Organisms were subdivided in order to have homogeneous distribution in body length within groups into the following treatment groups (three replicates of 20 individuals each):

- Control seawater at pH 8.1 individuals collected from San Pietro
- Acetone at 0.05 % v/v at pH 8.1 individuals collected from San Pietro
 Control seawater at pH 7.7 individuals collected from the Castello
- Acetone at 0.05 % v/v at pH 7.7 individuals collected from the Castello vents.

The exposure lasted 4 days with water renewal every 48 h changing 80 % of the total volume. Polychaetes during the experiment were fed with frozen spinach finely chopped. Due to the high mortality observed in the group treated with acetone at pH 7.7, only the survival rates have been recorded at the end of the experiment.

A further experiment has been carried out with the following treatment groups:

- Control seawater at pH 8.1 individuals collected from San Pietro
- Acetone at 0.01 % v/v at pH 8.1 individuals collected from San Pietro
- Control seawater at pH 7.7 individuals collected from the Castello vents
- \bullet Acetone at 0.01 % v/v at pH 7.7 individuals collected from the Castello vents.

Samples were subdivided into glass bottles (250 mL) supplied with artificial seawater (distilled water added with Amtra Sea Complex) at 37 \pm 1 ‰ (mean \pm S.D.) salinity and 8.12 \pm 0.03 (mean \pm S.D.) pH for control treatment and 7.74 \pm 0.01 (mean \pm S.D.) pH for acidified treatment. The exposure lasted five days with water renewal every 48 h changing 80 % of the total volume. At the end of the experiment, the survival rates were recorded and individuals from each replicate were collected and stored at -80 °C before biomarkers analysis.

2.2.2. Copper sulphate

In June 2021, after three days of acclimation, samples were divided into glass bottles (250 mL) supplied with artificial seawater (distilled water added with Amtra Sea Complex) at 37 \pm 1 ‰ (mean \pm S.D.) salinity and 8.13 \pm 0.03 (mean \pm S.D.) pH for control treatment and 7.67 \pm 0.05 (mean \pm S.D.) pH for acidified treatment. Polychaetes during the experiment were fed with frozen spinach finely chopped.

Organisms were subdivided into eight treatment groups (three replicates of 10 individuals each), as follow:

- Control seawater at pH 8.1 individuals collected from San Pietro
- Copper sulphate at 2 mg/L at pH 8.1 individuals collected from San Pietro
- Copper sulphate at 0.2 mg/L at pH 8.1 individuals collected from San Pietro
- Copper sulphate at 0.05 mg/L at pH 8.1 individuals collected from San Pietro
- Control seawater at pH 7.7 individuals collected from the Castello vents
- Copper sulphate at 2 mg/L at pH 7.7 individuals collected from the Castello vents
- Copper sulphate at 0.2 mg/L at pH 7.7 individuals collected from the Castello vents
- Copper sulphate at 0.05 mg/L at pH 7.7 individuals collected from the Castello vents.

The Cu concentrations were selected based on LC₅₀ reported for other polychaete species (from 125 µg/L up to \geq 500 µg/L Xie et al., 2005; Dean, 2008; Moreira et al., 2006; Bouraoui et al., 2015). Water was changed every 48 h (80 % of the total volume) and at the end of the experiment (five days of exposure), the survival rates were recorded and individuals from each replicate were collected and stored at -80 °C before biomarkers analysis.

2.3. Biomarkers analysis

Biomarkers analyses were carried out following the procedures described in Morosetti et al. (2020), properly adapted to polychaetes. Pools were homogenized in 1 mL of 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (added with KCl 100 mM, EDTA 1 mM, dithiothreitol 1 mM and protease inhibitors, pH 7.4) using a TissueLyser II QIAGEN® set at a frequency of 30/s for 30 s each and then centrifuged at 10,000 \times g at 4 °C, for 10 min. The supernatant has been stored at -80 °C before the measurement of oxidative stress enzymes (glutathione-S-transferase GST, superoxide dismutase SOD, glutathione peroxidase GPx, catalase CAT) and the content of glycogen (GLY).

The GLY analysis was carried out only in samples collected from the field. We followed the sulphuric acid method described by Dubois et al. (1956), using glucose standards (0–2 mg mL⁻¹). The absorbance was read at 492 nm using an EnSightTM plate reader (Perkin Elmer), and the results were expressed in mg g⁻¹ fresh weight (FW).

The measurement of antioxidant enzymes was carried out using a 6715 UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Jenway). The protein content was determined following the method described by Bradford (1976), using bovine serum albumin (BSA) as standard (0.1–0.5 mg mL⁻¹ $r^2 > 0.98$). The SOD activity was determined by measuring the degree of inhibition of cytochrome *c* reduction by the superoxide anion generated by the

xanthine oxidase reaction at 550 nm. Activities were given in SOD units (1 SOD unit = 50 % inhibition of the xanthine oxidase reaction). The CAT activity was assessed by measuring the consumption of H_2O_2 at λ = 240 nm. The reading lasted 1 min and values were expressed as µmol min⁻¹ mg proteins⁻¹. The GPx activity was evaluated by measuring the NADPH consumption at 340 nm using H_2O_2 0.2 mM as substrate with glutathione (2 mM), sodium azide (NaN₃; 1 mM), glutathione reductase (2 U/mL), and NADPH (120 µM). The activity was expressed as µmol min⁻¹ mg proteins⁻¹. The activity of GST was measured in presence of reduced glutathione (1 mM) and 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene (CDNB) as co-substrate. The spectrophotometer reading at λ = 340 nm lasted 1 min activity was expressed as mmol min⁻¹ mg proteins⁻¹.

2.4. Statistical analysis

A non-parametric PERMutational multivariate ANalysis Of Variance (PERMANOVA) applied on the Euclidean distance matrix of square root transformed data was chosen to test differences on enzyme activities including two crossed factors: site fixed with two levels (vents, control) and season fixed with two levels (November, June). In cases where results were significant, PERMANOVA was used to test for the interactive effect of site and season. PERMANOVA was also applied to test the differences in enzyme activities and survival rate related to the treatment with acetone and copper including two crossed factors: site fixed with two levels (vents, control) and treatment fixed with two levels (treatment, control). In cases where the number of unique values from permutations was too low, the Monte-Carlo procedure was used to calculate p values. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) plots were performed on a Euclidean similarity matrix using square-root transformed data. PERMANOVA and nMDS have been performed with PRIMER v 7 Plymouth Routines in Multivariate Ecological Research. The LC_{50} values for polychaetes exposed to Cu were calculated using LC50 calculator (AAT Bioquest).

3. Results

3.1. Effects of OA on basal activities of antioxidant enzymes and GLY content

The graphs in Fig. 2 show the variation in the basal activity of antioxidant enzymes in individuals of *S. prolifera*, according to the sampling site (San Pietro *vs* Castello vent) and the period (November *vs* June).

The activity of GST and CAT resulted significantly different as a function of the sampling period, being higher in summer compared to autumn in both sampling sites (PERMANOVA test, Table S1). Concerning the comparison between sites, any significant difference could be observed in GST SOD and CAT activities (Fig. 2; Table S1), while the activity of GPx resulted significantly higher in individuals from San Pietro compared to those from the vent, although only in November (Fig. 2; Table S1).

A similar content of GLY was observed among individuals from the two sites which was significantly higher in June than in November (Fig. 2; Table S1).

Multivariate analysis confirmed the clear separation of organisms as a function of the sampling period, more pronounced in worms from the acidified site, which resulted more clustered in the two periods than worms form San Pietro (Fig. 3).

3.2. Interactive effects of OA and pollutants

3.2.1. Effects of acetone

In the first experiment, survival showed significant differences as a function of the site, treatment and their combination (PERMANOVA test, Table S2). Indeed, a strong reduction in viability up to 90 % was found in individuals collected from the Castello vent and exposed to



Fig. 2. Basal antioxidant activities. Mean \pm standard deviation (S.D.) of basal activity of GST (A), SOD (B), GPx (C), CAT (D) and GLY content (E) measured in individuals of *Syllis prolifera* from San Pietro and the vent system of Castello Aragonese in November and June. The asterisk (*) means statistically different activities among organisms collected in different sites within the same sampling period ($p \le 0.05$). Different letter (A, B) means statistically significant differences among polychaetes from the same site at different collecting period ($p \le 0.05$).

acetone (Table 1). Instead, for individuals collected at San Pietro, no variations in the survival rate were observed between controls and acetone treatments (Table 1). Similarly, in the second exposure experiment, significant differences were observed as a function of the site, treatment and their combination (PERMANOVA test, Table S2), although in general lower lethal effects have been observed in polychaetes treated with acetone (Table 1). At the end of this experiment, no differences in survival rates were found between the control group and

the acetone-treated group for individuals from the San Pietro site. On the contrary, in individuals derived from the vent site, an overall decrease up to 60 % in the survival rate when exposed to acetone was observed (Table 1; Fig. S1).

The variation in the activity of antioxidant enzymes due to acetone exposure is shown in Fig. 4, where we can observe as most enzymatic activities showed statistically significant differences as regards site and treatment (PERMANOVA test, Table S2).



Fig. 3. Multivariate analysis. nMDS of biomarkers measured in *Syllis prolifera* collected in San Pietro and the vent system of Castello Aragonese as a function of collection site and period.

Table 1

Survival rate of individuals of *S. prolifera* from San Pietro and the Castello Aragonese vent system upon treatment with acetone and copper. The asterisk (*) means statistically different activities due to treatment within the same site of origin. Different letter (A, B) means statistically significant differences between individuals from the two sites ($p \le 0.05$).

	San Pietro	Castello Aragonese
Acetone		
ctrl	91.8 ± 3.15	$\textbf{76.7} \pm \textbf{7.64}$
0.01 % v/v	93.3 ± 2.89^{a}	$43.3\pm22.5^{\mathrm{b},\star}$
ctrl	85.0 ± 5.0	91.7 ± 7.64
0.05 % v/v	$80.0 \pm \mathbf{15.0^a}$	$38.3 \pm 41.6^{\mathrm{b},\star}$
Си		
ctrl	83.3 ± 15.3	83.3 ± 15.3
0.05 mg/L	80.0 ± 10.0	90.0 ± 17.3
0.2 mg/L	36.7 ± 47.3	83.3 ± 5.77
2 mg/L	0	0

Concerning GST, individuals from San Pietro showed very similar activity in both exposure conditions, while in individuals from the vent site the treatment with acetone determined a not significant increase in GST activity compared to controls. Statistically supported differences were observed between individuals exposed to acetone from the two sampling sites (Fig. 4). As for the SOD enzyme, a decrease in activity was observed in individuals exposed to acetone and derived from both sites, with significant differences respect to controls only in individuals from San Pietro (Fig. 4). In addition, significant differences from the two sites were observed in the SOD activity between individuals exposed to acetone, with lower values overall observed in the specimens from Castello vent.

The GPx enzyme showed a profile of activity similar to GST, with a significant increase in activity observed only in the group treated with acetone compared to the control for individuals from the Castello vent (Fig. 4), while no changes were observed in the activity of this enzyme for individuals from the San Pietro site. Finally, a slight increase of CAT activity in individuals from San Pietro was observed in acetone-treated group compared to control ones, while the acetone treatment generated

a slight activity decline in individuals from the Castello vent (Fig. 4). Due to the reduced number of individuals survived at the end of the exposure experiments, it was not possible to measure GLY content for both the copper and acetone experiments.

The multivariate analysis showed in a synoptic way the response of individuals from the two sites to the different exposure conditions: populations from San Pietro and Castello vent showed similar response when kept in artificial seawater, while individuals from both sites tended to form distinct clusters upon treatment with acetone (Fig. 4). Moreover, considering the origin site, individuals from San Pietro showed distinct clusters between control and treatment with acetone, while those from the Castello vent showed a more disperse distribution and with no clear distinction between untreated and exposed (Fig. 4).

3.2.2. Effects of copper

The highest concentration of Cu (2 mg/L) induced 100 % lethal effects in exposed polychaetes regardless the site of collection (Table 1). At 0.2 mg/L Cu determined strong reduction in viability, up to 90 % in individuals collected from the San Pietro site. Instead, for individuals collected at the Castello vent, no variations in the survival rate were observed between controls and Cu treatment (Table 1). At the lowest concentration of 0.05 mg/L no differences in survival rates were found between the control group and the Cu-treated groups for individuals from both sites. The LC₅₀ values calculated for population from the not acidified site and from the Castello vent were 0.182 mg/L and 0.313 mg/L, respectively (Fig. S2).

Unlike what was observed for acute effects, the analysis of sub-lethal parameters measured in individuals exposed to 0.05 mg/L of Cu did not show significant differences as regards site and treatment (PERMA-NOVA test, Table S3; Fig. 5).

4. Discussion

This study aimed to highlight if organisms able to cope with natural acidified conditions have also an enhanced resistance against different environmental stress such as chemical contamination or whether the occurrence of this further challenge will impact more heavily their health. To date, this aspect is largely unexplored, although the marine



Fig. 4. Effects of acetone on antioxidant enzymes. Mean \pm S.D. of GST (A), SOD (B), GPx (C) and CAT (D) measured in *Syllis prolifera* from San Pietro and the vent system of Castello Aragonese treated with acetone 0.01 % for five days. The asterisk (*) means statistically different activities due to treatment within the same site of origin. Different letter (A, B) means statistically significant differences between individuals from the two sites treated with acetone (p \leq 0.05). Below, nMDS of biomarkers from *in vivo* exposure of *Syllis prolifera* to acetone, using as variable the treatment (E) or the sampling site (F).

ecosystems are affected by the combined impacts of various anthropogenic and environmental disturbances. Furthermore, most of the studies carried out on the effects of multiple stressors, using *in vivo* exposure experiments for a limited time and in controlled laboratory conditions, do not allow to differ between plastic and adaptive mechanisms, the latter induced in organisms to cope with disturbances related to global changes. This limits significantly our ability to realistically predict the impact of multiple stressors on marine ecosystems (Rodríguez-Romero et al., 2021). In this study, a different experimental approach was used, since for the first time, populations of species naturally exposed to OA during their entire life were employed.

4.1. Basal characterization of antioxidant system and GLY content

Our first objective was to characterize the basal activity of some

antioxidant enzymes in organisms from the CO_2 vent system compared to the control site. Indeed, a recent study carried out on sea urchins (Migliaccio et al., 2019) inhabiting the CO_2 vent of Castello Aragonese showed that native organisms displayed elevated basal antioxidant efficiency compared to organisms living under normal pH conditions. This suggests that an upregulation of the antioxidant machinery could occur, which might also entail tolerance to environmental pollutants. Similarly, Ricevuto et al. (2015a) observed a higher antioxidant efficiency in the nereid polychaete *Platynereis* spp. from the CO_2 vent of Castello Aragonese compared to the non-acidified site, but contradictory results were obtained in a further in-depth study on this species, in which no differences were observed in the activity of antioxidant enzymes and the antioxidant capability in organisms collected in the same sites (Valvassori et al., 2019).

F

Our results seem to confirm that there is a limited influence of



Fig. 5. Effects of copper on antioxidant enzymes. Mean \pm S.D. of GST (A), SOD (B), GPx (C) and CAT (D) measured in *Syllis prolifera* from San Pietro and the vent system of Castello Aragonese treated with Cu 0.05 mg/L for five days.

acidified conditions on the functionality of the antioxidant system also in *S. prolifera*. In fact, only the activity of the GPx was significantly different between individuals from the two sites. This observation is in contrast with the findings obtained in laboratory studies carried out on polychaetes. In fact, short-term *in vivo* exposure to low pH levels, similar to the ones observed in the CO₂ vent of Castello Aragonese, triggered an alteration of antioxidant enzymes activities in *Diopatra neapolitana* and *Hediste diversicolor*. In particular, an increase of CAT, SOD and GST activities and lipid peroxidation was detected in organisms subjected to acidified conditions (Freitas et al., 2015, 2016a). The modulation of antioxidant enzymes has been observed also in another study in which an *in situ* transplant experiment of *Sabella spallanzanii* was carried out in the CO₂ vent of Castello Aragonese (Ricevuto et al., 2016). In this case, a reduction of CAT and GPx has been observed in organisms translocated from the control site to the vents for 30 days.

Concerning the GLY content, in previous studies conducted on *H. diversicolor, D. neapolitana* and *Nereis virens*, decreased levels of GLY were observed as a function of pH decrease, indicating that the acidification triggers a metabolic depression and the consumption of energy reserves for the maintenance of correct physiological functions (Freitas et al., 2015, 2016a), contrary to what was observed in our study.

These discrepancies highlight how the responses to OA might be very different in the short and long term since the induction of the antioxidant system could represent an acclimatization response to a sudden increase in acidification levels, while this system does not appear to be induced in organisms living under low and fluctuating pH throughout their entire life. This seems also supported by the results of the GLY content, which suggest that in individuals from the vent an adaptation mechanism might be in place, which allows them to preserve a sufficient amount of metabolic reserves.

The nMDS analysis without showing a clear differentiation between individuals from the Castello vent compared to the San Pietro control site, highlighted on the contrary a distinct clustering between the two sampling periods. This indicates that the activity of the antioxidant system of the species is subject to seasonal variations with higher activities (except for SOD) in summer than in autumn, regardless of the pH conditions.

Seasonal fluctuations of antioxidant enzymes have been described in several marine invertebrates (Chainy et al., 2016). Indeed, factors such as the intensity of solar radiation, temperature, salinity and oxygen concentration, might trigger prooxidant conditions for the organisms, which therefore increase the activity of antioxidant enzymes to maintain their oxidative status (Bocchetti and Regoli, 2006). Notwithstanding, the seasonal effect was different in the two sampling sites, with CAT increasing in individuals from San Pietro, while for vent polychaetes it was GST that increased, and thus suggesting that in organisms tolerant to OA the mechanisms induced to face the response to environmental fluctuations are different to those of individuals which are not subjected to stressful conditions.

Concerning the profile of GLY content, the increase observed in the summer season is likely related to the increase in food availability. Also in this case we found differences between the two sites since a significant increase was observed only in individuals from San Pietro. This seems to suggest that there might be greater energy consumption in organisms living in the CO_2 vent to maintain homeostatic conditions during the summer season. On the hand, the macroalgae at the vents, including the two species where *S. prolifera* lives, seem to have a higher energetic values due to higher N content in their tissues (Ricevuto et al., 2015b).

4.2. Combined effects of OA and pollutants

Although living inside the vents does not seem to affect dramatically the efficiency of the antioxidant system, the response to harmful chemicals may be altered. To test this hypothesis, the organisms from the two sites were exposed *in vivo* to acetone. The results showed the absence of lethal effects for individuals from the control site, in line with what was found in aquatic species in previous studies (Hutchinson et al., 2006; Leoni et al., 2008). On the contrary, a high mortality rate was observed in individuals from the vent exposed to acetone (0.05 % v/v). Also in the further experiment, with lower acetone concentrations (0.01 % v/v), a greater lethality for individuals from the vent compared to those from San Pietro control was observed, thus suggesting that this substance has a higher toxic effect on the vent population.

Regarding the effects of acetone treatment on the antioxidant machinery, the results suggest that acetone may interfere with the antioxidant system of polychaetes, although the enzymatic response of individuals from San Pietro was different than that of individuals from the vent, with the SOD inhibited in the former and instead with GPx and GST induced in the latter.

The results of polychaetes from San Pietro are in line with what was observed in previous studies carried out on rats, in which the effects of acetone exposure led to a decrease in the hepatic activity of SOD and GPx and an increase in the activity of CAT without altering the GSH content (Orellana et al., 2001).

Instead, a different response was observed in individuals from the vent, in which the induction of the two glutathione-dependent enzymes GST and GPx was observed. This might suggest an imbalance of GSH levels and, as a consequence, of the oxidative status, which might have detrimental consequences for organisms, since GSH is the most abundant soluble cellular thiol (Meister and Anderson, 1983), which plays a central role in several functions such as antioxidant and redox activities and protein folding and therefore is essential for cell survival (Toledano and Huang, 2017). The observation is also supported by results of the basal characterization where GPx was the only enzyme showing significant differences between the vent and the non-acidified, control site, and that GST was significantly modulated as a function of seasonality in organisms from the vent. Further studies focused on GSH metabolism in polychaetes living in OA conditions are therefore recommended, to understand the potential role of this important molecule in influencing the resilience of organisms towards OA and other environmental disturbances.

A different scenario has been observed upon exposure to copper. The LC_{50} measured in the two groups upon exposure to Cu (0.182 mg/L vs 0.313 mg/L) and the high mortality observed in the organisms from San Pietro site treated with 0.2 mg/L acetone, in comparison with organisms from the vent site, seem to suggest that organisms from the vent could be more tolerant to this metal compared to those from the non-acidified, control site. Further experiments carried out for longer exposure times and treating polychaetes with Cu concentrations approaching LC_{50} , the measured in this study, are needed to confirm this first observation.

Our results are in accordance with the recent findings reported by Nielson et al. (2019) on the polychaete *Arenicola marina*. In this species the acid-base disturbance induced by Cu were buffered under OA conditions. Besides, the treatment with Cu did not induce the activity of the antioxidant enzyme SOD and the occurrence of lipid peroxidation, either under normal and acidified conditions. This result is in line with the absence of modulation of the antioxidant enzymes observed in *S. prolifera* upon Cu exposure. The authors suggested that the ability of the species to regulate the acid base and pH of extracellular fluids might be a key physiological feature to determine the combined effects of OA and toxic pollutants such as Cu. Further studies aimed at investigating this specific mechanism also in *S. prolifera* will be necessary to confirm this hypothesis.

The results of the two exposure experiments suggest that the combined effects of OA and environmental pollutants are dependent on their specific mechanisms of actions and also on the metabolic and physiological performances of the species. These observations highlight the need to increase our understanding of the molecular, cellular and physiological mechanisms that underlie the species tolerance towards OA, which is currently overlooked. This is essential for predicting the vulnerability of organisms such as *S. prolifera* to further environmental disturbances.

5. Conclusions

Our study provided the first information on the antioxidant system of the polychaete *Syllis prolifera* living inside the CO_2 vents of Castello Aragonese, helping to broaden the current knowledge on the mechanisms that might promote tolerance to environmental stressors related to climate change, such as OA.

We provided first evidence that the tolerance to OA developed in the *S. prolifera* population living in the CO_2 vent of Castello Aragonese could affect other important physiological processes, influencing the individuals' ability to cope with environmental contaminants.

Our innovative approach will contribute to understand the mechanisms underpinning the capability of organisms to face multiple challenges occurring in the future oceans of the Anthropocene.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

MM, CDT, MCG conceptualization; MN, ACh, MM performed the field samplings; SGS, MN, ACh, ACa, MM, MCG, CDT performed the experimental work; ACh, data elaboration; SGS, CDT, SM performed the laboratory analyses; AB provided resources; all Authors contributed to writing and revision of the text and figures.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgements

The project was financed by the grant Line 2 of the Research Support Plan from the University of Milan project PSR2015-1719LCOLO_07. During this study MN was supported by a fellowship from the Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn, ACh was supported by a fellowship from the Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn in collaboration with the University of Naples Federico II – AFRIMED project, and MCG was senior investigator at the Ischia Marine Center of the Stazione Zoologica Anton Dohrn, Napoli.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2022.113857.

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