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Ocean acidification alters meiobenthic assemblage composition and organic matter degradation rates in seagrass sediments

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1 **Ocean acidification alters meiobenthic assemblage composition and organic matter**  
2 **degradation rates in seagrass sediments, regardless of nutrient availability**

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22

23 **Running head:** benthos responses to multiple stressors

24

25 **Keywords:** bacteria, climate change, enzymatic activity, fertilization, global-scale change, marine

26 angiosperm, meiofauna, multiple stressors

27 **Abstract**

28

29 Seagrass meadows are an important organic matter (OM) reservoir, but are currently being lost due  
30 to global and regional stressors. Yet, there is limited research investigating the cumulative impacts  
31 of anthropogenic stressors on the structure and functioning of seagrass benthic assemblages, key  
32 drivers of OM mineralization and burial. Here, using a 16-months field experiment, we assessed  
33 how meiobenthic assemblages and extracellular enzymatic activities (as a proxy of OM  
34 degradation) in *Posidonia oceanica* sediments responded to ocean acidification (OA) and nutrient  
35 loadings, at CO<sub>2</sub> vents. *P. oceanica* meadows were exposed to three nutrient levels (control,  
36 moderate and high) at both ambient and low pH sites. OA altered meiobenthic assemblage  
37 structure, resulting in increased abundance of annelids and crustaceans, along with a decline in  
38 foraminifera. In addition, low pH enhanced OM degradation rates in seagrass sediments, by  
39 enhancing extracellular enzymatic activities, potentially decreasing the sediment carbon storage  
40 capacity of seagrasses. Surprisingly, nutrient enrichment had not effect on the response variables  
41 analysed, suggesting that, under nutrient concentration unlikely to cause N- or P- limitation, a  
42 moderate increase of dissolved nutrients in the water column had limited influence on meiobenthic  
43 assemblages. These findings show that OA, regardless of nutrient availability, can significantly alter  
44 meiobenthic assemblage structure and enhance OM degradation rates in seagrass sediments. Since  
45 meiofauna are ubiquitous key actors in the functioning of benthic ecosystems, we postulated that  
46 OA could alter the structure of benthic meiofaunal assemblages, OM degradation and organic  
47 carbon sequestration over large spatial scales.

48 **Introduction**  
49

50 Seagrass meadows are among the most productive and valued ecosystems on Earth, as they  
51 sustain biodiversity and a range of ecosystem services, including enhanced water quality, coastline  
52 protection from erosion and productive fisheries (Larkum et al. 2007, Barbier et al. 2011). They  
53 also have a large influence on coastal biogeochemical processes, such as carbon storage and  
54 nutrient regeneration, at global scale (Fourqurean et al. 2012, Duarte et al. 2013, Macreadie et al.  
55 2017). These biogeochemical processes occur mostly in the belowground sediments and are driven  
56 by interactions between fauna and heterotrophic prokaryotes, primary mediators of OM  
57 mineralization and burial (Danovaro 1996, Snelgrove et al. 2018, Trevathan-Tackett et al. 2018a).

58 Many seagrass beds, and the ecosystem functions and services they provide, have been  
59 degraded worldwide, with an estimated global decline of 7% annually since 1990 (Orth et al. 2006,  
60 Waycott et al. 2009). Coastal eutrophication is one of the major drivers of seagrass loss, either  
61 resulting in nitrogen toxicity for plants or reduced light availability on leaves due to epiphyte  
62 overgrowth (Ralph et al. 2006, Burkholder et al. 2007, Marbà et al. 2014). More recently, global  
63 scale stressors, such as seawater warming, ocean acidification and extreme events, have been  
64 shown to impair plant production and contribute to the decline and degradation of seagrasses  
65 (Marbà and Duarte 2010, Jordà et al. 2012, Ravaglioli et al. 2017, Arias-Ortiz et al. 2018, Chefaoui  
66 et al. 2018). As seagrass meadows are key for organic carbon sequestration, their decline is raising  
67 concerns over the potential release in the atmosphere, as CO<sub>2</sub>, of large amounts of the carbon  
68 immobilized by the belowground compartment, potentially exacerbating climate changes  
69 (Fourqurean et al. 2012, Pendleton et al. 2012). Nonetheless, the cumulative impacts of  
70 environmental stressors on the structure and functioning of benthic assemblages associated to  
71 seagrass systems, and their links to biogeochemical cycles, remain poorly understood.

72 Anthropogenic ocean acidification (OA), resulting from the global enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> emission,  
73 is one of the greatest threats to coastal habitats (IPCC 2014). While the responses of seagrasses and

74 the associated epiphytic communities to low pH have been thoroughly assessed (Hall-Spencer et al.  
75 2008, Martin et al. 2008, Campbell and Fourqurean 2014, Cox et al. 2015, Guilini et al. 2017,  
76 Ravaglioli et al. 2017), there is a dearth of studies dealing with the impacts of OA on meiofauna  
77 that inhabit seagrass sediments. This abundant and high diverse group of small invertebrates (<  
78 1mm) plays key ecological roles in marine sediments, contributing to energy transfer to higher  
79 trophic levels (Schratzberger and Ingels 2018) and increasing OM remineralisation, through the  
80 stimulation of microbial activities (Nascimento et al. 2012, Bonaglia et al. 2014, Lacoste et al.  
81 2018). OA can change meiobenthic assemblages, either directly, by altering metabolic processes or,  
82 indirectly, by modifying interactions among species and trophic groups (e.g. predation pressure)  
83 (Kurihara et al. 2004, Dashfield et al. 2008, Widdicombe and Spicer 2008, Kroeker et al. 2011,  
84 Meadows et al. 2015, Mevenkamp et al. 2018). Laboratory (generally short-term) studies have  
85 reported divergent responses to OA of different meiobenthic taxa, with the dominant one (typically  
86 nematodes and copepods) generally remaining unaffected or even increasing in abundance, while  
87 others, such as copepod naupli, gastrotrichs and foraminifera, showing opposing trends (Haynert et  
88 al. 2011, Meadows et al. 2015, Lee et al. 2017, Mevenkamp et al. 2018). In contrast, long-term  
89 exposure to low pH condition at submarine CO<sub>2</sub> vents led to a severe decline in meiofaunal density,  
90 suggesting limited capacities for several taxa to withstand or adapt to OA (Molari et al. 2018). The  
91 alteration or loss of meiofaunal biodiversity could ultimately result in a significant decline of  
92 important ecosystem functions, including prokaryote production and OM mineralization (Danovaro  
93 et al. 2008, Pusceddu et al. 2014b).

94 OA could further affect OM degradation in seagrass sediments, by altering microbial  
95 activities. Microbes mediate OM degradation by releasing extracellular enzymes, which catalyse the  
96 degradation of complex and refractory molecules to more labile forms of OM that, in turn, can be  
97 used by heterotrophs (Cunha et al. 2010). Several studies suggested that bacteria extracellular  
98 activities may increase under OA scenario, likely triggered by the higher availability of organic  
99 resources due to enhanced primary production (Cunha et al. 2010, Piontek et al. 2013, James et al.

100 2017). This could ultimately result in the reduction of organic carbon sequestration in seagrass  
101 sediments (Trevathan-Tackett et al. 2018a).

102 In addition to the global threat of OA, the structure and functions of benthic assemblages  
103 associated to seagrass system can be further affected by local changes of dissolved inorganic  
104 nutrient concentrations in seawater. In seagrass sediments, a large amount of organic detritus is  
105 generally refractory and not readily available for consumers (Danovaro 1996, Pusceddu et al. 2003).  
106 Enhanced nutrient concentration might increase the abundance and diversity of meiofauna  
107 indirectly, by enhancing the nutritional quality of food (e.g. lower C/N ratio) (Antón et al. 2011),  
108 thus fostering feeding activities (Pascal et al. 2013). In contrast, excessive organic loadings, typical  
109 of eutrophic waters, may strongly alter sediment characteristics (e.g. sediment biochemical  
110 composition and oxygen availability) (Pusceddu et al. 2009, Pusceddu et al. 2011), which could  
111 affect negatively meiofaunal assemblages (La Rosa et al. 2001, Mirto et al. 2002, Gambi et al.  
112 2008).

113 Nutrient enrichment has been further shown to enhance sediment microbial biomass and  
114 their enzymatic activities in seagrass sediments (López et al. 1998, La Rosa et al. 2001, Liu et al.  
115 2017), potentially exacerbating the enhanced degradation rate of OM expected under OA scenario.  
116 However, to date, the compounded effects of OA and nutrient enrichment on community  
117 composition and OM processes associated to seagrass sediments remain largely unexplored,  
118 challenging our capacity to predict alterations in ecosystem functioning and services of seagrasses  
119 under future environmental conditions.

120 In this study, we investigated the effects of OA and enhanced nutrient availability on  
121 meiobenthic assemblages and OM degradation rates in *Posidonia oceanica* sediments, at CO<sub>2</sub> vents  
122 along the coast of Ischia Island (Italy). We exposed *P. oceanica* meadows, at both ambient and low  
123 pH, to different levels of nutrient enrichment (control, moderate and high) for 16 months. Under  
124 OA scenario, food availability seems to play a critical role for marine invertebrates, by providing  
125 the energy required to support physiological responses to pH stress (Thomsen et al. 2013, Queiros

126 et al. 2015, Ramajo et al. 2016). Under these circumstances, a moderate increase in nutrient  
127 availability could have positive effects on meiobenthos at low pH, possibly increasing the  
128 consumption of more bioavailable food (Danovaro 1996, Antón et al. 2011). By contrast, excessive  
129 nutrient loadings could worsen the impacts of OA on meiobenthos, by causing severe OM  
130 accumulation and lowering sediment oxygen concentration (Gambi et al. 2008). In addition, the  
131 combined effects of OA and enhanced nutrient concentration were expected to significantly  
132 increase OM degradation, by fostering extracellular enzymatic activities of bacteria (López et al.  
133 1998, Piontek et al. 2013).

134

## 135 **Materials and methods**

### 136 *Study site and experimental design*

137 This study was carried out between April 2014 and July 2015 in shallow *P. oceanica*  
138 meadows at CO<sub>2</sub> vents off the Castello Aragonese isle (Ischia Island, 40°43'51.01''N,  
139 13°57'48.07''E; Tyrrhenian Sea, Italy). Submarine vents have been extensively used to assess the  
140 effects of naturally acidified seawater on biological communities as they are characterized by the  
141 emission into seawater of gases, predominantly CO<sub>2</sub>, that create gradients in pH and carbonate  
142 chemistry, without confounding gradients of other environmental variables, such as temperature,  
143 salinity, hydrodynamic conditions and toxic hydrogen sulphide (Hall-Spencer et al. 2008, Fabricius  
144 et al. 2011, Russell et al. 2013, Milazzo et al. 2016, Doubleday et al. 2019). In particular, in the last  
145 decade, previous studies carried out at Ischia Island vents have shown that areas exposed to CO<sub>2</sub>  
146 bubbling do not differ from control areas in terms of salinity (38 ‰), temperature (seasonal  
147 fluctuations of 14-25 °C), light (~7500 lx d<sup>-1</sup>) and total alkalinity (2.5 mequiv. kg<sup>-1</sup>), due to the fact  
148 that they are just 10s of m apart, at about 2-3 m water depth (Hall-Spencer et al. 2008, Martin et al.  
149 2008, Cigliano et al. 2010, Kroeker et al. 2011, Garrard et al. 2014, Scartazza et al. 2017).

150 The effects of OA (ambient and low pH) and nutrient enrichment (control, moderate and  
151 high) on meiobenthic assemblages and microbial OM degradation were evaluated through a



152 manipulative experiment. We identified two pH levels in dense and continuous meadows: ambient  
153 pH site and low pH site, the latter reflecting the pH value predicted by the end of the century. In  
154 order to measure the relative changes in pH between sites, water samples were taken from the water  
155 column using a 125 ml bottle at 11 and 10 dates, at ambient and low pH sites respectively,  
156 randomly chosen between May 2014 and March 2015. Measurements were made using a Mettler  
157 Toledo SG2 pH meter (accuracy  $\pm 0.01$  pH units) equipped with an InLab 413 electrode and  
158 calibrated regularly using NIST-traceable buffers. Although this approach does not measure the  
159 total hydrogen ion concentration, it provides an estimate of the relative change in pH between sites.  
160 The average pH (NBS scale) at ambient and low pH sites was  $8.11 \pm 0.007$  and  $7.78 \pm 0.05$   
161 respectively ( $\pm$ SE,  $n=55$  and  $n=50$ ). In addition, in situ seawater pH measurements were recorded  
162 from June to July 2015, at the low pH site, using a SeaFET pH sensor, which records pH hourly.  
163 The average pH (total scale) was  $7.74 \pm 0.014$  ( $\pm$ SE,  $n=464$ ), with 42% of the hourly pH values  
164 below 7.8 (the predicted mean seawater pH value for the year 2100), in line with the results of  
165 (Kroeker et al. 2011).

166 An HOBO data logger was positioned between the two sites in order to monitor  
167 continuously (every 15 minutes) seawater temperature throughout the experiment. Temperature  
168 matched ambient season fluctuations, with warmest water occurring in August ( $26.3 \pm 0.008$ ) and  
169 coldest water in February-March ( $14.95 \pm 0.006$ ). Temperature was not expected to vary between  
170 sites at a depth of 2.5-3.5 m.

171 In April 2014, at each site, nine experimental plots (50 x50 cm) were established at a depth  
172 of about 3 m within *P. oceanica* meadow and marked at their corners using iron rebars. Three plots  
173 were then randomly assigned to each nutrient level (control, moderate and high), for a total of 18  
174 replicate plots. Nutrients (Osmocote slow release fertilizer pellets, 17:11:10 N:P:K) were added in  
175 three plastic net bags (1-mm mesh size) per plot, fixed by means of plastic cable ties to a iron bar  
176 hammered in the middle of each plot. Nutrient bags were, thus, suspended at a distance of about 10  
177 cm from the bottom, within seagrass canopy. This method has been widely used in previous

178 manipulative experiments to assess the impacts of elevated nutrient concentration in marine systems  
179 (Worm et al. 2000, Bulleri et al. 2012, Tuya et al. 2015). The amount of fertilizer used to generate  
180 the high and moderate nutrient levels were, respectively, 400 g (three bags containing 133 g each)  
181 and 200 g (three bags containing 67 g each). Nutrient bags were replaced every two months,  
182 ensuring their effectiveness in releasing nutrients. Fertilizer weight in each nutrient bag was  
183 measured at the third decimal by means of a precision scale before deployment. Upon retrieval,  
184 nutrient bags were dried in a muffle for 28 hours at 60 °C and the amount of fertilizer that had not  
185 dissolved was re-weighted in order to estimate the total average nutrient released over the duration  
186 of the experiment. The amount of fertilizer released was significantly higher at high than moderate  
187 nutrient supply, while the amount of nutrient released did not differ between pH levels  
188 ( $F_{1,8}=101.32$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). In addition, in order to estimate water nutrient concentration, two water  
189 samples were taken from the water column in each experimental plot, using a 60 ml syringe, at  
190 three random dates during the experiment (May 2014, June and July 2015). Higher concentration of  
191 total dissolved inorganic nitrogen and phosphate were achieved under enhanced nutrient treatments  
192 compared to control level (Fig. S1).

193

#### 194 *Meiobenthic assemblage structure*

195 At the end of the experiment (July 2015), meiobenthos (i.e. metazoan meiofauna plus  
196 foraminifera) abundance and taxa diversity were assessed in two sediment samples, randomly  
197 collected in each experimental plot, for a total of 36 replicates. Sediment cores were hand sampled  
198 by divers, by inserting Plexiglas cores (30 mm internal diameter and 270 mm length) at least 5-10  
199 cm into *P. oceanica* matte. Once collected, each sediment sample was transferred in net bags and  
200 preserved in 70% ethanol solution until analysis. In laboratory, the meiobenthos was extracted using  
201 the decantation method. The samples were sieved through a 500- $\mu$ m mesh (upper limit) and 50- $\mu$ m  
202 mesh size (lower limit) to retain the meiobenthic organisms (Pusceddu et al. 2014b). The extraction  
203 procedure was repeated five times. All animals were then counted and classified per taxon under

204 stereomicroscope. The invertebrates were classified to the taxonomic resolution varying from  
205 phylum to order. Due to variations in volume and composition (sandy sediment, plant detritus and  
206 gravel) among cores, sediment samples were left to dry in the laboratory for two weeks and, then,  
207 the total weight of each sample and that of its sandy, gravel and plant detritus fractions were  
208 measured at the third decimal by means of a precision scale. Grain size analysis was carried out by  
209 dry sieving sediment through a 1-mm mesh to separate sandy sediment from gravel and plant  
210 detritus fractions. Although meiofaunal abundance is typically expressed as number of individuals  
211  $10\text{ cm}^{-2}$ , due to different volume of sediment in each core, the abundance of individuals of each  
212 taxon was standardized to the sediment weight (g DW) for each sample. Taxonomic diversity was  
213 measured using the Shannon index.

#### 214 *Extracellular enzymatic activities in the sediment*

215 Samples for extracellular enzymatic activities (aminopeptidase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase) were collected at  
216 the end of the experiment. Two aliquots (topmost 2 cm) of sediment were collected from each  
217 experimental plot, using Plexiglas tubes, for a total of 36 replicates. For the determination of the  
218 extracellular enzymatic activities, 2.5 mL of sediment subsamples were incubated at  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the  
219 dark for 2 h with 2.5 mL of filtered, sterile seawater containing  $200\ \mu\text{M}$  L-leucine-4-  
220 methylcumarinyl-7-amide and  $75\ \mu\text{M}$  4-methylumbelliferyl  $\beta$ -D-glucopyranoside separately for  
221 aminopeptidase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase activities, respectively. After incubation, the slurries were  
222 centrifuged and supernatants were analysed fluorometrically (at 365 nm excitation, 455 nm  
223 emission for  $\beta$ -glucosidase, and 380 nm excitation, 440 nm emission for aminopeptidase). Data  
224 were normalized to sediment dry weight ( $60^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 24 h) and reported as  $\mu\text{mol}$  substrate degraded  $\text{g}^{-1}$   
225  $\text{h}^{-1}$  (Pusceddu et al. 2003). The aminopeptidase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase activities were converted into C  
226 degradation rates ( $\mu\text{grams}$  of C per gram per hour), using  $72\ \mu\text{g}$  of C per  $\mu\text{mole}$  of substrate as the  
227 conversion factor (Pusceddu et al. 2014a).

228

#### 229 *Statistical analyses*

230 Effects of OA and nutrient enrichment on meiobenthic assemblages were tested by means of  
231 a permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) (Anderson 2001) performed on  
232 a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix of untransformed data. The model included two factors: OA  
233 (fixed, with two levels: ambient and low pH) and nutrient enrichment (fixed, with three levels:  
234 control, moderate and high). To visualize patterns of variations in the meiobenthic assemblages  
235 between ambient and low pH and among nutrient enrichment levels an MDS plot after ordination of  
236 untransformed data was obtained from Bray-Curtis dissimilarities. A SIMPER analysis was applied  
237 to determine which groups were responsible for the dissimilarities among experimental treatments.  
238 A principal component analysis (PCA) was used to assess differences in the sediment composition  
239 (in term of sandy, gravel and plant detritus fractions) of plots under different experimental  
240 conditions. A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), with OA and nutrient enrichment as fixed  
241 orthogonal factors, was carried out on univariate data (meiobenthos abundance, taxa diversity and  
242 extracellular enzymatic activities). Cochran's C-test was used to check for homogeneity of  
243 variances and, when necessary, data were log- or square-root transformed. PERMANOVA, MDS,  
244 SIMPER, PCA and ANOVA were performed using the software R.

245

## 246 **Results**

### 247 *Composition of sediment cores*

248 The PCA on the sediment composition of sampling cores showed a substantial separation  
249 between ambient and low pH conditions (Fig. 1). Along PC1 axis, which explains 97.42 % of the  
250 total variance, there was one cluster including ambient pH on the left side of the plot and a second  
251 one on the right side, represented by low pH treatment. Sandy sediment component was the most  
252 negatively correlated to PC1, while gravel component contributes most to PC2 axis, which,  
253 however, explains only 2.29 % of the total variance. Sandy sediment content was then included as  
254 covariate in the PERMANOVA analysis assessing variations in the structure of the meiobenthic  
255 assemblage.

256

257 *Meiobenthic assemblage structure*

258         The results of PERMANOVA showed significant differences in the structure of meiobenthic  
259 assemblages between ambient and low pH, regardless of nutrient treatments, which emerged also in  
260 the MDS ordination (Table 1, Fig. 2). There was no significant effect of the covariate (sandy  
261 sediment component). The SIMPER analysis showed a 28.6% contribution of nematodes to the  
262 dissimilarities between ambient and low pH, annelids (7%), which include polychaetes and  
263 oligochaetes, foraminifera (12.4%) and crustaceans (1.9%), which include copepods, cumaceans,  
264 amphipods, isopods and tanaids. All other taxa (including molluscs, ophiuroids, acarines,  
265 pantopods) contributed less than 0.5% to the overall dissimilarity (Table S1). ANOVA analyses  
266 were performed on meiobenthos groups mainly responsible for observed community changes. Since  
267 polychaetes and oligochaetes, as well as, copepods, cumaceans, amphipods, isopods, tanaids  
268 responded similarly to low pH (Table S2; Fig. S2), they were collapsed into two broad taxonomic  
269 groups of annelids and crustaceans, respectively.

270         There were no significant differences in the abundance of nematodes under different  
271 experimental conditions (Table 2, Fig. 3a). The abundance of annelids was higher at low than at  
272 ambient pH, but was unaffected by nutrient enrichment (Table 2, Fig. 3b). In contrast, foraminifera  
273 significantly decreased at low pH (Table 2, Fig. 3c). Although the effects of OA were not  
274 statistically significant, there was a trend for crustacean abundance to increase at low pH compared  
275 to ambient pH, regardless of nutrient treatments (Table 2, Fig. 3d). Finally, we did not detect  
276 significant effects of OA and nutrient enrichment on total meiobenthic abundance and taxa diversity  
277 (Table 2).

278

279 *Extracellular enzymatic activities*

280         The aminopeptidase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase activities, used as proxies of protein and  
281 carbohydrate degradation rates, varied according to pH conditions, but were unaffected by nutrient

282 enrichments (Table 3). Both extracellular enzymatic activities were higher at low than at ambient  
283 pH (Fig. 4 a,b).

284

## 285 **Discussion**

286 At our study site, long-term OA altered the composition of meiobenthic assemblages as well  
287 as OM degradation rates in seagrass sediments. Changes in meiobenthic assemblages were mostly  
288 due to an increase in the abundance of annelids and, to some extent, of crustaceans, whilst  
289 foraminifera abundance significantly decreased at low pH. In addition, OA appears to stimulate the  
290 microbial degradation of OM in seagrass sediments, potentially weakening the carbon storage  
291 capacity of seagrass meadows. Unexpectedly, enhanced nutrient levels had no effects on  
292 meiobenthic assemblages and OM degradation rates, and interactions between nutrient enrichment  
293 and OA were not detected.

294 Previous studies have already shown that OA can shift meiobenthic community  
295 composition, as a result of differential sensitivity of the different taxa (Hale et al. 2011, Schade et  
296 al. 2016, Mevenkamp et al. 2018). In accordance with the literature, nematodes, the dominant  
297 meiobenthic taxon at our study site, were unaffected by low pH. Results from previous studies,  
298 though mostly conducted under controlled laboratory settings, suggest that nematodes can be highly  
299 tolerant to low pH, as their densities were often unaffected or even increased under the OA scenario  
300 predicted for the end of this century (Dashfield et al. 2008, Widdicombe et al. 2009). Negative  
301 effects on nematode survivorship have been documented only at extremely low pH levels ( $\sim \leq 6$ ).  
302 However, a recent study using a staining technique, found an increase in nematode mortality under  
303 OA, while nematode density was unaffected, likely due to a reduced degradation rate of dead  
304 nematode bodies at low pH (Mevenkamp et al. 2018). These results stress the importance of  
305 assessing nematode mortality in OA studies, as stable or even increased densities of these animals  
306 could be an artefact of reduced body decomposition, potentially hiding more severe impacts of OA  
307 on this dominant group.

308 We documented an increase in the abundance of annelids at low pH, in line with reports of  
309 previous studies on epibenthic fauna at submarine CO<sub>2</sub> vents (Kroeker et al. 2011, Ricevuto et al.  
310 2012, Garrard et al. 2014). In this regard, it has been reported that, around CO<sub>2</sub> vents of Ischia,  
311 polychaetes maintain high density along pH gradients, suggesting that some species may be tolerant  
312 to OA due to their high physiological plasticity or local adaptation (Calosi et al. 2013). However,  
313 responses to low pH vary among different groups of polychaetes, with filter feeder and herbivore  
314 species generally favoured at expenses of deposit feeders, omnivores and carnivores (Gambi et al.  
315 2016, Molari et al. 2018). Thus, a more detailed analysis on polychaete species composition or  
316 functional traits could provide further insights on the sensitivity of this taxonomic group to long-  
317 term low pH exposure. Furthermore, there was a tendency ( $P=0.08$ ) in the abundance of  
318 crustaceans to increase at low pH. Crustaceans are considered quite robust to OA due to their  
319 internal acid-base regulation and external organic layer that protect skeleton from corrosive low pH  
320 water (Melzner et al. 2009, Ries 2009). Although some studies found negative effects of low pH on  
321 reproduction or larval development of copepods (Kurihara et al. 2004, Fitzer et al. 2012), studies  
322 testing the effects of OA at the community level showed no changes or even an increase in  
323 crustacean abundance at low pH, possibly due to decreased predation rate or increased food  
324 availability (Kroeker et al. 2011, Garrard et al. 2014).

325 The abundance of foraminifera significantly decreased at low pH site. Previous studies  
326 reported a substantial vulnerability of benthic foraminifera to OA (Hall-Spencer et al. 2008,  
327 Fabricius et al. 2011, McIntyre-Wressnig et al. 2013, Martinez et al. 2018), likely because many of  
328 them build shells of calcium carbonate. Accordingly, decreases in the diversity of foraminifera  
329 community and changes in their community composition from calcifying to non-calcareous forms  
330 has been reported in the Mediterranean Sea (around CO<sub>2</sub> vents of Ischia; Dias et al. 2010) and  
331 Pacific Ocean, around CO<sub>2</sub> vents of Papua New Guinea (Fabricius et al. 2011). These unicellular  
332 organisms are a key benthic component in coastal systems, since they serve as food source together  
333 with the rest of meiofauna for higher trophic levels, and are important contributors of the annual

334 carbonate production and denitrification process in coastal areas (Risgaard-Petersen et al. 2006,  
335 Høgslund et al. 2008, Langer 2008). Although our study cannot discern if foraminifera were alive,  
336 the significant reduction in their abundance detected at low pH suggest that OA could have negative  
337 cascading effects on carbon and nutrient cycles within seagrass meadows.

338         The divergent responses of taxonomic groups to low pH lead to no differences in term of  
339 total meiofaunal abundance and taxa diversity. These results are in contrast with those of (Molari et  
340 al. 2018), who found a decrease in the biomass and density of meiofauna in sandy areas near CO<sub>2</sub>  
341 vents. Such discrepancy could be due to the different habitat characteristics (bare sandy sediment  
342 *versus* *P. oceanica* sediments in (Molari et al. 2018) and our study site, respectively). In fact,  
343 seagrass sediments are generally characterized by higher supply of organic matter, derived from  
344 both seagrass production and the trapping of other organic particles (Kennedy et al. 2010).  
345 Although we did not measure the amount of organic matter in *P. oceanica* sediments, the supposed  
346 higher food availability may have mediated the susceptibility of marine invertebrates to low pH at  
347 our study site. The lack of detectable effects of low pH on taxa diversity could also be influenced by  
348 the taxonomic aggregation used in this study. Thus, the use of a fine taxonomic resolution (e.g.  
349 genus or species levels) could provide a deeper insight into the changes in community diversity and  
350 composition under future climate scenario (Bevilacqua et al. 2012).

351         Low pH fostered extracellular enzymatic activities in seagrass sediments. Extracellular  
352 enzymes play a crucial role in benthic systems as they break down high molecular weight organic  
353 compounds into low molecular weight compounds that can then be readily used by heterotrophs  
354 (Cunha et al. 2010). Contrary to intracellular enzymes that are buffered by the cell's cytoplasm,  
355 extracellular enzymatic activities are directly impacted by external changes in pH. An increase in  
356 the H<sup>+</sup> concentration, due to lower seawater pH value, may modify the three-dimensional protein  
357 structure of the active site of the enzyme, thus affecting enzymatic activities (Cunha et al. 2010). At  
358 the same time, changes in the meiobenthic assemblage composition at low pH, with an increase in  
359 the abundance of annelids and a reduction of foraminifera, could have entailed cascading effects on



360 microbial-mediated OM degradation rate (Piot et al. 2014, Lacoste et al. 2018). For instance,  
361 polychaetes are known to enhance bacterial activities, either directly, by consuming bacteria and  
362 thus stimulating their growth (Montagna 1984), or, indirectly, through particle reworking and solute  
363 transport due to bioturbation activity (Aller and Aller 1992). In addition, an increase in extracellular  
364 enzymes under OA could also be related with enhanced availability of organic matter as a  
365 consequence of higher primary productivity (Piontek et al. 2013). Regardless of the specific  
366 mechanisms stimulating microbial extracellular enzymatic activities, our results suggest that long-  
367 term OA may lead to increased degradation of carbohydrates and proteins in seagrass surface  
368 sediments. Our findings can be generalized as previous results from benthic (Molari et al. 2018) and  
369 pelagic (Grossart et al. 2006, Piontek et al. 2013) systems found an increase in the extracellular  
370 enzymatic activity at low pH. A further decline in pH could, however, result in a decreased rate of  
371 enzymatic activity (Cunha et al. 2010). For instance, in a mesocosm experiment, (Rastelli et al.  
372 2016) reported that very low pH value (< 7), associated to high CO<sub>2</sub> leakages, can result in a  
373 significant reduction of the aminopeptidase and β-glucosidase activities and an increase in sediment  
374 protein accumulation. Finally, variable effects of OA on OM degradation rates could also depend  
375 upon the different edaphic conditions (i.e. grain size and mineralogy) in different sediment  
376 typologies.

377         None of the response variables analysed was affected by enhanced nutrient loading. We  
378 hypothesized that a moderate nutrient enrichment would have been able to mediate meiobenthos  
379 responses to low pH indirectly, by increasing food quality. However, at our study site, background  
380 N P concentrations were comparable to those observed in urbanized coastal areas in the NW  
381 Mediterranean (Balata et al. 2008, Balata et al. 2010), and, therefore, unlikely to be limiting for  
382 benthic invertebrates. Furthermore, a previous work has documented low C/N ratio of organic  
383 detritus at CO<sub>2</sub> vents of Ischia, suggesting no nitrogen deficiency in invertebrate diets at low pH  
384 (Ricevuto et al. 2015). In contrast, severe nutrient enrichment may negatively affect meiofaunal  
385 assemblages and foster bacterial activity in seagrass sediments as a consequence of the severe

386 modifications caused to sediment chemistry(e.g. high biopolymeric carbon content and reduced O<sub>2</sub>  
387 availability) (López et al. 1998, Gambi et al. 2008, Pusceddu et al. 2011). In our experiment, the  
388 simulation of heavy nutrient enrichment of the water column was not effective in generating  
389 concentrations high enough to cause severe organic matter accumulation in the sediments, as  
390 observed in eutrophic systems (Dell'Anno et al. 2002, Pusceddu et al. 2009). Indeed, signals of  
391 seagrass meadow degradation are often reported in coastal systems characterized by dissolved  
392 nutrient concentrations considerably higher than those generated in our experiment (Cardoso et al.  
393 2010, Hughes et al. 2013). Also, it has been repeatedly observed that the impacts of eutrophication  
394 in terms of inorganic nutrient concentration in the water column (Burkholder et al. 2007) could not  
395 be automatically detected in the benthic environment (López et al. 1998, Dell'Anno et al. 2002,  
396 Pusceddu et al. 2009, Pusceddu et al. 2011). Moreover, the lack of detectable effects of enhanced  
397 nutrient availability in the water column on the benthos could also be explained considering that we  
398 tested our hypotheses in *P. oceanica* sediments, where, because of the high background loads of  
399 OM in seagrass sediments, effects of benthic eutrophication could be not clearly detected (Pusceddu  
400 et al. 2007).

401 Overall, the results of our experiment show that long-term OA can significantly alter  
402 meiobenthic assemblage composition and foster microbial OM degradation in *P. oceanica*  
403 sediments, regardless of nutrient availability. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study  
404 investigating the combined effects of a global and a local stressor on meiobenthic communities and  
405 ecosystem functioning in seagrass sediments. Meiofauna have been recently shown to have  
406 important effects on benthic ecosystem processes, such as OM mineralization and nitrogen cycling,  
407 likely by stimulating microbial activity (Nascimento et al. 2012, Bonaglia et al. 2014). Thus, further  
408 studies are warranted to assess how changes in meiobenthic assemblage in response to OA could  
409 entail cascading effects on microbial communities, ultimately altering ecosystem functioning.

410 Seagrass meadows are recognized hotspots of sediment organic matter sequestration  
411 (Fourqurean et al. 2012), due to their high primary production and leaf ability to trap allochthonous

412 suspended particles (Kennedy et al. 2010). In addition, the low nutrient (nitrogen and phosphate)  
413 content of seagrass litter and sediment hypoxic condition slow organic matter decomposition, thus  
414 resulting in the immobilization of organic carbon in the belowground compartments for millennia  
415 (Mateo et al. 2006, Duarte et al. 2013, Trevathan-Tackett et al. 2017). In particular, *P. oceanica*,  
416 with its long-lived rhizomes and slow growth rate, is among the most efficient seagrasses in  
417 accumulating carbon in sediments (Fourqurean et al. 2012). Nonetheless, seagrasses are declining  
418 worldwide, raising concerns over a weakening of their ability to buffer climate changes through  
419 carbon sequestration (Fourqurean et al. 2012, Duarte et al. 2013, Lovelock et al. 2017, Chefaoui et  
420 al. 2018). Previous studies have shown how climate changes (e.g. seawater warming, heat waves)  
421 and local stressors (e.g. water quality degradation, mechanical disturbance) may reduce seagrass  
422 carbon storage capacity (Jordà et al. 2012, Serrano et al. 2016, Arias-Ortiz et al. 2018, Trevathan-  
423 Tackett et al. 2018b). Our results indicate that OA predicted by the end of this century could trigger  
424 OM degradation in seagrass sediments, reducing their carbon storage capacity and enhancing CO<sub>2</sub>  
425 release. While seagrass productivity is generally expected to increase in response to low pH, under  
426 nutrient concentration unlikely to cause N-limitation (Stitt and Krapp 1999, Alexandre et al. 2012,  
427 Russell et al. 2013, Sunday et al. 2016, Ravaglioli et al. 2017), our study highlights the need of  
428 assessing belowground processes to understand the mechanisms underpinning the net carbon budget  
429 in seagrass meadows.

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758 **Figure legends**

759 **Fig. 1.** PCA analysis conducted on the sediment components of cores (sandy sediment, gravel and  
760 plant detritus) at ambient and low pH (respectively grey and black symbols) and among nutrient  
761 enrichment levels (circle =control nutrient, quadrat = moderate nutrient enrichment and triangle up  
762 = high nutrient enrichment).

763  
764 **Fig. 2.** MDS ordination on untransformed data obtained from Bray-Curtis dissimilarities showing  
765 differences in meiobenthic assemblages between ambient and low pH (respectively grey and black  
766 symbols) and among nutrient enrichment levels (circle control nutrient, triangle down = moderate  
767 nutrient enrichment and triangle up = high nutrient enrichment).

768  
769 **Fig. 3.** Abundance (mean  $\pm$  SE, n=6) of **a)** nematodes, **b)** annelids, **c)** foraminifera and **d)**  
770 crustaceans in ambient and low pH conditions under different levels of nutrient enrichment (control,  
771 moderate and high). The inserts in **b)** and **c)** indicate the mean abundance ( $\pm$  SE) of annelids and  
772 foraminifera at ambient and low pH level (n= 27; data pooled across nutrient treatments).

773  
774 **Fig. 4.** a) Aminopeptidase and b)  $\beta$ -glucosidase ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ , mean  $\pm$  SE, n=6) in ambient and low  
775 pH conditions under different levels of nutrient enrichment (control, moderate and high). The  
776 inserts in a) and b) indicate the concentration of aminopeptidase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase, respectively,  
777 under different pH conditions (data are mean  $\pm$  SE, n=27, as nutrient treatments were pooled).

**Commentato [F1]:** segui la stessa struttura della Figura precedente

**Table 1.** PERMANOVA on the effects of OA (ambient and low pH) and nutrient enrichment (control, moderate and high) on the meiobenthic assemblage. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ .

778

Source of variation	df	MS	Pseudo- $F$
Covariate	1	0.020	0.202
OA	1	0.517	5.311**
Nutrient (Nu)	2	0.096	0.988
OA x Nu	2	0.171	1.752
Residual	11	0.097	
Total	17		

779

**Table 2.** ANOVA on the effects of OA (ambient and low pH) and nutrient enrichment (control, moderate and high) on the abundance of nematodes, annelids, foraminifera, crustaceans, total meiobenthic abundance and taxa diversity. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ .

	Nematodes			Annelids		Foraminifera	
Source of variation	df	MS	<i>F</i>	MS	<i>F</i>	MS	<i>F</i>
OA	1	3.372	2.216	3.075	32.379***	43.572	20.400***
Nutrient (Nu)	2	2.204	1.448	0.181	1.909	3.373	1.579
OA x Nu	2	2.539	1.668	0.138	1.456	2.223	1.041
Residual	12	1.522		0.095		2.136	
Transformation		Sqrt (x+1)		Log (x+1)		None	
Cochran's test		ns		ns		ns	
	Crustaceans		Total abundance		Diversity		
Source of variation	df	MS	<i>F</i>	MS	<i>F</i>	MS	<i>F</i>
OA	1	0.906	3.539	1.878	1.392	0.064	1.054
Nutrient (Nu)	2	0.116	0.453	1.170	0.868	0.086	1.410
OA x Nu	2	0.015	0.058	2.512	1.862	0.140	2.210
Residual	12	0.256		1.349		0.061	
Transformation		None		Sqrt (x+1)		None	
C test		ns		ns		ns	

**Table 3.** ANOVA on the effects of OA (ambient and low pH) and nutrient enrichment (control, moderate and high) on aminopeptidase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase activities in the sediment. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$ .

Source of variation	df	Aminopeptidase		$\beta$ -glucosidase	
		MS	<i>F</i>	MS	<i>F</i>
OA	1	389.0	6.617*	1.663	6.093*
Nutrient (Nu)	2	69.30	0.118	0.024	0.087
OA x Nu	2	140.2	0.238	0.036	0.131
Residual	12	588.8		0.273	
Transformation		None		Log (x+1)	
Cochran's test		ns		$P < 0.05$	



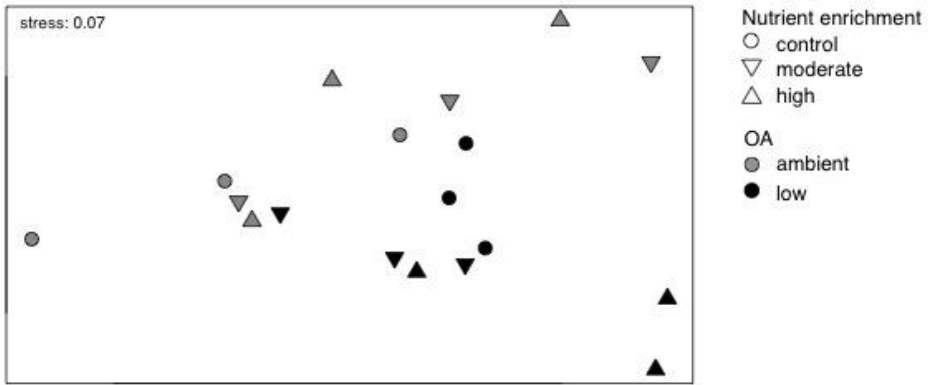
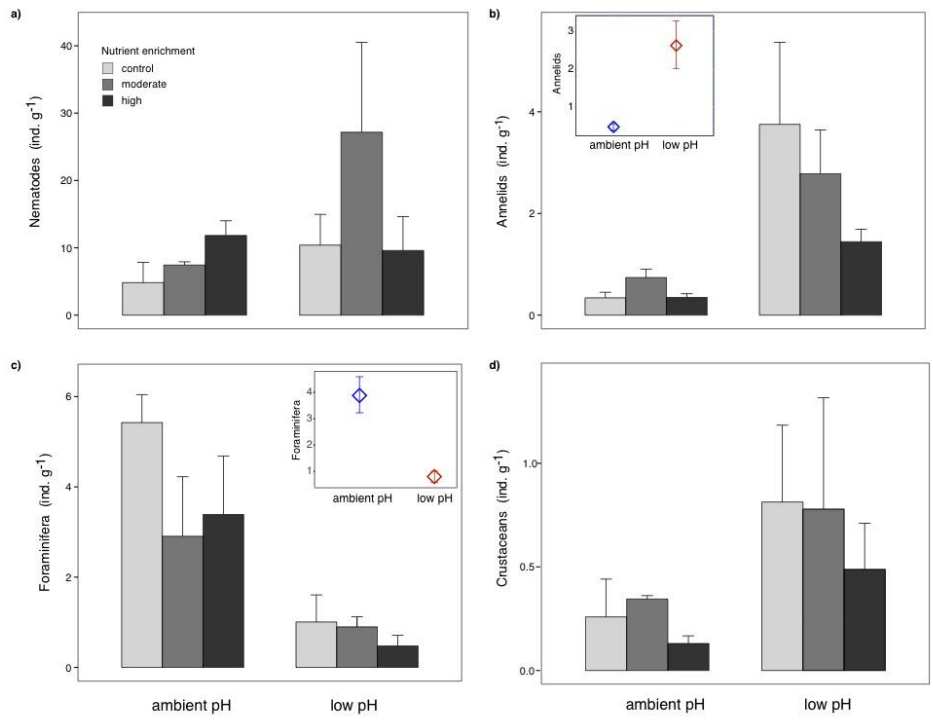


Figure 2





**Figure 3**

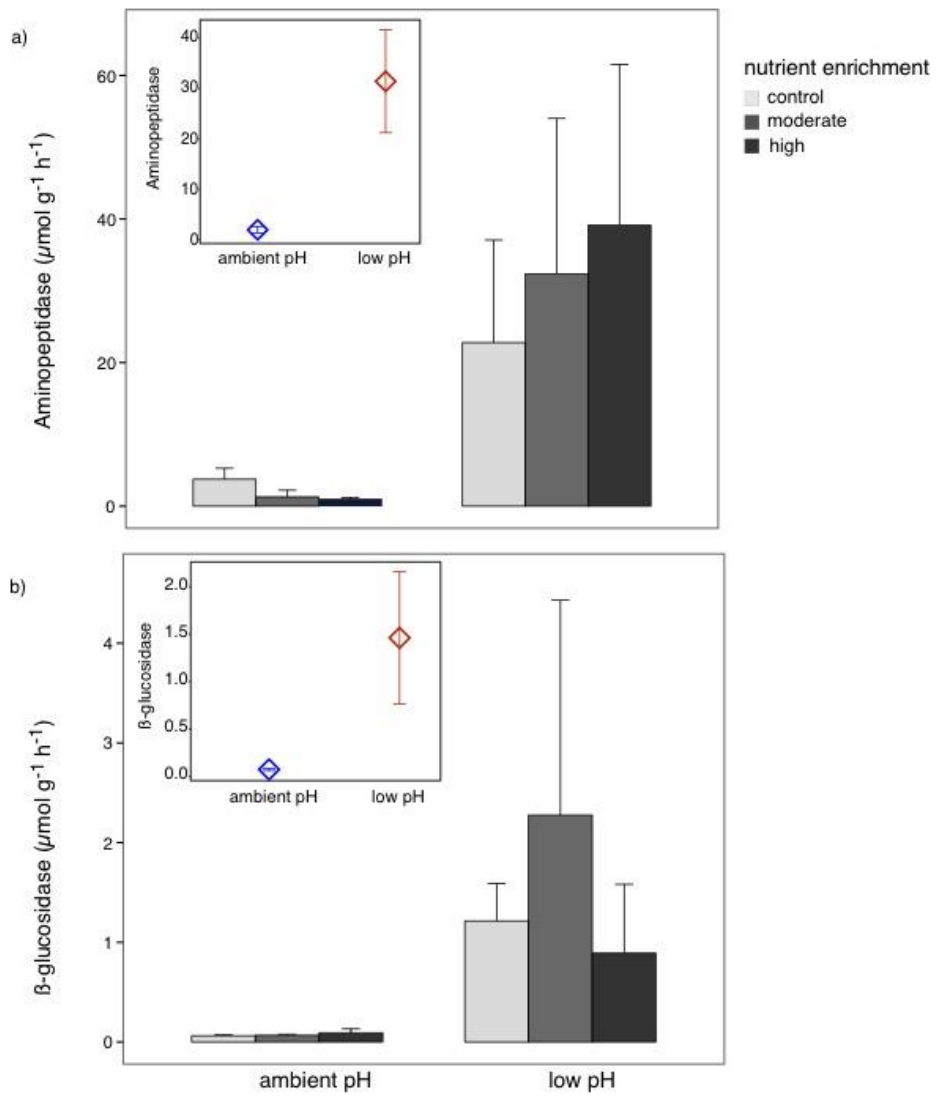


Figure 4