

## Comparison of the acid-base responses to CO<sub>2</sub> and acidification in Japanese flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*)

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### Abstract

To investigate whether the biological toxicity of aquatic hypercapnia is due to the direct effects of CO<sub>2</sub> or to the effects of acidification of seawater by CO<sub>2</sub>, the Japanese flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*) was subjected to seawater equilibrated with a gas mixture of air containing 5% CO<sub>2</sub> (pH 6.18) or seawater acidified to the same pH with 1 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. All the fish died within 48 h in the CO<sub>2</sub> exposure group, whereas no mortality occurred in the acid group. Acid-base parameters as well as plasma ion concentrations were severely perturbed in the CO<sub>2</sub> exposure group, whereas they were minimally affected in the acid group. These results clearly demonstrate that the mortality in the CO<sub>2</sub> group is a direct result of the elevated levels of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> and not to the effects of the reduced water pH.

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The atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) has been rapidly rising in recent years (IPCC, 2001). To mitigate environmental impacts of the increasing concentration of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, several methods of sequestering CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere have been proposed. Among them, ocean sequestration is receiving increasing attention, in which CO<sub>2</sub> captured from flue gases and other sources is released into deep ocean waters (Handa and Ohsumi, 1995; Ormerod and Angel, 1996). CO<sub>2</sub> ocean sequestration potentially will perturb biological processes in the ocean (Seibel and Walsh, 2002). However, the impact of this mitigation procedure on the ocean ecosystem is little understood, and therefore must be carefully investigated before embarking on this strategy. A priori, the toxic effects of CO<sub>2</sub> on marine organisms should be assessed through CO<sub>2</sub> exposure experiments, but the lack of such experimental data

in the past has led to the use of the data on the toxic effects of seawater acidified by adding mineral acids (HCl or H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) in modeling the potential consequences of ocean disposal of CO<sub>2</sub> (e.g., Auerbach et al., 1997).

We recently compared acute mortality of eggs and larvae of a marine teleost, red sea bream (*Pagrus major*), subjected to CO<sub>2</sub>- and HCl- acidified seawater, and found that mortality of the CO<sub>2</sub> group was significantly higher than in the HCl group (Kikkawa et al., 2004). We suggested a higher membrane permeability of CO<sub>2</sub>, as compared with that of H<sup>+</sup>, to be responsible for the observed difference in mortality, but direct comparison of the physiological responses between acidification by CO<sub>2</sub> and mineral acid has not been made. Therefore, the present study was aimed at comparing the acid-base responses of the Japanese flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*) exposed to CO<sub>2</sub>- and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-acidified seawater.

Experimental fish weighing 490 ± 40 (S.D.) g (*N* = 11) were purchased from a local hatchery (NCC Kaihatsu, Nomozaki, Nagasaki, Japan), and kept in an indoor

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fiberglass tank (capacity 1000 l) with filtered, recirculating well-aerated seawater at 20 °C, without feeding for less than 3 weeks. For blood sampling, the flounder were cannulated as described in Hayashi et al. (2004). Fish were then allowed to recover for about 48 h in Plexiglass chambers supplied with continuous flow of well-aerated seawater at a rate of 3 l min<sup>-1</sup>. The experimental setup consisted of a fish chamber, a water reservoir and a gas equilibration column. Total water volume of the setup was ca. 40 l. Fresh seawater was supplied into the experimental setup continuously at a rate of 0.3 l min<sup>-1</sup>. Two control blood samples were taken, 1 h apart, before exposures began. Subsequently, fish were subjected to one of the following acidic (pH 6.18) conditions: (1) CO<sub>2</sub>-acidified seawater: Water in the experimental setup was equilibrated with a gas mixture (95% air plus 5% CO<sub>2</sub>) prepared with a gas mixing flowmeter (GF-3/MP, Cameron Instruments, TX, USA) at a gas flow rate of 6 l min<sup>-1</sup>. (2) H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-acidified seawater: Water in the experimental setup was switched to seawater that had been acidified by adding 1 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. To remove excess CO<sub>2</sub> produced by acidification, the seawater was vigorously bubbled with air for at least two days before use. During the H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> exposure, seawater pH was continuously monitored, and adjusted to 6.18 with a pH controller (NPH-660, Nissin, Tokyo, Japan) and peristaltic pumps adding either 0.1 N H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> or 0.1 N NaOH as required. Acidified stock seawater was continuously added into the experimental setup at the rate of 0.3 l min<sup>-1</sup>. Blood samples were taken at 0.5, 1, 3, 8, 24, 48 and 72 h of each exposure. Hematocrit (Hct), arterial pH (pHa) and partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> (PaCO<sub>2</sub>), and plasma ion concentrations ([HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>]p, [Cl<sup>-</sup>]p, [Na<sup>+</sup>]p and [K<sup>+</sup>]p) were measured as described in Hayashi et al., (2004). Seawater pH was measured at every sampling time. It decreased from normocapnic values of 8.16 ± 0.01 (S.D.) and 8.20 ± 0.06 to 6.17 ± 0.03 (CO<sub>2</sub>) and 6.18 ± 0.00 (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) within 1 h and 3 h, respectively.

Fish subjected to CO<sub>2</sub>-acidified seawater started to die 8 h after the onset of exposure, and all fish died within 48 h. In contrast, no fish died until the end of 72 h exposure to H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-acidified seawater. Figs. 1 and 2 summarize the changes of pHa, PaCO<sub>2</sub>, plasma ion concentrations and Hct during the CO<sub>2</sub>- and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-acidified seawater exposures. The pHa of the CO<sub>2</sub>-exposed fish fell significantly from the pre-exposure value of 7.66 ± 0.02 (S.D.) to 6.87 ± 0.07 within 0.5 h, but was subsequently restored. In contrast, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> exposure caused a more gradual but steady decrease in pHa. PaCO<sub>2</sub> increased from 0.24 ± 0.03 (S.D.) kPa (pre-exposure) to 7.09 ± 1.00 in 1 h in the CO<sub>2</sub> group. The H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> exposure resulted in a much smaller, but significant increase in PaCO<sub>2</sub>. The CO<sub>2</sub> exposure resulted in significant increases in [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>]p, [Na<sup>+</sup>]p and [K<sup>+</sup>]p. [Cl<sup>-</sup>]p decreased, but not significantly (statistical comparison

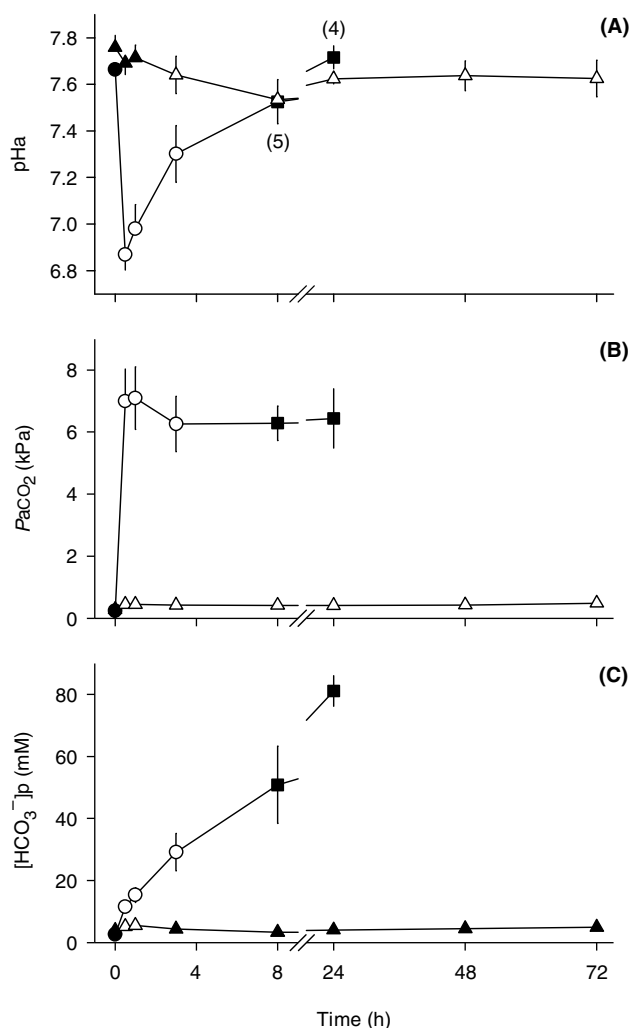


Fig. 1. Arterial pH (pHa; A), partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> (PaCO<sub>2</sub>; B) and concentration of plasma HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ([HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>]p; C) of the Japanese flounder during CO<sub>2</sub>- (●; N = 6) and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-acidified (▲; N = 5) seawater exposure (mean ± S.D.). Open symbols indicate significant differences from 0-h values ( $p < 0.05$ ; one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's test). N decreased due to mortality in the CO<sub>2</sub>-acidified seawater exposure (■), to which no statistical comparison was applied (the numbers in parentheses indicate numbers of surviving fish).

was not applied due to mortality of some of the experimental specimens). The H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> exposure caused hardly any significant changes in the plasma ion concentrations. Hct rose significantly during the CO<sub>2</sub> exposure but not during the H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> exposure.

Even though the fish were exposed to the same seawater pH, mortality occurred only during the CO<sub>2</sub> exposure, and no fish died during the H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> exposure. Similar results were obtained by Kikkawa et al. (2004), in which mortalities of eggs and larvae of red sea bream (*Pagrus major*) were significantly higher in the CO<sub>2</sub> treated groups (eggs; >85%, larvae; >60%) than in the acid treated groups (eggs; <5%, larvae; <5%), tested at two levels of seawater pH lowered by either elevating the seawater CO<sub>2</sub> pressure or the addition of HCl.

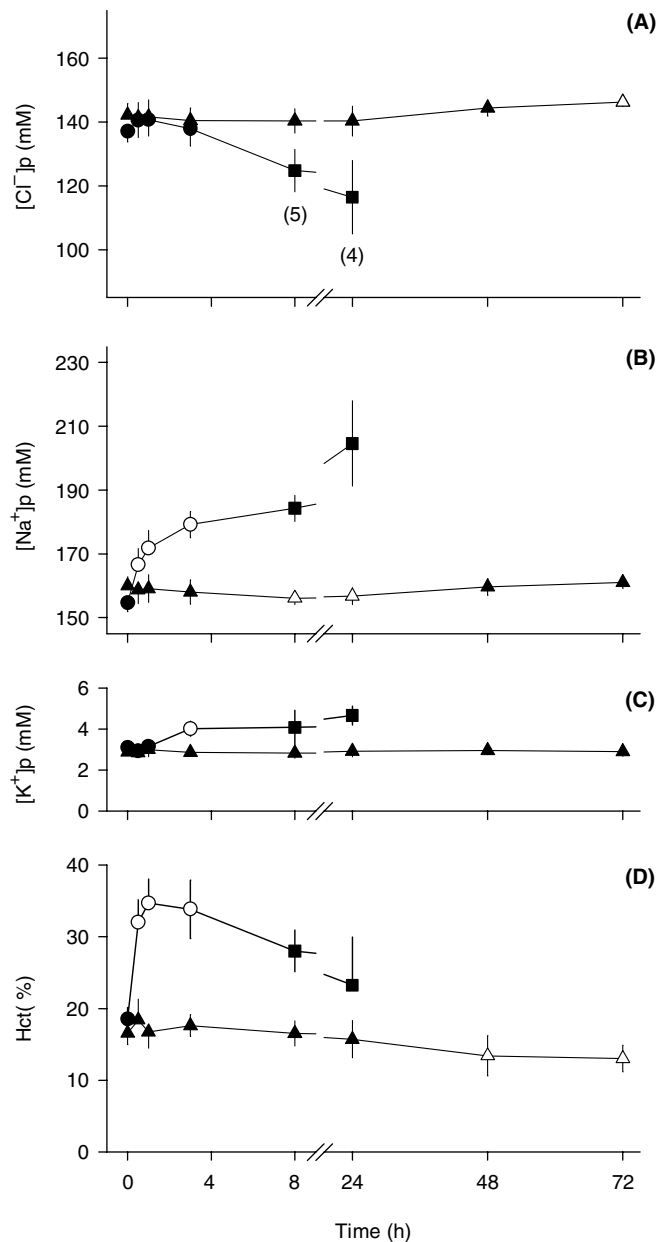


Fig. 2. Concentrations of plasma  $\text{Cl}^-$  ( $[\text{Cl}^-]_p$ ; A),  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $[\text{Na}^+]_p$ ; B) and  $\text{K}^+$  ( $[\text{K}^+]_p$ ; C) and hematocrit (Hct; D) of the Japanese flounder during  $\text{CO}_2$ - (●:  $N = 6$ ) and  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ -acidified (▲:  $N = 5$ ) seawater exposure (mean  $\pm$  S.D.). Open symbols indicate significant differences from 0-h values ( $p < 0.05$ ; one-way ANOVA, Dunnett's test).  $N$  decreased due to mortality in the  $\text{CO}_2$ -acidified seawater exposure (■), to which no statistical comparison was applied (the numbers in parentheses indicate numbers of surviving fish).

In this study, the elevation of ambient  $\text{CO}_2$  rapidly disturbed the acid-base and ionic status of the plasma. Since the biomembrane permeability of gaseous  $\text{CO}_2$  is much higher compared with that of  $\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  diffuses immediately into the body fluid according to the  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  gradient (Heisler, 1986; Morris et al., 1989). Blood  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  of water-breathing animals is an order of magnitude lower than in air-breathing animals ( $P_{\text{aCO}_2}$  of fish ranging 0.1–0.5 kPa as compared with 5.3 kPa in humans, Heisler, 1986), so that even a small increase in water  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  would reverse the normal  $\text{CO}_2$  gradient,

resulting in a rise in blood  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$ . Increased blood  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  shifts the  $\text{CO}_2$ – $\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$  equilibrium to cause acidification of the blood. The resultant acidosis is usually compensated by the uptake of bicarbonate ions from or the extrusion of protons into the surrounding water as long as the magnitude of the  $\text{CO}_2$  rise remains sublethal (Hayashi et al., 2004).

Although pHa was restored to the pre-exposure level within 24 h, this does not mean that the effects of  $\text{CO}_2$  were eliminated, since changes in ionic status were an unavoidable consequence of pHa compensation. In

fact, the flounder in the CO<sub>2</sub> group started dying after pH<sub>a</sub> had been completely restored, suggesting that the mortality was not directly due to acidosis. Lee et al. (2003) determined the cardiac responses of the marine fish, yellowtail (*Seriola quinqueradiata*), to a lethal level of aquatic hypercapnia, and pointed out that cardiac failure probably played an important role in inducing death during hypercapnia.

The more gradual fall of pH<sub>a</sub> in the acid group attests to the above-mentioned lower membrane permeability of H<sup>+</sup> as compared with CO<sub>2</sub> (McDonald and Wood, 1981; Ultsch et al., 1981). Freshwater fish generally suffer from the loss of inorganic plasma ions, in addition to the decrease of pH<sub>a</sub>, in severely acidic (ca. pH 4.5) environments (Milligan and Wood, 1982), but no ion loss was observed when rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) was exposed to water pH of 6.0 (Giles et al., 1984). It is therefore probably not surprising that the flounder in the H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> group showed hardly any significant changes in acid-base parameters and plasma ion levels, even though marine fish face ionic and osmotic gradients that are opposite from what freshwater fish experience.

In spite of the same pH level used in this study, mortality and all measured physiological parameters were largely affected by CO<sub>2</sub>-acidified seawater whereas they were hardly changed by H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>-acidified seawater exposure. These results support our hypothesis that the physiological effects of aquatic hypercapnia are caused by CO<sub>2</sub> itself and not by an accompanying reduction of water pH.

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