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Molecular and physiological responses to long-term carbon dioxide exposure in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*)

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PII: S0044-8486(19)31366-3

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2019.734715>

Reference: AQUA 734715

To appear in: *Aquaculture*

Received Date: 31 May 2019

Revised Date: 5 November 2019

Accepted Date: 7 November 2019

Please cite this article as: Mota, V.C., Nilsen, T.O., Gerwins, J., Gallo, M., Kolarevic, J., Krasnov, A., Terjesen, B.F., Molecular and physiological responses to long-term carbon dioxide exposure in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*), *Aquaculture* (2019), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aquaculture.2019.734715>.

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1 **Full title:** Molecular and physiological responses to long-term carbon dioxide exposure in
2 Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*)

3 **Running head:** Carbon dioxide in Atlantic salmon

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18 **Keywords:** hypercapnia; CO₂; salmonids; recirculating aquaculture systems; differentially
19 expressed genes

20

21 Abstract

22 Optimal water quality is vital for the growth of Atlantic salmon aquaculture
23 production. Recent data showed that Atlantic salmon feed intake and growth reduce linearly
24 with increasing water carbon dioxide (CO₂) concentrations, suggesting that even relatively
25 low concentrations may impact fish performance. This study evaluated the molecular and
26 physiological responses of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) to long-term CO₂ exposure. For this
27 purpose, Atlantic salmon post-smolts (N=900; 67 ± 8 g) were exposed to six CO₂ treatments
28 (5, 12, 19, 26, 33 and 40 mg/L) for 12-weeks (RAS phase) followed by non-CO₂ exposure for
29 a (< 5 mg/L) period of 6-weeks (seawaterphase). Results from blood analysis of fish exposed
30 to CO₂ for 12 weeks showed that CO₂ lead to significantly higher pH, K⁺, HCO₃⁻ and PCO₂
31 and lower Na⁺ and Cl⁻ plasma concentrations. Whereas, haematocrit, Ca⁺, Mg²⁺, urea and
32 glucose concentrations were similar among all CO₂ treatments. After 6 weeks in the seawater
33 phase, all the parameters that were previously altered, became similar among all CO₂
34 treatments. Gill microarray results analysis showed 88 differentially expressed genes,
35 resulting from the CO₂ exposure. At the end of the RAS phase (week 12), fish exposed to high
36 CO₂ (40 mg/L) in comparison to fish exposed to low CO₂ (5mg/L), showed 60 down-
37 regulated genes, including genes encoding proteins involved in immune responses,
38 differentiation, and maintenance of tissue structure. There was no evidence for stress and
39 metabolic changes directed to neutralization of disturbance caused with high CO₂. After 6
40 weeks in the seawater phase, a switch of expression from down regulated to up-regulated was
41 observed. In conclusion, the present study brings new insights on the molecular and
42 physiological responses of Atlantic salmon post-smolts to long-term CO₂ exposure. Several
43 osmoregulation and acid-base balance parameters as well as gill gene expression levels were
44 altered for as long as CO₂ exposure persisted. Moreover, most of these parameters were
45 linearly related with the environmental CO₂ concentrations (5 – 40 mg/L range). The data

46 from this study adds to recent findings that CO₂ concentrations below the 15 mg/L threshold
47 still have an impact on Atlantic salmon. This finding may be relevant for a better
48 dimensioning and management of production systems where CO₂ may accumulate in the
49 water such as in recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS).

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51 **1. Introduction**

52 Fish represents 6.7 % of the global population's intake of all protein sources, 50% of which
53 derives from fish aquaculture (FAO, 2018). The pressure to provide such quantities of fish is
54 steering aquaculture towards a higher intensification that is often achieved with larger
55 facilities (Ellis et al., 2016), high fish stocking densities (Calabrese et al., 2017) and reducing
56 water use (Verdegem et al., 2006), all of which are conditions that can lead to an
57 accumulation of fish metabolites (Martins et al., 2010; Mota et al., 2014; Summerfelt et al.,
58 2015). Fish metabolites can accumulate in production systems like semi-closed containment
59 systems tanks in the sea, or recirculating aquaculture systems (RAS) on land. It is therefore
60 important to know maximum levels of metabolite accumulation such as carbon dioxide (CO₂)
61 that do not compromise fish physiology, performance, or welfare.

62 Performance indicators such as survival, feed intake, and growth have been primarily
63 addressed in studies focusing on important aquaculture species. For instance, turbot
64 (*Scophthalmus maximus*) growth is reduced by 26% when exposed to 26 mg/L CO₂ (Stiller et
65 al., 2015) and Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) condition factor, growth and cataracts prevalence
66 were shown to be impacted at 18 mg/L CO₂ (Moran, Støttrup, 2011; Neves, Brown, 2015). In
67 contrast, rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) display good growth at both 8 and 24 mg/L
68 CO₂ without impairing fish health (Good et al., 2010). Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*),
69 accounts for more than 4% of all finfish production, with an annual production of over 2
70 million tonnes per year (FAO, 2018). Relative to its aquaculture importance, limited numbers
71 of studies have addressed the impact of CO₂ exposure as an individual factor (see review by
72 Fivelstad (2013)). Studies focused on the impact of high CO₂ exposure on Atlantic salmon
73 growth, found that growth is impacted by high CO₂ exposure (Fivelstad et al., 1998; Martens
74 et al., 2006). However, recent studies have shown that Atlantic salmon growth is reduced
75 linearly with the increase of CO₂ concentration, even at concentrations below 15 mg/L

76 (Fivelstad et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2018; Mota et al., 2019). In general, the impact of CO₂ in
77 Atlantic salmon seems to depend on its life cycle stage (parr, smolt, post smolt), water quality
78 (pH, aluminium, alkalinity) and other production factors, making it difficult to draw an
79 accurate line for an unaffected threshold. For instance, Norwegian authorities (FOR, 2004)
80 suggested a maximum of 15 mg/L. However, in light of recent studies that found that major
81 performance indicators such as growth and feed intake change linearly with increasing water
82 CO₂ concentrations (Fivelstad et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2018; Mota et al., 2019) and that there
83 is a carry-over effect after transfer to seawater (Mota et al., 2019), the acceptable CO₂ level
84 for Atlantic salmon production needs to be further investigated, particularly with respect to
85 the physiological and molecular responses of long-term CO₂ exposure.

86 High CO₂ exposure is known to trigger a series of physiological responses in fish,
87 normally seen as an increase of blood partial pressure of CO₂ (PCO_2) and bicarbonate (HCO_3^-)
88) during pH compensation for acid-base balance (Heuer, Grosell, 2014). Other effects such as
89 the reduction of oxygen uptake capacity, anti-predatory behavior and growth (Ou et al., 2015),
90 or the compromise of olfactory system and central brain function (Porteus et al., 2018) were
91 observed at CO₂ concentrations as low as 1 - 2 mg/L CO₂. However, it is not uncommon to
92 observed dissolved CO₂ concentration between 10 and 20 mg/L in commercial aquaculture
93 systems (Gorle et al., 2018). Ion transport, osmoregulation and acid-base balance studies on
94 Atlantic salmon exposed to CO₂ have found alterations in the concentration of several blood
95 ions, such as Cl⁻, Na⁺ and HCO₃⁻ (Fivelstad et al., 1998; Fivelstad et al., 2003b). Although
96 most of these changes were reported for CO₂ concentrations higher than 15 mg/L, it would be
97 expected that Atlantic salmon display compensatory changes in acid-balance at lower
98 concentrations of CO₂.

99 High CO₂ exposure has also been shown to trigger a series of molecular responses in
100 fish. For example, genes linked to high CO₂ exposure (*c-fos*), hypoxia (*hif1- α*) and

101 glucocorticoid receptor (*gr-2*) were up-regulated in bluegill (*Lepomis Macrochirus*) gills,
102 heart and erythrocytes after 1 hour exposure to 30 mg/L CO₂ (Dennis et al., 2015). To the best
103 of our knowledge, only a few genes have been analysed for Atlantic salmon in a CO₂ context,
104 namely the H⁺-ATPase, Na⁺/K⁺ ATPases (alpha 1a and 1b subunits) and heat shock protein
105 (HSP70) (Good et al., 2018), and only the expression of Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase alpha 1a was
106 increased as a result of a high CO₂ exposure (20 mg/L). The use of microarrays allows for the
107 simultaneous examination of the expression of thousands of genes and can find differentially
108 expressed genes, which are up- or down-regulated. The use of this tool in CO₂ exposure
109 studies can provide a better overview of the response parameters in Atlantic salmon. The
110 current study is a deeper investigation of a 18-week research trial reported earlier (Mota et al.,
111 2019), and was conducted at the Nofima Centre for Recirculation in Aquaculture,
112 Sunndalsøra, Norway. This study focused on the effects of carbon dioxide on growth
113 performance, welfare, and health of Atlantic salmon. In contrast, the present study focuses on
114 the molecular and physiological responses to long-term carbon dioxide exposure in Atlantic
115 salmon. Atlantic salmon post-smolts were exposed to six CO₂ treatments (5, 12, 19, 26, 33
116 and 40 mg/L) for 12-weeks (RAS phase) followed by non-CO₂ exposure period of 6-weeks
117 (seawater phase). The objective of this exposure was to determine the CO₂ concentration in
118 which no effects are observed in ion transport, osmoregulation and acid-base balance of
119 Atlantic salmon post-smolts (*Salmo salar*). Moreover, the effect of CO₂ on transcriptome
120 expression of gills was assessed on a 15 thousand oligonucleotide DNA gene microarray.

121

122 **2. Material and Methods**

123 *2.1. Experimental design*

124 The current study consisted of two experimental phases (Figure 1). The first was a CO₂

125 exposure phase where Atlantic salmon were exposed for 12 weeks, with 6 treatment groups

126 (5, 12, 19, 26, 33 and 40 mg/L CO₂) using 3 replicate tanks per treatment. This experimental
127 phase was done in a recirculating aquaculture system (RAS) (hereafter termed RAS phase). In
128 the second phase, a fraction of the fish previously exposed to CO₂ were transferred to a single
129 flow-through system at CO₂ < 5 mg/L (hereafter termed seawater phase) for an additional 6-
130 week experimental period. The experimental fish and rearing conditions were described in
131 more detail in Mota et al. (2019).

132 2.2. Fish and rearing conditions

133 Fish handling and testing conditions were approved by the Norwegian Food Safety Authority
134 (FOTS) with the reference ID 9165. Atlantic salmon eyed eggs (SalmoBreed, Os, Norway)
135 were hatched and raised in a flow-through system (Nofima Research Station for Sustainable
136 Aquaculture, Sunndalsøra, Norway) at 9 °C under continuous photoperiod (LD 24:00) until
137 44 g, at which point they received a 6-week winter stimulus (LD 12:12) followed by a return
138 to LD24:00 to induce smoltification. Atlantic salmon post-smolts (N=900; 67 ± 8 g) were
139 individually pit-tagged with a smart glass tag (Smartrac, Reichshof-Wehnrath, Germany) and
140 randomly distributed over eighteen cylindro-conical experimental tanks (V = 0.5 m³)
141 connected to a RAS (N=50 fish/tank) in Nofima Centre for Recirculation in Aquaculture,
142 Sunndalsøra, Norway. The fish were subsequently allowed to adapt to the rearing and feeding
143 conditions for a 3-week period in a 12 ppt salinity RAS, followed by a 12-week CO₂ exposure
144 period (RAS phase). At the end of the 12-week experimental period, five fish per tank (total
145 90 fish) were randomly selected and all transferred to a single flow-through tank (3.3 m³) for
146 an additional 6-week experimental seawater phase, at salinity 34 ppt and where CO₂ level at
147 the fish tank outlet averaged 2.2 mg/L.

148 Fish were fed continuously over 23 hours with an automatic belt feeder over satiation
149 (120 – 140 %) using a commercial diet (3 – 4 mm, Nutra Olympic, Skretting, Norway).
150 Satiation percentage was adjusted according to the feed spill observed.

151 The RAS consisted of a microscreen belt filter, a moving bed bioreactor and a
152 degasser column, two holding sump units, and ten octagonal fish biomass tanks. The total
153 RAS water volume was 79 m^3 , water exchange rate was approx. 1180 L/ kg feed (39 % water
154 system volume / day), and system hydraulic retention time was approx. 2.8 days.

155 The different CO_2 concentrations in each fish tank was achieved by mixing inlets from
156 holding sump 1 ($\text{CO}_2 = 3 \text{ mg/L}$) and holding sump 2 ($\text{CO}_2 = 40 \text{ mg/L}$). The holding sump 2
157 had CO_2 gas added through a diffusor from a pressurized CO_2 -gas bottle, and the
158 concentration was continuously monitored through a CO_2 sensor (OxyGuard, Denmark)
159 connected to an analogue unit (Pacific, OxyGuard, Denmark). Due to the acidifying action of
160 the CO_2 in holding sump 2, it was necessary to control the pH. To stabilize the pH at 6.9, a
161 solution with NaHCO_3 (50 - 75 g/L) was added via an electromagnetic metering pump (Iwaki
162 Norge, Oslo, Norway) controlled by an automatic pH control system (Walchem, MA, USA).

163 Water quality in fish tanks was maintained within the recommendations for Atlantic
164 salmon post-smolts (Thorarensen and Farrell, 2011). The average (\pm SD) water quality
165 parameters were: RAS phase, oxygen (93 ± 1 % saturation), temperature (12.7 ± 0.0 °C),
166 salinity (11.9 ± 0.1 ppt) and, pH (6.6 – 8.2) and; seawater phase, oxygen (91 ± 1 %
167 saturation), temperature (8.4 ± 0.1 °C), salinity (33.9 ± 0.3 ppt) and pH (7.8 – 7.9).

168 Photoperiod was maintained at constant light (24 hours) throughout both experimental
169 phases.

170 *2.3. Blood parameter analyses*

171 At weeks 0, 3, 6, 12 and 18, five fish per tank, except at week 0 (only 3 fish per tank), were
172 euthanized (0.12 g/L MS-222) and blood samples were collected from caudal vessels using
173 two different Vacuette® vacuum tubes (Greiner Bio-One, Kremsmunster, Austria) one
174 containing heparin (for plasma) and the other one containing a clot activator (for serum).

175 Blood pH and glucose were determined from the blood collected in vacuum tubes
176 containing heparin within 5 min. of sampling using an I-STAT Portable Clinical Analyser
177 with EC8+ cartridges (Abbott Laboratories, Chicago, USA). The obtained pH value was
178 temperature-corrected to match experimental temperature according to (Roth, Rotabakk,
179 2012):

$$180 \text{ pH corrected} = \text{pH measured} - 0.015 \times (T - 37)$$

181 where T is the water temperature (°C) from where the fish were sampled.

182 Hematocrit was obtained by filling two microcapillary tubes from the same
183 heparinized vacuum tubes and centrifuged at 12 000 rpm for 3 min. A scale was used to
184 determine the % of packed cell volume (PCV).

185 The remaining blood from heparinized vacuum tubes together with the blood
186 containing a clot activator were centrifuged at 3 200 rpm for 10 min. The plasma and the
187 serum were transferred to Eppendorf tubes. Serum was flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and
188 stored at -80°C until assayed.

189 The plasma was immediately analysed using a carbon dioxide analyser (Ciba Corning
190 965, Essex, UK) for plasma total carbon dioxide (TCO₂). Plasma PCO₂ and HCO₃⁻ were
191 calculated from TCO₂, blood pH and water temperature using the Henderson-Hasselbalch
192 equation:

$$193 \text{ PCO}_2 = \text{TCO}_2 / (\alpha \times 10^{\text{pH} - \text{pK}_1} + 1)$$

194 and

$$195 \text{ HCO}_3^- = \text{TCO}_2 - (\alpha \times \text{PCO}_2)$$

196 where PCO₂ is partial pressure of CO₂ in mm Hg, TCO₂ is total CO₂ in plasma in mmol/L, α
197 is solubility constant of CO₂ in mmol / L / mm Hg, pH is blood pH and pK₁ is the first

198 dissociation constant of CO₂. Carbon dioxide solubility and pK₁ were obtained from Boutilier
199 et al. (1984).

200 Sodium (Na⁺), potassium (K⁺), magnesium (Mg²⁺), calcium (Ca²⁺), chloride (Cl⁻) and
201 urea were determined from the Eppendorf's serum using an automated clinical chemistry
202 system (Pentra C400, Horiba, CA, USA). For this clinical automated system analysis, serum,
203 i.e. plasma without the clotting factors of blood (fibrinogens), was used instead of plasma, due
204 to its capacity to provide more consistent ion measurements.

205 *2.4. Gill microarray analyses*

206 At weeks 12 and 18, gill samples were dissected from euthanized fish (0.12 g/L MS-222)
207 from only the 5 and the 40 mg/L treatments (n = 6 fish/treatment/week, 2 fish per tank, in
208 total 24 samples). The 2nd arch gill from the right side was immediately flash-frozen in liquid
209 nitrogen and stored at -80°C until assayed. Microarray analyses were performed on individual
210 samples using Nofima's Atlantic salmon oligonucleotide microarray SIQ-6 (GPL16555)
211 containing 60-mer probes to transcripts of 15 k genes. Microarrays were fabricated by Agilent
212 Technologies; all reagents and equipment were purchased from the same source. Total RNA
213 (200 ng per reaction) was labelled with Cy3 using a Low Input Quick Amp Labeling Kit and
214 fragmented with a Gene Expression Hybridization Kit. Hybridization was performed for 17
215 hours in an oven at 65°C at a rotation speed of 10 rpm. Arrays were washed for one minute
216 with the Gene Expression Wash Buffer I at room temperature, and one minute with the Gene
217 Expression Wash Buffer II at 37°C and scanned.

218

219 *2.5. Statistics*

220 Statistical analyses were performed with IBM SPSS Statistics V25 (IBM, Corp., USA).

221 ANOVAs homogeneity of variances was assessed using Levene's test and normality using

222 Shapiro-Wilk test. Linear regressions and correlation assumptions were visually examined
223 through predicted probability (P-P) plots for normality and scatterplots of the residuals for
224 homoscedasticity. A significant level (α) of 0.05 was used for all analyses. Data are presented
225 as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). The effect of CO₂ on fish blood parameters at the end of
226 RAS phase (12 week, Table 1) was analysed using linear regressions followed by a post-hoc
227 Tukey HSD test. The effect of CO₂ on blood pH, serum Cl⁻, serum Na⁺, plasma HCO₃⁻, serum
228 K⁺ and plasma PCO₂ concentrations was further assessed at weeks 0, 3 and 18 using one-way
229 ANOVA followed by a post-hoc Tukey HSD test. The relationship between water and plasma
230 partial pressures of CO₂ was analysed using a linear regression as the PCO₂_{plasma} depends on
231 PCO₂_{water}, whereas the relationship between plasma HCO₃⁻ and serum Cl⁻ was analysed using
232 a Pearson correlation as these two variables are independent from each other. The PCO₂_{water}
233 data set is the measured CO₂ concentration in each tank instead of the fixed CO₂ treatment
234 concentration. Gill microarray data analysis was carried out with Nofima's bioinformatics
235 package STARS (Krasnov et al., 2011) as described in (Pellizzari et al., 2013). Briefly, the
236 mean intensities of all microarrays were equalized. Expression ratios (ER) were calculated by
237 dividing the individual values for each feature to the mean value of the feature in all samples.
238 The log₂-ER were calculated and normalised with the locally weighted non-linear regression
239 (lowess). The exposure groups were compared, i.e. shown comparisons were made between
240 the treatments (5 mg/L and 40 mg/L) at week 12 and week 18, using the low CO₂ exposure
241 treatment (5 mg/L) as baseline. Differentially expressed genes (DEG) were selected by
242 criteria of significant log₂-ER > |0.8| (1.74-fold), p < 0.05. STARS software annotates genes
243 with GO, KEGG and custom vocabulary, which supplements public databases. Enrichment
244 analysis compared the numbers of genes per functional category and pathway among DEG
245 and on the microarray platform. Over-presentation of terms linked to not less than five DEG
246 was assessed with Yates' corrected chi-square test.

247

248 **3. Results**249 *3.1. Blood parameters*

250 The linear regression from fish exposed to CO₂ for 12 weeks shows that CO₂ leads to a
251 significantly higher pH, K⁺, HCO₃⁻ and PCO₂ and lower Na⁺ and Cl⁻ concentrations (Table 1).
252 Haematocrit, Ca⁺, Mg²⁺ urea and glucose concentrations were unaffected by CO₂ treatments
253 ($P > 0.05$). Pairwise comparisons among treatments further show that the lowest observed
254 adverse effect level for HCO₃⁻ was 12 mg CO₂/L, pH and Cl⁻ was 19 mg CO₂/L, and, Na⁺ and
255 K⁺ was 40 mg CO₂/L. Figure 2 shows the effect of CO₂ on these 5 parameters together with
256 PCO₂ throughout the RAS and the seawater phase. Here it is illustrated that these
257 physiological alterations started as early as 3 weeks after the exposures and, except for PCO₂,
258 were maintained throughout the CO₂ exposure. After 6 weeks in the seawater phase, where
259 CO₂ was kept below < 5 mg/L, all these six parameters (pH, K⁺, HCO₃⁻, PCO₂, Na⁺ and Cl⁻)
260 that were previously altered, became similar among all CO₂ treatments and were within the
261 15% variation compared to week 0, except for K⁺ that varied by 50%. The strong relationship
262 between serum Cl⁻ and plasma HCO₃⁻ is further illustrated in Figure 3A ($P < 0.001$). A linear
263 regression shows the relationship between plasma and water partial pressures of CO₂ (Figure
264 3B, $P < 0.001$).

265 *3.2. Gill microarray*

266 At the end of the RAS phase (week 12), fish exposed to high CO₂ (40 mg/L) in comparison to
267 fish exposed to low CO₂ (5mg/L), showed 71 DEG of which 60 were down-regulated. At
268 week 18, when the fish had been kept in a flow-through tank with low CO₂ concentration for
269 6 weeks, the number of DEG had become lower (44) and 38 genes were now up-regulated
270 including 27 genes that earlier were suppressed during the CO₂-exposure. Enrichment

271 analysis is a simple explorative tool that shows trends in transcriptome changes. Usually it
272 requires a larger number of DEG. However, in this study several GO terms were significantly
273 over-represented and most of them were associated with immune responses (Table 3). At
274 week 12, 22 of 27 DEG with known or predicted immune functions were down-regulated in
275 salmon exposed to high CO₂ (Table 4). Changes were observed in innate immunity without a
276 visible effect on acquired immunity. The most affected functional groups were lectins,
277 chemokines, complement and antiviral proteins represented respectively with seven, six, three
278 and five DEG.

279 It is worth mentioning the up-regulation of the *matrix metalloproteinase 9* in CO₂ exposed
280 fish. This gene encoding matrix degrading enzyme is characterised by having strong
281 responses to stress and inflammation in Atlantic salmon (Sveen et al., 2018). At week 18, only
282 two immune genes were differentially expressed, both were up-regulated in fish previously
283 exposed to high CO₂.

284 Microarray did not find significant changes in metabolism. However, a panel of genes that
285 were down-regulated in salmon exposed to high CO₂ at week 12 encode proteins that may be
286 important for the structure of gill tissue. Most of the DEG presented in Table 4 have unknown
287 roles in Atlantic salmon, but mammalian homologs of several genes are associated with the
288 development of various tissues including blood vessels and epidermis. *Claudin*, *otoancorin*
289 and *nephronectin* are important for contacts between cells and extracellular matrix. Several
290 down-regulated genes control secretion or encode mucosal proteins. At week 18 expression of
291 these genes was either equal or higher in salmon exposed to 40 mg / L CO₂.

292

293 4. Discussion

294 The current study shows that several osmoregulation and acid-base balance parameters have
295 positive (pH, K^+ , HCO_3^- and PCO_2) or negative (Na^+ , Cl^-) linear relationships with
296 environmental CO_2 concentrations. The current study also shows, that the physiological
297 compensatory regulation is maintained as long as CO_2 exposure persists, returning to control
298 levels when CO_2 exposure is ended. Changes in the Atlantic salmon gill microarray
299 expression showed that long-term high CO_2 exposure lead to relatively small transcriptome
300 changes, since a total of only 88 genes were differentially expressed. Nonetheless, the
301 transcriptome changes suggested that a high CO_2 exposure lead to a down-regulation of
302 several genes followed by a hyper compensation after this CO_2 exposure was ended.

303 Fish gills are a major osmoregulatory organ, thought to account for 90 % of acid-base
304 compensation fluxes (Claiborne et al., 2002). Fish have two mechanisms to cope with high
305 environmental CO_2 : respiratory compensation through an increased ventilation, and metabolic
306 compensation (Perry, Gilmour, 2006). In the latter, H^+ and HCO_3^- , resulting from the
307 hydration of CO_2 in the plasma, are exchanged with the environment to regulate internal pH
308 levels. These effluxes are generally accompanied by influxes of Na^+ and Cl^- , thought to be gill
309 Na^+/H^+ and Cl^-/HCO_3^- exchanges (Claiborne et al., 1997). In the present study, a linear
310 decrease of Cl^- and Na^+ with CO_2 concentration was found, likely resulting from the above-
311 mentioned compensatory mechanisms. Moreover, compensatory Cl^-/HCO_3^- exchange were
312 clearly observed in the present study through the correlation between serum Cl^- and plasma
313 HCO_3^- in Figure 3B. A decrease in plasma Cl^- was previously reported in other Atlantic
314 salmon studies (Figure 4) but, with the exception of one other study (Fivelstad et al., 2018),
315 no effects in plasma Cl^- were found below 15 mg/L CO_2 fish exposure. Few studies have
316 measured plasma Na^+ in the context of Atlantic salmon aquaculture CO_2 exposure studies,
317 and those that have, only found effects at very high CO_2 exposures >26 mg/L (Fivelstad et al.,
318 1998). This contrasts with the current study, where we show a linear regression between CO_2

319 concentration and plasma Na^+ in the range of 5 – 40 mg/L, lower levels than previously
320 reported.

321 Partial pressure of CO_2 (PCO_2) remained significantly elevated as a result of high CO_2
322 exposure at weeks 3 and 6, as shown in Figure 3A. Linear analysis yielded the following
323 relationship: $[PCO_2]_{\text{plasma}} = 13.08 + 0.65 [PCO_2]_{\text{water}}$ in mmHG. This relationship continued
324 while the CO_2 exposure period lasted. This has been previously shown for Atlantic salmon
325 exposed to 20 mg/L CO_2 (Good et al., 2018) and high PCO_2 levels were shown to led to
326 altered blood pH.

327 In the present experiment blood pH remained significantly elevated in the 19 - 40
328 mg/L CO_2 treatments compared to the 5 mg/L treatment, throughout the study. Elevated pH
329 levels in fish exposed to high environmental CO_2 exposure have been reported previously by
330 Fivelstad et al. (1998), but contrasts with the observation from the study by Good et al. (2018)
331 where fish exposed to 8 and 20 mg/L showed no differences in pH levels. Typically, during
332 short-term exposure to high CO_2 an initial drop in of blood pH is followed by an increase of
333 plasma HCO_3^- to regulate the acid-base balance, resulting in a return of pH to initial levels
334 (Pörtner et al., 2004). For instance, this was observed by Cameron, Randall (1972), when an
335 increase of CO_2 exposure led to a linear reduction of blood pH in rainbow trout. In another
336 study, on Pacific hagfish, (*Eptatretus stoutii*) exposed to very high environmental CO_2 , the
337 authors observed a blood pH drop from 8.0 to below 7.0 in the first day, and in the subsequent
338 days an increase of pH levels was observed, rising to 7.6 after 4 days, though notably still
339 lower compared than the control treatment (Baker et al., 2015). In contrast, blood pH was
340 previously found to increase as a result of high CO_2 exposure in rainbow trout. (Eddy et al.,
341 1977). The same authors reported that normal blood pH levels were observed after 12-24h
342 exposure end. In the present study we found a higher pH level in high CO_2 -exposed fish
343 compared to the lowest exposure group, a situation which continued until the termination of

344 the experiment. These results could be due to the duration of the CO₂ exposure, or to a
345 different mechanism in post-smolt salmon in a 12 ppt salinity RAS environment, compared to
346 earlier studies. To note that in the Good et al. (2018) study the high CO₂ treatment (20 mg/L)
347 had a nearly significant ($P=0.059$) higher plasma pH compared to the low CO₂ treatment (10
348 mg/L). More detailed studies should investigate the precise mechanisms behind this long-term
349 elevated pH mechanism during CO₂ exposure in Atlantic salmon.

350 Fish barriers tissues such as gut, skin and gill are the first affected by changes in
351 rearing environment. High environmental CO₂ was shown to impact gene expression in
352 bluegill and silver carp (Dennis et al., 2015). In the present study, transcriptome analyses did
353 not reveal changes in ion metabolism. Apparently, compensation of disturbances did not
354 require stable stimulation of genes involved in maintenance of osmotic balance. There was
355 also no evidence for responses to stress and hypoxia – only one stress marker (*matrix*
356 *metalloproteinase 9*) was up-regulated in salmon exposed to high CO₂ at week 12. Still, the
357 effect of treatment was manifested with down-regulation of dozens of functionally related
358 genes. Immune genes are a highly labile part of salmon transcriptome, their down-regulation
359 may indicate competition for resources. For example, massive suppression is observed during
360 smoltification and adaptation to seawater (Johansson et al., 2016). In this study, changes were
361 much smaller by scale and compensation was achieved shortly after the end of exposure.
362 Down-regulation of a small group of genes involved in development and maintenance of
363 tissue was in concordance with previously shown effects of high CO₂ exposure on the
364 Atlantic salmon skin layer morphology and thickness. Specifically, fish exposed to high CO₂
365 had a thinner dermis and uneven epidermis (Mota et al., 2019). Gills are directly exposed to
366 the surrounding environment, and hypertrophy and hyperplasia of epithelial cells and
367 adhesion of lamellae have been observed as a result of CO₂ exposure in combination with low
368 pH and aluminum water (Fivelstad et al., 2003a). Nevertheless, studies focusing solely on

369 CO₂ effects did not find any histopathological changes in the gills of Atlantic salmon
370 (Fivelstad et al., 2007; Fivelstad et al., 2015). Similarly, to immunity, the number of DEG
371 mentioned above was not sufficient to warren firm conclusions on potential functional
372 consequences of exposure to CO₂, particularly given that a large part of genes showed a
373 compensatory up-regulation after a 6-week non-CO₂ exposure (seawater phase). The results
374 discussed here compare a low CO₂ concentration (5 mg/L) and a very high CO₂ concentration
375 (40 mg/L), which is not common, but can nevertheless occur during commercial production of
376 Atlantic salmon. To our knowledge, we show here for the first time that exposure to CO₂ has
377 an impact on gill tissue global gene expression.

378 The concentration of CO₂ that has been previously recommended as safe for Atlantic
379 salmon is 15 mg/L (FOR, 2004); thus implying that there is a threshold here, below which
380 there are no major impacts of CO₂ on fish welfare, health and performance. Several studies on
381 Atlantic salmon support this recommendation, since very few parameters measured were
382 found altered below this threshold as Figure 4 shows. However, these results could be due to a
383 lack of tests below the 15 mg/L threshold. Studies in other fish species in the context of ocean
384 acidification have shown significant impacts of CO₂ at concentrations as low as 1 - 2 mg/L
385 (Ou et al., 2015; Porteus et al., 2018). In the present study, several osmoregulation and acid-
386 base balance parameters were shown to have positive or negative linear relationships with
387 environmental CO₂ concentrations. Moreover, from the same experiment as is reported here,
388 we earlier showed that growth was negatively linear-related to CO₂ exposure, where an
389 increase in CO₂ of 10 mg/L would correspond to an approximate 10% growth reduction in the
390 range studied (average TGC: 2.2, range CO₂: 5 - 40 mg/L) (Mota et al., 2019). Two other
391 studies on Atlantic salmon showed a similar relationship between growth and CO₂ exposure
392 with a linear growth reduction with an increase in CO₂ exposure (Fivelstad et al., 2018; Khan
393 et al., 2018) and FCR increase with increasing CO₂ exposure (Khan et al., 2018). Other

394 authors studying Atlantic salmon (Khan et al., 2018) and Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*)
395 (Moran, Støttrup, 2011), have previously suggested the need of revising the CO₂ safety
396 threshold. The combination of evidence of physiological impacts from this study, and growth
397 performance impacts from (Mota et al., 2019) of CO₂ exposure in Atlantic salmon, advocates
398 for a revision of the existing threshold.

399 The present study brings new insights on the molecular and physiological responses of
400 Atlantic salmon post-smolts to long-term CO₂ exposure. Several osmoregulation and acid-
401 base balance parameters were altered and these physiological alterations are maintained as
402 long as CO₂ exposure persists. Molecular responses measured in Atlantic salmon gills
403 exposed to CO₂ experienced an increase of down-regulated genes with various functions,
404 which changed to up-regulation when the CO₂ exposure ended. The data from this study adds
405 to recent findings that CO₂ concentrations below the 15 mg/L threshold still have an impact
406 on Atlantic salmon, and this finding may be relevant for a better design and dimensioning of
407 production systems where CO₂ may accumulate in the water.

408

409 **Acknowledgments**

410 This project is a part of CtrlAQUA SFI, Center for research-based innovation funded by the
411 Research Council of Norway (project number 237856/O30) and the partners of the center.

412 The authors would like to thank Tonje Vikan, Marianne Hansen and Gerrit Timmerhaus at
413 Nofima for the laboratorial analysis and Cassandra Roberts for proofreading the manuscript.

414

415 **Author contributions**

416 Experimental design: VCM, TON, JK, BFT

417 Data collection and analysis: VCM, JG, MG, JK, TON, AK, BFT

418 Manuscript draft: VCM

419 Final manuscript review and approval: VCM, JG, MG, TON, JG, AK, BFT

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- 535

536 **Table 1.** Blood parameters of Atlantic salmon exposed to six different CO₂ concentrations for 12 weeks (RAS phase).

Parameters	CO ₂ treatment (mg/L)						Regression	
	5	12	19	26	33	40	R ²	P-value
Haematocrit (% PCV) ¹	43.5 ± 0.8	44.8 ± 1.2	43.8 ± 0.6	42.6 ± 3.6	42.8 ± 0.6	43.3 ± 1.5	0.070	0.306
pH ¹	7.25 – 7.31 ^a	7.32 – 7.41 ^a	7.45 – 7.54 ^b	7.47 – 7.53 ^b	7.53 – 7.562 ^b	7.52 – 7.56 ^b	0.787	< 0.001
Na ⁺ (mmol/L) ²	158.1 ± 0.1 ^a	157.5 ± 0.4 ^{ab}	155.7 ± 1.8 ^{ab}	155.3 ± 1.9 ^{ab}	155.2 ± 0.5 ^{ab}	154.7 ± 1.1 ^b	0.559	< 0.001
K ⁺ (mmol/L) ²	2.7 ± 0.2 ^a	2.7 ± 0.1 ^a	3.4 ± 0.2 ^{a,b}	3.3 ± 0.4 ^{a,b}	3.5 ± 0.2 ^{a,b}	4.2 ± 0.6 ^b	0.671	< 0.001
Ca ²⁺ (mmol/L) ²	2.7 ± 0.1	2.8 ± 0.1	2.8 ± 0.1	2.9 ± 0.2	2.9 ± 0.1	2.8 ± 0.1	0.136	0.132
Mg ²⁺ (mmol/L) ²	0.8 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0	0.9 ± 0.0	0.023	0.551
Cl ⁻ (mmol/L) ²	128.6 ± 2.8 ^a	125.1 ± 3.3 ^{a,b}	119.5 ± 2.8 ^{b,c}	119.7 ± 2.1 ^{b,c}	114.6 ± 1.7 ^{c,d}	111.1 ± 2.8 ^d	0.854	< 0.001
HCO ₃ ⁻ (mmol/L) ³	11.4 ± 1.0 ^a	15.8 ± 0.6 ^b	21.0 ± 0.5 ^c	24.1 ± 2.5 ^{c,d}	26.5 ± 1.1 ^{d,e}	29.4 ± 1.4 ^e	0.948	< 0.001
PCO ₂ (mmHg) ³	14.7 ± 2.1	16.5 ± 2.4	16.2 ± 1.5	17.9 ± 2.6	17.8 ± 1.0	19.9 ± 2.0	0.457	0.002
Urea (mmol/L) ²	0.5 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.0	0.5 ± 0.0	0.6 ± 0.1	0.007	0.736
Glucose (mmol/L) ¹	4.7 ± 0.4	4.9 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.1	4.9 ± 0.0	4.7 ± 0.3	4.8 ± 0.2	0.000	0.977

537 Parameters measure from blood¹, serum², or calculated³.538 Superscript alphabets (post-hoc Tukey HSD test) and values in bold (linear regression analysis) indicate significant differences, *P* < 0.05.

539 Values are given as treatment mean ± SD (n = 3, 15 fish per treatment).

540 **Table 2.** Enrichment of Gene Ontology categories in the list of differentially expressed genes
541 (DEG)

542

GO category	DEG	All ¹	<i>P</i> -value ²
Carbohydrate binding (lectins)	5	186	0.001
Chemokine activity	5	57	< 0.001
Defense response to virus	6	172	< 0.001
Immune response	11	587	< 0.001
Inflammatory response	7	430	0.01

543

544 ¹Genes represented on the microarray platform.

545 ²Yates corrected chi square.

546

547 **Table 3** . Expression of genes encoding proteins with known or predicted immune functions
 548 in Atlantic salmon gills. Data are ratios of means in groups exposed to 40 mg/L and 5 mg/L
 549 CO₂ at the end of a 12-week CO₂ exposure (RAS phase – R) and at the end of a 6-week
 550 follow-up without CO₂ exposure (seawater phase – S). Differentially expressed genes are
 551 indicated with bold.

Gene	R40-R5	S40-S5	Function
Gig2 family (3 genes) ¹	-2.1	1.3	Antiviral
ISG15	-2.5	1.9	Antiviral
Ubiquitin protein ligase E3A	-1.6	1.8	Antiviral
CC chemokine with stalk CK2	-1.9	1.0	Chemokine activity
C-C motif chemokine 8	-1.9	1.3	Chemokine activity
C-X-C chemokine 2	2.5	1.8	Chemokine activity
C-X-C chemokine 9	2.5	1.7	Chemokine activity
Small inducible cytokine A13 (2 genes) ¹	-1.9	1.3	Chemokine activity
C-type lectin 4E	-1.8	1.3	Carbohydrate binding
C-type lectin M4	3.0	2.4	Carbohydrate binding
Fish-egg lectin	-2.8	1.3	Carbohydrate binding
Leukolectin (2 genes) ¹	-2.6	1.2	Carbohydrate binding
Rhamnose binding lectin	-2.9	-1.3	Carbohydrate binding
Complement component C7	2.0	1.7	Complement cascade
Complement component C8	2.0	1.3	Complement cascade
Complement component C9	-1.8	-1.2	Complement cascade
TAP2b	-1.7	1.0	Antigen presentation
Matrix metalloproteinase-9	2.5	-1.1	Immune response
TNF receptor member 11B	-2.1	1.0	Immune response

552 ¹For genes with several variants, mean values are presented.

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554 Table 4. Expression of genes encoding proteins involved in tissue development and
 555 maintenance in Atlantic salmon gills. Data are ratios of means in groups exposed to 40 mg/l
 556 and 5 mg/l CO₂ at the end of a 12-week CO₂ exposure (RAS phase – R) and at the end of a 6-
 557 week follow-up without CO₂ exposure (seawater phase – S). Differentially expressed genes
 558 are indicated with bold

Gene	R40-R5	S40-S5	Function
Claudin-like protein ZF4A22	-2.5	3.1	Cell adhesion molecules
Otoancorin	-1.9	1.1	Cell-matrix adhesion
Nephronectin variant 2	-2.9	3.7	ECM organization
Fibulin-1	2.0	1.1	ECM organization
Angiogenin-1 / RNase ZF3	-10.1	-1.1	Angiogenesis
Extracellular matrix protein 1	-3.6	1.2	Angiogenesis
EGF-like domain	-2.9	4.0	Angiogenesis
G-protein coupled receptor 183	-1.5	1.8	Angiogenesis
Growth factor independent 1.1	-1.9	2.2	Definitive hemopoiesis
Fatty aldehyde dehydrogenase	-2.2	3.1	Epidermis development
Ankyrin repeat and SAM domain	-2.2	2.4	Heart development
Lim homeobox protein 3	-2.0	2.3	Neuron differentiation
Homeobox protein HoxC8ba	-2.2	2.9	Pattern specification
Zymogen granule membrane 16 (2 genes) ¹	-4.4	-1.2	Secretion
GMP Giant mucus protein	-1.2	2.6	Secretion
Glucocorticoid receptor	-2.7	3.4	Sodium reabsorption

559

560 ¹ For genes with several variants, mean values are presented.

561

562 **Figure captions**

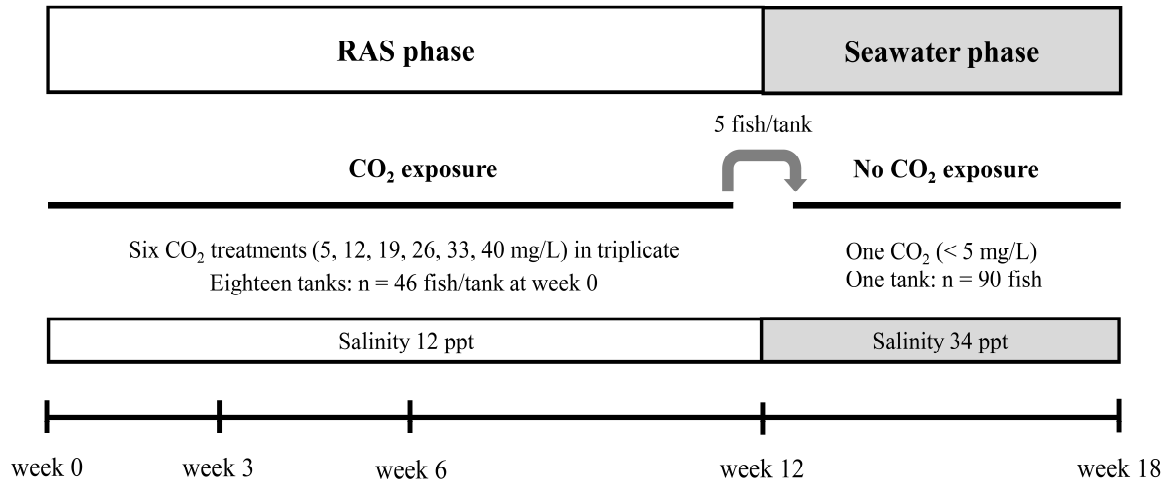
563 **Figure 1.** Experimental design scheme.

564 **Figure 2.** The effect of CO₂ on blood pH (A), serum Cl⁻ (B), serum Na⁺ (C), plasma HCO₃⁻
565 (D), serum K⁺ (E) and plasma PCO₂ (F) concentration (in mmol/L) during an 18-week
566 experimental period. Two periods shown: RAS phase (white area) with CO₂ exposure and,
567 seawater phase (grey area) without CO₂ exposure. * indicates significant differences among at
568 least two CO₂ treatments. ns – non-significant differences.

569 **Figure 3.** (A) Correlation between plasma HCO₃⁻ and serum Cl⁻ concentrations (in mmol/L)
570 at the end of a 12-week CO₂ exposure (RAS phase). Mean tank values presented (n = 18). (B)
571 Linear regression between plasma and water partial pressures of CO₂ (in mm Hg) at week 3
572 and 6 (RAS phase). Mean tank values presented (n = 33, 3 tank values missing).

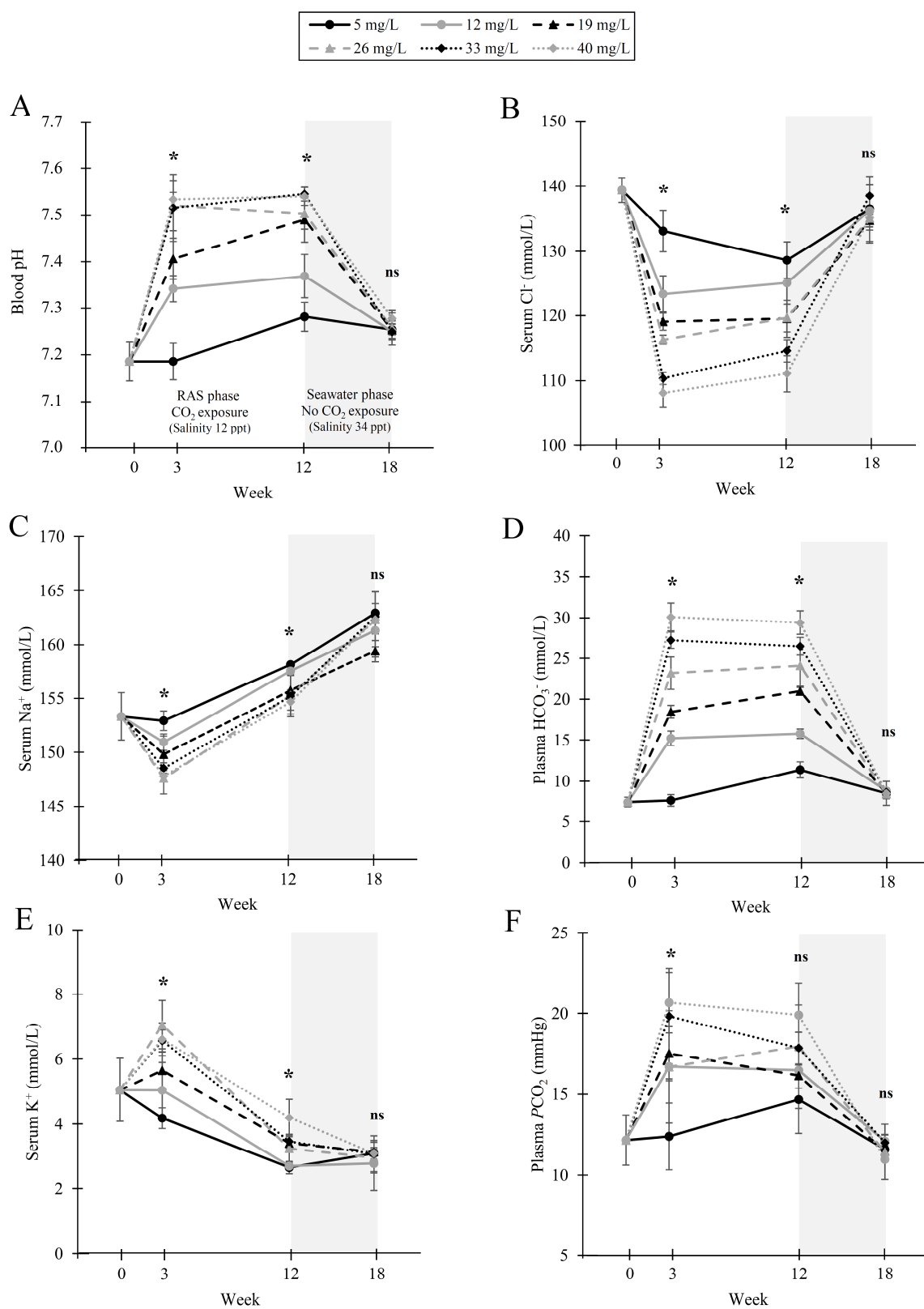
573 **Figure 4.** Overview of the lowest effect reported from a CO₂ exposure experiment in Atlantic
574 salmon (parr, smolt, post-smolt and adult) grouped in four categories of effects (stress
575 response, performance, welfare/health and, ion transport/osmoregulation/acid-base balance).
576 Detailed information presented in the online supplemental Table 1.

577

578 **Figure 1**

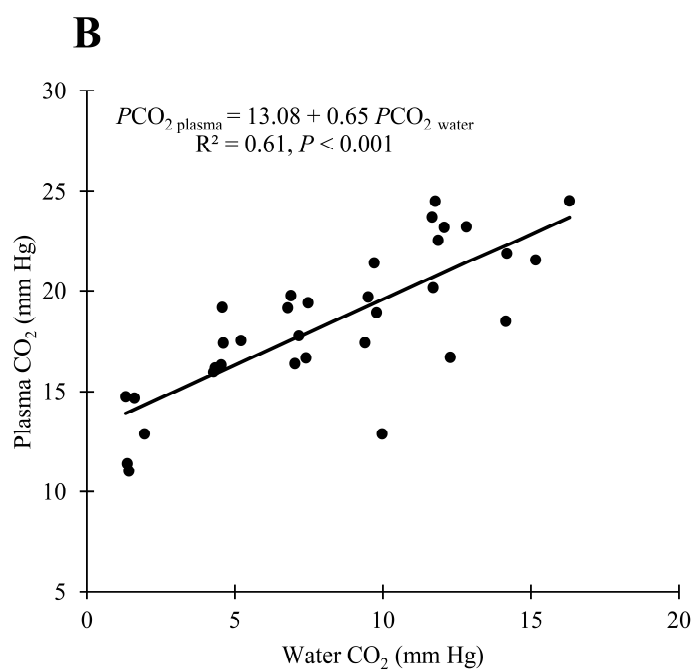
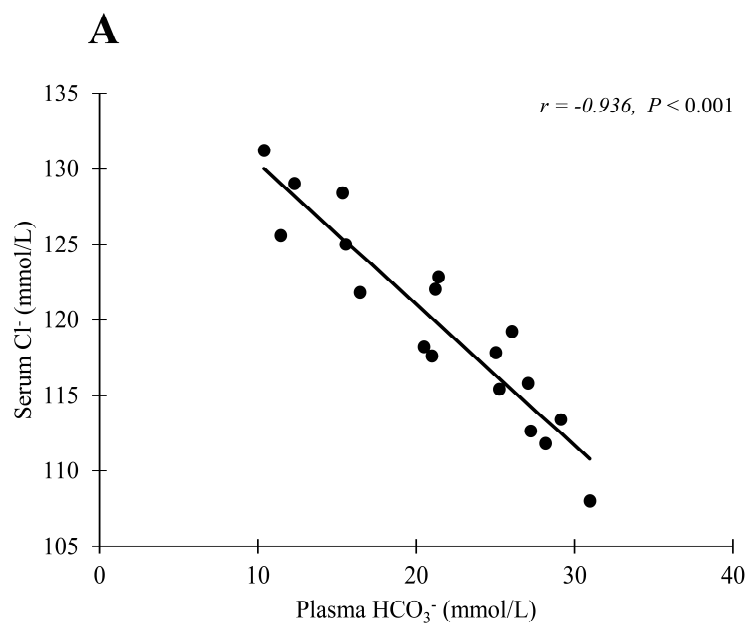
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581 **Figure 2**

582

583

584 **Figure 3**

585

586

587 **Figure 4**

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1 **Highlights**

- 2 • Atlantic salmon was exposed to six CO₂ concentrations (5 – 40 mg/L) for 12 weeks
3 followed by 6-weeks without exposure (< 5 mg/L).
- 4 • Positive (pH, K⁺, HCO₃⁻ and P_{CO2}) and negative (Na⁺, Cl⁻) linear relationships with CO₂
5 exposure were observed as long as CO₂ exposure persists, returning to normal levels when
6 CO₂ exposure is ended.
- 7 • Microarrays analysis of gill tissue detected 71 differentiated expressed genes that
8 responded to CO₂ and after termination of exposure 27 down-regulated genes showed
9 compensatory up-regulation.
- 10 • The assumption that Atlantic salmon is unaffected by CO₂ concentrations below the 15
11 mg/L threshold should be revised.

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

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