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

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50

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

52

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

54 angiosperm, meiofauna, multiple stressors

55 **Abstract**

56

57 Seagrass meadows are an important organic matter (OM) reservoir, but are currently being lost due
58 to global and regional stressors. Yet, there is limited research investigating the cumulative impacts
59 of anthropogenic stressors on the structure and functioning of seagrass benthic assemblages, key
60 drivers of OM mineralization and burial. Here, using a 16-months field experiment, we assessed
61 how meiobenthic assemblages and extracellular enzymatic activities (as a proxy of OM
62 degradation) in *Posidonia oceanica* sediments responded to ocean acidification (OA) and nutrient
63 loadings, at CO₂ vents. *P. oceanica* meadows were exposed to three nutrient levels (control,
64 moderate and high) at both ambient and low pH sites. OA altered meiobenthic assemblage
65 structure, resulting in increased abundance of annelids and crustaceans, along with a decline in
66 foraminifera. In addition, low pH enhanced OM degradation rates in seagrass sediments, by
67 enhancing extracellular enzymatic activities, potentially decreasing the sediment carbon storage
68 capacity of seagrasses. Nutrient enrichment had no effect on the response variables analysed,
69 suggesting that, under nutrient concentration unlikely to cause N- or P- limitation, a moderate
70 increase of dissolved nutrients in the water column had limited influence on meiobenthic
71 assemblages. These findings show that OA can significantly alter meiobenthic assemblage structure
72 and enhance OM degradation rates in seagrass sediments. Since meiofauna are ubiquitous key
73 actors in the functioning of benthic ecosystems, we postulated that OA, altering the structure of
74 meiobenthic assemblages and OM degradation, could affect organic carbon sequestration over large
75 spatial scales.

76

77 **Introduction**

78

79 Seagrass meadows are among the most productive and valued ecosystems on Earth, as they
80 sustain biodiversity and a range of ecosystem services, including enhanced water quality, coastline
81 protection from erosion and productive fisheries (Larkum et al. 2007, Barbier et al. 2011). They
82 also have a large influence on coastal biogeochemical processes, such as carbon storage and
83 nutrient regeneration, at global scale (Fourqurean et al. 2012, Duarte et al. 2013, Macreadie et al.
84 2017). These biogeochemical processes occur mostly in the belowground sediments and are driven
85 by interactions between fauna and heterotrophic prokaryotes, primary mediators of OM
86 mineralization and burial (Danovaro 1996, Snelgrove et al. 2018, Trevathan-Tackett et al. 2018a).

87 Many seagrass beds, and the ecosystem functions and services they provide, have been
88 degraded worldwide, with an estimated global decline of 7% annually since 1990 (Orth et al. 2006,
89 Waycott et al. 2009). Coastal eutrophication is one of the major drivers of seagrass loss, either
90 resulting in nitrogen toxicity for plants or reduced light availability on leaves due to epiphyte
91 overgrowth (Ralph et al. 2006, Burkholder et al. 2007, Marbà et al. 2014). More recently, global
92 scale stressors, such as seawater warming, ocean acidification and extreme events, have been
93 shown to impair plant production and contribute to the decline and degradation of seagrasses
94 (Marba and Duarte 2010, Jordà et al. 2012, Ravaglioli et al. 2017, Arias-Ortiz et al. 2018, Chefaoui
95 et al. 2018). As seagrass meadows are key for organic carbon sequestration, their decline is raising
96 concerns over the potential release in the atmosphere, as CO₂, of large amounts of the carbon
97 immobilized by the belowground compartment, potentially exacerbating climate changes
98 (Fourqurean et al. 2012, Pendleton et al. 2012). Nonetheless, the cumulative impacts of
99 environmental stressors on the structure and functioning of benthic assemblages associated to
100 seagrass systems, and their links to biogeochemical cycles, remain poorly understood.

101 Anthropogenic ocean acidification (OA), resulting from the global enhanced CO₂ emission,
102 is one of the greatest threats to coastal habitats (IPCC 2014). While the responses of seagrasses and

103 the associated epiphytic communities to low pH have been thoroughly assessed (Hall-Spencer et al.
104 2008, Martin et al. 2008, Campbell and Fourqurean 2014, Cox et al. 2015, Guilini et al. 2017,
105 Ravaglioli et al. 2017), there is a dearth of studies dealing with the impacts of OA on meiofauna
106 that inhabit seagrass sediments. This abundant and high diverse group of small invertebrates (<
107 1mm) plays key ecological roles in marine sediments, contributing to energy transfer to higher
108 trophic levels (Schratzberger and Ingels 2018) and increasing OM remineralisation, through the
109 stimulation of microbial activities (Nascimento et al. 2012, Bonaglia et al. 2014, Lacoste et al.
110 2018). OA can change meiobenthic assemblages, either directly, by altering metabolic processes or,
111 indirectly, by modifying interactions among species and trophic groups (e.g. predation pressure)
112 (Kurihara et al. 2004, Dashfield et al. 2008, Widdicombe and Spicer 2008, Kroeker et al. 2011,
113 Meadows et al. 2015, Mevenkamp et al. 2018). Laboratory (generally short-term) studies have
114 reported divergent responses to OA of different meiobenthic taxa, with the dominant one (typically
115 nematodes and copepods) generally remaining unaffected or even increasing in abundance, while
116 others, such as copepod naupli, gastrotrichs and foraminifera, showing opposing trends (Haynert et
117 al. 2011, Meadows et al. 2015, Lee et al. 2017, Mevenkamp et al. 2018). In contrast, long-term
118 exposure to low pH condition at submarine CO₂ vents led to a severe decline in meiofaunal density,
119 suggesting limited capacities for several taxa to withstand or adapt to OA (Molari et al. 2018). The
120 alteration or loss of meiofaunal biodiversity could ultimately result in a significant decline of
121 important ecosystem functions, including prokaryote production and OM mineralization (Danovaro
122 et al. 2008, Pusceddu et al. 2014b).

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

129 2017). This could ultimately result in the reduction of organic carbon sequestration in seagrass
130 sediments (Trevathan-Tackett et al. 2018a).

131 In addition to the global threat of OA, the structure and functions of benthic assemblages
132 associated to seagrass system can be further affected by local changes of dissolved inorganic
133 nutrient concentrations in seawater. In seagrass sediments, a large amount of organic detritus is
134 generally refractory and not readily available for consumers (Danovaro 1996, Pusceddu et al. 2003).
135 Enhanced nutrient concentration might increase the abundance and diversity of meiofauna
136 indirectly, by enhancing the nutritional quality of food (e.g. lower C/N ratio) (Antón et al. 2011),
137 thus fostering feeding activities (Pascal et al. 2013). In contrast, excessive organic loadings, typical
138 of eutrophic waters, may strongly alter sediment characteristics (e.g. sediment biochemical
139 composition and oxygen availability) (Pusceddu et al. 2009, Pusceddu et al. 2011), which could
140 affect negatively meiofaunal assemblages (La Rosa et al. 2001, Mirto et al. 2002, Gambi et al.
141 2009).

142 Nutrient enrichment has been further shown to enhance sediment microbial biomass and
143 their enzymatic activities in seagrass sediments (López et al. 1998, La Rosa et al. 2001, Liu et al.
144 2017), potentially exacerbating the enhanced degradation rate of OM expected under OA scenario.
145 However, to date, the compounded effects of OA and nutrient enrichment on community
146 composition and OM processes associated to seagrass sediments remain largely unexplored,
147 challenging our capacity to predict alterations in ecosystem functioning and services of seagrasses
148 under future environmental conditions.

149 In this study, we investigated the effects of OA and enhanced nutrient availability on
150 meiobenthic assemblages and OM degradation rates in *Posidonia oceanica* sediments, at CO₂ vents
151 along the coast of Ischia Island (Italy). We exposed *P. oceanica* meadows, at both ambient and low
152 pH, to different levels of nutrient enrichment (control, moderate and high) for 16 months. Under
153 OA scenario, food availability seems to play a critical role for marine invertebrates, by providing
154 the energy required to support physiological responses to pH stress (Thomsen et al. 2013, Queiros

155 et al. 2015, Ramajo et al. 2016). Under these circumstances, a moderate increase in nutrient
156 availability could have positive effects on meiobenthos at low pH, possibly increasing the
157 consumption of more bioavailable food (Danovaro 1996, Antón et al. 2011). By contrast, excessive
158 nutrient loadings could worsen the impacts of OA on meiobenthos, by causing severe OM
159 accumulation and lowering sediment oxygen concentration (Gambi et al. 2009). In addition, the
160 combined effects of OA and enhanced nutrient concentration were expected to significantly
161 increase OM degradation, by fostering extracellular enzymatic activities of bacteria (López et al.
162 1998, Piontek et al. 2013).

163

164 **Materials and methods**

165 *Study site and experimental design*

166 This study was carried out between April 2014 and July 2015 in shallow *P. oceanica*
167 meadows at CO₂ vents off the Castello Aragonese isle (Ischia Island, 40°43'51.01''N,
168 13°57'48.07''E; Tyrrhenian Sea, Italy). Submarine vents have been extensively used to assess the
169 effects of naturally acidified seawater on biological communities as they are characterized by the
170 emission into seawater of gases, predominantly CO₂, that create gradients in pH and carbonate
171 chemistry, without confounding gradients of other environmental variables, such as temperature,
172 salinity, hydrodynamic conditions and toxic hydrogen sulphide (Hall-Spencer et al. 2008, Fabricius
173 et al. 2011, Russell et al. 2013, Milazzo et al. 2016, Doubleday et al. 2019). In particular, in the last
174 decade, previous studies carried out at Ischia Island vents have shown that areas exposed to CO₂
175 bubbling do not differ from control areas in terms of salinity (38 ‰), temperature (seasonal
176 fluctuations of 14-25 °C), light (~7500 lx d⁻¹) and total alkalinity (2.5 mequiv. kg⁻¹), due to the fact
177 that they are just 10s of m apart, at about 2-3 m water depth (Hall-Spencer et al. 2008, Martin et al.
178 2008, Cigliano et al. 2010, Kroeker et al. 2011, Garrard et al. 2014, Scartazza et al. 2017).

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

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

195 An HOBO data logger was positioned between the two sites in order to monitor
196 continuously (every 15 minutes) seawater temperature throughout the experiment. Temperature
197 matched ambient season fluctuations, with warmest water occurring in August (26.3 ± 0.008) and
198 coldest water in February-March (14.95 ± 0.006). Temperature was not expected to vary between
199 sites at a depth of 2.5-3.5 m.

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

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

222

223 *Meiobenthic assemblage structure*

224 At the end of the experiment (July 2015), meiobenthos (i.e. metazoan meiofauna plus
225 foraminifera) abundance and taxa diversity were assessed in two sediment samples, randomly
226 collected in each experimental plot, for a total of 36 replicates. Sediment cores were hand sampled
227 by divers, by inserting Plexiglas cores (30 mm internal diameter and 270 mm length) at least 5-10
228 cm into *P. oceanica* matte. Once collected, each sediment sample was transferred in net bags and
229 preserved in 70% ethanol solution until analysis. In laboratory, the meiobenthos was extracted using
230 the decantation method. The samples were sieved through a 500- μ m mesh (upper limit) and 50- μ m
231 mesh size (lower limit) to retain the meiobenthic organisms (Pusceddu et al. 2014b, Bertocci et al.
232 2019). The extraction procedure was repeated five times, and at each time, sediment was carefully

233 checked in order to collect all the animals. All animals were then counted and classified per taxon
234 under stereomicroscope. The invertebrates were classified to the taxonomic resolution varying from
235 phylum to order. Due to variations in volume and composition (sandy sediment, plant detritus and
236 gravel) among cores, sediment samples were left to dry in the laboratory for two weeks and, then,
237 the total weight of each sample and that of its sandy, gravel and plant detritus fractions were
238 measured at the third decimal by means of a precision scale. Grain size analysis was carried out by
239 dry sieving sediment through a 1-mm mesh to separate sandy sediment from gravel and plant
240 detritus fractions. Although meiofaunal abundance is typically expressed as number of individuals
241 10 cm^{-2} , due to different volume of sediment in each core, the abundance of individuals of each
242 taxon was standardized to the sediment weight (g DW) for each sample. Taxonomic diversity was
243 measured using the Shannon index.

244 *Extracellular enzymatic activities in the sediment*

245 Samples for extracellular enzymatic activities (aminopeptidase and β -glucosidase) were collected at
246 the end of the experiment. Two aliquots (topmost 2 cm) of sediment were collected from each
247 experimental plot, using Plexiglas tubes, for a total of 36 replicates. For the determination of the
248 extracellular enzymatic activities, 2.5 mL of sediment subsamples were incubated at 20°C in the
249 dark for 2 h with 2.5 mL of filtered, sterile seawater containing 200 μM L-leucine-4-
250 methylcumarinyl-7-amide and 75 μM 4-methylumbelliferyl β -D-glucopyranoside separately for
251 aminopeptidase and β -glucosidase activities, respectively. After incubation, the slurries were
252 centrifuged and supernatants were analysed fluorometrically (at 365 nm excitation, 455 nm
253 emission for β -glucosidase, and 380 nm excitation, 440 nm emission for aminopeptidase). Data
254 were normalized to sediment dry weight (60 °C, 24 h) and reported as μmol substrate degraded g^{-1}
255 h^{-1} (Pusceddu et al. 2003). The aminopeptidase and β -glucosidase activities were converted into C
256 degradation rates (μgrams of C per gram per hour), using 72 μg of C per μmole of substrate as the
257 conversion factor (Pusceddu et al. 2014a).

258

259 *Statistical analyses*

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

275

276 **Results**

277 *Composition of sediment cores*

278 The PCA on the sediment composition of sampling cores showed a substantial separation
279 between ambient and low pH conditions (Fig. 1). Along PC1 axis, which explains 97.42 % of the
280 total variance, there was one cluster including ambient pH on the left side of the plot and a second
281 one on the right side, represented by low pH treatment. Sandy sediment component was the most
282 negatively correlated to PC1, while gravel component contributes most to PC2 axis, which,
283 however, explains only 2.29 % of the total variance. Sandy sediment content was then included as

284 covariate in the PERMANOVA analysis assessing variations in the structure of the meiobenthic
285 assemblage.

286

287 *Meiobenthic assemblage structure*

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

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

308

309 *Extracellular enzymatic activities*

310 The aminopeptidase and β -glucosidase activities, used as proxies of protein and
311 carbohydrate degradation rates, varied according to pH conditions, but were unaffected by nutrient
312 enrichments (Table 3). Both extracellular enzymatic activities were higher at low than at ambient
313 pH (Fig. 4 a,b).

314

315 **Discussion**

316 At our study site, long-term OA altered the composition of meiobenthic assemblages as well
317 as OM degradation rates in seagrass sediments. Changes in meiobenthic assemblages were mostly
318 due to an increase in the abundance of annelids and, to some extent, of crustaceans, whilst
319 foraminifera abundance significantly decreased at low pH. In addition, OA appears to stimulate the
320 microbial degradation of OM in seagrass sediments, potentially weakening the carbon storage
321 capacity of seagrass meadows. In contrast to our predictions, enhanced nutrient levels had no
322 effects on meiobenthic assemblages and OM degradation rates, and interactions between nutrient
323 enrichment and OA were not detected.

324 Previous studies have already shown that OA can shift meiobenthic community
325 composition, as a result of differential sensitivity of the different taxa (Hale et al. 2011, Schade et
326 al. 2016, Mevenkamp et al. 2018). In accordance with the literature, nematodes, the dominant
327 meiobenthic taxon at our study site, were unaffected by low pH. Results from previous studies,
328 though mostly conducted under controlled laboratory settings, suggest that nematodes can be highly
329 tolerant to low pH, as their densities were often unaffected or even increased under the OA scenario
330 predicted for the end of this century (Dashfield et al. 2008, Widdicombe et al. 2009). Negative
331 effects on nematode survivorship have been documented only at extremely low pH levels ($\sim \leq 6$).
332 However, a recent study using a staining technique, found an increase in nematode mortality under
333 OA, while nematode density was unaffected, likely due to a reduced degradation rate of dead
334 nematode bodies at low pH (Mevenkamp et al. 2018). These results stress the importance of
335 assessing nematode mortality in OA studies, as stable or even increased densities of these animals

336 could be an artefact of reduced body decomposition, potentially hiding more severe impacts of OA
337 on this dominant group.

338 We documented an increase in the abundance of annelids at low pH, in line with reports of
339 previous studies on epibenthic fauna at submarine CO₂ vents (Kroeker et al. 2011, Ricevuto et al.
340 2012, Garrard et al. 2014). In this regard, it has been reported that, around CO₂ vents of Ischia,
341 polychaetes maintain high density along pH gradients, suggesting that some species may be tolerant
342 to OA due to their high physiological plasticity or local adaptation (Calosi et al. 2013). However,
343 responses to low pH vary among different groups of polychaetes, with filter feeder and herbivore
344 species generally favoured at expenses of deposit feeders, omnivores and carnivores (Gambi et al.
345 2016, Molari et al. 2018). Thus, a more detailed analysis on polychaete species composition or
346 functional traits could provide further insights on the sensitivity of this taxonomic group to long-
347 term low pH exposure. Furthermore, there was a tendency ($P= 0.08$) in the abundance of
348 crustaceans to increase at low pH. Crustaceans are considered quite robust to OA due to their
349 internal acid-base regulation and external organic layer that protect skeleton from corrosive low pH
350 water (Melzner et al. 2009, Ries 2009). Although some studies found negative effects of low pH on
351 reproduction or larval development of copepods (Kurihara et al. 2004, Fitzer et al. 2012), studies
352 testing the effects of OA at the community level showed no changes or even an increase in
353 crustacean abundance at low pH, possibly due to decreased predation rate or increased food
354 availability (Kroeker et al. 2011, Garrard et al. 2014).

355 The abundance of foraminifera significantly decreased at low pH site. Previous studies
356 reported a substantial vulnerability of benthic foraminifera to OA (Hall-Spencer et al. 2008,
357 Fabricius et al. 2011, McIntyre-Wressnig et al. 2013, Martinez et al. 2018), likely because many of
358 them build shells of calcium carbonate. Accordingly, decreases in the diversity of foraminifera
359 community and changes in their community composition from calcifying to non-calcareous forms
360 has been reported in the Mediterranean Sea (around CO₂ vents of Ischia; Dias et al. 2010) and
361 Pacific Ocean, around CO₂ vents of Papua New Guinea (Fabricius et al. 2011). These unicellular

362 organisms are a key benthic component in coastal systems, since they serve as food source together
363 with the rest of meiofauna for higher trophic levels, and are important contributors of the annual
364 carbonate production and denitrification process in coastal areas (Risgaard-Petersen et al. 2006,
365 Høgslund et al. 2008, Langer 2008). Although our study cannot discern if foraminifera were alive,
366 the significant reduction in their abundance detected at low pH suggest that OA could have negative
367 cascading effects on carbon and nutrient cycles within seagrass meadows.

368 The divergent responses of taxonomic groups to low pH lead to no differences in term of
369 total meiofaunal abundance and taxa diversity. These results are in contrast with those of Molari et
370 al. (2018), who found a decrease in the biomass and density of meiofauna in sandy areas near CO₂
371 vents. Such discrepancy could be due to the different habitat characteristics (bare sandy sediment
372 versus *P. oceanica* sediments in Molari et al. (2018) and our study site, respectively). In fact,
373 seagrass sediments are generally characterized by higher supply of organic matter, derived from
374 both seagrass production and the trapping of other organic particles (Kennedy et al. 2010).
375 Although we did not measure the amount of organic matter in *P. oceanica* sediments, the supposed
376 higher food availability may have mediated the susceptibility of marine invertebrates to low pH at
377 our study site. The lack of detectable effects of low pH on taxa diversity could also be influenced by
378 the taxonomic aggregation used in this study. Thus, the use of a fine taxonomic resolution (e.g.
379 genus or species levels) could provide a deeper insight into the changes in community diversity and
380 composition under future climate scenario (Bevilacqua et al. 2012).

381 Low pH fostered extracellular enzymatic activities in seagrass sediments. Extracellular
382 enzymes play a crucial role in benthic systems as they break down high molecular weight organic
383 compounds into low molecular weight compounds that can then be readily used by heterotrophs
384 (Cunha et al. 2010). Contrary to intracellular enzymes that are buffered by the cell's cytoplasm,
385 extracellular enzymatic activities are directly impacted by external changes in pH. An increase in
386 the H⁺ concentration, due to lower seawater pH value, may modify the three-dimensional protein
387 structure of the active site of the enzyme, thus affecting enzymatic activities (Cunha et al. 2010). At

388 the same time, changes in the meiobenthic assemblage composition at low pH, with an increase in
389 the abundance of annelids and a reduction of foraminifera, could have entailed cascading effects on
390 microbial-mediated OM degradation rate (Piot et al. 2014, Lacoste et al. 2018). For instance,
391 polychaetes are known to enhance bacterial activities, either directly, by consuming bacteria and
392 thus stimulating their growth (Montagna 1984), or, indirectly, through particle reworking and solute
393 transport due to bioturbation activity (Aller and Aller 1992). In addition, an increase in extracellular
394 enzymes under OA could also be related with enhanced availability of organic matter as a
395 consequence of higher primary productivity (Piontek et al. 2013). Regardless of the specific
396 mechanisms stimulating microbial extracellular enzymatic activities, our results suggest that long-
397 term OA may lead to increased degradation of carbohydrates and proteins in seagrass surface
398 sediments. Our findings can be generalized as previous results from benthic (Molari et al. 2018) and
399 pelagic (Grossart et al. 2006, Piontek et al. 2013) systems found an increase in the extracellular
400 enzymatic activity at low pH. A further decline in pH could, however, result in a decreased rate of
401 enzymatic activity (Cunha et al. 2010). For instance, in a mesocosm experiment, (Rastelli et al.
402 2016) reported that very low pH value (< 7), associated to high CO₂ leakages, can result in a
403 significant reduction of the aminopeptidase and β -glucosidase activities and an increase in sediment
404 protein accumulation. Finally, variable effects of OA on OM degradation rates could also depend
405 upon the different edaphic conditions (i.e. grain size and mineralogy) in different sediment
406 typologies.

407 None of the response variables analysed was affected by enhanced nutrient loading. We
408 hypothesized that a moderate nutrient enrichment would have been able to mediate meiobenthos
409 responses to low pH indirectly, by increasing food quality. However, at our study site, background
410 N P concentrations were comparable to those observed in urbanized coastal areas in the NW
411 Mediterranean (Balata et al. 2008, Balata et al. 2010), and, therefore, unlikely to be limiting for
412 benthic invertebrates. Furthermore, a previous work has documented low C/N ratio of organic
413 detritus at CO₂ vents of Ischia, suggesting no nitrogen deficiency in invertebrate diets at low pH

414 (Ricevuto et al. 2015). In contrast, severe nutrient enrichment may negatively affect meiobenthic
415 assemblages and foster bacterial activity in seagrass sediments as a consequence of the severe
416 modifications caused to sediment chemistry (e.g. high biopolymeric carbon content and reduced O₂
417 availability) (López et al. 1998, Gambi et al. 2009, Pusceddu et al. 2011). In our experiment, the
418 simulation of heavy nutrient enrichment of the water column was not effective in generating
419 concentrations high enough to cause severe organic matter accumulation in the sediments, as
420 observed in eutrophic systems (Dell'Anno et al. 2002, Pusceddu et al. 2009). Indeed, signals of
421 seagrass meadow degradation are often reported in coastal systems characterized by dissolved
422 nutrient concentrations considerably higher than those generated in our experiment (Cardoso et al.
423 2010, Hughes et al. 2013). Also, it has been repeatedly observed that the impacts of eutrophication
424 in terms of inorganic nutrient concentration in the water column (Burkholder et al. 2007) could not
425 be automatically detected in the benthic environment (López et al. 1998, Dell'Anno et al. 2002,
426 Pusceddu et al. 2009, Pusceddu et al. 2011). Moreover, the lack of detectable effects of enhanced
427 nutrient availability in the water column on the benthos could also be explained considering that we
428 tested our hypotheses in *P. oceanica* sediments, where, because of the high background loads of
429 OM in seagrass sediments, effects of benthic eutrophication could be not clearly detected (Pusceddu
430 et al. 2007).

431 Overall, the results of our experiment show that long-term OA can significantly alter
432 meiobenthic assemblage composition and foster microbial OM degradation in *P. oceanica*
433 sediments. In contrast, nutrient enrichment did not affect seagrass benthic assemblages, probably
434 because our experiment was not effective in generating eutrophic conditions. This could explain the
435 lack of interactive effects between OA and nutrient loading on all the response variables analysed.
436 Therefore, the response of seagrass assemblages to OA under eutrophic conditions is yet to be
437 explored. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study investigating the combined effects of a
438 global and a local stressor on meiobenthic communities and ecosystem functioning in seagrass
439 sediments. Meiofauna have been recently shown to have important effects on benthic ecosystem

440 processes, such as OM mineralization and nitrogen cycling, likely by stimulating microbial activity
441 (Nascimento et al. 2012, Bonaglia et al. 2014). Thus, further studies are warranted to assess how
442 changes in meiobenthic assemblage in response to OA could entail cascading effects on microbial
443 communities, ultimately altering ecosystem functioning.

444 Seagrass meadows are recognized hotspots of sediment organic matter sequestration
445 (Fourqurean et al. 2012), due to their high primary production and leaf ability to trap allochthonous
446 suspended particles (Kennedy et al. 2010). In addition, the low nutrient (nitrogen and phosphate)
447 content of seagrass litter and sediment hypoxic condition slow organic matter decomposition, thus
448 resulting in the immobilization of organic carbon in the belowground compartments for millennia
449 (Mateo et al. 2006, Duarte et al. 2013, Trevathan-Tackett et al. 2017). In particular, *P. oceanica*,
450 with its long-lived rhizomes and slow growth rate, is among the most efficient seagrasses in
451 accumulating carbon in sediments (Fourqurean et al. 2012). Nonetheless, seagrasses are declining
452 worldwide, raising concerns over a weakening of their ability to buffer climate changes through
453 carbon sequestration (Fourqurean et al. 2012, Duarte et al. 2013, Lovelock et al. 2017, Bulleri et al.
454 2018, Chefaoui et al. 2018). Previous studies have shown how climate changes (e.g. seawater
455 warming, heat waves) and local stressors (e.g. water quality degradation, mechanical disturbance)
456 may reduce seagrass carbon storage capacity (Jordà et al. 2012, Serrano et al. 2016, Arias-Ortiz et
457 al. 2018, Trevathan-Tackett et al. 2018b). Our results indicate that OA predicted by the end of this
458 century could trigger OM degradation in seagrass sediments, reducing their carbon storage capacity
459 and enhancing CO₂ release. While seagrass productivity is generally expected to increase in
460 response to low pH, under nutrient concentration unlikely to cause N-limitation (Stitt and Krapp
461 1999, Alexandre et al. 2012, Russell et al. 2013, Sunday et al. 2016, Ravaglioli et al. 2017), our
462 study highlights the need of assessing belowground processes to understand the mechanisms
463 underpinning the net carbon budget in seagrass meadows.

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798 **Figure legends**

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

803

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

808

809 **Fig. 3.** Abundance (mean \pm SE, n=6) of **a)** nematodes, **b)** annelids, **c)** foraminifera and **d)**
810 crustaceans in ambient and low pH conditions under different levels of nutrient enrichment (control,
811 moderate and high). The inserts in **b)** and **c)** indicate the mean abundance (\pm SE) of annelids and
812 foraminifera at ambient and low pH level (n= 18; data pooled across nutrient treatments).

813

814 **Fig. 4.** a) Aminopeptidase and b) β -glucosidase ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$, mean \pm SE, n=6) in ambient and low
815 pH conditions under different levels of nutrient enrichment (control, moderate and high). The
816 inserts in a) and b) indicate the mean concentration (\pm SE) of aminopeptidase and β -glucosidase at
817 ambient and low pH level (n= 18; data pooled across nutrient treatments).

Table 1. PERMANOVA on the effects of OA (ambient and low pH) and nutrient enrichment

(control, moderate and high) on the meiobenthic assemblage. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.

818

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		

819

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	F	MS	F	MS	F
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	F	MS	F	MS	F
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 β -glucosidase activities in the sediment. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.

Source of variation	df	Aminopeptidase		β -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		$P < 0.05$	

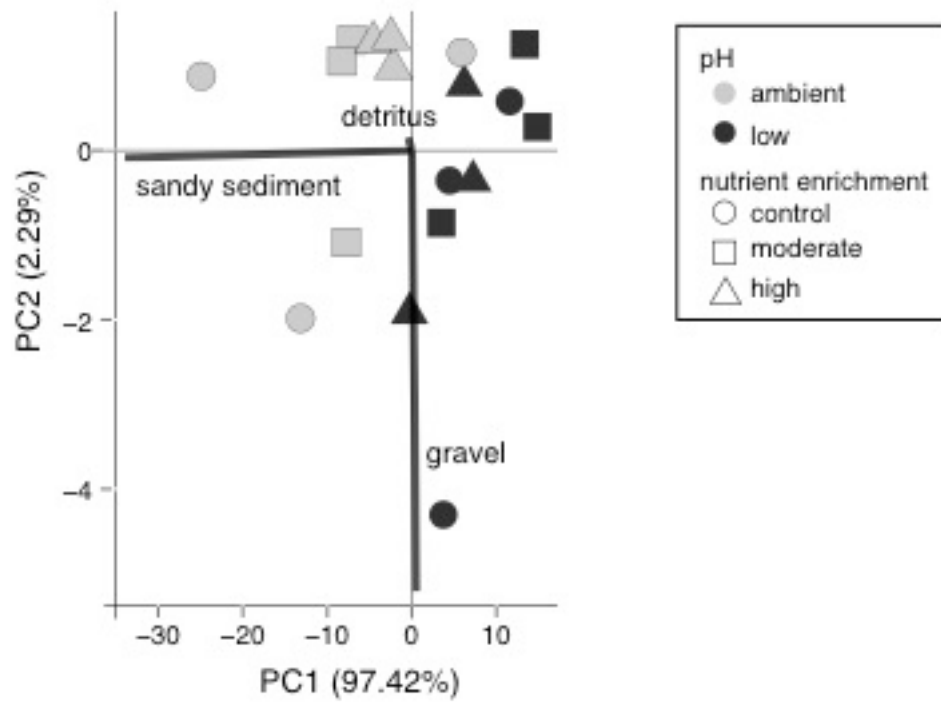


Figure 1

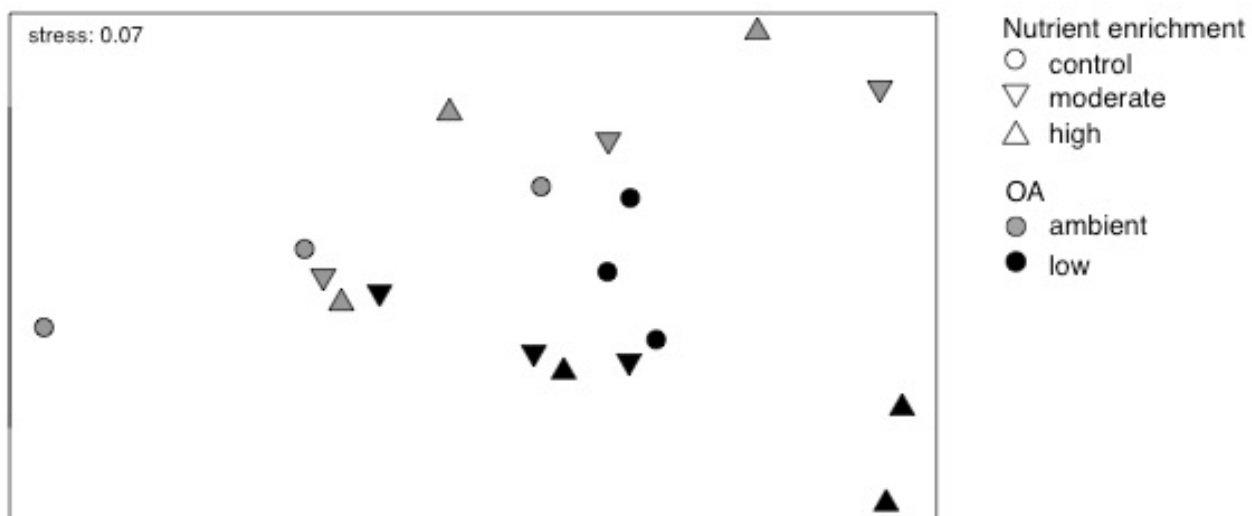


Figure 2

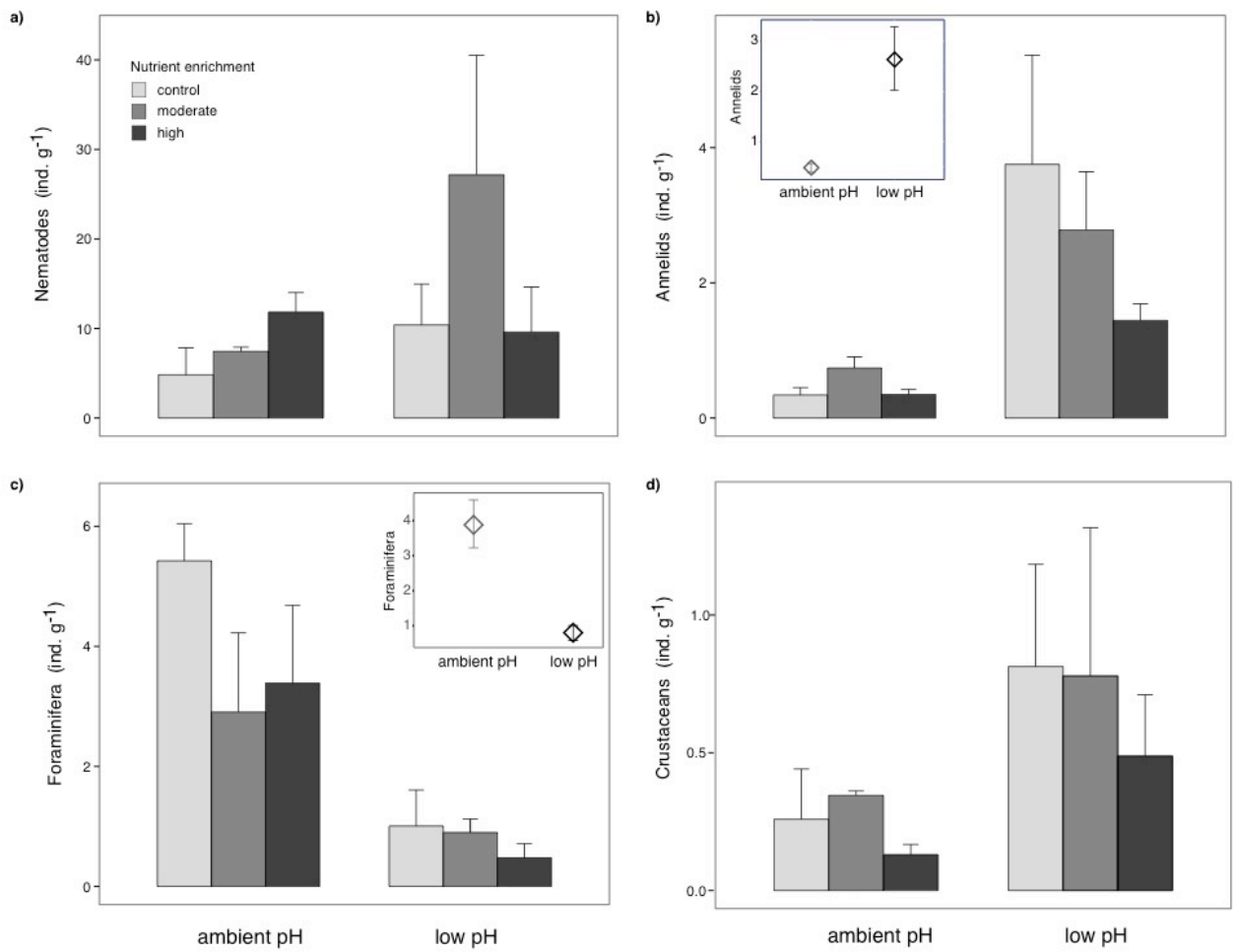


Figure 3

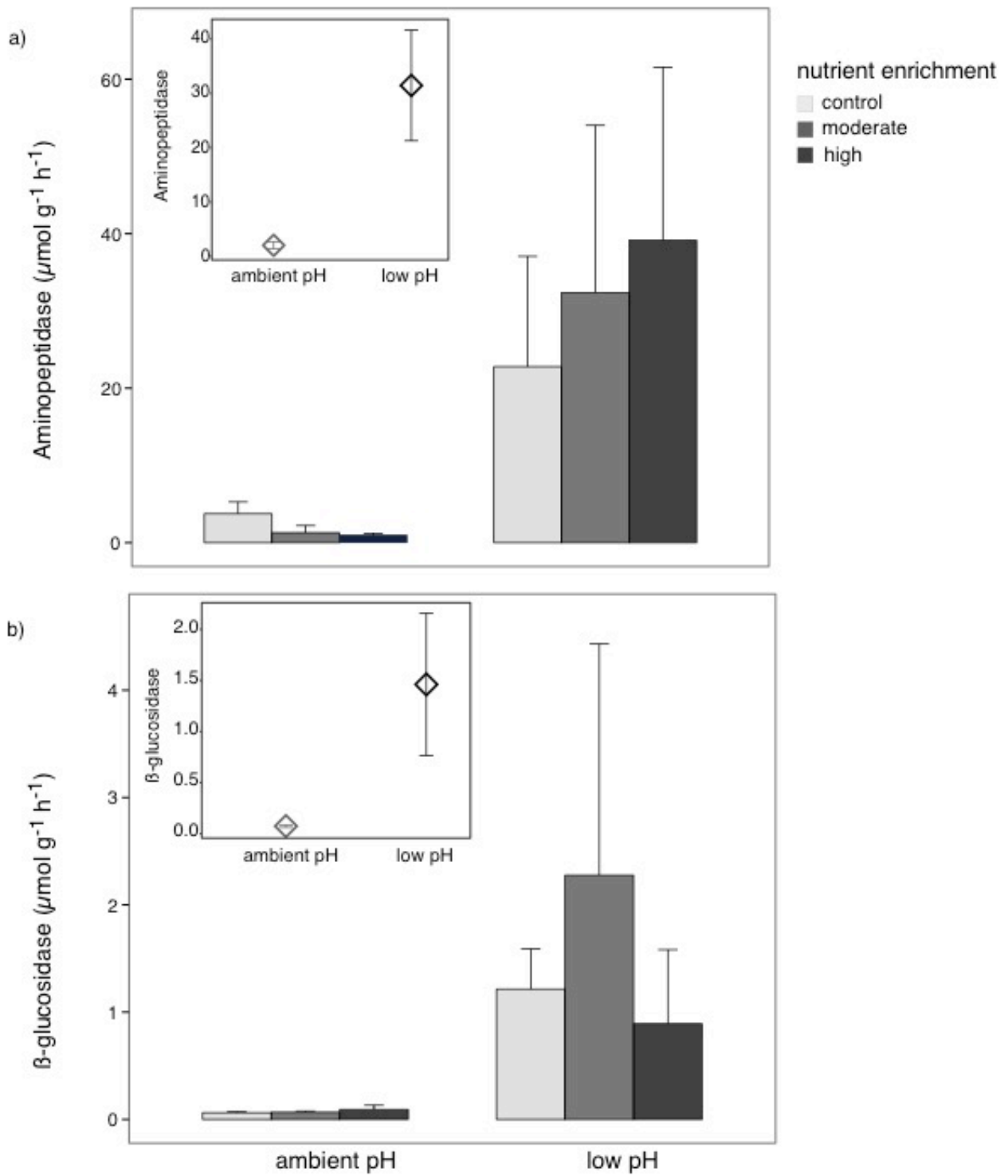


Figure 4