

1 **Pre-exposure to simultaneous, but not individual, climate-change stressors**
2 **limits acclimation capacity of Irukandji jellyfish polyps to predicted**
3 **climate scenarios**

4 Shannon G. Klein^{1,2*}, Kylie A. Pitt¹, Anthony R. Carroll³

5 ¹Australian Rivers Institute – Coasts and Estuaries, Griffith School of Environment, Griffith
6 University, Gold Coast, QLD, 4222, Australia

7 ²King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST), Red Sea Research Center
8 (RSRC), Thuwal, 23955-6900, Saudi Arabia

9 ³Environmental Futures Research Institute, Griffith School of Environment, Griffith
10 University, Gold Coast, QLD, 4222, Australia

11 ***Corresponding Author** Shannon G. Klein, Ph: +966 (12) 808 2640,

12 shannon.klein@kaust.edu.sa

13 **Keywords:** Acclimatisation, Pre-conditioning, Metabolism, Acidification, Warming, $p\text{CO}_2$

14 **Abstract**

15 Researchers have investigated the immediate effects of end-of-century climate-change
16 scenarios on many marine species, yet it remains unclear whether we can reliably predict how
17 marine species may respond to future conditions because biota may become either more or
18 less resistant over time. Here we examined the role of pre-exposure to elevated temperature
19 and reduced pH in mitigating the potential negative effects of future ocean conditions on
20 polyps of a dangerous Irukandji jellyfish *Alatina alata*. We pre-exposed polyps to elevated
21 temperature (28 °C) and reduced pH (7.6), in a full factorial experiment that ran for 14 d. We
22 secondarily exposed original polyps and their daughter polyps to either current (pH 8.0, 25
23 °C) or future conditions (pH 7.6, 28 °C) for a further 34 d to assess potential phenotypically
24 plastic responses and whether asexual offspring could benefit from parental pre-exposure.
25 Polyp fitness was characterised as asexual reproduction, respiration, feeding, and protein
26 concentrations. Pre-exposure to elevated temperature alone partially mitigated the negative
27 effects of future conditions on polyp fitness, while pre-exposure to reduced pH in isolation
28 completely mitigated the negative effects of future conditions on polyp fitness. Pre-exposure
29 to the dual stressors, however, reduced fitness under future conditions relative to those in the
30 control treatment. Under future conditions polyps had higher respiration rates regardless of
31 the conditions they were pre-exposed to, suggesting that metabolic rates will be higher under
32 future conditions. Parent and daughter polyps responded similarly to the various treatments
33 tested, demonstrating that parental pre-exposure did not confer any benefit to asexual
34 offspring under future conditions. Importantly we demonstrate that while pre-exposure to the
35 stressors individually may allow Irukandji polyps to acclimate over short time-scales, the
36 stressors are unlikely to occur in isolation in the long term and thus, warming and
37 acidification in parallel may prevent polyp populations from acclimating to future ocean
38 conditions.

39 **Introduction**

40 Global climate change is predicted to have profound impacts on marine ecosystems. With
41 growing awareness of the vulnerability of marine biota to climate change, many manipulative
42 experiments have exposed biota to predicted end-of-century warming and ocean acidification
43 scenarios to assess their responses to climate change (Munday et al. 2013; Munday 2014).
44 These studies have generally documented negative effects on behaviour (Nagelkerken and
45 Munday 2015; Nagelkerken et al. 2016), physiology (Pörtner 2008), growth, and
46 reproduction for most marine species (Harvey et al. 2013; Kroeker et al. 2013). Evidence is
47 emerging, however, that biota may become more robust to changing ocean conditions over
48 time via genetic adaptation (Munday et al. 2013) and non-genetic processes such as
49 acclimation (Munday 2014; van Oppen et al. 2015; Foo and Byrne 2016).

50 Genetic adaptation is hypothesised to facilitate the persistence of marine species in the
51 face of climate change (Bell 2013; Logan et al. 2014); however, this process typically occurs
52 over many generations and thus is difficult to test in most metazoans (Bell 2013; Logan et al.
53 2014). Non-genetic acclimation (see Munday 2014), however, can occur over shorter
54 timescales such as weeks (e.g. Bellantuono et al. 2011) and months (e.g. Form and Riebesell
55 2012). Most studies that have examined the ability of marine species to acclimate to future
56 ocean conditions pre-expose (or precondition) biota to individual climate-change stressors
57 (e.g. Bellantuono et al. 2011; Miller et al. 2012; Towle et al. 2016). These studies generally
58 demonstrate that pre-exposure to individual climate-change stressors (such as warming or
59 acidification) can induce phenotypically plastic responses that occur within (intra-
60 generational acclimation: Middlebrook et al. 2008; Bellantuono et al. 2011) or across
61 generations (trans-generational acclimation: Donelson et al. 2012; Parker et al. 2015; Thor
62 and Dupont 2015) that help maintain fitness when organisms are re-exposed to the same

63 climate-change stressor. Recently, however, corals chronically exposed to acidification were
64 found to be less tolerant when exposed to a short-term pulse of thermal stress (i.e. mimicking
65 a summer ‘heatwave’) than corals pre-exposed to ambient conditions (Towle et al. 2016).
66 Hence, pre-exposure to a single stressor may worsen the response of biota when exposed to
67 different stressors. Pre-exposure of adult corals to the dual stressors of elevated temperature
68 and $p\text{CO}_2$, however, can facilitate trans-generational acclimation, because larvae of pre-
69 conditioned adult corals exhibited greater metabolic acclimation (higher rates of respiration)
70 under future conditions than those that were not pre-conditioned to the dual stressors (Putnam
71 and Gates 2015). Although these results suggest that pre-exposure to warming and
72 acidification in combination may allow biota to acclimate to future conditions, it remains
73 unclear whether warming, acidification, or the stressors in combination, induce physiological
74 changes that may help biota to acclimate to future conditions.

75 Rapid intra-generational acclimation may be particularly important for marine
76 organisms that rely mostly on asexual reproduction and have long generation times (Sunday
77 et al. 2014; van Oppen et al. 2015). Phenotypically plastic changes that occur in response to
78 changing environmental conditions can occur within a single generation (e.g. Bay and
79 Palumbi 2015) and may be passed to asexually produced clones (van Oppen et al. 2015).
80 Although data are limited in marine species, stress-induced changes have been observed to be
81 inherited across asexual generations of terrestrial plants (Verhoeven et al. 2010). Indeed, the
82 dandelion *Taraxacum officinale* exhibited epigenetic markers after 10–13 weeks of exposure
83 to environmental stress. Genetically identical offspring of pre-exposed *T. officinale* were then
84 maintained under ambient conditions. Although the asexual offspring of *T. officinale* were
85 not exposed to environmental stress, they exhibited the same epigenetic markers as their pre-
86 exposed parents (Verhoeven et al. 2010), demonstrating that phenotypic responses induced
87 by environmental stress can be successfully transmitted to asexual offspring within a single

88 generation. We must now determine whether asexually produced offspring of marine species
89 may benefit from parental preconditioning under changing ocean conditions.

90 Of all marine species that may acclimate to changing ocean conditions, venomous
91 Irukandji jellyfish, a group of at least 14 species that cause a suite of debilitating symptoms
92 known as Irukandji syndrome (see Gershwin et al. 2014), are of major concern because of
93 their severe impacts on human health and enterprise (Carrette et al. 2012). Although northern
94 Australia is a ‘hotspot’ for Irukandji jellyfish, they also occur in many locations worldwide
95 including parts of the continental United States (Grady and Burnett 2003), Hawaii
96 (Yoshimoto and Yanagihara 2002), and the Caribbean (Pommier et al. 2005). Despite their
97 potential to cause severe human health impacts under changing ocean conditions, only one
98 study has examined the immediate effects of warming and acidification on jellyfish polyps
99 (Klein et al. 2014). Although warming enhanced asexual reproduction of the Irukandji
100 jellyfish *Alatina alata*, rates of budding were much slower under reduced pH conditions (pH
101 7.6) suggesting that polyp populations may not thrive in the future (Klein et al. 2014). The
102 potential role of acclimation in mitigating the apparent negative effects of future conditions
103 on Irukandji polyp populations, however, remains unexplored.

104 Here we examine the role of pre-exposure to elevated temperature and reduced pH
105 (separately and in combination), in potentially mitigating the effects of future ocean
106 conditions on polyps of *Alatina alata* (Lawley et al., 2016). This study consisted of two parts:
107 (1) the 14-d pre-exposure phase that exposed polyps to either elevated temperature, reduced
108 pH conditions, the stressors in combination, or ambient (control) conditions; and (2) the
109 secondary exposure, which subsequently exposed polyps to either current or future conditions
110 over 34 d. Fitness was characterised as rates of asexual reproduction, respiration, feeding, and
111 protein concentrations of polyps during the secondary exposure. We hypothesised that A.

112 *alata* polyps pre-exposed to ambient conditions would exhibit negative effects when exposed
113 to future conditions, but that pre-exposure to reduced pH and elevated temperature
114 (separately and simultaneously) would mitigate the negative effects of future conditions. To
115 assess whether pre-exposure of parent polyps would benefit asexual offspring we exposed
116 daughter polyps produced in each pre-exposure treatment to either current or future
117 conditions. We hypothesised that daughter polyps produced by parents pre-exposed to future
118 climate scenarios would exhibit enhanced fitness relative to parent polyps under future
119 conditions. From this experiment, we present novel findings that demonstrate that pre-
120 exposure to simultaneous (but not individual) climate change stressors limits the acclimation
121 capacity of polyps of an Irukandji jellyfish to future climate conditions.

122

123 **Materials and methods**

124 **Species studied**

125 Polyp cultures used in the experiment originated from planula larvae that were collected from
126 adult *A. alata* medusae sampled from spawning aggregations at Osprey Reef, Australia
127 (13.92°S, 146.63°E) during five summer sampling trips between 2000 and 2006 (Carrette et
128 al. 2014). Eight *A. alata* polyps were detached from plastic settling dishes using a stainless
129 steel dissecting probe and transferred into 48 individual glass petri dishes using a glass
130 pipette (i.e. a total of 384 polyps were used). Similarly, additional single polyps were
131 transferred into 24 12.01-mL glass vials. The experiment was done in a controlled-
132 temperature laboratory with the ambient temperature set at 22 °C so that the temperature of
133 all replicate aquaria could be raised to their respective temperature treatments using aquarium
134 heaters. Polyp populations of Irukandji jellyfish (including those of *A. alata*) have not yet

135 been located in the field. Polyps of *A. alata*, however, are hypothesised to occur in deeper
136 waters because optimal thermal and salinity conditions match those in waters <120 m at
137 Osprey Reef, Australia (Courtney and Seymour 2013). All polyps were, therefore, acclimated
138 to laboratory conditions for four weeks at 25 °C (Courtney and Seymour 2013 under a 12:12
139 light:dark cycle in low light conditions ($\sim 97 \mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) to mimic conditions at
140 moderate depths and to prevent algal growth. During acclimation and throughout the
141 experiment, polyps were fed newly hatched *Artemia* sp. nauplii every third day (~ 50 *Artemia*
142 per well, following Courtney and Seymour 2013) and were allowed feed for ca. 2 h.

143 **Pre-exposure phase**

144 The pre-exposure phase consisted of two orthogonal factors: temperature [two levels:
145 ambient (mean \pm SE at 1000 hrs = 25 ± 0.01 °C) and elevated (28 ± 0.01 °C)] and pH [two
146 levels: ambient (pH 8.0 ± 0.02) and reduced (pH 7.6 ± 0.01)]. Nominal future pH and
147 temperature conditions (pH 7.6, 28 °C) were based on RCP8.5 pathway projections for ca.
148 2100 (IPCC 2014). Many coastal ecosystems exhibit substantial diel fluctuations of pH
149 because pH is reduced at night when photosynthesis ceases and community respiration
150 increases (Hofmann et al. 2011). To accurately mimic natural environmental conditions in
151 coastal ecosystems we therefore exposed polyps in all treatments to diel fluctuations of pH
152 (ambient: ~ 7.9 – 8.1 , reduced pH: ~ 7.55 – 7.75) that were based on 24-h field measurements
153 taken in October 2014 in Moreton Bay, Australia (27.13°S, 153.07°E). Six 1-L glass aquaria,
154 each containing two polyp dishes (i.e. 16 polyps in total) and one respiration vial, were
155 randomly allocated to each of the four treatments (n = 24) (Fig. 1). Each replicate aquarium
156 was gently aerated and partially submerged in an individual 5-L water bath. Lids were placed
157 loosely over each aquarium with a header space of ~ 20 mm to minimise evaporation.
158 Aquarium heaters placed in the water baths maintained the desired temperatures within 0.4 °C

159 and aerators circulated water and maintained an even distribution of heat. Approximately
160 20% of seawater within each replicate aquarium was replaced every second day.

161 Each day, polyp dishes were removed from all aquaria and polyps were checked for
162 new buds. To ensure that parents had been exposed to their respective pre-exposure
163 treatments for a reasonable time, only daughter polyps produced after 10 d were used in the
164 secondary exposure. It took 4 d to harvest sufficient daughter polyps from all replicate
165 aquaria but the majority of daughter polyps were harvested after 12 d of pre-exposure.
166 Daughter polyps were transferred into separate glass dishes and were randomly assigned to
167 new aquaria that were maintained at the same experimental conditions as their parents to
168 minimise bias. Similarly, daughter polyps produced in the respiration vials after 10 d were
169 transferred into separate glass vials filled with 10- μ m filtered seawater for measurements of
170 respiration and also placed in separate aquaria. At the end of the pre-exposure phase there
171 were 48 replicate aquaria, consisting of 24 aquaria containing parent polyps and 24 aquaria
172 containing daughter polyps. Parent and daughter dishes within pre-exposure treatments were
173 pooled and then randomly assigned to their respective replicate aquaria to further minimise
174 bias (Fig. 1). The pre-exposure phase ran for 14 d to allow for sufficient time for polyps to
175 asexually reproduce under the various treatments tested.

176 **Experimental approach of the secondary exposure**

177 The secondary exposure consisted of four orthogonal factors: temperature pre-exposure (two
178 levels: 25°C and 28°C), pH pre-exposure (two levels: pH 8.0 and pH 7.6), asexual generation
179 (two levels: parent polyps, daughter polyps) and climate scenario [two levels: current day (pH
180 8.0, 25 °C); and future (pH 7.6, 28 °C)]. Polyps in all treatments were exposed to the same
181 diel fluctuations of pH as those in the pre-exposure phase (current day: ~7.9–8.1, future:
182 ~7.55–7.75). Prior to the secondary exposure, the number of polyps in the dishes and

183 respiration vials were standardised to four and one, respectively. Three replicate 1-L glass
184 aquaria, each containing two polyp dishes (a total of eight polyps) and one vial, were
185 assigned to each of their respective treatment combinations (total n = 48) (Fig. 1). Within
186 each replicate aquarium, one polyp dish was allocated for asexual reproduction measurements
187 and at the end of the secondary exposure, polyps from both dishes were used for
188 measurements of total protein and prey capture rates. Two polyp dishes were allocated to
189 each replicate aquarium to prevent overcrowding of polyps and for ease of removing excess
190 algal growth. The secondary exposure ran for 34 d to allow sufficient time for polyps to
191 asexually reproduce multiple times (Klein et al. 2014).

192 **Manipulation and analysis of water chemistry**

193 To achieve the desired water chemistry conditions of each treatment, a series of gas
194 proportioners were used to deliver CO₂, N₂, and O₂ gas to seawater. The desired gas
195 compositions were mixed from individual gas cylinders using twelve Omega mass flow
196 controllers [FMA-5400s, 0–20 mL min⁻¹ (CO₂), 0–5 L min⁻¹ (N₂), 0–2 L min⁻¹ (O₂);
197 Bockmon et al. 2013]. Two sets of three mass flow controllers were used to deliver gas
198 mixtures to each pH treatment (pH 8.0 and pH 7.6). The mass flow controllers were operated
199 and functions monitored by a desktop PC running NI LabVIEW software (32-bit version)
200 with communication using a voltage-generating Omega expandable modular data acquisition
201 system (iNET-400) connected with three Omega wiring boxes with screw terminals (iNET-
202 510). After the three gases were mixed in the desired proportion for each treatment the gases
203 were then combined in a stainless-steel manifold before the gas line was split, providing
204 identical gas mixtures to the replicate aquaria. Flow rates to replicate aquaria were manually
205 adjusted using secondary stainless-steel manifolds with control valves. For both pH
206 treatments, two gas compositions were determined to closely mimic diel fluctuations in water
207 chemistry in the natural environment (Electronic supplementary material, ESM, Fig. S1). NI

208 LabVIEW software was used to linearly transition between the day and night gas mixtures
209 but gas compositions were held constant at night time (1800–0600 hrs) and between 1000 and
210 1400 hrs.

211 Every third day, temperature, salinity, pH, and DO were measured at midday (ESM
212 Table S1). Salinity and temperature were measured in each aquarium using a conductivity-
213 salinity meter (TPS salinity-conductivity meter, MC-84) and thermometer, respectively. The
214 dissolved oxygen (DO) concentration in each aquarium was recorded using an optic DO
215 sensor (Mettler Toledo OptiOPx, Mettler Toledo Ltd) and exceeded 85% O₂ saturation in all
216 replicates throughout the experiment. The pH of each aquarium was measured using a
217 FiveGo pH meter (Mettler Toledo Ltd) equipped with an Inlab Expert Pro Electrode (Mettler
218 Toledo Ltd). Every 2–3 d, pH electrodes were calibrated using TRIS/HCl buffers in synthetic
219 seawater to ensure accurate measurements of pH in the seawater carbonate system (Dickson
220 et al. 2007). To accurately measure diel patterns of pH during the experiment, pH
221 measurements were taken hourly (between 0600 and 1800 hrs) from one randomly selected
222 replicate from each of the treatments once per week (ESM Fig. S1). Levels of *p*CO₂ were
223 calculated based on measured levels of total alkalinity (TA), pH, temperature, and salinity
224 using the program CO2SYS (Lewis et al. 1998) (ESM Table S1). Every third day, a 100-mL
225 water sample was collected for analysis of TA from one randomly selected replicate from
226 each of the treatments. Samples of seawater (100 mL) were collected in clean amber glass
227 bottles using a drawing tube and overfilled for 10 s to minimise gas exchange between the
228 sample water and the atmosphere. All samples were filtered through 0.22- μ m filters, spiked
229 with 20 μ L of mercuric chloride, sealed tightly, and stored at 3 °C to prevent biological
230 activity until samples were analysed. All TA samples were analysed using a Mettler Toledo
231 T50 automatic titrator, which was also calibrated using TRIS/HCl buffers in synthetic

232 seawater. TA measurements on 50-mL samples of certified reference material (provided by
233 A. G. Dickson, batch #138) were used to verify TA values.

234 **Data collection**

235 Four response variables were measured: asexual reproduction, respiration, protein
236 concentration, and prey capture rate. Each day during the pre-exposure phase, polyps were
237 removed from aquaria and viewed under a dissecting microscope and the number of polyps
238 and their developmental stage (i.e. polyp, budding or partial fission or juvenile medusae) was
239 recorded. During the secondary exposure, polyps were counted every third day and at the end
240 of the experiment, polyp dishes in each replicate aquarium were removed to count and collect
241 polyps for estimations of total protein and rates of prey capture.

242 **Respiration measurements**

243 The respiration rates of polyps in all replicate aquaria were measured during the secondary
244 exposure at Days 1, 4, 14, 24, and 34 using a Unisense PA200 picoammeter equipped with a
245 20–30- μm tip O_2 microsensor (OX-25 Unisense, Denmark). One control (blank) vial was also
246 placed in each replicate aquarium to account for the respiration of bacterial communities and
247 other micro-organisms that had formed during the experiment. All vials were sealed with
248 double-wadded caps designed for multi-sampling and were partially submerged in
249 temperature-controlled water baths that were heated to the same temperature as their
250 respective thermal treatments. The seawater was 0.22- μm filtered and of the same water
251 chemistry as the respective treatments. Water within each vial was gently mixed during the
252 incubation and O_2 saturation was never $<70\%$. O_2 concentrations were determined using a
253 linear equation calculated from a two-point calibration curve (pA at 0% and 100% O_2
254 saturation). For all replicate vials, O_2 consumed by the corresponding blank vials were
255 subtracted from polyp vials to obtain respiration rates of polyps (units: $\text{ng O}_2 \text{ polyp}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$).

256 **Protein estimations**

257 Total protein estimations were measured to investigate potential up- (or down-) regulation of
258 protein synthesis as a means of assessing potential trade-off mechanisms by which polyps
259 acclimated. Ten polyps from each replicate aquarium were transferred into pre-labelled
260 cryogenic centrifuge tubes that contained a cocktail of protease inhibitors (P8340, Sigma-
261 Aldrich) to inhibit protein degradation, diluted to a volume ratio of 1:100 (inhibitor: TRIS
262 buffer). The QuantiPro bicinchoninic acid (BCA) kit (QPBCA, Sigma-Aldrich) was used to
263 measure protein concentrations and bovine serum albumin (BSA, 1.0 mg mL⁻¹ in 0.15M NaCl
264 with 0.05% sodium azide, Sigma-Aldrich) was used as the protein standard. For standard
265 curve determinations, BSA standards (0.5– 30 µg mL⁻¹) were prepared in TRIS and NaCl
266 (artificial seawater) buffers. All samples (in TRIS buffer) that formed a precipitate were
267 centrifuged after colour development and the absorbance of the supernatant measured. The
268 absorbance of all samples at 562 nm was measured against a blank using a UV
269 spectrophotometer (UV-1800, Shimadzu). We compared the standard curves of TRIS and
270 NaCl buffer standards and confirmed that the formation of the precipitate in TRIS buffer
271 samples did not affect colour development, and thus did not affect protein estimations of
272 polyp samples.

273 **Measurements of prey capture rates**

274 At the end of the secondary exposure, four polyps from each replicate aquarium were
275 transferred into individual wells of a 96-well plate. *Artemia* sp. nauplii were used as prey to
276 examine the prey capture rate of polyps. Each well contained 10-µm filtered seawater. Polyps
277 were allowed ~1 h to acclimate to well conditions. During the acclimation period, seawater
278 was partially replenished every 10 min to maintain normoxic conditions. Approximately 15
279 *Artemia* sp. nauplii were added to each well, and the time and exact number of nauplii added

280 to each well was recorded. To ensure that DO concentrations within individual wells
281 remained normoxic during the feeding experiments, polyps were allowed to feed for 20 min
282 before the number of remaining prey was recorded in each well. Prey capture rates of polyps
283 from each replicate aquarium were summed across the four polyp wells for statistical
284 analyses (i.e. the unit of replication was the average percentage of prey captured across the
285 four polyp wells for each aquarium).

286 **Statistical analyses**

287 The dependent variables—number of polyps, protein concentration (ng polyp^{-1}), and prey
288 capture rates (% prey captured) at Day 34— were analysed using linear mixed models
289 (LMMs) in SPSS. The four fixed factors were temperature pre-exposure, pH pre-exposure,
290 asexual generation, and climate scenario. The dependent variable respiration ($\text{ng O}_2 \text{ polyp}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$)
291 in all treatments was analysed using repeated measures LMMs. The five fixed factors were
292 temperature pre-exposure, pH pre-exposure, asexual generation, climate scenario, and time,
293 which was the repeated measure. A range of models were investigated to assess the model of
294 best fit by comparing various goodness-of-fit statistics (e.g. -2 Restricted Log Likelihood,
295 Akaike's Information Criteria (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC)). To test for
296 potential aquarium bias, we included a random factor aquarium (or block) into all LMMs
297 analyses. Preliminary analyses for all dependent variables, however, revealed no significant
298 effects of aquarium, so the factor was removed and the analyses re-run. Data were checked
299 for normality and homoscedasticity using standardised residual and Q-Q plots and if required,
300 data were either \ln or $\ln(x+1)$ transformed. If significant differences were found, estimated
301 marginal means (post-hoc comparisons of least-squares means) were used to determine which
302 means differed using the EMMEANS sub-command to obtain estimated marginal means for
303 the significant, highest-order terms. Multiple comparisons were done for all relevant fixed
304 factors.

305 **Results**

306 **Survival and asexual reproduction**

307 All polyps of *A. alata* survived experimentation and the number of polyps increased in all
308 treatments during the secondary exposure. There was no difference between parent and
309 daughter polyps for any of the response variables tested (Tables 1, 2). At the end of the
310 secondary exposure, numbers of polyps varied substantially among treatments, resulting in a
311 significant pH \times temp \times climate scenario interaction (Table 1; Fig. 2). Specifically, polyps
312 pre-exposed to ambient conditions produced 56% fewer polyps when exposed to future
313 conditions than polyps that remained in ambient conditions. Polyps pre-exposed only to
314 elevated temperature produced 29% fewer polyps when exposed to future conditions relative
315 to those in the control treatment, but 52% more than the treatment that had been pre-exposed
316 to ambient conditions and transferred to future conditions (Fig. 2). Polyps pre-exposed to
317 reduced pH alone produced a similar number of polyps when exposed to future conditions to
318 those in the control treatment but substantially more polyps than the treatment that had been
319 pre-exposed to ambient conditions and transferred to future conditions. Polyps pre-exposed to
320 the stressors simultaneously, however, produced approximately 43% fewer polyps than those
321 in the control treatment, regardless of whether they had been transferred to ambient or future
322 conditions (Fig. 2). Thus, pre-exposure to elevated temperature alone appeared to partially
323 mitigate the negative effects of future conditions on polyp fitness, while pre-exposure to
324 reduced pH alone completely mitigated the negative effects of future conditions on polyp
325 fitness. Pre-exposure to the stressors in combination, however, did not appear to sustain polyp
326 fitness under future conditions.

327

328 **Respiration rates**

329 The temporal variation in respiration rates differed among treatments, resulting in a
330 significant pH \times climate scenario \times day interaction (Table 2; Fig. 3a, b). Overall, respiration
331 rates were higher under future conditions compared to ambient conditions, regardless of
332 whether polyps had been pre-exposed to low or ambient pH (Fig. 3a, b). The only exception
333 was for Day 1 of the secondary exposure where respiration rates did not differ between
334 ambient and future conditions for polyps pre-exposed to ambient conditions (Fig. 3a). Polyps
335 pre-exposed to ambient pH had respiration rates that were ~63% higher under future
336 conditions than those in ambient conditions (Fig. 3a). Similarly, after Day 1 of the secondary
337 exposure, respiration rates of polyps pre-exposed to reduced pH were ~52% higher when
338 exposed to future conditions than those under ambient conditions (Fig. 3b).

339 **Protein concentrations**

340 At the end of the secondary exposure, protein concentrations varied substantially among
341 treatments, resulting in the pH \times temp \times climate scenario interaction (Table 1; Fig. 4). At the
342 end of the secondary exposure, polyps pre-exposed to ambient conditions had 55% lower
343 protein concentrations when exposed to future conditions than polyps that remained in
344 ambient conditions. Conversely, polyps pre-exposed to high temperature and reduced pH
345 individually and in combination had similar protein concentrations regardless of whether they
346 were exposed to ambient or future conditions (Fig. 4). Overall, pre-exposure to high
347 temperature and reduced pH individually appeared to mitigate the negative effects of future
348 conditions on protein concentrations because the protein content of these polyps was greater
349 than for the polyps that had been pre-exposed to ambient conditions and transferred to future
350 conditions. Polyps pre-exposed to the dual stressors, however, had 48% lower protein
351 concentrations when exposed to future conditions than those in the control treatment. The
352 response of these polyps was no different to the polyps raised in ambient conditions and
353 subsequently transferred to future conditions (Fig. 4).

354 **Rates of prey capture**

355 We examined the ability of polyps to capture prey at the end of the secondary exposure to
356 evaluate energy intake and thus, their ability to support basal maintenance costs. Specifically,
357 prey capture rates varied among pre-exposure treatments, but patterns were not consistent
358 among climate change scenario treatments (Table 1; Fig. 5). Polyps pre-exposed to ambient
359 conditions exhibited similar rates of prey capture when exposed to future conditions to those
360 that remained in ambient conditions (Fig. 5). Similarly, polyps pre-exposed to high
361 temperature and reduced pH individually exhibited similar rates of pre-capture regardless of
362 whether they were subsequently exposed to ambient or future conditions. Overall, polyps pre-
363 exposed to high temperature and reduced pH individually had (on average) 32% lower prey
364 capture rates than those in the control treatment, regardless of the conditions they were
365 subsequently exposed to. These polyps, however, produced ~65% more polyps than the
366 treatment that had been pre-exposed to the dual stressors and remained in future conditions.
367 Prey capture rates of polyps pre-exposed to reduced pH and high temperature in combination
368 were 75% lower than those that were subsequently exposed to ambient conditions (Fig. 5).
369 Polyps that were pre-exposed to high temperature and reduced pH in combination and
370 remained in future conditions were exposed to the dual stressors for a longer period of time
371 overall than other treatments and exhibited lower prey capture rates than those in all other
372 treatments (Fig. 5).

373

374 **Discussion**

375 Pre-exposure to individual climate-change stressors can induce phenotypically plastic
376 responses that allow marine biota to cope under future conditions (e.g. Bellantuono et al.
377 2011; Miller et al. 2012; Towle et al. 2016). Our data are consistent with these observations,

378 specifically that pre-exposure to reduced pH appeared to completely sustain fitness under
379 future conditions, whereas pre-exposure to elevated temperature appeared to only partly
380 mitigate the negative effects of future conditions. Ocean warming and acidification, however,
381 are occurring concurrently on a global scale (IPCC 2014) and thus, biota are likely to be
382 exposed to these stressors simultaneously. Most importantly, we observed that polyps pre-
383 exposed to elevated temperature and reduced pH in combination did not sustain fitness under
384 future climate-change conditions. Our observations suggest that Irukandji polyp populations,
385 such as those of *A. alata*, are likely to persist but asexually reproduce at a slower rate in
386 response to the dual stressors. Studies that pre-expose biota to individual climate-change
387 stressors may be limited in their ability to provide a realistic understanding of how biota are
388 likely to acclimate to warming and acidification in parallel. These observations highlight the
389 importance of investigating how pre-exposure to multiple stressors may confer effects that
390 differ from those when biota are pre-exposed to the stressors individually.

391 Marine organisms may acclimate to future conditions by altering the relative amount
392 of energy allocated to metabolic processes to maintain fitness (Sunday et al. 2014). Although
393 studies of the effects of warming and acidification on physiological trade-offs in marine
394 organisms are limited, observations of biota exposed to acidification demonstrate that marine
395 organisms may acclimate to high CO₂ conditions by re-allocating energy to different
396 functions (e.g. Reipschläger and Pörtner 1996; Pörtner and Bock 2000; Michaelidis et al.
397 2005). Indeed, exposure to reduced pH conditions (pH 7.7–6.8) over 40 d increased rates of
398 calcification and respiration in the brittle star *Amphiura filiformis* (Wood et al. 2008). These
399 compensatory mechanisms, however, coincided with the partial resorption of arm muscles of
400 *A. filiformis* and suggest that while the upregulation of metabolism and calcification may
401 potentially mitigate the effects of acidification conditions on *A. filiformis*, these mechanisms
402 may come at a substantial cost because of elevated energy demands under elevated *p*CO₂

403 conditions (Wood et al. 2008). In our study, respiration rates of polyps were higher under
404 future conditions regardless of the conditions to which polyps were pre-exposed.
405 Observations of asexual reproduction and protein concentrations, however, demonstrate that
406 only pre-exposure to the stressors individually mitigated the negative effects of future
407 conditions. Pre-exposure to the stressors individually probably induced physiological changes
408 that allowed polyps to cope under future conditions, but polyps pre-exposed to the dual
409 stressors may have re-allocated energy away from reproduction and protein synthesis to
410 support basal maintenance costs under future conditions. Although we did not investigate
411 specific compensatory mechanisms, these results further support the observations that marine
412 organisms may increase metabolic rates to compensate for the additional energy expenses of
413 basal maintenance under changing ocean conditions (Calow 1991; Pörtner et al. 2006;
414 Sokolova 2013).

415 The ability of marine species to acquire and assimilate food may ultimately determine
416 their ability to support basal maintenance costs and survive under changing ocean conditions
417 (Sokolova 2013). Indeed, reduced rates of feeding and assimilation may decrease the fitness
418 of biota under future climate-change conditions because there is less energy available for
419 growth and reproduction after energy is allocated to maintaining basal maintenance. For
420 example, consumption rates of the sea urchin *Lytechinus variegatus* increased when
421 temperature was elevated to 29 °C but decreased when exposed to 31 °C (Lemoine and
422 Burkepile 2012). Respiration rates of *L. variegatus*, however, increased exponentially with
423 increasing temperature (20–31 °C). Reduced consumption rates and elevated rates of
424 metabolism under more extreme temperature conditions (31 °C) reduced the ingestion
425 efficiency of *L. variegatus* by ~50% and was hypothesised to reduce overall fitness (Lemoine
426 and Burkepile 2012). In the current study, polyps pre-exposed to high temperature and
427 reduced pH in combination had the lowest food consumption rates when exposed to future

428 conditions, which suggests that basal maintenance costs of polyps will probably be higher in
429 response to the dual stressors and ultimately reduce rates of asexual reproduction, similar to
430 the results of asexual reproduction and protein concentrations. We therefore advocate that for
431 experiments to accurately predict the response of marine organisms over longer timeframes,
432 they should measure multiple responses to assess potential trade-offs that may lead to overall
433 reductions in fitness.

434 Parent and daughter polyps responded similarly to the various treatments tested.
435 These observations do not support the hypothesis that pre-exposure of parent polyps to
436 elevated temperature and reduced pH would confer benefits to daughter polyps under future
437 conditions. We cannot determine whether non-genetic changes were passed on to genetically
438 identical offspring because this study did not identify potential non-genetic mechanisms
439 (such as the transmission of specific proteins and hormones) or epi-genetic factors (e.g. DNA
440 methylation) because they typically require advanced whole transcriptomic approaches (e.g.
441 Moya et al. 2012; Pespeni et al. 2013). To better determine whether genetically identical
442 offspring inherit phenotypically plastic responses from parents that are pre-exposed to
443 climate-change stressors, we must now identify potential non-genetic mechanisms and epi-
444 genetic markers that may allow asexual offspring to benefit from parental pre-exposure.

445 Our finding that pre-exposure to the combined effects of reduced pH and elevated
446 temperature did not mitigate the effects of future conditions on *A. alata* polyps contrasts with
447 those of the only other study to examine whether preconditioning to warming and
448 acidification in combination could mitigate the negative effects of future conditions (Putnam
449 and Gates 2015). Preconditioning of the symbiotic and calcifying coral, *Pocillopora*
450 *damicornis*, to constant levels of elevated temperature and reduced pH over 1.5 months
451 resulted in greater metabolic acclimation of their larvae under future conditions than those of
452 colonies that were preconditioned to ambient conditions (Putnam and Gates 2015). These

453 results suggest that trans-generational acclimation may be important in the persistence of
454 marine species under the effects of the dual stressors. Results of our study, however, suggest
455 that although polyps of *A. alata* pre-exposed to the dual stressors survived, they may have a
456 limited ability to acclimate to the combined effects of warming and acidification within a
457 single generation. *Pocillopora damicornis* may have acclimated to the combined effects of
458 warming and acidification because symbiotic dinoflagellates (such as *Symbiodinium*) can
459 exert significant control over the internal pH of host tissues (Laurent et al. 2013, 2014;
460 Gibbin et al. 2014; Klein et al. 2017) and thus, symbionts were probably important in
461 mitigating the negative effects of acidification on *P. damicornis*. Consequently, differences in
462 results between Putnam and Gates (2015) and this study could be attributed to the absence of
463 endosymbionts in polyps of *A. alata*. These observations highlight how symbiotic and non-
464 symbiotic cnidarians may acclimate differently to warming and acidification in combination.

465 The extent to which we can accurately predict how marine species, such as *A. alata*,
466 may respond to changing ocean conditions depends partly on whether biota can acclimate or
467 adapt over longer time scales than those tested in manipulative experiments. The duration of
468 pre-exposure in studies that have examined the ability of marine species to acclimate to future
469 ocean conditions can vary from hours (e.g. Middlebrook et al. 2008) or days (e.g.
470 Bellantuono et al. 2011), to months (e.g. Form and Riebesell 2012). Indeed, recent evidence
471 suggests that the duration of pre-exposure (or preconditioning) can either limit or enhance the
472 ability of marine species to acclimate (Foo and Byrne 2016). For example, adult sea urchins,
473 *Psammechinus miliaris*, pre-exposed to reduced pH for 70 d produced smaller larvae than
474 those produced by parents pre-exposed to reduced pH over 28 and 42 d (Suckling et al.
475 2014). Conversely, larvae of adult sea urchins, *Strongylocentrotus droebachiensis*,
476 acclimated to reduced pH for 16 months had greater survival rates than those of adults
477 acclimated to reduced pH for only 4 months (Dupont et al. 2013). In the current study, polyps

478 of *A. alata* were pre-exposed to warming and acidification (separately and in combination)
479 over 14 d to allow for sufficient time for polyps to asexually reproduce under the various
480 treatments tested. Polyps appeared to acclimate to warming and acidification in isolation, but
481 their acclimation capacity was limited when the stressors co-occurred. It is possible that a
482 longer pre-exposure phase that exposed multiple asexual generations of *A. alata* polyps to the
483 dual stressors may have yielded a different response. Combined, these studies highlight the
484 need to consider the duration of reproduction and development of individual marine species
485 when assessing appropriate acclimation periods because the rates of such processes may
486 differ considerably among marine species.

487 Marine biota are often subject to fluctuations in environmental conditions due to
488 changes associated with tidal and diel cycles (Hofmann et al. 2011), nutrient input (Frieder et
489 al. 2014) and seasonal extremes (Pennington and Chavez 2000). In some cases, diel
490 fluctuations in pH and temperature exceed future climate change projections (e.g. pH:
491 Hofmann et al. 2011; temperature: Oliver and Palumbi 2011) and may act to precondition or
492 pre-expose biota to elevated temperature and reduced pH conditions; thus, biota may become
493 more robust to future ocean conditions (Byrne and Przeslawski 2013). To persist under future
494 climate-change conditions, however, phenotypically plastic responses induced by
495 environmental fluctuations must persist when environmental conditions return to ambient. In
496 our study, polyps pre-exposed to elevated temperature and reduced pH individually (but not
497 simultaneously) had similar protein concentrations, rates of asexual reproduction and prey-
498 capture regardless of whether they subsequently transferred to future or ambient conditions.
499 Although data are limited, our observations are generally consistent with studies that
500 demonstrate that phenotypically plastic responses persist when biota are subsequently
501 returned to ambient (or control) conditions (e.g. Middlebrook et al. 2008; Hettinger et al.
502 2012; Putnam and Gates 2015). For example, exposing larvae of the Olympia oyster (*Ostrea*

503 *lurida*) to acidification reduced juvenile shell sizes and these changes persisted for >1.5
504 months after juveniles were subsequently transferred to ambient conditions (Hettinger et al.
505 2012). These observations thus demonstrated persistent carry-over effects from the larval
506 phase. Taken together these observations further highlight the need to examine the duration
507 and magnitude of acclimation processes and that phenotypically plastic responses that occur
508 during environmental fluctuations may ultimately determine the response of biota to future
509 climate-change conditions.

510 Northern Australia is a ‘hot spot’ for dangerous cubozoan jellyfish but envenomations
511 occur throughout the tropics worldwide (Gershwin et al. 2010). Our results suggest that, if
512 other cubozoan jellyfish respond similarly, polyp populations are likely to persist but
513 reproduce asexually at a slower rate in response to the dual stressors. To more accurately
514 predict how Irukandji jellyfish, as a group, are likely to respond to future conditions, we must
515 now determine whether results of this study are consistent with other species and other life-
516 history stages. To better determine whether asexual offspring of other non-calcifying
517 cnidarians may benefit from parental pre-exposure in the face of climate change, we must
518 also identify potential non-genetic mechanisms and epi-genetic factors that may be passed to
519 asexual offspring. Importantly, we highlight the need to investigate how pre-exposure to
520 individual stressors may impart effects that differ from those of pre-exposure to multiple
521 stressors and demonstrate that biota may acclimate to future climate conditions over short
522 time scales. Only through the combination of manipulative experiments, such as this one, and
523 monitoring studies that measure long-term changes in abundance and distribution of marine
524 species (e.g. Chivers et al. 2017), is it possible to accurately assess how biota respond to
525 changing ocean conditions.

526 **Acknowledgements**

527 Funding for this study was provided by Griffith University and an Australian Post-graduate
528 Award to S.G.K. We thank W. Bennett, F. Leusch, D. Welsh and D. Tonzing for technical
529 assistance and, J. Arthur and J. Hay for statistical advice. We also thank R. Courtney and J.
530 Seymour from James Cook University, Townsville for cultures of *A. alata* polyps.

531 **References**

- 532 Bay RA, Palumbi SR (2015) Rapid acclimation ability mediated by transcriptome changes in
533 reef-building corals. *Genome Biol Evol* 7:1602–1612
- 534 Bell G (2013) Evolutionary rescue and the limits of adaptation. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B*
535 *Biol Sci* 368:20120080
- 536 Bellantuono AJ, Hoegh-Guldberg O, Rodriguez-Lanetty M (2011) Resistance to thermal
537 stress in corals without changes in symbiont composition. *Proc R Soc Lond B Biol*
538 *Sci* 279:1100–1107
- 539 Bockmon E, Frieder C, Navarro M, White-Kershek L, Dickson A (2013) Controlled
540 experimental aquarium system for multi-stressor investigation of carbonate chemistry,
541 oxygen saturation, and temperature. *Biogeosciences* 10:5967–5975
- 542 Byrne M, Przeslawski R (2013) Multistressor impacts of warming and acidification of the
543 ocean on marine invertebrates' life histories. *Integr Comp Biol* 53:582–596
- 544 Calow P (1991) Physiological costs of combating chemical toxicants: ecological
545 implications. *Comp Biochem Physiol C Comp Pharmacol* 100:3–6
- 546 Carrette TJ, Underwood AH, Seymour JE (2012) Irukandji syndrome: a widely
547 misunderstood and poorly researched tropical marine envenoming. *Diving Hyperb*
548 *Med* 42:214–223
- 549 Carrette TJ, Straehler-Pohl I, Seymour J (2014) Early life history of *Alatina* cf. *moseri*
550 populations from Australia and Hawaii with implications for taxonomy (Cubozoa:
551 Carybdeida, Alatinidae). *PLoS One* 9:e84377
- 552 Chivers WJ, Walne AW, Hays GC (2017) Mismatch between marine plankton range
553 movements and the velocity of climate change. *Nat Commun* 8:14434
- 554 Courtney R, Seymour J (2013) Seasonality in polyps of a tropical cubozoan: *Alatina* nr
555 *mordens*. *PLoS One* 8:e69369
- 556 Dickson AG, Sabine CL, Christian JR (2007) Guide to best practices for ocean CO₂
557 measurements. PICES Special Publication 3, North Pacific Marine Science
558 Organization, Sidney, BC, Canada, 191 pp
- 559 Donelson J, Munday P, McCormick M, Pitcher C (2012) Rapid transgenerational acclimation
560 of a tropical reef fish to climate change. *Nat Clim Chang* 2:30–32
- 561 Dupont S, Dorey N, Stumpp M, Melzner F, Thorndyke M (2013) Long-term and trans-life-
562 cycle effects of exposure to ocean acidification in the green sea urchin
563 *Strongylocentrotus droebachiensis*. *Mar Biol* 160:1835–1843
- 564 Foo SA, Byrne M (2016) Acclimatization and adaptive capacity of marine species in a
565 changing ocean. *Adv Mar Biol* 74:69–116
- 566 Form AU, Riebesell U (2012) Acclimation to ocean acidification during long-term CO₂
567 exposure in the cold-water coral *Lophelia pertusa*. *Glob Chang Biol* 18:843–853

568 Frieder CA, Gonzalez JP, Bockmon EE, Navarro MO, Levin LA (2014) Can variable pH and
569 low oxygen moderate ocean acidification outcomes for mussel larvae? *Glob Chang*
570 *Biol* 20:754–764

571 Gershwin LA, De Nardi M, Winkel KD, Fenner PJ (2010) Marine stingers: review of an
572 under-recognized global coastal management issue. *Coast Manage* 38:22–41

573 Gershwin LA, Condie SA, Mansbridge JV, Richardson AJ (2014) Dangerous jellyfish
574 blooms are predictable. *J R Soc Interface* 11:20131168

575 Gibbin EM, Putnam HM, Davy SK, Gates RD (2014) Intracellular pH and its response to
576 CO₂-driven seawater acidification in symbiotic versus non-symbiotic coral cells. *J*
577 *Exp Biol* 217:1963–1969

578 Grady JD, Burnett JW (2003) Irukandji-like syndrome in South Florida divers. *Ann Emerg*
579 *Med* 42:763–766

580 Harvey BP, Gwynn-Jones D, Moore PJ (2013) Meta-analysis reveals complex marine
581 biological responses to the interactive effects of ocean acidification and warming.
582 *Ecol Evol* 3:1016–1030

583 Hettinger A, Sanford E, Hill TM, Russell AD, Sato KN, Hoey J, Forsch M, Page HN,
584 Gaylord B (2012) Persistent carry-over effects of planktonic exposure to ocean
585 acidification in the Olympia oyster. *Ecology* 93:2758–2768

586 Hofmann GE, Smith JE, Johnson KS, Send U, Levin LA, Micheli F, Paytan A, Price NN,
587 Peterson B, Takeshita Y (2011) High-frequency dynamics of ocean pH: a multi-
588 ecosystem comparison. *PLoS One* 6:e28983

589 IPCC (2014) Climate change 2014: synthesis report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II
590 and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
591 Change. IPCC, Geneva, Switzerland

592 Klein SG, Pitt KA, Rathjen KA, Seymour JE (2014) Irukandji jellyfish polyps exhibit
593 tolerance to interacting climate change stressors. *Glob Chang Biol* 20:28–37

594 Klein SG, Pitt KA, Nitschke MR, Goyen S, Welsh DT, Suggett DJ, Carroll AR (2017)
595 *Symbiodinium* mitigate the combined effects of hypoxia and acidification on a non-
596 calcifying cnidarian. *Glob Chang Biol* [doi:10.1111/gcb.13718]

597 Kroeker KJ, Kordas RL, Crim R, Hendriks IE, Ramajo L, Singh GS, Duarte CM, Gattuso J
598 (2013) Impacts of ocean acidification on marine organisms: quantifying sensitivities
599 and interaction with warming. *Glob Chang Biol* 19:1884–1896

600 Laurent J, Tambutté S, Tambutté É, Allemand D, Venn A (2013) The influence of
601 photosynthesis on host intracellular pH in scleractinian corals. *J Exp Biol* 216:1398–
602 1404

603 Laurent J, Venn A, Tambutté É, Ganot P, Allemand D, Tambutté S (2014) Regulation of
604 intracellular pH in cnidarians: response to acidosis in *Anemonia viridis*. *FEBS J*
605 281:683–695

606 Lawley JW, Ames CL, Bentlage B, Yanagihara A, Goodwill R, Kayal E, Hurwitz K, Collins
607 AG (2016) Box jellyfish *Alatina alata* has a circumtropical distribution. *Biol Bull*
608 231:152–169

609 Lemoine NP, Burkepile DE (2012) Temperature-induced mismatches between consumption
610 and metabolism reduce consumer fitness. *Ecology* 93:2483–2489

611 Lewis E, Wallace D, Allison LJ (1998) Program developed for CO₂ system calculations.
612 ORNL/CDIAC-105, Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, US Department of
613 Energy, TN

614 Logan CA, Dunne JP, Eakin CM, Donner SD (2014) Incorporating adaptive responses into
615 future projections of coral bleaching. *Glob Chang Biol* 20:125–139

616 Michaelidis B, Ouzounis C, Paleras A, Pörtner HO (2005) Effects of long-term moderate
617 hypercapnia on acid–base balance and growth rate in marine mussels. *Mytilus*
618 *galloprovincialis*. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 293:109–118

619 Middlebrook R, Hoegh-Guldberg O, Leggat W (2008) The effect of thermal history on the
620 susceptibility of reef-building corals to thermal stress. *J Exp Biol* 211:1050–1056

621 Miller GM, Watson S-A, Donelson JM, McCormick MI, Munday PL (2012) Parental
622 environment mediates impacts of increased carbon dioxide on a coral reef fish. *Nat*
623 *Clim Chang* 2:858–861

624 Moya A, Huisman L, Ball E, Hayward D, Grasso L, Chua C, Woo H, Gattuso JP, Foret S,
625 Miller DJ (2012) Whole transcriptome analysis of the coral *Acropora millepora*
626 reveals complex responses to CO₂-driven acidification during the initiation of
627 calcification. *Mol Ecol* 21:2440–2454

628 Munday PL (2014) Transgenerational acclimation of fishes to climate change and ocean
629 acidification. *F1000Prime Rep* 6:99

630 Munday PL, Warner RR, Monro K, Pandolfi JM, Marshall DJ (2013) Predicting evolutionary
631 responses to climate change in the sea. *Ecol Lett* 16:1488–1500

632 Nagelkerken I, Munday PL (2015) Animal behaviour shapes the ecological effects of ocean
633 acidification and warming: moving from individual to community-level responses.
634 *Glob Chang Biol* 22:974–989

635 Nagelkerken I, Pitt KA, Rutte MD, Geertsma RC (2016) Ocean acidification alters fish–
636 jellyfish symbiosis. *Proc R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 283:20161146

637 Oliver T, Palumbi S (2011) Do fluctuating temperature environments elevate coral thermal
638 tolerance? *Coral Reefs* 30:429–440

639 Parker LM, O’Connor WA, Raftos DA, Pörtner HO, Ross PM (2015) Persistence of positive
640 carryover effects in the oyster *Saccostrea glomerata*, following transgenerational
641 exposure to ocean acidification. *PLoS One* 10: e0132276

642 Pennington JT, Chavez FP (2000) Seasonal fluctuations of temperature, salinity, nitrate,
643 chlorophyll and primary production at station H3/M1 over 1989–1996 in Monterey
644 Bay, California. *Deep Sea Res Part 2 Top Stud Oceanogr* 47:947–973

645 Pespeni MH, Sanford E, Gaylord B, Hill TM, Hosfelt JD, Jaris HK, LaVigne M, Lenz EA,
646 Russell AD, Young MK (2013) Evolutionary change during experimental ocean
647 acidification. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 110:6937–6942

648 Pommier P, Coulanges M, De Haro L (2005) Systemic envenomation by jellyfish in
649 Guadeloupe: Irukandji-like syndrome? *Med Trop (Mars)* 65:367–369

650 Pörtner H (2008) Ecosystem effects of ocean acidification in times of ocean warming: a
651 physiologist's view. *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 373:203–217

652 Pörtner HO, Bock C (2000) A contribution of acid–base regulation to metabolic depression in
653 marine ectotherms. In: *Life in the cold* (eds. G. Heldmaier and M. Klingenspor).
654 Springer, Berlin Heidelberg, pp 443–458

655 Pörtner HO, Peck LS, Hirse T (2006) Hyperoxia alleviates thermal stress in the Antarctic
656 bivalve, *Laternula elliptica*: evidence for oxygen limited thermal tolerance. *Polar Biol*
657 29:688–693

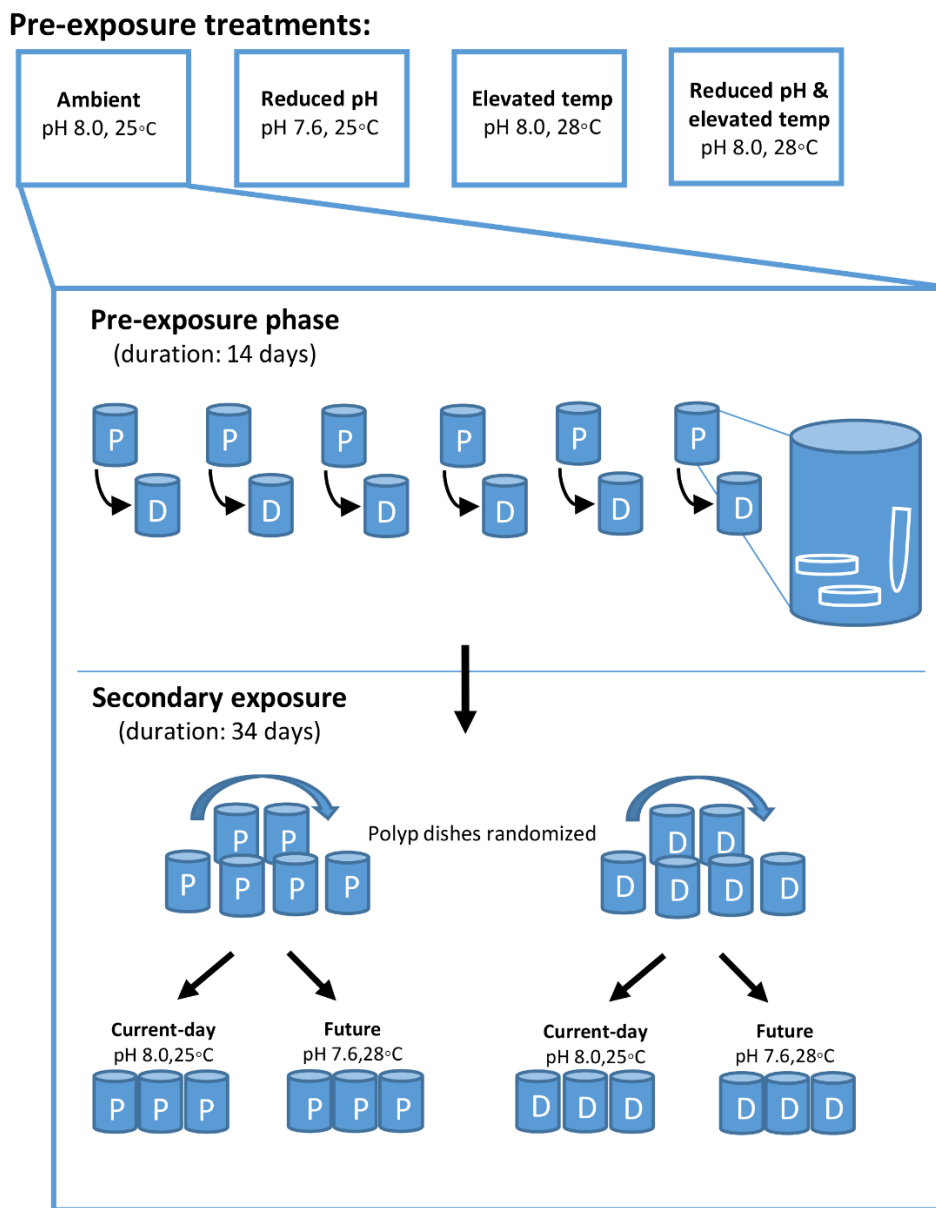
658 Putnam HM, Gates RD (2015) Preconditioning in the reef-building coral *Pocillopora*
659 *damicornis* and the potential for trans-generational acclimatization in coral larvae
660 under future climate change conditions. *J Exp Biol* 218:2365–2372

661 Reipschläger A, Pörtner H-O (1996) Metabolic depression during environmental stress: the
662 role of extracellular versus intracellular pH in *Sipunculus nudus*. *J Exp Biol*
663 199:1801–1807

664 Sokolova IM (2013) Energy-limited tolerance to stress as a conceptual framework to
665 integrate the effects of multiple stressors. *Integr Comp Biol* 2013:ict028

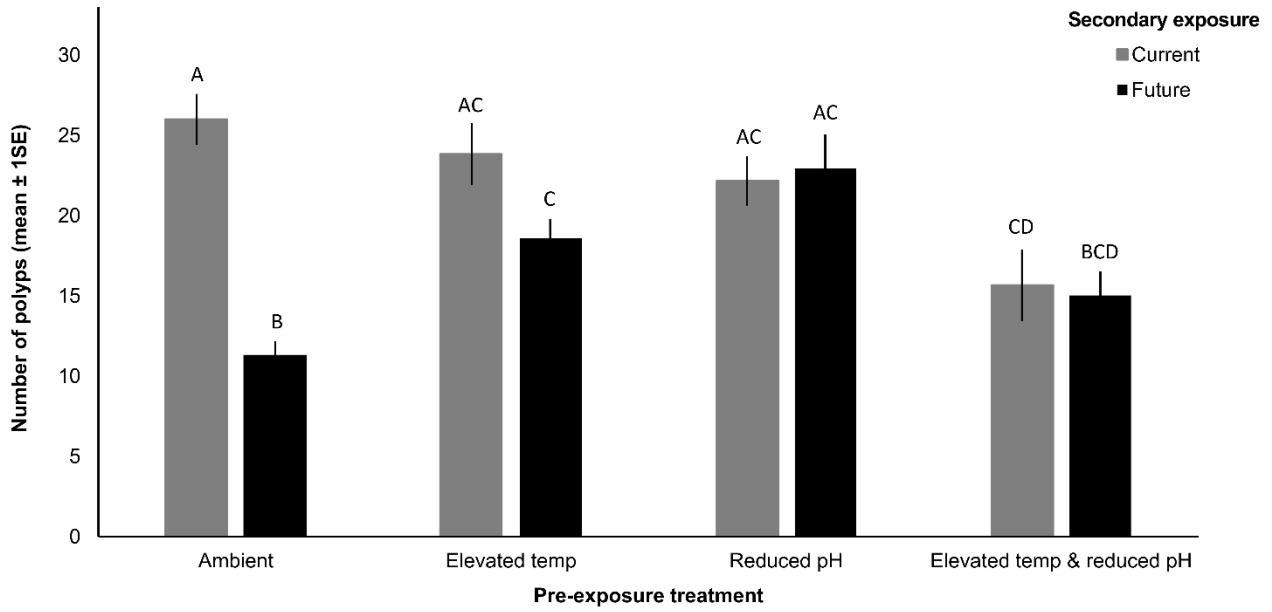
- 666 Suckling CC, Clark MS, Beveridge C, Brunner L, Hughes AD, Harper EM, Cook EJ, Davies
667 AJ, Peck LS (2014) Experimental influence of pH on the early lifestages of sea
668 urchins II: increasing parental exposure times gives rise to different responses.
669 *Invertebr Reprod Dev* 58:161–175
- 670 Sunday JM, Calosi P, Dupont S, Munday PL, Stillman JH, Reusch TB (2014) Evolution in an
671 acidifying ocean. *Trends Ecol Evol* 29:117–125
- 672 Thor P, Dupont S (2015) Transgenerational effects alleviate severe fecundity loss during
673 ocean acidification in a ubiquitous planktonic copepod. *Glob Chang Biol* 21:2261–
674 2271
- 675 Towle EK, Baker AC, Langdon C (2016) Preconditioning to high CO₂ exacerbates the
676 response of the Caribbean branching coral *Porites porites* to high temperature stress.
677 *Mar Ecol Prog Ser* 546:75–84
- 678 van Oppen MJ, Oliver JK, Putnam HM, Gates RD (2015) Building coral reef resilience
679 through assisted evolution. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 112:2307–2313
- 680 Verhoeven KJ, Jansen JJ, Van Dijk PJ, Biere A (2010) Stress-induced DNA methylation
681 changes and their heritability in asexual dandelions. *New Phytol* 185:1108–1118
- 682 Wood HL, Spicer JJ, Widdicombe S (2008) Ocean acidification may increase calcification
683 rates, but at a cost. *Proc R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 275:1767–1773
- 684 Yoshimoto CM, Yanagihara AA (2002) Cnidarian (coelenterate) envenomations in Hawai'i
685 improve following heat application. *Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg* 96:300–303
- 686

ACCEPTED

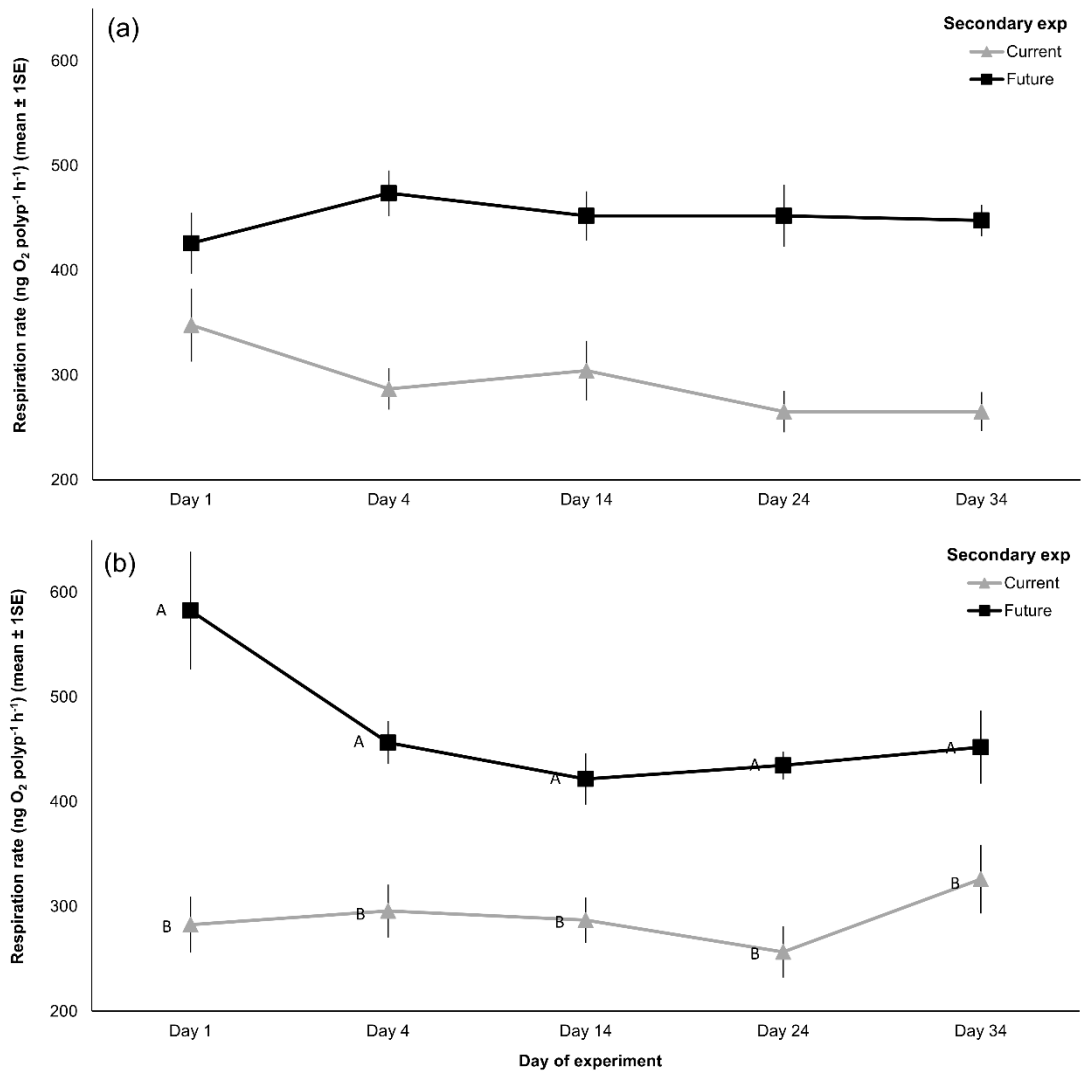


688

689 **Fig. 1** Schematic diagram of experimental design that consisted of two parts: a 14-d pre-
 690 exposure phase that exposed polyps to either elevated temperature, reduced pH conditions,
 691 the stressors in combination, or ambient (control) conditions; and a secondary exposure,
 692 which subsequently exposed parent (*P*) and daughter (*D*) polyps to either current or future
 693 conditions over 34 d. Each 1-L glass aquarium contained two polyp dishes and one
 694 respiration vial. Note: for each pre-exposure treatment, polyp dishes for parent and daughter
 695 polyps were pooled across replicate aquaria and randomly assigned to secondary exposure
 696 treatments to reduce bias

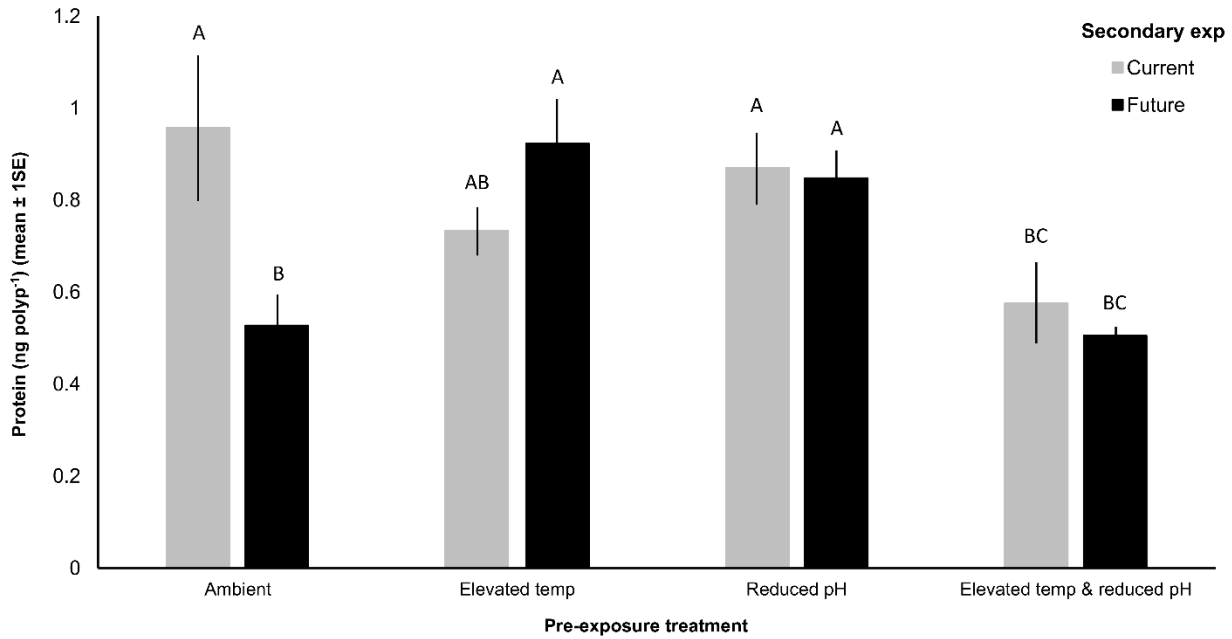


697 **Fig. 2** Number of polyps (mean ± SE) recorded at Day 34 of the secondary exposure (n = 48).
 698 Letters above data points indicate similarities (e.g. AA) and differences (e.g. AB) among all
 699 treatments, as determined by estimated marginal means

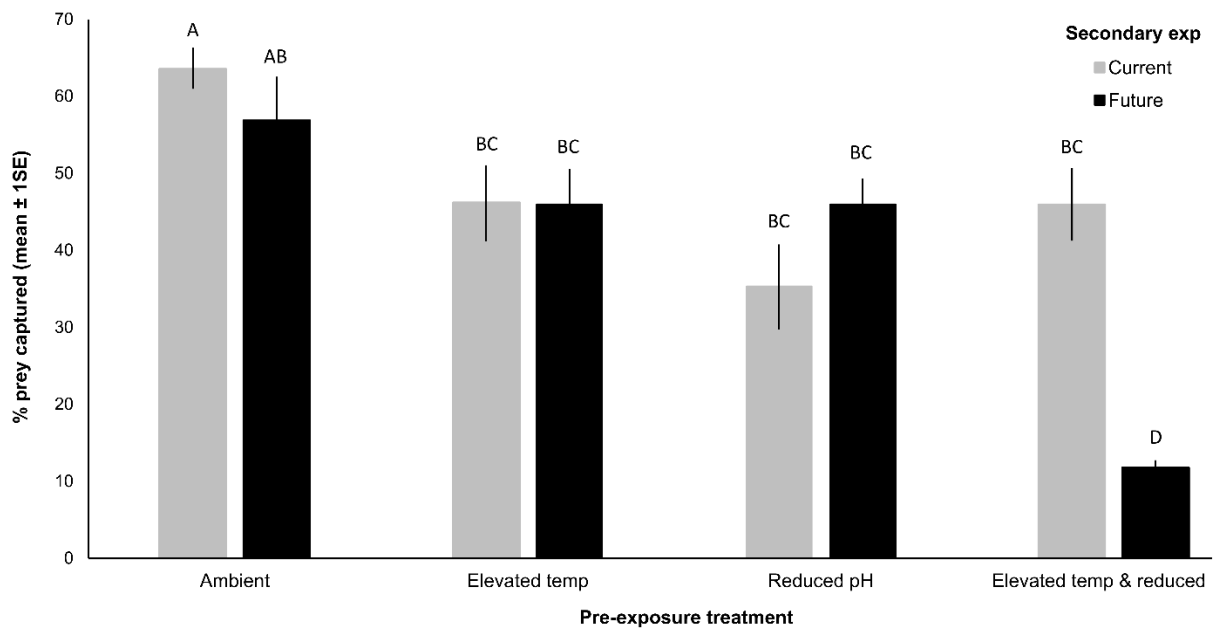


700

701 **Fig. 3** Respiration rates of polyps (mean \pm SE) pre-exposed to ambient pH (a) and reduced
 702 pH (b) conditions recorded at Days 1, 4, 14, 24 and 34 of the secondary exposure (Days 1–
 703 34, n = 48). Letters above data points indicate similarities (e.g. AA) and differences (e.g. AB)
 704 among treatments, as determined by estimated marginal means



705 **Fig. 4** Protein concentrations (mean ± SE) of polyps sampled at Day 34 of the secondary
 706 exposure (n = 48). *Letters above data points* indicate similarities (e.g. AA) and differences
 707 (e.g. AB) among all treatments, as determined by estimated marginal means



708 **Fig. 5** Percentage prey captured (mean ± SE) recorded at Day 34 of the secondary exposure
 709 (n = 48). *Letters above data points* indicate similarities (e.g. AA) and differences (e.g. AB)
 710 among all treatments, as determined by estimated marginal means