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1 An interplay between plasticity and parental phenotype determines
2 impacts of ocean acidification on a reef fish

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6

7 **Introductory paragraph**

8 The impacts of ocean acidification will depend on the ability of marine organisms to
9 tolerate, acclimate, and eventually adapt to changes in ocean chemistry. Here, we use a
10 unique transgenerational experiment to determine the molecular response of a coral reef
11 fish to short-term, developmental, and transgenerational exposure to elevated CO₂ and to
12 test how these responses are influenced by variations in tolerance to elevated CO₂
13 exhibited by the parents. Within-generational responses in gene expression to end of
14 century predicted CO₂ levels indicate that a self-amplifying cycle in GABAergic
15 neurotransmission is triggered, explaining previously reported neurological and
16 behavioural impairments. Furthermore, epigenetic regulator genes exhibited a within-
17 generation specific response, but with some divergence due to parental phenotype.
18 Importantly, we find that altered gene expression for the majority of within-generation
19 responses returns to baseline levels following parental exposure to elevated CO₂
20 conditions. Our result show that both parental variation in tolerance and cross-generation
21 exposure to elevated CO₂ are crucial factors in determining the response of reef fishes to
22 changing ocean chemistry.

23

24 Keywords: Developmental plasticity, Parental effects, Epigenetic regulation, Ocean
25 acidification, Transcriptomics, Adaptation.

26

27 **Introduction**

28 Increased uptake of anthropogenic CO₂ by the oceans and the seawater acidification it
29 causes will have detrimental effects on many marine organisms¹. Laboratory experiments
30 have already provided evidence of a diverse range of responses and effects of ocean
31 acidification conditions²⁻⁴, including altered growth rates, survival, and reproduction^{5,6}.
32 Fish and other marine organisms can also exhibit behavioural changes that could affect
33 survivorship^{7,8}, including vital responses to chemical alarm and predator cues⁹⁻¹⁴. The
34 underlying cause of these behavioural impairments is thought to be changed
35 concentrations of acid-base relevant ions to prevent acidosis under elevated CO₂, which
36 in turn affects the function of gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) neurotransmitter
37 receptors in the brain¹⁴⁻¹⁶.

38

39 To date, most observations regarding impacts of ocean acidification come from short-
40 term experiments that do not account for population heterogeneity and individual
41 variation in tolerance potentially important to adaptive processes^{17,18}. Acutely exposing
42 animals to elevated CO₂ for days to weeks cannot predict the potential for long-term
43 acclimation and adaptation¹⁸. In particular, conditions experienced early in life can affect
44 responses to those conditions later in life (i.e., developmental plasticity), which can be
45 mediated by epigenetic modifications¹⁹. The environment experienced by the parents can
46 also influence how offspring respond²⁰⁻²². In fact, recent transgenerational studies

47 demonstrate recovery of metabolic and growth rates in juvenile fish when both parents
48 and offspring are exposed to elevated CO₂^{23,24}. Finally, individual variation in CO₂
49 tolerance could be heritable, and therefore, variation in parental tolerance to elevated CO₂
50 could influence the tolerance of their offspring²⁵. Longer-term developmental studies and
51 multigenerational experiments that incorporate individual variation in tolerance are
52 needed to better understand and predict the effects of elevated CO₂ on populations and
53 their capacity to adapt^{17,26}.

54

55 A recent brain transcriptome study on juvenile spiny damselfish (*Acanthochromis*
56 *polyacanthus*) exposed to elevated CO₂ revealed phenotypic differences between
57 offspring of parents with behavioural tolerance versus sensitivity to elevated CO₂²⁷. This
58 suggests that parental phenotype could influence the expression of developmental and
59 transgenerational plasticity to elevated CO₂ in reef fishes. To further understand the
60 mechanisms that underpin this plasticity, we investigated the effects of acute, long-term
61 developmental, and transgenerational exposure to elevated CO₂ on the molecular
62 response of juvenile spiny damselfish from behaviourally tolerant and sensitive parents.
63 We focus on the brain because altered function of GABA_A neurotransmitter receptors are
64 thought to be responsible for many behavioural changes observed in fish exposed to
65 elevated CO₂^{15,16}. Adult spiny damselfish were exposed to a near-future CO₂ level
66 (750µatm) and then tested for their ability to react to chemical alarm cues, a crucial
67 survival mechanism in fish¹¹. Based on these results, adults were matched into
68 behaviourally ‘tolerant’ and ‘sensitive’ breeding pairs that were maintained under either
69 current-day or elevated CO₂ (Methods & Figure 1). Offspring of these pairs were reared

70 under both control and elevated CO₂ conditions for 5 months. Finally, some offspring
71 reared under control conditions from hatching were exposed to elevated CO₂ for the last 4
72 days of the experiment. This produced four different treatments for the two parental
73 phenotypes: a) control CO₂ parents – offspring reared in control conditions (control); b)
74 control CO₂ parents – offspring reared in control conditions, but with a final 4-day
75 elevated CO₂ treatment at the age of 5 months (acute CO₂ treatment), c) control CO₂
76 parents – offspring reared in elevated CO₂ from hatching (developmental CO₂ treatment);
77 d) elevated CO₂ parents – offspring reared in elevated CO₂ from hatching
78 (transgenerational CO₂ treatment) (Figure 1). We measured the genome-wide gene
79 expression in the brains of 72 individuals across all treatments to tease apart the acute
80 response to elevated CO₂ from the responses to longer-term development under elevated
81 CO₂ and differences that occur due to parental exposure to elevated CO₂. Comparing
82 these transcriptomes in offspring from two parental phenotypes allowed us to evaluate
83 how long-term and cross-generational exposure to elevated CO₂ influences the response
84 of fish to future ocean acidification conditions and the influence of individual variation in
85 tolerance to elevated CO₂ on these relationships.
86

87 **Results**

88 **Influence of parental phenotype on the response to elevated CO₂**

89 The offspring of behaviourally tolerant and sensitive parents exhibited significant
90 differences in the brain transcriptome. We identified 114 differentially expressed
91 transcripts (DETs) under acute CO₂ exposure and 359 under developmental exposure
92 when comparing offspring from the two parental groups directly, revealing a clear
93 influence of the parental phenotype on the offspring's response to elevated CO₂ (Figure 2,
94 Supplementary Figure 1). The DETs expressed between offspring of the two parental
95 phenotypes upon acute exposure were functionally enriched in pathways controlling
96 haemoglobin and oxygen transport (Supplementary Data 1). No significantly enriched
97 function was found for DETs between parental phenotypes in the developmental
98 treatment.

99

100 Besides direct differential expression between offspring of the two parental phenotypes,
101 we also compared expression within each parental group (e.g. acute treatment versus
102 control) in order to identify transcripts with expression profiles that overlap or differ
103 between the two parental phenotypes. While there were similarities, there were also large
104 differences in gene expression patterns among treatments for the offspring of tolerant and
105 sensitive parents (Supplementary Data 2). Offspring of behaviourally tolerant parents
106 exhibited more changes in the transcriptome when acutely exposed to elevated CO₂
107 (3,669 DETs) compared to the developmentally exposed fish (1,142 DETs) (Figure 2).
108 Interestingly, this pattern was reversed in the offspring of sensitive parents, where the
109 developmental treatment exhibited more change in gene expression (2,590 DETs)

110 compared with the acute treatment (2,010 DETs). The shared component between the
111 parental phenotypes for these treatments was as low as 27%, and few pathways were
112 commonly enriched in the brains of fish from different parental phenotypes in the
113 developmental treatment (Figure 3). In the developmental treatment, only offspring of
114 tolerant fish showed differential expression of transcripts involved in gluconeogenesis.
115 Several other pathways were enriched only in the offspring of behaviourally sensitive
116 parents, including pathways involved in nervous system development and ion transport
117 (Supplementary Data 3). We therefore found large differences, yet some overlapping
118 transcriptional responses in the offspring of the two parental phenotypes. Nonetheless,
119 the acute and developmental CO₂ treatments had larger overall effects on the
120 transcriptome than did the parental phenotype (Supplementary Figure 1).

121

122 **Short-term and developmental responses to elevated CO₂**

123 Exposure of offspring to a near-future elevated CO₂ level resulted in large differences in
124 gene expression compared with control offspring reared at the current-day CO₂ level
125 (Figure 2). Offspring of behaviourally tolerant parents that were acutely exposed to
126 elevated CO₂ for 4 days exhibited the greatest number of DETs (3,669) compared to
127 control fish (14.5% of the entire brain transcriptome). In this acute treatment, about half
128 of the DETs (51% and 49% for offspring of tolerant and sensitive parents respectively)
129 were expressed at higher levels and resulted in more significant functional enrichments
130 than the transcripts upregulated in controls (Figure 3). Comparing DETs in the acute
131 treatment with those differentially expressed in longer-term treatments enabled us to
132 distinguish rapid, short-term from longer-term transcriptional responses to elevated CO₂.

133 For this comparison we considered the transcripts that were differentially expressed in
134 acutely-treated compared with control fish, but which were not differentially expressed in
135 developmental and transgenerationally treated fish compared to controls. Hence, these
136 DETs were unique to the acute 4-day elevated CO₂ treatment. A total of 184 genes
137 showed a clear pattern of specific short-term response that was common for both parental
138 phenotypes (Supplementary Data 4). These acute-specific genes were significantly
139 enriched in ATPase-related processes (Figure 3 & Supplementary Data 5).

140

141 Fish that were developmentally exposed to elevated CO₂ differentially expressed 1,142
142 and 2,590 transcripts, of which 56% and 78% were upregulated in offspring of tolerant
143 and sensitive parents, respectively (Figure 2). The offspring of sensitive parents had a
144 large number of enriched biological pathways that showed upregulation in the
145 developmental treatment (Figure 3). A total of 698 transcripts were commonly
146 differentially expressed in offspring of both parental phenotypes. Only 27 of these
147 transcripts were uniquely differentially expressed in the developmental CO₂ treatment,
148 regardless of parental phenotype, suggesting developmental treatment specificity
149 (Supplementary Data 6). These transcripts were at control expression levels in acute and
150 transgenerational treatments, but differentially expressed in the developmental treatment.
151 Of these transcripts, 23 showed downregulated expression in the developmental treatment
152 when compared to the controls.

153

154 Importantly, in both the acute and developmental treatments we found a common set of
155 highly upregulated transcripts involved in neurotransmitter secretion, nervous system
156 development, ionotropic glutamate receptor activity, and GABA_A receptor activity

157 (Figure 3). This upregulation was specific to within-generation treatments, including
158 acutely exposed fish and fish reared under elevated CO₂ for 5 months from hatching.
159 Many of these DETs and associated enriched functions were also found in a weighted
160 correlation network gene cluster (Supplementary Data 7). Hence, both of these
161 independent methods revealed the importance of these genes and functions for fish
162 exposed to elevated CO₂. A clear signature came from GABAergic neurotransmission,
163 with nearly all genes in this pathway overexpressed in the acutely and developmentally
164 treated fish when compared to controls (Figure 4). These included genes involved in
165 GABA production, GABA secretion from presynaptic neurons, all of the GABA_A
166 receptor subunits (Supplementary Data 8), and the potassium-chloride co-transporter 2
167 (*kcc2*). Furthermore, we saw a reduction in the expression of GABA transporter 1 (*gat1*).

168

169 Another within-generation specific response involved epigenetic regulation of gene
170 expression. Here we saw common, but also divergent, responses between the parental
171 phenotypes. In the developmental treatment, there were significant differences in the
172 expression of genes involved in methylation between the offspring from different
173 parental groups. Specifically, eight DETs from the direct comparison between the
174 parental groups in the developmental treatment are involved in the control of the DNA,
175 protein, and histone methylation states (*ppme1*, *apex1*, *prmt6*, *setd2*, *kmt2a*, *mecp2*, *kmt2c*
176 & *mrm1*) (Supplementary Data 9). Differences in epigenetic related transcription patterns
177 could also be seen across different CO₂ treatments, as methylation related pathways were
178 significantly enriched in genes that were downregulated in the offspring of tolerant
179 parents, but only when offspring were acutely exposed to elevated CO₂.

180

181 Transcripts encoding histones also showed treatment-specific expression when
182 considering the parental phenotypes. In the acute treatment, two isoforms of histone 1
183 (*h1b*, *h10*) were highly expressed in offspring of behaviourally sensitive parents (Figure
184 5a), but not in the offspring of tolerant parents. However, the expression for other histone
185 variants seemed treatment-specific in fish acutely and developmentally exposed to
186 elevated CO₂, regardless of the parental phenotype (Figure 5a). In general, the expression
187 levels of histones were lower in fish from the developmental treatment for offspring of
188 both parental phenotypes. It is, however, important to note that histone modifiers (e.g.,
189 histone-lysine methyltransferases; *setd2*, *kmt2a*, *kmt2c*) were upregulated in the
190 developmental treatment for offspring of tolerant parents (Figure 5b). This suggests that
191 epigenetic factors may play a role in the response to elevated CO₂, and that chromatin
192 and methylation measurements should be included in future studies.

193

194 **Transgenerational responses to elevated CO₂**

195 The within-generation comparisons revealed a large number of DETs in fish that were
196 acutely or developmentally exposed to elevated CO₂. By contrast, many of these
197 transcripts exhibited expression levels similar to control levels in fish that were
198 transgenerationally exposed to elevated CO₂ (Supplementary Figure 2). A total of 401
199 DETs in the developmental treatment were at control levels in the transgenerational
200 treatment, regardless of parental phenotype (Figure 3b, Supplementary Data 10). The
201 previously mentioned upregulation of histone expression was generally lower in control
202 and transgenerational treatments and higher in the acute and developmental treatments.
203 Furthermore, altered within-generation gene expression patterns, including the GABA_A
204 related genes, were at control levels in the transgenerational treatment. The transcripts

205 exhibiting recovery patterns, compared with increased expression during developmental
206 exposure, were functionally enriched for microtubule-related pathways (e.g., microtubule
207 proteins; *map1b*, *map4*, *futsch*, microtubule kinases; *mast3*, *mark3*, and microtubule-actin
208 crosslinking factor; *macf1*, Figure 5c). We also identified an opposite pattern of lower
209 expression levels in the developmental treatment for cytoskeleton related genes (e.g.,
210 tubulin alpha 1c; *tub1c* and microtubule associated protein light chain; *map1lc3b*).

211

212 By comparing within-generation and transgenerational CO₂ treatments, we were also able
213 to tease apart a transgenerational-specific transcriptional signature. This refers to
214 transcripts that were at control levels in acute and developmental treatments but were
215 differentially expressed in the transgenerational treatment only. The transgenerational-
216 specific signatures were divergent between offspring from the two parental phenotypes.
217 A larger transgenerational signal was found, represented by 41 transcripts, in offspring of
218 tolerant parents and 8 DETs in offspring of sensitive parents, with none overlapping
219 (Supplementary Data 11). Eleven and one of these transcripts, respectively, showed direct
220 differential expression between the two parental phenotypes in the developmental
221 treatment.

222

223 Finally, independent of the length of exposure, there were only a few brain transcripts
224 commonly differentially expressed in all elevated CO₂ treatments when compared to
225 control fish (Supplementary Figure 3). Only eight and 18 transcripts in offspring of
226 sensitive and tolerant parental phenotypes, respectively, were differentially expressed
227 across all elevated CO₂ treatments. When considering long-term treatments (i.e.,

228 excluding acute), 31 and 27 transcripts from offspring of sensitive and tolerant parents,
229 respectively, showed a clear CO₂ response (Supplementary Data 12). These CO₂-affected
230 transcripts differed in their expression patterns across parental phenotypes, with the
231 exception of *fgfl*, *shmt2*, *pck1*, *arhgef*, *phdgh* and *psat* that were differentially expressed
232 in various CO₂ exposures and common between parental phenotypes (Supplementary
233 Figure 4 & 5).

234

235 **Discussion**

236 Fundamental changes in the transcriptional landscape of the brain, displayed by
237 numerous differentially expressed genes, were observed in all elevated CO₂ treatments.
238 Nevertheless, the specific functional response depended on the duration of exposure. The
239 4-day acute CO₂ treatment resulted in the largest treatment-specific response. Several
240 glycoprotein-encoding genes, including neurexophilin (*nrxph1*, 2 and 4) and ependymin
241 (*epdl*), were overexpressed in acutely-treated fish. These genes play a role in short-term
242 neuronal plasticity, and neurexophilin has recently been linked to GABA receptor subunit
243 expression, revealing an instructive role in configuring GABA receptors²⁸. The increased
244 expression of GABA receptor genes in the acutely treated fish could therefore also be
245 driven by an upregulation of *nrxph1* and associated inhibitory neural circuits.

246

247 When fish were reared under elevated CO₂ from hatching (i.e., developmental treatment),
248 fewer treatment-specific responses were observed, with most genes downregulated. This
249 was the case for reticulon-4 (*rtn4*), a neurite growth regulating factor that, in mammals,
250 activates the growth-inhibiting Nogo receptor complex in regenerating axons²⁹, thus
251 downregulating growth and inhibiting neuronal plasticity. The function of the Nogo
252 receptor in fish is still unclear, but it was previously associated with embryonic and brain
253 development³⁰. Another possible negative effect associated with elevated CO₂ during
254 development was the downregulation of the creatine transporter (*slc6a8*). This could
255 cause a decrease in intracellular creatine, which plays a central role in energy
256 homeostasis³¹. Thus, our results indicate that elevated CO₂ exposure early in life could
257 have detrimental effects on development. This is consistent with previous studies

258 reporting negative effects on growth, development, and survival in juvenile fish exposed
259 to elevated CO₂^{6,16,32-34}.

260

261 Fish exposed to elevated CO₂ regulate their intra- and extracellular pH to avoid acidosis,
262 primarily via HCO₃⁻ accumulation¹⁶. Nilsson and coauthors¹⁵ suggested this could lead to
263 altered GABA_A receptor function. Specifically, changes in transmembrane HCO₃⁻ and
264 Cl⁻ gradients could lead to a reversal of ion fluxes through the receptor, which could
265 explain the behavioural changes observed in fish upon elevated CO₂ exposure³⁵. We
266 observed that many GABA-related genes were highly upregulated after acute and
267 developmental exposure to elevated CO₂, showing a common within-generation
268 response. This pattern included genes involved in GABA production, all GABA_A
269 receptor subunits, and transporter genes (Figure 4). If GABA_A receptor function becomes
270 excitatory under elevated CO₂, the inhibitory input in neural circuits are lowered, making
271 them overactive. This can trigger futile feedback responses aimed to reduce the over-
272 activity by releasing more GABA and increasing the number of GABA_A receptors. This
273 will be counter-productive if GABA has started to act excitatory, thus initiating a self-
274 amplifying (vicious) cycle. When CLCN3 and VGAT genes are upregulated, as observed,
275 packing of GABA into synaptic vesicles could increase^{36,37}, thereby increasing GABA
276 release. Exacerbation of this vicious cycle also comes from GAT1 (responsible for
277 removing extracellular GABA) being downregulated, which would increase GABA in the
278 synaptic cleft. These changes can explain how a small increase in CO₂, causing a
279 moderate change in Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻ gradients, can be amplified to cause a significant
280 GABAergic dysfunction leading to altered behaviour. We did see one potentially

281 adaptive GABA related change; upregulation of potassium-chloride co-transporter 2
282 (*kcc2*) responsible for removing intracellular Cl^- ³⁸, which could counteract the excitatory
283 action of GABA_A receptors.

284

285 Epigenetic regulation of gene expression could underpin whole-organism responses to
286 environmental change³⁹. Our results suggest regulators influences development under
287 elevated CO_2 with an additional effect of parental phenotype. One of the genes that was
288 upregulated in the offspring of sensitive parents compared with tolerant parents, arginine
289 methyltransferase 6 (*prmt6*), is known to methylate CREB Regulated Transcription
290 Coactivator 2 (CRTC2), a transcriptional activator of the gluconeogenic program^{40,41}.

291 Upregulated gluconeogenesis through the AMPK signaling pathway, which facilitates
292 glucose uptake, would require glucose transporters. Glucose transporters, such as *gtr1*
293 (*gtr10*, 3, & 8), were indeed upregulated in developmentally-treated offspring of sensitive
294 parents. Hence, differential glucose regulation – via selective DNA methylation – could
295 cause differences in the offspring of the two parental groups.

296

297 Changes to the chromatin landscape and the alternative use of histone variants also
298 influence differences between offspring of tolerant and sensitive parents. Histone variants
299 (e.g., *h2az*) that were downregulated in the acute CO_2 treatment in offspring of tolerant
300 parents and in the developmental treatment in offspring of sensitive parents have been
301 shown to mediate responses to environmental change in animals including fish (e.g.,
302 temperature and season)^{42,43}. In general, histones and histone modifiers regulate gene
303 expression by controlling chromatin dynamics, making transcription factors more or less

304 accessible⁴⁴. We found that the general pattern for most histone variants was a decreased
305 expression in the developmental treatment; this pattern has also been identified in a
306 marine invertebrate upon elevated CO₂ exposure⁴⁵. Additional evidence for reduced
307 transcriptional repression is the downregulation of several polycomb protein encoding
308 transcripts (e.g., Polycomb Group Ring Finger 2; *pcgf2* and SUZ12 Polycomb Repressive
309 Complex 2; *suz12b*) in the acute and developmental treatments. The polycomb repressive
310 complex chemically modifies histones, for instance, by adding methyl groups, thereby
311 repressing transcription⁴⁶. Thus, downregulation would increase gene expression. Hence,
312 the strong developmental plasticity we see in gene expression is likely controlled in part
313 by DNA methylation and use of histone variants. We also observed that genetic variation
314 and non-genetic (epigenetic) parental effects could, to a certain extent, influence within-
315 generation control of gene expression of individual fish exposed to elevated CO₂.

316

317 Inheriting an optimized acid-base regulatory system where genes are controlled
318 epigenetically could enhance physiological performance under ocean acidification^{22,24}.
319 However, this seems unlikely to occur because transgenerationally CO₂-treated fish did
320 not exhibit the aforementioned differential expression of epigenetic-related genes when
321 compared to controls. In fact, it appears that histone genes and many other transcripts
322 specific to within-generation treatments were reversed through transgenerational
323 exposure. Such a recovery pattern was found for multiple microtubule-related genes,
324 implicating cytoskeleton plasticity in response to exposure to near-future CO₂ levels, a
325 finding already suggested for invertebrates^{47,48}. Cytoskeleton plasticity is directly related
326 to neuronal plasticity⁴⁹, and it seems that within-generation CO₂ exposure leads to a

327 cytoskeletal rearrangement that can aid neuronal plasticity to return to a control state
328 during transgenerational exposure. Further responses to stress via downregulation of
329 *nirc3* and the hypoxia inducible factor prolyl hydroxylase 2 (*egln1*) and upregulation of
330 the hypoxia inducible factor 2 alpha (*epas1*), both important during oxidative stress,
331 could become maladaptive, as we found these expression patterns, even after five months
332 of exposure to elevated CO₂. Importantly, such responses seem to also be reversed with
333 transgenerational exposure.

334

335 The long-term response to elevated CO₂, independent of parental phenotype, was linked
336 to glucose metabolism. A role of the brain in regulating glucose homeostasis is becoming
337 evident, but it was only recently shown that increased brain *fgf1* can promote blood
338 glucose reduction⁵⁰. All previously reported genes involved in transgenerational
339 acclimation to elevated CO₂²⁷ were upregulated in our developmental and
340 transgenerational CO₂ treatments, suggesting a delayed response to prolonged exposure
341 rather than an immediate adaptive response. Therefore, we propose that the capacity for
342 fish to maintain performance in acidified oceans will depend of their ability to cope with
343 long-lasting CO₂ effects. The rebalance of gluconeogenesis and glucose homeostasis,
344 neither of which is compensated for via transgenerational exposure, may be key to
345 adapting to new environmental conditions.

346

347 Here, by using an integrative genomics approach coupled with a unique experimental
348 design, we tested the response of a coral reef fish to end-of-century CO₂ levels and
349 provide further evidence for an important role of altered GABA receptor function in the

350 response to elevated CO₂. In particular we demonstrated a possible vicious feedback
351 cycle exacerbating the GABA pathway reaction to elevated CO₂, which can explain the
352 fast neural impairment. Importantly, we identified numerous transcriptional changes in
353 within-generation treatments that returned to baseline levels in fish that were
354 transgenerationally exposed to elevated CO₂ levels. This emphasizes the influence of
355 environmental exposure on the parents as well as the parental phenotype in the response
356 of fish to future ocean acidification.

357

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543 **Author contributions:** M.J.W. and P.L.M designed and managed the fish rearing

544 experiments. M.J.W. performed the adult fish behavioural phenotyping. C.S. prepared the

545 samples for RNA sequencing and analysed transcriptome expression data and performed

546 quantitative real-time PCR expression validation. G.E.N. and J.L.R. assisted in

547 interpreting the expression data. C.S., P.L.M. and T.Ravasi wrote the paper and all

548 authors read, revised, and approved the final manuscript.

549

550 **Data availability:**

551 All data generated, analysed or used during this study such as the RNA-seq transcriptome

552 sequences and the *de novo* assembled reference genome have been deposited in NCBI

553 under BioProject ID PRJNA311159

554

555 **Competing financial interests**

556 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

557

558 **Methods**

559 *Adult collection and response of adult fish to elevated CO₂*

560 Adult *Acanthochromis polyacanthus* (spiny damselfish) were collected as described in
561 Schunter *et al.* (2016)²⁷ in the central Great Barrier Reef, Australia (18°38'24,3"S,
562 146°29'31,8"E) and exposed to 754 ± 92 µatm CO₂ levels for 7 days before behavioural
563 testing. The behavioural phenotype was determined by exposing the adult fish to
564 conspecific chemical alarm cues (CAC) in a two-chamber flume (30 cm x 13 cm), where
565 time spent in the CAC was recorded. A 1:1 ratio of adult CAC donor fish to adult test fish
566 was used. Donor fish were held in control conditions until it was euthanized by a quick
567 blow to the head. To generate CAC, superficial cuts to both sides of the body were made
568 after euthanization of the donor fish. The fish was then rinsed with 60 ml of control
569 water²⁷, and the rinse water was added to 10 L of elevated CO₂ seawater. Elevated CO₂
570 water including CAC and elevated CO₂ control water were fed into the flume at a
571 constant rate of 450 ml per minute. Each behavioural trial was run for 9 minutes (2
572 minutes habituation, 2 minutes recording, 1 minute switch for water sides, where the fish
573 was recentered at the end of this minute. The 2 minutes habituation and 2 minutes
574 recording was then repeated), and the location of the fish was recorded every 5 seconds.
575 Adult fish exhibited a large variation in behavioural responses when tested for chemical
576 alarm cue (CAC) recognition. These responses ranged from a normal aversion behaviour
577 with little time spent in the CAC to the opposing behavior, where fish spent most of their
578 time in CAC. We considered those fish exhibiting an aversion to CAC to be behaviorally
579 'tolerant' (< than 30% of the trial in CAC) and those exhibiting an attraction to CAC
580 under elevated CO₂ to be behaviorally 'sensitive' (> than 70% of the trial in CAC). About

581 38% of the randomly collected fish within the population could be assigned to the
582 tolerant or sensitive groups (Supplementary Data 13). Behavioural sensitivity and fish
583 size were then used to form breeding pairs with individuals of the same sensitivity (i.e.,
584 tolerant male with tolerant female). This project was completed under James Cook
585 University (JCU) ethics permit A1828.

586

587 *Experimental design*

588 Breeding pairs were held in 40 L aquaria, with 3 tolerant and 3 sensitive pairs in control
589 conditions ($414 \pm 46 \mu\text{atm}$) and 2 tolerant and 3 sensitive pairs in elevated CO_2 conditions
590 ($754 \pm 92 \mu\text{atm}$, Supplementary Data 13). Breeding pairs were acclimated to their
591 respective conditions for three months prior to the breeding season. Offspring clutches
592 from breeding pairs were immediately removed from parental tanks after hatching and
593 placed into control or elevated CO_2 conditions. A total of four combinations between
594 parental and offspring conditions were processed with several parental pairs for each
595 combination to avoid a family effect (Figure 1, Supplementary Data 13). Offspring
596 conditions were: a) control conditions, b) acute elevated CO_2 treatment, in which
597 offspring developed in control conditions but were acutely exposed to elevated CO_2 for
598 the last 4 days before sacrificing, c) developmental elevated CO_2 treatment, in which
599 offspring were immediately placed into elevated CO_2 after hatching and d)
600 transgenerational elevated CO_2 treatment where parents and offspring were exposed to
601 elevated CO_2 . Offspring were kept in their respective conditions (Figure 1) and sacrificed
602 at the age of 5 months.

603

604 *CO₂ treatment*

605 Experimental procedures followed those described by Welch and Munday (2017)²⁵.
606 Briefly, two 10,000 L recirculating aquarium systems were each set to a different pH and
607 corresponding CO₂ level: a current-day control (414 ± 46 µatm) and an end of century
608 elevated CO₂ treatment (754 ± 92 µatm)^{51,52}. An Aqua Medic AT Control System (Aqua
609 Medic, Germany) was used to dose CO₂ into a 3,000 L sump to maintain the desired pH
610 in the elevated CO₂ treatment. An identical sump on the control system was not dosed
611 with CO₂. Control and elevated CO₂ water were then delivered to the holding aquaria at
612 1.5 L per minute. Temperature and pH_{NBS} were measured daily in randomised tanks.
613 Salinity and total alkalinity were measured weekly. Total alkalinity was measured by
614 Gran Titration (Metrohm 888 Titrando Titrator Metrohm AG, Switzerland) using
615 certified reference material from Dr. A.G. Dickson (Scripps Institution of
616 Oceanography). pCO₂ was then calculated in CO2SYS⁵³, using constants from Dickson
617 and Millero (1987)⁵⁴.

618

619 *RNA and transcriptome expression analyses*

620 Fish brains were immediately dissected out after euthanization, snap frozen with liquid
621 nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. Whole frozen fish brains were then homogenized in RT-
622 Plus Buffer for 30 second in a Fisher bead beater with single-use silicon beads, and total
623 RNA was extracted with AllPrep DNA/RNA Mini Kits (Quiagen). The RNA quality was
624 evaluated on the nanodrop and the Agilent Tape reader, and only minimum RNA
625 integrity values (RIN) of 8 were accepted. Extracted RNA was converted into cDNA and
626 prepped for Illumina sequencing with a TruSeq RNA Illumina Library Prep Kit. Libraries

627 were then sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 paired end to the length of 100bp at
628 Macrogen, South Korea. Raw reads were inspected and quality trimmed to a minimum
629 Phred score of 30 with FastQC and Trimmomatic respectively^{55,56}. High quality reads
630 were mapped against the *de novo* assembled genome reference using Tophat 2⁵⁷ with
631 bowtie2 very-sensitive mode and providing the coordinates of the reference based
632 annotated transcriptome. The *A. polyacanthus de novo* genome assembly and annotation
633 have been previously described²⁷. The bam files resulting from the mapping step were
634 then sorted with samtools⁵⁸ and read counts were extracted by using an HT-seq script⁵⁹
635 adding exon read counts to receive transcript-based read count values. Differential
636 expression was statistically evaluated with DEseq2⁶⁰ in Bioconductor version 3.2 in R
637 3.2.1 through pair-wise treatment comparisons. Comparisons between the different
638 treatments were performed by comparing the expression of acute, developmental, and
639 transgenerational samples for each parental phenotype separately against the control
640 samples. Differential expression was evaluated between the different treatments, but the
641 expression levels of the two parental phenotypes were also directly compared for each
642 CO₂ treatment. The significance level for differential expression was set to an FDR
643 adjusted p-value of <0.05 with additional filters of a minimum log 2 fold expression of
644 0.3 and standard deviation correction (SD<Mean). Gene expression patterns across
645 different treatments were based on significant differential expression in all pairwise
646 comparisons.

647

648 To evaluate a potential family effect within the parental phenotypes, we compared
649 treatments in which full siblings were exposed (comparison of control and acute as well

650 as developmental treatments for offspring of tolerant and sensitive parents). We used a
651 model comparison approach. First, differential expression was measured accounting for
652 treatment effect only, then family line was added as a factor and differential expression
653 compared. Finally, the full (treatment+family) model was compared directly with the
654 reduced model (treatment only) (Supplementary Data S14).

655

656 After stringent filtering of significant differential expression assignment, we further
657 accounted for false positive assignment through randomization. This was done on the
658 acutely and developmentally treated samples comparing the two different parental
659 phenotypes. For each CO₂ treatment parental phenotype was randomly assigned to a gene
660 expression profile and gene expression analysis was rerun. This was repeated 10 times for
661 the acute and the developmental treatments (Supplementary Data S15).

662

663 To improve insight into the complex dataset, we performed a weighted gene-correlation
664 network analysis with the WGCNA package (version 1.6) in R⁶¹. We used the DEseq2
665 normalized dataset of raw counts of all 72 samples included in the study. Gene
666 expression data was then variance stabilized, and transcripts with low read counts were
667 removed. Soft-thresholding power was evaluated and the highest value was accepted for
668 network construction (pow=9). This approach was used to approximate a scale free
669 topological network (TOM), which was constructed following these parameters:
670 TOMtype= “assigned”, minModuleSize= 30, mergeCutHeight= 0.25. TOM was then used
671 to create a cluster dendrogram. Transcripts clustered within one colour module were then

672 extracted if the module had more than 500 transcripts and compared with the
673 differentially expressed gene analysis (Supplementary Figure 6 & 7).

674

675 Blast annotations of the reference-based transcriptome and an Interpro scan were
676 imported into Blast2GO⁶² to retrieve Gene Ontology terms and KEGG pathways.

677 Functional enrichment analyses were performed for differentially expressed genes as well
678 as global network clusters with Fisher's exact tests (FDR < 0.05). All tests were

679 performed on the different differential gene expression models, and results presented
680 were significantly enriched functions found with both models. Graphical representations

681 (i.e., heat maps, bubble graphs, and bar plots) were produced in R 3.3.1. A Principle

682 Component Analysis (PCA) was performed with the cloud platform WebMeV⁶³ using the
683 normalized expression of acutely and developmentally treated samples.

684

685 *qRT-PCR validation of RNA-seq results*

686 Quantitative Realtime PCR was performed on two sets of samples to evaluate all the
687 different experimental treatment groups. We compare control samples with

688 transgenerational elevated CO₂ exposed fish from behaviourally tolerant as well as
689 sensitive parents. We also examined the qPCR gene expression for acutely and

690 developmentally elevated CO₂ treated fish for both parental pairs and compare the
691 relative expression between treatments with the RNAseq expression differences

692 (Supplementary Figure 8). For each treatment group, two biological samples were
693 selected, which were from the same treatment, but additional biological individuals than

694 those sequenced via RNAseq. Primers were designed using the genome sequence of the

695 respective transcript of interest with Primer3Plus⁶⁴, which was checked in NCBI Primer-
696 BLAST for specificity and HPSF purified by Sigma (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany). Using
697 the high capacity reverse transcription kit by ABI (Applied Biosystems) 550ng of RNA
698 for each sample were reverse transcribed and 15ng of cDNA was used for each reaction
699 with three replicate reactions with specified reaction details²⁷. For analysis, the livak
700 method was used and Delta Delta CTs were calculated by normalizing the CTs against
701 three housekeeping genes. Eight comparisons were performed: Offspring of tolerant and
702 sensitive parents were compared at the 1) control CO₂ levels, 2) acute high CO₂ levels, 3)
703 developmentally high CO₂ levels and 4) transgenerational high CO₂ levels. Treatments
704 effect were compared between acute and developmental treatments for 5) offspring of
705 tolerant parents and 6) offspring of sensitive parents. Control levels and
706 transgenerational treatment were compared for 7) offspring of tolerant parents and 8)
707 offspring of sensitive parents. Six out of eight genes used for validation were highly
708 correlated and hence showed the same expression pattern in qRT-PCR as found with
709 RNAseq (Pearson's product-moment correlation, p<0.001). Transcript expression of *nfil3*
710 showed an almost significant correlation (Pearson's product-moment correlation, p<0.08),
711 whereas *shmt1* did not correlate (Pearson's product-moment correlation, p=0.5).
712 However, correlation improves when removing one comparison (HC_S, Pearson's
713 product-moment correlation, p=0.1). This high percentage of validation shows that the
714 RNAseq results can be replicated not only with a different method, but also with different
715 biological samples from the same treatment and therefore the observed RNAseq
716 expression pattern is clearly linked to the treatment.

717

718

719 **Figure legends**

720 **Figure 1. Experimental design. Elevated CO₂ (green) was set at 750uatm, simulating end**
721 **of century CO₂ projections.** Behaviourally tolerant and sensitive parents were phenotyped
722 based on their response to chemical alarm cues (CAC) after exposure to elevated CO₂: tolerant
723 adults exhibited a normal response to CAC in an elevated CO₂ environment whereas sensitive
724 parents exhibited an impaired response to CAC. Offspring of parental pairs were then reared
725 in three different CO₂ treatments until the age of 5 months These three treatments were: current
726 day CO₂ levels as the control (control), fish reared under control conditions with 4 days
727 exposure to elevated CO₂ at 5 months of age (acute treatment), and fish reared under elevated
728 CO₂ from hatching until 5 months of age (developmental treatment). Control, acute, and
729 developmentally treated fish were siblings from three different parental pairs for both tolerant
730 and sensitive parental phenotypes. The final treatment (transgenerational treatment) consisted
731 of offspring reared in elevated CO₂ from hatching until 5 months of age that were from parents
732 maintained in elevated CO₂ for breeding.

733

734 **Figure 2. Global differential gene expression patterns between treatments.** Numbers
735 of significantly differentially expressed transcripts between pairwise comparisons of CO₂
736 treatments as well as between different parental behavioural phenotypes (T=tolerant
737 parents, S=sensitive parents). The overlap between blue and green (T and S) represent the
738 transcripts that are directly differentially expressed between the offspring of different
739 parental phenotypes.

740

741 **Figure 3. Functional enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes across**
742 **CO₂ rearing treatments that were significant in both differential gene expression**
743 **models** (C = control, A = acute, DEV = developmental, TRANS = transgenerational) and
744 different behavioural parental phenotypes, (T = tolerant, S = sensitive). A)
745 Overrepresented gene ontologies and B) underrepresented gene ontologies (significantly
746 more or less of this GO category in comparison to the compared treatment). The colour of
747 the circles represents the enrichment significance, and size of circles is proportional to the
748 number of enriched genes.

749

750 **Figure 4. Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) signaling pathway in the synapse**
751 **between a pre- and postsynaptic neuron.** Many pathway components showed
752 differential expression in response to CO₂ treatments. The insert highlights the proposed
753 increase of GABA release due to increased GABA packing in synaptic vesicles³⁷.
754 (Adapted from KEGG pathways). GAD= Glutamate decarboxylase 1, VGAT= GABA
755 and glycine transporter, CLCN3=Chloride voltage-gated channel 3, KCC2= Neuronal K-
756 Cl cotransporter, GAT1= GABA transporter 1, CACNA1A= Brain calcium channel 1,
757 GABAAR= GABA_A receptor subunits alpha, beta & gamma.

758

759 **Figure 5. Expression pattern of histone-related transcripts across all CO₂**
760 **treatments.** Expression levels of a) core histones, b) differential expression of histone-
761 related transcripts between developmentally CO₂ treated fish from tolerant and sensitive
762 offspring and c) microtubule-related transcripts. S=sensitive, T=tolerant, C=control,
763 A=acute, DEV=developmental, TRANS=transgenerational.