

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Early developmental gene regulation in *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* embryos in response to elevated CO₂ seawater conditions

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SUMMARY

Ocean acidification, or the increased uptake of CO₂ by the ocean due to elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, may variably impact marine early life history stages, as they may be especially susceptible to changes in ocean chemistry. Investigating the regulatory mechanisms of early development in an environmental context, or ecological development, will contribute to increased understanding of potential organismal responses to such rapid, large-scale environmental changes. We examined transcript-level responses to elevated seawater CO₂ during gastrulation and the initiation of spiculogenesis, two crucial developmental processes in the purple sea urchin, *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*. Embryos were reared at the current, accepted oceanic CO₂ concentration of 380 microatmospheres (µatm), and at the elevated levels of 1000 and 1350 µatm, simulating predictions for oceans and upwelling regions, respectively. The seven genes of interest comprised a subset of pathways in the primary mesenchyme cell gene regulatory network (PMC GRN) shown to be necessary for the regulation and execution of gastrulation and spiculogenesis. Of the seven genes, qPCR analysis indicated that elevated CO₂ concentrations only had a significant but subtle effect on two genes, one important for early embryo patterning, *Wnt8*, and the other an integral component in spiculogenesis and biomineralization, *SM30b*. Protein levels of another spicule matrix component, SM50, demonstrated significant variable responses to elevated CO₂. These data link the regulation of crucial early developmental processes with the environment that these embryos would be developing within, situating the study of organismal responses to ocean acidification in a developmental context.

Key words: *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*, development, gene regulatory network, molecular physiology, ocean acidification.

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INTRODUCTION

Ecological development, or ‘eco-devo’, is the study of development in an ecological context, moving the study of development out of the laboratory and into the ‘real world’ environment (Gilbert, 2001; Sultan, 2007). Additionally, the aims of eco-devo are to incorporate ‘both abiotic and biotic factors into studies of gene expression and regulatory pathways ... [and study] the expression of traits important to function, fitness and ecological interactions in [the] environment’ (Sultan, 2007). Understanding how regulatory pathways operate under differential environmental conditions has been suggested as the necessary next step for developmental and physiological studies, as environmental factors play a crucial role in the execution of development (Gilbert, 2005; Sultan, 2007; Gilbert and Epel, 2009).

The need for an ecological perspective on development has become increasingly clear in light of anthropogenically driven ocean warming and ocean acidification (Kurihara, 2008; Doney et al., 2009; Dupont et al., 2010). Very little is known about the capacity for phenotypic plasticity in organisms during their early life history stages and whether they can successfully respond to rapidly changing environmental conditions. The anthropogenically driven rise in atmospheric CO₂, which has steadily increased since the industrial revolution, has led to an increase in oceanic CO₂ (Forster et al., 2007; IPCC, 2007; Feely et al., 2008) and to ocean acidification (Doney et al., 2009; Feely et al., 2009). The continued rise in oceanic CO₂ could present challenges for many marine organisms, as the increasingly acidic water is potentially corrosive to those organisms

with calcified hard parts (Feely et al., 2008) and can interfere with the extracellular and intracellular acid–base balance necessary for proper cellular functions (Fabry, 2008).

Given that early developmental processes are especially sensitive to environmental perturbation (Hamdoun and Epel, 2007; Epel, 2003), successful development relies heavily on physiological tolerance of the environment and on whether embryos and larvae are able to respond to changing abiotic factors. There are a growing number of studies that have investigated how marine invertebrate embryos and larvae may handle changes in carbonate chemistry as a consequence of ocean acidification (Kurihara, 2008; Dupont and Thorndyke, 2009; Byrne, 2011). Many of these studies have focused on mortality and phenotypic characteristics such as growth rate and structural and morphological changes in larvae (see Kurihara, 2008). Specifically, the calcium carbonate spicules and skeletons of larval echinoids are directly affected by changes in oceanic CO₂ concentration (Kurihara and Shirayama, 2004; Kurihara, 2008; Dupont et al., 2008; Byrne et al., 2009; O’Donnell et al., 2010). Few studies, however, have investigated the molecular-level responses and signaling pathways that regulate phenotypic expression and responses relative to large-scale environmental changes like ocean acidification (see Sultan, 2007; Todgham and Hofmann, 2009; O’Donnell et al., 2010). In this study, we sought to make the connection between these larger scale environmental phenomena and molecular-level responses. We measured expression changes in two regulatory pathways in a key gene regulatory network

– the primary mesenchyme cell gene regulatory network (PMC GRN) – in *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus* sea urchin embryos as they develop through gastrulation at elevated CO₂ levels. Notably, we chose CO₂ levels that are consistent with future emission scenarios predicted by the IPCC (Meehl et al., 2007) and, additionally, reflect occasional high P_{CO2} exposures for *S. purpuratus* embryos in episodic upwelling zones on the coast of the northeastern Pacific (Feely et al., 2009; Hauri et al., 2009).

Of the numerous processes in early development, gastrulation is an extremely critical one that, if not executed properly, has dire and typically fatal results for the embryo (Wolpert, 1992; Leptin, 2005). In sea urchin embryos, the gastrulation process overlaps another key process, spiculogenesis. A group of spiculogenesis-specific cells, the primary mesenchyme cells (PMCs), ingress and migrate during gastrulation, and initiate the events leading to the formation of the spicules (Wilt, 2005). Not surprisingly, many of the regulatory pathways that regulate the initiation of spiculogenesis are also crucial for the regulation of cellular movements in gastrulation (Oliveri et al., 2008; Etensohn, 2009). These shared pathways make up part of the PMC GRN, which regulates the process of biomineralization (the process by which organisms take up minerals in order to form their hard parts). The PMC GRN is one of the best understood gene regulatory networks in sea urchins (Oliveri et al., 2008; Etensohn, 2009), providing a detailed model of the cascade of gene regulatory events required of the embryo to carry out gastrulation and spiculogenesis. While many studies have utilized the PMC GRN as a model to garner an increased fundamental and mechanistic understanding of these two crucial aspects of the urchin developmental program, no studies to date have sought to determine whether and how environmental factors, such as increased CO₂, can affect the transcriptional regulation of these processes by the PMC GRN.

In this study, we investigated how a subset of regulatory pathways for two developmental processes in *S. purpuratus* embryos were affected by elevated CO₂ concentrations in comparison with embryos that develop under control conditions. Aside from being a model organism with a thoroughly characterized PMC GRN, *S. purpuratus* was chosen as the study organism because it is a keystone echinoderm species that inhabits a large biogeographic range along the North American west coast. Additionally, *S. purpuratus* larvae, like other echinoplutei, develop a calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) skeleton that is susceptible to increases in oceanic CO₂ (Kurihara and Shirayama, 2004; O'Donnell et al., 2009; Dupont et al., 2010). We have investigated a subset of key pathways, which either regulate or are regulated by the gene *Alx1*, in the PMC GRN that are crucial for the developmental processes of gastrulation and spiculogenesis.

An overview of the targeted PMC GRN genes

Alx1 is an upstream PMC GRN regulatory gene that is essential for PMC ingress and their movement within the blastocoel (Etensohn et al., 2007). The genes chosen for this study were in pathways that either regulate or are regulated by *Alx1*. These genes (shown in Fig. 1) were *Wnt8*, *Pmar1*, *Alx1*, *VegFR*, *SM30b*, *Msp130* and *SM50*. *Alx1* itself is regulated by *Pmar1*, a zygotically expressed transcriptional repressor responsible for activating micromere specification (micromeres that are then specified to become the PMCs) (Oliveri et al., 2008). *Wnt8* is a zygotically expressed regulatory gene that regulates *Pmar1* through the activation of β -catenin (Oliveri et al., 2008). As one of the earliest genes to activate the PMC GRN, *Wnt8* is associated with cell fate determination through canonical signaling pathways and is important for the morphogenetic movement of the PMCs through non-canonical signaling (Leptin, 2005).

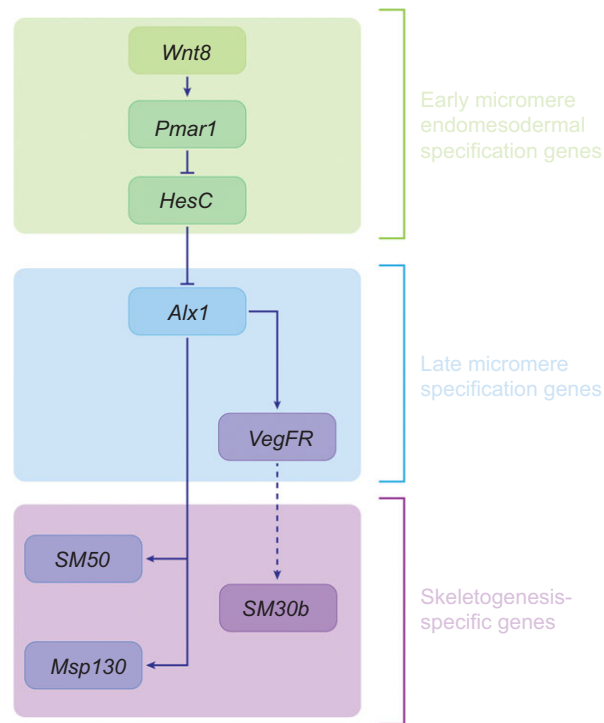


Fig. 1. Simplified diagram of the seven targeted genes of interest and their specific pathways highlighted within the primary mesenchyme cell gene regulatory network (PMC GRN). Arrows indicate direct regulatory input and bars represent repression of expression. Dashed line indicates non-confirmed direct interaction (modified from Oliveri et al., 2008). *Wnt8*, one of the earliest genes to activate the PMC GRN, is associated with cell fate determination through canonical signaling pathways, and is important for the morphogenetic movement of the PMCs through non-canonical signaling (Leptin, 2005). *Pmar1* (paired-class micromere anti-repressor 1) has been proposed to be part of a 'double-repressor gate' because it prevents the expression of *HesC*, which encodes a repressor that prevents the specification of skeletogenic fate in all the cells in the embryos except the micromeres (Revilla-i-Domingo et al., 2007; Oliveri and Davidson, 2007) (reviewed in Oliveri et al., 2008; Etensohn, 2009). *Alx1* (aristaless-like homeobox 1) is essential for activating functional pathways and multiple gene batteries in the downstream PMC GRN; specifically, the biomineralization genes. *VegFR* (vascular endothelial growth factor receptor), which is expressed solely by the PMCs, encodes a receptor of the ectoderm-derived ligand VegF (vascular endothelial growth factor) (Etensohn, 2009) and the signaling between VegF and VegFR is necessary for the correct migration and orientation of the PMCs, and proper spicule formation (Duloquin et al., 2007). Additionally, VegF/VegFR signaling is thought to be the regulatory input to one of the terminal differentiation genes of the PMC GRN, *SM30b*. *SM30b* (spicule matrix 30b) is a biomineralization gene that encodes the spicule matrix protein SM30, which is important for spicule rod growth and elongation (Kitajima and Urakami, 2000; Urry et al., 2000). *Msp130* encodes a PMC-specific cell-surface glycoprotein (Illies et al., 2002) and it has been suggested to play a role in Ca²⁺ sequestration and/or deposition during spicule formation. *SM50* (spicule matrix 50) is a gene that encodes spicule matrix protein SM50, which is important for spicule elongation (Kitajima and Urakami, 2000; Urry et al., 2000), and is necessary for deposition of the calcite spicule rudiment (Wilt et al., 2008b).

Alx1 also acts as a regulatory input to *VegFR*. *VegFR*, which is expressed solely by the PMCs, encodes a receptor of the ectoderm-derived ligand VegF (vascular endothelial growth factor) (Etensohn, 2009). VegF originates from the two ventrolateral positions in the ectoderm where the triradiate spicule rudiments are later deposited

(Okazaki and Inoue, 1976), and this ectoderm–PMC interaction between VegF and VegFR is necessary for the correct migration and orientation of the PMCs, and proper spicule formation (Duloquin et al., 2007). Additionally, VegF/VegFR signaling is thought to be the regulatory input to one of the terminal differentiation genes of the PMC GRN, *SM30b* (Duloquin et al., 2007; Oliveri et al., 2008). *SM30b* is a biomineralization gene important for spicule rod growth and elongation (Kitajima and Urakami, 2000; Urry et al., 2000). It encodes the spicule matrix protein SM30, one of over four dozen identified spicule matrix proteins that make up the occluded matrix of the spicule (Wilt, 2005; Livingston et al., 2006).

Msp130, also regulated by *Alx1*, is a terminal differentiation gene that encodes a cell surface glycoprotein, MSP130, which completely surrounds the PMCs and the spicules (Kiyomoto et al., 2007; Wilt et al., 2008a). *Msp130* has been implicated in calcium deposition (Carson et al., 1985). Lastly, *Alx1* acts as a regulatory input for *SM50*, a gene that encodes another spicule matrix protein, SM50. SM50, like SM30, occurs within the occluded matrix of the spicule (Wilt, 2005; Livingston et al., 2006); it is important for spicule elongation (Kitajima and Urakami, 2000; Urry et al., 2000) and is necessary for deposition of the calcite spicule rudiment (Wilt et al., 2008a).

We have evaluated the expression of this subset of PMC GRN genes in response to varying levels of CO₂ during early development; specifically, over the course of gastrulation. We also investigated whether expression of a protein encoded by one of the biomineralization genes (*SM50*) varied as a result of differential CO₂ levels. Investigating these pathways will not only provide information on how upstream PMC GRN events affect biomineralization and spicule formation but also help us to elucidate how the developmental programs of spiculogenesis and gastrulation respond to increased CO₂ and ocean acidification.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strongylocentrotus purpuratus collection and embryo culturing

Adult *S. purpuratus* (Stimpson 1857) were collected in the Santa Barbara Channel during the middle of the spawning season (mid-February 2010) and held in flow-through seawater tanks at 14–16°C. Individuals were spawned by coelomic injection of 0.5 mol l⁻¹ KCl within 2–3 weeks of collection. Eggs from a single female were then fertilized by a single male, following a protocol outlined elsewhere (Foltz et al., 2004), in ambient CO₂ seawater to ensure the highest fertilization success as low pH levels can compromise this process (Havenhand et al., 2008; Parker et al., 2009) (but see Byrne et al., 2009; Byrne et al., 2010). Only batches of eggs with a fertilization success of >90% were used. A total of four mating pairs were spawned and eggs fertilized.

Embryos from each mating pair were divided approximately equally and raised in larval culture buckets in the CO₂ delivery system (see Fangue et al., 2010) at a density of ~100 embryos ml⁻¹. Because of the physical constraints of the CO₂ delivery system, only 12 culture buckets could be run at a time. To maximize the number of mating pairs and replicates within the 12 bucket system, embryos from two

mating pairs were raised simultaneously in two sets of six larval culture buckets. Of the six larval buckets used for each mating pair, two buckets had a CO₂ concentration of 380 microatmospheres (μatm), which served as the controls, two treatment buckets had a CO₂ concentration of ~1000 μatm, and the remaining two treatment buckets had a concentration of ~1350 μatm. Therefore, each treatment had two replicates per mating pair (totaling six culture buckets). Each set of 12 buckets was referred to as a ‘trial’ for statistical analyses. Four mating pairs were used; therefore two trials were run (i.e. a total of 24 buckets run at 12 buckets at a time). The temperature of all larval culture buckets was maintained at ~15°C.

Seawater chemistry

During the embryo culturing described above, seawater chemistry was performed using a Mettler-Toledo T50 (Columbus, OH, USA) alkalinity titrator and a spectrophotometric pH assay as described previously (Fangue et al., 2010). In preparation for the experiments, pH and alkalinity measurements were taken every few hours until the seawater reached the desired CO₂ concentration, and once the desired conditions were achieved (see Table 1 for summary data for seawater chemistry), spawning was performed and embryos were introduced into the culture buckets. During embryo culturing, pH was measured at all embryo sampling time points while alkalinity was measured once during the 19h sampling period. Following the protocol outline by Fangue (Fangue et al., 2010) (see also DOE, 1994), in brief, the seawater from each culture was filtered of embryos and siphoned into separate, pre-warmed (25°C) sampling cuvettes. The increase from 15 to 25°C was corrected for later using a carbonate calculator (Lewis and Wallace, 1998) described below. Each cuvette was filled and capped with no head space to minimize CO₂ exchange with the atmosphere. Each sample was measured before and after addition of the indicator dye *m*-Cresol Purple. The absorbance wavelengths measured corresponded to one non-absorbing and two absorption maxima for the *m*-Cresol Purple indicator. Final pH values were determined using the absorbance values and the pH determination calculations in the modified standard operating procedures (see DOE, 1994). The accuracy of these results was ensured by periodic measurement of a certified reference material (CRM) for pH (Ocean Carbon Dioxide Quality Control, Scripps Institute of Oceanography) (Fangue et al., 2010). Total alkalinity measurements were made as previously described (Fangue et al., 2010). Briefly, seawater was siphoned and filtered, ensuring no air bubbles or embryos, into 125 ml borosilicate glass-stoppered bottles (1500-125, Corning, Corning, NY, USA) bottles, allowed to overflow, capped and brought to 25°C for immediate measurement *via* titration. The total alkalinity (μmol kg⁻¹), along with the corresponding pH measurement, were then entered into the CO2SYS carbonate calculator (Lewis and Wallace, 1998) with the pre-determined dissociation constant for carbonic acid (Mehrbach et al., 1973) to determine the concentrations of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and *P*CO₂, the remaining parameters needed to fully characterize the carbonate system in seawater and fully characterize the amount of CO₂ in the seawater sample (Fangue et al., 2010).

Table 1. Summary of total alkalinity (TA), CO₂ and pH values

CO ₂ treatment (μatm)	TA (μmol kg ⁻¹)	Actual CO ₂ concentration (μatm)	pH
380	2218±8.7	389±23	8.055±0.022
1000	2219±4.2	973±25	7.699±0.008
1350	2218±5.7	1364±20	7.621±0.004

Actual CO₂ concentrations were calculated using CO2SYS calculator (Lewis and Wallace, 1998) with the pre-determined dissociation constant for carbonic acid (Mehrbach et al., 1973).

Table 2. PMC GRN gene-specific primer sequences used for qPCR

Gene	Forward primer (5'→3')	Reverse primer (5'→3')
<i>Wnt8</i>	ACAACGAGGCTGGCAGAAA	AGACGCCATGACACTTACAGGTT
<i>Pmar1</i>	ATCCACCATCCTCGCATTCA	TTCCGCTTACGACCGATGA
<i>Alx1</i>	CAGCGACGACGTCAAGTCA	TCTTGGCATCGCTGTCGTT
<i>Msp130</i>	CCGAGGTCCAGCGATTGA	CACCCAACTGACCTGTGTAAAGG
<i>SM30b</i>	GTTCTCCGGTAGGCAAAACA	ACATTTTGGGGCAAATGAAA
<i>SM50</i>	AGAACCCCATGTCAGGACCACC	AAACGAAAGCGCGCATGG
<i>VegFR</i>	AGGGCAGGTCAACAGTTCAG	GGCAACCAATTTGACATCCT
<i>efl-α</i>	CAAAGAAATCGTCAGGGAGGTC	AGATTGGGATGAAGGGCACAG

PMC, primary mesenchyme cell; GRN, gene regulatory network.

Embryo sampling

Embryo samples were collected by reverse filtration at three time points during the experiment: (1) directly after hatching and PMC ingression (21 h post-fertilization, h.p.f.), (2) at primary invagination (30 h.p.f.) and (3) at full gastrula (36 h.p.f.). Each of the samples (which contained ~40,000 whole embryos per sample) were homogenized by vortexing in 500 µl of TRIzol Reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and stored at -80°C until RNA extraction. Total RNA was extracted using the TRIzol manufacturer's protocol with the following modifications. Once homogenized, samples were thawed, passed through a 25 gauge needle 3–5 times and washed with 100 µl chloroform, and the RNA was precipitated with 125 µl isopropanol + 125 µl precipitation salt solution (1.2 mol l⁻¹ NaCl, 0.8 mol l⁻¹ disodium citrate in DEPC-treated RNase-free water). The RNA was re-suspended in nuclease-free water and RNA concentrations were measured and purity was checked using a Nanodrop ND-1000 full-spectrum UV/Vis spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA).

Gene expression analysis using qPCR

Following extraction, 100 ng total RNA was reverse transcribed to synthesize cDNA using oligo dT and the ImProm-II Reverse Transcription System (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol. The resulting cDNA was amplified *via* quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) using primers for the PMC GRN-specific genes: *Wnt8*, *Pmar1*, *Alx1*, *Msp130*, *SM30b*, *SM50* and *VegFR* (Table 2). Gene-specific primers for *Wnt8*, *Pmar1*, *Alx1*, *Msp130*, *SM30b*, *SM50* and *efl-α* were designed using Primer Express software (version 2.0.0; Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) with the published *S. purpuratus* sequences for *efl-α* (GenBank accession no. NM_001123497.1), *Wnt8* (SPU_020371), *Pmar1* (SPU_01422), *Alx1* (SPU_214644), *Msp130* (SPU_013821), *SM30b* (SPU_000826) and *SM50* (SPU_018811). Confirmed primer sequences for *VegFR* were obtained from SpBase (<http://www.spbase.org/SpBase/resources/methods/q-pcr.php>).

Briefly, qPCR was carried out in 20 µl SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) reactions containing 2 µl of template cDNA and 1 µl of each primer. The qPCR reactions were run with the following protocol: 1 cycle at 95°C for 3 min, 40 cycles at 58°C for 10 s and 95°C for 1 min, 1 cycle at 55°C for 1 min. Melt curve analyses were also conducted to ensure only a single product for each primer set was amplified. Relative mRNA levels were quantified as follows. *Wnt8*, *Pmar1*, *Alx1*, *Msp130*, *SM30b*, *SM50*, *VegFR* and *efl-α* cycle threshold (Ct) values were first normalized to a single *S. purpuratus* embryo standard control sample run on every qPCR plate. Four, 10-fold serial dilutions of this standard were used to develop a standard curve on each plate and Ct results from all samples were expressed relative to these curves. The Ct values were then normalized to the corresponding *efl-α* values. The

efl-α gene was used as an internal control as its expression does not significantly differ in response to elevated CO₂. The resulting normalized values are the reported relative concentrations for *Wnt8*, *Pmar1*, *Alx1*, *Msp130*, *SM30b*, *SM50* and *VegFR*.

Quantification of spicule matrix protein SM50

To determine whether elevated CO₂ differentially affected the translation of transcripts for the terminal differentiation genes, protein analysis was carried out on *SM50*. Approximately 1500 embryos were collected from each culture at each sampling time point for protein extraction and immunoblot analysis of SM50 protein. Embryos were collected by microcentrifugation, all seawater was removed, and the samples were immediately snap-frozen and stored at -80°C.

Whole-embryo samples were homogenized by sonication in a lysis buffer containing 1.4× protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, Pleasanton, CA, USA), 1 µg ml⁻¹ leupeptin, 0.1% NP-40 substitute, 100 mmol l⁻¹ DTT and 100 mmol l⁻¹ PMSF. Samples were quantified using the BCA assay (Pierce Biotechnologies, Rockford, IL, USA), and 10 µg of homogenate from each sample was dissolved in sample loading dye and heated at 100°C for 3 min. Proteins were resolved on a 4% stacking/12% resolving discontinuous SDS-page gel and electrophoretically transferred to Hybond ECL 0.45 µm nitrocellulose membrane (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ, USA). Blots were washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and blocked overnight in 5% non-fat dry milk in PBS with 0.1% Tween-20 at 4°C. Blots were then incubated in primary antibody (polyclonal antisera prepared in rabbits against SM50 at a 1:500 dilution in blocking buffer, courtesy of Dr Fred Wilt) (Killian and Wilt, 1996) for 1 h at room temperature, washed in PBS with 0.1% Tween-20, and then incubated in secondary antibody [goat anti-rabbit horseradish peroxidase conjugate (BioRad) at 1:5000 dilution in blocking buffer] for 1.5 h at room temperature. Blots were developed in chemiluminescent SuperSignal West Dura Extended Duration Substrate (Pierce Biotechnologies) and imaged using Quantity One software and VersaDoc imaging system (BioRad). Blots were quantified and analyzed with ImageJ (<http://lukemiller.org/index.php/2010/11/analyzing-gels-and-western-blots-with-image-j/>). Sample intensities were quantified relative to intensities of a standard protein extract (*S. purpuratus* prism stage embryos); 10 µg of standard were loaded onto each gel to ensure relative intensities of SM50 on each gel could be directly compared.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using JMP 8.0 (SAS). For each gene, MANOVA analyses were conducted to determine the significance of CO₂ on the expression of each gene, with CO₂, trial and mating pair nested within trial as factors. A MANOVA was also used to test for differences in SM50 protein levels with CO₂,

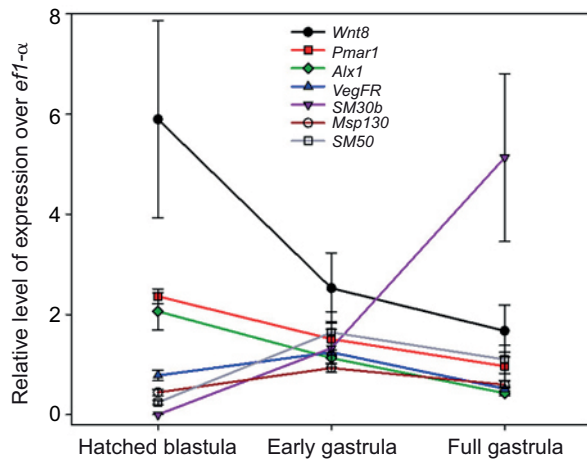


Fig. 2. Summary of gene expression in all seven genes of interest at the control CO₂ concentration of 380 μ atm at hatched blastula, early gastrula and full gastrula developmental stages. All $N=4$ (representing mate pairs) except *Pmar1* where $N=3$. Error bars indicate s.e.m. For definitions of gene names, see Fig. 1.

trial and mating pair nested within trial as factors. Stages were analyzed separately using one-way ANOVA and *post hoc* Tukey–Kramer HSD was used to determine differences between CO₂ concentrations.

RESULTS

Overview of expression profiles at control CO₂ concentrations

For control conditions, embryos were raised under 380 μ atm CO₂, an accepted level of ambient CO₂ that yields a control pH of ~ 8.1 , and transcript levels for the seven candidate genes were evaluated using qPCR at three time points between hatched blastula and gastrula stages (Fig. 2). All transcripts were present at detectable levels at all three time points and generally matched patterns of expression observed in other studies (see below for details of individual genes). Of the genes evaluated in this study, *Wnt8* exhibited the highest level of expression between hatched blastula and gastrula stage, consistent with the requirement for *Wnt8* signaling in multiple regulatory pathways in the embryo (e.g. endoderm specification and non-skeletogenic mesoderm specification as well as PMC specification) (Smith and Davidson, 2008).

At hatched blastula stage, *Wnt8* exhibited the highest level of expression. Expression of *Pmar1* and *Alx1* were the next highest, and were similar in expression levels to each other. *VegFR* and *Msp130* exhibited a lower level of expression, followed by *SM50* and *SM30b*, exhibiting the lowest transcript levels (Fig. 2). At early gastrula stage, *Wnt8* expression decreased significantly, but was still greater than that of all other genes. *Pmar1* and *Alx1* transcript levels also decreased and were similar to those of *VegFR* and *Msp130*. *VegFR*, *Msp130*, *SM50* and *SM30b* displayed increases in transcript level. At full gastrula stage, *Wnt8* transcript levels further decreased but, again, were still higher than those of the other genes. Expression of *Pmar1* and *Alx1* also exhibited a further decrease in expression. *VegFR*, *Msp130* and *SM50* all displayed decreases and had similar transcript levels. In contrast, *SM30b* transcript levels increased significantly by this developmental stage, an expression pattern consistent with previous findings (Guss and Ettensohn, 1997; Wei et al., 2006).

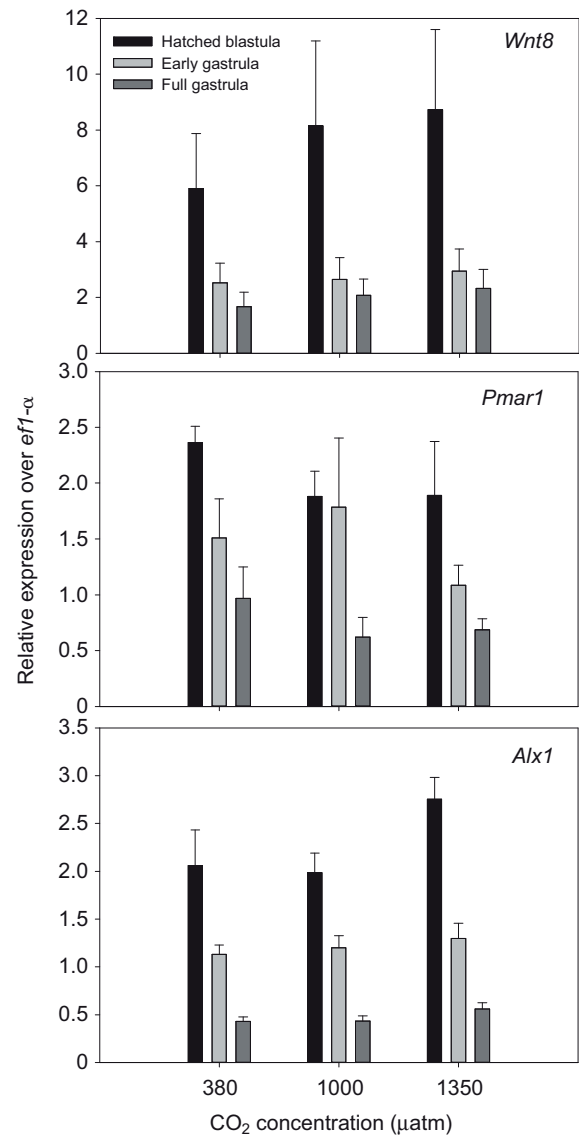


Fig. 3. Expression of the upstream genes *Wnt8*, *Pmar1* and *Alx1* at hatched blastula, early gastrula and full gastrula stages at CO₂ concentrations of 380, 1000 and 1350 μ atm. All $N=4$ (representing mating pairs) except *Pmar1* where $N=3$. Error bars indicate s.e.m. For definitions of gene names, see Fig. 1.

Patterns of gene expression in embryos developing under high CO₂ conditions

Wnt8

As a general pattern, *Wnt8* expression declined as development advanced. At the control CO₂ concentration of 380 μ atm, the expression profile was as follows: *Wnt8* expression was highest at hatched blastula stage, decreased at early gastrula ($P=0.0449$) and further decreased at gastrula ($P<0.0080$; Fig. 3). Expression profiles were similar at 1000 and 1350 μ atm CO₂. MANOVA results indicate that *Wnt8* expression varied significantly as a function of CO₂ concentration across development ($P=0.0042$). Expression also varied with trial ($P<0.0001$). There was also a significant interaction between CO₂ and trial ($P=0.0136$); however, this effect simply highlights the variation between mating pairs, as mating pair was nested within trial. A separate ANOVA and *post hoc* analysis

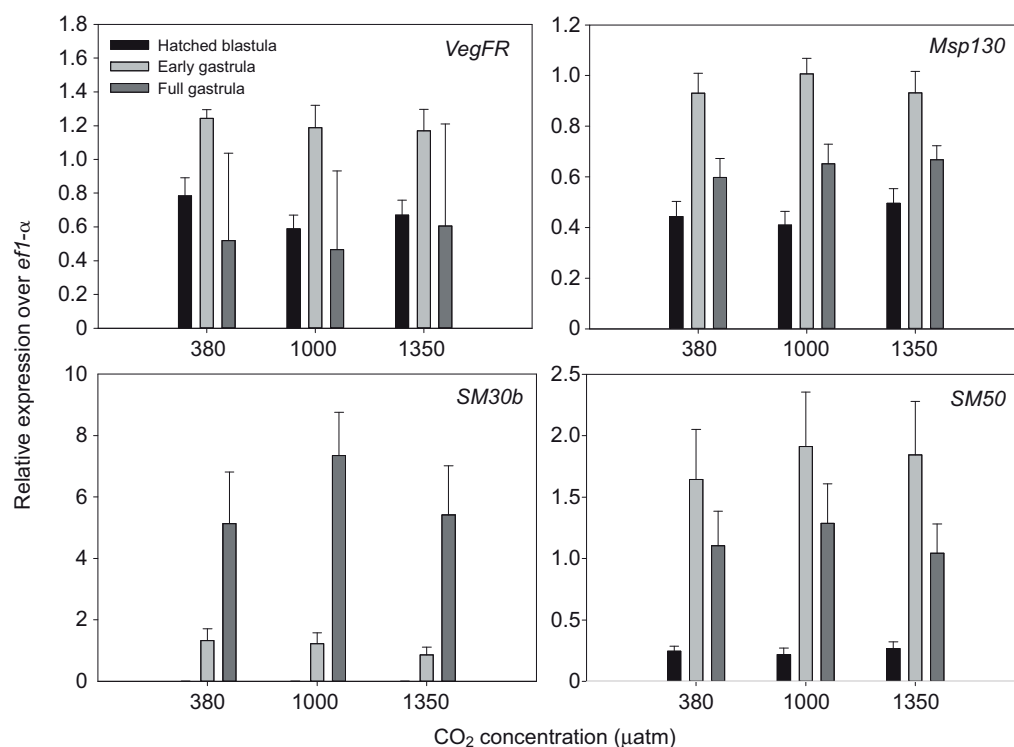


Fig. 4. Expression of the downstream genes *VegFR*, *Msp130*, *SM30b* and *SM50* at hatched blastula, early gastrula and full gastrula stages at CO₂ concentrations of 380, 1000 and 1350 µatm. All $N=4$ (representing mating pairs). Error bars indicate s.e.m. For definitions of gene names, see Fig. 1.

revealed that there was a significant increase in expression from 380 to 1350 µatm at full gastrula stage ($P=0.0217$).

Pmar1

Under control conditions of 380 µatm, *Pmar1* expression was highest at hatched blastula stage, decreased slightly at early gastrula and further decreased at full gastrula. When embryos developed under high CO₂, there were different outcomes for the two CO₂ treatments: the pattern of expression was similar to that of the control for the 1350 µatm CO₂ treatment, whereas at 1000 µatm there was some variation (Fig. 3). Specifically, there was a decrease in hatched blastula expression, an increase at early gastrula stage and a decrease at full gastrula stage. However, these shifts in expression observed in the mid-CO₂ level treatment were not significant (all $P>0.05$; Fig. 3). Thus, expression of *Pmar1* during early development was not affected by elevated CO₂ concentrations (MANOVA, $P=0.2342$). There was also no variation due to trial, nor was there a significant interaction between CO₂ and trial ($P=0.2867$). Furthermore, for embryos at all three CO₂ concentrations, expression at full gastrula stage was significantly lower than at hatched blastula stage ($P=0.0012$).

Alx1

At the control CO₂ concentration of 380 µatm, transcript for *Alx1* showed an overall reduction as development proceeded: *Alx1* gene expression was highest at the hatched blastula stage, decreased at the early gastrula stage, and further decreased at the full gastrula stage. The expression profiles at 1000 and 1350 µatm were nearly identical to the expression profile at 380 µatm (Fig. 3). There was no significant variation in *Alx1* expression as a result of CO₂ (MANOVA, $P=0.2126$), but there was a significant effect of trial (MANOVA, $P<0.0001$). For all CO₂ concentrations, expression at hatched blastula stage was significantly greater than that of early gastrulae ($P=0.0016$) and full gastrulae ($P<0.0001$). At hatched

blastula stage, *Alx1* expression was highest at 1350 µatm; however, this was non-significant ($P=0.0700$).

VegFR

Under control CO₂ conditions, *VegFR* transcript levels were highest at early gastrula stage and lowest at full gastrula stage. The general expression pattern was the same at 1000 and 1350 µatm (Fig. 4). Overall, there was no effect of CO₂ concentration on *VegFR* expression (MANOVA, $P=0.2562$), nor was there any variation attributable to trial (MANOVA, $P=0.5245$) or a significant interaction between CO₂ concentration and trial (MANOVA, $P=0.4192$). At each CO₂ concentration, expression at hatched blastula stage was significantly lower than that at early gastrula ($P=0.0014$) and significantly higher than that at full gastrula ($P=0.0089$).

SM30b

At 380 µatm CO₂, *SM30b* transcript levels were very low at hatched blastula stage, increased significantly at early gastrula, and further increased at full gastrula stage, where expression was greatest. The same trend was true for embryos cultured at 1000 and 1350 µatm CO₂ (Fig. 4). *SM30b* expression, however, did vary as a function of CO₂ concentration through development (MANOVA, $P=0.0163$), as indicated by increased expression at 1000 µatm in full gastrula stage. There was also variation as a result of trial (MANOVA, $P=0.0181$). The effects of CO₂ concentration and trial were independent of each other (MANOVA, $P=0.5557$). At each CO₂ concentration, the increase in expression from hatched blastula stage to early gastrula ($P<0.0001$) and full gastrula stage ($P<0.0001$) was highly significant.

Msp130

At the control CO₂ concentration of 380 µatm, *Msp130* expression was highest at early gastrula stage and lowest at hatched blastula

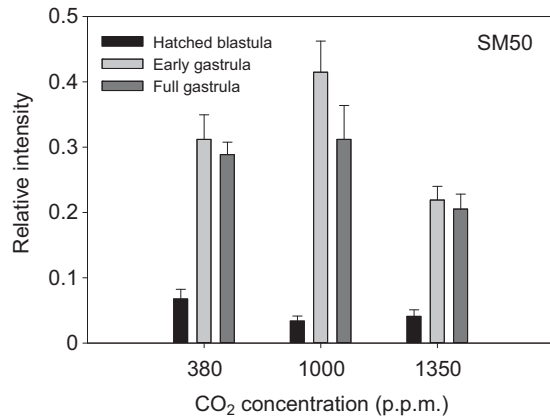


Fig. 5. SM50 protein expression at hatched blastula, early gastrula and full gastrula stages at CO₂ concentrations of 380, 1000 and 1350 μ atm. $N=4$ (representing mating pairs). Error bars indicate s.e.m.

stage at each CO₂ concentration (Fig. 4). *Msp130* expression did not vary as a result of CO₂ concentration (MANOVA, $P=0.3419$). However, expression did vary as a result of trial (MANOVA, $P=0.0004$), which was independent of CO₂ (MANOVA, $P=0.4040$). The expression at early gastrula stage was significantly higher than hatched blastula expression ($P<0.0001$), and the increase in expression at full gastrula over hatched blastula stage was also significant ($P=0.0117$).

SM50 gene expression and protein levels

Under control conditions, *SM50* transcript levels were lowest at hatched blastula stage, increased at early gastrula, where expression was highest, and decreased at full gastrula stage at 380, 1000 and 1350 μ atm CO₂ (Fig. 4). Expression throughout development did not vary as a function of CO₂ concentration (MANOVA, $P=0.7506$) but did vary with trial (MANOVA, $P=0.0012$). There was no interaction between CO₂ concentration and trial (MANOVA, $P=0.9127$). At all CO₂ concentrations, *SM50* gene expression at hatched blastula stage was significantly lower than at early gastrula stage ($P<0.0001$) and full gastrula stage ($P<0.0001$).

Conversely, while there was no significant effect of CO₂ on *SM50* transcript levels, there was a significant effect on SM50 protein levels (MANOVA, $P<0.0001$; Fig. 5). SM50 protein level from embryos at each CO₂ concentration followed the same expression pattern as *SM50* transcript level: expression was lowest at hatched blastula stage, increased at early gastrula, where expression was greatest ($P<0.0001$ relative to hatched blastula), and decreased

slightly at full gastrula stage but was still significantly greater than expression at hatched blastula ($P<0.0001$). SM50 protein expression did vary within trials (MANOVA, $P<0.0001$). There was also a significant interaction between CO₂ and trial (MANOVA, $P=0.0119$). However, the interaction was caused by expression in embryos at 1000 μ atm displaying a slightly different expression pattern from that in embryos at 380 and 1350 μ atm – early gastrula stage embryos at 1000 μ atm displayed greater expression than embryos at both 380 and 1350 μ atm. One-way ANOVA (with Bonferroni-corrected $\alpha=0.0167$) results at each stage show that embryos at hatched blastula stage at 1000 μ atm ($P=0.0006$) and 1350 μ atm ($P=0.0044$) displayed significantly lower SM50 protein levels than those at 380 μ atm. At early gastrula stage, embryos at 1000 μ atm exhibited the greatest expression level, which was significantly greater than that at 1350 μ atm ($P=0.0002$) but not that at 380 μ atm ($P=0.1867$). Protein expression at 380 μ atm was greater than that at 1350 μ atm, but this was not significant ($P=0.0493$). Finally, there were no significant differences between CO₂ treatments at full gastrula stage ($P=0.0261$).

DISCUSSION

The molecular exploration of embryonic gene regulatory networks is extensive, but placing the study of regulatory pathways within these networks in an ecological or environmental context is relatively unexplored. In this study, a subset of key pathways in the PMC GRN necessary for gastrulation and the initiation of spiculogenesis (see Fig. 1) were investigated in embryos reared at relevant, elevated CO₂ levels through gastrulation. With regard to the effects of ocean acidification conditions on development, the results of this study revealed only subtle changes in *SM30b* and *Wnt8* expression at the high CO₂ concentrations of 1000 and 1350 μ atm, and variable expression in a biomineralization-specific protein, SM50. Additionally, *Alx1*, *Pmar1*, *VegFR*, *Msp130* and *SM50* were unaffected in terms of transcript level and timing of expression (for a summary, see Table 3).

Embryo and micromere specification genes

The CO₂ concentration of 1350 μ atm had a significant effect on *Wnt8* expression at full gastrula stage: transcript levels were 20–28% greater than control levels at this stage. An increase in *Wnt8* transcript level of this magnitude may not adversely affect the embryo, as no morphological abnormalities were observed in these embryos (not shown). Significant overexpression would likely have caused abnormalities such as the multiple invagination sites around the embryo found in a previous study (Wikramanayake et al., 2004). Given the current data and lack of morphological abnormalities, it may be that 1350 μ atm, while causing some change in *Wnt8*

Table 3. Summary of expression changes in embryos at hatched blastula, early gastrula and full gastrula stages at elevated CO₂ concentrations

Gene	1000 μ atm			1350 μ atm		
	Hatched blastula	Early gastrula	Full gastrula	Hatched blastula	Early gastrula	Full gastrula
<i>Wnt8</i>	–	–	–	–	–	↑
<i>Pmar1</i>	–	–	–	–	–	–
<i>Alx1</i>	–	–	–	–	–	–
<i>VegFR</i>	–	–	–	–	–	–
<i>SM30b</i>	–	–	↑	–	–	–
<i>Msp130</i>	–	–	–	–	–	–
<i>SM50</i>	–	–	–	–	–	–

Data indicate the response to CO₂ treatment relative to control (380 μ atm CO₂).
– indicates no significant change; arrows denote direction of change in gene expression.

Table 4. Summary of the role each targeted gene plays during early development, the change in gene expression and the possible implications for *S. purpuratus* embryos

Gene	Role/function/gene information	Response to elevated CO ₂		Predictions/implications of response to elevated CO ₂
		1000 µatm	1350 µatm	
<i>Wnt8</i>	Endomesodermal specification, embryo patterning, early PMC-GRN regulator	–	↑ at full gastrula stage	Gastrulation (<i>via</i> endomesodermal specification and embryo patterning) may be compensated for at high CO ₂
<i>Pmar1</i>	Upstream repressor of PMC specification and skeletogenic micromere lineage repressor	–	–	Repressor expression and function presumably not affected
<i>Alx1</i>	Activator of skeletogenic micromere lineage	–	–	No significant effect on activation and regulation of skeletogenic micromere lineage
<i>VegFR</i>	Ectoderm ligand receptor; regulatory input into <i>SM30b</i> ; involved in proper migration and orientation of the PMCs	–	–	No significant effect on PMC migration and orientation
<i>SM30b</i>	Biomineralization; regulates spicule growth	↑ at full gastrula stage	–	Upregulation may reflect ability to compensate for elevated CO ₂ ; regulation of spicule rudiment and early spicule formation may be uninterrupted
<i>Msp130</i>	Biomineralization; hypothesized role in Ca ²⁺ sequestration	–	–	Ca ²⁺ sequestration for spicule formation may not be interrupted
<i>SM50</i>	Biomineralization; spicule rudiment deposition and elongation	–	–	Transcription regulating spicule rudiment deposition and elongation unaffected

– indicates no significant change; arrows denote direction of change in gene expression.

expression at full gastrula stage, may not interfere with the initiation and regulation of embryo patterning, endoderm specification and, by extension, gastrulation.

Another study (Todgham and Hofmann, 2009) that explored the transcriptomic response to ocean acidification in *S. purpuratus* at prism stage (~40 h.p.f.) found that *Wnt8* expression was decreased at the 540 µatm CO₂ level and exhibited no change at ~1020 µatm. Differences in embryo responses between that study and the current study at the CO₂ concentration of ~1000 µatm are likely a result of the use of a microarray approach by Todgham and Hofmann, compared with the present qPCR-based study. Additionally, differences may be attributed to developmental stage, as in the latter, early prism stage *Wnt8* expression levels are already significantly lower than those of earlier stages under normal conditions (Wikramanayake et al., 2004).

The present data indicate that elevated CO₂ did not alter *Alx1* expression. *Alx1* is necessary for specification and morphogenetic movement of the PMCs, while also activating the genes necessary for the epithelial mesenchymal transitions of gastrulation (Ettensohn et al., 2003; Wu and McClay, 2007). *Alx1* expression was also found to activate expression of downstream genes in the PMC GRN that are in turn essential for activation of biomineralization genes (such as *Msp130* and *SM50*) (Ettensohn et al., 2003). Therefore, the current data suggest that PMC ingression and the subsequent initiation of the morphogenetic movements of gastrulation would be unaffected by elevated CO₂. Morphological studies of early developmental stages exposed to elevated CO₂ (Hammond, 2010) indeed show this; gastrulation proceeds successfully although with a possible modest delay in timing. Given that *Pmar1* expression also did not change in response to elevated CO₂ levels, a change in *Alx1* expression would not be anticipated. It is important to note, however, that recent data suggest that *Alx1* expression is not solely regulated by *Pmar1*. Sharma and Ettensohn, using pharmacological inhibitors of MEK and WMISH with *LvEts1*, demonstrated that while *Alx1* is activated by *Pmar1*, its expression is maintained by MAPK signaling and expression of *ets1*, another transcriptional regulator in the PMC GRN (Sharma and Ettensohn, 2010); thus, *ets1* expression under elevated CO₂ conditions should also be considered. The present data contrast with those of Todgham and Hofmann, who observed a decrease in

Alx1 expression at 1020 µatm in prism (~40 h.p.f.) stage *S. purpuratus* (Todgham and Hofmann, 2009). As noted above, these differences may be due to the different developmental stages evaluated and different quantification methods used in each of the studies.

Skeletogenesis-specific genes and proteins

The *SM30b* expression pattern observed here is similar to previous findings (e.g. Oliveri et al., 2008; Killian et al., 2010) where expression in the PMCs begins at ingression and continues steadily after this (Guss and Ettensohn, 1997; Livingston et al., 2006). Previous work (Duloquin et al., 2007) has demonstrated that, unlike the other terminal biomineralization genes in the PMC GRN that are regulated predominately by the *Alx1* signaling cascade, *SM30* expression is largely activated by the ectodermal signaling of *VegF/VegFR*. As CO₂ did not perturb *VegFR* expression, the CO₂ induced changes in *SM30b* expression at full gastrula stage must have occurred by an undetermined mechanism independent of *VegFR*. Moreover, because spiculogenesis and spicule rudiment formation have been shown to occur normally in embryos raised at 1000 µatm (Hammond, 2010), such an increase in *SM30b* expression at 1000 µatm suggests that at this CO₂ concentration the embryo may upregulate *SM30b* as a way of compensating for the heightened CO₂ conditions and to ensure spiculogenesis continues. In contrast, O'Donnell and colleagues observed downregulation of *SM30-like* expression in early *Lytechinus pictus* echinoplutei in response to a CO₂ concentration of 970 µatm (O'Donnell et al., 2010). However, these findings were in a much later developmental stage, possibly explaining the differences in expression in response to CO₂ (i.e. expression at the initiation of spiculogenesis *vs* expression after significant completion of the larval skeleton). Additionally, variation in response could be related to species-specific differences. Further studies should elucidate the variable patterns of expression in *S. purpuratus*.

The pattern of expression of *Msp130* exhibited in this study is similar to previous findings (Guss and Ettensohn, 1997) with a peak in *Msp130* expression at early gastrula stage. *Msp130* encodes a PMC-specific cell-surface glycoprotein (Illies et al., 2002). While the exact function of *Msp130* is unclear, it has been suggested to

play a role in Ca²⁺ sequestration and/or deposition during spicule formation as the *N*-linked oligosaccharide chain on the Msp130 protein binds Ca²⁺ (Carson et al., 1985; Farach-Carson et al., 1989). As elevated CO₂ did not affect the expression of *Msp130*, if Msp130 protein is indeed necessary for Ca²⁺ sequestration and deposition, then CO₂ levels up 1350 µatm may not interfere with Ca²⁺ uptake and transport.

SM50 gene expression and protein levels

SM50 gene expression typically begins between hatched blastula stage and PMC ingression (Guss and Ettensohn, 1997) and follows the pattern observed in the current study. *SM50* gene expression is necessary for spicule elongation. Blockage of the gene and protein by injection of morpholino antisense oligonucleotides has been shown to prevent biomineralization (Peled-Kamar et al., 2002; Wilt et al., 2008b). Elevated CO₂ concentrations up to 1350 µatm appeared to have no effect on *SM50* expression (Fig. 4). Given that one of the confirmed regulatory inputs into *SM50*, *Alx1* (Oliveri et al., 2008), was not affected by 1350 µatm CO₂, the lack of a shift in *SM50* transcript levels is not surprising. As *SM50* appears to be necessary for the deposition of the spicule rudiment (Wilt et al., 2008b), uninterrupted *SM50* expression would ensure minimal interference with calcite crystal deposition in high CO₂ seawater, a notion which is supported by findings that elevated CO₂ up to 1000 µatm did not negatively affect the timing of spicule deposition in *S. purpuratus* gastrulae (Hammond, 2010). It is important to note that there is evidence that the deposition of the calcite crystal and spicule elongation are two different processes; the deposited rudiment is pure calcite crystal whereas spicule elongation involves the conversion of deposited amorphous calcium carbonate to calcite over time in the elongating spicule (Beniash et al., 1997; Ingersoll and Wilt, 1998; Peled-Kamar et al., 2002; Wilt et al., 2008b).

The difference in expression between *SM50* transcript levels and SM50 protein levels suggests that elevated CO₂ could have an effect on translation rates or protein stability. The significant increase in levels of SM50 protein in early gastrula stage embryos at 1000 µatm vs control CO₂ levels suggests that the embryos respond to CO₂ at a post-transcriptional level, though whether this is specific to SM50 alone or is a general effect on the proteome is not known. Interestingly, however, the significant decrease in SM50 protein levels at high CO₂ levels (1350 µatm) suggests that the embryo may not be able to compensate for such a high CO₂ concentration. Such a depression may result in negative interference with spicule deposition or elongation; however, further studies into spiculogenesis at elevated CO₂ are needed to determine whether CO₂ concentrations at this level have an effect on spicule deposition or elongation.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study demonstrate that many of the genes in a subset of PMC GRN genes were unaffected by elevated levels of CO₂, and for those that were, the increases, while significant, were only subtle at different life history stages (see summary in Table 4). Interestingly, one of these genes with slightly increased expression was *Wnt8*, which may reflect the ability of the embryo to compensate for increased CO₂ by upregulating this gene, which is necessary for the initiation of the PMC GRN. The slightly increased expression of *Wnt8* has positive implications for the process of gastrulation; embryo patterning and endomesodermal specification are most likely unaffected. The second of the affected genes was the biomineralization-specific *SM30b*. Upregulation of this gene suggests the continued ability to initiate and carry out spiculogenesis.

Furthermore, while expression of another biomineralization gene, *SM50*, did not vary with elevated CO₂, the protein it encodes, SM50, displayed an increase in expression at 1000 µatm, but a decrease in expression at 1350 µatm, suggesting the embryo may initially be able to compensate for the increased CO₂ by increasing the translation or stability of SM50, but as CO₂ increases, this ability may be compromised, with potential negative effects on spicule deposition and elongation.

While further studies are needed to clarify the variable responses to elevated CO₂, including studies comparing transcription and translation, it appears that early developmental and skeletogenic gene expression in *S. purpuratus* embryos was little affected, suggesting that these embryos may be somewhat resilient at the molecular level with regard to elevated CO₂ concentrations. Given recent work suggesting that coastal organisms in the eastern Pacific may be exposed to acidic, high *P*_{CO₂} seawater as a result of seasonal, episodic upwelling more regularly than once believed (Feely et al., 2009; Hauri et al., 2009), the seeming robustness is not altogether surprising. The seasonal, potentially long-term exposures experienced by *S. purpuratus*, a keystone benthic species along the North American west coast, may have allowed for some degree of adaptation to elevated CO₂ concentrations.

The present study is one of the first to investigate embryonic responses to elevated CO₂ in PMC GRN-specific genes, especially those upstream of the terminal biomineralization genes. Moreover, it attempts to connect the expression of genes involved in crucial developmental processes and gene batteries to the changing environmental conditions caused by anthropogenically driven CO₂-induced ocean acidification. The ecological development approach to understanding the possible consequences for early life history stages will increase our understanding of key developmental processes in context while enabling a greater ability to forecast how marine organisms will or will not respond to their rapidly changing environments.

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