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3

4 SYNERGISTIC EFFECTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE AND LOCAL STRESSORS: CO<sub>2</sub> AND  
5 NUTRIENT DRIVEN CHANGE IN SUBTIDAL ROCKY HABITATS

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17

18 Running head: Synergies between climate change and local conditions

19

20 Key words: climate change, habitat resilience, carbon dioxide, CO<sub>2</sub>, coralline algae, turf-

21 forming algae

22

23 **Abstract**

24 Climate-driven change represents the cumulative effect of global through local scale  
25 conditions, and understanding their manifestation at local scales can empower local  
26 management. Change in the dominance of habitats is often the product of local nutrient  
27 pollution that occurs at relatively local scales (i.e. catchment-scale), a critical scale of  
28 management at which global impacts will manifest. We tested whether forecasted global-  
29 scale change (elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and subsequent ocean acidification) and local stressors (elevated  
30 nutrients) can combine to accelerate the expansion of filamentous turfs (kelp-inhibitors) at the  
31 expense of calcifying algae (kelp understory). Our results not only support this model of  
32 future change, but also highlight the synergistic effects of future CO<sub>2</sub> and nutrient  
33 concentrations on the abundance of turfs. These results suggest that global and local stressors  
34 need to be assessed in meaningful combinations so that the anticipated effects of climate  
35 change do not create the false impression that, however complex, climate change will  
36 produce smaller effects than reality. These findings empower local managers because they  
37 show that policies of reducing local stressors (e.g. nutrient pollution) can reduce the effects of  
38 global stressors (e.g. ocean acidification) not under their governance. The connection  
39 between research and government policy provides an example whereby knowledge (and  
40 decision-making) across local through global scales provides solutions to some of the most  
41 vexing challenges for attaining social goals of sustainability, biological conservation and  
42 economic development.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Global climate as a driver of ecological patterns across local through biogeographic scales  
46 has long been of legitimate concern to ecology (Pianka, 1966). As climatologists forecast  
47 unprecedented increase to drivers of global climate change (e.g. CO<sub>2</sub> emissions: Raupach *et*  
48 *al.*, 2007), there becomes a pressing need to meaningfully incorporate cross-scale stressors  
49 into our theories on drivers of future ecological patterns. Whilst ecologists recognise that  
50 humans have come to dominate natural systems through a series of local modifications of  
51 species pools (i.e. composition of species via extraction and introductions; Hughes *et al.*,  
52 2005), and the physical and chemical environment (e.g. biogeochemical cycles; Vitousek *et*  
53 *al.*, 1997), we have only recently incorporated global-scale changes to the physical and  
54 chemical environment as subjects of additional change (Root & Schneider, 2002). Whilst we  
55 understand that the pace and direction of human-driven change is unlikely to be independent  
56 of biogeography (Connell & Irving, 2008), we are often astonished by the capacity for small  
57 scale heterogeneity to modify the effects of climate (Helmuth *et al.*, 2002), suggesting that  
58 there remains a considerable need to identify how global stressors are modified by local  
59 conditions.

60

61 In the marine environment, it is possible that global change (e.g. increasing ocean  
62 acidification) will combine with local impacts (e.g. nutrient release) to accelerate ecological  
63 change across broader areas of coast. On temperate coasts, the most densely populated coasts  
64 of the globe, perennial canopies of algae (e.g. kelp forests) and their associated understorey  
65 have been replaced by mats of turf-forming algae near expanding human populations that  
66 discharge nutrients (Eriksson *et al.*, 2002; Airoidi & Beck, 2007; Connell *et al.*, 2008). We  
67 are concerned that when combined with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, these normally  
68 ephemeral turfs may expand via: (1) the positive effects of CO<sub>2</sub> and nutrients on turfs; and (2)

69 the negative effect of CO<sub>2</sub> on understory habitat; i.e. acidification causing a reduction in  
70 calcification of coralline crusts (Harley *et al.*, 2006).

71

72 This model predicts that turfs would monopolise available space, break the facilitation  
73 between kelps and their understory, and cause greater loss of canopies on human dominated  
74 coasts. Calcifying algae (crusts or encrusting coralline algae) are the most abundant and  
75 widespread organisms on subtidal rocky coasts of the polar-temperate-tropical world  
76 (Steneck, 1986). In temperate systems, recruitment of kelp is inhibited by turfs that overgrow  
77 encrusting corallines (Kennelly, 1987a). In turn, canopies of kelp inhibit turfs (Connell, 2003;  
78 Irving & Connell, 2006; Russell, 2007), facilitate crusts (Connell, 2003) and thereby maintain  
79 recruitment. Acidification, however, is likely to reduce calcification in coralline algae (Gao *et*  
80 *al.*, 1993; Leclercq *et al.*, 2000), while possibly enhancing abundance of turfs (Andersen &  
81 Andersen, 2006).

82

83 Knowledge of the potential effects of climate change in marine systems is, to date, primarily  
84 based on experiments that only assess global-scale stressors (e.g. ocean acidification in  
85 isolation). These stressors will not, however, act in isolation and experiments are needed to  
86 assess their potential synergistic effects (Harley *et al.*, 2006; Schlesinger, 2006). Therefore,  
87 the aim of this paper was to examine whether the combination of global (CO<sub>2</sub>) and local  
88 (nutrients) perturbations has the potential to accelerate the currently observed change of  
89 temperate reefs from calcifying crusts (and kelp overstorey) to mats of turf (which inhibit  
90 kelp). We elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and nutrients separately and in combination to test the hypothesis  
91 that both nutrients and CO<sub>2</sub> cause the biomass and cover of turfs to increase, and the biomass  
92 of crusts to decrease, and that these changes would be greatest when future CO<sub>2</sub> and elevated  
93 nutrients are present in combination. If the results support this hypothesis, they would imply

94 that global and local stressors need to be assessed in meaningful combinations so that the  
95 anticipated affects of climate change do not create the false impression that climate change,  
96 however complex, will produce smaller effects than is realistic.

97

## 98 **Materials and methods**

### 99 *Experimental design*

100 The effects of CO<sub>2</sub> and nutrients were tested on two groups of algae, coralline crusts  
101 (*Lithophyllum* sp.) and turf-forming algae (*Feldmannia* spp.), in a mesocosm experiment.  
102 Algae were exposed to combinations of CO<sub>2</sub> (current *v.* future) and nutrients (ambient *v.*  
103 elevated) in a crossed design. Two replicate mesocosms were used per combination of  
104 treatments, with replicate specimens of algae ( $n = 5$  per algal type) in each mesocosm. Levels  
105 for CO<sub>2</sub> were based on the current ambient (current; 380 ppm) and IS92a model predictions  
106 for the year 2030 (future; 550 ppm). The current and predicted pH values for the Southern  
107 Ocean that correspond to these CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are 8.1 (measured in this study) and 7.95  
108 (model predictions by Meehl *et al.*, 2007), respectively. It is worth noting that the future  
109 concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> chosen for this experiment is likely to be conservative, as current CO<sub>2</sub>  
110 emissions are exceeding the worst-case predictions (model scenario A1F; Raupach *et al.*,  
111 2007). The “elevated” concentration for nutrients was chosen to be similar to concentrations  
112 in waters off the coast of metropolitan Adelaide (Gorman *et al.*, in review), again, a  
113 conservative estimate of anthropogenic nutrient inputs.

114

115 The response of algae to experimental conditions was assessed using three response  
116 variables, dry mass, photosynthetic quantum yield and cover of algae recruiting to initially  
117 blank substrate. Dry mass of algae was measured at the completion of the experiment from a  
118 standard area (0.25 cm<sup>2</sup> for crusts; 6.25 cm<sup>2</sup> for turfs) by scraping algae off the substratum

119 and weighing after having been dried to constant weight (i.e. 60°C for 48 hours). The  
120 percentage cover of algae growing on initially blank substrate (5 × 5 cm ceramic tiles) was  
121 used to assess the ability of algae to expand into unoccupied space and was quantified at the  
122 end of the experiment by visually estimating the percentage cover of algae ( $n = 7$  per  
123 mesocosm). Quantum yield of algae was calculated as the ratio of variable to maximum  
124 fluorescence ( $F_v/F_m$ ) of dark adapted algae and was measured using a Pulse Amplitude  
125 Modulated (PAM) fluorometer (Walz, Germany). First, fluorescence of algae was measured  
126 by holding the fiberoptics of the PAM fluorometer in contact with the dark adapted alga  
127 (*in situ* in mesocosms) and exposing it to a pulsed measuring beam of red light (0.15  
128  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , 650 nm). This measurement was immediately followed by a pulse of saturating  
129 actinic light (0.8 s, 6000  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) to measure maximal fluorescence yield ( $F_m$ ). Each  
130 yield value used in the analysis was a mean of three replicate measurements taken on  
131 different parts of the alga so that the yield was not underestimated due to recovery of the  
132 photosystems from repeated measurements.

133

134 Individual specimens of each type of algae were collected from a site known to have low  
135 ambient nutrient concentrations (West Island, South Australia, 35° 36'S 138 ° 35'E; Russell  
136 & Connell, 2005) and were placed in holding mesocosms for two weeks to acclimate to  
137 laboratory conditions before the experiment was commenced. During acclimation, physical  
138 conditions in the mesocosms were similar to those at the collection site (i.e. 17°C, low  
139 ambient nutrient concentrations). Following the acclimation period, algae were randomly re-  
140 assigned to mesocosms in which experimental conditions were gradually increased over a  
141 further 2 week period until they reached their pre-designated levels (see experimental design  
142 above). Response variables (above) were measured in algae 76 days after commencement of  
143 the experimental treatments.

144

145 Experiments were done in 40 L mesocosms, each recirculating in a closed loop with a 200 L  
146 reservoir tank. To ensure quality of the growing conditions in mesocosms, half of the water  
147 was removed from the reservoir tanks and replaced with fresh seawater once every two  
148 weeks. Lighting was supplied in a 12:12 light:dark cycle by pairs of fluorescent lights  
149 directly above the mesocosms, each pair containing one “grow light” which incorporated the  
150 UV spectrum (Sylvania<sup>®</sup> Gro-lux) and one “daylight” (Luxling<sup>®</sup> Daylight deluxe). The  
151 irradiance regime within mesocosms ( $33.96 \pm 1.61 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ ) was similar to within algal  
152 canopies at the field site from which experimental algae were collected (Russell, 2007).  
153 Temperature within the mesocosms was kept at a constant 17°C by controlling ambient air  
154 temperature.

155

#### 156 *CO<sub>2</sub> and nutrient addition*

157 All mesocosms were constantly aerated at 10 L min<sup>-1</sup>, with the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of the air  
158 altered depending on treatment. As the pH in seawater reduces with increasing concentration  
159 of CO<sub>2</sub> in a predictable manner, experimental conditions (see experimental design above)  
160 were maintained using pH probes and automatic solenoid controllers (Sera, Heinsberg,  
161 Germany) so that CO<sub>2</sub> was added to the mesocosms when required to maintain the  
162 experimental level. Probes were temperature compensated and calibrated using NBS  
163 calibration buffers to 0.01 pH units. Calibration of probes was checked on a daily basis, and  
164 recalibrated if necessary. As the regulation system constantly measured and maintained pH at  
165 the pre-set level, there was no daily fluctuation due to photosynthesis or respiration within  
166 mesocosms.

167



168 Nutrients were supplied as 3 g of Osmocote Plus<sup>®</sup> (Scotts, Australia) controlled release  
169 fertilizer per mesocosm. Osmocote is a pelletised fertilizer with an external coating that  
170 releases nutrients at a set rate over the life of the pellet (6 month release: 15, 5, 10 N-P-K).  
171 Specific tests have found that the nutrient concentration released into the water is directly  
172 proportional to the weight of fertilizer (Worm *et al.*, 2000) and has been successfully used to  
173 manipulate nutrient concentrations in this system (e.g. Gorgula & Connell, 2004; Russell &  
174 Connell, 2005). Pellets were placed in a nylon mesh bag (1 mm mesh size) and attached to  
175 the bottom of the mesocosm. Water samples were collected to confirm the concentration of  
176 nutrients being supplied and results presented here (see “Results” below) to allow the reader  
177 to place our experiment in their own regional context. Samples were collected using 25 ml  
178 sterile syringes, filtered (0.45 µm glass fibre) and immediately frozen. Samples were later  
179 analysed on a Lachat Quickchem 8200 Flow Injection Analyser for nitrate + nitrite (NO<sub>x</sub>),  
180 ammonium and phosphate.

181

## 182 *Analyses*

183 The response of algae to experimental treatments was tested using three factor ANOVAs.  
184 Both factors (CO<sub>2</sub> *v.* Nutrient) were treated as fixed and orthogonal, with two levels in each  
185 factor (CO<sub>2</sub>: current *v.* future; Nutrient: ambient *v.* elevated). Two replicate mesocosms were  
186 nested within both CO<sub>2</sub> and Nutrients. Where significant treatment effects were detected,  
187 Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK) post-hoc comparison of means were used to determine which  
188 factors differed.

189

190

191

192

193 **Results**

194 *Response of algae to experimental conditions*

195 Both elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and nutrient concentrations had negative effects on the biomass of  
196 coralline crusts (Fig. 1a). Dry mass of crusts was greatest under current conditions (i.e.  
197 current CO<sub>2</sub> and ambient nutrients) but was less under both elevated nutrients and future  
198 levels of CO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 1a, Table 1a). Importantly, the mass of crusts was least when elevated  
199 nutrients and future CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were present in combination (Fig. 1a). Future CO<sub>2</sub>  
200 concentrations also had a positive effect on the mass of turfs, while elevated nutrients had no  
201 effect (Fig. 1b, Table 1b).

202

203 At the beginning of the experiment, turfs covered 100 % of their substrate (rock) and were  
204 already at their maximum height, meaning that it was not possible to detect an increase in the  
205 cover of turfs during the experiment. However, turfs readily recruit to available space within  
206 1-2 weeks (Russell & Connell, 2005). At ambient nutrient concentrations, the percentage  
207 cover of turfs on initially blank substrate did not differ between current and future CO<sub>2</sub> (Fig.  
208 2, Table 2, SNK of significant CO<sub>2</sub> × Nutrient interaction). When nutrients were elevated,  
209 however, the percentage cover of turfs was greater in the presence of future than current CO<sub>2</sub>  
210 concentrations, and was greatest when future CO<sub>2</sub> and elevated nutrients were present in  
211 combination (Fig. 2, Table 2), the treatment which had the greatest negative impact on the  
212 mass of crusts. Importantly, under future CO<sub>2</sub> and elevated nutrient concentrations, turfs  
213 occupied 34 % more substratum than would be predicted by the independent effects of CO<sub>2</sub>  
214 and nutrients.

215

216 Future CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations had a negative effect on the photosynthetic yield of crusts (Fig. 3a,  
217 Table 3a) while elevated nutrients had no detectable effect. In contrast, both future CO<sub>2</sub> and

218 elevated nutrients increased the yield of turfs, with the greatest increase when future CO<sub>2</sub> and  
219 elevated nutrients were present in combination (Fig. 3b, Table 3b). As with percentage cover  
220 of turfs, this represented a synergistic response where yield was 41 % greater than would be  
221 predicted by the independent effects of the experimental treatments.

222

### 223 *Nutrient concentrations*

224 The concentration of NO<sub>x</sub> (nitrate + nitrite) was greater in the elevated (mean ± SE; 0.068 ±  
225 0.017 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) than ambient (0.004 ± 0.002 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) nutrient treatments (ANOVA:  $F_{1,2} =$   
226 53.28,  $p = 0.018$ ). The concentration of ammonia was greater in the elevated (0.018 ± 0.006  
227 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) than ambient (0.007 ± 0.002 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) nutrient treatments (ANOVA:  $F_{1,2} = 145.93$ ,  $p =$   
228 0.007), while phosphate did not differ between treatments (ambient, 0.022 ± 0.001 mg L<sup>-1</sup>;  
229 elevated, 0.035 ± 0.003 mg L<sup>-1</sup>;  $F_{1,2} = 16.40$ ,  $p = 0.056$ ).

230

### 231 **Discussion**

232 Global stressors will manifest at local scales and consequently combine with local conditions  
233 to produce unexpected change to natural systems. We show that moderate forecasts of CO<sub>2</sub>  
234 concentration and current levels of nutrient elevation combine to accelerate an increase in  
235 turfs and decline in coralline crusts. We highlight the synergistic effect of combining these  
236 stressors, having a greater effect than predicted for either stressor in isolation (e.g. climate  
237 change predictions). Notwithstanding the increasing number and prevalence of local  
238 stressors, there is accumulating evidence that global and local stressors can combine to cause  
239 change that is greater than their sum (e.g. UV radiation, temperature & salinity; Przeslawski  
240 *et al.*, 2005). Yet, in the absence of knowledge of the synergistic effects of climate change  
241 and local conditions, we stand to experience an increasing number of “ecological surprises”  
242 (Paine *et al.*, 1998). Our results suggest that forecasts of climate change made in isolation of

243 local stressors can underestimate their future effects, reinforcing increasing concern that  
244 multiple stressors combine to cause ecological regime shifts (Paine *et al.*, 1998; Bellwood *et*  
245 *al.*, 2004). While stressors are often studied in isolation, such studies cannot identify their  
246 synergistic effects from their isolated components and will underestimate the future effects of  
247 climate change.

248

249 In systems where space is fully occupied, such as rocky marine systems (Dayton, 1971), the  
250 creation of new space is a prerequisite for community change (Pickett & White, 1985;  
251 Airoldi, 1998). In kelp dominated systems, individuals are regularly lost through natural  
252 disturbance and the new space is necessary for regeneration of the canopy (Kennelly, 1987b).  
253 Any environmental condition which allows turfs to expand and dominate available space (e.g.  
254 human-derived nutrients; Gorgula & Connell, 2004) and inhibit the recruitment of kelp  
255 (Kennelly, 1987a) may lead to phase shifts from kelp to turf-dominated systems (e.g. Connell  
256 *et al.*, 2008). Here, nutrients and CO<sub>2</sub> combined to facilitate recruitment of turfs to occupy  
257 > 70 % more space than under current ambient conditions, a synergistic response which was  
258 34 % greater than the sum of their individual effects. Therefore, the currently observed  
259 replacement of perennial canopies of algae and their associated understory (e.g. crusts) by  
260 mats of turf-forming algae near expanding human populations (Eriksson *et al.*, 2002; Airoldi  
261 & Beck, 2007; Connell *et al.*, 2008) is likely to be exacerbated under future climates.

262

263 The decrease in pH associated with the uptake of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> into the ocean reduces  
264 the ability of marine calcifying organisms to form their calcium carbonate structure (Feely *et*  
265 *al.*, 2004; Orr *et al.*, 2005). Reduced calcification has been noted in some calcifying algae  
266 (e.g. 1250 ppm, Gao *et al.*, 1993; 700 ppm, Leclercq *et al.*, 2000), and the reduced mass of  
267 crusts in our experiment shows this response holds for conservative projections of future CO<sub>2</sub>

268 concentrations (i.e. 550 ppm). While some organisms may adapt to future CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
269 (e.g. by increasing photosynthesis), there is accumulating evidence that organisms cannot  
270 acclimate their rates of calcification to increased CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Langdon *et al.*, 2000).  
271 Therefore, any reduction in the abundance of crusts under future conditions is likely to  
272 continue while elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are maintained.

273

274 Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in lakes can cause an increase in the abundance of filamentous  
275 algae (Andersen & Andersen, 2006), as we demonstrate for marine filamentous turfs. The  
276 progressive nitrogen limitation theory (PNL) predicts that elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations cause  
277 nitrogen limitation in plants by enhancing photosynthesis (Schlesinger & Lichter, 2001; Gill  
278 *et al.*, 2002). Experiments in terrestrial systems have shown this to be the case (Bernhardt *et*  
279 *al.*, 2006; Finzi *et al.*, 2006; Gill *et al.*, 2006), yet there may be species specific responses in  
280 marine algae due to use of different photosynthetic mechanisms (Beardall *et al.*, 1998). In our  
281 experiment, elevated CO<sub>2</sub> caused an increase in the photosynthetic activity of turfs, but was  
282 greater still when in combination with increased nutrients. Yet, nutrient limitation is likely to  
283 vary across a number of spatial (and temporal) scales, depending on regional availability of  
284 nutrients and localised inputs of anthropogenic inputs (Connell & Irving, 2008). For example,  
285 the waters of South Australia are relatively oligotrophic (Rochford, 1980) and nutrient inputs  
286 have disproportionately large effects compared to more nutrient rich waters (Russell *et al.*,  
287 2005, Connell *et al.*, unpubl. data). In this case, global change (i.e. increasing CO<sub>2</sub>) may  
288 interact with regional ecology (e.g. oligotrophic *v.* eutrophic regions) or local impacts (e.g.  
289 anthropogenic nutrient inputs) to create regionally different responses.

290

291 While climate change is a global phenomenon, the impacts of this change (e.g. ocean  
292 acidification) manifest on local scales and it is change at these scales that needs to be

293 incorporated into ecological forecasts of climate change (Osmond *et al.*, 2004). Here, we  
294 indicate that CO<sub>2</sub> would act as an additional stressor that not only enhances the growth of  
295 competitors (i.e. turfs), but also drives the accelerated decline of naturally abundant perennial  
296 species (i.e. coralline crusts). Our findings on nutrient and CO<sub>2</sub> driven synergies empower  
297 local managers because they show that policy taken to reduce the effects of local stressors  
298 (e.g. nutrient pollution) can reduce the effects of global stressors (e.g. ocean acidification)  
299 which are not under their governance. Indeed, efforts to reduce the compounding influence of  
300 multiple stressors may reduce the frequency and extent to which ecological systems change  
301 to unexpected states (Paine *et al.*, 1998; Scheffer & Carpenter, 2003). If multiple  
302 perturbations reduce the resilience of a system, then local management may be effective in  
303 reducing the effects of climate change (Hughes *et al.*, 2007).

304

305 While there is increasing attention being directed towards ways to mitigate climate change,  
306 such as reducing multiple stressors, there is little evidence on the effectiveness of proposed  
307 actions. We show that elevated nutrients will enhance the effect of climate change on both  
308 crusts (negatively affected) and turfs (positively affected). However, this result can only show  
309 that the consequences of climate change may be alleviated if reduced concentrations of  
310 nutrients are achieved or maintained in the near future (i.e. before CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
311 increase substantially). What we are yet to identify is whether local mitigation measures are  
312 likely to be more effective when implemented before forecasted climates arrive (Mignone *et*  
313 *al.*, 2008). Recognition of this uncertainty, in combination with the greater attention paid to  
314 the anticipation and prevention of socially-unacceptable regime shifts, has lead to more  
315 proactive management of local stressors in some regions. In South Australia, local  
316 government has encouraged research into the processes that support or weaken resilience, and  
317 of the socio-economic drivers and governance that regulate modification of the physical

318 environment (e.g. water quality) and their biota (e.g. fisheries). South Australian managers  
319 now recognise global-local connections of future change, recently implementing long-term  
320 policy solutions for the sea (policy on reducing wastewater discharge) that also act as  
321 solutions for the land (policy on establishing new sources of water that do not rely entirely on  
322 rainfall). Upgrades to wastewater treatment plants, to produce recycled water for residential  
323 and industrial use, not only reduces reliance rainfall for fresh water supplies, but also reduces  
324 the nutrient rich discharge that has primarily contributed to phase shifts on metropolitan reefs  
325 from kelp to turf-dominated (Connell *et al.*, 2008).

326

327 In conclusion, change to systems at local scales represents the cumulative effect of global  
328 through local scale conditions, and we need to understand the manifestation of climate  
329 change in local settings. Recent motivation for system-wide management (ecosystem  
330 management) relies on a process of decision-making at local through regional scales and  
331 provides some of the most vexing challenges for attaining social goals of sustainability,  
332 biological conservation and economic development. We demonstrate that understanding how  
333 global (CO<sub>2</sub>) and local (nutrients) stressors combine to bring change at local scales (i.e.  
334 change in the relative abundance of algal species) may provide insights into understanding  
335 not only the potential impacts of climate change, but also the potential roles of local policy  
336 and management of local stressors in the face of global climate change.

337

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347

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455

456 **Table 1.** The combined effects of CO<sub>2</sub> (current *v.* future) and Nutrients (ambient *v.* elevated)  
 457 on the dry mass of (a) coralline crusts and (b) turfs, as determined by two-factor ANOVAs.  
 458 No effect of mesocosm was detected, so pooled analyses are presented here. ns,  $p > 0.05$ ; \*,  $p$   
 459  $< 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $p < 0.005$ .

460

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
<b>(a) Crusts</b>				
CO <sub>2</sub>	1	0.0019	19.00	***
Nutrient	1	0.0005	5.00	*
CO <sub>2</sub> × Nutrient	1	0.0000	0.00	ns
Residual	36	0.0001		
<b>(b) Turfs</b>				
CO <sub>2</sub>	1	3.29	8.27	**
Nutrient	1	0.15	0.37	ns
CO <sub>2</sub> × Nutrient	1	0.38	0.69	ns
Residual	36	0.39		

461

462 SNK tests on significant terms in (a):

463 CO<sub>2</sub>: Current CO<sub>2</sub> > Future CO<sub>2</sub>

464 Nutrients: Ambient nutrients > Elevated nutrients

465

466 SNK tests on significant terms in (b):

467 CO<sub>2</sub>: Current CO<sub>2</sub> < Future CO<sub>2</sub>

468

469

470 **Table 2.** The combined effects of CO<sub>2</sub> (current *v.* future) and Nutrients (ambient *v.* elevated)  
 471 on the percentage cover of turfs on unoccupied substrate, as determined by a two-factor  
 472 ANOVA. No effect of mesocosm was detected, so pooled analyses are presented here. ns,  $p >$   
 473 0.05; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $p < 0.005$ .

474

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
CO <sub>2</sub>	1	105.63	0.90	ns
Nutrient	1	11730.63	100.25	***
CO <sub>2</sub> × Nutrient	1	950.63	8.12	**
Residual	36	117.01		

475

476 SNK tests on significant CO<sub>2</sub> × Nutrient term:

477 Ambient nutrients: Current CO<sub>2</sub> = Future CO<sub>2</sub>

478 Elevated nutrients: Current CO<sub>2</sub> < Future CO<sub>2</sub>

479

480 Current CO<sub>2</sub>: Ambient nutrients < Elevated nutrients

481 Future CO<sub>2</sub>: Ambient nutrients < Elevated nutrients

482

483 **Table 3.** The combined effects of CO<sub>2</sub> (current v. future) and Nutrients (ambient v. elevated)  
 484 on the fluorescent yield of dark adapted (a) coralline crusts and (b) turfs, as determined by  
 485 two-factor ANOVAs. No effect of mesocosm was detected, so pooled analyses are presented  
 486 here. ns,  $p > 0.05$ ; \*,  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $p < 0.005$ .

487

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
<b>(a) Crusts</b>				
CO <sub>2</sub>	1	0.0108	6.75	*
Nutrient	1	0.0035	2.19	ns
CO <sub>2</sub> × Nutrient	1	0.0001	0.06	ns
Residual	36	0.0016		
<b>(b) Turfs</b>				
CO <sub>2</sub>	1	0.0080	8.00	**
Nutrient	1	0.0245	24.50	***
CO <sub>2</sub> × Nutrient	1	0.0026	2.60	ns
Residual	36	0.0010		

488

489 SNK tests on significant terms in (a):

490 CO<sub>2</sub>: Current CO<sub>2</sub> > Future CO<sub>2</sub>

491

492 SNK tests on significant terms in (b):

493 CO<sub>2</sub>: Current CO<sub>2</sub> < Future CO<sub>2</sub>

494 Nutrients: Ambient nutrients < Elevated nutrients

495

496

497 **Figure Legends**

498

499 **Fig. 1.** The dry mass ( $\text{mg} \pm \text{SE}$ ) of (a) coralline crusts and (b) turfs exposed to different  
500 concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  (current *v.* future) and Nutrients (ambient *v.* elevated).

501

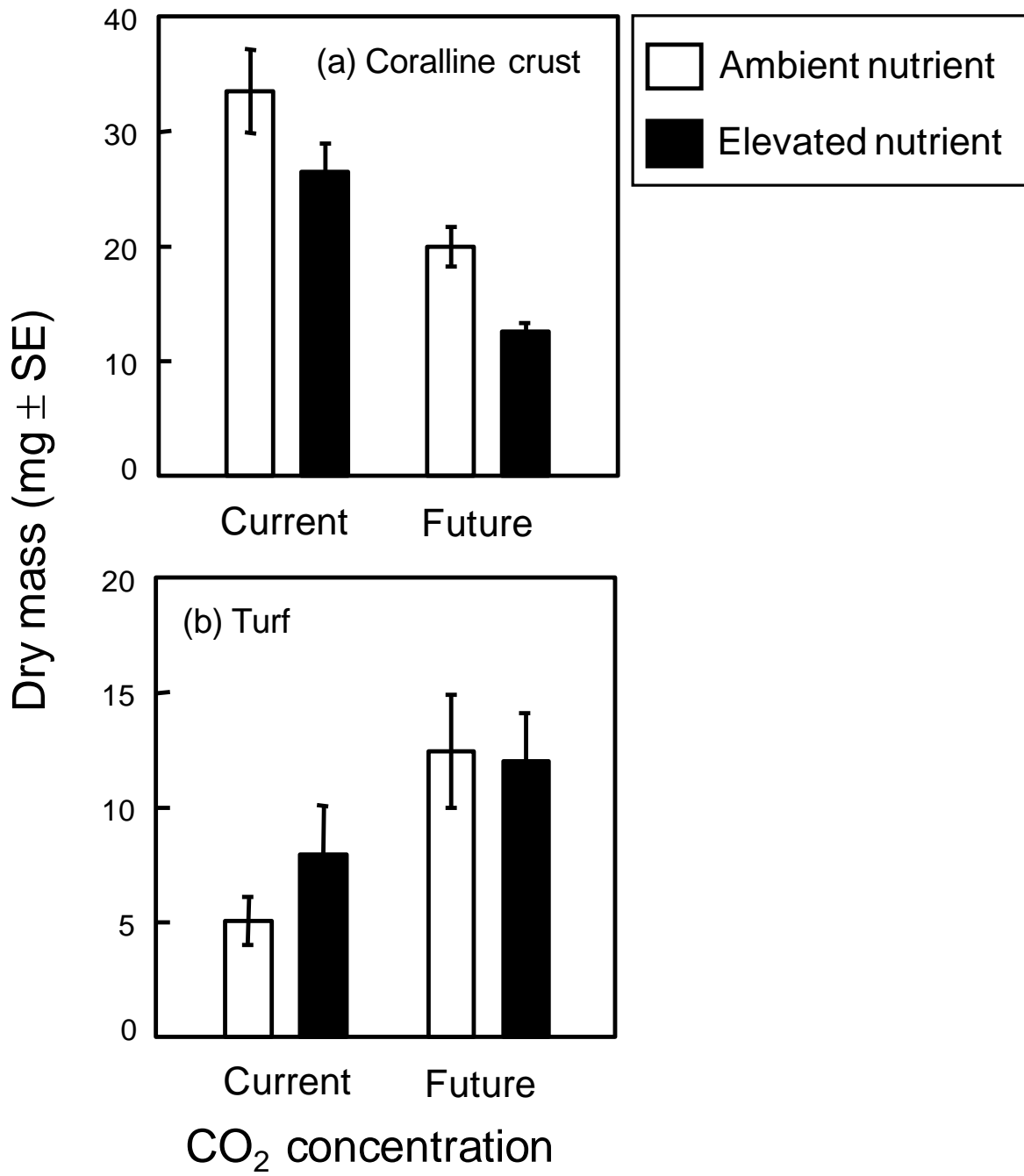
502 **Fig. 2.** The percentage cover ( $\pm \text{SE}$ ) of turfs that recruited to unoccupied substrate exposed to  
503 different concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  (current *v.* future) and Nutrients (ambient *v.* elevated).

504

505 **Fig. 3.** The fluorescence yield of dark adapted (a) coralline crusts and (b) turfs exposed to  
506 different concentrations of  $\text{CO}_2$  (current *v.* future) and Nutrients (ambient *v.* elevated).

507





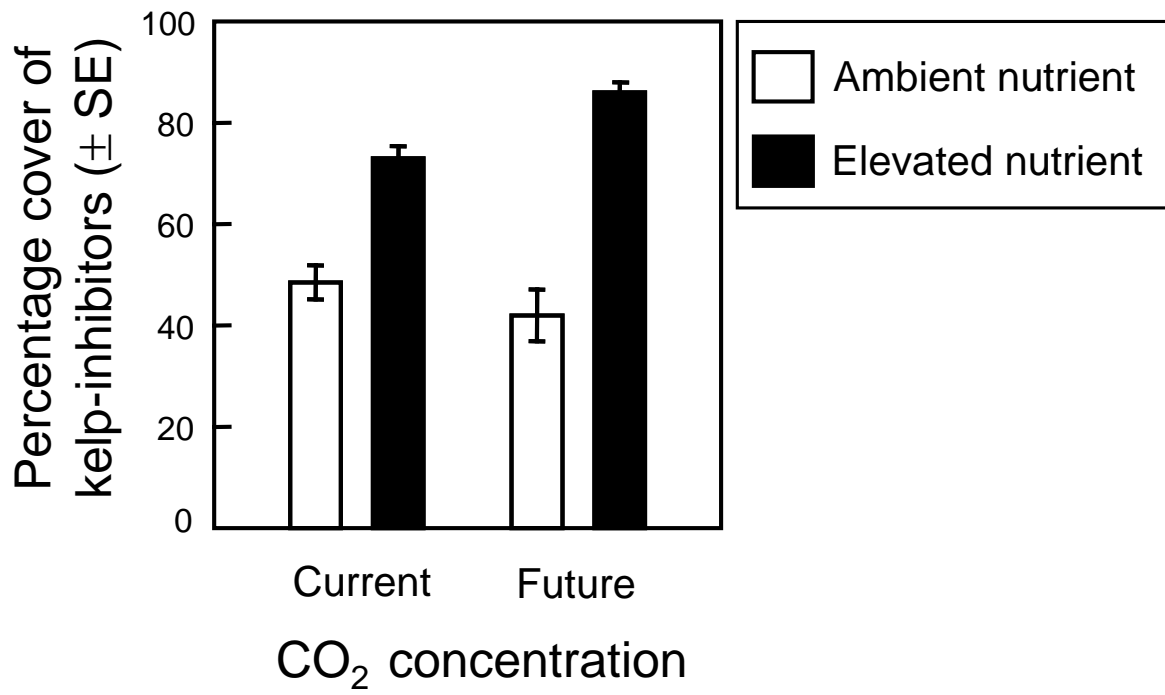
509

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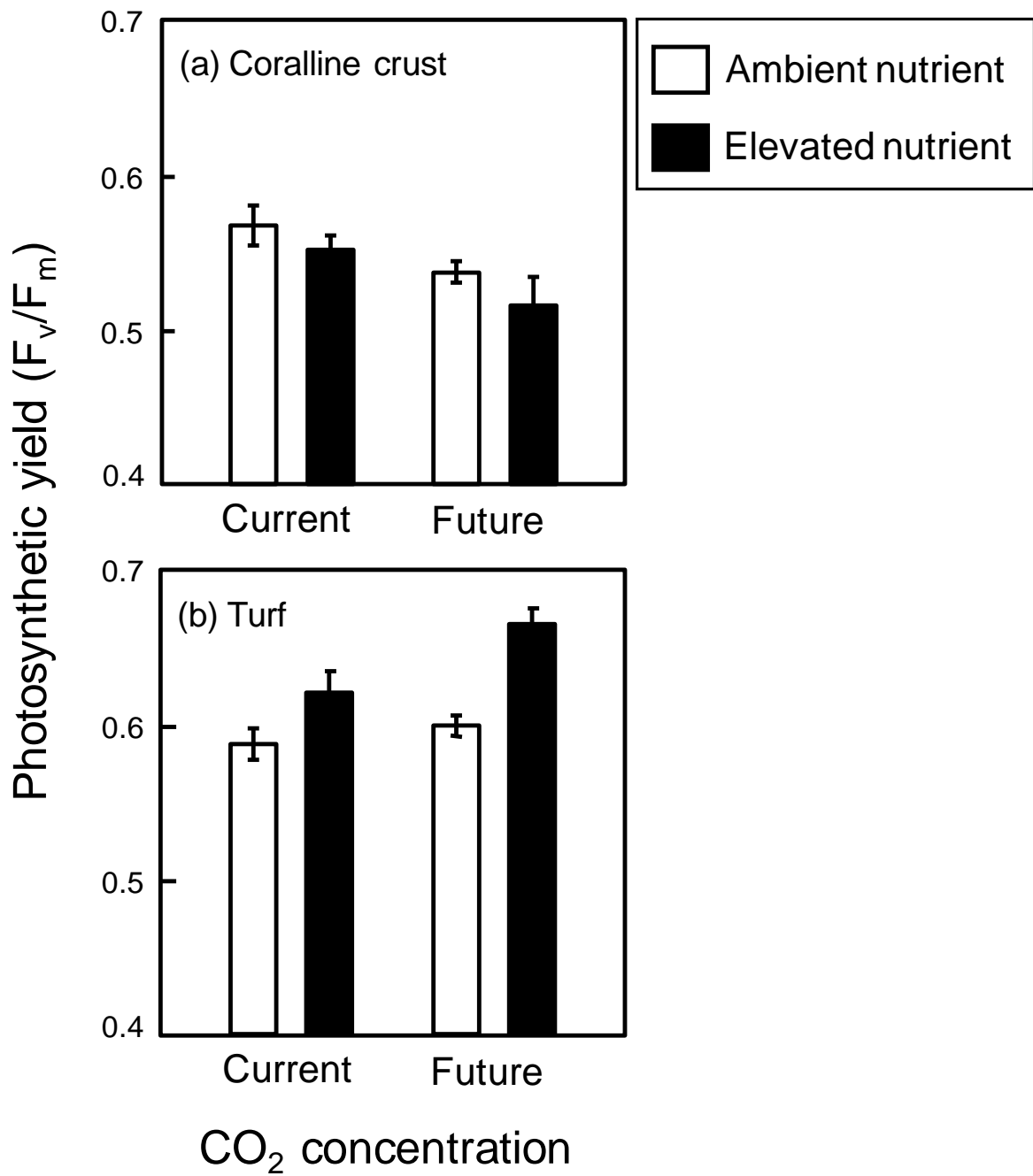
511 **Fig. 2**

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513



514 **Fig. 3**



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