

Abstract

Shelled pteropods are planktonic molluses that may be affected by ocean acidification. *Limacina retroversa* from the Gulf of Maine were used to investigate the impact of elevated carbon dioxide (CO₂) on shell condition as well as swimming and sinking behaviours. *Limacina retroversa* were maintained at either ambient (ca. 400 μatm) or two levels of elevated CO₂ (800 and 1200 μatm) for up to four weeks, and then examined for changes in shell transparency, sinking speed, and swimming behaviour assessed through a variety of metrics (e.g., speed, path tortuosity, wing beat frequency). After exposures to elevated CO₂ for as little as four days, the pteropod shells were significantly darker and more opaque in the elevated CO₂ treatments. Sinking speeds were significantly slower for pteropods exposed to medium and high CO₂ in comparison to the ambient treatment. Swimming behaviour showed less clear patterns of response to treatment and duration of exposure, but overall, swimming did not appear to be hindered under elevated CO₂. Sinking is used by *L. retroversa* for predator evasion, and altered speeds and increased visibility could increase the susceptibility of pteropods to predation.

Introduction

The chemistry of the oceans is rapidly changing due to the infiltration of anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) into the surface ocean, a process known as ocean acidification. One of the effects of ocean acidification is a decrease in the availability of carbonate ion (CO₃²⁻) which affects calcifying organisms that use calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) to build shells and other structures (e.g. Orr *et al.* 2005, Royal Society 2005). A shifting balance of dissolution and calcification as saturation state decreases due to ocean

39 acidification jeopardises the shell structure that, in many cases, provides protection from 40 predators (e.g. Fabry et al. 2008). Ocean acidification could also change the way that some 41 organisms move in their environment since calcified structures govern the movements of 42 certain planktonic organisms, including echinoderms and molluscs (e.g. Chan et al. 2011, 43 Wheeler *et al.* 2013). The cosomes, or shelled pteropods (Order Euthecosomata; henceforth referred to 44 45 simply as pteropods), are planktonic molluses that build calcium carbonate shells in the 46 crystal form of aragonite, which is less stable than the other common form, calcite. 47 Pteropod shells are becoming increasingly soluble in some regions of their habitat due to 48 ocean acidification (e.g. Fabry et al. 2008). The shells of many species of pteropod are 49 transparent, but turn darker and more opaque when exposed to seawater under-saturated 50 with respect to aragonite, possibly due to an increased roughness of the shell's surface 51 associated with partial dissolution (Almogi-Labin et al. 1986, Haddad and Droxler 1996, 52 Lischka et al. 2011, Lischka and Riebesell 2012, Wall-Palmer et al. 2013). Laboratory 53 experiments have also shown that lowering the saturation state decreased calcification, 54 leading to impaired shell growth (Comeau et al. 2009, Comeau et al. 2010, Bednaršek et 55 al. 2014). Wild caught *Limacina helicina* from regions naturally low in aragonite 56 saturation state have also shown signs of dissolution under scanning electron microscopy (Bednaršek, et al. 2012, Bednaršek, et al. 2014, Bednaršek, and Ohman. 2015). 57 58 Shelled pteropods are a food source for many marine organisms, including 59 seabirds, whales, salmon, trout, mackerel, cod, myctophids, and other zooplankton 60 (LeBrasseur 1966, Ackman et al. 1972, Conover and Lalli 1974, Levasseur et al. 1996,

Pakhomov et al. 1996, Armstrong et al. 2005, Hunt et al. 2008, Karnovsky et al. 2008,

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Pomerleau et al. 2012, Sturdevant et al. 2013), and hence any effects of ocean acidification on pteropod populations also could have effects on a wide range of marine species. The ability of pteropods to move through the water column could be affected by ocean acidification via changes to the shell. Pteropods have evolved wings, or parapodia, to propel themselves through the water. The spiral shaped pteropod species (Limacinidae) swim in a zig-zag motion, rotating their shell between a power stroke followed by a recovery stroke to provide lift (Chang and Yen 2012, Murphy et al. 2016). Many species of pteropods make daily migrations to depth during the day to avoid visual predators and to the surface at night to feed (Wormuth 1981, Comeau et al. 2012, Maas et al. 2012); sinking of the negatively buoyant shell is presumed to be an important component of the downward part of this diel vertical migration. Pteropods can also use swimming and sinking to escape from predators that are in their immediate proximity (Comeau et al. 2012). Harbison and Gilmer (1986) observed both swimming and sinking behaviours when pteropods were disturbed. Furthermore, after pteropods die, their sinking shells sequester inorganic carbon to the deep ocean (Byrne et al. 1984) and pteropod shells are estimated to account for 12% of the global carbonate flux (Berner and Honjo 1981). Changes in the fitness, abundance, and sinking of pteropods under ocean acidification thus also have consequences to the carbon cycle. The species examined in this study, Limacina retroversa, is found in the Gulf of Maine, a region that is particularly susceptible to ocean acidification (Wang et al. 2013). Due to deep water formation in the North Atlantic, the infiltration of anthropogenic CO₂ into intermediate and deep water is pronounced in this region and is causing the carbonate chemistry throughout the water column to change more quickly than the average global

rate (Sabine *et al.* 2004). Furthermore, recent studies along the length of the U.S. East Coast found that the Gulf of Maine had the lowest saturation states observed as well as the lowest total alkalinity to dissolved inorganic carbon ratio, indicative of strong sensitivity to continued acidification (Wang *et al.* 2013; Wanninkhof *et al.* 2015). Although found year round in the Gulf of Maine, *L. retroversa* is also found in the open ocean, in the temperate and subpolar Atlantic of the Northern and Southern hemispheres. As a broadly distributed species that is also readily available relatively close to shore, it serves as a useful model species for examining the response of pteropods to ocean acidification.

In this study, *L. retroversa* were captured and reared under different concentrations of CO₂ over the course of multiple seasons to examine the impacts on shell condition and locomotion, testing the hypotheses that 1) The appearance of shells changes after exposure to elevated levels of CO₂; 2) *L. retroversa* sinking speed differs among CO₂ treatments; and 3) The swimming ability of *L. retroversa* is affected by exposure to elevated CO₂.

Methods

Four cruises into the Gulf of Maine allowed for the capture of shelled pteropods, *Limacina retroversa*. The pteropods were brought back to the laboratory and reared in seawater modified by bubbling with three different levels of CO₂, an ambient treatment (nominally 400 ppm) and two elevated treatments, 800 and 1200 ppm, hereafter referred to as the ambient, medium, and high CO₂ treatments, respectively. These were intended to yield over-saturated, marginal, and strongly under-saturated conditions with respect to aragonite. The actual pCO₂ levels and saturation states achieved via bubbling were calculated from measured dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and total alkalinity (TA) using

CO2SYS (see below). The condition of shells along with swimming performance and sinking rates of animals was examined after 2 days to 4 weeks of exposure.

Animal Sampling

Limacina retroversa were collected in water depths of ca. 45-260 m in the Gulf of Maine near Provincetown, MA aboard the R/V *Tioga* during four cruises in April, August, and November 2014 and April 2015, with each expedition lasting one to three days.

Oblique tows were conducted with a 1-m diameter Reeve net with 333 μm mesh size. The net was equipped with a large cod-end and hauled at slow speeds (ca. 5 m/min) to collect animals in healthy condition. *Limacina retroversa* were isolated from the rest of the plankton sample and placed into 1-L jars filled with Gulf of Maine seawater pumped *in situ* from a depth of ca. 30 m and filtered through a 64 μm sieve. The pteropods were kept at densities of ca. 30-40 individuals per litre and maintained in a refrigerator at ca. 8°C and later in coolers for transfer to the laboratory.

Culturing and Experimental Set-up

Upon returning to the laboratory, *L. retroversa* were moved with a soft pipette into 13-L carboys with 2-3 replicate carboys per treatment. The carboys were filled with *in situ* seawater collected during the cruise that had been transferred a day earlier to the laboratory and filtered to 1µm. For the duration of each experiment, as well as for ca. 8-16 hours prior to the addition of animals, each carboy was bubbled continuously using one of the three CO₂ concentrations, ambient (nominally ca. 400 ppm), 800, and 1200 ppm. For the medium and high treatments, the target air-balanced CO₂ gases used for bubbling were

achieved by mixing pure CO₂ gas and CO₂-free air using mass-flow controllers. The ambient treatment was not controlled but rather was derived from the CO₂ content of ambient air drawn from outside the building.

The carboys were kept in a cold room at 8°C at a density of ca. 15 individuals per litre. The pteropods were fed a mixed diet of *Rhodomonas lens* (1500-4000 cells/mL) and *Heterocapsa triquentra* (150-500 cells/mL) with lower concentrations provided over the course of each experiment as the pteropod culture density decreased due to mortality and use for various measurements. Water and pteropods were siphoned out of the carboys every week so that the seawater could be replaced with clean pre-bubbled water (collected *in situ* in the Gulf of Maine and kept after the cruise in a holding tank filtered continuously at 1 µm) and dead pteropods could be separated from the live ones. Additional details on culturing protocols can be found in Thabet *et al.* (2015).

During water changes, samples of the water leaving each carboy and the water entering the carboys were collected in 250 mL borosilicate glass bottles, poisoned with 100 μ L saturated mercuric chloride, and then capped with a greased stopper for later analysis of TA and DIC. TA was measured using an Apollo SciTech alkalinity auto-titrator (AS-ALK2, Apollo SciTech, Newark, DE, USA), an Orion 3 Star pH metre, and a Ross combination pH electrode based on a modified Gran titration method (Wang and Cai 2004). DIC was analysed with a DIC auto-analyzer (AS-C3, Apollo SciTech, Newark, DE, USA) via acidification and non-dispersive infrared CO₂ detection (LiCOR 7000: Wang and Cai 2004). The saturation state of aragonite (Ω_A), pCO₂, and pH were calculated from DIC and TA with the CO2SYS software (Pierrot *et al.* 2006), using constants K₁ and K₂ from

Mehrbach *et al.* (1973) refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987), and the KHSO₄ dissociation constant from Dickson (1990).

In order to monitor conditions and adjust bubbling rates accordingly between water changes, pH in each carboy was measured every 2-3 days using a USB 4000 spectrometer with an LS-1 light source and a FIA-Z-SMA-PEEK 100-mm flow cell (Ocean Optics, Dunedin, FL, USA), and 2 mM m-Cresol indicator dye (50 μ L in 20 mL of sample). The DIC/TA-based calculations of Ω_A and pCO₂ described above were used as the primary means of assessing the carbonate chemistry of the experimental treatments, but Ω_A and pCO₂ were also calculated using CO2SYS from measurements of pH along with the nearest measurement of TA in time, as a means of assessing variability between water changes.

Shell Condition

Ten live animals were removed from each of the ambient, medium, and high treatments at days 2, 4, 8, and 15 during the April 2015 experiment. They were rinsed in deionised water, weighed wet and dry with a Cahn C-33 microbalance with a precision of 1 μ g, then placed in 8.25% hypochlorite bleach for 24-48 hours to remove tissue, rinsed in deionised water again, and dried.

Using a light microscope, the empty shells were photographed at 2.5X magnification for transparency, opacity, and length measurements. For transparency, the shell was positioned in a glass petri dish with the aperture facing up and the light coming from below and through the shell. A photograph was taken through the microscope with a 2-ms exposure, and with white balance, contrast, and brightness values conserved across

images. Similarly, opacity was measured from images of shells placed with the aperture up with 2-ms exposure, but with the lighting coming from two iridescent lights that illuminated the shell parallel to the camera in order to measure reflected light. The lights were positioned opposite each other to reduce shadows, and about 10 cm away from the shell's location at the centre of the petri dish.

Images were analysed in MATLAB to calculate transmittance and opacity. For transmittance, the shell was identified against the white background by thresholding the image to black and white. The aperture as well as any holes were manually cropped from the object. The transmittance was calculated as the mean grayscale value (range: 0-255) of the pixels of the shell divided by 255 to get a scale of 0 (black) to 1 (white). The image analysis was similar for opacity, but instead the shell was identified by thresholding the brighter shell from a dark background. For opacity the mean grayscale value of the shell, after cropping out the aperture and any holes, was calculated on the same scale of 0 (black) to 1 (white), like transmittance.

Videography

Live and active *L. retroversa* (shell lengths ranging from 0.56 mm to 2.37 mm) were removed from each of the CO₂ treated carboys for filming during the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and 4th weeks of exposure to the different CO₂ treatments. Due to the length of time needed to make a sufficient number of observations, filming was done over two to five days for each week. The exact numbers removed from the treatments for each week as well as which weeks were sampled varied among experiments due to variability in the number of live animals available and needs for companion studies of physiology and gene expression. The

removed animals were moved to another cold room at 8°C, in 1-L jars of filtered seawater at the ambient CO₂ concentration. Videos were recorded with a Photron Fastcam SA3 high speed camera at 500 frames per second. A triangular prism tank with a mirrored face on the hypotenuse of the isosceles right triangle was used so that both the animal and its orthogonal projection were visible in the field of view and the 3D position and velocity of the pteropod could be recorded (Figure 1a). Illumination was delivered by an LED panel with the light diffusing through a thin plastic sheet. The mirrored tank was filled with filtered seawater with a density between 1024-1026 kg/m³. Density was measured with a digital seawater refractometer (Hanna Instruments, model 96822). Three types of movements were examined: sinking with wings withdrawn, sinking with wings extended, and upward swimming.

Sinking

For quantification of sinking rates, a rigid pipette was attached to a ring stand and placed so that the narrow end was in the water and at the top of the camera's frame (Figure 1b,c). The camera was focused and a ruler used to calibrate distance in the tank. The field of view for sinking trials was 5.7 cm x 5.7 cm. Each *L. retroversa* was sucked into a soft pipette and then released into the fixed pipette. The constriction in the fixed pipette caused the animal to slow and then accelerate as it left the fixed pipette and sank through the frame. Individual animals were filmed for 3-6 repeat sinking trials, which were used to calculate average sinking rates for each experimental animal later used in statistical comparisons among treatments. In April, August, and November of 2014, animals were filmed sinking with their wings extended and also with their wings withdrawn. In April

2015, only animals sinking with wings withdrawn were recorded in order to dedicate more time and generate a larger sample sizes for this behaviour, since by then the difference between wings withdrawn and wings extended during sinking had already been determined.

The videos were analysed in MATLAB by converting the frames to black and white. With the pteropod and its reflection isolated as objects, the length and position of the animal and its reflection were measured. Over successive frames, the difference in position was used to calculate speed. Since the animals rotated slightly about the horizontal axis the maximum length of the animal or reflection observed over the course of the video was used to estimate the length of the long axis. Speed vs. time plots were fit with a hyperbolic tangent function, giving an analytical solution for terminal speed. The hyperbolic tangent function solves for sinking velocity for a high Reynolds number regime (Owen and Ryu 2005). The Reynolds number is a non-dimensional number describing the ratio of inertial to viscous forces and is calculated here as animal length multiplied by the speed of the pteropod divided by the kinematic viscosity of water. Although *L. retroversa* move at low to intermediate Reynolds numbers (ca. 5-50), the hyperbolic tangent function fit the data better than the low Reynolds number solution (negative exponential function).

Swimming

Swimming trials were conducted by placing animals below the camera's field of view via soft pipette and filming their swimming up through the frame. The size of the field of view was calibrated with a ruler and was 2.7 cm x 2.7 cm, with the bottom of the field of view 2-3 cm above the floor of the tank. In the April 2014 and August 2014

experiments, multiple pteropods from the same treatment were placed in the tank together and swimming trials were recorded. Each of these swimming trials was included separately in statistical comparisons among treatments, but since the exact identity of swimmers was not known, the more active individuals could have contributed multiple swimming observations. Therefore, for improved accuracy, in November 2014 and April 2015, a single individual was placed in the tank and multiple swimming trials were recorded for each animal; swimming metrics averaged over the multiple trials for each individual were then used in statistical comparisons among treatments.

Video analysis was done in MATLAB with similar protocols as for sinking. The frames were converted to black and white to allow for the identification of the pteropod and its reflection to track its properties (length, position) from one frame to the next. These properties were used to determine the speed, distance travelled, and trajectory. Path tortuosity was measured as the total cumulative distance travelled over a video segment divided by the direct distance between the last and first frame; each video segment was at least 0.5 seconds and recorded at least three wing beats (power and recovery strokes). The swimming metrics examined were the mean speed (calculated in 3D), frequency of wing beats, path tortuosity, ratio of horizontal to vertical displacement, and asymmetry of speed between the power and recovery strokes (Figure 2).

Statistics

One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA), or a Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA on ranks when the data failed either the equal variance or normality tests, were used to test for differences among treatments in shell transmittance and opacity, sinking speeds

(separately for wings withdrawn and extended), swimming speed, wing beat frequency, swimming path tortuosity, ratio of horizontal to vertical displacement, and asymmetry in speed between the power stroke and recovery stroke. If there were significant effects from these tests, post-hoc pairwise comparison tests were conducted using the Holm-Sidak method for one-way ANOVAs and Dunn's method for Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVAs. Sinking speed with wings withdrawn was compared to sinking speed with wings extended using a Wilcoxon Paired-Sample Signed-Rank signed rank test. Correlation coefficients were also calculated among swimming metrics.

Results

Experimental Treatments

The nominal target values for pCO₂ of 400, 800, and 1200 µatm were not always achieved and calculated values varied among experiments, but overall the carbonate chemistry measurements indicated clear distinctions among treatments (summarised in Table 1 and see Supplementary Table S1 for full details). The ambient treatment had higher levels than the nominal 400 µatm (the approximate global average atmospheric concentration), closer to 450 µatm. Calculations of achieved pCO₂ for the medium and high treatments also indicated variability, likely due to a combination of uncertainty in the sampling and measurements of DIC and TA, uncertainty in the mixture of gas by the massflow controllers, and variability in the degree of bubbling. In April and August 2014 the calculated pCO₂ of pre-bubbled water that was entering the carboys at the onset of the experiment was consistently lower than that calculated for the outgoing water, suggesting incomplete pre-equilibration (Supplementary Table S1). Subsequent measurements of pH

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made between water changes, however, indicated that the seawater chemistry for these treatments attained their target values after less than 24 h.

Measurements of outgoing water made during water changes indicated that the ambient treatments always had over-saturated conditions with respect to aragonite $(\Omega_A=1.49-1.61)$, medium treatments were near the threshold of saturation (0.76 in November 2014, 1.21 in August 2014, and otherwise 0.94-1.05), and the high treatment had strongly under-saturated conditions (Ω_A =0.63-0.80, Table 1). The medium treatment showed the greatest variability, likely due to a combination of sampling error, issues with the mass-flow controllers (in November 2014, where saturation states were overly low), and insufficient bubbling (in August 2014, where saturation states were overly high). The ambient treatment was significantly different in aragonite saturation state from both of the elevated CO₂ treatments in three of the experiments (one-way ANOVA, p<0.001), while in the August 2014 experiment only the ambient and high treatments were significantly different (Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA, H=11.7, p=0.003). The medium and high treatments were also significantly different from one another in April of 2014 and 2015 (Holm-Sidak, p<0.05), though not in August or November 2014. TA showed relatively small differences between experiments, presumably related to natural seasonal processes in the Gulf of Maine region (Supplemental Table S1).

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Shell Condition

Shell condition from the April 2015 experiment for the ambient treatment was mostly unchanged relative to duration of exposure, while the medium and high CO₂ treatments showed decreased transmittance and increased opacity over the course of 15

days of exposure (Figure 3, Table 2). On day 2, there was not a significant difference in the appearance of shells among treatments, but both shell transmittance and opacity were significantly different among treatments on days 4, 8, and 15 (Table 3). Post-hoc pairwise comparisons showed that the transmittance from the ambient and high treatments were significantly different on days 4, 8, and 15 (p<0.05), the medium and high treatments were never significantly different, and the medium and ambient treatments were only significantly different on day 15 (p<0.05). For opacity, on days 4 and 8 only the ambient and high treatments were significantly different (p<0.05), whereas on day 15, each treatment was significantly different from the others (p<0.05).

The dry masses of the shells (with animal body tissue present) from April 2015, normalized to length, indicated an overall decrease over the course of the 15 days of exposure and also substantial overlap among treatments (Supplementary Figure S1). Mass normalized to length was significantly different between the CO₂ treatments at days 8 (Kruskal Wallis one-way ANOVA, H=6.1, p=0.048) and 15 (one-way ANOVA, F=4.1, p=0.037), but not for the earlier time points. At day 8, there were not significant pairwise differences in mass normalized to length among treatments (Dunn's method, p>0.05), and on day 15 only the medium and high treatment were significantly different from one other (Holm-Sidak method, p<0.05).

Sinking

Sinking rates showed differences associated with treatment, duration of exposure, experiment, and behaviour (i.e. wings extended or withdrawn). After one week of exposure, sinking rates for animals with wings withdrawn were similar among treatments

and showed no significant differences for two of three experiments (Figure 4a, Table 3), while during week one of the third experiment (April 2015) sinking rates differed significantly among treatments. Sinking rates were significantly slower for animals in the elevated CO₂ treatments than in the ambient treatment after two or more weeks of exposure during every experiment. In all pairwise comparisons, the ambient treatment was significantly different from both the medium and high treatments, except for the second week of the November 2014 when only the ambient and high treatments were significantly different (p<0.05).

On average there was an 84% reduction in sinking speed for animals holding their wings extended compared to wings withdrawn, and sinking speeds with wings withdrawn and wings extended measured for the same individuals were significantly different (Wilcoxon Paired-Sample Signed Rank, Z=-8.981, p<0.001). Sinking rates for animals with wings extended also showed similar trends to those with wings withdrawn with respect to treatment and duration of exposure (Figure 4b). While there were no significant differences among the treatments after one week of exposure, significant differences were observed among treatments after an exposure duration of two weeks and onwards, with significantly faster sinking rates evident for the *L. retroversa* exposed to ambient CO₂ compared with the high treatment (November 2014 week 2) or to the medium and high treatments (April 2014 week 4).

In order to account for possible uncertainty introduced by any differences in the size of animals among treatments and time points, attempts were also made to normalise the sinking rate measurements relative to individual size. Linear regressions based on log-log plots were used to examine the effect of length on sinking speed of animals with wings

withdrawn. The resulting power law scaling relationships between sinking speed and length for the ambient, medium, and high treatments were 0.45, 0.74, and 0.52 respectively (Figure 5), suggesting that normalising the sinking speeds by the square root of length (0.50 scaling) was appropriate. In all but one case, normalising sinking speed by length in this way did not affect the significance of the differences among treatments, with the exception of week one for November 2014. In this case, in contrast to the initial test, when normalised, the Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA showed significant differences among treatments in sinking speeds (H=7.3, p=0.026) due to faster sinking in the high treatment, followed by the medium, then ambient.

Swimming

In contrast to sinking, swimming rates did not differ in a consistent manner among treatments and durations of exposure. For the two experiments (August 2014 and April 2015) where observations were made after one week, mean swimming speed was significantly different among treatments but differed in which treatment showed the fastest swimming (Figure 6a, Table 3). Significant differences were not seen among treatments at two or three weeks. There was also not a significant correlation between swimming speed and animal length (Table 4): in the log-log plot of swimming speed vs. animal length the slopes of the linear regressions were nearly zero (see Supplementary Figure S2) and hence no attempts were made to normalise swimming measurements to animal size.

For the initial two experiments (April and August 2014) where multiple animals were together in the filming tank and individual swim analyses were not possible, wing beat frequency showed no differences among treatments (Figure 6b, Table 3). For the two

later experiments (November 2014 and April 2015), where individual animals were measured separately, a trend of decreasing flapping frequency under elevated CO₂ was evident, and the frequency of wing beats was significantly higher in the ambient treatment compared to the medium and high treatments in week one of the April 2015 experiment, although not in week two of the November 2014 experiment or week two of April 2015.

Tortuosity only differed significantly during the initial experiments (April 2014 and August 2014), where multiple animals were placed together during filming (Figure 6c, Table 3). In the November 2014 and April 2015 experiments, no significant differences were seen in tortuosity among the treatments, although there was a high degree of variability during the November 2014 week two experiment, where the ambient treatment had the highest tortuosity due to an outlier (4.05) and low sample size (n=3). The average ratio of horizontal to vertical displacement averaged over all the experiments was 0.35±0.15 (±standard deviation) and similar to tortuosity there were only significant differences between treatments in April 2014 (Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA, H=8.7, p=0.013) and August 2014 (Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA, H=6.9, p=0.032). The asymmetry between the peak speeds of the power and recovery strokes did not differ among treatments for any of the experiments (one-way ANOVA). The average and standard deviation of asymmetry between the power/recovery strokes over all the experiments was 7.2±5.1% (n=191).

There was a significant positive correlation between mean swimming speed and wing beat frequency and a significant negative correlation between wing beat frequency and length (Table 4). The mean swimming speed also had significant negative correlations with both tortuosity and the asymmetry between the speeds of the power and recovery

strokes. There were no significant correlations between tortuosity or the asymmetry of the strokes and length.

Discussion

The condition of *Limacina retroversa* shells and sinking speeds of live animals were significantly affected by exposure to elevated carbon dioxide. Since the passive motion of sinking was slower in the elevated CO₂ treatments, even for animals with wings withdrawn, this indicates that the slower sinking rates likely relate to differences in the shells. Swimming behaviour showed less clear patterns of variability in relation to treatment and duration of exposure, and overall swimming ability did not appear to be hindered under elevated CO₂.

Shell Condition

The appearance of shells changed significantly in the elevated CO₂ treatments. Differences in transmittance and opacity of the shells from the medium and high treatments relative to the ambient treatment were apparent from day four of exposure, while in contrast the shells from the ambient treatment did not change significantly over time. Other studies have found that short exposures to similar CO₂ concentrations (750, 880, and 1000 ppm for 7-8 days) can cause changes in shell condition of *L. retroversa* (Lischka and Riebesell 2012, Manno *et al.* 2012) and in the congeneric species *L. helicina* (Lischka *et al.* 2011, Bednaršek *et al.* 2012, Busch *et al.* 2014, Bednaršek *et al.* 2014). The present study adds to these earlier observations by offering a new, quantitative metric for assessing shell condition based on transparency to light-based microscopy and by

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extending the duration over which effects on shell condition were examined. Although they were measured and considered separately, transmittance and opacity are highly related optical properties and as such expectedly showed very similar patterns (though in opposing directions). Future studies employing our light microscopy-based approach might thus focus on transmittance, since the transverse lighting used for opacity measurements causes some glare on the shells regardless of condition which may affect the sensitivity of this metric.

A loss of transparency could have a negative impact on shelled pteropods since transparency is a form of camouflage in the open ocean environment. Although some pteropod predators, notably the gymnosome (or shell-less) pteropods, are non-visual, the decrease in transparency could potentially serve to increase visibility to visual predators known to feed on pteropods, such as fish and birds (LeBrasseur 1966, Levasseur et al. 1996, Armstrong et al. 2005, Hunt et al. 2008, Karnovsky et al. 2008, Sturdevant et al. 2013). It is not known how small of a change in CO₂ concentration will elicit a response in shell condition, but it is noteworthy that changes were evident here in the medium treatment, which in April 2015 was just above an aragonite saturation state of one, a potential environmental threshold. The loss of transparency is likely caused by dissolution of the calcium carbonate matrix, as has been seen at higher resolution using scanning electron microscopy (e.g. Bednaršek et al. 2012). It is possible that the more gradual change in CO₂ concentrations that will occur as a result of climate change could allow for adaptation, although shell dissolution has already been documented for wild populations of L. helicina exposed to naturally low saturation state conditions (Bednaršek et al. 2012, Bednaršek et al. 2014). The methods provided here for examining the transparency of

shells could be applied to natural populations to look for seasonal and inter-annual changes.

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Sinking

Although sinking speeds have been previously quantified in some pteropod species (Lalli and Gilmer 1989), the effect of elevated CO₂ on pteropod sinking has not previously been examined, despite the important role that sinking plays in pteropod locomotion and carbonate flux. In this study, the sinking speeds of L. retroversa were slower during the second week of exposure to elevated CO₂ and onwards. Measurements of mass made for the April 2015 experiment, normalized to length to account for variability in size, did not indicate a clear pattern among treatments indicative of dissolution due to exposure to enhanced CO₂. It is thus not clear whether the change in sinking speed are due to the shells changing in mass, density, or if they are modified in a way that increases drag. It is also not known whether the experimentally manipulated chemical conditions had any impacts on the mass of the animal bodies, separate from the shells. Given the relatively massive shells and direct linkage between under-saturated conditions and calcium carbonate dissolution, however, it seems likely that changes in sinking speed relate primarily to changes in the shells. The ambient treatment also showed slower sinking with increased duration of exposure, but nonetheless the effect of elevated CO₂ treatment was persistent and sinking both with wings withdrawn and extended showed a similar treatment effect. The decrease in sinking speed for the ambient treatment could indicate a captivity effect, where animals in all treatments might decrease in overall health and vigour with increased duration of time in captivity. It could also be due to removal of larger individuals earlier in the

experiments, leading to smaller pteropods being tested in the later weeks, although the effect of exposure on sinking speed was consistent when normalised by the square root of length (based on the observed relationship between size and sinking speed) so this is less likely. In an earlier study, the scaling between shell length and sinking speed for the congeneric species *L. helicina* was between 0.3 and 0.4 (Chang and Yen, 2012), similar to the scaling of 0.5 found in this study. Animal length and speed are also important in determining the Reynolds number (Re). Since *L. retroversa* moves in a transitional regime of Re between ca. 5 and 50, decreases in sinking and swimming speeds might lead to a decrease in Re that could result in increased viscous drag (Walker 2002).

Extended wings slowed sinking, presumably as an adaptation to minimise energetic expenditure on swimming to maintain position in the water column. In the laboratory, our observation is that pteropods alternate periods of swimming upwards with sinking, while in the field, the production of mucous webs is thought to slow or even halt sinking, although the prevalence of this behaviour is not well known (Gilmer and Harbison 1986). The bioenergetic consequences to pteropods in the wild of reduced sinking speeds are thus somewhat difficult to assess, but it may be that metabolic costs of maintaining position in the water column are overall reduced under exposure to enhanced CO₂. In contrast, changes in sinking speed may have negative consequences in terms of vulnerability to predation. The gymnosome pteropods feed exclusively on shelled pteropods and for this monospecific predator-prey relationship, withdrawing wings into the shell might make it harder for the predatory shell-less pteropods to successfully capture and consume their prey (Conover and Lalli 1974). Sinking behaviour in the wild is also believed to be a mode of predator avoidance: a response to a disturbance was noted for the pteropod species

Diacria quadridentata, which withdrew its wings presumably to achieve a faster sinking speed (Gilmer and Harbison 1986). Overall, there are only a few field observations of pteropod behaviour in the wild, but along with the decrease in transparency and camouflage, a decrease in sinking speed with increased CO₂ is another way that *L. retroversa* and other shelled pteropods might have increased vulnerability to predators due to ocean acidification.

Post-mortem sinking of pteropod shells is important for the biogeochemical cycling of carbon (Berner and Honjo 1981). The solubility of aragonite increases with depth, dropping below a saturation state of one at a depth known as the aragonite compensation depth, which is shoaling due to ocean acidification (Fabry *et al.* 2008). Dissolution is not immediate below the aragonite compensation depth, however, and shells that sink more slowly have more time to be dissolved before reaching deeper water (Byrne *et al.* 1984). The combination of the slower sinking rates observed here with the shoaling of the compensation depth and the elevated rate of dissolution expected from ocean acidification is likely to cause pteropod dissolution and redistribution of carbonate to occur at increasingly shallower depths.

Swimming

Although the degradation of the shell after exposure to elevated CO₂ might have been expected to have consequences to the animal's weight and ballast, swimming behaviour did not show clear changes when *L. retroversa* were exposed to elevated CO₂. In particular, unlike sinking speed, swimming speed did not show any clear reduction in the elevated CO₂ treatments. It may be that the differences among the experiments in

swimming behaviour and the sensitivity of the various swimming metrics to CO₂ relate to seasonal differences in the overall condition, developmental state, and vigour of the animals prior to capture that persisted through the experiments; these differences may also be influenced by overall low sample sizes. It should also be noted that variability in individual swimming performance may have affected the patterns evident in the April and August 2014 experiments, where multiple animals were present in the filming tank concurrently, relative to the multiple runs done on individual animals in the November 2014 and April 2015 experiments. This methodological change was unfortunate and introduces the possibility of pseudo-replication in the earlier two experiments if swimming was observed for the same animal more than once. Given the overall low sample sizes and dearth of previous information, we have presented the observations from both the initial sub-optimal experiments as well as the latter two more rigorous investigations. No consistent differences across the measured swimming metrics were evident associated with the change in method.

The significant differences in swimming speed in the first week of exposure may be spurious, as the treatment with the fastest swimmers was not consistent among experiments and significant differences among treatments did not persist after longer exposure durations. A previous study by Manno *et al.* (2012) manipulated CO₂ and salinity to examine how swimming was affected in *L. retroversa* and found that elevated CO₂ alone did not cause a change in swimming speed or wing beat frequency after eight days of exposure, while decreased salinity combined with increased CO₂ conditions slowed the swimming and increased the beat frequency. This supports the idea that our findings at one week are spurious.

More consistent in the present study than the patterns in swimming speed was a trend towards decreased wing beat frequency in the medium and high treatments relative to ambient, albeit only significant in one of the experiments. This reduction in wing beat frequency is interesting in its not being accompanied by an associated difference between treatments in swimming speed (although at the individual level, wing beat frequency was positively correlated with swimming speed). A reduction in beat frequency may suggest a reduced metabolic cost of swimming in the animals exposed to elevated CO₂, and is perhaps associated with a less massive shell. While there was not a good correlation between swimming speed and length, there was a significant negative correlation between wing beat frequency and length, which has also been noted in another study where larger *L. helicina* beat their wings less frequently but achieved greater speeds (Chang and Yen 2012). That more detailed study of swimming kinetics also found that across sizes the trajectory and timing of the wing strokes varied, possibly as a response to changing Reynolds number regimes.

Tortuosity often, but not always, showed differences associated with treatment in the present study, with greatest tortuosity in the ambient treatment. Tortuosity was significantly negatively correlated to swimming speed, as animals tended to exhibit more horizontal movements that often appeared helical in nature when swimming at lower speeds. Tortuosity and length were also negatively related, though not quite significantly. Chang and Yen (2012) similarly found that the helical component of *L. helicina* swimming paths was greater for larger individuals. Pteropod swimming relies on the rotation of the shell between the power and recovery strokes and differential dissolution along the elongate shells of individual *L. retroversa* could conceivably influence swimming

efficiency. Examining the asymmetry in swimming speed induced by the power and recovery strokes, however, did not show any effect of CO₂ exposure. In general it is possible that the limited effects observed on the swimming metrics examined here in relation to CO₂ exposure are due to shell dissolution (and associated potential impacts on weight and ballast) not being advanced enough to result in discernible consequences to swimming. If future studies can overcome limitations in the durations over which pteropods can be maintained in captivity, the longer-term effects on locomotion of enhanced CO₂ might be examined.

Conclusions

This study observed decreased sinking speeds in pteropods exposed to conditions of elevated CO₂ that could exist by the end of the century, suggesting that ocean acidification could affect pteropod fitness, as sinking is a mode of predator avoidance. Decreased sinking speeds will likely also slow the passive transport of calcium carbonate to depth. Ocean acidification could potentially also increase the visibility of pteropods to predators, since increased CO₂ significantly affected the transparency of shells. Longer perturbation experiments or greater replication may be needed to understand whether ocean acidification affects swimming. The cues that pteropods respond to that motivate their upward swimming are not known, and whether these cues are influenced by CO₂ treatment is also uncertain. Overall, more behavioural experiments on pteropods are needed to understand the consequences of ocean acidification, although this relies on the development of improved culture techniques in order to achieve adequately large sample sizes and to examine impacts over longer time periods (Howes *et al.* 2015).

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary material is available at ICES JMS online, including figures of shell mass measurements normalized to length vs. exposure duration for the April 2015 experiment and swimming speed vs. length as well as a table providing the full carbonate chemistry measurements and calculations. MATLAB code for the analysis of pteropod shell transmittance and opacity is available at http://www.bco-dmo.org/project/2263.

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Captions

Figure 1. (a) Schematic of the filming set up. The seawater tank had a mirror to show the actual and reflected image of an animal sinking or swimming, allowing position to be determined in three dimensions. A high speed camera was used for filming and illumination was provided by an LED panel. The tank was 10 cm long, 10 cm wide, and 10 cm high. (b) Filming set up showing the mirrored tank with the fixed pipette that was used to drop the pteropods through for sinking trials. (c) One frame of a video shows the actual image and mirrored image of a sinking pteropod with wings withdrawn, shortly after exiting the fixed pipette.

Figure 2. (a) Speed vs time plot of a swimming trial, showing the full time-series of speed from the 3 second video segment (blue), along with calculated mean speed (red line), a wing beat period, and the asymmetry in peaks. The wing beat frequency was calculated as 1/(beat period) and included both the power and recovery strokes. Power strokes were consistently associated with greater speeds and asymmetry between the peak speeds of the power and recovery stroke was measured as the difference between subsequent peaks of speed divided by the larger of the two. (b) The 3D trajectory of a swimming *L. retroversa* shows the pattern of motion. Note that this is a scatter plot but the high frame rate of the camera leads to the points appearing essentially as a line. Tortuosity was calculated as the total cumulative distance traveled divided by the direct distance from starting point to finish.

761 Figure 3. (a) Transmittance (proportion of transmitted light) and (b) opacity (proportion of 762 reflected light) of L. retroversa shells from the April 2015 experiment relative to duration 763 of exposure for each of the three CO₂ treatments. 764 765 Figure 4. (a) Terminal sinking speed for *L. retroversa* with wings withdrawn for the four 766 experiments (circle: April 2014; square: August 2014; diamond: November 2014; triangle: 767 April 2015) after durations of exposure of 1-4 weeks. From left to right within each weekly 768 bracket the ambient, medium, and high treatment are plotted, although the treatments were 769 measured together of the course of 2-5 days and are spaced along the x-axis simply for 770 easier visualisation. The error bars denote standard error. (b) The terminal sinking speed 771 with wings extended for the April 2014, August 2014, and November 2015 experiments. 772 No measurements of sinking with wings extended were made in April 2015 or in week 3 of 773 any of the experiments. 774 775 Figure 5. Log₁₀ terminal sinking speed with wings withdrawn vs log₁₀ shell length for each 776 treatment (points) along with a linear regression for each treatment (lines). The slope of the 777 linear regressions shows the power scaling between sinking speed and shell length. 778 Contours of constant Reynolds numbers (Re) of 5, 10, and 20 are shown in black. 779 780 Figure 6. (a) Mean swimming speed, (b) wing beat frequency, and (c) tortuosity for L. 781 retroversa for the four experiments (circle: April 2014; square: August 2014; diamond: 782 November 2014; triangle: April 2015) after durations of exposure of 1-3 weeks. From left 783 to right within a week the ambient, medium, and high treatment are plotted, although

treatments were measured together over the course of 2-5 days. The error bars denote standard error. Both the power and recovery stroke are included in each wing beat in calculating wing beat frequency.

Table 1. The carbonate chemistry parameters partial pressure of CO_2 (pCO₂), pH, and aragonite saturation state (Ω_A) are average values for the water leaving the treatment carboys at days 7 and 14 during water changes. TA and DIC were directly measured and were used for calculation of the other parameters. Measurements of ingoing water at the start of each week of exposure in April and August 2014 appeared to indicate insufficient pre-equilibration, although target levels were reached by day 1 (see text and Supplementary Table S1). The values are reported as the mean \pm standard deviation.

Experiment	Treatment	pCO ₂ (µatm)	pН	$\Omega_{ m A}$
April 2014	Ambient	470±20	7.96±0.02	1.54±0.06
	Medium	850±40	7.73±0.02	0.94±0.03
	High	1190±120	7.59±0.04	0.70±0.07
Aug 2014	Ambient	440±40	7.98±0.03	1.58±0.11
	Medium	650±170	7.84±0.11	1.21±0.30
	High	990±100	7.66±0.04	0.80±0.08
Nov 2014	Ambient	480±50	7.95±0.04	1.49±0.11
	Medium	1100±290	7.63±0.10	0.76±0.15
	High	1320±160	7.55±0.05	0.63±0.07
April 2015	Ambient	440±30	7.99±0.03	1.61±0.09
	Medium	740±100	7.78±0.05	1.05±0.12
	High	1180±190	7.59±0.07	0.70±0.11

Table 2. Representative images showing the changes in shell appearance from day 2 to day 15 for each treatment during the April 2015 experiment. Transmittance images are taken when light is shining from below the sample, and opacity images are taken when light is illuminating the sample from the sides.

	Treatment	Day 2	Day 15	
Transmit- tance	Ambient	3		
	Medium			
	High			
Opacity	Ambient			
	Medium			
	High			

Table 3. Cruise and experiment details and associated statistics. For each type of observation of *L. retroversa* (shell condition, sinking, or swimming) and each duration of exposure the sample sizes are listed (ambient, medium, high). Test statistics (F for one-way ANOVAs and H for Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVAs on ranks) are reported for comparisons among treatments for multiple sinking, swimming, and shell variables abbreviated as follows: "Sinking wings in" is sinking speed with wings withdrawn, "Sinking wings out" is sinking speed with wings extended, "Swim speed" is mean swimming speed, "Beat" is wing beat frequency, and "Tort" is tortuosity. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, NS=Non-Significant

Experiment	Cruise Dates	Type of	Exposure	Sample Size	One-way ANOVA: F
		Observation	Duration	Amb., Med., High	Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA: H
April 2014	25 April –	Sinking	4 Weeks	10, 10, 7	Sinking wings in: F=9.8***; Sinking wings out: F=9.0**
	27 April 2014	Swimming	3 Weeks	11, 7, 10	Swim speed: F=0.9 ^{NS} , Beat: H=1.7 ^{NS} , Tort: H=8.4*
August 2014	19 August	Sinking	1 Week	10, 12, 13	Sinking wings in: H=1.1 ^{NS} , Sinking wings out: F=1.0 ^{NS}
	2014	Swimming	1 Week	13, 21, 17	Swim speed: F=4.6*, Beat: H=2.1 ^{NS} , Tort: H=10.6**
November	4 November –	Sinking	1 Week	20, 22, 20	Sinking wings in: F=0.3 ^{NS} , Sinking wings out: F=0.4 ^{NS}
2014	6 November	Sinking	2 Weeks	25, 20, 18	Sinking wings in : F=4.2*, Sinking wings out : F=6.4**
	2014	Swimming	2 Weeks	3, 10, 10	Speed: H=1.6 ^{NS} , Beat: F=1.6 ^{NS} , Tort: H=2.3 ^{NS}
April 2015	26 April –	Sinking	1 Week	25, 26, 25	Sinking wings in: F=5.8**
	27 April 2015	Sinking	2 Weeks	26, 26, 22	Sinking wings in: H=11.6**
		Sinking	3 Weeks	26, 22, 16	Sinking wings in: F=19.0***
		Swimming	1 Week	15, 18, 16	Swim speed: F=3.7*, Beat: F=9.5***, Tort: H=4.7 ^{NS}
		Swimming	2 Weeks	8, 14, 18	Swim speed: F=0.1 ^{NS} , Beat: F=1.5 ^{NS} , Tort: H=5.1 ^{NS}
		Shells	2 Days	8, 9, 8	Transmittance: F=0.1 ^{NS} , Opacity: H=0.8 ^{NS}
		Shells	4 Days	8, 8, 8	Transmittance: H=9.0*, Opacity: H=8.1*
		Shells	8 Days	8, 7, 5	Transmittance: H=14.5***, Opacity: H=13.0**
		Shells	15 Days	7, 7, 5	Transmittance: F=60***, Opacity: F=212***

Table 4. Correlation coefficients (r) among the swimming variables: mean swimming speed, wing beat frequency, path tortuosity, and asymmetry between the peaks of speed (i.e. the difference between the power and recovery stroke). Bold indicates significant correlations. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, NS=Non-Significant

Correlation coefficient	Length	Wing Beat frequency	Tortuosity	Asymmetry in peaks
Speed	0.0005 ^{NS}	0.2395 ***	-0.4357***	-0.18233*
Length		-0.3785***	-0.1418 ^{NS}	0.110331 NS
Wing Beat			0.1209 ^{NS}	-0.13198 ^{NS}
Tortuosity				0.059909 NS

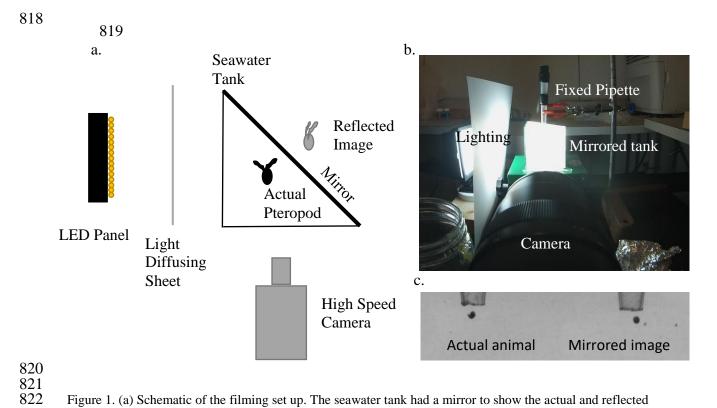


Figure 1. (a) Schematic of the filming set up. The seawater tank had a mirror to show the actual and reflected image of an animal sinking or swimming, allowing position to be determined in three dimensions. A high speed camera was used for filming and illumination was provided by an LED panel. The tank was 10 cm long, 10 cm wide, and 10 cm high. (b) Filming set up showing the mirrored tank with the fixed pipette that was used to drop the pteropods through for sinking trials. (c) One frame of a video shows the actual image and mirrored image of a sinking pteropod with wings withdrawn, shortly after exiting the fixed pipette.

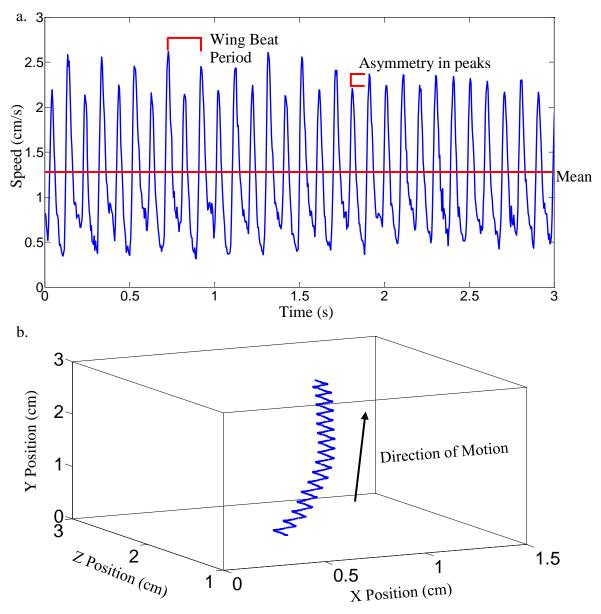


Figure 2. (a) Speed vs time plot of a swimming trial, showing the full time-series of speed from the 3 second video segment (blue), along with calculated mean speed (red line), a wing beat period, and the asymmetry in peaks. The wing beat frequency was calculated as 1/(beat period) and included both the power and recovery strokes. Power strokes were consistently associated with greater speeds and asymmetry between the peak speeds of the power and recovery stroke was measured as the difference between subsequent peaks of speed divided by the larger of the two. (b) The 3D trajectory of a swimming *L. retroversa* shows the pattern of motion. Note that this is a scatter plot but the high frame rate of the camera leads to the points appearing essentially as a line. Tortuosity was calculated as the total cumulative distance traveled divided by the direct distance from starting point to finish.

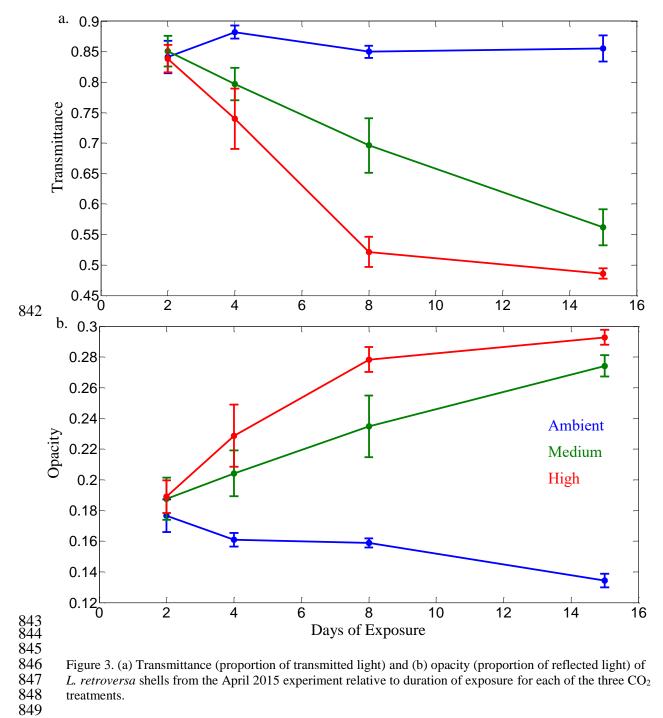


Figure 3. (a) Transmittance (proportion of transmitted light) and (b) opacity (proportion of reflected light) of L. retroversa shells from the April 2015 experiment relative to duration of exposure for each of the three CO2 treatments.

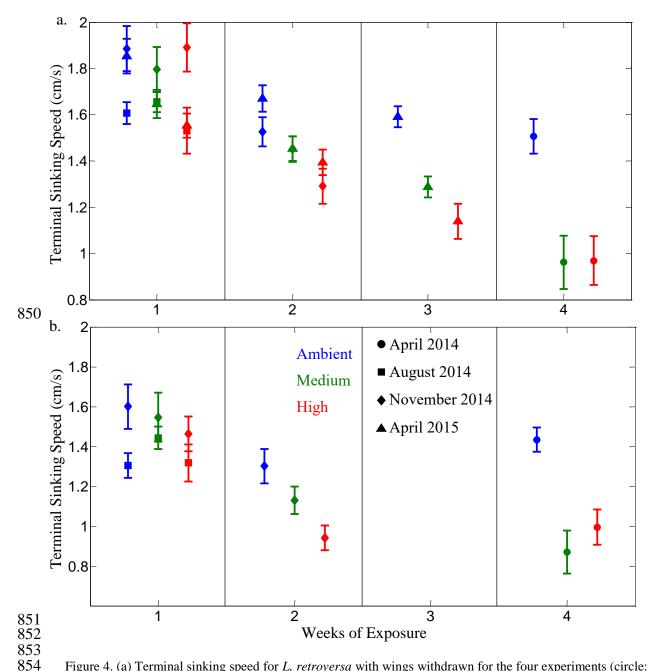


Figure 4. (a) Terminal sinking speed for *L. retroversa* with wings withdrawn for the four experiments (circle: April 2014; square: August 2014; diamond: November 2014; triangle: April 2015) after durations of exposure of 1-4 weeks. From left to right within each weekly bracket the ambient, medium, and high treatment are plotted, although the treatments were measured together of the course of 2-5 days, and are spaced along the x-axis simply for easier visualisation. The error bars denote standard error. (b) The terminal sinking speed with wings extended for the April 2014, August 2014, and November 2015 experiments. No measurements of sinking with wings extended were made in April 2015 or in week 3 of any of the experiments.

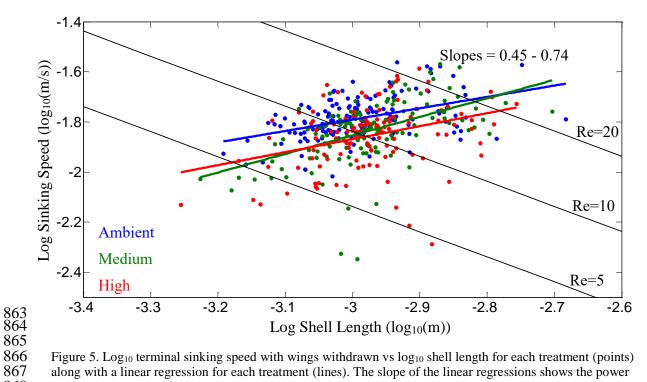


Figure 5. Log₁₀ terminal sinking speed with wings withdrawn vs log₁₀ shell length for each treatment (points) along with a linear regression for each treatment (lines). The slope of the linear regressions shows the power scaling between sinking speed and shell length. Contours of constant Reynolds numbers (Re) of 5, 10, and 20 are shown in black.

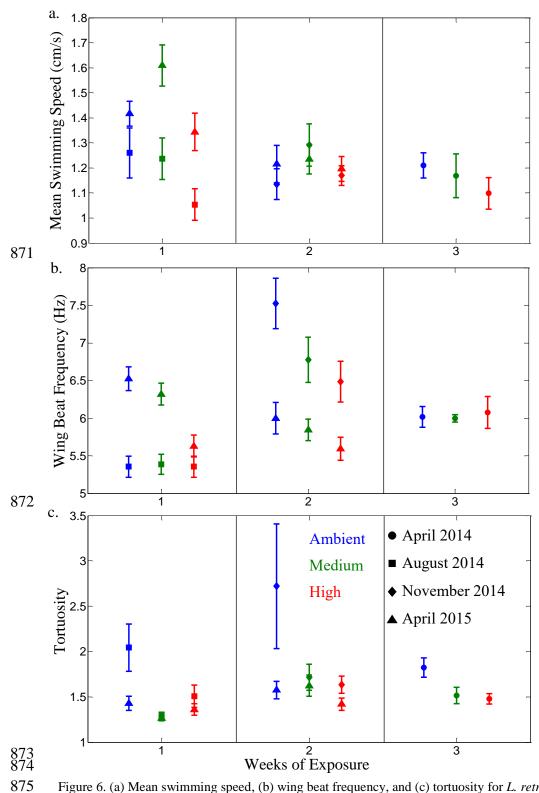
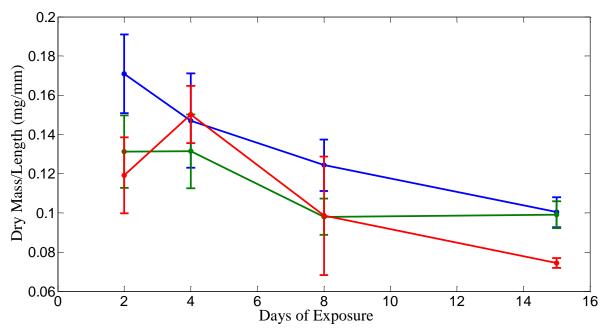
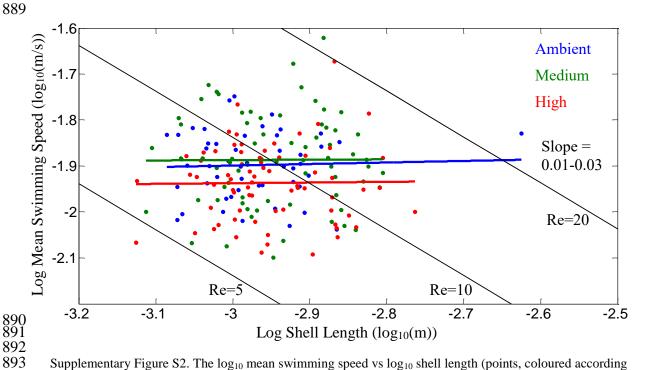


Figure 6. (a) Mean swimming speed, (b) wing beat frequency, and (c) tortuosity for *L. retroversa* for the four experiments (circle: April 2014; square: August 2014; diamond: November 2014; triangle: April 2015) after durations of exposure of 1-3 weeks. From left to right within a week the ambient, medium, and high treatment are plotted, although treatments were measured together over the course of 2-5 days. The error bars denote standard error. Both the power and recovery stroke are included in each wing beat in calculating wing beat frequency.

Supplementary Materials



Supplementary Figure S1. Shell dry mass with animal tissue present (i.e., prior to digestion with bleach) normalized to individual length from the April 2015 experiment relative to duration of exposure for each of the three CO₂ treatments.



Supplementary Figure S2. The \log_{10} mean swimming speed vs \log_{10} shell length (points, coloured according to treatment) along with a linear regression for each treatment (coloured lines). The slopes of the linear regressions indicate the power scaling between swimming speed and shell length. Reynolds numbers (Re) 5, 10, and 20 are shown in black lines.

Supplemental Table S1. Carbonate chemistry parameters measured and calculated over the course of the four experiments for the three treatments: ambient, medium, and high, nominally targeting pCO₂ levels of 400, 800, and 1200 μ atm, respectively. Water changes happened at weekly intervals, at which time dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and total alkalinity (TA) were measured. The TA/DIC measurements of ingoing prebubbled water entering the carboys are labelled "In" and the TA/DIC measurements of outgoing water leaving the carboys are labelled "Out". Mid-week measurements of pH were made between water changes, labelled "Mid." "Out" and "Mid" measurements shown are an average of the 2-3 carboys for each treatment, while "In" is a single measurement from the pre-bubbled holding tanks for each treatment. For the ingoing and outgoing water, DIC/TA measurements were used to calculate the values in the last three columns: pH, dissolved CO₂ (pCO₂), and aragonite saturation state (Ω_A). Mid-week measurements of pH were used with the nearest measurement of TA in time to calculate the pCO₂ and Ω_A values to estimate the carbonate chemistry between water changes.

				M	EASURED		CA	LCULAT	ED
Cruise	Treat	Day	Water Change	DIC (µmol/kg)	TA (μmol/kg)	pН	pН	pCO ₂ (µatm)	$\Omega_{ m A}$
Apr	Ambient	0	In	2058	2216		8.03	390	1.76
'1 4		1	Mid			7.96		470	1.54
		3	Mid			7.97		450	1.57
		5	Mid			7.99		440	1.62
		7	Out	2093	2234		7.96	470	1.54
		7	In	2068	2216		8.01	420	1.68
		8	Mid			7.97		450	1.58
		10	Mid			7.96		460	1.54
		13	Mid			7.98		440	1.59
		14	Out	2082	2215		7.97	460	1.55
		26	Mid			8.03		390	1.77
		29	Mid			8.03		390	1.74
	Medium	0	In	2092	2214		7.94	500	1.45
		1	Mid			7.75		790	0.99
		3	Mid			7.77		760	1.02
		5	Mid			7.78		750	1.05
		7	Out	2175	2227		7.72	860	0.93
		7	In	2147	2217		7.78	740	1.05
		8	Mid			7.72		860	0.92
		10	Mid			7.70		910	0.88
		13	Mid			7.73		830	0.95
		14	Out	2166	2222		7.73	830	0.95
		26	Mid			7.79		710	1.09
		29	Mid			7.80		710	1.09
	High	0	In	2111	2215		7.88	570	1.31
		1	Mid			7.59		1180	0.69
		3	Mid			7.61		1110	0.73
		5	Mid			7.68		940	0.86
		7	Out	2210	2220		7.57	1230	0.67
		7	In	2184	2216		7.65	1010	0.80
		8	Mid			7.57		1240	0.67
		10	Mid			7.55		1280	0.65
		13	Mid			7.58		1220	0.68
		14	Out	2202	2219		7.60	1150	0.72
		26	Mid			7.58		1200	0.69
		29	Mid			7.60		1150	0.72
	Ambient	0	In	2016	2176		8.04	379	1.77

Aug		1	Mid			7.99	T	430	1.58
'14		3	Mid			7.92		510	1.38
14			Mid			7.95		470	1.38
		7		2052	2182		7.06	460	1.47
		7	Out	2032	2183		7.96	390	1.73
			In		+	7.00	8.03		
		8	Mid			7.99		430	160
		11	Mid	2020	2105	7.99		430	1.60
	3.6.1	14	Out	2039	2185		8.00	414	1.65
	Medium	0	In	2103	2162		7.74	790	0.95
		1	Mid			7.71		840	0.90
		3	Mid			7.69		890	0.85
		6	Mid			7.72		840	0.92
		7	Out	2125	2194		7.78	750	1.04
		7	In	2104	2180		7.80	690	1.07
		8	Mid			7.70		870	0.89
		11	Mid			7.69		900	0.84
		14	Out	2085	2198		7.91	540	1.38
	High	0	In	2082	2177		7.86	590	1.22
		1	Mid			7.59		1150	0.69
		3	Mid			7.55		1260	0.63
		6	Mid			7.58		1190	0.67
		7	Out	2160	2186		7.63	1060	0.75
		7	In	2143	2186		7.69	910	0.85
		8	Mid			7.60		1120	0.71
		11	Mid			7.64		1030	0.77
		14	Out	2150	2198		7.70	880	0.89
Nov	Ambient	0	In	2062	2197		7.98	440	1.57
'14		6	Mid			8.07		360	1.89
		7	Out	2118	2233		7.93	520	1.42
		7	In	2066	2195		7.97	460	1.52
		8	Mid			8.01		410	1.65
		10	Mid			7.99		430	1.58
		14	Out	2065	2198		7.98	440	1.55
	Medium	0	In	2129	2197		7.78	730	1.03
		6	Mid			7.79		730	1.06
		7	Out	2234	2234		7.55	1320	0.64
		7	In	2142	2194		7.73	830	0.92
		8	Mid			7.73		830	0.92
		10	Mid			7.72		840	0.92
		14	Out	2154	2201		7.71	870	0.89
	High	0	In	2153	2196		7.70	890	0.86
		6	Mid			7.63		1080	0.76
		7	Out	2241	2239		7.54	1350	0.62
		7	In	2185	2191		7.57	1230	0.65
		8	Mid			7.58		1200	0.67
		10	Mid			7.57		1240	0.64
		14	Out	2205	2206		7.55	1290	0.63
Apr	Ambient	0	In	2081	2218		7.99	440	1.59
'15		7	Out	2082	2222		8.00	430	1.62
		7	In	2077	2212		7.98	440	1.58
		7	Mid			8.01		420	1.65
		11	Mid			7.99		430	1.61
		14	Out	2085	2222		7.99	440	1.60
L	<u> </u>		Jui	2002		1	1.77	1 10	1.00

	14	In	2108	2257		8.01	420	1.72
	16	Mid			8.02		410	1.73
	18	Mid			8.01		420	1.70
Medium	0	In	2153	2229		7.81	700	1.10
	7	Out	2166	2222		7.74	820	0.95
	7	In	2147	2211		7.77	760	1.01
	7	Mid			7.79		720	1.06
	11	Mid			7.82		680	1.12
	14	Out	2143	2225		7.83	660	1.15
	14	In	2173	2253		7.82	680	1.14
	16	Mid			7.79		740	1.06
	18	Mid			7.78		750	1.05
High	0	In	2191	2223		7.66	1000	0.80
	7	Out	2208	2221		7.59	1170	0.70
	7	In	2208	2209		7.55	1300	0.62
	7	Mid			7.64		1050	0.76
	11	Mid			7.63		1070	0.75
	14	Out	2201	2214		7.59	1190	0.70
	14	In	2198	2251		7.73	850	0.94
	16	Mid			7.59		1190	0.70
	18	Mid			7.59		1200	0.70