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The impacts of warming and hypoxia on the performance of an obligate ram ventilator

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Complete List of Authors:	Crear, Daniel; Virginia Institute of Marine Science, Fisheries Science Brill, Richard; Virginia Institute of Marine Science, Fisheries Science Bushnell, Peter; Indiana University South Bend, Department of Biological Sciences Latour, Robert; Virginia Institute of Marine Science, Fisheries Science Schwieterman, Gail; Virginia Institute of Marine Science, Fisheries Science Steffen, Rachel; Washington and Lee University, Biology Weng, Kevin Chi-Ming; Virginia Institute of Marine Science, Fisheries Science
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5	3	Daniel P. Crear, Fisheries Science Department, Virginia Institute of Marine Science, College of
6 7	4	William & Mary Gloucester Point VA 23062 USA
7 8	5	Rich W. Brill, Fisheries Science Department, Virginia Institute of Marine Science. College of
9	6	William & Mary, Gloucester Point, VA 23062, USA
10	7	Peter G Bushnell Department of Biological Sciences Indiana University South Bend South
11	8	Bend IN 46634 USA
12	9	Robert J Latour, Fisheries Science Department Virginia Institute of Marine Science, College of
13	10	William & Mary Gloucester Point VA 23062 USA
14 15	11	Gail D. Schwieterman, Fisheries Science Department, Virginia Institute of Marine Science
15 16	12	College of William & Mary Gloucester Point VA 23062 USA
10	13	Rachel M Steffen Biology Department Washington & Lee University Lexington VA 244150
18	14	Kevin C Weng Fisheries Science Department, Virginia Institute of Marine Science College of
19	15	William & Mary Gloucester Point VA 23062 USA
20	16	
21	17	
22	18	Corresponding author: Daniel Crear
23 24	19	Phone Number: (804) 684-7819
25	20	Email: dcrear8@gmail.com
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30 31	25	Lav Summary
32	26	We assessed the impact of warming and hypoxia on the metabolic rate and behavior of an
33	20	obligate ram-ventilating marine predator, the sandhar shark, that uses coastal habitat as a nursery
34	28	ground Based on their thermal threshold and low hypoxia tolerance, we expect sandbar sharks to
35	29	be negatively impacted by climate change
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3 4	45	
5 6 7	46	Abstract
7 8 9	47	Climate change is causing the warming and deoxygenation of coastal habitats like
10 11	48	Chesapeake Bay that serve as important nursery habitats for many marine fish species. As
12 13	49	conditions continue to change, it is important to understand how these changes impact individual
14 15 16	50	species' behavioral and metabolic performance. The sandbar shark (Carcharhinus plumbeus) is
17 18	51	an obligate ram ventilating apex predator whose juveniles use Chesapeake Bay as a nursery
19 20	52	ground for up to 10 years of age. The objective of this study was to measure juvenile sandbar
21 22	53	shark metabolic and behavioral performance as a proxy for overall performance (i.e., fitness or
23 24 25	54	success) when exposed to warm and hypoxic water. Juvenile sandbar sharks (79.5 – 113.5 cm
26 27	55	TL) were collected from an estuary along the eastern shore of Virginia and returned to lab where
28 29	56	they were fitted with an accelerometer, placed in a respirometer, and exposed to varying
30 31 32	57	temperatures and oxygen levels. Juvenile sandbar shark overall performance declined
33 34	58	substantially at 32°C or when dissolved oxygen concentration was reduced below 3.5 mg l ⁻¹
35 36	59	(51% oxygen saturation between $24 - 32^{\circ}$ C). As the extent of warm hypoxic water increases in
37 38 39	60	Chesapeake Bay, we expect that the available sandbar shark nursery habitat will be reduced,
40 41	61	which may negatively impact the population of sandbar sharks in the western Atlantic, as well as
42 43	62	the overall health of the ecosystem within Chesapeake Bay.
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7 8 9	70	Introduction
10 11	71	Climate change is warming coastal areas and estuaries worldwide. An increase in
12 13	72	anthropogenic nutrient input is likewise increasing the severity and extent of hypoxic episodes in
14 15 16	73	many of these areas (Conley et al., 2007, Hagy et al., 2004, Irby et al., 2016, Kemp et al., 2005,
17 18	74	Najjar et al., 2010, Preston, 2004, Rabalais et al., 2009). These conditions are expected to
19 20	75	worsen over the next 100 years as climate change impacts are exacerbated (Irby et al., 2018,
21 22 23	76	Najjar, et al., 2010, Rabalais, et al., 2009).
24 25	77	Changing environmental conditions in coastal areas and estuaries are likely to impact
26 27	78	marine fish species that rely on these habitats as primary nursery grounds (Rijnsdorp et al.,
28 29 20	79	2009). For example, while in their nursery habitat, juvenile weakfish (Cynoscion regalis)
30 31 32	80	avoided waters in a tributary of Indian River Bay, DE, USA with dissolved oxygen below 2 mg l ⁻
33 34	81	¹ (Tyler and Targett, 2007). The prevalence of juvenile bull sharks (<i>Carcharhinus leucas</i>) has
35 36	82	actually increased in their nursery ground habitat within Pamlico Sound, NC, USA over the last
37 38 39	83	decade as a result of increased water temperatures (Bangley et al., 2018). Shifts in species
40 41	84	distribution, similar to the examples above, can lead to changes in the timing of migration of
42 43	85	juveniles and adults (Nye et al., 2009, Turner et al., 2015), reproductive patterns of adults (Last
44 45 46	86	et al., 2011), and abundance of all life stages (Last, et al., 2011, Lynch et al., 2014); all of which
47 48	87	can influence population level success and the overall health of ecosystems (Morley et al., 2018).
49 50	88	To understand these potential changes in fish ecology, it is important to assess the
51 52	89	relationship between environmental conditions and the performance of individual fish.
53 54 55 56 57 58 59	90	Performance is often assessed through measurement of aerobic scope (AS, i.e., the difference
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between maximum and standard metabolic rates; Claireaux & Lefrançois 2007, Di Santo 2016), which quantifies an individual's metabolic power (i.e., energy use per unit time) under which all of life's processes beyond basic maintenance (e.g., growth, reproduction, digestion, movement) must occur (Clark et al., 2013). Consistent with the theory of oxygen- and capacity-limited thermal tolerance (OCLTT), AS is a measure of fitness and performance in ectotherms. According to OCLTT, AS follows a bell-shaped curve with temperature such that there is a temperature where AS is optimized (Clark, et al., 2013, Fry, 1971). Therefore, it is expected that long term warming will reduce AS and decrease the ability for many individuals to carry out multiple life processes simultaneously unless individuals adjust their range and distribution (Pörtner and Knust, 2007). However, the theory of OCLTT does not hold true for all species, as some demonstrate an increase in aerobic scope with temperature until temperature approaches lethal levels (Clark, et al., 2013, McKenzie et al., 2016). This suggests that, for some species, the temperature at which AS is optimized is not equivalent to the temperature at which performance is maximized (Lefevre, 2016). Increases in the extent and severity of hypoxic episodes in coastal areas are affecting the physiology and thus ecology of coastal species (Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995, Ludsin et al., 2009, Tyler and Targett, 2007, Wannamaker and Rice, 2000, Zhang et al., 2009). Hypoxia tolerance is often quantified by measurement of critical oxygen levels or oxygen level at which individuals can no longer maintain standard metabolic rate (SMR). The critical oxygen saturation (S_{crit}) should increase with temperature due to increases in SMR and decreases in oxygen solubility in water. Individuals cannot occupy waters long term with an oxygen level below S_{crit} because, under these conditions, at least some of the power needed to maintain homeostasis must be met through anaerobic metabolism (Brill et al., 2015, Fry and Hart, 1948, Schurmann and Steffensen,

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114 1997). Similar to S_{crit}, the quantities C_{crit} and P_{crit} are the concentration and partial pressure of 115 oxygen, respectively, at which a fish can no longer maintain SMR. All of these measures of 116 critical oxygen, as well as AS, can be determined through intermittent-flow respirometry (Clark 117 et al., 2011, Lapointe et al., 2014). 118 Measuring metabolic performance (i.e., AS) of an obligate ram ventilator, like a tuna or 119 some shark species, is difficult because of the necessity of individuals to swim constantly and, 120 therefore, a need to measure activity simultaneously. This requires either a swim tunnel 121 respirometer where swimming speed can be controlled, or a respirometer large enough for fish to 122 swim independently coupled with a method to quantify activity. Since many species exhibit 123 difficulty swimming in a swim tunnel, a large circular tank can be used as the respirometer such 124 that fish are able to swim freely (Lear *et al.*, 2017). Because the swimming behavior and activity 125 of fish cannot be controlled in the large circular respirometer, accelerometers have been used to 126 measure activity during experimentation (Lear, et al., 2017). Activity measurements (i.e., 127 behavioral performance), obtained through measured from accelerometers (Whitney et al., 2007, 128 Whitney et al., 2016), -can be used as a performance metric to quantify mechanical work, 129 describe behavior (Gleiss et al., 2011, Payne et al., 2018), and be used as an indicator to 130 understand locomotor performance under different environmental regimes (Payne, et al., 2018, 131 Payne et al., 2016). Activity is correlated with metabolic performance, which suggests that 132 accelerometers can be used to infer field metabolic rate when applied to free-ranging individuals 133 (Bouyoucos et al., 2017, Lear, et al., 2017). However, the relationship between accelerometer 134 derived activity metrics and metabolic rate has not been assessed under high levels of 135 environmental stress.

The sandbar shark (Carcharhinus plumbeus) is an obligate ram ventilating species that

relies on coastal habitats as nursery grounds during younger life stages. In late spring, pupping

occurs in Chesapeake Bay and coastal estuaries along the mid-Atlantic, where young-of-year

(YOY) remain through summer (Conrath and Musick, 2007, Grubbs and Musick, 2007). After

moving south or offshore during winter, juveniles return to these nursery areas to forage and

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avoid larger predators during summer for the following 4-10 years (Grubbs and Musick, 2007).
As a result of climate change and anthropogenic nutrient input, Chesapeake Bay is becoming
warmer and more hypoxic (Hagy, et al., 2004, Kemp, et al., 2005, Najjar, et al., 2010, Preston,
2004). Temperature and oxygen limitations are not well understood for juvenile sandbar sharks.
Therefore, the objective of this study was to measure juvenile sandbar shark metabolic and
behavioral performance as a proxy of overall performance (i.e., fitness or success) when exposed
to warm and hypoxic water.
Methods
Shark Collection and Maintenance
Thirteen juvenile sandbar sharks (79.5 – 113.5 cm TL; 2.6 – 7.8 kg) were collected along
the eastern shore of Virginia and brought back to the Virginia Institute of Marine Science
(VIMS) Eastern Shore Lab (ESL), Wachapreague, VA, USA during the summers of 2016 and
2017 (Table 1). Individuals were held in a fiberglass tank (6.1 m diameter, 45,000 l) with a flow-

experimentation. Sharks were fed frozen menhaden (Brevoortia tyrannus) until satiation every 3-

5 days. All protocols for shark sampling, handling, and experimentation were approved by the

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College of William and Mary Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (protocol no.
IACUC-2017-05-26-12133-kcweng).

161 Experimental Design

Maximum metabolic rate (MMR), minimum routine metabolic rate (mRMR; a proxy for SMR because sandbar sharks are obligate ram ventilators), AS, and S_{crit} were measured in 12 sharks at 24, 28, and 32°C using intermittent-flow respirometry to understand the effects of warming and hypoxia on sandbar shark physiology (Brill, et al., 2015, Lapointe, et al., 2014). Eleven sharks were tested at all three treatments (24, 28, and 32°C), while data collected at 24 and 28°C from one shark was combined with data collected at 32°C from a different shark to represent one set of temperature treatments due to a mortality suffered in the holding tank between experiments. Sharks were acclimated to treatment temperatures in their holding tank through natural increases in water temperature throughout the summer (range: 18.0 - 33.8°C) because we were unable to control temperature in our holding tank. However, by using this approach we were able to maximize ecological relevance. When experimental temperatures exceeded holding tank temperatures, individuals were transferred to a separate tank at the experimental temperature for at least 24 - 48 h prior to being introduced into the respirometer. The respirometry system consisted of two fiberglass tanks (2.4 m diameter, 1500 l volume) such that the first served as the respirometer and the second was a water reservoir used to flush the respirometer. To reduce the volume of the respirometer and ensure each experimental shark would swim in a circle, a negatively buoyant, smaller tank was placed in the center of the respirometer to create a circular track. A clear plastic sheet was placed over the respirometer and synched-cinched to the side of the tank to prevent air-water gas exchange. Temperature was

controlled by a large chiller unit with the addition of a heater kit (Teco TK 6000 Aquarium Chiller, Aquatic Solutions), while oxygen levels were controlled by bubbling air (normoxia) or nitrogen gas (hypoxia) into the water. The two tanks were connected through a drain on the bottom and PVC tubing over the top (Fig. 1A, B). Oxygen levels in the respirometer and reservoir were monitored every second using a temperature compensated, two-channel FireSting oxygen meter (Pyroscience) equipped with fiber optic oxygen probes that were fixed along the side of the respirometer and reservoir. Output from the oxygen probe in the respirometer was recorded in the FireStingO₂ software and relayed to a program designed in Dasylab 9.02 (National Instruments) specifically for repeatedly recording metabolic rate measurements in intermittent flow respirometry (Brill, et al., 2015, Lapointe, et al., 2014). The program also controlled the flow of nitrogen through a solenoid valve to maintain precise oxygen levels using output from the oxygen probe in the reservoir. During a trial, the respirometry system cycled between the flushing and measurement period. During the flushing period (ranged from 30 - 45 min), oxygen and temperature controlled water was pumped up and out of the reservoir, into the respirometer, and through a diffuser at the bottom of the respirometer (Fig. 1B) to ensure thorough mixing. Water flowed back into the reservoir through the bottom drain between the two tanks, allowing a continuous exchange of water between the two tanks during the flushing period. During the 15 min measurement period, the flush pump was turned off and the shark's oxygen consumption reduced the oxygen in the respirometer. We assumed the shark's swimming motion adequately mixed the water in the respirometer during trials. The measurement period consisted of a three min equilibration interval (to ensure oxygen mixing in the respirometer) followed by 12 min of data

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2 3 4	203	recording to measure the rate of oxygen decline. The slope of a linear regression model fitted to
5 6	204	the oxygen measurements was used to calculate metabolic rate using the equation:
7 8 0	205	$MO_2 = b \ x \ V \ x \ W^{-1}$
9 10 11	206	where MO_2 = metabolic rate (mg O ₂ kg ⁻¹ h ⁻¹), b = rate of change of oxygen content (estimated
12 13	207	slope of linear regression) over the 12 min recording period (s ⁻¹), $V =$ respirometer volume (l)
14 15 16	208	corrected for the volume of the shark, and W = weight of the fish (kg). Metabolic rate
10 17 18	209	measurements where the regression R ² value was below 0.8 were eliminated and assumed to be
19 20	210	compromised due to either poorly mixed water in the respirometer or contact between the shark
21 22 23	211	and oxygen probe (which did occur occasionally).
23 24 25	212	To account for microbial respiration, oxygen consumption measurements were made in
26 27	213	the absence of an experimental shark for at least 3 h prior to, and after, each trial. Based on thos
28 29	214	oxygen consumptions, a linear regression was used to estimate the rate of oxygen decline due to
30 31 32	215	microbial respiration during the trial. The estimated oxygen consumptions were then subtracted
33 34	216	from the measured rates of oxygen decline when the shark was present (Brill, et al., 2015,
35 36	217	Svendsen <i>et al.</i> , 2016).
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40 41	219	Behavior and Activity Metrics
42 43	220	The behavior and activity of a eight individuals (sharks from 2017) were measured while
44 45 46	221	in the respirometer to understand how activity was affected by temperature and hypoxia. To
40 47 48	222	quantify activity, individuals were fitted with the X16-4 mini accelerometer (Gulf Coast Data
49 50	223	Concepts) attached to the first dorsal fin, which recorded triaxial acceleration at 25 Hz. The
51 52	224	accelerometer weighed 27 g, which represented 0.35-1.1% of the body mass of the experimenta
53 54 55 56 57 58	225	sharks. Accelerometers were removed at the completion of each trial. We received a full
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acceleration data set for each 2017 trial except for three trials at 24°C where data were unreliable.

The static component (effect of gravity) in the x, y, and z-axes were extracted from the raw acceleration values using a 3 s smoothing window, a time frame often used for the size of sharks in this study and a tailbeat cycle of approximately 1 Hz (Shepard *et al.*, 2008, Whitney, et al., 2016). The dynamic components in the x, y, and z-axes were determined by subtracting the static component from the raw acceleration values. A wavelet analysis was then used to extract multiple activity metrics (Bouyoucos, et al., 2017, Whitney, et al., 2016): tailbeat frequency (TBF, number of tailbeats per second extracted from the dynamic component of the z-axis), tailbeat acceleration amplitude (TBAA, measure of amplitude of the acceleration wave also taken from the dynamic component of the z-axis), and overall dynamic body acceleration (ODBA, overall activity defined as sum of the dynamic components of all three axes). TBF, TBAA, and ODBA were then averaged for each corresponding measurement period.

Maximum and Minimum Routine Metabolic Rate

Before the start of each trial, an individual was transferred out of the holding tank, fitted with an accelerometer (for some individuals, described above), placed in the respirometer, and allowed 30 mins to acclimate. Each experimental shark was exercised using our chase protocol, which consisted of 10 min of prodding to induce the animal to reach MMR (Killen et al., 2017, Lapointe, et al., 2014). This time period was selected because after chasing the first shark of the experiments for 10 min, it stopped swimming. During another trial a shark stopped swimming after being chased for 6.5 mins. Further, Marshall et al. 2015 found that in waters cooler than our experimental treatments (15-21°C) post release mortality of sandbar sharks was 29%. Based on

these accounts, to avoid mortalities (for a species that is considered to be overfished; SEDAR 2017) and for ethical reasons, we aired erred on the side of caution and deemed 10 mins to be a sufficient chase time. It is important to note this may have led to a slight underestimation of MMR of some individuals. Immediately following, the respirometer was sealed and the first metabolic rate measurement was initiated. Metabolic rate measurements were then made for approximately 20 h to determine MMR and to allow individuals to recover (indicated by the metabolic rate leveling out) and reach mRMR.

Critical Oxygen Saturation

Once mRMR had been established following the procedures described above, the hypoxia part of the trial was initiated, where metabolic rate measurements were taken as oxygen content was decreased in a stepwise fashion until the shark was no longer able to maintain its mRMR. S_{crit} was determined as the oxygen level at which the metabolic rate declined.a decline in metabolic rate was evident. After measuring at least three metabolic rates below S_{crit}, the trial was terminated, and the oxygen was brought back to 90% saturation before the shark was transferred back into the holding tank. Fig. 2 displays an example of a full trial.

Data Analysis

MMR was calculated by taking the mean of 10% of the highest metabolic rate measurements (3-4 measurements) during the entire normoxia period. This method was selected instead of using the common approach of taking the highest metabolic rate measurement because we wanted to ensure that MMR was not represented by an outlier measurement that may not have been the result of our chase protocol. In addition, unlike many non-obligate ram ventilators,

we noticed that peak metabolic rate measurements often did not occur until further into the trial. This could be due to serological changes induced through the chase protocol, which limit oxygen delivery mechanisms as further discussed below (Discussion). as a result of the chase protocol. may have been due to the shark's oxygen delivery being compromised. We calculated mRMR from the mean of 10% of the lowest metabolic rate measurements during the normoxic period to account for the varying numberamount of measurements among individuals during that period of the trial (Norin et al., 2014). AS was calculated by computing the difference between MMR and mRMR. To determine S_{crit}, we found the first value where the shark's metabolic rate dropped below mRMR and where the remaining metabolic rates were also below mRMR. Those metabolic rates were isolated, and linear regression was applied to those values and the oxygen content associated with each value (ranged from 2 - 11 values). The oxygen content where the regression line and mRMR intersected was defined as C_{crit} (Schurmann and Steffensen, 1997). S_{crit} was calculated by dividing C_{crit} by the oxygen concentration at 100% saturation at the tested temperature. Lastly, C_{crit} was converted into critical oxygen partial pressure (P_{crit}) by calculating the partial pressure of oxygen at 1 atmosphere for the start day of the trial in Wachapreague, VA, USA and multiplying by S_{crit}.

A multivariate repeated-measures mixed effects model was developed in SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute) using the MIXED procedure to understand the effect of temperature on MMR, SMR, AS, and P_{crit} (Lapointe, et al., 2014). The responses were MMR, SMR, AS, and P_{crit} for each trial, the covariate was temperature, and the random effect was individual fish. To maintain the assumption of normality, the four responses were multiplied by a constant so they would be on the same scale as MMR prior to being put in the model. We modeled the heterogeneity in responses among temperature treatments and specified the Kenward-Roger method for

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295 calculating the degrees of freedom (Kenward and Roger, 1997). Compound Symmetry, AR1, and 296 Toeplitz correlation structures were fitted to the data and the Bayesian Information Criterion 297 (BIC) was used to identify the model with the most supported correlation structure (Littell *et al.*, 298 2006). Our model chosen for inference included a correlation structure of AR1. Lastly, a priori 299 contrast statements of least-square means were generated using the LSM estimate statement in 300 SAS to assess the effects of temperature on the four response variables. At the completion of the 301 analysis, all model estimates were converted back to scale. All statistics were evaluated at 302 significance levels of $\alpha = 0.05$.

303 To determine how temperature, hypoxia, and shark activity together impacted metabolic 304 rate, linear mixed effects models were fitted to data from sharks equipped with accelerometers. 305 Separate models were applied to data obtained from the normoxic and hypoxic parts of the trials, 306 with the former corresponding to the part of the trial when the oxygen saturation was 80% or 307 higher, and the latter when the oxygen saturation was below 80%. Potential covariates for the 308 normoxic model included temperature, TBF, TBAA, ODBA, shark total length (TL), and the 309 time since start of trial. The full model was used to assess the need to model heterogeneity and 310 correlation structure. Based on BIC, modeling the heterogeneity in responses among temperature 311 treatments and using a correlation structure of AR1 was supported. A series of models was then 312 developed using different combinations of the covariates mentioned above, and the model 313 chosen for inference was selected using BIC. Potential covariates for the hypoxic model included 314 temperature, oxygen content, TBF, TBAA, ODBA, TL, as well as a calculated binary variable 315 denoted as the crash metric. Since it was assumed that metabolic rate will differ before and after 316 C_{crit} is reached, the crash metric consisted of a 1 for metabolic rate values during the hypoxic part 317 of the trial that occurred prior to the shark reaching C_{crit}, and a 0 for the metabolic rates that

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3 4	318	occurred after C_{crit} was reached. Similar to the normoxic model, the decision to model
5 6	319	heterogeneity in responses among temperatures and with an AR1 correlation structure was based
7 8 0	320	on the full hypoxic model and ultimately supported through BIC. Multiple models were
9 10 11	321	developed with various covariate combinations and BIC was used for model selection. Predicted
12 13	322	metabolic rates for the selected normoxic and hypoxic models were generated using estimated
14 15	323	marginal means (Searle et al., 1980). Estimates of uncertainty were generated from 1000
16 17 18	324	bootstrapped samples (Efron and Tibshirani, 1993). Predicted P _{crit} and associated uncertainty was
19 20	325	converted back to C_{crit} and S_{crit} . All linear mixed effects models were fitted using the nlme
21 22	326	package in R v.3.4.3 (Pinheiro et al., 2013).
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25 26 27	328	Results
28 29 30	329 330	Maximum metabolic rate, minimum routine metabolic rate, aerobic scope, & critical oxygen partial pressure
31 32	331 332	The multivariate repeated measures mixed effects model was successfully fitted and
33 34 35	333	evaluation of diagnostics (e.g., plots of residuals for each response variable) showed reasonable
36 37	334	goodness-of-fit. Although there was high variability in measured MMR, mRMR, and AS among
38 39	335	individuals (Fig. 3), model results indicated that differences were evident for these three metrics
40 41 42	336	among temperatures. Statistically significant differences were detected over the three
43 44	337	experimental temperatures, primarily between 24 and 28°C and between 24 and 32°C (Fig. 4,
45 46	338	Table 2). Specifically, MMR increased by 21% and 42% from 24 to 28°C and 32°C, respectively
47 48 49	339	(Fig. 4A; Table 2), while mRMR increased by 18% from 24 to 28°C, and 45% from 24 to 32°C
50 51	340	(Fig. 4B; Table 2). Similar to MMR, AS increased considerably from 24 to 28°C (26%) and 24
52 53	341	to 32°C (39%; Fig. 4C; Table 2). In contrast to the other metrics analyzed, mean P_{crit} only
54 55 56	342	increased by 18% and 19% when comparing 24 and 28 to 32°C, respectively and no significant
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343 differences were detected (Fig. 5A; Table 2). Plots of the raw data for MMR, mRMR, AS, S_{crit},
344 and C_{crit}, are presented in the supplementary data.

8 345

10 346 *Normoxia*

The normoxic model with the most empirical support included ODBA, TBAA, time since chase, and an interaction between TBF and temperature. We concluded that each of these covariates was important in explaining variation in the metabolic rate data (see Δ BIC table in Supplementary Table 1). Predicted metabolic rate increased by $47 \pm 6 \text{ mg O}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1}\text{h}^{-1}$ for every 0.1 unit increase in ODBA (Fig. 6A), whereas metabolic rate only increased by 5 mg O_2 kg⁻¹h⁻¹ for every unit increase in TBAA (Fig. 6B). For every hour increase since the animal was chased, the metabolic rate dropped approximately 3 mg O_2 kg⁻¹h⁻¹. The estimated effect in metabolic rate over TBF differed among the levels of temperature considered. That is, for every unit increase in TBF, metabolic rate increased 63 and 142 mg O₂ kg⁻¹h⁻¹ for 24 and 28°C, respectively. However, at 32°C metabolic rate actually decreased by 20 mg O₂ kg⁻¹h⁻¹ for every unit increase in TBF (Fig. 6C). Lastly, it is important to note that during three trials at 32°C during normoxia, we anecdotally documented periods of time when sharks intermittently stopped swimming, ranging from a few seconds to over an hour.

361 Hypoxia

The model that provided the most parsimonious description of sandbar shark metabolic rate under hypoxic conditions included TBF, temperature, and an interaction between ODBA and oxygen content (see Δ BIC table in Supplementary Table 2). Predicted metabolic rate increased by 55 ± 20 mg O₂ kg⁻¹h⁻¹ for every unit increase in TBF. In hypoxic water, metabolic rate

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6	367
7	260
8	368
9 10	260
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366 differed among temperatures such that as temperature increased from 24 to 28 to 32°C, 367 metabolic rate increased from 149 ± 9 to 183 ± 6 to 217 ± 13 mg O₂ kg⁻¹h⁻¹, respectively. Lastly, 368 as ODBA and oxygen content increased, particularly at higher oxygen concentrations (>3.5 mg l⁻ 369 ¹), predicted metabolic rate also increased. However, as oxygen decreased, particularly at lower 370 oxygen concentrations (\leq 3.5 mg l⁻¹) and ODBA increased, predicted metabolic rate decreased 371 (Fig. 7). Often during hypoxic conditions (<80% oxygen saturation), sharks displayed a banking 372 behavior where they would swim along the edge of the respirometer with its ventral side facing 373 the side. We also observed during hypoxia, two trials at 24°C, three trials at 28°C, and four trials 374 at 32°C periods of time when sharks either stopped swimming completely (in this case the trial 375 was terminated) or intermittently stopped swimming when oxygen was lower in the .2.1.02 376 respirometer. 377 378 Discussion 379 To the best of our knowledge this is the first study to measure AS and P_{crit} in an obligate 380 ram-ventilating elasmobranch. In addition, the size of our respirometer allowed us to measure the 381 metabolic rate and activity of juvenile sandbar sharks across a wide range of sizes (79.5 - 113.5)

382 cm TL). We were also able to use the various activity measurements to better understand
383 environmental thresholds of sandbar sharks. Our findings lead us to suggest that caution should

384 be exercised when using activity to estimate field metabolic rate because, as demonstrated in this

385 study, the correlative relationship between activity and metabolic rate breaks down at high

386 temperatures and low oxygen levels.

388 Maximum metabolic rate, minimum routine metabolic rate, aerobic scope, & normoxia

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389 Referenced model response variables (e.g. mRMR, AS, metabolic rate, etc...) below 390 represent model predictions, while raw values are indicated as such. As expected, mRMR values 391 in the present study were higher than the SMR measurements reported by Dowd et al. (2006) for 392 immobile individuals (91 ± 4 mg O_2 kg⁻¹h⁻¹ at 24°C; 125 ± 7 mg O_2 kg⁻¹h⁻¹ at 28°C). When 393 compared to other obligate ram-ventilators, such as the tuna species (Korsmeyer and Dewar, 394 2001), sandbar shark AS was substantially lower. Contributing to this trend may be the 395 significantly smaller gill surface area observed in sandbar sharks compared to other obligate ram 396 ventilating teleosts and elasmobranchs (Emery and Szczepanski, 1986). In addition, with a diet 397 consisting of mostly benthic crustaceans and fishes (Ellis and Musick, 2007), juvenile sandbar 398 sharks may not require a high AS.

399 The variation in raw AS among individual juvenile sandbar sharks over the experimental 400 temperature regime suggests that the potential underlying mechanisms describing AS may differ 401 from individual to individual. For example, some individuals displayed a bell-shaped curve in 402 AS over temperature (e.g. SB28, SB31, SB34), some showed an increase in AS with temperature 403 (e.g. SB03, SB12, SB33), and others displayed very little difference in AS over temperature (e.g. 404 SB02, SB04, SB29) (Fig. 3). Due to this high variability, particularly at 32°C, it is difficult to 405 broadly determine if our data support the OCLTT theory (i.e., maximum AS occurs at the 406 optimal temperature); or if sandbar shark AS increases until lethal temperature limits. In 407 individuals that displayed a bell-shaped curve, maximum AS and thus optimal performance 408 occurred at $28^{\circ}C$ ($24^{\circ}C < T_{optAS} < 32^{\circ}C$). Whereas, for those individuals that maximized AS at 409 32°C, we assume AS would decline above 32°C followed by mortality shortly thereafter. This 410 would suggest that performance or fitness is not optimized at AS for those individual sharks. 411 Clark, et al. (2013) suggested that some species display multiple performances – multiple optima

(MPMO), where there are separate optimal temperatures for different physiological processes (e.g. growth, reproduction, and digestion). However, it is difficult to determine if our results support this theory because the optimal temperatures for those processes are unknown for sandbar sharks. The variability in the data may be the result of differences in activity, physical fitness, adaptation, and physiological processes among individuals. Variation in AS may have also resulted from a potential slight underestimation of MMR in some individuals in an effort to avoid mortalities during or following the chase protocol. Further, because temperature could not be controlled in the holding tank and all individuals were tested in the same order of increasing temperature treatments, the relationships of the measured metrics could potentially be affected. For example, sharks may be more acclimated to the chase protocol or the respirometer for subsequent experiments, which could impact MMR and mRMR (Clark, et al., 2013). Lastly, variation in acclimation time for individuals in particular when exposed to 32°C could have affected metabolic rate metrics. Although we were unable to control these aforementioned conditions, it is possible that they contributed attributed to the individual variation in these metrics observed here.

Clearer trends were evident when both metabolic rate and activity were considered. Under normoxic conditions, the expected correlation between metabolic rate and activity (Bouyoucos, et al., 2017, Lear, et al., 2017) broke down at 32°C, where the metabolic rate of sandbar sharks actually slightly declined as activity increased (Fig. 6). At high temperatures, sandbar sharks have to delicately balance the increase in oxygen received from increasing their TBF to improve ram ventilation againstand the energy expenditure needed for locomotion. This is evident when some sharks actually intermittently stopped swimming for periods of time under normoxic conditions at 32°C. A decline in shark performance at 32°C may be due to the

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physiological stress incurred from exercise, acute stress, increased demand for oxygen, and/or
decreased oxygen in the water. These stressors are known to cause acidosis and hyperkalemia in
fishes (Brill *et al.*, 2008, Cliff and Thurman, 1984, Skomal and Mandelman, 2012). It is well
known that acidosis and hyperkalemia impact muscle performance, impairing cardiovascular
function and potentially reducing stroke volume at a time when a shark may actually need to
increase stroke volume to increase oxygen delivery (Farrell *et al.*, 2009, Norin, et al., 2014).

442 Critical oxygen partial pressure & hypoxia

443 Based on the P_{crit} values, juvenile sandbar sharks are not hypoxia tolerant. Regardless of 444 temperature, P_{crit} was above those reported for other teleost and elasmobranch species. For 445 example, striped bass (Morone saxatilis), a common fish species in Chesapeake Bay, has an S_{crit} 446 of $35 \pm 2\%$ and C_{crit} of 2.5 ± 0.2 mg l⁻¹, at 28°C (Lapointe, et al., 2014), both substantially lower than the S_{crit} (51 ± 2%) and C_{crit} (3.3 ± 0.2 mg l⁻¹) of juvenile sandbar sharks at the same 447 temperature (Figs. 4B & 4C). When compared to elasmobranch fishes where P_{crit} was measured, 448 449 such as the epaulette shark (*Hemiscyllium ocellatum*, 38 ± 3 mmHg) and shovelnose ray (Aptychotrema rostrate, 54 ± 3 mmHg), the juvenile sandbar shark's P_{crit} values are likewise 450 451 substantially higher (Speers-Roesch et al., 2012). When compared to another obligate ram-452 ventilating species, such as the yellowfin tuna at 25°C (hypoxia tolerance of 3.7 mg l⁻¹; Bushnell 453 & Brill 1991, Bernal et al. 2017), sandbar sharks have a similar hypoxia tolerance. The high P_{crit} 454 values in juvenile sandbar sharks are likely the result of this species also being (like many 455 carcharhinid species) an obligate ram ventilator (Carlson et al., 2004, Dowd, et al., 2006). In 456 hypoxia, obligate ram ventilator species rely on increasing their swimming speed or mouth gape 457 to counteract a decline in oxygen in the water (Bushnell and Brill, 1991, Carlson and Parsons,

458	2001, Dizon, 1977); however, once P _{crit} is reached, obligate ram-ventilating fishes will not be
459	able to maintain minimum swimming speeds to adequately ventilate their gills adequately or to
460	maintain hydrostatic equilibrium (Carlson and Parsons, 2001). Although, P _{crit} did not differ
461	substantially among temperatures, the mean P _{crit} at 32°C was highest when compared to means at
462	24 and 28°C, which was expected because as temperature increases, the demand for oxygen
463	increases and the solubility of oxygen in seawater decreases (Schurmann and Steffensen, 1997).
464	The lack of a substantial difference was the result of a high amount variability in P _{crit} values,
465	particularly at 32°C (Fig. 5A). Sandbar shark metabolic rate did increase as temperature
466	increased in hypoxic waters (<80% oxygen saturation), suggesting that at warmer temperatures
467	(~32°C), the demand for oxygen is higher while in less oxygenated water, which can lead to
468	increased stress and a higher risk of mortality. An alternative hypothesis is that juvenile sandbar
469	sharks are adapted to large tidal fluctuations in temperature (4.6°C; D. Kelley unpublished data);
470	therefore, the ability to deliver oxygen to the tissues is not compromised due to increased
471	temperatures.
472	In hypoxic waters, sandbar shark metabolic rate was highly dependent on oxygen level
473	and the shark's activity. The synergistic effect of oxygen and activity on metabolic rate led
474	todisplayed different trends above and below approximately 3.5 mg l ⁻¹ , which was similar to the
475	mean (\pm SE) C _{crit} of sandbar sharks between 24 - 32°C (3.4 \pm 0.1 mg l ⁻¹). The positive correlation
476	of metabolic rate and activity, as oxygen concentrations increased from 3.5 mg l ⁻¹ , followed
477	trends similar to those when sharks were under normoxic conditions (>80% oxygen saturation).
478	When oxygen dropped below 3.5 mg l ⁻¹ , however, an inverse relationship occurred between
479	metabolic rate and activity, a trend that was also evident at 32°C under normoxic conditions. The
480	breakdown in the positive relationship between metabolic rate and activity suggests that at these

lower oxygen levels sandbar sharks employ anaerobic metabolism to power swimming, which in turn, again, can lead to acidosis and hyperkalemia. It is clear this behavior cannot be sustained, based on the many periods of time when sharks stopped swimming either completely or intermittently during hypoxia. According to our data, the oxygen concentration threshold for juvenile sandbar sharks is approximately 3.5 mg l⁻¹ and that this threshold is positively correlated with temperature.

Climate Change Impacts

It is critical to understand environmental thresholds for marine species amidst climate change. Although sandbar sharks are not expected to encounter 32°C waters often, the potential to encounter these temperatures will increase as climate change continues to alter marine environments, particularly within coastal habitats. With an increase in temperature we also expect to see an increase in the extent and severity of hypoxic waters which, may have a large impact on the obligate ram ventilating sandbar shark. For example, along the eastern shore of VA, where known sandbar shark nursery habitat exists, water temperatures during the months of July and August during 2016 and 2017 exceeded 32°C at times (range: 21.3 – 32.8°C; mean: 27.4°C; D. Kelley unpublished data) and oxygen levels ranged from $2.9 - 8.2 \text{ mg } l^{-1}$. By the mid-21st century, Chesapeake Bay, which is the largest sandbar shark nursery habitat in the United States, is expected to increase 1.75°C relative to the mid-1990s (Muhling et al., 2018). In addition, by the end of the century, heat waves are also projected to increase by over two standard deviations along the Mid-Atlantic (Najjar, et al., 2010). Also by 2050, Chesapeake Bay is predicted to have the largest increase in cumulative hypoxic volume (72 - 202 km³ days) at oxygen concentrations between 2 - 5 mg l^{-1} (Irby et al. 2018), a range of oxygen concentrations

that include the P_{crit} of juvenile sandbar sharks. This volume of hypoxic water is expected to occur earlier in the summer as well (Irby, et al., 2018). These environmental changes will likely significantly diminish the suitability of Chesapeake Bay and adjacent coastal areas to serve as nursery habitat for sandbar sharks in the western Atlantic. As climate change impacts worsen, juvenile sandbar sharks, which can spend up to 10 years in these nursery habitats, may see available habitat reduced and be forced to seek out novel nursery habitats or risk increases in juvenile mortality. This may, in turn, affect the overall abundance of an already overfished sandbar shark population (SEDAR, 2017). At an ecological level, juvenile sandbar sharks are top predators within coastal habitats and may control the populations of other fish species (Ellis and Musick, 2007). Shifts in juvenile sandbar shark distribution could, therefore, also have negative effects on the population of lower trophic species within these habitats. Conclusions This study was able to identify the temperature and oxygen thresholds of juvenile sandbar sharks. We found that their performance substantially declines at 32°C (even in normoxia) and at oxygen concentrations below 3.5 mg l⁻¹, and that activity becomes inversely correlated with oxygen consumption rates under high stress conditions. These impacts suggest that in the face of climate change, areas of Chesapeake Bay may become less suitable nursery habitat for sandbar sharks. It is critical for future studies to use environmental thresholds like those identified in this study to predict species distribution under climate change scenarios to understand potential habitat shifts. https://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/conphys

Animal Mass Total Length

(kg)

7.3<mark>0</mark>

2.66

5.09

5.46

5.69

7.76

3.31

4.22

3.98

2.56

6.81

6.84

2.6<mark>0</mark>

(cm)

109

80

99

98

103.5

113.5

91

94

91

81

109

107

79.5

Treatments

(°C)

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Accelerometer

No

No

No

No

No

Yes

Yes

Yes

Yes

Yes

Yes

Yes

Yes



ID

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SB03

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SB05

SB12

SB28

SB29

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28		Metric	24°C x 28°C	24°C x 32°C	28°C x 32°C	
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30		mRMR	$t_{(57,34)} = -1.90$	$t_{(47.03)} = -3.25*$	$(t_{(5611)} = -1.81$	
31		AS	$t_{(57,24)} = -2.81*$	$t_{(47.02)} = -2.90*$	$t_{(50,11)} = -0.93$	
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Figure 1. (A) The sandbar shark respirometer system with the respirometer in the foreground and the reservoir in the background. A PVC pipe connects the flush pump to the diffuser in the bottom of the respirometer. (B) An overhead view of the respirometer with a shark present. The







Figure 4. (A) Maximum metabolic rate (MMR), (B) minimum routine metabolic rate (mRMR), and (C) aerobic scope (AS) at 24, 28, and 32°C of sandbar sharks when in normoxic waters. Data are model estimates of the mean \pm 95% CI. Different lower case letters indicate a significant difference between two temperatures, whereas the lack of a letter indicates no significance.









Figure 6. Metabolic rate values by ODBA (A), tailbeat acceleration amplitude (B), and tailbeat frequency (C) when sandbar sharks are exposed to normoxic waters. The colored circles represent the observed metabolic rate values for a given temperature. The line and associated shaded region represent the estimated metabolic rate values and the 95% CI, respectively. An interaction did not occur between temperature and ODBA (A) or tailbeat acceleration amplitude (B); therefore, temperature was combined when estimating metabolic rate for those metrics. However, because there was a significant interaction between temperature and tailbeat frequency there are separate estimated metabolic rates for each temperature which are represented by different colored lines and shaded regions in C.

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	3	(1 Animal_ID) + ODBA + TBF + Temp + Trial_Time	11	2
	4	(1 Animal_ID) + (ODBA * Temp) + (TBF * Temp) + (TBA * Temp) + Trial_Time	18	2
	5	(1 Animal_ID) + (ODBA * Temp) + TBF + TBA + Trial_Time	14	2
	6	(1 Animal ID) + ODBA + TBF + TBA + Temp + Trial Time	12	2
	7	(1 Animal ID) + ODBA + TBF + Temp + TL + Trial Time	12	2
	8	(1 Animal ID) + ODBA + TBF + TBA + Temp + TL + Trial Time	13	3
	9	(1 Animal ID) + ODBA + TBF + Temp + Trial Time	10	
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Supplementary Figure 2. Raw values of aerobic scope of sandbar sharks tested at 24, 28, and



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19 20	733	facilities. We also thank Mary Fabrizio and Cassidy Peterson for their statistical advice.
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