1	REVIEW ARTICLE
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3	A review of the ecology, palaeontology and distribution of atlantid heteropods
4	(Caenogastropoda: Pterotracheoidea: Atlantidae)
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16	ATLANTID HETEROPODS
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ABSTRACT

Fewer than 1% of marine gastropod species live a holoplanktic life. Of these, the shelled heteropods of the family Atlantidae are among the most poorly understood. The atlantids potentially make up an important part of the ocean zooplankton, composing up to 69% of shelled holoplanktic gastropods in the Late Pleistocene to Recent fossil record. They are also likely to be at high risk from current and future global changes, including anthropogenic ocean acidification. However, due to their small size (<12 mm), difficulty of sampling and complicated morphology, we still lack key information about atlantid taxonomy and ecology. This makes it difficult to understand how important they are in the ocean foodweb and how they will be affected by environmental change. Although many studies have been carried out on the atlantids, these have generally been broad and unconnected. Here, we draw together this previous research, summarising what is currently known about atlantid taxonomy, palaeontology, ecology and biogeography, and aiming to provide a foundation for future research on this group. The data indicate complex behaviours involving seasonal and vertical migration, and demonstrate extended geographical ranges, with implications for understanding the role of atlantids in the ocean foodweb and their sensitivity to environmental changes. This review highlights the urgent need for further taxonomic research on the atlantids, including molecular analysis, and for improved sampling techniques.

INTRODUCTION

Heteropods have been studied for over 200 years, since the description of

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71 72 Pterotrachea by Forskål (in Niebuhr, 1775). The early oceanographic expeditions 73 generated much interest in heteropods and entire chapters of cruise reports were often 74 dedicated to their description (Smith, 1888; Schiemenz, 1911; Tesch, 1910, 1949; 75 Tokioka, 1955a, b). However, in recent years, heteropods have often been overlooked 76 in plankton studies, which is most likely a result of their small size and complicated 77 taxonomy, combined with inadequate sampling techniques. The fragile shells of 78 heteropods are easily broken during collection, resulting in incomplete descriptions 79 and uncertain identifications. The ability of heteropods to evade capture by standard 80 plankton nets, particularly those of small aperture, has also led to an underestimation 81 of their abundance and diversity (McGowan & Fraundorf, 1966; Seapy, 1990a, b). 82 Recent research on the fossil record of heteropods suggests that they can be quite 83 abundant relative to other holoplanktic gastropods and more tolerant of temperate and 84 cold waters than previously thought (Wall-Palmer et al., 2014). Recent plankton 85 sampling during the 2014 Atlantic Meridional Transect in the Atlantic Ocean found 86 that atlantid heteropods made up an average of 16% (up to 44% of individuals per 87 sample) of calcareous holoplanktic gastropods at each station (A.K. Burridge, pers. 88 comm., September 2015). This indicates that heteropods may be a more important 89 component of the ocean foodweb than previously thought. Atlantids are also likely to 90 be prone to the effects of current and future ocean acidification because they live in 91 the most vulnerable habitat, the surface ocean, and produce an aragonite shell, which 92 is particularly susceptible to dissolution. However, no studies into the effects of ocean 93 acidification have been carried out on atlantids. Research on a similar, but unrelated 94 group of holoplanktic gastropods, the thecosome (shelled) pteropods, suggests that 95 ocean acidification negatively affects shell growth and survival of aragonitic-shelled 96 holoplanktic gastropods (Comeau et al., 2012; Bednaršek et al., 2014).

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98 This review collates information from published research on the taxonomy, 99 palaeontology, ecology and biogeography of the Atlantidae, extending and updating 100 previous reviews by Thiriot-Quiévreux (1973), van der Spoel (1976), Lalli & Gilmer 101 (1989) and Richter & Seapy (1999). Our aim is to provide a foundation on which 102 future research on this group of potentially important and threatened holoplanktic 103 gastropods can be developed. The collated data have been used to generate a series of 104 biogeographical species maps and information on the complicated vertical and 105 seasonal migrations of the atlantids. An overview of atlantid palaeontology is also 106 presented, with the first stratigraphic chart for this group. We have not attempted to 107 review the general biology, anatomy and larval development of atlantids, as this has 108 been done by Thiriot-Quiévreux (1973), Martoja & Thiriot-Quiévreux (1975), Lalli & 109 Gilmer (1989) and Jamieson & Newman (1989).

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TAXONOMY

113 The vernacular name 'hétéropodes' (meaning different foot) was created by Lamarck 114 (1812), although Children (1824) formally introduced the order Heteropoda, placing it 115 within the Mollusca next to 'Gasteropoda'. The heteropods were identified as 116 gastropods by Cuvier (1836), having previously been suggested as a link between 117 cephalopods and fish (Lamarck, 1812). The subsequent taxonomic history of the 118 group has been reviewed by Thiriot-Ouiévreux (1973). Today, the order Heteropoda 119 is invalid and has been reorganized as the superfamily Pterotracheoidea Rafinesque, 120 1814 within the caenogastropod order Littorinimorpha (Gofas, 2015a). However, the 121 term 'heteropods' is still widely used as an informal name for the group. The extant 122 Pterotracheoidea are classified in eight genera in three families (Carinariidae, 123 Pterotracheidae and Atlantidae) (Seapy, 2011). An additional family, the 124 Coelodiscidae, is known exclusively from the fossil record.

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126 Of the three extant families of heteropods, the shell-bearing Atlantidae is considered 127 to be the least specialized for a holoplanktic existence when compared with the other 128 heteropod families, which have either reduced shells (Carinariidae) or lack shells in 129 the adult stage (Pterotracheidae) and have a correspondingly larger body size (Thiriot-130 Quiévreux & Seapy, 1997). However, the Atlantidae are the most species-rich family, containing over 60% of all heteropod species (Seapy, 2011). Atlantids are also 131 132 consistently found to be the most abundant heteropods in plankton samples (Richter, 133 1968; Seapy et al., 2003; Ohman et al., 2009; Ossenbrügger, 2010). The family 134 contains three genera (Atlanta, Protatlanta and Oxygyrus) and is characterized by 135 dextrally-coiled, aragonitic shells into which the soft body can fully retract, sealed by 136 a chitinous operculum that is attached to the foot (Fig. 1A, C). Apparent adaptations of the atlantids for a holoplanktic life include reduction in shell-wall thickness (3–40 µm) or (in the genera *Protatlanta* and *Oxygyrus*) a partially uncalcified (conchiolin)
shell, a peripheral shell keel, a tendency for the body and shell to be transparent, welldeveloped eyes and the modification of the foot into a swimming fin (Lalli & Gilmer, 1989) (Fig. 1).

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143 The genus Atlanta, including two species, was introduced by Lesueur (1817). 144 Subsequently, many species, collected during the expedition of La Bonite, were 145 beautifully illustrated by Eydoux & Souleyet (1841), but only indicated with 146 vernacular names. However, before Souleyet (1852) was able fully to describe and 147 name these species (13 of which were new), they were formally named by J.E. Gray 148 (1850) from a collection of figures produced by M.E. Gray for the use of students. 149 Tesch (1949) clarified the systematics of the family, revising the number of species to 150 ten, using specimens collected during the Dana Expeditions. Since then, a number of 151 species have been reinstated or newly described, the latest being A. selvagensis de 152 Vera & Seapy, 2006. There are currently 21 extant species (Seapy, 2011; Gofas, 153 2015b) and nine extinct species of Atlantidae (Table 1). Extant species of Atlanta are 154 organized into seven 'species groups' based on morphological features of the shell, 155 eyes, operculum and radula (Seapy, 2011; Fig. 2). Species descriptions and keys have 156 been published by Seapy (1990a, 2011) and Seapy et al. (2003).

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158 The taxonomy of the Atlantidae largely relies on shell morphology, in particular 159 protoconch shape (number of whorls) and ornamentation. However, shell morphology 160 is often not sufficient to identify closely related species reliably, so that the eyes (Fig. 161 1A-C), radula and operculum are necessary for identification (Seapy & Richter, 162 1993). For example, in the Pacific Ocean the shells of A. inflata and A. helicinoidea 163 are similar and eye type has to be used to differentiate the two species (Seapy, 2011). 164 Three eye and three opercular types were originally described by Richter (1961) and 165 these have been summarized for each species, together with radula type, by Seapy 166 (2011).

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So far there has been only a single molecular study including atlantids. Jennings *et al.*(2010) analysed four atlantid species, *A. gaudichaudi*, *A. inclinata*, *A. peronii* and *Oxygyrus inflatus*, from various locations in the Atlantic Ocean. They found

171 molecular differences between two forms of *A. inclinata*, one with a golden shell keel 172 sampled in the northwestern Atlantic Ocean and one with a colourless keel sampled in 173 the northeastern and southeastern Atlantic Ocean, suggesting that these were distinct 174 species. This indicates that identification based on traditionally used morphological 175 features may not always be reliable.

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177 Many areas of the world ocean have not been thoroughly sampled for atlantids 178 (Richter & Seapy, 1999). The four most recently-described species, *A. fragilis*, *A.* 179 *frontieri*, *A. californiensis* and *A. selvagensis*, all appear to have restricted 180 distributions (de Vera & Seapy, 2006), so it is likely that there are additional atlantids 181 still to be discovered. Improvements in sampling techniques and the application of 182 combined morphological and molecular analyses are all necessary to improve 183 understanding of atlantid taxonomy, evolution and biogeography.

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PALAEONTOLOGY

187 Although atlantid shells are frequently preserved in marine sediments, the age and 188 origin of this group is uncertain. The oldest taxon (Fig. 3) considered to belong to the 189 Atlantidae is Bellerophina minuta (Sowerby, 1814), described from the Cretaceous 190 (Albian, Gault Clay Formation) of Britain (for illustration see Tracey, 2010: pl. 24, figs 16, 17; Janssen & Peijnenburg, 2014: fig. 19.6). This species is 75 Myr older than 191 192 any other known atlantid, but resembles the extant Oxygyrus inflatus so strongly that 193 Forbes (1844) erroneously considered the two species to be synonymous. However, 194 the fossil record of *O. inflatus* is not known to extend beyond the Pliocene (Janssen, 195 1998, 2007, 2012b). Therefore, if *B. minuta* is an atlantid, there is a large gap in the 196 fossil record of atlantids for which we have no data, with the next oldest potential 197 species appearing in the Oligocene.

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Cossmann (1889) added the new extinct genus *Eoatlanta* to the Atlantidae, with the species *E. spiruloides* from the Eocene (Lutetian) of the Paris Basin. However, Lozouet (2012) and Schnetler (2013) have recently demonstrated the nonplanktic nature of this species and transferred it to the benthic Vanikoroidea. *Atlanta arenularia* Gougerot & Braillon, 1965, previously thought to be the oldest species in the genus *Atlanta*, is also found in the Eocene (Bartonian) of the Paris Basin.

However, the shell morphology of this species suggests that it actually belongs withinthe Carinariidae.

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208 The first certain representatives of the genus Atlanta (two unidentified species) were 209 recorded from the Late Oligocene (Chattian) and Miocene (Burdigalian-Serravallian) 210 rocks of Malta (Janssen, 2012a). A slightly younger fossil genus, Mioatlanta, with 211 one species, *M. soluta*, was described from the Miocene (Langhian) of Vetto d'Enza, 212 northern Italy (Di Geronimo, 1974). However, additional material from the type 213 locality demonstrates the close relationship between *Mioatlanta* and *Atlanta*, thus we 214 are inclined to consider the two as synonymous. A further late Miocene species, 215 known from only a few specimens, A. cordiformis, was found in the Dominican 216 Republic (Janssen, 1999) and several unidentified Atlanta specimens (juveniles) have 217 also been recorded from the late Miocene (Tortonian) of northern Italy (Janssen, 218 1995).

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220 A number of *Atlanta* species have been recorded from Pliocene rocks worldwide. 221 Woodring (1928) described two species, A. diamesa and A. (Atlantidea) lissa. 222 However, the latter species, from the Bowden Beds of Jamaica, has now been 223 interpreted as a synonym of *Protatlanta rotundata* by Janssen (2012a). These deposits 224 were previously considered to be of Miocene age, but a much younger, Early Pliocene 225 (Piacenzian) age has now been demonstrated using calcareous nannoplankton (Aubry, 226 1993), planktic foraminifera (Berggren, 1993) and holoplanktic Mollusca (Janssen, 227 1998). The species A. plana, until recently known exclusively from the extant Indo-228 Pacific fauna, has been recorded from Pliocene rocks in southern France and 229 Estepona, southern Spain (Janssen, 2004, 2012b). A somewhat older occurrence (late 230 Miocene-early Pliocene) of the same species is known from the Fiji Islands (Janssen 231 & Grebneff, 2012). Pliocene (Piacenzian) rocks from Pangasinan (Philippines) 232 contain a remarkable assemblage including thirteen atlantid and three carinariid 233 species (Janssen, 2007), among which three of the atlantids species were newly 234 described (A. lingavanensis, A. richteri and A. seapyi). These are also the most recent 235 atlantid species known to have become extinct. All other atlantid species found from 236 the Pliocene of Pangasinan are extant, as are all atlantids identified from Pleistocene 237 sediments in various localities (Fig. 3).

239 The genus *Protatlanta* has a single extant member, *P. souleyeti*, which is known from 240 the Pliocene to the Recent. The oldest species, P. rotundata (synonyms A. lissa and P. 241 kakekawaensis) is known from the middle to late Miocene (Mediterranean and 242 Caribbean) and Pliocene (Mediterranean, Caribbean and Japan) (Gabb, 1973; 243 Woodring, 1928; Shibata, 1984, 2008; Zorn, 1997; Janssen, 2004, 2007, 2012a; 244 Janssen & Little, 2010). A second Miocene species, P. kbiraensis (Janssen, 2012a), is 245 known only from Malta. However, extinct species of *Protatlanta* differ substantially 246 from the extant type species and are likely, eventually, to be separated at genus level.

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248 Although we do not know of any global atlantid species extinctions since the 249 Pliocene, the distributions of extant species have changed during the Late Pleistocene. 250 Data for A. oligogyra, A. turriculata, A. echinogyra and A. plana suggest that their 251 current distribution is restricted to the Indo-Pacific. However, Wall-Palmer et al. 252 (2014, in press) found all four species in Late Pleistocene sediments collected off 253 Montserrat in the Caribbean Sea. These species seem to have ceased living in the 254 Caribbean Sea during the period of climatic warming that followed the Last Glacial 255 Maximum (LGM), potentially suggesting a localized atlantid extinction event. Atlanta 256 plana was also present in the Mediterranean during the Pliocene (Janssen, 2012c), but 257 is currently thought to be absent from the entire Atlantic Ocean.

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259 These data emphasise the need for future research on atlantid palaeontology, in 260 particular to investigate the large time gap during the Palaeogene. At present, atlantids 261 are not used in palaeoceanography or as stratigraphic markers. However, our 262 knowledge of the atlantid fossil record, though limited, has already added new insight 263 into their abundance and temperature tolerance (Wall-Palmer et al., 2014), as well as 264 ecological relationships, such as preferred prey (Wall-Palmer et al., in press). 265 Improving our knowledge of the atlantid fossil record is likely to prove useful in understanding the phylogenetic history of atlantids, as well as understanding how they 266 267 have reacted to past environmental changes.

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ECOLOGY

272 The importance of atlantids in the ocean foodweb is currently unknown. Atlantids are 273 a family of specialized, mobile carnivores with large eyes that suggest selective 274 predation (Lalli & Gilmer, 1989). Atlantids are also abundant relative to other shelled 275 holoplanktic gastropods, making up an average of 16% (up to 44%) of shelled 276 holoplanktic gastropods collected at each station during AMT24 (A.K. Burridge, pers. 277 comm., September 2015) and up to 28% in net hauls collected off of Baja California 278 (McGowan & Fraundorf, 1966). Atlantids are also consistently found to be the most 279 abundant heteropods (Richter, 1968; Seapy et al., 2003; Ohman et al., 2009; Ossenbrügger, 2010), occurring at densities of up to 17 individuals of a single species 280 (*Atlanta gaudichaudi*) per m³ of water (Newman, 1990a). In plankton-net hauls, larval 281 and juvenile atlantids are generally more abundant than adults (Thiriot-Quiévreux, 282 283 1973; Newman, 1990a). This may, however, be an artefact of net avoidance, a phenomenon demonstrated by McGowan & Fraundorf (1966), who found that 284 285 estimates of atlantid abundance and diversity were reduced when using nets with smaller apertures. They caught 37-350% more atlantid specimens per 1000 m³ of 286 287 water with a 140-cm diameter ring net compared with a 20-cm diameter ring net. Seapy (1990b) found that specimens captured using a larger $4-m^2$ aperture ring net 288 were on average 50% larger in size than specimens caught using a 0.7-m² aperture 289 290 bongo net (although the volume of water filtered was not comparable). Thus, it is 291 likely that adult atlantids, and atlantids in general, are more abundant in our oceans 292 than plankton hauls suggest.

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294 The Late Pleistocene fossil record of holoplanktic gastropods reveals that atlantids are 295 often abundant in sediments, relative to other shelled holoplanktic gastropods. This is 296 particularly true during warm periods, when atlantids have been found to compose up 297 to 69%, 27% and 33% of holoplanktic gastropod shells in Mediterranean Sea, 298 Caribbean Sea and Indian Ocean (Maldives) sediments, respectively (Wall-Palmer et 299 al., 2014). Numerically, atlantids can be as frequent as 3333, 2160 and 2588 300 specimens per gram of sediment in the 150–500 µm fraction in material from these 301 three areas, respectively (data extracted from Wall-Palmer et al., 2014).

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303 Seasonal abundances

Limited published data suggest that atlantids can tolerate a range (approx. 30 to 35
PSU) of salinities (Xu & Li, 2005; Xu, 2007; Cruz, 2012). However, they are

306 sensitive to other environmental factors (Cruz, 1996, 1998) and exhibit distinct 307 seasonal changes in abundance (Table 2) under the influence of water temperature 308 and currents (Vane & Colebrook, 1962; Richter 1968; Thiriot-Quiévreux, 1968; 309 Cummings & Seapy, 2003; Xu & Li, 2005; Xu, 2007; Seapy, 2008; Angulo-Campillo, 310 2011), monsoonal changes (Mathew et al., 1990), and wet and dry seasons (Frontier, 311 1973a, b). Reproductive seasons do not appear to be strongly linked to seasonal 312 abundances, because larval stages are often found throughout the year (Richter, 313 1968).

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The effects of seasonal currents, both vertical and horizontal, upon atlantid 315 316 abundances have been identified in several regions. In the Gulf of Naples, all 317 heteropod species show the same seasonal changes in abundance, with a small, not 318 always distinctive maximum in early spring, followed by a minimum in summer and a 319 very distinct maximum in autumn (Richter, 1968). This pattern was inferred to be 320 most likely influenced by hydrographic factors, in particular seasonal vertical 321 convection. Cummings & Seapy (2003) also found a strong link between seasonal 322 currents and the abundance of A. californiensis in the San Pedro Basin, California. 323 Highest abundances occurred during the summer, coinciding with the strongest 324 seasonal flow of the California Current and Southern California Eddy. During the 325 winter, when the flow of these currents is weakest, the lowest abundances of A. 326 californiensis were recorded. In the East China Sea (Xu & Li, 2005; Xu, 2007), 327 higher abundances of atlantids (A. rosea, A. lesueurii and A. peronii) during the 328 summer and autumn were found to be closely related to changes in the water 329 temperature which, in common with other areas, is also related to shifting currents 330 (Taiwan Warm Current).

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332 In the Indian Ocean, Mathew et al. (1990) showed that the monsoon influenced 333 heteropod abundance, with greatest numbers generally collected during November 334 and December. This is during the Indian Ocean winter monsoon, characterized by dry 335 weather and gentle, steady winds. However, the influence of the monsoon appears to 336 be variable geographically. In the eastern Arabian Sea, post-monsoon increases in 337 abundance have been reported, whereas in the Bay of Bengal the increases in abundance occur before the monsoon (Mathew et al., 1990). Consequently, it is likely 338 339 to be a combination of temperature, shifting water currents and food availability that influences heteropod abundance in these regions, rather than the monsoon *per se*.
Frontier (1973a, b) identified a link between changing abundances of *A. gaudichaudi*and wet and dry seasons around the coast of Nosy-Bé, Madagascar. Highest
abundances on the shelf coincided with the wet season, with the highest numbers
occurring between December and May. It is thought that this link is caused when
unusually prolonged dry periods detrimentally affect the juvenile population of the
species (Frontier, 1973a, b).

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348 These studies suggest that the seasonal abundance of atlantid heteropods is complex 349 and closely linked to changes in water currents and food availability, rather than water 350 temperature alone. While this may be a consequence of their weak swimming ability, 351 it is more likely to be driven by movements and availability of prey. Newman (1990a) 352 found that atlantids can remain suspended and stationary while currents flow over 353 them. Therefore, atlantids are able to control how far they travel in currents. A 354 number of studies have found that seasonal variations in atlantid abundance are 355 species specific, with a seasonal succession of species (Evans, 1968; Thiriot-356 Quévreux, 1968). Lemus-Santana et al. (2014) suggest that this seasonal succession is 357 an ecological strategy to avoid competition for prey. Newman (1990b) found that 358 three species of atlantid (A. gaudichaudi, A. lesueurii and A. helicinoidea) showed an 359 opposing pattern of seasonality in two areas of the Great Barrier Reef, Australia, that 360 are 1180 km apart. In the north, the three species were more abundant during the 361 winter sampling, whereas in the south the three were more abundant during the 362 summer sampling. A similar pattern was found off the coast of the British Isles, where 363 higher abundances of atlantids appeared in the northwest later than in the southwest. 364 Vane & Colebrook (1962) attributed this later arrival to currents passing from south to 365 north, suggesting that atlantids travel in species-specific groups. Thiriot-Quévreux 366 (1968) found that off southeastern France larval and adult stages show the same 367 seasonality, supporting this type of horizontal migration.

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369 Vertical distribution and migration

The vertical distribution of atlantids is not well understood. Atlantids have been found to live within the epipelagic zone, the upper 250 m of the water column (Jivaluk, 1998; Michel & Michel, 1991; Paulinose *et al.*, 1992; Ossenbrügger, 2010) and often only at much shallower depths (Lalli & Gilmer, 1989; Seapy, 1990b; Ossenbrügger, 2010). Lemus-Santana *et al.* (2014) have provided the only detailed species-specific
depth ranges for atlantids, but only for the Gulf of Mexico.

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377 In an attempt to identify at what depth shell calcification takes place, Grossman et al. 378 (1986) carried out geochemical analysis of stable oxygen isotopes of both whole 379 atlantid shells (A. gaudichaudi and A. inclinata) and of specific parts of the shells that 380 represent ontogenetic stages. The study found that A. gaudichaudi and A. inclinata 381 precipitate their shells in shallow water at depths of less than 75 m, while another 382 Atlanta species (not identified to specific level) did so at 75 to 125 m. Different 383 sections of the shell were found to have similar oxygen isotopic compositions, 384 suggesting that these atlantids precipitate their shells at the same depth throughout 385 their lives. However, according to Lalli & Gilmer (1989) atlantids add to their shell 386 thickness throughout their lives, which may explain why there was no difference in 387 isotopic composition between the stages. Further geochemical analysis of shells at 388 different stages of development, using new laser ablation techniques for example, is 389 needed and will help to identify the vertical ranges of atlantids.

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Based on plankton sampling using nets at different depths, it is thought that many (and potentially all) atlantid species show some degree of daily vertical migration within the epipelagic zone. However, many studies have shown conflicting results, suggesting that migration behaviours are often stage- and species-specific, with some species exhibiting nocturnal migration towards the surface and others exhibiting no migration at all (Fig. 4).

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398 Oberwimmer (1898) was the first to suggest that heteropods, like pteropods, lived at 399 depth during daylight hours and migrated to the surface during darkness. Larval 400 atlantids appear to show the most consistent nocturnal migration patterns (Richter, 401 1973; Seapy & Richter, 1993) and Richter (1973) suggested that the numbers of 402 migrating larvae are likely to be much higher than the numbers of migrating adults. 403 Seapy & Richter (1993) found that larval atlantids migrate in large groups and cover 404 large vertical distances of up to 300 m. Larval atlantids display particular patterns of 405 migration (Fig. 4) with species-specific timing. Generally sunset is followed by high 406 numbers in the surface waters for around 2 h, much lower numbers for a further 2 h, 407 then an increase to a maximum and finally dropping before sunrise (Seapy & Richter,

408 1993). Oberwimmer (1898) also observed two periods of high abundance (18:45– 409 20:45 and 03:45–05:30), separated by a period of low abundance. Seapy & Richter 410 (1993) hypothesized that the feeding behaviour of larval atlantids causes them to 411 migrate in a 'saw-tooth' path. Ciliary movements of the velum propel the larvae, thus 412 they must feed as they swim upwards. The larvae alternately feed and rest, which 413 translates to alternating periods of upward swimming and passive sinking.

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415 Large-sized (shell 6–12 mm) species that reside at greater depths (200–250 m) have 416 also been found to migrate towards the surface during the night (Fig. 3), including A. 417 peronii (Seapy, 1990b; Michael & Michael, 1991), Oxygyrus inflatus (Ossenbrügger, 418 2010) and A. meteori (Seapy, 1990b). Lalli & Gilmer (1989) suggested that, similar to 419 the larvae, adults move in a saw-tooth path, swimming upwards for a brief period and 420 then sinking a few centimetres. It is only during the sinking period that the adult atlantids use their scanning eye movements, which detect objects (prey or predators) 421 422 within the water. Seapy (1990b) and Lalli & Gilmer (1989) proposed that atlantids 423 probably use their large, elaborate eves to detect prev in low light conditions at night 424 and may feed on bioluminescent prey. Richter (1974) found that species with larger 425 eyes tend to dwell deeper than species with smaller eyes, probably connected with the 426 reduction in light with depth.

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428 In contrast, *in-situ* observations of O. *inflatus* found it to be inactive at night, hanging 429 motionless from strands of mucus, probably produced by the foot (Lalli & Gilmer, 430 1989). Newman (1990a) also observed individuals of A. gaudichaudi suspended in the 431 water by mucous threads attached to the aperture or the foot. This, however, may not 432 be a sign of inactivity, but a technique for detecting prey, because this behaviour is 433 well suited to predators that use downwelling sunlight to locate prey and then pursue 434 it. Newman (1990a) observed in the laboratory that A. gaudichaudi often swam 435 upwards, hitting the water surface with the proboscis and 'attaching' for a few 436 minutes. The function of this behaviour is not known.

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Environmental factors such as seasonality have also been found to affect vertical
migration behaviour. Seapy (2008) found that a number of Hawaiian atlantids
(including *Protatlanta souleyeti, A. turriculata, A. meteori, A. peronii* and *A. helicinoidea*) only showed nocturnal migration during part of the year. Similarly,

Vives (1966) reported an increase in the vertical stratification of *A. helicinoidea* (but
not *A. peroni*) during the summer months off northwestern Spain. Lemus-Santana *et al.* (2014) found that *A. selvagensis* and *A. gaudichaudi* show increased nocturnal
abundances in May and November, respectively.

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Seapy (1990b) found no difference between the numbers of small (shell 1.5–4 mm) 447 atlantid species captured during the day and at night, when using a large $4-m^2$ tow net. 448 From this, it was suggested that small species do not exhibit diel migration and that 449 450 the apparent migrations of some others may be an artefact of daytime net avoidance 451 (Fig. 4). Similarly, Ossenbrügger (2010) reported species of Atlanta to be equally 452 abundant during day and night off the Cape Verde Islands. Seapy (1990b) observed 453 that non-migrating atlantids off Hawaii tended to be the smaller species that reside in 454 shallower waters (<140 m), as supported by *in-situ* observations of shallow-water 455 species (Lalli & Gilmer, 1989).

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457 From this collated information, it is clear that the vertical migrations of atlantids are 458 complex, being seasonal, specific to stage and species, and also influenced by 459 sampling method. The difficulty in comparing published data is not surprising, taking 460 into account the challenges encountered in collecting representative samples, of 461 observing specimens *in situ* and the unfeasibility of keeping and accurately observing 462 specimens in the laboratory. It is likely that new methods of observing (e.g. in-situ 463 ROV and scuba observations) and sampling are needed to understand this 464 complicated behaviour fully.

465

466 Trophic relationships

467 Atlantids are carnivores and are known to prey selectively upon pteropods, other 468 heteropods and copepods (Richter, 1982; Newman, 1990a). This selective predation makes atlantids an important component of the ocean foodweb (Thiriot-Quiévreux, 469 470 1973). The long proboscis suggests that they are adapted to preying on shelled 471 organisms and they have been observed using their proboscis to reach into elongate 472 pteropod shells (Newman, 1990a). However, the Late Pleistocene to Recent fossil 473 record from the Caribbean Sea suggests that pteropods are not the preferred prey of 474 atlantids. Wall-Palmer et al. (in press) found significant negative correlations between 475 the abundance of shelled pteropods and atlantids, suggesting that atlantids were

476 successful at times when pteropods were not (and *vice versa*). This indicates that 477 shelled pteropods are unlikely to be the preferred prey. Noncalcifying zooplankton 478 (such as copepods), which did not leave a fossil record, may be a more likely 479 favoured food source (Wall-Palmer *et al.*, in press). Frontier (1973) reported juveniles 480 of *A. gaudichaudi* at their highest abundance when phytoplankton and phytophagic 481 zooplankton were also at their greatest abundance, which suggests that juvenile 482 atlantids depend upon such prey.

483

Atlantids use their specialized scanning eyes (Land, 1982) to detect prey and then
snare it using both their sucker fin and hooked protrusible radula (Lalli & Gilmer,
1989; Newman, 1990a). They differ from the other heteropod families in their feeding
behaviour, scraping and rasping their prey rather than swallowing it whole (Richter,
1968).

489

490 While currently there are not any studies quantifying the importance of atlantids in the 491 ocean foodweb, they have been found in the stomach contents of commercially fished 492 species, including dolphin-fish, for which O. inflatus is the favoured prey of immature 493 adults (Richter, 1982), spiny lobsters (Wang et al., 2014), bluefin tuna (Dragovich, 494 1970) and Pacific salmon (Nomura & Davis, 2005). In the East China Sea there is a 495 link between high abundances of atlantids and the migration routes of mackerel, 496 suggesting that atlantids are important to fisheries in the area (Xu & Li, 2005). In a 497 study of the stomach contents of longnose lancetfish in the Central Pacific, Moteki et 498 al. (1993) reported heteropods (15.45% of prey individuals) to be the third most 499 important prey after crustaceans and fish. Of these, the atlantids (*Atlanta* sp. and O. 500 inflatus) made up 0.59% of the total prey individuals, which is comparable with the 501 number of pteropods found (0.76%). While atlantids are known to be an important 502 food source for planktivorous reef fish, they may also act as vectors of dinoflagellate 503 toxins and as hosts of parasites detrimental to commercially important species of fish 504 (Newman, 1990b).

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BIOGEOGRAPHY

508 With the caveats that there are still large areas of the oceans for which no data are 509 available and that species identification can be subjective, available data (Fig. 5) largely support a warm-water distribution of atlantids as indicated by ThiriotQuiévreux (1973), de Vera & Seapy (2006) and de Vera *et al.* (2006). No detailed
biogeographical data were found for *Atlanta fragilis* (Richter, 1993; Seapy, 2011).
Most species live mainly in the circumglobal warm-water region (Figs 5, 6), although
around two-thirds show rare occurrences within transitional zones and cold-water
regions.

516

517 Although there are few records of atlantids living in cold-water regions (Fig. 5), the Late Pleistocene fossil record demonstrates that they can be common in cold waters 518 519 (Wall-Palmer et al., 2014). During the LGM in the Mediterranean Sea, when sea 520 surface temperatures were 7-10 °C (Sbaffi et al., 2001; Hayes et al., 2005), atlantids 521 accounted for up to 17% of holoplanktic gastropod individuals (Wall-Palmer et al., 522 2014). Howard *et al.* (2011) identified a small number (13 individuals at two stations) 523 of Atlanta gaudichaudi (Fig. 5) from vertical net hauls south of Tasmania, just within 524 the Subantarctic zone of the Southern Ocean (furthest south 44°53'S, 142°59'E). 525 Atlantids have been found in this region during consecutive years (D. Roberts, pers. 526 comm., July 2013), indicating that this is likely to be a longterm population. 527 Pilkington (1970) also found heteropods, identified as A. helicinoidea, to be common 528 and even abundant in plankton hauls off Taiaroa Head, New Zealand (45°46'12"S, 529 170°53'24"E). Vane (1961) and Vane & Colebrook (1962) discovered a number of 530 atlantid species living off the west coast of the British Isles during the summer 531 months, up to 57°N, but only identified A. peronii to species level.

532

Atlanta californiensis is thought to prefer colder waters, being largely restricted to the
cold California Current, from southern California to British Columbia (Seapy &
Richter, 1993; Cummings & Seapy, 2003). However, Moreno-Alcántara *et al.* (2014)
recently found that *A. californiensis* also lives in the warmer waters of the Pacific
Ocean off southern Mexico, suggesting a tolerance to a wide range of surface water
conditions.

539

540 From the collated data (Fig. 5) it is not possible to determine temperature ranges for

541 each species, but some geographical patterns can be seen. Nearly half of the species

542 (A. brunnea, A. gaudichaudi, A. helicinoidea, A. inclinata, A. lesueurii, A. meteori, A.

543 peronii, Oxygyrus inflatus and Protatlanta souleyeti) show a cosmopolitan, global

distribution, occurring in the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans. The majority of the
species (11 of 21) show a more restricted distribution and nine of these have not been
recorded from the Atlantic Ocean, although some rare species, such as *A. rosea* and *A.*

- 547 *tokiokai*, are likely to have a wider distribution than the data indicate.
- 548

549 The most restricted distribution is displayed by A. californiensis, which has only been 550 reported along the west coast of North America, from Mexico to British Columbia 551 (Fig. 5). However, this species has only recently been described and its occurrence 552 may not have been identified in earlier studies (Seapy & Richter, 1993). A second 553 species with a very restricted distribution, A. fragilis, has only been found in the 554 tropical waters of the central Atlantic Ocean (Richter, 1993; Seapy, 2011). A species 555 of the cosome pteropod, Cuvierina cancapae, is also known to be confined to the 556 tropical Atlantic Ocean (Burridge et al., 2015), so A. fragilis may genuinely be 557 confined to this small geographical area. However, A. fragilis has very similar 558 morphological features to A. peronii and may have been misidentified elsewhere.

559

560 The occurrence of the most recently described species, A. selvagensis, was believed to 561 be restricted to the eastern Atlantic Ocean. However, in a recent review of A. inflata 562 and A. selvagensis, two species with similar shell morphology, Janssen & Seapy 563 (2009) showed that A. inflata is restricted to the Pacific Ocean, while all specimens 564 previously identified as A. inflata in the Atlantic and Indian Oceans are A. 565 selvagensis, thus broadening the range of the latter. In addition to the tropical and 566 subtropical distribution described by Seapy (2011) for these two species, they are also 567 found within cooler transitional waters (Figs 5, 6).

568

569 The remaining species, *A. turriculata*, *A. frontieri*, *A. echinogyra*, *A. gibbosa* and *A. plana* have been reported only in the Indian and Pacific Oceans (Fig. 4). *Atlanta oligogyra* was previously thought to have a global distribution, but the data show that it is also restricted to Indo-Pacific waters.

573

574 Shelf vs open ocean

575 There are a number of conflicting findings on the preference of atlantids for onshore 576 (neritic) and offshore (oceanic) waters. While some studies have found no preference 577 (Frontier, 1973a, b; Mathew *et al.*, 1990), most have shown a difference between the 578 abundances of atlantids in neritic and oceanic waters. Frontier (1966, 1973a, b) found 579 that although adult A. gaudichaudi showed no preference of water depth, the more 580 abundant juveniles preferred neritic waters and that, as a result, species richness and 581 abundances generally decreased from the shelf to the open ocean. This trend was also 582 reported by Van der Spoel (1996), who suggested that heteropods avoid the central 583 areas of oceans. However, a number of studies have revealed the opposite trend, with 584 increased abundance in oceanic waters. Seapy (2008) showed heteropods to be consistently more abundant at offshore stations (up to 15 nmi from the coast) than 585 586 more coastal stations (less than 1 nmi) in southwest Oahu, Hawaii. Similarly, 587 Ossenbrügger (2010) found heteropod abundances to be higher in the open ocean than 588 on the flanks of a seamount in the Cape Verde Islands. Grice & Hart (1962) reported 589 atlantids to be almost absent from coastal waters in the eastern Atlantic, with only a 590 single species (P. souleveti) in the neritic zone and 11 heteropod species in the 591 oceanic Gulf Stream and Sargasso Sea. To the west of the British Isles A. peronii 592 generally inhabits offshore waters over 180 m (Vane, 1961). These varying trends 593 may be due to onshore and offshore currents, which strongly influence the position 594 and abundance of atlantids. There could also be stage- and species-specific 595 preferences for water depth. For instance, Newman (1990a) found veligers of A. 596 gaudichaudi to be more abundant closer to the shore, whereas adults of the same 597 species showed a preference for the deeper, open ocean.

598

599 In summary, the overall geographical area sampled for atlantids is still relatively 600 small and much research is still required on atlantid biogeography. Data are currently 601 not available for large areas of the southern Atlantic Ocean, southern Indian Ocean 602 and much of the Pacific Ocean. There are also very few records for subpolar and polar 603 waters (which may be because atlantids do not live in these areas). Most species have 604 geographically restricted distributions, so it is important that all areas of the ocean are 605 sampled. Improved sampling techniques and species identification will also reveal 606 more accurate distributions.

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NEXT STEPS

610 We suggest that the most pressing needs in atlantid research are in the basic, but 611 fundamental areas of taxonomy, sampling techniques, vertical distributions and biogeography. Understanding these key areas will facilitate subsequent research on
the response of atlantids to environmental changes, the importance of atlantids in the
ocean foodweb and their significance to commercially fished species.

615

616 The improvement and updating of atlantid taxonomy is the most important priority. 617 The development of combined molecular and morphological identification (e.g. 618 Burridge et al., 2015) will improve the quantity and quality of data on atlantids. In 619 addition to the detailed scanning electron microscopy images of atlantids that are 620 already available (e.g. Seapy, 2011; Janssen, 2012c), new methods should be 621 considered, such as microCT imaging, which allows interactive examination of virtual 622 specimens. Advances in DNA barcoding and application of molecular methods for 623 identifying species boundaries are also extremely important for improving atlantid 624 taxonomy, to determine whether morphological variations indicate different species 625 or variation within a species.

626

The second priority for future research is the improvement of sampling techniques. The use of larger-aperture nets reduces net-avoiding behaviour (McGowan & Fraundorf, 1966; Seapy, 1990a). Capture of atlantids will also be improved by adopting techniques used to catch small, fast-swimming fish (such as using slightly larger-mesh nets, up to 500 μ m), sampling with horizontal net tows rather than vertical net hauls and by using faster towing speeds.

633

634 Determining the geographic ranges, depth distributions and migration behaviour of 635 atlantids should also be considered as an important part of improving sampling 636 techniques, so that nets can more accurately target the optimum depth and time of 637 day. Discovering the vertical distribution of atlantids will involve a combination of 638 stratified net collections, shell geochemistry and field observations. Knowledge of the 639 biogeography, vertical distributions and migration behaviour of atlantids is also 640 crucial to understanding their environmental requirements. This information will be 641 fundamental to predicting how atlantids will be affected by global environmental 642 changes. For example, it has been suggested that shelled pteropods that exhibit diel 643 migration may be more resistant to the effects of ocean acidification (Maas et al., 644 2012) and this could also be true of atlantids. New information of ecology and 645 biogeography will also improve our interpretation of the rich fossil record of atlantids,

646	providing insights into their evolutionary history and past responses to global			
647	changes.			
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651				
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1178	TABLES
1179	
1180	Table 1. List of all extant and extinct species of Atlantidae
1179 1180 1181 1182 1183 1184 1185 1186 1187 1188 1189 1190 1191 1192 1193 1194 1195 1196 1197 1198 1199 1200 1201 1202 1203 1204 1205 1206	Table 1. List of all extant and extinct species of AtlantidaeAtlanta brunnea Gray, 1850Atlanta californiensis Seapy & Richter, 1993Atlanta cordiformis Gabb, 1873*Atlanta diamesa Woodring, 1828*Atlanta echinogyra Richter, 1972Atlanta fragilis Richter, 1993Atlanta frontieri Richter, 1993Atlanta gaudichaudi Gray, 1850Atlanta nelicinoidea Gray, 1850Atlanta inclinata Gray, 1850Atlanta inglata Gray, 1850Atlanta lingayanensis Janssen, 2007*Atlanta neteori Richter, 1972Atlanta seguy a Tesch, 1906Atlanta plana Richter, 1972Atlanta richteri Janssen, 2007*Atlanta selvagensis de Vera & Seapy, 2006Atlanta soluta (Di Geronimo, 1974)*Atlanta tokiokai Van der Spoel & Troost, 1972Atlanta turriculata d'Orbigny, 1836Bellerophina minuta (Sowerby, 1814)*
1207	Oxygyrus inflatus Benson, 1835
1208 1209 1210	Protatianta koiraensis janssen, 2012* Protatlanta rotundata (Gabb, 1973)* Protatlanta souleyeti (Smith, 1888)
1211	Asterisk indicates extinct taxa.
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Table 2. Factors affecting seasonal abundances, compiled from published literature.

Location	Seasons during which	Attributed reason	References
	atlantids are most		
	abundant		
Gulf of Naples	Early spring and autumn	Seasonal vertical convection	Richter, 1968
San Pedro	Summer	California current and	Cummings &
Basin,		Southern California eddy	Seapy, 2003
California			
East China Sea	Summer and Autumn	Water temperature related to	Xu & Li, 2005
		shifting Taiwan warm	Xu, 2007
		current.	
West of UK	August to October	Water currents	Vane &
			Colebrook, 1962
Bay of Bengal	November and December,	Monsoonal changes	Mathew et al.,
	premonsoonal		1990
Arabian Sea	November and December,	Monsoonal changes	Mathew et al.,
	postmonsoonal		1990
Nosy-Bé,	December to May	Wet season	Frontier, 1973a,
Madagascar			1973b
Great Barrier	Summer months	None given	Newman, 1990a
Reef, Australia			
Gulf of Mexico	A. selvagensis May	None given	Lemus-Santana
	A. gaudichaudi November		<i>et al.</i> , 2014
Banyuls-Sur-	March to December, but	None given	Thiriot-
Mer	some species all year		Quiévreux, 1970
Castellón	June to August	None given	Vives, 1966
Oahu, Hawaii	April	None given	Seapy, 2008

1224 FIGURE CAPTIONS



Figure 1. Living heteropods (photographs taken by K.T.C.A. Peijnenburg and E.
Goetze during the Atlantic Meridional Transect cruise, AMT22). A. Atlanta *helicinoidea* with eye type c (Seapy & Richter, 1993). B, C. A. peronii with eye type
b. D–F. Scanning electron microscopy images. D. A. turriculata. E. A. selvagensis. F. *Protatlanta souleyeti*. Scale bars = 200 µm. Abbreviations: o, operculum; su, sucker
used in predation.

	Atlanta brunnea group	🗖 Atlanta brunnea
		∟ Atlanta turriculata
		<i>⊢Atlanta inflata</i>
	Atlanta inflata group	<i>Atlanta helicinoide</i> a
		<i>Atlanta californiensis</i>
		<i>Atlanta selvagensis</i>
	Atlanta lesueurii group	<i>⊢Atlanta lesueurii</i>
4.1		└─Atlanta oligogyra
Atlanta	4	<i>⊢Atlanta peronii</i>
	Atlanta peronii group	–Atlanta fragilis
		–Atlanta rosea
		∟ <i>Atlanta frontieri</i>
	Atlanta gaudichaudi group	<i>⊢Atlanta gaudichaudi</i>
		Atlanta plana
		∟ <i>Atlanta echinogyra</i>
	Atlanta inclinata group	Atlanta inclinata
	Atlanta gibboga group	-Atlanta tokiokai
	Allania globosa gloup	Allanta gibbosa
		-Allania meleori
Protatla	nta	— Protatlanta souleyeti
Oxygyru	S	— Oxygyrus inflatus

- 1236 Figure 2. Hypothesized organisation of the extant species of the family Atlantidae,
- 1237 based on shell morphology (after Seapy, 2011).



1240 Figure 3. The known biostratigraphy of all extinct and extant atlantid species

1241 compiled from published literature.



Figure 4. Summary of atlantid migrations over 24-h cycle, compiled from published
literature (Oberwimmer, 1898; Lalli & Gilmer, 1989; Seapy, 1990b; Michael &
Michael, 1991; Seapy & Richter, 1993; Ossenbrügger, 2010). Larval atlantids exhibit
a 'saw-tooth' nocturnal migration with two periods at the surface. Adults of large
atlantid species also show a nocturnal migration from deeper waters to the surface.
Adults of smaller atlantid species live in shallower waters and do not migrate.



1254 Figure 5. Distributions of 20 atlantid species compiled from published literature (Smith, 1888; Vayssière, 1904; Schiemenz, 1911; Tesch, 1906, 1910, 1949; 1255 1256 Bonnevie, 1920; Tokioka, 1955a, b; Ralph, 1957; Furnestin, 1961; Taki & Okutani, 1257 1962; McGowan & Fraundorf, 1966; Evans, 1968; Richter, 1968, 1974; Pilkington, 1258 1970; Thiriot-Quiévreux, 1970; Frontier, 1973a, b; Grossman, 1986; Sanchez-Hidalgo 1259 y Anda, 1989; Newman, 1990a, b; Seapy, 1990a, b; Lozano Soldevilla & Hernández 1260 Hernández, 1991; Michel & Michel, 1991; Hernández et al., 1993; Seapy & Richter, 1261 1993; Aravindakshan & Stephen, 1996; Cruz, 1998; González, 1998; Castellanos &

- 1262 Suarez-Morales, 2001; Cummings & Seapy, 2003; Çevik et al., 2006; Seapy et al.,
- 1263 2003; de Vera et al., 2006; Xu, 2007; de Vera & Seapy, 2006; Ayon et al., 2008;
- 1264 Seapy, 2008; Ossenbrügger, 2010; Angulo-Campillo et al., 2011; Howard et al.,
- 1265 2011; Lemus-Santana et al., 2014; Moreno-Alcántara et al., 2014).
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- 1269 Figure 6. Zooplankton biogeographical provinces, modified from Oliver & Irwin
- 1270 (2008).